

1 **Optimizing Cu⁺-Cu⁰ synergy by *operando* tracking of Cu₂O**
2 **nanocatalysts during the electrochemical CO₂ reduction**
3 **reaction**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Tracking the evolution of electrocatalysts over oxide-derived Cu materials during the
3 electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction (eCO₂RR) is pivotal for optimizing the product
4 selectivity toward desired multi-carbon (C₂₊) products. However, the identification of
5 the true intermediate active catalyst is still unclear. Here, we adopted a multi-modal
6 characterization approach, primarily based on operando powder X-ray diffraction and
7 operando micro-Raman spectroscopy, to study three Cu₂O precursors with different
8 morphologies, namely, octahedral (O-), cubic (C-), and nanowire (N-Cu₂O). This
9 multi-modal approach allows us to investigate the Cu₂O nano-crystallites from the
10 interface to the bulk structure. The results suggested notably different electrochemical
11 reduction kinetics. 26.1% O-Cu₂O and 90.6% C-Cu₂O were reduced to much smaller
12 Cu(0) domains after two hours of time-on-stream; N-Cu₂O, with notably higher
13 surface-to-volume ratio, was completely reduced within 45 minutes of time-on-stream.
14 We accordingly observed a structure-reactivity correlation where a more intricate
15 Cu₂O/Cu grain network (and hence Cu⁺-Cu⁰ junctions) as observed in O-Cu₂O, can lead
16 to stable and quantitative production of ethylene at the Faradic efficiency of around
17 40% (in stark contrast to those of C- and N-Cu₂O). The synergy between the Cu₂O and
18 Cu phases was also verified by density functional theory calculations. The upshifted d-
19 band center of Cu₂O/Cu in O-Cu₂O is the most conducive toward the production of
20 ethylene, whereas the downshifted d-band center of Cu₂O/Cu in C-Cu₂O leads to a
21 decreased production of ethylene in the expense of unwanted production of hydrogen.
22 We envisage that system optimization and design of new catalysts will become more
23 facile and efficient using a related multi-modal operando characterization philosophy.
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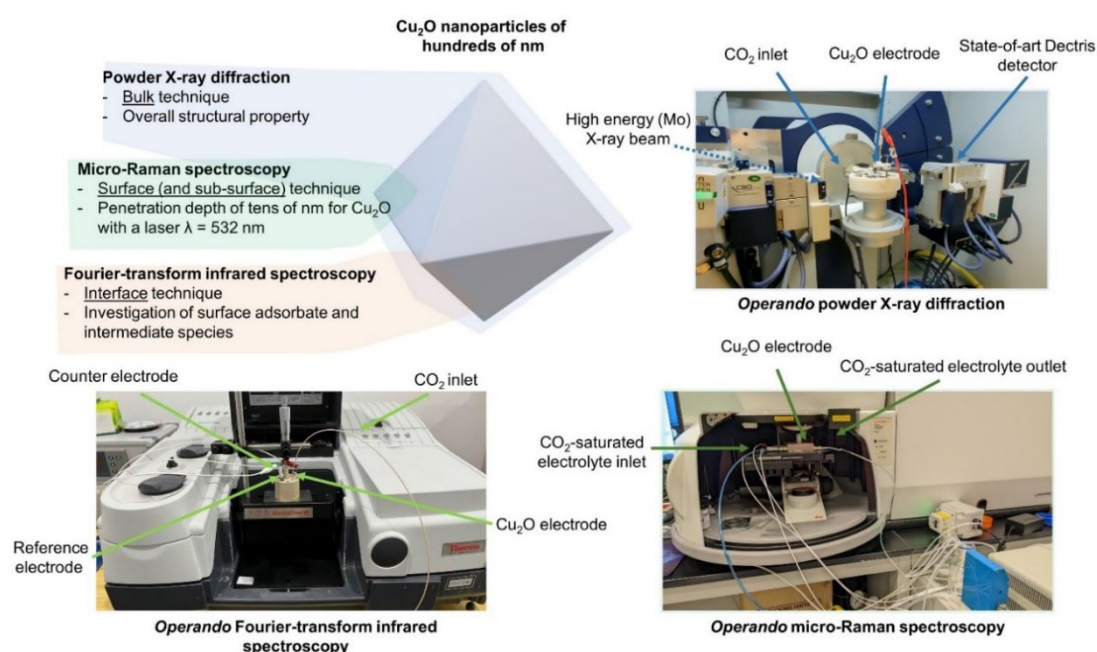
1 **1. Introduction**

2 The electrochemical CO₂ reduction reaction (eCO₂RR) has been regarded as an
3 effective approach to mitigating the current CO₂ issues by carbon utilization[1–4].
4 Oxide-derived Cu (ODC) materials, such as Cu₂O and CuO, are some of the most often
5 studied catalysts that can convert CO₂ into higher multi-carbon feedstock, partly due to
6 the suitable adsorption energy of *CO that further promotes C–C coupling[5–7]. Vast
7 efforts have been made to develop more efficient and selective ODC-based
8 electrocatalysts through surface modifications[8,9], structure engineering[10–12],
9 doping[13] and morphology control[14–17].

10 When operated under the eCO₂RR conditions (typically –0.8 to –1.1 V vs RHE), ODC
11 materials are prone to electrochemical reduction (giving metallic Cu) as shown in the
12 Pourbaix diagram[18]. Nonetheless, the presence of surface Cu⁺ and/or sub-surface
13 oxygen species has been shown influential on the C₂ product selectivity. In the study
14 by Mistry and co-workers, the survival of Cu⁺ on the catalyst surface was reported
15 during the eCO₂RR based on spectroscopic findings[19]. Goddard III and co-workers
16 reported the much-promoted kinetics and thermodynamics of both CO₂ activation and
17 CO* coupling from the Cu^{δ+}-Cu⁰ synergy at the grain boundaries[20]. Nilsson *et al.*
18 further revealed the presence of residual oxygen under the eCO₂RR conditions by
19 combined spectroscopic and microscopic findings[21]. However, the detailed
20 correlation between the dynamic structural change and catalytic reactivities has not
21 been extensively investigated in these studies. Deciphering these pivotal structure-
22 reactivity correlations in ODC materials should facilitate the rational design of
23 electrocatalysts with improved C₂₊ product selectivity.

24 Vastly improved modern instrumentation has given us more reliable and convenient
25 access to revealing the reaction mechanism and hence allows more rational approaches
26 for catalyst optimization. Conventional *operando* characterization has often benefitted
27 using synchrotron X-ray with ultra-high beam brilliance, which can overcome the
28 intrinsic limitations in reactor cell design. For instance, our team have recently designed
29 an *operando* reactor cell that allows the powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) investigation
30 of an electrode fully immersed in KOH electrolyte[22]. The access to synchrotron
31 facilities is, however, generally limited, which hampers such important catalyst
32 characterization under *operando* conditions. It would therefore be highly beneficial to
33 fully utilize standard in-house laboratory capabilities for analogous *operando*

1 investigation. Very recently, Yang *et al.* reported that highly polycrystalline Cu
 2 nanograins can offer uncoordinated active sites to promote C_{2+} formation by *operando*
 3 electrochemical scanning transmission electron microscopy[23]. Here we further
 4 investigate the Cu^+/Cu^0 synergy by studying the correlations between the structure of
 5 the electrocatalysts and the eCO_2RR activity during eCO_2RR . This study employs a
 6 series of model Cu_2O nanocrystals with octahedral, cubic, and nanowire morphologies
 7 (denoted as ‘O- Cu_2O ’, ‘C- Cu_2O ’, and ‘N- Cu_2O ’). KCl electrolyte (instead of the more
 8 commonly used $KHCO_3$) is used as the presence of surface Cl^- has been shown effective
 9 in deterring the rate of electrochemical reduction of ODC catalysts[24]. By conducting
 10 a series of multi-modal *operando* studies (**Scheme 1**), the dynamic changes in the bulk
 11 (by *operando* PXRD), surface/sub-surface (by *operando* Raman spectroscopy), and
 12 interface properties (by *operando* Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy)
 13 with respect to the eCO_2RR performance have been revealed. In brief, O- Cu_2O
 14 generates the most intricate and long-lasting Cu_2O/Cu grain network under operating
 15 conditions. The intricate network of Cu_2O/Cu grain boundaries shows a positive
 16 correlation with the product selectivity toward ethylene.



17 **Scheme 1.** Core *operando* characterization techniques used in this work, where the bulk
 18 and interface properties of the Cu_2O nanoparticles can be simultaneously studied. The
 19 designs of the reactor cells are illustrated in **Figures S1–S3**.

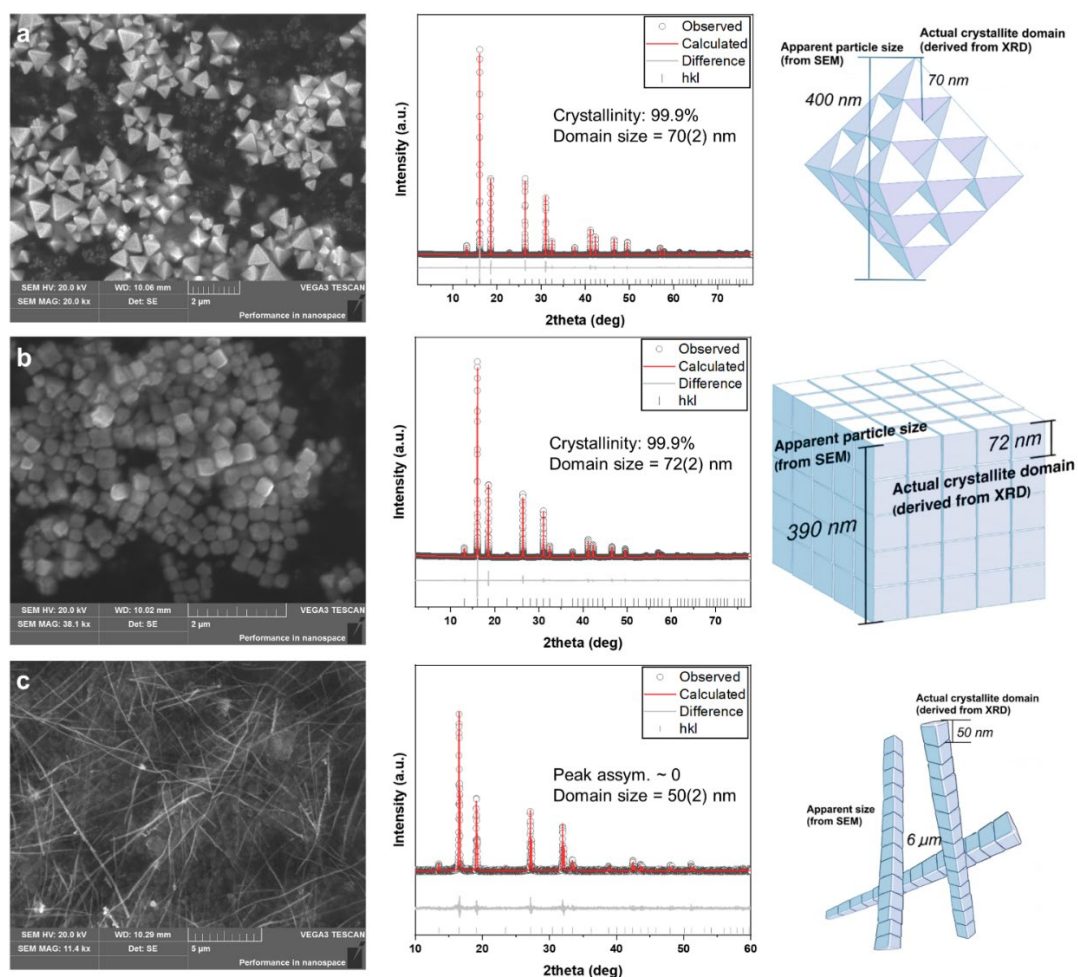
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1 2. Results and Discussion

2 O-Cu₂O and C-Cu₂O were synthesized by a modified water bath method at pH 8.5 and
3 13, respectively. N-Cu₂O was prepared by applying *o*-anisidine to suppress the
4 transverse growth of the crystals. The detailed synthesis procedures are summarized in
5 Methods in Supplementary Information (SI). High-resolution scanning electron
6 microscopy (SEM) images of the Cu₂O nanocrystals are shown in **Figure 1**, where clear
7 octahedra, cubes, and nanowires can be seen. The O- and C-Cu₂O nanoparticles are of
8 comparable apparent particle sizes of around 400 nm. The width of N-Cu₂O is around
9 50 nm.

10 PXRD measurements reveal the high sample crystallinity of all three Cu₂O nanocrystals.
11 All the Cu₂O nanocrystals are cubic with the space group of *Pn-3m*. By applying the
12 Pawley refinement, the unit cell parameters (*a*) for O-, C-, and N-Cu₂O were
13 determined as 4.26832(1) Å, 4.26712(1) Å, and 4.27140(10) Å, respectively (see **Table**
14 **S1** in the SI). N-Cu₂O possesses a larger unit cell, which could be attributed to the high
15 surface-to-volume ratio and its unique nanowire structure that has a more exposed
16 surface along one direction. From the quantitative analysis of the Bragg peaks for O-
17 and C-Cu₂O, the size distributions are highly homogeneous with estimated crystallite
18 domains of 70(2) and 72(2) nm, respectively. Similarly, the size of the crystallite
19 domains of N-Cu₂O has been estimated at 50(2) nm. The graphical interpretation
20 between apparent particle size (from SEM) and crystallite domain (from PXRD) is
21 accordingly presented in **Figure 1**, where each ‘apparent’ nanoparticle is comprised of
22 multiple nanocrystalline domains. The oxidation states of +1 in all three nanocrystals
23 were confirmed by X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy (**Figure S4**). The
24 quantitative analyses of the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra
25 are shown in **Figures S5–S7**, with the backscattering of Cu–O and Cu–Cu at around
26 1.84 Å and 3.01 Å, respectively (detailed information is summarized in **Table S2**).
27 These bond lengths agree with the typical literature values of Cu₂O[25]. Highly

1 comparable local structures are also evident from the corresponding wavelet spectra as
2 shown in **Figure S8**.

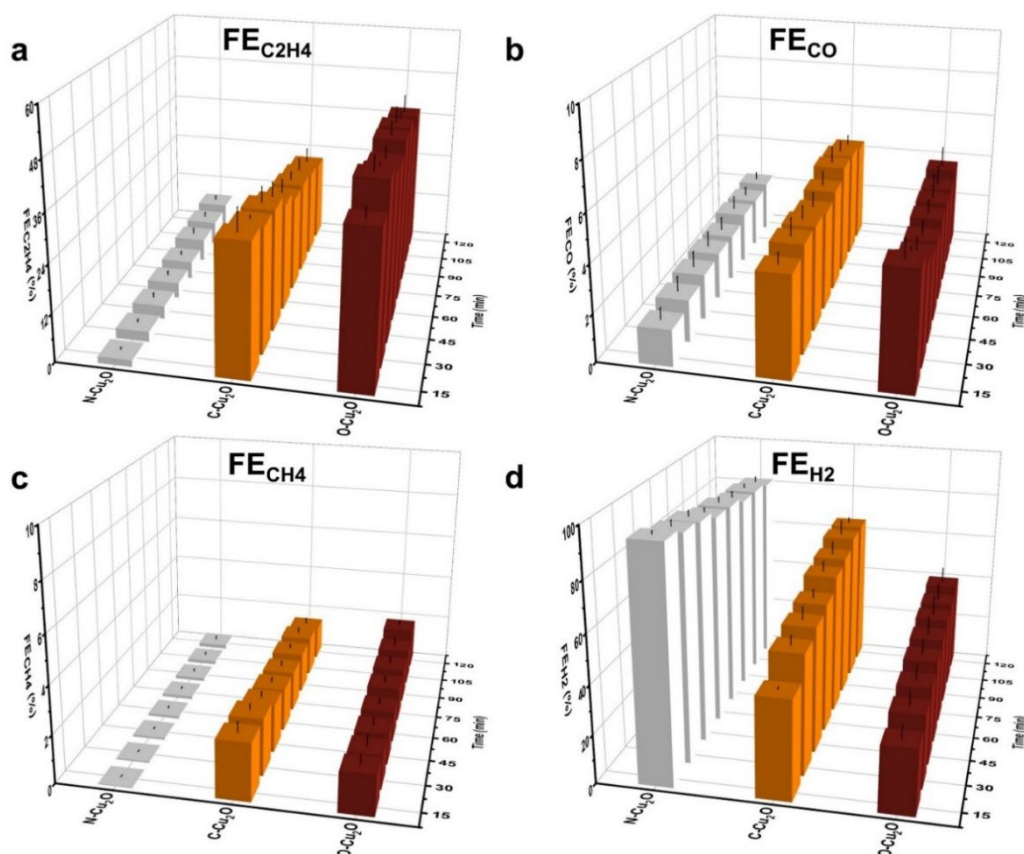


3 **Figure 1.** High-resolution SEM images of as-synthesized (a) O-Cu₂O, (b) C-Cu₂O, and
4 (c) N-Cu₂O, and the corresponding synchrotron PXRD (a–b, Energy = 18 keV and
5 wavelength = 0.688606 Å; collected in BL02B2 at SPring-8) and PXRD (c, Mo-K_{α1} =
6 0.70930 Å) patterns. The crystallographic parameters are summarized in **Table S1**.

7 The eCO₂RR catalytic measurements were conducted over these Cu₂O nanocrystals.
8 All the electrochemical measurements were performed at the applied potential of –1.1
9 V vs RHE in a standard H-cell arrangement (see Methods/SI for the experimental
10 details). The Cu₂O nanocrystals were first dispersed in Nafion-isopropanol solution
11 (0.5%), which were subsequently deposited on a carbon fiber paper at 1.00 mg cm⁻².
12 Similarly, the electrolyte was maintained at the cathodic side of the H-cell at the CO₂
13 purging rate of 20 sccm.

14 The basic electrochemical properties of the Cu₂O nanocrystals were studied by
15 conventional electrochemical measurements. As shown in the linear sweep

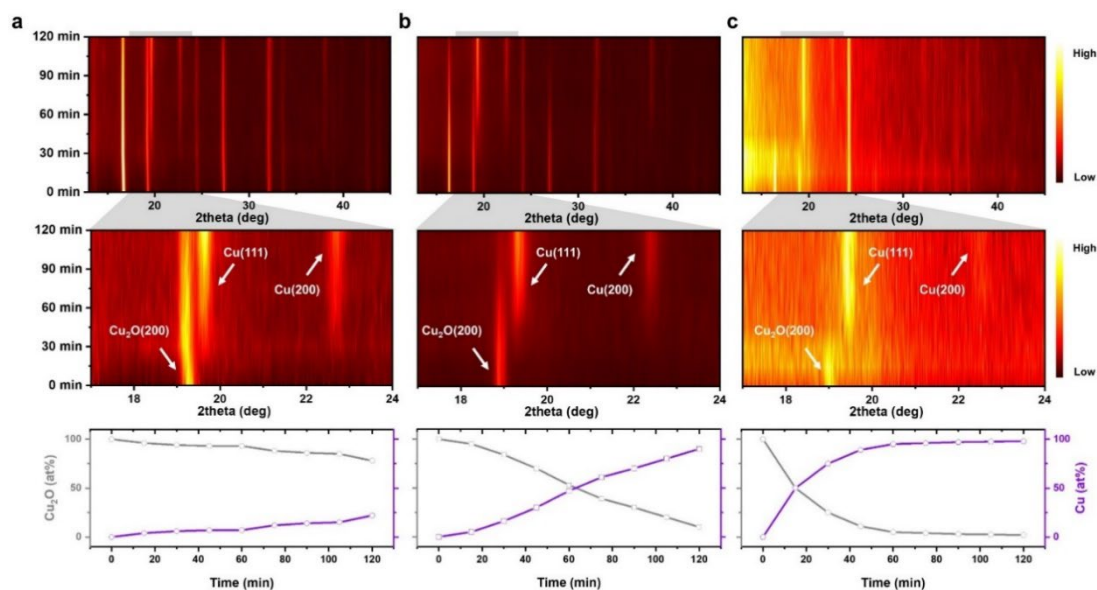
1 voltammetry curves (**Figure S9a–c**), the current densities in all three nanocrystals
 2 increased noticeably in the CO₂-saturated KCl electrolyte, which indicates their
 3 electrochemical activity with CO₂. The equivalent resistance (in terms of R_{ct} and R_Ω)
 4 of the nanocrystals has been studied by electrical impedance spectroscopy (**Figure S9d**),
 5 with O-Cu₂O having the lowest resistance among the three Cu₂O nanocrystals[26,27].
 6 The double-layer capacitance and the corresponding electrochemically active surface
 7 areas were obtained from cyclic voltammetry measurements at different scan rates
 8 (**Figure S10a–c**). The charging currents Δj at 0.545 V vs RHE were plotted against the
 9 scan rates (**Figure S10d**). The electrochemically active surface areas were accordingly
 10 derived at 0.026 mF cm⁻² for O-Cu₂O, 0.089 mF cm⁻² for C-Cu₂O, and 0.006 mF cm⁻²
 11 for N-Cu₂O.



12 **Figure 2.** Calculated FEs of the major gaseous eCO₂RR products (a) C₂H₄, (b) CO, (c)
 13 CH₄, and (d) H₂ from the catalytic measurement over 2 hours of time-on-stream. The
 14 eCO₂RR measurements were conducted at -1.1 V vs RHE. 1.0 M KCl was used as the
 15 electrolyte. The corresponding chronoamperometric curves are shown in **Figure S11d**.

16 **Figure 2a–c** shows the time-resolved evolution of the Faradaic efficiencies (FEs) of
 17 the major gaseous products at -1.1 V vs RHE over O-, C-, and N-Cu₂O measured at
 18 every 15-minute interval by gas chromatography. We observed three major gaseous

1 products from eCO₂RR, namely, CO, CH₄, and C₂H₄. The FE values are in high
2 agreement with a recent study by Luo *et al*, which also studied Cu₂O with related
3 morphologies[28]. O-Cu₂O showed the highest production of C₂H₄ at around 40%,
4 where the FE_{C₂H₄} remained stable for 2 hours of time-on-stream. In contrast, the FE_{C₂H₄}
5 decreased from 33% to 20% over C-Cu₂O in two hours, whereas that of N-Cu₂O
6 remained low at *ca.* 5%. The corresponding plots of FE_{H₂} from the hydrogen evolution
7 reaction are summarized in **Figure 2d**. Interestingly, coherent with the time-resolved
8 eCO₂RR findings, the decreased production of C₂H₄ over C-Cu₂O was approximately
9 offset by a similar increase in the production of H₂ (from FE_{H₂} of 41% to 66%). We did
10 not include the liquid products in the main text for discussion, as they only constitute a
11 much smaller part of the product distribution (see the characterization of liquid products
12 by NMR summarized in **Figure S12 and Table S3**). The low values of FE_{C₂H₄} and high
13 value of FE_{H₂} over N-Cu₂O obtained in our catalytic system were verified by multiple
14 experiment attempts, which could be due to various intrinsic reasons, *e.g.*, the lower
15 ability to form surface oxygen species and keep high *CO intermediate concentration
16 on the catalyst surface[29,30]. Indeed, extremely low production of C₂H₄ has also been
17 observed over ‘perfect’ polycrystalline Cu surfaces in the absence of native oxygen
18 species[31]. Briefly, O-Cu₂O is the best-performing eCO₂RR catalyst in terms of
19 FE_{C₂H₄} among the three Cu₂O nanocrystals. It is, therefore, worth investigating the
20 origins of the difference in reactivity over these structurally related Cu₂O nanocrystals.
21 The morphologies of all the catalysts were maintained to a large extent, as seen in the
22 post-mortem microscopic images in **Figures S13–S14**. However, it is difficult to
23 decipher the correlations between the structural and catalytic properties based on
24 conventional *ex-situ* or even *pseudo-in-situ* approaches due to the oxygen sensitivity of
25 the as-reduced metallic Cu species and other meta-stable species when the reducing
26 potential is lifted. We have also conducted a series of *pseudo-in-situ* PXRD
27 measurements (protected once reducing potential is lifted at different points in time),
28 as shown in **Figure S15**, which show different profiles when compared with our
29 *operando* PXRD measurements (as later discussed). Hence, complex-but-operando
30 measurements are needed for truly dynamic investigations on the structural evolution
31 of the catalysts.



1 **Figure 3. (Top)** Two-dimensional contour profiles of operando PXRD measurements
 2 of (a) O-Cu₂O, (b) C-Cu₂O, (c) N-Cu₂O, and their zoom-in profiles showing the 2θ
 3 range between 17° and 24°, covering the Cu₂O(220), Cu₂O(111) and Cu(200)
 4 reflections. **(Bottom)** Quantitative analysis of the crystalline phases Cu and Cu₂O
 5 calculated from the whole-pattern refinement using the Rietveld method.

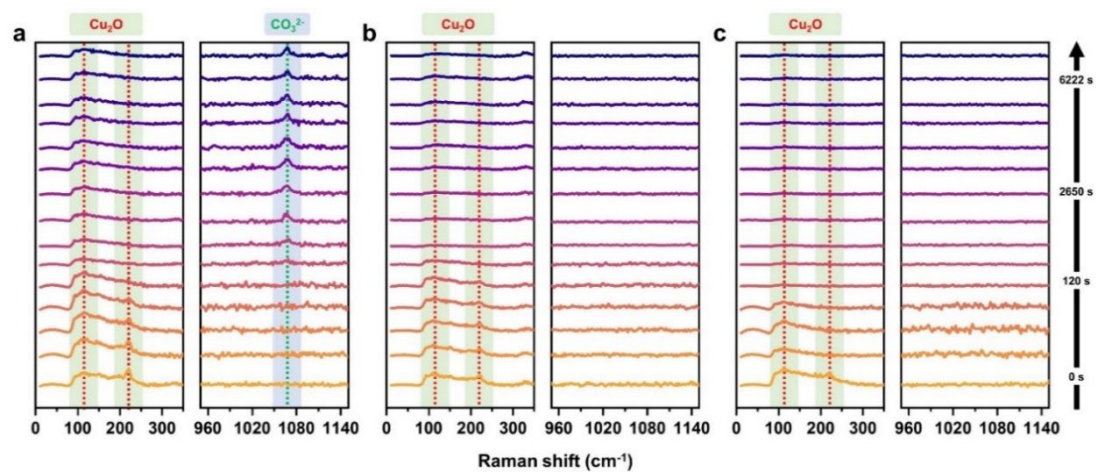
6 We, here, adopted a multi-modal *operando* characterization approach as illustrated in
 7 **Scheme 1**. It allows us to simultaneously investigate the bulk, surface (and sub-surface),
 8 and interface properties of the Cu₂O nanocrystals under comparable reaction conditions,
 9 which offers a much more comprehensive analysis than using *operando*
 10 characterization techniques independently. Lei *et al.* have also adopted an analogous
 11 philosophy to study the lattice strain effect of various Cu catalysts under
 12 electrochemical conditions[32]. In this regard, we have specifically designed a series
 13 of reactor cells where the design drawings are presented in **Figures S1–S3**. In particular,
 14 an *operando* electrochemical reactor cell was developed with the technical team of
 15 Beamline I11 at Diamond Light Source (UK) to allow PXRD measurements under
 16 applied potential with flowing CO₂. A high signal-to-noise ratio has been ensured by
 17 minimizing direct contact between the X-ray beam and electrolyte.

18 The time-resolved PXRD two-dimensional contour plots of the three Cu₂O under
 19 *operando* conditions are presented in **Figure 3**, with the individual PXRD patterns
 20 shown in **Figures S16–S18**. Note that the peak at 2θ = 24.2° is characteristic of the
 21 carbon fiber paper, which was also used as an internal standard to ensure the precision
 22 of the *operando* measurements. We observed noticeably different time-resolved PXRD
 23 profiles over the three Cu₂O electrocatalysts (the Rietveld refinement profiles are

1 plotted in **Figures S19–S21**). The dynamic change in the PXRD profiles over time is
2 associated with the electrochemical reduction of Cu₂O to the metallic Cu phase, as seen
3 in the fingerprint labeling. Clearly, the kinetic profiles of the electrochemical reduction
4 of Cu₂O to Cu are different. As seen in our zoom-in displays, the most notable changing
5 features from the diffraction profiles can be observed at 2θ of 19.1°, 19.6°, and 22.6°,
6 which correspond to Cu₂O(200), Cu(111), and Cu(200), respectively. Clearly, N-Cu₂O
7 showed the most rapid electrochemical reduction, which can be attributed to the notably
8 higher surface-to-volume ratio of the nanowire morphology. In contrast, the rates of
9 electrochemical reduction of O-Cu₂O and C-Cu₂O were much lower. A dominant Cu₂O
10 phase was still present after 120 minutes of time-on-stream. No Bragg peak
11 characteristic of Cu(OH)_x was detected during the eCO₂RR, indicating that these
12 species, if present, were in the ultra-fine or amorphous phases.

13 Upon electrochemical reduction, the unit cell parameters of the newly formed metallic
14 Cu are 3.621(1) Å, 3.619(10) Å, and 3.627(9) Å, respectively. Using the broadening
15 model for peak profiles by the Rietveld method, the size of the extrapolated crystallite
16 domains of Cu decreases substantially from *ca.* 70 nm to 18 nm for the O- and C-Cu₂O
17 nanocrystals (consistent with our post-mortem TEM results as shown in **Figure S14**),
18 but the size of the N-Cu₂O domains remained relatively unchanged. It suggests that the
19 O- and N-Cu₂O crystallite domains (constituents of a larger nanoparticle) were
20 converted to smaller metallic Cu domains because of potential nanocrystallite
21 fragmentation and lattice shrinkage[32]. It should be noted that the instrumental effect
22 on the extrapolation of the domain sizes has been carefully corrected by using Si
23 standard (NIST SRM640e) as done before[33]. A graphical representation of this
24 structural transformation is presented in **Scheme 2**, which will be discussed later.

25



1 **Figure 4.** *Operando* micro-Raman spectroscopic measurements collected at -1.1 V vs
 2 RHE in CO₂-saturated 1.0 M KCl electrolyte for (a) O-Cu₂O, (b) C-Cu₂O, and (c) N-
 3 Cu₂O.

1 A quantitative analysis of the concentrations of the crystalline phases of Cu and Cu₂O
2 from the *operando* PXRD measurements using the Rietveld method has been
3 subsequently conducted, as shown in **Figure 3 (bottom)**. First, it can be noted that the
4 electrochemical reduction of O-Cu₂O to metallic Cu was the slowest, with only around
5 10% Cu₂O crystallite domains reduced to form metallic Cu domains after one hour of
6 time-on-stream and 22% Cu₂O reduced after two hours (*cf.* Cu: Cu₂O = 0.28). The rate
7 of electrochemical reduction of C-Cu₂O was faster, with about 50% Cu₂O converted
8 after one hour and around 90% converted after two hours (*cf.* Cu: Cu₂O = 8.9). In stark
9 contrast, almost half of N-Cu₂O was converted after 15 minutes, and almost complete
10 conversion (>98%) of N-Cu₂O is noted after one hour of time-on-stream. The rapid
11 electrochemical reduction of N-Cu₂O falls within our expectations as N-Cu₂O has a
12 much higher surface-to-volume ratio compared with O- and C-Cu₂O. The relative
13 resistance of O- and C-Cu₂O upon applied potential could also be related to their larger
14 unit cells (*cf.* ~ 4.34 Å for O- and C-Cu₂O; ~ 4.28 Å for N-Cu₂O and common literature
15 values[5,34]). It should be noted that the current quantitative phase analysis has only
16 considered crystalline Cu and Cu₂O phases. Although we only detected minimal change
17 in the background scattering and did not detect any Bragg peaks characteristic of
18 Cu(OH)_x, the possible presence of metastable, short-lived, amorphous oxidized species
19 in the sample under such dynamic measurement still cannot be excluded.

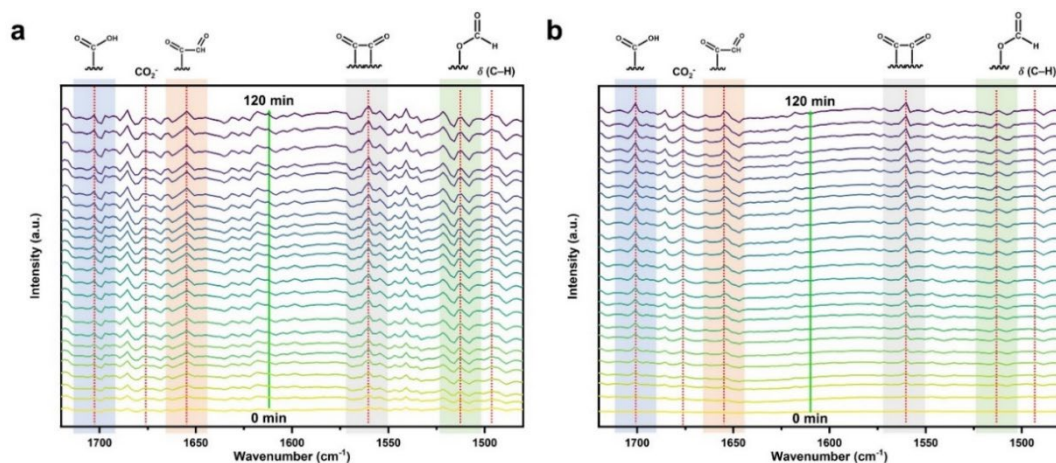
20 As discussed above, Cu₂O nanocrystals with different morphologies underwent
21 electrochemical reduction at different rates from the bulk material point of view. We
22 have further employed *operando* micro-Raman spectroscopy to elucidate the surface
23 and sub-surface properties during eCO₂RR. We have particularly chosen a green laser
24 ($\lambda = 532$ nm) as its penetration depth into Cu/Cu₂O is around tens of nm[35]. The
25 Raman spectra were measured at an interval of at least ten seconds to reduce inelastic
26 light scattering, which would influence the peak intensity[18]. The laser can penetrate
27 through a thin layer of typical electrolytes with low Raman scattering cross-sections[36].
28 Low Raman scattering cross sections would allow reliable characterization of the
29 electrode/electrolytes interface, where electrolysis takes place.

30 The *operando* micro-Raman spectra are displayed in **Figure 4**. At the start of the
31 experiment ($t = 0$ s), we noted a series of fingerprint vibrational peaks corresponding
32 to Cu₂O. The peaks at 144 cm⁻¹ and 215 cm⁻¹ correspond to the Raman scattering from
33 phenon symmetry Γ_{15}^- and second-order Raman mode, respectively[37]. These Cu₂O-
34 related Raman peaks became noticeably weaker upon applied potentials, which can be

1 attributed to the rapid electrochemical reduction of the surface and sub-surface layers
2 of Cu₂O. The contribution of O-Cu₂O at 144 cm⁻¹ only decreased marginally, with the
3 peak intensity maintaining at about half the initial value after two hours of time-on-
4 stream. In particular, it contrasts with that of N-Cu₂O, where the Cu₂O Raman
5 contribution disappeared simply after a few minutes, and that of C-Cu₂O with about
6 10% intensity remains after two hours. In brief, the Cu₂O-related Raman intensity
7 decreased in the following order: N-Cu₂O > C-Cu₂O > O-Cu₂O. This hence indicates
8 that not only the bulk but also the surface and sub-surface of O-Cu₂O are more sluggish
9 upon electrochemical reduction. We did not detect any noticeable Raman peaks at
10 around 535 and 602 cm⁻¹, which infers the absence of CuO_x species[38]. The findings
11 based on this *operando* Raman spectroscopic study exhibit a high resemblance with
12 those obtained above from *operando* PXRD.

13 Meanwhile, we also noted the appearance of a new Raman peak at 1074 cm⁻¹ over O-
14 Cu₂O after one minute of time-on-stream, which can correspond to the stretching mode
15 of adsorbed CO₃²⁻ on the catalyst surface[39]. Typically, this adsorbed CO₃²⁻ species
16 can be related to the increased concentration of reducible CO₂ in the solution near the
17 electrode surface through rapid equilibrium exchange between aqueous CO₂ and CO₃²⁻.
18 Interestingly, this CO₃²⁻ peak is only observed over O-Cu₂O but not over N- or C-Cu₂O,
19 which could infer that the concentration of adsorbed CO₂ is much higher on the surface
20 of O-Cu₂O.

21



1 **Figure 5.** *Operando* FTIR spectra of (a) O-Cu₂O and (b) C-Cu₂O measured at -1.1 V
 2 vs RHE in CO₂-saturated 1.0 M KCl aqueous solution. The presence and formation of
 3 various intermediate species are highlighted.

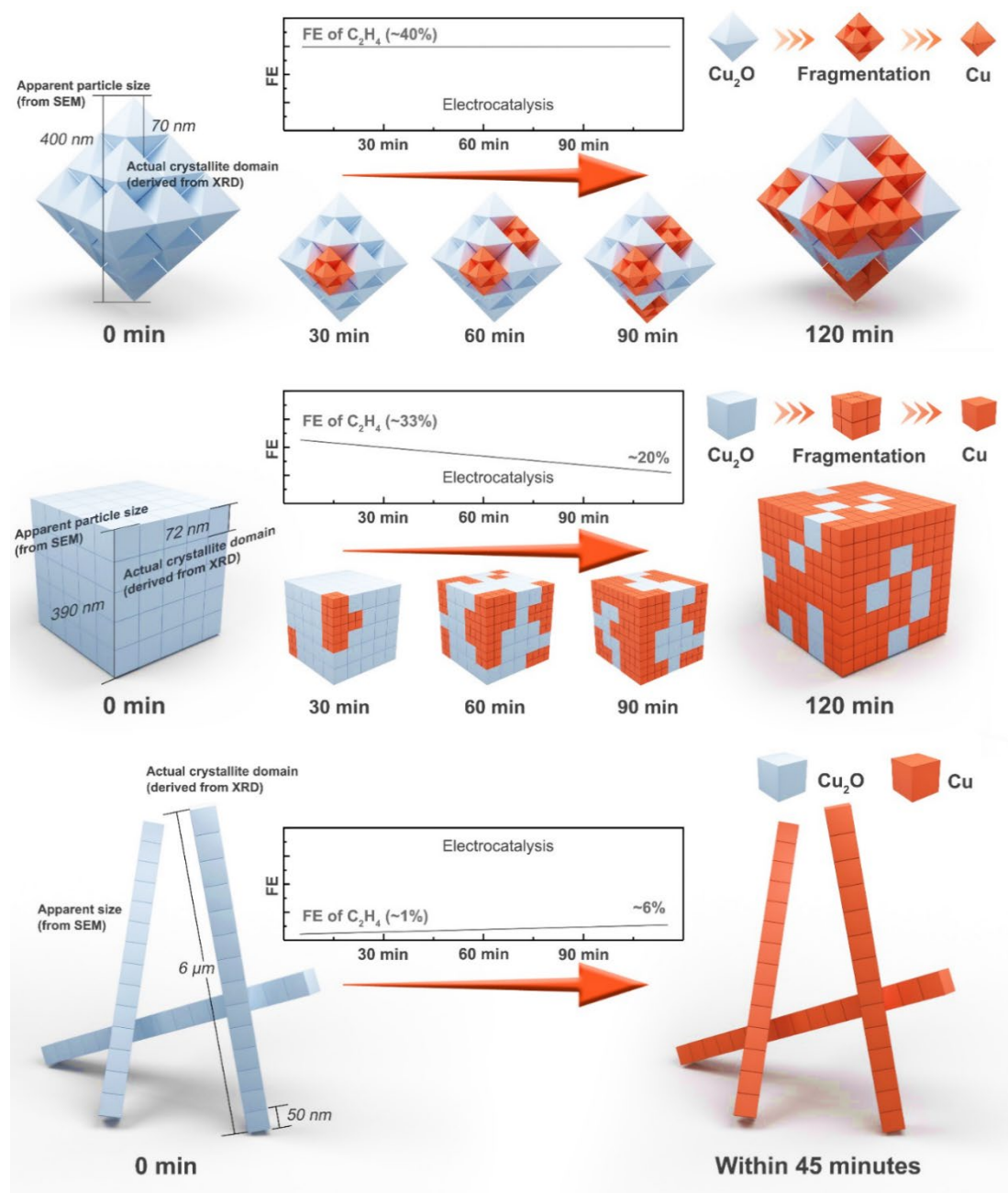
4 We then employed *operando* FTIR spectroscopy to study the surface adsorbates and
 5 reaction mechanism over O-Cu₂O and C-Cu₂O as they are the more presentative
 6 samples. As shown in **Figure 5**, the *operando* FTIR spectra were collected at every 5
 7 minutes interval at -1.1 V vs RHE, with the full range data and further zoom-in
 8 illustration plotted in **Figures S22–S23**. A series of adsorbed CO₂ and activated CO₂
 9 species can be observed, such as the band at 1518 cm⁻¹ attributed to adsorbed *OCOH
 10 species, 1676 cm⁻¹ attributed to CO₂⁻, and 1705 cm⁻¹ attributed to *COOH[40]. It is
 11 understood that CO₂ will first be reduced to form activated *CO on the surface that can
 12 subsequently dimerize to form *OCCO and reduce to form *OCCHO to produce C₂+
 13 products electrochemically, often called the CO dimerization pathway[41]. The IR
 14 peaks at 1560 cm⁻¹ and 1651 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to asymmetric ν_{CO} stretching of
 15 *OCCO and asymmetric ν_{CO} stretching of *OCCHO, offering evidence for the CO
 16 dimerization pathway, which agrees with previous findings[42]. Similar observations
 17 about the detection of the intermediate species (towards C₂H₄) from the measurements
 18 over O- and C-Cu₂O were obtained. This falls within our expectations as C₂H₄ is a
 19 major product over the time-on-stream over both catalysts. However, as the
 20 quantification of these species using FTIR is challenging, it is intrinsically difficult to
 21 yield comparable analyses between these catalysts as the difference in product
 22 formation is relatively minor.

23 Based on the above results, we can accordingly establish the correlations between the
 24 dynamic structural change and the corresponding catalytic properties, as shown in
 25 **Scheme 2**. In brief, O-Cu₂O was the best-performing eCO₂RR catalyst among the three

1 Cu₂O nanocrystals studied with different morphologies in terms of relatively higher
2 FE_{C₂H₄} and higher stability in production. Meanwhile, for C-Cu₂O, the FE_{C₂H₄} at the
3 early stage was comparable to those of O-Cu₂O, but it decreases notably over time,
4 rendering a much less stable production of C₂H₄. In N-Cu₂O, the electrochemical
5 reduction process under applied potential was rapid, which suggests that the catalytic
6 reaction could be primarily nanowire Cu-metal driven. Different reduction profiles of
7 these Cu₂O nanocrystals were noticed, which can be attributed to the difference in
8 surface energies that is dependent on the local atomic arrangement[43].

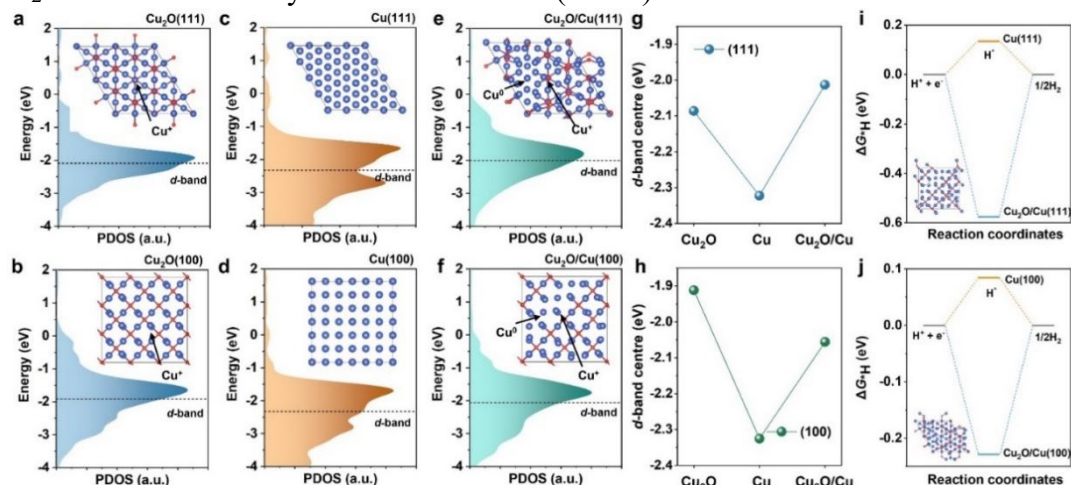
9 The observed reduction behaviors do not fully reflect typical thermodynamical
10 interpretations, where rapid and complete Cu₂O reduction would be expected. In
11 general, the reduced metallic Cu species should be conductive, which could further
12 facilitate the reduction process. In our study, the use of KCl as the electrolyte may have
13 lowered the rate of reduction due to the presence of Cl⁻[24]. Based on our *operando*
14 PXRD studies on the crystallite domains, the crystallite Cu₂O domains generally
15 remains at around 60–70 nm even though their concentrations decrease at different
16 extent upon electrolysis. Smaller Cu domains (at < 20 nm) are formed from *in-situ*
17 reduction, reconstruction, and fragmentation of Cu₂O during electrolysis. This agrees
18 with the conventional understanding that the standard electrode potential would change
19 significantly when the size of the nanocrystals decreases from the bulk to the atomic
20 regime. It suggests that the thermodynamics for the formation of crystallite Cu domains
21 is greatly related to the size of the domains. The electrochemical reduction of Cu₂O to
22 Cu is known to create lattice strain[32] and local defective structures[43], which
23 decreases the stability and affects the energy of surface Cu atoms of the as-formed
24 metallic Cu domains. Our findings are consistent with that reported by Huang *et al.*,
25 where the formation of small Cu domains is preferable with a surface Cu site with low
26 coordination under the eCO₂RR conditions[44].

27



- 1 **Scheme 2.** Schematic illustration of the structure-reactivity correlations established
 2 based on the multi-modal *operando* characterization and catalytic results over the O-,
 3 C-, and N-Cu₂O nanocrystals.
- 4 Based on the theoretical study by Goddard III *et al.*, the synergy between surface Cu⁺
 5 (in Cu₂O) and Cu⁰ (in metallic Cu) can greatly favor activated *CO₂ species for C—C
 6 coupling, affording multi-carbon products[45]. As proposed by Verdaguer-Casadevall
 7 *et al.*, interconnected newly generated Cu domains can stabilize the Cu₂O/Cu⁰ grain
 8 boundary and defect terminations, which could increase the population of Cu^{δ+}—Cu⁰
 9 junctions[46]. As illustrated in **Scheme 2**, O-Cu₂O delivers a more intricate network of
 10 Cu₂O/Cu (and hence Cu⁺—Cu⁰ junctions) upon electrochemical reduction compared

1 with C-Cu₂O. We have accordingly employed density functional theory (DFT)
 2 calculations to investigate how these structural changes affect the *d*-band centers and
 3 their corresponding effects on the product selectivities. We employed O- and C-Cu₂O
 4 as the model compounds for a fair comparison due to their similar structural
 5 characteristics. The projected density of states (PDOS) of the *d*-band centers of Cu and
 6 Cu₂O, with exposed (111) and (100) facets, are presented in **Figure 6a–d**. The *d*-band
 7 centers of Cu, derived from O- and C-Cu₂O, are highly comparable at –2.33 eV, but
 8 those of Cu₂O are notably different at –2.09 eV for O-Cu₂O and –1.91 eV for C-Cu₂O.
 9 As shown in **Figure 6e–h**, the *d*-band centers of combined Cu₂O and Cu phases
 10 (‘Cu₂O/Cu’) are subsequently different at –2.01 eV for Cu₂O(111)/Cu(111) and –2.06
 11 eV for Cu₂O(100)/Cu(100). The side views of the crystal slabs are presented in **Figure**
 12 **S24**. This suggests that the *d*-band center can be relatively maintained at the same level
 13 in O-Cu₂O, but notably downshifted in C-Cu₂O. The downshifted *d*-band center
 14 (further away from the Fermi level) weakens the binding of CO* intermediate[47,48].
 15 It suggested that the combination of Cu₂O/Cu in C-Cu₂O would impede the eCO₂RR
 16 performance. Indeed, it is verified in our catalytic results where the FE_{C₂H₄} over C-
 17 Cu₂O kept falling during the eCO₂RR (from 33% to 20%), whereas the FE_{C₂H₄} over C-
 18 Cu₂O remains relatively constant over time (~40%).



19 **Figure 6.** Projected density of states (PDOS) of the *d*-band for (a, b) O- and C-Cu₂O
 20 and (c, d) Cu and (e, f) Cu₂O/Cu with the surface orientation of (111) and (100),
 21 respectively. The horizontal black dashed lines indicate the positions of the *d*-band
 22 center (referenced to the Fermi level at zero). Insets are top views of the corresponding
 23 crystal slab structures. (g, h) Calculated *d*-band centers for a–f. All the calculations
 24 were performed at GGA/PBE level. Calculated adsorption free energy of *H (ΔG_{*H}) on

1 (i) Cu(111) and Cu₂O(111)/Cu(111) and (j) Cu(100) and Cu₂O(100)/Cu(100). Insets
2 are top views of the crystal slab structures with an *H adsorption.

3 Another interesting observation from our catalytic results is that the FE_{H₂} over C-Cu₂O
4 increases noticeably over time (from 41% to 66%). We have further employed DFT
5 calculations to study the tendency of hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) over O- and
6 C-Cu₂O as the catalysts evolve. As shown in **Figure 6i–j**, the plot of reaction
7 coordinates shows the difference in the respective adsorption free energy of *H (ΔG_{*H})
8 on Cu₂O/Cu and Cu. The adsorption of H* in Cu₂O(111)/Cu(111) is –0.58 eV, which
9 is much more thermodynamically stable compared to that of Cu₂O(100)/Cu(100) at –
10 0.29 eV. This suggests that the barrier for HER over Cu₂O(111)/Cu(111) is much larger
11 than that of Cu₂O(100)/Cu(100). HER over the mixed Cu₂O(100)/Cu(100) phase is,
12 thus, relatively favored. It is in great agreement with our catalytic findings where the
13 FE_{H₂} increases notably from 41% to 66% over C-Cu₂O but that over O-Cu₂O remains
14 relatively stable at 30%.

15 Briefly, the upshifted *d*-band center of Cu₂O/Cu with an exposed facet of (111) in O-
16 Cu₂O is the most conducive toward the production of ethylene, whereas the
17 downshifted *d*-band center of Cu₂O/Cu in C-Cu₂O leads to a decreased production of
18 C₂H₄ in the expense of increased H₂. The modeling study is highly supportive of what
19 has been proposed in the literature (about the synergy of Cu⁺-Cu⁰ junctions primarily
20 based on computational understanding)[49,50], and our derived structure-activity
21 correlations (that O-Cu₂O can offer a more stable and efficient production of C₂H₄).

22

1 3. Conclusion

2 In summary, we have revealed the structure-reactivity correlations by investigating the
3 dynamic change of the bulk, surface (and sub-surface), and interface characteristics of
4 the crystallite domains of various Cu₂O nanocrystals with regard to the catalytic
5 properties. The rate and extent of electrochemical reduction of O-, C-, and N-Cu₂O
6 under eCO₂RR conditions were notably different, with O-Cu₂O reduced at the slowest
7 rate among Cu₂O with three different morphologies studied. By adopting a multi-modal
8 *operando* characterization philosophy, we discovered the formation of an intricate
9 network of Cu₂O/Cu grain boundaries (and hence Cu⁺-Cu⁰ junctions) from *in-situ*
10 electrochemical reduction. Although at this current stage, we still cannot accurately
11 predict or estimate the optimal Cu: Cu₂O ratio. The synergy along the Cu₂O/Cu grain
12 boundaries in O-Cu₂O was found the most favorable for ethylene production from the
13 eCO₂RR. The *in-situ* electrochemical reduction can indeed be regarded as an activation
14 for Cu-based catalysts *via* surface and bulk reconstruction instead of deactivation.
15 The capacity of two highly complementary *operando* techniques has been clearly
16 illustrated in this work, with the bulk, surface (and sub-surface), and interface properties
17 studied. The development of laboratory-scale (non-synchrotron) reactor cells, more
18 importantly, under comparable reaction conditions, can make the real-time
19 characterization of electrocatalysts more facile and reliable. However, we should still
20 carefully consider the intrinsic limitations of these techniques, for instance, the
21 quantitative analysis of crystalline phases with the potential presence of amorphous Cu
22 phase, during experiment design and data interpretation.
23

1 **4. Materials and method**

2 **4.1 Experimental Procedures**

3 **4.1.1 Materials**

4 Copper(II) sulfate pentahydrate (98%), copper(II) acetate (99%), sodium hydroxide
5 (97%), sodium ascorbate (99%), potassium chloride (99.8%), and Nafion 115
6 dispersion (5% in water and 1-propanol) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Ethanol
7 (AR), isopropanol (AR), and hexane (AR) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical
8 Reagent Corporation. Oleic acid (AR) was purchased from Aladdin. Hydrophobic
9 carbon paper (TGP-H-60) was purchased from Toray Corporation. O-anisidine was
10 purchased from Alfa Aesar. All chemicals were directly put into use without further
11 purification.

12 **4.1.2 Synthesis of cuprous oxide nanocrystals**

13 The cubic (C-Cu₂O) and octahedral (O-Cu₂O) Cu₂O nanocrystals were synthesized by
14 a modified method[51,52]. Firstly, 0.1 M of the aqueous solution of Cu₂SO₄ (10 mL),
15 distilled water (67 mL), and oleic acid (5 mL) were added to a flask. The solution was
16 then separated into two phases, with the water phase on the bottom and the oil phase on
17 the top. The solution was stirred in a water bath at 50 °C. When the oil phase turned
18 blue, the aqueous solution of 1.0 M NaOH (14 mL) was added to the mixed solution in
19 a flask quickly. After stirring for 15 min, while the solution turned into an emulsion
20 with blue color, 0.1 M sodium ascorbate was added to adjust the pH value to 8.5. The
21 flask was kept in the water bath for another 60 min with constant stirring. The O-Cu₂O
22 was collected by centrifugation at 6000 rpm and washed six times with ethanol and
23 hexane. Finally, the product was vacuum dried at room temperature for further use. The
24 synthesis of C-Cu₂O was similar to that of O-Cu₂O. By adjusting the added amounts of
25 1.0 M NaOH solution to turn the pH value of the mixture solution to 13, C-Cu₂O could
26 be obtained. The nanowire Cu₂O (N-Cu₂O) nanocrystal was prepared according to
27 another previously reported method[53]. In a typical synthesis, 0.2 g of copper(II)
28 acetate was dissolved in 40 mL of deionized water, followed by the addition of 80 μL
29 of *o*-anisidine. The mixture was stirred for 5 min to form an olive-green solution. The
30 solution was transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined stainless autoclave. After
31 maintaining at 200 °C for 10 h, N-Cu₂O was obtained by centrifugation at 3000 rpm
32 and washed with ethanol and DI water several times.

1 **4.1.3 eCO₂RR Cathode Preparation**

2 A homogeneous ink for the electrochemical measurement was prepared by mixing 10
3 mg of the catalyst into 1.0 mL of a Nafion-isopropanol solution (0.5%), followed by
4 sonication for 30 min. The electrode was prepared by loading the ink onto a carbon
5 paper electrode (1 cm × 2 cm, the practically immersing area in the electrolyte was 1
6 cm × 1 cm) and drying under ambient conditions at 60 °C for 6 h with a loading of 1
7 mg/cm².

8

1 4.2 Method

2 4.2.1 Extended X-ray absorption fine structure spectroscopy

3 We obtained the X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray
4 absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy data at BL07A at Taiwan Light Source
5 using fluorescence mode, with an average scanning time of 20 minutes. Data fitting and
6 analysis results were obtained by using Artemis and Athena software. The detailed
7 fitting results are summarized in Table S2[54]. The Hamma software was used for
8 wavelet transformation[55].

9 4.2.2 Electrochemical CO₂RR Measurements

10 eCO₂RR experiments were performed in a typical H-cell arrangement separated by a
11 Nafion 115 membrane. The electrochemical measurements were conducted by a CHI
12 760E electrochemical analyser (Shanghai, Chenhua Co., China) in a three-electrode cell
13 containing 1 M KCl electrolyte. Typically, an Ag/AgCl (in saturated KCl electrolyte)
14 electrode was used as the reference electrode and a carbon electrode as the counter
15 electrode. Before CO₂RR measurement, the electrolyte was pre-saturated with high-
16 purity CO₂ for 30 min with a flow rate of 60 standard cubic centimetres per minute
17 (sccm) controlled by a mass flow controller (model FMA-A2305) purchased from
18 OMEGA Co, Ltd. All potentials were calibrated to an RHE by calculation. For the
19 eCO₂RR experiment, a potentiostat test was conducted for 2 h in a CO₂-saturated 1 M
20 KCl solution (35 mL) under atmospheric pressure and constant temperature. High-pure
21 CO₂ was continuously purged in the cathode compartment under a constant flow rate
22 of 20 sccm using a mass flow controller during the entire experimental process at the
23 ambient conditions of 298 K and 1 bar. For gas chromatography, we employed a flame
24 ionization detector (FID) and thermal conductivity detector (TCD) to measure the gas
25 products using high-purity nitrogen gas (99.99%, Linde) as the carrier gas FID uses a
26 TDX-01 column for CO, CH₄ and C₂H₄ measurement and TCD uses 6 feet MolSieve
27 5A mesh columns to detect the concentration of H₂. Furthermore, the column oven
28 temperature is 70 °C.

29 The Faradaic efficiency (FE) of gas products was calculated using the following
30 formula:

$$31 \text{FE}_{\text{gas}}(\%) = (zFGp) / (V_m \times i_{\text{total}}) \times 100$$

1 where Z is the number of electrons transferred, F is Faraday's constant (96485 C/mol⁻¹), G is the flow rate of gas (20 sccm). ρ is the molar fraction of the product, V_m is the
2 standard gas molar volume (24 L/mol), and i_{total} is the total current.

3
4 The liquid products were quantified using a Bruker Advance-III NMR spectrometer.
5 540 μ L electrolyte collected from the cathode part of the H-cell was mixed with 60 μ L
6 D₂O containing 50 ppm dimethyl sulfoxide was used as the measurement sample. The
7 ¹H spectrum was obtained via a water suppression method.

8 Since the concentration of DMSO, which is regarded as the internal standard, is known,
9 the concentration of products also could be obtained by comparing their relative peak
10 area to that of DMSO. The FE of liquid products was calculated using the following
11 formula.

$$12 \quad FE_{liquid}(\%) = (zFn_{DMSO}av)/Q$$

13 where z is the number of electrons transferred, F is Faraday's constant, n_{DMSO} is the
14 amount of DMSO used, a is the molar ratio of the products and DMSO, v is the ratio of
15 total volume electrolyte in the cathode part of H-cell and the collected electrolyte, and
16 Q is the total charge.

17 **4.2.3 High-resolution synchrotron X-ray powder diffraction (SXRD) and Rietveld** 18 **refinement**

19 High-resolution SXRD data were collected at Beamline BL02B2, SPring-8, Japan. The
20 energy of the incident X-ray flux was set at 18 keV. The tuned energy for each beamline
21 emits the optimum X-ray flux to achieve high contrast (signal-to-noise ratio) and high
22 angular resolution. The wavelength and the 2 θ -zero point were calibrated using a
23 diffraction pattern obtained from a high-quality standard CeO₂ powder. High-resolution
24 SXRD data were obtained from the Cu₂O samples (loaded in 0.5-mm borosilicate
25 capillaries) using the MYTHEN detector. Each diffraction pattern was collected for an
26 hour for good statistics.

27 Using the TOPAS 6.0 software, the lattice parameters were obtained using Pawley and
28 Rietveld refinement analyses of the diffraction patterns were performed. The
29 background curve was fitted by a Chebyshev polynomial with an average of 16
30 coefficients. The Thompson-Cox-Hastings (pseudo-Voigt) function was applied to
31 describe the diffraction peaks[56]. The scale factor and lattice parameters were allowed
32 to vary for all the histograms.

33 The final refined structural parameters for each data histogram were carried out using
34 the Rietveld method with the fractional coordinates (x, y, z) and isotropic displacement

1 factors (B_{eq}) for all atoms. In addition, the R_{wp} and *goodness-of-fit* values ($gof =$
2 R_{wp}/R_{exp}) are helpful to indicate the quality of fit, where R_{exp} represents the quality of
3 the data.

4 **4.2.4 Operando PXRD measurement**

5 *Operando* PXRD measurements were performed in a particular cell designed by our
6 team. To obtain high signal-to-noise ratio, we used carbon fibre paper (low background)
7 with a loading of 4 mg/cm² as the working electrode. A carbon and an Ag/AgCl (in
8 saturated KCl) electrodes were used as the counter and reference electrodes respectively.
9 And 1M KCl electrolyte was continuously purged with CO₂ throughout the experiment.
10 High-energy X-ray (Mo anode) was used to optimize the spatial and angular resolution
11 of Bragg's reflections. During the 2h-*operando* PXRD measurement, each PXRD
12 pattern was required every 15 minutes for a suitable and reliable signal-to-noise ratio.

13 **4.2.5 Operando Raman measurement**

14 *Operando* Raman measurement is performed in a three-electrode follow cell purchased
15 from GAOSHIRUILIAN, with being used carbon fibre paper as the working electrode.
16 A carbon electrode and Ag/AgCl (in saturated KCl) were used as the counter electrode
17 and reference electrode, respectively. We used the potentiostat method to perform the
18 electrochemical measurement in CO₂-saturated 1M KCl electrolyte. And high purity
19 CO₂ gas was continuously purged into the electrolyte with a flow rate of 20 sccm using
20 a mass flow controller. The electrolyte was continuously circulated through the cell at
21 a rate of 1 ml/min. Raman spectroscopy was carried out using an Avantes AvaRaman
22 spectrometer equipped with an Intertec $\lambda = 532$ nm with 5% laser power as the
23 excitation source. The Raman probe was focused on the electrode/electrolyte interface
24 through a quartz window.

25 **4.2.6 Operando FTIR measurement**

26 A THERMO Nicolet 6700 spectrometer equipped with a liquid nitrogen-cooled MCT
27 detector was used for *operando* FTIR measurement with the operating voltage at -1.1
28 V vs RHE Glass carbon electrode coated with catalyst (1 mg/cm²) was used as the
29 working electrode. An Ag/AgCl electrode and a carbon electrode were used as the
30 reference and counter electrode, respectively. In addition, a silicon facet crystal with an
31 incident angle of 60° was used as the reflective element (ATR mode). 1 M CO₂-
32 saturated KCl solution was used as electrolyte.

33 **4.2.7 DFT calculation method**

1 We performed the density functional theory (DFT) calculations using the projector-
2 augmented wave method as implemented in Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package
3 (VASP)[57,58]. The generalized gradient approximation (GGA) with the Perdew-
4 Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange-correlation functional was employed. A uniform
5 $6\times 6\times 6$ k-mesh grid in the Brillouin zone was used to optimize the crystal structure of
6 bulk Cu and Cu_2O . The pristine Cu and Cu_2O slab models had a (2×2) lateral periodicity
7 for (111) exposed surface and a (3×3) lateral periodicity for (100) exposed surface with
8 a vacuum layer of ~ 20 Å. The $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{Cu}(111)$ and $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{Cu}(100)$ slabs containing Cu^0
9 and Cu^+ atoms on the top surface were constructed following the model for metal
10 embedded in an oxidized matrix as proposed by Xiao *et al.*[45] A $2\times 2\times 1$ k-mesh was
11 used for all slab structures. The kinetic energy cutoff for the wave functions was set at
12 500 eV for the bulk and 450 eV for slab structures without and with $^*\text{H}/\text{H}_2$ adsorption.
13 The atomic positions of the top two layers in the slab structures were relaxed and other
14 bottom layers were fixed (until the forces on each atom were less than 0.01 eV/Å). The
15 optimized slab structures are shown in **Figure S24**.

16 The free energy for hydrogen adsorption (ΔG_{*H}) was calculated as

$$17 \Delta G_{*H} = E(\text{slab} + \text{H}) - E(\text{slab}) - E(\text{H}_2)/2 + \Delta E_{\text{ZPE}} - T\Delta S$$

18 where $E(\text{slab} + \text{H})$ and $E(\text{slab})$ are the total energies of the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{Cu}(111)$ or
19 $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{Cu}(100)$ slab with and without H adsorption; $E(\text{H}_2)$ is the total energy of an H_2
20 molecule; ΔE_{ZPE} is the difference in the zero-point energy (ZPE) between the gas phase
21 of H_2 and the adsorbed H atom; and ΔS is the difference in entropy.

22

1 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

2 **H. Zhang** carried out the synthesis and characterizations and collaborated on writing
3 the manuscript. **J. Yin** conducted the DFT calculations. **T. W. B. Lo** conceived the
4 project, directed the study, and wrote the manuscript. **Y. Wang** guided the eCO₂RR
5 measurements. **Q. Lei** and **Y. Wang** collaborated on writing the manuscript. **C. Tang**
6 contributed to the operando XRD reactor cell design. All authors discussed the results
7 and contributed to the production of the manuscript.

8 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

9 There are no conflicts to declare.

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