

Communication

A First-Principles Study on the Reaction Mechanisms of Electrochemical CO₂ Reduction to C₁ and C₂ Products on Cu(110)

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Abstract: The mechanism of the electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction on a Cu(110) surface has yet to be fully revealed. In this work, based on first-principles calculations, we investigate the mechanisms of the CO₂ reduction reaction to produce C₁ (including one C atom) and C₂ (including two C atoms) products on a Cu(110) surface. The results show that CH₄ and C₂H₅OH are the main C₁ and C₂ products on the Cu(110) surface, respectively. CH₄ is produced along the pathway CO₂ → COOH* → CO* → CHO* → CH₂O* → CH₃O* → CH₄. C₂H₅OH is produced via the C-C coupling pathway between CO* and CH₂O* intermediates, which is the key reaction step. This is because CO* and CH₂O* coupling to CO-CH₂O* has the lowest barrier among the CH_xO* (x = 0–2) coupling pathways. Therefore, it is the most likely C-C coupling pathway. Further, CO-CH₂O* is gradually hydrogenated to C₂H₅OH along the following pathway: CO-CH₂O* → CHO-CH₂O* → CHO-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₃* → C₂H₅OH.

Keywords: CO₂ reduction; C-C coupling; DFT; Cu(110) surface

1. Introduction

With the increase in the atmospheric CO₂ concentration, the global climate has undergone tremendous changes, such as global warming and ocean acidification [1,2]. Khalil et al. predicted that anthropogenic CO₂ levels will reach ~590 ppm in 2100, resulting in a global temperature increase of 1.9 °C [3]. In particular, the temperature increase in the polar regions will be up to three times as much as other regions [4]. These changes have seriously harmed the environment in which human beings live. The Paris Agreement adopted by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) aims to reduce net levels of CO₂ in the atmosphere by 2050 [5]. To solve this problem, CO₂ capture and utilization, conversion and utilization, have become focuses of research [6,7]. Due to the disadvantages of CO₂ capture and utilization, such as CO₂ gas leakage and complex design, its large-scale popularization has limitations. However, CO₂ conversion and utilization has significant advantages. Photocatalysis [8], photo-electrocatalysis [9], and electrocatalysis [10] techniques have been widely used for CO₂ conversion and utilization. These techniques can not only reduce the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere, but also convert CO₂ into chemicals. Therefore, they have been widely concentrated on by researchers.

Photocatalysis and photo-electrocatalysis techniques refer to the conversion of solar energy into chemical energy [11,12]. They are carried out in an electrolytic cell, which includes two components (i.e., anode and cathode). On the cathode side, CO₂ reduction takes place on a p-type semiconductor, such as Cu₂O or TiO₂; on the anode side, water oxidation occurs on an n-type semiconductor such as F₂O₃. Semiconductor materials have been applied to photocatalysis and photo-electrocatalysis in CO₂ reduction reactions [13]. Their electronic structures play vital roles in photochemical and photoelectrochemical processes. The semiconductor materials are composed of a filled valence band (VB) coupled with an empty conduction band (CB), which shows an electron transfer from the VB to CB under stimulation by photons. The electron transfer leads to a positive hole in the VB.



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These holes and the electrons formed on the surface of semiconductor materials can reduce the adsorbed species in the semiconductor materials [14]. The suitable electrode material can reduce the activation energy of a CO₂ reduction reaction, especially CO₂ reduction to C₂ products. The reason is that the electrode material can form C₂O₂^{•-}, a transition state complex, by transferring electrons in the C-C coupling process. The electrons in the d orbital of the electrode are transferred to the π* antibonding orbital of the C₂O₂^{•-} intermediate, which stabilizes the C₂O₂^{•-} intermediate adsorbed on the electrode surface, thus allowing the band bending reaction and reducing the activation energy of the C-C coupling process to promote the production of C₂ products [15]. Although metal oxides are commonly used to study photocatalysis [16,17] and photo-electrocatalysis, their inherent properties affect the catalytic efficiency to a certain extent. For example, the wide bandgap of TiO₂ (3.2 eV) leads to low photocatalytic efficiency owing to the very limited absorption of the solar spectrum [18]; due to the self-reduction potential between CB and VB energy values, Cu₂O in an aqueous solution has serious photocorrosion, resulting in the decrease in photocurrent density and the decrease in solar-fuel conversion efficiency [19].

To overcome this defect, various strategies have been proposed in recent years such as band gap engineering or surface coating, which can improve the catalytic efficiency of semiconductors. However, there are also some problems: it is a challenge to reduce the bandgap of TiO₂ while maintaining sufficient redox potentials at the band edge positions for a CO₂ reduction reaction; the use of a surface coating strategy to solve the photocorrosion of Cu₂O while maintaining its long-term stability is also a challenge.

Not only that, plasmonic materials are developed by researchers as photocatalysts. For the first time, Tirumala et al. have experimentally demonstrated that dielectric Mie resonance can significantly enhance photocatalysis in semiconductor materials when illuminated by visible light. These materials, characterized by their positive permittivity and moderate to high refractive indices, represent a groundbreaking advancement in the field [20,21]. Plasmonic materials with nanostructures can focus light at the nanoscale [22]. Under illumination, surface plasma excitation is established when the frequency of the incident light matches the natural frequency of oscillating surface electrons on a plasma with nanostructures. The redistributing light field, excited carriers, and heat effects produced during the relaxation process of the surface plasmon can set the stage for activating the CO₂ molecule. These excited carriers (hot electrons and holes) can offer opportunities for a CO₂ reduction reaction. By adjusting the size of the plasmonic materials, the absorption of a particular wavelength of sunlight can be realized to excite more carriers [23]. Generally speaking, the UV-Vis spectroscopy can be used as an in-line process analytical technology (PAT) tool for the operando characterization of nanostructures of plasmonic materials to trace the change in size of nanostructures [24]. Nonetheless, the short lifetime of excited carriers is the main factor restricting the application of plasma photocatalysts.

Compared to other techniques, the electrocatalysis technique is more easy due to the simple operating device and controllable reaction conditions. So, it is favored by researchers. It can convert CO₂ into a variety of value-added chemicals, including C₁ products such as methane (CH₄), formic acid (HCOOH), carbon monoxide (CO), and methanol (CH₃OH); C₂ products, such as ethylene (C₂H₄), ethanol (C₂H₅OH), and acetic acid (CH₃COOH); and C₃ products, such as propylene (C₃H₆) and propanol (C₃H₈O) [25–30]. Among them, C₂ products have higher energy density than C₁ products and are important raw materials in chemical synthesis [31–35]. In addition, the selective synthesis of C₂ products involves the formation of the C-C bond, namely, C-C coupling, which is a key challenge in heterogeneous catalysis during CO₂ reduction reactions [36,37]. Therefore, the electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to C₂ products has attracted wide attention, especially in identifying the reaction mechanism of this process.

Transition metals are often used as catalysts for CO₂ reduction reactions, especially the metal Cu. Compared with transition metals that produce hydrogenation, such as Pd [38], Fe [39] and others, Cu tends to reduce CO₂ to hydrocarbons. Moreover, Cu is a unique catalyst with selectivity for C₂ products during CO₂ reduction reactions. For example, it

has been shown in experiment that both Cu(100) and Cu(110) surfaces have high Faraday efficiency for C₂ products [40–42]. However, the CO₂ reduction products on Cu(100) and Cu(110) surfaces are different. In experiment, the Cu(100) surface mainly produces C₂H₄ [43], while the Cu(110) surface tends to produce C₂H₅OH and CH₃CHO [44]. The possible reason for this difference is that the coordination numbers of Cu(100) and Cu(110) surfaces are different. Compared to the Cu (100) surface, the Cu (110) surface has a lower coordination number. Therefore, the Cu (110) surface exhibits higher catalytic activity during the process of CO₂ reduction to C₂ products [45]. In theory, previous studies on the reaction mechanism of C₂ products mostly focused on the Cu(100) surface; however, few studies have focused on the Cu(110) surface [46,47]. Therefore, it is necessary to systematically study the reaction mechanism of C₂ product production on a Cu(110) surface.

Currently, the study of the CO₂ reduction reaction on a Cu(110) surface has been reported. In theory, Zhang et al. reported that CH₃OH is the main C₁ product on a Cu(110) surface and that CO* and CH₂* coupling to CO-CH₂* is the key to forming C₂₊ products [48]. Kuo et al. showed that CO* and CH* are high-concentration C₁ intermediates during the CO₂ electrochemical reduction to CH₄ on a Cu(110) surface. These are the possible C-C coupling species for C₂₊ product formation [49]. Bagger et al. showed that acetaldehyde is the main C₂ product on Cu(110) surfaces in theory [50]. In experiment, CH₃COOH is the main C₂ product reported by Takahashi et al. [51]. It remains challenging to reveal the main C₁ and C₂ products and the C-C coupling pathway for the CO₂ reduction reaction on a Cu(110) surface. What is clear, however, is that the two intermediates in which C-C coupling occurs form relatively easier in the C₁ product pathway.

Based on first-principles calculations, we propose that CH₄ and C₂H₅OH are the main C₁ and C₂ products on the Cu(110) surface, respectively, during the electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂. For CO₂ reduction to CH₄, we find this reaction along the following pathway: CO₂ → COOH* → CO* → CHO* → CH₂O* → CH₃O* → CH₄. For reduction to C₂H₅OH, a C-C coupling pathway is required, which is a crucial reaction step. The energy barriers of C-C coupling among CH_xO* (x = 0–2) are systematically compared. The results show that the CO* and CH₂O* coupling to CO-CH₂O* is the most likely C-C coupling pathway with the lowest energy barrier. Then, C₂H₅OH is produced along the following pathway: CO-CH₂O* → CHO-CH₂O* → CHO-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₃* → C₂H₅OH. This study provides theoretical guidance for further investigating more C₂₊ products on a Cu(110) surface.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. CO₂ Reduction to CH₄

The Gibbs free energies of the reduction of CO₂ into CH₄ are calculated, and the results are shown in Figure 1. All of the intermediates are adsorbed on the most favorable sites, and their optimized adsorption geometries are shown in the insets. In addition, the bond distances between intermediates and Cu(110) surface are shown in Figure S1 of the Supplementary Materials. It is worth noting that we only label the key intermediates in the figures in this study. In addition, the solvent molecule has been removed from the figures to clearly show the adsorption geometries.

Our calculations show the reduction of CO₂ to CH₄ along the COOH pathway on the Cu(110) surface. Previous studies have indicated that the Cu(110) surface with a coordination number of seven tends to follow the COOH pathway. In contrast, the Cu(111) surface with a coordination number of nine prefers to follow the HCOO pathway [52,53]. This also proves that our calculation results can be trusted.

In Figure 1, the potential-limiting step is the formation of a COOH* intermediate on the Cu(110) surface. Because this step has the highest positive variation of Gibbs free energy of 0.66 eV among all reaction steps from CO₂ reduction to CH₄. Our result is close to the ΔG(0.76 eV) for forming COOH* on Cu(110) in the previous literature [54]. Since our calculations take into account the solvent effect, the ΔG of forming COOH* on the Cu(110) surface is lower. An earlier report also suggests that the formation of COOH* is

the potential-determining step on the Cu(110) surface [55], which is consistent with our calculation. For the step of $\text{COOH}^* \rightarrow \text{CO}^*$, COOH^* binds with H to form CO^* and $\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$. Since CO^* is the important intermediate that participates in the CO_2 reduction reaction, we only label it in Figure 1.

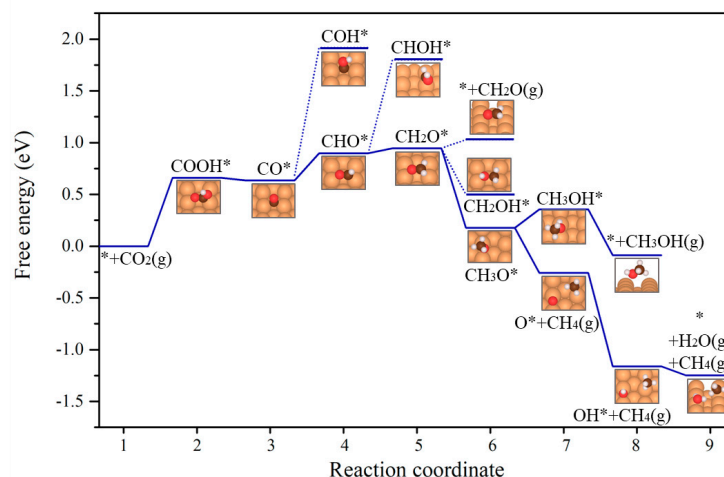


Figure 1. Gibbs free energy diagram for CO_2 reduction to CH_4 on the Cu(110) surface. The energy of $[\text{*} + \text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}_2(\text{g})]$ is set as a reference. X^* represents species X adsorbed on the Cu(110) surface. The optimized adsorption geometries of key intermediates are shown in the insets. Cu: yellow, C: brown, O: red, H: white.

For the CO^* , it may involve either desorption or hydrogenation on the Cu(110) surface. To compare which is the next possible reaction of CO^* , the activation energies of CO^* desorption and hydrogenation are calculated, and the results are shown in Figure S2 of the Supplementary Materials and Figure 2, respectively. The activation energy of CO^* desorption is 1.31 eV; the activation energies of CO^* hydrogenation to COH^* and CHO^* are 1.10 and 2.56 eV, respectively. Although the activation energy of CO^* desorption is higher than that of the hydrogenation to COH^* , it is lower than that of hydrogenation to CHO^* . Therefore, CO^* prefers hydrogenation rather than desorption on a Cu(110) surface.

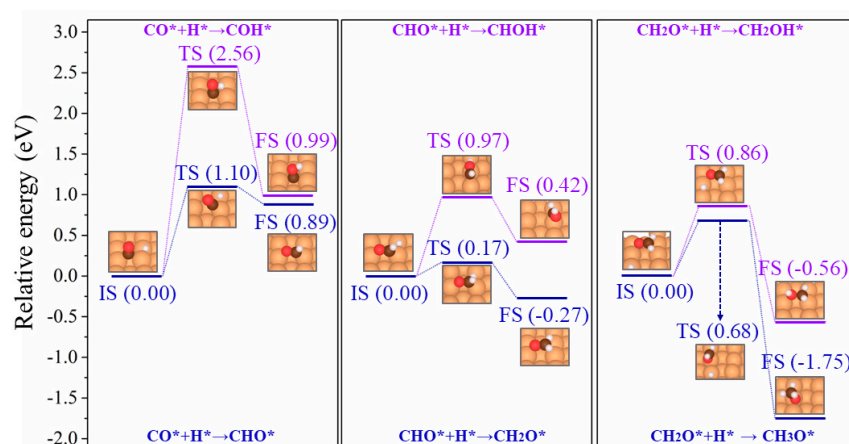


Figure 2. A schematic potential energy diagram from CO^* hydrogenation to CH_3O^* on the Cu(110) surface. The optimized adsorption geometries of the initial states, transition states, and final states are shown in the insets. Cu: yellow, C: brown, O: red, H: white.

For the hydrogenation of CO^* , we find that H prefers to bond with C atoms of intermediates rather than O atoms. For example, for the steps of $\text{CO}^* \rightarrow \text{COH}^*$ and $\text{CO}^* \rightarrow \text{CHO}^*$, the reaction energies are 1.28 and 0.26 eV, respectively. For the steps of $\text{CHO}^* \rightarrow$

CHOH* and CHO* \rightarrow CH₂O*, the reaction energies are 0.90 and 0.05 eV, respectively. For the steps of CH₂O* \rightarrow CH₂OH* and CH₂O* \rightarrow CH₃O*, the reaction energies are 0.08 and -0.77 eV, respectively. Obviously, for the steps from CO* to CH₃O*, the reaction energies of the H bonding with the C atom of intermediates are at least 0.80 eV lower than that of O atom bonding. Therefore, CO* hydrogenation to CH₃O* occurs along the following pathway: CO* \rightarrow CHO* \rightarrow CH₂O* \rightarrow CH₃O*. Then, the H bonds with the O atom of the CH₃O* intermediate to produce CH₄. This is the most likely pathway for the formation of a surface treated by ultrapure water treatment in the experiment in the CO₂ reduction reaction [51].

2.2. The Activation Energies from CO* Hydrogenation to CH_xO*

To verify the accuracy of our results, we also calculate the activation energies of steps from CO* to CH₃O*, which are shown in Figure 2. The bond distances of the initial states, transition states, and final states between them and the Cu(110) surface are shown in Figure S3 of the Supplementary Materials. The E_a of steps from CO* to COH* and CHO* are 2.57 and 1.10 eV, respectively. The E_a of steps from CHO* to CH₂O* are 0.97 and 0.17 eV, respectively. The E_a of steps from CH₂O* to CH₂OH* and CH₃O* are 0.86 and 0.68 eV, respectively. Obviously, the activation energies of steps from CO* to CHO*, CH₂O*, and CH₃O* are lower than those from CO* to COH*, CH₂OH*, and CH₃OH*, respectively. This indicates that CO* hydrogenation to CH₃O* prefers to be along the following pathway: CO* \rightarrow CHO* \rightarrow CH₂O* \rightarrow CH₃O*. Given our analysis above, we can conclude that CO₂ reduction to CH₄ along the following pathway: CO₂ \rightarrow COOH* \rightarrow CO* \rightarrow CHO* \rightarrow CH₂O* \rightarrow CH₃O* \rightarrow CH₄.

The step of CO* + H* \rightarrow CHO* has relative high activation energy among the efficient pathway of the hydrogenation of CO* to CH₃O*, i.e., the steps of CO* + H* \rightarrow CHO*, CHO* + H* \rightarrow CH₂O*, and CH₂O* + H* \rightarrow CH₃O*. In addition to forming COOH*, this could possibly be the other potential bottleneck in the reaction of CO₂ reduction to CH₄. To eliminate this potential bottleneck, applying tensile strain on a Cu(110) surface is an effective strategy. Shin et al. designed a novel catalyst that uses silver (Ag) and palladium (Pd) to support Cu thin film to decrease the activation energy of steps of CO* + H* \rightarrow CHO* [56]. This provides a new way for us to design new catalysts.

By comparing the activation energies for the steps from CO* to CH₃O*, we can not only prove the effectiveness of generating the CH₄ pathway, but also identify the intermediates enriched on the Cu(110) surface. These intermediates are prone to C-C coupling. So, comparing the activation energies for the steps from CO* to CH₃O* can provide guidance for the study of a possible C-C coupling pathway. Thus, we believe that comparing the activation energies for the steps from CO* to CH₃O* can influence the pathway of C-C coupling.

2.3. C-C Coupling Pathway

In exploring the pathway of CO₂ reduction to CH₄, we find that CHO* and CH₂O* formed by CO* hydrogenation tend to be enriched on the Cu(110) surface. The main reason for this is that compared with other reaction steps, the steps of CO* \rightarrow CHO* and CO* \rightarrow CH₂O* have relatively lower activation energies. Moreover, the step of CH₂O* \rightarrow CH₃O* requires slightly high activation energy so that CH₂O* prefers to remain on the Cu(110) surface. Therefore, we believe that CHO* and CH₂O* tend to be enriched on the Cu(110) surface for the C-C coupling. In addition, we also consider CO* for the C-C coupling intermediate. Not only is it a common intermediate in C-C coupling, but its coupling with another CO* is also widely studied on low-index Cu surfaces [57].

We believe that C-C coupling will likely occur between CO*, CHO*, and CH₂O*, labeled CH_xO* ($x = 0-2$). The six pathways of C-C coupling are explored: (a) two-CO* dimerization; (b) CO* and CHO* coupling; (c) CO* and CH₂O* coupling; (d) CHO* and CH₂O* coupling; (e) CHO* and CHO* coupling; and (f) CH₂O* and CH₂O* coupling.

We calculate the Gibbs free energies for these six pathways, and the results are shown in Figure 3.

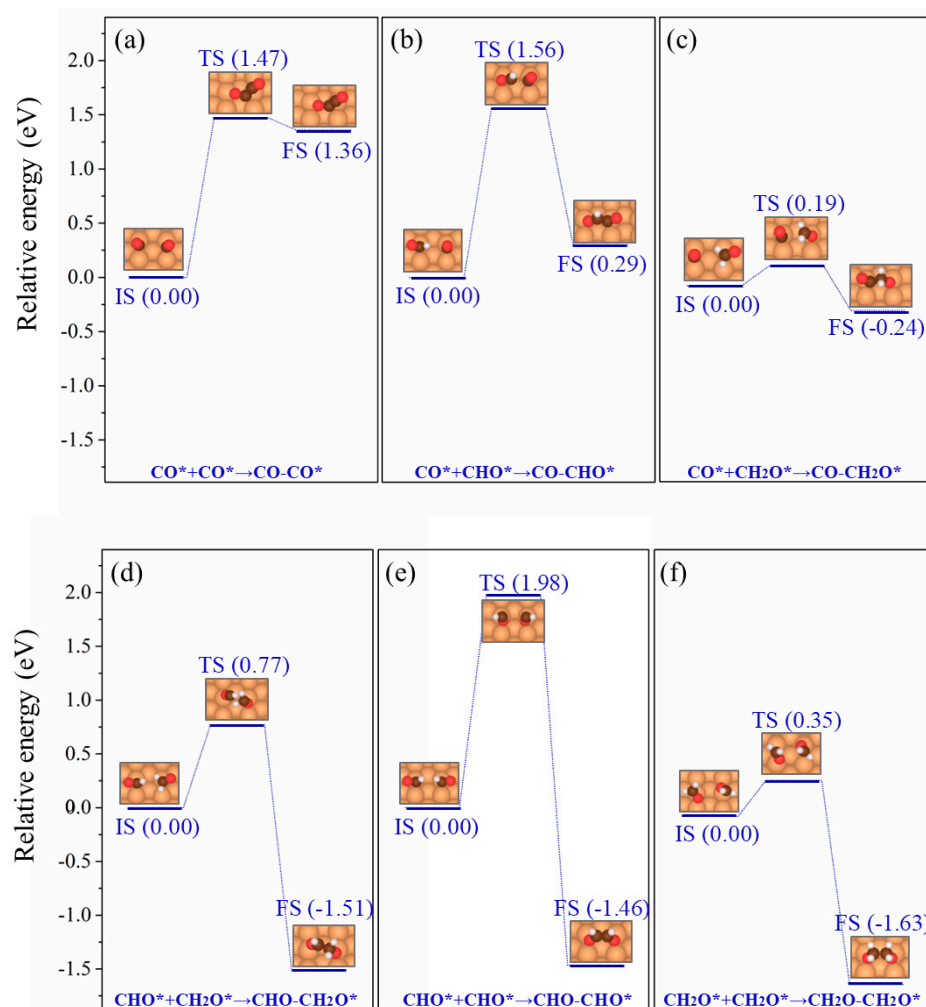


Figure 3. Schematic potential energy diagrams for (a) two-CO* dimerization, (b) CO* and CHO* coupling, (c) CO* and CH₂O* coupling, (d) CHO* and CH₂O* coupling, (e) CHO* and CHO* coupling, and (f) CH₂O* and CH₂O* coupling on the Cu(110) surface. The optimized adsorption geometries of initial states, transition states, and final states are shown in the insets. Cu: yellow, C: brown, O: red, H: white.

It is worth noting that the intermediates of C-C coupling refer to intermediates that are co-adsorbed on a Cu(110) surface. The two-CO* dimerization pathway refers to the coupling between one CO* and another CO* that are co-adsorbed on a Cu(110) surface. The CO* and CHO* coupling pathway refers to the coupling of one CO* and one co-adsorbed CHO*. For this pathway, besides the reaction step of CO* and CHO* coupling being endothermic, the formation of CHO* is also endothermic. That is to say, in addition to the energy barrier required for C-C coupling to occur, it is also necessary to consider the energy barrier required to form C-C coupling intermediates.

In this case, the two-CO* dimerization pathway need overcome the energy barrier of C-C coupling with 1.47 eV. However, the CO* and CHO* coupling pathway is required to overcome an energy barrier of 2.66 eV. This includes two parts: one is from CO* to CHO*, with 1.10 eV; the other is from CO* and CHO* coupling, with 1.56 eV. Comparing these two C-C coupling pathways, the two-CO* dimerization is more likely to occur because it requires overcoming a lower energy barrier.

Similar situations also occur in other C-C coupling pathways. For the CO* and CH₂O* coupling pathway, the energy barrier to be overcome is 1.46 eV. This also includes two parts: one is from CO* to CH₂O*, with 1.27 eV; the other is from CO* and CH₂O* coupling, with 0.19 eV. For the CHO* and CH₂O* coupling pathway, the energy barrier to be overcome is 3.14 eV. This includes three parts: one is from CO* to CHO*, with 1.10 eV; one is from the other CO* to CH₂O*, with 1.27 eV; the last is CHO* and CH₂O* coupling, with 0.77 eV. For the CHO* and CHO* coupling pathway, the energy barrier to be overcome is 4.18 eV. This includes three parts: one is from CO* to CHO*, with 1.10 eV; one is from the other CO* to CHO*, with 1.10 eV; the last one is CHO* and CHO* coupling, with 1.98 eV. For the CH₂O* and CH₂O* coupling pathway, the energy barrier to be overcome is 2.89 eV. It includes three parts: one is from CO* to CH₂O*, with 1.27 eV; one is from the other CO* to CH₂O*, with 1.27 eV; the last one is CH₂O* and CH₂O* coupling, with 0.35 eV. By comparing the energy barriers of these six C-C coupling pathways, we find that the energy barrier of CO* and CH₂O* coupling to form CO-CH₂O* is the lowest with 1.46 eV.

It is worth noting that the two-CO* dimerization pathway (1.47 eV) has a similar energy barrier with coupling of CO* and CH₂O* (1.46 eV). To compare which of these two C-C coupling pathways is the most likely, the adsorption energies of CO-CO* and CO-CH₂O* intermediates are calculated to evaluate the adsorption strengths of them on a Cu(110) surface. The E_{ads} of the CO-CO* intermediate is -1.93 eV; the E_{ads} of the CO-CH₂O* intermediate is -0.28 eV. Obviously, the adsorption energy of the CO-CH₂O* intermediate on a Cu(110) surface is more positive. This indicates that the adsorption strength of the CO-CH₂O* intermediate to Cu(110) is stronger. It will make the CO-CH₂O* intermediate occupy more active sites, thus weakening the adsorption strength of CO-CO* on a Cu(110) surface. Therefore, even though two-CO* dimerization has a similar energy barrier to CO* and CH₂O* coupling, CO* and CH₂O* coupling is the most likely C-C coupling pathway on a Cu(110) surface.

As we know, the geometric and electronic structures of intermediates play significant roles in the process of C-C coupling. The density of states (DOSs) of six C-C coupling pathways are calculated. The result for the CO* and CH₂O* coupling pathway, i.e., the most likely C-C coupling pathway, is shown in Figure 4a. Other results of DOS for C-C coupling pathways are shown in Figure S4 of the Supplementary Materials.

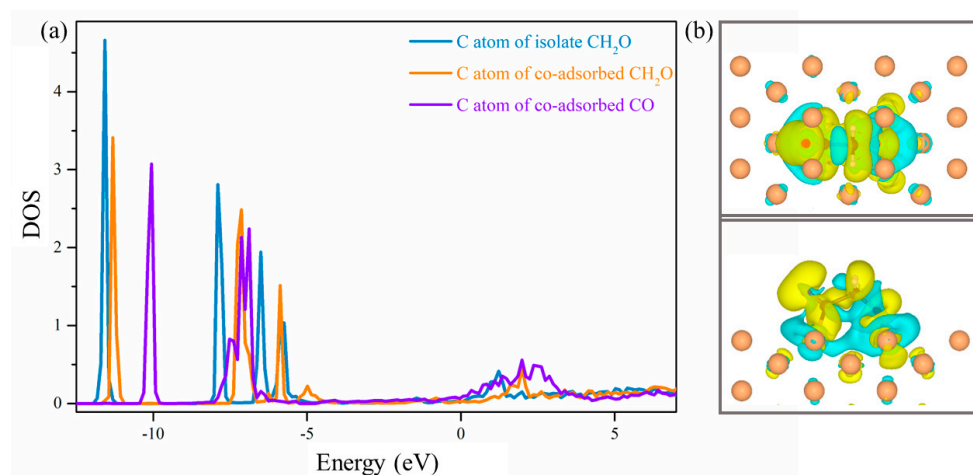


Figure 4. (a) The DOSs of C atoms in the adsorbed intermediates for the CO* and CH₂O* coupling pathway on the Cu(110) surface. (b) Diagrams of the difference in charge densities of CO-CH₂O* on the Cu(110) surface by an isosurface of $0.002 \text{ eV}/\text{\AA}$. Yellow represents an electron-accumulation region and blue represents an electron-loss region. $\Delta\rho = \rho(X^*) - \rho(*) - \rho(X)$.

For the CO* and CH₂O* coupling pathway, the C atoms of CO* and CH₂O* are adsorbed on the Cu(110) surface, respectively. Compared with the DOS peak of the C atom in isolated CO*, the DOS peak of the C atom in co-adsorbed CO* on the Cu(110) surface

decreases; compared with the DOS peak of the C atom in isolated CH_2O^* , the DOS peak of the C atom in co-adsorbed CH_2O^* on the Cu(110) surface also decreases. So, compared with the isolate species on the Cu(110) surface, the DOS peaks of co-adsorbed CO^* and CH_2O^* distinctly change, as shown in Figure 4a. The reason for this is the orbital overlap of C atoms in co-adsorbed CO^* and CH_2O^* . This indicates a strong interaction between CO^* and CH_2O^* . Therefore, the CO^* and CH_2O^* coupling has a low activation energy.

For the two- CO^* dimerization pathway, although the DOS peaks of C atoms in the two CO^* are slightly low compared to that of the isolate CO^* on the Cu(110) surface, as shown in Figure S4a, the DOS peaks of C atoms in co-adsorbed CO^* on the Cu(110) surface are similar. This demonstrates that orbital overlap of the C atoms is very low in two $^*\text{CO}$ molecules, and thus there is weak interaction between co-adsorbed CO^* . So, the CO^* dimerization has a high activation energy. For the pathways of CHO^* and CHO^* coupling, CH_2O^* and CH_2O^* coupling, similar cases take place, as shown in Figure S4d and S4e, respectively. When C-C coupling occurs between the same two intermediates, the repulsion between them causes the distance between them to become larger. So, C atomic orbitals do not overlap significantly, which may be the main reason why the DOS peaks of the C atoms do not change significantly. For the CO^* and CHO^* coupling pathway, compared with the isolate CHO^* on the Cu(110) surface, the DOS peak of the C atom of co-adsorbed CHO^* is slightly changed, as shown in Figure S4b. That is to say, the interaction of co-adsorbed CHO^* and CO^* is weak. For CHO^* and CH_2O^* coupling, the DOS peak of the C atom in isolate CHO^* is similar to that of co-adsorbed CHO^* ; the DOS peak of the C atom in isolate CH_2O^* is similar to that of co-adsorbed CH_2O^* . This indicates that the interaction between co-adsorbed CHO^* and CH_2O^* is weak. Therefore, given our analysis above, it can conclude that CO^* and CH_2O^* is the most likely C-C coupling pathway on the Cu(110) surface.

The previous literature suggested that CO^* and CH^* coupling is a possible C-C coupling pathway on a Cu(110) surface, and CH^* formation along the pathway $\text{CO}^* \rightarrow \text{CHO}^* \rightarrow \text{CHOH}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}^*$ [48]. In the literature, CHO^* tends to be hydrogenated to CHOH^* adsorbed on a Cu(110) surface rather than $\text{CH}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$ desorbed from the surface. It is worth noting that the adsorption of CH_2O^* on a Cu(110) surface is completely ignored. Besides the hydrogenation in CHO^* to CHOH^* and $\text{CH}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$ mentioned in the literature, the adsorbed $\text{CH}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$ must also be considered. We calculated the reaction energy of the $\text{CHO}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O}^*$ step to compare with the $\text{CHO}^* \rightarrow \text{CHOH}^*$ step, and the results are shown in Figure 1. The result shows that, comparing the $\text{CHO}^* \rightarrow \text{CHOH}^*$ and $\text{CHO}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$ steps, the reaction energy of the $\text{CHO}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O}^*$ step is the lowest. Thus, CHO^* prefers hydrogenation to CH_2O^* adsorbed on a Cu(110) surface rather than CHOH^* . Thus, the CH^* formed along the pathway $\text{CHO}^* \rightarrow \text{CHOH}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}^*$ is a challenge.

The differences in charge densities of C-C coupling intermediates are calculated and the results are shown in Figure 4b and Figure S5 in the Supplementary Materials, which have been widely used to analyze the interactions between an intermediate and catalyst surface and stability of intermediate on a Cu surface [58,59]. For six C-C coupling intermediates, the electron overlap area around Cu atoms is the most large when the $\text{CO-CH}_2\text{O}^*$ intermediate is adsorbed on the Cu(110) surface. It reveals that the interaction between the $\text{CO-CH}_2\text{O}^*$ intermediate and Cu(110) surface is the strongest among six C-C coupling intermediates. Because the stronger interaction between the intermediate and the Cu surface, the higher stability of intermediate. Thus, we believe that the $\text{CO-CH}_2\text{O}^*$ intermediate is the most stable on the Cu(110) surface. This supports that CO^* and CH_2O^* coupling is the most likely C-C coupling pathway.

Here, in addition to thermodynamics, other possible C-C coupling pathways do exist if the effects of other factors on C-C coupling are considered, especially the reconstruction of copper electrodes under real reaction conditions. However, further theoretical study may be needed to make an accurate evaluation.

2.4. C₂H₅OH Production Pathway

Now that we know that the CO* and CH₂O* coupling to CO-CH₂O* is the most likely C-C coupling pathway, we explore C₂ products from there. We calculate the Gibbs free energies to produce CH₃CH₂OH, i.e., C₂H₅OH, and the results are shown in Figure 5. In Figure 5, C₂H₅OH is produced along the following pathway: CO-CH₂O* → CHO-CH₂O* → CHOH-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₃* → C₂H₅OH. From CO-CH₂O* → CH₂OH-CH₃*, only the reaction steps of CO-CH₂O* → CHO-CH₂O* and CHOH-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₂* are slightly endothermic. This indicates that the process of C₂H₅OH production from CO-CH₂O* can easily take place. This is also consistent with the observation in experiment that the oxygenated hydrocarbon products are the main products on a Cu(110) surface [44].

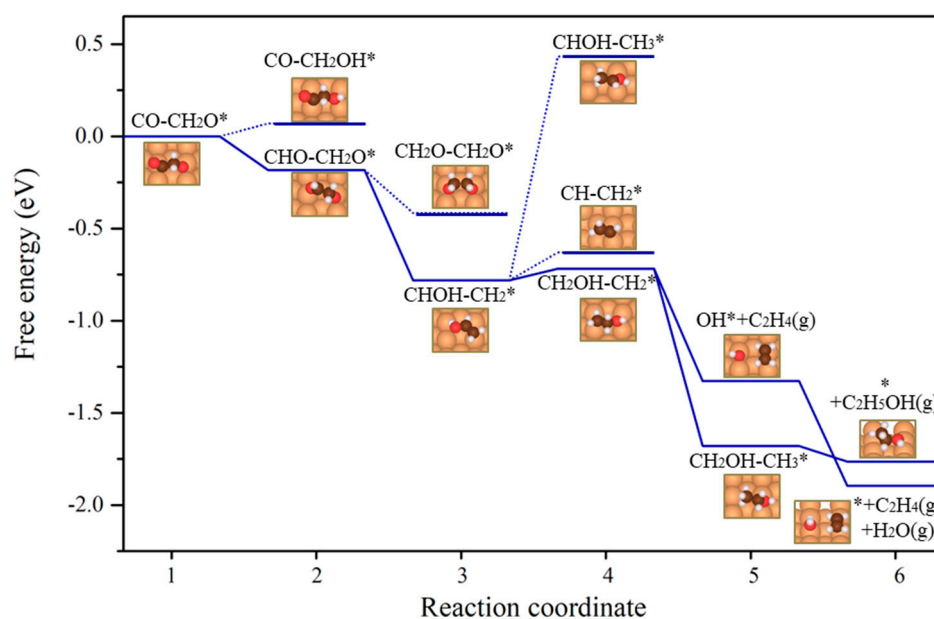


Figure 5. Gibbs free energy diagram for the production of C₂H₅OH on the Cu(110) surface. The optimized adsorption geometries of key intermediates are shown in the insets. Cu: yellow, C: brown, O: red, H: white.

It is worth noting that the hydrogenation of CH₂OH-CH₂* is the key to determining the product selectivity on a Cu(110) surface. The reaction energy of the CH₂OH-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₃* step is −1.65 eV; the CH₂OH-CH₂* → OH* + C₂H₄(g) step is −1.42 eV. It is obvious that the reaction energy of the CH₂OH-CH₂* → CH₂OH-CH₃* step is lower. Thus, we believe that the CH₂OH-CH₂* is prone to hydrogenation to CH₂OH-CH₃*, which then desorbs from the Cu(110) surface to produce C₂H₅OH. Although it has been indicated that CHO-CH₂ is the key to determine the product selectivity of a Cu catalyst, the surface morphology or crystal orientation of a Cu catalyst is not indicated [60]. Additionally, the previous literature indicated that the carbon monoxide initially dimerizes and is protonated to form *(OH)C=COH on Cu(100) [61]. However, the calculation of activation energy shows that COH* is difficult to form on a Cu(110) surface, so we believe that the *(OH)C=COH is not likely to occur on a Cu(110) surface.

By comparing the reaction energy of the possible formation intermediates, we identify the intermediates with smaller reaction energy. So, the reaction mechanisms of generating CH₄ and C₂H₅OH are revealed. In other words, even if the coverage scenario of the same intermediate is increased, the reaction mechanism is still not affected. Therefore, for the same intermediate, increasing the coverage scenario can reduce the hydrogenation reaction or C-C coupling reaction energy and improve the product efficiency, but does not affect the reaction mechanism.

2.5. The Analysis of Applied Potential

Our conclusion above is obtained at a zero applied potential, representing the reaction when no external potential is applied. The applied potential is the minimum required potential on which all elementary reaction steps become exergonic [62]. Therefore, the required applied potential is the potential of the potential-limiting step. We compared the production of CH_4 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ based on the applied potential in this section. For the reduction of CO_2 to CH_4 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$, the potential-limiting steps are the formation of COOH^* with 0.66 eV. Obviously, the applied potential with -0.66 V (vs. RHE) is required to eliminate the energy barrier. The negative sign indicates a reduction reaction. The Gibbs free energies of CO_2 reduction to CH_4 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ with an applied potential of -0.66 V (vs. RHE) are calculated, and the results are shown in Figure 6. It is worth noting that even if the applied potentials are the same for CH_4 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ production, the Cu(110) surface prefers to produce $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$. The main reason is that the Cu(110) surface is unstable under CO_2 reduction reaction conditions. This allows the morphology of the Cu(110) surface to evolve into a complex topography of the active site, which is favorable for the formation of C_2 products [63].

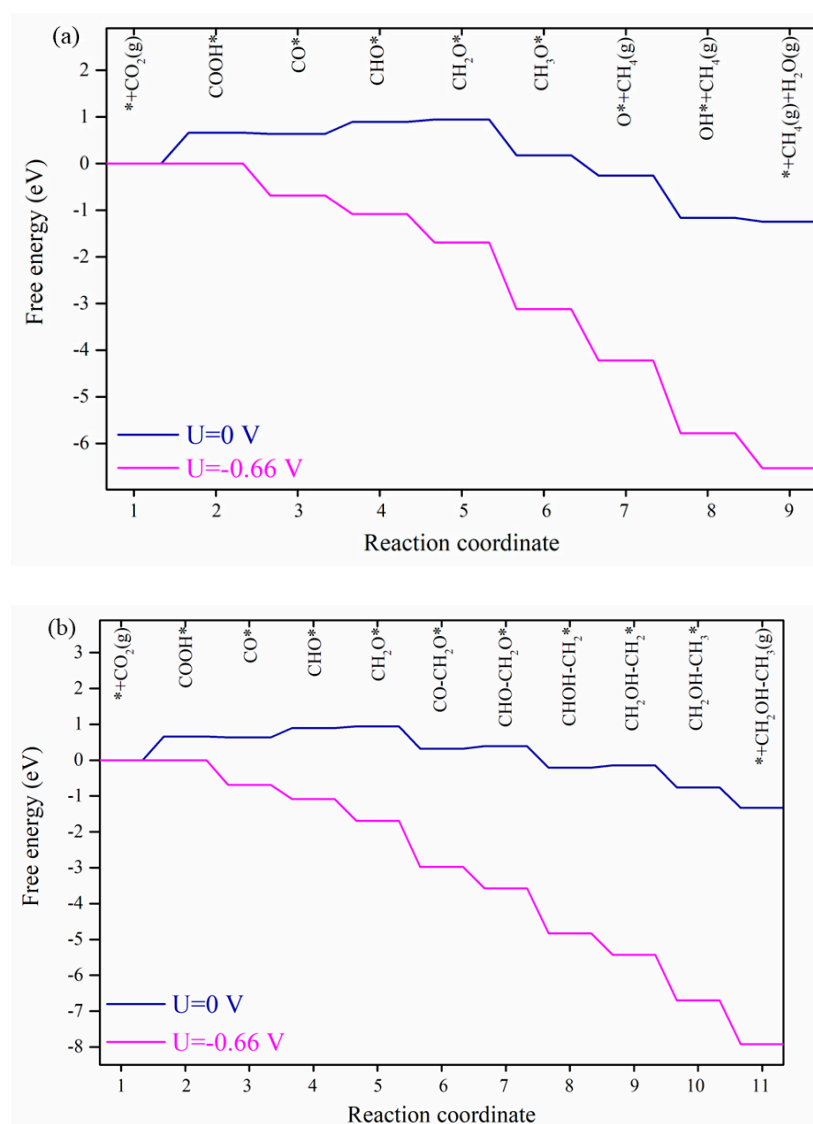


Figure 6. Gibbs free energy diagrams for CO_2 reduction to (a) CH_4 and (b) $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ on Cu(110) surface with applied potentials of 0 V and -0.66 V versus RHE.

In addition, the Gibbs free energies of CO₂ reduction to CH₃OH and C₂H₄ with an applied potential of −0.66 V (vs. RHE) are also calculated, and the results are shown in Figure S6 of the Supplementary Materials. For CO₂ reduction to CH₃OH, the steps (* + CO₂(g) → COOH* and CH₃O* → CH₃OH*) are a positive variation of Gibbs free energies. Thus, the step of * + CO₂(g) → COOH* is the potential-limiting step for CH₃OH production, which is consistent with CH₄ production. Thus, the applied potential of CO₂ reduction to CH₄ and CH₃OH is the same. A similar situation occurs in CO₂ reduction to C₂H₄. Although C-C coupling is an important reaction step, the step of * + CO₂(g) → COOH* is the potential-limiting step for C₂H₄ and C₂H₅OH production.

3. Computation Details

The calculations are performed within the framework of density functional theory as implemented in the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP) [64,65]. The Kohn–Sham wave functions are expanded in a plane wave basis set with a cut-off energy of 550 eV. The projector-augmented wave (PAW) method and Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) potential for the exchange–correlation function are used [66]. Eleven-layer slab model with a surface periodicity of 3 × 5 is used to describe the Cu(110) surface, as shown in Figure 7. The two bottommost layers of the model system are fixed to the optimized bulk parameters, and the rest are fully relaxed during geometry optimization. The convergence criteria for energy and force are set to 1 × 10^{−4} eV and 0.01 eV/Å, respectively. The thickness of the vacuum layer is ~15 Å, which is set to avoid interaction between slabs. The Monkhorst–Pack *k*-point mesh is 2 × 2 × 1. The calculated lattice constant of Cu is 3.61 Å [67], which agrees with the experimental value of 3.62 Å [68,69]. Dipole corrections are applied. We use an empirical dispersion correction (D3) for the van der Waals contributions [70]. The transition state (TS) is obtained using the climbing-image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) method [71] by using 5 images, including the initial and final states, during the transition state search. This is verified by obtaining only one imaginary frequency at each TS configuration [72,73]. In this study, we only analyze the thermodynamic trend of the CO₂ reduction reaction according to the transition states reported in [74]. Additional computational details are provided in the Supplementary Information.

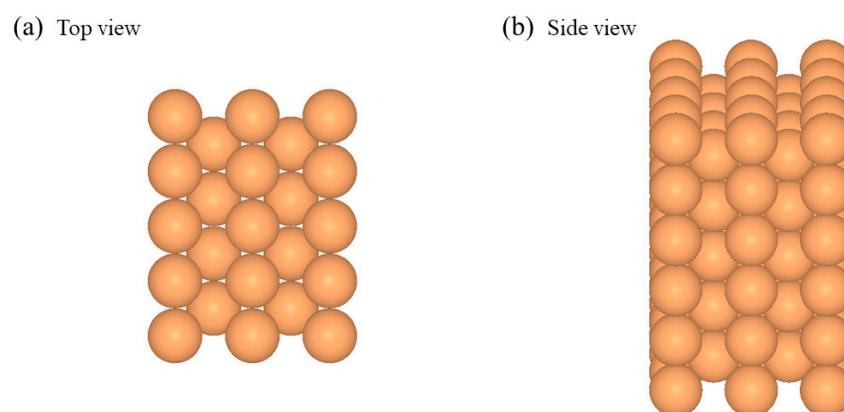


Figure 7. The (a) top view and (b) side views of the Cu(110) surface. Cu: yellow.

The Gibbs free energy of each elementary step is defined as

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta E_{ZPE} - T\Delta S \quad (1)$$

where ΔE is the reaction energy of each elementary step calculated from DFT total energies. ΔE_{ZPE} and ΔS are the zero point energy (ZPE) difference and the reaction entropy change

between the two states of the reaction step. In this work, the temperature is 298.15 K and pressure is 1 atm. E_{ZPE} is expressed as the following equation:

$$E_{ZPE} = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} h v_i \quad (2)$$

where vibrational frequency (v_i) is calculated using a method from [75], and only the surface-adsorbed species are allowed to shift during the calculation.

The adsorption energy (E_{ads}) of an intermediate on Cu(110) is defined as

$$E_{ads} = E_* + E_X - E_{X^*} \quad (3)$$

where E_{X^*} and E_* are the total energies of the surfaces with and without the adsorbed intermediates. The E_X is the energy of an intermediate, which can be defined as the sum of E_C , E_O , and E_H of the intermediate. The E_C , E_O , and E_H are referenced to the energies of CO_2 , H_2 , and the difference between H_2O and H_2 , respectively. By this definition, more positive E_{ads} means stronger binding. Our calculation method is consistent with that of Dong et al. [76].

The step with the highest positive variation of Gibbs free energy is the potential-limiting step. During an external applied potential (U) in the reaction, the chemical potential of each elementary step changes by eU . e is the electronic charge transferred in each elementary step. The relative energy is obtained by the Gibbs free energy difference between the initial state and the final state of each elementary step [77,78]. The activation energy (E_a) of the reaction step is defined as

$$E_a = E_{TS} - E_{IS} \quad (4)$$

where E_{TS} and E_{IS} are the energy of the transition state and initial state of the reaction step. The proton–electron pairs during the CO_2 reduction reaction can be written as follows [79]:



where the chemical potential of proton–electron pairs can be treated as half the energy of hydrogen.

Since the CO_2 reduction reaction occurs in a solvated environment, we only consider a single solvent water molecule to reduce the cost of calculation. Thus, an explicit water molecule is included in the computational model to account for the role of solvation. Although the solvation effect can be represented in terms of a single water molecule, it can be inaccurate and lead to errors. However, Luo et al. reported that even if a full solvation model is considered during the CO_2 reduction reaction on low-index Cu surfaces, the results are similar or slightly different from those of a single-water-molecule model. This also shows the rationality of our use of a single-water-molecule model [80].

4. Conclusions

In summary, based on first-principles calculations, we find that the C_1 and C_2 products of CO_2 reduction on a Cu(110) surface are CH_4 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$, respectively. CH_4 is produced via the $\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{COOH}^* \rightarrow \text{CO}^* \rightarrow \text{CHO}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_4$ pathway. $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ is produced through CO^* and CH_2O^* coupling to the $\text{CO-CH}_2\text{O}^*$ pathway. This is because this pathway has the lowest activation energy among the C-C coupling pathways between CH_xO^* ($x = 0-2$). Then, $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ is produced along the following pathway: $\text{CO-CH}_2\text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{CHO-CH}_2\text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{CHOH-CH}_2^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{OH-CH}_2^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{OH-CH}_3^* \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$. Our results provide theoretical guidance for further understanding of the mechanism of C_2 production on a Cu(110) surface.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at: <https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/catal14070468/s1>, Figure S1: The optimized adsorption geometries of the intermediates in Figure 1 and the bonding distances between them and the Cu(110) surface are shown; Figure S2: Schematic potential energy diagram for CO* desorption from Cu(110) surface; Figure S3: The optimized adsorption geometries of initial states, transition states, and final states involved in CO* reduction to CH₃O* in Figure 2 and the bonding distances between them and the Cu(110) surface are also shown; Figure S4: Density of states (DOS) plots of C atoms of adsorbed intermediates in (a) two-CO*; (b) CO* and CHO*; (c) CHO* and CH₂O*; (d) CHO* and CHO*; and (e) CH₂O* and CH₂O* pathways on Cu(110) surface; Figure S5: Diagrams of difference in charge densities of (a) CO-CO*; (b) CO-CHO*; (c) CHO-CH₂O*; (d) CHO-CHO*; and (e) CH₂O-CH₂O* on Cu(110) surface; Figure S6: Gibbs free energy diagrams for CO₂ reduction to (a) CH₃OH and (b) C₂H₄ on the Cu(110) surface with applied potentials of 0 V and −0.66 V versus RHE. References [81–87] are cited in the supplementary materials.

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