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# Oxygen-induced changes to selectivity-determining steps in electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

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#### Abstract

The state of the electrocatalyst surface — including the oxidation state of the catalyst and the presence of spectator species — is investigated on Cu surfaces with density functional theory in order to understand predicted ramifications on the selectivity and efficiency of  $CO_2$  reduction. We examined the presence of oxygen-based species, including the fully oxidized  $Cu_2O$  surface, the partially oxidized Cu(110)- $(2\times1)O$  surface, and the presence of OH spectators. The relative oxygen binding strength among these surfaces can help to explain the experimentally observed selectivity change between  $CH_4$  and  $CH_3OH$  on these electrodes; this suggests that the oxygen-binding strength may be a key parameter which predicts the thermodynamically preferred selectivity for pathways proceeding through a methoxy ( $CH_3O$ ) intermediate. This study shows the importance of the local surface environment in the product selectivity of electrocatalysis, and suggests a simple descriptor that can aid in the design of improved electrocatalytic materials.

Keywords: coverage, carbon dioxide reduction, selectivity



# **1** Introduction

The externalities associated with carbon dioxide accumulation in the atmosphere, the supply fluctuations of fossil fuels and biofuels, and the anticipated storage demands associated with intermittent electricity sources has sparked a flurry of interest into the conversion of carbon dioxide into fuels and chemicals [1–20]. Electrochemically reducing  $CO_2$  is a promising method to turn this abundant yet undesirable greenhouse gas into useful fuels and chemicals, such as hydrocarbons and alcohols.

Control of product selectivity to liquid fuel products is especially attractive due to the heavy use of liquid fuels in our transportation infrastructure, but our current understanding on the product selectivity mechanism is limited. Recent theoretical studies have focused more on the fundamental reasons of the overpotential requirement, which dictates the energetic efficiency of the process [21–24]. To improve product selectivity is arguably as important and challenging as to lower the overpotential; particularly the selectivity among gas-phase fuels (such as methane and ethane), liquid fuels (such as methanol and ethanol), and chemical precursors (such as ethylene). Some transition metal catalysts show high selectivity towards carbon monoxide or formic acid [2,25,26], but no catalyst has shown an excellent selectivity to liquid fuel products. On pure metallic copper, the most widely studied heterogeneous electrocatalyst for  $CO_2$  reduction, gaseous methane is the dominant product (Faradaic efficiency or FE 40%) with very little liquid fuels, such as methanol [14, 27–29]. When changing the operation potentials or the surface roughness and structure of copper electrocatalysts, larger quantities of ethylene [29, 30] or formic acid can be generated [18, 31].

However, the production of methanol, a liquid product, seems to be preferred in the presence of oxygen on the copper surface. Frese [32] first reported that when the starting copper electrocatalyst material is intentionally oxidized, methanol will be observed while the catalyst surface remains in its oxidized state. Flake and colleagues also reported a preference in CH<sub>3</sub>OH generation (FE 38%) on electrodeposited cuprous oxide films [11, 33]. As noted in these papers [32, 33], even though one would not expect long-term stability from these oxide layers on the copper surface under reducing conditions, the oxide layer is speculated to last long enough that the selectivity changes can be attributed to its presence. The existence of oxygen-containing spectator species, such as OH, may also play a similar role as the oxidized surface above. An interesting study by Schouten et al. [12] examined the reduction of formaldehyde (CH<sub>2</sub>O) and reported that methanol was more preferred than methane when scanning to a more negative potential. Although adsorbed CH<sub>2</sub>O has been suggested to be an intermediate in the pathway of CO2 conversion to CH4 [21], the potentiallimiting step is presumably different when the pathway starts from CH<sub>2</sub>O. For CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on transition metals, it is considered that the hydrogenation of adsorbed CO, rather than the activation of CO<sub>2</sub> itself, dictates the overpotential requirement [23]. This difficulty in CO hydrogenation should make it the most abundant spectator during CO2 reduction. If CH2O reduction follows the same pathway as suggested for CO<sub>2</sub>, the following steps comprise the lowest free-energy change mechanism to methane [21].

$$CH_2O* \xrightarrow{+H^++e^-} *OCH_3 \xrightarrow{+H^++e^-} O* \xrightarrow{+H^++e^-} OH* \xrightarrow{+H^++e^-} H^+ \xrightarrow{+H^++e^-} *$$
(1)

However, unlike in  $CO_2$  reduction, the potential-limiting step cannot be the hydrogenation of adsorbed CO, since CO is not present. Instead, the thermodynamic analysis from earlier papers would suggest that the potential-limiting step is the removal of adsorbed hydroxyl species (OH\*) [21]. This analysis would suggest the reduction of  $CH_2O$  to take place at more positive potentials than that of  $CO_2$ , consistent with the measurements of Schouten [12]. With OH removal as the thermodynamically most difficult step, we can expect that OH species are the dominant spectators on this surface. In this work, we will also examine whether spectators such as CO and OH are capable of changing the predicted selectivity between CH<sub>4</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub>OH.

In other areas of catalysis, changes in the selectivity of catalytic reactions have been reported to arise from modifications in the state of the catalyst surface, including surface structure, surface state (*e.g.*, oxidized, reduced, carburized), and the presence of spectator species (often referred to as poisons and promoters). Examples can be found widely, such as the activation of iron oxide catalysts due to carbon deposition in Fischer-Tropsch synthesis of hydrocarbons [34–36], supercritical-water methanation catalysis that activates when  $RuO_2$  is converted to Ru [37, 38], hydrogen evolution activity being poisoned or promoted due to a high coverage of CO spectators [39], changes in the crystalline structure of copper electrodes in  $CO_2$  reduction [40], and many well-known examples of sulfur or carbon monoxide poisoning in methanol oxidation and oxygen reduction materials [41–49].

In the current work, we used density functional theory (DFT) calculations to study how such a local surface environment modification can affect selectivity in electrochemical  $CO_2$  reduction. From a perspective of elementary energetics, we investigated the presence of several likely surface states of copper, including a clean metallic surface, surfaces under various states of oxidation, and surfaces covered with increasing quantities of OH or CO spectators. An analysis of the free energy diagram suggests that the selectivity preference switches to methanol in the cases when copper surface is fully or partially oxidized and when the surface is covered by OH with a high coverage. From this, we suggest a simple activity descriptor as a useful indicator of the selectivity between methane and methanol.

### 2 Methods

**Electronic structure calculations.** The Atomic Simulation Environment (ASE) was used to build surface models and DACAPO was employed to conduct DFT calculations [50,51] with the exchange–correlation interactions treated by the RPBE functional [52] and the core electrons treated with Vanderbilt ultrasoft pseudopotentials [53]. The planewave cutoff was set at 340.15 eV and

the density cutoff at 500 eV. Fermi smearing of 0.1 eV and a k-point sampling of  $(4 \times 4 \times 1)$  were applied in all surface calculations. A dipole correction was included in the vacuum in the direction orthogonal to the slab surface. The line-search BFGS algorithm was used to relax geometric configurations until the maximum force on any unconstrained atom was less than 0.05 eV/atom. All surfaces were built with 20 Å vacuum between layers and periodic boundary conditions in all directions.

For oxidized copper surfaces,  $Cu_2O(111)$  and  $Cu(110)-(2\times1)O$  were examined. Cuprous oxide  $(Cu_2O)$ , has a spacegroup of *Pn-3m* with the oxygen and copper atoms forming bcc and fcc sublattices, respectively [54,55]. Experimentally measured lattice constants for cuprous oxide are in the range of 4.268-4.270 Å [56–58]. Our optimized lattice constant is 4.413 Å with *k*-point sampling of of  $(4\times4\times4)$ , typical of lattice-constant discrepancies calculated in DFT. A copper terminated surface of  $Cu_2O$  (111) was employed. In optimization the top (Cu) layer was relaxed with the subsurface atoms fixed.  $Cu(110)-(2\times1)O$  was built based on Cu(110) surface by adding a surface oxide layer. Calculations on  $Cu(110)-(2\times1)O$  were carried out with the bottom three layers fixed and the topmost layer relaxed.

For pure copper surfaces covered with spectator species, Cu(111) covered by OH and CO were investigated and compared. Copper surfaces were cut from an fcc copper bulk crystal with a lattice constant of 3.71 Å, corresponding to the DFT-optimum bulk lattice constant for these electronic-structure parameters [21]. A  $3 \times 3 \times 3$  (atoms) periodic cell was employed in our calculations, with the bottom two layers fixed and the top layer relaxed. Herein we focus on the Cu(111) surface for simplicity in deducing trends, as compared to more highly ordered surfaces such as (211) which may result in coverage patterns unique to the highly periodic system.

**Free energy calculations** With the electronic potential energies ( $E_{\text{elec}}$ ) obtained from the above DFT calculations, free energies (G) at 25°C were calculated by adding the contributions of zeropoint energy ( $E_{\text{ZPE}}$ ), heat capacity ( $C_p$ ) and entropy, which were all calculated in the harmonic approximation with vibrational energies derived from a normal-mode analysis, as in:

$$G \equiv E_{\text{elec}} + E_{\text{ZPE}} + \int C_p \, dT - TS \tag{2}$$

where G is our consistently-referenced free energy of a species and T is the temperature.

The normal modes were calculated by a finite-difference approximation of the Hessian matrix with a displacement of 0.01 Å in three dimensions. The vibrational frequencies of each molecule and adsorbate are listed in our Supporting Information. Non-surface-bound species, such as  $CH_4$  and  $CH_3OH$ , were treated as independent ideal-gas molecules in a  $15 \times 15 \times 15$  vacuum box at 101325 Pa. For adsorbates on a surface, the normal modes of an adsorbate were obtained from previous theoretical studies, and taken to be independent of the surface types and any surround-ing spectators [21, 22]. Changes in the vibrational contributions to the free energy of lattice and spectator species caused by the presence of our adsorbates were ignored.

The computational hydrogen electrode (CHE) model was applied when calculating the free energy change between two electrochemical steps involving a proton and an electron transfer. This method was proposed by Nørskov *et al.* [59] and its application to  $CO_2$  reduction has been described in detail in previous work [21].

**Coverage-dependent binding energies.** The task of finding the lowest-energy configuration in high-coverage scenarios is complicated by the combinatorics: there can be hundreds or even thousands of possible configurations [60]. We used a two-part strategy to search for these configurations. First, to evaluate the OH and CO coverage effects on the binding energy of O and CH<sub>3</sub>O, a "brute-force" optimization method was used to search for the lowest energy spectator configurations with O and CH<sub>3</sub>O at their preferred binding sites, similar to our approach in a previous work [39]. First, O (or CH<sub>3</sub>O) was allowed to bind to the (111) surface at all conceivable sites, and the structures were optimized. It was found that a three-fold fcc site is preferred by both adsorbates, consistent with previous studies [22, 61]. Then, with the O (or CH<sub>3</sub>O) at its preferred site, a multitude of surfaces were set up with one O (or CH<sub>3</sub>O) and *x* OH (or CO) molecules at various sites on the (111) surface, for x=1, 2, 3, 4. These surfaces with O (or CH<sub>3</sub>O) and OH (or

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CO) groups were relaxed and their potential energies were obtained. For each set of x spectators with a particular adsorbate, the lowest energy configuration was selected, and its potential energy is denoted, for example, as E[O + xOH + \*]. By removing O (or CH<sub>3</sub>O) from the lowest energy surface, we optimized the structure again and denote its potential energy without O (or CH<sub>3</sub>O) as, for example, E[xOH + \*]. From these data, the binding energies of O (or CH<sub>3</sub>O) on surfaces with different spectator species presented were defined as, for example

$$E_{\rm B}[O; xOH] \equiv E[O + xOH + *] - (E[xOH + *] + E_{\rm ref}[O])$$
 (3)

where  $CH_3O$  can replace O and CO can replace OH. The arbitrary reference energies were taken as

$$E_{\rm ref}[\mathcal{O}] = E[\mathcal{H}_2\mathcal{O}] - E[\mathcal{H}_2]$$
$$E_{\rm ref}[\mathcal{OH}_3\mathcal{O}] = E[\mathcal{OH}_3\mathcal{OH}] - \frac{1}{2}E[\mathcal{H}_2]$$

Coverages are reported in fraction of a monolayer (ML); a monolayer is defined as one adsorbate molecule per surface catalyst atom – that is, a 2/9 ML coverage of OH corresponds to 2 hydroxyl groups on a periodic  $3 \times 3$  copper surface.

Simultaneously, a constrained minima-hopping algorithm [60] was applied in order to search for the global lowest energy of each configuration. The results are used to compare with those found by brute-force optimization. Both approaches revealed the identical conformer as the global optimum. By the two-part method, there is a reasonable degree of certainty that the configurations and energies reported correspond to global optima within these constraints.

## **3** Results and discussion

**Oxidized copper surface.** In order to assess effects from oxidized copper surfaces, we examined both a bulk oxide and a surface oxide of copper. For the fully oxidized bulk structure, we examined



**Figure 1:** Top view of geometric configurations (a) without and with (b) CH<sub>3</sub>O or (c) O adsorbates on the bulk oxide terminated at the Cu<sub>2</sub>O(111) surface. Color scheme: C gray, O red, H white, Cu copper. The periodic unit cell is shown in black lines.



**Figure 2:** Top view of geometric configurations (a) without and with (b) CH<sub>3</sub>O or (c) O adsorbates on the surface oxide represented by Cu(110)-(2×1)O. Color scheme: C gray, O red, H white, Cu copper. The periodic unit cell is shown in black lines.

cuprous oxide (Cu<sub>2</sub>O), which is one of the principle oxides of copper and has been reported to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>OH [11,33,62]. For the partially oxidized copper surface, we studied Cu(110)- $(2\times1)O$ . This structure was shown to be formed with oxygen molecules dissociatively adsorbed on a copper surface at room temperature [63]. Although it is not known if the continued production of oxygen adsorbates on a copper surface could lead to such a structure in the electrochemical environment, this system nevertheless provides a reasonable model system in the spectrum of copper surfaces with different levels of oxidation.

On the Cu<sub>2</sub>O (111) surface both CH<sub>3</sub>O and O favor the fcc three-fold site as shown in Figure 1. On Cu(110)-(2×1)O, both CH<sub>3</sub>O and O tend to bind between top copper atom rows: CH<sub>3</sub>O stays near the bridge site and O locates in the center of the four-fold site (Figure 2). The electronic potential energy calculations provide the basis for the elementary thermodynamic free energy diagrams in the CHE model, shown in Figure 3. The results are also compared with the free energy diagram of a non-oxidized Cu(111) surface. On the pure Cu(111) surface, the hydrogenation of adsorbed CH<sub>3</sub>O thermodynamically favors the generation of methane, which is 0.2 eV lower than the free-energy change for methanol generation. This is consistent with previous theoretical studies [22] and experimental observations of CH<sub>4</sub> formation on Cu(111) surfaces [64]. However, the thermodynamics are reversed on oxidized copper surfaces. On both Cu<sub>2</sub>O(111) and Cu(110)-(2×1)O, the free energy of (CH<sub>3</sub>OH + \*) is 0.6-0.7 eV lower than that of (CH<sub>4</sub> + O\*), suggesting that methanol is thermodynamically preferred by this pathway on oxidized copper electrocatalysts. These changes are directly related to the weakening of the surface-oxygen bond. This is consistent with the before-mentioned experimental observations of direct CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>OH electrochemical reduction in aqueous solutions, which has been reported on intentionally oxidized copper surfaces [11, 33, 62].



Figure 3: Free energy diagram of the electrochemical step from CH<sub>3</sub>O on Cu(111), Cu<sub>2</sub>O(111) and Cu(110)-(2×1)O. All data are plotted relative to the free energy of CH<sub>3</sub>O\* for each surface. The step involves transfer of a proton and electron (H<sup>+</sup> + e<sup>-</sup>) in the CHE model calculated at 0 V vs RHE.

**Co-adsorbed spectators on copper surface.** To study the effect of co-adsorbed OH on the thermodynamically predicted pathways, we examined surfaces covered with increasing coverages of OH or CO spectators. We chose a surface covered in OH in order to understand the conditions that may result from a partially oxidized surface or in which OH removal is the limiting step, as it may be in formaldehyde reduction. We compare the energetics to those of a bare copper surface; however, a fairer comparison may be to CO-covered surfaces, as we would expect a high CO coverage if CO hydrogenation is the most difficult step. Thus, we also include CO-covered surfaces in our analysis.

We first describe the geometric configurations of OH on Cu, which shows that OH tends to self-stabilize moderate coverages by setting up a hydrogen-bonding network. Figure 4 shows the geometric configurations of CH<sub>3</sub>O and O with spectators OH or CO on a Cu(111) surface; both CH<sub>3</sub>O and O are maintained at their preferred three-fold fcc sites in all cases. CH<sub>3</sub>O binds to copper through its oxygen atom and the methyl group points away from the surface. Like the oxygen atom and the methoxy group, the OH spectators also tend to favor three-fold sites at most coverage levels. When OH is at 1/9 ML coverage, the O–H bond tends to be vertical to the surface. As the coverage of OH increases, a hydrogen bonding network starts to be established and the orientation of the O–H bond in OH starts to parallel the surface. Note that on surfaces with O adsorbed, some O–H bonds stay vertically oriented even when the OH coverage is 2/9 or 3/9 ML; while this does not occur on the surfaces with CH<sub>3</sub>O. This may be caused by the larger size of CH<sub>3</sub>O relative to O and a repulsion between hydrogen atoms in OH and CH<sub>3</sub>O.

The behavior of carbon monoxide (CO) spectators is different from hydroxyl, primarily because CO adsorbates tend to repel one another [65–68], as opposed to the attraction in hydrogen binding networks. CO binds to copper through a carbon atom, and tends to favor both ontop sites and three-fold sites. Adsorbate-adsorbate hydrogen bonding does not exist in this case and the interaction between carbon in CO and oxygen in  $CH_3O$  or O is much weaker than that between hydrogen and oxygen. Thus, CO prefers to be oriented away from the copper surface even when its coverage is high. This weak interaction makes CO spectators tend to distribute rather uniformly on a surface. It is also noted that the distance between CO and O is smaller than that between CO and  $CH_3O$ , which can also be attributed to the size difference between  $CH_3O$  and O.

The corresponding binding energy calculation results are summarized in Figure 6. For surfaces with spectators of OH, these calculations suggest that a high coverage of OH weakens the binding of both  $CH_3O$  and O. As the coverage of OH increases from zero to 2/9 ML, the binding energy becomes slightly stronger, by less than 0.1 eV. At 3/9 ML coverage, OH spectators can build a



Figure 4: Top view of the geometric configurations of the Cu(111) surface with adsorbates  $CH_3O$  or O and spectators OH or CO. Color scheme: C gray, O red, H white, Cu copper. The periodic unit cell is shown in black lines.

strong hydrogen bonding network even if  $CH_3O$  or O is not on surface. As shown in Figure 5, a line of OH is formed within these geometric constraints. The addition of a  $CH_3O$  or O will not only destroy the tight network, but increase the repulsion between molecules as well, causing the binding energy to increase sharply at 4/9 ML of OH. In practice, we would expect the presence of liquid water to make this effect more pronounced.

Similarly, a higher coverage of CO will lead to a weaker binding energy of methoxy  $CH_3O$ . This trend is consistent with previous studies on the CHO binding strength change with CO coverage on a Pt surface [69]. At low coverages of 1/9 ML and 2/9 ML CO, the interactions are weak and the binding energy changes of both  $CH_3O$  and O are within typical accuracies of DFT. When CO accumulates on the surface, the binding energy of  $CH_3O$  increases rapidly due to a forced



Figure 5: Top view of the geometric configurations of Cu(111) surface when adsorbate  $CH_3O$  or O is removed. Color scheme: C gray, O red, H white, Cu copper. The periodic unit cell is shown in black lines.

change in CO binding sites. For example, at 4/9 ML, with CH<sub>3</sub>O on the surface CO molecules occupy two ontop sites and two threefold sites. However, after removing CH<sub>3</sub>O and re-optimizing the structure, one of the ontop CO adsorbates drifts to a nearby bridge site, effectively trying to adopt a uniform spacing on the surface. These steric effects on CO account for most of the incremental binding energy; this can be observed as the geometric effects in the binding energy shown in Figure 6(b). As a smaller adsorbate, an oxygen atom apparently has a much smaller steric effect is essentially absent, and can also be seen geometrically in the 4/9 ML CO configurations in Figure 4. In these figures, the methoxy group has a larger CO-free zone surrounding it than does the oxygen. Although there are some ups and downs in the O binding energy when changing the CO coverage,



Figure 6: Binding energy of  $CH_3O$  and O vs the coverage, of OH or CO on Cu(111) surface. In the lower figures, the deviation of the energy from that in the absence of spectators is broken down into electronic ('elec') and geometric ('geom') effects, which sum to the difference between the binding energy at the specified spectator coverage and the binding energy without spectators. The electronic effect is the difference in binding energy when the adsorbate is removed without allowing the spectators to re-arrange; the geometric effect is the binding energy difference upon allowing for re-arrangement of the spectator species and the top surface layer.

they occur in a limited range ( $\pm 0.1 \text{ eV}$ ), suggesting that CO doesn't have a significant effect on O binding energy at these coverages. This is in contrast to the results at high OH coverages.

**OH/CO coverage effects on product selectivity.** To understand the effects on the binding energy in the context of the elementary reduction of  $*OCH_3$  to  $(CH_3OH + *)$  or  $(CH_4 + *)$ , Figure 7 shows a free energy diagram of this elementary step which can determine the selectivity to the final carbon-containing product, either  $CH_4$  or  $CH_3OH$ . In agreement with earlier studies [22], on a clean Cu111) surface the liberation of  $CH_4$  is more favorable than the liberation of  $CH_3OH$ , suggesting a thermodynamic selectivity towards  $CH_4$ . The blue and green lines indicate the revised potential energies by including the effect of OH and CO spectators on the Cu(111) surface. When  $CO_2/CO$  is reduced, the main spectator on the surface is CO. As seen in Figure 7, the energy changes associated with CO coverage still point towards a weak-to-neutral selectivity preference of  $CH_4$  over  $CH_3OH$ , suggesting that the high CO coverages that would be expected to be present in  $CO_2/CO$  reduction do not qualitatively change the selectivity of a clean surface. On the other hand, as the coverage of OH spectators increases, the energy of  $(CH_4 + O^*)$  becomes up to  $\sim 0.5 \text{ eV}$  higher than that of  $(CH_3OH + *)$ . Therefore, as the OH coverage increases,  $CH_3OH$  becomes thermodynamically more favorable at this step. This indicates that OH coverage is thermodynamically more than strong enough to flip the selectivity, while CO coverage is not.

The above changes due to the surface coverage conditions may give us some insights on the time-based changes observed in Schouten and Koper's work. While the equilibrated existence of methanediol (in addition to formaldehyde) in aqueous solutions may explain much of the methanol production under these conditions [70], it is possible that oxygen-induced changes to the catalyst surface are responsible for the selectivity change observed from methane to methanol over the course of Schouten's reductive sweep. In the OLEMS (online electrochemical mass spectroscopy) spectra of formaldehyde reduction reported in their work (Figure 3 in reference [12], the m/z = 15 curve (fragments from CH<sub>4</sub>) separates from the m/z = 29, 30, 31 curves (fragments from CH<sub>3</sub>OH) in the sweep region from -0.3 to -0.55 V vs RHE. The experiment is carried out by changing the



**Figure 7:** Cu(111) surface coverage-dependent free energy diagram. Black lines are potential energies obtained on bare surface with no OH or CO spectator species; blue lines represent OH adsorbed; green lines represent CO adsorbed.

potential of the electrode from 0.0 to -1.0 V and back at 1 mV· s<sup>-1</sup>. Although the OLEMS data do not quantify the amounts of  $CH_4$  and  $CH_3OH$  produced in these experiments, they suggest a change in selectivity from  $CH_4 + CH_3OH$  (early times) to predominantly  $CH_3OH$  (later times). On the reverse sweep, the change in selectivity is not observed, suggesting that the selectivity changes correlate with time more strongly than potential. The simplest explanation for a time-based change from methane to methanol could be a change in the catalyst condition. Initially, the bare surface would have selectivity predominantly to methane (Figure 7). As hydroxyl groups gradually build up and form a network during formaldehyde reduction, the free energy of  $(CH_4 + O^*)$  increases and finally exceeds that of  $(CH_3OH + *)$ . Thus the main product changes to  $CH_3OH$ . Once the surface is sufficiently coated in OH spectators, it only takes a small amount of the methaneforming reaction occurring in parallel with the methanol-forming reaction in order to keep the surface coated in these species, and keep the selectivity predominantly towards methanol.

Although a full coverage-dependent kinetic Monte Carlo model in the presence of explicit water molecules might be necessary to make quantitative predictions on the potential-dependent reactive coverage of OH and CO species in the different reactive systems ( $CO_2$  reduction and  $CH_2O$  reduction), we can use the trends in binding energies to make some qualitative conclusions

regarding coverages of OH and CO under reactive conditions. At  $CO_2/CO$  experimental reaction conditions (-0.8 to -1.0 V vs RHE to generate  $CH_4$  primarily), the reactive conversion of CO to CHO is the most difficult step from an elementary thermodynamics standpoint and is just exergonic; similarly, at the  $CH_2O$  reduction conditions (-0.4 to -0.7 V vs RHE to generate  $CH_3OH$ and/or  $CH_4$ ) the removal of OH is the most difficult step and is also just exergonic, by roughly the same value. Therefore, the inference of a reasonable OH coverage under  $CH_2O$ -reducing conditions is equivalent, on the basis of these calculations, to the inference of a reasonable CO coverage under  $CO_2/CO$ -reducing conditions. We can use the relative binding energies of these species as a function of coverage to give us an indication of the relative reactive coverages expected. We know that CO adsorbates tend to repel each other [65–68], suggesting that a lower equilibrium coverage may be favorable, whereas OH adsorbates tend to stabilize each other through a hydrogen-bonding network [71–73] suggesting that under these comparable overpotential conditions, we should expect the coverage of OH under formaldehyde-reducing conditions to be at least as high as the coverage of CO under  $CO_2$  reducing conditions, if not higher. Water will also participate in the hydrogen-bonding network, further stabilizing hydroxyl species on the surface [74].

Selectivity descriptor. By examining the information above, it is apparent that the thermodynamically favored product of methoxy reduction is only related to the binding energy of oxygen on the surface. We therefore suggest that the oxygen binding energy of the active catalyst surface can be used as a first-order descriptor of the selectivity towards methane or methanol, at least among pathways that proceed through a methoxy intermediate. The data in the current article are summarized in Figure 8, which shows the oxygen binding energy along with the theoretically predicted selectivity based on our calculations. Pure copper facets sit below the cutoff binding energy of  $\sim 1.17 \text{ eV}$  (dashed line) and prefer methane in CO<sub>2</sub> or CO reduction; while oxidized and hydroxyl covered copper surfaces are above the cutoff line and prefer methanol as a reducing product. This is consistent with the experimentally observed trends. Interestingly, Kuhl and co-workers [76] performed CO<sub>2</sub> reduction with high product selectivity on a range of electrocatalytic materials



**Figure 8:** Oxygen binding energy as an activity descriptor for  $CH_4/CH_3OH$  selectivity. Circle (•): selective to  $CH_4$ ; Triangle ( $\blacktriangle$ ): selective to  $CH_3OH$ . The dashed-line indicates the cutoff binding energy at which the thermodynamic selectivity of the elementary step changes between methane and methanol. Some  $E_B[O]$  values come from literature: Cu(211) [21], Fe bcc(210) [75] and Au fcc(211) [75]. Experimental product observations have been reported by the following literature: reduced copper [2], copper oxides [32, 33], Fe [76] and Au [76].

and observed products more reduced than CO on a number of materials. Two of these materials showed a strong selectivity preference towards either methane or methanol (Fe and Au); we have added these data points to Figure 8 as well and they are consistent with the descriptor. We note that many other factors, such as pathway changes and elementary barriers, will also influence the selectivity; nonetheless, the simple descriptor of oxygen binding energy here adequately describes the experimentally-observed selectivities among the electrocatalysts examined.

# 4 Conclusions

The results of these calculations suggest that the thermodynamically predicted pathways in  $CO_2$  reduction can be affected by the local surface environment of the electrocatalyst, particularly by the state of oxidation of copper surfaces. Specifically, the intermediate  $CH_3O^*$  can lead to  $CH_4$  or  $CH_3OH$  depending on whether the surface is a clean copper surface or one in which a surface or

bulk oxide is present, or on whether OH or CO is the predominant spectator. A moderate amount of oxygen, manifested as oxide formations or hydroxyl spectator groups, has this effect by significantly increasing the electronic energy of  $(CH_4 + O^*)$ , leaving  $CH_3OH$  as the thermodynamically preferred product under these conditions. This work, along with that by others [12, 69], highlights that the local surface environment of a catalyst surface can have a profound impact on the selectivity of elementary reaction steps. This suggests the importance of studying spectator coverage effects on the other crucial steps in  $CO_2$  reduction, such as the initial activation of  $CO_2$  or the hydrogenation of adsorbed CO, and suggests that such surface effects may cause deviations from the scaling effects that are thought to limit the efficiency of  $CO_2$  reduction. In further studies, calculations can be expanded to other possible spectators, such as carbon, which may also affect both Faradaic efficiency and the product selectivity in  $CO_2$  reduction [77]. Finally, an activity descriptor – the binding energy of oxygen to the catalyst surface – has been introduced which is expected to be useful in designing catalysts that selectively produce methanol versus methane from adsorbed methoxy in electrochemical reductions.

#### ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information is available at the publisher's website free of charge. This includes the free energy corrections, coverage-dependent energies, and calculated vibrational modes.

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