Tuning the intermediate reaction barriers by a CuPd catalyst to improve the selectivity of CO₂ electroreduction to C₂ products

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Abstract

Electrochemical CO₂ reduction is a promising strategy for the utilization of CO₂ and intermittent excess electricity. Cu is the only single metal catalyst that can electrochemically convert CO₂ into multcarbon products. However, Cu exhibits an unfavorable activity and selectivity for the generation of C₂ products because of the insufficient amount of CO* provided for the C-C coupling. Based on the strong CO₂ adsorption and ultrafast reaction kinetics of CO* formation on Pd, an intimate CuPd(100) interface was designed to lower the intermediate reaction barriers and improve the efficiency of C₂ product formation. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations showed that the CuPd(100) interface enhanced the CO₂ adsorption and decreased the CO₂* hydrogenation energy barrier, which was beneficial for the C-C coupling. The potential-determining step (PDS) barrier of CO₂ to C₂ products on the CuPd(100) interface was 0.61 eV, which was lower than that on Cu(100) (0.72 eV). Encouraged by the DFT calculation results, the CuPd(100) interface catalyst was prepared by a facile chemical solution method and characterized by transmission electron microscopy. CO₂ temperature-programmed desorption and gas sensor experiments further confirmed the enhancement of the CO₂ adsorption and CO₂* hydrogenation ability of the CuPd(100) interface catalyst. Specifically, the obtained CuPd(100) interface catalyst exhibited a C₂ Faradaic efficiency of 50.3% ± 1.2% at –1.4 V_{RHE} in 0.1 M KHCO₃, which was 2.1 times higher than that of the Cu catalyst (23.6% ± 1.5%). This study provides the basis for the rational design of Cu-based electrocatalysts for the generation of multcarbon products by fine-tuning the intermediate reaction barriers.

1. Introduction

Excessive carbon emissions have caused serious global environmental issues [1–3]. The use of intermittent excess electricity to electrochemically convert CO₂ into valuable chemicals is a potential strategy to simultaneously solve the Earth’s car-

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bon recycling and energy crises [4–8]. Among various CO₂ reduction products, C₂ products (e.g., CH₄ and CH₂=OH) have attracted much attention due to their higher energy density compared with C₁ products (e.g., HCOOH and CH₄, CH₂=OH) [9–11]. Cu is a unique single metal catalyst that can promote the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to multivin (C₂) products [12–14]. However, pure Cu catalysts lack the desirable activity and selectivity toward C₂ products for practical applications [15,16]. The improvement of the efficiency of C₂ product generation using Cu and Cu-based catalysts has aroused great interest [17–20].

There are two limiting factors for achieving the electroreduction of CO₂ to C₂ products, namely the amount of CO* as carbon source (* indicates the adsorbate on the surface of a substrate) [21] and the C-C coupling step (two adjacent CO* coupling) [22,23]. For Cu catalysts, the energy barrier of the C-C coupling step is relatively low [24,25]. However, the CO₂ adsorption and CO₂* hydrogenation ability of Cu are unfavorable [26,27], resulting in an insufficient amount of adsorbed CO*. Therefore, different approaches have been explored to improve the catalytic activity of Cu for the generation of C₂ products [28–30]. Among these, the design of Cu-based bimetallic catalysts is one of the most promising strategies [31–33]. In principle, a second metal component can effectively adjust the binding energy between the catalyst and intermediates [34–36], lower the energy barriers of intermediate reactions, and further increase the efficiency of C₂ product formation [37,38]. Palladium is an efficient catalyst that exhibited strong CO₂ adsorption and ultrafast reaction kinetics for CO* formation. However, CO* poisoning on the Pd surface makes it unsuitable for generating C₂ products [39]. To take full advantage of both Cu (C-C coupling) and Pd (CO* formation), the assembly of a CuPd bimetallic catalyst was envisaged as a potential method for optimizing the efficiency of C₂ product formation.

In this study, we developed a CuPd(100) interface catalyst to tune the barriers of intermediate reaction and improve C₂ product selectivity. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations predicted that the CuPd(100) interface could more strongly adsorb CO₂ and dramatically decrease the energy barrier of CO₂* hydrogenation compared with the Cu(100) facet, leading to sufficient CO* for the later C-C coupling step. The calculated potential-determining step (PDS) of CO₂ conversion to C₂ products in the presence of the CuPd(100) interface was a C-C coupling with an energy barrier of 0.61 eV, which was much lower than that of 0.72 eV observed for the PDS (CO₂* hydrogenation) using Cu(100), indicating a potentially higher efficiency of C₂ product formation in the case of the CuPd(100) interface catalyst. Experimentally, the CuPd(100) interface catalyst was prepared using an in-situ growth method based on thermal reduction to afford Pd nanoparticles (NPs) as nucleation seeds. The obtained CuPd(100) interface catalyst was characterized using X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analyses. The enhancement of CO₂ adsorption and CO₂* hydrogenation abilities on the CuPd(100) interface were demonstrated by performing CO₂-TPD and gas sensor experiments, respectively. Specifically, the CuPd(100) interface catalyst exhibited a C₂ Faradaic efficiency (FE) of 50.3% ± 1.2% at −1.4 V_RHE in 0.1 M KHCO₃, which was 2.1 times higher than that of the parent Cu catalyst (23.6% ± 1.9%). This study provides a strategy to improve the yield of target C₂ products by regulating the energy barrier of the intermediate reactions as well as a reference for the development of Cu-based catalysts with higher efficiency for the generation of multivin products.

2. Experimental

2.1. DFT calculations

To explore the mechanism of the CO₂ conversion to C₂ products, 4 × 2 Cu(100), Pd(100), and CuPd(100) periodic surface slabs with four atomic layers were built, as shown in Fig. S1. Main consideration is that the Cu(100) facet favored the formation of C₂ products [40,41]. A vacuum slab of 30 Å was added to avoid the interaction influence of the periodic boundary conditions. Each model contained 128 atoms. Potassium (K) ions not only promote the activation of CO₂ [42], but also lower the energy barrier of the C-C coupling [24]. Thus, six K ions were added to the model to simulate the actual CO₂ reduction process.

DFT calculations were performed by VASP with the projector augmented wave (PAW) method [43,44]. The exchange and correlation potentials were present in the generalized gradient approximation in combination with the Perdew-Burke- Ernzerhof correlation (GGA-PBE) [45,46]. A 2 × 2 × 1 gamma grid of k-points was used for the Brillouin zone integration. The cutoff energy as well as convergence criteria for energy and force were set as 450 eV, 10⁻⁵ eV/atom, and 0.02 eV/Å, respectively.

The adsorption energy was calculated according to the following Eq. (1) [47,48]:

\[ E_{ads} = E_{substrate + gas} - (E_{substrate} + E_{gas}) \]  
where \( E_{substrate} \) and \( E_{gas} \) represent the energy of the isolated substrate and gas molecule, respectively, while \( E_{substrate + gas} \) represents the total energy of the gas molecule adsorbed on the substrate. Herein, the substrates refer to the Cu(100), Pd(100), and CuPd(100) interfaces.

The change in Gibbs free energy (ΔG) for each reaction step is given as follows [49,50]:

\[ ΔG = ΔE + ΔZPE - TΔS \]  
where \( ΔE \) represents the total energy difference between the product and reactant, while \( ΔZPE \) and \( TΔS \) indicate the zero-point energy correction and entropy change at 298.15 K, respectively.

2.2. Catalyst synthesis

Preparation of the Cu sample: 3 mmol of copper acetate was thoroughly dissolved in 250 mL of 2-ethoxyethanol under vigorous stirring and Ar bubbling. After 30 min, 20 mL of aq. NaBH₄ (1.5 M) was added dropwise to the above solution. The obtained black precipitate was washed several times with water and ethanol. The collected Cu sample was dried at 60 °C for 6 h in vacuum, and then dispersed in isopropyl alcohol [51].
Preparation of the Pd sample: 3 mmol of palladium acetate was first dissolved in 30 mL of acetone, and then 250 mL of 2-ethoxyethanol was added. Then, 20 mL of aq. NaBH₄ (1.5 M) was added dropwise to the mixture. The obtained black precipitate was washed with water and ethanol several times, dried at 60 °C for 6 h in vacuum, and then dispersed in isopropyl alcohol.

Preparation of the CuPd sample: 1.5 mmol of palladium acetate was dissolved in 10 mL of acetone. Next, 250 mL of 2-ethoxyethanol was added, and the mixture was heated at 393 K for 30 min under vigorous stirring and Ar bubbling. After cooling to room temperature, 20 mL of copper acetate aqueous solution (75 mmol/L) was added dropwise with stirring, followed by 20 mL of NaBH₄ aqueous solution (1.5 M). The obtained black precipitate was thoroughly washed with water and ethanol, dried at 60 °C for 6 h in vacuum, and then dispersed in isopropyl alcohol.

3. Results and discussion

The adsorption energy of CO₂ and ΔG of CO₂* hydrogenation are shown in Figs. 1(a,b), respectively [19,36,52–54]. The adsorption energy of CO₂ in the case of the CuPd(100) interface (−0.72 eV) was higher than that of Cu(100) (−0.45 eV) but lower than that of Pd(100) (−0.91 eV). Fig. S3 shows that the adsorption of CO₂ on these models without K⁺ was much weaker than in the presence of K⁺. It can be inferred that CO₂ adsorption was strongly enhanced by the presence of K⁺ [42]. The ΔG of the CO₂* hydrogenation in the presence of the CuPd(100) interface greatly decreased to 0.13 eV from 0.72 eV in the case of Cu(100), while being even lower than that on Pd(100) (0.40 eV). Considering that the zero-point energy and entropy energy correction were extremely small, the ΔG of the CO₂* hydrogenation mainly depended on the difference between 𝐸substrate+COOH* and 𝐸substrate+CO₂*. The more negative the 𝐸substrate+COOH* (the stronger the COOH* adsorption on the substrate) and the more positive the 𝐸substrate+CO₂* (the weaker CO₂* adsorption on the substrate), the smaller is the ΔG of the CO₂* hydrogenation. Therefore, the dramatic decrease in ΔG of the CO₂* hydrogenation on the CuPd(100) interface could be attributed to a strong COOH* adsorption and appropriate CO₂ adsorption of the CuPd(100) interface (Figs. S2 and S3).

Fig. S5(a) shows the adsorption energy of CO* on Cu(100), CuPd(100) interface, and Pd(100) facet with K ions to be −1.2, −2, and −2.4 eV, respectively. Thus, a higher amount of CO* is formed on the CuPd(100) interface compared with that on the Cu(100) facet, leading to an increased chance of the C-C coupling step occurring. In addition, the adsorption energies of CO* relative to different CO* coverages on the Pd(100) facet are shown in Fig. S5(b). These results demonstrated that adsorption of CO* on Pd(100) decreased as the CO* coverage increased, which indicates that CO* desorption from Pd is possible at high CO* coverages [55].

Fig. S6 shows that the energy barriers of the two CO* couplings in the presence of Cu(100) and CuPd(100) were lower than that of the CO* hydrogenation. Therefore, it can be assumed that the C-C coupling step using Cu(100) and CuPd(100) involved two CO* couplings rather than two COH*/CHO* coupling. The obtained free energies of the two CO* coupling on the Cu(100), CuPd(100), and Pd(100) facet were 0.09, 0.61, and 1.44 eV, respectively (Fig. 1(b)). The large ΔG observed for the Pd(100) facet was consistent with previously reported results, proving that Pd did not exert catalytic activity for C₂ product generation.

As previously reported, the PDS step of the CO₂ electroreduction to C₂ products was either the CO₂ activation or C-C
coupling [40]; therefore, it was suggested that the PDS of the CO_{2} reduction to C2 products using the CuPd(100) interface was a C-C coupling with an energy barrier of 0.61 eV, which was less than 0.72 eV for the CO_{2}* hydrogenation on Cu(100). Therefore, the CuPd(100) interface was more effective in facilitating the conversion of CO_{2} to C2 products compared with the Cu(100) facet.

Encouraged by these predictions, we prepared the Cu, CuPd, and Pd samples using a thermal reduction treatment followed by an in situ growth process. As shown in Fig. S4, the XRD patterns indicated that the CuPd sample before electrochemical reduction contained the characteristic peaks of Cu (PDF No. 03-1015), Pd (PDF No. 05-0681), and Cu_{2}O (PDF No. 78-0428). After electrochemical reduction for 30 min, the characteristic Cu_{2}O peak disappeared (Fig. 2(a)). These results revealed that the effect of the oxidation state of Cu on the catalytic activity of these catalysts was negligible, and the CuPd sample consisted of separate Cu and Pd phases rather than a CuPd alloy [51,56].

Fig 2(b) shows the TEM image of the CuPd sample, which exhibited a typical nanoparticle morphology with a size of approximately 20 nm. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image (Fig. 2(c)) shows lattice distances of 0.182 and 0.194 nm, which corresponded to the Cu(100) and Pd(100) facets, respectively [29], while the red line shows a clear CuPd(100) interface. Fig. 2(d) shows the HAADF-STEM and EDS mapping images, demonstrating the separate distribution of the Cu (green) and Pd (red) phases. The TEM and HRTEM images of the Cu and Pd samples are shown in Fig. S5; the lattice distances of 0.181 and 0.195 nm corresponded to the Cu(100) facet of the Cu sample and Pd(100) facet of the Pd sample, respectively.

XPS was further used to study the composition and elemental chemical state of the samples [57–59]. As shown in Figs. 3(a,b), the Cu 2p binding energy of the CuPd sample exhibited a 0.2 eV positive shift compared with the Cu sample, while its Pd 3d binding energy moved by 0.16 eV toward the low energy region compared with the case of the Pd sample. The slight shifts in the binding energies of Cu 2p and Pd 3d indicated an electron transfer from Cu to Pd, revealing an intimate interaction between Cu and Pd in the CuPd sample [30]. Figs. 3(c,d) show the Cu K- and Pd K-edge extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra of the CuPd sample. Only the Cu-Cu and Pd-Pd bonds are visible in the spectra. The XPS and EXAFS results together with those of the XRD and TEM analyses clearly demonstrated that the obtained CuPd catalyst consisted of a phase-separated sample with CuPd(100) interfaces.

To characterize the CO_{2} adsorption ability of the three catalysts, CO_{2}-TPD measurements and thermogravimetric experiments were carried out (Fig. 4(a) and Fig. S6). The main CO_{2} desorption peak of the Cu catalyst was located at 296 °C [60], while that of the Pd catalyst was positioned at 608 °C [61]. In contrast, three main CO_{2} desorption peaks at 288, 355, and 598 °C were observed for the CuPd(100) interface catalyst. Unlike the Cu and Pd catalysts, the peak located at 355 °C could be assigned to the CuPd(100) interface, suggesting a stronger and weaker CO_{2} adsorption than that on Cu and Pd, respectively.

To prove the strong COOH* adsorption ability of the CuPd(100) interface catalyst, we designed a gas sensor experiment (Fig. S7) [62,63]. Fig. 4(c) shows the current density curves of the Cu, CuPd(100) interface, and Pd catalysts at different applied potentials under vacuum and saturated CO_{2}+H_{2}O atmosphere. Fig. 4(d) shows the calculated current density differences (Δj) between the vacuum and CO_{2}+H_{2}O atmosphere. The higher the value of Δj, the stronger is the adsorption of CO_{2} and H_{2}O, which is an important indicator of COOH* adsorption. These results show that the CuPd(100) interface catalyst displayed the strongest COOH* adsorption ability.

Furthermore, CO-TPD was used to investigate the CO adsorption ability of these three catalysts [64,65]. As shown in Fig. 4(b), the CuPd(100) interface catalyst exhibited three evident desorption peaks located at 204, 271, and 529 °C. On the other hand, the reference catalysts Cu and Pd showed desorption peaks at 211 and 609 °C, respectively [66,67]. In combination with the three CO desorption curves, the peak at 271 °C could be ascribed to the contribution of the CuPd(100) inter-

Fig. 2. (a) XRD patterns of the prepared Cu, CuPd, and Pd samples after electrochemical reduction for 30 min; (b,c) Low-resolution and high-resolution TEM images of the CuPd sample; (d) HAADF-STEM image combined with the EDS mapping of the CuPd sample.
The moderate desorption temperature (271 °C) of the CuPd(100) interface compared with Cu (204 °C) and Pd (609 °C) suggested a moderate CO adsorption ability of the CuPd(100) interface.

To assess the catalytic activity of the CuPd(100) interface catalyst, a CO2 electroreduction test was performed. As shown in Fig. 5(a), for the Cu catalyst, the FE of C2 products gradually increased from 3.7% ± 0.4% to 23.6% ± 1.5% at a cathode potential ranging from −0.8 to −1.4 V_RHE, while the FE of C1 products accordingly decreased from 54.7% ± 1.3% to 30.6% ± 1.4% within the same potential range. For the CuPd(100) interface catalyst, the FE of C2 products increased from 7% ± 0.6% to 50.3% ± 1.2% at the corresponding potentials, which was 2.1 times higher than that of the Cu catalyst (23.6% ± 1.5%). For the Pd catalyst, only C1 products and H2 were detected, and the FE of H2 gradually increased as the cathode potential increased negatively. More detailed data on the FE of the products of these three catalysts are shown in Fig. S8.

To analyze the selectivity of C2 products, the FE ratios of C2 to C1 products (FE_C2/FE_C1) at different applied potentials were determined, as shown in Fig. 5(b). At all applied potentials, the FE_C2/FE_C1 of the CuPd(100) interface catalyst was larger than that of the Cu catalyst. In particular, at −1.4 V_RHE the FE_C2/FE_C1 of the CuPd(100) interface catalyst reached 2.4, while that of the Cu catalyst was 0.77. This result proved a higher selectivity toward C2 products of the CuPd(100) interface catalyst than...
that of the Cu catalyst. As previously mentioned, C2 products were not detected in the presence of the Pd catalyst.

Fig. 5(c) shows the current densities at different cathode potentials. The current density of the CuPd(100) interface catalyst was significantly greater than that of the Cu and Pd catalysts at each potential, indicating faster reaction kinetics for the CuPd(100) interface catalyst. This performance was also confirmed by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves (Fig. S9). Moreover, the CuPd(100) interface catalyst displayed the lowest Tafel slope (374 mV dec⁻¹) compared with the Cu (384 mV dec⁻¹) and Pd (467 mV dec⁻¹) catalyst (Fig. 5(d)), demonstrating rapid C2 product generation kinetics in the presence of the CuPd(100) interface.

Furthermore, electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) tests showed that the CuPd(100) interface catalyst possessed the highest ECSA (7.04 × 10⁻³ mF cm⁻²), followed by the Cu (1.84 × 10⁻³ mF cm⁻²) and Pd catalyst (0.99 × 10⁻³ mF cm⁻²) (Fig. S10). The electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) show that the CuPd(100) interface catalyst possessed the best electrical conductivity among the three catalysts (Fig. S11). These results proved that the CuPd(100) interface catalyst displayed a greater activity and selectivity toward C2 products than both Cu and Pd catalysts.

4. Conclusions

In summary, DFT calculations predicted that a CuPd(100) interface catalyst could possess a higher efficiency for the generation of C2 products during a CO₂ electroreduction reaction compared with that of Cu or Pd monometallic catalysts. These calculations showed that the CuPd(100) interface catalyst could provide sufficient CO* for the C-C coupling by enhancing the CO₂ adsorption and decreasing the energy barrier of the CO₂* hydrogenation step. The PDS energy barrier of CO₂ conversion to C2 products on the CuPd(100) interface catalyst (0.61 eV) was smaller than that of Cu(100) (0.72 eV). Guided by these theoretical predictions, the CuPd(100) interface catalyst was synthesized using a thermal reduction treatment followed by an in-situ growth process. The CuPd(100) interface was clearly visible in the corresponding HRTEM image. By combining the CO₂-TPD results and gas sensor measurements, the enhanced adsorption of CO₂ along with the decrease in the energy barrier of the CO₂* hydrogenation on the CuPd(100) interface were further verified. Specifically, the CuPd(100) interface catalyst exhibited a C2 FE of 50.3% ± 1.2% at −1.4 V_RHE in 0.1 M KHCO₃, which was 2.1 times higher than that of the Cu catalyst (23.6% ± 1.5%). The consistency between the theoretical and experimental results provided new insights into the design of superior Cu-based electrocatalysts for the conversion of CO₂ to desired multicarbon products.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Author contributions

Min Liu, Junwei Fu, Masahiro Miyauchi and Xiaokang Liu supervised the project. Min Liu and Akira Yamaguchi designed the experiments and analysed the results. Li Zhu synthesized the samples, performed the electrochemical experiments, and analysed the results. Li Zhu and Kang Liu carried out the DFT calculation and wrote the corresponding section. Yiyang Lin, Ying-Rui Lu and Ting-Shan Chan conducted the EXAFS measurements, and Emiliano Cortés analysed the results. Junhua Hu and Hongmei Li carried out the electron microscope measurements. All authors read and commented on the manuscript.

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Fig. 5. (a) FE of different products for Cu, CuPd(100) interface, and Pd catalysts at different applied potentials; (b) FE ratios of C2 to C1 products (FE_C2/FE_C1) at different applied potentials; (c) Current density curves and (d) Tafel slopes for Cu, CuPd(100) interface, and Pd catalysts.
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Electronic supporting information

Supporting information is available in the online version of this article.

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Graphical Abstract

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Tuning the intermediate reaction barriers by a CuPd catalyst to improve the selectivity of CO₂ electroreduction to C₂ products

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A CuPd(100) catalyst was designed and fabricated to improve the selectivity of the electroreduction of CO₂ to C₂ products by tuning the CO₂ adsorption ability and intermediate reaction barriers.
CuPd催化剂调节中间反应能量垒提高电催化CO2生成二碳产物的选择性

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摘要：过度的碳排放已造成了严重的全球环境问题，电催化CO2还原是一种利用间歇性过剩电能将CO2转化为有价值的化学物质的有效策略。在多种CO2还原产物中，二碳(C2)产物(如乙烯、乙醇)因其比一碳产物(如甲酸、甲烷、甲醇)具有更高的能量密度而备受关注。Cu是唯一能用电化学方法将CO2转化为二碳产物的单金属催化剂。如何提高Cu基催化剂上CO2还原为C2产物的效率一直是研究的热点。电催化还原CO2生成C2产物有两个重要步骤：一是参与碳碳偶联反应的CO*中
间体的量(*代表中间体吸附在基底表面)，二是碳碳偶联步骤的能垒。对于Cu单金属催化剂，虽然其表面碳碳偶联步骤的能垒相对较低，但Cu对CO2的吸附能力和CO2*加氢能力并不高，导致在Cu表面不能生成足量的CO*中间体参与碳碳偶联反应，因而对C2产物的选择性和活性并不理想。与Cu单金属催化剂相反，在Pd单金属催化剂表面，CO*中间体的形成具有超快的反应动力学，但Cu对CO2的吸附能力和CO2*加氢能力并不高，导致在Cu表面不能生成足量的CO*中间体参与碳碳偶联反应，因而对C2产物的选择性和活性并不理想。为了充分发挥Cu碳碳偶联步骤能垒较低和Pd(CO*形成具有超快反应动力学)的双重优势，本文构建了一种紧密的CuPd(100)界面，以调节中间反应能垒，从而提高C2产物的选择性和活性并不理想。密度泛函理论(DFT)计算表明，CuPd(100)界面增强了CO2的吸附，且降低了CO2*加氢步骤的能垒，从而能够催化生成更多的CO*中间体参与碳碳偶联反应。且CuPd(100)界面上CO2还原为C2产物的电位决定步骤能垒为0.61 eV，低于Cu(100)表面的(0.72 eV)。

本文采用了一种简便的湿化学法制备了CuPd(100)界面催化剂。X射线衍射和X射线光电子能谱测试以及扩展X射线吸收精细结构光谱结果表明，合成的是相分离的CuPd双金属催化剂，而非CuPd合金催化剂。同时高分辨透射电镜可以观察到清晰的CuPd(100)界面。由此可见，本文成功合成了CuPd(100)界面催化剂。程序升温脱附实验结果表明，CuPd(100)界面对CO2和CO2*的吸附比Cu强，结果与理论预测一致。气体传感实验结果表明，CuPd(100)界面CO2*加氢能力比Cu强。为评估CuPd(100)界面催化剂的催化活性，进行了CO2电化学还原实验。结果表明，在0.1 mol/L的KHCO3电解液中，CuPd(100)界面催化剂在-1.4 V_RHE下，C2产物的法拉第效率为50.3% ± 1.2%，是同位下Cu催化剂的(23.6% ± 1.5%)的2.1倍，C2产物的选择性是Cu催化剂的2.4倍，且具有更高的电流密度和更大的电化学活性面积。本文通过调控中间反应能垒以合理设计铜基CO2还原催化剂提供了参考。

关键词：二氧化碳电催化还原；二碳产物；铜钯界面催化剂；中间反应能垒