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The Role of CO* as a Spectator in CO₂ Electro-reduction on RuO₂

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Abstract:

RuO₂ based electrocatalysts are found to be active at low over-potential towards direct electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to formic acid and methanol. RuO₂ can circumvent the thermodynamic bottleneck resulting from the scaling relations observed on metallic electrocatalyst, by employing an alternate pathway through oxygen-coordinated intermediates. Employing density functional theory based computational electrocatalysis models we show adsorbate-adsorbate interaction effects for adsorbates and reaction intermediates on the RuO₂(110) surface are large and impactful to the reaction thermodynamics. We studied binding energy amendment due to adsorbate interaction (steric and electronic) with varying coverage of CO spectators on the catalyst surface. Implications on the reaction pathways help us rationalize differences in experimentally observed carbonaceous product mix and suppression of the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). We show that a moderate CO* coverage (~50%) is necessary for obtaining methanol as a product and that higher CO* coverages leads to very low overpotential for formic acid evolution. Our analysis also clarifies the importance of the reaction condition for CO₂ reduction to liquid fuels utilizing RuO₂ based electrocatalysts.*

1. Introduction

The last hundred years of relentless human development have relied on fossil fuel based energy resources. To translate into a sustainable alternative course of long term growth¹, expanding renewable energy resources must be tapped at the earliest possible time. This is to mitigate limitations of fossil fuel as well as the inherent environmental problems emanating from increased anthropogenic emissions of CO₂. An electricity grid brimming with renewable electricity from wind and solar plants or

cars propelled by renewable energy depends on inexpensive energy conversion and storage technologies². Electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide to liquid fuels is an appealing approach that could alleviate much of the CO₂ emission challenge, solve the bottleneck of cheap energy storage and penetrate the fossil fuel dependent transport sector³.

The main challenge of direct electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to fuel molecules like formic acid, methanol or methane, is the absence of stable catalysts that can enable the CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR) at low overpotential and high selectivity over the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER)^{4,5}. The underlying chemistry limiting the effectiveness of metallic catalysts in CO₂RR to methane or methanol was recently ascertained through density functional theory based modeling of the thermodynamics of reaction steps involved⁶. Adsorbed CO (CO*) is a crucial reaction intermediate in the CO₂RR pathway on metallic catalysts. Strong correlation between the binding energy of key intermediates CO* and CHO* on metal catalyst surfaces enforces a large potential requirement for CO₂RR to methane irrespective of the CO* binding energy of the metal⁷. Thus, further reduction of CO* remains a bottleneck for metal catalysts. Only copper produces mixtures of methane, ethane and formic acid at high overpotential, owing to its favorable position in the theoretical activity volcano proposed in previous work. Ruthenium oxide based electrocatalysts have been repeatedly shown⁸⁻¹⁰ to produce methanol from CO₂ with up to 60% Faradic Efficiency (FE) at low overpotential. Formic acid has been reported¹¹ to be the other major CO₂RR product on RuO₂ based electrocatalysts. While experimental results have been very affirmative towards good CO₂RR activity, oxide catalysts have largely been overlooked amidst the recent spurt in scientific activity pertaining to electrocatalytic route to CO₂ reduction¹²⁻¹⁸. Our previous work on RuO₂-based electrocatalysts for CO₂ reduction¹⁹ explained that a different reaction mechanism involving HCOOH* intermediate instead of CO* is active on oxide electrocatalysts. We have also established²⁰ that different sets of scaling laws and resulting activity volcano leads to lower thermodynamic barriers for the CO₂ conversion reaction than their metal counterparts. This behavior emanates from the fundamentally different reaction path followed on oxide catalysts compared to metal catalysts. CO₂ activation on metals lead to COOH* intermediate and consecutive protonation to reaction intermediates like CO*, CHO*/COH*, CHOH*/H₂CO* which tend to bind to the metal through the carbon atom^{21,22}. On RuO₂ (110), CO₂ activation leads to OCHO*, which is further reduced to HCOOH*, H₂COOH etc, which bind to the catalyst through oxygen atoms¹⁹. The different reaction pathway signify different scaling relations govern CO₂RR on oxide surfaces²⁰. In particular, the limitation from the CO*/CHO* scaling is avoided.

The presence of spectator species on the catalyst surface can enhance or poison electrocatalyst activity, as have been studied theoretically and experimentally²³⁻²⁷. Despite the COOH* intermediate being much less stable than the OCHO* intermediate, a small amount of COOH* might form on CO₂ activation. Further

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3 reduction is expected to leave adsorbed CO* from this contingent reaction¹¹. CO*
4 spectators interact with other adsorbed reaction intermediates and alter their binding
5 energy. We have observed that spectator CO* species can have large effect on H*
6 binding free energy, potentially promoting/poisoning HER²⁰. Similar behavior has
7 been observed for metallic catalysts²⁸. We expect similar effect can be present for
8 OH* binding free energy as well. Intermediates formed during CO₂RR to methanol
9 on the RuO₂ catalyst surface are bound to the surface by oxygen atoms, and their
10 binding energy is correlated with the OH* binding energy. Thus a strong effect of
11 CO* spectators on the onset potential for methanol production and selectivity over
12 HER is expected. Shift in the reaction site of CO₂RR due to blockade of more
13 favorable sites by CO* spectator can have very large effect on the thermodynamics
14 of elementary reaction steps. For example, under reducing conditions the RuO₂(110)
15 surface can have both strong binding bridge sites and weak binding coordinated
16 unsaturated (cus) sites available for intermediates. If all bridge sites (br) are
17 occupied by spectator CO* species, then the reaction can only proceed through cus
18 sites. To create a categorical understanding of CO* spectators on the CO₂RR
19 pathway on RuO₂(110) surface, we study the possible reaction intermediate and
20 paths to formic acid, methanol and methane in the presence of different
21 concentrations of CO* spectators as well as variation in the br/cus sites occupied by
22 spectator CO*. This work displays that weakening and strengthening of binding
23 energies is of surprising importance towards both onset potential and possibly also
24 the product selectivity for CO₂RR on RuO₂. The outcome from this study is
25 especially important to the understanding and development of oxide-based CO₂RR
26 electrocatalyst, which may break the scaling relations. We show that high CO*
27 coverage can render RuO₂ based catalysts very effective at formic acid evolution
28 and lower selectivity towards HER, while a moderate coverage improves on
29 methanol selectivity. Our results might give a clue to the widely varied product
30 composition obtained from CO₂RR with RuO₂ based electrocatalysts and highlight
31 the importance of spectator coverage for successful CO₂RR using RuO₂.
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44 2. Computational details

45 We utilize VASP²⁹ package for density functional theory (DFT) based simulation of
46 model catalyst surfaces with adsorbed reaction intermediates. Standard PBE-PAW
47 potentials as distributed with VASP 5.3 are used with 500 eV wavefunction cutoff.
48 Previous comparison study on convergence of chemisorption energy on RuO₂
49 surface from VASP (PAW) and Wien2K (all electron) indicated that 400 eV cutoff is
50 sufficient for routine calculations. 600 eV cutoff for standard PAW can provide
51 accuracy of up to 10 meV³⁰. Higher energy cutoff for this work is irrelevant as errors
52 in the order of 0.1 eV is expected in GGA level theory³¹. Here newly developed
53 BEEF-vdW³² exchange correlation functional is utilized. Our lattice parameter
54 estimates are a=4.537 Å and c=3.135 Å for RuO₂, which agrees well with
55 experimental data³³. Following our previous studies^{19,20} the supercell representing
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3 the catalyst surface RuO₂(110) consists of a four layer thick slab with lower two
4 layers fixed at atomic positions identical to bulk RuO₂. The bridge site is considered
5 vacant due to reducing environment during CO₂RR (Figure SI1). This model has
6 two bridge and two cus sites available for reaction intermediates and spectator CO*
7 molecules. During simulation, we use a 4x4x1 k-point mesh and 16 Å of vacuum in
8 the z-direction and Gaussian electronic smearing. Optimization of atomic positions
9 are done until forces on atoms in top two layers and adsorbates are lower than 0.003
10 eV/Å. Vibrational modes for adsorbed molecules are also analyzed to enable finite
11 temperature free energy estimates by approximating adsorbate degrees of freedom
12 as independent quantum mechanical harmonic oscillators (Table SI1).

13 Adsorbate binding free energies are estimated w.r.t. gas phase free energies (Table
14 SI2) of hydrogen, water and CO₂²⁰. Systematic DFT-errors in total energy evaluation
15 are corrected for H₂ (0.1 eV), CO₂ (0.3 eV), formic acid (0.15 eV) and COOH* (0.15
16 eV) following the approach by Christensen et al.³⁴. A stabilization of formic acid in
17 solution³⁵ from deprotonation in neutral electrolyte (-0.19 eV) is also taken into
18 account, and the experimentally observed reaction product concentrations were
19 used for free energy estimation of methanol⁹, formic acid and methane¹¹ free
20 energies. The reaction thermodynamics calculations are susceptible to variation in
21 reactant/product concentration in the electrolyte. High concentration of methanol in
22 electrolyte leads to increased free energy (up to 0.2 eV) and release of methanol
23 might become difficult. The low vapor pressure of formic acid means small variation
24 in free energy from higher concentration. Thus, effects of concentration are minimal
25 for formic acid evolution.

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33 Vibrational modes of adsorbate molecules are used to estimate zero-point energy,
34 heat capacity and entropic contributions to the free energy at room temperature
35 using the harmonic oscillator model as implemented in atomistic simulation
36 environment (ASE). Usage of the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) scale for
37 electrochemical potential helps simplify onset potential estimation by considering
38 reversible formation of a proton/electron pair from a hydrogen molecule as zero V-
39 RHE at any given pH. Accordingly, the analysis becomes pH independent except for
40 the free energy of formic acid in solution. We have employed the computational
41 hydrogen electrode (CHE) model³⁶ to determine the thermodynamics of the
42 electrochemical reaction steps involving single electron/proton transfer. The free
43 energy of an adsorbate formed at the *n*th proton transfer step if lowered by *n*U eV
44 when a potential of U vs. RHE (V-RHE) is applied. Under the assumptions of the
45 CHE model, for a particular, elementary proton transfer step, requiring an increase in
46 binding free energy can be made free energy neutral by applying a negative
47 potential, equivalent to the increase in free energy at 0 V-RHE. Hence, an analysis of
48 relative binding energies of adsorbates formed at different electron transfer steps
49 (Table 1) at 0 V-RHE allows us to investigate modifications in CO₂RR pathway and
50 onset potential as well as selectivity over HER due to adsorbate interactions with
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Table 1: Adsorbate/product cases examined at electron transfer step from $0e^-$ to $8e^-$

$0e^-$	$1e^-$	$2e^-$	$3e^-$	$4e^-$
*	OCHO*, H*, COOH*	HCOOH*, CO*+H ₂ O(l), HCOOH(aq), H ₂ (aq)	H ₂ COOH*	H ₃ CO*+OH*, H ₂ CO+ H ₂ O(l), O*+CH ₃ OH(aq)
$5e^-$	$6e^-$	$7e^-$	$8e^-$	
H ₃ CO*+ H ₂ O(l), H ₂ COH*+ H ₂ O(l), OH*+CH ₃ OH(aq)	O*+CH ₄ (aq)+ H ₂ O(l), CH ₃ OH*+ H ₂ O(l), CH ₃ OH(aq)+H ₂ O(l)	OH*+CH ₄ (aq) + H ₂ O(l)	CH ₄ (aq)+ H ₂ O(l)	

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Spectator coverage

With four adsorption sites in the simulation model (Figure SI1), CO* coverage can be 0%, 25%, 50%, 75% or 100%, respectively. Each CO* spectator in the simulation model amounts to 25% added CO* coverage. With full CO* coverage, CO₂RR or HER cannot advance due to unavailability of active sites, unless CO* is first reduced. Two different types of active site being present and considering symmetry of the relative positions of the CO* adsorbates, 25% and 75% coverage can be realized in two different ways, while 50% coverage leads to four different representations (Figure SI2). All such different CO* coverages are inspected for their relative thermodynamic stability (Figure SI3). Visual representations are provided in Figure SI2.

On the bare surface, the 1st CO* adsorption at the bridge site is favorable compared to cus site by 0.18 eV (Figure SI3). With respect to the CO molecule, the binding free energy of CO* at the bridge site of the bare surfaces is -1.34 eV. Two cus sites and one bridge site are accessible for catalysis at 25% CO* coverage. With 50% CO* coverage, putting all adsorbates in the bridge site is the most stable configuration. All other cus configurations with 50% CO* coverage are less stable by 0.28 eV. The adsorption free energy for the two 50% CO* coverage configurations with a combination of bridge and cus occupancy are less stable than the all bridge configuration by 0.08 eV (while neighboring bridge and cus sites have CO* (bridge+cus-near in SI3)) and 0.1 eV (occupied bridge and cus sites are far apart (bridge+cus-far in SI3)). With both bridge sites covered by CO*, catalysis can only occur on the cus sites available (Figure SI2). On the other hand, if CO at 50% CO* coverage occupies both bridge and cus sites, there are still bridge and cus sites available for CO₂RR. At 75% CO* coverage, the adsorbate configuration with CO*

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3 on 2*bridge+cus sites is more stable than CO* on bridge+2*cus by 0.2 eV (Figure
4 SI3). These two configurations are fundamentally different, as the first allows
5 catalysis through the cus sites and the latter requires the reaction to take place at the
6 bridge site (Figure SI2). Due to repulsive CO*-CO* interactions, the incremental
7 binding free energy for CO* decreases with CO* coverage (Figure SI3). The
8 incremental binding free energy for four CO* molecules considering the most stable
9 configurations are -1.34 eV, -0.93 eV, -0.75 eV, and -0.46 eV, respectively. Thus the
10 driving force for further CO* adsorption is smaller at high CO* coverage. It is striking
11 that at 0 V-RHE and 75% CO* coverage, OH* binds slightly stronger to the empty
12 fourth site than CO* (by 0.02 eV). Thus OH* can displace the 4th CO*.
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17 The CO* spectator coverage at experimental conditions can also be limited due to
18 reduction of CO* to CHO* or COH*, lowering the CO* coverage. CHO* is more
19 stable than COH* on the RuO₂ (110) surface by 0.22 eV to 0.45 eV for different CO*
20 coverages. At 0 V-RHE, the reduction of one of CO* to CHO* is energetically uphill
21 by 1.34 eV, 0.63 eV, 0.73 eV, and 0.03 eV for CO* coverage of 25%, 50%, 75%, and
22 100%, respectively. This indicates, that complete poisoning of the catalyst surfaces
23 is not favorable. On the contrary, CO* spectators will not be removed by reduction
24 even with application of moderate reducing potential if the coverage is low (~25%).
25 50% and 75% CO* coverage might be observed under CO₂RR conditions, due to
26 kinetic barriers of CO* protonation and transient evolution of CO from CO₂RR. Slow
27 transport of CO away from the catalyst will eventually leave the catalyst surface with
28 high CO* coverage³⁷ as might be the case in a previous experimental study¹¹.
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33 Previous studies by Popic et al. and Qu et al. employing pure ruthenium oxide
34 electrocatalyst^{9,10} have not reported any CO detected as a product. We deduce that
35 these experimental results observing methanol as the primary product, might have a
36 catalyst surface with low to medium CO* coverage if only a very small quantity of CO
37 is produced and stays bound to the active site^{9,10}. On the contrary, experiments by
38 Spataru et al.¹¹ observe hydrogen and formic acid as dominant products along with
39 methanol, methane and CO. It can be contemplated that the presence of CO at 30 to
40 200 ppm¹¹ in the solution comes from CO escaping the catalyst surface when a high
41 CO* coverage is reached.
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48 3.2. Hydroxylation with CO* spectator

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50 CO₂ is often reduced in aqueous electrolytes. Hydroxylation of active sites is
51 energetically downhill and spontaneous at the bridge site of RuO₂ (110) surface
52 (Figure 1). Any available bridge site is expected to be hydroxylated at 0 V-RHE. OH*
53 needs to be removed from the active site for CO₂RR to proceed. Thus OH* removal
54 can become a thermodynamic limiting step. Interactions between CO* and OH* are
55 attractive for 25% to 50% CO* coverage, making OH* binding is stronger in presence
56 of CO* spectators (Figure 1).
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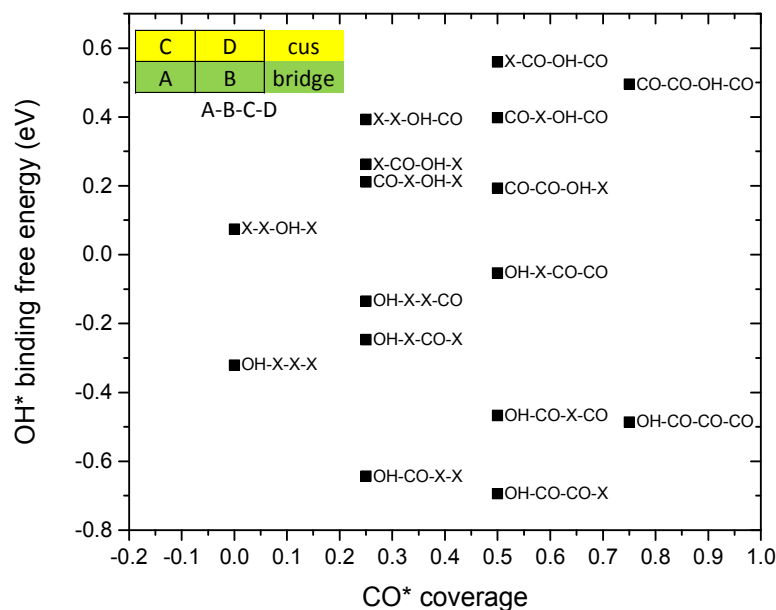


Figure 1: OH^* binding energy as a function of CO^* coverage and spatial distribution of CO^* adsorbates. As depicted in the inset, the distribution of OH^* and CO^* at the two bridge and two cus sites consecutively are used as label, where X denotes an unoccupied site.

Investigations of the adsorbate binding free energy on the RuO_2 (110) surface at bridge and cus sites reveal that oxygen coordinated adsorbates like OH^* bind significantly stronger to the bridge sites compared to cus sites (Figure 1). The relative preference for bridge sites is less pronounced for CO^* (Figure S13). The binding energy for OH^* at different CO^* spectator configurations and binding sites are presented in Figure 1 showing favored bridge site binding of OH^* over cus site binding. For example, the binding energy of OH^* at bridge and cus sites are -0.32 eV and +0.08 eV, respectively, while these values for CO^* is -1.34 eV and -1.16 eV (w.r.t. CO molecule). This observation helps to understand the distribution of spectating CO^* in bridge and cus sites under reaction conditions. Key CO₂RR intermediates on oxide surfaces like $\text{OCHO}^*/\text{HCOOH}^*/\text{H}_2\text{COOH}^*$, etc., are all O-coordinated. If a mixture of CO^* and O-coordinated intermediates are present on the catalyst surface, CO₂RR intermediates would preferentially occupy the bridge sites and the bi-dentate coordination will be preferred over mono-dentate binding. For example, three CO^* and one OH^* adsorbate can be distributed such that OH^* can occupy a bridge site or it can occupy a cus site. The configuration with OH^* in bridge site has ~1 eV lower free energy than the configuration with OH^* in cus site (Figure 1). This is critical in effective CO₂RR catalysis on the RuO_2 (110) surface.

Reaction path thermodynamics shows that bridge site CO₂RR is not only energetically preferred but also has lower thermodynamic onset potential. For example, at 75% CO* coverage, OCHO* is unlikely to form at the cus site (binding free energy of +0.95 eV) but bridge site occupation as a mono-dentate adsorbate is feasible (binding free energy of -0.13 eV. The preferred CO* spectator configurations important for CO₂RR at 0%, 25%, 50%, 75% CO* coverage are given in Figure 2 (a)-(d). Other free bridge sites and cus sites can be occupied by CO₂RR/HER adsorbates as portrayed in Figure 2(e)-(i). OCHO* and H₂COOH* adsorbate binds as bi-dentate adsorbate if adjoining bridge and cus sites are not occupied by CO* spectators (Figure 2 (e) and (h)). These adsorbates are mono-dentate at high CO* coverage (Figure 2 (f)). Adsorbates like H₂CO* (Figure 2(j)) and HCOOH* (Figure 2 (g)) are always mono-dentate but reaction intermediate can consist of a pair of adsorbate like H₃CO*+OH* (Figure 2(i)). The priority of O-atom coordinated CO₂RR intermediates at bridge site is not valid for HER and HER can proceed even at cus site, while bridge sites are hydroxylated. Therefore, HER thermodynamic analysis is done for variety of spectators.

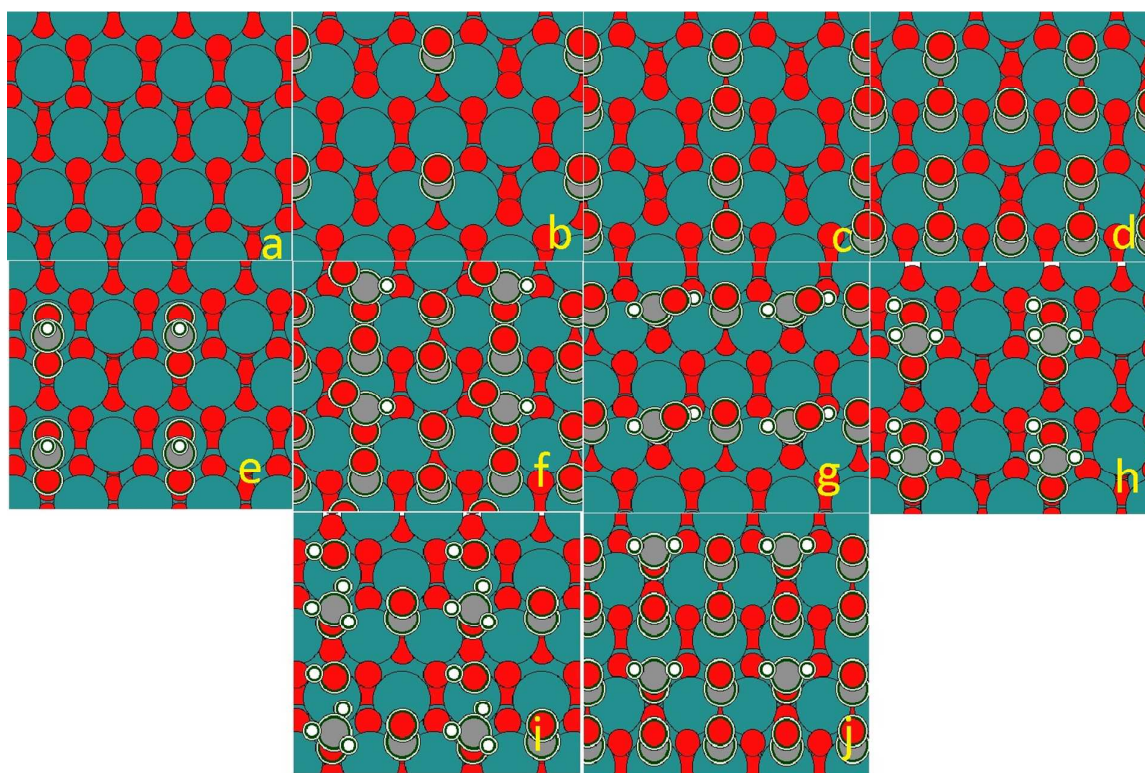


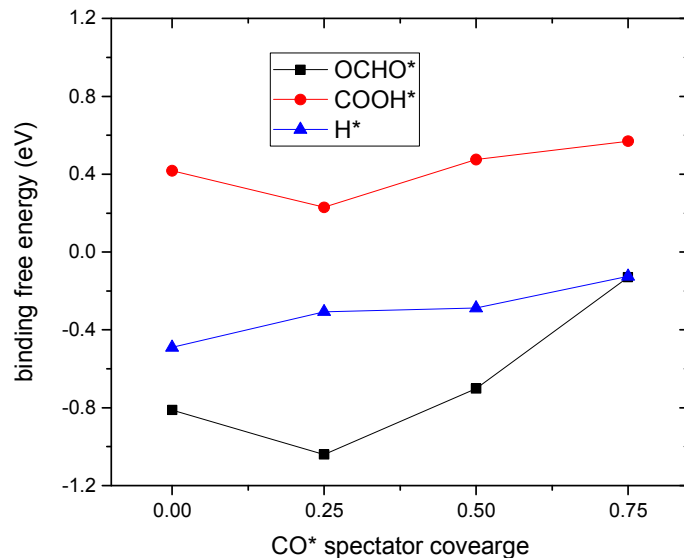
Figure 2: Simulated RuO₂(110) surface with two bridge sites and two cus sites available. Bridge sites are coordinated to two ruthenium atoms, and cus sites are on top of ruthenium atoms. (a) all sites empty. (b) one bridge site have CO*. (c) one bridge site and one cus site have CO*. (d) one bridge site and two cus sites have CO*. (e) bi-dentate OCHO* bound through one bridge and one cus site. (f) OCHO* in mono-dentate configuration in bridge site with three CO* spectators occupying all

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3 other sites. (g) HCOOH^* at the bridge site with CO^* in the other bridge site. (h)
4 H_2COOH^* in bi-dentate configuration. (i) $\text{H}_3\text{CO}^*+\text{OH}^*$ intermediate with one bridge
5 site CO^* spectator (j) H_2CO^* in bridge site with two cus site and one cus site CO^*
6 spectators. The actual unit cell in simulation is given in Figure S11.
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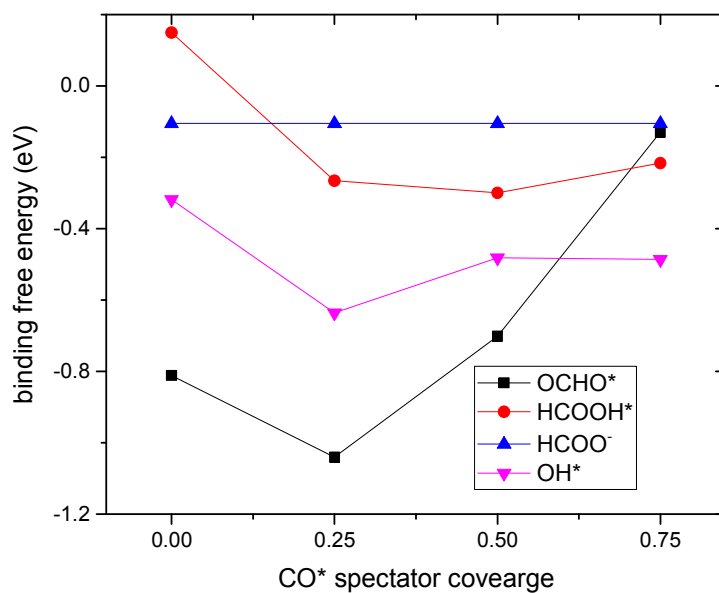
10 11 3.3. CO_2 activation: OCHO^* vs COOH^*

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14 From a purely thermodynamic point of view, the free energy diagrams identifies
15 which reaction intermediate is most favorable at a particular electron transfer step.
16 For example, if OCHO^* is more stable than COOH^* at 0 V-RHE, it will remain the
17 preferred intermediate at an applied reducing potential (Figure 3(a)). A proton
18 transfer to CO_2 molecules in the solvated phase creates both the intermediates. The
19 free energy is lowered by the equal amount due to an applied reducing potential.
20 OCHO^* is a bi-dentate adsorbate if adjacent sites are available. At 0% and 25% CO^*
21 coverage, OCHO^* binds through one bridge and one cus site (Figure 2(e)). Presence
22 of CO^* in an adjacent bridge site strengthens the OCHO^* binding at low (25%) CO^*
23 coverage compared to bare catalyst surface (Figure 3(a)). At 50% CO^* coverage,
24 OCHO^* can bind through one bridge and one cus site or through two cus sites
25 depending upon the CO^* distribution. On a bare surface, OCHO^* occupying the
26 bridge+cus sites have a binding free energy of -0.81 eV. It is interesting to note that
27 the configuration with bridge+cus distribution of CO^* spectators continue to be the
28 more stable than bridge+bridge configuration when OH^* or OCHO^* are present on
29 the surface. It can be argued that at a level of 50% coverage, CO_2RR will occur
30 through a combination of bridge and cus sites and OCHO^* stays bi-dentate. 75%
31 CO^* coverage compel OCHO^* to be mono-dentate (Figure 2(f)), reducing the binding
32 free energy significantly. Albeit, the 2*cus+bridge configuration of CO^* adsorbates
33 lets OCHO^* adsorb at the bridge site, which is significantly more favorable than the
34 cus site adsorption. Thus, in the presence of OCHO^* , the 2*cus+bridge configuration
35 of the CO^* spectators is more stable.
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43 It should be noted that trends in COOH^* and OCHO^* binding free energy at different
44 CO^* adsorbate configuration are similar and maintain their relative position in the
45 free energy diagram. Figure 3(a) shows that OCHO^* intermediate is much stronger
46 bound to the active site than COOH^* , regardless of spectator coverage.
47 Consequently, the CO_2RR pathway proceed preferentially through OHCO^* and other
48 O-coordinated adsorbates at all CO^* coverages. The other (unwanted) intermediate
49 after the 1st proton transfer step is H^* (Figure 3(a)).
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(a)



(b)

Figure 3: Effect of CO* coverage on binding energy of (a) intermediates formed by the 1st proton transfer*/OCHO*/COOH*; (b) HCOOH* and OH* at the available bridge site (or bridge+cus site for OCHO*) and free energy for deprotonated formic acid in solution.

3.4. Selectivity of CO₂RR vs. HER

The spectator adsorbate interaction between CO* and H* is repulsive and H* binding weakens with higher CO* coverage (Figure 3(a)). Substantially weaker binding of H* than OCHO* facilitate selectivity of CO₂RR over HER²⁰. For CO* coverages 0-50%, OCHO* is stronger bound to the catalyst surface than H* by 0.31-0.73 eV (Figure 2 (a)). The binding free energy difference is over 1 eV for a coverage of 50% CO* occupying all the bridge sites (Figure SI4). Because H* is a prerequisite for HER, we thus find the best selectivity for CO₂RR at 50% CO* coverage. For high (75%) CO* coverage, owing to the aforementioned destabilization of OCHO*, H* is equally probable to form (Figure 3(a)) at bridge sites (binding energy difference of 4 meV between H* and OCHO*). For 75% coverage and cus site adsorption, H* is remarkably favored by 0.32 eV over OCHO* at cus sites (Figure SI5). At high CO* coverage, RuO₂ electrocatalysts should therefore show less selectivity towards CO₂RR and evolve significant amounts of hydrogen.

RuO₂(110) bridge sites, when vacant, are hydroxylated in aqueous solution due to negative binding free energy of OH* at the bridge site at 0 V-RHE (Figure 1). Hydroxylation of cus sites is not energetically favorable at 0 V-RHE and HER can proceed at the cus site. For 0% CO* coverage and hydroxylated bridge sites, the H* binding free energy at the cus site is +0.33 eV, i.e. HER requires a reducing potential of -0.33 V-RHE (Table 2). However, the OH* removal potential for clean RuO₂(110) surface bridge site is -0.32 V-RHE. Once OH* is removed, on an otherwise empty surface, the H* binding free energy at the cus site is +0.22 eV. H* binding at cus site (with H* spectators at all bridge site) is +0.41 eV. The surface coverage, onset potential and the reaction site might vary, but these binding free energies suggest that at very low CO* coverage, only HER is active at reducing potential up to -0.32 V-RHE utilizing both bridge and cus sites. Schematics of few such spectator configurations (within the 2x2-model catalyst surface) for HER mechanism and predicted onset potentials are provided in Table 2.

Table 2: Calculated thermodynamic onset potential [V-RHE] for HER at bridge and cus sites with different spectator species on RuO₂ (110); yellow represents a cus site and green represents a bridge site. OH, CO, H are possible spectators and X is the absence of any of them. * is the site considered for HER.

Configurations															
cus	X	*		CO	*		X	*		X	*		CO	*	
bridge	OH	OH		CO	OH		H	H		CO	X		CO	X	
HER onset [V-RHE]	-0.33			-0.56			-0.41			-0.26			-0.22		
cus	X	*		*	X		X	X		*	X		OH	*	
Bridge	OH	CO		X	X		CO	*		CO	CO		OH	OH	
HER onset [V-RHE]	-0.39			-0.22			-0.31			-0.41			-0.56		
cus	X	X		CO	X		CO	*		CO	CO				
Bridge	*	X		CO	*		CO	CO		*	CO				
HER onset [V-RHE]	-0.49			-0.29			-0.63			-0.13					

Easy availability of CO₂ in solution phase can prevent HER by formation of OCHO* in 2*cus or bridge+cus bi-dentate configuration due to higher stability than H* (Figure 3(a)). The binding free energy of OCHO* in weak binding cus site (2*cus configuration) with bridge sites filled by OH* is -0.71 eV, and when bridge sites are filled with a mixture of OH* and CO*, the OCHO* binding free energy is -0.70 eV. In comparison, H* binding is +0.33 eV and +0.39 eV for similar bridge site spectator configuration, respectively.

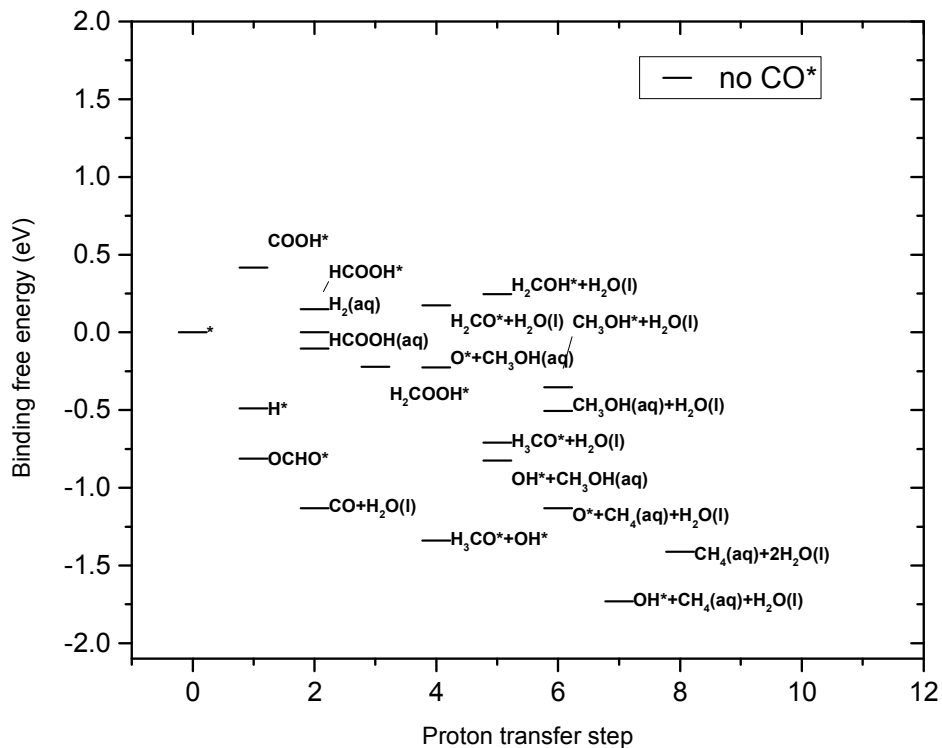
For 25% CO* coverage, the attractive adsorbate-adsorbate interaction between CO* and OH* at bridge sites makes OH* removal from bridge much more difficult (-0.64 V-RHE). Again bi-dentate OCHO* is very stable with a binding free energy of -1.04 eV at 25% CO* coverage. The H* binding free energy at the cus site (OH* and CO* being present at bridge sites) is +0.39 eV, cancelling significant HER activity. A similar argument for subdued HER activity holds for 50% CO* coverage (all the bridge site occupied (Figure S14)), where all cus sites are available for adsorption. H* and OCHO* have binding free energy of +0.41 eV and -0.69 eV respectively (Table S14). On the other hand, in the more favorable configuration, the CO* adsorbates are distributed between bridge and cus sites and the other bridge site is occupied by OH*. H* binding free energy at the cus site is +0.56 eV but the bridge OH* removal is estimated at -0.48 V-RHE. H* binding free energy at a free bridge site with 50% CO* coverage is -0.29 eV and that at cus site is +0.26 eV. Consequently, HER can progress through bridge or cus sites at ~-0.3 V-RHE (Table 2) except when OCHO* forms occupying both the bridge and cus site. This analysis shows that up to 50%

CO* coverage is expected to allow little HER activity if OCHO* forms rapidly. For the 2*bridge+cus CO* configuration (75% coverage), H* binding is very weak (+0.63 eV), while for 2*cus+bridge configuration, H* binding free energy is near ideal at +0.03 eV but hydroxylation of active site block HER above -0.48 V-RHE.

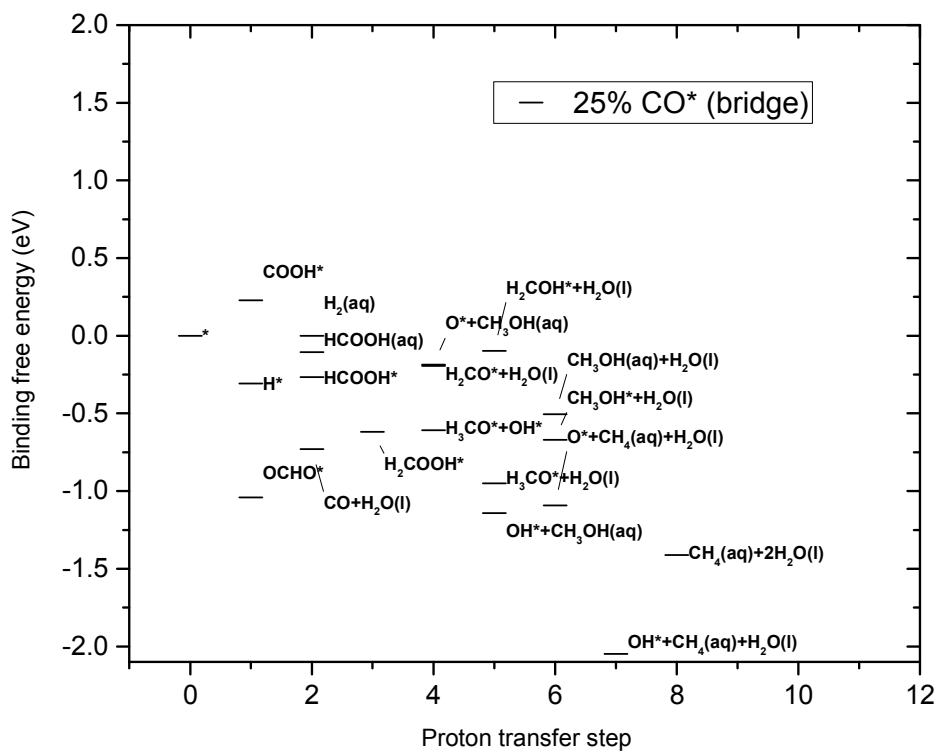
3.5. Impact of CO* coverage on CO₂RR intermediate binding

Six of the CO* coverage configurations (Figure SI2) are picked for analysis of the CO₂RR reaction mechanism – 0% CO* coverage, 25% CO* coverage (bridge site), 50% CO* coverage (all bridge sites), 50% CO* coverage (neighboring bridge and cus sites), 75% CO* coverage (2*bridge+cus sites), 75% CO* coverage (bridge+2*cus sites). Multisite adsorbates like H₃CO* + OH*, which occupy two bridge sites in absence of CO* spectator and a combination of bridge+cus site for 25% and 50% CO* coverage. 75% CO* coverage only allows single site adsorbates. Some CO₂RR adsorbates like OCHO* and H₂COOH* can attach to the catalyst surface through one or two active sites, due to the molecular geometry. Such bi-dentate adsorbates are allowed to remain so for 0-50% CO* coverage. Lack of multiple neighboring vacant active sites forces them to be mono-dentate at 75% CO* coverage.

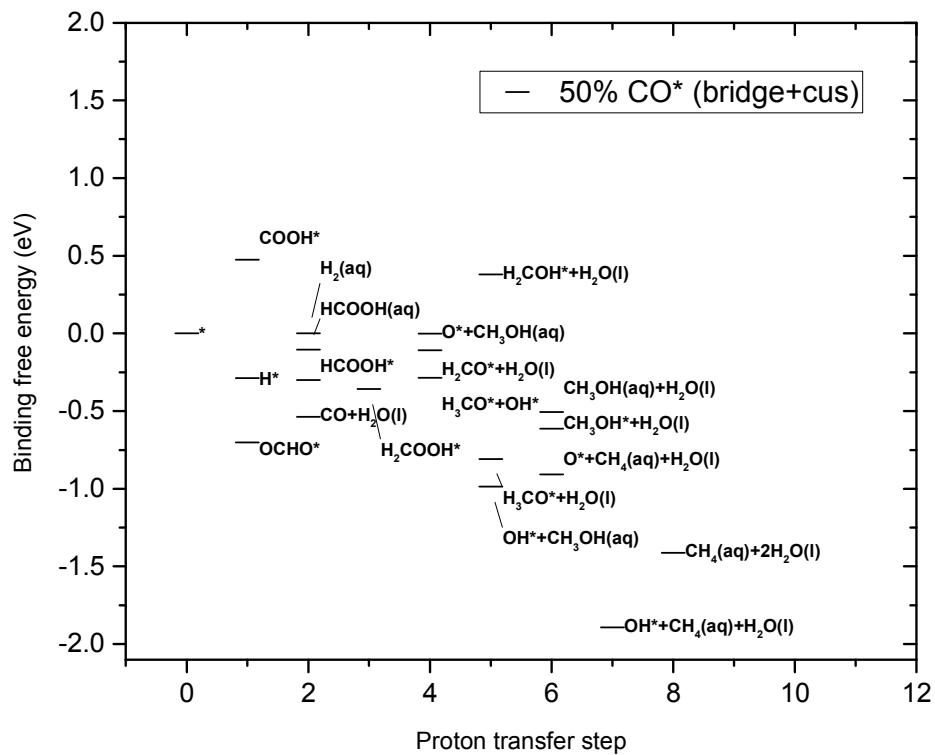
A previous study has shown that binding free energy of O-atom coordinated CO₂RR reaction intermediates scale with OH* binding free energy on oxide catalysts surfaces²⁰. Hence the strong spectator adsorbate interaction between CO* and OH* is expected to be valid for other O-atom coordinated CO₂RR intermediates as well. Adsorbate binding energy diagrams at 0 V-RHE (Figure 4) for CO* configurations dominant at 0%, 25% (bridge site), 50% (bridge + cus sites) at 75% coverage (bridge + 2*cus sites) are used to obtain key conclusions here. Reaction intermediate free energy diagrams with two other CO* coverage configurations are provided in the supporting information (50% coverage with all bridge sites occupied (Figure SI4) and 75% coverage with on cus site free (Figure SI5)). Binding energy of an adsorbate can change from both electronic interaction with spectators as well as modifications in adsorption geometry.



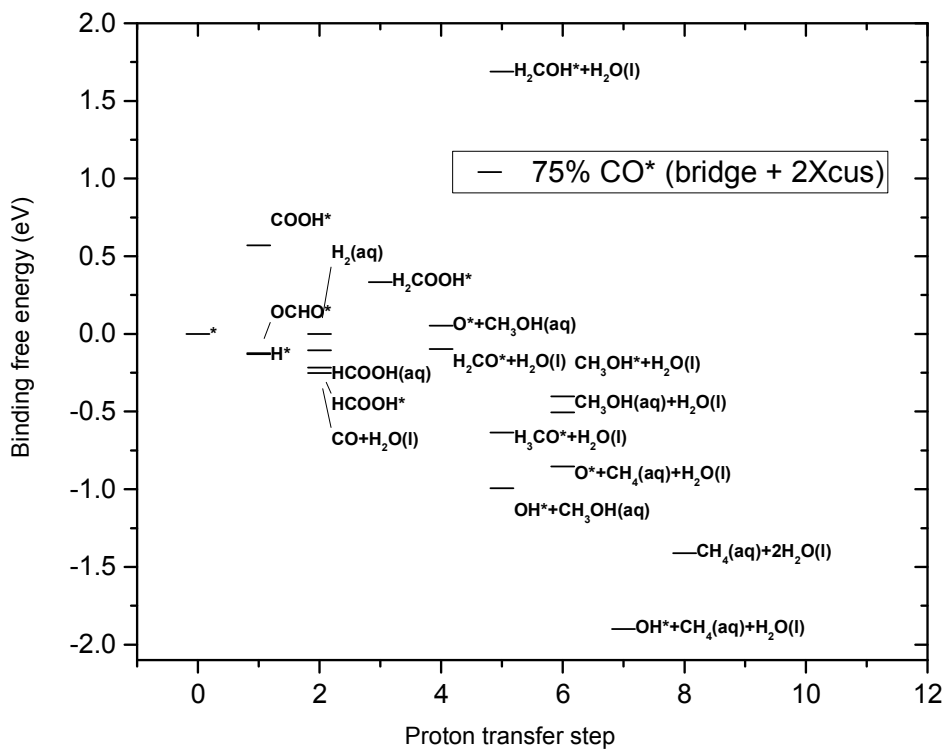
(a)



(b)



(c)



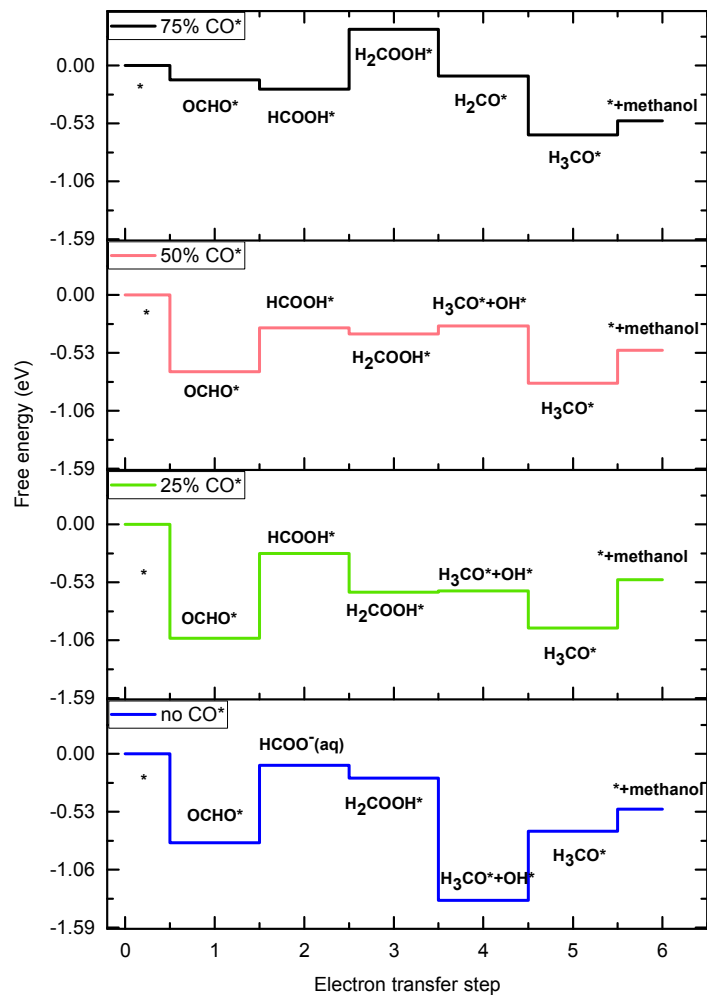
(d)

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3 *Figure 4: Free energy diagram of possible reaction intermediates for HER/CO₂RR at*
4 *four different coverages of CO* spectators – (a) 0% (b) 25% utilizing bridge sites (c)*
5 *50% utilizing half of bridge and cus sites (d) 75% utilizing all cus and half of bridge*
6 *sites.. The sites occupied by spectator CO* molecules are indicated. Adsorbate*
7 *labels are on the right of the data point and adjusted in the y-direction to avoid*
8 *superposition without changing the relative position between intermediates formed at*
9 *the same electron transfer step.*
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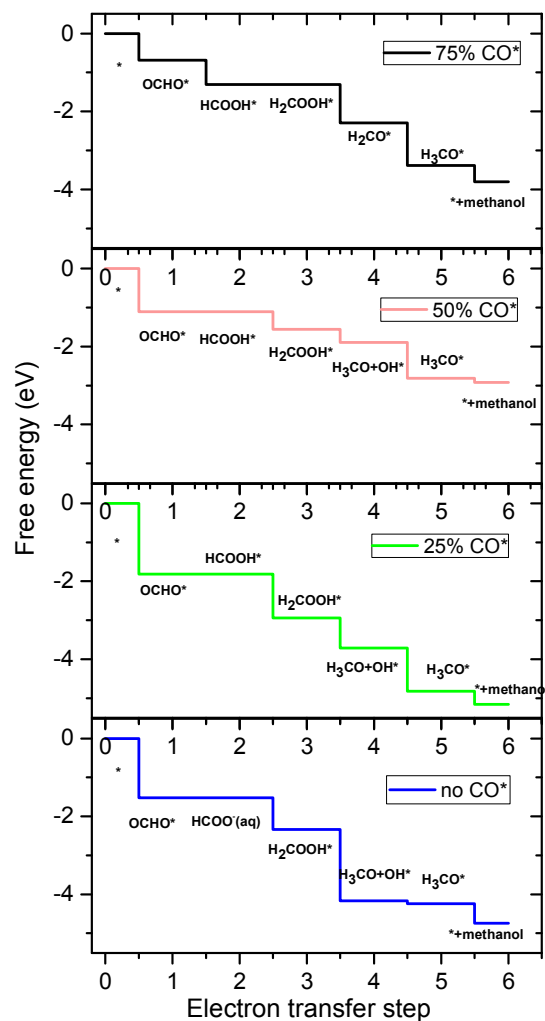
11 3.6. Impact of CO* coverage on CO₂RR

14 The free energy diagram of reaction intermediates helps to identify which reaction
15 intermediate is most favorable at a particular electron transfer step, and to determine
16 the reaction mechanism. The H*/OCHO* binding free energy correlation helps us
17 understand the HER/CO₂RR selectivity; the HCOOH* binding free energy w.r.t
18 solvated formic acid in solution (Figure 3(b)) dictates whether formic acid is the major
19 product or higher proton transfer products like methanol is dominant. If the catalyst
20 surface fails to bind formic acid molecules to the active site, it will escape into
21 solution in a solvated form, rendering further hydrogenation difficult. HCOOH* being
22 O-coordinated like OH*, the trend in the binding free energy variation at different CO*
23 coverage are similar for these adsorbates (Figure 3 (b)). Adsorbate-adsorbate
24 interaction effects inducing stronger OH* binding can open up the possibility of
25 methanol/methane as product as seen in the case of partial CO* coverage.
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30 If the formic acid molecule fails to bind at the catalyst site, H₂COOH* is expected to
31 form by application of an additional electrochemical driving force (equivalent to the
32 stability of deprotonated and solvated formic acid compared to surface bound
33 HCOOH*). However, the electrolyte needs to be saturated with formic acid to supply
34 protonated formic acid molecules. Nevertheless, the accessibility requirement of
35 solvated HCOO- and two protons close to the active site simultaneously suggests
36 the kinetics will be extremely slow stopping further reduction. Absence of any CO*
37 coverage lead to release of formic acid in solution on hydrogenation of OCHO*.
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(a)



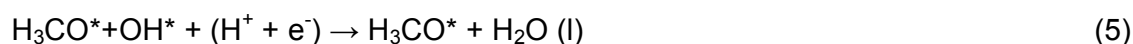
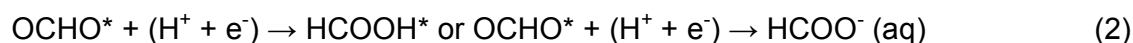
(b)

Figure 5: The thermodynamic path for methanol evolution at bridge site with 0%, 25%, 50%, 75% CO* spectator coverage at (a) 0 V-RHE and (b) at the respective methanol onset potential of -0.71, -0.78, -0.4, -0.55 V-RHE. A downward step signifies no reducing potential required for forward reaction and upward step mark need for proportional reducing potential for propelling the reaction step.

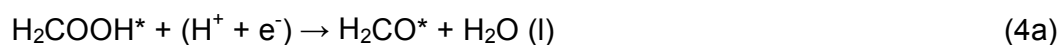
We proceed to consider formic acid in solution as a possible intermediate/product formed on OCHO* activation (Figure 5). This step leads to either surface bound HCOOH* or formic acid in solution. For CO* coverages of up to 50%, protonation of OCHO* is energetically uphill (Figure 3(b) and Figure 5(a)) forming HCOOH* on CO* covered surfaces and formic acid in the absence of CO*. This large increase in free energy requires a proportionately large reducing potential to be applied for the reaction to proceed. So OCHO* formation can reduce the HER activity in the absence of CO* simply by blocking the active sites as previously discussed. At 75% CO* coverage, OCHO* and HCOOH* are both mono-dentate. The formation of

HCOOH* from OCHO* is downhill in energy for 75% coverage (Figure 3(b)). Binding free energy of HCOOH* w.r.t. solvated formic acid in liquid water is ~0.1 eV, which is small enough for a large fraction of adsorbates to escape into solution instead of forming HCOOH* (Figure 3(b)). Weakening of the OCHO* adsorbate binding reduces the thermodynamic onset potential requirement to only -0.02 V-RHE. Therefore, at this CO* coverage, we expect a high turnover of formic acid at very low over potential, in good agreement with Spataru et. al. who observed this at only ~-0.13 V-RHE¹¹ and pH 3.9.

Investigations of the most probable methanol formation pathways at different CO* coverage using free energy diagrams enables us to identify the electron transfer steps requiring large reducing potentials to go forward. The preferred pathway has been established to be as following for CO* coverage ≤50%.



The lack of more than one active site for 75% CO* coverage forces the reaction pathway to go through H₂CO* instead of H₃CO*+OH* adsorbates (Figure 5).



Formation of OCHO* by CO₂ protonation is downhill at 0 V-RHE for all CO* coverages. Reduction of the H₂COOH* intermediate (Figure 5 and Figure 4 (a)) is either downhill or slightly uphill (0.07 eV for 50% bridge+cus CO* coverage). Formation of H₃CO* is downhill, except in absence of any CO* coverage. In the absence of any spectators, H₃CO* and OH* can both occupy bridge sites. Stronger OH* binding energies require a large reducing potential for removal. Overall, OCHO* activation for 0% CO* coverage (0.71 eV), 25% CO* coverage (0.78 eV), 50% CO* coverage (0.4 eV) and H₂COOH* formation at 75% CO* coverage (0.55 eV) are the thermodynamically most difficult steps (Figure 4 (a)). Thus application of a reducing potential same as the onset potential for these elementary steps automatically makes all other steps downhill as represented in Figure 4(b).

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3 Similar to the OCHO* adsorbate, H₂COOH* is also bi-dentate when two contiguous
4 bridge and cus sites are available (Figure 2 (e),(h)); as is the case for CO*
5 coverages up to 50%. Forcing H₂COOH* to be mono-dentate at 75% CO* coverage,
6 makes it difficult (free energy increase of 0.6 eV more than 50% CO* coverage) to
7 reduce HCOOH* forming H₂COOH* (Figure 5(a)). Consequently, this becomes the
8 elementary proton transfer step, necessitating the most reducing potential. Due to
9 interactions with spectating CO*, the stability of different intermediates change
10 differently causing reaction step height (free energy change) to vary as well. The
11 relative ΔG shift of these proton transfer step from intermediate binding energy
12 variation due to CO* spectator interaction is provided in Figure SI6. Changing the
13 CO* coverage modifies the potential needed to drive the elementary steps forward,
14 but OCHO* activation remains the most difficult step for CO* coverage 50% or lower
15 (Figure 5(a)).
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21 OH* removal is not a limitation for CO₂RR for any CO* coverages, except 50%
22 (Figure SI6), where OH* removal needs a reducing potential 80 meV lower than
23 OCHO* protonation. For CO* spectator coverage of 25% to 75%, methane and
24 methanol evolution onset potential is close to OH* removal potential (Figure 6). The
25 magnitude of change in overall onset potential for methanol is not as abrupt as that
26 observed for formic acid and hydrogen evolution (75% coverage). Observable
27 methanol evolution at different CO* coverages will therefore be dependent on kinetic
28 barriers and competition from hydrogen and formic acid evolution. For methane
29 evolution, the favored pathway is identical to methanol evolution until the 5th
30 electron/proton transfer step, i.e. formation of H₃CO*, at all CO* coverages. At the 6th
31 step, methane is released by protonation on the carbon atom of the H₃CO*
32 adsorbate, leaving an oxygen atom at the bridge site, which is eventually removed
33 as water through two protonation steps. The thermodynamic limiting steps are
34 identical to methanol evolution, except at 50% coverage, where the onset potential
35 predicted of methane evolution from thermodynamic analysis is different from
36 methanol (Figure 6). From H₃CO*, methane evolution will be preferred if C-O bond
37 cleaving has a smaller barrier than detaching Ru-O bond.
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43 Experimental evidence^{8,9} points to methanol formation having a smaller barrier, as
44 methanol has been observed to be produced in much larger quantities than
45 methane⁹⁻¹¹. Popic et. al. observed up to 30.5% product efficiency for methanol at ~
46 -0.12 V-RHE, while no CO has been reported to be present. Conversely, Spataru et
47 al. report excellent HCOOH/H₂ evolution with CO as minority product at similar
48 potential on RuO₂ electrode. These experimental results directly correlate to our
49 conclusion that, moderate CO* coverage aid in methanol evolution and high CO*
50 coverage leads to HCOOH/H₂ at very low potential.
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54 Our simulation model does not explicitly consider pH effects. The discrepancy
55 between observed and predicted methanol onset potential can originate from
56 variations in CO* coverage, pH effects or other differences like composition and
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surface structure. Preliminary work⁸ by Bandi suggested strong dependence of methanol evolution efficiency on pH and observed a much better methanol efficiency in acidic solution than neutral electrolyte. The concentration of methanol in the solvent can also affect the reaction thermodynamics of methanol production. With higher concentration, free energy of methanol increases and release of methanol from H_3CO^* intermediate needs larger reducing potential.

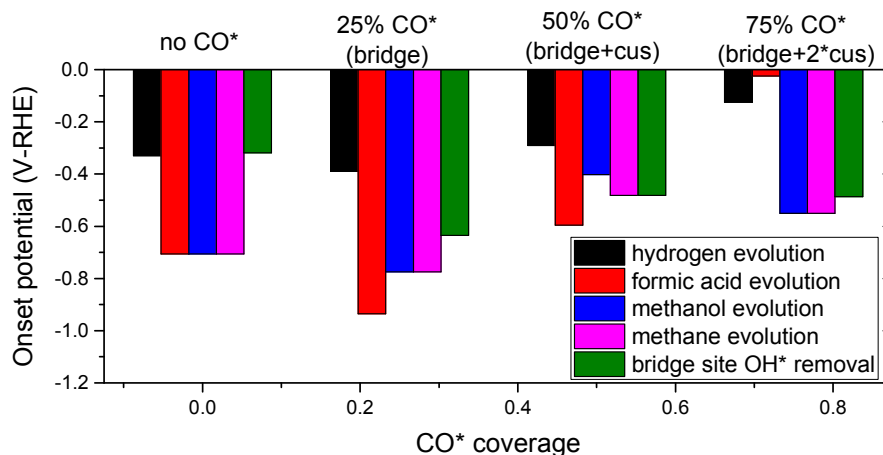


Figure 6: Onset potentials for hydrogen, formic acid, methanol, methane evolution at different CO^* spectator coverage. OH^* removal potential at bridge site included to provide information about possible OH^* blockage.

4. Conclusions

In summary, without CO^* coverage, $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ is expected to start producing hydrogen via the cus sites (-0.33 V-RHE) with hydroxylated bridge sites. Repulsive interactions with CO^* spectators destabilize H^* . If the availability of CO_2 in the reaction layer and the kinetic barriers for CO_2 activation are not limiting, OCHO^* is preferred over H^* as the 1st proton transfer product, as seen from a purely thermodynamic perspective. Transient formation of CO^* from CO_2RR leads to 25% to 75% CO^* coverage. A large reducing potential is required to protonate stable bi-dentate OCHO^* and break one Ru-O bond at 0-50% CO^* coverage. At 25% CO^* coverage, methanol is expected to be the main CO_2RR product, with an onset potential of -0.78 V-RHE because HCOOH^* is surface bound. 50% CO^* coverage is predicted to provide the best activity towards methanol formation. At this CO^* coverage, the HER cannot start above -0.56 V-RHE due to bridge site hydroxylation (Table 2) while methanol formation (onset of -0.4 V-RHE) is active at the OH^* removal potential (-0.48 V-RHE). At a sufficient reducing potential, the CO_2RR pathway to methanol is expected to show significant activity in conjunction with little hydrogen evolution for 25%-50% CO^* coverage. The 75% CO^* covered surface, on the contrary, have close to ideal onset potential for formic acid production, due to weakly bound mono-dentate OCHO^* . Once OH^* is removed from the active site, both hydrogen and formic acid is expected to form. Suppression of HER at 50% or

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3 lower CO* coverage by formation of OCHO* at the active sites is critically dependent
4 on fast reaction kinetics for OCHO* formation. Good activity and selectivity obtained
5 for CO₂RR on RuO₂ catalysts are highly dependent on the CO* coverage in the
6 reaction environment. At high CO* coverages (75%), excellent availability of CO₂ is
7 critical for formic acid evolution. If, however, CO₂ molecules are not readily available,
8 hydrogen is expected to be the only observable product.
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11 Binding energy alteration of both H* and CO₂RR intermediates emerging from
12 adsorbate interaction with CO* lets us observe switching of CO₂RR/HER activity and
13 CO₂RR product selectivity at the optimal CO* coverage. 25%-50% CO* coverage is
14 most conducive for methanol formation and higher CO* coverage for formic acid
15 evolution.
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18 RuO₂ based electrocatalysts have been shown experimentally to hold great promise
19 for direct conversion of CO₂ to methanol and formic acid. Based on this theoretical
20 exploration, we show that CO* spectators hold the key to good CO₂RR activity and
21 selectivity.
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24 **Supporting Information**

25 Additional visualizations of and explanation for CO* coverage configurations,
26 adsorbate free energy diagrams, thermodynamic data for adsorbates and molecules,
27 figure for methanol evolution elementary reaction step onset dependency on CO*
28 coverage, free energy of CO* coverage configurations, visualization for all possible
29 CO* spectator models as well as atomic position data and visualization all catalyst
30 surface simulations are provided.
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39 Sustainable Fuels and Chemicals (Grant no. 9455) are gratefully acknowledged. The
40 Niflheim supercomputer at DTU was used for the computations performed in this
41 work.
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