Supplementary Materials for

Near-infrared-featured broadband artificial photosynthesis for hydrocarbons by surface plasmon

Canyu Hu^{1,2,6}, Xing Chen^{3,6}, Jingxiang Low^{1,6}, Yaw-Wen Yang⁴, Hao Li⁵, Di Wu^{1,2}, Shuangming Chen¹, Jianbo Jin¹, He Li¹, Huanxin Ju¹, Chia-Hsin Wang⁴, Zhou Lu⁵, Ran Long¹*, Li Song¹ and Yujie Xiong^{1,2,5}*

¹Hefei National Research Center for Physical Sciences at the Microscale, School of Chemistry and Materials Science, and National Synchrotron Radiation Laboratory, University of Science and Technology of China, Hefei, Anhui 230026, China.

²Institute of Energy, Hefei Comprehensive National Science Center, 350 Shushanhu Rd., Hefei, Anhui 230031, China.

³Institute of Molecular Plus, Tianjin University, 92 Weijin Road, Tianjin 300072, China.

⁴National Synchrotron Radiation Research Center, Hsinchu 30076, Taiwan.

⁵Anhui Engineering Research Center of Carbon Neutrality, College of Chemistry and Materials Science, School of Physics and Electronic Information, and Key Laboratory of Functional Molecular Solids, Ministry of Education, Anhui Normal University, Wuhu, Anhui 241002, China.

⁶These authors contributed equally.

Correspondence to: yixiong@ustc.edu.cn (Yujie Xiong); longran@ustc.edu.cn (Ran Long)

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Supplementary Text Figs. S1 to S30 Tables S1 to S7 References (1–57)

Supplementary Text

Determination of apparent quantum efficiency (AQE)

To obtain the AQE, the light was filtered by different monochromatic filters, and the AQE was calculated as following equation:

$$AQE = \frac{8 \times mol_{CH_4}}{P \times t \times S \times \frac{\lambda}{hc}}$$

where mol_{CH_4} , P, t, S, λ , h and c represent the molar number of generated CH_4 , incident light intensity, irradiation time, irradiation area, incident wavelength, Planck constant, and speed of light, respectively.

Determination of turnover number (TON)

The volume of CuPd₂ shell:

$$V_{shell} = \pi r_{Au \, rod@CuPd_2}^2 h_{Au \, rod@CuPd_2} - \pi r_{Au \, rod}^2 h_{Au \, rod}$$

where r and h represent the section radius and length of nanorod, respectively.

The surface area of CuPd₂ shell:

$$S_{shell} = 2\pi r_{Au\,rod@CuPd_2}^2 + 2\pi r_{Au\,rod@CuPd_2} h_{Au\,rod@CuPd_2}$$

The surface ratio of Cu atoms:

$$ratio_{surface\ Cu} = \frac{2S_{shell}}{a_{CuPd_2}^2} / \frac{4V_{shell}}{V_{CuPd_2}}$$

where unit cell parameter $a_{\text{CuPd}_2} = ca$. 0.378 nm, and unit cell volume $V_{\text{CuPd}_2} = ca$. 0.054 nm³ according to the Vegard's law.

The turnover number was calculated by the following equation:

$$TON_{Cu\ exposed} = \frac{mol_{CO_2}}{ratio_{surface\ Cu} \times mol_{total\ Cu}}$$

where mol_{CO_2} is the number of formed CH₄ molecules in 3 h of illumination. 3 hours were selected as a demonstration given that no catalyst deactivation was observed in long-term operation.

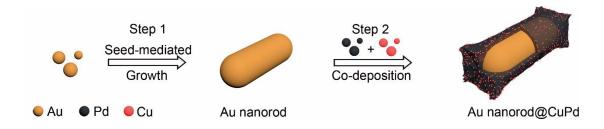


Fig. S1. Schematic illustration for the synthesis of Au rod@CuPd.

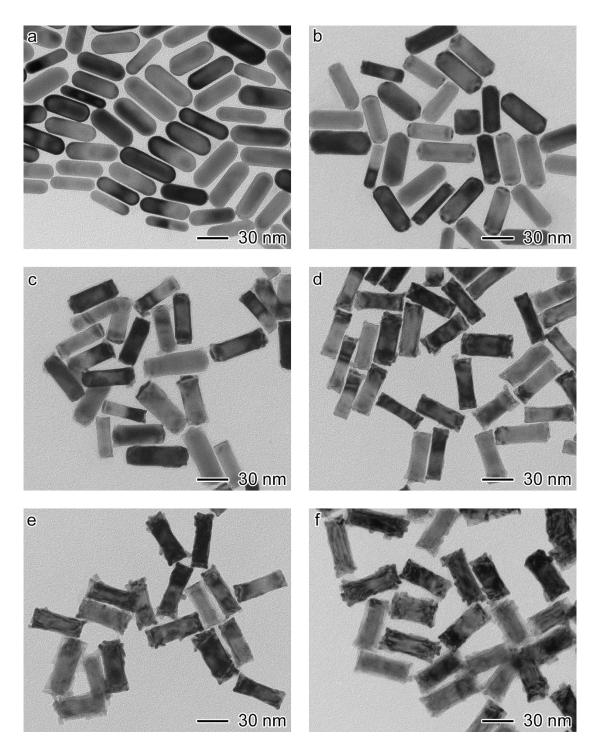


Fig. S2. (a–f) TEM images of Au rod (a), Au rod@CuPd₂-0.1 (b), Au rod@CuPd₂-0.2 (c), Au rod@CuPd₂-0.6 (d), Au rod@CuPd₂-0.9 (e), and Au rod@CuPd₂-1.2 (f).

As shown in Fig. S2a, the as-synthesized Au rods have an average diameter of 14 nm and length of 43 nm with an aspect ratio of 3.1.

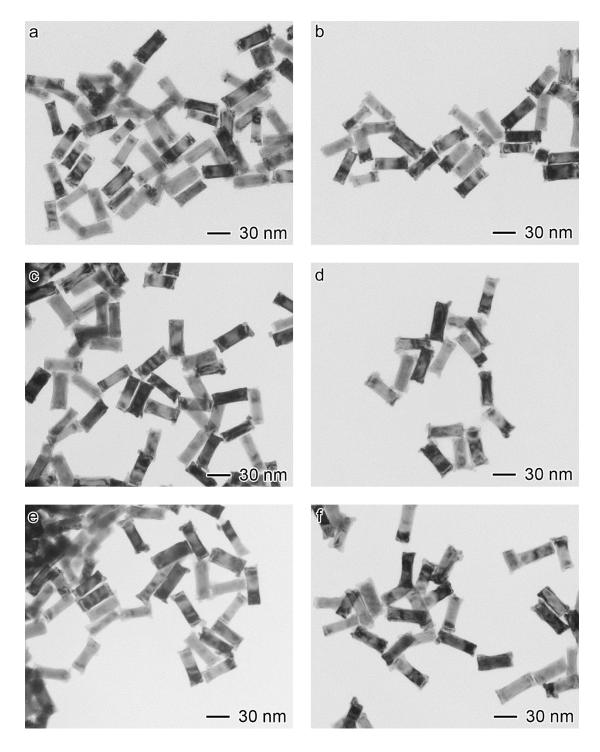


Fig. S3. (a–f) TEM images of Au rod@CuPd $_2$ (a), Au rod@CuPd $_{2.5}$ (b), Au rod@CuPd $_{3.6}$ (c), Au rod@CuPd $_{6.1}$ (d), Au rod@CuPd $_{8.8}$ (e) and Au rod@CuPd $_{14.2}$ (f).

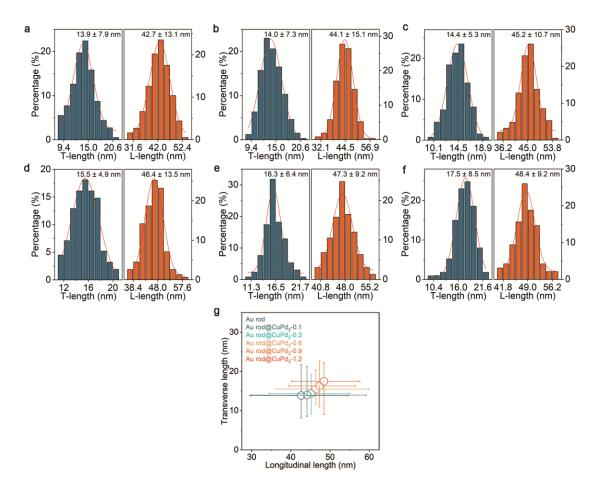


Fig. S4. (a–f) Transverse and longitudinal size distribution histograms for Au rods (a), Au rod@CuPd₂-0.1 (b), Au rod@CuPd₂-0.2 (c), Au rod@CuPd₂-0.6 (d), Au rod@CuPd₂-0.9 (e) and Au rod@CuPd₂-1.2 (f). (g) Size change trends in samples with different amounts of CuPd precursors. The error bars represent the standard deviation of the experiments.

Fig. S4 shows that the sample sizes become larger with the increasing amount of CuPd precursors. Especially, the increases in size preferentially emerge in the longitudinal length direction. This is because CuPd alloy favors depositing on both ends of the Au rods, which have a relatively high surface energy.

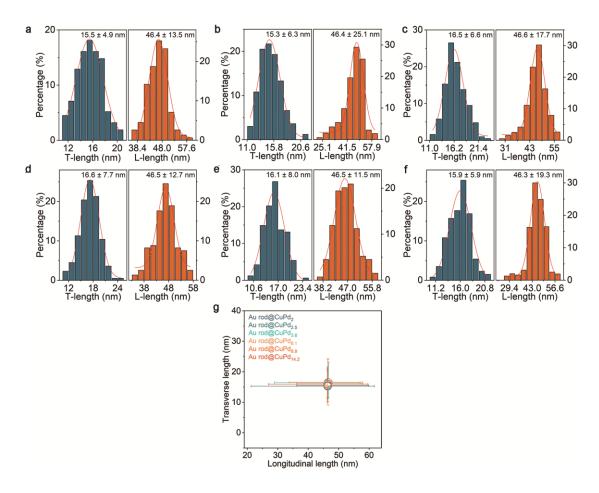


Fig. S5. (**a**–**f**) Transverse and longitudinal size distribution histograms for Au rod@CuPd₂ (a), Au rod@CuPd_{2.5} (b), Au rod@CuPd_{3.6} (c), Au rod@CuPd_{6.1} (d), Au rod@CuPd_{8.8} (e) and Au rod@CuPd_{14.2} (f). (**g**) Size change trends in samples with different Cu/Pd ratios above. The error bars represent the standard deviation of the experiments.

Fig. S5 shows that the sample sizes have no obvious change when Cu/Pd ratios in the shell are altered.

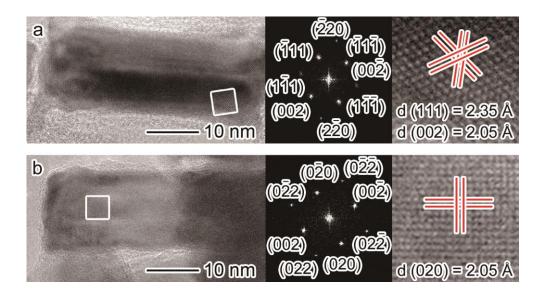


Fig. S6. (a and b) HRTEM image of Au rod@CuPd₂ recorded along [110] (a) and [100] (b) orientation with corresponding FFT pattern and magnified HRTEM image taken from selected area.

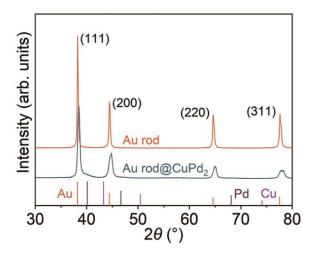


Fig. S7. Powder XRD patterns of as-prepared Au rods (orange line) and Au rod@CuPd₂ (cyan line).

XRD patterns (Fig. S7) further confirm the crystal structure of the prepared samples. Specifically, the XRD diffraction peaks of Au rod@CuPd₂ match well with the (111), (200), (220) and (311) planes of face-centered cubic Au rod, except for a minor shift and widening of the peaks under the influence of CuPd shell.

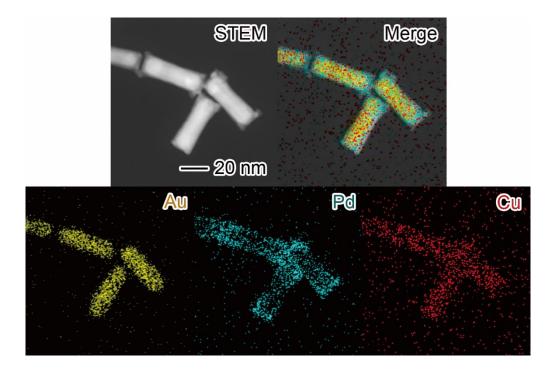


Fig. S8. Scanning transmission electron microscopy image for Au rod@CuPd₂ and corresponding EDS elemental mapping profiles for Au (orange), Pd (cyan), Cu (red) and mixed elements.

The elemental mapping profiles are shown in Fig. S8 and suggest that the Au element is concentrated in the core, while Pd and Cu elements are evenly distributed on the surrounding shell.

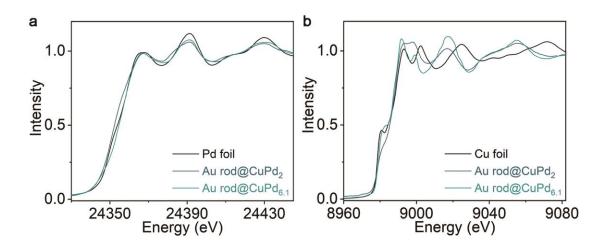


Fig. S9. (a and b) Normalized Pd K-edge (a) and Cu K-edge (b) XANES spectra of Au $rod@CuPd_2$ and Au $rod@CuPd_{6.1}$ in reference to Pd foil and Cu foil.

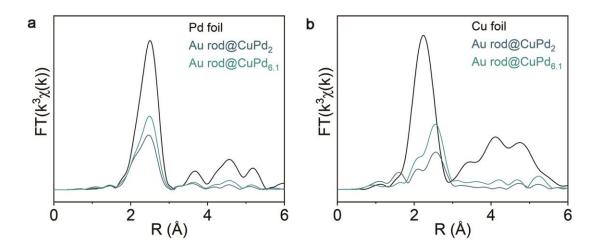


Fig. S10. EXAFS measurements. (**a** and **b**) k^3 -weighted Fourier-transform Pd K-edge (a) and Cu K-edge (b) EXAFS spectra of Au rod@CuPd₂ and Au rod@CuPd_{6.1} in reference to Pd foil and Cu foil.

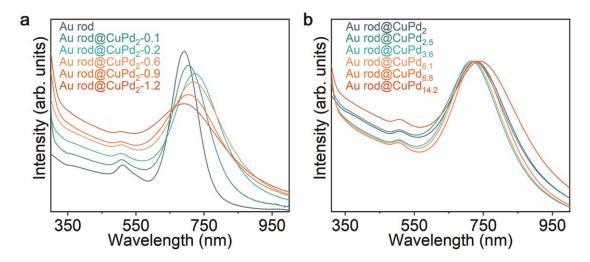


Fig. S11. Optical properties. (**a** and **b**) UV-vis extinction spectra of Au rod and Au rod@CuPd with different CuPd shell thicknesses (a) and different Cu/Pd molar ratios (b).

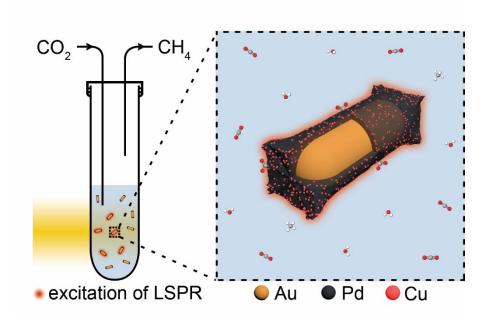


Fig. S12. Schematic illustration of the reaction where a CO_2 -saturated solution containing Au rod@CuPd₂ nanoparticles in a quartz tube is illuminated with full-spectrum light (left) and the physiochemical processes involved in the reaction system where the nanoparticles scatter and/or absorb one or more photons for initiating CO_2RR (right).

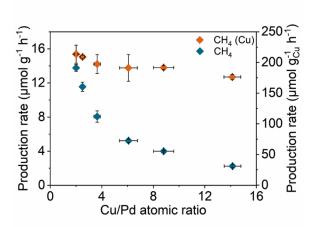


Fig. S13. Average production rates of CH₄ over Au rod@CuPd with different Cu/Pd atomic ratios (cyan dots) and those normalized by the amounts of Cu atoms (orange dots). The error bars represent the standard deviation of the experiments.

The catalytic experiments in Fig. S13 are carried out in CO_2 -saturated water and CO_2 atmosphere without any sacrificial agent under 400 mW cm⁻² full-spectrum light illumination.

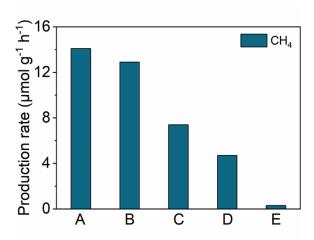


Fig. S14. Average production rates of CH₄ in light-driven CO₂RR in CO₂-saturated water for 3 h over Au rod@CuPd₂ under 400 mW cm⁻² full-spectrum illumination (A), under simulated solar spectrum illumination (B), and under illumination with light filtered by a long-pass filter ($\lambda > 600$ nm, C), wideband-pass filter (600 nm $> \lambda > 450$ nm, D) or UV cut filter ($\lambda < 450$ nm, E).

As shown in Fig. S14, thanks to the broad light extinction cross-section in the visible and near-infrared regions, the photocatalytic efficiency produced by low-energy light ($\lambda > 600$ nm) marvelously accounts for more than 60% of the total solar-to-chemical energy conversion efficiency.

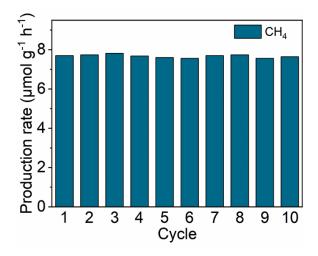


Fig. S15. Cycling tests (each run for 3 h) for Au $rod@CuPd_2$ under 800 nm light illumination.

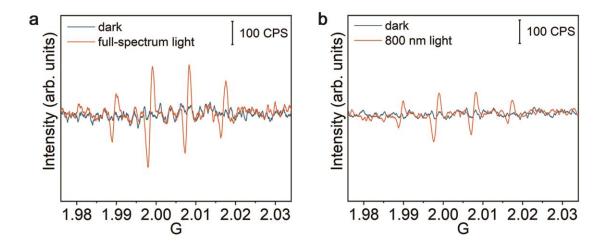


Fig. S16. (a and b) ESR spectra of DMPO in the presence of Au rod@CuPd₂ under (a) full-spectrum light and (b) 800 nm monochromatic light irradiation.

To verify the oxidized products formed during the reaction in CO_2 -saturated water by Au rod@CuPd₂, we further employ electron spin resonance (ESR) spectroscopy to examine the system. With 5,5-dimethy-1-pyrroline N-oxide (DMPO) as a spin-trapping agent, a nearly 1:2:2:1 quartet signal is observed for nitroxide—OH spin adduct (DMPO-OH, $a^N = a^H = 1.49$ mT) under the full-spectrum irradiation in the presence of Au rod@CuPd₂ (Fig. S16a), confirming that the hydroxyl radical (•OH) is the main oxygen species produced from water oxidation by photogenerated holes. In addition, we also perform the characterization using the Xe lamp with 800 nm band-pass filter as a light source (Fig. S16b). A similar 1:2:2:1 quartet signal is obtained, suggesting that the low-energy photons can also drive CO_2RR and water oxidation using Au rod@CuPd₂ as a catalyst.

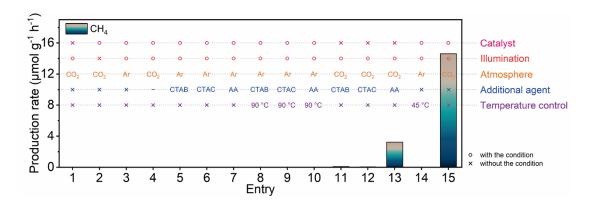


Fig. S17. CH₄ production rates of plasmon-induced CO₂RR over Au rod@CuPd₂ under various reaction conditions (see also Table S4). "–" stands for the case without H₂O.

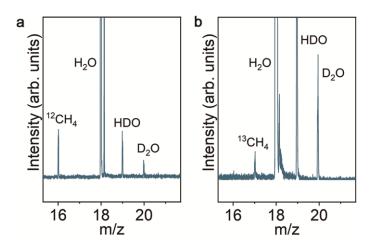


Fig. S18. (a and b) Mass spectra of gas products after CO_2RR using Au rod@CuPd₂ as a catalyst in $^{12}CO_2$ (a) and $^{13}CO_2$ (b) atmosphere. The reactions are conducted in CO_2 -saturated water and 1 atm CO_2 atmosphere under 400 mW cm⁻² full-spectrum illumination. The spectra are collected by an SVUV-PIMS.

In contrast to conventional mass spectrometry, the dissociation energy of SVUV-PIMS can be tuned by changing the light energy of synchrotron radiation, to avoid the dissociation of detected molecules during photoionization. Under this circumstance, the detected molecules exhibit unique mass-to-charge ratios. The m/z peaks at 18, 19 and 20 are attributed to H₂O, HDO and D₂O, respectively.

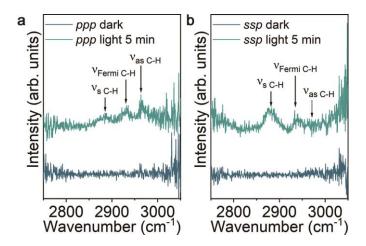


Fig. S19. (a and b) The offline SFG-VS spectra recorded during the light-driven CO_2RR over Au rod@CuPd₂. The dark blue lines are collected under the dark condition and the cyan lines are collected after illumination for 20 min in CO_2 -saturated water. The data are collected with ppp (a) and ssp (b) polarization. The relative intensities of $v_{s C-H}$, $v_{Fermi C-H}$ and $v_{as C-H}$ for the ppp and ssp polarization are different, because of their difference in inherent sensitivity in the two different polarization modes.

The sum frequency generation is a second-order nonlinear process, which occurs when short infrared (~fs) and visible (~ps) laser pulses are overlapped in time and space. Due to interference effects, SFG-VS inherently excludes contributions from the bulk and typically only light from interfacial regions can be detected. As shown in Fig. S19, a and b, no SFG-VS signal exists before illumination.

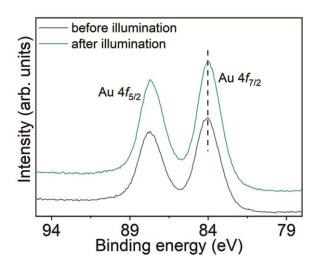


Fig. S20. Au 4f NAP-XPS spectra as reference Au foil before illumination (dark blue line) and after illumination (cyan line).

It is worth mentioning that comparing the Au 4f NAP-XPS spectra of Au foil as a reference before and after illumination, no obvious changes can be found, ensuring that the NAP-XPS spectra obtained in this work are not subjected to the possible energy drift of the synchrotron radiation source (Fig. S20).

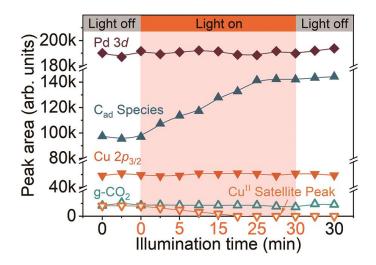


Fig. S21. Peak areas of Pd 3d, Cu 2p and C 1s NAP-XPS spectra under different illumination times.

In order to highlight the changes in the valence and content of elements, we investigate the area changes of different characteristic peaks of the Cu, Pd and C NAP-XPS spectra in Fig. 2a, c and Fig. S23, respectively. As shown in Fig. S21, the peak areas of Pd 3d and Cu 2p NAP-XPS spectra remain almost unchanged, indicating that the concentration or distribution of Pd and Cu in Au rod@CuPd2 is kept stable before and after illumination. Notably, the Cu^{II} satellite peak gradually decreases and eventually disappears with the evolution of illumination time, illustrating that the Cu elements are gradually reduced under light illumination by the hot electrons generated by LSPR relaxation. As for g-CO2, its peak area remains almost unchanged, implying that the pressure of CO2 in NAP-XPS chamber is kept stable throughout the experiment.

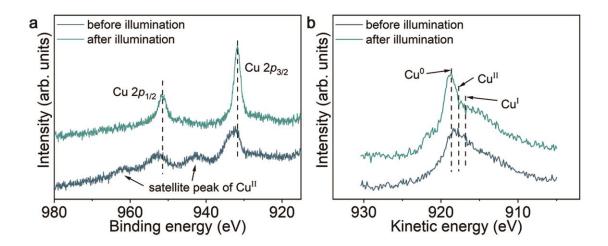


Fig. S22. (a and b) Cu 2*p* NAP-XPS spectra (a) and Cu LVV AES spectra (b) for Au rod@CuPd₂ before illumination (dark blue line) and after illumination for 30 min (cyan line).

The Cu 2p core-level spectra of Au rod@CuPd₂ are illustrated in Fig. S22a. Before illumination, Au rod@CuPd₂ shows a broad peak at 933.1 eV attributed to Cu^{II} $2p_{3/2}$ and a satellite peak at 942.8 eV, manifesting the presence of Cu^{II} species. After illumination for 30 min, the reduction of Cu^{II} $2p_{3/2}$ binding energy to 931.8 eV (for reference, the binding energy peaks of Cu^{II} $2p_{3/2}$ and Cu^{II} $2p_{3/2}$ are located at 932.6 eV and 932.4 eV, respectively) and the disappearance of the Cu^{II} satellite peak clearly declare that Cu undergoes a photoreduction process, which is also corroborated by the shift of the Cu LVV Auger electron spectra to higher kinetic energy (see Fig. S22b) 2 .

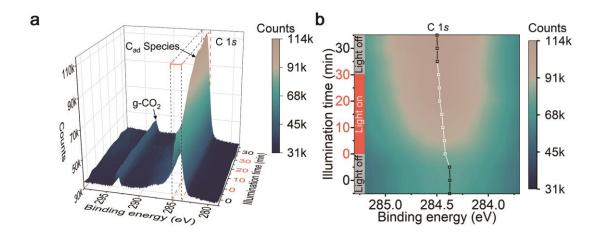


Fig. S23. (a and b) In situ NAP-XPS spectra of C 1s (a) and contour plot for the amplified top view of the selected box-shaped area (b). The in situ NAP-XPS data are recorded continuously for 1 h over Au rod@CuPd₂ at 0.25 mbar CO₂ atmosphere and light illumination is introduced into the catalytic system in the middle 30 min (marked in orange color). Representative peak positions are marked with open squares in b. The squares and lines in black and white indicate unilluminated and illuminated conditions, respectively.

We also pay attention to the evolution of C species adsorbed on the surface of Au rod@CuPd₂. Two peaks at 284.4 and 293.2 eV (see Fig. S23a) are attributed to the adsorbed C species (C_{ad} species) and gaseous CO₂ (g-CO₂), respectively. As revealed by summarized peak areas in Fig. S21, once the light is turned on, the peak area of C_{ad} species gradually increases to a stable value, suggesting that the surface plasmon can induce additional active sites for adsorption and activation of CO₂ molecules. As for g-CO₂, its peak area remains almost unchanged, implying that the pressure of CO₂ in NAP-XPS chamber is kept stable throughout the experiment. Moreover, the contour plot for the amplified top view of the selected box-shaped area (see Fig. S23b) clearly illustrates the shift of C 1s XPS peak position toward higher binding energy under continuous illumination. According to the previous literature, such a peak position shift can be attributed to the gradual replacement of sp²-C species (binding energy around 284.0 eV) by sp³-C species (binding energy around 284.8 eV), which is consistent with the hydrocarbon production by plasmon-induced CO₂RR.

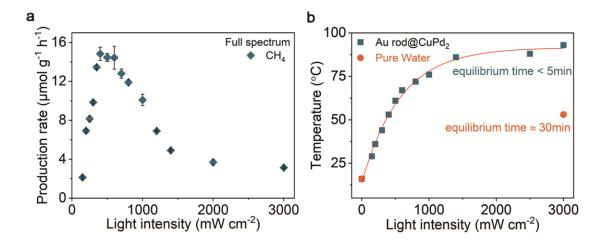


Fig. S24. (a) Average production rates of CH₄ as a function of light intensity (full-spectrum, CO₂-saturated water). (b) The changes in system temperature with the light intensity (full-spectrum, CO₂-saturated water). The error bars represent the standard deviation of the experiments.

To examine how photon energy is coupled into CO₂ activation, we perform CO₂RR by altering photon flux (i.e., light intensity) as the rate of charge-carrier formation in plasmonic metals. As shown in Fig. S24a, a volcano-shaped relationship emerges between the production rate of CH₄ and light intensity. This is because the photothermal effect of Au rod@CuPd₂ (see Fig. S24b) inevitably reduces the solubility of CO₂ in the reaction solution, resulting in a slowdown in CO₂RR, especially under intense light illumination. Therefore, for fundamental understanding, the relationship between reaction rate and solution temperature is investigated based on a series of temperature-control experiments.

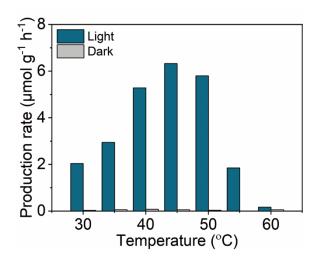


Fig. S25. Average production rates of CH₄ over Au rod@CuPd₂ under 800 nm light illumination with constant intensity of 400 mW cm⁻² (cyan bars) or in dark environment (gray bars) at various temperatures between 30–60 °C in CO₂-saturated water.

In the dark condition, no any CH_4 product has been detected, demonstrating that the thermal effect cannot initiate the CO_2RR (Fig. S25). In sharp contrast, under constant monochromatic light illumination (800 nm, 400 mW cm⁻²), the production rates of CH_4 show a volcano-shaped relationship with the reaction temperature and reach the maximum at 45 °C.

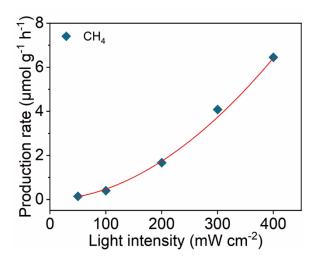


Fig. S26. Average production rates of CH_4 over $Au \ rod@CuPd_2$ at thermostatic control of 45 °C under 800 nm light illumination with an intensity range of 50–400 mW cm⁻² in CO_2 -saturated water.

After confirming the optimal temperature, we further perform CO₂RR by altering light intensity. The superlinear law dependence in Fig. S26 appears between CH₄ production rate and light intensity, suggesting that the CO₂RR using Au rod@CuPd₂ is a reaction involving multiple-photon excitation.

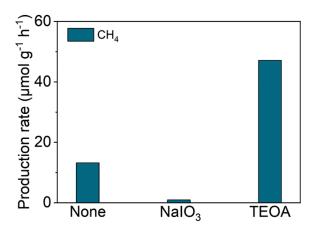


Fig. S27. Average production rates of CH₄ over Au rod@CuPd₂ under irradiation of 400 mW cm⁻² full-spectrum light in CO₂-saturated water with no sacrificial agent (None) or sodium Iodate (NaIO₃) as electron sacrificial agent or triethanolamine (TEOA) as hole sacrificial agent.

In addition, the CO_2RR tests are also performed with the addition of electron or hole sacrificial agent, showing a decrease (0.9 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and increase (47.1 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) in CH_4 production rate in comparison with that in the absence of sacrificial agent, respectively (Fig. S27). These results conclusively affirm the crucial role of plasmon-induced hot electrons in CO_2RR over Au rod@CuPd₂.

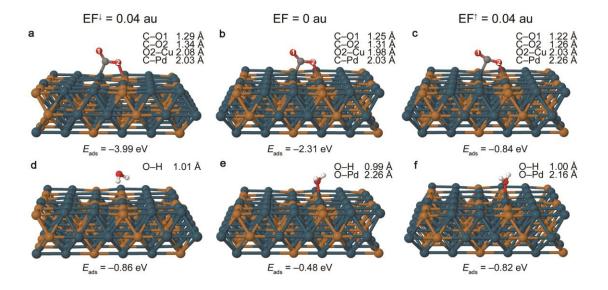


Fig. S28. (a–f) Optimization geometries of CO₂ (a–c) and H₂O (d–f) adsorbed on a CuPd (100) surface in the absence (middle column) and presence of electric field (left and right columns). The field pointing to the surface is denoted as EF⁺ and away from the surface is represented as EF⁺. The key bond lengths relevant to the adsorbed molecules and adsorption energies are listed in the individual structures.

The optimized geometries and adsorption energies of CO₂ adsorbed on CuPd (100) surface with and without electric field are illustrated in Fig. S28, a to c. When the applied electric field points to the surface, the C-O bond length of adsorbed CO₂ is elongated and the corresponding adsorption energy is reduced from -2.31 to -3.99 eV (Fig. S28b). In contrast, the opposite electric field leads to a shorter C-O bond length and a less stable adsorption state (-0.84 Å) (Fig. S28c). Nonetheless, the adsorption energy remains sufficiently negative to maintain the stable adsorption of CO₂ molecules. Under these circumstances, the adsorbed CO₂ molecules are forced to bend (electric field pointing toward sample) and stretch (electric field pointing away from the sample) with the high-frequency oscillation electric field, thereby being driven to the vibrational excited state. Therefore, when the electric field points toward the catalyst surface, the cleavage of the C–O bond can be triggered over a much lower energy barrier compared to the case in the absence of an electric field. In addition, we have performed a similar simulation by substituting H₂O for CO₂ molecules, showing that the interaction between H₂O and CuPd (100) surface is relatively weak, and thus the electric field can only slightly change the bond length of O–H (Fig. S28, d to f).

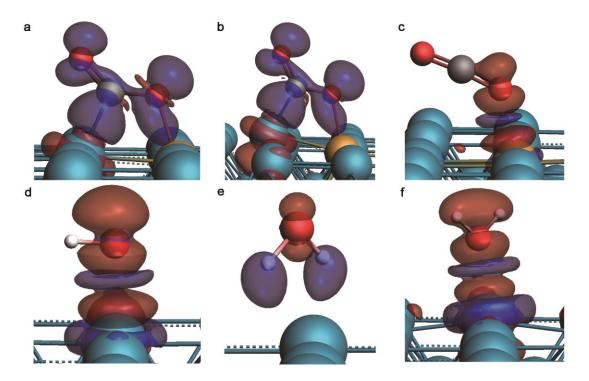


Fig. S29. (a–f) The most important deformation density from pEDA analysis with NOCV extension in CO₂ (a–c) and H₂O (d–f) adsorbed on a CuPd (100) surface in the absence (left column) and presence of electric field towards (middle column) or away from (right column) the surface. The color code indicates a charge flow from red to blue. Isovalue is set to 0.0005.

We explore how the charges flow between reactants and CuPd (100) surface. According to the simulation results in Fig. S29, the Hirshfeld charges are -0.136 e, -0.776 e and 0.154 e on the CO₂ molecules and -0.003 e, -0.346 e and 0.227 e on the H₂O molecules in the absence and presence of electric fields toward and away from the CuPd (100) surface, respectively. The charge transfer is from CO₂/H₂O to CuPd when the electric field points toward metal surface, and such a charge transfer reverses under the electric field pointing oppositely. It should be also noted that the Hirshfeld charge on the H₂O molecule is close to 0 in the absence of electric field (Fig. S29), implying that the electrons can hardly migrate to the H₂O. This result clearly shows that, although H₂O molecules are not as sensitive as CO₂ to the alternating electric field, the effect of the plasmon-induced electric field can also play an indispensable role in facilitating the migration of electrons from catalyst to H₂O for the subsequent reduction reaction.

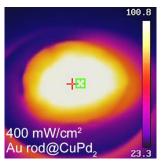


Fig. S30. Surface thermography of Au rod@CuPd₂ on a quartz wool sheet under 400 mW cm⁻² full-spectrum light illumination.

In order to assess the local temperature on the surface of the nanoparticles, we employ the infrared thermal imager to obtain thermal profile of our catalyst sample under 400 mW cm $^{-2}$ full-spectrum light illumination. As shown in Fig. S30, the highest temperature can reach 100.8 °C at the center of the quartz wool sheet after 5 min illumination.

Table S1. The molar ratios of Pd/Cu and CuPd/Au in the Au rod@CuPd₂-y samples calculated from different precursor usages and experimentally determined by ICP-MS.

Sample	Experimental molar ratio of Pd/Cu	Calculated molar ratio of Pd/Cu	Experimental molar ratio of CuPd/Au	Calculated molar ratio of CuPd/Au
Au rod@CuPd2-0.1	2.6	1.0	0.1	0.2
Au rod@CuPd ₂ -0.2	2.4	1.0	0.2	0.5
Au rod@CuPd2-0.6	2.0	1.0	0.6	1.0
Au rod@CuPd ₂ -0.9	1.9	1.0	0.9	1.5
Au rod@CuPd ₂ -1.2	2.2	1.0	1.2	2.0

The samples are denoted by Au rod@CuPd $_x$ -y, where x is the molar ratio of Pd/Cu and y is the molar ratio of CuPd/Au. Given that the size of Au is fixed, the molar ratio of CuPd/Au can reflect the thickness of the shell.

Table S2. The molar ratios of Pd/Cu and CuPd/Au in the Au rod@CuPd_x samples calculated from different precursor ratios and experimentally determined by ICP-MS.

Sample	Experimental molar ratio of Pd/Cu	Calculated molar ratio of Pd/Cu	Experimental molar ratio of CuPd/Au	Calculated molar ratio of CuPd/Au
Au rod@CuPd2	2.0	1.0	0.6	1.0
Au rod@CuPd _{2.5}	2.5	1.5	0.6	1.0
Au rod@CuPd _{3.6}	3.6	2.3	0.6	1.0
Au rod@CuPd _{6.1}	6.1	4.0	0.7	1.0
Au rod@CuPd _{8.8}	8.8	9.0	0.7	1.0
Au rod@CuPd _{14.2}	14.2	19.0	0.7	1.0

For the sake of easy interpretation, the molar ratio of CuPd/Au is omitted when it is equal to 0.6 or 0.7.

Table S3. Fitting results of Pd K-edge and Cu K-edge EXAFS data.

Sample	Bond	CN	Bond length(Å)	$\sigma^2 (10^{-3} \text{ Å}^2)$
Au rod@CuPd ₂	Cu–Cu	1.6	2.58	10.9
	Cu-Pd	5.7	2.65	11.4
	Pd-Cu	2.1	2.65	11.4
	Pd-Pd	6.7	2.72	7.8
Au rod@CuPd _{6.1}	Cu–Cu	0.7	2.58	9.3
	Cu-Pd	6.6	2.68	9.0
	Pd-Cu	1.3	2.68	9.0
	Pd-Pd	8.6	2.73	7.6
Cu foil	Cu–Cu	12	2.54	7.9
Pd foil	Pd-Pd	12	2.74	5.9

Table S4. CH_4 production rates of plasmon-induced CO_2RR over Au $rod@CuPd_2$ under various reaction conditions.

Entry	Catalyst	Light ^a	Atmos- phere	Additional agent	Additional temperature control	CH ₄ production rate (µmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)
1	×b	0 °	CO_2	×	×	Trace
2	0	×	CO_2	×	×	Trace
3	0	0	Ar	×	×	Trace
4	0	0	CO_2	_ d	×	Trace
5	0	0	Ar	0.1 mM CTAB	×	Trace
6	0	0	Ar	0.1 mM CTAC	×	Trace
7	0	0	Ar	0.1 mM AA	×	Trace
8	×	0	Ar	0.1 mM CTAB	90 ℃	Trace
9	×	0	Ar	0.1 mM CTAC	90 ℃	Trace
10	×	0	Ar	0.1 mM AA	90 ℃	Trace
11	0	0	CO_2	0.1 mM CTAB	×	0.07
12	0	0	CO_2	0.1 mM CTAC	×	0.04
13	0	0	CO_2	0.1 mM AA	×	3.22
14	0	0	Ar	×	45 ℃	Trace

^a This experiment is conducted under 400 mW cm⁻² 800 nm light illumination.

 $^{^{\}rm b}$ "x" stands for the case without catalyst or light illumination or additional temperature control.

 $^{^{\}rm c}$ "0" stand for the case with catalyst or light illumination.

^d "-" stand for the case without H₂O.

Table S5. CH₄ production rates of plasmon-induced CO₂RR over Au rod@CuPd₂ under various reaction conditions in a gas-solid biphase reactor.

Entry	Catalyst	Light ^a	Atmosphere	Additional agent	Additional temperature control	CH ₄ production rate (µmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)
1	0 b	× ^c	$CO_2 + H_2O$	×	100 ℃	Trace
2	0	×	$CO_2 + H_2O$	×	150 ℃	Trace
3	0	×	$CO_2 + H_2O$	×	200 ℃	Trace

^a This experiment is conducted under 400 mW cm⁻² light illumination.

Considering that the actual surface temperature of the plasmonic metal nanostructures may be higher than the surface temperature detected by the thermal imager (see Fig. S30), we conduct the supplementary control experiments in the dark at 100, 150 and 200 $^{\circ}$ C in a mixture of CO₂ and H₂O vapor. Generally, the CH₄ can hardly be detected, indicating that the light is necessary for the production of CH₄.

^b "x" stands for the case without catalyst or light illumination or additional temperature control.

^c "o" stand for the case with catalyst or light illumination.

Table S6. Comparison of the production rates toward artificial photosynthesis without using sacrificial agent.

Photocatalytic system	Primary product	Production rate $(\mu mol g^{-1} h^{-1})$	Ref.
Cu/carbon nitride	CO	11.21	3
	CH ₃ OH	1.75	
	CH_4	0.61	
α -Fe ₂ O ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄	CO	27.2	4
ZnSe/CdS dot-on-rods	CO	11.3	5
NH ₂ -MIL-125/TiO ₂ @COF-366-Ni-OH-HAc	CO	16.87	6
Pt@h-BN	CH_4	9.2	7
TiO ₂ /conjugated porous polymers	CO	9	8
	CH_4	3	
TiO ₂ -mesocrystals/WO _{3-x} -nanowires	CH_4	16.3	9
$CdS:Dy^{3+}/g-C_3N_4$	CO	23.4	10
	CH ₄	8.06	
FeTCP-OH-Co	CO	17.72	11
NNU-31-Zn	НСООН	26.3	12
TTCOF-Zn	CO	4.48	13
Pt-defective CN	CH ₄	6.3	14
C dot/O-modified CN	CH ₃ OH	24.2	15

Table S6. Continued.

Photocatalytic system	Primary product	Production rate $(\mu \text{mol } g^{-1} h^{-1})$	Ref.
$Cu_2O@Cu_3(BTC)_2$	CH_4	0.09	16
$MAPbI_3@PCN-221(Fe_{0.2})$	CO	6.64	17
	CH_4	12.85	
PFC-58-30	CO	7.27	18
	НСООН	29.8	
$COF-318-TiO_2$	CO	69.7	19
$\mathrm{Bi_{19}Br_{3}S_{27}}$	CH ₃ OH	0.88	20
	CO	0.5	
	CH_4	1.15	
TCOF-MnMo ₆	CO	37.25	21
$WO_3 \cdot ODDIN_2O$	CH ₃ COOH	9.4	22
$SiC@MoS_2$	CH_4	13.18	23
$Rb_{0.33}WO_3$	НСООН	3.26	24
	CH ₃ OH	11.84	
BiOCl with Bi vacancies	СО	21.99	25
C-doped SnS ₂	CH ₃ CHO	9.66	26
Ni-nanocluster loaded black TiO ₂	CH₃CHO	1.6	27

Table S6. Continued.

Photocatalytic system	Primary product	Production rate (μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Ref.	
$\mathrm{Ag/TiO_2}$	CH ₄	2.4	28	
	CH ₃ OH	1.8		
	CO	1.3		
vacancy-defect AgInP ₂ S ₆	C_2H_4	7.38	29	
	CO	1.82		
	$\mathrm{CH_4}$	0.93		
TiO ₂ /NH ₂ –UiO-66	CO	0.85	30	
$CsPbBr_3/USGO/\alpha$ - Fe_2O_3	CO	73.8	31	
Cu ₂ O/PCN	CH ₃ OH	34.5	32	
$Cs_3Sb_2(Br_xI_{1-x})9 (0 \le x \le 1)$ perovskite	CO	9.23	33	
CoPcPDA-CMP	CO	14.27	34	
Au rod@CuPd ₂	CH ₄	550	This work	

Table S7. Comparison of the AQEs toward artificial photosynthesis without using sacrificial agent.

Photocatalytic system	Primary product	Catalyst type	Light irradiation wavelength (nm)	AQE (%)	Ref.
Cu/carbon nitride	CO/MeOH/CH ₄	SC	353	1.32	3
Cd/N-doped graphene	CO/CH ₄	SC	420	0.9	35
oxygen vacancy modified BiOIO ₃	CO	SC	365	0.34	36
$\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3/g\text{-}C_3N_4$	CO	SC	365	0.499	4
			420	0.963	
$g-C_3N_4/MnO_x/Au-TiO_2$	CH_4	SC	420	4.92	37
Ni single atom/ZrO ₂	CO	SC	365	0.92	38
			420	0.36	
BiOIO ₃ with {010} and {100} facets	CO	SC	365	0.1	39
TiO ₂ /graphdiyne	CO/CH ₄	SC	365	0.2	40
$BiVO_4$ {010}-Au-Cu ₂ O	CH ₄ /CO	SC	500	0.44	41
BiVO ₄ nanosheets/Zinc phthalocyanine	CO/CH ₄	SC/homo	590	0.35	42
(cyclopentadienyl ruthenium) _{0.6} /TiO ₂	CH_4	SC/homo	420	0.56	43
$\mathrm{Bi}_{12}\mathrm{O}_{17}\mathrm{Cl}_2$	CO	SC	400	0.14	44
hierarchical treated rapepollen	CO	Biomaterial	420	6.7	45
PCN-601	CH ₄ /CO	MOF	504	2.18	46
$InVO_4$	CO	SC	385	0.54	47

Table S7. Continued.

Photocatalytic system	Primary product	Catalyst type	Light irradiation wavelength (nm)	AQE (%)	Ref.
V-defective orthorhombic BiVO ₄	MeOH	SC	650	0.65	48
			350	5.96	
CuInS ₂ /ZnS/FeTPP	CO	QD/homo	450	0.01	49
Co ₃ O ₄ hollow multi-shelled structures	CO	SC	350	0.017	50
			650	0.009	
$SiC@MoS_2$	CH_4	SC	400	1.75	23
			500	1.25	
CsPbBr ₃ /graphene oxide	CO/CH ₄ /H ₂	Perovskite	400	0.025	51
O-defective WO ₃	CO	SC	800	0.0274	52
treated polyheptazineimide /rGO	CH ₄ /CO/MeOH/ EtOH	SC	420	0.254	53
F-Pt-TiO _{2-x} mesoporous single crystals	CH_4	SC	350	0.038	54
ZnO-Cu ₂ O	CH_4	SC	370	1.5	55
C-doped SnS ₂	CH₃CHO	SC	400	1.64	26
			600	0.32	
TiO ₂ -in-MIL-101-Cr-NO ₂	CO/CH ₄	SC/MOF	350	11	56
$\mathrm{Cs}_{2}\mathrm{AgBiBr}_{6}$	CO/CH ₄	Perovskite	398	0.028	57

Table S7. Continued.

Photocatalytic system	Primary product	Catalyst type	Light irradiation wavelength (nm)	AQE (%)	Ref.
Au rod@CuPd ₂	CH_4	LSPR	800	0.38	This work

SC: Semiconductor; Homo: Homogeneous photocatalyst; MOF: Metal organic frameworks; LSPR: Localized surface plasmon resonance catalyst

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