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Highly Selective Electrochemical Reduction of CO₂ into Methane on Nanotwinned Cu

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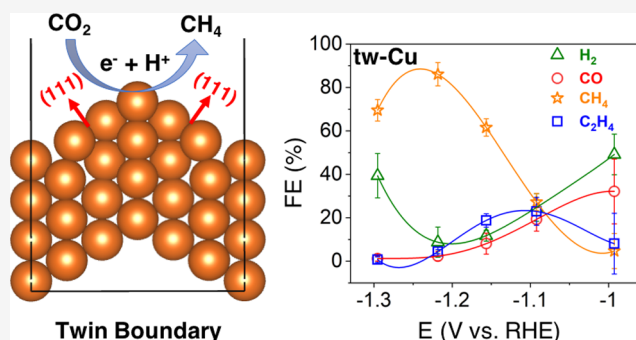
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ABSTRACT: The electrochemical carbon dioxide reduction reaction (CO₂RR) is a promising route to close the carbon cycle by reducing CO₂ into valuable fuels and chemicals. Electrocatalysts with high selectivity toward a single product are economically desirable yet challenging to achieve. Herein, we demonstrated a highly (111)-oriented Cu foil electrocatalyst with dense twin boundaries (TB) (tw-Cu) that showed a high Faradaic efficiency of $86.1 \pm 5.3\%$ toward CH₄ at -1.2 ± 0.02 V vs the reversible hydrogen electrode. Theoretical studies suggested that tw-Cu can significantly lower the reduction barrier for the rate-determining hydrogenation of CO compared to planar Cu(111) under working conditions, which suppressed the competing C–C coupling, leading to the experimentally observed high CH₄ selectivity.



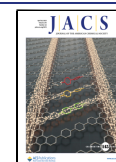
INTRODUCTION

The electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide (CO₂) offers a promising means for storing intermittent renewable energy in chemical fuels, promoting the usage of carbon-neutral energy in transportation and chemical sectors.^{1–4} To date, copper (Cu) remains the most effective electrocatalyst for the CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR) for producing hydrocarbons and oxygenates.⁵ A variety of molecular products containing one to three C atoms (C₁–C₃) have been reported on Cu-catalyzed CO₂RR,^{5–7} which shows great economic potential for producing chemical fuels using CO₂.⁸ Among these hydrocarbon products, methane (CH₄), the simplest of them, is of particular interest due to its good compatibility with existing natural gas infrastructure.⁹ CH₄ synthesized from CO₂RR is a carbon-neutral alternative to extracted natural gas. There is a large global demand for methane, while the production of CH₄ in the U.S. is heavily dependent on the fracking of shale, which, if unregulated and not done properly, can inflict irreversible damage on the environment.⁹ Displacing conventional CH₄ production with electrochemical CO₂RR potentially can contribute to a net zero CO₂ emissions economy if excess renewable or nuclear power is used, which is a key motivation for electrochemical CO₂RR. In addition, utilization of CH₄ leverages the well-established infrastructure to store, transport, and use methane as a fuel.¹⁰ However, current Cu-based catalysts exhibit insufficient CH₄ selectivity, resulting in a high economic penalty in post-reaction separation, contributing to the current limited deployment of electrochemical CO₂RR.¹¹

It has been widely acknowledged that the CO₂RR pathways are highly dependent on the catalyst surface structure.¹² For example, a close-packed Cu(111) surface is more selective toward CH₄ compared to a more open Cu(100) surface.^{13–15} In addition, defects such as steps and grain boundaries exposed on the surface have been found to influence CO₂RR and CO reduction selectivity.^{16–18} Grain boundaries (due to their prevalence in polycrystalline Cu, pc-Cu) have been studied extensively for CO₂RR and the CO reduction reaction (CORR), to understand their roles in CO₂RR. Feng et al. found that the CORR activity of Cu for reducing CO to C₂ products was linearly proportional to the density of grain boundaries.¹⁹ Verdager-Casadevall et al. demonstrated that CORR active sites on oxide-derived Cu surfaces were located at grain boundaries, which bind CO strongly.²⁰ Chen et al. further confirmed that the enhanced CO binding on grain boundaries can lead to high selectivity to C₂ product yield in CO₂RR.²¹ Although studies found that certain active sites in oxide-derived pc-Cu structures may promote the production of C₂ molecules, grain boundaries usually contain a variety of active sites, which limits their selectivity toward a single product.²² In addition, due to the existence of a diversity of

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sites, the underlying atomic-scale mechanism of CO₂RR on grain boundaries is not yet well established.

A twin boundary is a special type of boundary interface common in face-centered-cubic (FCC) crystals such as Cu. Twin-boundary energies are usually an order of magnitude smaller than high-angle grain boundaries,²³ which makes them more stable and amenable to mechanistic studies of structure-sensitive CO₂RR. Herein, we present a highly (111)-oriented Cu foil electrocatalyst with dense twin boundaries (tw-Cu) with an exceptional CH₄ selectivity of 86.1 ± 5.3% at -1.2 ± 0.02 V vs the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE). High-level quantum mechanical simulations show that the incorporation of twin boundaries on Cu(111) facets greatly reduces the reaction barrier of the rate-limiting CO hydrogenation step for CH₄ formation compared to the planar Cu(111) surface, explaining the high CH₄ selectivity observed in experiments.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Chemicals. Ethanol (C₂H₅OH) (200 proof) and potassium bicarbonate (KHCO₃) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Deionized (DI) water (18.2 MΩ cm) produced by an ultrapure purification system (Milli-Q advantage A10) was used to make the solutions. pc-Cu was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich with 99.999% purity. The Nafion 115 membranes were purchased from the Fuel Cell Store. All reagents were used as received without further purification.

Synthesis of Tw-Cu. In this study, we adopted rotary electroplating to fabricate tw-Cu foils.^{24,25} The electrolyte contains copper sulfate (CuSO₄), hydrochloric acid (HCl), sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄), and additives for nanotwin growth were provided by Chemleaders, Inc. Figure S1 shows the schematic diagram for the rotary electroplating system, in which the inert anode is titanium (Ti) coated with iridium dioxide (IrO₂) and the cylinder cathode is made from Ti. During the electroplating process, the cathode rotation speed was 800 rpm controlled by a modulated speed rotator. The current density was 11 ASD (A/dm²), and the thickness of tw-Cu foils was about 45 μm. Due to advantageously poor adhesion between the Ti and the tw-Cu foils, the electroplated tw-Cu foils were peeled off after deposition for subsequent studies.

Structure Characterization. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) samples were prepared by a Nova 600 SEM/FIB system. TEM images of tw-Cu were taken using an FEI Titan scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) at an acceleration voltage of 300 kV. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) images of the Cu foils were taken using a Bruker Dimension FastScan Scanning Probe Microscope (SPM) under ScanAsyst mode. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were taken by a ZEISS Supra 40VP SEM. The crystal structure of the Cu foil was analyzed with a Panalytical X'Pert Pro X-ray powder diffractometer (XRD) using a Cu Kα radiation source and conducted with a symmetric scan. Electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) was measured with a TESCAN GAIA-3 XMH integrated FIB-FESEM.

Electrochemical Measurement. All electrochemical experiments were conducted in an H-shaped cell (H-cell) composed of two compartments and separated by a proton-exchange membrane. The cell was sonicated with 2% nitric acid and boiled with DI water three times before each test. The tw-Cu and pc-Cu foil were cut to 0.3 cm² and electrochemically polished in 85% phosphoric acid using samples as the anode and a Cu foil as the cathode under 2 V vs Ag/AgCl for 200 s and then rinsed with DI water before each test. The tw-Cu and pc-Cu foils were fixed by an electronic clip to form the working electrode. The counter electrode was a Pt wire from Pine Instruments. A Ag/AgCl (4 M KCl) electrode purchased from Pine Instruments was used as the reference electrode. 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte was prepared as the electrolyte. A stirring bar was introduced to the cathode chamber to mix the electrolyte thoroughly. A glass gas dispersion purging tube was inserted into the cathode chamber. CO₂ (Air Gas, 99.99%) was purged at a rate of 11 sccm for 25 min before and during all electrocatalytic measurements. Electrochemical

measurements were performed using a Princeton potentiostat (VersaSTAT 4). All current density was normalized by the geometric area. A constant voltage was applied for 20–30 min before the effluent was injected into a gas chromatograph (GC). Electrochemical data were recorded vs the reference electrode and converted to the RHE scale after iR correction.

Product Analysis. Gas products were analyzed by a GC instrument (Shimadzu GC-2010-Plus) equipped with a Barrier Ionization Discharge (BID) detector and a Restek ShinCarbon ST Micropacked column (2 m × 1 mm ID). Helium ISP (Air Gas, 99.9999%) was applied as the carrier gas. The H-cell was connected to the GC with an outlet gas line. The effluent was injected through a six-port valve with a sampling loop of 1.5 mL effluent gas. The column oven was maintained at 30 °C for 8 min followed by a temperature ramping at 8 °C min⁻¹ to 250 °C, which was maintained for 5 min. The external standard method was used for quantitative calculations. A calibration curve was made by analyzing a series of standard gas mixtures (Air Gas), with the concentration of the standard gas as the vertical axis and the respective peak area as the horizontal axis. After the calibration curve was created, the concentration of the sample could be calculated from the calibration curve based on the peak area detected under the same condition.

The Faradaic efficiency (FE) was calculated from

$$FE_i = \frac{n_e \cdot F \cdot C_i \cdot r_G \cdot P_0}{R \cdot T_0 \cdot I_{\text{sat}}}$$

where n_e is the number of electrons transferred; F is the Faraday constant (96 485 C mol⁻¹); i is the species, H₂, CO, CH₄, or C₂H₄; C_i is the concentration of the gas read from GC-BID; r_G is the gas flow rate acquired from a ProFlow 6000 electronic flow meter (Restek) at the exit of the electrochemical cell (mL min⁻¹ at room temperature and ambient pressure); P_0 is the atmospheric pressure (101 325 Pa); R is the ideal gas constant (8.314 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹); T_0 is the room temperature (298.15 K); and I_{sat} is the current after saturation.

Liquid products were analyzed by quantitative NMR spectroscopy (Bruker AV-300). Specifically, 0.1 mL of D₂O was added to 0.9 mL of the cathode electrolyte and 10 μL of dimethyl sulfoxide (17.75 μM) was also mixed in as an internal standard. The one-dimensional ¹H spectrum was measured with a prewater saturation method.

Computational Details. We performed spin-polarized periodic Kohn–Sham density functional theory (DFT) calculations with the all-electron, frozen-core, projector augmented-wave (PAW)²⁶ method, Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange–correlation functional,²⁷ and Grimme's D3 dispersion correction^{28,29} with Becke–Johnson damping³⁰ using the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP)^{31,32} version 5.4.4. We self-consistently simulated the valence 1s of H, 2s and 2p of C and O, and 4s and 3d of Cu. We employed a four-layer 4 × 6 supercell containing 96 Cu atoms along with at least 15 Å of vacuum to model the tw-Cu(111) surface (Figure 3A). We relaxed the atomic positions in the two topmost Cu layers and fixed the atoms in the two bottommost Cu layers at their bulk atomic positions. We applied dipole-field energy and potential corrections³³ along the z-direction to cancel the artificial electrostatic interaction between the slabs. We used a kinetic energy cutoff of 660 eV for the plane-wave (PW) basis set, along with a Γ-point-centered Monkhorst–Pack³⁴ k-point mesh of 4 × 4 × 1 to sample the Brillouin zone. We used Fermi surface smearing with a width of 0.09 eV within the Methfessel–Paxton scheme³⁵ for Brillouin zone integration to aid self-consistent-field convergence. We relaxed all atoms until the absolute total force on each atom was smaller than 0.03 eV/Å in geometry optimizations. We optimized the MEPs using the climbing image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB)³⁶ method. Details about CI-NEB calculations, treatment of solvent, free-energy calculations, screening adsorption sites of key intermediates, approximating embedded complete active space second-order perturbation theory (emb-CASPT2) barriers, and determining potential dependence of the free energies can be found in Notes S1–S3.

Further details are available in the Supporting Information.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Surface Structure Study of Tw-Cu and Pc-Cu Catalysts. We first synthesized tw-Cu catalysts using a previously reported approach,^{24,25} through rotary electroplating in a CuSO₄, HCl, and H₂SO₄ mixed electrolyte with Ti used as the cathode and Ti coated with IrO₂ as the anode (see Figure S1 for details). The resulting 45- μ m-thick electroplated tw-Cu foil was then peeled off for subsequent structural characterization and electrochemical CO₂RR studies.

The cross section of tw-Cu was characterized by TEM, which shows well-defined twin-boundary structures (Figure 1A,B). The stacking sequence is inverted as ABC/A/CBA.³⁷ The structure of the tw-Cu was analyzed further by fast Fourier transform (FFT). The inset of Figure 1A shows the FFT with $\langle 110 \rangle$ axial direction and expression of the $\{111\}$ planes. The

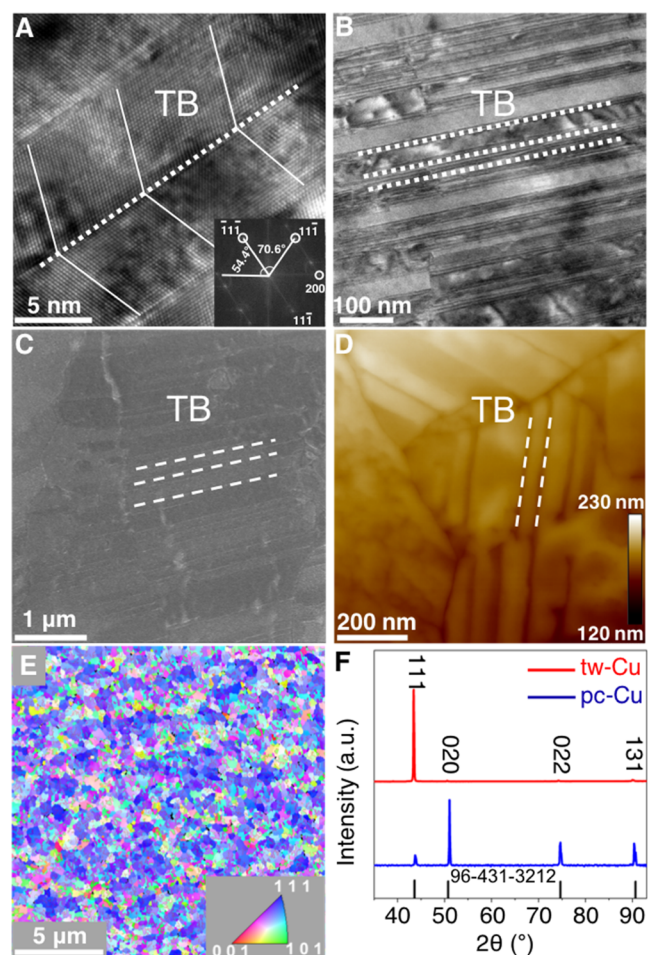


Figure 1. Structural characterization of tw-Cu and pc-Cu catalysts. (A) High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of the cross section of tw-Cu with its twin-boundary (TB) assembly. Inset: FFT of the corresponding Cu TEM, which indicates the $\langle 110 \rangle$ axial direction and expression of the $\{111\}$ planes. (B) Low-magnification TEM image of tw-Cu. The white dashed lines mark the typical TB. (C) SEM image of tw-Cu. The white dashed lines mark the TB. (D) AFM image of tw-Cu, which shows a surface roughness (R_a) of 2.7 nm. (E) Plane-view EBSD orientation maps showing the texture of the surface of tw-Cu. The inset indicates the crystallographic vectors used to color orientations in the maps, suggesting a strong (111) texture. (F) XRD pattern of tw-Cu and pc-Cu, showing highly (111)-oriented tw-Cu compared to pc-Cu. The black line represents the reference sample with a PDF number of 96-431-3212.

tw-Cu is composed of nanotwins with an average width of 7 nm, quantified from Figure 1B. SEM and AFM further confirmed the rich twin boundaries on the surface (Figures 1C,D and S2). The twin-boundary density of tw-Cu was determined to be 0.5 $\mu\text{m}/\mu\text{m}^2$ by EBSD (Figure 1E), which was much higher than (0.07 $\mu\text{m}/\mu\text{m}^2$) that of the commercial pc-Cu foil (99.999% Cu foil, Sigma-Aldrich). The tw-Cu possessed a highly preferred (111)-oriented texture on the surface (Figure 1E), consistent with XRD spectra (Figure 1F).

Electrochemical CO₂RR Study. The CO₂RR performance of tw-Cu and pc-Cu were measured in a gastight, H-cell separated by a proton exchange membrane with CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ (pH = 6.8) at room temperature and at atmospheric pressure. Tw-Cu and pc-Cu first were polished electrochemically in 85% H₃PO₄ solution and then were washed with DI water and immediately transferred to the H-cell prior to every CO₂RR test. The CO₂RR performance was analyzed at potentials ranging from -0.98 to -1.3 V vs RHE. The performances of tw-Cu and pc-Cu are summarized in Figure 2 and Tables S1 and S2. The dominant CO₂RR products were gaseous CH₄, ethylene (C₂H₄), carbon monoxide (CO), and hydrogen (H₂). As the FE of liquid products was less than 1%, we focused our analysis on gas-phase products. Notably, tw-Cu showed initial production of CH₄ from -0.99 V vs RHE, which reached the highest FE of 86.1% at -1.2 V vs RHE, doubling the observed FE of CH₄ on pc-Cu (43.4%) at the same potential (-1.2 V vs RHE). Accordingly, tw-Cu showed larger absolute CH₄ partial current densities (j_{CH_4}) compared to pc-Cu. The j_{CH_4} of tw-Cu reached -21.7 mA/cm² at -1.3 V vs RHE, a much larger magnitude than that of pc-Cu j_{CH_4} (-16.3 mA/cm²). Hereafter, comparisons between cathodic (partial) current densities, which by convention are negative, will refer to their magnitude only. The superior selectivity for CH₄ on tw-Cu was accompanied by suppression of H₂ and C₂H₄ generation. The H₂ selectivity observed on tw-Cu is 10% less than that on pc-Cu from -1 to -1.2 V vs RHE. The partial current density of H₂ (j_{H_2}) on tw-Cu remained low at -1.8 mA/cm² at -1.2 V vs RHE, while the j_{H_2} on pc-Cu significantly increased from -1.6 mA/cm² (-1.0 V vs RHE) to -5.6 mA/cm² (-1.2 V vs RHE), which suggests the lower intrinsic activity of the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) on tw-Cu. Meanwhile, tw-Cu exhibited lower C₂H₄ selectivity than pc-Cu in the potential range of -1.1 to -1.3 V vs RHE. At -1.2 V vs RHE, the FE of C₂H₄ reached 39.6% on pc-Cu, which is 10 times higher than that of tw-Cu at the same potential. Similarly, the partial current density of C₂H₄ ($j_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4}$) on pc-Cu reached -8.3 mA/cm² at -1.2 V vs RHE, which is 9.22 times higher than that on tw-Cu (-0.9 mA/cm²). Taken together, tw-Cu showed a remarkably high FE_{CH₄} in an H-cell, not just when compared to pc-Cu but also when compared to single crystal Cu (111)³⁸ and (110)³⁹ surfaces, which indicates that the twin-boundary defect is critical in promoting the CH₄ selectivity. Furthermore, the FE of CH₄ on tw-Cu is superior to many state-of-the-art Cu-based catalysts reported in the literature, which includes fivefold twinned Cu nanowires (NWs),⁴⁰ copper(II) phthalocyanine,⁴¹ nanotwinned copper,⁴² and Cu-Bi nanoalloys⁴³ (Table 1).

To study further the competition between the HER and the CO₂RR on tw-Cu and pc-Cu, we performed linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) measurements in N₂-saturated (not

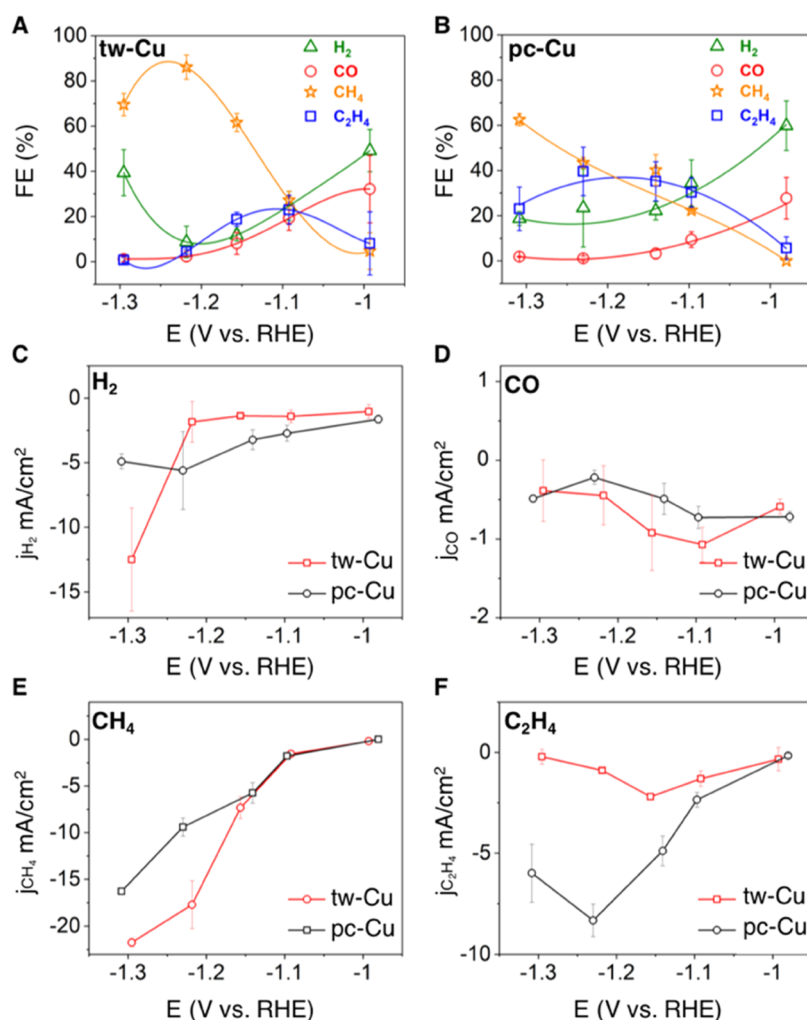


Figure 2. Electrochemical CO₂RR performance. FEs of (A) tw-Cu and (B) pc-Cu. H₂, CO, CH₄, and C₂H₄ are denoted, respectively, as green, red, orange, and blue data points. Partial current densities of (C) H₂, (D) CO, (E) CH₄, and (F) C₂H₄. Red lines represent tw-Cu, and black lines represent pc-Cu. Each error bar was calculated from three independent measurements. All potentials were iR-corrected.

CO₂RR, only HER) and CO₂-saturated electrolyte, respectively (Figure S3). For tw-Cu, the total current density (−36.2 mA/cm²) increased in magnitude by 28.4 mA/cm² at −1.2 V vs RHE in CO₂-saturated electrolyte compared with N₂-saturated electrolyte (Figure S3). On the other hand, the magnitude of the current density for pc-Cu increased by only 8.9 mA/cm² at the same potential (Figure S3). The larger cathodic current density enhancement on tw-Cu in CO₂-saturated electrolyte thus implies a higher CO₂RR efficiency. Under N₂-saturated conditions, however, pc-Cu exhibited a larger current density of −9.8 mA/cm² at −1.2 V vs RHE compared to tw-Cu (−7.6 mA/cm²), indicating a higher HER activity on pc-Cu.

Interestingly, the high CH₄ selectivity found on tw-Cu is distinct from CO₂RR catalyzed on Cu rich in grain boundaries. Grain-boundary-rich Cu catalysts were reported to be moderately selective toward C₂ products, with 30–45% FE toward C₂H₄OH, OAc[−], or C₂H₄ without producing CH₄ (Table S3).^{19–22,44,45} These different product distributions suggest that twin boundaries contain different active sites for CO₂RR from those present at grain boundaries.

Quantum Mechanical Studies of Activity and Selectivity. To gain further insights into the highly improved selectivity toward CH₄ production on tw-Cu, we first

performed van-der-Waals-corrected periodic DFT calculations (DFT-PBE-D3, see the Experimental Methods section and Note S1) to determine the reaction barriers of pertinent reactions in CO₂RR. Our previous high-level quantum mechanical simulations demonstrated that the rate-limiting step toward CH₄ on Cu(111) likely involves reduction of adsorbed CO (*CO) roughly equally to hydroxymethylidyne (*COH) and formyl (*CHO) at −0.9 V vs RHE.^{46,47} In both hydrogenation reactions, a proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) mechanism is preferred over surface hydride transfer.^{46,47} Furthermore, two adsorbed hydrogenated CO species (*COH and/or *CHO) are necessary reaction intermediates for C–C coupling toward multicarbon products on the same facet, and *COH–CHO and *COH–*COH are the most kinetically favorable coupling products.⁴⁸ We therefore calculated the activation barriers for these same C₁ and C₂₊ pathways on a Cu(111) slab with twin-boundary assemblies (tw-Cu(111)) (Figure 3A). The product structures and critical structures along the minimum-energy pathways (MEPs) appear, respectively, in Figures 3A and S4.

To simulate the rate-determining C₁ path (i.e., CO hydrogenation via PCET) on tw-Cu(111), we introduced the Eigen cation (H₉O₄⁺) as a proton source to represent the explicit solvent. We predict at the DFT-PBE-D3 level that the

Table 1. Comparison of CO₂RR in Peak CH₄ Production for Different Cu-Based Catalysts in H-Cells

catalyst	FE _{CH₄} (%)	applied potentials (V vs RHE)	electrolyte	reference
tw-Cu	86	-1.22	0.1 M KHCO ₃	this work
pc-Cu	43	-1.23	0.1 M KHCO ₃	
single crystal (111)	46	-1.15	0.1 M KHCO ₃	38
single crystal (110)	50	-1.15	0.1 M KHCO ₃	39
fivefold twinned Cu NWs loaded on carbon black	55	-1.25	0.1 M KHCO ₃	40
copper(II) phthalocyanine	66	-1.06	0.5 M KHCO ₃	41
nanotwinned copper	59 ^a	-1.6	0.2 M KHCO ₃	42
Cu-Bi nanoalloys	70.6	-1.2	0.5 M KHCO ₃	43

^aRef 42 reported FE_{CH₄} = 92%; this value however is the so-called intrinsic FE that the authors estimated to be solely contributed by the twin boundaries (excluding the planar regions), i.e., not of the whole catalyst as is reported here. 59% is the reported peak FE_{CH₄} for the entire catalyst.

reduction of *CO to form *CHO occurs with an activation (reaction) free energy of 0.55 (0.34) eV (Figure 3B). The competing *CO reduction to form *COH is a transition-state-free process with an activation and reaction free energy at the DFT-PBE-D3 level of 0.21 eV (Figure 3B). Compared with the DFT-PBE-D3 activation barriers of 0.85 eV for *CHO formation and 0.44 eV for *COH formation on planar Cu(111),⁴⁷ tw-Cu(111) exhibits lower activation barriers for both *CO reduction steps. Given that the first hydrogenation step is likely rate-determining in CO₂RR, this may explain the observed higher CO₂RR reaction rate and the enhanced CH₄ production on tw-Cu.

We next calculated the barriers for C–C coupling to understand the selectivity toward C₁ (CH₄) vs C₂ (C₂H₄) products on tw-Cu(111). C–C coupling routes are non-electroactive, and thus no H₃O₄⁺ was included in the simulations. The predicted barrier at the DFT-PBE-D3 level for forming *COH–CHO is 0.47 eV, which is higher than the 0.34 eV on planar Cu(111)⁴⁸ (Figure 3B). The DFT-PBE-D3 barrier for the other C–C coupling step forming *COH–*COH decreases only slightly to 0.20 eV on tw-Cu(111) compared to 0.24 eV on planar Cu(111)⁴⁸ (Figure 3B). Because tw-Cu(111) maintains similar or higher barriers for C–C coupling (a C₂ rate-limiting step), whereas above we show that hydrogenation of *CO is promoted significantly by the twin boundaries, the C₁ path toward CH₄ may be disproportionately enhanced. However, because PCET is

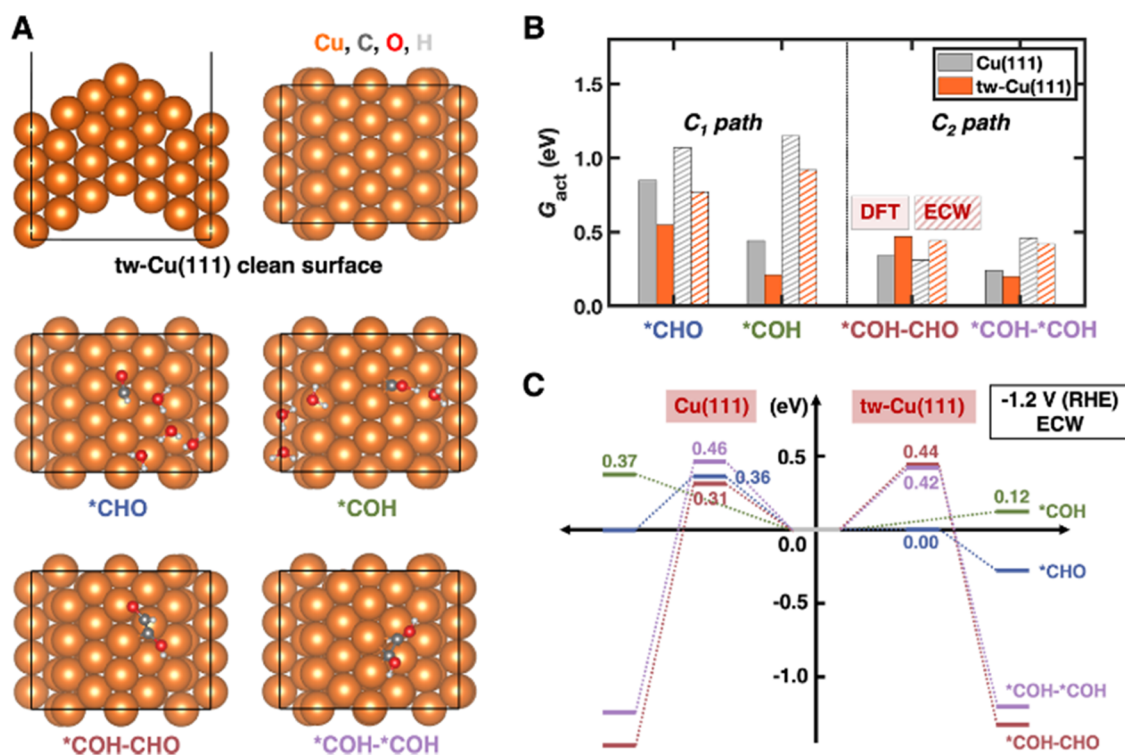


Figure 3. Quantum mechanical simulations of the rate-limiting steps of C₁ and C₂ pathways on tw-Cu(111). (A) (Top) Side (left) and top (right) views of the tw-Cu(111) surface periodic slab model and (middle and bottom panels) structures of products *CHO + (H₂O)₄, *COH + (H₂O)₄, *COH–CHO, and *COH–*COH (top views) as labeled. Cu in orange; C in dark gray; O in red; H in light gray. (B) Activation free energies G_{act} for C₁ and C₂ pathways on tw-Cu(111) (orange bars) and planar Cu(111) (gray bars) predicted by DFT-PBE-D3 (DFT; solid bars) and emb-CASPT2 (ECW; hatched bars) at constant-charge conditions. Both DFT-PBE-D3-derived and emb-CASPT2-derived barriers on planar Cu(111) were taken from refs 47, 48. The emb-CASPT2 results on tw-Cu(111) were estimated from energetic differences between emb-CASPT2 and DFT-PBE-D3 on planar Cu(111). Details are provided in Note S2. (C) Energetics of the *COH (green), *CHO (blue), *COH–*COH (purple), and *COH–CHO (red) pathways on planar Cu(111) (left) and tw-Cu(111) (right) predicted by emb-CASPT2 (ECW) at an applied potential of -1.2 V vs RHE (see Note S3).

involved, rigorously analyzing the selectivity toward CH_4 vs C_2H_4 requires a potential-dependent barrier analysis under working conditions (*vide infra*).

We showed previously that one needs to use embedded correlated wavefunction (ECW) theory^{49–53} to predict accurately the activity and selectivity of CO_2RR on planar $\text{Cu}(111)$.^{46,47} We therefore expect that the same level of theory is needed to describe correctly CO_2RR on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$. However, the high computational cost of, e.g., emb-CASPT2^{54,55} impedes such investigations. We therefore used the energetic differences predicted between emb-CASPT2 and DFT-PBE-D3 on planar $\text{Cu}(111)$ —an ECW correction—to approximate emb-CASPT2-predicted barriers on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$ (Note S2 and Table S4). In other words, we shifted the reaction and activation energies on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$ by the same ECW correction as their counterpart reaction on planar $\text{Cu}(111)$. The nature of the difference in the predicted activation barriers between emb-CASPT2 and DFT-PBE-D3 in part originates from the difference in their descriptions of charge transfer during a reaction. We reached this conclusion by establishing a good linear correlation between (activation and reaction) free energy differences and charge change differences on adsorbates predicted at the two levels of theory on planar $\text{Cu}(111)$ (Note S2, Tables S5 and S6, and Figure S5). Because the same pathway on two different surfaces involves the same amount of charge transferred from the surface to the adsorbates and vice versa, we may directly use the corrections obtained from planar $\text{Cu}(111)$ on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$ —foregoing the need to perform expensive emb-CASPT2 calculations on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$ (Table S7). By applying this strategy, emb-CASPT2 would predict that the reduction of $^*\text{CO}$ to $^*\text{CHO}$ ($^*\text{COH}$) via PCET occurs with a barrier of 0.77 (0.92) eV on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$, lower than the barrier of 1.07 (1.15) eV on planar $\text{Cu}(111)$ ⁴⁷ (Figure 3B). In contrast, emb-CASPT2 would predict that the preferred C–C coupling route is the formation of $^*\text{COH-}^*\text{COH}$ on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$ with a barrier of 0.42 eV, higher than the activation barrier of 0.31 eV for the most preferred $^*\text{COH-CHO}$ pathway on planar $\text{Cu}(111)$ ⁴⁸ (Figure 3B). Therefore, using this beyond DFT ECW theory that properly treats charge transfer, we again predict that the use of $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$ rather than planar $\text{Cu}(111)$ reduces barriers for C_1 rate-limiting steps, while increasing barriers for C–C coupling to form the most favored product ($^*\text{COH-}^*\text{COH}$ on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$ vs $^*\text{COH-CHO}$ on planar $\text{Cu}(111)$).

Finally, to fully rationalize selectivity toward CH_4 vs C_2H_4 on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$, we contextualized the activation free energies presented above under real electrochemical conditions by transforming them from being a function of charge to a function of electrochemical potential (a thermodynamic Legendre transformation from constant charge to constant electrochemical potential), to determine potential dependence of the barriers (Note S3, Figure S6, and Tables S8 and S9).⁴⁷ We performed this analysis for electroactive CO PCET reduction steps. The emb-CASPT2 activation barriers at an applied potential of -1.2 V vs RHE (Figure 3C and Table S9) for C_1 rate-determining steps (0.00 eV for $^*\text{CHO}$ formation and 0.12 eV for $^*\text{COH}$ formation) are lower than that of the C_2 rate-determining steps (0.42 eV for $^*\text{COH-}^*\text{COH}$ formation and 0.44 eV for $^*\text{COH-CHO}$ formation) on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$. These trends illustrate that $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$ can enhance CH_4 production via substantially accelerated CO hydrogenation kinetics. By contrast, barriers for C–C coupling do

not decrease on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$, effectively limiting C_2H_4 formation at this applied potential and explaining the high (low) FE for CH_4 (C_2H_4) observed in the experiment (Figure 2). Unlike $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$, planar $\text{Cu}(111)$ exhibits similar emb-CASPT2 barriers for C_1 (0.36 eV for $^*\text{CHO}$ formation and 0.37 eV for $^*\text{COH}$ formation) and C_2 (0.46 eV for $^*\text{COH-}^*\text{COH}$ formation and 0.31 eV for $^*\text{COH-CHO}$ formation) rate-determining steps at the same applied potential (Figure 3C). This would explain the almost identical FEs, and thus a similar degree of preference for CH_4 and C_2H_4 , observed at -1.2 V vs RHE for pc-Cu (Figure 2).

CONCLUSIONS

To summarize, we report that a tw-Cu catalyst with a densely packed TBs on the surface exhibits a high FE_{CH_4} ($86.1 \pm 5.3\%$) in an H-cell. Coupled with structural and electrochemical surface characterizations of the tw-Cu catalyst, our computational analysis showed that the existence of TBs in $\text{Cu}(111)$ electrodes decreases the barriers for CO hydrogenation, while not doing so for C–C coupling, leading to a higher selectivity toward CH_4 over C_2 products. Our findings suggested an effective approach for tuning CO_2RR product selectivity by catalyst surface structure engineering.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.3c00847>.

Computational details, characterization data, and catalytic performance data, including the schematic diagram for the synthesis of the tw-Cu ; SEM image of tw-Cu and pc-Cu ; linear sweep voltammetry curves obtained on tw-Cu and pc-Cu in N_2 -saturated and CO_2 -saturated electrolytes; simulation structures; plot of the predicted free energy difference vs the adsorbate electron charge change difference between emb-CASSCF and emb-DFT-PBE cluster models; potential dependence of the free energy for CO reduction to form $^*\text{CHO}$ and $^*\text{COH}$ via PCET on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$; DFT-PBE-D3 identified adsorption structures and sites of $^*\text{CO}$, $^*\text{CHO}$, $^*\text{COH}$, $^*\text{COH-CHO}$, and $^*\text{COH-}^*\text{COH}$ on $\text{tw-Cu}(111)$; and summary of FE at all applied potentials on tw-Cu and pc-Cu (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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