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Progress and Perspectives of Electrochemical CO₂ Reduction on Copper in Aqueous Electrolyte

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ABSTRACT: To date, copper is the only heterogeneous catalyst that has shown a propensity to produce valuable hydrocarbons and alcohols, such as ethylene and ethanol, from electrochemical CO₂ reduction (CO₂R). There are variety of factors that impact CO₂R activity and selectivity, including the catalyst surface structure, morphology, composition, the choice of electrolyte ions and pH, and the electrochemical cell design. Many of these factors are often intertwined, which can complicate catalyst discovery and design efforts. Here we take a broad and historical view of these different aspects and their complex interplay in CO₂R catalysis on Cu, with the purpose of providing new insights, critical evaluations, and guidance to the field with regard to research directions and best practices. First, we describe the various experimental probes and complementary theoretical methods that have been used to discern the mechanisms by which products are formed, and next we present our current understanding of the complex reaction networks for CO₂R on Cu. We then analyze two key methods that have been used in attempts to alter the activity and selectivity of Cu: nanostructuring and the formation of bimetallic electrodes. Finally, we offer some perspectives on the future outlook for electrochemical CO₂R.

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1. INTRODUCTION

There is a pressing need to advance the development of CO2 utilization technologies such as electrochemical CO2 reduction (CO2R); as a result, this has been a rapidly expanding field of research in recent years. In particular, there is a large body of work on copper (Cu) materials for this reaction, since Cu is, as of yet, unique in its ability to catalyze the electrochemical conversion of CO2 to valuable fuels and chemicals. While many a great review and perspective articles have been published in this area, they have typically had a more narrow focus in terms of either timespan or topics covered.1–21 Here we aim to provide an organized and comprehensive review of CO2R on copper and the multitude of approaches that have been used to tune its catalytic activity and selectivity. The scope strives to include all studies of electrochemical CO2R in aqueous electrolytes on Cu-based catalysts, beginning with many of the early works in the 1980s–1990s through those published in 2018, and it takes into consideration both experimental and theoretical methods, planar and nanostructured Cu, and Cu modified with other elements. This work is also a perspective in which we critically analyze the literature in attempts to normalize/compare the various results and show general trends throughout the field. Additionally, we suggest several techniques and protocols that can allow for more reliable comparisons, enable a more fundamental understanding of the catalysis, and help drive this technology toward commercialization. This section first provides a broad context by summarizing anthropogenic carbon streams, comparing different strategies to recycle CO2, and touching upon the economics of electrochemical CO2 conversion. Then, planar polycrystalline copper is introduced as a unique electrocatalyst for this reaction, which will serve as the basis for all the discussions that follow.

1.1. Motivation for CO2 Recycling

At the core of biological metabolism is the ability to convert carbon between different oxidation states in order to store and release energy, as well as to synthesize functional molecules. Likewise, the oxidation of carbon is at the center of human civilization’s collective “industrial metabolism” consisting of our energy infrastructure and chemical industry. Whereas in biological metabolism, reduction of CO2 in photosynthesis balances the oxidation of carbon in cellular respiration, carbon reduction is as of yet a missing piece of humanity’s industrial metabolism. This imbalance has become a significant perturbation to Earth’s natural carbon cycle, as indicated in the top two sections of Table 1. The resulting accumulation of the greenhouse gas CO2 in the atmosphere is the primary driver of today’s climate change.22 While the Paris Climate Accord commits signatories to the goal of achieving “a balance between anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of greenhouse gases in the second half of this century”,23 it leaves it to individual nations to volunteer the specifics of how to achieve this goal. The problem is urgent: net CO2 emissions need to decrease rapidly and cross zero around the year 2050 if global warming is to be limited to the relatively safe level of 1.5 °C above preindustrial levels.24 Strategies to reduce net CO2 emissions fall under three categories: decarbonization, carbon sequestration, and carbon recycling, all three of which will most likely need to play a role. This Review will focus in-depth on the scientific progress and challenges of carbon recycling based on electrochemical CO2 reduction on Cu catalysts. For context, we will first briefly comment on decarbonization and carbon sequestration, as well as the other major CO2 recycling strategies.

1.1.1. Closing the Carbon Cycle. Significant progress is presently being made in decarbonization. Economic growth is increasingly decoupled from energy consumption and from CO2 emissions (Figure 1),25–27 electricity from renewable sources such as wind turbines and photovoltaics is increasing in volume and decreasing in price,28 private investment in renewable energy is outpacing investment in fossil fuels,29 and global annual CO2 emissions are plateauing.25 However,
significant challenges remain for full decarbonization. First, renewable energy sources such as wind and solar are variable and produce electrical power, which has to be utilized immediately or stored. While a number of energy storage technologies exist, including pumped hydro, compressed air, batteries, redox flow batteries, and flywheels, they all have limitations in terms of scalability, versatility, and/or maximum storage time. As of yet there is no technology in use that could feasibly store enough renewable electricity to power society through a cloudy and windless day. Second, not all energy is easily electriifiable. In transport, especially, which accounts for 44% of global CO2 emissions (middle portion of Table 1), there are clear advantages to energy in the form of liquid fuel. Finally, not all CO2 emissions are due to energy use. The bottom section of Table 1 shows the minimum nonenergy carbon usage of the most important carbon-using industrial processes, calculated as the stoichiometric amount of carbon used or released globally in the production of several key products: cement, steel, plastic, ammonia, and aluminum. Together, these products involve as much carbon as 12% of global carbon emissions. Increased recycling can help to lower this number, and decarbonization may be possible, if difficult, in some of these industries. However, it is clear that industry would continue to have an appetite for carbon even if energy were to be fully decarbonized. In contrast to decarbonization, carbon sequestration is a strategy that accepts some continued net production of CO2 but aims to prevent its release to the atmosphere. There are at present 18 large-scale carbon capture and storage (CCS) projects in operation worldwide, separating about 40 megatonnes of CO2 per year (9.6 MtC/yr), from industrial point sources and storing it underground. This is just under 0.1% of global carbon emissions, but this could in principle be scaled up indefinitely as there are suitable geological formations for the storage of hundreds of years of CO2 at the present emissions rate. In particular, if the carbon stored underground originates from the atmosphere rather than from fossil fuels, as in the case when CO2 resulting from the combustion of biomass is stored, the result is net-negative emissions. This strategy, bioenergy with carbon capture and storage, may provide a viable long-term solution to the problem of CO2 emissions.
storage (BECCS), can provide electricity at the same time as net-negative emissions, and will be necessary for stabilizing the climate in all but the most optimistic projections, but is as of yet largely unused.\textsuperscript{24} Unfortunately for net CO\textsubscript{2} emissions, most existing and planned projects for CCS fall under the category of enhanced oil recovery (EOR), whereby CO\textsubscript{2} is pumped underground to aid in the extraction of additional fossil fuels.\textsuperscript{41} This highlights one of the main challenges with carbon sequestration: the lack of a viable business case. CO\textsubscript{2} separation from a power plant, for example, costs on the order of $60 to $100 USD per ton CO\textsubscript{2} (approximately $200 to $350 USD/tC),\textsuperscript{40} and together with transportation and storage costs, this results in a total increase of more than 25\% in the cost of the electricity generated by a power plant utilizing CCS.\textsuperscript{43} Under existing policies and economics, carbon sequestration is thus rarely economically viable without EOR, which in effect adds value to the CO\textsubscript{2} by using it to facilitate the extraction of additional fossil fuels. The immense potential of CCS, and in particular BECCS, for reducing net carbon emissions will only be realized once regulations make the cost of emitting CO\textsubscript{2} higher than the costs of separation and storage.\textsuperscript{40}

The limitations to full implementation of decarbonization and carbon sequestration outlined above all point to a common missing piece of human civilization’s collective “industrial metabolism”, namely, carbon recycling based on the conversion of CO\textsubscript{2} to more reduced products. CO\textsubscript{2} recycling can enable the storage of renewable electricity from intermittent sources in a dense and versatile form, provide a renewable carbon feedstock to chemical industries, and add value to CO\textsubscript{2} captured at industrial point sources or directly from the air.

### 1.1.2. Strategies for CO\textsubscript{2} Recycling

CO\textsubscript{2} is the most oxidized form of carbon, together with carbonate minerals, with a formal oxidation state of +4. As a result, conversion of CO\textsubscript{2} into a more energetic product involves transfer of electrons to carbon, reducing its oxidation state. The family of reactions by which CO\textsubscript{2} is converted to a more reduced product is most often called CO\textsubscript{2} reduction. These reactions are also often referred to as CO\textsubscript{2} hydrogenation for thermally driven processes involving reaction with hydrogen (H\textsubscript{2}) or CO\textsubscript{2} fixation in natural photosynthesis and bioinspired catalysis.\textsuperscript{64}

In order for the production and ultimate combustion of CO\textsubscript{2} reduction/hydrogenation products to represent a closed cycle, the ultimate source of electrons and protons for the reduction of CO\textsubscript{2} must be water (H\textsubscript{2}O), as combustion of a hydrogenated carbon product releases H\textsubscript{2}O. CO\textsubscript{2} reduction/hydrogenation/fixation thus follows the overall formula:

\[
x\text{CO}_2 + y\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{product} + z\text{O}_2 \quad \text{CO}_2 \text{recycling reaction (1)}
\]

Natural photosynthesis by plants and other phototrophs fixes a much larger amount of carbon globally than human activity releases (Table 1),\textsuperscript{18,39} so using biomass as a carbon source is an obvious carbon recycling strategy. However, the utility of biobased carbon is limited by the amount of land required. Well-intended markets for transportation biofuels such as ethanol and biodiesel need energy-intensive care (e.g., fertilizers, pesticides, etc.) and have led to deforestation in some cases, thus greatly mitigating or even eliminating any potential CO\textsubscript{2} emissions savings.\textsuperscript{45,46} As mentioned earlier, biomass energy with carbon capture and storage (BECCS) has the potential of achieving net negative emissions; however, the land requirement is immense. Near-term availability of biomass for BECCS in the US, for example, corresponds at most to about 370 MtCO\textsubscript{2}/yr (0.1 GtC/yr), less than 10\% of US emissions.\textsuperscript{47} The picture is similar on a global scale.\textsuperscript{48} High-yield biomass such as short-rotation forestry can yield up to about 800 tC/km\textsuperscript{2}/yr,\textsuperscript{49} meaning that it would require about 14 million square kilometers to offset the present global carbon emissions of 11 GtC/yr. Repurposing this amount of land, about the same area as is used globally for food crop production,\textsuperscript{22} is clearly not feasible. Thus, while important, harnessing the power of natural photosynthesis can only play a limited role in reaching net-zero emissions, leaving room for other CO\textsubscript{2} recycling strategies.

There are pathways in the traditional chemical industry, all thermally activated, that could be used for CO\textsubscript{2} hydrogenation, using H\textsubscript{2} as the reductant.\textsuperscript{50,51} CO\textsubscript{2} can be reduced to carbon monoxide (CO) by the reverse water gas shift reaction:

\[
\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \quad \text{Reverse water gas shift (2)}
\]

If an excess of H\textsubscript{2} is used and the water is condensed out, the product gas is a mixture of H\textsubscript{2} and CO, which is called synthesis gas or syngas. Syngas can be used as the precursor to methane on a Ni catalyst,\textsuperscript{52} to multicolour hydrocarbons on an Fe or Co catalyst,\textsuperscript{53} or to methanol on a Cu/ZnO catalyst.\textsuperscript{54,55} These reactions are called methanation, the Fischer–Tropsch reaction, and methanol synthesis, respectively:

\[
\text{CO} + 3\text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \quad \text{Methanation (3)}
\]
\[
n\text{CO} + (2n + 1)\text{H}_2 \rightarrow n\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2n\text{H}_2 \quad \text{Fischer–Tropsch (4)}
\]

In methanol synthesis, some CO\textsubscript{2} is required in the syngas stream because CO\textsubscript{2} is actually the immediate reactant.\textsuperscript{56} The role of CO\textsubscript{2} is to react with the water released by CO\textsubscript{2} hydrogenation and generate more CO\textsubscript{2} via the water–gas shift (reverse of Reaction 2). The net reaction is

\[
\text{CO} + 2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OH} \quad \text{Water–gas shift plus methanol synthesis (5)}
\]

All of these processes run at high pressures and temperatures; for example, ~100 bar and 250 °C are typical conditions for methanol synthesis, the mildest of the three reactions.\textsuperscript{31} In order for CO\textsubscript{2} hydrogenation by the above reactions to be a renewable process, the hydrogen must come from water splitting using renewable energy:

\[
2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + 2\text{H}_2 \quad \text{Water splitting (6)}
\]

such that the combined reaction is in the form of Reaction 1 above. The water splitting would be driven electrochemically using electrical energy from renewable sources such as wind and solar,\textsuperscript{50,57,58} according to the half-reactions

\[
2\text{H}^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2 \quad \text{H}_2 \text{ Evolution Reaction (HER) at the cathode (7)}
\]
\[
2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 4e^- \quad \text{O}_2 \text{ Evolution Reaction (OER) at the anode (8)}
\]

Compared to hydrogen, carbon-based fuels have the advantages of higher volumetric energy density and greater ease of integration in the present infrastructure (drop-in fuels). Furthermore, carbon-based chemicals will still be needed regardless of energy decarbonization.\textsuperscript{59}
Table 2. Electrochemical Reactions with Equilibrium Potentials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reaction</th>
<th>$E^0$/[V vs RHE]</th>
<th>(Product) Name, abbreviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$2H_2O \rightarrow O_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Oxygen Evolution Reaction, OER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow H_2$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Hydrogen Evolution Reaction, HER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$xCO_2 + nH^+ + ne^- \rightarrow product + yH_2O$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow HCOOH(aq)$</td>
<td>$-0.12$</td>
<td>Formic acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow CO(g) + H_2O$</td>
<td>$-0.10$</td>
<td>Carbon monoxide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$CO_2 + 6H^+ + 6e^- \rightarrow CH_3OH(aq) + H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.03$</td>
<td>Methanol, MeOH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$CO_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^- \rightarrow C_2H_4(aq) + 2H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.21$</td>
<td>Graphite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$CO_2 + 8H^+ + 8e^- \rightarrow CH_4(aq) + 2H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.17$</td>
<td>Methane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow (COOH)H(aq)$</td>
<td>$-0.47$</td>
<td>Oxalic acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2CO_2 + 8H^+ + 8e^- \rightarrow CH_3COOH(aq) + 2H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.11$</td>
<td>Acetic acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2CO_2 + 10H^+ + 10e^- \rightarrow CH_2CHOH(aq) + 3H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.06$</td>
<td>Acetaldehyde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2CO_2 + 13H^+ + 12e^- \rightarrow C_2H_5OH(aq) + 3H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.09$</td>
<td>Ethanol, EtOH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2CO_2 + 12H^+ + 12e^- \rightarrow C_3H_7OH(aq) + 4H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.08$</td>
<td>Ethylene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3CO_2 + 16H^+ + 16e^- \rightarrow C_3H_6HCHO(aq) + 5H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.14$</td>
<td>Ethane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2CO_2 + 18H^+ + 18e^- \rightarrow C_2H_5OH(aq) + 5H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.09$</td>
<td>Propionialdehyde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$xCO + nH^+ + ne^- \rightarrow product + yH_2O$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$CO + 6H^+ + 6e^- \rightarrow CH_4(g) + H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.26$</td>
<td>Methane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2CO + 8H^+ + 8e^- \rightarrow CH_3COH(aq) + H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.19$</td>
<td>Ethanol, EtOH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2CO + 8H^+ + 8e^- \rightarrow C_2H_4(aq) + 2H_2O$</td>
<td>$0.17$</td>
<td>Ethylene</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An alternative to CO production by the reverse water–gas shift (Reaction 2) is electrochemical reduction of CO2 to CO:

$$\text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \quad \text{Electrochemical CO production}$$  \(9\)

balanced by the OER (Reaction 8). The electrochemically produced CO can then be reacted further as described above to form hydrocarbons or alcohols from CO2. This combined approach using electroreduction of CO2 in a high-temperature solid-oxide electrolysis cell and subsequent thermal hydrogenation proved especially promising in an analysis of CO2 recycling strategies.60

However, direct electrochemical reduction of CO2 can have a number of advantages compared to hydrogenation of CO2 or CO by electrochemically produced H2.1,2,15,16,44 studies of CO2R electrocatalysis,65 and process/economic analyses for electrochemical CO2 conversion1,2,15,16,44 show some variation due to the use of different potential scales, deprotonated products, and/or different standard states (for instance liquid instead of aqueous).

### 1.2. Electrochemical CO2 Reduction

In electrochemical CO2 reduction, the cathodic reaction is of the general form

$$x\text{CO}_2 + n\text{H}^+ + n\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{product} + y\text{H}_2\text{O} \quad \text{CO2 reduction (CO2R)} \quad (9a)$$

Like in water splitting, the anodic reaction in electrochemical CO2R must be the oxygen evolution reaction (OER, Reaction 8) in order to sum to the overall reaction given by Reaction 1 above. In other words, water is the only renewable and scalable source of electrons and protons.63 In this section, we first discuss the carbon dioxide reduction reaction in general, with a focus on the thermodynamics and economics of reducing CO2 to various products. We then summarize the actual CO2R activity and selectivity of metal electrodes, highlighting the unique ability of copper to reduce CO2 to hydrocarbons and alcohols.

### 1.2.1. Desired Products: Thermodynamics and Economics

Table 2 lists the equilibrium potentials for CO2R to commonly reported electrochemical products. All of the CO2R standard potentials here are calculated via the Gibbs free energy of reaction using gas-phase thermochemistry data and, for aqueous products, Henry’s Law data, from NIST.64 CO2 is always considered a gas, water a liquid, and the state of the product is gas or aqueous as indicated. Regardless of which CO2R product is formed at the cathode, the fact that the CO2R reaction together with OER (Reaction 8) must add to an overall reaction of the form of Reaction 1 means that the stoichiometric coefficients for electrons and protons in a sustained CO2 reduction reaction must be equal. Acidic products are therefore considered in the fully protonated form. Similar tables and lists provided in previous CO2R reviews.1,2,13,15,44 studies of CO2R electrocatalysis,45 and process/economic analyses for electrochemical CO2 conversion1,2,13,45 all show some variation due to the use of different potential scales, deprotonated products, and/or different standard states (for instance liquid instead of aqueous).

As described in detail in subsequent sections of this Review, CO is an important intermediate in CO2R to hydrocarbons, aldehydes, and alcohols on Cu, and a promising approach to CO2R is a stepwise one via CO, in which CO reduction (COR) is an important reaction in its own right.70 The equilibrium potentials for CO reduction to a few products are therefore also included in this table, and an equation relating...
CO reduction equilibrium potential to CO$_2$ reduction equilibrium potential is given in section 1 of the Supporting Information (SI).

We recommend reporting and using potentials on the thermodynamically relevant and pH-independent RHE scale for all calculations of overpotential and energetic e.
thermodynamically relevant and pH-independent RHE scale
Information (SI).

While the equilibrium potentials of CO$_2$ reduction to hydrocarbons, aldehydes, and alcohols are slightly positive of RHE, their direct electrochemical production still requires significant energy input, as the minimum possible potential to drive the overall reaction (i.e., the difference between the CO$_2$R equilibrium potential and the equilibrium potential of OER) is larger than 1 V. Furthermore, both the OER and CO$_2$R currently require large overpotentials, meaning that a CO$_2$R device will run at a larger cell potential than this thermodynamic potential. Nonetheless, the thermodynamic cell potential indicates the minimum energy requirement for a given product, and thus, given a cost of energy, provides a means to estimate the economic viability of a product. More thorough techno-economic analyses have also been performed, which include capital and operational costs as well as assumptions about the overpotential and Faradaic efficiency of the desired CO$_2$ reduction reaction.

Figure 2 shows a simple mapping of the economics and energetics of possible CO$_2$ reduction products. The approximate market price of selected possible CO$_2$ reduction products are plotted against the minimum energy needed for their production by CO$_2$R balanced with OER. The marker size indicates the (logarithmic) size of the global market, which spans more than 4 orders of magnitude. All economic quantities are normalized to the mass of carbon. The dashed and dotted lines indicate the minimum cost of production given a captured CO$_2$ price of $200/tC and an electricity price of $50/MWh or $20/MWh, respectively. $200/tC is a representative price for carbon captured from a power plant. $50/MWh is representative of recent solar installations. Current record lows for solar installation are around $20/MWh, which will likely become more common in the future. Products above the line for a given CO$_2$ capture cost and electricity cost may be economically feasible depending on capital and other costs, which are not considered here, but are in other analyses. Products below the line are not economically feasible. Direct air capture is estimated to cost $2000/tC with current technologies, which would push the lines up above nearly all products, though this will likely come down in the future. Taxes on carbon emissions push the effective price of captured CO$_2$ down, since capturing CO$_2$ avoids the tax. The raw data, sources, and calculations are given in section 2 of the SI. For a more full picture, we refer the reader to techno-economic analyses of CO$_2$ reduction in the literature.

Despite its simplicity, Figure 2 captures a widely shared conclusion: CO$_2$ reduction to specialty chemicals such as formic acid (0.2 MTC$/yr^{74}$) and propanol (0.1 MTC$/ yr^{69}$) give a better chance of near-term economic feasibility, whereas making an impact on the GtC/year scale relevant for global climate change will likely require renewable production of fuels competitive with the likes of coal (4 GtC/$yr^{22}$) and natural gas (1.4 GtC/$yr^{75}$). This is not feasible in the near term, as coal and natural gas are cheaper than the minimum energy required to synthesize them from CO$_2$ even at $20/ MWh$.

Ethylene (120 MTC$/yr^{76}$) and ethanol (40 MTC$/yr^{69}$) represent promising compromises between profitable niche market and impactful mass market for CO$_2$ reduction. Ethylene is produced on a large scale as a precursor for plastics and ethylene glycol in a highly energy-demanding and unselective process involving repeated cycles of steam cracking at 750–950 °C followed by quenching, distillation, and recompression. At an electricity price of $50 USD/ MWh, it is worth about twice as much as the minimum energy input, with a global market about 100 times larger than the specialty chemicals. Ethanol is a fuel with high volumetric energy density that can be substituted for fossil fuels in the transport industry with minimal modifications, and thus represents a market with high growth potential. Ethanol is produced primarily as a biofuel today, and is sold for a price much higher than the minimum energy required for its production by CO$_2$R at $50/MWh$. Ethylene and ethanol are both major products in CO$_2$ and CO electroreduction on copper, as described below.

1.2.2. Copper as a Unique Electrocatalyst. Studies of electrochemical CO$_2$ reduction date back to at least the 1950s. The first study to quantify both gaseous and liquid products, and thus account for 100% of Faradaic efficiency, was reported by Yoshio Hori and co-workers in 1985. In this study, constant-current electrolysis of CO$_2$-saturated 0.5 M KHCO$_3$ at 5 mA cm$^{-2}$ (geometric) was performed for up to an hour as a batch experiment on a number of polycrystalline metal electrodes. This and subsequent studies utilizing basically the same methods led to a classification of metal electrodes into four groups: Pb, Hg, Tl, In, Sn, Cd, and Bi, primarily formate ($HCOO^-$); Au, Ag, Zn, Pd, and Ga, primarily carbon monoxide (CO$_2$); Ni, Pd, Pt, and Ti, reduce very little CO$_2$ and instead almost exclusively reduce water to H$_2$; and Cu stands out in uniquely producing a number of hydrocarbons, aldehydes, and alcohols. Cu is thus the only pure metal that reduces CO$_2$ to products requiring more than two electrons transfers (collectively referred to as “further reduced products” or “$>2e^-$ products”) with substantial Faradaic efficiencies. These results are summarized in Table 3, adapted from Hori’s 2008 review of CO$_2$ reduction on metal electrodes.
Table 3. Faradaic Efficiencies of CO₂ Reduction Products on Metal Electrodes in CO₂-Saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ (pH = 6.8)α

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metal</th>
<th>E [V vs RHE]</th>
<th>j_total [mA/cm² geo]</th>
<th>CH₄ [%]</th>
<th>C₂H₄ [%]</th>
<th>EtOH [%]</th>
<th>PrOH [%]</th>
<th>CO [%]</th>
<th>HCOO⁻ [%]</th>
<th>H₂ [%]</th>
<th>Total [%]</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pb</td>
<td>−1.24</td>
<td>−5.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hg</td>
<td>−1.12</td>
<td>−5.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ti</td>
<td>−1.21</td>
<td>−5.0</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>95.1</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In</td>
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<td>−5.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sn</td>
<td>−1.09</td>
<td>−5.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>88.4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cd</td>
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<td>1.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Au</td>
<td>−0.65</td>
<td>−5.0</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>Ag</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>81.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zn</td>
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<td>−5.0</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>79.4</td>
<td>6.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pd</td>
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<td>2.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cu</td>
<td>−1.05</td>
<td>−5.0</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>20.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ni</td>
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<td>−5.0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>92.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe</td>
<td>−0.52</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pt</td>
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<td>−5.0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>95.7</td>
<td>95.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ti</td>
<td>−1.21</td>
<td>−5.0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>99.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

αThe potential has been converted from the reported SHE potential to the RHE scale [T=18.5 °C, pH=6.8] by adding (RT/F)ln(10)pH = 0.39 V.

Note that in all cases, a significant overpotential is required to reach the specified current density, usually ~5 mA/cm². The largest overpotentials are required by the formate-producing metals, which also typically show very high CO₂R Faradaic efficiencies (for example, 97% of ~5 mA/cm² for Pb at ~1.23 V vs RHE, an overpotential of 1.1 V) due to very low HER activity. The smallest overpotential for CO₂R is achieved by Au, which produces CO with high Faradaic efficiency, 87% of ~5 mA/cm² at ~0.7 V vs RHE, an overpotential of 0.6 V. Copper uniquely produces a variety of hydrocarbon and oxygenated products at an intermediate potential ~1.04 V vs RHE (e.g., an overpotential of 0.9 V for CO₂R to CO and an overpotential of 1.2 V for CO₂R to methane). Note also that these results, by measuring CO₂ reduction selectivity for each electrode at only one current density, effectively provide only a snapshot, as CO₂ reduction selectivity can change with conditions and electrode potential.

The splitting of the metals into these four groups based on their selectivity has been explained as the result of their binding energy to key CO₂R and HER intermediates, including *H, *OCHO (bound to the surface through O), *COOH (bound to the surface through C), and *CO.α The unique ability of Cu to reduce CO₂ to >2e⁻ products may be due to the fact that it is the only metal that has a negative adsorption energy for *CO but a positive adsorption energy for *H, as shown in Figure 3.

After the previously mentioned constant-current electrolysis experiments to compare different metal electrodes, Hori and co-workers also performed constant-potential electrolysis experiments on Cu in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ (pH = 6.8), the most common electrolyte for CO₂ reduction studies, to characterize the CO₂R product distribution as a function of potential.α The results, shown in Figure 4 (hollow markers) span a potential range of ~0.8 to ~1.45 V vs NHE, or approximately ~0.4 to ~1.05 V vs RHE. In order of least cathodic to most cathodic onset potential (which loosely refers to the potential closest to the equilibrium potential at which a product is produced in detectable quantities), the major CO₂ reduction products are CO, HCOO⁻, C₂H₄, and CH₄. CO and HCOO⁻ pass through potentials of maximum Faradaic efficiency, and the Faradaic efficiency toward C₂H₄ reaches a plateau by about ~1.0 V vs RHE. Similar conclusions were reached years later by Kuhl et al., electrolysis experiments were performed at potentials between ~0.6 and ~1.2 V vs RHE and, using more sensitive product detection techniques for liquid products, a total of 16 products were observed. These results are coplotted with Hori’s in Figure 4 (filled markers).

The ability to reduce CO₂ to valuable hydrocarbons, aldehydes, and alcohols is of great interest; as a result, there has been much work done in the field to better understand the reactivity of Cu and how it can be tuned to achieve greater selectivity, stability, and efficiency. Thus, the remainder of this work will focus exclusively on Cu and Cu-based electrocatalysts. In the sections that follow, we will discuss experimental probes used to identify CO₂R reaction mechanisms on Cu and the complementary theoretical methods and descriptions of CO₂R. We will then discuss two materials classes that have been studied in attempts to alter the reactivity of planar polycrystalline Cu (nanostructured Cu and bimetals with Cu). Finally, we will provide some overall perspectives and an outlook for the future of CO₂R.
2. CONSIDERATIONS FOR CONDUCTING AND COMPARING ELECTROCHEMICAL CO₂ REDUCTION EXPERIMENTS

Before diving into the results in subsequent sections, we would like to set the stage by discussing some of the difficulties encountered when trying to reliably compare the electrocatalytic behavior of Cu between different electrochemical cells and conditions. For more detailed discussions of these challenges in an objective evaluation of CO₂R performance, we direct the reader to recent perspective articles, which also provide recommendations to help standardize methods for measuring and reporting CO₂R data.

2.1. Reporting Data

First, we would briefly like to discuss the metrics by which electrocatalytic activity and selectivity are reported. The selectivity is most often described in terms of Faradaic efficiency, which is the portion of the electrical current going to a specific product in steady-state electrolysis. The activity for CO₂R to a specific product is described in terms of the overpotential, which is the absolute difference between the actual potential needed to make a product and the thermodynamic potential, or in terms of the partial current density at a given potential, which is the total current times the Faradaic efficiency. A more active catalyst is one that achieves a given partial current density at a lower overpotential, and/or provides a larger partial current density at a given overpotential. A major goal of applied electrocatalysis research is the development of electrode materials and conditions that are selective and active (as well as cheap and stable) for production of desired products. However, understanding the fundamentals of electrocatalysis on simple materials and model systems facilitates the design of better electrodes, and the trade-off between practical application and fundamental insight is important to keep in mind when comparing different works in the field.

An essential consideration is how the measured activity is normalized. The geometric area of the electrode is most commonly used to report the current density. While useful for assessing the overall electrode performance, this metric is inherently dependent on the catalyst loading or surface area. Thus, it is also important to consider the current normalized by the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) of the electrode. This facilitates activity comparisons between catalysts with different roughness factors (RF, defined here as the ratio of ECSA/geometric electrode area), allowing one to determine if higher catalytic activity results from a higher average turnover frequency or simply from an increased number of active sites. There exist a variety of methods in electrocatalysis for determining the ECSA based on capacitance, underpotential deposition (UPD), CO stripping, and redox features that can be employed depending on the surface chemistry and morphology, and the best method varies based on the material studied. So far, only capacitance has found wide use for estimating the ECSA of nanostructured polycrystalline copper electrodes. We emphasize that on any nonplanar surface, the measurement of the ECSA is at best an approximation; consequently, we recommend that researchers take the limitations of each method of determining the ECSA into account when analyzing their data. Furthermore, we would also like to highlight the need for all future work, particularly on nanostructured electrodes, to report the ECSA whenever possible. It is only possible to evaluate whether a novel catalyst represents an improvement in intrinsic activity compared to state-of-the-art materials if the ECSA-normalized activity can be compared with the literature. As will be shown in subsection 6.2.4 and section 7.4, much of the suggested activity improvements in the field can be attributed to increased surface area.

2.2. Intrinsic Kinetics vs Mass Transport Effects

As a consequence of the HER and CO₂R, which deplete protons or (equivalently) produce hydroxide ions, a pH gradient can develop at the electrode surface. This high local pH has several competing effects on these reactions due to a complicated interplay between mass transport, buffer equilibria, and pH, which will be discussed in more detail in subsection 3.3.1. Notably, in the CO₂/bicarbonate system, CO₂ is both a reactant and a buffer, which means that changes in pH near the cathode surface can cause the concentration of dissolved CO₂ to deviate from the concentration in the bulk electrolyte. For planar polycrystalline Cu, it was found that the
reported activity at potentials more cathodic than \(-1\) V vs RHE is strongly influenced by concentration polarization and thus does not represent its true intrinsic activity under bulk pH 6.8 conditions.\(^{96}\) However, this cannot be used as a universal rule of thumb, as the hydrodynamics of the electrochemical cell and the morphology of the catalyst itself can both impact the extent of concentration polarization at a given potential.

Ultimately, since both the HER and CO\(_2\)R produce 1 equivalent of OH\(^-\) for each e\(^-\) transfer (with the exception of the organic anions formate and acetate, for which one less OH\(^-\) is released than electron transferred), changes in interfacial concentrations are primarily a function of the electrolyte and the total geometric current density. This means that nanostructured catalysts with high surface areas will be more susceptible to concentration polarization at lower overpotentials due to the increased activity on a geometric area basis and increased transport requirements within a porous catalyst compared to a planar electrode.\(^{97,98}\) Therefore, caution must be taken when comparing CO\(_2\)R performance between catalysts with very different roughness factors since they will reach mass transport limitations at different rates.

In general, it is critical to ensure sufficient supply of CO\(_2\) to the electrode surface. In aqueous systems, this is accomplished by diffusion of CO\(_2\) through the electrolyte, so it is important that the electrochemical cell is well-mixed in order to maximize the potential window where the reaction is governed by intrinsic reaction kinetics. As one would expect for a diffusion-limited process, it has been shown that the maximum rate of CO\(_2\)R increases with increased mixing due to a decrease in the boundary layer thickness.\(^{99–102}\) Thus, the hydrodynamics of an electrochemical cell will also have a direct effect on the local pH change at the electrode surface. We therefore recommend that researchers quantify the boundary layer thickness, for example, by measuring the diffusion-limited current density for a facile, outer sphere redox reaction such as ferricyanide reduction.\(^{97}\) This will allow for better comparisons between different electrochemical cells and mass transport conditions. Still, as described further in subsection 3.3.1, correcting for mass transport effects in aqueous systems is extremely difficult. As a result, we strongly recommend that conclusions about intrinsic activity and selectivity only be drawn from data that is not impacted by significant concentration polarization so as not to convolute effects of the catalyst properties and the effects of mass transport.

### 2.3. Deactivation of Cu Electrodes

It has been demonstrated that the activity and selectivity of polycrystalline and single crystalline Cu electrodes toward CO\(_2\)R and COR decays over time, although the details vary.\(^{103–117}\) The changes in activity can be tentatively attributed to (i) poisoning by impurities from the experimental setup, (ii) poisoning of the surface with reaction intermediates, and/or (iii) restructuring of the surface under reaction conditions. The latter will be discussed in subsection 3.1.3, as it has been observed with \textit{in situ} methods that the Cu surface structure is dynamic and can reconstruct under reaction conditions. More often, the deactivation is attributed either to deposition of metal contaminants from the electrolyte,\(^{111,113}\) CO\(_2\) stream,\(^{112}\) glassware,\(^{114}\) or counter electrode,\(^{118}\) including Fe,\(^{111,112}\) Zn,\(^{111,113}\) Pb,\(^{113}\) Si,\(^{114}\) and Pt;\(^{118}\) or to poisoning or coking of the surface by (decomposition of) reaction intermediates.\(^{103–110,117}\) Authors have recommended using the highest-purity reagents,\(^{111,112}\) pre-electrolyzing the electrolyte solution,\(^{111}\) and/or removing impurities from the electrolyte with a bed of chelating agent before use\(^{113}\) to minimize the impact of contaminants on the reaction. Additionally, in light of the observation that Pt from the counter electrode can deposit on the working electrode despite separation by an anion exchange membrane, the use of alternate counter electrodes has also been suggested.\(^{37,118}\)

Deactivation does not seem to play as much of a role in high surface area electrodes (this has mechanistic implications that will be discussed in section 5).\(^{37,109,114}\) Finally, it is worth mentioning another technique that has been used to prevent deactivation and/or restore activity for CO\(_2\)R on Cu, namely, anodic pulses or sweeps.\(^{104,108,110,117,119}\) Pulsed electrolysis may allow for anodic stripping of poisoning species from the electrode surface.\(^{110}\) Anodic pulses or sweeps will also likely cause roughening of the electrode and/or oxidation of the Cu surface.\(^{108,117,119,120}\) Gupta et al. modeled the effect of pulsed electroreduction and showed that pulsing causes corresponding swings in local pH and CO\(_2\) concentrations.\(^{99}\) While we cannot say with certainty which of these factors are responsible, it is clear that pulsing or sweeping to anodic potentials has a beneficial impact on maintaining and/or restoring CO\(_2\)R activity on Cu. There have also been several other interesting observations noted when using potential pulsing/sweeping techniques, such as the formation of methanol\(^{122}\) and increased selectivity for the production of C\(_2\) compounds.\(^{100,119,122}\) These results have been attributed to transient changes in the local chemical conditions such as an increased coverage of *OH and an accumulation of CO near the Cu surface, respectively. On the other hand, studies using applied voltage pulses in the millisecond time regime demonstrated that the selectivity on polycrystalline Cu could be shifted entirely to syngas (H\(_2\) and CO), with the ratio of these two products changing with the length of the pulses,\(^{120}\) or to strongly favor CO or CH\(_4\) production.\(^{123}\) Since these pulsed-bias methods have yielded increased selectivities for desirable products in addition to helping prevent deactivation, further work should be done to better understand the mechanisms at play and how they can best be utilized to enhance CO\(_2\)R catalysis.

### 2.4. Deconvolution of Various Effects in Complex Catalysts

In addition to the deactivation mechanisms just discussed, there are a number of other factors that can lead to discrepancies in the catalytic performance of Cu between electrochemical systems. For example, as we will discuss in section 3.3, the choice of electrolyte anions, cations, and pH can have a significant influence on the catalyst performance, so ideally, direct comparisons should only be made between catalysts tested in the same electrolyte. Ultimately, the entire electrochemical system (including catalyst, electrolyte composition and concentration, electrochemical cell geometry and hydrodynamics, membrane composition, and operating conditions) needs to be considered in order to determine if the measured activity and selectivity can be confidently attributed to the properties of the catalyst itself. To ensure that experimental conditions are satisfactory, researchers should benchmark their electrochemical setup by making sure that literature results using a standard electrode material, such as planar polycrystalline Cu, can be reproduced (within the variation typical of the field, as indicated by Figure 4). If this is not the case, any results obtained from more advanced
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materials are not meaningful, as other factors could be impacting the catalysis.

As will be discussed further in sections 6 and 7, different preparation methods can also yield very different CO$_2$R performance for seemingly similar catalysts. Unfortunately, many advanced catalyst designs such as nanostructured and/or bimetallic electrodes are ill-defined, which can make it extremely challenging to deconvolute the influence of different morphological factors that can cause changes in behavior (such as surface faceting, composition, oxidation state, strain, grain boundaries, porosity, etc.). Complex catalysts should preferably be characterized to the greatest extent possible. In general, however, planar and/or well-defined electrodes are best for systematic studies that seek to draw fundamental relationships between activity/selectivity and structure/composition of catalysts. Furthermore, detailed studies as a function of voltage are needed to properly identify when novel catalysts are limited by their intrinsic kinetics rather than a convolution of kinetic and mass transport effects; only reporting data at one potential gives an incomplete picture of the catalyst behavior and can complicate comparisons between different catalysts and/or electrochemical systems.

Another key challenge in this area is the disconnect between ex situ characterization and how catalysts function in situ. This is especially challenging for a highly mobile and readily oxidized material such as Cu. We caution against drawing conclusions about the catalyst under reaction conditions using ex situ measurements alone, since the electrolyte and negative polarization of the cathode can have a significant influence on the catalyst properties. We also urge the continued development of in situ/operando spectroscopic techniques in order to elucidate the true chemical state and structure of active sites during electrochemical CO$_2$R. Not only will this aid in the search for more active and selective catalysts, but this can also provide more useful insights into the reaction mechanisms occurring on the surface on an atomic-scale level.

3. EXPERIMENTAL PROBES OF CO$_2$ REDUCTION MECHANISMS

In section 1.2 we discussed how a large number of $>$2e$^-$ products are formed during CO$_2$R on polycrystalline Cu electrodes. Steering selectivity toward certain products instead of others is therefore an important challenge, and could potentially be done by stabilizing destabilizing key intermediates, making the pathway of the desired product(s) energetically more favorable. Thus, comprehensive mechanistic understanding of CO$_2$R is crucial in order to design more selective catalysts. In this section, various experimental studies aiming to provide mechanistic insight about CO$_2$R on Cu electrodes are presented. This includes measurements on single crystals, further reduction of possible intermediates, and measurements probing the impact of the electrolyte and electrochemical conditions. The key findings will furthermore be the basis of the theoretical descriptions of the processes occurring on Cu surfaces, which will be discussed in detail in section 4. Then, section 5 will bring together the key conclusions from these experimental and theoretical studies and present our current understanding of the complex reaction networks for electrochemical CO$_2$R on Cu.

We would first like to acknowledge a growing area of research that underpins much of the gains in mechanistic understanding: in situ/operando spectroscopies. Development of spectroanalytic techniques, such as X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS), Raman spectroscopy, and various forms of infrared (IR) spectroscopy, has become increasingly important for discerning the catalyst surface structure, composition, and oxidation state under in situ/operando conditions, as well for detecting the presence of adsorbed intermediates during electrochemical CO$_2$R. Therefore, we will highlight relevant studies where they have contributed to mechanistic understanding throughout the different sections of this work.

3.1. Influence of Surface Facet on CO$_2$ and CO Reduction

It is complicated, if not impossible, to derive unambiguously which structural elements present on a polycrystalline catalyst surface are contributing to the observed catalytic activity, since the measured catalytic activity is always a sum of activities resulting from different structures. In a simplified picture, a catalyst surface can consist of planar areas with single crystal orientations and various step and kink sites with low coordination. Further, complex atomic structures could be present at the interface between different grains that are typically observed in polycrystalline materials and/or nanostructured surfaces. Cu single crystal electrodes with preferential orientation are possible model catalysts to investigate the first two of the mentioned structural properties. This includes planar surfaces, such as Cu(111), Cu(100), and Cu(110), as well as higher-index surfaces which can be described as a low-index surface with a certain density of step sites. Single crystal electrodes are ideal systems to draw comparisons with theoretical calculations because methods such as density functional theory (DFT) only probe local phenomena, which should be equally distributed on these atomically flat catalysts. Further, single crystals are also quite useful for studying the influence of other CO$_2$R rate-determining factors such as electrolyte pH, cations, and anions since they provide a well-defined surface structure. Note, however, that single crystals themselves are not viable catalysts for practical applications, due to their low geometric surface area, and the resulting low geometric current densities. Therefore, several groups have synthesized nanostructured materials with preferential faceting and high dispersion, which will be discussed further in section 6. In this section, we describe experimental findings obtained on single-crystal model systems, describe surface reconstructions on Cu, discuss the mechanistic interpretations, and suggest focus areas for future studies.

3.1.1. Influence of Various Cu(hkl) Surfaces on Product Distribution. The electrochemical reduction of CO$_2$ on Cu single crystals has been studied by a variety of methods, including voltammetry (linear potential sweeps), chronocoulometry (constant potential), and chronopotentiometry (constant current). The choice of electrochemical technique depends on the method employed to characterize liquid and gaseous products. For instance, in situ techniques that can monitor the evolution of products in real time, such as differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS), can be coupled with cyclic voltammetry (CV) or other scanning techniques. However, ex situ bulk product analysis, such as chromatography techniques and NMR spectroscopy, need to be coupled with chronoamperometry and/or chronopotentiometry. The choice of technique also depends on whether quantitative information, such as the concentrations of
products formed, is of interest, or if it is sufficient to identify trends between electrodes. Early chronopotentiometric measurements by Frese indicated that, among the three low-index Cu single crystal facets, i.e., Cu(111), Cu(110), and Cu(100), the Cu(111) surface yields the highest CH4 rate and Cu(100) the lowest.158 Further measurements by Hori et al. indicated that Cu(100) surfaces primarily form C2H4 and a somewhat smaller amount of CH4, while Cu(110) and Cu(111) surfaces preferentially form CH4 with very small amounts of C2H4.150 This was later confirmed in follow-up measurements by Hori et al.,154,155 as well as by other research groups.154,155 In a study showing the product distribution over a range of potentials, C2H4 formation set in at a similar or lower overpotential than CH4 formation for all processes.155 This is similar to the trend observed for CO2 reduction studies on stepped Cu single crystal surfaces.151−153

The distribution of gaseous and liquid products is summarized in Table 4. The presence of (111) or (110) steps on Cu(100) surfaces led to significantly enhanced Faradaic efficiency toward alcohols. Their data also indicated that a number of stepped surfaces exist that yield higher C2H4/CH4 ratios compared to the Cu(100) surface, which is the most selective low-index crystal facet for the formation of CH4, as described above. In Figure 5, the C2H4/CH4 ratio is plotted as a function of crystal orientation, clearly illustrating the notion that steps can further enhance the selectivity to C2H4 formation compared to the planar single crystals. Thus, it seems that one approach to improve the selectivity to C2H4 is to engineer Cu electrodes with an increased occurrence of (100) surfaces and optimal occurrence of steps. Indeed, this has been seen in epitaxially grown copper films with a high degree of preferential surface orientation, where films with a preferentially (751)-oriented surface rich in steps with highly undercoordinated sites show high selectivity to C2H4 products and especially oxygenated products.157

### Table 4. Product Distribution in CO2 Reduction at a Series of Copper Single-Crystal Electrodes, Cu(S)−[n(100) × (111)] and Cu(S)−[n(110) × (110)]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crystal orientation</th>
<th>Faradaic efficiency/%</th>
<th>CH4</th>
<th>C2H4</th>
<th>CO</th>
<th>Alc</th>
<th>Ald</th>
<th>HCOOH</th>
<th>H2</th>
<th>C2H4/CH4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Cu(311)</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
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<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu(610)</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
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<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>9.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cu(711)</td>
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<td>8.1</td>
<td>42.3</td>
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<td>5.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu(810)</td>
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<td>12.0</td>
<td>45.1</td>
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<td>7.3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
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<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu(100)</td>
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<td>15.1</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“The measurements were performed by chronopotentiometry at 5 mA cm−2 in 0.1 M KHCO3. The potentials vs RHE were calculated from the Nernst equation, assuming a pH of 6.8 and temperature of 25 °C. Adapted with permission from Hori.1 Copyright 2008, Springer Science Business Media, LLC. The data for Cu(110) is from Hori, 1995.150

![Figure 5. Variation of log(C2H4/CH4) in terms of the current efficiency and the electrode potential with the angle of the crystal orientation with reference of Cu(100). The data for the figure were obtained from Hori et al.153](image-url)
Additional efforts following this direction will be discussed in more detail in section 6.

As discussed later in subsections 3.2.1 and 4.2.2, CO has been identified as a key intermediate in the reduction of CO$_2$ to $>$2e$^-$ products. Thus, to obtain further mechanistic insight about the formation of these compounds, COR has been studied on Cu single crystals.\textsuperscript{162−166} None of these studies quantified the various products formed, making it hard to draw conclusions about Faradaic efficiencies and partial current densities. However, studying the onset potentials for the various products can give an indication of the selectivity toward the different compounds in various potential ranges. In DEMS measurements of various single crystals in phosphate buffer at pH 7, Cu(100) exhibited an earlier onset than Cu(111) and Cu(110) for C$_2$H$_4$.\textsuperscript{166} Further, Cu(100) facilitated little to no CH$_4$ formation at the measured potentials, while Cu(111) gave a similar onset for C$_2$H$_4$ and CH$_4$. Cu(911), which was shown by Hori et al. to be particularly selective toward C$_2$H$_4$, behaves similarly to Cu(100) in this study. In order to gain more conclusive insights about COR on various single crystalline surfaces, further systematic investigations with complete product quantification are required, similar to what has been demonstrated by Hori et al. for CO$_2$ reduction.

Based on the discussion above, it is clear that CO$_2$R measurements on single crystals can yield important information about which surface sites are responsible for the formation of key products. Increasing our understanding of the active surface can aid in the development of highly selective catalyst materials. However, based on the measurements described in the previous paragraphs, it seems clear that more work performing thorough and complete product analysis is necessary before conclusions can be drawn about specific trends. In addition, the reports on nonplanar surfaces indicate that engineering of materials to achieve presence of well-defined steps on the surface can be a valuable design principle for improving selectivity toward C$_2$ products such as C$_2$H$_4$ and alcohols.

3.1.2. Influence of Various Cu(hkl) Surfaces on Activity. As will be discussed in section 4, theoretical studies predict vastly different activity for different crystal facets, rather than just the selectivity
differences described so far. In order to be able to evaluate CO$_2$R activity experimentally, thorough, quantitative product analysis is needed. Additionally, the catalyst needs to be studied under operation conditions, i.e., not experiencing mass transport limitations, as discussed in detail in section 2.2. As a result, only a few of the reports mentioned in the previous subsection can be used to draw conclusions about trends in activity. These studies\textsuperscript{155,155,157} do show slight variations in both overall and CO$_2$R activity depending on orientation, but nothing comparable to the magnitude expected based on computational studies. For example, the study on epitaxially grown Cu thin films reported ~1 order of magnitude higher activity toward C−C coupled products for the highly stepped Cu(751)-oriented surface as compared to the planar Cu(111)-oriented surface.\textsuperscript{157} These results are illustrated in Figure 6. Note that while these electrodes exhibit preferential orientation, they are not truly single crystalline, meaning that they have a certain occurrence of grain boundaries and other undercoordinated defects on the surface. This could explain why the activity of these and other well-defined surfaces do not show as much difference as predicted by theory. Step sites have been identified as the main contributor to the activity of various catalytic systems. For instance, it has been seen in the field of thermally activated catalysis that blocking step sites can have a drastic impact; experiments where the steps of Ru single crystals (~1% of the surface) were blocked led to a reduction in N$_2$ dissociation activity by more than 9 orders of magnitude.\textsuperscript{167} Similarly, a small fraction of step sites have also been suggested to dominate the overall electrochemical CO$_2$/CO reduction activity.\textsuperscript{168} Thus, even a small quantity of existing defects or step sites formed in situ (vide infra) could be dominating the activity of these otherwise single crystalline electrodes.

3.1.3. Restructuring and Other Challenges Regarding Single Crystal Measurements. As described above, single crystal measurements can be highly useful to study the CO$_2$R activity and selectivity of various structures. However, one must be cautious because the quality and consistency of single crystal studies are sensitive to a number of factors, discussed herein. Hori et al. described in detail how the reproducibility of CO$_2$R measurements on Cu(110) and Cu(111) single crystals strongly depends on the pretreatment of the electrodes.\textsuperscript{152} Although the structural properties of the bulk are well-defined, the homogeneity of the surface can vary depending on the pretreatment. One possible factor could be the formation of oxides during the preparation and transfer to the electrochemical cell. A partially oxidized surface, which is reduced in the actual electrochemical cell, could lead to an irreversible reconstruction of the Cu surface, a phenomenon that for example has been shown in detail for Pt electrodes.\textsuperscript{169,170} This effect has also been intentionally exploited to prepare nanostructured electrodes in a number of studies, as discussed in subsection 6.2.1. As a result of the oxidation occurring upon exposure to ambient air, Hori and co-workers do not rule out that the final electrodes might be textured with defect sites, which could have a large influence on the measured electrocatalytic activity of the electrodes, as we just discussed. However, they probed the surface structure only by the use of CV, which can give indicative but not conclusive evidence.

Surface probe techniques, such as scanning tunneling microscopy (STM), can image the surface with excellent resolution to evaluate whether defect sites are present. It is important to keep in mind that only small fractions of the electrode surface are probed with this type of technique, so the resulting image may therefore not provide a representative indication of the whole surface. Nonetheless, STM can give a
good impression of the defect density for various types of electrodes. In Figure 7, STM images are shown from 4 different preferentially oriented electrodes, spanning 3 preparation procedures and 4 measurement conditions. Figure 7a shows an STM image of a Cu(100) single crystal that was prepared by annealing under ultrahigh vacuum (UHV) and transferred to the characterization chamber without being exposed to oxygen. The crystal exhibits large terraces and a relatively small amount of defects on the surface. In comparison, in situ STM images of electropolished Cu(111) single crystal at −0.6 V (vs pseudoreference) in PO4 buffer. Inset: 9.5 nm × 9.5 nm image of the same surface. Reprinted with permission from Schlaup et al.172 Copyright 2012, Elsevier B.V. (c) 200 nm × 200 nm in situ STM image of electropolished Cu(100) single crystal at −0.9 V vs SHE. Inset: 2 nm × 2 nm image of the same surface. Adapted with permission from Kim et al.173 Copyright 2016, Springer Science Business Media New York. (d) 100 nm × 100 nm in situ STM image of epitaxially grown Cu(100) film at −0.24 V vs RHE in 0.1 M HClO4. Inset: 5 nm × 5 nm image of the same surface. Reprinted with permission from Hahn et al.157

Figure 7. STM images of various oriented surfaces. (a) 700 nm × 700 nm STM image of ultrahigh vacuum prepared Cu(100) single crystal. Inset: 4 nm × 4 nm image of the same surface. Reproduced with permission from Engstfeld et al.171 Copyright 2018, John Wiley and Sons. (b) 114 nm × 114 nm in situ STM image of electropolished Cu(111) single crystal at −0.6 V (vs pseudoreference) in PO4 buffer. Inset: 9.5 nm × 9.5 nm image of the same surface. Reprinted with permission from Schlaup et al.172 Copyright 2012, Elsevier B.V. (c) 200 nm × 200 nm in situ STM image of electropolished Cu(100) single crystal at −0.9 V vs SHE. Inset: 2 nm × 2 nm image of the same surface. Adapted with permission from Kim et al.173 Copyright 2016, Springer Science Business Media New York. (d) 100 nm × 100 nm in situ STM image of epitaxially grown Cu(100) film at −0.24 V vs RHE in 0.1 M HClO4. Inset: 5 nm × 5 nm image of the same surface. Reprinted with permission from Hahn et al.157

Earlier reports indicated that Cu(111) restructures to a highly textured surface when exposed to even small CO partial pressures in vacuum,174 and recent experimental spectroscopic133 and computational175 studies have also indicated that the presence of CO increases the density of highly active, undercoordinated step sites on polycrystalline Cu. Furthermore, restructuring promoted by CO was also observed using operando grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) on polycrystalline copper thin films.176 Thus, since there is typically a significant coverage of CO under CO2R conditions,177 it is possible that reconstruction and the formation of step sites on otherwise defect-free single crystalline surfaces during reaction could explain why there are only moderate differences in CO2R activity on different facets, as mentioned above.

Various studies employing in situ electrochemical scanning tunneling microscopy (ECSTM) have also reported reconstruction of Cu surfaces under applied potentials while not in the presence of CO2/CO.172,173,178–181 For example, it has
been demonstrated that at a potential of −0.9 V vs SHE in both argon-purged 0.1 M KOH and 0.1 M KHCO₃, a polycrystalline Cu surface gradually forms Cu(111) facets on a time scale of 30 min, which subsequently transform into Cu(100) facets after another 30 min. The Cu(110) surface undergoes a similar restructuring compared to the polycrystalline Cu electrodes; the topmost planes of a Cu(110) surface transformed over time into a disordered Cu(110), then into a disordered mixed Cu(110)–Cu(111), and finally into an ordered Cu(110)–Cu(100) plane. In contrast, no reconstruction was observed on single crystal Cu(111) or Cu(100) surfaces under the same conditions, nor for epitaxially grown Cu(111) and Cu(100) films at −0.24 V vs RHE in 0.1 M HClO₄. While it is somewhat unclear what drives the (in)stability of these different systems, it is likely that it has to do with the comparative adhesions of various surfaces in contact with each other. Another possibility could be due to other factors from the local reaction environment (i.e., electrolyte and/or potential-dependent effects). However, more work needs to be done to better understand how and why Cu restructuring occurs under reaction conditions.

Another important point for Cu is that, compared to other monometallic catalyst systems, few thorough benchmarking studies on the electrochemical properties of Cu single crystal surfaces have been reported. Such data could be used to determine the properties of electrodes used for a particular study, which is standard practice for other electrode materials, such as Pt. For example, CVs of single crystal electrodes recorded in alkaline solutions at potentials where only OH adsorption on the surface occurs (−0.2 to 0.5 V vs RHE) and no bulk oxide formation is expected exhibit different redox features for different reports in the literature, which should not be the case for truly single crystal electrodes. Further, a recent study on the electrochemical properties of polycrystalline Cu and Cu(100) electrodes, including samples prepared under UHV conditions to avoid surface contamination of oxygen, clearly suggests that the features observed in the CV strongly depend on the pretreatment of the electrodes. This is illustrated in Figure 8, where the CV of a Cu electrode prepared under UHV conditions is plotted vs the CVs obtained for samples exposed to different pretreatments under laboratory conditions. The authors ascribed the features in the CV between 0.30 and 0.45 V to different sites than the Cu(100) planes, indicating that all electrodes except for that prepared under UHV conditions contain a significant amount of defect sites on the surface. Other approaches to assess the consistency of Cu electrodes could include comparing key values for the HER, which so far has only been reported in a few studies on polycrystalline Cu electrodes in alkaline or acidic solutions, or investigating the distinct features obtained from lead or thallium underpotential deposition (UPD) on single crystal electrodes.

Better insight about the fundamental electrochemical properties of Cu single crystal electrodes would be valuable in order to better compare results among different research groups within the field of CO₂R. In addition, it would be useful to elucidate the influence of higher overpotentials and different electrolytes and pH ranges. For example, it was shown by CV that new sites are formed on the surface of polycrystalline Cu electrodes exposed to −0.5 V or −0.6 V vs RHE in 1 M NaOH at 60 °C for 3 h. Cathodic corrosion, hydrogen embrittlement, or hydride formation can also play a crucial role at such potentials. These effects have received little attention in relation to CO₂R as of yet, but could influence activity and stability. Furthermore, such insights could also be highly useful for other processes where the electrochemical/electrocatalytic properties of Cu are important, such as nitrate reduction or studies related to the initial oxidation of Cu single crystal electrodes in aqueous environment.

3.2. Reduction of Possible Intermediates

In the previous section, we outlined the facet-dependent activity and selectivity of Cu and saw how tunable the reaction is on the atomic scale. Here we will discuss some of the key intermediate species and how probing their reactivity has helped shed light on CO₂ reduction pathways.

3.2.1. CO as a Crucial Intermediate. Carbon monoxide (CO) and formate (HCOO⁻) are the 2e⁻ products formed from CO₂R, and as discussed in subsection 1.2.2, there are classes of metals that yield each of these products with high selectivity. Early experimental work found that the reduction of CO on Cu leads to a similar product distribution as CO₂R on Cu, suggesting that CO is a key reaction intermediate. Subsequent detailed studies of CO reduction (COR) on Cu have provided further support for this claim, in addition to the spectroscopic observation of surface adsorbed CO under CO₂R conditions.

Figure 8. Comparison of the CV recorded on a Cu(100) electrode prepared under UHV conditions (dashed line) with (a) an electropolished as received Cu(100) electrode from the supplier, (b) 90 s electropolished Cu(100) electrode after storage in air for 30 days, and (c) an electropolished Cu(100) electrode after mechanical polishing (0.1 µm alumina powder for 10 min and further 10 min with 0.05 µm alumina powder). All CVs were recorded in 0.1 M KOH and at a scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹. Reprinted with permission from Engstfeld et al. Copyright 2018, John Wiley and Sons.
Consequently, several studies proposed that the binding energy of adsorbed CO (*CO) is a key descriptor for reduction activity to >2e⁻ products.6,81–83 Metals that bind CO too strongly will be poisoned by this intermediate, whereas metals that bind CO too weakly will desorb it from the surface before it can react further. Thus, well-aligned with the Sabatier principle,84 the intermediate binding energy for CO on Cu is a key reason for its ability to catalyze CO₂R to products further reduced than CO. In addition, studies have shown that CO adsorption on Cu suppresses the competing hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) due to site blocking effects and/or changes in △H binding energy.85,177,201,205 The coverage of CO on Cu is typically very high,207 at least until there are mass transport limitations (vide infra). Thus, CO poisoning of the HER is an important mechanism by which Cu maintains a high Faradaic efficiency for CO₂R in aqueous electrolytes.205

Ever since the determination of CO as a key intermediate in the reduction of CO₂ to hydrocarbons and alcohols, there has been increasing interest in studying CO₂R as a proxy for understanding trends in CO₂R. This has several advantages including fewer reaction steps/intermediates to consider and avoiding the complication of the reactant being part of the buffer (as is the case for CO₂R in bicarbonate solutions). The latter, in turn, allows for a wider range of pH conditions to be examined, in addition to allowing for direct comparison with blank measurements where the electrolyte is purged with an inert gas. Another motivation for better understanding CO₂R catalysis is that this could provide an alternate route for CO₂R in inert gas. Another motivation for better understanding CO₂R catalysis is that this could provide an alternate route for CO₂R in aqueous electrolytes.205

3.2.2. Reduction of Oxygenated C₁ and C₂ Species.

The discovery of at least 16 distinct products formed from CO₂R on Cu highlights the complexity of this reaction.65 Besides the dominant hydrocarbons, methane and ethylene, this includes a broad mix of aldehydes, ketones, carboxylic acids, and alcohols, the majority of which are multicarbon compounds. As a result, probing the reduction activity of small oxygenated species has been used as a technique to help elucidate mechanistic pathways; here we will briefly describe the key findings from these studies.

Unlike CO, it has been shown that another 2e⁻ reduction product, formate/formic acid, does not typically undergo further reduction on Cu under reductive conditions;85 however, with very high concentrations, high cathodic bias, and highly acidic or basic electrolytes, trace amounts of methane have been reported.103,206 Formaldehyde (CH₂O) reduction has been shown to produce mainly methanol,107,112,159 although small amounts of methane have also been reported.103,107,112,159,206 Finally, reduction of methanol (or methoxide, which is methanol deprotonated under high pH) has been shown to yield no products.103,112,206 These results strongly suggest that formate and methanol are terminal products for electrochemical CO₂R, and intermediate(s) related to formaldehyde (such as adsorbed formyl, *CHO) may be on the pathway to methanol and methane.

The presence of hydroxyl and/or carbonyl moieties in many of the multicarbon products suggests that the C–C bond is formed early in the reaction, at least before one of the two carbon—oxygen bonds in CO₂ is broken.65 Accordingly, it has been suggested that enol-like species may be intermediates to multicarbon products,86 such as an enediol or enediolate.12 The observation that reduction of ethylene oxide produces ethylene indicates that a strongly adsorbed epoxide in the form of an oxametallacycle is another possible intermediate in ethylene formation.112 Ethylene glycol and oxalic acid reduction did not lead to any reduction products, suggesting that these are not intermediates in CO₂R.112 This is curious given that ethylene glycol has been detected as a minor product,65 so a recent theoretical study suggested that the reason why this species is not further reduced is due to its OH groups being repelled by the surface, making its adsorption endergonic.207 Finally, both glyoxal112,208 and glycolaldehyde12 reduction have been shown to produce acetaldehyde and ethanol but not ethylene. This suggests that these minor products are intermediates on the pathway to acetaldehyde and ethanol.207

It has long been thought that aldehydes are key intermediates to alcohols after Hori and co-workers observed that acetaldehyde and propionaldehyde were easily reduced to ethanol and n-propanol, respectively.159 Further support for this has been provided by several COR studies that have noted aldehyde production at lower overpotentials than alcohols that decreases with increasing overpotential where alcohols become dominant,114,200 as well as recent demonstrations of direct acetaldehyde reduction to ethanol.90,209

Another study employed a DEMS setup where the catalyst was coated directly onto the pervaporation membrane used to transfer volatile species into the mass spectrometer in order to detect species directly from the electrode—electrolyte interface.100 Through this method, it was observed that acetaldehyde and propionaldehyde are produced in 2–4 times higher abundance than ethanol or propanol compared to sampling from the bulk electrolyte, where they are typically only observed as minor products.100 Thus, the authors suggest that these aldehydes are transiently produced and relatively abundant within the local reaction environment, but are typically reduced further to the corresponding alcohols before diffusing into the bulk electrolyte. Interestingly, it was also found that ethanol production increased at the expense of propionaldehyde at more cathodic potentials, suggesting that ethanol and propionaldehyde may share a common intermediate such as acetaldehyde.160

Finally, it is worth highlighting a recent study that has led to significant new insights on the role of water in the formation of C₂, oxygenated products.210 By carrying out C¹⁸O reduction in H₂¹⁸O electrolyte and quantifying the isotopic composition of the products using gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS), Lum et al. determined that the majority of ethanol, acetate, and 1-propanol formed were ¹⁸O enriched, meaning that they incorporated oxygen from the solvent water. Allyl alcohol and methanol were not enriched with ¹⁸O, which suggests different mechanisms for their formation. Importantly, water has not previously been considered as a dominant O source in the formation of oxygenated products, so the researchers then investigated how this could be the case using quantum mechanics-based metadynamics calculations. This led to the identification of a new mechanism for (¹⁸O)ethanol formation, which was termed as Grothhuss chain ethynyl concerted hydrolysis (GECH).210 The mechanistic pathways and intermediate branch points for formation of ethylene, (¹⁸O)ethanol, and (¹⁸O)ethanol were then elucidated; these C₂ reaction networks are shown in purple in Figure 18. It is
important to keep in mind that Cannizzaro-type disproportionation reactions could also occur in the electrolyte, especially at high pH, converting an aldehyde (acetaldehyde) into the corresponding alcohol (ethanol) and carboxylate (acetate). Thus, this is another possible mechanism by which these products are formed, but researchers should still keep the possibility of these reactions in mind when working under strongly alkaline conditions, especially when a high concentration of aldehydes are formed.

3.3. Electrolyte Effects

The choice of electrolyte can have a huge impact on CO2R performance. There are a number of factors that have complex relations with the local reaction environment; the composition and concentration of anions and cations can cause changes in the electrostatic interactions, buffer capacity, pH, and availability of proton donors. These changes are not always straightforward to map due to intertwining effects. In this section we will discuss the major variables within the electrolyte (pH, cations, anions) and their impacts on CO2R catalysis.

3.3.1. pH Effects. Studying the effect of pH on CO2R comes with several challenges. Given that CO2 forms bicarbonate and carbonate when it is purged through alkaline solutions, electrolytes for CO2R are generally limited to neutral and acidic pH conditions. However, by using CO reduction (COR) as a proxy, mechanistic insights about the pathway to further reduced products can be obtained. Pioneering work of this nature by Hori et al. first revealed that the selectivity between CH4 and C2H4 is impacted by pH. By studying COR on Cu, the production rates for each product could be compared in buffer solutions spanning a bulk pH of 6 to 12. When the measurements of partial current density toward C2H4 (or C2H5OH) are included on a single Tafel plot on the SHE scale (Figure 9a), a straight line emerges. Thus, the rate-determining step on the pathway to C2+ products such as C2H4 and CH3OH is independent of pH on an absolute potential scale (SHE), and thus will shift on the RHE scale to more positive potential (decreasing overpotential) by 59 mV per unit increase in pH. For CH4, on the other hand, the Tafel plot was widely scattered unless only measurements at the same pH were included, indicating that the rate-determining step for the C1 pathway involves proton transfer and is thus dependent on pH. Hori et al. explained this pH dependence in terms of the Tafel equation where the partial current for CH4 is proportional to the proton activity; indeed, by plotting the logarithm of the CH4 partial current density plus pH (Figure 9b), a straight line emerges. From these plots, transfer coefficients of ₋ = 0.35 and ₋ = 1.33 were extracted for C2H4 and CH4, respectively. This led Hori et al. to propose that the reaction paths for CH4 and C2H4 formation do not share rate-determining steps and thus have mechanisms that are separated at early stages of CO reduction. Further evidence for this notion was provided in a series of studies on single crystal electrodes by the group of Marc Koper, which revealed that there are two possible pathways to C2H4 depending on the pH, surface structure, and overpotential. These mechanisms will be discussed further in sections 4 and 5.

Recent work comparing CO2R and COR on planar polycrystalline Cu in pH 6.8 and 13, respectively, has led to increased mechanistic understanding of the role of pH. The partial current densities for CO2R and COR products plotted on both the RHE and SHE scale illustrates the overall effect of pH (Figure 10). The C2+ product overpotentials display a pH independence on the SHE scale, essentially overlapping for CO2R and COR, which corresponds to a positive ∼0.36 V shift on the RHE scale from pH 6.8 to pH 13 (or ∼59 mV per pH unit, as expected). On the other hand, the C1 product (CH4) overpotential shows a pH dependence on the SHE scale, leading to a much smaller shift on the RHE scale of ∼0.15 V. It
was concluded that both field stabilization of a rate-limiting chemical reaction (i.e., CO dimerization) or proton–electron transfer from water during the rate-limiting step are plausible explanations for the pH independence of the C₂+, pathway on the SHE scale. Then, the complex pH dependence for CH₄ was rationalized by a kinetic analysis, which suggested that this pathway is limited by a later proton–electron transfer.¹⁰⁰,²¹² These findings, which will be discussed in more detail in section 4.2, are in good agreement with Horri’s observations (also see section 1 of the SI for a derivation of the RHE-scale pH dependence from Figure 9b). Notably, because the overpotential for C₂+ products is greatly reduced on the RHE scale, this means that operating in basic electrolytes can lead to a major improvement in energy efficiency for the production of multicarbon compounds from CO₂R/COR. Consequently, KOH electrolytes are increasingly being explored as a means to achieve higher selectivity and energy efficiency for C₂+ products, particularly in vapor-fed systems where CO₂ is directly delivered in the gas-phase rather than solubilized in the aqueous electrolyte and diffused to the cathode. These efforts are described in more detail in section 6.3.

While CO₂R has not typically been conducted in aqueous electrolytes with high pH due to the buffering capacity of CO₂, understanding the impacts of pH has still been a major area of study due to the dynamic reaction environment at the electrode surface. As discussed in section 2.2, a local pH gradient can develop at the cathode surface due to depletion of protons/production of hydroxide ions from the HER and CO₂R. In the CO₂/bicarbonate system, CO₂ is both a reactant and a buffer, so an increased pH near the cathode surface can cause the concentration of dissolved CO₂ to deviate (decrease) from that in the bulk electrolyte. The key equilibria reactions for this system are⁶,⁹,¹¹,¹³

\[
\text{CO}_2(g) \leftrightarrow \text{CO}_2(aq) \quad K_5 = 30 \text{mM/bar} \tag{10}
\]

\[
\text{CO}_2(aq) + \text{H}_2\text{O} \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \quad K_{eq} = 1.7 \times 10^{-3} \tag{11.1}
\]

\[
\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \leftrightarrow \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{H}^+ \quad pK_a = 3.6 \tag{11.2}
\]

\[
\text{CO}_2(aq) + \text{H}_2\text{O} \leftrightarrow \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{H}^+ \quad pK_a = 6.4 \tag{11.2}
\]

\[
(11 = 11.1 + 11.2)
\]

\[
\text{HCO}_3^- \leftrightarrow \text{CO}_3^{2-} + \text{H}^+ \quad pK_a = 10.3 \tag{12}
\]

Or in alkaline solutions, these can be written as

\[
\text{CO}_2 + \text{OH}^- \leftrightarrow \text{HCO}_3^- \tag{11a}
\]

\[
\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{OH}^- \leftrightarrow \text{CO}_3^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \tag{12a}
\]

Reactions 10, 11, and 12 result in CO₂ saturated solutions having bulk pH values from around pH 6–8 for bicarbonate concentrations of 0.05–2 M, respectively.⁷ The kinetics of CO₂ hydration (Reaction 11.1) are slow, and the equilibrium concentration of H₂CO₃ is very low.²,⁹,⁹⁹ However, the nucleophilic attack of dissolved CO₂ by OH⁻ is faster, such that Reaction 11a dominates over Reaction 11 (11 = 11.1 + 11.2) when pH >10.²¹³ The kinetics for the protonation/deprotonation Reactions 11.2, 12, and 12a are all quite fast, and it can be assumed that HCO₃⁻ is in equilibrium with CO₃²⁻ at all times.⁹⁹ Mathematical models have been used to solve the relevant diffusion equations, along with the reaction equations for CO₂ electroreduction with a given selectivity and geometric current density, to estimate the interfacial pH and concentrations, many of which are based on the seminal work by Gupta et al. (ref 99)⁸⁵,⁹⁶–⁹⁵,¹⁰⁹,²¹⁴–²¹⁷ It has been shown that even modest current densities can cause the interfacial pH to vary significantly from that in the bulk electrolyte, perturbing the reaction thermodynamics and kinetics in several ways.

First, it is worth taking a moment to briefly discuss the impact of pH on the HER. At higher pH where the proton concentration is low, water reduction is expected to dominate over proton reduction. From a thermodynamics standpoint, hydrogen evolution is independent of pH on the RHE scale, and it is irrelevant whether this reaction proceeds via proton or water reduction; in principle, any Brønsted acid can act as a proton donor.⁶,⁵ However, this can have a huge impact on the kinetics of the HER, as demonstrated by Strmčnik et al. for noble-metal electrodes.²¹⁸,²¹⁹ Furthermore, Grozovski et al. distinguished H⁺ reduction from H₂O reduction and found their corresponding kinetic parameters using a combination of RDE experiments and modeling.²²⁰ It is expected that the HER proceeds primarily via water reduction under CO₂R conditions.²⁵ It is also possible that the electrolyte buffer can act as a proton donor, depending on its pKₐ value, concentration, and mass transport/availability; this will be discussed in more detail in subsection 3.3.3. While the explicit impact of pH on the HER is still an ongoing area of research, it has been thought that increasing local pH helps favor CO₂R over HER, mainly due to the decreasing overpotential for the formation of C₂+ products, as discussed earlier. On the other hand, a high local pH shifts equilibria of the acid–base reactions toward (bi)carbonates, which can reduce the concentration of CO₂ near the surface, decreasing selectivity toward CO₂R and favoring the HER instead.⁹⁶,²¹⁴ These contradictory consequences have led to some debate over whether a high local pH is beneficial or detrimental for CO₂R catalysis. Several researchers have proposed that CO₂ is still likely to be present under a nonequilibrium high pH owing to its slow hydration kinetics.⁸³,¹³⁸,¹⁴⁹,²²¹,²²² This of course is very dependent on the sufficient transport of CO₂ to the surface. However, with this in mind, it seems likely that there is an optimum pH that balances the benefits of increased pH with the slow, disadvantageous decline in CO₂ concentration. Indeed, recent modeling studies have found such a volcano-type dependence on pH for CO₂R selectivity (particularly to C₂+ products) and proposed an optimal local pH range of 9–10.⁹⁷,⁹⁸ At higher pHs, the HER becomes dominant due to mass transport limitations of CO₂. Interestingly, in this mass transport limited regime, the activity and selectivity for C₂+ products plateau and eventually decline, while CH₄ production generally increases.⁶,⁵,⁹⁶,²⁰⁸ Thus, one can identify when the reaction is limited by CO₂ mass transport by observing when the C₂+ activity plateaus²⁰⁸ or by increasing mixing at a given potential to see if the C₂+ selectivity is altered.²⁰⁸ An example of the latter approach is shown in Figure 11. While it remains unclear how pH itself affects the adsorption energies and coverages of reaction intermediates, especially since these are all also a strong function of potential, it seems likely that *H coverage increases at the expense of *CO in this mass transport limited regime, providing a stronger driving force for hydrogenation of CO to CH₄ and a decreased probability of CO coupling to C₂+ products.⁶,²¹⁵ This hypothesis was further supported by a recent study incorporating microkinetic modeling, which revealed that *CO coverage is gradually
depleted as its reduction becomes increasingly favorable with decreasing (more cathodic) potential, and formation rates of $C_2^+$ products are more drastically impacted due to their second-order dependence on $^+CO$ coverage.\textsuperscript{212}

Potential-dependent trends can be difficult to discuss in the context of the pH effect. First of all, it is important to realize that if the RHE potential is considered with respect to the bulk pH, then the catalytic overpotential is overestimated under mass transport limited conditions due to the local pH gradient, which can cause errors in mechanistic interpretations.\textsuperscript{109,149,205} This has led some researchers to report results on a “corrected RHE” scale that uses the local pH as estimated from mathematical modeling.\textsuperscript{217} This has also motivated experimental measurement of the pH at the electrode/electrolyte interface under CO$_2$R conditions. While this has remained a difficult challenge, there are two recent reports that have attempted to do so using attenuated total reflectance surface-enhanced infrared absorption spectroscopy (ATR-SEIRAS) to measure and correlate the relative intensities of species involved in the buffer equilibria reactions with the local pH near the electrode surface.\textsuperscript{7,148,149} There are a few discrepancies between these studies, as this is an active area of method development, and more work should be done to validate and further advance these techniques.

Second, as discussed in section 2.2, it is also important to keep in mind that the extent of OH$^-$ concentration polarization and thus local pH at a given applied potential will differ between catalysts and electrochemical cells. Catalysts with high surface areas will be more susceptible to OH$^-$ concentration polarization at lower overpotentials. On the plus side, this likely explains the CH$_4$ suppression and enhanced selectivity to $C_2^+$ products typically observed on high surface area catalysts, which will be discussed in more detail in section 6. This can also lead to HER suppression by local depletion of buffer species that act as competent proton donors,\textsuperscript{212,223} as discussed in subsection 3.3.3. Unfortunately this also causes difficulties comparing potential-dependent CO$_2$R performance between catalysts with very different roughness factors. This is not only an issue for high surface area catalysts though; even planar catalysts can exhibit different activity and selectivity if evaluated in electrochemical cells with different hydrodynamic boundary layer thicknesses.\textsuperscript{100} Therefore, it is important to keep all of these factors in mind when drawing conclusions about potential-dependent activity and selectivity.

Finally, it is worth noting that a gas diffusion electrode (GDE), while not suited for fundamental studies due to a complex interface, can in principle combine the best of both worlds, enabling both high pH conditions and sufficient mass transport of CO$_2$ even with high surface area catalysts. See section 6.3 for further discussion of these vapor-fed systems.

### 3.3.2. Cation Effects

It has been well documented in the literature that electrochemical CO$_2$R activity and selectivity is influenced by the alkali metal cation in the electrolyte. Initial work by Hori and Murata showed that the selectivity of CO$_2$ and CO reduction on polycrystalline Cu was strongly influenced by cation size, with larger cations increasing the selectivity toward formation of $C_2^+$ species and decreasing the selectivity for the HER.\textsuperscript{224} Since then, a number of reports have confirmed and expanded on these experimental observations.\textsuperscript{97,208,214,225,226} While the experimental trends are largely in agreement, there has been some disagreement over the explanation for this effect. Hori and Murata rationalized the change in selectivity with cation size by the difference of outer Helmholtz plane (OHP) potential, based on Frumkin’s theory,\textsuperscript{227} whereby the OHP potential will shift to more positive values with the degree of specific adsorption, which increases with cation size due to their lower hydration numbers.\textsuperscript{224} Recent theoretical work, however, has suggested that specific adsorption of alkali cations is not applicable to the conditions of CO$_2$R,\textsuperscript{214} in part due to the very negative reduction potentials of alkali ions calculated on transition metal electrodes.\textsuperscript{228} In addition, oxygen reduction studies have shown that alkali cations primarily interact noncovalently, with surface X-ray scattering data suggesting that the cations are not adsorbed and remain partially solvated at the interface.\textsuperscript{229,230} DFT calculations demonstrate that solvation increases the favorability of specific adsorption and suggest a low coverage of partially hydrated K$^+$ is thermodynamically favorable under high cathodic potentials and pH conditions.\textsuperscript{231} Due to the complex nature of the electrochemical interface, it is difficult to say with certainty to what extent alkali cations interact with the electrode surface. Experimental identification of the mechanism(s) by which cations affect surface electrochemical processes (i.e., via specific adsorption and/or nonspecific interactions) is extremely challenging and remains an open question. We will not distinguish that here and instead simply focus on the potential impacts that cations on/near the surface could have on CO$_2$R.
Electrochemical CO₂ reduction potentials are typically more negative than the potential of zero charge (PZC) on low-index facets of Cu (~0.7 V vs SHE), so solvated cations should accumulate on/near the surface of the electrode during reaction. This can block active sites on the surface, alter the binding energy or coverage of reaction intermediates, and/or influence the barriers of elementary steps. The presence of the cation near the metal surface also gives rise to high electric fields of roughly ~1 V/Å in the vicinity of the ion (within 5 Å). While cations in the bulk of the electrolyte are stable to hydrolysis, electrostatic interactions between the solvated cation and cathode lower the pKₐ in the vicinity of the electrode; the magnitude of this decrease in pKₐ increases with larger alkali cation size and larger cathodic potentials. Thus, it was proposed that this allows larger cations to act as a pH buffer, offsetting the increase in local pH induced by concentration polarization and restoring the local CO₂ concentration closer to the bulk value. This theoretical model matched their experimental measurements, but it must be noted that the experiments were performed under strong mass transport limitations. Thus, this model does not explain the fact that increasing activity and selectivity to C₂+ products are observed both at lower overpotentials when not in a concentration polarized regime, as well as during COR, which does not have the same dependence of reactant concentration on pH.

Two recent studies have instead suggested that the primary role of the cation is to act as a promoter, stabilizing certain CO₂R/COR intermediates on the surface that have favorable electrostatic interactions with solvated cations. Specifically, cation-created electrostatic field stabilization decreases the energy for *CO₂ adsorption, the precursor to 2e⁻ products, and C–C coupling to form *OCCO or *OCCHO, possible precursors to C₂ products. This explains the trends observed not only for Cu but is also consistent with CO₂R selectivity enhancements to 2e⁻ products observed on Ag, Sn, and Sn. This alone, however, does not explain the observed trend with cation size. For that, DFT calculations by Resasco et al. revealed that larger hydrated cations are more energetically favored at the outer Helmholtz plane than smaller ones, which suggests that a higher concentration of cations will accumulate with increasing cation size leading to a larger local electric field. The same researchers then provided support for this hypothesis by conducting experiments in mixed electrolytes, which showed that only a small percentage of the larger cations is needed to observe their influence on the intrinsic rates of formation of certain reaction products (e.g., ≤1 order of magnitude increase in partial current densities for C₃H₆, C₂H₅OH). A recent study using attenuated-total internal reflection Fourier-transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy has provided further evidence for this cation promotion effect, as it was found that with increasing cation size, surface-adsorbed CO molecules experience a greater interfacial electrostatic field that accelerates its reduction kinetics and acts to shift the C≡O stretch frequency to lower energies.

Future work in this area could expand on the findings for these monovalent alkali cations by investigating the impacts of divalent or trivalent cations. For example, CO₂R rate increases have been observed over a Cu–Sn–Pb alloy cathode as the size and surface charge of the cation in the supporting electrolyte increases from Na⁺ to La³⁺. There has also been some interest in the use of ionic liquids for CO₂R after initial reports showed increased selectivity to CO at low overpotentials on Ag, MoS₂, and Pt electrodes. It has been hypothesized that the presence of ionic liquids can stabilize reaction intermediates, help bind the CO₂ molecule, and/or suppress the HER by blocking active sites on the surface. While this could be a promising avenue to explore, we offer a word of caution, as it has also been found that the ionic liquids break down during CO₂R, which can cause difficulties with product detection and limit its practicality for (re)use at scale. Finally, in moving toward practical CO₂/CO electrolysers, which will likely be vapor-fed reactors that employ GDEs, we will need to carefully consider how to engineer the ionomer/membrane moieties to promote stabilization of intermediates in a similar manner to the cation effects discussed here.

### 3.3.3. Anion Effects

The vast majority of CO₂ reduction catalysis has been studied in KHCO₃ electrolytes due to the CO₂-(bi)carbonate-water equilibrium, which helps maintain a neutral bulk pH. As a result, the impacts of the electrolyte anion have been studied to a lesser extent. Hori and co-workers presented results for constant current electrolysis in various electrolyte solutions, which showed that hydrocarbons and alcohols are the preferred products in KCl, KClO₄, K₂SO₄, and dilute KHCO₃ solutions, while H₂ formation dominates in K₂HPO₄ solutions. These findings were explained in terms of a nonequilibrium local region of high pH close to the electrode. As discussed earlier, OH⁻ ions are released during electrodereaction, which can be neutralized by HCO₃⁻ or H₂PO₄⁻. Thus, in the nonbuffering electrolytes or in dilute KHCO₃ there is likely insufficient neutralization leading to a rise in pH which favors CO₂R over HER and C₂, over C₁ products. Other studies on the impact of KHCO₃ concentration have mirrored these trends, showing that with increasing anion concentration the rates of hydrogen evolution and methane production increase, again pointing to local pH effects as the cause.

A recent report, however, found that the changes in pH near the electrode surface were insufficient to explain differences in activity and selectivity observed with changes in anion buffering capacity; instead, it was proposed that these differences result from the ability of buffering anions to donate hydrogen directly to the electrode surface. While water is expected to be the proton source under CO₂R conditions, it is possible that buffering anions can serve as proton donors given the lower pKₐ values compared to water. Thus, products where the rate-limiting step involves a proton transfer (H₂ and CH₄) will be impacted by changes in the hydrogen source. Accordingly, it was found that H₂ and CH₄ activity increased (~1 order of magnitude) with decreasing pKₐ of the buffering anion and were not impacted by nonbuffering anions, while formation of CO, HCOO⁻, and C₂, products were insensitive to anion identity. This suggests that the buffering anions can serve as competent proton donors, with their effectiveness increasing with decreasing pKₐ. The impact was less pronounced once the local pH (as determined by mathematical modeling) was taken into account by plotting the activities on a calculated RHE scale; future studies should seek to test these effects over a wider range of potentials in case transport effects were also playing a role. Interestingly, this could still shed some light on one mechanism by which H₂ evolution may be suppressed during CO₂R; depletion of HCO₃⁻ under basic conditions could impose mass transport limitations for the HER and limit the ability for this buffer to serve as a proton...
donor.\textsuperscript{221,223} Especially for mesoporous electrodes with high RFs and inhibited diffusion, this could serve to slow the rate of HER until sufficient overpotential to drive the sluggish water reduction kinetics is achieved.

In addition to bicarbonate serving as a pH buffer and proton source, recent studies have also discussed the possibility of bicarbonate serving as a CO\textsubscript{2} source.\textsuperscript{118,138,139} Using a combination of \textit{in situ} spectroscopic analysis (ATR-SEIRAS) and isotopic labeling, along with mass spectroscopy (MS) or potential stepping techniques, two reports proposed that the CO\textsubscript{2} source during CO\textsubscript{2}R is CO\textsubscript{2} in equilibrium with bicarbonate anions instead of free CO\textsubscript{2} molecules supplied to the solution.\textsuperscript{118,139} This hypothesis, however, relies on the critical assumption of fast equilibrium between CO\textsubscript{2} and bicarbonate, which may not be the case since rate constants for the other equilibrium reactions are several orders of magnitude larger.\textsuperscript{138} With the increasing trend of \textit{in situ} spectroscopic analysis during CO\textsubscript{2}R, the role of bicarbonate is an active area of research; thus, continued work should be done to further elucidate the CO\textsubscript{2}R reaction mechanisms in bicarbonate electrolytes.

Finally, it is also worth noting that there have been various studies on the influence of halide ions on Cu electrochemistry.\textsuperscript{94,95,116,242–249} Some reports suggest that there will be specific adsorption of these anions on the Cu surface, which could alter the charge density and selectivity for CO\textsubscript{2}R products, as well as aid in suppression of the HER.\textsuperscript{243–248} However, many studies show that the presence of halide ions primarily leads to changes in the Cu surface structure and morphology; in particular, oxidation–reduction cycles in the presence of halide ions has been one strategy used to increase selectivity to C\textsubscript{2} products, such as C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{4} (see section 6 for further discussion).\textsuperscript{94,95,116,242–248,249} Thus, it is currently unclear what the dominating effect(s) of employing halides are, so this represents another area for future studies aimed at better understanding ionic interactions during CO\textsubscript{2}R catalysis.

### 3.4. Electrochemical Conditions

In addition to electrolyte effects, several studies outline the importance of the electrochemical cell design, components, and operating conditions.\textsuperscript{87,96,250} While an in-depth discussion of these topics is outside the scope of this Review, there are a few considerations and trends that we will touch upon here. Most CO\textsubscript{2}R studies to date have been conducted under ambient temperature and pressure, but these factors have also been explored to manipulate the local reaction conditions. Here we will briefly discuss some of the trends observed under nonambient environments.

#### 3.4.1. Temperature and Pressure

From Henry’s Law and the acid/base buffer equilibria (CO\textsubscript{2}/HCO\textsubscript{3}⁻/CO\textsubscript{3}²⁻), it is understood that increasing the concentration of dissolved CO\textsubscript{2} in the electrolyte can be achieved by decreasing temperature or increasing pressure (see Figure 12).\textsuperscript{2,101,102,109,251–254} As a result, several studies have looked at varying the temperature\textsuperscript{82,101,103,161,251–254} and pressure\textsuperscript{101,102,109,200,225} during CO\textsubscript{2}R/COR. In general, it is difficult to draw direct comparisons between these limited studies due to the use of different electrolytes, applied voltages, techniques (galvanostatic vs potentiostatic), and temperature/pressure ranges. However, a few high level trends can be extracted from their findings. Across the board, decreasing temperature was found to increase selectivity to CH\textsubscript{4}.\textsuperscript{82,101,103,161,251–254} Trends for the other products are not as clear, although some results do show an increased production rate of C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{4}\textsuperscript{82,101} and/or CO\textsubscript{2}\textsubscript{52,254} at higher temperatures. The rate of H\textsubscript{2} evolution was found to be suppressed at lower temperatures and greatly enhanced at higher temperatures.\textsuperscript{82,101,251,252,254} The overall rate of CO\textsubscript{2}R was impacted by temperature to a lesser degree,\textsuperscript{101} with some studies finding minimal changes in the total partial current density for CO\textsubscript{2}R below room temperature\textsuperscript{103,104} and modest increases in reaction rate above room temperature.\textsuperscript{103,254} This leads to overall higher selectivity for CO\textsubscript{2}R at lower temperatures, and lower selectivity at higher temperatures where the HER becomes dominant. The reasons for these temperature effects are not entirely clear; changes in temperature affect the CO\textsubscript{2} solubility, thermal diffusion rates, pH, and solution resistance, and may also alter adsorption equilibria. More detailed studies are needed to better understand the impact of temperature on CO\textsubscript{2}R product selectivity over a broader range of potentials.

As CO\textsubscript{2} or CO pressure decreases below 1 atm, the HER is dominant and minimal CO\textsubscript{2}R/COR is detected.\textsuperscript{100,225} Meanwhile, with increased pressures, the total CO\textsubscript{2}R current generally increases (with the exception of the highest pressures in Hara et al.,\textsuperscript{101} where there is significant missing Faradaic efficiency in their galvanostatic experiments at 40 and 60 atm).\textsuperscript{101,102,109} These trends are likely due in large part to the changes in dissolved concentration of CO\textsubscript{2} with pressure. Interestingly, one study found that C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{4} selectivity increased with increased pressure, which was attributed to an increase in local CO concentration and surface coverage.\textsuperscript{109} Again, more systematic studies are needed to better understand the impact of pressure over a broader range of potentials and conditions. While operation of CO\textsubscript{2}R under ambient temperature and pressure has been discussed as a potential advantage of electrochemical CO\textsubscript{2} recycling compared to other processes, we should not limit the scope of study to ambient conditions. Altering temperature and pressure remain areas ripe for further investigation, both to gain increased mechanistic understanding of electrochemical vs chemical steps and for identifying operating conditions that achieve optimal activity and selectivity for CO\textsubscript{2}R to desired product(s).

### 3.5. Summary

Electrochemical CO\textsubscript{2} reduction on copper is a complex reaction involving multiple steps, intermediates, and reaction pathways. It is also highly sensitive to many factors from the atomic scale to the reactor scale including the electrode surface structure and morphology, electrolyte pH and identity/
quantity of ions present, degree of mass transport, temperature, pressure, etc.

Single crystals and oriented surfaces represent useful tools to study the impact of crystal facet on CO$_2$R performance of Cu electrodes. In particular, interesting trends in product distribution have been reported as a function of surface structure. Among the planar surfaces, Cu(100) was shown to yield a particularly high ethylene/methane ratio, and the selectivity toward ethylene could be further improved by adding steps to the surface.151−153,158 These findings can help provide design principles to steer the selectivity of catalyst materials toward important products. On the other hand, no significant trends in activity have been reported. This could be due to defects or step sites existing on the surface and/or formed in situ, leading to similar overall activity on all the Cu single crystal surfaces investigated. We would like to emphasize the need for more quantitative data from oriented surfaces, preferably of single crystal quality, as a function of potential. This is vital in order to obtain further mechanistic information, which can lead to identification of key parameters that can be optimized to steer selectivity and activity toward desired products.

At the same time, it is also important to keep in mind that the crystallographic orientation of the surface of single crystal electrodes can differ from their bulk orientation. Some reports indicated that the surface structure of the electrodes was strongly dependent on the choice of pretreatment procedure,152,171 while others showed that certain electrodes tended to restructure under reaction conditions.172,173,178−181 While the causes for restructuring require further investigation, some likely reasons include effects from the presence of CO$_2$, the negative applied potentials, or other factors from the local reaction environment, such as electrolyte effects. We emphasize that phenomena exhibited by crystals or films oriented in a specific direction may not originate from the bulk orientation, but rather from the defects present at the surface, as illustrated in Figure 7; as such, scientists should be cautious in making direct comparisons between the results from experiments on single crystals to DFT-based models. In addition, due to the complications we discussed above, we strongly recommend that future studies of single crystals and other oriented systems investigate the structural properties the electrodes in situ/operando whenever possible.

The electrolyte presents several variables that can be used to tune CO$_2$R activity and selectivity. In particular, the impact of pH is a complex subject that causes several competing effects on the local reaction environment. A high interfacial pH is beneficial for increasing selectivity toward CO$_2$R and reducing the overpotential required to form desirable C$_2$ products on an RHE scale; it becomes a detriment, however, when there is insufficient mass transport of CO$_2$, and the acid−base equilibrium between CO$_2$, HCO$_3^-$, CO$_3^{2−}$, and OH$^−$ causes a significant decrease in the local CO$_2$ concentration. The extent of concentration polarization is determined by the overall flux of species both to and from the electrode surface. This depends not only on the degree of mixing within an electrochemical cell, which impacts the hydrodynamic boundary layer thickness, but also the overall reaction rate (current density), which is impacted by the surface area of the catalyst. We strongly recommend that conclusions about intrinsic activity and selectivity only be drawn from data that is not significantly impacted by mass transport effects.

The electrolyte cation and anion also play important roles in the catalysis. Experimental trends for CO$_2$R on Cu have consistently demonstrated increased activity and selectivity for C$_2$ products with increasing alkali cation size, although the hypotheses behind these effects have evolved over time.181−201,214,224−226 By combining theoretical and experimental methods, greater mechanistic insights have been obtained. While the extent and mechanism of alkali cation interaction with the surface is still an open question, the localized electrostatic fields they create is proving to be a critical factor impacting CO$_2$R activity and selectivity. Indeed, DFT calculations reveal that cation-created field effects are crucial for CO$_2$ activation on weak binding surfaces232 and CO dimerization on Cu at room temperature.233 Anion effects have often been discussed in relation to the local pH at the electrode surface,234−237 but it has also been proposed that buffering anions can donate hydrogen directly to the electrode surface, which increases the rates of H$_2$ and CH$_4$ formation.217 Recent studies have additionally discussed the possibility of bicarbonate serving as a CO$_2$ source, but further work is needed to determine the extent to which this may occur. Finally, temperature and pressure represent additional levers by which to tune the catalysis since the concentration of CO$_2$ in the electrolyte can be increased via increasing pressure or decreasing temperature; in addition, these electrochemical conditions may also alter adsorption equilibria and diffusion rates. While some trends in product selectivity have been observed, this remains an area in need of further systematic investigations.

In summary, in this section we discussed how a variety of different experimental factors can impact CO$_2$R on Cu, the mechanistic insights that have been gained from studying them, and how they can be tailored to optimize activity and selectivity to desired product(s), including areas for future study. In the next section we will build upon these experimental findings and take a more in-depth look at the complementary theoretical descriptions of CO$_2$R on Cu and how these methods have helped shape our mechanistic understanding of the factors governing CO$_2$R activity and selectivity.

4. THEORETICAL STUDIES ON COPPER

In recent years, developments in ab initio methods for the simulation of surface and electrochemical reactions have enabled theoretical mechanistic investigations and theory-guided catalyst design.57 Electrochemical CO$_2$ reduction is particularly challenging due to the complex reaction networks and the importance of activation energies and cation effects.168,232 In what follows, we provide an introduction to state-of-the-art modeling approaches for electrochemical processes and discuss the major conclusions, controversies, and open challenges in recent work.

4.1. Introduction to Theoretical Approaches

Modeling electrochemical interfaces from an atomistic perspective presents many open challenges. In general, the thermodynamics for electrochemical reactions are relatively simple to obtain with the computational hydrogen electrode model,235 which relies on calculations of adsorption energies and a H$_2$ gas reference to account for the free energy of proton−electron pairs, i.e., $\mu(\text{H}^+) + \mu(\text{e}) = \frac{1}{2}\mu(\text{H}_2) - eU$, where $U$ is the potential vs the reversible hydrogen electrode.
(RHE). For a proton–electron transfer to *CO to form *CHO, for instance, the corresponding free energy change is

\[
\Delta G = \mu(\text{CHO}^*) - \mu(\text{CO}^*) - \left[ \frac{1}{2} \mu(H_2) - eU \right] + \Delta G_{\text{sol}} + \Delta G_{\text{field}}
\]

where \(\Delta G_{\text{sol}}\) and \(\Delta G_{\text{field}}\) refer to contributions of solvation and field.\(^{257,258}\) For a given reaction step, a thermodynamic limiting potential \(U_l\) can be determined, which is defined as the potential at which a reaction step becomes exergonic, where \(\Delta G = 0\). For a reaction pathway, the corresponding limiting potential is given by that of the step with the highest reaction free energy. This approach has been applied to a mechanistic analysis of CO\(_2\)R pathways toward C\(_1\) products on stepped Cu(211), and \(U_l\) for various products have been shown to be correlated with experimental onset potentials on polycrystalline copper.\(^{201}\) Likewise, the onset potentials for CH\(_4\) or CH\(_3\)OH across polycrystalline transition metals have been shown to follow trends in the corresponding \(U_l\).\(^{57}\)

While a thermodynamic analysis using the limiting potential \(U_l\) as a key metric has shown mechanistic insight and correlation with experimental data on transition metals, this presents only a necessary but insufficient criterion for activity. Determination of activation energies allows for turnover frequencies to be evaluated as a function of potential. Surface hydrogenation barriers (i.e., Langmuir–Hinshelwood type) through an adsorbed *H, where electron transfer has already occurred, are easy to determine in vacuum, but electrochemical barriers (sometimes referred to as Eley–Rideal\(^{259}\) type) are considerably more challenging. In addition, as discussed in section 3.3, ion and solvent effects have been shown to be important factors determining activity and selectivity toward various products. The investigation of electrochemical activation energies and the resultant kinetics and selectivities require models that explicitly account for the potential, solvent, and ions, where much method development is ongoing and where considerable variations exist in the energetics for similar processes determined using different approaches. In recent years, CO\(_2\)R energetics have been studied theoretically using implicit solvent models that include a continuum description of the ions.\(^{260,261}\) Explicit solvent models where water and ions are considered atomistically,\(^{268,259}\) and also a H-shuttling approach\(^{261–263}\), where a water molecule shuttles protons from the surface and back. We will first briefly summarize these different theoretical approaches.

### 4.1. Implicit Models

In general, the inclusion of solvent molecules and ions adds many extra degrees of freedom and computational time relative to vacuummetal calculations for determination of activation barriers. Implicit solvent models apply a continuum model of the electrolyte, which corresponds to a negligible increase in computational time. The charge at the interface can be varied continuously, such that the potential is easily tuned. While simple and computationally cheap, these models present several challenges. One of the most widely used implementations of the implicit method makes use of a simple linearized Poisson–Boltzmann distribution of the ions,\(^{264}\) which does not account for effects of finite ion size and has been suggested in classical models to lead to unphysical interfacial capacitances.\(^{265}\) The potential of zero charge (PZC) has been proposed as a benchmark for these methods,\(^{260,266}\) however, since PZCs and metal work functions are correlated,\(^{267}\) the agreement between experimental and theoretical PZC may reflect the accuracy of generalized gradient approximation (GGA) functionals in the determination of metal work functions more than the description of the solvent. Such a benchmark also does not evaluate the accuracy of the reaction energetics, where solvation or cation interactions can have a significant effect. Finally, a fundamental challenge associated with implicit solvent simulations at constant potential is that the ions are modeled to adiabatically follow the shifts in dipoles associated with a reaction event. These two processes, however, occur on very different time scales.\(^{267,268}\) The effect of such an assumption on the energetics has not been evaluated against explicit models.

### 4.1.2. Explicit Models

Explicit solvent methods allow for an atomistic level picture of solvation and cation effects, but at the expense of significantly increased computational cost and the introduction of other challenges. Since ions are modeled explicitly and within finite-sized unit cells, the potential is not continuously variable. Proton–electron transfer processes modeled in finite-sized unit cells also give rise to significant shifts in the potential along the reaction pathway. These issues can be mitigated using a capacitor model of the interface, which allows for the extrapolation of calculated barriers to the limit of infinite cell sizes, corresponding to the constant-potential limit.\(^{269,270}\) State of the art GGA-level functionals predict a poor band alignment of solvent HOMO, LUMO with the metal Fermi level, which can give rise to artificial charge transfer across the interface and corresponding effects on the reaction energetics.\(^{271}\) Unrelated to band alignment is the partial charge of hydronium ions at the Helmholtz plane arising from overlap of solvent and metal charge, which affect the reaction energetics.\(^{272}\) Transition states have been determined using either nudged elastic band (NEB)\(^{168,273}\) or metadynamics and potential of mean force;\(^{158,274}\) the latter method includes entropic contributions from solvent reorganization, but at an increased computational cost.

### 4.1.3. H-Shuttling Model

An alternative to full explicit solvent models has been put forth by Janik et al.\(^{264,263,275}\) In this approach, a water molecule is used to shuttle an adsorbed *H from the surface to the adsorbate (Figure 13). This shuttling process is considered to provide an estimate of the associated proton–electron transfer barrier. The potential vs RHE for the process is assumed to correspond to that where *H in the initial state is equilibrated with a proton–electron pair, as determined using the computational hydrogen

![Figure 13](https://example.com/figure13.png)

**Figure 13.** Water shuttling model for proton–electron transfer to *CO to form (a) *CHO and (b) *COH. A single water molecule is included to shuttle an adsorbed *H and mimic proton–electron transfer from solution. It was found that *CHO formation occurs through direct transfer of *H to the *CO. Reprinted with permission from Janik et al.\(^{263}\) Copyright 2013, John Wiley and Sons.
electrode. In contrast to explicit solvent calculations, potential shifts along the reaction pathway arising from shifts in charge are not considered. The transfer coefficient is assumed to be 0.5 plus a correction determined by shifts in the dipoles of the adsorbates. While the simplicity of this approach is compelling, the assumptions should be evaluated with more detailed models.

4.2. Theoretical Insights

In general, thermodynamic analyses in the current literature have been performed using the computational hydrogen electrode model. The choice of functional, pseudopotentials, and the treatment of solvation should all affect the energies, but resultant trends and energies reported by different groups do not differ significantly (e.g., the similarity in trends in energetics of Cu(111) intermediates from refs 262,276). Theoretical electrochemical activation energies, on the other hand, widely differ with approach, due to the differences in the simplifying assumptions made in modeling the electrochemical interface. Tables S2, S3, and S4 summarize, respectively, the activation energies for key CO₂R to CO, initial CO reduction, to approximately a 0.75 eV barrier at room temperature,277 and to be a turnover frequency of 1/s per site, which corresponds to considering the transfer of H as a surface hydrogenation. Overall, a facile path toward CO has been analyzed with several methods, as tabulated in Table S2. On Cu(111), both explicit solvent with NEB transition state search168 and H-shuttling methods262,263 find the activation energies for CO₂ reduction to *CO to require low overpotentials to reach the 0.75 eV threshold for facile kinetics. On Cu(100), H-shuttling models275 report less surmountable barriers than explicit solvent with metadynamics,278 which give a net barrier of 0.8 eV for CO₂(g) to *COOH at −0.4 V vs RHE; the reason for this discrepancy may be differences in solvation or the simplifying assumptions behind the H-shuttling model. Overall, a facile path toward CO is consistent with experimental reports that both CO and CO₂ reduction give similar product distributions, suggesting CO to be a key reaction intermediate in CO₂ reduction, as discussed earlier in subsection 3.2.1. Formate, on the other hand, was shown to be a dead end, given that the free energy difference from *OCHO to *OCH₂O is 1.6 eV.201 This theoretical result is consistent with experiments using HCOO⁻ as a feedstock, which gave no detectable products.85

4.2.3. Pathway toward Methane. Using explicit water models, barriers determined using NEB and metadynamics suggest identical reaction intermediates from CO to CH₄ on stepped Cu(211)168 and Cu(100)259 at pH 7, respectively. The free energy diagram for Cu(211) is shown in Figure 14a, and the reaction species determined on Cu(100) are shown in Figure 14b. In this pathway, *CO to *CHO is the rate-determining step, which is followed by a series of proton–electron transfers to form *CHOH, CH₂, CH₂O, *CH₂O, CH₂, and CH₄. In contrast to a purely thermochemical analysis,201 *CH₂O is not found to be an intermediate toward CH₄ due to the insurmountable barrier for proton–electron transfer to *CH₂O to form CH₄ + *O.263,273 It must be noted that crucial differences exist between pathways determined by explicit and H-shuttling models. Whereas explicit methods168,259 suggest that all steps following *CO are proton–electron transfers on Cu(211) and Cu(100), H-shuttling calculations suggest that *CHO is formed through a direct transfer of *H on both Cu(100) and Cu(111).262,279 On Cu(111), H-shuttling in

Figure 14. (a) Free energy diagram of CO₂R to CH₄ on Cu(211), model system for Cu steps. Reprinted from Liu et al.168 This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). (b) Reaction intermediates toward CH₄ determined on Cu(100). Reprinted with permission from Cheng et al.259 DOI: 10.1021/acs.chemrev.8b00705
conjunction with implicit solvent methods suggest a *COH and *CHO intermediate, respectively. (Note: Goddard et al. consider the surface hydrogenation to *CO to form *CHO to be favored vs the associated proton transfer, and report barriers of 0.96 and 0.97 eV (at −0.59 V vs RHE) respectively. However, the latter electrochemical barrier would go down substantially with decreasing potential, assuming a usual β ~ 0.5.)

4.2.4. CO Dimerization. Pathways toward C2+ products are considerably more complex and present more controversy among theoretical studies. Adding to this complexity is that certain C2+ intermediates with large dipole moments are among theoretical studies. Adding to this complexity is that certain C2+ intermediates with large dipole moments are dramatically affected by the fields induced by cations at the interface, which add additional degrees of freedom affecting the energetics (see Figure 15). Both vibrational spec-

Figure 15. Field effects on various CO2R intermediates on Cu(111). The energy of each adsorbate as a function of field strength is obtained by applying a uniform electric field oriented perpendicular to the slab. Adsorbates that are most stabilized by field are *CO2, *OCCO, *OCCHO. Reprinted from Resasco et al. Copyright 2017, American Chemical Society.

tra and kinetic models suggest *CO to be present on Cu under CO2 and CO reduction conditions, and the coupling of 2 *CO to form a *OCCO dimer has been studied using several approaches. It was found that *OCCO on Cu(100), (111), and (211) have insurmountable dimerization barriers (>1 eV) in vacuum, but water solvation and cation effects together stabilize the *OCCO relative to 2 *CO such that dimerization becomes facile.233,280–282 Further, it was found that Cu(100) and stepped (211) exhibit lower barriers than Cu(111).282 Implicit solvent models with a continuum ion distribution should also provide a field-induced stabilization, though the charge and field distribution would not be as localized as in the case of an explicit cation; Head-Gordon et al. report a dimerization barrier of only 0.53 eV at 0 V vs RHE on Cu(100) in the presence of a continuum distribution of charge in the solvent.260 Overall, the sensitivity of the energetics of this step to water solvation and cation-induced fields likely contributes to the tremendous variation in reported CO dimerization barriers on Cu facets: 0.53 to 1.3 eV on Cu(100), and 0.89 to 1.7 eV on Cu(111) (see Table S3 in SI).

4.2.5. C3 Pathways. Beyond *OCCO, the determination of C3 mechanistic pathways and their facet dependence presents an open challenge, with different methods reporting different mechanisms. These differences point to the importance of method development and benchmarking efforts in ab initio simulations of the electrochemical interface. Vacuum calculations on Cu(211) suggest that coupling barriers tend to decrease with increasing hydrogenation of the coupling species,280 and that the pathway to acetaldehyde and ethanol is thermodynamically downhill from *OCCHO.90 With vacuum metal calculations on Cu(100), a *OCCO to *OC pathway was found to be thermodynamically favored after CO dimerization.283 Likewise, this pathway was found to be dominant in an ab initio, explicit solvent study on Cu(211), despite the difference in the treatment of the interface and in the facet.212 An analysis with the H-shuttling model suggests that pure Cu(100) facets do not have facile barriers to form C2 products, and it is concluded that reconstruction of the surface is required for C-C coupling.275 However, these calculations were performed without cations and a full solvent layer, both of which can stabilize some crucial intermediates in the processes considered. An implicit solvent study on Cu(100) found *OCCHO to be a critical intermediate toward C3+ products, with *OCHCHO found to be the precursor to acetaldehyde and ethanol, and *COCHOH the precursor to ethylene.207 The former is in line with experimental observation that OCHCHO (glyoxal) can be reduced to acetaldehyde and ethanol.112,208 Finally,
explicit solvent simulations with metadynamics on Cu(100) suggest that, at low overpotentials, C4p products are formed through CO dimerization and subsequent proton–electron transfers toward \( \text{HOCCHO} \) (vs the \( \text{OCCOH} \) intermediate proposed by ref 283). At high overpotentials, it is assumed that adsorbed \( \text{H}^+ \) saturates the surface such that \( \text{OCCHO} \) is formed through 2 Eley–Rideal steps of \( \text{CO} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{CHO} \) and then \( \text{CHO} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{OCCHO} \). We note, however, that the barrier reported for the first Eley–Rideal step is insurmountable at room temperature at 1.01 eV. Microkinetic models also suggest that at steady state the \( *\text{CO} \) coverage continues to dominate over \( *\text{H}^+ \) even down to \( -1\) V, and \( +\text{CO} \) has been observed with vibrational spectroscopy down to such potentials.146

4.2.6. Kinetics. Given the challenge of determining electrochemical activation energies, few mean-field kinetic models of CO reduction have been reported in the literature.168,212,260 Kinetics provide insight into rates, selectivities, intermediate coverages, and competition among different pathways, all as a function of reaction conditions. However, since rates depend exponentially on energies (i.e., \( r \sim \exp(-E_r/kT) \)), large uncertainties are expected in predicted rates. For example, only a 0.1 eV uncertainty in a barrier translates to over an order of magnitude uncertainty in rate at room temperature. Trends in general are therefore considered to be more reliable than absolute rates.

Recently, a kinetic model for CO reduction to CH4 on transition metals was developed.168 Based on the reaction pathway on Cu(211) (Figure 14a), it was assumed that the proton–electron transfer from \( *\text{CO} \) to \( *\text{CHO} \) is the limiting step for CO reduction on all transition metals. Scaling relations for the H–CO transition state and the corresponding kinetic activity volcano for CO reduction to CH4 were determined on (111) and (211) surfaces (see Figure 16). Adsorbate–adsorbate interactions, which come into play on metals that bind as strongly as Cu or more, were included with a first-order adsorbate interaction model.284 The stepped facet was found to be considerably more favorable for \( *\text{CO} \) protonation than flat ones, owing to the ease of \( *\text{CO} \) rotation and also the accessibility of the C end to proton transfer from the solvent. Stepped facets were therefore predicted to give orders of magnitude higher rates than flat ones.168 In fact, it is suggested that only a small fraction of stepped sites can account for the experimentally determined activity of polycrystalline transition metals,153 which are overlaid in Figure 16a.168 Cu already lies close to the peak of the activity volcano for materials that follow transition metal scaling, due to its intermediate \( *\text{CO} \) binding energy. Based on this analysis, two design criteria for active CO reduction catalysts were proposed: (i) stabilization of stepped sites and (ii) stabilization of the \( *\text{H}–\text{CO} \) intermediates for a given \( *\text{CO} \) binding energy.168 The corresponding contour plot of activity based on \( *\text{H}–\text{CO} \) and \( *\text{CO} \) energies is given in Figure 16b. We note that the predicted significantly higher activity of steps has yet to be demonstrated experimentally, although studies of both single crystal1 and epitaxial films157 do suggest roughly an order of magnitude variation in activity among different facets. Step poisoning, undercoordinated surface defects, and/or surface reconstruction may contribute to this discrepancy between experimental and theoretical results, as discussed earlier in section 3.1.

The C2 kinetic model of Head-Gordon et al.260 considers the initial C–C coupling steps, with energetics determined through an implicit solvent model. The coupling barriers for CO dimerization were found to slightly increase with more cathodic potential, such that the dimerization pathway shuts down in favor of CO–CHO coupling at high overpotential. The resultant kinetics suggested a decrease in C4p products at moderate overpotentials, consistent with DEMS experiments on Cu(100).163 This picture is in contrast with an atomistic picture, where cation concentrations, and therefore CO dimerization rates, should increase with decreasing potential. The physical origin of these effects and the differences between conclusions obtained through implicit and explicit approaches requires further evaluation.

4.2.7. Rate-Limiting Electron Transfers. Rate-limiting electron transfers in CO2 reduction has been a recurrent and contentious theme in the current theoretical literature. In particular, CO dimerization has been postulated to have a rate-limiting electron transfer decoupled from proton transfer.283 However, adsorbate states are strongly coupled to the metal surface, where electrons are readily available. Adsorbate-induced states have widths on the order of eV168,276 and the corresponding rate of electron jumps is then of the order \( 10^{15}/s \); therefore, the electrons respond adiabatically to the configurational changes of the reaction intermediates along the reaction pathway.277

One motivation for the hypothesis behind rate-limiting electron transfers is the experimental observation of a lower onset potential (vs RHE) for C4p products with increased pH163,285 which is consistent with the analysis of the pH independence of ethylene formation on the SHE scale in the seminal work by Horii.159 The idea is that a rate-limiting electron transfer decoupled from proton transfer would show an absolute potential (e.g., vs SHE) dependence, which is invariant with pH since the chemical potential of protons is not involved. Absolute potential dependence then translates to more positive onsets on an RHE scale, which accounts for pH. However, dependence on the absolute potential can also arise from either proton–electron transfer from H2O, which is the proton source in neutral to basic solution, or through field-stabilization of chemical steps with large dipoles. Indeed, hydrogen evolution current densities from metal surfaces have been observed to depend only on SHE potential under a range of pH from neutral to very alkaline conditions,718 which also translates to earlier onsets as pH is increased.

The effects of pH on C2 vs C4 selectivity and activity for COR and CO2R on Cu(211) was examined in a kinetic model that was based on \textit{ab initio} activation energies and mean-field adsorbate–adsorbate interactions.211 In general, as discussed in subsection 3.3.1, the C2 activity is enhanced at high pH and only shows a dependence on the absolute potential, while the C4 activity shows a lesser enhancement with increasing pH159,200 H2 formation was shown to exhibit a similar SHE dependence to C2 activity.200 The kinetic model suggested that the pure SHE dependence of C2 and H2 activities was due to an early rate-determining proton–electron transfer (*OCCO to *OCCOH, and the Volmer step, respectively) while the mixed RHE/SHE dependence of C4 activity was due to a later proton–electron transfer (*CHOH to *CH). The latter is in line with the hypotheses from Horii’s original study.159 Figure 17 shows the experimental200 and theoretical212 curves for CO reduction at pH 7 and 13.212 Overall, the major qualitative features between experiment and theory are in agreement. The depletion of C2 products at high overpotentials arises from a decreased CO coverage upon the onset of C4 production; since
C₂ production rates are second order in CO coverage, C₂ activity is affected significantly more than C₁ products by decreases in coverage. This effect is worsened with mass transport limitations. The branching out of the C₁ activity at high overpotentials is due to a transition to a regime where the *CO to *CHO electrochemical step is rate limiting, in line with the conclusions from Liu et al. Xiao et al. also investigated the energetics of reaction pathways on Cu(111) as a function of pH, using a hybrid of H-shuttling and implicit solvent models. A pH dependence was added by correcting proton–electron transfer barriers with the shift in the chemical potential of a proton with pH, 0.059 eV/pH unit (some examples given in Table S3 in SI). However, as discussed above, under neutral and alkaline conditions, the source of protons is water, such that the electrochemical barriers would show an absolute (SHE) potential dependence, translating to lower activation energies at higher pH. As a result of the model’s pH correction, under alkaline conditions, all H transfers are less favored relative to C–C coupling. The main conclusion from this analysis was a higher C₂ selectivity at high pH, in accordance with experiment, but the assumptions behind the model applied require further examination.

**4.3. Summary**

In recent years, developments in atomistic modeling of the electrochemical interface have made the analysis of CO₂R pathways possible. Major advances in the field include the establishment of CO as a crucial reaction intermediate, investigations of cation promotion, the determination of the mechanism toward CH₄, where results from different explicit solvent methods appear to converge, and the establishment of design criteria for more active catalysts. On the other hand, there have thus far been little consensus in the theoretical literature regarding C₂ reaction pathways and their dependence on pH and facet termination, due to their inherent complexity, the sensitivity of the intermediates to the solvent and cation environment, and controversy regarding the origin of pH effects. Experimental evaluation of facet dependence is also challenging due to the possibility of surface reconstruction and defects in single crystal or epitaxial films, as discussed in section 3.1. We suggest that, while the analysis of onset potentials from reaction energetics can offer significant insight, kinetic modeling is required to elucidate the interplay between coverage, potential dependence of activation energies, adsorbate–adsorbate interactions, and pH effects. Furthermore, we would like to highlight the need for development of multiscale models that can help bridge quantum- and molecular-level dynamics with continuum models of reactant and product transport. Additional theoretical hurdles, not limited to investigations of CO₂R, are the reconciliation of differences in conclusions among existing theoretical approaches, the evaluation of the simplifying approximations made, and also development of new functionals for improved descriptions of charge at the interface, which would have major implications on the accuracy of the associated energetics.

## 5. Electrochemical CO₂ Reduction Pathways on Cu

Ever since Hori’s discovery in 1985 that CO₂ is reduced to hydrocarbons on Cu electrodes with relatively large Faradaic efficiencies, many researchers have put a lot of effort into elucidating the reaction mechanisms of CO₂R on Cu. However, after three decades of work, there is still little consensus. Understanding the mechanisms by which products are formed during CO₂R is essential for the development of effective catalysts that can better meet our needs. Therefore, at this point, we would like to present our current state of understanding of the mechanistic pathways for CO₂R on Cu (Figure 18), which takes into account a variety of both experimental and theoretical studies described in the previous two sections.

First, we will provide a few brief notes about the structure and flow of this figure. We have drawn the intermediates in a way that consistently gives each carbon atom a valency of 4, even though this sometimes differs slightly from the way the intermediate was drawn when proposed. The number on the horizontal axis is the number of carbons in an intermediate or product. The number on the vertical axis is the number of electrons transferred to the intermediate or product, which is four times the number of carbon atoms minus the total oxidation state of the species. The total oxidation state is taken to be the sum of the formal oxidation states of the carbon atoms plus the number of surface-oxygen bonds, representing the fact that bound oxygen has to be reductively cleared from the surface to complete a catalytic cycle. The formal oxidation of each carbon atom is defined as the sum of the contributions from each of the four bonds: C–H bonds, C–O bonds, and C–C bonds. An unbound electron pair contributes −1. A dotted bond contributes exactly half as much to the carbon atom’s oxidation state as a full bond. Note that these rules are a formalism which actual charge distribution does not rigorously obey. When named, intermediates are generally referred to using the name of their desorbed state. For a bound intermediate to desorb, a pair of bonds to the surface are replaced by an additional bond in the molecule, enabling tautomerization if a C–C double bond is formed adjacent to an OH group. If an intermediate with an odd total oxidation state were to desorb from the surface without an electron transfer, it would form a free radical.

Concerted proton–electron transfer (CPET) steps are represented by solid lines going down one level, while dashed lines involve no proton transfer, dash-dotted lines are coupling reactions involving neither proton nor electron transfer, and dotted lines involve multiple electron transfers. To simplify the
of thought that have evolved over time. It is also worth noting that a few other reports have similarly provided mechanistic overviews in recent years.2,8,275,287,289

In general, most mechanisms agree that the step in which CO₂ is adsorbed is the limiting step in CO₂R to 2e⁻ products, but there is some uncertainty on whether this first intermediate is arrived at by CPET or a decoupled pathway through a charged intermediate.16 Then, whether this intermediate binds through the carbon atom or oxygen atom(s) is thought to be a key distinction between the formate and CO pathways. A recent combined experimental and theoretical study found clear volcano trends for the COOH binding energy and OCHO binding energy for CO₂R to CO and HCOO⁻, respectively, indicating that these are likely the main intermediates for these products.287 Alternatively, a recent report combining operando surface-enhanced Raman scattering (SERS) and DFT simulations provided evidence that the first intermediate to both HCOO⁻ and CO on Cu electrodes is a carboxylate anion *CO₂⁻.134 However, rather than being bound through the carbon atom or the oxygen atoms, as shown above, the authors propose that carboxylate is coordinated to the surface through one of its C–O bonds, rigorously using isotope exchange and electrochemical Stark effects to verify the assignment of relevant SERS peaks. Then, DFT simulations suggest that this intermediate is converted into HCOO⁻ and CO via activation of the Cu–C and C–O bonds and stabilization of the Cu–O bond, respectively, with increasing negative potential.134 Thus, while different intermediates are proposed, evidently both the Cu–C and Cu–O bond strengths may still serve as key descriptors governing the selectivity of Cu to both CO and HCOO⁻.

As discussed earlier, it is widely accepted that CO is the key intermediate to >2e⁻ products. Beyond CO₂, a significant distinguishing feature between the C₁ and C₂ pathways is the observed sensitivity to pH. It has been shown that the ethylene formation pathway is independent of pH on the SHE scale, whereas the methane formation pathway is pH dependent on the SHE scale,129,159,200 which leads to the experimental observation of a lower onset potential (vs RHE) for C₂⁺ compared to Cu(111), providing strong support for this mechanism.220 While the authors assigned this species to be *COCOH based on their DFT calculations, another theoretical study207 suggested that, since the vibrational frequencies of adsorbates depend strongly on their adsorption mode, their calculated COH or *CHO intermediate,129,159,201,263,274,291 while the limiting step in C₂⁺ formation has generally been thought to be CO dimerization that is decoupled from proton transfer.2,112,233,259,260,283 Theoretical calculations have differed in their view of *COH vs *CHO depending on the computational techniques and assumptions. A recent microkinetic model has suggested that this C₁ rate-limiting step actually changes under different applied potentials, with *CO → *CHO being limiting at high overpotentials and *CHO → *CHOH being limiting at low overpotentials.212 Furthermore, contrary to the above, this microkinetic model has also suggested that the C₂⁺ pathway could indeed be limited by a CPET step, since the first proton–electron transfer from water to an adsorbate would yield a pure dependence on the absolute potential (i.e., it is independent of pH on the SHE scale).212 However, it is equally suggested that this pH independence could also arise from field-stabilization of a limiting chemical reaction with large dipoles (i.e., CO dimerization), which is supported by studies investigating cation effects. This analysis highlights the need for future theoretical studies to consider not only thermodynamics but also reaction kinetics due to the complicated interplay between adsorbate coverages, adsorbate–adsorbate interactions, field effects, etc.

While CO dimerization has been widely suggested, there are many aspects to this step that are still up for debate, such as whether CO coupling is an electrochemical step (involving a rate-limiting electron transfer)2,112,233,259,283 or is purely a chemical step (not involving a rate-limiting electron transfer)233,260 and whether coupling occurs between two adsorbed CO molecules (*CO + *CO)2,112,233,259,260 and/or an adsorbed and a free CO molecule (*CO + CO(ads))207,243. Additionally, some studies also include the possibility of coupling between species such as *CHO and *CO₂⁺ or CO(ads)207,259 particularly at higher overpotentials. This partially stems from the notion that there are two possible pathways to ethylene depending on the surface structure and overpotential. A series of studies on Cu single crystals have noted a low overpotential pathway (CO dimerization) preferred on Cu(100) and a higher overpotential pathway shared with CuL̅₁,163,165,166 This is consistent with the higher selectivity for CH₄ observed on Cu(100) compared to Cu(111), as discussed in subsection 3.1.1. Furthermore, a recent study employing in situ Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) observed a hydrogenated CO dimer intermediate at low overpotentials on the Cu(100) surface but not Cu(111), providing strong support for this mechanism.220 While the authors assigned this species to be *COCOH based on their DFT calculations, another theoretical study207 suggested that, since the vibrational frequencies of adsorbates depend strongly on their adsorption mode, their calculated *COCOH structure could also have signals in the same range. Thus, discussions continue as to whether the CO dimerization pathway proceeds through a *COCHO207,233,260 or *COCOH207,259,282 intermediate.

Finally, it is also worth mentioning that alternate C₂ mechanisms have been proposed involving dimerization of CH₃ groups103,159,275,292 dimerization of CH₃ groups159,293 coupling of two hydrogenated CO species2,275,280 and a Fischer–Tropsch-like CO insertion mechanism of adsorbed CH₃ and CO.208 While these may be thermodynamically feasible, it is suggested that the surface concentration of these intermediates is likely to be too low for them to be a major source of C–C bonds.207 However, this could be highly dependent on the reaction conditions, and thus, these possible mechanisms cannot be conclusively ruled out.

Within the C₁ pathway, the selectivity between methane and methanol is of particular interest, as methanol is by far the more valuable product (Figure 2), but has proven elusive. As discussed earlier in subsection 3.2.2, species related to formaldehyde have been thought to serve as intermediates for methane and methanol formation. One plausible pathway is *CHO → *CH₂O → CH₃OH or CH₄.201 The lack of reduction of methanol to methane112 is one indicator that this may not be the most facile route to methane, although the reduction of formaldehyde primarily leads to methanol107,112,159 suggesting that this may be an intermediate on the route to methanol formation. Still, Kuhl et al. observed methane and methanol formation on a number of transition metals and saw that the onset potentials for methane and methanol formation are closely correlated, indicating a mechanism in which these products share a common limiting step.207 Cheng et al. (purple C₁ lines in Figure 18) found that after subsequent protonation of *CHO, *CHOH is the likely
branch point between methanol (*CHOH → *CH₂OH → CH₃OH) and methane (*CHOH → *CH → *CH₂ → *CH₃ → CH₄), with the latter pathway being more favorable. This implies that large selectivity between these two products. Interestingly, Kuhl et al. found methanol but no detectable methane on Au (the least oxophilic metal studied) and methane but no detectable methanol on Fe (the most oxophilic metal studied), while the other 5 metals tested (Ag, Zn, Cu, Ni, Pt) produced both. Thus, the oxophilicity of the surface may play an important role in determining the selectivity between these two products.

Interestingly, when the selectivity toward methane is increased, a deactivation effect occurs that is not present when ethylene is the major product. This implies that large amounts of poisoning intermediates form on Cu in the C₁ pathway, and such intermediates may not take part in the C₂₈ pathway. A likely culprit in this regard is graphitic carbon. Some reports suggest that graphitic carbon can serve as an intermediate in CO₂R, and as shown above, a possible pathway to CH₄ could go through *CHOH → *C → subsequent hydrogenation to CH₄. Buildup of graphitic carbon has been commonly suggested as a cause for deactivation though, so this could explain why deactivation is seen on Cu electrodes that more predominantly make CH₄. This could also explain why nanostructured Cu electrodes, which typically exhibit suppression of the CH₄ pathway, have demonstrated increased stability with minimal or no deactivation observed over long-term electrolysis.

In addition, the increased surface area of nanostructured electrodes can itself be a cause for their increased stability since the higher ratio of ECSA to electrolyte volume can reduce the impact of poisoning via other mechanisms, such as deposition of trace metal impurities in the electrolyte. Furthermore, the surface area of Cu electrodes also plays a key role in determining selectivity, which will be addressed in the next section.

As can be seen in the right half of Figure 18 above, the proposed mechanisms for C₂ products diverge completely after the C–C coupling step, and we refer the reader to the original studies for the detailed reasoning behind each proposed mechanism. In short, as discussed in subsection 3.2.2, the reduction of oxygenated species such as glyoxal, glycolaldehyde, acetaldehyde, propionaldehyde, etc. have led to identification of possible intermediates and pathways to alcohols. In addition, water has recently been shown to play an important role in the formation of certain oxygenated products. Under strongly alkaline conditions, Cannizzaro-type disproportionation reactions in the electrolyte may also lead to the formation of alcohols and carboxylic acids from the corresponding aldehyde. In terms of potential-dependent trends, some studies have demonstrated that oxygenates are preferred over hydrocarbons at lower overpotentials. Overall, there is still much being learned about what dictates selectivity between the various C₂, oxygenates and hydrocarbons. Through future work developing in situ/operando spectroscopies, isotope labeling experiments, and computational methods involving kinetic modeling, we may be able to ascertain the distinguishing features of the dominant pathway(s) in order to tailor CO₂R activity and selectivity toward the desired product(s).

This concludes our brief overview of reaction networks for CO₂R on Cu. In the sections that follow, we will expand on this framework and discuss deeper insights on activity and selectivity trends that have been gained from studying more advanced (nanostructured and bimetallic) Cu catalysts.

6. NANOSTRUCTURED COPPER

Nanostructuring of Cu electrodes has been widely applied in attempts to improve selectivity and energy efficiency for CO₂R. Nanostructuring of electrocatalyst materials leads to improved geometric activity (current density normalized to the geometric surface area of the electrode) due to an increase in the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) compared to planar electrodes. In addition, it can oftentimes lead to altered electrocatalytic properties compared to those of planar electrodes. These differences can be caused by a number of effects, including, but not limited to, a higher occurrence of undercoordinated sites, preferential faceting, changes in the local pH, and readsorption of products. In this work, we classify the Cu nanomaterials into two different types of systems: (supported) nanoparticles (section 6.1) and (unsupported) three-dimensionally interconnected electrodes (section 6.2). It is important to note that these two sections both address aqueous phase CO₂R, meaning that CO₂ is delivered to the electrode via diffusion through the aqueous electrolyte. Vapor-fed CO₂R systems, where the CO₂ is delivered directly to the electrode in the gas phase, will briefly be addressed in section 6.3. In this section we will only discuss pure Cu systems, in some cases on a support material, nanostructured bimetallic systems with Cu are covered in section 7.

6.1. Nanoparticles

Nanoparticles are individual particles with a diameter of 100 nm or less that are typically supported on a suitable material. Since all heterogeneous catalytic processes take place at the surface, the high surface area to volume ratio of nanoparticle catalysts allows for greater utilization of a given material on a mass basis. This is an important concern for precious metal catalysts, but is less of an issue for Cu because of its natural abundancy. An important motivating factor for studying nanoparticle catalysts is their high degree of compatibility to be incorporated into gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) and membrane electrode assemblies (MEAs); these vapor-fed systems will be discussed in section 6.3. Here we will detail work that has been done to study the fundamental effects of nanoparticle size, shape, and loading on CO₂R performance in aqueous-phase reactors.

6.1.1. Nanoparticle Size Effects. Particle size can have a direct influence on the reactivity of a catalyst material. This comes down to a number of possible effects, mainly related to a significant increase in the surface to bulk atom ratio as the size is decreased. First, as the size of a particle decreases the curvature of its surface becomes larger and the average coordination number of catalytically active atoms leads to perturbed electronic structure and oftentimes increased reactivity. Furthermore, for very small particles, a significant amount of strain is induced on the surface atoms. This shifts the d-band and, again, influences reactivity. Depending on the catalytic process and material, increased reactivity may improve or deteriorate activity. For simple 2e⁻ processes, the effect of changes in reactivity can be predicted by determining the optimum binding energy of the key intermediate.
much more complex (as shown in Figure 18) and involve many more proton−electron transfers and intermediate species. Therefore, it is hard to predict the effect of changes in the electronic structure on the catalyst performance, and both theory and experimental work are needed.

Based on the concepts outlined above, a few different groups have investigated size effects of Cu nanoparticles for CO$_2$R. The results from various individual studies generally show different trends. Importantly, they all used different catalyst synthesis methods, which can lead to different nanoparticle size, morphology, and stability. If ligands are used during synthesis, they can bind to active sites and alter the activity if not completely removed before electrochemical testing. Furthermore, Cu is inherently mobile, in particular, in the presence of CO. Thus, depending on the initial geometry, significant restructuring can take place under reaction conditions, which can cause changes in nanoparticle size, shape, and distribution.

Reske et al. synthesized various Cu nanoparticle electrodes of diameter 15 nm and smaller. A TEM image of a representative sample is displayed in Figure 19a. When measuring CO$_2$R, the authors observed that the samples exhibited lower CO$_2$R Faradaic efficiency toward hydrocarbons and increased selectivity to the formation of CO and H$_2$ as compared to polycrystalline Cu. These nanoparticles quickly sintered, as illustrated by the transformation over 10 min of CO$_2$R shown in Figure 19c,d. Loiudice et al. synthesized larger, cube-shaped nanocrystals of 24−63 nm, with a TEM image of a 24 nm particle sample displayed in Figure 19b. They showed an optimal CO$_2$R Faradaic efficiency of around 80%, with high selectivity toward ethylene, for 44 nm particles at −1.1 V vs RHE. As mentioned above, the divergence between these three studies can have different reasons. Manthiram et al. showed that their 7 nm particles aggregated to form larger clusters with an average size of 23 nm shortly after introduction to the catalytic environment. Furthermore, two of the studies used spherical particles, while the third mainly studied cube-shaped particles. As discussed in section 3.1, differences in surface structure can influence product distribution, and to some extent activity. Finally, different loadings were used, both between the different studies and within a single study. The effect of this will be discussed in the following subsection. Unfortunately, the diverging results make it difficult to draw clear conclusions about trends for different sizes of Cu nanoparticles.

6.1.2. Loading/Interparticle Distance. Another parameter that can influence the CO$_2$R activity and selectivity of nanoparticles is the amount that is loaded onto the support. Mistry et al. used inverse micelle encapsulation to synthesize nanoparticles with well-defined size and interparticle distance. They found some variation in the product distribution with loading, depending on particle size,
but no clear trend, similarly to what was the case for the study of pure size effects, as discussed above. They attributed the effects to readsorption of products/intermediates and local pH effects. Kim et al. investigated three widely different loadings of 6.7 nm Cu particles on carbon paper. The highest loading was studied further, leading to observations of a structural transition of nanoparticle ensembles into cube-shaped structures. This coincided with a shift in product distribution toward more C₂ compounds and lower H₂ evolution, possibly caused by the exposure of different surface sites and/or local pH changes in the rough structure. The studies mentioned above should be followed up with further work regarding mass transport effects on CO₂R activity and selectivity for Cu nanoparticle systems. Additional well-controlled studies using alternative synthesis techniques and three-dimensional support materials will help to elucidate some of these phenomena.

### 6.1.3. Shape Effects

As discussed in subsection 3.1.1, certain Cu single crystal facets exhibit improved selectivity to specific products. Cu(100) electrodes, and especially “miscut” Cu(100) electrodes with an optimal density of steps, have been shown to exhibit higher selectivity for C–C coupling than other planar surfaces. Reports also suggest that the production of oxygenates is enhanced on certain crystals, including single crystals with (100) and (110) terraces and varying step density, as well as epitaxially grown Cu films with (751) orientation. Motivated by the work on single crystals, some effort has gone into increasing the occurrence of certain facets by controlling nanoparticle shape. For instance, the surface of cubic structures should be dominated by (100) facets since Cu is a face-centered cubic (FCC) metal. In addition, unlike perfect single crystals, faceted nanoparticles also contain edge and corner sites, which could strongly affect the resulting activity. For instance, recent DFT results suggest that Cu(211), which exhibits a high density of surface step sites, yields several orders of magnitude higher activity than (100) and (111) surfaces for CO reduction to CH₄ (168).

Cubic Cu nanoparticles have been synthesized by different groups, as discussed in the previous two subsections. A representative TEM image is shown in Figure 19b. These particles exhibit enhanced C₂ selectivity compared to polycrystalline Cu, possibly caused by increased occurrence of (100) facets. However, Grosse et al. reported drastic morphology changes occurring during CO₂R, including loss of the cubic shape (109). Li et al. produced thin nanowires with well-defined 5-fold twinned edges, exhibiting high selectivity toward CO₂R, with CH₄ produced almost exclusively around −1.25 V vs RHE (103). It is unclear, however, which facets are exposed on the terraces of the nanowires. It is also worth mentioning that −1.25 V is a large overpotential, where polycrystalline Cu also mainly produces methane from CO₂R (110). Furthermore, at potentials more negative than −1.0 V vs RHE, polarization effects begin to impact CO₂R catalysis on planar polycrystalline Cu (96), meaning that these high surface area nanowire electrodes will likely experience mass transport limitations at even lower applied potentials. We would like to underline the importance of measuring novel catalyst materials at potentials where mass transport limitations are not prevalent in order to more directly investigate their intrinsic behavior; this issue was discussed in more detail in section 2.2.

The studies mentioned in the previous paragraph utilized bottom-up methods to obtain faceting of their particles. With a different, top-down approach, Wang et al. used chemical etching of cubic Cu nanoparticles with varying duration to obtain different shapes, as shown in Figure 21. The nanocrystals that were etched for 12 h or more (Figure 21c and d) exhibited a rhombic dodecahedral shape with preferential exposure of (110) facets. These particles exhibited enhanced selectivity to hydrocarbons and reduced CO production at around −0.8 V vs RHE. The authors did not, however, report any liquid products. As mentioned above, Hori et al. reported that single crystals with (110) orientation exhibit significantly enhanced production of oxygenates (152). Therefore, it is likely that oxygenates were produced from these measurements as well. This emphasizes the importance of carrying out thorough product analysis, since this information can give significant fundamental insight.

An important point to consider when investigating shape effects is stability, in terms of both activity and retaining the synthesized shape. This is particularly important for Cu, where structural transformations are likely due to its high mobility. In an attempt to address this issue, Huang et al. studied the development of shape and CO₂R activity of the cubic Cu nanoparticles shown in Figure 19b with electrolysis time. Using TEM, they performed ex situ monitoring of changes to the morphology of the nanoparticles after various durations of electrolysis up to 12 h, while also tracking activity and product distribution. They saw some changes with time; H₂ evolution activity increased and CO₂R activity decreased with longer duration for most samples, and the nanoparticle shape became increasingly ill-defined. They attributed the changes to adsorbate-induced restructuring of the Cu catalyst, yielding useful information for further studies. However, they did not provide conclusive evidence that this is the only or main cause of the deactivation. Importantly, they did not provide evidence that their electrodes were not contaminated, which can be challenging to avoid for such long-term measurements due to the highly negative polarization of the electrode (111,113,114). Furthermore, they only reported CO₂R at −1.1 V vs RHE, which is in a potential region where nonplanar electrodes are
likely in a mass transport limited regime. Thus, any trends in activity that are observed here might not be valid at lower overpotentials.

In general, more work on nanoparticles with preferential faceting would be welcome, in particular to elucidate the effect of particle shape in more detail, and to be able to decouple it from other parameters such as size, loading, support effects, etc. Further stability studies addressing the points raised in the previous paragraph would also be of value to the community.

6.1.4. Effect of Support and Catalyst–Ionomer Interaction. For any nanoparticle-based catalyst, a suitable support material is vital to ensure good dispersion and mechanical stability of the catalyst material. In addition, the interaction between support and nanoparticles can induce changes in the electronic structure of the catalyst and/or add interfacial sites, altering the performance of the catalyst. The support effect is utilized heavily in several industrial catalytic reactions, such as methanol synthesis on Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃. However, only a limited number of studies investigating support effects in CO₂R have been reported to date. Song et al. showed that Cu nanoparticles supported on needle-shaped nitrogen-doped carbon exhibit high selectivity toward ethanol production at high overpotentials, with a maximum Faradaic efficiency of 63% at −1.2 V vs RHE. They attributed the high selectivity to the interaction between the nanoparticles and the highly textured support material. Subsequently, a number of further studies on Cu nanoparticles on various supports reported significant selectivity toward ethanol or ethylene.

Feng et al. synthesized Cu nanoparticles on graphene by physical vapor deposition, and observed a large number of grain boundaries. From these nonequilibrium structures, they observe high selectivity toward ethanol and acetate from CO₂R. Some works also report catalytic enhancement from metal–support interactions for CO₂R on Au and Ag. TEM images illustrating the geometry of these two studies are shown in Figure 22a and b, respectively.

In moving toward more practical device designs, such as vapor-fed systems (Section 6.3), understanding how the other components, including the support and ionomer materials, impact CO₂R on Cu will become increasingly important. For example, it has previously been shown that an optimal ionomer loading exists for hydrogen oxidation electrocatalysts. Gupta et al. tried to determine a similar ideal ionomer content for Cu nanoparticles, and found that optimal formate production occurs using 25% Nafion content in the catalyst ink. We would like to highlight the need for more fundamental studies in these areas in order to help translate aqueous-phase CO₂R catalysis to highly complex vapor-fed designs.

6.2. Three-Dimensionally Interconnected Catalyst Materials

Another approach to nanostructuring is the preparation of three-dimensionally interconnected (3-D) electrodes. In the following, we separate the discussion between oxide-derived...
and non-oxide-derived electrodes and consider how the different pretreatments influence CO2R activity.

6.2.1. Oxide-Derived Copper. Rapid removal of oxygen during reduction of oxidized Cu is a straightforward means to achieve porous, inhomogeneous surfaces that exhibit altered CO2R performance. Hori et al. were the first, to the best of our knowledge, to report CO2R on this type of Cu electrode, which had significantly higher ECSA, as measured by the double-layer charging current. Other early work by Karl W. Frese Jr. reported significant methanol production from CO2R on intentionally oxidized copper electrodes. A large number of later works on similar catalysts have not reported methanol production; thus, it is still not clear how, if at all, methanol could be produced with significant selectivity from Cu electrodes. However, the preparation of nanostructured surfaces from oxidized precursors has still led to a number of interesting findings, which will be discussed subsequently. For ease of navigating the wide variety of materials that have been studied, we organize this subsection by the choice of synthesis method: thermal oxidation, anodic treatment, and other Cu2O film-derived electrodes.

Thermal Oxidation. Kanan and co-workers showed that calcination of planar Cu foils in air and subsequent electrochemical reduction resulted in high surface area 3-D electrodes. An SEM image that illustrates the resulting surface structure can be seen in Figure 23a. When carrying out CO2R on these electrodes, the selectivity toward CO and formate was improved compared to polished Cu. Similar studies have since been carried out using this thermal oxidation and electrochemical reduction method to alter the CO2R activity of Cu electrodes, but a common approach has been to use a copper precursor material with a high occurrence of grain boundaries. Verdaguer-Casadevall et al. used CO temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) to probe the binding strength of CO on oxide-derived Cu foils. They hypothesized that the high selectivity could be caused by undercoordinated sites with special geometries that were stabilized by grain boundary surface terminations. By later studying nanoparticles with varying grain boundary density, they were able to correlate the COR performance to a high occurrence of grain boundaries.

In the aforementioned COR study by Kanan and co-workers, a large number of grain boundaries in the calcined oxide-derived Cu foils were found using transmission electron microscopy (TEM), as illustrated in Figure 23b and Figure 23c. They hypothesized that the high selectivity could be caused by undercoordinated sites with special geometries that were stabilized by grain boundary surface terminations. By later studying nanoparticles with varying grain boundary density, they were able to correlate the COR performance to a high occurrence of grain boundaries.

Some of these studies report enhanced production of CO and formate, and little to no formation of >2e− products. This corresponds well to the results by Kanan and co-workers. On the other hand, two studies also showed enhanced selectivity for >2e− products, such as hydrocarbons and alcohols, compared to polycrystalline Cu, which was not reported previously. Notably, CH4 production was suppressed in favor of C=C coupled products. Possible causes for the discrepancy between these studies on calcined oxide-derived Cu electrodes could be inadequate product analysis in some of the studies and varying mass transport conditions within the different catalyst morphologies and electrochemical cells used by the different research groups.

Kanan and co-workers also conducted CO reduction (COR) studies on their oxide-derived Cu foils. High COR selectivity was observed between −0.25 and −0.40 V vs RHE, mostly toward the C2 compounds ethanol and acetate. At −0.3 V vs RHE, CO was reduced at a Faradaic efficiency of 57%, with an impressive 43% to ethanol production. Similarly high activity and selectivity toward COR was reported by Raciti et al. on Cu nanowires. However, due to the poor solubility of carbon monoxide in aqueous solutions, low maximum COR current densities were obtained in both of these studies. Nevertheless, such a high selectivity toward liquid products spurring much interest in this class of materials.

In the aforementioned COR study by Kanan and co-workers, a large number of grain boundaries in the calcined oxide-derived Cu foils were found using transmission electron microscopy (TEM), as illustrated in Figure 23b and Figure 23c. They hypothesized that the high selectivity could be caused by undercoordinated sites with special geometries that were stabilized by grain boundary surface terminations. By later studying nanoparticles with varying grain boundary density, they were able to correlate the COR performance to a high occurrence of grain boundaries. Verdaguer-Casadevall et al. used CO temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) to probe the binding strength of CO on oxide-derived Cu foils. A high temperature feature that was not present for planar polycrystalline Cu could be identified, suggesting the presence of strong-binding sites on the oxide-derived surface. The occurrence of these sites could be correlated with COR activity, supporting the notion that certain sites present on oxide-derived Cu are responsible for its excellent performance. However, the TPD in this study was complicated by gas-phase mass transport and CO adsorption in the pores of the oxide-derived copper, and modeling was required to decouple this effect from the binding strength of particular sites. The modeling suggested that the high temperature feature was entirely due to strong binding of CO, rather than mass transport, but there is still some uncertainty to this result due to the inhomogeneity of the material.
Rather than specific morphological features being responsible for the high COR activity and selectivity to oxygenated products, other studies have suggested that this has more to do with the increased surface area of these materials. As shown in Figure 24, the production of both oxygenated and C–C coupled products are favored at lower overpotentials. Thus, the performance of these very rough morphologies can be explained by their greater number of surface sites, which all allow these electrodes to reach high geometric COR rates at more positive potentials where the production of C\textsubscript{2+} oxygenates is favored. Importantly, when normalized by the ECSA, planar Cu\textsuperscript{94,95,116,326} exhibit very similar COR rates when compared at potentials that are free of diffusion limitations, suggesting that these potential-dependent selectivity trends are the key reason for the differing performance of these materials.

**Anodic Treatment.** Another approach to prepare oxide-derived nanostructured electrocatalysts is in situ anodic treatments. Oxidation–reduction cycles result in the formation of nanostructures on the surface of polycrystalline Cu. Similar to some studies on calcined oxide-derived Cu, the in situ electrochemical oxidation–reduction treatment resulted in suppressed CH\textsubscript{4} evolution and enhanced production of C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{4} compared to planar Cu. C\textsubscript{2} and C\textsubscript{3} oxygenates were later identified as important liquid products from anodically treated Cu foils by performing rigorous product analysis. Roberts et al. followed up their CO\textsubscript{2}R work on copper nanocubes synthesized by potential cycling in the presence of Cl\textsuperscript{−} by also testing these anodically nanostructured catalysts for COR. Ethylene formation was favored over methane on copper nanocubes compared to polycrystalline foils, confirming the trends they observed previously for CO\textsubscript{2}R. In general, it seems that anodic nanostructuring of Cu surfaces favors production of C\textsubscript{2} over C\textsubscript{1} compounds. Using a different approach, Roldan Cuenya and co-workers created a thick, amorphous oxide film on the surface of Cu foils by oxygen plasma treatment. Depending on the exact pretreatment conditions, this material exhibited high selectivity toward ethylene formation; a maximum Faradaic efficiency of 62% was observed at around −0.9 V vs RHE.

Different reasons for the high ethylene selectivity of these materials have been suggested. Kwon et al. reiterated the explanation given by Kanan and co-workers for calcined oxide-derived copper, attributing it to the high occurrence of grain boundaries and/or other defects on the surface. In the case of the copper nanocubes, it has been speculated that the high degree of (100) surface orientation of the electrodes could play a role, due to the cubic geometry of the surface crystallites and the large number of undercoordinated sites present. Eilert et al. used X-ray absorption spectroscopy to study the properties of the Cu electrodes as they were undergoing redox cycling to produce the cube-shaped surfaces, showing that these nanostructures are derived from Cu\textsubscript{2}O. They also prepared a catalyst derived from a CuO precursor, exhibiting very similar CO\textsubscript{2}R performance, but these electrodes showed a disordered surface morphology without cubic geometries. This points toward other causes for the high C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{4}/CH\textsubscript{4} ratio than the occurrence of cubic facets with preferential (100) orientation. The higher roughness factors (ECSA/geometric electrode area) of these nanostructured electrodes would lead to an elevated local pH close to the electrode surface, which has been shown to favor C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{4} over CH\textsubscript{4} so this is another likely reason for the altered product distribution compared to more planar electrodes.

**Other Cu\textsubscript{2}O Film-Derived Electrodes.** A third class of oxide-derived materials are electrodes derived from copper(I)oxide films, prepared by electrodeposition or hydrothermal synthesis onto a substrate. A rough surface is again created after reduction of the oxide layer, although typically less rough than the calcined electrodes described above. Examples of such films of different thicknesses as-deposited and after reduction are shown in Figure 25, illustrating the change in morphology induced by removal of lattice oxygen. CO\textsubscript{2}R measurements on this class of materials resulted in suppression of methane and enhanced C\textsubscript{2} product formation, with ethylene, ethane, and ethanol being the main products. In the different studies, the effects of bulk crystal structure, film thickness and crystallite size were discussed, giving minor variations in product distribution. Interestingly, these methods for preparing oxide-derived, nanostructured electrodes overall yield similar results to the anodic treatments discussed above with regard to methane suppression and higher selectivity to C\textsubscript{2+} products. On the other hand, some of the calcined oxide-derived copper electrodes were highly selective toward CO and HCOO\textsuperscript{−} at low overpotential, but exhibited modest hydrocarbon productions. A possible reason for this discrepancy could be the significantly higher roughness factors resulting from reduction of the thermally oxidized precursors as compared to the other methods of obtaining oxide-derived electrodes.
very high roughness factor leads to higher activities at lower overpotentials, where the 2e⁻ products from CO₂R, CO, and HCOO⁻ are preferred. This could also lead to these catalysts being mass-transport limited in a region where they would otherwise produce significant amounts of >2e⁻ hydrocarbons and/or oxygenates.

6.2.2. Non-Oxide-Derived Copper. While it is important to note that a thin native oxide surface layer is formed on Cu whenever exposed to ambient air, here we would like to briefly discuss “non-oxide-derived” copper catalysts. By this we mean to highlight several approaches other than those based on the intentional formation and reduction of a thick copper oxide layer on the surface that have been utilized for preparing 3-D copper electrodes, such as sputter deposition, electrodeposition, and dealloying.330–333 Interestingly, similar trends as for the anodically treated and other Cu₂O-derived catalysts discussed previously were again observed in all of these studies. Increased C₂, and lower C₁ product selectivities were reported compared to polycrystalline Cu, and specifically, ethylene and sometimes ethanol formation reached significant Faradaic efficiencies at lower overpotentials. It seems that many approaches can lead to significantly increased C₂ over C₁ product selectivity from CO₂R compared to polycrystalline Cu. The independence of the resulting product distribution on the preparation method suggests that the reason for the improved selectivity is related to the broader impacts of nanostructuring (such as increased surface area), and not necessarily an oxide precursor.

This hypothesis was supported by two recent works where multiple different nanostructured Cu electrodes were prepared and tested for CO₂R. Lum et al. synthesized four different types of oxide-derived Cu electrodes, spanning the three different groups discussed above, and studied their C₂₆₄ product selectivity from CO₂R between ~0.7 and ~1.0 V vs RHE.97 The varying ECSA of the different catalysts enabled determination of an ideal roughness to optimize C₂₆₄ product selectivity at the two extreme potentials, as shown in Figure 26. The authors attributed this optimum to a compromise between elevated local pH, which has been shown to enhance C₂⁺ product formation, and sufficient transport of CO₂ to the active sites. This hypothesis has been corroborated by mass transport modeling.97,98 Ren et al. utilized a similar approach, where they prepared four different types of nanostructured electrodes by electrodeposition: three were oxide-derived and one was not.289 The trends that they observed could all be related to the surface area of the electrode, regardless of whether the material was derived from an oxidized precursor or not. The authors concluded that in order to obtain selectivity toward certain products, the material should be designed to have a limiting current density in a potential region where Cu is selective for certain product(s).289 If, for instance, 2e⁻ products are desired, the electrodes should exhibit very high roughness so that significant current can be achieved at low overpotential. As discussed previously, such electrodes reach mass transport limitations early, and therefore produce small amounts of >2e⁻ products. Thus, if the aim is to produce oxygenates and/or hydrocarbons, intermediate to low roughness is desirable, as was also illustrated by Lum et al. in Figure 26.97

As previously mentioned, many nanostructured electrodes are ill-defined, making it difficult to deconvolute the influence of different possible reasons for changes in behavior. Effects that can play a role include changes in mass transport and increase in local pH, readsoption and further reduction of products, and higher occurrence of undercoordinated sites. One approach to try to deconvolute surface area effects from other effects is to prepare electrodes with ordered pore structure. Yang et al. prepared electrodes of more well-defined porosity by sputtering Cu onto a structured template.331 This resulted in a Cu film with cylindrical pores of varying width and depth, as displayed in Figure 27. They found that pores of 30 nm diameter and 40 nm depth (Figure 27a) yield mainly C₂H₄ at ~1.3 V vs RHE, where CH₄ is the main CO₂R product on polycrystalline electrodes. Deeper pores (Figure 27b) led to enhanced C₅H₁₀ selectivity, while wider pores (Figure 27c) gave product distributions more similar to polycrystalline Cu. The authors attributed the increase in C₂ production for the electrodes with narrow pores to an increased local pH. The change from ethylene to ethane with deeper pores could be caused by readsoption and further reduction of the products due to the longer retention time in the catalyst layer. Another similar study was performed by Song et al. on ordered, mesostructured Cu inverse-opal electrodes.336 As expected from the above arguments, they observed improved C₂ selectivity with increasing thickness of the porous Cu layer. These types of systematic studies are important in order to help identify the factors that lead to improved performance of 3-D electrodes. We therefore suggest this as an area of increased attention in the future.

6.2.3. Role of Oxygen in CO₂R Electrocatalysis. The role of oxygen in CO₂ electroreduction has emerged as a topic of acute discussion within the field in the past few years. The
topic has, however, been debated for decades already, starting with the previously mentioned report by Frese in the early 1990s.\textsuperscript{319} As described earlier, oxide-derived nanostructured materials have been shown to yield interesting selectivity effects for CO\textsubscript{2}R and COR. An important question is whether this is a result of the nanostructure, or oxygen from the oxidized precursor remaining close to the surface under reaction conditions. Intuitively, one would expect any oxides to be reduced under the CO\textsubscript{2}R conditions, due to the strong thermodynamic driving force from the negative potentials applied (see Table 5). Recent DFT calculations indeed suggested that reduction of Cu oxides is more favorable than CO\textsubscript{2}R at the relevant potentials.\textsuperscript{135} However, a number of reports explain that some amount of the initial oxide can be stabilized and affects catalysis. In the following, we will discuss the relevant studies that argue the two points of view.

DFT calculations have been applied to study both whether or not oxygen can be stable under reaction conditions and how it could potentially affect catalysis. Favaro et al. studied the effect of subsurface oxygen on the physisorption of CO\textsubscript{2} onto a Cu surface in a gaseous environment. Using DFT and ambient pressure X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (APXPS), they showed that subsurface oxygen was critical to achieve stable adsorption of CO\textsubscript{2} onto the surface.\textsuperscript{337} Similarly, Kim et al. used XPS depth profiling before and after CO\textsubscript{2}R as evidence that a copper oxide phase catalyzes the CO\textsubscript{2}R.\textsuperscript{329} There remains a gap to be addressed, however, between these \textit{ex situ} results and true CO\textsubscript{2}R conditions, since adding electrolyte to the system and applying negative polarization of the cathode are likely to have a significant influence. Liu et al. suggested that subsurface oxygen close to the surface can actually be stabilized by the disordered near-surface structure and roughness of oxide-derived copper.\textsuperscript{338} Furthermore, they argued that near-surface oxygen can enhance the CO binding strength by withdrawing electron density from surface atoms and reduce the σ repulsion between CO and surface Cu atoms. Other calculations showed that only oxygen in the topmost two subsurface layers can have a non-negligible influence on the reactivity of surface atoms, but the barriers for diffusion of these oxygen atoms are too low for them to be stable under reaction conditions.\textsuperscript{339,340}

A number of further \textit{ex situ} studies have been carried out showing that oxygen is present after CO\textsubscript{2}R.\textsuperscript{319,329,341–344} These groups applied techniques such as X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, Auger electron spectroscopy and TEM, showing copper oxides present throughout the catalyst. However, \textit{ex situ} studies after transfer through air are problematic when studying copper, because of the rapid reoxidation upon exposure to O\textsubscript{2}.\textsuperscript{345,346} As discussed previously, reduction of Cu oxide films before or during CO\textsubscript{2}R leads to formation of nanostructured surfaces. The high abundance of defects on such surfaces ensures even faster oxidation in ambient air after CO\textsubscript{2}R\textsuperscript{346} making it even harder to draw conclusions about their oxidation state under reaction conditions. Recently, Cavalco et al. kept their electrodes under an inert gas atmosphere when transferring them to characterization by TEM, and still saw significant amounts of oxygen.\textsuperscript{345} It is, however, difficult to ensure that absolutely no oxygen reaches the sample at any point in the process. One way to get around oxygen contamination when applying \textit{ex situ} techniques is using isotopically labeled oxygen. Lum et al. carried out depth profiling of oxide-derived Cu that had been oxidized anodically in H\textsubscript{2}O.\textsuperscript{346} They saw that after only 10 min, less than 1% of the original content of \textsuperscript{18}O was remaining, similarly to \textsuperscript{16}O control samples, as shown in Figure 28. This suggests that at least a large fraction of the initial oxide is reduced under reaction conditions. Some recent studies have prepared Cu materials with other dopants than oxygen, such as sulfur\textsuperscript{153,347} and boron.\textsuperscript{348} This way, materials can be prepared that are more resistant against reduction than those prepared with oxygen, while still retaining some of the effects that are thought to occur when O is present close to the surface. However, more work is needed to evaluate if this is actually a viable approach for future materials design.

Because of the rapid reoxidation of Cu in air, \textit{operando} techniques are useful to study the oxidation state of these electrodes during CO\textsubscript{2}R. A number of studies showed reduction of the oxidized precursor under reaction conditions using \textit{operando} measurements such as X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS),\textsuperscript{124} Raman spectroscopy,\textsuperscript{95,128,129,135} and grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD).\textsuperscript{176} Other \textit{operando} studies suggest that oxygen is present under reaction conditions.\textsuperscript{125,249,349} However, there is uncertainty regarding these techniques as well. Catalysis happens at the surface, and only the reactivity of the topmost layers of atoms matter. As discussed earlier, the presence of different species, such as oxygen, close to the surface can alter this reactivity and affect

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
Reaction & EP/V vs RHE \\
\hline
CuO + 2(H\textsuperscript{+} + e\textsuperscript{−}) & 0.56 \\
2CuO + 2(H\textsuperscript{+} + e\textsuperscript{−}) & 0.66 \\
Cu\textsubscript{2}O + 2(H\textsuperscript{+} + e\textsuperscript{−}) & 0.46 \\
Cu(OH)\textsubscript{2} + 2(H\textsuperscript{+} + e\textsuperscript{−}) & 0.53 \\
Cu\textsubscript{2}CO\textsubscript{3}(OH)\textsubscript{2} + 4(H\textsuperscript{+} + e\textsuperscript{−}) & 0.55 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Equilibrium Potentials for the Reduction of Various Copper Oxide Species\textsuperscript{a}}
\end{table}

\textsuperscript{a}Calculated with Thermochemistry data from NIST as described in section 1 of the SI.

![Figure 27. SEM images of mesoporous Cu films with holes of different dimensions: (a) 30 nm width and 40 nm depth, (b) 30 nm width and 70 nm depth, and (c) 300 nm width and 40 nm depth. Reprinted with permission from Yang et al.\textsuperscript{331} Copyright 2016, John Wiley and Sons.](image-url)
catalysis, but they need to be within a few atomic layers underneath the surface. Most of the operando techniques employed thus far cannot clearly distinguish whether the oxygen is at or close to the surface, or deeper in the bulk where it will not affect catalysis. On the other hand, even small amounts of oxygen at or close to the surface might affect reactivity, and most of the techniques would not be able to resolve such minute amounts of oxygen present at the surface.

As a general note, it is very challenging to design an experiment that conclusively determines the active site of a catalyst under reaction conditions. However, until evidence that oxygen species are stable close to the surface where they can influence catalysis is presented, it is the opinion of the authors that this phenomenon is unlikely given the strong thermodynamic driving force for reduction. As discussed above, the fact that CO$_2$R on oxide-derived Cu materials lead to a similar product distribution as non-oxide-derived Cu further indicates that it is the nanostructure, and not the oxidation state of the precursor material, that gives the altered CO$_2$R performance.

6.2.4. Activity Comparisons. Throughout section 6.2, we have grouped the different 3-D materials into two main categories: oxide-derived and non-oxide-derived catalysts. Although a number of different approaches to nanostructuring have been applied in the literature, which have yielded electrodes with highly diverse structures, there are many similarities in their performance for CO$_2$R. Studies on 3-D electrodes carried out at low overpotentials reported improved selectivity toward carbon monoxide and/or formate compared to planar copper foils. At more negative potentials, some or full suppression of methane formation and enhanced selectivity toward ethylene and/or other C$_2$ products has been reported.

Nanostructuring gives electrodes with increased roughness factors, varying from 2 to 850 in the studies discussed herein. This results in increased current density when normalized by geometric surface area. In Figure 29a, geometric CO$_2$R current densities for many of the studies discussed throughout this section are shown, compared to data obtained on planar, polycrystalline Cu by Kuhl et al. and Hori et al. In this plot, all of the nanostructured materials exhibit higher geometric activity at a given potential compared to planar, polycrystalline copper, when not under mass transport limited conditions.

![Graph](image-url)
This does not, however, reflect the intrinsic activity of the material, as discussed in section 2.1. Therefore, it is instructive to also compare the specific activity of the electrode, as shown in Figure 29b, where the activities are normalized to ECSA. Here we see that there is little or no difference in the total intrinsic CO₂R activity among the different types of nanostructured electrodes. Furthermore, the intrinsic activity of these various Cu nanostructures is similar to that of planar, polycrystalline Cu. The similar intrinsic activity of all Cu electrodes is underlined by the Tafel-like behavior observed in Figure 29b, prior to diffusion limited conditions. This explains why high roughness factor materials tend to exhibit earlier onset; higher roughness electrodes yield higher overall current densities, which allows for the detection of products at lower overpotential, even at low turnover frequencies per surface site. The magnitude of the diffusion limited current density also scales with surface roughness, with high surface area materials reaching mass transport limitations at lower overpotential. These findings strongly suggest that nanostructuring does not alter the intrinsic activity of copper in any significant manner, perhaps within a factor of 2–4, for any synthesis method used. Furthermore, it does not seem that intrinsic CO₂R activity is higher for oxide-derived materials (studies [C–J] in Figure 29), as compared to non-oxide-derived electrodes such as polycrystalline Cu (studies [A, B]) and mesostructured Cu (study [K]). This further corroborates the notion that the precursor material oxidation state is not a crucial factor for CO₂R performance, and that any subsurface oxygen that may or may not be present based on different preparations of Cu has little or no influence on intrinsic CO₂R activity.

Although the ECSA-normalized activity is similar for the various types of nanostructured electrodes, there are differences in the product distribution. First, as mentioned previously, mass transport conditions generally have a large influence on the product distribution obtained from a catalyst material. When approaching mass transport limited conditions, the local pH close to the electrode surface increases. Since electrodes with high surface area reach mass transport limitations at relatively low overpotentials, improved C₂+ product selectivity can be observed under these conditions. However, as significant mass transport limitations are reached, too little CO₂ reaches the electrode surface, and H₂ evolution takes over. This is a likely reason for calcined oxide-derived Cu foils exhibiting a significant drop in CO₂R selectivity at potentials more negative than −0.6 V vs RHE, and low hydrocarbon formation in general. The very high roughness factors cause the bulk of the non-mass-transport-limited activity to be in a low overpotential region where CO₂R to CO and HCOO⁻ is favored; meanwhile, these systems favored C₂+, oxygenates at low overpotentials when doing COR, which can be understood by the potential-dependent selectivity trends shown in Figure 24. Thus, a key finding here is that the roughness factor of the electrode in effect shifts the potential window where kinetically limited CO₂R can take place, which has a very large impact on the product selectivity.

Electrode roughness is not the only important parameter though; morphological features such as pore size and shape can also strongly influence product distribution, as well as the retention time of products and intermediates in the catalyst structure. A good illustration of this is that studies investigating catalyst layer thickness or pore depth generally find that thicker nanostructures lead to more ethane on behalf of ethylene. Ethane is generally not observed on planar electrodes, and can likely be attributed to readsoption and further reduction of ethylene. Although some clear trends are outlined above, more work is still needed to improve our understanding of which effects drive selectivity to different products, and eventually give us the possibility to steer CO₂R toward desirable chemicals. Furthermore, since current densities of 100 mA/cm² or higher seems to be a minimum for commercialization to be realistic, more work needs to be done to enhance mass transport of CO₂ to achieve higher reaction rates. A key strategy toward that end will be discussed subsequently.

6.3. Vapor-Fed Systems

All of the catalysts described thus far have been tested using conventional aqueous-phase CO₂R reactors. While these have clearly been useful for gaining fundamental insights, the poor solubility of CO₂ in aqueous electrolytes (~34 mM), along with the acid/base buffer equilibria (CO₂/HCOO⁻/CO₃²⁻) described earlier lead to significant challenges in achieving high CO₂R reaction rates. Vapor-fed systems can overcome these practical limitations by delivering gas phase CO₂ directly to the catalyst surface. Indeed, some of the best performing Cu catalyst systems reported today in terms of Faradaic efficiency, energy conversion efficiency, and stability use vapor-fed reactors. 126,131,292,347,350–353 We therefore wanted to take this opportunity to briefly discuss these reactor configurations and highlight promising developments in this area. For more information, we direct the readers to a recent perspective article that details the progress, challenges, and opportunities toward the development of practical CO₂ electrolyzers, as well as a recent review on the same topic. 355

In commercial electrocatalytic systems, such as fuel cells and water electrolyzers, a gas diffusion layer is typically employed as a support material in order to maximize transport of reactants to the catalyst surface. These layers comprise open, three-dimensional structures of relatively inert materials, such as carbon. Together with the porous catalyst, this forms what is known as a gas diffusion electrode (GDE). A GDE can be used with either a liquid electrolyte or a solid-state polymer electrolyte membrane. A membrane electrode assembly (MEA) refers to the latter case, whereby an assembled stack is composed of a polymer electrolyte membrane sandwiched between two GDEs. Here, ionomers are used to extend the electrolyte membrane material into the GDEs to provide intimate contact with the catalyst and ensure efficient transport of ions to/from the surface. This is important because the relevant reactions can only take place at triple-phase boundaries, which are points where the gaseous reactant, electron-conducting catalyst, and ion-conducting polymer or liquid electrolyte meet. Vapor-fed systems are thus inherently more complex than aqueous-phase systems due to the multitude of heterogeneous interfaces across a range of length scales (Figure 30) and will present many challenges in optimizing CO₂R activity and selectivity.

While still in its infancy, research in these areas has already demonstrated promising activity and selectivity improvements compared to conventional aqueous-phase reactors. 126,131,292,347,350–353 For example, various vapor-fed reactors using Cu-based GDEs have achieved high CO₂R geometric partial current densities to ethylene of around 150–473 mA/cm² 126,131,292,347,351,352 and to ethanol of around 40–108 mA/cm². 126,131,292,347,351,352 As discussed in subsection 3.3.1, alkaline electrolytes can improve selectivities and energy efficiencies to C₂⁺ products. This was illustrated in a recent
report where researchers tested KOH, KHCO₃, KCl, and K₂SO₄ electrolytes in their microfluidic CO₂ flow cell electrolyzer and found that an optimal production of C₂⁺ products (411 mA/cm² at −0.67 V vs RHE, corresponding to 62% Faradaic efficiency) could be achieved in KOH. These carbon-based GDEs were unfortunately found to degrade at such high reaction rates, but the stability was improved by incorporating a polymer layer to help prevent flooding. In this way, Sargent and co-workers were able to achieve ~70% Faradaic efficiency for CO₂R to C₂H₄ at −0.55 V vs RHE for 150 h in 7 M KOH (although the current slowly declined from 100 to 75 mA/cm²). It is worth noting that for sustained CO₂R under alkaline conditions, reactor systems will have to be carefully engineered to avoid neutralization of the electrolyte via CO₂ conversion to bicarbonate; otherwise, regeneration of the KOH will add to the costs and detract from the overall energy balance of the system. This could also be one advantage of performing COR instead of CO₂R in such a device.

The studies discussed above demonstrate the promise of using vapor-phase CO₂ to overcome intrinsic limitations of aqueous-based systems, but there is still much work ahead in further developing and optimizing these practical device architectures for commercial application. The choice of electrolyte, catalyst, and GDE fabrication process will all have a significant impact on device performance and must ideally be designed to optimize transport of CO₂, products, electrons, and ions simultaneously. There is thus a large phase space to explore in tuning relevant properties of the gas diffusion layer(s), such as porosity, hydrophobicity, and thickness. Well-controlled studies that aim to understand the effects of nanoparticle size, shape, and loading, as well as catalyst–support and catalyst–ionomer interactions will also be essential. Translating this and other fundamental knowledge gained from probing catalyst morphology and electrolyte effects in aqueous-phase reactors to complex vapor-fed systems will aid in their advancement. Furthermore, since CO₂R in these 3-D architectures involves many processes over a range of length and time scales, it will become increasingly important to couple experimental and theoretical investigations. Continued development of microkinetic and 3-D transport modeling methods are promising candidates in that regard.

6.4. Summary

Nanostructuring gives electrodes with increased roughness factors, varying from 2 to 850 in the studies discussed in this section, which results in increased current density when normalized by geometric area of the electrode. However, when normalized by the ECSA of the electrode, it is found that the intrinsic activity of Cu catalysts is similar among all the different forms of electrodes reported to date, whether nanostructured or planar, and irrespective of the particular nanostructure or synthesis route. This highlights the importance of data normalization for determining whether higher catalytic activity results from a higher average turnover frequency or simply from an increased number of active sites.

While nanostructuring does not appear to change the intrinsic activity of Cu, interesting changes in product distribution have been observed. For example, many 3-D catalyst materials exhibit some or full CH₄ suppression and increased C₂⁺ product selectivity. This has largely been explained by mass transport modeling studies, which have shown that an ideal compromise between pH increase and CO₂ supply at the electrode surface gives an optimal C₂⁺ selectivity on rough electrodes. More generally, since the number of active sites impacts the potential windows where the reaction is kinetically limited vs mass transport limited, the catalyst surface area has emerged as a key determinant of product selectivity. Other morphological factors such as preferential faceting, grain boundaries, and pore shape and size may also lead to changes in CO₂R selectivity due to surface structure effects and/or readsoption and further reduction of products.

Nanostructured electrodes are particularly relevant because of their potential compatibility with vapor-fed reactors, a promising technology platform capable of achieving industrially relevant current densities. However, substantial efforts will be needed in order to understand how CO₂R catalysts behave in such a different environment than the conventional aqueous-phase, lab-scale reactors that are typically employed today. We feel that research in these directions should be prioritized in order to begin accelerating the development of
practical devices that convert CO₂ to high value fuels and chemicals.

7. COPPER BIMETALLICS

Changing structural properties of the catalyst material (e.g., via hierarchical nanostructuring, particle size/support effects, etc.) is one key tactic to alter the catalytic performance, as discussed in the previous section. Another approach being employed to improve the activity, selectivity, and stability of Cu for CO₂R is the preparation of bimetallic systems. Bimettals can enhance performance compared to monometallic catalysts by a variety of mechanisms including electronic ligand and strain effects and geometric ensemble effects. The electronic effects refer to a change in the electronic structure of the host material after addition of another element, which alters the binding strength of intermediate adsorbates on the surface according to the d-band model. Geometric ensemble effects refer to a change in the atomic arrangement of actives sites, which alters the way adsorbates interact with the surface and each other. In addition to simply changing the number or configuration of particular atoms in an ensemble, bifunctional active sites can also be created, where neighboring metals serve different catalytic roles. For example, it has been thought that bifunctional active sites for CO₂R could be created using a metal with higher oxygen affinity, allowing *COOH or *CHO to be stabilized by interacting with the surface through both the carbon and oxygen atoms compared to *CO, which tends to bind surfaces through the carbon atom in an upright geometry. Additionally, isolated active sites can be formed that change the proximity of other adsorbates, which can impact the selectivity.

There are a multitude of bulk systems that can be formed when two elements are mixed, including solid solutions, intermetallic compounds, and phase-separated systems. Details governing the formation of these bimettals and their different properties are outside the scope of this Review. Instead, we will focus on the resulting model systems that allow for the study of the aforementioned electronic and geometric effects. These include bulk alloys, surface alloys (alloy layer supported on a monometallic core), near surface alloys (alloy beneath one or a few monometallic layers), or guest metal modified surfaces (e.g., islands or particles on a monometallic host). In addition, there are bimetallic overlayers, either planar or nanoparticulate (core-shell) structures, which refer to a monometallic surface supported on either a different metal, a bulk alloy, or a (near) surface alloy. Due to the large number of possible bimetallic combinations, with regard to both the composition and structural arrangements, computational screening approaches have been used to aid in the search for improved CO₂R catalysts. There have been a number of non-Cu-based bimettals that have demonstrated synergistic activity or selectivity, primarily to 2e⁻ products. This section will only focus on the experimental results obtained for Cu-based bimetallic systems in aqueous solutions under ambient conditions.

As described in subsection 1.2.2, early experimental work led by Hori and co-workers showed that on Fe, Ni, Pt, and Pd, the competing HER is primarily observed; on Ag, Au, and Zn the major product is CO₂ and on Cd, Pb, Hg, Ti, Sn, and In the major product is HCOO⁻. The Cu-based bimetallic combinations discussed in the following sections are thus organized according to these groupings by the dominant CO₂R selectivity of the guest metals. First, we will describe the structural properties of the studied model catalysts and summarize the main experimental findings with respect to their catalytic activity and selectivity for CO₂R compared to pure Cu. Then, we will provide some overall perspectives on the benefits of using bimettals, pitfalls to avoid when investigating these systems, and suggestions for future studies.

7.1. Copper and H₂ Producing Guest Metals (Fe, Ni, Pt, Pd)

Mainly H₂ is formed during CO₂R on monometallic electrodes of group 8–10 transition metals. Thus, Cu-M bimetallic electrodes (where M = Fe, Ni, Pt) typically result in increased HER activity and selectivity compared to pure Cu. This has been shown for a variety of model systems: Cu electrodes modified with Fe, Ni, or Pt deposits, CuPt alloy nanocubes and nanocrystals, and Cu overlayers on Pt electrodes. Additional trends have been observed whereby increased guest metal coverage on Cu, increased Pt content in the nanoalloys, and decreased Cu overlayer thickness led to increased HER activity and/or selectivity. In the case of the Cu overlayers, only after the Cu layer was sufficiently thick (>5 nm) did the H₂ formation return to bulk Cu-like values. In a separate study, it was demonstrated using electrochemical scanning tunneling microscopy (ECSTM) that the presence of CO formed during CO₂R destabilizes thinner Cu overlayers due to the very high binding affinity of CO on Pt. This causes restructuring from a flat overlayer morphology into more complex three-dimensional particles, while simultaneously exposing the underlying Pt substrate, as shown in Figure 31. Thus, the increased affinity for HER in the bimetallic systems likely results from increased exposure of these guest metals on the catalyst surface.

Figure 31. (a) Atomically flat morphology of the Cu overlayer in a CO-free electrolyte (499 nm), U = 0.02 V, U₉ = 292 mV, I₉ = 1 nA. (b) Granular morphology of the Cu overlayer after exposure to a CO-saturated electrolyte (499 nm), U = 0.01 V, U₉ = 356 mV, I₉ = 10 nA. (c) Disordered Cu overlayer with (2 × 2)-CO structure inside the vacancies (13.6 nm), U = 0.01 V, U₉ = 356 mV, I₉ = 10 nA. Reprinted from Varela et al. Copyright 2013, American Chemical Society.
As one might expect, these systems also exhibit a concurrent decrease in overall CO₂R activity and selectivity, and in general, only mixtures of H₂, CO, CH₄, and C₂H₄ were detected. Interestingly, with increasing Ni or Fe coverage on Cu, Hori found a linear correlation between the HER selectivity and CH₄/C₂H₄ (C₁/C₂) selectivity ratio.³⁷⁷ It is worth noting, however, that the increase in C₁/C₂ ratio was due to significant C₂H₄ suppression rather than a boost in CH₄ production. This trend extends across many of these other systems, where C₂H₄ was only detected in trace quantities²⁷⁸,³⁸¹ or not at all.³⁷⁹,³⁸⁰ Based on the mechanistic studies discussed earlier, this decreased C₂H₄ production may be attributed to increased H coverage on the surface, which can hinder C–C coupling. In the nanoalloys and guest metal modified Cu systems, this can also be due to a lack of adjacent Cu surface sites required for CO dimerization. However, for the thin Cu overlayer system, it was determined via ECSTM that even after sintering, the Cu ensembles would still be large enough to allow for C–C bond formation, but the C₂H₄ Faradaic efficiency did not exceed 0.6%.³⁸¹ Meanwhile, for thicker Cu overlayers (>5 nm), it was found that the ratio between CH₄ and C₂H₄ could be tuned as a function of overlayer thickness and potential.³⁸² Both of these studies point to tensile strain on Cu from lattice mismatch with the Pt substrate playing a role in the CO₂R selectivity by altering the adsorption energy of reactive intermediates, as previously discussed. While these C₁/C₂ selectivity trends are interesting and merit further study to better understand, unfortunately it is clear that none of these bimetallics with highly HER active metals resulted in a more active CO₂R catalyst for >2e⁻ products (Figure 36 in section 7.4).

Interestingly, earlier reports from Watanabe et al.³⁸³,³⁸⁴ indicated that Cu–Ni alloys could have synergistic methanol production because they found that neither of the pure metals produced methanol, but their Cu–Ni alloys were shown to produce around 5–10% Faradaic efficiency. The different structural properties of the bimetallic electrodes (incorporating Ni as an overlayer/surface additive vs mixing as an alloy) might be the cause for the different products observed between this and the other reports discussed above. With improved product detection, however, methanol production has since been confirmed for both monometallic Cu and Ni electrodes by Kuhl et al.²⁰³. Thus, it is unclear what, if any, synergistic effects were at play, and more thorough investigations are needed.

Palladium is somewhat unique in this grouping in that, according to Hori’s data, Pd has very similar H₂ and CO Faradaic efficiencies (~27%), although there is ~40% of the current unaccounted for, which is likely from hydrogen absorption.¹ The ease with which hydrogen can be absorbed into Pd metal has attracted interest in this material for CO₂R, and early studies showed that Pd selectivity was heavily dependent on whether it was employed as a hydrogen-depleted or hydrogen-enriched surface, with the latter leading to greatly enhanced formate production.³⁸⁵ Similarly, it was found that Pd and electrolytically charged Pd⁺H electrodes both modified with Cu displayed different selectivities, where Cu/Pd⁺H electrodes led to higher Faradaic efficiencies for the production of methane and especially of formate compared to Cu/Pd electrodes.³⁸⁶,³⁸⁷ This effect was enhanced when the amount of absorbed hydrogen in the Pd electrodes was larger (Cu/Pd⁺H charged to 20 vs 100 Coulombs), and when the coverage of Cu was lower, likely because higher Cu coverages prevented hydrogen from discharging through the cracks in the Cu film.³⁸⁶,³⁸⁷ Production of CO and C₂⁺ products were not enhanced by the absorption of hydrogen.³⁸⁷ Another study found a complete shift in selectivity from C₂H₄ (32.1% → 3.4%) to C₂H₆ (<1% → 30.1%) at −1.0 V vs RHE on a Cu₂O-derived catalyst after Pd(II)-chloride was added to the electrolyte, while the production of other carbonaceous species remained almost unchanged.³⁸⁸ Mechanistic studies on this system lead the authors to suggest that CO₂R on the Cu sites first produces C₂H₄, which is then hydrogenated to C₂H₆ with the assistance of adsorbed PdCl₂. Ultimately, the practicality of this system may be limited since PdCl₂ served as a sacrificial dopant, resulting in less than 100% total Faradaic efficiency due to reduction of the PdCl₂ and decreasing C₂H₄ selectivity over time as this species was depleted. Regardless, both of these studies point to Pd serving as an active hydrogen source, shifting CO₂R selectivity toward hydrogenated products.

While these bimetallics utilized Pd or Cu as substrates for deposition of the other component, Cu–Pd alloys have also been reported and displayed a very different trend. Composition-dependent studies of Cu–Pd alloy nanoparticles²⁸⁹ and electrodeposited mesoporous films³⁹⁰ resulted in enhanced activity and selectivity to CO, with optimum ratios of Cu/Pd producing around 80% CO at ~0.8 V vs RHE. Both studies attribute the enhanced CO production to a ligand effect, where Cu weakens the CO adsorption energy on adjacent Pd sites. Another reason for CO being the dominant CO₂R product reported in these studies could be due to a lower *H coverage resulting from Pd–H bond weakening in Cu–Pd alloys, preventing CO hydrogenation.³⁹⁰,³⁹¹ While electronic effects may certainly have an impact, other studies suggest that geometric effects play the primary role in governing selectivity of Cu–Pd bimetallics. GDEs with a 1:1 ratio of Cu/Pd were systematically studied in ordered, disordered, and phase separated atomic arrangements (Figure 32).³⁹² Both intermetallic mixing patterns primarily made CO over a range of potentials, similar to the other two Cu–Pd alloy systems, while the phase separated CuPd electrode showed a very clear difference in selectivity and made >60% C₂⁺ products. Furthermore, a compositional study of disordered Cu–Pd electrodes also resulted in higher selectivity for C₂⁺ products as the concentration of Cu increased from Pd < Cu₉Pd₅ < Cu₇Pd₅ < Cu₅Pd₅ < Cu.³⁹² Likely, the hydrogen absorption ability of Pd and the C–C coupling ability of Cu are both diminished upon increased mixing. Thus, bimetallic systems where Cu and Pd are sufficiently separated likely lead to more hydrogenated and/or C₂⁺ products, whereas bimetallic

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Figure 32. Schematics of ordered, disordered, and phase separated particles with 1:1 composition of CuPd. Reprinted from Ma et al.³⁹² Copyright 2017, American Chemical Society.
systems with increased mixing between these two elements may lead to more CO. While this provides compelling evidence for geometric effects driving the selectivity, increasing the degree of mixing should enhance any ligand effects as well. This is why, in general, it is extremely challenging to deconvolute ligand/strain effects from geometric effects.

### 7.2. Copper and CO Producing Guest Metals (Ag, Au, Zn)

Silver, gold, and zinc are all highly selective for CO production from CO₂R in aqueous solutions under ambient conditions. As a result, many Cu-M bimetallic electrodes (where M = Ag, Au, Zn) have shown increased selectivity, and in some cases higher intrinsic activity, for making CO.

#### 7.2.1. Synergistic Effects for CO Production

Several composition-dependent studies have shown increasing CO selectivity with increasing guest metal content, and this was demonstrated for a variety of bimetallic structures including: Cu–Ag dendritic electrodeposits, small coverages of Au on Cu, Au–Cuₓ alloys formed via pulsed laser deposition with and without O₂ present, Au–Cu₁₀₀–ₓ bulk alloys, and ~10–11 nm Cu–Au alloy nanoparticles. This can be expected due to the weaker binding of CO on Ag and Au, favoring CO desorption in these systems.276 There does exist some synergistic effect though, since several Cu–Ag bimetallics showed higher activities for CO production compared to pure Au electrodes tested in each study.353,385,397 Several explanations for this include the following: CO adsorbed on Cu sites can further promote CO desorption on Au sites due to dipole repulsion, or neighboring Cu atoms can instead form a bond with the oxygen end of COOH via a bifunctional mechanism, stabilizing this intermediate for CO production on Au sites.396 It is unclear to what extent these may be true, but both suggest that an optimal surface Cu:Ag composition is required for enhanced CO activity in these alloys. It is worth noting that the optimal bulk composition was different in these two studies, but this could be due to a morphology effect for the planar vs nanoparticle alloy configurations and/or the true in situ surface compositions differed from the measured bulk compositions.

Alternatively, a third study on CuAu (1:1) alloy nanoparticles actually ascribed their enhanced CO activity to a compressively strained Au surface layer that formed as a result of a disorder-to-order transformation.397 The disordered CuAu nanoparticles were largely selective for H₂ in agreement with the group’s previous composition-dependent study,398 but the ordered CuAu nanoparticles were found to have higher specific and mass activities for CO production compared to pure Au nanoparticles. Since surface characterization revealed that a three-atoms-thick Au shell formed on top of the ordered CuAu alloy core, bifunctional effects were ruled out in this specific system; instead, it was suggested on the basis of a complementary DFT study that 6% compressive strain and vertical ligand effects contributed to the catalytic activity.397 While enhanced CO activity has been demonstrated in these Cu–Au alloy and core–shell systems, it is worth noting that none have shown a higher average turnover frequency than the state-of-the-art Au catalysts (Figure 37 in section 7.4). Cu–Au bimetallics may offer an interesting opportunity though to rationally design electrocatalysts yielding optimal and tunable syngas (H₂ and CO) compositions, as demonstrated in a systematic study of Cu monolayer coverage on Au nanoneedles.353

Another report sought to take advantage of strain and vertical ligand effects by synthesizing Au core Cu shell nanoparticles (Au@Cu) with different Cu shell thicknesses (7–10, 14–18, 30–40 layers).393 The cubic Au nanoparticle core resulted in epitaxial growth of Cu(100) for low and intermediate quantities of Cu layers, but this broke down for the largest number of Cu layers, which looked to be more (111) in character. Therefore, this system has several competing effects including strain, surface structure, roughness, and particle size differences that make it tough to ascribe the activity and selectivity to any one of these in particular. In addition, all three samples showed time-dependent selectivity over the course of an hour.393 While they do not confirm with structural characterization after electrochemistry, this could be due, at least in part, to Cu overlayer instability. Previous work investigating Cu overlayers on Au(100)404 and Au(111)403 observed alloy formation for Cu monolayers and multilayers under strongly cathodic potentials, while submonolayers relieved the interface tension by structural collapse. Thus, the significant (12.5%) tensile strain between Cu and Au may simply be too unstable to yield a certain benefit, especially given the already high mobility of Au and Cu at room temperature. The Au overlayer on intermetallic CuAu nanoparticles generated by the disorder-to-order transformation resulted in an intermediate compressive strain (6%) for Au.397 The reduced interfacial tension, plus the fact that the Au shell is already supported on an alloy phase, may decrease the driving force for overlayer instability. While extended tests over 12 h do show some loss of activity (15%) and gold content near surface alloys could still be a promising paradigm to investigate moving forward for achieving stable strain effects.

#### 7.2.2. Synergistic Effects for > 2e⁻ Products

There are two key effects in some Cu-M bimetallic electrodes (where M = Ag, Au, Zn) that have led to improved activity or selectivity for C–C coupled and oxygenated products: CO spillover and electronic effects. In the first case, by co-locating domains of Cu with those of a CO-generating metal, such as Ag, Au, and Zn, additional CO can be supplied to Cu via eased surface diffusion over short length scales and/or by simply increasing the local CO concentration within the diffusion boundary layer, which in turn can lead to a higher coverage of CO. One potential demonstration of this concept was shown in a study on Cu–Ag bimetallic electrodes using a pulsed CO₂ reduction technique, which yielded higher Faradaic efficiencies for the production of C₂⁺ compounds such as CH₂CHO, C₃H₇OH, and C₄H₄ compared to pure Cu and Ag metal electrodes.322 By alternating cathodic and anodic biases, it was expected that desorption of CO occurred on Ag but not from Cu, allowing for facile C–C coupling on Cu due to a higher partial pressure of CO near the surface of the electrode. Another group electrodeposited Cu–Au alloys onto a nanoporous Cu film (NCF) and found these led to higher alcohol selectivities compared to the NCF alone.398 They also compared the best Cu–Au alloy composition electrodeposited on the NCF to that deposited on a flat copper plate and found that the alcohol selectivity was much lower using the copper plate substrate, suggesting that the nanostructured morphology and/or surface area has a strong impact on this effect.
sweep voltammetry in CO yielded a higher current than in Ar, so while CO spillover is not mentioned explicitly, the authors use this result to suggest that catalyzing conversion of intermediary CO could be the cause for the improved alcohol selectivity.\textsuperscript{398} Unfortunately, the results are only presented in terms of selectivity (Faradaic efficiency), no current density information for the bulk electrolysis was provided, so we were unable to determine if the intrinsic activity toward alcohols was improved.

There have been a few recent reports that have more directly linked observed improvements in \( \text{C}_2 \) activity and/or selectivity to a CO spillover effect.\textsuperscript{127,129,131,399,400} One system that clearly exhibited synergistic activity and selectivity for \( \text{C}_2 \) alcohols superior to that of Cu, Au, or CuAu alloys was a polycrystalline Cu foil decorated with Au nanoparticles (Au/Cu).\textsuperscript{399} In fact, the Au/Cu catalyst reduced the overpotential by \( >260 \text{ mV} \) for the production of alcohols and had a \( >100 \times \) higher rate of CO\(_2\) reduction to \( >2e^- \) products in this low overpotential region, as shown in Figure 33. These improve-

![Figure 33](image_url)\textsuperscript{a} CO\(_2\)R rate to \( >2e^- \) products; \textsuperscript{b} Current efficiencies and partial current densities to alcohols. Reprinted with permission from Morales-Guio et al.\textsuperscript{399} Copyright 2018, Springer Nature.

ments are attributed to a tandem catalysis mechanism, where these two separate metals operate in close proximity with complementary surface chemistry. This hypothesis was supported by a control experiment performed on a surface alloy (Au\(_{0.01}\)Cu\(_{0.99}\)), which did not reproduce the trend of enhanced alcohol production at low overpotentials. The CO spillover effect was further corroborated by transport modeling, which indicated that the Au nanoparticles provide a higher concentration of CO near the Au/Cu surface than what Cu could produce alone or than what could be sustained through transport of CO from the bulk.\textsuperscript{399} Having this local CO source within the electrode double layer sidesteps the issue of low CO solubility in aqueous electrolytes, leading to the increased activity for \( \text{C}_2 \) products at low overpotentials. A similar Au on Cu system mentioned earlier\textsuperscript{394} only reported on electrolysis data at \( -1.85 \text{ V vs SCE} \), in the high overpotential region where this enhancement in minimized. In addition, Morales-Guio et al. found that there was an optimal range for Au nanoparticle loading required to observe the synergistic effect to \( >2e^- \) products.\textsuperscript{399} These reasons, as well as differences in product detection capabilities, could possibly explain why this effect was not observed previously.

Investigations of oxide-derived Cu-Zn phase separated electrodes\textsuperscript{129} and Ag–Cu\(_2\)O phase blended and phase separated electrodes\textsuperscript{127} showed enhancements in \( \text{C}_2 \), selectivity, particularly for ethanol, and a CO spillover mechanism was again proposed. These bimetallic electrodes yielded some of the highest ethanol Faradaic efficiencies reported (Ag–Cu\(_2\)O phase blended: 34% at \(-1.2 \text{ V vs RHE} \); Cu\(_2\)Zn: 29% at \(-1.05 \text{ V vs RHE} \)). It is noteworthy, however, that the enhancements in ethanol selectivity compared to their monometallic Cu control samples only occur at high overpotentials (\( E \leq -0.9 \text{ V vs RHE} \)). This is in stark contrast to the Au/Cu system, which achieved higher selectivities at lower overpotentials (\(-1.0 \text{ V vs RHE} \leq E \leq -0.7 \text{ V vs RHE} \)) and reached a maximum in alcohol partial current density 90 mV earlier than on Cu.\textsuperscript{399} This can likely be rationalized by the higher overpotentials required for CO production on Ag and Zn compared to Au (see Table 3),\textsuperscript{1} which may shift the potential region where CO spillover can be a benefit. As for why ethanol is preferred over ethylene in these systems, it is likely that the lower rates of hydrogen production on the Cu-Zn and Ag–Cu\(_2\)O electrodes and operation in the low overpotential region on Au/Cu could shift the selectivity toward oxygenated C–C coupled products (i.e., ethanol) rather than hydrogenated C–C coupled products (i.e., ethylene). As discussed previously, while the selectivity is an important metric to consider, this alone does not tell you about the activity of the catalyst for CO\(_2\) reduction; for this, we must examine the (partial) current densities. Since the authors primarily discuss activity based on the geometric current densities, we will address their activity in section 7.4.

Finally, it is worth discussing another report that has studied this tandem/sequential catalysis mechanism in detail using a series of microfabricated electrodes (Figure 34).\textsuperscript{400} In the first design, separate, interdigitated Au and Cu electrodes on an insulating SiO\(_2\) substrate allowed for each electrode to be actuated individually or simultaneously. When the electrodes were actuated simultaneously, there was a significant drop in the CO partial current density compared to when only Au was actuated, which suggests that some of the CO formed on Au lines was consumed by the Cu lines, validating the sequential catalysis concept.\textsuperscript{400} Interestingly, there was also a subtle shift in \( \text{C}_2 \) product distribution to favor oxygenates over ethylene production with decreasing Cu coverage, while all variations of the device maintained a lower oxygenates to ethylene ratio when only Cu was actuated.

The researchers then probed this effect further by system-

atically fabricating a series of electrodes where Cu was patterned directly onto Au or Ag substrates, which allowed for fine control over the spacing and coverage of Cu. As the coverage of Cu was decreased from 77.2\% to 2.4\%, the ratio of...
higher coverage of CO would likely come at the expense of H coverage, which could result in slower surface hydrogenation rates and, in turn, favor the formation of oxygenates instead of hydrocarbons. All in all, the studies discussed thus far in this subsection showcase a new design principle for tandem or sequential catalyst devices; by employing a cocatalyst that generates an in situ source of mobile CO, CO$_2$R to >2e$^-$ products, particularly C$_2$+, oxygenates, can be enhanced. Future work can advance tandem catalysis system designs by tuning the materials’ surface structures, morphologies, and compositions.

Bimetallic Cu–Ag thin films have also been reported to exhibit HER suppression and higher selectivity for C$_2$+ oxygenates through other means. While CO spillover could still be a contributor in these systems, the dominant cause thought to be leading to these selectivity enhancements was tuning of adsorbate and reaction intermediate binding energies by incorporation of Ag into Cu. In the first case, CuAg metal foils consisting of segregated Cu and Ag phases were prepared by arc melting, quenching, and cold rolling, and it was suggested that formation of CuAg surface alloys under electrochemical reaction conditions leads to compressive strain on Cu surface atoms. This compressive strain, as evidenced by an observable shift of the valence band structure of Cu to deeper levels, weakens the adsorption energy of *H, resulting in a 60−75% reduction in the HER activity. Interestingly, this was also correlated to a 10−15% increase in the total selectivity for C$_2$+ products and a product distribution shift from hydrocarbons to oxygenates. Moreover, acetate and acetaldehyde accounted for a substantial portion of the C$_2$+ oxygenate selectivity, reaching up to a combined 15% Faradaic efficiency, which is noteworthy given that these are typically minor (<1%) products on pure Cu. This selectivity modification is attributed to reduced rates of C−O bond scission resulting from the HER suppression and the reduced oxophilicity of the compressively strained Cu, which presumably inhibits the ability of Cu to reduce these carbonyl-containing products further. It is worth noting though that this did not impact the ability of Cu to make products derived from CO (i.e., the activity to >2e$^-$ products remained unchanged when normalized to the nominal Cu composition).

In the second case, CuAg thin films across a range of nominal CuAg compositions were formed via physical vapor deposition, and many of the same trends were observed including HER suppression, decreased hydrocarbon selectivity, and increased oxygenate selectivity, particularly for the carbonyl products. In this case, however, the overall intrinsic CO$_2$R activity toward further reduced products was decreased for CuAg versus Cu. This is attributed to the significant nonequilibrium bulk-phase miscibility between Ag and Cu achieved in these films compared to the previous work which had minimal miscibility of Ag in Cu (<3 at. %). This significant Ag miscibility in Cu is also thought to be responsible for the observed selectivity enhancements by tuning the electronic structure of Cu, decreasing the binding energy of *H and oxygenated reaction intermediates. Additional trends in product distribution were also discussed, including the significant suppression of CH$_4$ leading to an overall higher selectivity for C−C coupled products in these CuAg films compared to pure Cu. With careful catalyst characterization, these studies demonstrate how formation of alloys using two metals that are thermodynamically immiscible under ambient conditions can be an effective strategy to alter activity (reduced HER) and selectivity (increased C$_2$+ oxygenates) in bimetallic systems.

Another Cu–Ag system has also demonstrated a higher selectivity for acetate formation (~21% at ΔV vs RHE at
0 °C.\textsuperscript{402} In this case, however, they were separate ~6 nm Cu and Ag nanoparticles immobilized on a polymer/glassy carbon electrode, and acetate was only observed over the bimetallic when benzoazulene (BTA) was in the electrolyte (over the Cu control sample it was observed in minor quantities, <1% Faradaic efficiency, both with and without BTA). While the selectivity changed with the ratio of Ag present, indicating the Ag clusters may play an important role through the CO spillover mechanism discussed earlier, clearly the electrolyte additive has a dominant impact on the product formation since without BTA, the main CO₂R product over the bimetallic electrode was CO.\textsuperscript{402}

### 7.3. Copper and HCOO⁻ Producing Guest Metals (In, Sn)

The p-block metals are generally characterized by their high selectivity for formate production at high overpotentials.\textsuperscript{411} They also require a relatively high overpotential for the HER, which has drawn significant interest in employing them in bimetallic Cu systems as a strategy to reduce the selectivity for this competing side reaction. In addition, In and Sn electrodes have previously been demonstrated to exhibit a kinetically metastable oxide at the electrode/electrolyte interface at potentials where CO₂R is observed, which can strongly influence the electrocatalytic properties of these systems.\textsuperscript{412,413,414} This also widens the range of surface chemistries that can be created by these bimetallic systems, so careful characterization of the electrode surface is crucial. Unfortunately, \textit{ex situ} characterization methods are often complicated by the oxophilicity of these elements and are particularly difficult given the nanostructured nature of the bimetallic catalysts in this section. Thus, comparisons and conclusions based on composition and/or oxidation state need to be taken with caution. In addition, it is impossible to identify which catalysts have a higher average turnover frequency because almost all of these studies reported current densities using the geometric electrode area. Thus, we will focus much of the remaining discussion of these Cu-M bimetallics (where M = In, Sn) on selectivity trends.

The key trends observed in Cu-M (where M = In, Sn) systems include synergistic CO production, HER suppression, and suppression of further reduced (>2e⁻) products.\textsuperscript{412,413,414,415} In addition, several bimetallics maintained a higher selectivity to HCOO⁻\textsuperscript{407,408,419,420} In two of these cases, thick Sn deposits were employed on top of Cu substrates and resulted in overall Sn-like behavior with high selectivity (>80–90%) to HCOO⁻ formation.\textsuperscript{419,420} Thus, the Cu here mainly seems to serve as a support to provide a route for making high surface area Sn electrodes to increase the production of HCOO⁻, rather than engendering any bimetallic effects. On the other hand, Cu core SnO₂ shell nanoparticles (Cu@SnO₂) were investigated for CO₂R, and while the thicker (1.8 nm) shell was again more selective for HCOO⁻ (<1% CO), the thinner shell (0.8 nm) instead resulted in very high selectivity for CO (>90% from −0.6 to −0.9 V vs RHE).\textsuperscript{400} DFT calculations suggested that the combination of compression (~10%) due to the lattice mismatch between the core and shell and self-doping of Cu atoms diffusing out from the core to the shell resulted in the selectivity toward CO over HCOO⁻. An analogous study on Cu core In₂O₃ shell nanoparticles reported similar results and reasoning; lattice compression and Cu doping of the In₂O₃ shell led to enhanced CO generation, particularly for the thinnest shell (68% at −0.7 V vs RHE), while the thickest shell had a higher selectivity for HCOO⁻.\textsuperscript{411} These core–shell catalysts both show that the existence of Cu at the surface is an important factor governing the CO selectivity; there is further support for this design criteria in the reports discussed subsequently.

Two studies of Sn deposited on Cu oxide nanowires\textsuperscript{411} and oxide-derived Cu substrates\textsuperscript{412} both demonstrated very high CO selectivity for optimized samples (90% CO at −0.8 V vs RHE\textsuperscript{411} >90% CO between −0.5 and −0.8 V vs RHE\textsuperscript{412}), which drastically falls after there is enough Sn on the surface to surpass a full monolayer of coverage on Cu. Similarly, a Cu foil sparsely decorated with Sn (2–3 at. %) was found to achieve >90% CO selectivity from −0.6 to −1.0 V vs RHE.\textsuperscript{418} Two studies of Cu−In alloys synthesized from reduction of an oxide-derived Cu substrate in In solution\textsuperscript{413} and reduction of CuInO₂\textsuperscript{414} also demonstrated high CO selectivity (>75% CO between −0.4 and −0.7 V vs RHE\textsuperscript{413} 70% at −0.8 V vs RHE\textsuperscript{414}). While the resulting bimetallic structures range from no evidence of alloy formation,\textsuperscript{411,414} to near surface alloy formation,\textsuperscript{412,413} to bulk alloy formation,\textsuperscript{414} similar reasoning for the enhanced CO selectivity is proposed; namely, it is thought that incorporation of In/Sn disrupts favorable multi-Cu binding sites for protons while leaving CO binding sites unaffected, leading to HER suppression and enhanced CO selectivity at moderate overpotentials.\textsuperscript{411–414,418} This is supported by complementary DFT studies by the Takanabe group.\textsuperscript{412–414}

Alternatively, it has also been proposed that a metastable In(OH)₃ phase generated \textit{in situ} is responsible for enhanced CO selectivity in oxide-derived Cu−In bimetallics.\textsuperscript{415} In this report, several CuIn catalysts were synthesized from different oxide precursors, and while they initially showed different performance and morphologies, these catalysts evolved over repeated catalytic cycles to achieve similar CO selectivity (~50%) in parallel with appearance of an In(OH)₃ shell. Furthermore, when In(OH)₃ was etched off, the CO selectivity decreased until the hydroxide reappeared.\textsuperscript{415} Thus, it was hypothesized that the synergistic effect observed in these systems was due to the existence of bifunctional active sites at metal−oxide interfaces. Therefore, following this study, the same researchers conducted systematic experiments on a series of microfabricated electrodes seeking to establish a relationship between the CO activity and the length of these metal-oxide interfaces.\textsuperscript{409} By varying the amount of In/InO₃ dots patterned onto Cu/Cu₂O substrates, the interfacial density (ρₕₖ) could be varied across 2 orders of magnitude; meanwhile, the total geometric surface area of each single-phase component was kept constant so as to avoid contributions from differences in coverage. In this way, the researchers did observe a positive correlation between the CO activity and ρₕₖ for 2/3 of the variations studied (InO₃/Cu₂O and In/Cu₂O, not In₂O₃/Cu), but not for the reason they initially expected.

Ultimately, it was found that oxidic indium was not important, but the presence of Cu₂O, which was reduced to metallic Cu under reaction conditions, was necessary for this synergistic effect to occur. By contrast, all electrodes using a Cu substrate showed similar, low activity for CO regardless of ρₕₖ (Figure 35a).\textsuperscript{409} Also, as shown in Figure 35b, only the two electrode versions using Cu₂O substrates displayed significant diffusion of In from the dots into the surroundings. Taken together, these results indicate that these In-modified Cu “halos” around the dots were responsible for the high activity for CO evolution rather than metal−oxide interfaces (both Cu and In were found to be metallic under reaction conditions).
Thus, with regard to their previous work, the authors now suggested that the succession of reduction/oxidation cycles could aid in the formation of highly active, indium-poor metallic Cu compositions, similar to those found in this study, by accumulating In into an In(OH)₃ sink, although the possibility of active sites existing at metal-oxide interfaces cannot be completely ruled out at this time.

In light of this follow-up study by Larrazábal et al., it is clear that the interfaces between In/Sn and Cu on the surface is emerging as a key factor governing the high CO selectivity observed in these bimetallic electrodes. This is further supported by a combined theory-experiment study on In-modified (Cu(OH)₂-derived) Cu nanowires. The composition where the highest number of Cu–In interfacial sites were formed was found to be the optimal sample, achieving ~93% Faradaic efficiency for CO at −0.6 to −0.8 V vs RHE. DFT calculations also confirmed the crucial role of metallic Cu–In interfaces in tuning the stability of key reaction intermediates; these interfacial sites were found to significantly decrease the barrier for *COOH formation while still allowing for facile release of *CO, and weakly adsorbed *H and strongly adsorbed *OCHO on these sites could be the cause for suppression of H₂ and >2e⁻ products.

Finally, it is worth briefly revisiting the role of the oxide(s) in these bimetallic electrodes. Many of these studies suggested that the structure of the oxide precursor(s) governs the alloy formation and resulting CO activity for several reasons including compositional and morphological effects. Interestingly, in the work by Larrazábal et al., a control experiment where indium was deposited on an already oxide-derived Cu substrate did not exhibit the same synergistic effect, which indicates that the *in situ* reduction of the Cu₂O-based electrodes is required for diffusion of In to create the CO-selective, In-modified Cu “halos.” This could perhaps explain the formation of highly active Cu–In and Cu–Sn surfaces that started with an oxide precursor mentioned earlier in this section. Although the oxidation state of Cu, In, and Sn during CO₂R is still an open area of debate, at least partial (if not full) reduction of these oxide species under reaction conditions seems beneficial to encourage diffusion of these
components and create optimal interfacial sites. Unfortunately, untangling the complex trade-off between the various possible effects in these nanostructured, bimetallic catalysts is incredibly difficult, so again, caution must be taken when trying to draw comparisons between systems or identify concrete structure–activity relationships. While there is clearly more work that needs to be done to better understand the factors governing the activity and selectivity of Cu–In and Cu–Sn, these high surface area Cu bimetallics with p-block metals have certainly shown promising CO selectivities and geometric activities (Figure 37 in section 7.4).

### 7.4. Activity Comparisons

In this section, we presented the main findings for different classes of Cu-based bimetallic systems. Before reiterating the key selectivity trends and presenting activity comparisons, we wish to start by providing some overall perspectives on the challenges faced in studying and comparing the activity of bimetallic catalysts. First, as discussed in section 2.4, benchmarking and reporting how the pure metal components perform in a given experimental setup is highly recommended to help validate trends observed for a given bimetallic catalyst. Second, identifying active sites on the surface of bimetallics under *in situ* conditions can represent a major challenge. In particular, the composition at the surface of a bimetallic can be very different than in the bulk due to segregation of one component. This can be induced by fundamental differences in the materials’ properties (oxophilicity, CO binding strength, miscibility, etc.) upon exposure to different environments (air *ex situ*, electrolyte and/or applied potentials *in situ*), as well as result from different catalyst synthesis methods and pretreatment procedures. Indeed, many studies discussed herein observed surface enrichment of one component either as a result of the synthesis method and/or electrochemical testing. Unfortunately, this makes comparisons between bimetallic catalysts more difficult; for example, two different bulk compositions may ultimately have similar surface compositions during electrolysis, and vice versa. This, in turn, can limit the scope of theoretical predictions and/or hinder our ability to match them with experimental results.

Third, while nanostructured bimetallics are interesting to explore in their own right, one must be careful when trying to draw structure–composition–activity relationships from these systems. Some reports on high surface area bimetallic electrodes noted different morphological features as a function of composition, which increases the difficulty of making systematic assessments. In addition, some studies tried testing a flat bimetallic catalyst to serve as a standard for comparison to their nanostructured catalyst, but this still has its pitfalls because the same surface ratio and dispersion of individual metal components may not be readily replicated between low and high surface area morphologies. In general, trying to decouple the impacts resulting from nanostructuring (increased surface area, faceting, grain boundaries, nanoparticle size and support effects, mass transport limitations) and those resulting from the bimetallic ensemble (composition/phase, atomic arrangement of each component, strain) is extremely difficult. Thus, when trying to draw conclusions about the intrinsic activity or selectivity of bimetallics, planar catalysts that minimize the effects of nanostructuring are ideal.

Finally, it is crucial to measure the ECSA of tested electrodes in order to determine whether a higher surface area catalyst truly has a greater average turnover frequency rather than greater activity simply resulting from an increased number of active sites. In light of the challenges in comparing bimetallic electrodes that were just discussed, getting an accurate measure of the ECSA of bimetallics can be especially difficult. As mentioned previously in section 2.1, there exists a variety of methods for determining the ECSA, and researchers should keep in mind the limitations of each in order to choose the technique most suitable for the materials being studied. The most common method for estimating the ECSA of CO₂R electrocatalysts has been to use double-layer capacitance (C<sub>dl</sub>) measurements. Ideally, a rough Cu-M catalyst would be compared to a planar Cu-M catalyst of the same surface composition; although as discussed earlier, this can be difficult to replicate and validate since changes in surface composition and morphology may also occur under reaction conditions. These discrepancies in composition may only have a small impact if the capacitance of the two materials are similar, but this introduces more uncertainty when the capacitance of the two materials are quite different. In the case of Cu-M materials, since other M do not convert CO₂ to >2e<sup>−</sup> products to any appreciable degree, ECSA estimates for Cu-M catalysts can compare the C<sub>dl</sub> of Cu-M to the C<sub>dl</sub> of planar Cu when looking to see if the intrinsic activity has been improved beyond that of pure Cu. In any case, it should be noted that the ECSA of bimetallic systems as determined by C<sub>dl</sub> ratios is typically a conservative estimate for the total number of active sites, since it is unlikely that the entire surface will be active in a bimetallic electrode. Still, any promotion in activity observed using this conservative estimate indicates that at least part of the enhancement is due to improved intrinsic reaction rates and not purely resulting from an increased number of active sites. Therefore, despite the difficulties and limitations, we urge researchers to make their best attempts to measure and report the ECSA of tested electrodes.

Unfortunately, only a limited number of Cu-M bimetallics have been reported with the requisite information to compare catalytic activity on an average turnover frequency basis. Figures 36 and 37 provide the total CO₂R current density to >2e<sup>−</sup> products and CO, respectively, normalized by both the exposed geometric area and ECSA when available for catalysts tested in aqueous-phase reactors. The few bimetallic CO₂R catalysts that have been tested in vapor-fed reactors were not included for this direct comparison due to the vastly different reactant mass transport conditions. Also, in cases where multiple variations of Cu-M bimetallics were examined in a single study, only the optimal material was generally included for clarity, in addition to the monometallic control sample if tested.

In Figure 36, both planar<sup>65</sup> and high surface area<sup>89</sup> Cu control samples are included for reference. While a number of studies have reported bimetallics with increased selectivity to >2e<sup>−</sup> products, Figure 36a shows that this improvement is generally accompanied by a similar or lower geometric activity as compared to the corresponding Cu standard. It is worth noting that despite the decreased partial current densities, in some cases the CO₂R energy efficiencies may be higher on the bimetallics compared to the Cu control samples. This was demonstrated by Lum et al.; the 4.3% Cu dots on Ag sample shown in Figure 36a had the highest energy efficiency (21.4%).
for generation of C2+ products, while the 2.3% Cu dots sample had the highest total CO2R energy efficiency (32.8%).400

From Figure 36b, it quickly becomes clear that the only aqueous-phase bimetallic catalyst system with a higher activity than pure Cu is the Au nanoparticles on Cu foil catalyst.399 The OD-Cu4Zn catalyst129 has a larger RF than the OD-Cu standard, so while it achieves an equivalent CO2R rate to >2e− products when normalized by the geometric electrode area, this results in a lower average turnover frequency when normalized by the ECSA. Another bimetallic catalyst system that demonstrated higher activity than pure Cu was the CuAg wire reported by Hoang et al.131 While the Cu wire catalyst initially shows higher current densities to C2+ products at lower overpotentials then levels off (likely due to the lack of *CO resulting from the high turnover rate in this region), the C2+ activity of the CuAg wire catalyst continues to increase and surpasses that of the Cu wire at −0.7 V vs RHE. These results were not included in Figure 36 since they were obtained in a vapor-fed device, but it is worth noting the impressive C2+

activity and selectivity metrics achieved by the CuAg wire catalyst at this potential: 60% C2H4 and 25% C2H5OH at a total current density of ∼−300 mA/cm2.131 This cannot be explained by surface area differences alone because the bimetallic has a 10% higher ECSA but 60% higher current density than the Cu wire at this potential. Experiments where CO is mixed into the vapor feed during CO2R show that the C2+ saturation region displayed by the Cu wire catalyst disappears, and instead the current continues to increase with increasing overpotential, like that observed for the CuAg...
Finally, for HCOO\(^{-}\) we can see that many rough Cu-based bimetallics have had activity comparable to pure Au on a geometric area-normalized basis. While this is encouraging for increasing cost-effectiveness for CO\(_2\)R to CO catalysis by reducing noble metal usage, we can see in Figure 37b that pure Au is still orders of magnitude more active on an average turnover frequency basis. Also, it is interesting to note that the ECSA-normalized CO partial current densities for Cu-M bimetallics with In or Sn essentially fall in between the planar and high surface area Cu standards; only those with Au have activity higher than Cu, closer to that of Au. Thus, while many of these high surface area Cu-M catalysts with p-block metals have demonstrated impressive CO selectivity (>90%), the intrinsic activity for CO\(_2\)R to CO on copper does not seem to have been enhanced in these systems. Again, the sample pool is very limited here though due to a lack of reporting the ECSA of these materials. Future studies on Cu-M bimetallics should strive to include the roughness factors of these materials so that the intrinsic activity can be more readily compared.

7.5. Summary

Here we examined Cu-M bimetallic combinations across three groups, where the guest metal M is either highly selective to H\(_2\), CO, or HCOO\(^{-}\). In all cases, the synergistic effects are generally diminished when the surface is dominated by the guest metal, causing the activity and selectivity to mimic that of the pure M component. For H\(_2\)-selective metals, increased HER activity and decreased CO\(_2\)R activity have typically been observed. Interestingly, the C\(_2\)-pathway(s) in particular get disrupted, as the main further reduced product formed in these systems was CH\(_4\), with C\(_2\)H\(_4\) formation significantly suppressed. For CO-selective metals, high activity and selectivity for CO have been noted, as well as some synergistic activity and selectivity to C\(_2\)-products (especially oxygenates) resulting from CO spillover and electronic effects, respectively. Finally, for HCOO\(^{-}\)-selective metals, HER suppression and high selectivity for CO, along with inhibition of all further reduced products, have typically been observed.

At this time, it appears that the intrinsic activity of Cu (for >2e\(^{-}\) products) and Au (for CO) have not been outmatched by bimetallic systems, except in the two demonstrations of tandem catalysis via CO spillover from Au nanoparticles on Cu foil and from Ag in a CuAg wire gas diffusion electrode. It is worth noting that the ECSA-normalized CO partial current densities for Cu-M bimetallics with In or Sn essentially fall in between the planar and high surface area Cu standards; only those with Au have activity higher than Cu, closer to that of Au. Thus, while many of these high surface area Cu-M catalysts with p-block metals have demonstrated impressive CO selectivity (>90%), the intrinsic activity for CO\(_2\)R to CO on copper does not seem to have been enhanced in these systems. Again, the sample pool is very limited here though due to a lack of reporting the ECSA of these materials. Future studies on Cu-M bimetallics should strive to include the roughness factors of these materials so that the intrinsic activity can be more readily compared.

8. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE OUTLOOK

Coupling electrochemical CO\(_2\) reduction (CO\(_2\)R) with a renewable energy source to create high value fuels and chemicals is a promising strategy to help achieve a sustainable global energy economy. Not only could this serve as a renewable source of traditionally fossil-derived resources, but it could also enable storage of energy from intrinsically variable electricity generators such as wind and solar. In this Review, we took a detailed look at the state of electrochemical CO\(_2\) reduction on Cu and the key levers that have been used to tune its activity and selectivity, including surface faceting, electrolyte effects, electrochemical conditions, nanostructuring, and preparation of bimetallics. First, we would like to emphasize the following key points:

1. Nanostructuring does not alter the intrinsic activity of copper in any significant manner, independent of the method used. While other morphological features may also play a role, we believe that increased surface area is the dominant factor altering the product selectivity of nanostructured Cu materials, since this impacts the potential window where CO\(_2\)R/COR current densities are optimized.

2. (a) Significant methods to increase the intrinsic activity of copper through bimetallic electronic or geometric effects have not yet been found. Notably, a tandem/sequential catalysis scheme has emerged as a promising paradigm for achieving higher activity and selectivity to C\(_2\)-products, particularly oxygenates. By co-locating domains of Cu with those of a CO-generating metal (e.g., Ag, Au, and Zn), additional CO can be supplied to the Cu surface. (b) Bimetallic electronic and geometric effects have, however, resulted in product distribution changes such as HER suppression, >2e\(^{-}\) product suppression, and/or increased CO selectivity compared to pure Cu. It is also worth noting that higher selectivities to oxygenates such as acetate and acetaldehyde have been achieved in several Cu–Ag systems.

3. It is important to consider the chemical potential of the reactants and electrolytes since this could easily change the catalyst surface structure and composition. The inherent mobility of copper and the ease with which it is oxidized present challenges in maintaining stable
surfaces. This can explain the large observed dependency of CO₂R performance on the catalyst preparation and testing methods.

(4) Theoretical studies have indicated that step sites may very well dominate CO₂R activity, although experimental validation of this remains a challenge. Copper surfaces have been shown to reconstruct under reaction conditions. Thus, the formation of undercoordinated defects or step sites during preparation or testing of single crystal electrodes could explain why they have demonstrated similar overall activity.

(5) It is crucial to report the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) of tested electrodes whenever possible in order to determine if greater catalytic activity can be attributed to improved intrinsic activity (higher average turnover frequency) rather than an increased number of active sites (larger surface area). It is also important to keep in mind the ambiguities of measuring ECSA and choose the method most appropriate for the system at hand.

(6) Catalysts with different roughness factors and/or catalysts tested under different electrolyte and electrochemical conditions will reach mass transport limitations at different rates. Thus, it is not always straightforward to compare electrodes tested at the same applied potential, since these different conditions may lead to different kinetic overpotentials. When investigating the intrinsic behavior of novel electrocatalyst materials, we underline the importance of comparing data in potential windows governed by the intrinsic reaction kinetics, so as not to convolute the impacts of catalyst properties and mass transport effects.

Electrochemical CO₂ reduction on copper catalysts holds significant promise, but there is still much work to be done before low-cost, scalable deployment of CO₂R technologies can be realized. Toward this end, we need not only greater fundamental understanding of CO₂R mechanisms, but increased practical performance metrics as well. We will briefly discuss our outlook on key areas for future studies in these spaces.

To date, most of the catalyst characterization techniques have been conducted ex situ before and/or after CO₂R due to the complexity of the electrified electrode/electrolyte interface. There has been an increasing trend, however, in the development and implementation of in situ/operando characterization techniques, with recent studies providing new insights highlighted in each section of this Review. We urge the further advancement of these techniques, as they can provide crucial insights regarding the catalyst surface structure, composition, oxidation state, and adsorbed intermediates under reaction conditions. These will be invaluable tools for providing better understanding of active sites, elucidation of reaction mechanisms, and validation of predictions from theoretical studies. For more details on the state of surface characterization techniques for CO₂R and the progress in this area of research, we direct the reader to a reference module by Sorija et al. and a recent review article by Handoko et al.

The developments in theoretical modeling of the electrochemical interface have yielded significant progress in identifying key active site motifs, reaction intermediates and descriptors, solvation and ion promotion effects, and CO₂R pathways. While much of the focus has been on analyzing the reaction energetics and thermodynamics, further developments in kinetic modeling will be required to better understand the interplay between coverage, potential dependence of activation energies, adsorbate–adsorbate interactions, and pH effects. The development of machine-learning algorithms also presents an opportunity to develop predictive capabilities and screening methods, which can aid materials discovery efforts and promote the rational design of CO₂R catalysts. Challenges remain in the reconciliation of conclusions between existing theoretical approaches, the advancement of functionals for describing charge at the electrochemical interface, and the evaluation of kinetics and reaction barriers of elementary steps under reaction conditions. Multiscale modeling of transport effects will also be critical to gain a better understanding of interfacial processes, especially for more practical high surface area catalysts and vapor-fed reactors. These developments will lead to increased and improved coupling between experimental and theoretical CO₂R studies.

Next, we feel that the field must begin developing the necessary catalysts and reactor systems to enable scalable (low cost), selective, and energy efficient conversion of CO₂ to useful fuels and chemicals. It is often cited how Cu typically requires ∼1 V overpotential to form valuable hydrocarbons and alcohols, but this mainly applies to planar systems. Nanostructuring, along with the use of alkaline electrolytes and larger-sized alkali cations, has provided a route to decreasing the required overpotential and altering the selectivity to certain products. Most notably, immense progress has been made in recent years in development of gas diffusion electrode (GDE) and continuous flow devices. For example, a recent report achieved ∼70% CH₄ selectivity over 150 h of operation between 75 and 100 mA/cm², and a full-cell energy efficiency for CO₂ conversion to CH₄ as high as 34%. While this value is lower than the 60–80% energy efficiency typically achieved for water splitting, it is quite reasonable given the relative maturity of that field compared to CO₂R, as well as the significant difference in potential product values. Thus, while there is always a need for fundamental research, the field is at a stage where we can start accelerating the development of practical devices. This includes optimization of device components (catalysts, supports, membrane, electrolyte) and conditions (flow rate, temperature, pressure, etc.), as well as testing the tolerance to more realistic conditions. For example, many potential CO₂ sources for initial commercial applications (such as industrial plant flue gas, biogas, etc.) will have diluted CO₂ streams with different potential contaminants. Renewable-powered CO₂R may also have interrupted/variable power input depending on the source (such as intermittent wind and solar), so tolerance to factors like these must be taken into account for large scale deployment of CO₂R technologies. In addition, complicated product separations may result in significant additional energy requirements, which should ideally be minimized.

Finally, we will briefly discuss three other focus areas for improving CO₂R activity and selectivity. First, the competing HER remains a significant issue for CO₂R in aqueous systems. While progress has been made in improving CO₂R selectivity by employing basic electrolytes, we additionally suggest the investigation of CO₂R in nonaqueous and solid polymer electrolytes. Second, while this Review focused on Cu catalysts, there are also several emerging classes of catalysts that hold the potential to break scaling relations between reaction intermediates, including stable alloys, single atom catalysts, (doped) carbon materials, metal organic frameworks (MOFs),

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covalent organic frameworks (COFs), materials with three-
dimensional active sites that can induce confinement effects,
and functionalized surfaces (tethering promoters/ligands to
the electrode surface). Materials discovery efforts should
continue in these directions to identify novel catalyst
materials with enhanced properties. Finally, CO reduction has
been increasingly studied in recent years, both as a proxy to
better understand CO₂ reduction mechanisms, as well as for
fundamental understanding of this important reaction in its
own right. If viable COR catalysts are developed, this could
enable tandem or cascaded reaction systems in which CO₂R is
split into two separate steps: (1) CO₂ reduction to CO, then
(2) CO reduction to the desired product(s). Unique synergies
could also be achieved by coupling CO₂, electoreduction with
alternate types of catalytic processes (biological, thermal, etc.).

In summary, while many challenges and opportunities
remain in developing catalysts and reactor systems with high
activity, selectivity, stability, and scalability, much progress has
also been attained in recent years, priming this technology for
commercial application. With continued research and develop-
ment, electrochemical CO₂ reduction could have a substantial
impact on the sustainability of our global energy economy.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information
The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the
ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.chemrev.8b00705.

Thermochemistry: Raw Data and Calculations; Economics: Raw Data and Calculations; Computational Studies: Energetics and Kinetics of Elementary Steps; Tabulated Data for Activity Comparison Plots.(PDF)

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