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- 1 Evidence for product specific active sites on
- oxide-derived Cu catalysts for electrochemical
 CO₂ reduction

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CO₂ electroreduction in aqueous media using Cu catalysts can generate many 12 13 different C_2/C_3 products, leading to the question whether all products are 14 generated from the same types of active sites or if product specific active sites are responsible for making certain products. Here, by reducing mixtures of ¹³CO 15 16 and ¹²CO₂, we show that oxide derived (OD) Cu catalysts have 3 different types 17 of active sites for C-C coupled products, one for producing ethanol/acetate, 18 another for ethylene and yet another for 1-propanol. In contrast, we do not find 19 evidence of product specific sites on polycrystalline Cu and oriented (100) and 20 (111). Analysis of the isotopic composition of the products leads to the prediction 21 that the adsorption energy of *COOH (product of the first step of CO_2 reduction) 22 may be a descriptor for the product selectivity of a given active site. These new 23 insights should enable highly selective catalysts to be developed.

The last few decades alone have seen large increases in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, mainly due to mankind's consumption of fossil fuels for energy.¹ It has been projected that global energy consumption will continue to rise, leading to tripling of CO₂ emissions by 2040.¹ There is therefore an urgent need to develop technologies capable of efficiently harvesting and storing renewable energy to reduce our dependence on fossil fuels.²

31 Electrochemical CO_2 reduction (CO_2R) in aqueous media presents an 32 attractive and viable strategy to reduce carbon emissions by directly converting CO₂ into valuable hydrocarbons and oxygenates such as 33 ethylene and ethanol.^{3,4} To date, Cu remains the most promising catalyst 34 35 capable of driving this conversion process at reasonable current 36 densities.^{5,6} While methane, ethylene, and ethanol are the major products, 37 up to 18 different possible products can be produced.⁷⁻⁹ It is commonly accepted that except for formate, CO_2R on Cu is initiated by reducing CO_2 38 to adsorbed CO (*CO).¹⁰⁻¹³ Further protonation of *CO results in methane/ 39 methanol formation (C₁ pathway) or *CO can couple with another *CO (C-C 40 coupling), leading to C_2/C_3 products such as ethylene and 1-propanol.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ 41 42 However, although there have been intriguing reports of selective 43 ethylene production under a certain range of conditions and at high 44 current densities^{17,18}, it has been experimentally difficult to control 45 selectivity to a given C_2 or C_3 product. To further improve catalyst 46 performance and selectivity, it is crucial to first identify and understand 47 the nature of the active sites that are present on Cu electrocatalysts. A 48 related and important question is whether all products are produced from 49 the same active sites or if specific active sites are responsible for 50 generating a given product. In other words, are there product specific 51 active sites that mostly generate only one product?

We reasoned that it would be possible to answer these critical questions by performing electroreduction of a mixture of ${}^{13}CO$ and ${}^{12}CO_2$. To explain our rationale, consider a hypothetical catalyst that possesses only 2 types of active sites for C₂ production (see Fig. 1). We assume that one site (A) is selective for ethylene while the other (B) is selective for ethanol.

57 Because their catalytic properties are different, we would expect that the adsorption energies of intermediates, often used as a descriptor for 58 catalytic activity,¹⁹⁻²¹ should also be different on the two sites. Due to the 59 60 difference in intermediate adsorption energies, we would naturally expect 61 that the turn over frequencies for generating these intermediates will be different. As a specific example, the rate of the initial step of CO_2R , 62 converting CO_2 to *CO, will be different on the two sites. As a result, if we 63 64 were to reduce a mixture of ${}^{13}CO$ and ${}^{12}CO_2$, the turn over frequency for ¹²CO₂ reduction to *¹²CO should be active site dependent, resulting in sites 65 66 A and B having different probabilities of being occupied by *12CO vs *13CO. In this case, we assume that the turn over frequency of ¹²CO₂ reduction to 67 68 *¹²CO is higher for site B, leading to a higher (lower) probability of *¹²CO (*¹³CO) on this site. 69



Fig. 1 | Hypothetical scenario in which reduction of a mixture of ¹³CO and ¹²CO₂ is carried out on a catalyst with 2 types of active sites, A and B. Site A favours ethylene formation (green) while site B favours ethanol formation (blue). Also, it is assumed that the turn over frequency of ¹²CO₂ reduction to *¹²CO is higher for ethanol selective sites, leading to a higher probability of *¹²CO on site B. This results in ethylene having more ¹³C compared to ethanol.

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In the next electrocatalytic step, C-C coupling between the *CO on the sites, followed by a series of proton-coupled electron transfers and dehydration steps^{16,22-24}, results in formation of ethylene (for site A) and ethanol (for site B). Crucially, the isotopic composition of the products will be different: in this hypothetical case, ethylene will have more ¹³C than ethanol. More generally, this analysis shows that if a mixture of ¹³CO and ¹²CO₂ is reduced, the isotopic composition of the C-C coupled products will serve as a fingerprint of the active sites which produced them. That is, if two C-C coupled products have different isotopic compositions, then they have been produced by different types of active sites. On the other hand, if the catalyst does not have product specific active sites, then all products should have similar isotopic compositions.

89 In this work, we apply this isotope labelling concept to analyse the 90 active sites on oxide-derived (OD) Cu catalysts. Such catalysts are 91 typically prepared by oxidation of a Cu foil/film, followed by reduction to its metallic state.²⁵⁻²⁹ This class of catalysts, originally reported by Kanan 92 and co-workers, is of significant interest because they have shown 93 dramatically reduced overpotentials for the reduction of CO to oxygenate 94 95 products (e.g. ethanol) with high faradaic efficiencies.^{27,30} Furthermore, work from many research groups have shown that these catalysts exhibit 96 97 enhanced selectivity for reducing CO_2 to C_2/C_3 products, whilst suppressing the formation of C_1 products.^{25,26,28,31-33} 98

99 There have been a number of studies aimed at identifying the active 100 sites responsible for the unique catalytic properties of OD Cu. 101 Chorkendorff and co-workers used temperature programmed desorption 102 to detect strong CO binding sites that are not present on polycrystalline 103 Cu.³⁴ They posited that these strong binding sites could be the grain 104 boundaries observed in their OD Cu catalysts. In related work, Kanan and co-workers demonstrated that grain boundaries are the active sites for 105 reduction of CO to C_2/C_3 products.^{34,35} However, it is not known whether all 106 the grain boundaries are active or if only the ones with specific structures 107 108 are responsible for generating most of the products.

The objective of this work is to determine if product specific active sites are responsible for the superior C_2/C_3 selectivity of OD Cu. Evidence of product specific sites will motivate future studies to understand how each of these different active sites work and to develop methods for building specific types of product specific sites into a single structure, both of which could lead to CO_2R catalysts with greatly improved product

selectivity. Indeed, we have discovered that OD Cu has at least three types of active sites which selectively produce ethylene, ethanol/acetate and 1-propanol, respectively. In contrast, polycrystalline Cu and as well as Cu (100) and Cu (111) oriented surfaces do not appear to have product specific active sites.

120 Results

Reduction of ¹³CO and ¹²CO₂ mixtures. Due to the large differences in 121 the aqueous solubility between ¹³CO (1 mM) and ¹²CO₂ (33.4 mM), 122 selecting their ratio to achieve a given ¹²CO:¹³CO surface coverage merits 123 124 some discussion. Based on calculations and experiments (Supplementary Figs. 1-2), we estimated that a 70:30 ratio of 13 CO to 12 CO₂ would allow for 125 similar rates of *13CO and *12CO formation to occur. OD Cu catalysts were 126 prepared according to procedures described by Kanan and co-workers²⁷ 127 128 (Supplementary Figs. 3-5). Polycrystalline Cu (PC Cu) was prepared by 129 electropolishing of Cu foil and oriented surfaces of Cu (100) and Cu (111) 130 were fabricated using procedures developed by Jaramillo and co-131 workers.³⁶ Natural abundance CO₂ reduction in 0.1 M KHCO₃ with these 132 qualitatively reproduced previously catalysts reported results 133 (Supplementary Fig. 6 and Supplementary Figs. 8-10). Natural abundance 134 CO reduction in 0.1 M KOH (Supplementary Fig. 7) confirmed that our OD 135 Cu catalysts performed similarly to those reported by Kanan and coworkers.²⁷ Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GCMS) and ¹³C NMR 136 137 were employed to determine the isotopic composition of the gas and 138 liquid products (see Methods and Supplementary Figs. 11-23 and Supplementary Tables 1-8 for details). For experimental validation we 139 reduced ¹³CO/¹²CO in ratios of 1:3, 1:1 and 3:1 on the OD Cu catalyst and 140 observed the expected statistical isotope compositions and distributions 141 (see Supplementary Tables 9-14 for details). Throughout this work, we 142 143 will refer to the isotopic composition as the fraction of ¹³C in the product. Additionally, the ¹²C-¹³C distribution, for example of ethylene, refers to the 144 145 fractions of the 3 possible product variants: ¹²CH₂¹²CH₂, ¹²CH₂¹³CH₂ and ¹³CH₂¹³CH₂. 146

147 Confident of our experimental and analytical methods, we proceeded to carry out the reduction of the 70:30 13 CO/ 12 CO₂ gas mixture with the oxide-148 149 derived Cu catalyst. Fig. 2a shows the isotopic compositions of ethylene, ethanol, acetate and 1-propanol produced by OD Cu at 4 different applied 150 151 potentials in 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte. There are a number of striking 152 findings. Firstly, regardless of the applied potential, the isotopic 153 composition (¹³C fraction) of ethanol and acetate are identical, which 154 strongly suggests that these products are generated from the same active 155 sites. Secondly, it also appears that ethylene is produced from a different 156 set of active sites, as evidenced by its consistently higher ¹³C fraction as compared to ethanol/acetate. It is also observed that the ¹³C fraction of 157 158 ethylene changes more strongly with potential compared to the other 159 products. Finally, 1-propanol also has a ¹³C fraction that appears distinct 160 from either that of ethylene or ethanol/acetate, which means that this 161 product is generated by yet another set of active sites.



163 Fig. 2 | Isotopic compositions and ${}^{12}C{}^{-13}C$ distributions of products generated by 164 **OD Cu.** (a) Isotopic composition (in terms of the ¹³C fraction) of ethylene, ethanol, 165 acetate and 1-propanol produced by reduction of the ¹³CO/¹²CO₂ gas mixture with OD Cu 166 at 4 different potentials. (b), (c) and (d) are ¹²C-¹³C distributions of ethylene, ethanol and acetate, respectively, at -0.72 V vs RHE. For the ¹²C-¹³C distributions at other potentials, 167 168 see Supplementary Fig. 27. All distributions appear to be binomial, based on comparisons 169 with the predicted binomial distribution based on the isotopic composition (calculation 170 details in Supplementary Tables 3-5). Faradaic efficiency and current density data are 171 shown in Supplementary Fig. 24. Catalyst stability data are shown in Supplementary Figs. 172 25-26. Error bars correspond to the standard deviation of 3 independent measurements.

173 A more detailed analysis of the isotopic compositions provides 174 information on the properties of the different active sites. For these 4 175 products, it appears that the ¹³C fraction decreases with more negative 176 applied overpotential. This is likely due to the fact that at more negative 177 applied overpotentials, the turn over frequency for converting ${}^{12}CO_2$ to *12CO on all active sites should increase, thereby increasing the 178 probability of having a *12CO vs *13CO on all active sites. Since the 13C 179 180 fraction of ethanol/acetate is consistently lower than that of the other

181 products, it must mean that the active sites that generate these products have a higher probability of having a *12CO. Therefore, the active sites 182 183 that generate ethanol/acetate should have catalytic properties such that they are also able to drive ${}^{12}CO_2$ to ${}^{*12}CO$ with a turnover frequency larger 184 185 than that of the ethylene active sites or 1-propanol active sites. Finally, the stronger potential dependence of the ¹³C fraction of ethylene implies 186 that the turn over frequency of ${}^{12}CO_2$ to ${}^{*12}CO$ should also have the largest 187 188 potential dependence compared to the other active sites.

189 The notion that ethylene and ethanol/acetate are formed on product 190 specific active sites on OD Cu is further supported by the binomial nature of their ¹²C-¹³C distributions. The ¹²C-¹³C distributions for these products at 191 -0.72 V are shown in Figs. 2b-2d (see Supplementary Fig. 27 for the ¹²C-¹³C 192 distributions at other potentials). As a comparison, the predicted binomial 193 194 distributions for each product are shown as well in each of the figures (calculated based on the isotopic composition, see Supplementary Tables 195 196 3-5 for more details). If products were generated from multiple active 197 sites which are not product specific, we would observe that the ¹²C-¹³C 198 distribution would be a superposition of multiple binomial distributions, 199 which would result in deviations from a true binomial distribution. Another 200 observation is that the observed ¹²C-¹³C distributions of ethanol and 201 acetate (Figs. 2c and 2d) appear to be identical, which is further evidence 202 that these products are generated from the same active sites.

203 We have developed a multisite kinetic model which predicts product 204 isotopic distributions as a function of the selectivity of the active sites, the 205 *¹³CO:*¹²CO ratio at a given site, and the number of active sites of a given 206 type and their turnover frequency (see Supplementary Figs. 28-30 and 207 Supplementary Table 15-17 for model details). The model allows 208 consideration of effects which would cause the *¹³CO:*¹²CO ratio to be similar for all sites such as surface diffusion of *CO and/or desorption and 209 210 readsorption events. Clearly, the fact that we see differences in isotopic 211 composition between the products means that reduction of CO to 212 products necessarily outcompetes these isotopic scrambling effects. The 213 model also shows that the sites must be substantially selective to observe

both differences in ¹³C composition and a ¹²C-¹³C distribution which does
not differ significantly from a binomial distribution.

216 Next, to determine if the existence of product specific active sites is a feature of Cu electrocatalysts in general, we performed reduction of the 217 218 ¹³CO/¹²CO₂ gas mixture with polycrystalline (PC) Cu, Cu (111) and Cu (100) 219 oriented surfaces. Fig. 3a shows the isotopic composition of the products 220 at -0.9 V vs RHE. In some cases, the isotopic compositions of acetate and 221 1-propanol could not be determined accurately as their formation rates 222 were too low. In contrast to the case for OD Cu, we observe that the 223 isotopic composition for the products generated are very similar, which 224 means that these catalysts do not have product specific active sites. In 225 Figs. 3b and 3c, the ¹²C-¹³C distributions of ethylene and ethanol 226 generated by PC Cu appear to deviate slightly from the predicted binomial 227 distribution. This might suggest that PC Cu may have multiple active sites 228 which are not product specific. In this scenario, each type of active site might have a different probability of *12CO vs *13CO, which results in the 229 230 ¹²C-¹³C distributions of the products being a superposition of a few 231 binomial distributions. To ensure that the similar isotopic compositions of 232 the products was not just a coincidence, happening only at -0.9 V vs RHE, 233 we tested Cu (100) at -0.8 V vs RHE. As expected, all products possess 234 similar isotopic compositions, albeit with higher ¹³C fractions due to the 235 lower overpotential that was applied (Fig. 3d).



236

Fig. 3 | Isotopic compositions and ¹²C-¹³C distributions of products generated by 237 238 Cu (111), Cu (100) and PC Cu. (a) Isotopic compositions (¹³C fraction) of products 239 generated by Cu (100), Cu (111) and PC Cu at -0.9 V vs RHE. The * in the figure appears 240 whenever the isotopic composition could not be determined accurately. (b) and (c) Observed and predicted binomial ¹²C-¹³C distributions of ethylene and ethanol 241 242 respectively for PC Cu. (d) Isotopic compositions (¹³C fraction) of products generated by 243 Cu (100) at -0.8 V vs RHE. ¹²C-¹³C distributions for Cu (100) and Cu (111) are shown in 244 Supplementary Fig. 31. Catalysis data is shown in Supplementary Fig. 32. Error bars 245 correspond to the standard deviation of 3 independent measurements.

246 **Control experiments.** We performed a series of control experiments to 247 rule out local pH, surface area/roughness and catalyst morphology effects as possible explanations for our striking findings on OD Cu. Firstly, during 248 249 CO₂R the local pH of the surface rises above the bulk pH because protons 250 from water are consumed to drive reduction of CO₂ and hydrogen 251 evolution.^{3,37} This rise in local pH of the catalyst surface during CO₂R has been observed to suppress C1 formation and enhance C-C coupling, 252 thereby increasing selectivity towards C₂ products.^{17,25,29,38} For high surface 253 254 area catalysts such as OD Cu, the rise in local pH is larger as compared to

255 planar Cu electrodes due to the larger geometric current densities.²⁶ Therefore, to minimize local pH changes, we reduced the ${}^{13}CO/{}^{12}CO_2$ gas 256 257 mixture with OD Cu in a 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) at a potential of -0.63 V. Such a buffer has been previously shown to be effective in 258 significantly mitigating rises in local pH.^{3,28,39} Fig. 4a shows that the 259 isotopic compositions of ethylene, ethanol/acetate and 1-propanol remain 260 261 distinct from each other in phosphate buffer, which allows us to rule out 262 local pH effects as a possible explanation for our results.

a b Ethylene Ethanol Acetate 1-Propanol OD Cu 0.5 ED Cu A Buffered at Isotopic composition 0.4 -0.67 V -0.63 V fraction) 0.3 (¹³C † 0.2 0.1 0.0 d С Ethylene Ethanol Acetate 1-Propanol Ethylene Ethanol Acetate 1-Propanol 0.5 0.5 OD Cu NWs ED Cu B Isotopic composition 0.4 Isotopic composition 0.4 -0.62 V -0.87 \ (¹³C fraction) (¹³C fraction) 0.3 0.2 0.1 0.1 0.0 0.0

263

Fig. 4 | Isotopic compositions of products generated in control experiments. 264 265 Isotopic compositions (¹³C fraction) of products generated by (a) OD Cu in 0.1 M 266 phosphate buffer at a potential of -0.63 V vs RHE, SEM image shown as inset with scale 267 bar 1 μ m. (b) ED Cu A at -0.67 V in 0.1 M KHCO₃, SEM image shown as inset with scale 268 bar 4 μ m. (c) ED Cu B at -0.87 V in 0.1 M KHCO₃, SEM image shown as inset with scale 269 bar 4 μ m. (d) OD Cu NWs at -0.62 V in 0.1 M KHCO₃, SEM image shown as inset with scale 270 bar 5 µm. Catalysis data is shown in Supplementary Fig. 37. More SEM images are 271 available in Supplementary Figs. 34-36.

To rule out surface area/roughness effects, we tested Cu catalysts prepared by electrodeposition (ED Cu). This process generates high surface area catalysts but does not involve an oxidized Cu intermediate

275 (see Methods section for details). Two catalysts were prepared; ED Cu A, 276 which has a comparable roughness factor to OD Cu (Supplementary Table 277 18), and ED Cu B which has a smaller roughness factor (SEM images as insets in Figs. 4b and 4c). Fig. 4b shows that products of ${}^{13}CO/{}^{12}CO_2$ 278 reduction -0.67 V vs RHE on ED Cu A have similar isotopic compositions. 279 Similar results were also obtained on ED Cu B, which was tested at -0.87 V 280 281 vs RHE (Fig. 4c). Since we did not observe differences in isotopic 282 composition between the products as was the case with OD Cu, we rule out surface area/roughness as a possible explanation of our results. 283 284 Additionally, it is apparent that such catalyst preparation methods do not 285 result in creation of product specific sites.

286 Finally, catalyst morphology has been shown to be important in 287 determining the selectivity of Cu catalysts.⁴⁰ To explore this effect, we 288 synthesized an oxide-derived Cu catalyst with a distinctly different morphology from OD Cu. Oxide-derived Cu nanowire (OD Cu NWs) 289 290 catalysts were synthesized according to the procedure described by Smith and co-workers²⁵ with some modifications (see Methods section for details 291 292 and SEM images as inset in Fig. 4d). Fig. 4d shows that the isotopic compositions of ethylene, ethanol/acetate and 1-propanol obtained by 293 294 reduction of ¹³CO/¹²CO₂ at -0.62 V vs RHE are also different from each 295 other. This means that like OD Cu, OD Cu NWs also possesses product 296 specific active sites. Similarly, we can rule out the possibility that the 297 observed differences in isotopic composition are a result of morphology 298 effects.

299

Mechanistic insights. Besides the finding that the active sites on OD Cu 300 301 are product specific, several other mechanistic insights can be gained from this work. To explain oxygenate generation on Cu-based catalysts 302 from CO₂R, several research groups have proposed that mobile 303 304 nonadsorbed CO can undergo an insertion reaction with surface bound *CH₂ species to form a *COCH₂ intermediate.⁴¹⁻⁴³ Further reduction of 305 306 *COCH₂ would lead to formation of ethanol and possibly 1-propanol as well.¹³ Also, Meyer and co-workers further proposed that this *COCH₂ 307

308 intermediate could lead to the formation of acetate.⁴² This type of CO 309 insertion mechanism was first proposed by Hori and co-workers, using an 310 analogy to Fischer-Tropsch catalysis and we will refer to it as the CO 311 insertion mechanism.¹³

312 Using our approach, evidence of a CO insertion mechanism could be 313 observed in two ways. Firstly, according to the mechanism proposed by 314 Hori, ¹²CO₂ would be reduced to surface bound *¹²CO and subsequently to *¹²CH₂. Labelled CO insertion would yield a *¹³CO¹²CH₂ intermediate, which 315 316 then reduces to form ethanol, 1-propanol or acetate. Importantly, this 317 mechanism predicts that the ¹³C should be in the α carbon position (-318 CH_2OH) rather than the β carbon position (- CH_3). Similarly, for 1-propanol, 319 ¹³C would be in the α position (-CH₂OH) rather than the β (-CH₂-) or γ (- CH_3) positions. As for acetate, ¹³C should be in the carboxyl group (-COO⁻) 320 321 rather than the α position (-CH₃). However, ¹³C NMR reveals no such preference for ¹³C to be in any of the positions relative to another (see 322 323 Supplementary Figs. 39-44 for more details). Secondly, CO insertion would 324 not produce a binomial distribution of ¹²C and ¹³C in the C₂ products but rather a distribution with enhanced ¹²C¹³C formation, as compared to the 325 ¹²C¹²C or ¹³C¹³C. The ¹²C-¹³C distributions of ethanol or acetate do not 326 327 appear to display a strong bias for formation of the ¹²C¹³C product (Figs. 2 328 and 3, Supplementary Figs. 27 and 31). Thus, we conclude that the CO 329 insertion mechanism does not occur in the catalyst systems in this study.

330 Another interesting experimental observation is that ethanol and acetate are generated from the same active sites on OD Cu. This means 331 332 that these products are likely to be linked mechanistically and thus share 333 the same selectivity determining intermediates/steps. Indeed, ethanol and 334 acetate have been linked closely together in previous reports. Kanan and 335 co-workers observed substantial acetate formation at high pH during CO 336 reduction on OD Cu, which they ascribed to attack of carbonyl-containing 337 intermediates by OH^{-.27} As the increased acetate formation at high pH was 338 accompanied by a decrease in ethanol, it can be inferred that the 339 products share a common intermediate. As another example, Koper and 340 co-workers proposed that Cannizzaro disproportionation of acetaldehyde

341 generates both acetate and ethanol simultaneously.⁴⁴ On the other hand, 342 our observation that ethylene and 1-propanol are generated from different 343 sites suggest that these products do not share common selectivity 344 determining intermediates/steps and branch early on after C-C coupling 345 from the ethanol/acetate pathway. Additionally, our results do not support 346 the mechanism proposed by Head-Gordon and co-workers, which places 347 acetate on the ethylene pathway rather than on the ethanol pathway.¹²

348 Additionally, our experimental observations on OD Cu may also be rationalized from the point of view of scaling relations. In CO₂R, 349 intermediates bind to the surface through the C and/or the O atom.^{10,12,24,45} 350 Because of scaling relations, intermediates that bind through the C atom 351 352 are expected to have adsorption energies that are linearly related to each 353 other, with the same rationale applying to intermediates that bind through 354 the O atom. For ethylene selective sites, the adsorption energies of 355 intermediates must all be shifted in a way such that after C-C coupling, 356 formation of the ethylene intermediate is by far the most kinetically 357 favourable compared to the ethanol/acetate or 1-propanol intermediates. 358 On the other hand, shifting the adsorption energies of intermediates in a 359 different way could result in favouring the formation of the 360 ethanol/acetate intermediate or the 1-propanol intermediate. Recalling 361 the identification of a range of strong CO adsorption sites on OD Cu not present on polycrystalline Cu by Chorkendorff and co-workers, ³⁴ we find it 362 363 possible that these strong CO adsorption sites are associated with the 364 product specific sites that we have discovered. We further posit that these 365 sites have specific combinations of C and O adsorption energies that 366 enable them to become product specific. Kanan and co-workers have 367 shown that grain boundaries are the active sites on OD Cu for the 368 reduction of CO to C_2/C_3 products.^{34,35} We therefore think it possible that 369 the structure of each product specific active site may be a specific type of 370 grain boundary termination.

Another consequence of scaling relations is its effect on the formation of ^{12}CO from $^{12}CO_2$. Theoretical studies have predicted that the rate limiting step of this reaction is the formation of *COOH from *CO_2 .^{11,15,46}

374 Since we have consistently observed that ethanol/acetate have the 375 highest ¹²C fractions (Fig. 2a), their active sites should have the highest 376 $^{12}CO_2$ to $^{*12}CO$ turn over frequencies. We thus posit that due to scaling relations, enhancing the formation of the *12COOH intermediate by tuning 377 378 adsorption energies also enhances formation catalyst of the 379 ethanol/acetate intermediate. Additionally, ethylene and 1-propanol selective sites should have different *COOH adsorption energies from 380 381 ethanol/acetate selective sites since their ¹³C fractions depend differently on the applied potential (Fig. 2a). This likely means that *COOH adsorption 382 383 energies may be a descriptor for the product selectivity of an active site. Because of this, turn over frequencies for ${}^{12}CO_2$ and ${}^{*12}CO$ are active site 384 385 dependent, giving each site a different probability of *12CO vs *13CO. This 386 gives rise to the different product isotopic compositions as we have 387 observed.

388 Finally, a theory paper published by Goddard and co-workers could 389 possibly offer some insight on our results and serve as a starting point 390 towards identifying the different active sites we have observed.⁴⁷ Using 391 molecular dynamics, they randomly generated sites on Cu nanoparticles 392 with different atomic configurations. Approximately 9% of these 393 generated sites had a larger CO binding energy than Cu (211). This would 394 seem to be consistent with the temperature programmed desorption 395 study of Chorkendorff and co-workers in which they found stronger CO binding sites on OD Cu which are not present on polycrystalline Cu.³⁴ 396 397 Among the strong CO binding sites, the theoretical study identified 2 398 atomic configurations which were proposed to be active for C-C coupling. 399 Relating these findings to our experimental work, it is conceivable that 400 some of the sites studied by Goddard and co-workers could also be 401 present on the OD Cu surface. It is possible that the differences in CO 402 binding energy for different surface configuration could be used to identify 403 C_2 and C_3 product selective sites, although more precise knowledge of the selectivity determining steps would be required. 404

405 **Conclusions**

406 In summary, we have shown via isotope labelling that OD Cu has product 407 specific active sites for the CO₂R reaction, with one set of active sites 408 generating ethylene, another ethanol/acetate and yet another 1-propanol. 409 We reason that due to scaling relations, the rate of *COOH formation 410 (intermediate to *CO) should be different on each type of active site. This means that each active site has a different probability of *12CO vs *13CO 411 412 and as a result, products generated from different sites possess different isotopic compositions. In contrast, by performing similar experiments on 413 414 polycrystalline Cu, Cu (100) and Cu (111) we show that these have sites that produces a mixture of C-C coupled products. Finally, our finding that 415 active sites on OD Cu are product specific should motivate future work to 416 417 understand these sites as well as ways to engineer specific types of sites into a single structure, thereby creating catalysts with very high product 418 419 selectivity.

420 Methods

421 Materials. Potassium carbonate (99.995% metals basis), potassium hydroxide (99.99% 422 metals basis), ¹³C carbon monoxide (<5 atom % ¹⁸O, 99 atom % ¹³C), nitric acid (70%), 423 hydrochloric acid (37%), potassium phosphate monobasic (99.99% metals basis) and 424 potassium phosphate dibasic (99.95% metals basis) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. 425 Copper foil (0.1 mm thick, 99.9999%) and glassy carbon plates were purchased from Alfa 426 Aesar. Selemion AMV anionic exchange membranes were purchased from Asahi Glass 427 Co., Ltd. Si wafers of various orientations were purchased from UniversityWafer, Inc. The 428 copper sputtering target (99.999%) was purchased from Kurt J. Lesker Company. All 429 chemicals were used without further purification. Carbon dioxide (99.995%), nitrogen 430 (99.999%), argon (99.999%) and hydrogen (99.999%) were purchased from Praxair. 431 Natural abundance carbon monoxide (99.999% research purity) was purchased from 432 Matheson Tri-gas Inc. Hydrogen, argon, nitrogen and carbon dioxide gas purifiers 433 purchased from Valco Instruments Co. Inc were used on the gas feeds to the 434 electrochemical cell and gas chromatograph. 18.2 M Ω deionized (DI) water was produced 435 by a Millipore system and used for electrolyte preparation.

Preparation of polycrystalline Cu (PC Cu). Cu foil was cut into 2 cm by 2 cm square
pieces and then electropolished at a potential of 2V vs the counter electrode for a period
of 5 minutes. The counter electrode used was another Cu foil of larger dimensions (5 cm
by 5 cm).

Preparation of oxide-derived Cu (OD Cu). Oxide-derived Cu was prepared according to the procedure developed by Kanan and co-workers.²⁷ Cu foil was first cut into 2 cm by 2 cm square pieces and then electropolished at a potential of 2 V vs the counter electrode for a period of 5 minutes. The counter electrode used was another Cu foil of larger dimensions (5 cm by 5 cm). To oxidize the surface, the Cu foil was thermally annealed in air using a muffle furnace at a temperature of 500 °C for 1 hour. The muffle
furnace was then allowed to cool to room temperature before removing the oxidized Cu
foils.

448 Preparation of oriented Cu surfaces. Cu (100) and (111) oriented surfaces were 449 prepared according to similar procedures as described by Jaramillo and co-workers.³⁶ Si 450 wafers with different orientations were used as growth substrates to facilitate epitaxial 451 growth of Cu. Cu films grown on Si (100) and (110) wafers yield Cu orientations of (100) 452 and (111) respectively. The native oxide on the Si wafers was first removed via a HF etch 453 and subsequent growth of the films was carried out using sputtering with an AJA 454 International ATC Orion 5 sputtering system. In all cases, the thicknesses of the Cu films 455 were controlled to be 200 nm thick using a quartz crystal monitor. Samples were kept in 456 a N₂ filled glove box when not in use to minimize oxidation in ambient air. The 457 orientations was also confirmed according to similar procedures reported by Koper and 458 co-workers⁴⁸ as well as Yeo and co-workers.³² Briefly, this was accomplished with cyclic 459 voltammetry in Ar sparged 0.1 M KOH solution in the potential range of -1.3V to -0.45V vs 460 Ag/AgCl at a rate of 120 mVs⁻¹. OH⁻ adsorption and desorption peaks are unique and 461 depend on the Cu surface and thus may be used to identify and confirm its orientation. 462 Cyclic voltammetry was also carried out after CO reduction to confirm that loss of the 463 surface orientation did not occur. (See Supplementary Fig. 33).

464 Preparation of oxide-derived Cu nanowires (OD Cu NWs). Oxide-derived 465 nanowires were prepared according to the method described by Smith and co-workers, 466 with some modifications.²⁵ Firstly, Cu foil was first cut into 2 cm by 2 cm square pieces 467 and then electropolished at a potential of 2V vs the counter electrode for a period of 5 468 minutes. The counter electrode used was another Cu foil of larger dimensions (5 cm by 5 469 cm). The Cu foil was then immersed into an aqueous solution containing 0.133 M 470 (NH₄)₂S₂O₈ and 2.667 M NaOH for 10 minutes, resulting in growth of Cu(OH)₂ nanowires 471 on the surface. The foil was then thermally annealed in air using a muffle furnace at a 472 temperature of 500 °C for 30 mins to convert Cu(OH)₂ to CuO. The muffle furnace was 473 then allowed to cool to room temperature before removing the Cu foils.

474 Preparation of electrodeposited Cu (ED Cu A and ED Cu B). ED Cu A and ED Cu B
475 were prepared by electrodeposition of Cu onto an electropolished Cu foil using a solution
476 containing 0.1 M CuSO₄ adjusted to pH 1 using concentrated H₂SO₄. A constant cathodic
477 current density of -400 mA cm⁻² was applied for 8 minutes for ED Cu A and only 2
478 minutes for ED Cu B. Such a procedure results in a dendritic, porous structure with a high
479 surface area with the roughness factor increasing with increasing deposition time.

480 Materials characterization and electroactive surface area measurements.
481 Scanning electron microscopy images were taken on a FEI Quanta 200 FEG scanning
482 electron microscope using an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. X-ray diffraction patterns
483 were obtained using a Rigaku Smartlab x-ray diffractometer.

484 Electroactive surface area measurements were performed according to procedures 485 described by Nilsson and co-workers.³³ These measurements were performed in the 486 same electrochemical cell as that for electrolysis experiments. 0.1 M KHCO₃ was used as 487 the electrolyte and cyclic voltammetry was carried out in a region where faradaic 488 processes do not occur. This was carried out with various scan rates and the geometric 489 current density was plotted vs scan rate. The slope of this graph is equal to the double 490 layer capacitance.

491 **Electrochemical measurements.** For all electrochemical measurements described in 492 this work, a Biologic SP-300 potentiostat was used. CO reduction was carried out using a 493 custom-made electrochemical cell made of PEEK and fitted with Teflon o-rings for 494 chemical inertness and durability. In this cell, the working and counter electrodes are 495 both constrained to be 1 cm² and sit parallel to each other in order to ensure a uniform

496 potential distribution across the working electrode surface. In all electrochemical CO_2/CO 497 reduction experiments, glassy carbon was used as the counter electrode (anode) instead 498 of Pt due to concerns regarding Pt dissolution.⁴⁹ In order to ensure that the electrolyte 499 remains saturated with ¹²CO₂ and ¹³CO throughout electrolysis, these gases were 500 continuously introduced into the electrochemical cell at a rate of 1.5 and 3.5 sccm 501 respectively using mass-flow controllers. A custom-made glass frit fabricated by Adams & 502 Chittenden Scientific Glass was used to disperse the gas into the electrolyte as well as 503 provide adequate convection in the electrochemical cell.⁵⁰ Before carrying out bulk 504 electrolysis experiments, the gas mixture was allowed to flow through the electrolyte in 505 the cathode chamber for at least 15 minutes to ensure that the electrolyte is saturated. 506 To separate the electrolyte in the cathode and anode chambers, a Selemion AMV anion 507 exchange membrane was employed. Before use, the membrane was carefully rinsed 508 with DI water. The electrolyte volume used in both the cathode and anode were 1.8 ml 509 each. Before use in experiments, the electrochemical cell was sonicated in 20 wt.% nitric 510 acid for 1 hour. All bulk electrolysis experiments were conducted for 70 minutes. A leak-511 free Ag/AgCl electrode from Innovative Instruments, Inc was employed as a reference 512 electrode. The accuracy of this reference electrode was ensured periodically by 513 comparison with a custom-made reversible hydrogen electrode. To convert potentials vs 514 Ag/AgCl to the RHE scale, the following equation as used:

515 E(vs.RHE) = E(vs.Ag/AgCI) + 0.197V + 0.0591pH,516 (1)

517 After saturation of the electrolyte with the gas mixture, the solution resistance was 518 determined using potentiostatic electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (PEIS), 519 scanning through a frequency range of 1 MHz to 10 Hz. 85% of the solution resistance 520 was then compensated using the software and the remaining 15% was post-corrected 521 after the experiment.

- 522 **Preparation of electrolyte and product analysis.** Preparation of electrolytes and 523 product analysis was performed according to similar procedures as reported previously.²⁶
- **GCMS analysis of gas and liquid products.** Isotopic composition of both the gas and liquid products were determined using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GCMS) with an Agilent 7890A GC with 5975C inert XL MSD (triple axis detector). The column used was an Agilent J&W PoraPLOT Q capillary column of length 25 m, internal diameter 0.25 mm and film thickness 8 μ m (part number CP7549). Helium (99.999%) was used as the carrier gas with a flow rate of 1.0 ml/min in the column. A glass wool liner was used in the inlet, which was set to 250 °C.
- 531 For gas product analysis, 10 μl of gas was injected into the GCMS and the injection mode 532 was split with a 1:1 ratio. For the analysis method, the selected ion monitoring (SIM) 533 operating mode was used. Elution times of the target analytes (ethylene and ethane) 534 were determined by injecting known standards. During the run, the operating 535 temperature of the oven was set to 30 °C for 7.5 minutes. A bake out at 100 °C for 5 536 minutes was utilized at the end of each run.
- 537 For liquid product analysis, electrolyte samples were first acidified with concentrated 538 hydrochloric acid to pH 2 to convert acetate into the acetic acid form, which is amenable 539 to GCMS analysis. For each analysis, 0.5μ of sample was injected and the injection 540 mode was split with a 25:1 ratio. The selected ion monitoring (SIM) operating mode was 541 used for liquid products. Similarly, the elution times of the target analytes (ethanol, 1-542 propanol and acetic acid) were determined by injecting known standards dissolved in 543 water. During the run, the oven temperature was set to 145 °C for 10 minutes. A bake 544 out at 200 °C for 5 minutes was utilized at the end of every run.
- 545 To ensure that the mass spectra of different products obtained with our GCMS are 546 consistent with established databases,⁵¹ standards of natural isotopic abundances were

- 547 also injected and all mass fragments with m/z in the range 20 to 75 were scanned (see 548 Supplementary Figs. 11-13 for more details).
- 549 Determination of the isotopic composition based on the mass spectrometry data is 550 explained in the Supplementary Note 4.

¹³C NMR spectroscopy of liquid products. ¹³C NMR was utilized to analyze the isotopic composition of the liquid products using a Bruker Avance III 500 MHz spectrometer. 700 μ l of the electrolyte with the liquid products was mixed with 35 μ l of D₂O containing 10 mM DMSO and 50 mM phenol. To prevent ¹H protons from splitting the ¹³C nuclei, proton decoupling techniques were utilized. Samples were run for at least 12 hours to accumulate sufficient signal. Determination of the isotopic composition based on the NMR results is explained in Supplementary Note 5.

558 **Data availability.** The data that support the findings of this study are available from 559 the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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713 Author contributions

- 714 Y.L and J.WA. conceived and designed the experiments. Y.L conducted all
- 715 the experimental work and analysed the data. All authors discussed the
- 716 results and wrote the manuscript.

717 Competing interests

718 The authors declare no competing interests.