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Competition between metal-catalysed electroreduction of dinitrogen, protons, and nitrogen oxides: a DFT perspective

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Production of green ammonia through electrochemical reduction of N₂ is amongst the major challenges of applied catalysis today. A large number of materials have been reported to be capable of catalysing the nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR), but the reliability of these results has been questioned due to the lack of evidence for N₂ being the source of produced NH₃. In the present study, we use density functional theory (DFT) to demonstrate that the NRR is highly unfavoured *versus* the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) on a wide selection of metal catalysts, some of which have been reported to be active for the N₂ electroreduction to ammonia previously. Most importantly, we provide a comprehensive analysis of ammonia formation through electroreduction of nitrogen oxides, specifically NO and NO₂, which are very hard to avoid as impurities in the NRR experiments, and demonstrate that these processes can effectively compete with the HER. In general, N₂ weakly adsorbs on the metal surfaces but NO and NO₂ exhibit stronger interactions and a greater stability of the reduced intermediates. These results highlight NO/NO₂ reduction as a potential source of ammonia in NRR experiments and might also guide future design of catalysts for the fundamentally and practically important nitrogen oxide reduction reactions.

Introduction

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The Haber–Bosch process¹ for ammonia synthesis through catalytic reduction of dinitrogen with hydrogen gas is still one of the most important technologies of the contemporary chemical industry,² but concerns about its sustainability call for the development of alternative methods to produce NH₃.³ N₂ is one of the most stable molecules with a N=N bond dissociation enthalpy of 946 kJ mol⁻¹, which explains the energy intensive conditions of the Haber–Bosch reaction that follows the socalled dissociative pathway (Fig. 1).^{4–6} The rate-determining step (RDS) in this mechanism is dissociative chemisorption of N₂ on the catalytic metal surface. Once generated, adsorbed *N species react with adsorbed hydrogen atoms from H₂ eventually resulting in the production of NH₃.

In recent years, interest in electrochemical reduction of N_2 to NH_3 has substantially increased as an alternative to the Haber–Bosch process. When coupled to a suitable anode process, ideally the oxygen evolution reaction to extract electrons and protons from water, the nitrogen reduction

reaction (NRR) can theoretically produce NH₃ at moderate temperatures (<100 °C) and pressures (<30 bar) while being powered by renewable electricity. Such a process, yet to be convincingly demonstrated in aqueous media, presents a broad range of advantages in terms of scalability and sustainability, and can be considered to produce genuinely "green" ammonia.⁷ A plethora of materials has been claimed to be capable of catalysing the NRR in protic environments, majorly aqueous electrolyte solutions, but the reliability of most of these reports has been questioned.^{8,9}



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Figure 1. Dissociative mechanism of the Haber–Bosch process.^{4–6}

The key experimental problem propagating through the field is the lack of control over nitrogenous compounds that are kinetically and thermodynamically much easier to reduce than N_2 on the ubiquitously applied metal electrodes, *viz.* nitrogen oxides like NO and NO_2 .^{10–12} Moreover, the majority of the

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"successful" experimental NRR studies are commonly in direct conflict with the existing theoretical work. For example, different types of gold nanomaterials have been reported to be catalytically active for N_2 electroreduction^{13–23} at potentials between -0.1 and -0.5 V vs. RHE (reversible hydrogen electrode), despite extreme thermodynamics difficulty of such process according to the density functional theory (DFT) analysis; specifically, Montoya et al.24 calculated a value of ca. -3 V vs. CHE (computational hydrogen electrode) as the minimal potential required for N₂ electroreduction at the most stable Au(111) surface. A very similar value was also reported by Dražević and Skúlason.²⁵ In this context, bismuth presents another prominent example, for which an outstanding NRR catalytic performance at potentials between -0.6 and -0.8 V vs. RHE was reported.^{26–28} However, the experimental values reported by Hao et al.28 contradict their own theoretical results, which predict N₂ reduction to ammonia only at overpotentials in excess of 2.8 V on this metal.

The list of metals attempted for the N₂ electroreduction is long. Yet, while the metallic surfaces are often suggested as the active sites for the N₂ activation and reduction in such reports, these interpretations commonly ignore the marked nitrogenphobic and hydrogen-philic nature of most metal surfaces. In other words, the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) is a more preferred process, even with some of the worst HER catalysts such as bismuth and gold.²⁹

The present work revisits the NRR vs. HER problem for a range of metallic surfaces, and most importantly, expands the previous DFT studies,^{24,25,30–32} to include the competition with the reduction of nitrogen oxides (NO_x) —the likely source of ammonia in most aqueous N₂ electroreduction studies. In fact, the NO_x reduction reactions present both fundamental and practical interest on their own. Although the prospects of the conversion of NO_x to NH₃ are questionable from the agricultural perspective as plants preferably obtain N from the soil in the form of nitrate,³³ the NO_x to N₂ electroreduction has been long recognised as an important strategy to mitigate nitrogenous pollution in waterways.³⁴

Results and discussion

H- vs. N₂H-philicity: The key to the HER vs. NRR selectivity. The direct electrocatalytic conversion of N₂ into two NH₃ molecules is a six-electron/six-proton process that can theoretically occur through the successive additions of the H⁺/e⁻ pairs. In the framework of the proton coupled electron transfer (PCET) concept,³⁵ *i.e.*, when proton and electron reach the catalytic surface in a concerted way, the associative mechanism of the NRR starts with the adsorption of N₂ and the formation of the intermediate *N₂H species (* denotes adsorption on the catalyst surface):

$$*N_2 + H^+ + e^- \rightleftharpoons *N_2 H \tag{1}$$

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Similarly, the first step of the HER is the Volmer reaction producing a H adatom *via* reduction of H⁺ Θ Althe Cata RSE SUFFACE as follows:

* + H⁺ + e⁻
$$\rightleftharpoons$$
 *H (2)

In the gas phase, a hypothetical N₂(g) + H⁺ + e⁻ \leftrightarrow N₂H(g) process presents an energy barrier amounting to -3.2 V vs. RHE,³⁶ but becomes much more energetically favourable upon the introduction of a catalyst. Fig. 2 presents the associative NRR pathway when it is assisted by the participation of a metal surface as an electrocatalyst. Once *N₂H is formed, the reaction proceeds to generate two molecules of NH₃ through steps comprising the *N=NH₂, *N, *NH and *NH₂ intermediates, or alternatively, through *NHNH, *NHNH₂, *NH, and *NH₂. Note that the path towards hydrazine formation, NH₂NH₂, is mechanistically viable, but usually more energetically demanding.



Figure 2. Associative pathway of the NRR catalysed by metal surfaces. *"rt"* means room temperature.

While a range of metals have been predicted by Skúlason et al.³⁰ to allow the associative NRR to occur at overpotentials ranging from 0.5 to 1.0 V, none of these have been unambiguously proven to be active catalysts through experiments. In fact, this is not entirely surprising, since the seminal and inspirational works by Skúlason et al. 25, 30, 32 predicted that the surface of most metals will be covered by H adatoms, rather than intermediates of the NRR, amongst other studies. Surprisingly, this important analysis of the competition between the NRR and HER is not usually adopted in many other computational works, which primarily focused on the analysis of reactive trends and rate-limiting steps for the N₂ reduction on its own. Considering this selectivity aspect, the field is yet to comprehensively address the question of the possibility of an electrocatalyst capable of suppressing the HER in favour of the NRR in protic media, with notable exceptions as those works recently reported by Singh, Rohr, and co-workers.^{37,38}

Competition between the elementary steps in Eqns. (1) and (2) is one important aspect that affects the NRR vs. HER selectivity. For a given material, comparisons of the free energies of these reactions, viz. $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ and $\Delta G(*H)$ can allow

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prediction of its specific behaviour with respect to electrocatalysis of the nitrogen reduction and hydrogen evolution reactions. These first reduction events might not be the RDS of the overall processes, but their interplay does determine the NRR vs. HER selectivity. In other words, if one of the reactants (N₂ or H⁺) is preferentially reduced and the reduced species (*N₂H or *H) dominate the active sites on the catalyst surface when an electrical potential (ε) is applied, the corresponding reduction reaction (NRR or HER) will be the dominant process in the system.



Figure 3. Prediction of the NRR vs. HER selectivity through the comparison of the free energies of the formation of N_2H and H.

In terms of free energy, *i.e.*, $\Delta G = -nF\varepsilon$, the most favourable scenario for the N₂ reduction to occur corresponds to $\Delta G(*N_2H) < 0$ and $\Delta G(*H) > 0$ (fourth quadrant of Fig. 3). This requires that the material behaves as a H-phobic and N₂H-philic electrocatalyst that would promote the NRR but not the HER. On the contrary, if $\Delta G(*N_2H) > 0$ and $\Delta G(*H) < 0$ (the second quadrant, Fig 3), the surface is H-philic and N₂H-phobic, *i.e.*, H₂ will likely be produced in preference to NH₃. Theoretically, the material will be more selective towards the NRR than HER if $\Delta G(*N_2H) < \Delta G(*H)$. However, it is well understood from the Sabatier principle that both excessively positive and negative $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ values would be unfavourable for the N₂ reduction³⁹ irrespective of the competition with the H₂ evolution process.

To demonstrate the strategy based on the $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ vs. $\Delta G(*H)$ comparisons, we have analysed the binding properties of the N₂H and H species on a range of transition metals (*d*block), namely: (i) fcc Ni, Cu, Rh, Pd, Ag, Ir, Pt, and Au; (ii) bcc V, Fe, Nb, and Mo; and (iii) hcp Ti, Co, Zn, Ru, Re, and Os. We have circumscribed our analysis to the flat (111), (110), and (001) facets for the fcc, bcc, and hcp lattices, respectively, since these facets have the highest planar density in the respective crystal structures. We have also included two metals from the polock, namely Pb (fcc) and Bi (rhombohedral) with (121) and (001) surfaces, respectively.

The data is plotted in Figure 4 using the format of Figure 3. Immediately notable is the much wider range of $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ values (-2.8 to 2.9 eV) than is the case for $\Delta G(*H)$ (-1.0 to 1.0 eV). Except for the late transition metals Au, Ag, and Zn which behave as the *p*-block Pb and Bi metals (*red* symbols in Fig. 4), the formation free energies of N_2H and H correlate ($R^2 = 0.85$) for the other metals examined (blue symbols in Fig. 4). Thus, the greater the stabilisation of the *N₂H species, the stronger the adsorption of the H adatom and vice versa. Au, Ag, and Zn and the *p*-block metals Pb and Bi show a limited affinity to N₂H with $\Delta G(*NH_2)$ values greater than 2 eV. In addition, *H formation on these metals is also thermodynamically unfavourable although the corresponding free energies are less positive than $\Delta G(*N_2H)$. Metals from groups 7–10 and Cu belong to the N₂Hphobic and H-philic domain. Only the early transition metals Ti, V, Nb, and Mo exhibit $\Delta G(*N_2H) < \Delta G(*H)$ (green labels in Fig. 4). Thus, from a mechanistic point-of-view, only these metals amongst those examined can be theoretically expected to facilitate the highly selective reduction of N₂ into the adsorbed N₂H species rather than the reduction of protons into Hadatoms.



Figure 4. $\Delta G(*N_2H) vs. \Delta G(*H)$ plot for the examined metals. Lines show linear fits for two distinct groups of metals. *Green* shaded area indicates where $\Delta G(*N_2H) < \Delta G(*H)$ and *green* labels highlight metals with where this is the case.

However, the hypothesis that the early transition metals Ti, V, Nb, and Mo might act as viable NRR catalysts is overshadowed by their oxyphilic nature and ensuing challenges with obtaining pure metallic surfaces under protic conditions. Possibly, this is one of the reasons for the lack of any convincing reports on the successful electrocatalysis of the N₂ reduction by these metals. In fact, rigorous investigation of Mo metal particles as catalysts for the NRR in both aqueous and aprotic

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Fig. 3. Similar to the $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ vs. $\Delta G(*H)$ pattern $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ vs. $\Delta G(*NO)$ vs. $\Delta G(*H)$ plot revealed two district properties and the properties of the plot revealed two districts and the plot revealed two districts and the plot revealed two distributions are the plot reve

the examined metals (Fig. 6). Again, Au, Ag, Zn, and the p-block

metals Pb and Bi exhibit non-spontaneous NO adsorption

 $[\Delta G(*NO)$ between 0.14 and 0.34 eV] with no clear dependence

on $\Delta G(*H)$ (red in Fig. 6), contrasting the direct correlation (R² =

0.92) between NO and H adsorption observed for the free

of the examined metals to stabilise the $*N_2H$ intermediate of

the NRR comes along with the strong affinity to bind *NO (inset

to Fig. 6, $R^2 = 0.85$). Considering that the latter is always

significantly more preferred [compare $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ in Fig. 4 and

 $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ in Fig. 6], the NORR is predicted to be always a

dominant process as opposed to the NRR when nitric oxide is

competition with the HER. While *H adsorption is preferred

over *N₂H for the majority of the investigated metals (green

labels in Fig. 4), the *NO binding is stronger than the adsorption

of hydrogen for all examined surfaces except Au (green labels in

Fig. 6). Mechanistically speaking, reduction of hydrogen will be

substantially suppressed in presence of nitric oxide, which is

expected to be the dominant adsorbed species on the active metal centres. In the case of Au, $\Delta G(*NO)$ is only slightly, by *ca*

0.05 eV, more positive than $\Delta G(*H)$, which indicates a

Boltzmann population for the adsorbed hydrogen and nitric

oxide species of 88:12. Hence, both HER and NORR might occur

on the Au(111) surface with the former being the dominant

process, although it is acknowledged that the calculated values

There is also an essential difference in the catalytic behaviour of the NRR and NORR from the perspective of

In view of these results, it can be concluded that the capacity

energies of the *d*-metals (*blue* in Fig. 6).

present in the system along with N₂.

are within the computational error.

electrolyte solutions demonstrated their very limited, if any, catalytic activity for the N_2 reduction to ammonia. 40

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Overall, the computational results presented here and elsewhere²⁵ confirm that the heterogeneous electrocatalysis of the direct N₂ reduction into NH₃ by metals presents a process of great difficulty that can be theoretically possible only on a very limited number of metallic surfaces.

Not only from the experimental perspective but also from the computational side, the community has recognised that the HER is not the only competing process in the NRR experiments. Of a specific concern is the reduction of nitrogen oxides —major air pollutants derived from industrial activity⁴¹ and commonly present in N₂ gas. These processes can either produce dinitrogen or ammonia, *i.e.*, are a potential source of falsepositive NRR results. This prompted us to investigate these processes following the approach discussed above.

The facile nitric oxide reduction reaction (NORR). The reduction of nitric oxide offers certain mechanistic advantages with respect to the NRR. First, the NORR is a five-electron process starting with the adsorption of NO to the reactive surface followed by the formation of the NOH intermediate species during the first H⁺/e⁻ pair transfer. We have also considered the first hydrogenation of NO at the O atom leading to the ONH species, which however was found to be unstable intermediates (Fig. S4). It is also noted that the modelling of the NO adsorption on the surface of the selected metals through the O atom is less favourable than the adsorption *via* N (Fig. S4). In the second hydrogenation step, a water molecule is released producing the adsorbed *N (Fig. 5), which further transformations are the same as for the NRR (Fig. 3).



Figure 5. Associative pathway for the NORR catalysed by metal surfaces.

Contrary to N₂, a molecule presenting weak lone pairs on each nitrogen atom (:N=N:), NO contains an unpaired electron on the N atom making it quite nucleophilic. Surface metal atoms behave as electropositive centres, thus metal···NO interactions are expected to be much stronger than the weak metal···N₂ bonds. This is one factor rendering the NORR a preferable process than the NRR, though similar predictions with respect to the HER require quantitative comparisons of the adsorption free energies of NO and H following the approach illustrated in



Figure 6. $\Delta G(*NO) vs. \Delta G(*H)$ plot for the examined metals. Lines show linear fits for two distinct groups of metals. *Green* shaded area indicates where $\Delta G(*NO) < \Delta G(*H)$ and *green* labels highlight metals with where this is the case. Inset shows the $\Delta G(*NO) vs. \Delta G(*N_2H)$ plot for transition metals examined herein.

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The theoretical predictions summarised above are consistent with our experimental studies on the carbon-supported Au nanoparticles used for the electroreduction of aqueous 0.5 M K₂SO₄ electrolyte solutions (pH = 3.5) saturated with N₂ and NO.⁸ When tested for the NRR, no measurable activity of Au was detected and all reductive charge passed could be confidently ascribed to the HER. On the contrary, the Au-catalysed NO reduction commenced at potentials close to 0 V vs. RHE and produced NH₃ at *ca* 30% faradaic efficiency during chronopotentiometric tests at -0.30 V vs. RHE. It is noted that only NH₃ was quantified as the product of the NORR, *i.e.*, the remaining charge is consumed either in the HER or for the reduction on nitric oxide to other products like N₂.

The whole path for the NORR was analysed for all metals, with selected examples of free energy reaction profiles shown in Fig. 7, along with the optimised intermediate structures for the Cu(111) surface. Binding energy values for all intermediates along the NORR pathway, namely, *NO, *NOH, *N (plus H₂O release), *NH, *NH₂ and *NH₃ are also summarised in Table S3. In general, two common features for the investigated group of metallic models were established: (i) adsorption of NO occurs *via* the N atom; and (ii) the first hydrogenation step occurs through the O atom leading to the *NOH intermediate and never to the unstable *ONH species. See Fig. S3 for full details concerning the optimised structures for the HER, NRR, and NORR, as well as NO₂RR and N₂ORR, that will be discussed in upcoming sections.



Figure 7. (a) The NORR energy profiles for Au, Cu, Pt and Mo. For the rest of the metals, see full free energy details in Table S3. Reaction free

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energies at room temperature are shown in eV. (b) Optimised structures for the case of the NORR catalysed by Cu(111) $p_{0,2}$

Further, we extended the analysis of the NO reduction to understand the thermodynamics of the process towards the formation of ammonia. The adsorption free energy of the second intermediate of the NORR, *viz.* *NOH, was again found to correlate with $\Delta G(*H)$ (Fig. 8) in a manner that is qualitatively similar to that found for $\Delta G(*NO)$ (Fig. 6). However, the examined metals can be now classified into three groups.

First, early transition metals Ti, V, Nb, and Mo, along with Re and Os exhibit spontaneous values of NOH formation relative to NO. Second, these values are positive for late transition metals Au and Ag and the *p*-block metals Pb and Bi, specifically 0.50, 0.65, 0.48, and 0.85 eV, respectively, with Zn somewhat out of this trend of moderate non-spontaneous values (just 0.16 eV). Finally, NO to NOH is catalysed by Fe, Ru, Ir, Cu, Pt, Co, Rh, and Ni in a facile manner just demanding 0.13, 0.17, 0.18, 0.33, 0.35, 0.44, 0.44, and 0.51 eV, respectively (Pd is out of this trend with 0.73 eV).

Based on data at Table S3, theoretical reduction potentials of NO to NH₃, estimated as thermodynamics barriers, are between -0.16 and -0.85 V vs. CHE (computational hydrogen electrode) for the groups of metals selected in this study. In addition, Table S4 gathers the maximum energetic barriers, identifying the limiting step, as well as NH₃ desorption free energies required for the NORR in each metal. In this sense, formation of the NOH intermediate species is usually the RDS on most of the metals, although for others such as Fe, Nb, Ti, Ru, Re, and Os, the RDS is hypothesised to be the formation of the NH₂ species.



Figure 8. $\Delta G(*NOH)$ vs. $\Delta G(*H)$ plot for the examined metals. Lines show linear fits for two distinct groups of metals. *Green* shaded area indicates where $\Delta G(*NOH) < \Delta G(*H)$ and *green* labels highlight metals with where this is the case.

Nitrogen dioxide reduction reaction (NO₂RR): A low energy process towards the formation of NO. Nitrogen dioxide, another common

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nitrogenous pollutant,⁴² was also analysed using the framework summarised in Fig. 3. The NO₂ reduction reaction (NO₂RR) is a seven-electron process in which the initial two hydrogenation steps of the adsorbed nitrogen dioxide produce *NO₂H and then *NO species, accompanied by a release of H₂O (Fig. 9). Exploration of the potential energy surfaces (PES) for the selected series of metals indicates that NO₂ binds with a bidentate configuration through its O atoms, however binding of the *NO₂H to the surfaces of the examined metals is more favourable through the N atom and hydrogenation occurs at one of the O atoms (Fig. 10). Upon completion of the two initial H⁺/e⁻ transfer steps, a *NO intermediate is produced on the surface and further reduction occurs as in the NORR.



Figure 9. Associative pathway for the NO_2RR catalysed by metal surfaces.

A distinctive feature of the NO₂RR is that both $\Delta G(*NO_2)$ and $\Delta G(*NO_2H)$ are lower than $\Delta G(*H)$ for all the studied metals (Fig. 11 and Table S3), indicating a preferential stabilisation of the initial intermediates of the nitrogen dioxide reduction rather than *H adatoms. Moreover, calculated $\Delta G(*NO_2)$ and $\Delta G(*NO_2H)$ were always negative, further suggesting that the initial steps of the NO₂RR will be dominant against the HER. Nevertheless, the qualitative pattern of the $\Delta G(*NO_2)$ vs. $\Delta G(*H)$ and $\Delta G(*NO_2H)$ vs. $\Delta G(*H)$ were similar to those discussed above for the NRR and NORR. Consequently, the $\Delta G(*NO_2)$ vs. $\Delta G(*N_2)$ plots exhibit a close to linear correlation, indicating that the metal surfaces that might theoretically bind N_2 will adsorb NO_2 even more strongly (Fig. 11a, inset, R^2 = 0.73). The only exception from this trend is titanium. It was found that NO₂ is not stabilised on the surface of this metal, and it is decomposed during optimisation.



Figure 10. Optimised $*NO_2$ and $*NO_2H$ intermediate structures for the NO_2RR catalysed by Au(111).

Theoretical predictions of the facile electroreduction of NO₂ are also confirmed by our recent experimental studies of the bismuth powder material.⁸ While being a poor catalyst for the nitrate reduction and essentially inactive for the NRR, Bi was found to effectively catalyse the reduction of electrolyte solutions purged with NO₂ with the formation of ammonia. It is noted that bismuth was calculated herein to exhibit the least

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favourable $\Delta G(*NO_2)$ and $\Delta G(*NO_2H)$ values (Fig. 11) suggesting that other metals examined Would 1029 with Wetter catalysts for the NO₂RR.



Figure 11. (a) $\Delta G(*NO_2) vs. \Delta G(*H)$ and (b) $\Delta G(*NO_2H) vs. \Delta G(*H)$ plots for the examined metals. Lines show linear fits for two distinct groups of metals. Inset in panel (a) shows the $\Delta G(*NO_2) vs. \Delta G(*N_2)$ plot. *Green* shaded area indicates where (a) $\Delta G(*NO) < \Delta G(*H)$ and (b) $\Delta G(*NOH) < \Delta G(*H)$, and *green* labels highlight metals with where this is the case.

Nitrous oxide reduction reaction (N₂ORR): the least favourable of the NO_x reduction processes. Finally, the reduction of N₂O— a highly potent greenhouse gas emitted to the atmosphere through various anthropogenic pathways⁴³ — was investigated.



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Figure 12. Associative pathway for the $N_2 \text{ORR}$ catalysed by metal surfaces.

Upon adsorption on the electrode surface, the N_2O moiety undergoes two successive H^+/e^- transfers that lead to the formation N_2OH (accompanied by a release of H_2O) and then N_2 (Fig. 12). Thus, the N_2ORR to ammonia is an eight-electron process that can be considered as a two-electron process followed by the NRR.

Our DFT calculations reveal that N_2O interacts with the surfaces of examined metals weakly, viz. with positive $\Delta G(*N_2O)$ values in most cases (Fig. 13 and Table S3). Only the early transition metals Ti, Mo, and V show slightly negative binding energies within the –0.1 to –0.2 eV range. Again, binding of $N_2 O$ through the terminal N atom was energetically preferred to adsorption via the oxygen atom (Fig. S3). As has been common in all cases thus far, two groups of metals demonstrating different correlation between binding energy of N_2O and $\Delta G(*H)$ were identified: one includes Au, Ag, Zn and the *p*-block metals Pb and Bi with less pronounced dependence (red symbols in Fig. 13), and the rest showing a clear linear trend (blue symbols in Fig. 13, $R^2 = 0.72$). Only the most H-phobic metals, namely Zn, Pb and Bi, show values of $\Delta G(*N_2O) < \Delta G(*H)$ (green symbols in Fig. 13,). In general, most metals display a poor N₂O-philicity. Binding free energies of N₂O were found to correlate linearly ($R^2 = 0.89$) with those for N₂ (inset to Fig. 13), but in this case adsorption of the dinitrogen molecule was slightly preferred, which is an important distinction from the behaviour established for NO and NO₂ (Figs. 6 and 11a).



Figure 13. $\Delta G(*N_2O)$ vs. $\Delta G(*H)$ plot for the examined metals. Lines show linear fits for two distinct groups of metals. *Green* shaded area indicates where $\Delta G(*N_2O) < \Delta G(*H)$ and *green* labels highlight metals with where this is the case. Inset shows the $\Delta G(*N_2O)$ vs. $\Delta G(*N_2)$ plot for transition metals examined herein.

Moreover, analysis of the free energy for the formation of the *N₂OH intermediate species produced ΔG (*N₂OH) values that were higher than the energy of *H adsorption in all cases except for Ti, V and Nb (Fig. 14). These three surfaces were predicted to promote decomposition op \mathbb{P}^{2} N₂ \mathbb{O}^{1} \mathbb{O}

Overall, all the data collectively suggest that electroreduction of N_2O is likely to be overrun by the H_2 evolution reaction and even the NRR, if the latter would be possible with the metals investigated herein.



Figure 14. $\Delta G(*N_2OH)$ vs. $\Delta G(*H)$ plots for the examined metals. Lines show linear fits distinct groups of metals. *Green* shaded area indicates where $\Delta G(*N_2OH) < \Delta G(*H)$ and *green* labels highlight metals with where this is the case, *i.e.*, none in this case. Inset shows values for Ti, V and Nb, for which decomposition of $*N_2OH$ into $*N_2$ and *OH occurred during optimisation.

Conclusions

The electrochemical conversion of N₂ into NH₃ competes with the reduction of protons into H₂ in protic media. In general, the flat metal surfaces studied are more selective electrocatalysts for the HER, and those that are predicted to favour the NRR (Ti, V, Nb, and Mo) present a marked oxyphilic nature that prevents the obtaining of pure metallic surfaces under protic conditions. Our DFT observations emphasise the importance in the analysis of the N- vs. H-philic properties through the comparative analysis of the $\Delta G(*N_2H)$ and $\Delta G(*H)$ descriptors. These allow us to elucidate the selectivity of both processes. In general, most of the reported experimental studies employing metals as electrocatalysts are in direct contradiction with the theoretical results presented herein. We believe this can be explained by the reduction of adventitious NO_x species rather than N₂ in many published reports.

Indeed, the comprehensive DFT analysis presented herein demonstrates that NO and NO_2 reduction is preferred over the NRR and in some cases even over the HER for a wide range of metals. Importantly, the affinity of metal surfaces to the reductive adsorption of N_2 scales with the affinity to NO, NO_2 and N_2O . Moreover, while binding energies of N_2 and N_2O are

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generally very weak, NO and NO₂ are adsorbed strongly on most metals examined herein. Collectively this means that 12 electroreduction of nitric oxide and nitrogen dioxide will be significantly preferable as compared to the reduction of 13 dinitrogen. In other words, if NO_x contaminants are present, as is commonly the case even with the purified N₂ gas, they will be 14 the first nitrogen-based species to be reduced.

Finally, we have also established a direct relationship between the H-philic and NO_x-philic properties, which are most pronounced for the transition *d*-metals and predicted that the NORR and NO₂RR are often energetically preferred processes over the reduction of protons into H₂. These results might support future developments of electrocatalytic systems for the NO_x reduction reactions under mild conditions.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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