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# Non-noble single-atom alloy for electrocatalytic nitrate reduction using hierarchical high-throughput screening

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## Abstract

Electrochemical nitrate reduction reaction (NO<sub>3</sub>RR) holds promise for the management of wastewater contamination and synthesis of carbon-neutral ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>). However, high-quality catalysts with controllable reaction pathways and high activity and selectivity are still lacking. The emerging single atom alloys (SAAs) offer attractive possibilities in nitrate reduction due to their unique atomic and electronic structures. By high-throughput first-principles calculations, we explore the possible incorporation of a series of transition-metal alloyed Cu-based SAAs, referred to as TM/Cu(111), for NO<sub>3</sub>RR toward NH<sub>3</sub>. A hierarchical four-step screening strategy have been employed to evaluate twenty-seven SAA catalysts yielding three alloying elements (Ti, Ni and Nb) with high catalytic activity and NO<sub>3</sub>RR selectivity. Finally, only Ni/Cu(111) possess the best activity among these three candidates because of its lowest limiting potential of -0.29 V. After

further analysis, we found that the adsorption free energy of  $^*\text{NO}_3$  can be recognized as efficient descriptor to design and predict the  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  performance of SAA. Furthermore, the Cu-based SAAs were revealed to exhibit pH dependent properties, which influence the competition between the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$ . This work not only indicates the significant potential of SAA in electrocatalysis for  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  to  $\text{NH}_3$ , but also highlights the important influence of pH on the activity and selectivity of catalysts under reaction conditions.

**Key words:** Nitrate reduction reaction; ammonia synthesis; single-atom alloy; pH influence; high-throughput calculations

## 1. Introduction

Ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ), being an irreplaceable chemical ingredient in agriculture and industry, is essential for human life and development.[1–3] Nonetheless, the worldwide production of ammonia still relies on the traditional Haber–Bosch (HB) process, which consumes intensive energy and is accompanied by substantial emissions of carbon dioxide.[4, 5] Thus developing alternative sustainable strategies is imperative to replace the HB process. Electrochemical nitrate reduction reaction ( $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$ ), as a promising and simple route for green  $\text{NH}_3$  synthesis, has been widely considered because of its unique advantages.[6] First,  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  can effectively solve the problem of nitrate pollution in surface and groundwater. Generally, anthropogenic activities, such as the burning of fossil fuels, the overuse of nitrogen-rich fertilizers, and the discharge of wastewater, lead to the accumulation of nitrates in water. Hence, the recycling of excessive nitrate and its conversion to  $\text{NH}_3$  via the electrochemical  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  method can bring immediate economic benefits to the remediation process.[7] Second, nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) is regarded as a more reactive nitrogen source because of the weaker  $\text{N}=\text{O}$  bond and higher solubility in electrolytes, which also lead to a simple,

efficient and controllable method for  $\text{NH}_3$  synthesis. Finally, the  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  strategy can be easily integrated into existing processes, and the production scale can be further scaled up.[8] Thus,  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  can provide a sustainable alternative to the HB process while providing a solution to restore imbalances in the global nitrogen cycle.[9]

Despite this, developing highly efficient electrode materials with high selectivity and low energy consumption is still challenging because the reduction of nitrate to  $\text{NH}_3$  is a complicated route ( $\text{NO}_3^- + 9\text{H}^+ + 8\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{NH}_3 + 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) accompanied with several by-products (e.g.,  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{N}_2$ , and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ).[10, 11] To date, significant efforts have been exerted to investigate active, selective, and stable  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  electrodes.[6, 12–17] Former studies have demonstrated that Copper (Cu) shows promising performance for catalyzing  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  to  $\text{NH}_3$  in alkaline media.[8, 18, 19] Wang et. al. showed that  $\text{Cu}_{50}\text{Ni}_{50}$  alloy catalysts exhibit enhanced performance for  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  due to the ability of Ni to tune the Cu  $d$ -band center and modulate the adsorption energies of intermediates.[18] Another study reported the electroreduction of nitrate to  $\text{NH}_3$  catalyzed by using a copper-molecular solid catalyst, achieving a maximum Faradaic efficiency of 85.9% at  $-0.4$  V versus a reversible hydrogen electrode, which can be attributed to regulating the transfer of protons and/or electrons to the copper centres.[19] However, only when high overpotentials are supplied (around  $-0.4 \sim -0.7$  V vs. RHE), can sufficient H coverage be ensured to improve the catalytic efficiency.[20] Then, a series of random alloys electrocatalysts (e.g.,  $\text{CuNi}$ [18] and  $\text{CuRh}$ [21]) have been synthesized and applied to  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$ . However, maintaining the balance between high current density and Faradaic efficiency remains a challenge because of the ubiquitous adsorption-energy ratio relationship.[22] In recent years, ordered intermetallic alloys have received extensive attention to circumvent the energy-scaling limitation due to their atomically ordered structures and specified compositions.[23–25] Nevertheless, the precise synthesis of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals still faces many technical difficulties, and the

structure–activity relationship remains unexplored. Subsequently, many strategies, such as employing metal salts of various ligands,[26] or minimize the concentration of active metals,[22] have been developed to improve catalytic activity.

Single–atom alloys (SAAs) are an emerging kind of single atom catalysts (SACs) that combine the advantages of alloys and SACs and plays an increasingly important role in the field of SACs. As the name suggests, single–atom alloys (SAAs) are a class of materials where transition metals (TMs) that are active in specific reactions are dispersed on the surface of inert metal hosts (e.g. Cu, Ag, and Au).[27–29] TMs are often characterized by their excellent electronic properties due to their unique d–orbital electron arrangement, which is of great research significance in the synthesis of SAAs and in characterizing their catalytic activity. Up to now, SAAs have been widely used to promote electrocatalytic activity, which can effectively catalyze selective hydrogenations,[30, 31] C–C coupling reactions,[32] oxygen reduction,[33, 34] NO reduction,[35] CO<sub>2</sub> reduction,[36] nitrogen reduction[37] and CO oxidation[38], among many other reactions. Recent study has shown that dispersed gold atoms on copper Au/Cu(111) exhibit high Faradaic efficiency because of the electron migration from Cu to Au atoms creates electron–deficient Cu active sites, which promote the generation of active hydrogen species (\*H) that can readily hydrogenate NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>. [39] However, precious metal–based SAAs are costly and not viable for long–term sustainable solutions. Therefore, building theory–guided principles in material design is crucial to develop advanced catalytic systems for the discovery of high–performance NO<sub>3</sub>RR electrocatalysts toward NH<sub>3</sub>.

Inspired by these, based on first–principles calculation, we proposed a step–by–step high–throughput screening strategy that is both highly effective and inexpensive to design Cu–based SAAs with high NO<sub>3</sub>RR performance. Here, a series of single transition metal (TM) atoms alloyed on Cu(111) are investigated, denoted as TM/Cu(111) (TM = 3d, 4d, and 5d

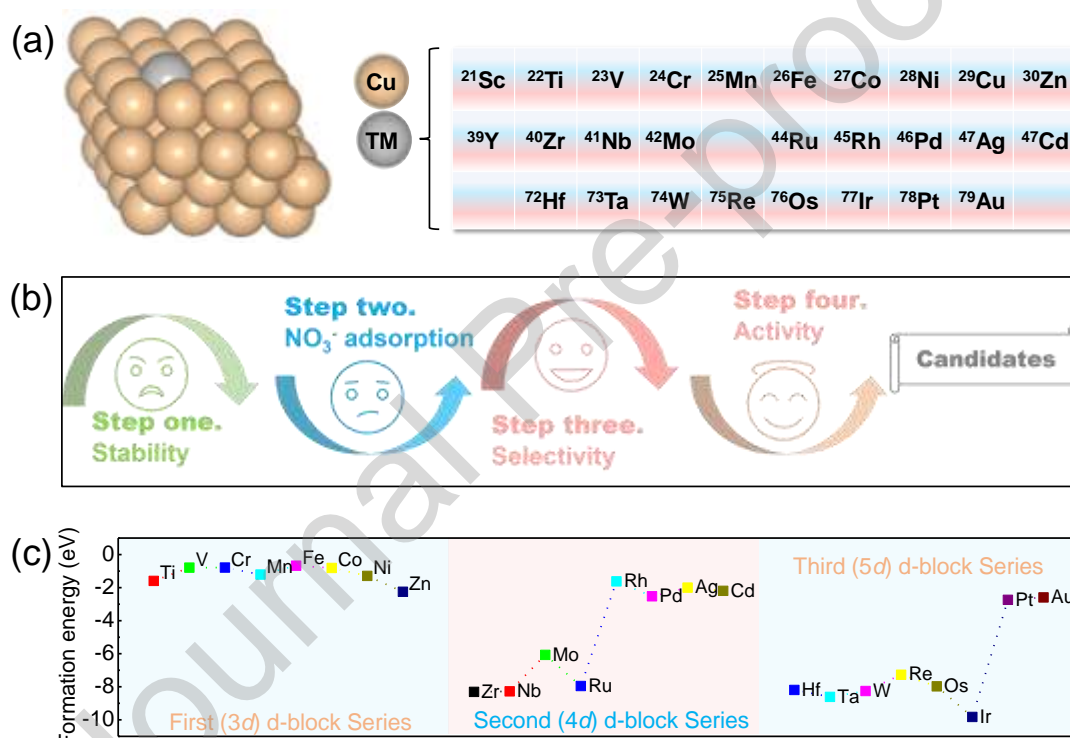
transition metals, as shown in Fig. 1a). In such strategy, four screening steps, including formation energies,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  adsorption energies, selectivity and activity are examined sequentially. After that, three candidates including Ti/Cu(111), Ni/Cu(111) and Nb/Cu(111), were screened out among twenty-seven SAAs, which all satisfy the given criteria. Finally, Ni/Cu(111) stands out because of the highest activity and selectivity for  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  to  $\text{NH}_3$  with the limiting potential is only  $-0.29$  V, which is comparable or even greater than former studies of Fe SAC ( $-0.30$  V)[13], Ru/g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  ( $-0.34$  V)[40] and Os SAC ( $-0.42$  V)[41]. We found that the adsorption of  $^*\text{NO}_3$  and pH influence the activity and selectivity of  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$ , respectively. This work provides theoretical guidance for the rational design of SAA catalysts for  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  to  $\text{NH}_3$  and provide a stimulating impetus for further experimental exploration.

## 2. Results and discussion

### 2.1. Structure of SAAs and the Screening Strategy

In this work, single TM atoms alloyed on Cu(111)-based catalysts (denoted as TM/Cu(111)) are selected for  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$  to  $\text{NH}_3$ . A total of 27 SAA systems are considered here, and the structural information and computational details are shown in Fig. 1a and supporting information, respectively. Four primary target properties must be considered to determine whether a candidate can be an effective catalyst for nitrate reduction (Fig. 1b): (1) The formation energy of a single atom,  $E_f$ , which is the force that binds the core metal atom to the copper substrate, evaluates the structural stability of catalyst; (2) Gibbs adsorption energy of  $^*\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\Delta G_{^*\text{NO}_3}$ , which is typically regarded as a prerequisite for  $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$ , determines whether  $^*\text{NO}_3$  can be adsorbed by the catalyst; (3) selectivity with suitable reaction free energy of  $\Delta G_{\text{NO}_3-\text{NO}_3\text{H}}$  for  $^*\text{NO}_3 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- = ^*\text{NO}_3\text{H}$ , and  $\Delta G_{\text{NO}-\text{NHO}}$  for  $^*\text{NO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- = ^*\text{NHO}$ , as compared with other elementary reactions, these two elementary reactions often demand higher energy injection. In addition, good catalysts also need to resist the competitive effect

of HER. (4) Activity with low limiting potential. First, by calculating  $E_r$ , we found that the values of all systems are negative (Fig. 1c and Table S1), ranging from  $-0.79$  to  $-9.82$  eV, indicating that all systems are proved to be thermodynamically stable and hold great potential for experimental synthesis. According to the Bader charge analysis (Fig. S1), an electron can be easily transported between the TM and adjacent copper atoms. Moreover, the number of charge transfers in each period fluctuates from left to right, that is, from losing to gaining electrons, which may influence the adsorption and activation of  $^*NO_3$ .



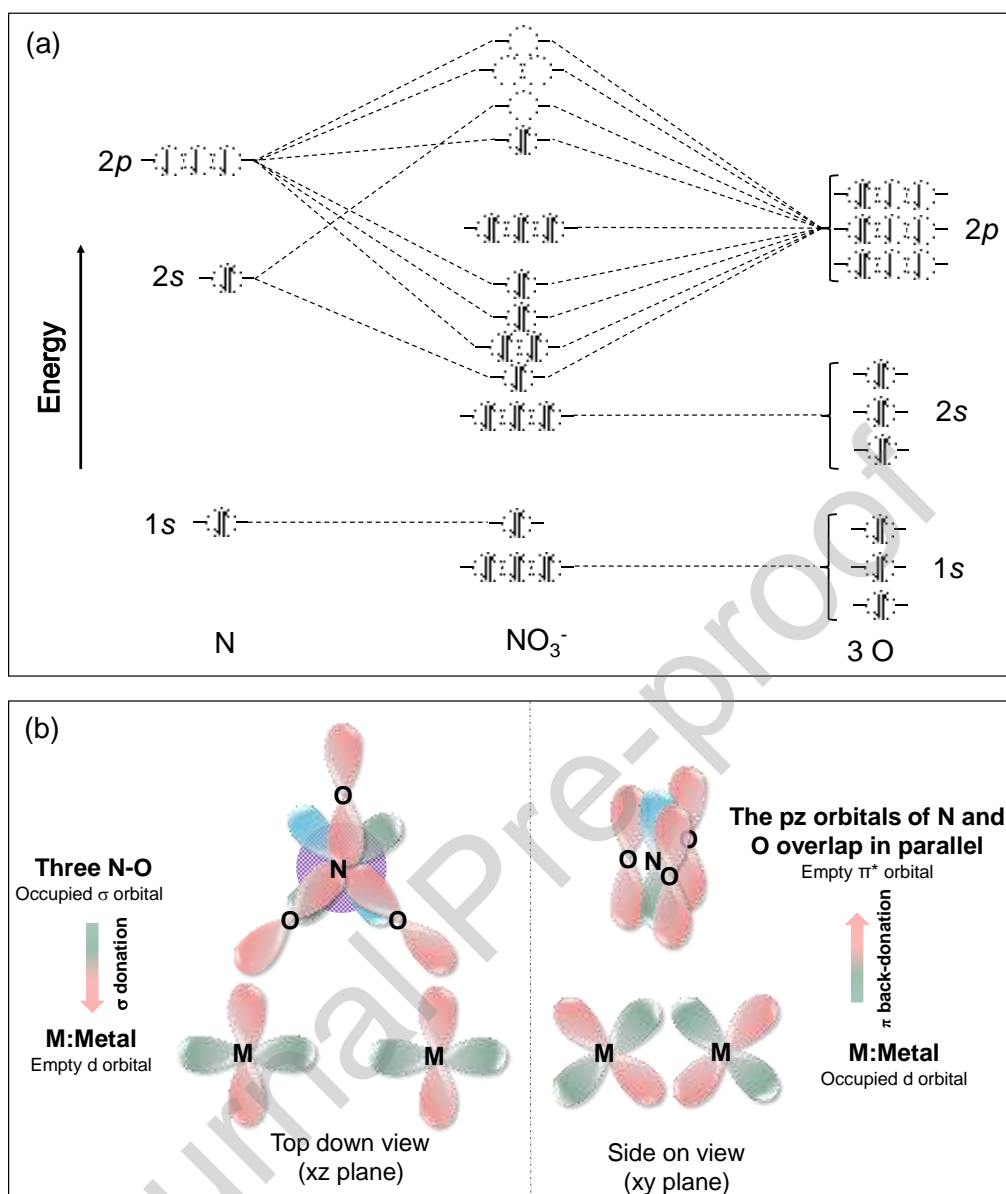
**Fig. 1.** (a) side view of the structural prototype of TM/Cu(111) catalysts is shown on the left. All TM atoms considered for doping are shown on the right. (b) Four-step screening method for selecting promising TM/Cu(111) catalysts for  $NO_3RR$  to  $NH_3$ . (c) Formation energies between the TMs and the Cu substrates.

## 2.2. $NO_3^-$ Adsorption and Activation on SAAs

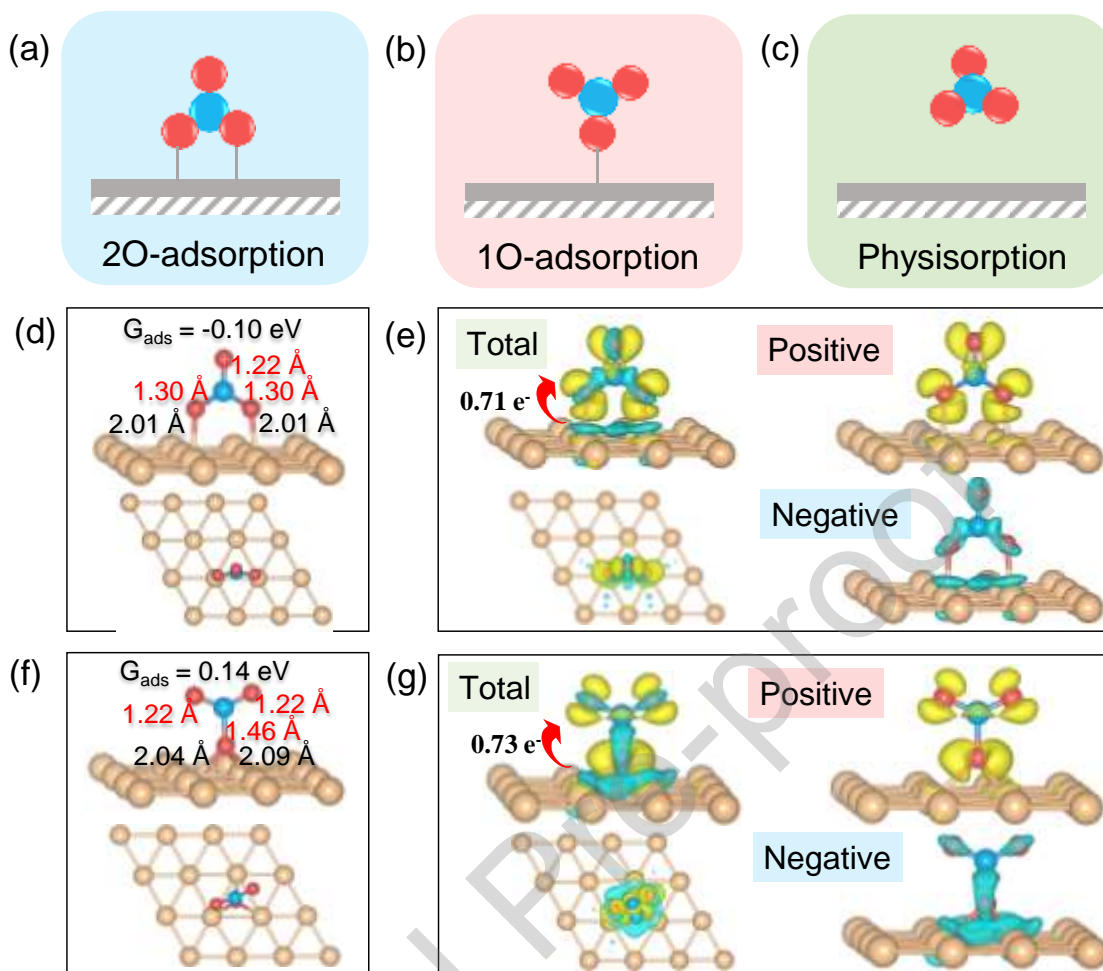
The chemisorption and activation of  $NO_3^-$  on the electrocatalyst surfaces are critical in the  $NO_3RR$ , which play a decisive role to begin the following hydrogenation process. To

study the adsorption and activation capacity of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , the bonding mechanism of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  must be understood first. Fig. 2a qualitatively illustrates the bonding scheme of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . N atoms bond with O in  $sp^2$  hybrid orbitals, and the main interaction between them involves three  $\sigma$ -type electron-shared bonding. Thus, a planar triangular ion is formed. At the same time, a delocalized large  $\pi$  bond with four centers and six electrons is formed between the three O atoms and the central N atom. The strong binding strength of transition metal active sites with  $\text{NO}_3^-$  can be attributed to their favorable combination of unoccupied and occupied d orbitals (Fig. 2b), in which the empty d-orbital can accept the electrons from the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  whereas the electrons from d-orbital will also back donate to the delocalized  $\pi$  bond and then weaken the N-O  $\sigma$ -bond. The nature of the interaction between TM and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is characterized by the "acceptance-donation" of electrons, where the combination of empty and occupied d orbitals plays a critical role.





**Fig. 2.** (a) Bonding scheme of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . The scheme qualitatively illustrates the bonding interactions between nitrogen 1s–2s–2p orbitals and oxygen 1s–2s–2p orbitals in the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  fragment. (b) Simplified schematic of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  bonding to TMs.

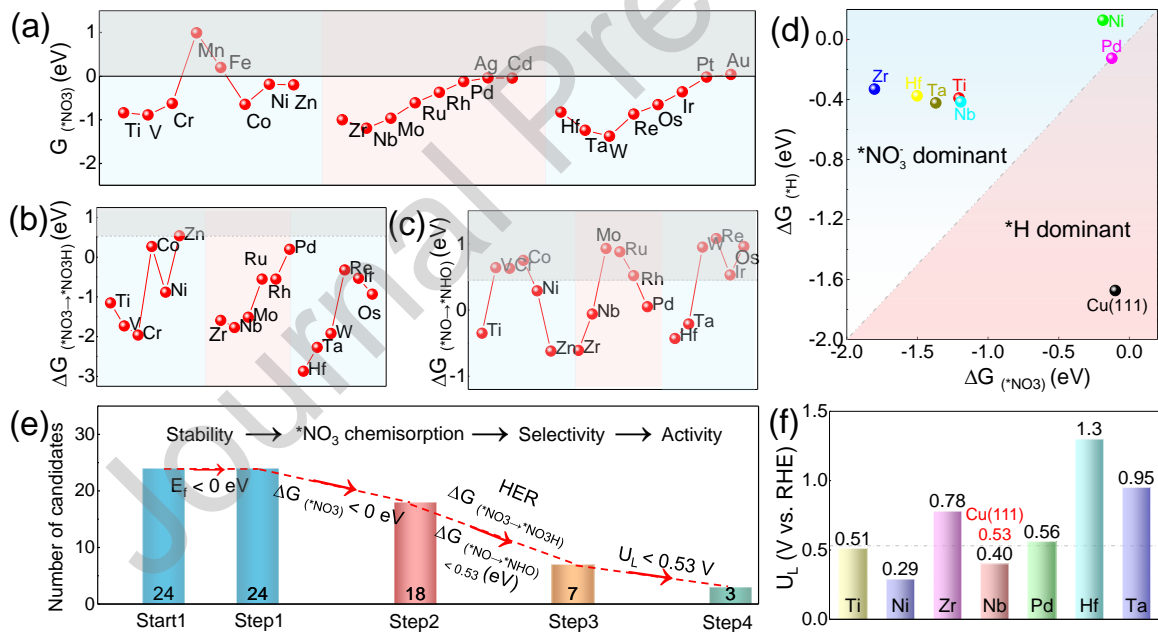


**Fig. 3.** (a–c) Three possible configurations of the adsorption of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  on the Cu(111) surfaces. Structural diagrams of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  adsorbed on Cu(111) through (d) 2–O and (f) 1–O adsorbed patterns. The yellow, red, and blue balls represent Cu, O, and N atoms, respectively. Charge density difference for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  adsorbed on Cu(111) through (e) 2–O and (g) 1–O patterns; the accumulation and loss of charge at an isosurface value of  $0.0025 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^3$  are shown in yellow and blue, respectively.

Subsequently, three adsorption modes are considered. As illustrated in Fig. 3a–c,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  can be adsorbed on the active site via chemisorption (2O and 1O patterns) or physisorption. Taking Cu(111) as an example, our calculations suggest that the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  chemisorption occurs on the Cu(111) surface via 2O/1O configurations with a O–Cu bond length no more than  $3 \text{\AA}$  (Figures 3d and f, respectively). For the 2O adsorption mode, two O atoms bonded to two Cu simultaneously via bridge site adsorption and the N–O bond increased to  $1.30 \text{\AA}$  (the N–O bond length in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was  $1.21 \text{\AA}$ ). Through the 1O adsorption

mode, one O atom bonds with three Cu atoms via the hollow site and the resulting N–O bond measures 1.46 Å. However, the two upper N–O bonds did not increase significantly. In addition, the Cu–O bond length of 1O adsorption mode is a little bit longer than that of 2O. Combining the results of charge density difference (CDD) in Fig. 3e and g, an obvious charge transfer between  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and the substrate is observed. Moreover, the 1O mode transfers more electrons than the 2O mode, thereby leading to a longer N–O bond length. The changes in Gibbs free energy are  $-0.10$  (2O) and  $0.14$  eV (1O), which indicate that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  prefers to chemisorb on Cu(111) via 2O mode in a spontaneous process. Thus, the following analysis is mainly carried out through the 2O mode.

### 2.3. Screening of Efficient $\text{NO}_3\text{RR}$ Catalysts from SAAs

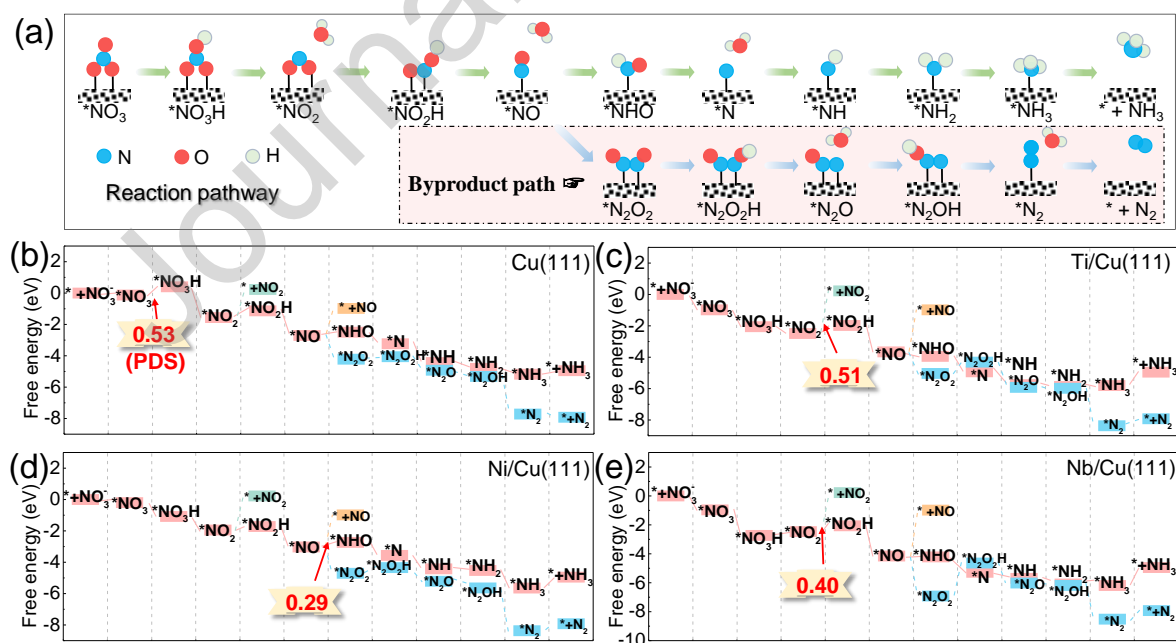


**Fig. 4.** Gibbs free energy changes for (a)  $^*\text{NO}_3$  adsorption, (b)  $^*\text{NO}_3 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NO}_3\text{H}$ , and (c)  $^*\text{NO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NHO}$  on TM/Cu(111) surfaces. (d) Calculated  $\Delta G_{(^*\text{NO}_3)}$  and  $\Delta G_{(^*\text{H})}$ . The upper left corner is the  $^*\text{NO}_3$  dominant region where  $\Delta G_{(^*\text{H})} > \Delta G_{(^*\text{NO}_3)}$ . (e) Schematic of the four steps to identify promising catalysts. (f) Theoretical  $U_L$  for the surviving TM/Cu(111) catalysts.

A hierarchical method was adopted to screen out potential high-performance NO<sub>3</sub>RR catalysts from the TM/Cu(111) systems, as shown in Fig. 4. As aforementioned, the structural stability of TM/SAA and \*NO<sub>3</sub> chemisorption are critical criteria for NO<sub>3</sub>RR and thus are included in the screening procedure. As shown in Section 2.1, all TMs can form strong bonds with Cu(111) ( $E_f < 0$ ), indicating that all candidates are stable through a spontaneous exothermic process. Furthermore, the Gibbs free energy changes for \*NO<sub>3</sub> adsorption on the TM/Cu(111) surfaces in Fig. 4a show that 18 candidates (Ti-, V-, Cr-, Co-, Ni-, Zn-, Zr-, Nb-, Mo-, Ru-, Rh-, Pd-, Hf-, Ta-, W-, Re-, Os-, and Ir/Cu(111)) satisfy the condition of  $G_{*NO_3} < 0$ , which can absorb \*NO<sub>3</sub> spontaneously. Figs. 4b and 4c further depict the changes in the Gibbs free energy of the two hydrogenation processes (\*NO<sub>3</sub> + H<sup>+</sup> + e<sup>-</sup> → \*NO<sub>3</sub>H, and \*NO + H<sup>+</sup> + e<sup>-</sup> → \*NHO), which are often regarded as the potential-determining steps (PDS) in NO<sub>3</sub>RR.[40, 41] Meanwhile, the energy barrier (0.53 eV) of the PDS for the original Cu(111) is selected as a screening criteria, which will be discussed in detail in later section. This step screens 7 out of 18 TM/Cu(111) systems, namely, Ti, Ni, Zr, Nb, Pd, Hf, and Ta, to fulfill the criterion. we compared  $\Delta G_{(*H)}$  and  $\Delta G_{(*NO_3)}$  to evaluate the selectivity of these seven TM/Cu(111). As shown in Fig. 4d, these seven SAAs possess the negative values of  $\Delta G_{(*NO_3)}$ , indicating that these surfaces prefer to capture nitrate rather than hydrogen and then lead to the desired NO<sub>3</sub>RR selectivity. So far, our strategy has gradually screened seven NO<sub>3</sub>RR candidate catalysts (Fig. 4e). Then, by calculating the hydrogenation reaction of the whole path, we finally screened three catalysts, including Ti-, Ni- and Nb/Cu(111), with lower theoretical limiting potential ( $U_{LS}$ ) provided in Fig. 4f, indicating that they possess good catalytic activity and selectivity. The following part will discuss more details about distinct reaction pathways.

## 2.4. Detailed Pathway of NO<sub>3</sub>RR

The electrochemical reduction reaction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NH<sub>3</sub> is a complex process with multiple reaction steps and by-products (for example, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, N<sub>2</sub>O, and N<sub>2</sub>).<sup>[17]</sup> The entire pathway from NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NH<sub>3</sub>, with nine protons and eight electrons transferred (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + 9H<sup>+</sup> + 8e<sup>-</sup> → NH<sub>3</sub> + 3H<sub>2</sub>O), is then investigated to better comprehend the NO<sub>3</sub>RR process (Fig. 5a). The pathway includes the adsorption of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> group to form \*NO<sub>3</sub>, deoxygenation of the N species, hydrogenation of the N species, and desorption of the reduced species. In addition, \*NO intermediates can easily generate \*N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> via N–N coupling, so we also consider the main side reaction—nitrogen generation, as shown in the pink shaded part below. Then, the Gibbs free energy changes are calculated for NO<sub>3</sub>RR of the three screened candidates (Fig. 5c–e), namely, Ti/Cu(111), Ni/Cu(111) and Nb/Cu(111), and compared with pristine Cu(111) (Fig. 5b). The structural diagrams of the corresponding NO<sub>3</sub>RR intermediates are shown in Figs. S2–5.



**Fig. 5.** (a) Reaction pathway of NO<sub>3</sub>RR to different products. Gibbs free energy changes for NO<sub>3</sub>RR of (b) Cu(111), (c) Cr/Cu(111), (d) Ni/Cu(111) and (e) Nb/Cu(111).

For pristine Cu(111),  $^*\text{NO}_3$  is first adsorbed on the surface with the free energy slightly decreased by 0.12 eV. Subsequently,  $^*\text{NO}_3$  is hydrogenated by ( $\text{H}^+ + \text{e}^-$ ) pair to form  $^*\text{NO}_3\text{H}$  intermediate, which is an uphill step with the free energy increasing by 0.53 eV. Then, the free energy change suddenly dropped by  $-1.96$  eV to release first  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and form  $^*\text{NO}_2$ . The hydrogenation process generates  $^*\text{NO}_2\text{H}$  through an endothermic process. Subsequently, a ( $\text{H}^+ + \text{e}^-$ ) pair attacks  $^*\text{NO}_2\text{H}$  accompanied with the release of second  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , while  $^*\text{NO}$  remains adsorbed with the Cu-N bond. The change in the free energy profile is  $-1.57$  eV. Next, the free energy of the endothermic process from  $^*\text{NO}$  to  $^*\text{NHO}$  increases by 0.21 eV. In the following steps ( $^*\text{NHO} \rightarrow ^*\text{N}$ ), H proton consecutively attacks  $^*\text{NHO}$ , and the corresponding energy decreases by  $-0.74$  eV. In the subsequent steps ( $^*\text{N} \rightarrow ^*\text{NH} \rightarrow ^*\text{NH}_2 \rightarrow ^*\text{NH}_3$ ), H proton consecutively attacks intermediates, and the corresponding energies drop by  $-1.20$ ,  $-0.37$ , and  $-0.37$  eV. The energy of 0.22 eV is eventually required during the desorption of  $\text{NH}_3$ . While only 0.16 eV is demanded during the reaction steps from  $^*\text{NO}$  to  $^*\text{N}_2$ , indicating it is prefer to produce  $\text{N}_2$  gas on pristine Cu(111). Thus, the PDS on pristine Cu(111) is occurred on the first hydrogenation step ( $^*\text{NO}_3 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NO}_3\text{H}$ ) with the 0.53 eV demanded energy.

When TMs are introduced to form SAA,  $^*\text{NO}_3$  is spontaneously adsorbed on the active site with a more negative  $\Delta G_{^*\text{NO}_3}$  of  $-0.83$ ,  $-0.20$  and  $-0.96$  eV for Ti-, Ni- and Nb/Cu(111), respectively, than that on pristine Cu(111) ( $-0.12$  eV). For Ti/Cu(111), it goes through the exothermal process until  $^*\text{NO}_2$  is formed with energy changes of  $-0.98$  eV and  $-1.08$  eV in each step. The following hydrogenation step ( $^*\text{NO}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NO}_2\text{H}$ ) is upward, and the Gibbs free energy change is 0.51 eV. The next two processes are also exothermal. In the following three steps ( $^*\text{NHO} \rightarrow ^*\text{N} \rightarrow ^*\text{NH} \rightarrow ^*\text{NH}_2$ ), all are downhill, and their Gibbs free energy changes are  $-0.99$ ,  $-0.82$  and  $-0.11$  eV, respectively. Then, the last hydrogenation step with an energy of 0.06 eV is then demanded to generate  $^*\text{NH}_3$ . The final process refers to

the release of the adsorbed  $\text{NH}_3$  with 0.86 eV free energy changes. The PDS on Ti/Cu(111) occurs on the formation of  $^*\text{NO}_2\text{H}$  with the value of 0.51 eV. Similar reaction processes were observed on Ni- and Nb/Cu(111) catalysts, although the potential determining steps (PDSs) were found to be different. On Ni/Cu(111), the PDS occurs during  $^*\text{NO} \rightarrow ^*\text{NHO}$  conversion, with a limiting potential of 0.29 V throughout the entire reaction process for  $\text{NH}_3$  production. However, during the hydrogenation of  $^*\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$  ( $^*\text{N}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{N}_2\text{O}_2\text{H}$ ), the energy input required to produce  $\text{N}_2$  on Ni/Cu(111) must exceed 0.37 V. While the PDS of Nb/Cu(111) occurred on the formation of  $^*\text{NO}_2\text{H}$  with a relatively high limiting potential of 0.40 V. Alloying the active metal on the surface of the Cu substrate can reduce the reaction energy barrier of the first hydrogenation step and also alter the PDS.

To further understand why Ni/Cu(111) exhibits higher selectivity for  $\text{NH}_3$  synthesis than pristine Cu(111), we conducted an analysis of the bond length of the adsorbed intermediate and the CDD of  $^*\text{NH}_3$  and  $^*\text{N}_2$  adsorbed on Cu(111) and Ni/Cu(111). The new results are presented in Fig. S6 and Table S2. Our analysis revealed that all intermediates form shorter bonds between the N atom and the active metal site on Ni/Cu(111) than on Cu(111), suggesting that the incorporation of Ni enhances the adsorption ability of N-contained intermediates. In the case of  $^*\text{NH}_3$  formation, the bond lengths ( $d_{\text{N-M}}$ ) on Cu(111) and Ni/Cu(111) both increase to 2.10 Å and 2.01 Å, respectively, which is longer than the bond length (1.84 Å) between the important intermediate- $^*\text{N}$  and active sites. Furthermore, the CDD results show that there are clear charge transfers between  $^*\text{NH}_3$  and the active metal on both Cu(111) and Ni/Cu(111), which facilitates the formation of  $\text{NH}_3$  gas.

The Bader charge analysis further revealed that  $^*\text{NH}_3$  gains 2.90 and 2.88  $\text{e}^-$  when adsorbed on Cu(111) and Ni/Cu(111), respectively. When  $^*\text{N}_2$  adsorbs on Ni/Cu(111), the bond length between N-Ni is 1.79 Å. According to the CDD results,  $^*\text{N}_2$  remains in a strongly adsorbed state due to the significant charge transfer effect (0.27  $\text{e}^-$ ) between N and

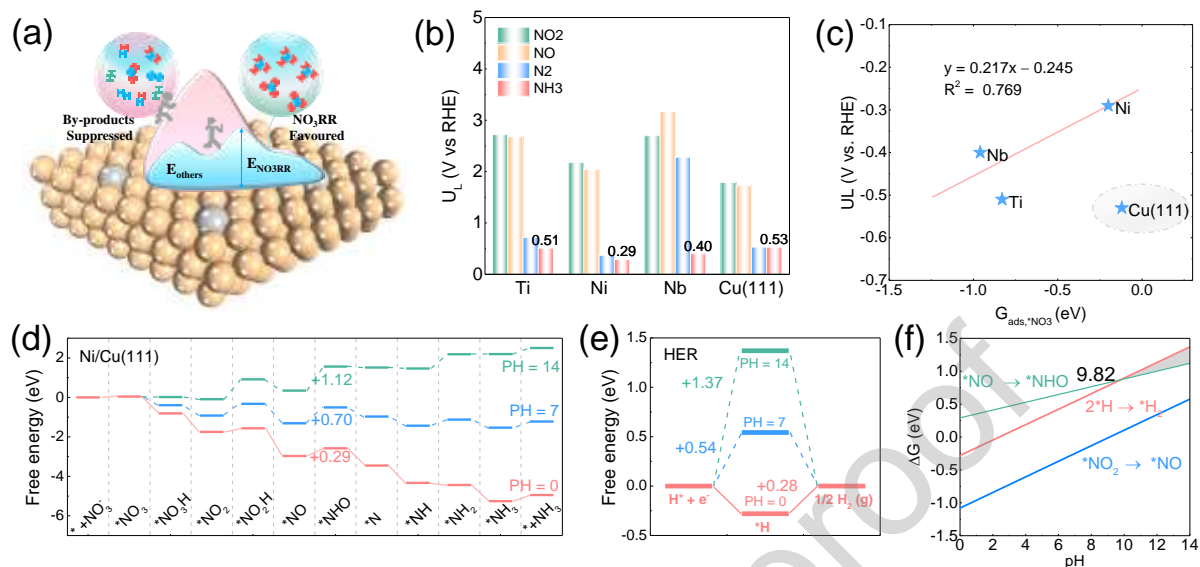
Ni (Fig. S6b). On the other hand, when  $^*N_2$  adsorbs on Cu(111), it spontaneously escapes from the surface as the distance between N and the surface increases to more than 3 Å, forming an isolated  $N_2$  molecule.

In summary, while the original Cu(111) surface promotes the desorption of  $^*N_2$ , which is not conducive to  $NH_3$  production, the incorporation of Ni strengthens adsorption of N-contained intermediates, reduces the reaction energy barrier for  $NH_3$  formation, and makes  $N_2$  desorption challenging. As a result, the selectivity of  $NO_3RR$  towards  $NH_3$  is significantly improved.

Till now, only Ni/Cu(111) shows the lowest limiting potential among the two other candidates, which is also comparable or even better than previous reported DFT predicted results (Fe SAC (-0.30 V)[13], Ru/g- $C_3N_4$  (-0.34V)[40] and Os SAC (-0.42 V)[41], detailed data are shown in Table S3). Furthermore, the dynamic stability of Ni/Cu(111) is considered by computing the ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) (Fig. S7), which is a prerequisite for studying catalytic properties. After the AIMD evolved by 5,000 steps at the step length of 2 fs, the structure of Ni/Cu(111) is still stable and the value of temperature and energy oscillate around a certain value. It also possesses extraordinarily high thermal stability at 300 K. Hence, Ni/Cu(111) is finally selected as the potential  $NO_3RR$  catalyst and will be carried out for subsequent analysis.



## 2.5. Selectivity Evaluation and pH Influence



**Fig. 6.** (a) Schematic of the competition products between the NH<sub>3</sub> and by-products. (b) U<sub>L</sub>s for the NO<sub>3</sub>RR of different products [U<sub>L</sub>(NH<sub>3</sub>), U<sub>L</sub>(NO<sub>2</sub>), U<sub>L</sub>(N<sub>2</sub>) and U<sub>L</sub>(NO)]. (c) U<sub>L</sub>s for the NO<sub>3</sub>RR as a function of \*NO<sub>3</sub> adsorption energy. Detailed reaction pathways of (d) NO<sub>3</sub>RR and (e) HER on Ni/Cu(111) at pH = 0, 7, and 14. (f) Competitive relationship of PDS between NO<sub>3</sub>RR and HER in all pH region.

Apart from the catalytic activity discussed above, selectivity, which will affect the reaction efficiency of NO<sub>3</sub>RR, is also an essential feature to consider when evaluating a catalyst, (Fig. 6a). Here, to compare the selectivity of the TM/Cu(111) catalysts, the limiting potentials (U<sub>L</sub>) for the production of NH<sub>3</sub> and other by-products are summarized in Fig. 6b and Table S4. All three candidates show the lowest U<sub>L</sub>s to produce NH<sub>3</sub>, indicating that it is relatively challenging for the formation of by-products, such as NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, and N<sub>2</sub>. Hence, it is reasonable to assume that the final synthesis of NH<sub>3</sub> is possible. Fig. 6c depicts the changes in U<sub>L</sub>s in relation to the \*NO<sub>3</sub> adsorption energies to help us fully comprehend the catalytic mechanism. Interestingly, apart from pristine Cu(111), the U<sub>L</sub>s of all TM/Cu(111) candidates are linearly related to the \*NO<sub>3</sub> adsorption energies, which is consistent with previous studies.[17, 41] In this work, weaker \*NO<sub>3</sub> adsorption will lead to lower U<sub>L</sub> and thus higher efficiency of NO<sub>3</sub>RR to NH<sub>3</sub>.

Considering that NO<sub>3</sub>RR occurs in a liquid phase, we must also additionally consider the influence of the electrolyte environment on catalytic performance. Hence, the influence of pH on the reaction pathways of the selected Ni/Cu(111) is further explored, and the free energy evolution plots of NO<sub>3</sub>RR and HER at pH = 7 and 14 are considered, as shown in Fig. 6d and 6e, respectively. In order to compare the limiting potential of the PDS between NO<sub>3</sub>RR ( $\Delta G_{\text{PDS}}$ ) and HER ( $\Delta G_{\text{H}_2}$ ), former results determined the PDS of Ti/Cu(111) and Nb/Cu(111) to occur during  $^*\text{NO}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NO}_2\text{H}$ , as shown in Figs. 5c and e, while the PDS of Ni/Cu(111) occurs during  $^*\text{NO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NHO}$  (Fig. 5d). We selected these two PDSs ( $^*\text{NO}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NO}_2\text{H}$  and  $^*\text{NO} + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NHO}$ ) as evaluation indicators to assess the influence of pH. Additionally, to align with a previous study[42], we selected the continuous two-step hydrogenation reaction of  $^*\text{NO}_2$  ( $^*\text{NO}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NO}$ ) on Ni/Cu(111) as an indicator, shown in Fig. 6f. The free energies of intermediates change to higher energies as the concentration of H<sup>+</sup> increases, whereas the PDS of NO<sub>3</sub>RR is still maintain unchanged (Fig. 6d). For example, the U<sub>L</sub> of NO<sub>3</sub>RR increases to 0.70 V in the neutral environment (pH = 7). The formation energy of H<sub>2</sub> is 0.54 eV, which is larger than that of the adsorption of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (-0.20 eV) while lower than the U<sub>L</sub> (0.70 V) of NO<sub>3</sub>RR, resulting in poor performance of NO<sub>3</sub>RR. However, in an alkaline environment (pH = 14), the U<sub>L</sub> of NO<sub>3</sub>RR increase to 1.12 V, which is lower than that of HER, 1.37 eV, thereby improving NO<sub>3</sub>RR due to the inhibited HER. The results of reaction pathways at different pH indicate that the NO<sub>3</sub>RR pathway shows the best performance in alkaline electrolytes. To explore the selectivity of NO<sub>3</sub>RR at a specific pH value, we further summarized the pH-dependent relationship between NO<sub>3</sub>RR and HER on Ni/Cu(111) and compared it with Cu (Fig. S8). According to the analysis of aforementioned free energy pathways, the relationship between  $\Delta G_{\text{PDS}}$  (related to PDS for generating NH<sub>3</sub>) and pH can be obtained (Fig. 6f). For Ni/Cu(111), the shaded zone established by HER,  $^*\text{NO} \rightarrow ^*\text{NHO}$ , and pH upper limit, pH = 14, which is favorable

to NO<sub>3</sub>RR. In the zone with the pH value ranging from 9.82 to 14,  $\Delta G_{H_2}$  is larger than any  $\Delta G_{PDS}$  in NO<sub>3</sub>RR, indicative that the NO<sub>3</sub>RR is more competitive than the HER, thereby leading to NO<sub>3</sub>RR being superior than HER. Hence, the selectivity of the reaction changes upon the pH values: the production of H<sub>2</sub> is dominated at 0 to 9.82 and the NH<sub>3</sub> is mainly generated at 9.82 to 14 with the PDS occurred on the hydrogenation of \*NO<sub>2</sub>. Besides, for Cu(111), the influence point of pH is 8.95, that is, NO<sub>3</sub>RR can effectively inhibit HER in the pH range of 8.95 to 14, and the PDS is also controlled by \*NO<sub>3</sub> → \*NO<sub>3</sub>H. Thus, the competitive effect of HER can be effectively reduced for Cu-based catalyst materials at relatively high pH under alkaline conditions, which also explains why the majority of experimental NO<sub>3</sub>RR tests are conducted in alkaline electrolytes.[16, 43]

### 3. Conclusion

In conclusion, high-throughput first-principles calculations are performed to investigate the activity and selectivity of TM/Cu(111) catalysts for the reduction of electrocatalytic nitrate to NH<sub>3</sub>. Four-step criteria are used to determine whether TM/Cu(111) catalysts are adequate for converting nitrate to NH<sub>3</sub>: (1) the stability of TM alloyed on Cu(111), (2) the Gibbs adsorption energy of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> must be satisfied ( $\Delta G_{*NO_3} < 0$ ), and (3) the U<sub>L</sub> of PDSs should be met ( $\Delta G < 0.53$  V). Most TM/Cu(111) catalysts are eliminated by these three screening criteria, remaining just seven TM/Cu(111) catalysts (TM = Ti, Ni, Zr, Nb, Pd, Hf, and Ta) that can also successfully inhibit the competing HER. By comparing the U<sub>L</sub>s of the seven candidates, Ti-, Ni- and Nb/Cu(111) stand out, and only Ni/Cu(111) shows the lowest limiting potential of -0.29 V and the highest selectivity compared with the production of N<sub>2</sub>, NO and NO<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, we have clarified that the activity of the three candidates maintains a strong relationship with \*NO<sub>3</sub> adsorption. Ultimately, pH value has been evaluated and shows a significant impact on the catalytic activity and selectivity of NO<sub>3</sub>RR.

We believe that this work could stimulate a different perspective towards achieving efficient nitrate-to-ammonia electrocatalysts.

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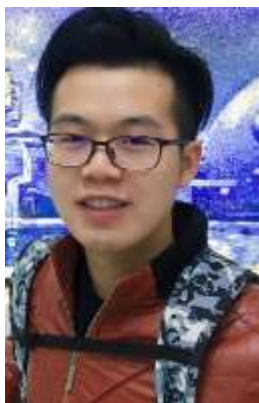
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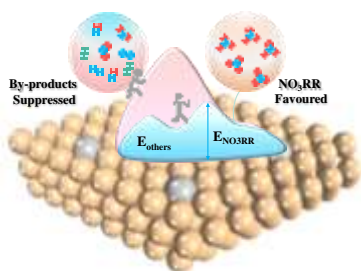


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Graphical abstract



Ni/Cu(111) achieved the high performance for  $\text{NH}_3$  production of nitrate reduction reaction after investigating a series of single atom alloys via high-throughput density functional theory calculations.

### **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

**Shuo Wang** carried out the theoretical calculations and wrote the manuscript. **Shuo Wang** and **Lei Li** contribute equally. **Kwan San Hui, Qiuju Zhang, Kwun Nam Hui** conceived the idea writing-review & editing. **Duc Anh Dinh** and **Zhiyi Lu** contributed to the methodology and project design. All authors were involved in the analysis and discussion of the results.

### **Declaration of interests**

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.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

## Highlights

- High-throughput DFT screening of single-atom alloy candidates
- Ni/Cu(111) exhibited an outstanding performance
- The adsorption of  $^*NO_3$  and pH influence the activity and selectivity of  $NO_3RR$