



# The role of copper in enhancing the performance of heteronuclear diatomic catalysts for the electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> conversion to C<sub>1</sub> chemicals

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## ABSTRACT

Diatomic catalysts (DACs) with two adjacent metal atoms supported on graphene can offer diverse functionalities, overcoming the inherent limitations of single atom catalysts (SACs). In this study, density functional theory calculations were conducted to investigate the reactivity of the carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) on metal sites of both DACs and SACs, as well as their synergistic effects on activity and selectivity. Calculation of the Gibbs free energies of CO<sub>2</sub>RR and associated values of the limiting potentials to generate C<sub>1</sub> products showed that Cu acts as a promoter rather than an active catalytic centre in the catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> conversion on heteronuclear DACs (CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub>), improving the catalytic activity on the other metal compared to the related SAC MN<sub>4</sub>. Cu enhances the initial reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> by promoting orbital hybridization between the key intermediate \*COOH 2*p*-orbitals and the metals 3*d*-orbitals around the Fermi level. This degree of hybridization in the DACs CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub> decreases from Fe to Co, Ni, and Zn. Our work demonstrates how Cu regulates the CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of heteronuclear DACs, offering an effective approach to designing practical, stable, and high-performing diatomic catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction.

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## 1. Introduction

The development of efficient routes for the conversion of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) is an attractive research topic, as it offers the potential to mitigate climate change [1,2], generate high-value products from a cheap, clean, and abundant resource [3,4], and facilitate the realization of an artificially closed carbon loop [5]. The electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) has arisen as an attractive strategy for the CO<sub>2</sub> conversion [6–8]. If coupled with electricity from renewable sources (wind, solar, or hydro power plants), the CO<sub>2</sub>RR could achieve a carbon-neutral energy cycle in mild condition generating C<sub>1</sub> products such as formic acid (HCOOH), carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH), and C<sub>2+</sub> substances such as ethylene (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>), ethanol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH), and others [2,3]. While significant progress has been made in the development of electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR, there are still several scientific challenges that need to be addressed, including the activation of the CO<sub>2</sub> molecule, the sluggish kinetics due to multiple concerted proton-electron transfer (CPET) steps, the low

Faradaic efficiency (FE), and the competition from the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER, H<sup>+</sup> + 2e<sup>-</sup> → H<sub>2</sub>) [9–13]. These challenges can be addressed by developing advanced catalytic systems with high energy efficiency and conversion rates [14].

Atomically dispersed 3*d* earth-abundant metals (Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn) on carbon supports, such as graphene, are single atom catalysts (SACs) that exhibit better selectivity towards CO<sub>2</sub>RR over the HER than surface catalysts [15–22]. The high conductivity and specific atom environment of carbon supports contribute to their effectiveness in dispersing metal atoms and promoting CO<sub>2</sub>RR [23–26]. Metal-nitrogen-doped carbon materials (MNCMs) are particularly promising, as they have unique electronic and geometric structures that allow for the anchoring of dispersed atoms [27,28]. MNCMs have a high density of effective active sites and a low coordination environment for the central metal, which enhances their electrocatalytic activity and selectivity [27,29].

Diatomic catalysts (DACs) are a natural extension of SACs and have gained considerable attention as an enhanced catalytic platform due to the synergistic effects of metals at adjacent active sites [30–34]. SACs are limited in their ability to break linear scaling relationships between various adsorption and desorption intermediates (\*COOH and \*CO) during CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Recent research also discusses the fundamental limitations in the electrochemical

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CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CO conversion on SACs [35]. DACs can overcome this limitation by providing greater control over the catalytic properties [36,37]. Graphene (Gra) based DACs, similar to previously reported SACs, have also been realized and characterized experimentally. These experimental studies provide useful models for theoreticians to investigate [32,38–44].

Currently, copper (Cu) is the only reported CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalyst that can effectively promote multiple carbon products [45,46]. However, the formation of a mixture of primary products and competition with the HER present significant challenges for Cu electrocatalysts. In addition, monometallic Cu-based catalysts often require high overpotentials for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, which further limits their potential applications [47–49]. On the other hand, SACs with metal centres other than Cu (such as Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn) typically produce HCOOH or CO as the main products. In some cases, these SACs have been found to produce highly reduced chemicals such as CH<sub>3</sub>OH [25,50,51]. Furthermore, experimental electrochemical studies of heteronuclear FeCuN<sub>6</sub>/Gra [52], NiCuN<sub>6</sub>/Gra [53], ZnCuN<sub>6</sub>/Gra [38], and CoCuN<sub>6</sub>/Gra [43] reported that DACs improved the catalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity compared to MN<sub>4</sub>/Gra SACs.

Table S1 summarizes more than thirty studies of DACs for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Despite the significant interest in the synergistic effect of these adjacent metal sites on achieving high CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance, there is a lack of the atomic-level detail into their separate roles of the metals. Recently, Yi et al. demonstrated that CuN<sub>4</sub>-CoN<sub>4</sub> DACs achieve high-efficiency CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction to CO at industrial-level current density [43]. Moreover, a recent computational study conducted by Wei et al. showed the synergistic effect of Cu/Fe can improve Fe atom catalytic activity [54]. This research motivated us to further investigate the synergistic effect of copper with 3d non-precious metals (such as iron, cobalt, nickel, zinc), in order to rationalize the role of the two metal centres in DACs during the CO<sub>2</sub>RR.

In this paper, we investigated the mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysed on CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub> DACs and MN<sub>4</sub> SACs with different metals (M = Cu, Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn) using density functional theory (DFT) calculations. Our goal was to elucidate the role of the separate metal sites in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. The results indicate that Cu is an excellent promoter for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, significantly improving the Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn catalytic performance in DACs on producing C<sub>1</sub> products compared to the corresponding SAC counterpart. The promotion effect gradually weakens from Fe to Co to Ni to Cu to Zn, as demonstrated by the hybridization between the 2p orbitals of intermediates and the 3d orbitals of metals. In this work, we aim to illustrate a new mechanism for Cu on CO<sub>2</sub>RR, which differs from the traditional concept of Cu as the CO<sub>2</sub>RR active centre.

## 2. Computational details

### 2.1. Density functional theory calculations

We performed DFT calculations using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [55,56]. The cut-off energy of the plane-waves was 500 eV. The exchange-correlation interactions were described by the optPBE-vdW functional [57,58]. A 3 × 3 × 3 *k*-point mesh was used for geometry optimizations and a 15 × 15 × 1 *k*-point mesh was used for the static calculation and for the analysis of the electron and orbital [59]. Structural relaxations were performed until the maximum residual force on each atom was less than 0.05 eV Å<sup>-1</sup>. Bader charge analysis was carried out with the core charges included [60]. The metal *d* band centre ( $\varepsilon(d)$ ), projected density of states (PDOS), and Bader analysis were calculated using VASPKIT [61].

The changes of the Gibbs free energy ( $\Delta G$ ) of each step were computed to determine the most favourable reaction pathway. For processes involving proton-electron transfer, the reaction energy was calculated using the computational hydrogen electrode (CHE) method proposed by Nørskov and co-workers [62]. The free energy differences of the processes were computed according to the following expression.

$$\Delta G = \Delta E_{\text{DFT}} + \Delta E_{\text{ZPE}} - T\Delta S \quad (1)$$

where  $\Delta E_{\text{DFT}}$  is the total energy difference from the DFT calculations,  $\Delta E_{\text{ZPE}}$  is the zero-point energy (ZPE) correction from the frequency analysis, and  $T\Delta S$  is the entropy contribution at the temperature (*T*) of 300 K.

The limiting potential  $U_L$  is an important factor for evaluating the catalytic activity and is calculated by

$$U_L = -\frac{\Delta G_{\text{max}}}{ne} \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta G_{\text{max}}$  is the relative change of the Gibbs free energy of the rate-determining step, *n* is the number of electrons transferred, and *e* is the electron charge.

The thermodynamic stability of the SACs and DACs was estimated by computing the binding energy, cohesive energy, and formation energy. These energy descriptors were previously used to evaluate the stability of two-dimensional (2D) transition metal porphyrin sheets [63]. The binding energies ( $E_b$ ) for the SACs and DACs were determined using the following equations.

$$E_b = E_{\text{M-Gra}} - E_{\text{M}} - E_{\text{Gra}} \quad (3)$$

$$E_b = E_{\text{Cu/M-Gra}} - E_{\text{M}} - E_{\text{Cu}} - E_{\text{Gra}} \quad (4)$$

where the  $E_{\text{M-Gra}}$ ,  $E_{\text{Cu/M-Gra}}$ ,  $E_{\text{M}}$ ,  $E_{\text{Cu}}$ , and  $E_{\text{Gra}}$  are the energies of the SAC, DAC, metal, Cu, and graphene framework without the metal atom(s), respectively. The cohesive energy ( $E_c$ ) was computed according to the following equation.

$$E_c = \frac{E_{\text{M(bulk)}}}{N} - E_{\text{M}} \quad (5)$$

where the  $E_{\text{M(bulk)}}$  is the energy of the bulk unit cell containing *N* atoms and  $E_{\text{M}}$  is the energy of the isolated metal atom in vacuum. The formation energy ( $E_f$ ) was computed according to

$$E_f = E_{\text{M/Gra}} - N_{\text{M}}\mu_{\text{M}} - N_{\text{C}}\mu_{\text{C}} - N_{\text{N}}\mu_{\text{N}} \quad (6)$$

where the  $E_{\text{M/Gra}}$  is the energy of M/Gra,  $N_{\text{M}}$ ,  $N_{\text{C}}$ , and  $N_{\text{N}}$  are the number of M, C, and N atoms in the unit cell, respectively, and  $\mu_{\text{M}}$ ,  $\mu_{\text{C}}$ , and  $\mu_{\text{N}}$  are the chemical potentials of the M, C, and N atoms, which were obtained from the energy calculation of transition metal single atom, graphene ( $\mu_{\text{C}} = E(\text{Gra})/N_{\text{C}}$ ), and N<sub>2</sub> ( $\mu_{\text{N}} = E(\text{N}_2)/2$ ), respectively.

The electrochemical stability of SACs and DACs was evaluated by computing the dissolution potential ( $U_{\text{diss}}$ ) of the metal [64]. For SACs, this property was calculated with the following formula.

$$U_{\text{diss}}(\text{M}) = U_{\text{diss}}^{\circ}(\text{M, bulk}) - \frac{\left(E_{\text{M/Gra}} - \frac{E_{\text{M(bulk)}}}{N} - E_{\text{Gra}}\right)}{ne} \quad (7)$$

where  $U_{\text{diss}}^{\circ}(\text{M, bulk})$  is the standard dissolution potential of the metal of the bulk metal and *n* is the number of electrons involved in the dissolution process. In this work, the values of  $U_{\text{diss}}^{\circ}(\text{M, bulk})$  were taken from Guo et al. [65] and *n* was set to 2. For the CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub> DACs, the dissolution potential of one of the two metals, for example M, was computed according to the following formula [54].

$$U_{\text{diss}}(\text{M}) = U_{\text{diss}}^{\circ}(\text{M, bulk}) - \frac{\left(E_{\text{Cu/M-Gra}} - E_{\text{Cu/□-Gra}} - \frac{E_{\text{M(bulk)}}}{N}\right)}{ne} \quad (8)$$

where  $E_{\text{Cu}/\square\text{-Gra}}$  is the energy of the framework without the metal atom.

## 2.2. Atomistic models

Wang et al. reported the formation of stable bimetallic FeFe-N<sub>6</sub> structures under low hydrogen concentration [32]. These structures have high metal formation energy and can inhibit the formation of clusters. In this study, we built the MCu-N<sub>6</sub> (M = Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn) models of DACs shown in Fig. 1, exhibiting the favourable structures reported by Wang et al. [32]. In addition, we built nitrogen-coordinated SACs including FeN<sub>4</sub>, CoN<sub>4</sub>, NiN<sub>4</sub>, CuN<sub>4</sub>, and ZnN<sub>4</sub> to investigate the individual performance of each metal and the role of Cu in DACs in CO<sub>2</sub> activation and reduction. Moreover, our calculated structures well match to experiment catalyst characteristics, such as NiCuN<sub>6</sub>/Gr [53], ZnCuN<sub>6</sub>/Gr [38], and CoCuN<sub>6</sub>/Gr [43]. Details of the 4 × 4 and 5 × 5 supercells used to model the SACs and DACs, respectively, are shown in Fig. S1.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Stability and geometry features of SACs and DACs models

During the high-temperature heat treatment of MNCMs, transition metals tend to aggregate, which promotes the HER over the CO<sub>2</sub>RR [66–68]. Thus, forming stable dispersed atomic catalysts is essential for CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Consequently, we explored the energetics of doping metals into MNCMs using non-metal coordination to regulate metal stability in MN<sub>4</sub>. This involved substituting N with C (M/Gra), substituting N with O (MN<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/Gra), and nitrogen coordinated MN<sub>4</sub> structure (MN<sub>4</sub>/Gra). All these substitution patterns were obtained experimentally [69].

As reported in Fig. 2 and Table S2, the formation energies of metal coordinated with four carbon atoms (MC<sub>4</sub>) are –4.95 eV (Fe), –4.47 eV (Co), –4.40 eV (Ni), –3.79 eV (Cu), and –2.70 eV (Zn). When considering oxygen substitution (M–N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), the formation energies are –3.37 eV (Fe), –3.47 eV (Co), –3.09 eV (Ni), –1.62 eV (Cu), and –0.73 eV (Zn), which are higher than the values obtained for MC<sub>4</sub>. However, the most stable MNCMs with the most negative formation energies are found for Fe (–5.90 eV), Co (–5.75 eV), Ni (–6.24 eV), Cu (–3.80 eV), and Zn (–3.21 eV), when coordinated with nitrogen atoms (MN<sub>4</sub>).

The coordination environment of the metal centre in MN<sub>4</sub> and MN<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> features a D<sub>4h</sub> symmetry in the square-planar field.

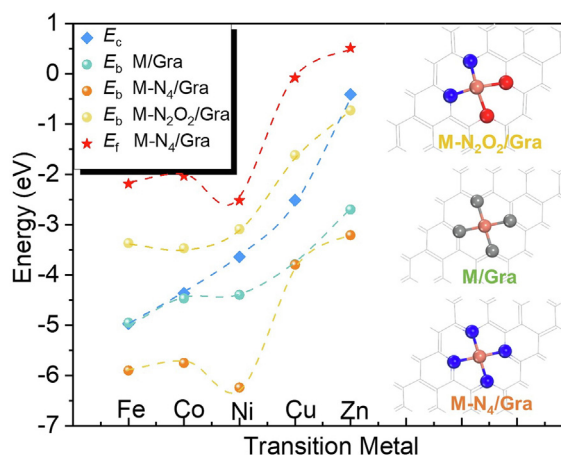


Fig. 2. Thermodynamic stability of the SACs M–C<sub>4</sub>, M–N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and M–N<sub>4</sub>. Values of the cohesive energy ( $E_c$ ) of the transition metal (M) bulk, binding energy between M and graphene (Gra) ( $E_b$ ), and formation energy ( $E_f$ ) of M–Gra. Red, blue, grey, and orange spheres are O, N, C, and M atoms (M = Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn).

Insights into the *d*-orbital splitting were obtained by computing the PDOS of the *d* orbitals of the metal centre (Fig. S2), in order to determine the energy difference between the *d* orbitals with maximum PDOS (Table S3). Except for Zn, where all the *d* levels are filled, the *d*-orbital splitting seems to be more significant in MN<sub>4</sub> than in MN<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, indicating stronger interaction between M and N<sub>4</sub> than M and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, thus forming a more stable geometric structure, in agreement with the stability analysis of the SACs in Fig. 2.

To investigate the catalytic activity of individual metals and the synergistic effect of these metals on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, we constructed SACs with MN<sub>4</sub> structures and DACs with CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub> structures. According to the values of the dissolution potential of the SACs (Table S2) and DACs (Table S4), all of the catalysts have more positive values of  $U_{\text{diss}}$  than the experimentally applied potential for CO<sub>2</sub>RR (from –0.2 to 1.2 V) [54], suggesting that these active sites are all stable against dissolution in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Only ZnN<sub>4</sub> has a negative  $U_{\text{diss}}$  (–1.02 V), whereas all other SACs and DACs have  $U_{\text{diss}}$  above zero.

Other geometric features of the DACs models, including the distance between the two metal atoms in the DACs (Table S5), the electronic properties of SACs and DACs, such as the values of the *d*-band centre of the metal atoms (Table S6), and the Bader charges

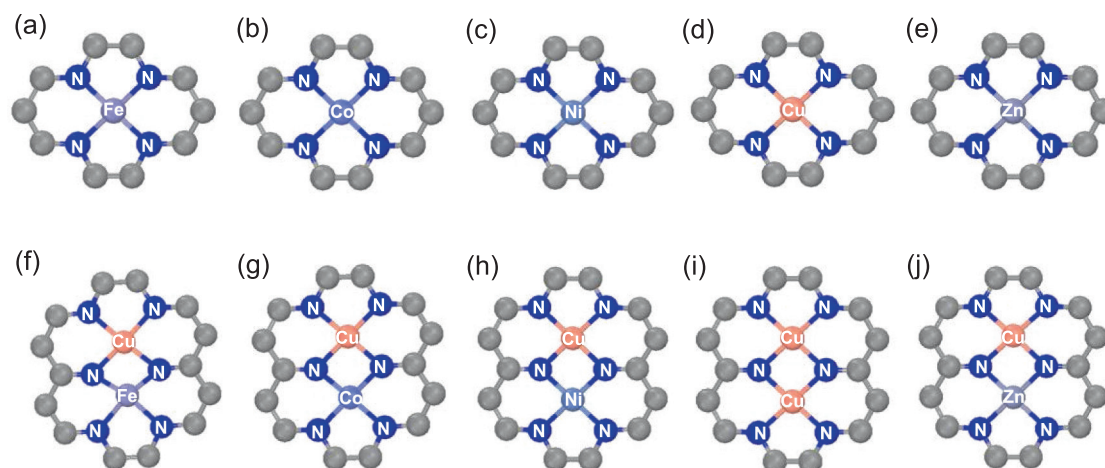


Fig. 1. Optimized structures of the metal-doped carbon SACs (a) Fe–N<sub>4</sub>, (b) Co–N<sub>4</sub>, (c) Ni–N<sub>4</sub>, (d) Cu–N<sub>4</sub>, (e) Zn–N<sub>4</sub>, and DACs (f) FeCu–N<sub>6</sub>, (g) CoCu–N<sub>6</sub>, (h) NiCu–N<sub>6</sub>, (i) CuCu–N<sub>6</sub>, and (j) ZnCu–N<sub>6</sub>.

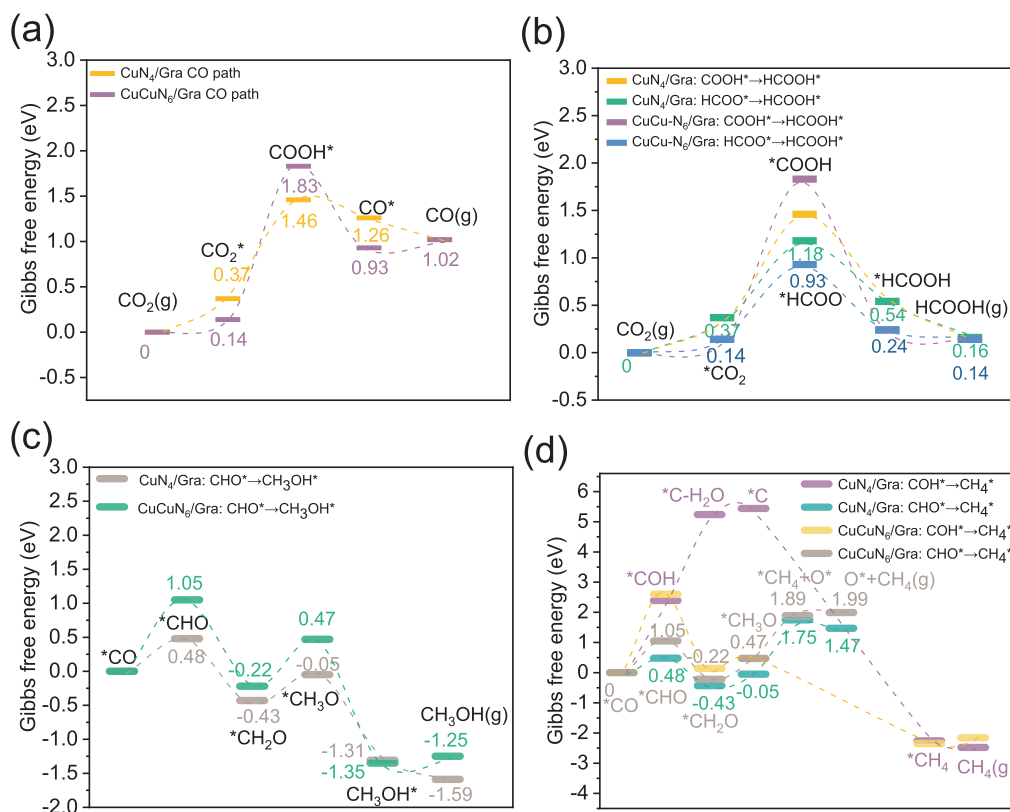
(Table S7), are also reported in Supporting Information. Another important point is to distinguish whether the two metal atoms in  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-MN}_4$  function as a bimetallic central or a diatomic catalyst. The distance between diatoms varies, ranging from 2.25 Å for Cu-Fe to 2.59 Å for Cu-Zn (Table S5). In the Fourier transform extended X-ray absorption fine structure (FT-EXAFS) spectra, the Fe-Cu peak appears at 2.0 Å [70]. However, in our  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-FeN}_4$  model, the Cu-Fe distance measures 2.25 Å indicating a diatomic structure. Similarly, other diatomic catalysts, such as Cu-Co ( $d_{\text{Cu-Co}} = 2.52$  Å in this DFT study vs.  $d_{\text{Cu-Co}} = 2.4\text{--}2.5$  Å from experiment [43]), Cu-Ni ( $d_{\text{Cu-Ni}} = 2.55$  Å in this DFT study vs.  $d_{\text{Cu-Ni}} = 2.40$  Å from experiment [53]), and Cu-Zn ( $d_{\text{Cu-Zn}} = 2.59$  Å in this DFT study vs.  $d_{\text{Cu-Zn}} = 2.40$  Å from experiment [38]) possess a diatom structure instead of a bimetallic structure.

### 3.2. Catalytic performance of the Cu- $\text{N}_4$ SAC and homonuclear $\text{CuN}_4\text{-CuN}_4$ DAC

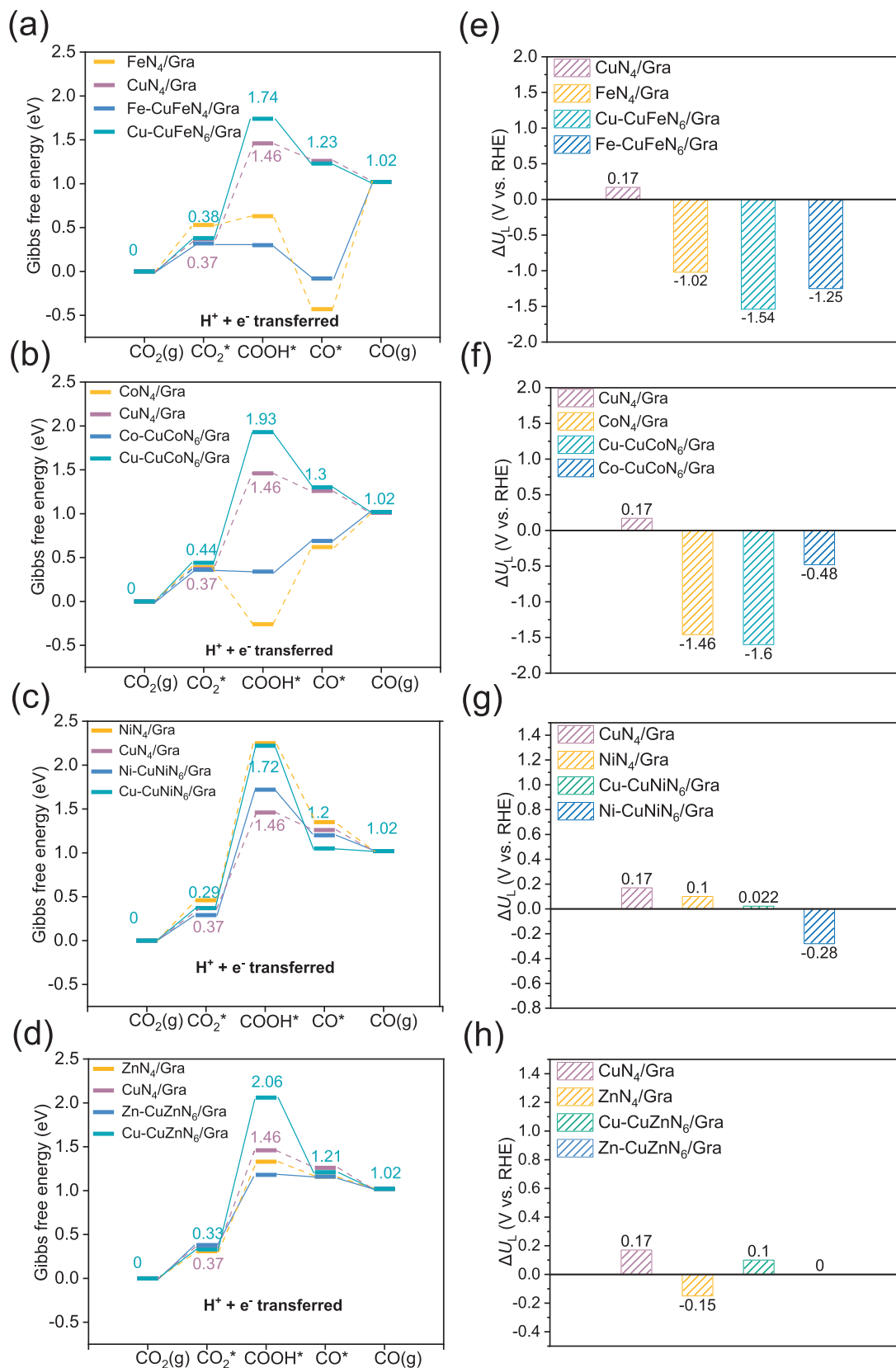
The Gibbs free energy diagrams of the  $\text{CO}_2$ -to-CO conversion and its competitive HER on the SACs with  $\text{M-N}_4$ ,  $\text{M-N}_2\text{O}_2$ , and  $\text{M-C}_4$  coordination are shown in Figs. S3–S6. The results show that the  $\text{M-N}_4$  structures, the most stable structure of the SACs, are also more selective for the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ . Therefore, in this section, we compare the performance of the N-coordinated  $\text{Cu-N}_4$  SAC and homonuclear  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-CuN}_4$  DAC for the conversion of  $\text{CO}_2$  to  $\text{C}_1$  molecules, including CO, HCOOH,  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ , and  $\text{CH}_4$  (Fig. 3). As shown in Fig. 3(a), the first step in the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  to CO on SAC  $\text{CuN}_4$  is the adsorption of  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow * \text{CO}_2$ ), which requires 0.37 eV of energy. The next step, a CPET process to form COOH ( $* \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow$

$* \text{COOH}$ ), requires 1.09 eV and is rate-limiting in the  $\text{CO}_2$ -to-CO conversion path. Subsequently, the CPET step to form  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and CO ( $* \text{COOH} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) is an exothermic process ( $-0.20$  eV). The  $* \text{CO}$  desorption from the single Cu site is also favourable ( $-0.24$  eV). Turning the discussion to the  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-CuN}_4$ , with adsorption energy of 0.14 eV, the  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption on the DAC is more favourable than on the  $\text{CuN}_4$  SAC. However, the slightly stronger binding of  $* \text{CO}_2$  does not improve the subsequent reduction process to form  $* \text{COOH}$ , as the free energy required to form  $* \text{COOH}$  (1.69 eV) is higher than that on a single Cu site (1.09 eV).

The competition between CO desorption and further reduction of CO to form  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  influences the selectivity of  $\text{C}_1$  products. Even if  $* \text{CO}$  binds stronger on the  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-CuN}_4$  DAC ( $E_{\text{des}} = 0.09\text{--}0.16$  eV) than on the SAC  $\text{CuN}_4$  ( $E_{\text{des}} = -0.24$  eV), the diatomic catalysts show less significant improvement in the subsequent CPET steps to form  $* \text{CH}_3\text{OH}$  (green line in Fig. 3c) and  $* \text{CH}_4$  (brown line in Fig. 3d) from the  $* \text{CO}$  intermediate compared to the same conversion paths on the SAC  $\text{CuN}_4$ . The only lower  $\text{C}_1$  pathway catalysed by the  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-CuN}_4$  DAC is towards  $* \text{HCOOH}$ , where the O-coordinated ( $* \text{OCHO}$ ) intermediate is significantly stabilized (Fig. S7), leading to the formation of formic acid. This finding is consistent with the DFT results of Wang et al., which reported that a Cu dimer anchored in a graphite-CN monolayer ( $\text{Cu}_2@ \text{CN}$ ) has superior catalytic activity for the  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion to HCOOH and ethylene ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$ ) than the corresponding single-atom counterpart ( $\text{Cu}@ \text{CN}$ ) [71]. However, the consideration of  $\text{C}_2$  products is beyond the scope of this work because of the difficulties in coupling reactions on single dispersed sites on SACs (Table S1).



**Fig. 3.** Free energy diagram of  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  on Cu-Cu DACs leading the formation of the following  $\text{C}_1$  products. (a) Carbon monoxide [ $\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow * \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{COOH} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO}(\text{g})$ ]; (b) formic acid [ $\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow * \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{HCOO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{HCOOH} \rightarrow \text{HCOOH}(\text{g})$ ]; (c) methanol [ $* \text{CO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CHO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CH}_3\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OH}(\text{g})$ ]; (d) methane [ $* \text{CO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CHO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow * \text{CH}_4 + \text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_4(\text{g})$ ].



**Fig. 4.** (a–d) Free energy diagrams of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR to CO on the SACs MN<sub>4</sub> and DACs MN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub>. (e–h) ΔU<sub>L</sub> = U<sub>L</sub>(CO<sub>2</sub>RR) – U<sub>L</sub>(HER) for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR into CO on SACs and DACs; a positive value of ΔU<sub>L</sub> corresponds to selectivity towards the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Cu-CuMN<sub>6</sub>/Gra and M-CuMN<sub>6</sub>/Gra indicate that the catalytic centres of the DACs for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR are Cu and M (M = Fe, Co, Zn, and Ni), respectively.

### 3.3. Catalytic performance of the M–N<sub>4</sub> SACs and heteronuclear CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub> DACs

The Gibbs free energy ( $\Delta G$ ) diagrams of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR to CO on the SACs M–N<sub>4</sub> and heteronuclear CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub> DACs (M = Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn) are compared in Fig. 4. The  $\Delta G$  values of the elementary steps of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR on the SACs and DACs to form CO, HCOOH, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and CH<sub>4</sub> are summarized in Table S8 for the SAC and Table S9 for the DAC; the G values for gas molecule and initial reduction intermediates are listed in Tables S10–S15. The reactions taking place on both Cu and M sites were considered for the DACs.

On the Cu site of the CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub> DACs, the CPET step ( $^*CO_2 + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow ^*COOH$ ) is rate-determining (maximum value of  $\Delta G$ ), with positive reaction free energies of 1.36 eV for CuN<sub>4</sub>–FeN<sub>4</sub>, 1.49 eV for CuN<sub>4</sub>–CoN<sub>4</sub>, 1.85 eV for CuN<sub>4</sub>–NiN<sub>4</sub>, and 1.73 eV for CuN<sub>4</sub>–ZnN<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 4a–d). All these  $\Delta G$  values are higher than that on the SAC CuN<sub>4</sub> (1.09 eV). The Cu site in DACs CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub> is significantly less active for the initial reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO, while the opposite is observed for the other metal sites (Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn) compared to their respective SACs (MN<sub>4</sub>, M = Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn). Fig. 4 shows that the energy required for the reaction  $^*CO_2 + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow ^*COOH$  is  $-0.02$  eV on both Fe and Co sites of CuN<sub>4</sub>–FeN<sub>4</sub> and CuN<sub>4</sub>–CoN<sub>4</sub>. The Ni site of CuN<sub>4</sub>–NiN<sub>4</sub> requires a higher energy of 1.43 eV, and the Zn site of CuN<sub>4</sub>–ZnN<sub>4</sub> requires 0.80 eV. All cases are more favourable than the corresponding SACs MN<sub>4</sub>, including FeN<sub>4</sub> (0.10 eV), CoN<sub>4</sub> ( $-0.65$  eV), NiN<sub>4</sub> (1.79 eV), and ZnN<sub>4</sub> (1.02 eV). Notice that even though the reaction energy on CoN<sub>4</sub> is more negative ( $-0.65$  eV) than on CoN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub> ( $-0.02$  eV), the  $^*COOH$  intermediate could bind too strongly to the catalyst sites and impede its further conversion. The above results indicate that in the CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub> DACs, M (Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn) is the active site for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, and the proximity of the Cu to M leads to an improved CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance than M in SACs MN<sub>4</sub>.

To quantify the selectivity of SACs and DACs towards the formation of carbon products rather than H<sub>2</sub>, we have used the difference between the limiting potentials  $U_L$  calculated using Eq. (2) of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR and HER,  $\Delta U_L = U_L(\text{CO}_2\text{RR}) - U_L(\text{HER})$  [72–74], as shown in Fig. 4(e–h). The limiting potential refers to the minimum reverse electrode potential required to overcome the CPET step associated with the largest positive free energy change, namely, the formation of  $^*COOH$  (Fig. 4a–d). Consequently, a positive  $\Delta U_L$  would indicate that the largest Gibbs free energy step during the CO<sub>2</sub>RR is smaller than the largest one during the HER, leading to a greater selectivity for carbon products over H<sub>2</sub> formation. Fig. 4(e–h) shows that the  $\Delta U_L$  value of the Cu active site in the CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub> DAC ( $-1.54$  V) is much more negative than that in the CuN<sub>4</sub> SAC (0.17 V). This difference is particularly pronounced for Cu compared to the other

metals in CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub> and MN<sub>4</sub>. Therefore, the Cu site in DACs favour the hydrogen evolution process rather than CO<sub>2</sub> conversion. The finding challenges the concept of Cu as the active centre for CO<sub>2</sub>RR and suggests that Cu could instead play a role in promoting the catalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR on the adjacent M site.

### 3.4. Reaction pathways of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR to C<sub>1</sub> products on SACs and DACs

In addition to the two-electron reduction mechanisms generating CO and HCOOH, we have computed the six- and eight-electron reduction pathways leading to the formation of CH<sub>3</sub>OH and CH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 5). In this study, we only focused on C<sub>1</sub> products (Table S1) not only because C<sub>2</sub> products are rarely observed on atomically dispersed electrocatalysts due to the lack of suitable adsorption sites for C–C coupling of C<sub>2</sub> intermediates [75], but also out of the practical consideration. In fact, a techno-economic evaluation of low-temperature CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis showed that achieving high yields of C<sub>1</sub> products is competitive to conventional processes compared to C<sub>2</sub> products, which production has substantially higher costs [76].

Upon CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, the first CPET step leads to the  $^*OCHO$  or  $^*COOH$  intermediates. The second CPET step forms HCOOH ( $^*OCHO + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow ^*HCOOH$ ) or CO ( $^*COOH + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow ^*CO + H_2O$ ). The pathway leading to CO has been discussed in Section 3.3. On DACs, the CPET step ( $CO_2 + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow ^*OCHO$ ) in Fig. 6(a, d, g, and j) has reaction free energies of  $-0.07$  eV on FeN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub>, 0.20 eV on CoN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub>, 1.25 eV on NiN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub>, and  $-0.21$  eV on ZnN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub>. In comparison, the reaction free energies of the CPET step ( $CO_2 + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow ^*COOH$ ) are  $-0.02$  eV on FeN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub>,  $-0.02$  eV on CoN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub>, 1.43 eV on NiN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub>, and 0.80 eV on ZnN<sub>4</sub>–CuN<sub>4</sub> (Table S9).

Fig. 6 also reports the CPET steps involved in the two different CO reduction reaction (CORR) pathways:  $^*CO + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow ^*CHO$ ;  $^*CO + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow ^*COH$ . The free energies of formation of  $^*CHO$  and  $^*COH$  on the FeN<sub>4</sub> SAC are 1.27 eV (Fig. 6b) and 2.61 eV (Fig. 6c), respectively. Similarly, the reaction energy for  $^*CO + ^*H \rightarrow ^*COH$  on the Fe site of DAC CuN<sub>4</sub>–FeN<sub>4</sub> is 2.31 eV (Fig. 6c), while the reaction energy for  $^*CO + ^*H \rightarrow ^*CHO$  is only 0.65 eV (Fig. 6b). These results suggest that on both SAC FeN<sub>4</sub> and DAC CuN<sub>4</sub>–FeN<sub>4</sub>, the proton is preferentially transferred to the carbon rather than the oxygen atom of CO. The reduction of  $^*CO$  to  $^*CHO$  is consistently more favourable than that of  $^*CO$  to  $^*COH$  on Co (Fig. 6e and f), Ni (Fig. 6h and i), and Zn sites (Fig. 6k and l) in both SACs and DACs.

In summary, carbon end reduction is the main pathway for the CO<sub>2</sub> to C<sub>1</sub> products on Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn atomic catalysts (MN<sub>4</sub> and CuN<sub>4</sub>–MN<sub>4</sub>). Moreover, all reaction pathways to C<sub>1</sub> products

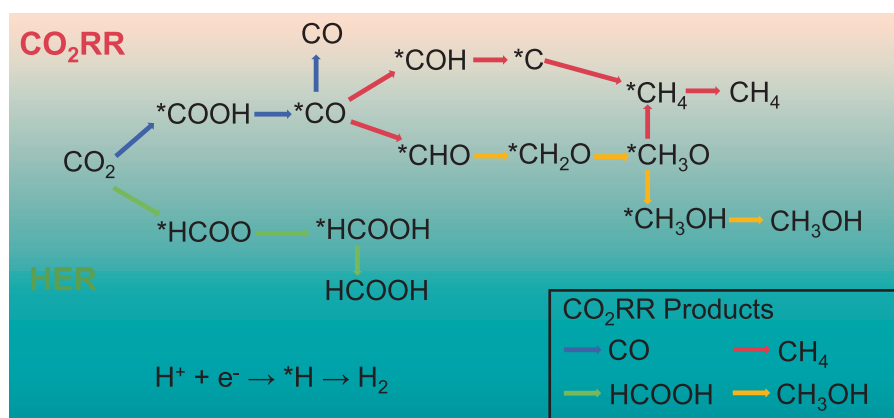
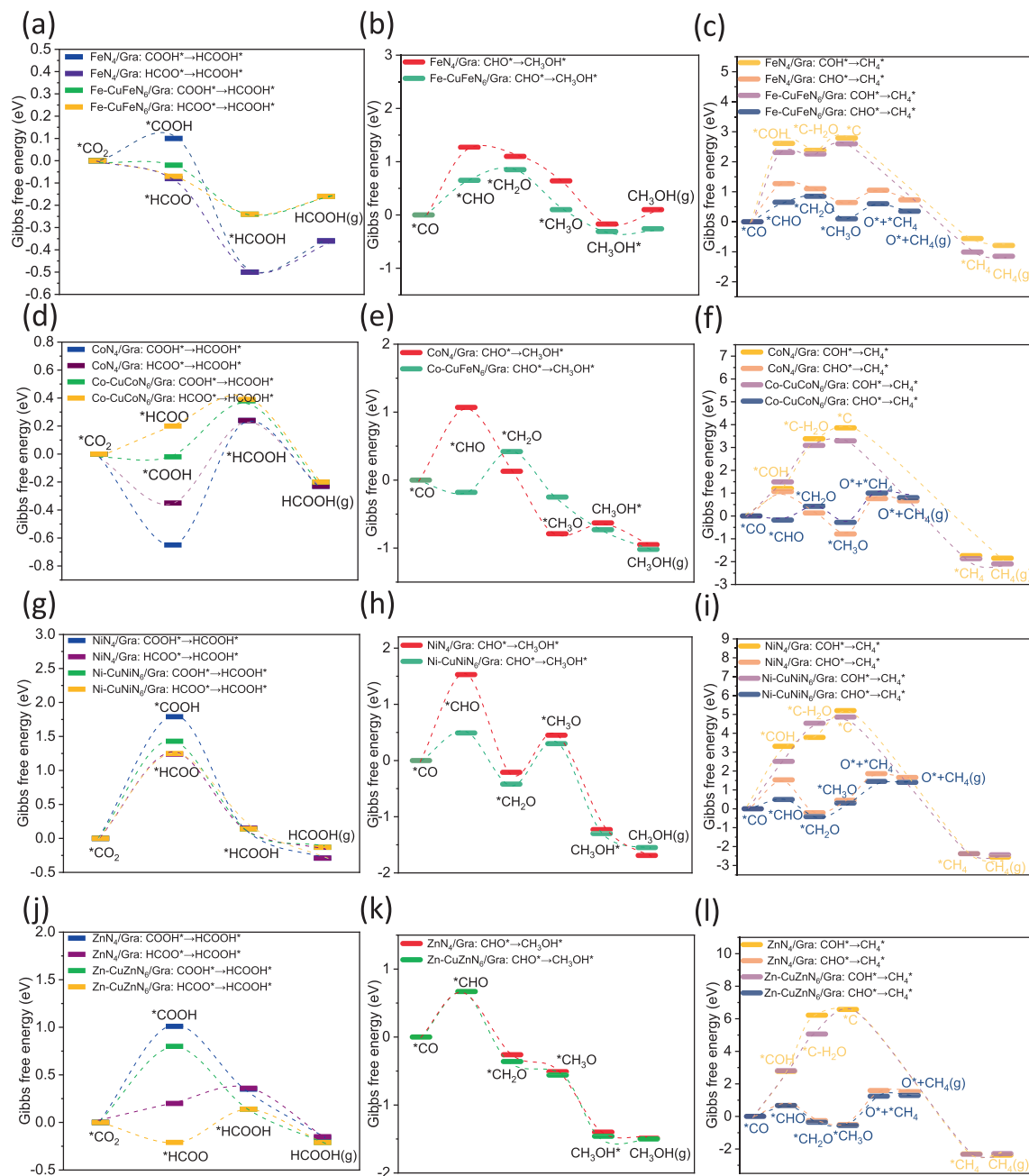


Fig. 5. The reaction pathways of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR into the C<sub>1</sub> products CO, HCOOH, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and CH<sub>4</sub>, and of the HER.



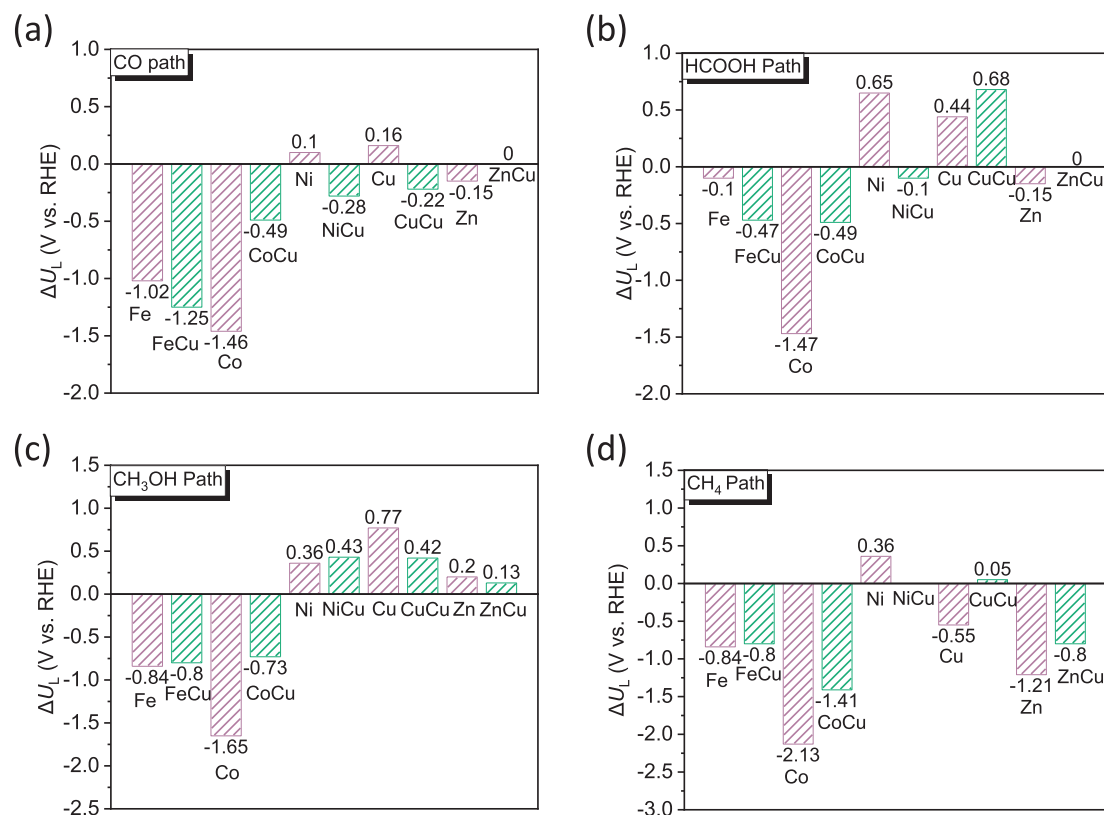
**Fig. 6.** Free energy diagrams of the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  to  $\text{HCOOH}$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ , and  $\text{CH}_4$  on SACs and DACs: (a–c)  $\text{FeN}_4$  and  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-FeN}_4$ ; (d–f)  $\text{CoN}_4$  and  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-CoN}_4$ ; (g–i)  $\text{NiN}_4$  and  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-NiN}_4$ ; (j–l)  $\text{ZnN}_4$  and  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-ZnN}_4$ . M–Cu $\text{MN}_4$ /Gra labels the metal site (M) of the DAC on which the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  reaction occurs.

have been improved on  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-MN}_4$  compared to  $\text{MN}_4$ , indicating the promoting role of Cu. The structures of the intermediates for the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  on SACs and DACs are shown in Figs. S8 and S9, respectively.

### 3.5. Selectivity of $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ versus HER on SACs and DACs

The difference between the limiting potentials for the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  and HER,  $\Delta U_L = U_L(\text{CO}_2\text{RR}) - U_L(\text{HER})$ , is a reliable indicator of the catalyst selectivity towards these two reactions. A more positive  $\Delta U_L$  indicates that the catalyst is selective for  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  and more likely to produce carbon products. The computed values of  $\Delta U_L$  for the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ s to  $\text{C}_1$  molecules on SACs and DACs are summarized in Fig. 7.

The  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-FeN}_4$  catalyst exhibits  $\Delta U_L$  values of  $-1.25$  V,  $-0.47$  V,  $-0.80$  V, and  $-0.80$  V for the formation of CO, HCOOH,  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ , and  $\text{CH}_4$ , respectively. These results confirm the experimentally observed high FE for HCOOH and low FE for CO on DAC  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-FeN}_4$  by Wei et al. [52,54]. On  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-CoN}_4$ , the presence of Cu significantly improved the selectivity of the catalytic  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion to  $\text{C}_1$  products on the Co metal site of the DACs due to the more positive  $\Delta U_L$  value of  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-CoN}_4$  than  $\text{CoN}_4$ , as shown in Fig. 7. Yi et al. have also reported that an industrial-level current density can achieve the maximum CO partial current density on a diatomic site catalysts consisting of Co-Cu hetero-diatom pairs [43]. However, on DAC  $\text{CuN}_4\text{-NiN}_4$ , the overpotential for hydrogen evolution is lower than that on SAC  $\text{NiN}_4$ ; the hydrogen evolution is preferred over  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction on these two catalysts, despite the improve-



**Fig. 7.** Values of  $\Delta U_L = U_L(\text{CO}_2\text{RR}) - U_L(\text{HER})$  on SACs and DACs for the CO<sub>2</sub>RRs to the C<sub>1</sub> products CO, HCOOH, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and CH<sub>4</sub>. A positive  $\Delta U_L$  indicates that the catalyst is more selective for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR than the HER.

ment in Ni activity in the presence of Cu in the DACs shown in Fig. 6(g–i).

Among the considered DACs, CuN<sub>4</sub>-ZnN<sub>4</sub> exhibits the highest selectivity towards CO, which was also proven experimentally by Hao et al. [38]. The linear relationship between the binding strength of \*COOH and \*CO [77] on M–N<sub>4</sub> and MN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub> in Fig. S10 shows the correlation between low CO selectivity and a large free energy of adsorption ( $G_{\text{ad}}$ ) of \*CO. However, the large  $G_{\text{ad}}$  of \*COOH promotes the initial reduction elementary reaction ( $\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{*COOH}$ ). Despite the initial activation of the CO<sub>2</sub> molecule, the above calculations confirm that CuN<sub>4</sub>-FeN<sub>4</sub> is less selective to CO, in agreement with the work reported by Wei et al. that the CuN<sub>4</sub>-FeN<sub>4</sub> DAC hinders CO production [54].

### 3.6. The mechanism controlling the role of Cu as a promoter in the DACs

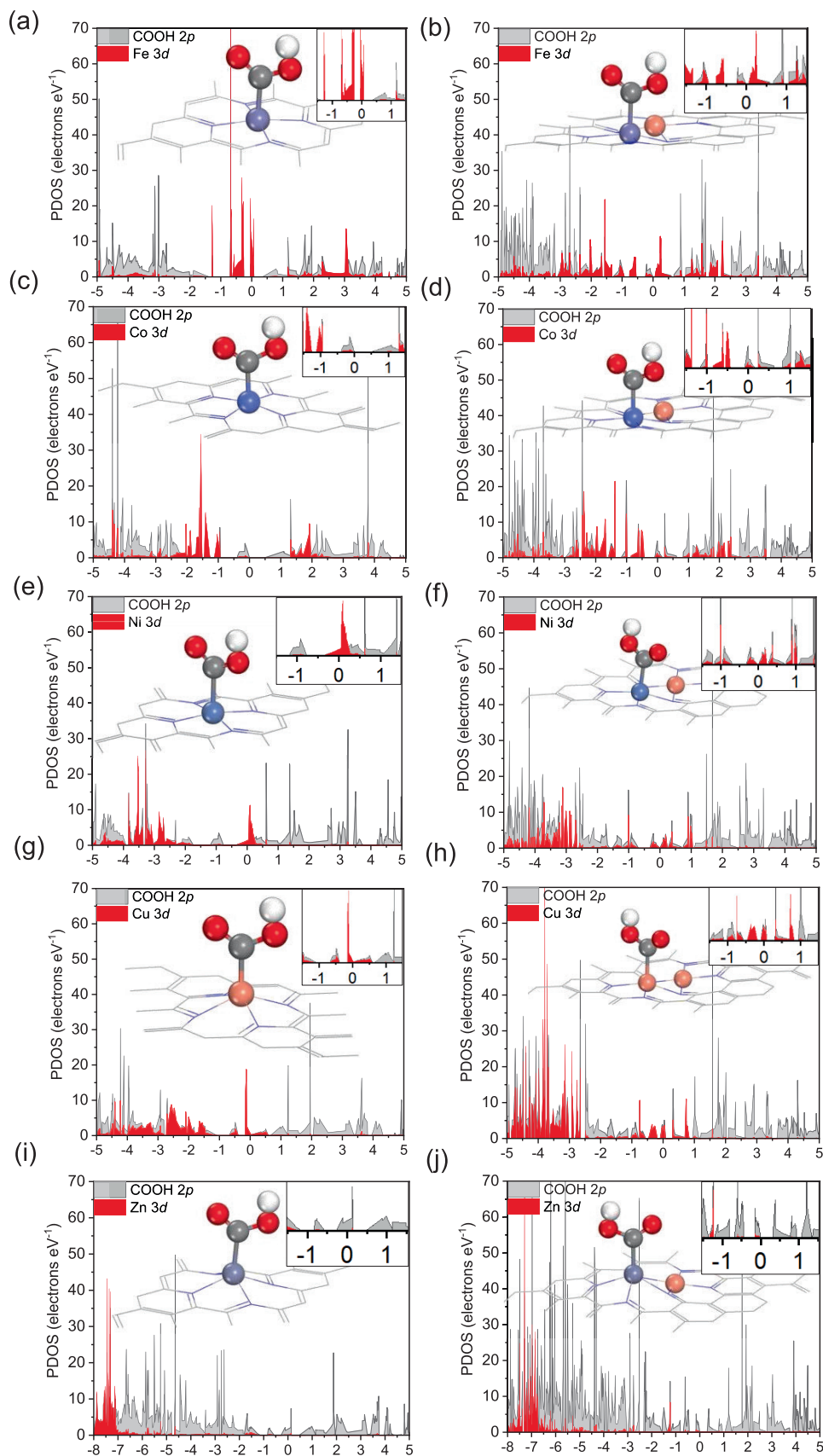
According to the *d*-band centre theory for transition metals ( $\varepsilon_M$ ), a weaker filling of electrons in the antibonding orbitals strengthens the adsorption of reactants, products, and intermediates [78]. Consequently, the value of  $\varepsilon_M$  of the metals in SACs and DACs can be used to determine the synergistic effects of Cu and M on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance. The computed values  $\varepsilon_M$  in SACs and DACs are reported in Fig. S11.

The *d*-band centre of Fe, Co, and Zn in heteronuclear DACs is far from the Fermi level, compared to their SACs (Fig. S11a vs. f, b vs. g, and e vs. j). Consequently, it is more favourable for products to desorb from the catalyst sites. However, for the homonuclear the Cu-Cu DAC, the *d*-band centre moves upwards to the Fermi level, compared to its SAC (Fig. S11d vs. i). This indicates that reaction species are strongly bound to the active sites, which could lead to further catalysis reactions, such as coupling to multiple carbon products.

However, these reactions are outside the scope of our study. Due to the close electronegativity of Cu and Ni, the electronegativity offset [53] in CuN<sub>4</sub>-NiN<sub>4</sub> leads to a better CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance (electronegativity: Fe 1.83; Co 1.88; Ni 1.91; Cu 1.9; Zn 1.65).

As previously discussed, the initial reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to form the \*COOH (\*CO<sub>2</sub> + H<sup>+</sup> + e<sup>-</sup>) intermediate is the rate-determining step for the generation of C<sub>1</sub> products (Fig. 4). Therefore, the interaction between \*COOH and the metal sites is critical to understanding the CO<sub>2</sub>RR promotion mechanism on DACs. As shown in Fig. 8, there is stronger orbital hybridization (orbital overlap) between the \*COOH 2*p*-orbital and the M 3*d*-orbital at the Fermi level on CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub>, but weaker on M–N<sub>4</sub>. This results in the rate-limiting step of CO<sub>2</sub>RR on CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub> having a lower reaction Gibbs free energy, which is favourable for further reactions. In addition, the hybridization degree is the most significant in FeN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub> system and less in ZnN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub>. Fig. 8(b, d, f, h, and j) shows that the hybridization between the \*COOH 2*p*-orbital and the M 3*d*-orbital at the Fermi level under Cu regulation gradually weakens from Fe to Zn. This may be related to the interatomic electron transfer between the two metals in DACs, as shown by the charge difference between the two metals in Fig. S12. In addition to studying the shift of the *d*-band center and orbital hybridization, we also conducted Bader's atoms-in-molecules analysis of the wavefunctions generated from DFT geometry-optimized structures of all intermediates involved in the entire reaction path of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. For most intermediates, the Bader charges of the metals are nearly higher on DACs (red line in Fig. S12k–o) than that on SACs (black line in Fig. S12k–o). This suggests that during the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, the interaction between the metal site M in CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub> and the intermediates is more significant than in SACs. It further infers that the adjacency of Cu stimulates the catalytic activity of the metal M in CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub>.





**Fig. 8.** Electronic PDOS of \*COOH on (a) FeN<sub>4</sub>, (b) FeN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub>, (c) CoN<sub>4</sub>, (d) CoN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub>, (e) NiN<sub>4</sub>, (f) NiN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub>, (g) CuN<sub>4</sub>, (h) CuN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub>, (i) ZnN<sub>4</sub>, and (j) ZnN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub>. The red ball, white ball, grey ball, orange ball, and purple spheres are the O, H, C, Cu, and M (Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn) atoms, respectively.

## 4. Conclusions

We used DFT calculations to investigate the electrocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to C<sub>1</sub> chemicals (CO, HCOOH, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and CH<sub>4</sub>) on two types of metal-nitrogen-doped carbon materials: SACs with structure MN<sub>4</sub> and DACs with structure CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub> (M = Fe, Co, Ni, and Zn). The homonuclear CuN<sub>4</sub>-CuN<sub>4</sub> catalyst showed improved performance only for the formation of HCOOH compared to the SAC CuN<sub>4</sub>. However, in the heteronuclear DACs CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub>, the catalytic activity to form C<sub>1</sub> products is enhanced on the metal site M but suppressed on Cu. The Cu atom in DACs acts as a CO<sub>2</sub>RR promoter rather than an ideal active centre.

Next, we considered the selectivity of C<sub>1</sub> products on SACs and DACs. We found that Cu improved CO selectivity on CuN<sub>4</sub>-ZnN<sub>4</sub> but hindered it on CuN<sub>4</sub>-FeN<sub>4</sub> due to strong binding between CO and the Fe site of the diatomic catalyst. For CuN<sub>4</sub>-CoN<sub>4</sub>, Cu regulation not only promoted CO<sub>2</sub>RR reactivity on Co towards C<sub>1</sub> products, but also inhibited its competition with the hydrogen evolution reaction, resulting in higher selectivity towards carbon products than the CoN<sub>4</sub> SAC. Finally, we analysed the electronic properties of the catalysts and reaction intermediates to reveal the mechanism by which Cu promotes the catalytic activity of CuN<sub>4</sub>-MN<sub>4</sub> DACs. Cu enhances the initial reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> by promoting orbital hybridization between the key intermediate \*COOH 2*p*-orbitals and the neighbour metals 3*d*-orbitals around the Fermi level. This promotion effect, caused by interatomic electron transfer degree between Cu and other metals, gradually weakens from Fe to Zn due to decreasing electronegativity difference between Cu and the other metal.

This computational work, therefore, reveals a new mechanism for the role of Cu in DACs for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, which provides instructive insights for designing practical, stable, and high-performance CO<sub>2</sub> electroreduction catalysts.

## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jechem.2023.06.029>.

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