

# Atomic-level Cu active sites enable energy-efficient CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction to multicarbon products in strong acid

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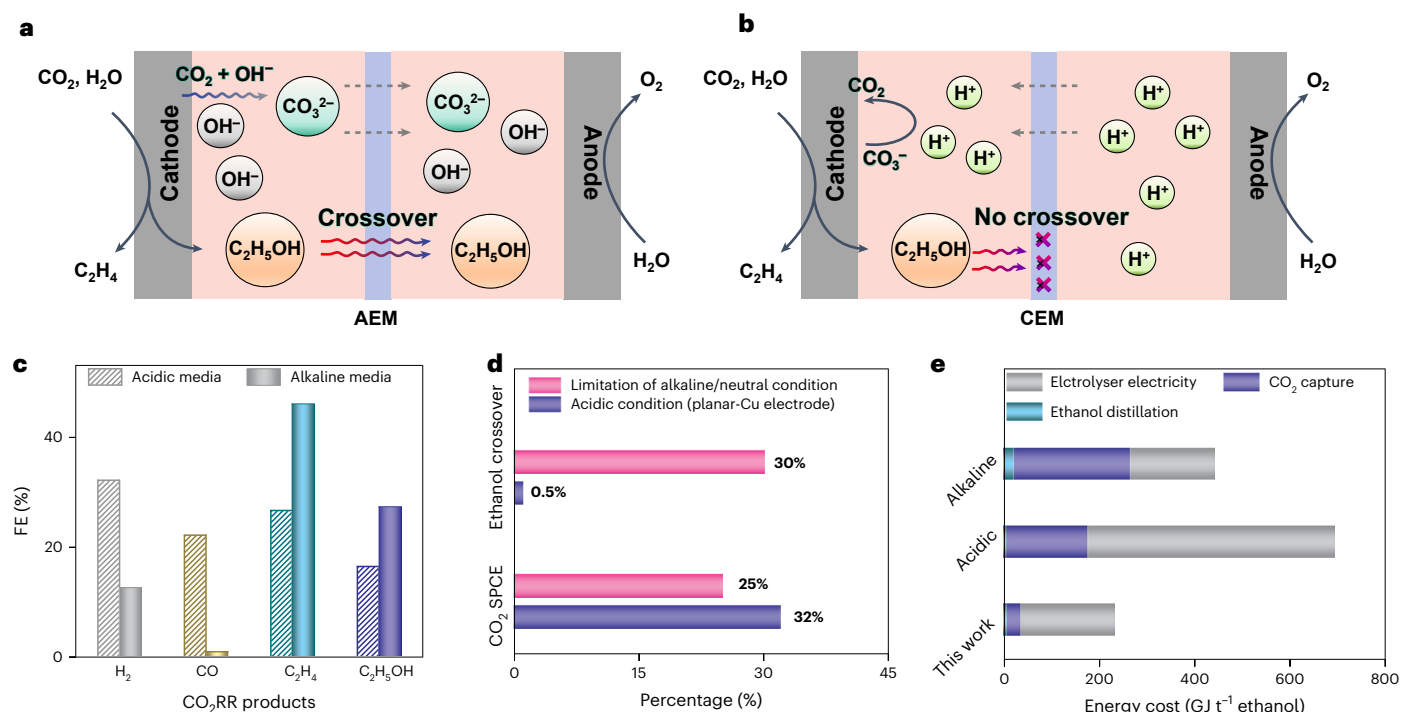
Electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction provides a promising strategy to synthesize C<sub>2+</sub> compounds with reduced carbon intensity; however, high overall energy consumption restricts practical implementation. Using acidic media enables high CO<sub>2</sub> utilization and low liquid product crossover, but to date has suffered low C<sub>2+</sub> product selectivity. Here we hypothesize that adjacent pairs of atomic-copper active sites may favour C–C coupling, thus facilitating C<sub>2+</sub> product formation. We construct tandem electrocatalysts with two distinct classes of active sites, the first for CO<sub>2</sub> to CO, and the second, a dual-atomic-site catalyst, for CO to C<sub>2+</sub>. This leads to an ethanol Faradaic efficiency of 46% and a C<sub>2+</sub> product Faradaic efficiency of 91% at 150 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> in an acidic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction. We document a CO<sub>2</sub> single-pass utilization of 78% and an energy efficiency of 30% towards C<sub>2+</sub> products; an ethanol crossover rate of 5%; and an ethanol product concentration of 4.5%, resulting in an exceptionally low projected energy cost of 249 GJ t<sup>-1</sup> for the electrosynthesis of ethanol via the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction.

The electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR), when powered using low-carbon-intensity electricity such as from wind and solar, offers a promising strategy to close the carbon cycle and synthesize valuable chemical compounds at a lowered carbon intensity<sup>1–3</sup>. Among CO<sub>2</sub>RR products, multicarbon (C<sub>2+</sub>) compounds, such as ethanol and ethylene, are of comparatively high value, and are therefore attractive reduction targets<sup>3–6</sup>.

Alkaline and neutral reaction media are often used in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR to enhance C<sub>2+</sub> product selectivity<sup>7–9</sup>. However, in these systems, the

OH<sup>-</sup> ions react with the input gaseous CO<sub>2</sub>, forming carbonate, leading to a best-case single-pass CO<sub>2</sub> conversion efficiency (SPCE) of 25% and a considerable energy cost to regenerate the lost CO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 1a,e)<sup>10–12</sup>. Reliance on anion-exchange membranes (AEMs) increases liquid product crossover to the anolyte, and on the anode these products are both oxidized and diluted. This limited product concentration and the loss in net conversion yield works against the goal of a high overall energy efficiency, that is, the estimated energy efficiency when product separation energy costs and electrolyser energy are taken into account<sup>13,14</sup>.

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**Fig. 1 | System schematic and energy analysis of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR to ethanol in alkaline, neutral and acidic systems. a**, Schematic of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR under alkaline or neutral conditions in a flow cell. **b**, The CO<sub>2</sub>RR system under acidic conditions (pH 1) in a flow-cell. CEM, cation-exchange membrane. **c**, Comparison of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR product distribution under acidic and alkaline conditions on

a planar-copper electrode. **d**, Comparison of the CO<sub>2</sub> SPCE and ethanol crossover between the CO<sub>2</sub>RR in acidic and alkaline/neutral conditions<sup>11–13</sup>. **e**, Comparison of the energy cost distribution in ethanol production between the CO<sub>2</sub>RR in acidic and alkaline conditions.

Seeking to enhance the overall energy efficiency of C<sub>2+</sub> product electrocatalysis from the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, we focused here on acidic electrocatalysis, where the acidic environment overcomes the problem of carbonate formation, and the cation-exchange membrane blocks liquid product crossover (Fig. 1b)<sup>15–19</sup>. Unfortunately, to date, the high concentration of H<sup>+</sup> ions in bulk acidic media has favoured the competing hydrogen evolution reaction over the CO<sub>2</sub>RR on catalytic active sites<sup>17,19,20</sup>, leaving considerable room to increase ethanol Faradaic efficiency (FE) beyond the levels seen to date in acidic systems.

In this article we developed a hybrid catalyst featuring a planar-copper and a coordinatively unsaturated dual-copper site, which provides distinct active sites for CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CO and CO-to-C<sub>2+</sub> conversion. The catalyst enables a tandem CO<sub>2</sub>RR pathway under acidic conditions, leading to an ethanol FE of 46% and a C<sub>2+</sub> FE of 91% at 150 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. Using catalytic system optimization, we demonstrate an exceptionally low projected energy cost for ethanol electrocatalysis via the CO<sub>2</sub>RR.

## Results and discussion

Initially, the CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of a previously reported planar-copper electrocatalyst was characterized under acidic conditions<sup>15,21</sup>. In a flow cell with pH 1 catholyte (0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 2.5 M KCl) and anolyte (0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>), a C<sub>2+</sub> FE of 42% (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> FE, 26%; C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH FE, 16%) (Fig. 1c and Supplementary Fig. 1) was achieved, lower than that observed under alkaline conditions<sup>21</sup> (Supplementary Fig. 2), the result of the higher FEs of CO and H<sub>2</sub> (refs. 19,20). However, the CO<sub>2</sub> SPCE is high at 32% under acidic conditions (Fig. 1d and Supplementary Fig. 3). Liquid product crossover (obtained by measuring the ethanol distribution in the catholyte and anolyte) is not evident and no detectable ethanol is found in the anolyte (Supplementary Fig. 4).

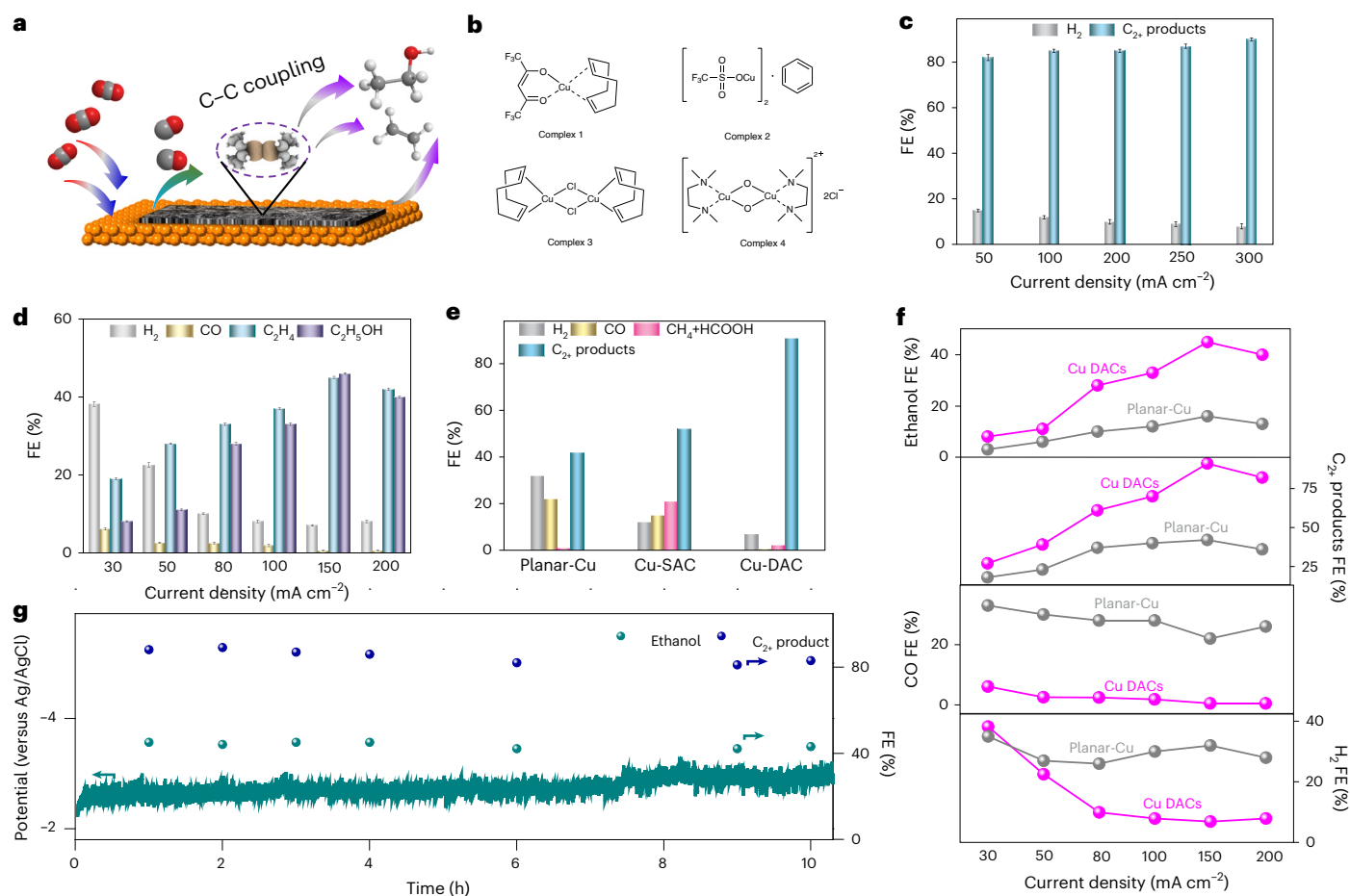
We then sought to explore how further to advance the catalyst with the goal of C<sub>2+</sub> product FE improvement under acidic conditions. A tandem approach is taken, with the first catalyst intended to catalyse

CO<sub>2</sub> to CO, and the second to catalyse CO to C<sub>2+</sub>. The planar-copper catalyst is used for CO<sub>2</sub> to CO, and to improve the second step, CO to C<sub>2+</sub>, coordinatively unsaturated sites with optimized CO\* binding are developed<sup>22–25</sup>.

To implement the coordinatively unsaturated sites, the use of an organic-ligand-supported copper complex was explored (Fig. 2b, complex 1 and complex 2). The catalytic CO\* to C<sub>2+</sub> product performance was evaluated by investigating the CORR activities. Copper complexes 1 and 2, with carbon nanoparticles as support, show an overall CORR FE of >80%, with a CH<sub>4</sub> FE of >20% and a C<sub>2+</sub> product FE of between 50% and 60% (Supplementary Figs. 5–8). The high CORR FE indicates that the complex does promote the conversion of CO\* species; but the low C<sub>2+</sub>/C<sub>1</sub> product FE ratio indicates that the single-copper-site complex does not, on its own, favour catalytic C<sub>2+</sub> product formation. This agrees well with DFT calculations that show a high adsorption energy of \*2CO and \*CO + \*COH on the single-copper catalyst (Supplementary Figs. 10 and 11).

A dual-metal-active-site approach seemed appropriate to catalyse molecular dimerization (Supplementary Fig. 12), something also seen in previous studies of C–N coupling in organocatalysis<sup>26–29</sup>, O–O coupling in water splitting<sup>30,31</sup> and C–C coupling in organocatalysis<sup>32,33</sup>. From density functional theory (DFT) studies of the free energy of CO adsorption and C–C coupling on dual-copper-site catalysts, we found that—compared with reference Cu(111)—dual-copper exhibits a lower CO adsorption energy, and decreased free energy for \*OCCO and \*HOC-COH, suggesting promise in C–C coupling (Supplementary Figs. 13–15).

Experimentally, to fabricate dual-copper active sites, copper complexes 3 and 4 were applied (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Fig. 16) on a carbon nanoparticle support, each cluster containing two copper atoms in a binuclear-copper structure. We reasoned that their Cu–Cu separation in the range 2.5–3.0 Å offers the prospect of balancing \*CO adsorption strength and C–C coupling<sup>34–37</sup> (Supplementary Note 3). The 1,5-cyclooctadiene (COD) ligand in complex 3 is known to be stable



a current density range of 30–200 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at pH 1. Values are means; error bars indicate s.d. ( $n = 3$  replicates). **e**, The CO<sub>2</sub>RR product distribution comparison between planar-copper, Cu-SACs and Cu-DACs electrodes at pH 1. **f**, Comparison of ethanol, C<sub>2+</sub> product, H<sub>2</sub> and CO FE in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR with Cu-DACs and planar-copper as the catalytic electrode. **g**, CO<sub>2</sub>RR stability performance of Cu-DACs during 10 h electrolysis with a current density of 150 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at pH 1.

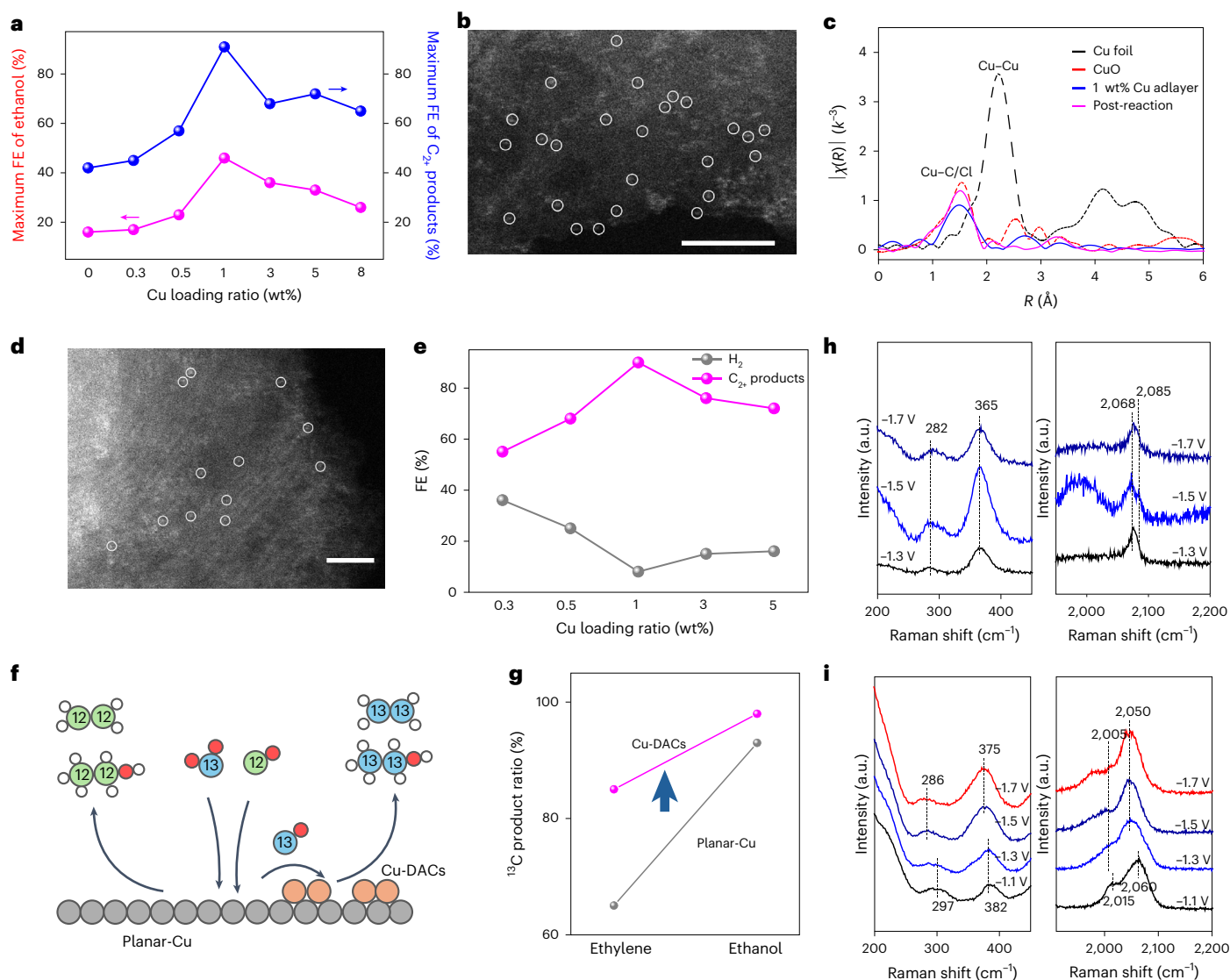
during catalysis, and thus holds promise in retaining the Cu–Cu structure and avoiding copper aggregation<sup>38,39</sup>. A C<sub>2+</sub> product selectivity of 70% is obtained with both Cu–Cu complexes (Fig. 2c and Supplementary Figs. 17–19). The best performance was from complex 3, which showed a C<sub>2+</sub> FE exceeding 80% across the range 50–300 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, reaching a peak of 90% at 300 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. Using DFT for complex 3, we found a low free energy for the formation of \*OCCO and \*HOCCOH, consistent with good C–C coupling (Supplementary Figs. 20 and 21).

Having studied the catalyst's CORR performance, we evaluated its acidic CO<sub>2</sub>RR behaviour using copper complex 3 to modify the planar-copper (denoted Cu-DACs) in bulk electrolyte with a pH of 1 (0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> + 2.5 M KCl). Nafion was used to optimize the local pH and hydrophobicity, and the catalyst amount was varied to match activity among the two layers (Fig. 2d and Supplementary Figs. 22–25). At catalytic current densities ranging from 80 to 200 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, the best Cu-DACs exhibit a combined H<sub>2</sub> + CO FE of <15%, and a C<sub>2+</sub> product FE of >80%. At a current density of 150 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, the Cu-DACs display a maximum ethanol FE of 46% and a C<sub>2+</sub> FE of 91%. Modification of the active-site layer caused an increase in the C<sub>2</sub> FE (from 42% to 91%) and ethanol FE (from 16% to 46%) (Fig. 2f), accompanied by a decrease in the H<sub>2</sub> FE (from 32% to 7%) and CO FE (from 22% to 0.5%). The C<sub>2+</sub>/C<sub>1</sub> hydrocarbon ratio is 41 for DACs compared with 2.5 for SACs (copper complex 1 layer modified planar-copper), a trend consistent with the

CORR results (Fig. 2e and Supplementary Figs. 26, 27). The catalytic stability of Cu-DACs was then evaluated in a 10 h electrolysis experiment (Fig. 2g), which showed that the catalytic current density, ethanol FE and C<sub>2</sub> product FE remain stable.

We investigated the loading of copper complex 3 (Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. 28) and found that increasing the copper loading from 0 to 1 wt% resulted in a progressive enhancement of ethanol/C<sub>2+</sub> product FE, while an increase of copper loading above 1% lowered the performance.

The precatalyst is characterized using aberration-corrected scanning transmission electron microscopy (Cs-corrected STEM), X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and X-ray diffraction spectroscopy (XRD) (Fig. 3b,c and Supplementary Figs. 29 and 30). High-angle annular dark-field STEM (HAADF-STEM) images show uniformly distributed copper sites (bright dots, marked by white circles in Fig. 3b) loaded on the carbon framework, without apparent copper nanoclusters or nanoparticles. Fourier-transformed,  $k^2$ -weighted extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra show a single main peak maximum for  $R < 2 \text{ \AA}$ , which can be attributed to Cu–C and Cu–Cl backscattering. Small peak maxima were present at  $R > 2 \text{ \AA}$ , which indicates limited Cu–Cu backscattering in the second coordination shell. These STEM images and XAS results agree with the copper-dimer structure.



**Fig. 3 | Surface characterization and operando spectroscopy studies of Cu-DACs.** **a**, Ethanol and  $C_{2+}$  product FE for the  $CO_2$ RR at pH 1 with Cu-DACs catalyst with different copper loading ratios (0, 0.3, 0.5, 1, 3, 5, 8 wt%). **b**, HAADF-STEM image of the dual-copper-active-site adlayer with 1 wt% copper loading. Scale bar, 2 nm. **c**, Fourier-transformed  $k^2$ -weighted EXAFS spectra of the dual-copper-active-site adlayer with 1 wt% copper loading before and after catalytic reaction. **d**, HAADF-STEM image of the dual-copper-active-site adlayer with 1 wt% copper loading after catalytic reaction. Scale bar, 5 nm. **e**, The CORR performance of the dual-copper-active-site adlayer with carbon paper as an electrode

substrate (copper loading, 0.3, 0.5, 1, 3, 5 wt%). **f**, Concept for the  $^{13}CO_2/^{12}CO$  co-reduction experiments.  $^{13}C$ , blue;  $^{12}C$ , green; oxygen, red; hydrogen, white. **g**, The comparison of  $^{13}C$  product ratio in ethylene and ethanol between planar-copper and Cu-DACs catalyst. **h**, Operando surface-enhanced Raman spectra of planar-copper electrode during the  $CO_2$ RR in acidic conditions. The results were obtained at a constant potential of  $-1.3$ ,  $-1.5$  and  $-1.7$  V versus RHE. **i**, Operando surface-enhanced Raman spectra of Cu-DACs electrode during the  $CO_2$ RR under acidic conditions. The results were obtained at a constant potential of  $-1.1$ ,  $-1.3$ ,  $-1.5$  and  $-1.7$  V versus RHE.

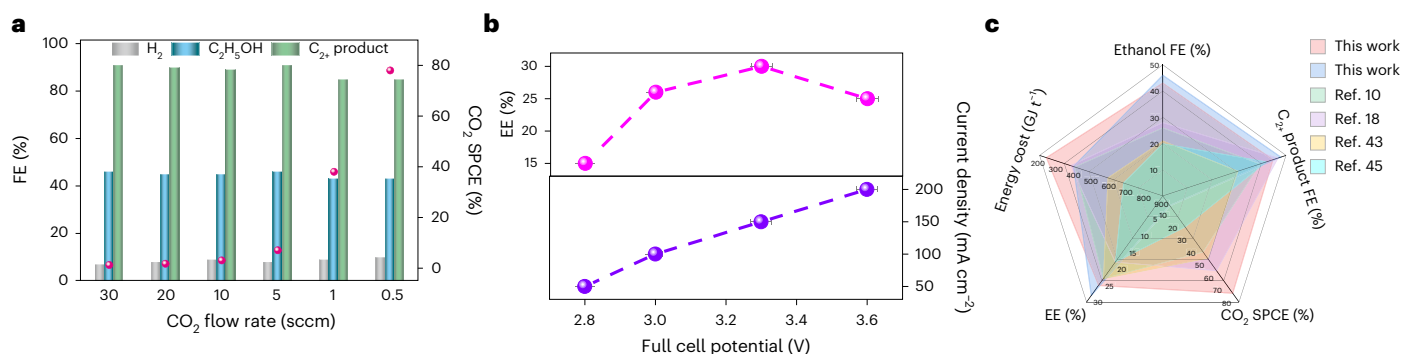
Post-reaction samples were then characterized (Fig. 3c,d and Supplementary Figs. 31 and 32). For 1 wt% Cu-DACs, HAADF-STEM images displayed atomic-level copper sites uniformly distributed on the carbon framework (Fig. 3d). The Fourier-transformed,  $k^2$ -weighted EXAFS spectra show a principal maximum at  $R < 2 \text{ \AA}$ , along with weaker peaks at  $R > 2 \text{ \AA}$  (Fig. 3c). The absence of a dominant Cu–Cu backscattering peak in the high- $R$  range suggests negligible formation of copper clusters. XRD showed comparable diffraction peaks as in the as-prepared Cu-DACs sample, with no apparent copper nanocluster or nanoparticle diffraction signal detected (Supplementary Fig. 31). We summarize that copper sites remain highly dispersed in the catalyst following catalytic reaction.

By contrast, for 5 wt% Cu-DACs, HAADF-STEM shows copper nanoclusters and nanoparticles on the carbon framework (Supplementary Fig. 33), with atomically dispersed copper species not detected. Similar

trends are observed when we compare operando XAS results, in which the 5 wt% dual-copper-site layer shows a Cu–Cu coordination number of around 8, consistent with copper clusters, whereas the 1 wt% dual-copper-site layer presented a Cu–Cu coordination number of below 4, much lower than the coordination number of 12 of copper foil<sup>40–42</sup> (Supplementary Figs. 34 and 35 and Supplementary Table 3). We suggest that, at high copper loadings, copper complex 3 is prone to aggregation, leading to the formation of copper nanocluster/nanoparticles, and that these reduce the availability of coordinatively unsaturated copper sites during catalytic process.

C–C coupling properties were then evaluated as a function of copper ratio (Fig. 3e). We found that, as the copper loading ratio increases from 0.3 wt% to 1 wt%, the  $C_{2+}$  product FE increases from 55% to 90%, accompanied by an  $H_2$  FE decrease from 36% to 8%. A further increase in copper ratio to 3 wt% and 5 wt% results in a decrease in  $C_{2+}$  FE and





**Fig. 4 | SPCE and energy analysis of a full-cell system.** **a**, Ethanol and  $C_{2+}$  product FE, and calculated  $CO_2$  SPCE of Cu-DACs catalyst under different  $CO_2$  flow rates under pH 1 acidic conditions (right axis is associated with column data; left axis is associated with spot data). **b**, The measured full cell voltage (without *iR* compensation) and calculated energy efficiency (EE) towards  $C_{2+}$  products of

Cu-DACs catalyst in a slim flow cell under pH 1 acidic conditions. Values are means; error bars indicate s.d. ( $n = 3$  replicates). **c**, Comparison of ethanol FE,  $C_{2+}$  product FE,  $CO_2$  SPCE, EE and the ethanol production total energy cost of Cu-DACs with state-of-the-art  $CO_2$ RR catalyst<sup>10,18,43,45</sup>. Red, performance obtained in a system with a CEM; blue, performance obtained in a system with a BPM.

an increase in  $H_2$  FE. The best performance was achieved with a 1 wt% copper loading ratio, a finding that accords with the characterization and acidic  $CO_2$ RR results, where distributed coordinatively unsaturated Cu–Cu active sites support selective  $C_{2+}$  product generation.

Operando Raman spectroscopy was used to probe surface-adsorbed CO, an important reaction intermediate in the  $CO_2$ RR to  $C_{2+}$  (Fig. 3h,i). We observe the CO characteristic stretching vibration ( $\nu(CO_{atop})$ ) in the range 1,850–2,100  $cm^{-1}$ , and the Cu–CO characteristic peaks ( $\nu(Cu-CO)$ ) in the range of 250–400  $cm^{-1}$  (refs. 43–45). For Cu-DACs, the  $\nu(CO_{atop})$  peaks are located at 2,060 and 2,015  $cm^{-1}$  under –1.1/–1.3 V, and 2,050 and 2,005  $cm^{-1}$  under –1.5/–1.7 V, lower than 2,085 and 2,068  $cm^{-1}$  on planar-copper under all applied potentials, indicating its stronger binding strength of  $CO_{atop}$ . This also agrees with the higher  $\nu(Cu-CO)$  of Cu-DACs at 297 and 382  $cm^{-1}$ , under –1.1/–1.3 V, and 286 and 375  $cm^{-1}$  under –1.5/–1.7 V, compared with that of planar-copper at 282 and 365  $cm^{-1}$  under all applied potentials. We attribute the red-shift of Raman signals at higher applied potential to the Stark effect at a high applied electric field. For  $\nu(CO_{atop})$ , the high-frequency bands (HFBs) at 2,060, 2,050  $cm^{-1}$  (Cu-DACs) and 2,085  $cm^{-1}$  (planar-copper) are assigned to the  $CO_{atop}$  on low-coordinated and defect-like sites, and the lower frequency bands (LFBs) at 2,015, 2,005  $cm^{-1}$  (Cu-DACs) and 2,068  $cm^{-1}$  (planar-copper) to the  $CO_{atop}$  on fully coordinated copper surface sites<sup>22,23</sup>. We identified an increased HFB/LFB ratio on Cu-DACs compared to planar-copper, which is in good agreement with the Raman signals of complex 3 modified carbon sample (Supplementary Figs. 36 and 37), corresponding to increased coordinatively unsaturated sites by a modified dual-copper active site<sup>22,46</sup>.

Next, we studied the tandem catalytic pathway by comparing activity and also using isotope-labelled  $^{13}CO_2/^{12}CO$  co-feeding experiments<sup>47</sup>. We first evaluated the acidic  $CO_2$ RR performance of carbon electrodes modified with complex 1 and complex 3 (Supplementary Figs. 41 and 42). Both samples show a hydrogen evolution reaction FE of >55%; complex 1 presents a  $C_1$  product FE of ~20% and complex 3 presents a  $C_{2+}$  product FE of ~30%. These results indicate the moderate activity of these complexes to directly catalyse the reduction of  $CO_2$ , which can be attributed to their limited capacity to convert  $CO_2$  to CO. We further modified sputtered silver, which was reported to be an excellent catalyst for  $CO_2$  to CO conversion, with the dual-copper-active-site layer. Compared with bare silver, the modified silver electrode exhibits a decreased CO FE from 80% to 40%, and an increased  $C_{2+}$  FE from 0% to 20% (Supplementary Figs. 43–45). This result is consistent with the ability of the dual-copper-active-site layer to convert the in situ generated CO to  $C_{2+}$  products.

An isotope-labelled  $^{13}CO_2/^{12}CO$  co-feeding experiment on planar-copper and Cu-DACs was performed<sup>47</sup> (Fig. 3f,g, Supplementary

Figs. 46–51 and Supplementary Note 4). Under a 5%  $^{12}CO$  and 95%  $^{13}CO_2$  feed gas, the planar-copper presented a  $^{13}C/^{12}C$  ratio of 65/35 in the resultant ethylene, and 93/7 in the ethanol. The lower  $^{13}C$  ratio in products compared with feed gas can be attributed to the faster CO reduction kinetics. In contrast, for Cu-DACs, we observe a large increase of the  $^{13}C$ -related products, with a  $^{13}C/^{12}C$  ratio of 83/17 in the produced ethylene, and an approximate 98/2 in the produced ethanol based on a nearly negligible  $^{12}C$ -ethanol NMR signal. This increased  $^{13}C$  ratio is consistent with increased  $CO_2$  conversion to  $C_2$  products in the case of the optimized catalyst. The difference in  $^{13}C/^{12}C$  ratio between ethylene and ethanol suggests that their pathways diverge after the C–C coupling step, a finding we correlate with C–O bond strength. Given that most current tandem systems rely on an additional layer to promote  $CO_2$ –CO conversion, there is ongoing debate about whether this layer functions as part of the tandem pathway, or whether instead its main role is to alter the local pH in acidic conditions<sup>47–49</sup>. The present study focuses instead on enhancing the CO-to- $C_{2+}$  step.

We then studied carbon- and energy-efficiency by using the optimized catalyst in a full-cell system. At a  $CO_2$  input flow rate of 0.5 sccm, we obtained ethanol and  $C_{2+}$  product FEs of 43% and 85% at 150  $mA\ cm^{-2}$ , respectively (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Figs. 52–56). This enables a  $CO_2$  SPCE of 78% towards  $C_{2+}$  products, surpassing the limit of 25% in alkaline and neutral systems, an advance in performance relative to previously reported acidic ethanol-producing  $CO_2$ RR systems<sup>10,15,17–19,50,51</sup>. In comparison, under alkaline conditions, the same catalyst achieves a  $CO_2$  SPCE of 18%, indicating the role of  $CO_2$  back-conversion in acidic electrolytes to achieve high  $CO_2$  SPCE (Supplementary Fig. 57).

In a slim flow cell, a measured full-cell voltage of 3.3 V at 150  $mA\ cm^{-2}$  is obtained (Fig. 4b), corresponding to an energy efficiency of 30% and 16% towards  $C_{2+}$  products and ethanol, respectively, also an improvement over previous reports<sup>10,15,51</sup>. We accumulated the ethanol in the catholyte but found that the ethanol concentration was low (~1 wt%), probably due to the poor water balance provided in the cation-exchange membrane system and electro-osmotic drag of water from the anolyte to catholyte<sup>52,53</sup>.

We used a bipolar membrane (BPM) system to improve water balance and suppress crossover. We found that 95% of the ethanol remained in the catholyte, and therein ethanol accumulated to a concentration of 4.5 wt% following 10 h of continuous electrolysis (Supplementary Fig. 58). Based on the overall catalytic performance in the BPM-based full-cell system (Supplementary Fig. 60), we estimate an energy cost of 249  $GJ\ t^{-1}$  for ethanol production and separation, taken together—a 1.6-fold improvement over that of the most energy-efficient direct  $CO_2$ -to-ethanol electrocatalytic systems previously reported<sup>10,15,18,21,54–58</sup> (Fig. 4c and Supplementary Table 4).

## Conclusions

In this work, we studied how pursuing the synthesis of atomic-level active sites enables suppression of the production of H<sub>2</sub> and CO, and promoted multicarbon product electrosynthesis by the CO<sub>2</sub>RR under acidic conditions. Coordinatively unsaturated dual-copper sites on planar-copper are constructed, providing distinct active sites for CO\* to C<sub>2</sub> conversion, steering products from CO and H<sub>2</sub> to ethylene and ethanol. The best catalysts achieved a 46% ethanol FE and a 91% C<sub>2+</sub> FE at 150 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> current density. This, when combined with catalytic system optimization, enabled us to estimate a total energy cost of 249 GJ t<sup>-1</sup> for ethanol electrosynthesis from CO<sub>2</sub>RR, a 1.6-fold improvement compared with the best previous acidic CO<sub>2</sub>-to-ethanol reports.

## Methods

### Chemicals and materials

Potassium chloride (KCl), sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 98%), potassium hydroxide (KOH), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), deuterated water, 5% Nafion perfluorinated resin solution and methanol were used as purchased from Sigma Aldrich. CO<sub>2</sub>, CO (grade 4) was purchased from Praxair, and argon (grade 5) was purchased from Messer. The carbon nanoparticle was purchased from Alfa Aesar (39724, 75 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>). Copper complex 1 (copper(I) hexafluoro-2,4-pentanedionate 1,5-cyclooctadiene), copper complex 2 (2(di-μ-hydroxo-bis[(N,N,N',N'-tetramethylethylenediamine)copper(II)] chloride), and copper complex 4 (copper(I) trifluoromethanesulfonate benzene complex) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Copper complex 3 (copper(I) hexafluoro-2,4-pentanedionate 1,5-cyclooctadiene) was purchased from TCI Chemicals. The cation-exchange membrane (Nafion 117) and the anion-exchange membrane (Fumasep FAA-PK-130) were purchased from the Fuel Cell Store. The PTFE gas diffusion layer (pore size, 450 nm) was purchased from the Beijing Zhongxingweiye Instrument. Deionized water (18.2 MΩ) was used in all the experiments.

### Preparation of catalytic electrode

The planar-copper electrode was prepared by sputtering pure copper (>99.99%) onto PTFE substrates in a vacuum environment (-10<sup>-5</sup>–10<sup>-6</sup> torr) of an Angstrom Nexdep system. The deposition rate during sputtering was maintained at a constant value of 1 Å s<sup>-1</sup>, and the thickness of copper catalyst layer was 200 nm.

For the atomic-copper-active-site layers, the copper complex was first utilized to modify the carbon material in the following manner: initially, 60 mg of carbon nanoparticles was combined with 10 ml of methanol, forming solution 1. Concurrently, a calculated amount (0.6, 1, 2, 6, 10, 16 mg, corresponding to 0.3, 0.5, 1, 3, 5, 8 wt% copper samples) of copper complex was added to another 10 ml of methanol, creating solution 2. Both solutions 1 and 2 were then sonicated for 2 h. Subsequently, solution 2 was added to solution 1, and the resulting mixture was sonicated for 2 h. The resulting mixture solution was vigorously stirred for 24 h at room temperature. Finally, the catalyst was obtained by centrifugation, washed with methanol three times, and dried in vacuum condition at room temperature.

The atomic-copper-active-site layers were applied to modify the planar-copper by a spray-coating method. First, 13 mg of sample was mixed with 150 μl of Nafion solution and 20 ml of methanol to create a spray-coating ink. The ink was then sonicated for 5 h to achieve a homogeneous solution. Subsequently, the ink was sprayed onto the planar-copper electrode with a loading of 0.22 ml cm<sup>-2</sup>. After spray-coating, the electrode was left to dry at room temperature for over 12 h to ensure complete adhesion of the modification layer. The obtained electrode was then activated under 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> cathodic electrolysis for 10 min under CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere with pH 1 electrolyte (0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> + 2.5 M KCl), resulting in Cu-DACs and Cu-SACs.

The silver sample modified with a dual-copper-active-site layer was prepared using the same procedure, with the planar-copper replaced by sputtered silver.

## Structural characterization

Cs-corrected STEM analysis was carried out on a Thermo Fisher ThemisZ transmission electron microscope operated at 300 kV. The electron beam current was tuned to ~60 pA. The convergence angle during STEM measurement was set to be 21 mrad. The inner- and outer-collection angles of the HAADF detector were 64 mrad and 200 mrad, respectively. XRD analysis was performed on a MiniFlex600 system that utilized Cu Kα radiation. XPS measurements were conducted using a PerkinElmer model 5600, which was equipped with a 1,486.6 eV monochromated Al Kα X-ray source. The ex situ XAS was performed at beamline 9BM of the Advanced Photon Source (Argonne National Laboratory). To characterize the post-reaction modified active-site layer, the sample was collected by carefully scraping it from the post-reaction electrode.

### Operando XAS spectroscopy

Operando XAS was carried out under the same conditions as electrochemical testing using the designed flow cell with an opening sealed by Kapton tape in the gas chamber. X-rays were allowed to transmit through the tape, so that the XAS signal could be collected in total-fluorescence-yield mode at the 12B2 beamline of SPring-8 (NSRRC). For the operando XAS investigation on the dual-copper-active-site layer during the CO<sub>2</sub>RR process, carbon paper was used to replace the planar-copper, to eliminate copper signals from the planar-copper.

### Electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub>RR measurements

Electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub>RR measurements were conducted in a flow-cell system under galvanostatic mode unless stated otherwise. In a typical flow-cell system, the catalyst-deposited gas-diffusion electrode (GDE) was used as the working electrode (cathode), an Ag/AgCl electrode was served as the reference electrode and IrO<sub>x</sub>/Ti was used as the counter-electrode (anode). A cation-exchange membrane (Nafion 117) was used to separate the cathodic and anodic compartments. With a peristaltic pump (Thermo Fisher), pH 1 acidic electrolyte (0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 2.5 M KCl) was circulated in the cathodic compartments as catholyte, and 0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution was circulated in the anodic compartments as anolyte. CO<sub>2</sub> was supplied behind the GDE using a mass flow controller (Sierra SmartTrack 100), and the flow rate is adjusted to be 30 sccm, unless stated otherwise. All the electrochemical measurements were carried out using an electrochemical workstation (Autolab PGSTAT302N) connected to a current booster (Metrohm Autolab, 10A).

### Electrochemical CORR measurements

Electrochemical CORR measurements were conducted in the same flow-cell system as the CO<sub>2</sub>RR measurements, under galvanostatic mode unless stated otherwise, both in 1 M KOH and 0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> + 2.5 M KCl electrolyte. Several modifications are made for the CORR set-up: the feed gas behind the GDE was changed to CO; in 1 M KOH electrolyte, the counter-electrode (anode) was changed to a nickel-foam electrode, and the separating membrane was changed to an anion-exchange membrane (Fumasep FAA-PK-130).

### Product analysis and performance evaluation

The gas products from the CO<sub>2</sub>RR/CORR were analysed using a Shimadzu GC-2014 gas chromatograph, equipped with both a thermal conductivity detector and a flame ionization detector. During the product analysis, 1 ml gas sample was collected from the gas outlet of the flow cell by an airtight syringe (Hamilton, 5 ml), and then injected into the gas chromatograph. A 5 Å molecular sieve and a Carboxen-1000 column were installed upstream from the thermal conductivity and flame ionization detectors, respectively, to separate the H<sub>2</sub>, CO and gaseous hydrocarbons. H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and CO were measured by the thermal conductivity detector, and CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> were measured by the flame ionization detector.

The liquid products were quantified by  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy with a 600 MHz Agilent DD2 NMR spectrometer. DMSO was used as an internal standard and deuterium oxide was used as the lock solvent.

The FE was calculated by the following equations:

$$\text{FE}_{\text{gas}} = \frac{z \times F \times \nu \times r}{j \times V_{\text{m}}}$$

and

$$\text{FE}_{\text{liquid}} = \frac{z \times F \times n_{\text{product}}}{Q}$$

where  $z$  is the number of electrons transferred for the formation of a specific product molecule,  $F$  is Faraday's constant, which has a value of  $96,485 \text{ C mol}^{-1}$ ,  $\nu$  is the gas flow rate at the outlet of the gas chamber ( $\text{l min}^{-1}$ ),  $r$  is the concentration of detected gas product in parts per million,  $j$  is the total current (A),  $V_{\text{m}}$  is the unit molar volume of gas, which has a value of  $24.5 \text{ l mol}^{-1}$ ,  $n_{\text{product}}$  is the total moles of the specific product derived from NMR analysis and  $Q$  is the total charge (C).

The  $\text{CO}_2$  SPCE towards each product was calculated by the following equation at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ , 1 atm:

$$\text{SPCE} = \frac{(j \times \text{FE}_{\text{product}} \times 60\text{s}) / (n \times F)}{(\nu \times 1 \text{ min}) / V_{\text{m}}}$$

where  $j$  is the catalytic current density,  $\text{FE}_{\text{product}}$  is the FE of a specific product and  $n$  is the number of electrons transferred for the formation of a specific product molecule.

The full-cell energy efficiency for each product was calculated by the following equation:

$$\text{EE}_{\text{product}} = \frac{(1.23 + (-E_{\text{product}}^0)) \times \text{FE}_{\text{product}}}{-E_{\text{cell}}}$$

where  $E_{\text{product}}^0$  is the thermodynamic potential for the formation of a specific product and  $E_{\text{cell}}$  is the full-cell voltage without ohmic loss correction evaluated in the slim flow cell.

## Data availability

Data that support the findings of this study can be found in the Article and its Supplementary Information.

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## Author contributions

E.H.S., D.S. and L.S. supervised the project. L.F. and T.L. conceived the idea and performed the materials preparation and analysis. L.F. performed the electrochemical experiments. F.L. performed the DFT calculations. J.E.H., Y.Y. and C.W. performed operando Raman experiments. S.F. and C.W.T. carried out the TEM experiments. S.-F.H., H.-J.T., M.-C.C., D.K., S.P. and P.P. performed the XAS measurements and data analysis. L.F. and Y.Y. performed the isotopically labelled experiments. R.D. conducted the energy analysis. R.K.M. assisted with the slim flow-cell measurement. F.L. assisted with the bipolar membrane system measurement. A.S.Z. assisted with research advice and discussions. Y.B. carried out post-reaction sample analysis. All authors contributed to review and editing of the manuscript.

## Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

## Additional information

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