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Selective CO₂ electrolysis to CO using isolated antimony alloyed copper

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Renewable electricity-powered CO evolution from CO₂ emissions is a promising first step in the sustainable production of commodity chemicals, but performing electrochemical CO₂ reduction economically at scale is challenging since only noble metals, for example, gold and silver, have shown high performance for CO₂-to-CO. Cu is a potential catalyst to achieve CO₂ reduction to CO at the industrial scale, but the C-C coupling process on Cu significantly depletes CO* intermediates, thus limiting the CO evolution rate and producing many hydrocarbon and oxygenate mixtures. Herein, we tune the CO selectivity of Cu by alloying a second metal Sb into Cu, and report an antimony-copper single-atom alloy catalyst (Sb₁Cu) of isolated Sb-Cu interfaces that catalyzes the efficient conversion of CO₂-to-CO with a Faradaic efficiency over 95%. The partial current density reaches 452 mA cm⁻² with approximately 91% CO Faradaic efficiency, and negligible C₂₊ products are observed. In situ spectroscopic measurements and theoretical simulations reason that the atomic Sb-Cu interface in Cu promotes CO₂ adsorption/activation and weakens the binding strength of CO*, which ends up with enhanced CO selectivity and production rates.

The massive emission of CO_2 caused by fossil fuel combustion has led to a dramatic increase in CO_2 concentrations in the atmosphere, which has triggered global concerns about climate change¹⁻⁴. The electrochemical CO_2 reduction reaction (CO_2RR) offers a sustainable approach to directly convert CO_2 into value-added chemicals and fuels under ambient conditions, which reduces CO_2 emissions and alleviates the dependence on fossil fuels⁵⁻⁹. Among the products obtained from

CO₂RR, CO is one of the most important feedstocks that can be used in the sustainable production of commodity chemicals^{10–12}. To perform this reaction economically at scale, a catalyst capable of mediating the efficient formation of CO with high selectivity at high current densities is a prerequisite. Currently, gold and silver are the most active catalysts for this process, with near-unity CO selectivity under low to modest production rates. To maintain high CO selectivity, the partial current

densities of CO (j_{CO}) of these noble metals are typically lower than 200 mA cm⁻² ¹³⁻¹⁵. Further increasing the bias will simultaneously promote the competitive hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and thus suppress the CO Faradaic efficiency (FE). Other more abundant, less expensive metals generally have poor selectivity for CO₂-to-CO^{16,17}. Very recently, earth-abundant molecular electrocatalysts^{18,19} and single-atom catalysts²⁰⁻²² have been demonstrated to exhibit an FE of CO formation comparable with those of noble metal catalysts. However, most of these catalysts, in which the catalytic metal sites are isolated and well-defined, have also failed to drive CO₂-to-CO at a commercially relevant scale (at least j_{CO} > 200 mA cm⁻²) due to the partial reduction of the ligands around the atomically dispersed metal sites under a high applied potential²³⁻²⁶.

Cu possesses excellent activity towards CO_2 activation, but the control over the selectivity of CO_2RR on Cu is a major challenge given that it can produce at least sixteen different hydrocarbons/ oxygenates^{27–30}. Generally, during the CO_2RR , CO_2 molecules first undergo adsorption and activation on surface atoms. Further protoncoupled electron transfer converts CO_2^* into $COOH^*$ (further evolves to CO^*) or $HCOO^*$, the key intermediates forming CO and COOH, respectively^{31,32}. On CU catalysts, proper binding energy to CO^* endows CO^* 0 with the ability to couple CO^* 1 to generate other C_{2+} 1 products (e.g.,

 $\rm C_2H_4^{33}, C_2H_5OH^{34},$ and $\rm C_3H_7OH^{35}).$ This situation prompted us to consider whether substantially and acutely tuning the local electronic/geometric configuration of Cu could inhibit C-C coupling without reducing intrinsic activity, thus achieving commercially relevant $\rm CO_2$ electrolysis to CO. We reasoned that weakening the binding strength of H* and CO* intermediates, and thus decreasing the CO* coverage, could potentially suppress HER and CO* dimerization while promoting CO generation during the $\rm CO_2RR$, so as to be the solution of the CO activity-selectivity dilemma on Cu. Herein, we report an antimony-copper single-atom alloy (Sb₁Cu) catalyst (Fig. 1a) with isolated Sb-Cu interfaces that catalyzed the efficient conversion of CO₂-to-CO with an FE of $\it ca.$ 91% at 500 mA cm⁻².

Results

The Sb_1Cu catalyst was synthesized via the co-reduction of Cu^{2+} and Sb^{3+} using a $NaBH_4$ solution in an ice bath (see Methods). The morphology of the as-synthesized Cu-Sb catalyst was characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) with sizes ranging from 10 to 20 nm (Supplementary Fig. 1). The powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) pattern of the as-prepared Cu-Sb catalyst displayed obvious CuO_x diffraction peaks without Sb or Sb oxides signals, excluding the formation of Sb nanoparticles (Supplementary Fig. 2). The formation of

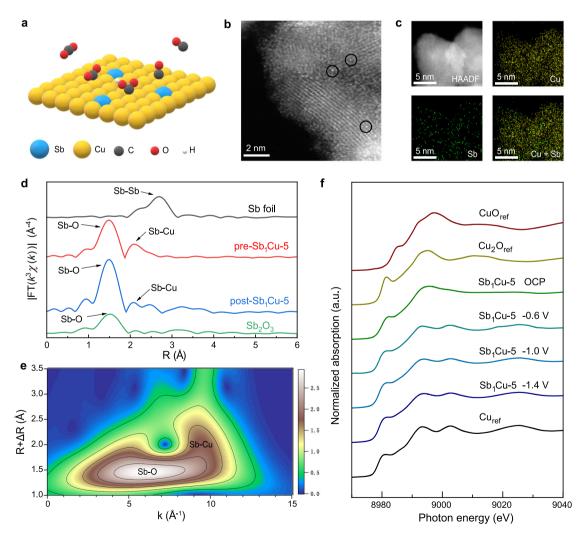


Fig. 1 | **Structural characterization of the Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst. a** Schematic illustration of CO_2 conversion into CO over the Sb_1Cu -5 catalyst. **b** HAADF-STEM image of the as-prepared Sb_1Cu -5 catalyst. The black circles highlight single Sb atoms. **c** STEM-EDS mapping of Cu and Cu in the as-prepared Cu-5 catalyst, confirming the even distribution of Cu-6 in the Cu-6 host. **d** Cu-7 in Cu-8 in Cu-8 in Cu-8 in Cu-8 in Cu-8 in Cu-8 in Cu-9 in Cu9 i

prepared and post-catalysis Sb_1Cu -5 without phase correction. Sb foil and Sb_2O_3 are shown as references. e EXAFS wavelet transforms (WT) for the Sb K-edge of the Sb_1Cu -5 catalyst. f In situ Cu K-edge XANES spectra of the Sb_1Cu -5 catalyst under applied potentials during the CO_2RR . Cu, Cu_2O , and CuO are shown as references. All potentials were calibrated to the RHE scale.

copper oxides was attributed to the oxygen susceptibility of the Cu nanocrystal surface when exposed to air. The chemical states of Cu and Sb^{III} in the Cu-Sb sample were identified by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Supplementary Figs. 3–5) and X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) (Supplementary Figs. 6, 7), reconfirming the spontaneous oxidation of the samples. High-angle annular darkfield scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) clearly identified isolated bright spots representative of atomically dispersed Sb atoms in the Cu matrix for Sb₁Cu (Fig. 1b), suggesting the successful formation of isolated Sb-Cu interfaces. Scanning transmission electron microscopy energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (STEM-EDS) mapping (Fig. 1c) affirmed the even distribution of Sb in Cu without observable Sb aggregation. The concentration of Sb in Sb₁Cu was ca. 5.0 at% (denoted as Sb₁Cu-5), as determined by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES). The above analyses implied the formation of a Sb₁Cu-5 single-atom alloy with well-defined isolated Sb-Cu atomic sites.

To obtain atomic coordination information of Sb in Sb₁Cu-5 samples, extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) measurements of the Sb K-edge were carried out. As displayed in Fig. 1d. the peak at ~1.50 Å was attributed to the Sb-O bond in the as-synthesized Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst. No Sb-Sb bond was observed, indicating the isolated form of Sb atoms. The peak at approximately 2.10 Å was attributed to the Sb-Cu bond, which proved the successful formation of Sb-Cu atomic interfaces. Wavelet transform analysis further corroborated the EXAFS fitting results (Fig. 1e and Supplementary Table 1). The Cu Kedge EXAFS results illustrated the coexistence of Cu-Cu bonds (~2.50 Å) and Cu-O bonds (~1.75 Å), indicating the formation of oxides on the surface of the Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst (Supplementary Fig. 8), in agreement with the XRD and XPS measurements³². We also prepared Cu, Sb₁Cu-1.5, and Sb₁Cu-10 as controls using a similar strategy (see Methods). Notably, the Sb₁Cu-1.5 catalyst presented the same Sb-Cu atomic interface but a lower site concentration than Sb₁Cu-5 (Supplementary Figs. 2-12), while the Sb₁Cu-10 catalyst showed Sb aggregation (Supplementary Fig. 13). In an effort to elucidate the electronic structure of the Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst under reaction conditions, we conducted an in situ X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) study. Cu Kedge in situ X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) demonstrated that Cu¹ in the as-prepared Sb₁Cu-5 was reduced to metallic Cu during the CO₂RR (Fig. 1f and Supplementary Fig. 14). Unfortunately, we failed to detect Sb signals in situ, probably due to the strong background interference caused by the fluorescence of Cu and the aqueous environment. Thus, we further explored the atomic geometry of Sb₁Cu-5 after CO₂ electrolysis. As expected, we still observed highly monodispersed Sb atoms in the Cu host (Supplementary Figs. 15, 16) by HAADF-STEM, in agreement with XRD analysis for post-catalysis Sb₁Cu-5 (Supplementary Fig. 17). Moreover, ex situ Sb K-edge EXAFS exhibited unchanged isolated Sb-Cu atomic interfaces, suggesting that these atomic sites should be robust during electrolysis (Fig. 1d, Supplementary Fig. 18, and Table 1). The above results, taken together, suggest that the active phase of Sb₁Cu-5 during the CO₂RR is metallic Cu alloyed with isolated Sb atoms.

The $\mathrm{CO_2RR}$ performance of $\mathrm{Sb_1Cu}$ -5 was evaluated in a three-electrode flow cell using $0.5\,\mathrm{M}$ KHCO₃ as the electrolyte (see details in Methods). Gas products were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC), and the liquid products were analyzed using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy and anion chromatography (AC). As manifested by the linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curve of $\mathrm{Sb_1Cu}$ -5, the current density was much higher under $\mathrm{CO_2}$ flow than that in Ar atmosphere, indicating the participation of $\mathrm{CO_2}$ in electrolysis (Supplementary Fig. 19). NMR results showed that the solution-phase product only contained formate (Supplementary Fig. 20), and the GC analysis revealed CO and $\mathrm{H_2}$ as major gas-phase products (Supplementary Fig. 21). We further found that the $\mathrm{Sb_1Cu}$ -5 catalyst exhibited high selectivity towards CO even at very high current densities. The

maximal FE_{CO} reached 95% at -150 mA cm⁻², while FE_{CO} remained over 90% even at -500 mA cm⁻² (Fig. 2a). The selectivity towards HER was suppressed to below 3%, while over 90% FE_{CO} was achieved at all applied current densities. The CO partial current density (i_{CO}) reached a maximum of -452 mA cm⁻² at -1.16 V vs. RHE with 90.4% FE_{CO}. In addition, we observed that the Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst showed a lower onset potential for CO₂-to-CO and much suppressed C-C coupling (>150 mV onset potential for C₂H₄) compared to pure Cu using in situ differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS) (Fig. 2b)³⁶. This leads us to believe that the intrinsic activity and selectivity of Cu was significantly modulated by the introduction of isolated Sb-Cu atomic interfaces. The stability test showed that FE_{CO} remained at approximately 95% after 11 h of continuous electrolysis at -100 mA cm⁻² using a membrane electrode assembly (MEA), and the cell voltage was quite stable without obvious fluctuation (Fig. 2c). In order to exclude the influence of structural decay of gas diffusion electrode during long-term electrolysis, we further evaluated the intrinsic stability of Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst in an H-cell, exhibiting a stable cathode potential with \it{ca} . 90% $\rm{FE}_{\rm{CO}}$ for 100 h (Supplementary Fig. 22). The impressive performance for CO₂-to-CO on Sb₁Cu-5 outperforms the previously reported state-of-the-art CO-selective electrocatalysts³⁷⁻³⁹ (Fig. 2d, e, Supplementary Fig. 23, and Tables 2-4).

We next analyzed the possible mechanism for exclusive CO production on the Sb₁Cu catalyst. We first compared the CO₂RR performance of pure Cu, Sb, Sb₁Cu-1.5, and Sb₁Cu-10 catalysts. Various products were obtained in the Cu catalyst, as expected, which showed an increasing C_{2+}/C_1 ratio with increasing current density (Fig. 2f). It is worth noting that, compared with Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst, Cu exhibited higher selectivity towards C₂₊ products due to the preferable C-C coupling at higher current densities (e.g., 42% at -400 mA cm⁻²). The performance of pure Sb is given in Fig. 2g, showing a maximum FE_{CO} of 34.8%. For the Sb₁Cu-1.5 catalyst (Fig. 2h), owing to the formation of isolated Sb-Cu atomic interfaces, FE_{CO} reached 89% at -100 mA cm⁻². However, larger amounts of C₂₊ products also appeared at high current densities (up to 27% at -400 mA cm⁻²) because only a smaller portion of the pristine Cu surface was modulated by Sb atoms and the coordination environments of most Cu sites remained the same. Owing to the formation of Sb aggregates, a relatively higher selectivity of formate was found on the Sb₁Cu-10 catalyst (Supplementary Fig. 24). These comparisons directly link the exclusive CO selectivity to the impact from alloyed Sb single atoms in the Sb₁Cu catalyst.

We then sought to carry out kinetic analysis to further understand how the isolated Sb-Cu atomic interface steers the CO₂-to-CO pathway on Sb₁Cu-5. Tafel plots (Supplementary Fig. 25) revealed a faster kinetic process of CO generation on the Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst (177 mV dec⁻¹) compared with pure Cu (253 mV dec⁻¹). The Tafel slope of 177 mV dec⁻¹ on Sb₁Cu-5 indicated that the first electron transfer step of *CO₂ was the rate-determining step (RDS)³¹. The slopes were larger than the frequently mentioned Tafel slope of 118 mV dec⁻¹ for CO₂ activation RDS (Supplementary Table 5), which could be attributed to the differences in the numerical selection for the symmetry factor ($\alpha = 0.5$ for 118 mV dec⁻¹) regarding more complicated electron transfer and chemical processes under realistic conditions⁴⁰. Thus, we employed Fourier-transform alternating current voltammetry (FTacV) to gain further mechanistic insights into electron transfer processes during the CO₂RR on Sb₁Cu-5⁴¹. In FTacV, a large amplitude periodic alternating current (ac) waveform was superimposed onto the direct current (dc) ramp to generate higher harmonic components. The high harmonic ac components were highly sensitive to electron transfer kinetics and devoid of nonfaradaic background current contributions⁴², thereby leading to direct access to underlying electron transfer processes. The fourth harmonic components of FTacV obtained on Sb₁Cu-5 in CO₂-saturated 0.5 M KHCO₃ showed a well-defined reduction peak at approximately -0.60 V vs. RHE,

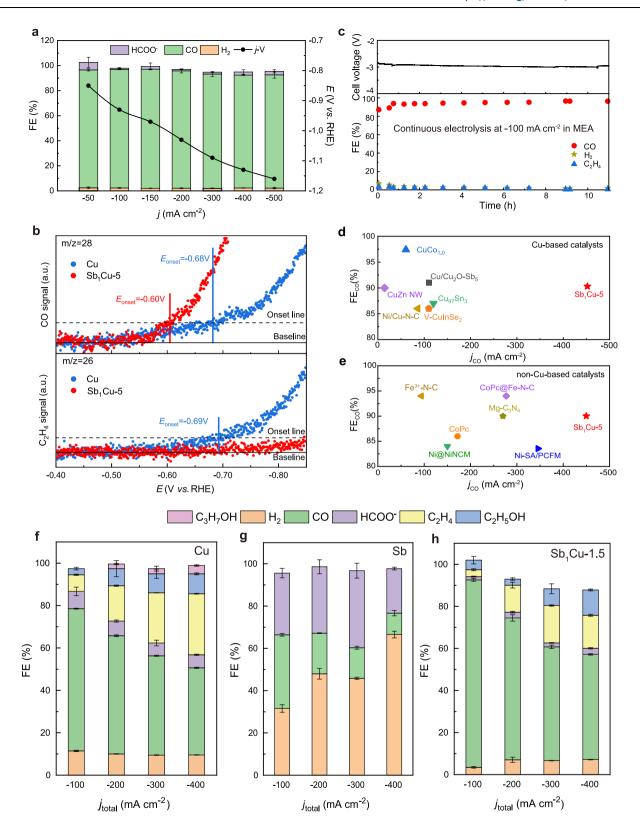


Fig. 2 | **CO₂RR performance over Sb₁Cu catalysts and Cu. a** FEs of all CO₂RR products at different current densities and the corresponding j-V curve of Sb₁Cu-5. **b** In situ DEMS measurement of (up) CO and (down) C₂H₄ production during CO₂RR on Cu and Sb₁Cu-5 catalysts. **c** Stability test at -100 mA cm⁻² current density in MEA for over 10 h, indicating an average CO FE of

approximately 95%, as estimated by GC analysis. Performance metrics of different reported CO₂RR-to-CO **d** Cu-based and **e** non-Cu-based catalysts. Comparison of product FEs on **f** Cu, **g** Sb, and **h** Sb₁Cu-1.5. The error bars correspond to the standard deviation of three independent measurements.

which was absent in the Ar-saturated electrolyte, confirming the involvement of CO₂ in the process (Fig. 3a). Simulations of FTacV (see details in Methods) showed that the standard rate constant (k_s) of the one-electron CO₂-to-*CO₂⁻ the process was smaller than that for the one-electron *COOH-to-*COOH- (Supplementary Table 6), indicating the first electron-transfer step as the RDS. In addition, based on the fitting transfer coefficient (α = 0.34) for CO₂-to-*CO₂⁻, we estimated the Tafel slope to be 174 mV dec⁻¹ on Sb₁Cu-5, which is close to the experimental value of 177 mV dec⁻¹ and thus, in turn, verifies our simulations. Taken together, the Tafel and FTacV analyses indicated an improved electron transfer process of CO production on Sb₁Cu-5, highlighting the critical role of isolated Sb atoms in boosting CO₂-to-CO conversion.

In pursuit of a molecular-level understanding of the CO₂-to-CO conversion pathway, we first conducted in situ attenuated total reflection surface-enhanced infrared absorption spectroscopy (ATR-SEIRAS) to dynamically monitor the evolution of reactive intermediates. Figures 3b and 3c show the in situ ATR-SEIRAS spectra acquired for the Cu and Sb₁Cu-5 electrodes during a negative-going potential sweep from -0.2 to -0.8 V vs. RHE. Upon applying the cathodic potential, a fingerprint infrared band appeared at 2000-2100 cm⁻¹ for both Sb₁Cu-5 and Cu catalysts, which was assigned to surface-bond CO (CO*). For either electrode, the CO* band frequencies redshifted with a negatively going potential due to the Stark effect. Notably, the CO* bands are redshifted and broadened on Sb₁Cu-5, in comparison to the counterparts on Cu at given potentials. As the surface coverage could impact the frequency of vibrational bands via dynamical dipole coupling⁴³, the lower frequency of the CO* peak on Sb₁Cu-5 implied weakened CO* adsorption and much lower CO coverage relative to Cu (Fig. 3d). After increasing the bias to -0.8 V vs. RHE, the CO* peak vanished on Sb₁Cu-5 but was still present on Cu, indicating more facile desorption of the CO intermediate from the Sb₁Cu-5 surface to form gaseous CO. In addition, after suspension of the applied potential and sweeping adsorbates with Ar flow, Sb₁Cu-5 showed a faster attenuation rate and shorter retention time of CO* compared with pure Cu, further confirming its better CO desorption ability (Supplementary Fig. 26). The same conclusions were also drawn from the in situ Raman spectra. where the peaks at 2000-2100 cm⁻¹ were ascribed to CO* intermediates⁴⁴ (Fig. 3e). As shown in Fig. 3f, the peak at 1060 cm⁻¹, which is associated with $\nu(CO_3^{2-})$ vibration⁴⁵, was much weaker on Sb₁Cu-5 than that on Cu at a given potential, inferring a surface environment of a lower pH value⁴⁶. It has been demonstrated that a higher surface pH is conducive to promoting C-C coupling⁴⁷. Thus, endowed with the capabilities of weak adsorption for CO* and facile desorption for CO, Sb₁Cu-5 predominantly prefers CO evolution to CO* dimerization in the case of lower surface pH.

Density function theoretical (DFT) calculations were performed to further understand the enhanced FE_{CO} on Sb₁Cu-5. As discussed previously⁴⁸, a step surface is more active for the CO₂RR. Thus, the Cu (211) surface model was first constructed (Supplementary Fig. 27). A single Sb dopant was substitutionally created to simulate a Sb₁Cu-5 (211) surface. It was found that the electrochemical interface is close to a capacitor (Supplementary Fig. 28) regarding the correlations between the amount of electron transfer from the electrode to the water layer (Δq) and the relative work function change of the systems $(\Delta \Phi)$ at initial, transition, and final states⁴⁹. Therefore, the activation barriers at varying potentials were explicitly calculated within a capacitor model with the "charge-extrapolation" scheme⁵⁰⁻⁵². Figure 4a shows that CO₂ can be electroreduced to CO and HCOOH via COOH* or HCOO* pathway, respectively, at -1.0 V vs. RHE. The kinetic barrier of HCOOH formation is higher than that for CO production on both Cu (211) and Sb₁Cu-5 (211), which is consistent with the experiments that FE_{HCOOH} is lower than FE_{CO} on both Cu and Sb₁Cu-5. Figure 4b shows that all the adsorption energies of CO*, COOH*, and HCOO* on Sb₁Cu-5 (211) are lower than those on Cu (211). The CO* desorption is easier on Sb₁Cu-5 (211) compared to Cu (211), which can enhance CO production and selectivity. To further understand the effect of isolated Sb in Cu, the projected density of states (PDOS) was calculated for Cu (211) and Sb₁Cu-5 (211) (Fig. 4c). The *d*-band center of the Cu atom is lower after Sb doping (from -2.07 to -2.17 eV), which explains well the weaker adsorption energy on Sb₁Cu-5 (211) than that for Cu (211).

As C₂₊ products also have a lower FE for the CO₂RR on the Sb₁Cu-5 electrode, the barriers of CO*-CO* coupling were calculated. As shown in Fig. 4d, the kinetic barrier of CO* dimerization on Sb₁Cu-5 (211) is higher than that on Cu (211), thus resulting in slower production of C₂₊ products, and this is another reason for the high FE_{CO} on Sb₁Cu-5. Microkinetic modeling further validated the enhanced FE_{CO} on Sb₁Cu-5 (211), and the results are shown in Fig. 4e. The calculated FE_{CO} was comparable to the experimental results for both pristine Cu and Sb₁Cu-5. It was found that CO* takes up 70% coverage of the total sites for the CO₂RR on pristine Cu, whereas that on Sb₁Cu-5 (211) is only 7% (Supplementary Fig. 29). Finally, we further calculated the activity of CO production on Sb₁Cu-5 (211) at varying potentials (Fig. 4f). As the potential decreases, all the barriers of electrochemical protonation gradually decrease, which will increase the reaction rate. A good linear correlation (slope = 1.05) was obtained between the experimental j_{CO} and the theoretical rate of CO production, as shown in Fig. 4g. This indicates that the reaction mechanism and energetic trend above should be reliable.

To sum up, in this work, Sb₁Cu catalysts were successfully synthesized using a co-reduction method, with isolated Sb-Cu atomic interfaces verified by HAADF-STEM and EXAFS. Sb₁Cu-5 achieved an FE_{CO} of 95% at a current density of $-150~\text{mA}~\text{cm}^{-2}$ and maintained >90% FE_{CO} at $-500~\text{mA}~\text{cm}^{-2}$. Distinct from Cu with major C₂₊ products at high current density, high activity and selectivity towards CO production on Sb₁Cu-5 was elaborated by tuning the Cu electronic structure via forming an isolated Sb-Cu atomic interface, and the improved performance can be explained by the enhanced ability of CO₂ activation and CO desorption for Cu. This report provides a facile strategy to manipulate the reaction pathway through isolated heteroatom interfaces, which could be widely used in general element combinations and other electrocatalytic reactions.

Methods

Material synthesis

Chemicals. Copper (II) chloride dihydrate (CuCl₂·2H₂O, ACS), antimony trichloride (SbCl₃, 99.9%), citric acid (H₃Cit, 99.5%), sodium borohydride (NaBH₄, 97%), hydrochloric acid (HCl, GR), antimony powder (Sb, 99%) and isopropanol (IPA, 99.5%) were purchased from Macklin. All chemicals were used without further purification.

Synthesis. Sb₁Cu catalysts were synthesized by co-reduction of CuCl₂ and SbCl₃ with NaBH₄. SbCl₃ mixture solution was first prepared, including 1 mmol SbCl₃, 3 mmol H₃Cit, and 20 ml deionized (DI) water. In the typical synthesis of the Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst, 3.2 ml SbCl₃ mixture solution, 2 ml 1 M CuCl₂·2H₂O solution, and 1 ml 3 M HCl were added into 13.8 ml DI water to obtain the precursor solution. The above solution was then rapidly added into 10 ml 1 M NaBH₄ solution in an ice bath and aged for 1 h. After a violent reaction, the obtained black precipitate was then washed with DI water and IPA several times, and dried under a vacuum overnight. The obtained black powder was kept in a glove box under an Ar atmosphere for storage. For the synthesis of the Sb₁Cu-1.5 catalyst, 1.2 ml SbCl₃ mixture solution, 2 ml 1 M CuCl₂·2H₂O solution, and 1 ml 3 M HCl were added into 15.8 ml DI water to obtain the precursor solution. The following steps were the same as Sb₁Cu-5.

For the synthesis of the Cu catalyst, the precursor solution was obtained by adding 2 ml 1 M CuCl₂·2H₂O solution and 1 ml 3 M HCl into

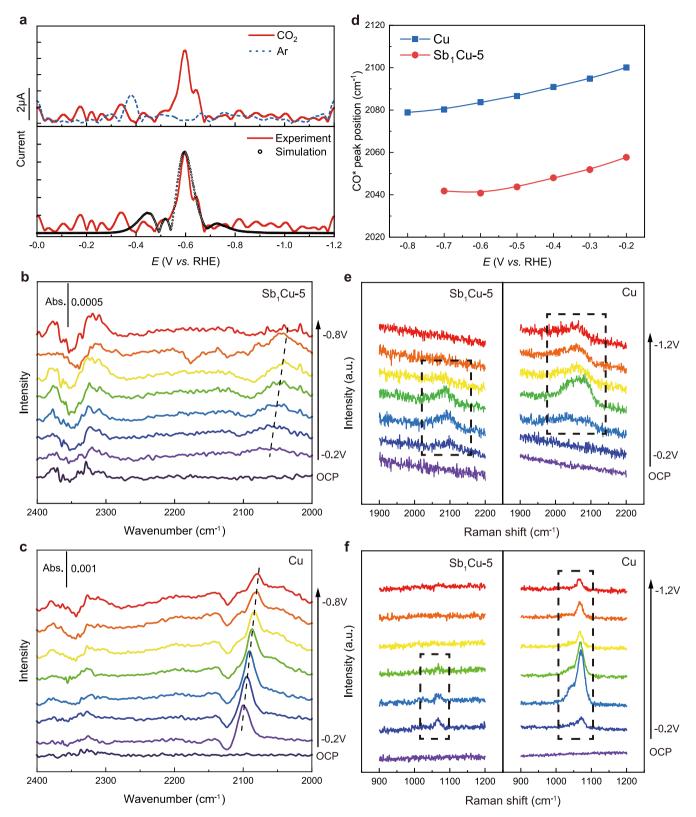


Fig. 3 | **Mechanistic studies of the electrochemical CO**₂-**to-CO conversion on the Sb**₁**Cu catalyst. a** Fourth harmonic components of FTacV derived on Sb₁Cu-5 in 0.5 M KHCO₃ solution saturated with CO₂ (solid line) and Ar (dashed line). The FTacV parameters are f = 9.02 Hz, $\Delta E = 80$ mV, and scan rate = 10.57 mV s⁻¹. The fitting of the fourth harmonic component is also displayed at the bottom. In situ

ATR-SEIRAS spectra of **b** Sb₁Cu-5 and **c** Cu at different potentials. Abs absorbance. **d** Potential-dependent CO* peak position on Sb₁Cu-5 and Cu in in situ ATR-SEIRAS spectra. **e** CO* and **f** CO $_3$ ²⁻ peaks of Sb₁Cu-5 and Cu in in situ Raman spectra at different potentials. All potentials were calibrated to the RHE scale.

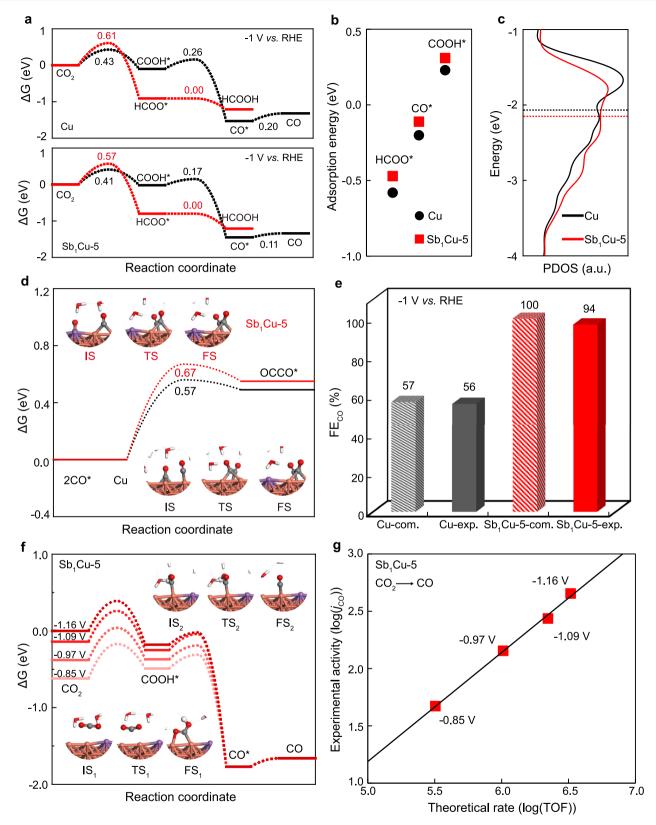


Fig. 4 | **Theoretical calculations. a** CO $_2$ RR to CO and HCOOH on Cu (211) and Sb $_1$ Cu-5 (211). **b** The adsorption energies of HCOO*, CO* and COOH* on Cu (211) and Sb $_1$ Cu-5 (211). **c** The projected d-band states of Cu atoms on Cu (211) and Sb $_1$ Cu-5 (211). **d** Barriers for CO*-CO* coupling on Cu (211) and Sb $_1$ Cu-5 (211). The initial (IS), transition (TS), and final (FS) structures are shown as insets, where Cu, Sb, C, O, and H are represented in orange, purple, gray, red, and white, respectively.

 \boldsymbol{e} Comparison between the calculated FE_{CO} from microkinetic simulations on Cu (211) and $Sb_1Cu\text{-}5$ (211) and the experimental FE_{CO} on Cu and $Sb_1Cu\text{-}5$. \boldsymbol{f} Free energy diagrams of the CO_2RR into CO under different potentials; insets are structures of the initial (IS), transition (TS), and final (FS) states of CO_2 protonation (1) and CO^* formation (2). The symbols with the same color represent the same atoms in figure \boldsymbol{d} and \boldsymbol{f} . \boldsymbol{g} Experimental activity versus a theoretical rate of CO production.

17 ml DI water. For the synthesis of the Sb_1Cu -10 catalyst, the precursor solution was obtained by adding 8 ml $SbCl_3$ mixture solution, 2 ml 1 M $CuCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ solution, and 1 ml 3 M HCl into 9 ml DI water. The following steps were the same as the synthesis of Sb_1Cu .

Electrochemical measurements

CO₂RR performance test. All electrochemical measurements were conducted at room temperature using BioLogic VMP3. Typical threeelectrode cell measurements were performed using a conventional flow cell and a glass H-cell. For the CO₂RR measurements in the flow cell, precursor ink (18 mg of catalyst, mixed with 36 µL of 5% Nafion 117 solution solved in 5 ml of IPA) was sprayed onto a gas diffusion layer (YLS-30T) as the cathode electrode with a mass loading of ~1 mg cm⁻². The Ag/AgCl wire in saturated KCl solution was used as the reference electrode, and Ni foam was used as the counter electrode. The working and counter electrodes were then placed on opposite sides of two 1-cm-thick polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) sheets with 0.4 cm × 1.5 cm channels such that the catalyst layer interfaced with the flowing electrolyte. The geometric surface area of the catalyst was 0.6 cm². A Nafion 115 membrane was sandwiched between the two PTFE sheets to separate the chambers. CO₂ flowed through the gas room behind the cathode, and the flow rate was kept at 30 sccm (monitored by an Alicat Scientific mass flow controller). In addition, 0.5 M KHCO₃ was circulated as the cathode electrolyte at a flow rate of 0.7 ml min⁻¹, while 1 M KOH was purged as the anode electrolyte. For measurements in the H-cell, catalysts were loaded on carbon paper (1 cm × 2 cm) as the working electrode. 0.5 M KHCO₃ as the cathode electrolyte and 1 M KOH as the anode electrolyte were separated by a Nafion 115 film. All potentials were converted to the RHE reference scale using the relation $E_{RHE} = E_{Ag/AgCI} + 0.197 + pH \times 0.059$ and compensated for the solution resistance by 85%.

CO₂RR product analysis. The gaseous products were tested by an online GC (PerkinElmer Clarus 690), which was equipped with a flame ionization detector, a thermal conductivity detector, and Molsieve 5 Å Column. The liquid products of Cu and Sb₁Cu-1.5 were quantified by a 400 MHz NMR spectrometer (BUKER). About 100 μl of D₂O (Sigma Aldrich, 99.9 at.%) and 0.05 μl of dimethyl sulfoxide (Sigma Aldrich, 99.9%) as an internal standard was added into 600 μl of the electrolyte after the electrolysis. The liquid products of Sb, Sb₁Cu-5, and Sb₁Cu-10 were determined by NMR and ion chromatography (Thermo Fisher Scientific ICS-600).

Long-term stability test

A membrane electrode assembly (MEA) was used for the long-term stability test with a zero-gap configuration where the anode, membrane, and cathode were compressed together to form one reactor. IrO $_2$ /Ti mesh was used as the anode, and an anion exchange membrane (Sustainion X37-FA, Dioxide Materials) was placed between the anode and cathode. CO $_2$ was humidified upstream to the MEA and fed to the GDL cathode at 50 sccm. About 0.1 M KHCO $_3$ was fed to the anode at 3 ml min $^{-1}$ to supply anode oxygen evolution. A 100-h intrinsic stability test was conducted in the H-cell. Catalysts were loaded on carbon paper (1.5 cm × 2 cm) as the working electrode, with a graphite rod as the counter electrode. 0.5 M KHCO $_3$ as the cathode electrolyte and 1 M KOH as the anode electrolyte were separated by a bipolar film. A 20 sccm CO $_2$ flow was bubbled into the cathode electrolyte.

Tafel plot

The Tafel plots were employed to evaluate the CO_2RR catalytic kinetics and fitted with the following equation: $\eta = k \times \log(j_{CO}) + b$, where j_{CO} is the CO partial current density, η is the overpotential for $CO_2+H_2O+2e^- \rightarrow CO+2OH^-$ ($E^0 = -0.11 \text{ V}$ vs. RHE). The smaller slope k indicates faster kinetics towards CO production. If the rate-determining step (RDS) is the first electron transfer CO_2 -to-* CO_2^- , the Tafel slope is calculated by

the following formula:

$$\frac{\partial(-\eta)}{\partial \lg(j_{CO})} = \frac{2.3RT}{\alpha F} \tag{1}$$

In this equation, α is the transfer coefficient and F is the Faraday constant. The standard values of the Tafel slopes based on different RDSs are further given in Supplementary Table 5.

FTacV measurements and analysis

FTacV experiments were carried out by a CHI 660e electrochemical workstation using an applied sine wave perturbation with an amplitude (ΔE) of 80 mV and a frequency (f) of 9.02 Hz superimposed onto the direct current (dc) ramp from 0 V to -1.20 V vs. RHE with a scan rate (v) of 10.57 mV s⁻¹. A standard three-electrode H-cell setup was used. Ni foam was used as the counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl was used as the reference electrode. Sb₁Cu-5 catalyst was coated on glassy carbon as the working electrode. After the use of an FT-inverse FT sequence, the ac data can be resolved into a dc component as well as fundamental, second, and higher-order ac harmonic components. The fourth harmonic components are very sensitive to fast heterogeneous electron transfer processes but essentially devoid of contributions from catalytic and background charging currents. The MECSim package was used for the simulation of the fourth harmonic component in FTacV, utilizing the ECEC model for four elementary steps, as illustrated in Supplementary Table 6. The parameters of kinetics were fitted through trial and error until a good fit was achieved.

In situ DEMS measurement

In situ differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS) was performed using a custom-made electrochemical capillary DEMS flow cell. The catalysts were loaded on the gas diffusion layer as the cathode, where CO_2 flowed behind. A capillary was put into the gas outlet of the flow cell to draw the gas products into the DEMS sensor (PrismaPro). The signals of the mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) of 26 and 28 represented the products of C_2H_4 and CO, respectively. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) with a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ was conducted on the cathode. The onset potentials were determined according to the positions where the signal-to-noise ratio was greater than 5.

Characterization techniques

Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images were conducted on Hitachi H-7650 TEM equipment, and the acceleration voltage was 100 kV. Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns were taken on a Philips X'Pert Pro Super diffractometer, and the standard λ value was 1.54178 Å for Cu-Kα radiation. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were conducted on VG ESCALAB MK II equipment, and the exciting source was Al K α = 1486.6 eV. C1s of 284.6 eV was used to reference the binding energies. HAADF-STEM images and energydispersive spectra (EDS) elemental mapping were carried out on a Themis Z field-emission transmission electron microscope using Mobased TEM grids, and the accelerating voltage was 200 kV. The in situ X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) spectra of the Cu K-edge were obtained at the BL11B beamline of the Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility with a constant current of 200 mA, recorded under fluorescence mode with a Lytle detector in an H-cell, operated at 3.5 GeV under "top-up" mode. The XAFS spectra of the Sb K-edge were obtained at beamline 44 A of the Taiwan Photon Source (TPS). The Demeter software package was used to process the XAFS data. In situ Raman analysis was conducted using a LabRAM HR laser Raman analyzer (Horiba/Jobin Yvon, Longjumeau) equipped with a frequencydoubled Nd:YAG 785 nm laser. In situ electrochemical attenuated total reflection surface-enhanced infrared absorption spectroscopy (ATR-SEIRAS) experiments were conducted on a Thermo Scientific Nicolet iS50 FTIR spectrometer with silicon as the prismatic window at room temperature.

Computational details

We employed the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP) to perform all density functional theory (DFT)53,54 calculations with the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) using the revised Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (rPBE) functional⁵⁵. We chose the projected augmented wave (PAW)^{56,57} and a plane wave basis set with a kinetic energy cutoff of 400 eV. Geometry optimizations were performed with a force convergence smaller than 0.05 eV Å⁻¹. Cu (211) and Sb₁Cu-5 (211) surface models were built with four layers comprising 48 atoms. The two layers at the bottom were fixed, while the other atoms relaxed. Monkhorst-Pack k-points of $(4 \times 2 \times 1)$ were applied for all the calculations on Cu (211) and Sb₁Cu-5 (211). The Cu site nearest to the Sb atom has been discussed in the main text. The Cu sites far from the Sb atom should be very similar to pure Cu. We further studied the reaction activity of the Cu site, which is the next-nearest to the Sb atom on Sb₁Cu-5 (211), as shown in Supplementary Fig. 30. CO is also the main product due to the lower barrier compared to HCOOH and C2+ formation. However, the adsorption energy of CO* at the top site on Cu (next-nearest to Sb atom, -0.21 eV) was close to pure Cu (-0.20 eV), more stable than CO* at the top site of Cu (nearest to Sb atom, -0.11 eV). CO* accounts for 77% of the total sites for CO₂RR. This is inconsistent with the results of spectroscopic measurements, where the lower frequency of the CO* peak on Sb₁Cu-5 implied weakened CO* adsorption and much lower *CO coverage relative to Cu (Fig. 3d). Hence, the Cu sites (next-nearest to Sb atom) on Sb₁Cu-5 should not be the main active sites, as listed in the supplementary information. The Cu sites (nearest to the Sb atom) on Sb₁Cu-5 should have major activity contributions, as shown in the main text.

All the adsorption energies were referenced to the gas phase energies of CO, H_2O , and H_2 . The reaction-free energies (ΔG) were calculated as follows. $\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta Z P E - T \Delta S$ (T = 300 K), where ΔE is the electronic energy based on DFT calculations directly, and ΔZPE and ΔS are the corrections of zero point energy and entropy, respectively. Only vibrational motion was considered for adsorbates on the surface, while translational, rotational, and vibrational motions were all calculated for gas-phase species. The climbing image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) method was used to locate the transition states⁵⁸. The solvation effect was also calculated using implicit models through VASPsol⁵⁹ calculations for both Cu (211) and Sb₁Cu-5 (211). It has been validated that the CO adsorption energy on Cu (211) is comparable with previous work⁴⁸ with an explicit solvation model and van der Waals corrections. In addition, the chemical potential of (H⁺ + e⁻) was calculated by G (H $^{+}$ + e⁻) = $\frac{1}{2}$ G (H₂) at 0 V vs. RHE. A computational hydrogen electrode model was used to calculate the free energy change at varying potential⁶⁰. Note that the desorption of CO* was considered to be potentially independent in the calculation of free energy change³².

Microkinetic modeling was used to simulate the reaction rate in the CO₂RR, solved by CATKINAS code:^{61,62}

$$\frac{\partial \theta_i}{\partial t} = 0 \tag{2}$$

$$\sum_{i} \theta_{i} = 1 \tag{3}$$

The reaction rate on surfaces was described by⁶³

$$r = \theta_{\rm A} \theta_{\rm B} \frac{k_{\rm B} T}{h} e^{-G_{\rm a}/k_{\rm B} T} \tag{4}$$

Equations (2–4) were referred to in a previous work⁶⁴. A temperature of 300 K was applied with all the gas-phase pressures (including P_{H+}) set

to 1.0^{65} . The reaction rate of CO_2RR to C_{2+} products was estimated based on the Arrhenius equation and the CO^* coverage at a steady state.

The FE was described by

$$FE/\% = \frac{n(i)TOF(i)}{\sum n(i)TOF(i)} \times 100$$
 (5)

where n(i) represents the electron transfer number and TOF(i) is the turnover frequency obtained by microkinetic simulation for product i.

We have also strictly investigated the potential effects on the adsorption energy of CO*. An electric field was applied in DFT calculations. Based on a parallel-plate capacitor model, a linear correlation between the electric field and absolute potential was approximated as following:⁶⁶

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon \varepsilon_0} = \frac{C_{\rm H}(U_{\rm SHE} - U_{\rm PZC})}{\varepsilon \varepsilon_0} \tag{6}$$

where σ is the surface charge density and ε and ε_0 are the dielectric constants of vacuum and water near the interface, which were set to $8.85\times 10^{-12}\,\mathrm{F}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}$ and 2 (unitless), respectively. $C_{\rm H}$ refers to the Helmholtz capacitance ($\mu\mathrm{F}\,\mathrm{cm}^{-2}$), which was set to $25\,\mu\mathrm{F}\,\mathrm{cm}^{-2}$. $U_{\rm SHE}$ is the electrode potential referenced to a standard hydrogen electrode (SHE). $U_{\rm PZC}$ refers to the potential of zero charge (PZC) versus SHE, which was set to be $-0.9\,\mathrm{V}^{67}$.

The SHE could be converted to the RHE by the following formula:

$$U_{\text{RHE}} = U_{\text{SHE}} + 0.059 \text{pH}$$
 (7)

The calculated adsorption energies of CO* changed very little (<0.05 eV) with potentials between 0 and -1.2 V vs. RHE, which showed consistent trends for Cu (211) and Sb₁Cu-5 (211). All insights and conclusions shown in the main text are still reliable. In addition, by varying potentials from -0.2 to -0.7 V vs. RHE, the calculated adsorption energies of CO* weaken from -0.13 to -0.11 eV on Sb₁Cu-5 (211) and from -0.23 to -0.20 eV on Cu (211), which showed consistent trends with the results of the in situ ATR-SEIRAS spectra (Fig. 3b-d).

Additional microkinetic modeling was performed to doublecheck the reliability of the present kinetic analysis. All conclusions are not affected. Overall, the potential effects on the adsorption energy of CO* were ignored in the calculation of free energy change.

Data availability

All data were available in the main text or the supplementary materials. Source data of the figures in the main text are provided. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Author contributions

C.X. conceptualized the project. C.X., J.Z., and J.X. supervised the project. J.L. and H.Z. prepared the catalysts and performed the catalytic tests. J.L., H.Z., Z.X., D.Z., and T.Z. performed the catalyst characterizations. S.H. conducted the HAADF-STEM characterizations. Y. Dai and P.C. performed the EXAFS measurements. J.L. and R.Z. performed the in situ measurements. X.D., J.X., Y. Ding, and L.Z. performed the DFT calculations. J.L., C.X., J.Z., and J.X. wrote the paper with input from all authors. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

Competing interests

A China provisional patent application (CN202210385531.1) based on the technology described in this work was filed in April 2022 by C.X., J.L., and H.Z. at the University of Electronic Science and Technology of China. The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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