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High-throughput screening of B/N-doped graphene supported single-atom catalysts for nitrogen reduction reaction

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Abstract

Transitional metal single atom (TM₁) doped graphene catalysts have been widely applied in electrochemical N₂ reduction reaction (NRR). However, it remains a challenge for the rational design of highly active and selective electrocatalysts owing to limited knowledge of structure-activity correlations. Here, we adopted first-principle calculations to high-throughput screen the NRR performance of TM₁ coordinated with two boron and two nitrogen atoms in graphene (TM₁-B₂N₂/G). A “five-step” strategy was implemented by progressively considering different metrics such as stability, N₂ adsorption, N₂ activation, potential-determining step, and selectivity. As a result, a volcano plot of reactivity is established by using the valence electron number of TM₁ as the descriptor. Among all catalysts, Cr₁-B₂N₂/G exhibits superior performance with a limiting potential of -0.43 V with high selectivity of NRR interpreted by better spatial symmetry and excellent compatibility in terms of energy when N₂ interacts with TM₁. Our work reveals the general strategy of computational efforts to predict the next generation of advanced catalytic materials for NRR.

Keywords: Single-atom catalysts, ammonia synthesis, density functional theory, structure-activity relationship, descriptor



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INTRODUCTION

Ammonia (NH₃) is an extremely important chemical feedstock in human society and is widely used in the production of industrial chemicals such as fertilizers and pharmaceuticals^[1]. The Haber-Bosch method converts hydrogen (H₂) and nitrogen (N₂) to NH₃ under high temperature (> 450 °C) and high pressure (> 100 atm), which consumes tremendous energy and releases plenty of CO₂^[2-4]. In past decades, the electrocatalytic N₂ reduction reaction (NRR) has emerged as a promising technology for the production of NH₃ using N₂ and H₂O as reactants at ambient conditions with much lower energy consumption^[5-7]. However, the development of highly active and selective electrocatalysts for NRR remains a challenge due to the complexity of the reaction environment, which makes it difficult to accurately understand the correlation between activity and catalyst structure^[8-13].

Single-atom catalysts (SACs) have exhibited outstanding specific activities for many electrochemical reactions^[14-19]. Owing to high surface area and intriguing electrical properties, graphene-supported SACs have demonstrated excellent performance for NRR^[20-22]. The well-defined structure in graphene-supported SACs offers great potential to modulate the active metal and corresponding coordination environment for establishing the structure-activity relationship and achieving high activity and selectivity^[23-27]. The doping of B and N in the graphene structure has been reported to be beneficial for the adsorption and activation of reactants, thus enhancing the electrocatalytic activity of the catalyst. Due to the different electronegativity of B, N, and C, the interaction between active metal and substrate can be improved by electron transfer or charge rearrangement. Different B, N coordination environments can also modulate the chemical natures of active metal sites, giving rise to higher reactivity^[28,29].

In this work, we investigated the NRR activity of all 3d transition metals in different B₂N₂ coordination environments by a high-throughput screening method. The comparative comparisons were performed in terms of stability, N₂ adsorption, N₂ activation, potential-determining step, and selectivity. Thus a volcano plot of reactivity was established by using the valence electron number of TM₁ as the descriptor, which can be understood that the chemical nature of the active center (TM₁ coordinated with B and N atoms) determines the electron donation process from TM₁ to N₂, which highly affect N₂ activation and subsequent hydrogenations. Moreover, the scenario demonstrated in this work offers guidance for the synthesis of efficient NRR catalysts by experiment.

Computational details

All spin-polarization calculations were carried out by using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP)^[30,31]. The projector augmented wave (PAW) method was adopted to describe the ion-electron interactions^[32]. The generalized gradient approximation in the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) function was used^[33,34], and the cut-off energy of 500 eV was set for the plane-wave basis. A 6 × 6 graphene supercell was used as the substrate with a 15 Å vacuum space and the Brillouin zone was sampled with the Monkhorst-Pack 3 × 3 × 1 and 7 × 7 × 1 k-point grids for geometry and electronic structure calculations, respectively. The cut-off energy, size of the graphene supercell, and the selection of k-points were referred to previous literature to ensure the accuracy of the calculation results^[35-37]. The van der Waals (vdW) interactions between the adsorbates and catalysts are described by using Grimme's semiempirical DFT-D3 scheme^[38]. The solvation effect was evaluated under an implicit solvent model VASPsol^[39]. The energy and force convergence thresholds for the iteration in self-consistent field (SCF) were set to 10⁻⁵ eV and 0.02 eV·Å⁻¹, respectively. The calculation of COHP was done with the support of the Lobster program^[40].

The adsorption energies (E_{ads}) of the NRR intermediates were obtained by the following equation:

$$E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{total}} - E_{\text{clean catalysts}} - E_{\text{adsorbate}} \quad (1)$$

In the above equation, the E_{total} , $E_{\text{clean catalysts}}$, and $E_{\text{adsorbate}}$ represent the total energies of the species-adsorbed catalysts system, clean catalysts, and adsorbate, respectively. According to this definition, the more negative adsorption energy indicates stronger adsorption of corresponding species.

The Gibbs free energy change (ΔG) for each reaction step was calculated by the computational hydrogen electrode (CHE) model proposed by Nørskov and co-workers^[41], which uses one-half of the chemical potential of hydrogen as the chemical potential of the proton-electron pairs. The ΔG was obtained by the following equation:

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta E_{\text{ZPE}} - T\Delta S + \Delta G_{\text{pH}} + eU \quad (2)$$

In the above equation, the ΔE is reaction energy obtained directly from the DFT calculation. The ΔE_{ZPE} and $T\Delta S$ are the contributions of the zero-point energy and entropy for the ΔG . T represents the temperature, which is set as 298.15 K. The parameters e and U represent the number of electrons and the applied electrode potential, respectively. ΔG_{pH} is the free energy correction of pH, which can be determined as:

$$\Delta G_{\text{pH}} = k_{\text{B}}T \times \text{pH} \times \ln 10 \quad (3)$$

where the pH value was set to zero. The correction of the frequency was done with the support of the VASPKIT program^[42]. In this work, the limiting potential (U_{L}) value was used as a descriptor of catalytic activity, which was determined by the potential-determining step (PDS) among six proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) processes. U_{L} was obtained by:

$$U_{\text{L}} = -\Delta G_{\text{max}}/e \quad (4)$$

Where ΔG_{max} represents the ΔG of the PDS.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Structure and Stability of $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$

The 6×6 graphene supercell was first used as a substrate, four carbon atoms of which were replaced by two boron and two nitrogen atoms, giving rise to B/N doped graphene (denoted as $\text{B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$). Then ten different $3d$ transition metal single atoms (denoted as TM_1) were selected and embedded as active centers (Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn) and coordinated with B or N via three different manners including two *cis*- and one *trans*- forms, distinguished as $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}-1$ [Figure 1A], $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}-2$ [Figure 1B], and $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}-3$ [Figure 1C], respectively. Hence, a total of 30 different single-atom catalysts were constructed.

To assess the stability of the above $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ structures, we calculated the binding energies (E_{b}) of TM single atoms with substrates via equation (5) and the cohesion energy (E_{c}) by following equation (6) which refers to the energy of separating constituent metallic atoms apart from each other and assembling into the bulk:

$$E_{\text{b}} = E_{\text{catalyst}} - E_{\text{TMsingle}} - E_{\text{support}} \quad (5)$$

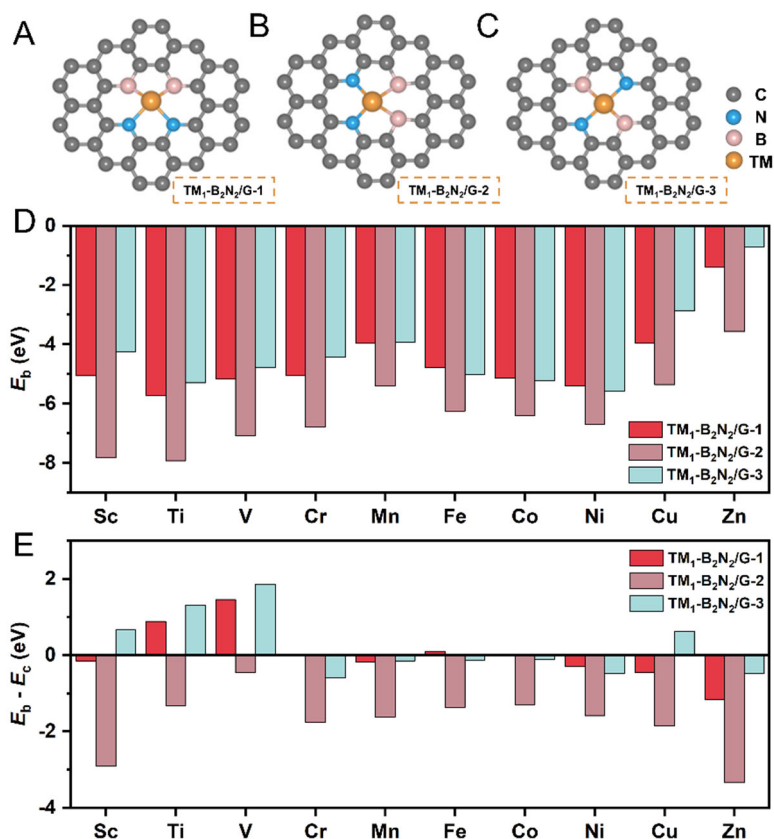


Figure 1. Structural stability of TM₁-B₂N₂/G catalysts. (A-C) The geometric structure of TM₁-B₂N₂/G catalysts; (D) The binding energy (E_b) of TM₁-B₂N₂/G catalysts; (E) The difference between binding energy and cohesion energy ($E_b - E_c$) of TM₁-B₂N₂/G catalysts.

$$E_c = E_{\text{TMbulk}}/n - E_{\text{TMsingle}} \quad (6)$$

where E_{TMbulk} , E_{TMsingle} , and n represent the energy of the bulk crystal cell of the transition metal, the energy of a single transition metal atom in the vacuum, and the number of atoms in the cell, respectively. Thereupon, we compared both the calculated E_b and $E_b - E_c$ values in Figure 1D-E and Supplementary Table 1. The former metric indicates the binding strength of TM single atom with the support. For TM₁-B₂N₂/G catalysts, all $E_b < 0$ [Figure 1D], which means that all TM single atoms connect strongly with boron and nitrogen in graphene, and more negative values of E_b underline that the *cis*-structures are more sturdy than *trans*-type. On the other side, $E_b - E_c$ reflects the aggregation tendency of TM single atom, the more negative the values, the more stable the single atoms in the matrix of B₂N₂/G. Figure 1E exhibits that $E_b - E_c < 0$ for most of TM₁-B₂N₂/G (except some Sc, Ti, V SACs), further demonstrating that the TM single atoms are anchored firmly rather than being subject to agglomeration. Additionally, the designing rationality of this work also could be verified by the fact that most of the structures above have been successfully synthesized by experiments and reported in the literature^[43,44].

Screen the NRR activities of TM₁-B₂N₂/G

After investigating the geometry and stability of the catalyst, we started to consider the adsorption and activation of N₂. According to previous studies, the high-performance NRR process requires: (1) N₂ spontaneously adsorbed on catalysts via chemical adsorption; (2) the free energy change of the first proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) step should be appropriately low; (3) the limiting potential of the whole

process should be low enough throughout the NRR process; (4) the generated NH_3 on the catalyst surface can be easily desorbed after reaction; (5) the NRR process prevails while hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) is prohibited^[45-47]. Hence, we followed the above hints to evaluate the NRR performance of $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$.

N_2 adsorption has a crucial influence on N_2 activation and the subsequent reaction process. After a careful summary of the literature, we considered two adsorption modes here: end-on and side-on configurations [Figure 2A]^[48]. The corresponding energies of N_2 adsorption are mapped in Figure 2B (G_{ad}) and Supplementary Table 2 (E_{ad})-Supplementary Table 3(G_{ad}). For most $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ catalysts, the negative or near zero values suggest N_2 can be spontaneously adsorbed on TM_1 [Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Table 3]. Meanwhile, the related $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ lengths of adsorbed $^*\text{N}_2$ showed significant increases (1.13~1.24 Å) compared to that of N_2 in vacuum (1.11 Å) [Supplementary Table 4], confirming that N_2 can be easily activated on these catalysts. In contrast, for $\text{Cu}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ and $\text{Zn}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$, both the relatively higher adsorption energies and negligible changes of $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ lengths account for unsatisfactory N_2 activation on Cu or Zn single site; thus, $\text{Cu}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ and $\text{Zn}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ would not be considered in following sections.

The previous studies found that there were six PCET steps to accomplish the electrochemical reduction of N_2 and produced two NH_3 molecules^[49-51]. Given that N_2 is a thermodynamic much stable molecule (dissociation energy of $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ as 945 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$), the first PCET plays a vital role among these steps because if the free energy change for this step is more positive, the following reaction would be more difficult to happen. Depending on N_2 adsorption behavior, the reaction proceeds through three pathways, as summarized in Supplementary Figure 1, i.e., the so-called distal or alternating mechanism (end-on) and enzymatic mechanism (side-on)^[48]. When taking the former way, the first PCET step is $^*\text{N}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{NNH}$, while in the enzymatic mechanism, the first PCET step is $^*\text{N}_2 + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow ^*\text{N-NH}$. Taking all the possibilities into account, we calculated and summarized the free energy changes for this step in Figure 3A and Supplementary Table 5. Compared to other catalysts, the hotspots map illustrates that all $\text{V}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ and $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ lay on red areas, suggesting both of the catalysts have lower energies for first PCET and N_2 adsorption with side-on pattern more energy-favorable than end-on. Among the three coordination environments of each TM_1 , $\text{V}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$ and $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$ had lower energies of the first PCET, 0.06 and 0.41 eV, respectively.

Subsequently, we simulated the whole NRR process for all $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ with three mechanisms, including 72 reaction paths and 576 steps, which were provided in Supplementary Figures 2-4. And 72 limiting potentials [U_L , Supplementary Table 6] of NRR can be sorted out and used as metrics to screen the activities or analyze the reaction mechanisms for all catalysts. Thus, the optimal activity and preferential reaction pathway for each catalyst are given in Figure 3B and C, with the U_L values listed in Supplementary Table 7. The comparison of U_L with the energies of the first PCET in Supplementary Figure 5 clearly demonstrates that the PDS of NRR on near 90 % $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ is the first PCET, which provides a convenient strategy for the preliminary screening of the catalysts. For all catalysts, the early transitional metal single atoms (e.g., Sc, V, Cr) generally have lower U_L than late ones (e.g., Fe, Co, Ni) regardless of the coordination manners. Herein, $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ SACs exhibit superior activities to other samples with U_L as -0.43, -0.54, and -0.47 V for $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$, $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-2}$, and $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-3}$, respectively. It is worth mentioning that although some $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ had lower first PCET energies (e.g., $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$ with 0.41 eV, $\text{V}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$ with 0.59 eV), the U_L values were uplifted due to more stable intermediates of $^*\text{NH-NH}_2$ and $^*\text{N}$, which were minority cases but had to be taken into account when using first PCET energy to guide catalyst designing. To get more insights into the catalytic mechanism, Figure 3C screens out the optimal NRR reaction pathways for all catalysts, and it is noted that the enzymatic mechanism triggered by side-on N_2 adsorption prevails compared to distal and alternating pathway, caused by modest adsorption energy for N_2 activation.

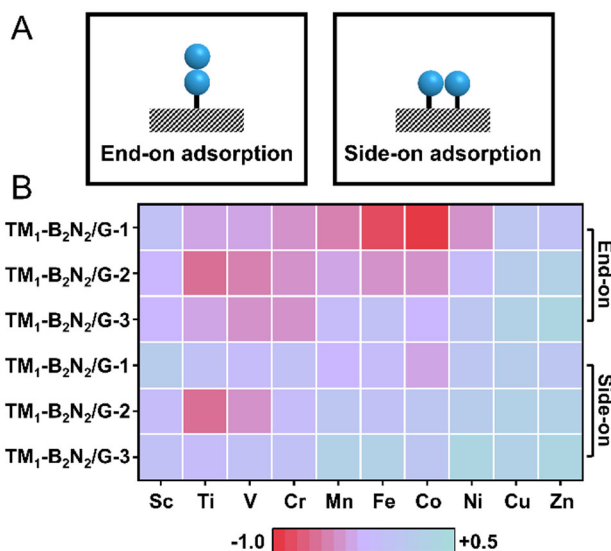


Figure 2. N_2 Adsorption. (A) Adsorption mode of N_2 ; (B) The heatmap of the free energy of adsorption of *N_2 (G_{ad}) for all $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts.

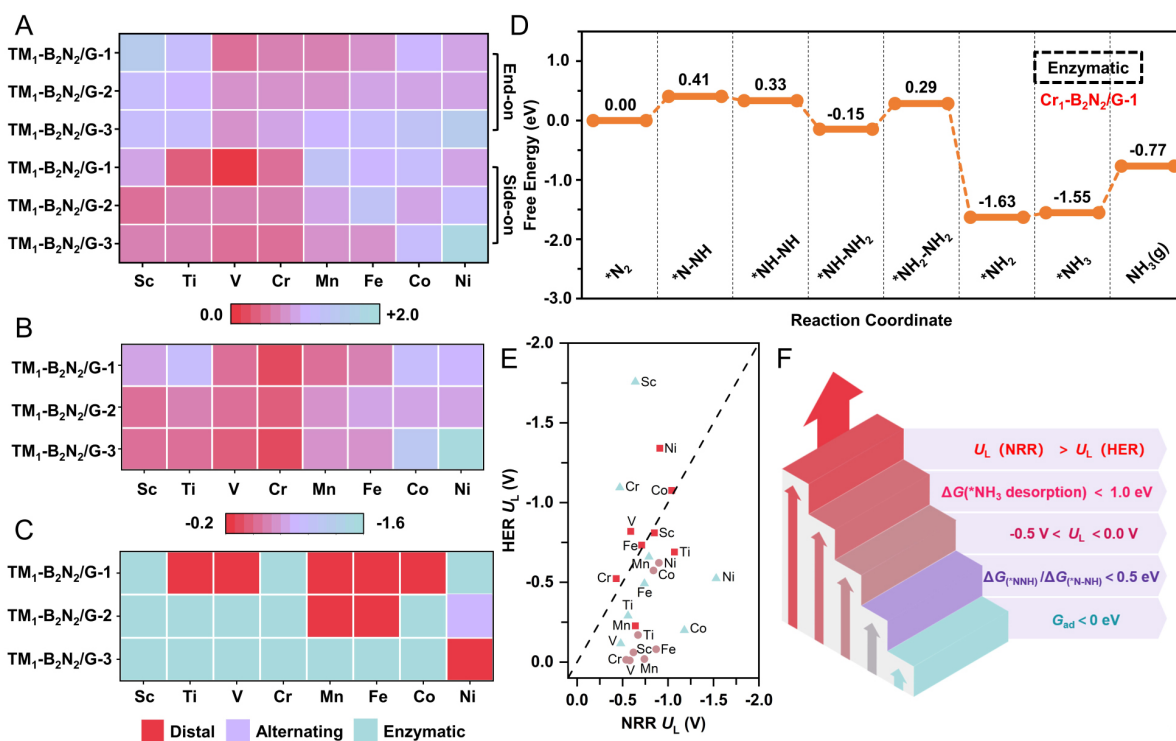


Figure 3. Catalytic studies of NRR. (A) Heatmap of the free energy change for the first PCET step; (B) Heatmap of the lowest NRR limiting potential (U_L) for all $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts; (C) Optimal reaction mechanism for all $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts; (D) Diagram of the NRR free energy change for the $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ catalyst; (E) Selectivity of NRR and HER for all $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts; (F) The proposed "five-step" strategy for high-throughput screening of NRR catalysts. NRR: N_2 reduction reaction.

However, when N_2 binds with the metal single atom strongly (e.g., Ti, V), the hydrogenation of $^*NH-NH$ in the enzymatic mechanism will become highly endothermic with an energy consumption of at least 1 eV,

then the reaction will prefer to follow the distal or altering pathway. When N_2 binds with metal single atom weakly (e.g. Fe, Co), the hydrogenation of the $^*NH-NH_2$ intermediate will become highly endothermic, making the reaction will tend to follow the distal or alternate pathway. In particular, NRR processes catalyzed by more active $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts are found to favorably take enzymatic way in [Figure 3D](#) and [Supplementary Figure 6](#), which are triggered by first hydrogenations of N_2 with lower energies via side-on adsorption mode.

To complete the catalytic cycle, the derived *NH_3 species need to be desorbed to restore the catalysts. The free energy changes of second *NH_3 desorption (no PCET steps involved) are shown in [Supplementary Figure 7](#). It can be seen that *NH_3 desorption requires more energy input on the early transitional metals (e.g., Sc, Ti, V with 0.9~1.1 eV) than the late ones (e.g., Co, Ni with 0.5~0.7 eV). However, $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts have moderate desorption energies to ensure easy desorption of NH_3 and lead to the higher reactivity of NRR [[Figure 3B](#)]. For instance, the energy on $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ is 0.78 eV, lower than $V_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ (0.95 eV). In addition, the protonation as NH_4^+ in the acidic electrolyte reaction conditions can further facilitate the NH_3 desorption^[52,53].

From the above discussions, we can see that $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ shows a superior activity towards NRR to other catalysts, and herein $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ performs the best, which are contributed by appropriate N_2 adsorption energy and adsorption mode that guarantee lower energy inputs requiring for N_2 activation, PDS (i.e., first PCET or the hydrogenation of $^*NH-NH_2$) and even the desorption of second *NH_3 .

The hydrogen evolution reaction is the key competing reaction during the NRR process. The presence of *H is facile to block TM single sites, which is deleterious for the NRR selectivity of the catalysts. To study the selectivity of catalysts, we compared the U_L of the NRR and HER processes in [Figure 3E](#). When U_L (NRR) > U_L (HER), i.e., the region above the dashed line, the electrochemical process is dominated by NRR. On the contrary, when U_L (HER) > U_L (NRR), i.e., the region below the dashed line, the electrochemical process is dominated by HER. According to this criterion, there are six $TM_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ or 3 (TM = Sc, V, Cr, Fe, Co, Ni) expected to exhibit higher selectivities of NRR over HER, including the most active $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-1$.

The descriptor for NRR activity of $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$

The high-throughput calculations of the $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts after a 5-step screening strategy [[Figure 3F](#)] allow to establish a volcano plot of the reaction activity [i.e, optimal U_L , [Figure 4A](#)] as the active centers of 3 d TM_1 varying from the left to right but with same coordination environments. $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts exhibit better NRR activities regardless of the coordination of Cr_1 . In order to guide the rational design of NRR catalysts with high performance, we chose the valence electron numbers of TM_1 in the catalysts as the descriptor δ that is highly associated with N_2 adsorption/activation and could be easily characterized by spectroscopy methods. Here δ is defined as the number of valence electrons of the transition metal. And it is the sum of the d -electron number of the transition metal and the Bader charge that the metal receives from the substrate. As shown in [Figure 4B](#), a similar volcano relationship is constructed between NRR activities and δ for $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$. The effective catalysts for NRR can be found at $\delta = 4.5$ to 6.0, e.g., $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$. Although the estimation of δ descriptor by computation or readily characterization allows predicting the NRR catalysts with outstanding reactivity, the understanding of the above-disputed structure-activity connection remains unambiguous.

The above comprehensive comparisons in terms of U_L and reaction pathways disclose that the NRR activity of $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$ is determined by N_2 activation and hydrogenation of key intermediates (e.g., $^*NH-NH$ or $^*NH-NH_2$), so-called PDS, which are apparently with respect to the interaction between N_2 and TM_1 .

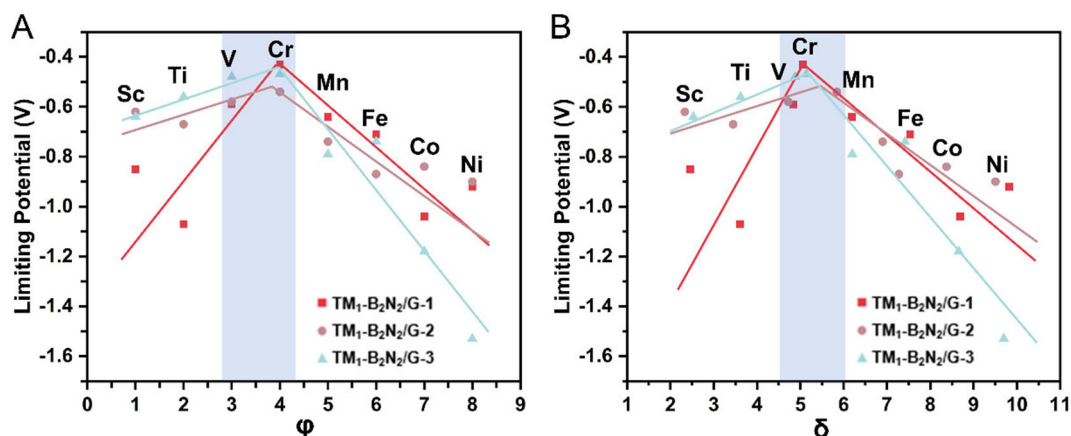


Figure 4. Descriptors of NRR activity. (A) Relationship between d -electron number of metal and NRR activity; (B) Relationship between valence electron number of metal in $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ and NRR activity. NRR: N_2 reduction reaction.

Additionally, it is believed that the electronic structure of metallic sites in $\text{TM}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ is of significant importance in investigating N_2 adsorption and activation. Therefore, we chose the most active $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ as a probe to interpret the influence of TM_1 chemical nature and its corresponding steric coordination on the NRR activity.

Understanding the charge transfer during N_2 activation

As shown in the electrostatic potential diagrams [Figure 5A-C] of three $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$, isolated Cr sites have positive potentials (blue zone), while B sites show negative potentials (red zone) and N sites nearly remain electrically neutral (green zone), suggesting that when Cr doped in the lattice of $\text{B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$, the charge transfer mainly occurred between Cr and B atoms rather than N atoms. Similar phenomena of electron migration can be seen from the charge density difference diagrams of $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ [Supplementary Figure 8A-C]. The yellow region represents electron accumulation and the cyan region represents electron depletion. It is obvious that the charges are dominantly located at B sites and only a tiny amount of charges gather at N sites. Correspondingly, the electrons are accumulated at Cr sites. Therefore, the discrete charge distributions point that the interactions between Cr and B/N result in B atoms primarily donor electrons to Cr atoms as evidenced by the charge density distribution [Supplementary Figure 9].

Next, the partial density of states [PDOS, Figure 5D-F] reveals that the interactions between Cr and B/N atoms were achieved via the couplings of $d(\text{Cr})\text{-}p(\text{B}/\text{N})$ orbitals. The interplay of $d(\text{Cr})$ with $p(\text{B})$ occurs throughout Fermi energy level (E_F), whereas the overlaps between $d(\text{Cr})$ and $p(\text{N})$ orbitals are only happened below E_F , proving that the Cr-B binding is more intensive than Cr-N, matching with the above analysis of charge transfer process. Continuously, the electron localization function (ELF) was applied to check the bonding characteristics of Cr with B/N; meanwhile, the electron distributions between B and N were also inspected to survey the influence of coordination (i.e., *cis* and *trans*) on the chemical nature of Cr. Here the ELF was illustrated by contour plots in real space with values from 0 to 1. The number 1 means the complete localization of electrons, implying covalent bonds may form between Cr and B/N, while 0 means complete delocalization of electrons, implying the formation of ionic bonds. In particular, 0.5, marked as a line, corresponds to the free electron gas, implying metallic bonds may form considering the semimetal properties of boron^[54,55]. The calculated ELF values were summarized in Supplementary Table 8 and mapped in Figure 5G-I. It is noted that a similar ELF (Cr-N) of 0.74~0.78 are found for three $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$, indicating

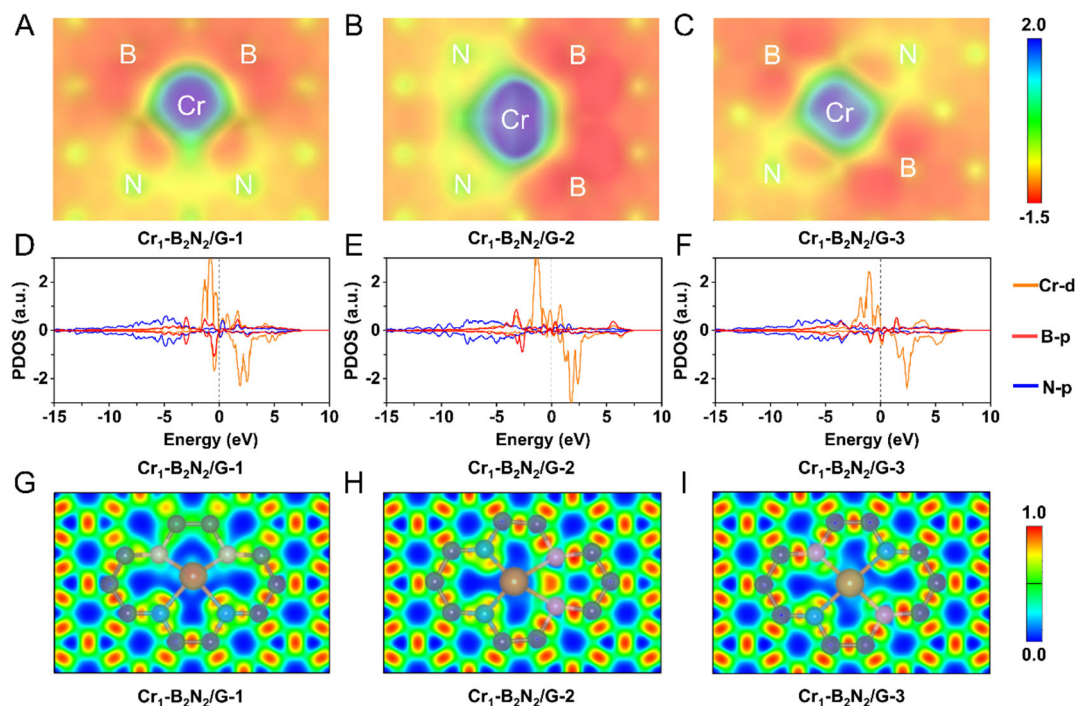


Figure 5. Electronic structure of $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ catalysts. (A-C) The electrostatic potential (EP) of $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ catalysts; (D-F) The partial density of states (PDOS) of $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ catalysts; (G-I) The electron localization function (ELF) of $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ catalysts.

the electrons are mainly delocalized in between instead of any elemental site. In contrast, the localization of electrons for Cr-B binding is different from each other catalyst, evidenced by three distinct ELF of 0.387, 0.308, 0.645 for $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$, $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-2}$, and $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-3}$ respectively. Such a deviation can be interpreted by the electronic stereo interferences between B...B (or N) site affected by the distances, e.g., 2.90, 2.01, > 3.8 Å for B...B in three catalysts with ELF computed as 0.037, 0.814 and not available for *trans* sample [Supplementary Table 8], validating that the electron localization associated with the interplay of B...B (or N) follows the order of $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-2} > \text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-3} > \text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$, whereas these electrons would not contribute to the charge transfer between Cr and B, resulting in the distinguished Bader charges of Cr as 1.156, 0.862 and 0.943 for three $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ catalysts [Supplementary Table 9]. The higher charge densities are expected to deliver better performance of NRR activity for $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$.

With the electronic structures of $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$ catalysts in mind, we continued to study the interaction of N_2 with the Cr single atom, which was of paramount importance for the following PCET processes and NRR activity. It was uncovered that the N_2 molecule preferential adsorbed on Cr with side-on mode [Figure 3]. The prolonged $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ bond lengths of $\sim 1.21\text{Å}$ (versus 1.11 Å in vacuum) verified the successful activation of N_2 rather than physical adsorption [Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Table 3]. Figure 6A-C visualizes the charge transfer in N_2 activation process on three $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G}$, showing that the charge is migrated from Cr to N.

Subsequently, the orbital interactions related to N_2 activation were analyzed by PDOS [Figure 6D-F]. Generally, the interaction of N_2 with Cr was achieved by the $d(\text{Cr})-\pi^*(\text{N}_2)$ orbital couplings. As illustrated in Figure 6B, the better spatial symmetry and the excellent compatibility in terms of energy for these two orbitals favors a stronger interaction between N_2 and $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-1}$ at 2.21 eV and 4.35 eV compared to the cases of $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-2}$ and $\text{Cr}_1\text{-B}_2\text{N}_2/\text{G-3}$, which may be contributed by the more charge densities of Cr in

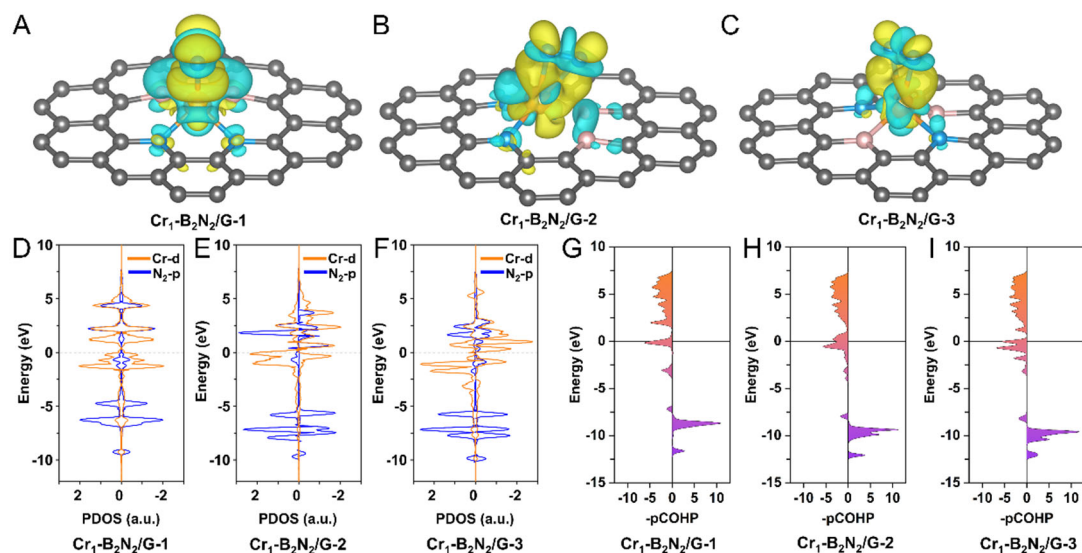


Figure 6. Investigation of the interaction between N_2 and $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$. (A-C) The charge density difference of N_2 adsorbed on different $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts. The isosurface value was set to be $0.002 e\text{-}\text{\AA}^{-3}$; (D-F) The PDOS of the d -orbitals of Cr and the p -orbitals of N_2 in the $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts for N_2 adsorption; (G-I) The partial Crystal Orbital Hamiltonian Population (pCOHP) of $N\equiv N$ bonds in $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts adsorbed with N_2 in Side-on mode.

$Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ [Supplementary Table 9]. The above stronger synergistic effect also effectively eliminates the spin polarization effect of the active site and ensures a higher NRR activity, as reported in the literature^[56]. In addition, the intensive interplay of N_2 with $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ can also be proved by the energy level splitting of $d(Cr)$ orbitals that originally dominated at 2.56 eV [Figure 5D].

To have a quantitative comparison of N_2 activation on three $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ catalysts, the binding strength of $N\equiv N$ bonds in the activated N_2 molecule was examined by the partial Crystal Orbital Hamiltonian Population (pCOHP)^[57]. As depicted in Figure 6G-I, the bonding ($-pCOHP > 0$) and antibonding ($-pCOHP < 0$) contributions are shown on the right and left of one panel for each catalyst, respectively. The bonding contributions below the Fermi level follow the order of $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ (-1.65) < $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-3$ (-2.12) < $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-2$ (-2.18), agreeing well with the integral COHP values, which are -1.24, -1.35, and -1.32, respectively. Here more negative ICOHP values indicate stronger $N\equiv N$ bonds. On the contrary, the weaker binding strength of $N\equiv N$ corresponds to a higher level of N_2 activation, as evidenced by the Bader charges of activated $N\equiv N$ as 0.568, 0.413, 0.458 [Supplementary Table 10], which thus favors the subsequent hydrogenation reaction. This is consistent with the limiting potential order of $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-1$ (-0.43 V) < $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-3$ (-0.47 V) < $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G-2$ (-0.58 V) in Supplementary Table 7.

In this regard, the structure-activity relationship revealed for $Cr_1-B_2N_2/G$ can be generalized to other transitional metals. That is to say, the NRR activities of $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$ are mainly governed by the charge transfers between N_2 and metal atoms, i.e., more electrons lend from the metal to N_2 , and higher NRR reactivity is obtained for the catalysts. Therefore, the descriptor of δ is further correlated with the Bader charge of activated $N\equiv N$ [Supplementary Figures 10-15] for the most active catalyst in each group of $TM_1-B_2N_2/G$. Interestingly, a volcano trend of $N\equiv N$ Bader charge depended on the valence electron number (δ) of the transitional metal single atom can be observed in Supplementary Figure 16. Such a connection reveals that the physical nature of TM_1 intrinsically dominates the interaction between N_2 and the active site, which determines N_2 activation and the subsequent consecutive hydrogenation, even the desorption of

NH₃. The obtained knowledge paves the way for the development of advanced NRR.

CONCLUSION

High-throughput DFT calculations were implemented to investigate the NRR performance of TM₁-B₂N₂/G, which was distinguished by different transitional metals and coordination configurations. Among all catalysts, Cr₁-B₂N₂/G-1, with better activity and selectivity, was found by a “five-step” screening strategy, which has an NRR limiting potential of -0.43 V. The volcano shape of the structure-activity relationship highlights the importance of the valence electron number of TM₁ as a descriptor, which can accelerate the rational design process of advanced NRR catalysts. In addition, it was revealed that the limiting potentials were highly relevant with electron donation from TM₁ to N₂, which determined the N₂ activation and potential-determining step. The scenario demonstrated in this work offers guidance for the synthesis of efficient NRR catalysts by experiment.

DECLARATIONS

Authors' contributions

Conceptualization, calculation, data curation, data analysis, and original draft: Cao N

Calculation, data organization, and data analysis: Zhang N

Data analysis: Wang K

Resources: Yan K

Conceptualization, resources, data analysis, review and writing: Xie P

Availability of data and materials

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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Conflicts of interest

All authors declared that there are no conflicts of interest.

Ethical approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

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