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Screening binary alloys for electrochemical CO₂ reduction towards multi-carbon products

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Abstract

Electrochemical reduction of CO₂ (eCO₂R) to high-value chemicals presents an attractive approach for utilizing CO₂. Copper (Cu) is presently the only electrocatalyst that fulfills this purpose with notable activity, but selectivity remains a problem. To identify catalysts for eCO₂R with high selectivity towards multicarbon (C_{2+}) products, we explore binary systems comprised of strongly and weakly CO binding metals alloyed with Cu, Fe, Co, Ni, and Pd. A total number of 142 alloys with two commonly studied configurations, L1₂ and L1₀, are simulated with density functional theory (DFT). We leverage recent progress in the atomistic understanding of the eCO₂R mechanism and use the binding energies of CO* and C* as descriptors when screening for C_{2+} selectivity. We evaluate the stability of the binary alloys by analyzing the formation energy of the clean alloy surfaces. Our theoretical screening identifies about 16 Cubased alloys and 18 non-Cu based alloys with optimal C₂₊ selective properties for eCO₂R. For the non-Cu based binary alloys, the p-block elements play an important role in tuning the C* and CO* adsorption energies. In terms of stability, most of the Cu-based systems alloyed with metals that exhibit strong CO* binding are unstable. Ni-based alloys are more stable than the Co-based alloys followed by the Fe-based alloys, and all the Pd-based alloys are stable. In general, the L10 structural Fe, Co, Ni, and Pd-based alloys are more stable than the corresponding L12 alloys. Our approach identifies materials known to have good C₂₊ selectivity, but it also proposes several other promising materials that have not previously been tested for eCO_2R .

Keywords: Density functional theory; CO₂ electrochemical reduction; Binary alloys; C₂ product selectivity; Alloy stability.

1. Introduction

Global chemical and energy industries rely heavily on fossil fuel feedstock. At the same time, substantial emission of greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (CO₂) leads to elevated temperatures that alter the Earth's climate.¹ Technologies for mitigating CO₂ emission via capturing, sequestration, and/or conversion in an electrochemical, photocatalytic, or thermochemical manner, have been widely studied.²⁻⁷ Among these approaches, electrochemical CO₂ reduction (eCO₂R) has risen as an elegant and plausible route for conversion of CO₂ into valuable chemicals and fuels that can be powered by electricity from clean and renewable (e.g., solar, wind, hydroelectric, nuclear, and geothermal) energy resources.⁸⁻¹² The eCO₂R has a complex reaction network with a variety of possible reduced products, ranging from two-electron products (CO or formate) to hydrocarbons and oxygenates such as methane, ethylene, ethanol, acetic acid, and n-propanol.¹³⁻¹⁴ Comparatively, highly reduced multi-carbon (C₂₊) species are of greater value as building blocks in chemical synthesis and the C₂₊ oxygenates are more suitable for energy storage and transportation.¹⁵⁻¹⁶ However, tuning the kinetics of eCO₂R is a challenging endeavor and the lack of sufficiently active and selective electrocatalysts presents a roadblock for industries to take on the eCO₂R.¹⁷⁻¹⁸

Copper (Cu) is currently the only metal that produces high-value C_{2+} products at an acceptable rate; however, its selectivity is still far from satisfactory.¹⁹ The unique ability of Cu to form C_{2+} products has been attributed to its moderate binding energy of CO and other intermediates, whereas the selectivity issue is related to the relatively flat reaction landscape towards different types of products highlighting the need to fine-tune the catalysts' properties.²⁰⁻²¹ In this respect, exploring electrocatalyst structures with more than one element is a promising approach towards enhanced selectivity in eCO₂R by offering tunable control over structure, morphology, and composition.²² However, the approach also leads to an amplified combinational task for identifying the ideal catalysts.

Recent advances in high-throughput experimental synthesis and computational screening based on density functional theory (DFT) calculations have immensely boosted the discovery of eCO_2R electrocatalysts. Experimentally, Grote *et al.*²³ developed a composition screening technique that synthesizes thin film samples with a co-sputtering approach and performs electrochemical measurement through a scanning flow cell coupled to an online electrochemical mass spectrometer (SFC-OLEMS). They investigated the Cu-Co system in the entire

compositional range and revealed that there is a shift in selectivity toward C₂ products for low Co content (in the range of 5-15 atomic percentage) and that higher Co concentration promotes the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) over the eCO₂R. Berlinguette and coworkers²⁴ developed a high-throughput synthesis technique by reducing films formed by near-infrared driven decomposition (NIRDD) of metal salts. They studied a series of binary metallic electrocatalysts and found that Indium (In) efficiently suppresses HER for all the Fe-, Co-, Ni-, and Cu-based allovs and that the Cu(80%)-In alloy exhibits excellent CO selectivity with a Faradaic efficiency (FE) greater than 80%. In terms of the DFT-based screening work, the approaches developed by Nørskov and co-workers ²⁵⁻²⁷ are widely used in which reactivity trends are estimated from adsorption energies of intermediates evaluated on pure metals or on multi-metallic alloys, and has made significant contribution to the theoretical screening of electrocatalysts for eCO₂R. Bagger et al.²⁸⁻²⁹ carried out both experimental and theoretical studies in classifying metallic electrocatalysts and proposed that four non-coupled binding energies of intermediates (H*, COOH*, CO*, and CH₃O*, where * indicates the adsorbed state of the intermediate) can be used to group and explain products distributions in eCO₂R. Zhi et al.³⁰ applied DFT calculations to study a series of Cu-based single atom alloys (M@Cu, M = Co, Ni, Ru, Rh, Ir, Pt, Pd, Au, Ag, Zn, In, Sn) and revealed that the hydrogen and oxygen affinities to M (M-H and M-O) are effective descriptors for eCO₂R selectivity and therefore provides a rational approach in the design of highly selective Cu-based alloys. Zhao et al.³¹ performed a computational screening of Ni-based near-surface-alloys (NSAs) with a total of 27 alloying elements M (M = 3d, 4d, and 5dtransition metals). The introduction of a monolayer of M either to the surface layer or to the subsurface layer identified Ni-Ti and Cu-Ni NSAs as catalysts with excellent formic acid selectivity during eCO₂R. The Xin group³² presented a machine-learning-augmented chemisorption model that enabled prediction of the complex and nonlinear interactions of adsorbates with multi-metallic alloy surfaces with errors around 0.1 eV, which greatly facilitates the theoretical high-throughput screening of alloys as eCO₂R electrocatalysts. They found a few promising (100)-terminated Cu-based alloys with high efficiency and selectivity for eCO₂R towards C₂₊ species and revealed that the *d*-band characteristics and local electronegativity play significant roles in CO binding on metal surfaces. Tran and Ulissi³³ developed an automated screening approach that applies machine learning to guide DFT calculations. They screened various alloys of 31 different elements and identified 131 candidate surfaces across 54 binary

alloys with optimal (-0.67 eV) CO binding energy for eCO_2R . Most of the promising candidates identified were the strong-weak elemental pairings with combinations of strong CO binding elements (e.g., Pd, Pt, Ni, Os) with weak CO binding elements (e.g., Al, Sn, Ga, Sb).

Mechanistically, multiple reaction pathways are known to be of importance in eCO₂R with the dominant mechanism varying with, e.g., potential and pH. Among the pathways leading to C-C bond formation, CO-CO dimerization has been identified as the most favorable at low overpotentials and alkaline conditions.¹⁶ Therefore, this pathway has been the main focus of previous screening studies towards C_{2+} selective catalysts.^{16, 30-33} Recently, we reexamined the mechanistic pathways of eCO₂R in detail accounting explicitly for pH, potential, and electric field effects;³⁴ the most critical steps towards C_{2+} products at different conditions could be identified, nuancing the atomic scale understanding, and providing a basis for an intelligible descriptor-based protocol for screening C_{2+} selective electrocatalysts. In particular, it was found that atomic carbon, C*, is a key intermediate for the bifurcation into either C₁ (methane) or C₂₊ products through protonation of or CO-coupling to C*, respectively. This singled out C* and CO* adsorption energies onto the catalysts surface as two decisive descriptors for rationalization of C_{2+} selectivity. With some variations with applied potential, the most active eCO₂R surfaces were identified to have moderate (0.0 to -0.6 eV) CO* binding energies and slightly endergonic (0.5 to 1.5 eV) C* binding energies.

In this work, we leverage the recent mechanistic insights and carry out a computational screening of Cu-based binary alloys composed of Cu with strong CO binding metals (Fe, Co, Ni, Pd, Pt, Mo, Ru, Rh, W, Re, Os, Ir) or with weak CO binding metals (Zn, Ag, Au, Al, Ga, In, Si, Ge, Sn, Pb, As, Sb, Bi). We also investigate non-Cu based binary alloys with combinations of strong and weak binding metals. We consider the two common $L1_2$ and $L1_0$ alloying configurations.³⁵⁻³⁷Adsorption energies of C* and CO* on a total number of 142 binary alloys are calculated with DFT and these two descriptors are used to screen for C₂₊ selective alloys. In addition, the stability of the binary alloys is evaluated via the formation energies of the binary alloy surfaces. Our theoretical screening not only identify several Cu-based alloys with ideal properties, some of them reported experimentally and some yet to be tested, but also suggests a few promising Ni-, Co-, Fe-, and Pd-based binary alloys. The selectivity and stability trends of the binary alloys as revealed in this work provides rational guidance in designing highly C₂₊

selective and stable alloys for eCO₂R including other structures and compositions, as well as multicomponent systems ranging beyond bi-metallics.

2. Calculation Details

First-principle calculations were carried out with a periodic plane-wave implementation using the QUANTUM ESPRESSO code,³⁸ interfaced with the Atomistic Simulation Environment (ASE).³⁹ The BEEF-vdW functional was applied, which provides a reasonable description of van der Waals forces while maintaining an accurate prediction of chemisorption energies.⁴⁰ Planewave and density cutoffs were 500 eV and 5000 eV, respectively, with a Fermi-level smearing width of 0.1 eV. The bulk structures of pure metals and binary alloys were optimized using the variable-cell relax (vc-relax) approach in QUANTUM ESPRESSO. The adsorption energies on (100) and (110) surfaces of *fcc* transition metals were evaluated using four-layer (2×2) supercells with the bottom two layers constrained and a vacuum layer of 20 Å. Monkhorst-Pack *k*-point grids⁴¹ of $(4 \times 4 \times 1)$ and $(6 \times 4 \times 1)$ were used for (100) and (110) surfaces, respectively. Modified psLib ultrasoft pseudopotentials were chosen.⁴² All structures were optimized until the force components were less than 0.05 eV Å⁻¹. A dipole correction was applied to decouple the electrostatic interaction between the periodically repeated slabs.⁴³ For binary alloys, the L1₂ and $L1_0$ structures were selected because of the relatively low surface energy.³⁴ The favorite adsorption sites for CO* and C* were tested. CO* tends to adsorb on the atop site of the stronger CO-binding metal, while C* preferentially adsorbs on the four-fold hollow site. Adsorption energies of CO^{*} on atop sites and C^{*} in four-fold hollow sites on the L1₂ (100) and L1₀ (110) surfaces were calculated with the above-mentioned settings. An overbinding correction to CO adsorption energies (except CO* on Cu, Ag, and Au) was employed because of generalized gradient approximations (GGA) functionals generally positioning the unfilled $2\pi^*$ orbital at too low energy.⁴⁴ The correction is based on the vibrational frequency of the internal CO stretch mode of *CO, relative to the frequency in vacuum.⁴⁵ Vibrations were treated in the harmonic oscillator approximation. Details of Gibbs free energy correction can be found in Supplementary Note 1. All the adsorption potentials and free energies on pure metals and binary alloys are provided in the Supporting Information (SI) (see Table S1 and S2). All the relaxed structures (bulks and surfaces) and reaction energetics are available in the data repository *Catalysis-Hub*⁴⁶ at https://www.catalysis-hub.org/publications/LiScreening2021.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1 Selectivity Map

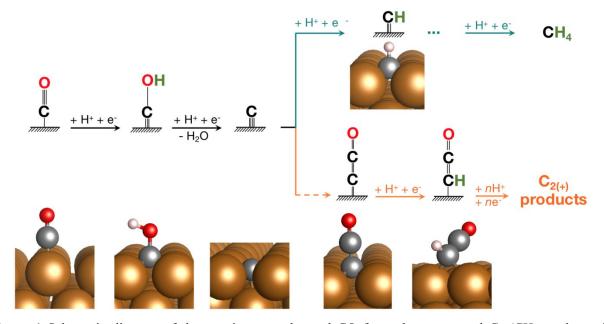


Figure 1 Schematic diagram of the reaction steps beyond CO for pathways toward C_1 (CH₄ as the main product) and $C_{2(+)}$ products.^{34, 47} Only the C-CO pathway important for deciding selectivity in $C_{2(+)}$ formation³⁴ is shown. The atomic structures of the major intermediates are inserted at the bottom.

It has been verified in numerous studies that CO* is a key intermediates in the electrochemical reduction of both CO and CO₂ (hereafter denoted as $eCO_{(2)}R$) leading reduced products beyond two electrons products – i.e., CO(g) and formic acid (HCOOH).^{34, 48-49} In our previous work,³⁴ we present evidence that atomic carbon, C*, plays an equally important role for C₂₍₊₎ product selectivity at pH < 11 and that this short-lived intermediate can explain the observed surface structure dependence during CO₍₂₎R on Cu. The formation of C₂₍₊₎ products via the coupling between C* and CO* (C-CO mechanism) is able to rationalize several experimental observations that the CO-dimerization mechanism has failed to explain under neutral pH conditions, particularly for the competition between methane and C₍₂₊₎ production. For instance, it provides a rationale why 4-fold sites of, e.g., Cu(100) are more C₂₍₊₎-selective than 3-fold site of, e.g., Cu(111) as the C* binding energy varies significantly between these two types of sites. The fundamental insights developed through the C-CO mechanism has helped us identify the relevant descriptors for the product selectivity and thus paves the way for discovering new eCO₍₂₎R catalysts with high selectivity towards C₂₍₊₎ products.

Extending from our previous work, where the COH-to-C* pathway is assumed to contribute significantly to C_{2+} product selectivity on Cu(100)-like surfaces at neutral-pH,³⁴ the rationalization of the C-CO mechanism pathway enable us to employ thermodynamic constraints and scaling relations to screen for binary alloys that have Cu-like CO* and C* binding energetics. **Figure 1**, a schematic diagram showing the important mechanistic steps is given. The key reaction steps that determine the eCO₍₂₎R activity and selectivity are as follows:³⁴

(i)
$$CO^*(or CO(g) + *) + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow COH^*(CO - H \text{ protonation})$$

(ii)
$$CO^*(or CO(g) + *) + 2(H^+ + e^-) \rightarrow C^* + H_2O(C \text{ formation})$$

(iii) CO(g) (or CO^{*}) + C^{*}
$$\rightarrow$$
 CCO^{*} (C - CO coupling)

(iv) $C^* + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow CH^*$ (C – H protonation)

Here reactions (i) and (ii) determine the overall rate that explicitly accounts for the shift in the rate-determining step with applied potential, while the competition between (iii) and (iv) determines the selectivity toward C_1 or $C_{2(+)}$ products. We stress that these insights are based on calculations including both solvation, pH, coverage, potential, and field effects.³⁴

Assuming that the reaction energies (ΔG_{rxn}) in (i)-(iv) can be adequately described via scaling with the free energies of CO* and C* (G_{CO*} and G_{C*}), we can construct a selectivity map of CO₍₂₎R towards C₂₍₊₎ products based on the following thermodynamic conditions:³⁴

- (1) CO* reduction to COH* at an acceptable rate (TOF 1 s⁻¹ site⁻¹ at 300 K): $\Delta G_{rxn}^{(i)} < 0.75 \text{ eV}$
- (2) CO* reduction to C* is kinetically accessible: $\Delta G_{rxn}^{(i)} = 0$
- (3) C-CO coupling should be more favorable than CO* adsorption: $\Delta G_{rxn}^{(iii)} < G_{CO*}$
- (4) C-CO coupling should be more favorable than C-H protonation: $\Delta G_{rxn}^{(iv)} < \Delta G_{rxn}^{(iii)}$

Depending on the electrochemical conditions, the $C_{2(+)}$ selectivity varies with the applied potentials. At -0.7 V vs. RHE (pH7), the overall $C_{2(+)}$ selectivity map for L1₂ and L1₀ alloys is shown in **Figure 2**. We want to point out that while the G_{CO^*} and G_{C^*} descriptors are computed at 0.0 V vs. RHE, the scaling relations defining the conditions (1)-(4) varies with applied potential giving rise to potential dependent selectivity maps.

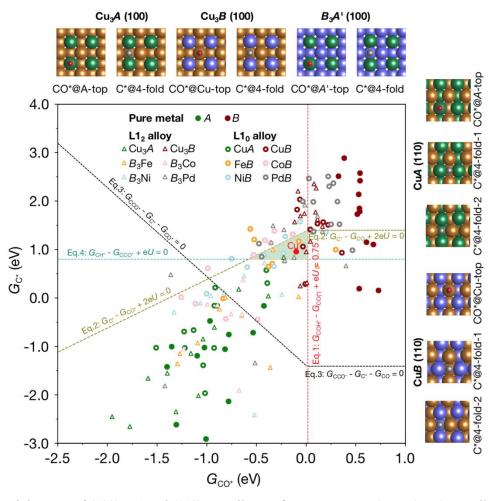


Figure 2 Selectivity map of (100) L1₂ and (110) L1₀ alloy surfaces at $U_{RHE} = -0.7$ V (pH7). Details of how to plot the selectivity map were introduced in our previous work.³⁴ The region with primary selectivity towards C₂-products is highlighted in light green. Solid green dots represent surfaces of pure metal *A*, which are strongly CO binding metals (Fe, Co, Ni, Pd, Pt, Mo, Ru, Rh, W, Re, Os, Ir); solid dark red dots are surfaces of pure metal *B*, which are weakly CO binding metals (Zn, Ag, Au, Al, Ga, In, Si, Ge, Sn, Pb, As, Sb, Bi). The moderate CO binding metal Cu is close to the center of the triangular C₂ selective region. Triangles denote the L1₂ binary alloys of Cu₃*A* (green), Cu₃*B* (dark red), *B*₃Fe (orange), *B*₃Co (pink), *B*₃Ni (light blue), and B₃Pd (gray). Circles represent the L1₀ binary alloys of Cu₄ (green), Cu*B* (dark red), Fe*B* (orange), Co*B* (pink), Ni*B* (light blue), and Pd*B* (gray). Atomic structures (top views) of the adsorption sites of C* (4-fold site) and CO* (top site) are arranged at the top (L1₂ alloy) and right side (L1₀ alloy) of the figure, where *A'* denotes the strongly CO binding metals Fe, Co, Ni, and Pd. The structures of L1₀ *A'B* (110) surfaces are similar to those of the CuB (110) and are therefore not shown in the figure.

In **Figure 2** the selectivity map for $C_{2(+)}$ production on (100) surfaces of A_3B alloys in the L1₂ structure and on (110) surfaces of *AB* alloy in the L1₀ structure are shown as a function of the adsorption free energies of CO* and C*. For pure metal systems with strong CO binding metals like *A* = (Fe, Co, Ni, Pd, Pt, Mo, Ru, Rh, W, Re, Os, Ir) the points are generally scattered in the bottom part of the figure and for the pure metal systems with weak CO binding metals like *B* = (Zn, Ag, Au, Al, Ga, In, Si, Ge, Sn, Pb, As, Sb, Bi) the points are spread in the region on the

upper right part of the figure. None of these pure metals are particularly $C_{2(+)}$ selective. This has been verified experimentally, and as stated earlier, Cu is the only pure metal that produces $C_{2(+)}$ hydrocarbons, which can be attributed to its moderate adsorption energies for CO* and C*.16, 34 This observation, is what motivated us to screen the L1₂ binary alloys constructed from the mixing of Cu with strong and weak CO binding metals as well as mixing some of the strong CO binding metals $A' \in \{Fe, Co, Ni, and Pd\}$ with the weaker binding metals B. Figure 2 shows, that the Cu_3A and CuA alloys fall within a similar region as the pure metals A with CO* and C* adsorption energies scattered in a related fashion, which is due to the fact that CO* is adsorbed on the top site of the A metal and C* is adsorbed at the four-fold site comprised of two Cu atoms and two A atoms so that the both the adsorption energies of CO* and C* are strongly dependent on the A metals with a small perturbation induced by the Cu environment. For the Cu_3B and CuBalloys the CO* binding energies are less scattered and generally lie very close to that of pure Cu. This is unsurprising, since the favored adsorption site of CO^* on Cu_3B (100) and CuB (110) surfaces is an ontop Cu site as shown in the atomic structures at the top and right side of Figure 2. The adsorption energy of C^* at the four-fold site configured with two Cu and two B metal atoms varies more with composition, indicating that the C* adsorption energy can be tuned in a wider range by the introduction of different B metals. The B_3A' and BA' alloys are scattered between the Cu_3A (or CuA) and Cu_3B (CuB) regions with more points in the vicinity of Cu. It is noted that for eCO_2R with $CO_2(g)$ as reactant, the $C_{2(+)}$ selectivity map assumes that the material can convert CO₂ into the key intermediate CO* in preference over formate, CO(g), or H₂(g). The CO and OH binding energies can be used to screen for this selectivity as described in Tang et al.⁴⁷. The prerequisite of forming CO* is lifted if instead of CO₂, CO is used as reactant in eCOR. Solvation effects via hydrogen bonding with nearby water was considered. For simplicity, we apply a constant solvation correction to all the intermediate species (CO*, COH, C, CH, CCO*, and CHCO*, shown in Figure 1) of 0.11 eV based on previous work.³⁴ It is possible that we underestimate the COH* solvation effects; however, the solvation effect of CO* and C* is negligible;³⁴ we expect little to no change to the selectivity map in **Figure 2**.

There are several electrochemical models to describe the potential-dependence of an electrochemical reaction.⁵⁰⁻⁵⁴ Using the computational hydrogen electrode model, which explicitly introduces an energetic correction to electrons on the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) scale,⁵²⁻⁵⁴ we can create constant-potential selectivity maps based on the free energies of

 G_{C^*} and G_{CO^*} across different metallic alloys. Figure 3 shows the selectivity map of L1₂ and L1₀ alloys at different applied potentials, ranging from -1.0 to -0.3 V vs. RHE (pH 7). Upon inspection of the Cu₃A alloys, we note that Cu₃Pd has very similar CO* and C* binding energies to those of Cu, thus Cu₃Pd is very likely a good $eCO_{(2)}R$ catalyst for $C_{2(+)}$ product selectivity. In addition, Cu_3Pt and Cu_3Fe are potentially $C_{2(+)}$ selective catalysts at less negative potentials. Most of the Cu₃B alloys have similar CO* binding energies to that of Cu but with weaker C* binding energies (except Cu₃Al and Cu₃Si) and hence they will be unable to produce the intermediate atomic carbon needed in the C-CO coupling mechanism. Among all the Cu_3B alloys, Cu₃Ge and Cu₃Ga are the two alloys that are most similar to Cu, but still with a slightly weaker $(0.1 \sim 0.2 \text{ eV})$ CO* adsorption energy which may lead to a much lower rate of CO protonation to COH. In addition, Cu₃Zn, Cu₃Ag, and Cu₃Au that have a more endergonic C* binding energy than Cu could still be $C_{2(+)}$ selective but at more negative applied potentials (< -0.8 V vs. RHE at pH 7). It is noted that Cu₃Pb, Cu₃In, and Cu₃Sn have appropriate C* binding energy but a (slightly) weaker CO* binding energy, hence, the Cu-based alloys with p-block metals may be good catalysts but share a common issue regarding the weak CO* binding on Cu top sites. We also screened some non-Cu based alloys with good properties for C₂₍₊₎ selectivity. Ga₃Co, Zn₃Ni, and Al₃Ni indicate some selectivity at less negative applied potential (\geq -0.6 vs. RHE at pH 7); however, these alloys are very close to the thermodynamic boundaries of C-CO coupling and C-H protonation suggesting higher selectivity towards C_1 rather than $C_{2(+)}$ products. Interestingly, a few non-Cu based alloys, like Ga₃Ni, Ga₃Fe, Sn₃Pd, and Ge₃Pd fall into the triangular regions of $C_{2(+)}$ selectivity, implying that they could be promising candidates for $C_{2(+)}$ selective catalysts in eCO₍₂₎R. Some other non-Cu based L1₂ alloys such as Au₃Pd, Pb₃Pd, and Zn₃Pd should also show enhanced selectivity towards $C_{2(+)}$ products but at slightly lower applied potentials. For the Cu-based L1₀ alloys, the CuA alloy of CuPd, and CuB alloys of CuGe and CuZn potentially have good C₂₍₊₎ selectivity. It is interesting that CuAg and CuAu become less selective towards C₂₍₊₎ formation than the corresponding Cu-rich L1₂ alloys, i.e., Cu₃Ag and Cu₃Au, respectively, because of the weakened C* binding energy at the four-fold site. More non-Cu based alloys are identified as promising candidates; Fe-based alloys like FeZn, FeGa, and FePb, Co-based alloys like CoSn, CoAs, CoSb, and CoSi, Ni-based alloys like NiAs, NiAl, NiIn, NiGa, NiBi, and NiGe, and Pd-based alloys like PdAu and PdAs. We conclude, that the p-block elements are important for the Fe, Co, and Ni-based L1₀ binary alloys in order to fine tune the key descriptors for the

electroreduction of $CO_{(2)}$ towards $C_{2(+)}$ products. It is worth mentioning that NiAs is found to be a good catalyst, while As₃Ni is outside the $C_{2(+)}$ selective region because of the instability of the As₃Ni surface. In the following, we shall address the stability of the binary alloys.

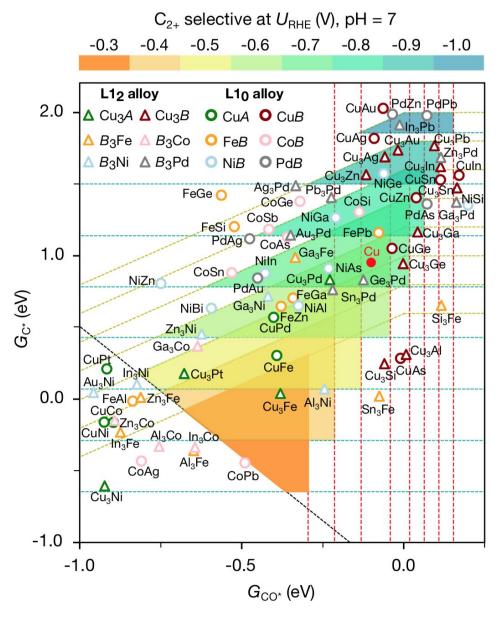


Figure 3 Selectivity map of $L_{1_2}(100)$ and $L_{1_0}(110)$ surfaces at different applied potentials and at pH 7. The triangle markers denote the L_{1_2} binary alloys of Cu_3A (green), Cu_3B (dark red), B_3Fe (orange), B_3Co (pink), B_3Ni (light blue), and B_3Pd (gray). The circle ones are the L_{1_0} alloys of Cu_4 (green), CuB(dark red), BFe (orange), BCo (pink), BNi (light blue), and BPd (gray). The selectivity map of L_{1_2} and L_{1_0} alloys at separate potentials are provided in **SI** (see **Figures S1-S4**).

3.2 Surface Formation Energy of Binary Alloy

It is widely accepted that synthesizing alloys with a specific metal ratio is pretty challenging with existing methods such as liquid-phase syntheses, metallic fusion, and electrochemical deposition, especially when two metals have different surface energies.^{24, 55-58} Surface phase diagram and surface segregation energy are widely used to investigate the stability of alloy surfaces.⁵⁹⁻⁶⁰ However, for simplification, in this work, the surface formation energy (E_{sfe}) is used to evaluate the stability of the binary alloy surfaces, which is defined to be the formational energy gain (or loss) of the alloyed surface relative to the pure surfaces of the dopant metal and the host metal, i.e.,

$$E_{\rm sfe} = E_{\rm DFT} (M_x M'_y) / N_0 - (\frac{x}{x+y}) \cdot E_{\rm DFT} (M) / N_1 - (\frac{y}{x+y}) \cdot E_{\rm DFT} (M') / N_2$$

where $E_{\text{DFT}}(M_x M'_y)$ is the DFT energy of the binary alloy slab $(M_x M'_y)$ with a total number of N_0 atoms $(N_0 = x + y)$. x and y are, respectively, the number of M and M' metal atoms in the binary alloy slab. $E_{\text{DFT}}(M)$ and $E_{\text{DFT}}(M')$ are the DFT energies of pure M and M' slabs, respectively, with N_1 and N_2 atoms in the corresponding pure metal slabs,.

Based on the above definition, we calculate the formation energies for the clean $L1_2$ and $L1_0$ alloy surfaces. The results are shown in **Figure 4**.

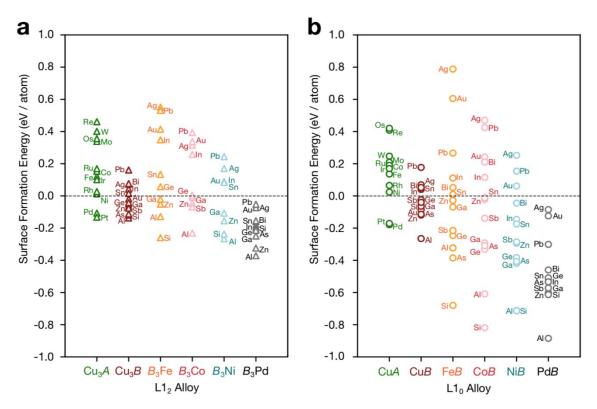


Figure 4 Formation energies of (a) $L1_2$ (100) and (b) $L1_0$ (110) clean surfaces. Some of the binary alloys, mainly the Fe, Co, and Ni-based alloys, are not shown in the figure because of the severe reconstruction or decomposition during the DFT geometry optimization. These omitted alloys are considered unstable. The same stability data shown in this figure is also plotted in bar plots (see Figures S5 and S6).

Most of the Cu-based Cu₃*A* binary L1₂ alloys are unstable with exceptions of Cu₃Pd and Cu₃Pt. We note that the formation energies mentioned here are evaluated entirely on the clean surfaces. If the surfaces are covered with CO, the interaction of CO with *A* and Cu atoms may decrease the stability of the Cu₃*A* alloy surfaces.⁶¹ The stabilities of the Cu-based Cu₃*B* alloys are overall better than those of the Cu₃*A* alloys, and only the Cu₃Ag, Cu₃In, Cu₃Pb, and Cu₃Bi are unstable. The Fe, Co, and Ni-based alloys show a similar trend that the alloys with the *B* metals Ag, Au, In, Ge, Sn, and Pb are very unstable. In comparison, the Ni-based alloys are more stable than the Co-based alloys followed by the Fe-based alloys. It is encouraging that all the Pd-based alloys are stable as many of these show promising selectivity properties. The overall trends of the stabilities of the L1₀ alloys are very similar to those of the L1₂ alloys, especially for the Cu-based Cu₍₃₎*A* and Cu₍₃₎*B* alloys, as shown in **Figure 4**; however, for the Fe, Co, Ni, and Pd-based alloys, the L1₀ alloys are more stable than the L1₂ alloys. Therefore, reducing the ratio of the weakly CO binding *B* metal to the *A'* metal enhances the stability of the non-Cu based alloys.

3.3 Comparison of Experimental Observations with Theoretic Findings

Despite the challenges of forming alloys with specific metal ratios, there are a number of experimental studies available for binary alloys applied in eCO_2R . In the following, we shall compare these experimental observations with our theoretical findings.

3.3.1 Cu-based Alloys

• Cu-Au alloy

Kim *et al.*⁶² investigated the Cu-Au alloys with different ratios of Cu to Au and quantitatively compared the selectivity and activity as a function of Au content. No C₂ products are found for the pure Au and CuAu₃. C₂ products of ethanol and ethylene are produced with the CuAu and Cu₃Au alloys with onset potential of ~ -0.9 V *vs.* RHE. In comparison, the Cu₃Au performs better than the CuAu in terms of C₂ selectivity. Our theoretical screening result illustrates this tendency, as shown in **Figures 3**; with increasing Au content, the binding energy of C* becomes less stable, making it difficult to form C* from CO* through protonation. Wang *et al.*⁶³ synthesized an Au-poor Cu-Au alloy (7% Au atomic percentage) and obtained a Faradaic efficiency (FE) of ethylene as high as 40% at -1.15 V *vs.* RHE and a further decrease of the potential to -1.25 V *vs.* RHE leads to methane as the major product instead of ethylene, in line with the theoretical results herein.

• Cu-Ag alloy

Lee *et al.*⁶⁴ investigated the Cu-Ag alloys for eCO₂R with ratios of Cu to Ag close to 3:1. The phase-blended Cu-Ag alloy shows a three times higher FE of ethanol than that of pure Cu. The onset potential of the C₂ products (ethanol and ethylene) is about -0.9 V and reaches the highest FE of ethanol (up to 30%) at -1.2 V *vs.* RHE. This experimental observation is consistent with our theoretical finding that the Cu₃Ag alloy should be a good CO₍₂₎ electrocatalyst for C₂₍₊₎ products at more negative potentials (< -0.8 V *vs.* RHE). In addition, it is observed by Lee *et al.*⁶⁴ and others^{22, 61} that there is a surface segregation in the Cu-Ag alloy, which can be explained through our theoretical findings that the formation energy of the Cu₃Ag (100) surface is slightly positive (0.07 eV/atom) referenced to the pure Cu(100) and Ag(100) surface energies.

• Cu-Zn alloy

Ren *et al.*⁶⁵ studied Cu-Zn alloys with different amounts of Zn (Cu₁₀Zn, Cu₄Zn, and Cu₂Zn) and found that the Cu₄Zn shows the maximum ethanol formation at -1.05 V *vs*. RHE with pretty high FE of 29.1% and current density of -8.2 mA/cm². Our theoretical screening shows that both

Cu₃Zn and CuZn are potentially good $C_{2(+)}$ selective catalysts under very negative potentials and comparatively, Cu₃Zn has a very similar CO* binding energy to that of pure Cu whereas CuZn shows a 0.14 eV weaker binding of CO*.

• Cu-Pd alloy

Ma *et al.*⁶⁶ systematically studied the Cu-Pd alloys with different atomic ratios and different mixing patterns (ordered, disordered, and phase-separated). The phase-separated Cu-Pd shows the highest FE (up to 63%) of C₂ products with an onset potential as low as -0.3 V *vs.* RHE. For the disordered Cu-Pd alloys, Cu₃Pd perform better than CuPd in C₂ selectivity. Our theoretical findings reveal that both Cu₃Pd and CuPd are C₂ selective at a more positive onset potential than that of Cu. Furthermore, Cu₃Pd is more Cu-like than CuPd, which agrees well with the above-mentioned observations.

Cu-Sn alloy

Sarfraz *et al.*⁶⁷ reported the Cu-Sn alloy for selective reduction of CO₂ to CO with high Faradaic efficiency (FE) (> 90%) and found that Sn in the surface layer suppresses the HER competing with eCO_2R . The increased CO selectivity can be explained with our theoretical finding that Cu₃Sn has an appropriate C* binding energy but a weaker CO* adsorption energy than that on Cu so that Cu₃Sn is outside the C₂₍₊₎ selective region but performs well for CO₂ reduction to CO.

• Cu-In alloy

Larrazábal *et al.*⁶⁸ investigated the Cu-In alloy as electrocatalyst for CO_2R and found that the structurally evolved Cu-In core-shell nanoparticles catalyzes eCO_2R with CO as the major product. This observation can be understood from two aspects of our theoretical findings. Firstly, the Cu₃In and CuIn alloys both have weak CO* binding energies, as shown in **Figure 3**. Secondly, both the Cu₃In and CuIn are unstable with formation energies of about 0.04 eV/atom (**Figure 4**), thus indicating that the Cu-In alloy could evolve into a core-shell nanoparticle structure with In-species aggregated on the surface.

Furthermore, Larrazábal *et al.*⁶⁹ reported the Cu-based alloys with introduction of p-black elements (Sn, In, Ga, Al) in a small amount (< 8 wt. %) and found the Cu-Al (0.3 wt.%) shows some C₂ selectivity. Besides the above-mentioned Cu-based alloys reported in recent years, some other Cu-based alloys (e.g., Cu-Ni, Cu-Pb, Cu-Cd) were reported by Watanabe and coworkers in the early 90s.⁷⁰

3.3.2 Non-Cu Based Alloys

Compared with the Cu-based alloys, only a few non-Cu based alloys have been reported in the context of eCO₂R.

• Ni-Ga alloy

Torelli *et al.*⁷¹ reported three different Ni-Ga alloys (NiGa, Ni₃Ga, and Ni₅Ga₃) active in eCO₂R and found that all these three alloys have the similar C₂ onset potentials (-0.48 V *vs.* RHE) and product distributions. The FEs of C₂ products reach the peaks of ~1.7% and ~0.4% at -0.88 V (*vs.* RHE) for C₂H₆ and C₂H₄, respectively. Our theoretical findings show that both Ga₃Ni and NiGa are C₂ selective (**Figure 3**) and stable (**Figure 4a and 4b**); however, based on our results, Ga₃Ni is predicted to have a more positive onset potential than Cu while NiGa is predicted to have a more negative onset potential.

• Pd-Sn alloy

Bai *et al.*⁷² tested a series of Pd-Sn alloys. It shows that the content of Sn in the Pd-Sn alloys has a significant effect on the product distribution. The 1:1 Pd-Sn alloy exhibits a higher than 95% FE toward formic acid production at a very low overpotential of -0.26 V. Our theoretical study reveals that the PdSn alloy has high binding energies for both CO* and C* (see **SI**, **Table S2**); suggesting that it is difficult to drive formation of any $C_{2(+)}$ products. Calculation of the OH* stability and its ability to induce segregation could shed further light on the enhanced selectivity towards formic acid.⁴⁷

• Pd-Au alloy

Valenti *et al.*⁷³ studied several Pd-Au alloys including Au₃Pd and AuPd for eCO_2R and reported production of CO and some H₂ on these systems. This observation is inconsistent with our theoretical findings, where both Au₃Pd and AuPd are close to (or in) the C₂ selective triangles (**Figure 3**). This could be due to the enhanced instability of Pd-Au alloys compared with other Pd-based alloys (**Figure 4**) but clearly needs further investigation.

3.3.3 Summary of the Screened-out Alloys

Combing the information from the selectivity map in Figures 3 with the stability shown in Figure 4, we summarize the $C_{2(+)}$ selectivity and stability of the L1₂ and L1₀ alloys in Table 1.

Table 1 $C_{2(+)}$ selective L1₂ and L1₀ alloys at different applied potential ranges *U* (V *vs.* RHE at pH 7). The alloys in parenthesis are unstable and the ones in bold font have been reported experimentally for eCO₍₂₎R.

Structure	Туре	-1.1 V< U< -0.8 V	-0.8 V < <i>U</i> < -0.6 V	-0.6 V < U < -0.3 V
	Cu ₃ A		Cu ₃ Pd	Cu_3Pt , (Cu_3Fe)
		Cu ₃ Zn, Cu ₃ Au,	Cu ₃ Ge, Cu ₃ Ga	
	Cu_3B	(Cu ₃ Ag, Cu ₃ In,		
L1 ₂ alloys		Cu ₃ Pb)		
	B ₃ Fe		Ga ₃ Fe	
	B ₃ Co			Ga ₃ Co
	B ₃ Ni		Ga₃Ni , Zn ₃ Ni	Al ₃ Ni
_	B ₃ Pd	Pb ₃ Pd, Zn ₃ Pd, In ₃ Pd	Ge ₃ Pd, Au ₃ Pd	Sn ₃ Pd
	CuA		CuPd	(CuFe)
	CuB	(CuSn), (CuAg)	CuGe, CuZn	
L1 ₀ alloys	FeB		FeGa, FeZn, (FePb)	
	CoB		CoSi, CoSn, CoAs,	
			CoSb, CoGe	
	Ni <i>B</i>	NiGe	NiAs, NiGa , NiIn, NiAl	
	INID		NiBi	
	Pd <i>B</i>	PdAs, PdZn, PdPb	PdAu	

In **Table 1**, few a (shown in bold fonts) of the screened-out binary alloys have been experimentally reported, which are mainly Cu-based alloys. Most of our screened-out non-Cu based alloys are of great interest to be tested. Based on our theoretical findings, the *p*-block elements (e.g., Ga, Ge, As, Si, Al) play a significant role in constituting the non-Cu based $C_{2(+)}$ selective binary alloys.

It's noted that we only investigated the ideal adsorption sites on $L1_2(100)$ and $L1_0(110)$ surfaces, whereas a real alloy catalyst surface is more complicated with distributions of sites as investigated by Gauthier *et al.*⁷⁴. Nevertheless, our theoretical screening not only successfully reidentifies the alloys known to have good C₂₊ selectivity, but also discovers several materials with promising properties that have not previously been tested in $eCO_{(2)}R$.

4. Conclusions

A $C_{2(+)}$ selectivity map generated based on thermodynamic conditions of key steps in the reaction network is a powerful tool when screening for possible catalyst compositions. In this work, a number of L1₂ and L1₀ binary alloys comprised of strongly or weakly CO binding metals

have been explored as electrocatalysts for $eCO_{(2)}R$ towards $C_{2(+)}$ species. We have found that the Cu-A (Cu₃A and CuA) alloys fall within a similar region as pure A metals, where A belongs to the strong CO* binding group of metals, and that the adsorption energies of CO* and C* are strongly dependent on the A metal in the composition and the perturbing effect of the Cu environment. Comparatively, the $Cu_{3}B$ and $Cu_{3}B$ and $Cu_{3}B$ alloys, where B belongs to the weak CO* binding group of metals, distribute less scattered, especially the CO* binding energies are very close to that of pure Cu, and the C* adsorption energy can be tuned to some degree by incorporating different B metals. For the $C_{2(+)}$ selective Cu-based alloys, we have identified the (100)-terminated L1₂ alloys of Cu₃Pd, Cu₃Pt, Cu₃Fe, Cu₃Zn, Cu₃Ag, Cu₃Au, Cu₃Ge, Cu₃Ga, Cu₃In, and Cu₃Pb, and the (110)-terminated L1₀ alloys of CuPd, CuFe, CuAg, CuZn, CuGe, and CuSn. These alloys have different onset potentials for $C_{2(+)}$ production. Generally, the Cu-A alloys, e.g., Cu₃Pt, Cu₃Fe, and CuFe, have more positive onset potentials than pure Cu, while the Cu-B alloys have more negative onset potentials. We also identified about 11 non-Cu based L1₂ alloys and 18 non-Cu based L1₀ alloys, e.g., Ga₃Ni, Ga₃Fe, Ge₃Pd, NiAs, NiAl, CoSi, most of which are comprised of Fe, Co, Ni, and Pd alloyed with p-block elements. Therefore, we conclude that the use of *p*-block elements in Fe, Co, and Ni-based binary alloys is promising for fine-tuning the key descriptors (C* and CO*) for $eCO_{(2)}R$ towards $C_{2(+)}$ products. In addition, we studied the stability of the binary alloys by analyzing the formation energy of the clean alloy surfaces. Most of the Cu-A binary alloys are unstable with the exception of $Cu_{(3)}Pd$ and $Cu_{(3)}Pt$. The stability of the Cu-B alloys is overall better than for the Cu-A alloys, and only the Cu₍₃₎Ag, $Cu_{(3)}In$, $Cu_{(3)}Sn$, $Cu_{(3)}Pb$, and $Cu_{(3)}Bi$ are found to be unstable. The Fe, Co, and Ni-based L1₀ alloys show a similar trend, as the alloys with Ag, Au, In, Ge, Sn, and Pb are found to be unstable. We find that all the Pd-based alloys are stable. Of the stable Fe, Co, Ni, and Pd-based structures, the $L1_0$ alloys are observed to be more stable than the corresponding $L1_2$ alloys, in other words reducing the ratio of the weakly CO binding B metal to the Fe, Co, Ni, or Pd metal enhances the stability of the non-Cu based alloys. The stability and C₂₍₊₎ selectivity of some of our screened binary alloys have been validated experientially and in majority of the cases, our theoretical findings are in line with the experimental observations. In particular, we encourage experimental investigations of the highlighted (non-bolded) materials in Table 1. These have, to the best of our knowledge, not been evaluated in eCO(2)R but show promising properties both in terms of stability and for selectivity towards the much sought after C₂₊ products.

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6. Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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