

# **Metal-Nitrogen-Doped Carbon Single-Atom Electrocatalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> Electroreduction**

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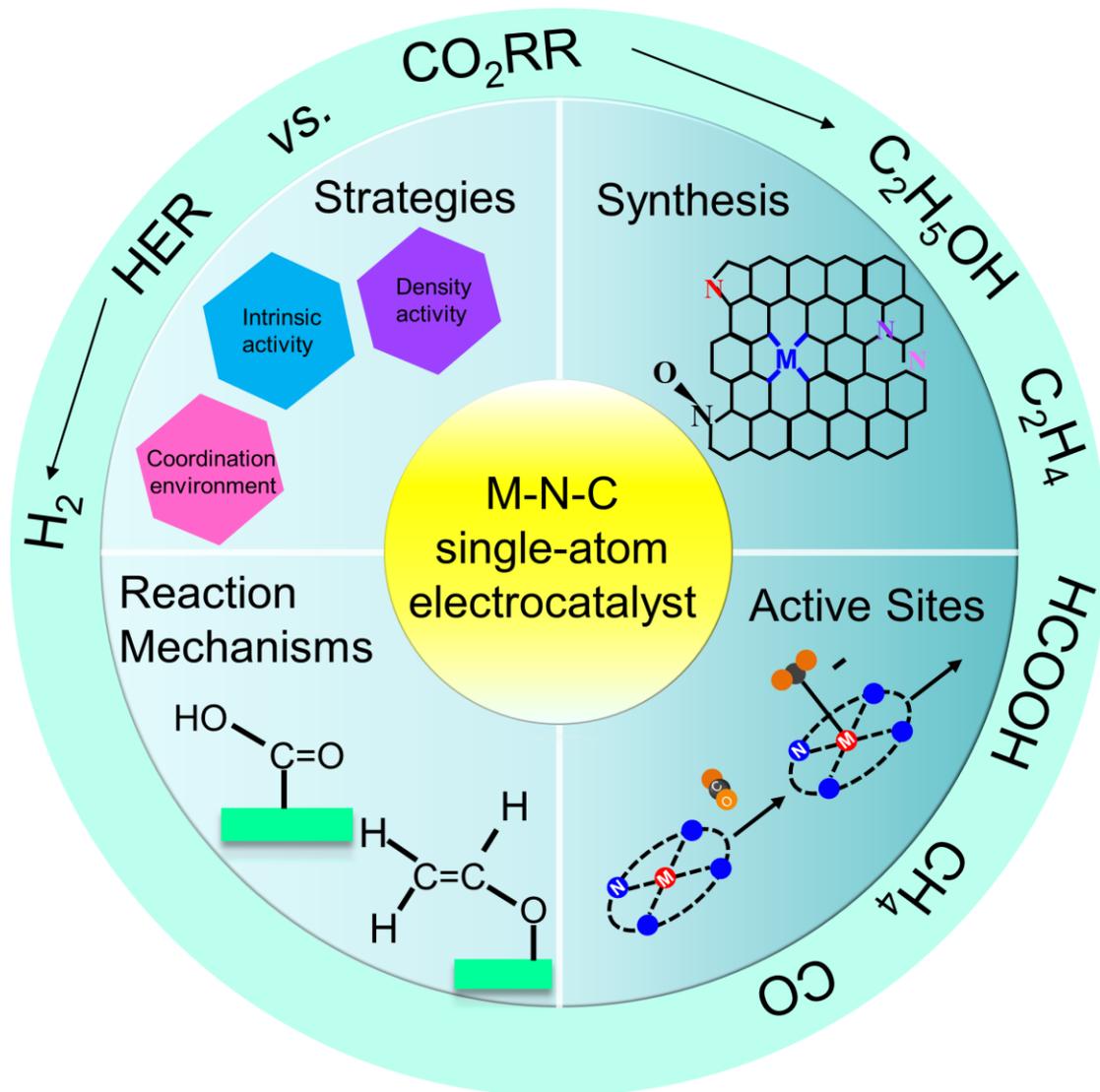
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**Abstract:** The application of the electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) to high-value-added carbon items is an incredibly encouraging course for the mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions. However, the effective design of CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrocatalysts with high proficiency, great selectivity, and robust stability presents serious challenges. Electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR involves complicated mechanisms due to multiple electron/proton transfer processes, resulting in various intermediates. To further understand the mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub>RR, single atomic site catalysts represent a simplified catalytic model which can also lead to improvements in catalytic activity. On account of the unique electronic and geometric structures, metal-nitrogen-doped carbon (M-N-C) single-atom electrocatalysts have energizing possibilities for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, and are a potential substitute for noble metal catalysts. This review pays attention to the recent advancements of M-N-C catalysts for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, which include the synthesis, characterization, and performance. Combining experimental and theoretical aspects, it is found that new insight is being achieved into the role of active sites on the reaction mechanism. Finally, approaches to the design of electrocatalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR and future research directions are discussed.

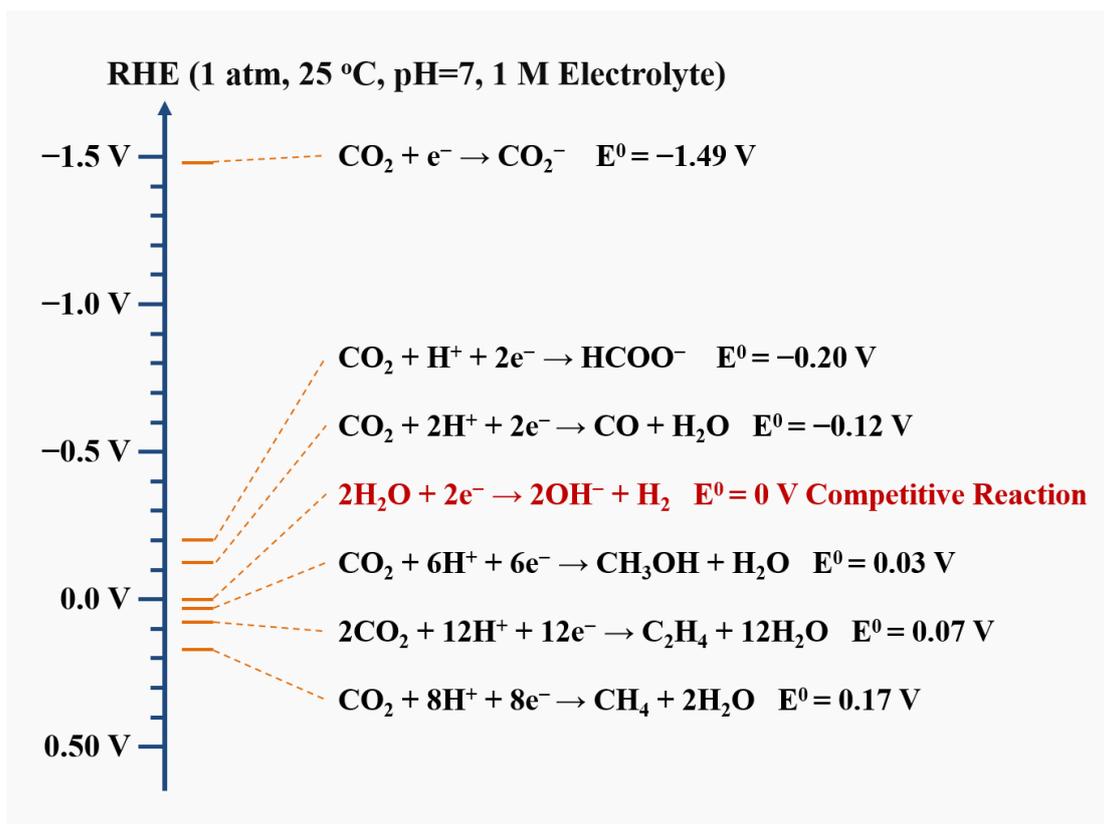
**Keywords:** CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR); Electrocatalytic reduction; Single atomic site catalysts; Metal-nitrogen-doped carbon (M-N-C); Mechanism

# Table of Content



## 1. Introduction

The increasing concentration of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and its effect on global warming and ocean acidification is arguably the greatest challenge facing humanity [1]. Yet with rapidly growing economies and global populations, we continue to rely on ever-depleting fossil fuels for power generation and transportation [2-5]. The efficient conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into carbon-based chemicals and fuels is, therefore, a compelling need [6, 7]. For CO<sub>2</sub>, the high bond energy of C=O (750 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) means that activating the CO<sub>2</sub> molecule requires a high overpotential. The process of CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction is also kinetically sluggish on account of it being a multi-proton process coupled with electron transfer [8]. So efficient electrocatalysts are necessary for improving the performance of electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR. In the process of electrochemical catalytic reduction, the catalytic hydrogenation reaction of CO<sub>2</sub> occurs directly on the cathode surface. The mechanism of electrochemical catalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> is very complex. The electrochemical reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> on different electrocatalyst surfaces can be accomplished by losing 2, 4, 6 and 8 electrons of CO<sub>2</sub>. The final products of CO<sub>2</sub>RR variably involve CO, HCOOH, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH, HCHO, CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, *etc.* The related half-reactions and thermodynamic equilibrium potentials are shown in Fig. 1. In general, CO<sub>2</sub> electrochemical catalytic reduction products are not single species, but mixtures. Its selectivity and faraday efficiency depend on many factors, such as the type of electrode material, the properties of catalyst, electrolyte solution, and applied voltage [9].



**Fig. 1** Thermodynamic equilibrium potential (versus reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE)) diagram of various products produced by electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR in the aqueous electrolyte (pH=7).

The theoretical redox potentials of various CO<sub>2</sub>RR products are tightly clustered, resulting in competing processes which include the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) [10, 11]. Besides, the various catalytic pathways at higher overpotentials always result in different products which affect the selectivity [12]. Many studies have demonstrated that catalysts can be designed to be conducive for the activation of CO<sub>2</sub>, especially after tuning the geometry and electronic structure [13, 14]. The efficient CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrocatalysts can combine with the reaction intermediate at an appropriate strength with significant inhibition for the competitive HER [15, 16].

The product type of CO<sub>2</sub>RR is greatly influenced by the cathode electrode materials. In the past few decades, a range of electrocatalysts have been developed for CO<sub>2</sub>RR

[17], such as noble metals [18, 19], transition metals [20-23], molecular metal complexes [24-26], metal-organic frame materials [27-29], carbon-based materials [30, 31] and N mixed carbon-based materials [32, 33]. Most of these studies focus on noble metal-based catalysts [34, 35]. For instance, silver and gold are demonstrated to selectively reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to CO at low overpotentials [15, 36]. However, considering their high price and low abundance, they are not conducive to large-scale production.

In recent studies, transition metal-doped nitrogenated carbon materials, which are commonly described as M-N-Cs (M = Ni, Co, Zn, Fe, W, Mn, Cu, Mo, *etc.*), have been considered as promising candidates for precious metal catalysts [37]. M-N-Cs are a rapidly developing type of single-atom catalyst (SAC) [38, 39], and deliver the following advantages: (i) they maximize the efficiency of metal-atom utilization, nearly 100%; (ii) metal atoms are highly dispersed and result in high exposure of active sites; (iii) they have a relatively uniform active center; (iv) the central metal ions with low coordination number provide an ideal model system to study the catalytic mechanism [40-43]. Furthermore, based on the carbon substrate, M-N-Cs also have additional advantages such as good chemical stability, outstanding electrical conductivity, enormous specific surface area, controllable porous structure, and feasible preparation with low cost [31, 44, 45]. M-N-Cs share a unique network structure with numerous marginal sites and abundant active sites, which is beneficial to electron transport [46, 47]. Profiting from those characteristics, there has been significant improvement in M-N-Cs for electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction in recent years [48-50].

Several excellent reviews have been published to summarize the effectiveness of metal nitrogen-doped carbon (M-N-Cs) electrocatalysts, for instance, Lee's research group reviewed the recent research progress, including photocatalysis, electrocatalysis, supercapacitors, rechargeable batteries, etc. based on two-dimensional transition metal

sulfides (TMD), transition metal nitride (TMN), transition metal sulfides (TMS) and MXenes nanomaterials [11, 14, 21-23], which not only promote the research in this field to a new stage, but also provide inspiration for many other electrocatalytic reactions involving gases, while nearly none have reviewed from the perspective of the specific factors that affect the intrinsic catalytic activity and clarify the reasons from the mechanism. Herein, we aim to systematically summarize the recent achievements on metal-nitrogen-doped carbons (M-N-Cs) which are active and robust electrocatalysts for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Furthermore, combining experimental with theoretical studies, new insights into the role of active catalytic sites and reaction mechanisms are discussed. Finally, perspectives on the design of CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrocatalysts are summarized and new research directions are identified.

## **2. Metal-nitrogen-doped carbons**

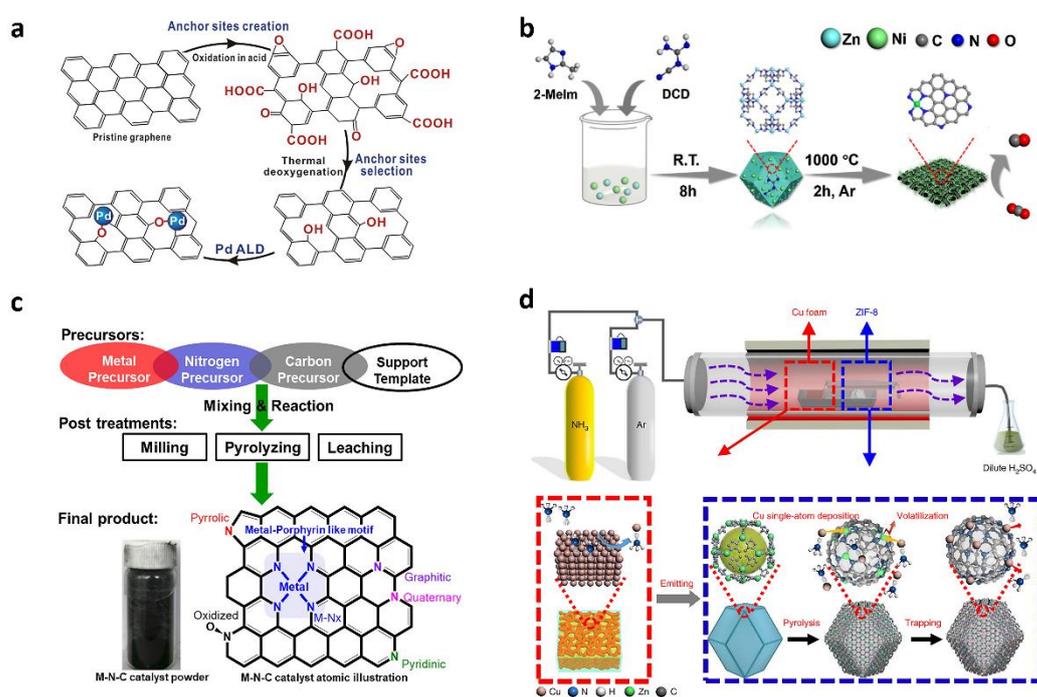
### **2.1 Preparation methods**

The discovery of single-atom catalysts (SACs) dates from 1995, Thomas and colleagues applied the epoxidation of cyclic to develop a Ti single-site heterogeneous catalyst [51]. In 2011, Zhang and co-workers applied single Pt atoms for CO oxidation through the co-precipitation technique and the conception of single-atom catalysts firstly comes into people's field of vision and research [52]. So far, a series of preparation methods have been created to synthesize SACs, for instance, mass-selected soft-landing [53-55] and atomic layer deposition (ALD) methods [56, 57] have been proved to be powerful for precise control of the formation of SACs (Fig. 2a). Wet-chemistry approaches, including co-precipitation [58, 59] and impregnation method [60, 61], are at present viewed as the most basic and effective strategies (Fig. 2b). High-

temperature pyrolysis is an effective approach through the heat treating selected precursors at optimal pyrolysis temperatures [62]. Traditional, the precursors always contain metal salts, carbon sources, and coordination or doped nonmetal atoms (e.g., N, P, S). These precursors are usually pyrolysis under different gas, such as N<sub>2</sub>, Ar, H<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub> and sometimes mixtures of them. As the typical branch of SACs, the M-N-C structure originates from macromolecular heterocyclic compounds such as porphyrins and phthalocyanines [63, 64], and has been studied extensively as an electrocatalyst to convert CO<sub>2</sub> to CO.

In general, the M-N-C catalysts are usually synthesized through the annealing of a mixture containing inorganic metal salts, nitrogen precursors, and carbon reactants (*i.e.*, graphene, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), and porous carbon) at high temperature in inert environments [65]. During the annealing process, inorganic metal salts convert to metal nanoparticles, and nitrogen atoms are doped into the carbon structure to form different chemical functionalities, including pyridinic, graphitic and pyrrolic, generating active M-N<sub>x</sub> single sites and nitrogen-doped carbon sites (N-C) (Fig. 2c). These special structures enhance the content of active sites and improve the charge transfers process, facilitating the electrocatalytic performance with synergistic effects [47, 66]. In recent years, Metal-Organic Framework materials (MOFs) have been used to be viable precursors/templates to prepare single-atom catalysts materials via pyrolysis due to their adjustable molecular structure and chemical and topological diversity. For instance, by pyrolyzing ZIF-8 under an argon atmosphere in the presence of copper foam (Fig. 2d), Qu et al. obtained the controllable Cu-SAs/N-C [67]. Deng et al. achieved the

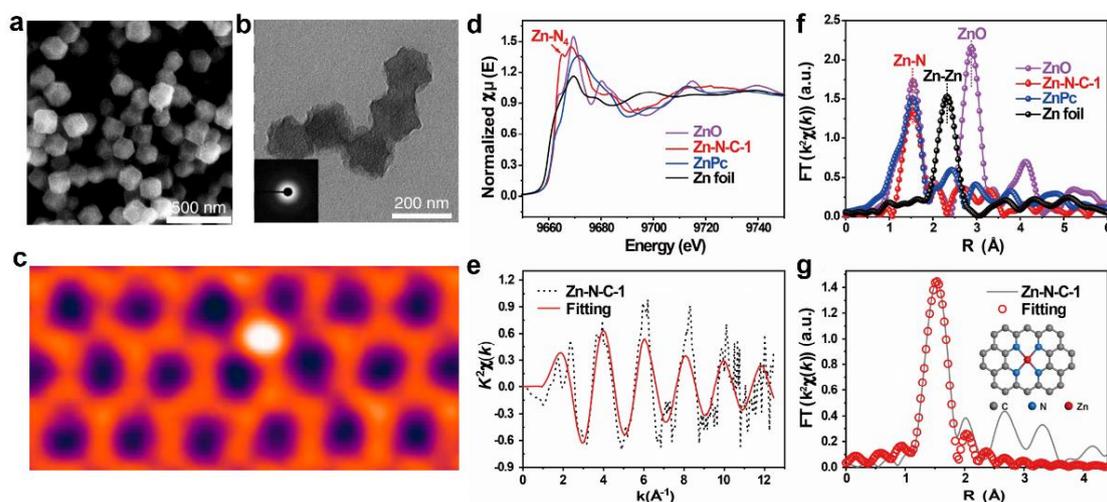
controllable preparation of Co single-atoms (SAs) on carbon support using ZIF-67 precursors [68]. In summary, the high-temperature pyrolysis method has broad industrial application prospects in the synthesis of M-N-Cs which **can decrease** the cost of noble metal and **present a feasible method to prepare** high-performance electrocatalysts **for a large scale**.



**Fig. 2** (a) Single-atom Pd catalyst synthesis via ALD methods. Reproduced with permission [57], Copyright © 2015, American Chemical Society. (b) Synthesis of Ni SAs/NCNTs via co-precipitation methods. Reproduced with permission [69], Copyright 2018, Elsevier. (c) Common preparation for M-N-Cs. Reproduced with permission [65], Copyright © 2019, American Chemical Society. (d) Schematic of the preparation of MOF-derived single-atom catalysts. Reproduced with permission [67], Copyright © 2018, Springer Nature.

## 2.2 Characterization methods

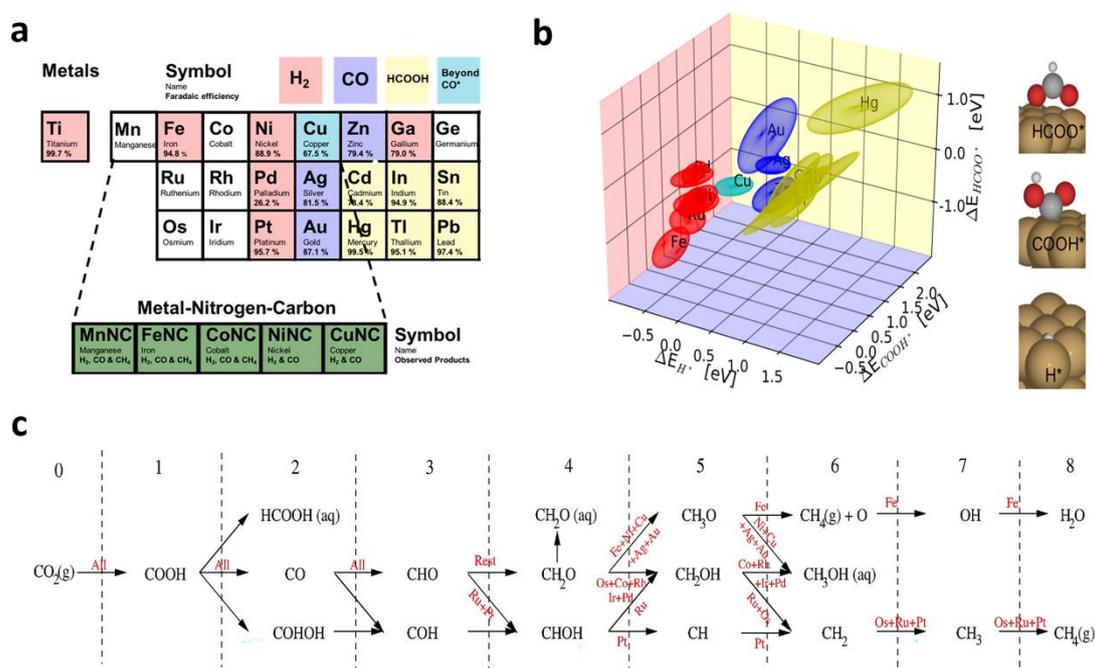
As mentioned earlier, the possibility of single-atom catalysts has been discovered in 1995 before it was clearly presented, nevertheless, the **limited** characterization **techniques** at that time **restricted** the **comprehensive judgment on the** atomic **scale** and **hindered** the **evolution** of single-atom catalysts. With the development of advanced characterization techniques, many characterization methods have been used to **observe** the reaction intermediates, **recognize** the active **centers**, and **survey** the dynamic catalytic **performance**. Except **for** that conventional SEM, TEM, XRD, and XPS can characterize the morphology of catalyst materials and the chemical change quantitatively, scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) and scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) can directly obtain the surface morphology characteristic image of single metal atoms [67, 70]; X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) [71] spectroscopy can obtain structural information such as atomic spacing and coordination number (Fig. 3).



**Fig. 3** (a-b) SEM and TEM images of ZIF-8. Reproduced with permission [67], Copyright © 2018, Springer Nature. (c) AC-TEM images of Fe single atoms. Reproduced with permission [70], Copyright © 2014, American Chemical Society. (d-g) XAS measurements of the Zn single atom. Reproduced with permission [71], Copyright © 2019, John Wiley and Sons.

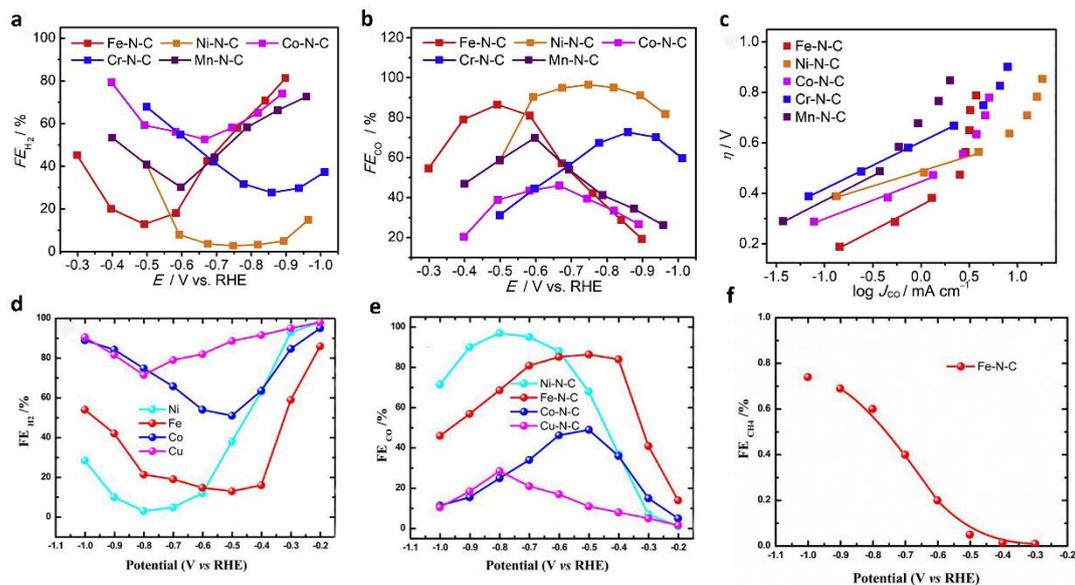
## 2.3 Influence factors for catalyst performance

In studying the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, Hori [72] reported the analysis of products on various metal electrodes. Generally, the catalysts can be ranked into four product categories: HER metals [73], CO producing metals [74, 75], formic acid-producing metals [76], and various other products reduced on Cu which are capable of converting CO<sub>2</sub> to hydrocarbons via the 2e<sup>-</sup> reduction pathway [77, 78].



**Fig. 4** (a) Classification of metal catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR from experiments by Hori. Reproduced with permission [65], Copyright © 2019, American Chemical Society. (b) Combined plot of the three-dimensional space of descriptors in CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction towards different products. Reproduced with permission [12], Copyright © 2017, John Wiley and Sons. (c) Reaction paths of electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on a range of transition metals. Reproduced with permission [79], Copyright © 2013, American Chemical Society.

In Fig. 4a, a partial periodic table is displayed grouped according to four product types. The single-atom transition metal M-N-C catalysts commonly discussed are displayed in the corresponding box written with the products. Alexander Bagger et al. [12] constructed a three-dimensional binding energy plot to classify the three products by the three intermediates (Fig. 4b). In 2013, Tripkovic et al. [79] built up a hypothesis to declare porphyrin-like metal hybridized with graphene, from which they claimed that these materials could be active for CO<sub>2</sub>RR and the intermediate product CO can be further converted to CH<sub>4</sub> or MeOH, depending on the metal center (Fig. 4c) [80, 81]. Since then, several M-N-C electrocatalysts with different metal centers have been widely discussed as a promising alternative for CO<sub>2</sub>RR [69, 82-86]. For instance, Pan et al. [87] reported an investigation of the effects of five metal centers (M= Ni, Co, Fe, Mn, Cr) on CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance and mechanisms. Menisa et al. [88] prepare a family of M-N-C (M= Ni, Co, Fe, and Cu) through facile pyrolysis to prove that selective reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> strongly depends on the nature of the metal center. They suggested that Ni and Fe have higher energy in M-N-C than Co, Mn, Cr and Cu for the electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR to CO. The role of Fe atom-based active site is to reduce overpotentials and Ni atom-based active site can effectively enhance CO selectivity and reaction rates [89, 90].



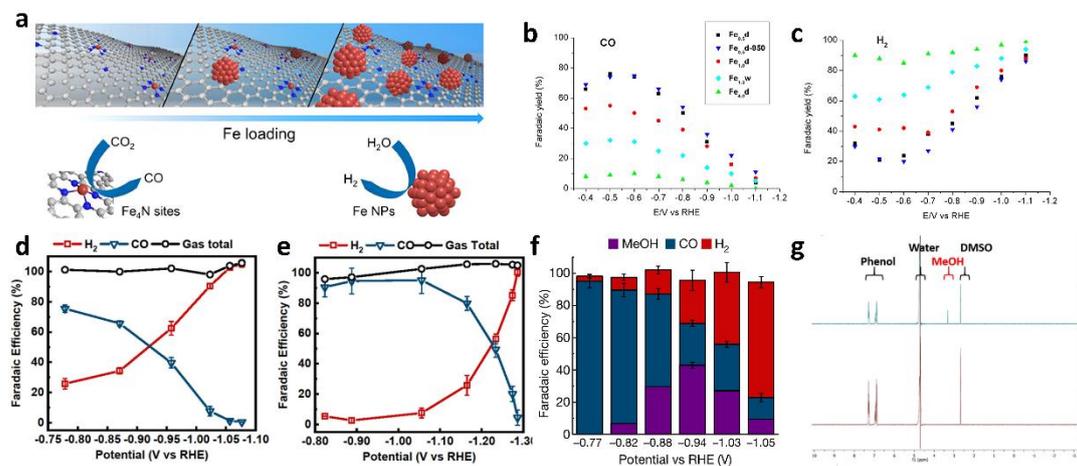
**Fig. 5** (a) Faraday efficiency (FE) of H<sub>2</sub> and (b) CO for M-N-C. (c) Tafel plots of current densities of CO reduction vs. overpotentials for different M-N-C. Reproduced with permission from Reference [87], Copyright © 2018, Elsevier. (d-f) FEs of H<sub>2</sub>, CO, and CH<sub>4</sub> for M-N-C. Reproduced with permission from Reference [88], Copyright © 2020, Royal Society of Chemistry.

The Faradaic efficiency curves (Fig. 5a, b, d and e) indicate that the production of H<sub>2</sub> and CO is potentially dependent, and there is internal competition between CO<sub>2</sub>RR and HER. The M-N-C, Fe(or Ni)-N based materials are capable of improving the selectivity for CO, while Co (or Cu)-N-C tends to promote HER [91]. In addition, Fe-N-C exhibited the highest CO reduction performance near more positive potential regions ( $> -0.5$  V) and can reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to trace of CH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 5f), whereas Ni-N-C shows the best CO reduction activity at potentials  $< -0.75$  V. The Tafel slope of Ni-N-C is the lowest, followed by Co-N-C, Cr-N-C, Mn-N-C and Fe-N-C (Fig. 5c). Overall, it was found that Fe, Co and Ni possessed lower overpotential and excellent selectivity toward H<sub>2</sub>/CO/CH<sub>4</sub>. This implies that it is possible to selectively dope these metal centers into

various nanocarbon architectures to design high-performance M-N-C for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, especially for high-value chemical fuel production [92, 93]. Cu and Cu-based materials are the only existing heterogeneous catalysts capable of electrochemically reducing CO<sub>2</sub> via a 2e<sup>-</sup> pathway to produce CH<sub>4</sub>. Zhao et al. [94] reported the array of copper sulfide nanosheets loaded on nickel foam (CuS@NF) as an **efficient electrocatalyst** for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub>. Moreover, CuS nanosheets possess high faradaic efficiency and stable capability due to the nanosheet **structure** and the **attendance** of S species. More recently, monoatomic Zn has attracted extensive attention because it can also electrocatalytically reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to hydrocarbons under certain conditions. Han et al. [95] anchored structured Zn **single atoms (SAs)** onto microporous N-doped carbon (SA-Zn/MNC), which has **excellent catalytic performance** and stability for electrocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub>. This stable and excellent performance can owe to the rapid charge transport resulting from the conductivity of **the** carbon matrix, micropores for active site exposure. For the sake of proving their predictions and further realize activity/selectivity order, Hu et al. [85] studied a class of transition metal (*i.e.*, **Ni**, **Co** and **Fe**) nitrogen-doped porous carbon (M-N-C) catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR. The results indicated that doping with different metals can significantly improve its activity. The activity follows the order Ni, Fe ≫ Co, while the selectivity sequence is Ni > Fe ≫ Co in an aqueous solution.

Furthermore, the electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of M-N-Cs not only depends on the types of metal centers, but also relies on the structure and proportion of material and reaction conditions (e.g., temperature and pH) [96-103]. Huan et al. [97] obtained a series of Fe-N-C **catalysts** with adjustable ratios of single-Fe atoms and Fe nanoparticles, and they deeply investigated the effects of structural parameters on the performance of CO<sub>2</sub>RR (Fig. 6). The result indicated that FeN<sub>4</sub> moieties are the

essential active centers for the selective reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO, while Fe nanoparticles play a role in catalyzing the hydrogen evolution reaction. Besides, increasing Fe loading leads to an increase in the amount of Fe nanoparticles (Fig. 6a).



**Fig. 6** (a) Schematic diagram of the Fe-N-C materials. Red stands for Fe atoms, grey for C atoms, and blue for N atoms. (b) Faradaic yield for CO and (c) H<sub>2</sub>. Reproduced with permission from Reference [97], Copyright © 2017, American Chemical Society. (d-f) Potential-dependent performance for electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction through FePc/CNT, NiPc/CNT and CoPc/CNT. (g) 1H NMR spectra after CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction electrolysis. Reproduced with permission from Reference [104], Copyright © 2019, Springer Nature.

Fig. 6 b-c reveal the highest selectivity of CO reduction is obtained with a low weight of Fe in the precursors (Fe<sub>0.5</sub>d and Fe<sub>0.5</sub>d-950), while the catalysts containing a large relative fraction of crystalline Fe (Fe<sub>1.0</sub>w and Fe<sub>4.0</sub>d) display a high Faradaic yield for H<sub>2</sub> at all potentials (Fig. 6c), especially in the more negative potential range. Thus, the proportion of FeN<sub>4</sub> moieties in Fe nanoparticles selectively controls the formation of CO rather than promotes HER. Therefore CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratios can be controlled by adjusting

the percentage of FeN<sub>4</sub> to meet the requirement of various chemical liquid fuels. Similarly, Leonard et al. [98] prepared various porous iron-nitrogen-carbon (Fe-N-C) electrocatalysts from different nitrogen precursors. These catalysts possessed distinctly different physical properties, such as different proportions of chemical N-functionalities or absorption surface areas, which can observably improve the performance of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction in aqueous media.

To further understand how the content of each component in the catalyst affects the catalytic performance, Wang and co-workers [105] synthesized a series of Pd@Au electrocatalysts by modifying Au nanoparticles with controlled amounts of Pd. The results indicated that the catalytic activity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO showed a nonlinear correlation with the content of Pd, which is attributed to the change of adsorption energy of \*CO and \*COOH at various Pd sites. Zhang's group [106] prepared a series of defective N-doped carbon spheres (D-NC-X, where X represents the heat treatment temperature) for electrocatalytic carbon dioxide reduction reaction. The experimental results showed that the CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of these catalysts was positively correlated with defect concentration, while negatively correlated with nitrogen content. DFT calculations showed that the introduction of intrinsic carbon defects changed the local charge density of carbon atoms, making it easier to activate CO<sub>2</sub> molecules to form the active intermediate COOH\*, and then to form CO.

Furthermore, in addition to the properties of metal precursors, the microstructure of the carbon has a crucial influence on the adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> to the active centers which affect the overall electrocatalytic performance [31]. Because the strong metal-carrier

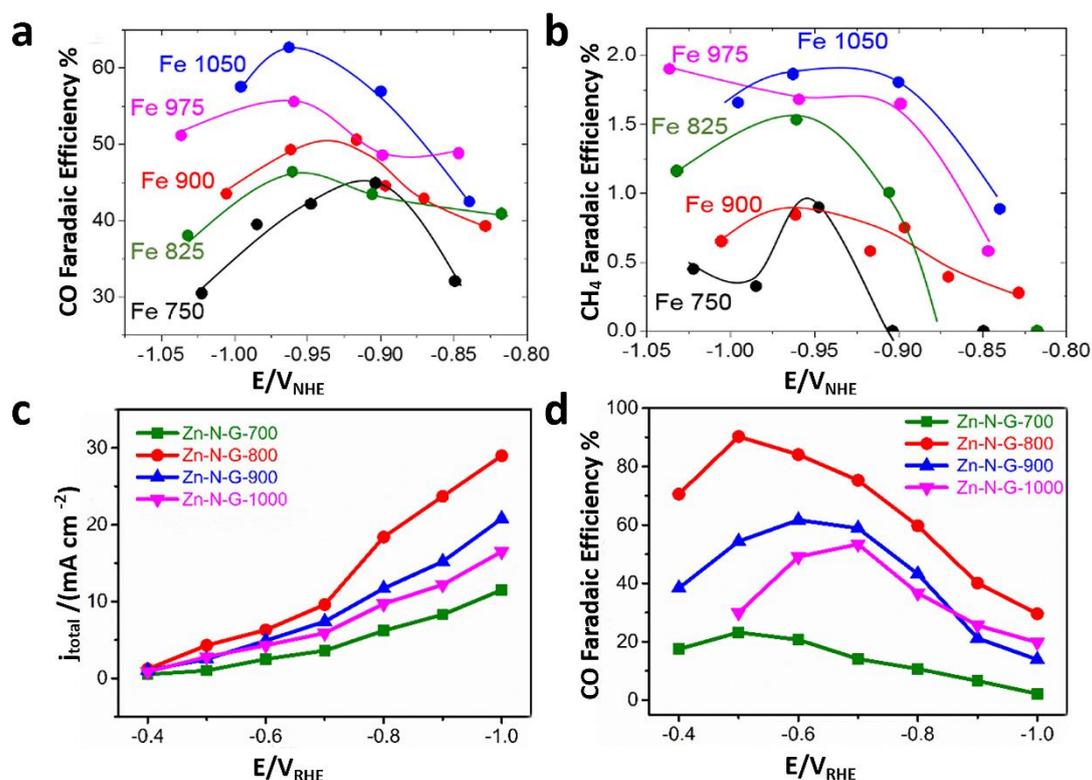
interaction between the well-dispersed metal monatomic and the carbon substrate can not only inhibit the aggregation of metal atoms, but also adjust the geometric structure and electron configuration of the active catalytic sites. Graphene exhibits an excellent electrical conductivity in favor of electron transport and a considerable specific surface area allows for exposing high-loaded active centers, which are beneficial to improve the catalyst performance of single-atom catalysts [107-109]. Furthermore, the electronic coupling between the modified metal catalyst and the graphene substrate can be easily regulated, as well as the electronic states of modified metal active centers [70, 74]. Thus the output performance of graphene-supported electrocatalysts can be controlled correspondingly. For instance, Wang et al. [110] prepared a multiphase molecular Co electrocatalyst by immobilizing planar Co(II)-2, 3-naphthalocyanine (NapCo) complex on doped graphene under mild conditions. The catalyst has excellent catalytic activity and can selectively reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to CO with high faradic efficiency in an aqueous solution.

Carbon nanotubes have adjustable nanotube cavity structures, suitable pore size distribution to facilitate better dispersion of metal components, and a larger specific surface area to fill and absorb particles. And it can be modified in different ways according to people's need to make it suitable as a new catalyst carrier [8]. For instance, Wu et al. [104] studied metal phthalocyanine (M=Fe, Co and Ni) molecules decorated on carbon nanotubes (CNTs) as electrocatalysts to explore that CO<sub>2</sub> can be further reduced to MeOH in M-N<sub>4</sub>-based species. The result indicates MPc/CNT (M=Fe, Ni or Co) electrocatalysts demonstrate a great selectivity of CO reduction in the medium

overpotential region. The faradaic efficiency (FE) of CoPc /CNT and NiPc /CNT for CO was up to 95%, while the selectivity of FePc /CNT for CO was about 80%. At more negative electrode potentials, NiPc/CNT and FePc/CNT only produce H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 6d-f). Interestingly, CoPc/CNT can generate methanol (MeOH), which is further confirmed by both <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy (Fig. 6g). CoPc/CNT catalyzes the electroreduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to MeOH, which is caused by the synergistic effect of the following factors. Firstly, CoPc is dispersed on highly conductive CNTs as a single molecule, which is conducive to transfer continuous electrons on the active centers to achieve the multi-electron reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. Secondly, the type of carbon carrier is important because CoPc molecules are fixed to the carrier and receive electrons from the carrier. Thirdly, CoPc is inactivated under reduction conditions. All of these examples demonstrate the importance of the active sites and the structure of catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR.

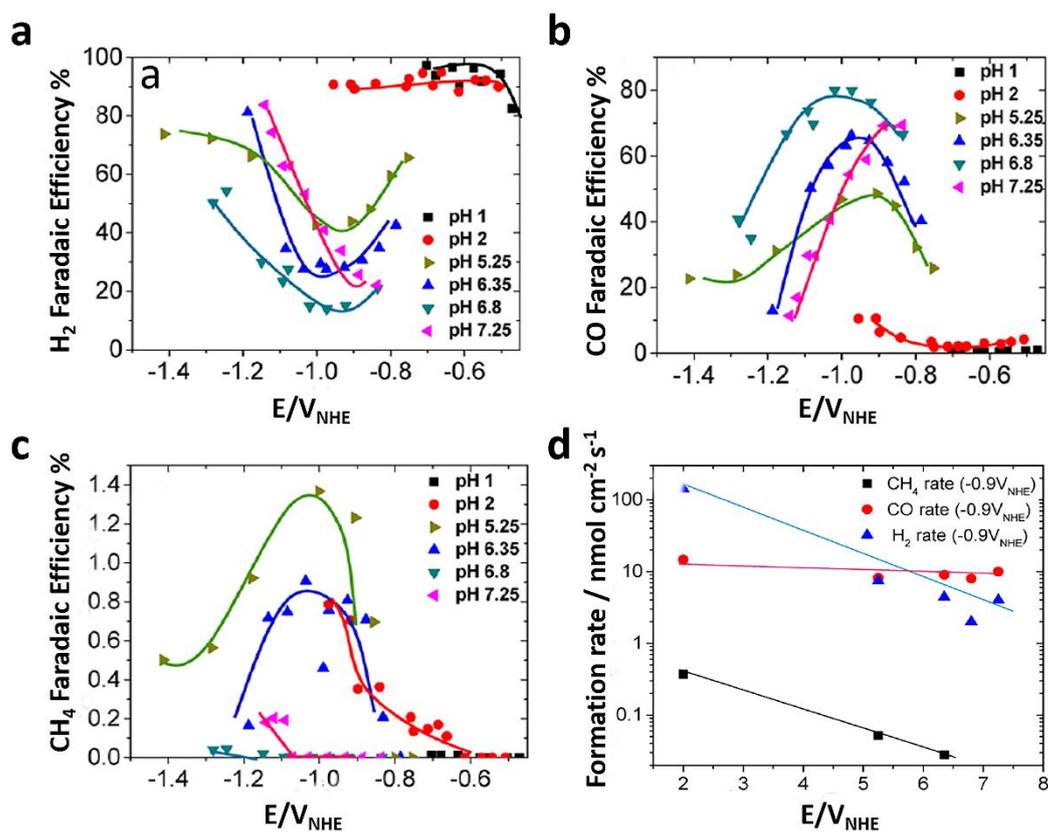
The temperature of the heat treatment can affect the structures of the materials, and further influences the activity of catalysts towards the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction [96, 110]. González-Cervantes and co-workers [96] prepared five Fe-N-C catalysts under different pyrolysis temperatures. The result shows that the catalyst annealed at the lowest temperature displays the highest activity while the selectivity is enhanced with increasing synthesis temperature. That is because the annealing temperature influences both the ratio between the different N functionalities and the electrochemical surface area. As shown in Fig. 7a and 7b, it is confirmed that higher annealing temperature is beneficial to improve the selectivity towards the CO<sub>2</sub>RR for the catalysts. On the whole, the FE<sub>co</sub> increases with the rise of temperature under a certain range of potential, whereas different pyrolysis temperatures lead to different degrees of influence on the

selectivity of  $\text{FE}_{\text{CH}_4}$ . Likewise, Chen et al. [111] prepared Zn-N-G electrocatalysts through continuous high-temperature annealing and acid etching, aiming to study the effect of annealing temperature on electrocatalytic performance. The total current density ( $j_{\text{total}}$ ) raises with the potential for Zn-N-G electrocatalysts prepared at different pyrolysis temperatures (Fig. 7c). Besides, Zn-N-G-800 shows the highest selectivity for CO among these catalysts (Fig. 7d). In brief, the selectivity towards the single product of  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  can be regulated by controlling the pyrolysis temperature and different active metal centers have different optimum temperatures toward  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ .



**Fig. 7** (a) CO Faradaic efficiency. (b)  $\text{CH}_4$  Faradaic efficiency in electrolyte  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4/\text{K}_2\text{HPO}_4$  (0.1 M) of Fe-N-C. Reproduced with permission from Reference [96], Copyright © 1969, John Wiley and Sons. (c) Total current density. (d) CO Faradaic efficiency. Reproduced with permission from Reference [111], Copyright © 2018, John Wiley and Sons.

Beyond that, the pH and local pH also impact the Faradaic efficiency and the selectivity of the products [112, 113]. Varela [102] performed CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis in the electrolyte with different pH values to explore the impact of the pH on the selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub>RR and clarify the role of proton concentration. The results indicated that the formation of H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> is related to the pH of the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE) scale, while the **generation** of CO has no direct relevance to pH, indicating that is the rate-limiting step for CO **reduction is decoupled proton-electron transfer (DPET)**. Furthermore, different pH values **influence** the selective formation of CO or H<sub>2</sub> in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR process **which** provides a chance to regulate the CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio.



**Fig. 8** (a-c) Faradaic efficiency of H<sub>2</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub> at different pH. (d) Product formation rates of CH<sub>4</sub>, CO and H<sub>2</sub>. Reproduced with permission from Reference [102], Copyright © 2018, American Chemical Society.

Fig. 8 a-c shows the FE of H<sub>2</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub>, respectively. It is clear that HER prefers an acidic environment. In contrast, CO prefers neutral, while alkaline conditions and near-neutral pH in favor of methane synthesis. However, H<sub>2</sub> is the main product and only a little CO or methane is formed in the acidic condition. Over the pH range of the research, the Faradaic efficiency for methane generation is highest at pH=5.25. Furthermore, the formation rate of CO doesn't change with potential (Fig. 8d), which reflects that the rate-potential relationship of CO tends to a straight line at all pH values. Whereas, different from CO production, the formation of CH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> shows obvious Nernstian pH dependence. Therefore, the bulk electrolyte affects the selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub>RR. In conclusion, the production of H<sub>2</sub> is strongly dependent on pH, while the production of CO is independent. Thus, the ratio of CO/H<sub>2</sub> during the electro-reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> can be easily adjusted by controlling the pH of the reaction solutions to meet the requirement of high selectivity toward CO, meanwhile suppressing the HER.

The mass loading (i.e. the density of active sites) is the key factor affecting the final catalytic performance. The performance is best only when the mass loading reaches the surface monodisperse. Once the mass loading exceeds this threshold, agglomeration and sintering phenomenon will occur, which is not conducive to the dispersion of the catalyst and the performance. Qin et al. [114] prepared Co/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts with different Co mass loading by a sedimentation-deposition method to catalyze CO<sub>2</sub> methanation reaction. The result shows that with the increase of Co mass loading, the average size of Co particle first increased and then reduced. In the meantime the average pore diameter increased, leading to the decrease of the pore volume and specific surface for catalysts. More importantly, smaller Co particles were more conducive to the CO<sub>2</sub> methanation reaction.

In conclusion, the electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of M-N-Cs is affected by multiple factors. The active metal center in materials **takes** an extremely important **effect during** the process of CO<sub>2</sub>RR. For example, Fe has been demonstrated to selectively catalyze CO formation at low overpotentials and can convert CO to CH<sub>4</sub>. Whereas Ni-based materials are highly selective for CO production and can easily facilitate the reaction rate. However, the catalyst structure, composition, and reaction conditions are also dominant factors for catalytic performance. For example, acidic pH is favorable for the competitive HER process and decreases the selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub>RR to other products. Thus, **working at neutral or alkaline pH is beneficial to obtain a high selectivity**. The mass loading is also crucially important to the performance of catalysts. Therefore, in order to synthesize ideal CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts with low overpotential, high selectivity, and stability, we should not only pay attention to the optimum metal center, but also select suitable carbon support structures with a large surface area and appropriate reaction conditions. **Table 1 summarizes the performance comparison of the above-mentioned M-N-Cs.**

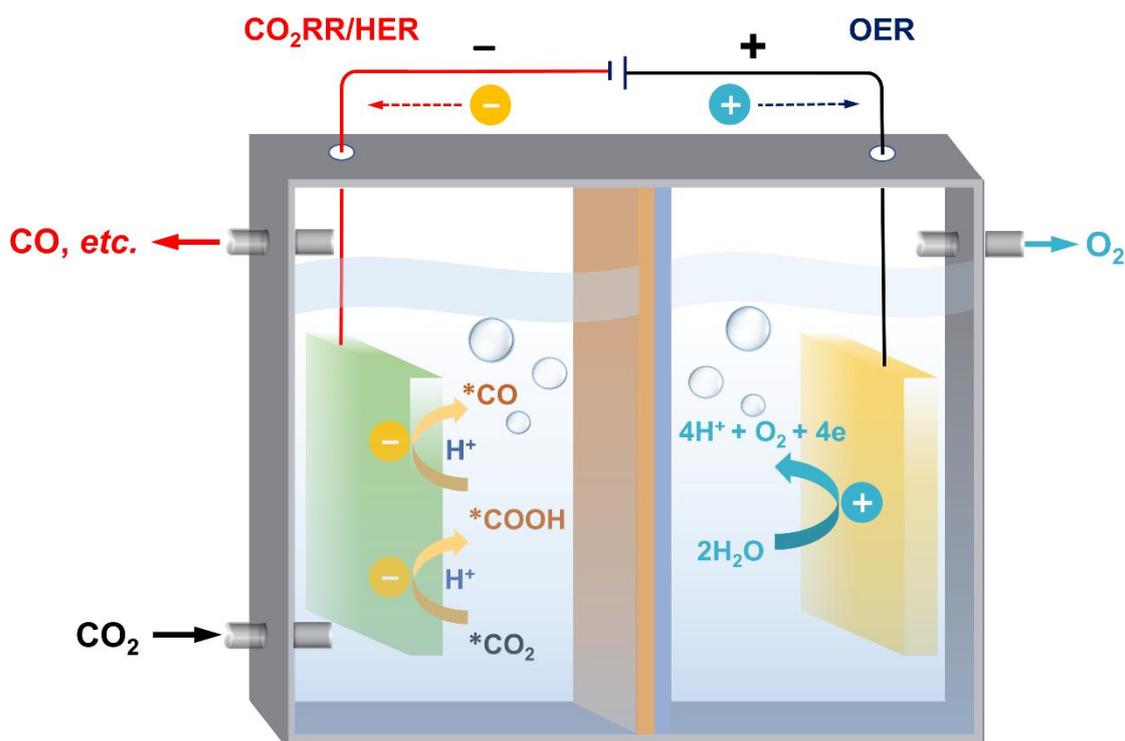
**Table 1 A summary table of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of the above-mentioned M-N-C electrocatalysts**

<b>Catalysts</b>	<b>Electrolyte</b>	<b>Product</b>	<b>Potential (V vs. RHE)</b>	<b>FE (%)</b>	<b>J (mA cm<sup>-2</sup>)</b>	<b>Stability</b>	<b>TOF (h<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>Ref.</b>
Ni-N-Gr	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub> pH=6.8	CO	-0.7~-0.9	>90	-	5 h	2500	74
NGM/CP	ILs ([Bmim]BF <sub>4</sub> )	CH <sub>4</sub>	1.4	93.5	1.42	5 h	-	114
NG-800	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub> pH=6.8	CO	-0.58	85	~1.8	-	-	115
CN-H-CNT	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.5	88	-	24000 s	-	33
Sn	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub> pH=6.8	HCOO <sup>-</sup>	-0.8	70	~8-10	-	-	76
Fe-N-C	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.5	80	7.5	-	-	97
Cu <sub>2</sub> O-derived Cu	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub> pH=6.8	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	-0.98	32.4	-	-	-	116
		CH <sub>4</sub>	-1.13	<2	-	-	-	
NDC-700	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.82	83.7	-8	72 h	-	117
Ni-N <sub>4</sub> -C	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.81	99	28.6	-	-	118
Ni SAs/N-C	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	0.89	>71.9	7.37	-	5273	84
CuS@NF	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CH <sub>4</sub>	-1.1	73 ± 5%	-	60 h	-	119
Ni <sup>2+</sup> @NG	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.68	92	10.2	-	-	120
Zn-N-G-800	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	0.39	91	11.2	15	-	111
FeNC	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.6	85	>5	-	-	98
Ni-N-C	0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	0.65	96	-8.2	550 min	1060	87
NFe-CNT/CNS	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub> pH=6.8	CO	0.48	69	0.82	-	-	122
Co-N <sub>5</sub> /HNPCSS	0.2 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.73	99.2	6.2	10 h	-	123
C-Zn <sub>x</sub> Ni <sub>y</sub> ZIF-8	1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-1.03	92~98	71.5 ± 2.9	-	10087±216	44

ZnN <sub>x</sub> /C	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.43	95	-4.8	>75 h	9969	124
Fe-N-G/bC	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub> pH=6.8	CO	0.55	~95	-	12 h	-	125
Fe-N-PC	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.49	~90	11.44	-	-	90
Ni-N-MEGO	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.55	~89	~19.3	21 h	0.24 s <sup>-1</sup>	126
MNC-D	1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.58	~92	-6.8	16 h	-	127
Zr-DMBD	CH <sub>3</sub> CN/H <sub>2</sub> O V/V = 4:1	CO	-	98	-	10 h	2.72 s <sup>-1</sup>	128
NiPor-CTF	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	0.9	~90	52.9	20 h	-	129
Ni SAs/NCNTs	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.9	97	41.5	30 h	1176	69
Ni-N-C	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub> pH=6.8	CO	-1.2	90	12	10 h	-	91
Cu <sub>2</sub> O/NRGO	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	-1.4	19.7	12	10000 s	-	130
Ni/Fe-N-C	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.7	98	9.5	30 h	-	131
Fe-SA-900	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.58	90	-	-	-	66
Ni/N-CHS	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.9	93.1	17.1	16 h	-	132
(Cl, N)-Mn/G	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	0.49	97	13.4	-	38347	133
FeNPCN	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.5	94	-	12 h	-	83
SA-Zn/MNC	1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CH <sub>4</sub>	-1.8	85	-31.8	35 h	-	95
Fe-N/CNT@GNR	0.1 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.76	98	22.6	5 h	-	134
Fe-N-C	0.5 KHCO <sub>3</sub>	CO	-0.5	95	1.9	-	-	135

### 3. Reaction Mechanism

In general, the process of catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction can be expressed in Fig. 9. Firstly, CO<sub>2</sub> is absorbed and interacts with the active atoms of the catalyst to produce \*CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, followed by the formation of intermediate products via various proton or electron transfer steps. Finally, desorption and formation of new products [136].



**Fig. 9** The schematic diagram of electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub>RR mechanism at M-N-Cs, where \* stands for the active reaction sites.

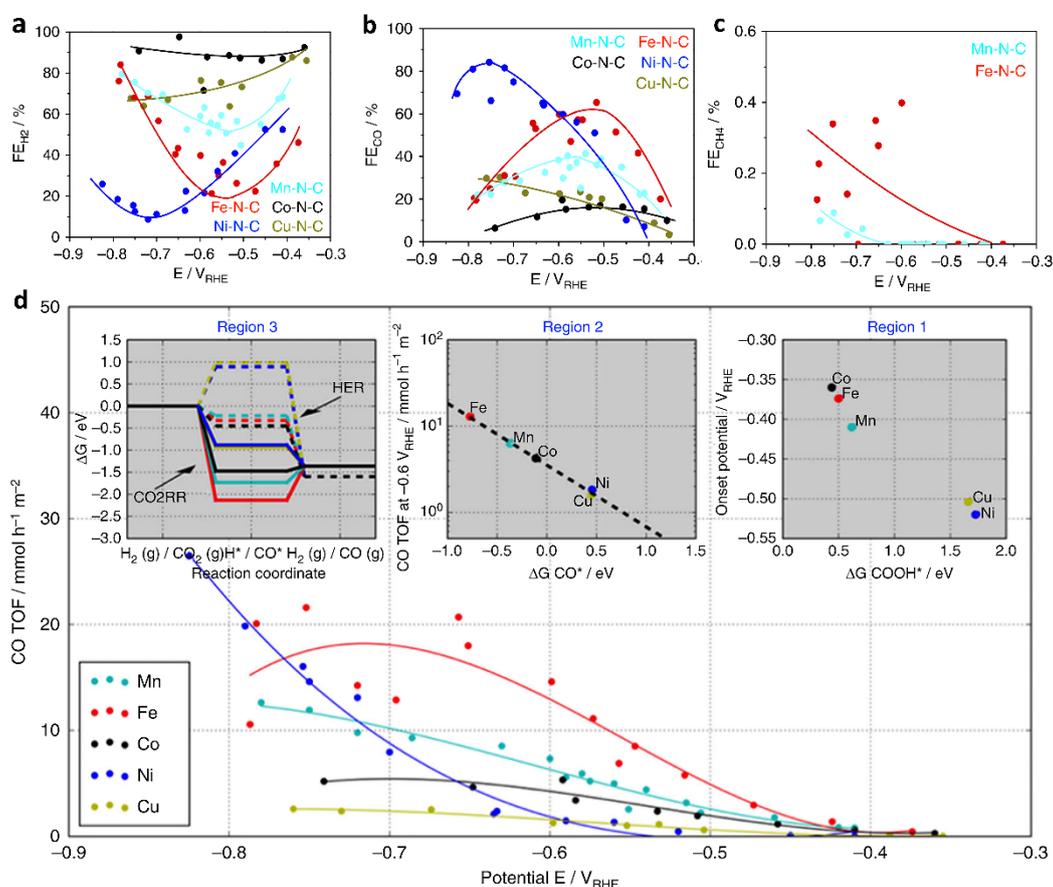
For typical C1 products contain CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, HCOOH, and CH<sub>3</sub>OH (Fig. 10a). The first proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) process can either form the intermediate product COOH\* (top path) or OCHO\* (bottom path) on different atoms [137, 138], followed by the second electrochemical step with two different paths which result in \*CO and \*HCOOH, respectively [76, 138]. Finally, CO or HCOO<sup>-</sup> is desorbed from the surface of the electrode as the final step [139]. Through experimental studies, it is

widely accepted that \*CO is an essential intermediate for the formation of CH<sub>4</sub>, HCHO, and CH<sub>3</sub>OH [140, 141]. DFT calculations indicated that the Cu [142-144] surface is thermodynamically conducive to the formation of initial \*CO intermediates, followed by continuous hydrogenation to produce \*CHO, \*CH<sub>2</sub>O, and \*CH<sub>3</sub>O. Finally, CH<sub>4</sub> is formed and the \*O is converted to H<sub>2</sub>O.

For C<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>2+</sub> products, such as propanol(C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>7</sub>OH), ethanol(C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH), acetaldehyde (CH<sub>3</sub>CHO), and ethylene (CH<sub>2</sub>=CH<sub>2</sub>), *etc* [117, 145]. (Fig. 10b), it's generally proposed that the C-C bond is formed through two pathways [146]. One pathway indicates that \*CO is first hydrogenated, followed by the proton transfer processes of \*CHO [147]. In another pathway, the dimerization of \*CO **leads to the formation of the initial C-C coupling** with the generation of \*OCCO intermediates at low overpotentials [148, 149].



the atomically dispersed metal centers were considered to be the active sites in M-N-Cs [74, 82, 87].

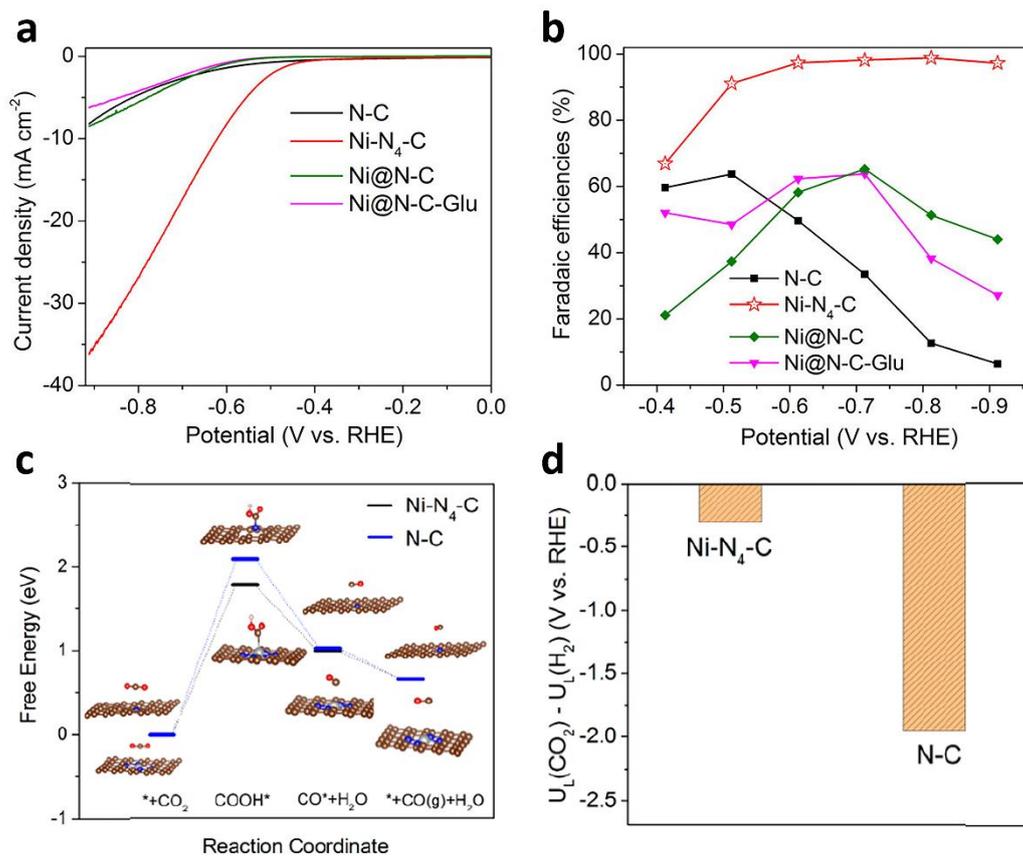


**Fig. 11** (a-c) Faradaic Efficiencies (FE) of H<sub>2</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub>, respectively. (d) Schematic diagram of the catalytic reactivity trends. Reproduced with permission from Reference [151], Copyright © 2017, Springer Nature.

Ju et al. [151] prepared a family of M-N-C electrocatalysts (M= Ni, Fe, Mn, Co, Cu) from bipyridine-based coordinated polymers, while discussing the effect of the active metal center on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Finally, they found that the metal played the main role in comparison with other M-N<sub>x</sub> functionalities through a series of theoretical calculations and studies. Considering Fig. 11a-c, it's clear that Co-N-C has poor selectivity towards CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Whereas Fe-N-C, especially Ni-N-C catalysts, exhibit a better selectivity for

CO formation. Besides, Fe and Mn can lead to CO being further reduced to form traces of CH<sub>4</sub>. Although activity can be judged via a single descriptor, such as current density, overpotential, *etc.*, selectivity involves various factors due to complex reaction paths [9, 152]. And the different reduction paths depend on the applied potential and metal center. The specific turnover frequencies (TOF) of CO production trends for different M-N-C catalysts are shown in Fig. 11d. The result shows that the Ni-based catalysts exhibit a high CO selectivity and suppression of HER. This is because Ni-based catalysts possess favorable energetics for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, while having a very weak binding of \*H. By contrast, Co-based catalysts with stronger \*H adsorption display the highest Faradaic efficiency for HER, leading to a lower CO selectivity. The CO selectivity trend of other metal centers is as follows: Ni > Fe > Mn > Co = Cu. This is probably related to the binding strength of intermediates. For instance, Asset et al. [148] divide the M-N-C electrocatalysts into three main types according to the bonding strength between the metal with CO, (i) Ni, Zn, Cu belong to the “weak-CO binder”, (ii) Cr, Fe, Mn belong to the “strong-CO binder”, and (iii) Co-N-C belongs to a special category.

These results demonstrate the prospect of M-N-C catalysts as efficient CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalyst alternatives to noble metal and emphasize the importance of the metal center on CO<sub>2</sub>RR selectivity. Numerous studies have shown that M-N<sub>4</sub> (especially pyridine-N) centers are generally considered as possible active sites in these M-N-C structures [119, 153]. Li et al. [119] synthesized a Ni-N<sub>4</sub>-C catalyst with a topo-chemical transformation method for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. It was confirmed that the active site of Ni-N<sub>4</sub> improves selectivity and activity for CO<sub>2</sub>RR.



**Fig. 12** (a) Current density-potential curves. (b) Faradaic efficiencies for CO. (c) Calculated free energy diagram. (d) The limiting potential difference between CO<sub>2</sub>RR and HER. Reproduced with permission from Reference [119], Copyright © 2017 American Chemical Society.

As seen in Fig. 12a, Ni-N<sub>4</sub>-C exhibits excellent activity compared with N-C in the electrolyte. In contrast, despite the existence of Ni, the CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of Ni@N-C and Ni@N-C-Glu prepared directly by pyrolysis are poor, demonstrating the advantage of Ni-N<sub>4</sub>-C. Besides, the Ni-N<sub>4</sub>-C exhibits near 100% Faraday efficiency (Fig. 12b). The calculated free energy diagrams for CO<sub>2</sub>RR by density functional theory (DFT) indicated that the COOH\*, an adsorbed intermediate, was the rate-determining step for both Ni-N<sub>4</sub>-C and N-C (Fig. 12c). Compared with N-C, the presence of Ni-N<sub>4</sub> site reduced the generation energy of COOH\* and promoted the generation of CO, thus

showing higher activity. As seen in Fig. 12d, the limiting potential difference of Ni-N<sub>4</sub>-C is larger than that of N-C, indicating that Ni-N<sub>4</sub>-C has a high selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub> conversion to CO. Combining **thermodynamical** DFT with experimental analysis, it is found that Ni-N<sub>4</sub> structure has good catalytic activity and selectivity, which can reduce the energy barrier of CO<sub>2</sub>RR and accelerate charge transfer.

However, the **precise** nature of **the** active **centers is still** controversial as there are several reported possibilities, such as other N structures and even a C site directly adjoining an N site [154-156]. This is because **under the high-temperature synthesis for** the M-N-C **electrocatalysts**, the resulting **products tend** to form **complicated** M-N<sub>x</sub> (x = 1-4), M-C<sub>x</sub>, **or** defects in the carbon matrix.

## **5. The strategies for optimizing the materials of SACs**

Current research to obtain high-performance M-N-C electrocatalysts can be summarised as having three strategies:

(i) Increasing the density of active sites [32]. One strategy to such a target is to use precursors containing high nitrogen content [123, 157]. Only when the content of nitrogen in the precursors is high, it's possible to obtain heavily loaded atomically dispersed M-N<sub>x</sub> motifs which were considered as active sites. Another solution is to make full use of the space confinement effect to restrain the agglomeration of metal atoms and enhance the metal-atom utilization [8, 108, 158]. **The research group of Professor Luo and Fu [159] successfully realized the preparation of a new type of self-supporting electrode with ultra-thin carbon nanosheets and ultra-fine Bi nanoparticles by annealing the impregnated carbon cloth in one step. Owing to the uniformly distributed ultrafine Bi particles and the carbon nanosheets formed by in-situ annealing, the optimized electrode not only exhibits high formic acid selectivity in the process of**

reducing CO<sub>2</sub>, but also exhibits excellent catalytic activity and stability. Professor Jin's team [160] used the principle of Rayleigh instability to construct a “drop-tube” one-dimensional hollow structure of Bi nanorod@N-doped carbon nanotubes (Bi-NRs@NCNTs) composite catalyst, under a low overpotential, it can convert CO<sub>2</sub> into formate products with high selectivity. In addition, after 24 hours of continuous long-term electrocatalytic testing, Bi-NRs@NCNTs can still maintain good activity and stability.

(ii) Improving the intrinsic performance of active sites [24]. As is well-known, an ideal catalyst should have a moderate interaction with reactive species, neither too strong nor too weak. Thus, adjusting the electronic structures of active metal-atom centers can effectively improve the intrinsic catalytic performance [161]. Because the adsorption behavior of a catalyst depends on the electronic structures of active sites. Thus, there are the following four strategies to effectively alter the d-orbital chemistry of central metal ions. 1) selecting the optimal metal center ions with moderate surface adsorption behavior [82]; 2) bringing in other heteroatoms into the carbon skeleton to tune the electron structure of carbon materials, such as N, S, B, *etc.* [107, 108, 162-165] For instance, Wang et al. [166] prepared N-doped porous carbon polyhedra containing trace Fe atoms (Fe<sub>1</sub>NC) by gas diffusion and one-step thermal activation method, the optimized catalyst showed good CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance with CO Faraday efficiency as high as 96%, and excellent stability, which is attributed to the greatly improved accessibility and intrinsic activity of the active centers, due to an increase in the electrochemical surface area through dimensional modulation and the redistribution of doped N species through thermal activation. 3) adjusting the coordination environment of central metal ions, such as the coordination number and coordinated atoms, without changing the dispersion of a single atom, thus establishing the relationship among the

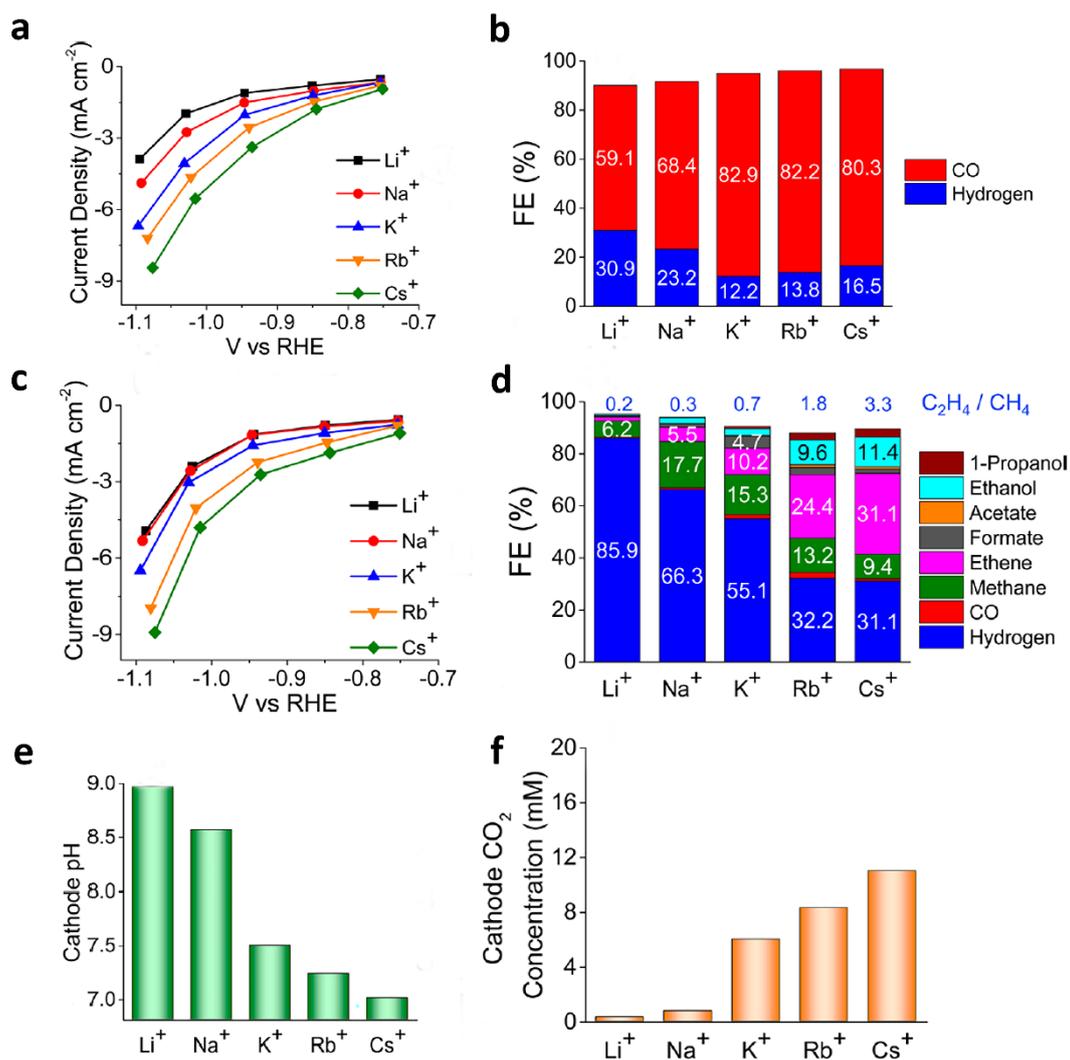
coordination environment, electronic structure, and catalytic performance of a single atom [167-169]; using MOFs without N as precursors, Jiang et al. [156] proposed a universal host-guest coordination protection strategy to prepare a series of SACs, and successfully realized the highly selective conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO by regulating the coordination environment of monoatomic Ni catalysts. Theoretical calculations show that the low N coordination number of single-atom Ni sites is beneficial to the formation of COOH\* intermediates, thereby improving its catalytic activity. Yan et al. [44] successfully prepared a porous carbon material doped with coordinated unsaturated Ni-N sites by pyrolyzing the zinc/nickel bimetallic zeolite imidazole framework material (ZIF-8), and achieved the high-efficiency electrocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub>. 4) construct the diatomic metal active sites or single atomic nanoarrays, which can further improve catalytic activity through strong coupling synergies and enhanced charge transfer performance [133, 157, 170, 171]. The research work of diatomic catalysts reported so far mainly focuses on two aspects: homonuclear metal diatomic catalysts [172-174] and heteronuclear metal diatomic catalysts [131, 175, 176]. Xing et al. [173] used the organometallic framework as the precursor, and accurately prepared the diatomic center catalyst with high active structure by adjusting the content of active component Co. The activity increased by more than one order of magnitude, reaching 13 times of the current single atomic active site catalyst. The existence of the active site structure of the diatomic Co center was confirmed by spherical aberration correction electron microscopy and extended X-ray absorption near edge spectrum. The heteronuclear diatomic catalyst can more effectively regulate the central position of the *d*-band through the synergistic action of different metals, thus optimizing the interaction between the reactants or intermediates and the catalytic active site, which leads to high catalytic activity. Ren et al. [131] achieved isolated diatomic Ni/Fe sites anchored on

N-doped carbon (Ni/Fe-N<sub>6</sub>-C), which could serve as an efficient electrocatalyst for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO. The excellent performance can be attributed to the charge transfer and redistribution caused by the electronegativity difference between the heteronuclear bimetallic atoms, thereby optimizing the adsorption and desorption process of reaction intermediates. In order to deeply understand the structural characteristics of bimetallic site catalysts, Luo et al. [176] used density functional theory calculations and micro-kinetic simulations to study the adsorption characteristics and catalytic performance of a series of potential bimetallic sites for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reactions. Using the adsorption strength of OH\* and COOH\* intermediates as descriptors, they obtained three potential bimetallic site catalysts, namely Ni/Fe, Ni/Mn, and Cu/Mn, through two rounds of screening. Studies have found that in these three bimetallic site catalysts, the linear relationship between COOH\* and CO\* adsorption energy is broken, which leads to their excellent CO<sub>2</sub> reduction activity. In addition, self-supporting monoatomic nano-arrays with catalytically active components directly grown on three-dimensional substrates (such as carbon cloth, nickel foam) is also a good way to improve the intrinsic activity of the catalyst because of their unique porous structure, high density of active sites, improved mass transfer, enhanced charge conduction, and excellent electrocatalytic activity.

(iii) Optimizing the reaction conditions after understanding the influence of structure and material composition on its reactivity. Particularly the type of electrolyte can greatly influence the formation of absorbed intermediates and rate-determining steps [177-179]. Aqueous electrolytes contain a large number of metal cations and inorganic anions, which affect the selectivity and current density of CO<sub>2</sub>RR products.

Singh et al. [178] discussed the influence of electrolyte cation size on CO<sub>2</sub>RR. The result confirmed that the pK<sub>a</sub> of cation hydrolysis reduces with an increase of cation

size, which is low enough to act as a buffering solution. Buffering reduces the pH near the cathode and increases the local concentration of dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$ . Those changes facilitate the increase of cathode activity, resulting in the decrease of Faraday efficiency of  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$ , while the increase of Faraday efficiency of  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$  and  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ , as shown in Fig. 13.



**Fig. 13** (a) Linear sweep voltammetric curves on Ag cathode, (b) corresponding Faradaic efficiency at applied potential -1 V vs. RHE, (c) linear sweep voltammetric curves on Cu cathode, and (d) corresponding Faradaic efficiency at applied potential -1 V vs. RHE. Calculated values of (e) cathode pH, (f) cathode  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration.

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## 6. Summary and Outlook

In recent years, **transition metal-nitrogen-carbon catalysts** (M-N-C) have emerged as an inexpensive alternative for preparing high-performance CO<sub>2</sub>RR electrocatalysts. **Especially, the** Faradaic selectivity of **Ni-based catalysts to CO can reach** 99% and Fe containing N-doped porous carbon materials can reduce CO to CH<sub>4</sub>. To obtain catalysts with highly active, selective, and long-term stability, efforts are required to find optimal reaction conditions. For instance, optimal metal center, suitable carbon support, temperature, pH, mass loading, and heteroatom doping.

**However, when the metal particles are reduced to the single-atom level, the specific surface area increases sharply, leading to a sharp increase in the free energy of the metal surface. During the preparation and reaction, agglomeration coupling is very easy to form large clusters, which leads to the deactivation of the catalyst. Therefore, stability and loading capacity are the great challenges faced by the single-atom catalysts (SACs).**

**Low mass loading of SACs greatly limits the current density, thus affecting practical applications. However, increasing the loading capacity is bound to face the problem of atom migration and agglomeration to form nanoparticles. Thus we have to keep the balance between loading and catalytic performance. Therefore, in terms of synthesis, the following aspects are needed for considering: (1) select the appropriate metal center based on the volcano-like relationship between the key free energy of adsorption and catalytic activity; (2) through space restriction, defect trapping, coordination anchoring and other effective means to achieve the dispersion and**

separation of the atom which inhibit its migration and aggregation on the carrier; (3) Stabilize a single metal atom on the carrier by enhancing the metal-carrier interaction; (4) from the functional design of the carrier as an entry point to regulate the performance of single-atom catalytic materials, make it achieve synergistic catalysis with the carrier, and improve the performance of the catalyst; (5) precisely control the coordination environment of metal atoms to optimize the local electronic structure and improve the catalytic performance of SACs.

In addition, a uniform active site is still difficult to achieve, and the state of the active site during the reaction is still unclear. The information we know about the active site of M-N-Cs is still not enough to design an appropriate structure for each specific reaction. Therefore, more efforts are needed to determine the active site, and some major challenges and research topics that have not been fully studied are noted:

(1) Choosing single-atom catalyst as a model system, using in-situ electron microscopy or in-situ synchrotron radiation and other in-situ characterization methods to observe and track the reaction process, combined with theoretical calculations to study the structure-activity relationship between its structure and catalytic performance, and to explore catalytic reactions mechanism. To achieve the precise synthesis of active site catalysts, and the maximum ability of each atom can be used to promote the reaction.

(2) More coordination environments need to be developed for M-N-C. So far, coordination atoms are usually nonmetallic elements including C, N, O, S, and so on. Compared with other structures such as metal compounds and alloys, the adjustable space of the structure of M-N-C is relatively limit, which restricts its application in certain situations. Therefore, substituting other metal elements for non-metallic elements or constructing active sites of heteroatoms ( $M_1M_2$ -N-C) is a new opportunity,

which not only leads to more coordination environment combinations but also could result in synergy between two adjacent metal atoms on the active site.

(3) Improve catalytic performance based on engineering external factors. For example, strain engineering has been proven to be an effective way to improve the catalytic activity of catalysts [180-182]. Strain can be achieved by mechanical loading or heterostructure lattice mismatch, and the heterostructure can continuously adjust the *d*-band width and center of the metal catalyst and molecular surface interaction. Biaxial or anisotropic strain can also be used to achieve anisotropic modulation of the binding energy of different species on the MNC catalyst, thereby changing the adsorption/desorption behavior of reactants or intermediates on the catalyst. In addition, some external factors, such as magnetic field, electric field, confinement effect, solvent effect, etc., can adjust the adsorption of intermediates on the catalyst to varying degrees. Due to the different physical and/or chemical properties of the adsorbates involved, this also benefits to improve the activity and selectivity of the target product.

In conclusion, the key to the overall catalytic performance of the ideal material is not an independent issue. The superior catalytic performance of M-N-C-based materials can only be achieved through a combination of a series of design strategies, such as adjusting the properties of the metal ion center, reaction conditions, coordination environment, carbon support, and mass loading, as discussed in this review. Similarly, turning CO<sub>2</sub> into high value-added liquid fuels and chemical products has huge potential but faces substantial technological challenges that require a multi-disciplinary approach, with materials science playing a central role. We hope that the design principles and methods of metal nitrogen-doped carbon single-atom electrocatalysts proposed in this review will help design new high-performance catalysts that can better meet the needs of industrial applications.

## 7. Acknowledgments

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