Supplementary Information

A hydrophobic Cu/Cu2O sheet catalyst for selective electroreduction of CO to ethanol

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The formation of ethanol starts by the C-C coupling step leading to $*C_2O_2$ species, whose energy is close to the reference (pristine surface and gas phase CO) (Supplementary Figs. 23-24). This is a limiting step of the reaction on (111) surface. For several initial adsorption configurations, a spontaneous dissociation of C_2O_2 into two CO molecules is observed during the simulation. However, if the electron transfer, decoupled from the proton transfer, occurs already at this step, it can be stabilized. Besides, this species can be stabilized by solvent molecules. Therefore, the applied electrode potential of -0.70 V vs RHE ensures the feasibility of ethanol formation with Cu₂O catalyst. All consecutive reaction steps are exergonic ($\Delta_r G < 0$) with gradually decreasing Gibbs free energy. The energy of adsorption on the (111) Cu2O surface is particularly favorable for the hydrogen-rich intermediates, such as $^{\ast}C_{2}OH$, *C2H2O, *C2H3O and *C2H5O. In particular, Cucus sites are important for stabilizing these species through the interaction with non-polar carbon C, to which H atoms are progressively attached. The Cucus–C distance in these intermediates is relatively short (1.8-1.9 Å), suggesting a strong interaction between the adsorbate and the surface. Besides, the Cu_{cus} site participates in the stabilization of $^{\ast}C_2H_5O$ adsorption via O atom. Therefore, the appropriate surface structure of the employed electrocatalyst predetermines its efficiency in the ethanol formation reaction.

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Supplementary Table 1| Summary of aqueous $CO₂/CO$ performance on Cu**based electrodes**.

COSMO-RS calculation

In this work, BP functional combined with def2-TZVPD basis set was employed to carry out the quantum chemical COSMO calculations for CO, water and n-butylamine molecules. After obtaining their COSMO files, COSMO-RS calculations were subsequently performed using COSMOtherm C30 1601 program [54, 55] to evaluate the macroscopic solubility of CO in water and n-butylamine respectively.

Supplementary Table 2| CO solubility. CO solubility (mole fraction) in water and n-butylamine at 298.15 K and 101.325 kPa calculated by COSMO-RS theory

Molecular dynamics simulations

Molecular dynamics simulations were performed to obtain the diffusion coefficients of CO in water and n-butylamine with Gromacs 2019.6 program package [56]. 10 CO molecules and 560 water or n-butylamine molecules were packed into the simulation boxes using Packmol program [57]; it is worth mentioning that the system size has been reported to be enough to gain the reliable CO diffusion coefficients in the molecular solvents [58]. The water molecule adopted the SPC/E (Extended Simple Point Charge) model and the n-butylamine molecule used the classical GAFF force field [59], whereas the parameters of CO were taken from the literature [58]. The restrained electrostatic potential (RESP) method was employed to get partial charges of the systems. The initial systems were energetically minimized with the convergence criteria of 100 kJ⋅mol⁻¹/nm. Following that, NPT ensembles were used to perform 80 ns simulations to make the systems verge to equilibrium. The temperature was set at 298.15 K with the velocity-rescale heat bath [60], while the pressure was controlled by Berendsen algorithm for the former 30 ns and Parrinello-Rahman scheme for the last 50 ns [61, 62]. The long-range coulomb interactions were calculated by particle mesh Ewald (PME) method [63]. The LINCS algorithm [64] was used to constrain all the bonds connecting with hydrogen. The equations of motion were integrated by the leap-frog algorithm and the time step was set to 2 fs. After the simulation boxes equilibrium reached, the last frame of simulation trajectory was chosen as the initial configuration to carry out another 50 ns NVT production simulation for the diffusion coefficient calculations.

Supplementary Table 3| Diffusion coefficients of CO. Diffusion coefficients of CO in water and n-butylamine at 298.15 K calculated by molecular dynamics simulations

> S *N* **s** *m***_{s**} *m <i>m m n m n m n* \mathbf{D} (m²/s)

Supplementary Table 4| Elemental analysis of Cu catalysts.

Samples	C(%)	N(%)
$Cu/Cu2O-H$	2.012	0.532
$Cu/Cu2O-A$ (before reaction)	2.136	0.680
$Cu/Cu2O-A$ (after 100 hours reaction)	2.108	0.671
$Cu/Cu2O-S$	5.776	1.672
Cu-butyl-A	2.098	0.668

Supplementary Table 5. Energetics of formation of oxygen vacancies on pristine and n-butylamine coated surfaces at U=-0.70 eV (1/4 layer coverage).

The survival of $Cu₂O$ implies that the departure of oxygen atoms from the $Cu₂O$ surface is energetically hindered. Our DFT calculations demonstrate that, in fact, the formation of oxygen vacancies is energetically impeded on the n-butylamine-coated Cu2O surface, as compared to the pristine one (Supplementary Table 5), according to both reactions:

$$
Cu2O = Cu2Ovac + 1/2O2
$$
 (1)
\n
$$
Cu2O + 2(H+ + e-) = Cu2Ovac + H2O
$$
 (2)

Besides, the presence of hydrophobic n-butylamine on the surface increases the chemical potential of water. This happens both due to the increase of the internal energy of water (*E*) within the hydrophobic layer originating from the unfavorable hydrophobic interactions between the water molecules and hydrocarbon chains of nbutylamine and due to the restriction of the phase space (*Q*), accessible for water molecules within the hydrophobic environment of n-butylamine coating (hydrophobic n-butylamine repels water molecules):

$$
\mu_{H_2O} = E_{H_2O} - RTlnQ \tag{3}
$$

where μ , E , Q stand for chemical potential, electronic energy and sum over states,

respectively.

As a consequence, the formation of oxygen vacancies, and thus departure of O atoms and reduction of the Cu2O towards the pristine Cu becomes even more unfavorable, since water molecules being able to approach the Cu2O surface is a prerequisite of the oxygen vacancy formation reaction taking place (in fact, direct reaction $Cu_2O = Cu_2O_{vac} + \frac{1}{2}O_2$ is much more unfavorable than the watermediated one). The corresponding Gibbs free energy diagrams are demonstrated in the Supplementary Fig.25.

Another factor that plays a role here is that the oxygen vacancy formation process is less energetically favorable than the isoelectronic process of CO reduction at the C2O formation stage, when 2 electrons are transferred from the surface (Supplementary Fig.26). Thus, under the reaction conditions oxygen vacancy formation is not competitive with the CO coupling and reduction process.

All these factors make the departure of oxygen atoms and destruction of Cu₂O phase unfavorable in the presence of n-butylamine.

The detailed calculation of Faradaic efficiency is as below:

Double standard method: Firstly, a series of standard ethanol and acetic acid solutions were prepared as shown in Supplementary Table 6. The ¹H-NMR peak areas of ethanol, acetic acid and DMSO are proportional to their moles, so we defined the correction factor $f = \frac{A_S/n_s}{A_r/n_r}$, where *As* and *Ar* are the areas of the internal standard (DMSO) and standard product (ethanol or acetic acid), respectively; *ns* and *nr* are the amounts (in mol) of the internal standard (DMSO) and standard product (ethanol or acetic acid), respectively. As shown in Table 6, the average values of *fethanol* and *facetic acid* are 14.383 and 8.183, respectively. For the electrolyte reacted for 0.5 h at the potential of -0.7 V vs RHE (Supplementary Figure 27 and Supplementary Table 6), the areas of ethanol and acetic acid are 4.49 and 1.41, respectively. Thus the calculated amounts corresponding to ethanol and acetic acid in 0.5 mL electrolyte are 8.266×10^{-6} mol and 1.477×10^{-6} mol, respectively. The total amount of ethanol in the catholyte (30 mL) is 4.960×10^{-4} mol, and the total amount of acetic acid in the catholyte is 8.862×10^{-5} mol. All the samples were measured at least three times and

the amount of ethanol is calculated to be 4.946×10^{-4} mol, 4.911×10^{-4} mol, $4.960 \times$ 10^{-4} mol and the amount of acetic acid is calculated to be 6.125 \times 10⁻⁵ mol, 7.198 \times 10^{-5} mol, 8.862×10^{-5} mol at -0.7 V versus RHE and 2.0 M KOH electrolyte, respectively. So the average of the amount of ethanol and acetic acid in catholyte are 4.939×10^{-4} mol and 7.395×10^{-5} mol, respectively.

External method can also be employed to calculate the FEs of the liquid products. As shown in Supplementary Table 6 and Supplementary Figure 28, the NMR peak areas of standard samples are proportional to their mole numbers. According to the linear fit of ethanol and acetic acid, the mole numbers of ethanol and acetic acid in 0.5 mL electrolyte are 8.280×10^{-6} mol and 1.474×10^{-6} mol, respectively. The total amount of ethanol in the catholyte (30 mL) is 4.968×10^{-4} mol, and the total amount of acetic acid in the catholyte is 8.844×10^{-5} mol. These results are consistent with that calculated by double standard method.

For the liquid products in the CO off-gas, the NMR peak areas of the liquid products also are proportional to their mole numbers. According to the areas ratio of the internal standard (DMSO) to ethanol and acetic acid, the mole ratio of ethanol and acetic acid to DMSO in 0.5 mL washing solution are 1.74 and 0.22, respectively $\frac{S_{ethanol}}{c}$ $\frac{S_{\text{EMSO}}}{S_{\text{DMSO}}} \times \frac{6}{3} = \frac{0.87}{1.00} \times \frac{6}{3} = \frac{n_{ethanol}}{n_{\text{DMSO}}} = 1.74$, $\frac{S_{\text{acetic acid}}}{S_{\text{DMSO}}} \times \frac{6}{3} = \frac{0.11}{1.00} \times \frac{6}{3} = \frac{n_{\text{acetic acid}}}{n_{\text{DMSO}}} =$ 0.22). As the mole numbers of DMSO in 0.1 mL D₂O is 1.28×10^{-7} mol, so the mole numbers of ethanol and acetic acid in 0.5 mL washing solution are 2.23×10^{-7} and 2.82×10^{-8} mol, respectively. So the total ethanol and acetic acid in 30 mL washing solution are 1.338×10^{-5} and 1.692×10^{-6} mol, respectively. All the samples were measured at least three times and the average amount of ethanol is calculated to be 1.337×10^{-5} mol (based on three measurements: 1.338×10^{-5} mol, 1.178×10^{-5} mol, 1.496×10^{-5} mol) and the average amount of acetic acid is calculated to be 1.623 \times 10^{-6} mol (based on three measurements: 1.692×10^{-6} mol, 1.361×10^{-6} mol, $1.815 \times$ 10-6 mol) obtain from the the CO off-gas liquid at -0.7 V versus RHE and 2.0 M KOH electrolyte, respectively.

The same calculation methods as above can also be applied for the calculation of amount of ethanol and acetic acid in the anolyte, thus accoding to Figure S27b the mole number of ethanol in anolyte is calculated to be 1.246×10^{-5} mol, the mole number of acetic acid in anolyte is calculated to be 1.815×10^{-6} mol. All the samples

were measured at least three times and the average amount of ethanol is calculated to be 1.239 \times 10⁻⁵ mol (based on three measurements: 1.246 \times 10⁻⁵ mol, 1.209 \times 10⁻⁵ mol, 1.262×10^{-5} mol) and the average amount of acetic acid is calculated to be 1.815 \times 10⁻⁶ mol (based on three measurements: 1.815 \times 10⁻⁶ mol, 1.512 \times 10⁻⁶ mol, 2.117 \times 10⁻⁶ mol) obtain from the anolyte at -0.7 V versus RHE and 2.0 M KOH electrolyte, respectively.

Based on the above results, the total mole number of ethanol at -0.7 V versus RHE and 2.0 M KOH electrolyte is 5.197×10^{-4} mol $(4.939 \times 10^{-4}$ mol $+ 1.337 \times 10^{-5}$ mol $+ 1.239 \times 10^{-5}$ mol = 5.197 \times 10⁻⁴ mol) and the total mole number of acetic acid at -0.7 V versus RHE and 2.0 M KOH electrolyte is 7.739×10^{-5} mol $(7.395 \times 10^{-5}$ mol $+ 1.623 \times 10^{-6}$ mol $+ 1.815 \times 10^{-6}$ mol =7.739 $\times 10^{-5}$ mol). The overall charge for the reaction is $2\times0.162\times3600\times0.5=583.2$ C in 0.5 h, where the charge is 5.197×10^{-7} $4 \times 8 \times 96485 = 401.1$ C for the production of ethanol and it is 7.739 $\times 10^{-5} \times 4 \times 96485 = 29.9$ C for acetic acid. Therefore at -0.7 V versus RHE and 2.0 M KOH electrolyte, the FE of ethanol is 68.78% ($FE = \frac{401.1}{583.2} \times 100\% = 68.78\%$) and the FE of acetic acid is 5.13% ($FE = \frac{29.9}{583.2} \times 100\% = 5.13\%$).

Standard Samples	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4	Sample 5
Mass (ethanol)	0.3 g	0.6 g	0.66 g	0.9 g	1.2 _g
Mass (acetic acid)	0.07 g	0.14 g	0.154 g	0.21 g	0.28 g
Volume $(m L)$	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
Amount of ethanol in 0.5 mL standard solution (n _{ethanol})	3.256×10^{-6} mol	6.512×10^{-6} mol	7.163×10^{-6} mol	9.768×10^{-6} mol	1.302×10^{-5} mol
Amount of acetic acid in 0.5 mL standard solution $(n_{\text{acetic acid}})$	5.828×10^{-7} mol	1.166×10^{-6} mol	1.282×10^{-6} mol	1.749×10^{-6} mol	2.331×10^{-6} mol
Peak area of ethanol $(A_{ethanol})$	1.78	3.52	3.92	5.26	7.07
Peak area of acetic acid $(A_{\text{acetic acid}})$	0.55	1.11	1.23	1.69	2.22
Peak area of DMSO (A_r)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Correction factor of ethanol $(f_{ethanol})$	14.291	14.453	14.276	14.508	14.387
Correction factor of acetic acid (<i>facetic acid</i>)	8.278	8.207	8.143	8.085	8.203

Supplementary Table 6| Summary for the standard samples

In a full collection protocol, a flask of water for washing the CO off-gas was added to collect the liquid products before CO exhausted and the flow rate of the outlet was monitored with a flow meter (Fig. S29a). To identify the crossover of the liquid-phase products formed during the CORR, the catholyte, anolyte and water in the flask were collected and analyzed using ¹H-NMR. The results for CORR were exhibited in Supplementary Figs. 16-17 and 22. And the results showed that liquid products indeed migrated across GDE and AEM. By adding up all of these detected products, the total FE reached 100±3%, confirming that the liquid products in the CO off-gas and anolyte were the "missing" products. Acetone, acetaldehyde and propionaldehyde were only detected in the CO off-gas but not in the catholyte and anolyte. This should be attributed to the low production rates and high volatility.

To elucidate the carbon balance path, flow meters were used to monitor the inlet and outlet flow out of the reactor (Fig. S29a). Figs. S29b-d show the outlet flow rate as a function of current density. When $J=0$ mA cm⁻², there's no obvious discrepancy in the flow rate between gas inlet and outlet. As current densities increased, the outlet rate gradually decreased in all the electrolytes, which corresponds to a gradual enhancement in the consumption rate of CO. In addition, as OH- cannot react with CO, the outlet flows are approximately equivalent to inlet flows at low current densities in basic solution. And the basic electrolytes cannot change the outlet flow rates, which is different from the CO2RR in basic electrolyte (Energy Environ. Sci., 2020, 13, 977). For the final carbon balance (Supplementary Table 7), the unreacted CO flow rate after the reactor and consumed CO flow rate for the conversion into products added up to a total of \sim 20 mL min⁻¹ at various current densities, which was equal to CO inlet flow rate used in the experiment.

Supplementary Table 7| Carbon balance in KOH solution (*J* is the current density; $\phi_{CO\ to\ gas}$ is consumption rate of CO to gas products; $\phi_{CO\ to\ liquid}$ is consumption rate of CO to liquid products; $\varphi_{residual\ CO}$ is outlet flow rate of CO).

$Cu/Cu2O-A 2.0 M KOH$							
$(mA cm-2)$	$\varphi_{CO\ to\ gas}$	$\varphi_{\mathit{CO}\;to\;liquid}$	\emptyset residual CO (mL/min)				
	(mL/min) 0.006	(mL/min) 0.025	19.955				

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