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Molybdenum Based 2D Conductive Metal–Organic

Frameworks as Efficient Single-atom Electrocatalysts for N₂

Reduction: A Density Functional Theory Study

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Abstract:

Electrocatalytic nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR) is a sustainable and eco-friendly process to generate ammonia (NH₃). However, there are significant challenges including low catalytic performance, instability, and poor selectivity, which hinder its rapid development. Herein, a series of two-dimensional (2D) conductive metal-organic frameworks (i.e., TM₃(HHTT)₂, TM = Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mo, W, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn) are investigated as single atom catalysts (SACs) for NRR process by the density functional theory (DFT). The obtained results of Gibbs free energies of adsorption for N₂, *NNH, *NH₃, which are commonly used as activity descriptors to screen the effectiveness of catalysts, show that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer (among all the TM₃(HHTT)₂ ones) can activate N=N bonds, stabilize the adsorbed *NNH, and achieve the desorption of NH₃. The Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer also exhibits an excellent structural stability (with values of $E_f = -2.96$ eV and $U_{diss} = 1.28$ V). N₂ can be effectively reduced into NH₃ on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer with a low limiting

potential of -0.60 V along the distal pathway. Furthermore, the σ -donation and π^* backdonation of N₂ adsorbed onto the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer indicates an excellent electrical conductivity of Mo₃(HHTT)₂, which is beneficial for the effective electron transfer during the NRR process. Furthermore, the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer exhibits considerable selectivity for the NRR process over the hydrogen evolution reaction. Our study proved that this 2D c-MOFs carrying TM of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can be used as a promising catalyst for nitrogen fixation.

Keywords: single-atom catalysts; metal-organic frameworks; density functional theory; nitrogen reduction reaction

1. Introduction

Ammonia (NH₃) is not only an essential primary raw material for producing various industrial chemicals such as fertilizers, but also a stable carrier of hydrogen production [1-3]. Due to the robust dipole moment of N₂ and ultra-high bond energy of triple N \equiv N (940.95 kJ mol⁻¹), NH₃ is dominantly synthesized using the technology of conventional Haber-Bosch based on a dissociation reaction involving co-activation of atmospheric nitrogen under high pressure (100-200 atm) and temperature (573-773 K), using high purity gases of N₂ and H₂ [4-7]. Due to the intensive use of fossil fuels, this Haber-Bosch process is a primary source of significant greenhouse gas emissions [8]. Therefore, it is crucial to explore alternative, effective and sustainable approaches to produce NH₃ via N₂ fixation under much milder process conditions [9].

Inspired by biological N₂ fixation, electrocatalytic nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR) is a prospective sustainable approach for the synthesis of NH₃, because this process can conduct at atmospheric pressure and room temperature, and utilizes water (H₂O) as the hydrogen resource [10, 11]. However, there are considerable challenges because its electrocatalysts have critical issues, such as poor catalytic activities and low selectivity,

mainly caused by the slow kinetics of reactions and the strong competitive reaction of hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) [11-13]. Therefore, the design and fabrication of highly efficient and selective NRR electrocatalysts are critically needed.

In recent years, numerous studies of the NRR electrocatalysts have been reported [14-21]. Electrocatalysts based on noble metals such as gold, ruthenium, and rhodium show high selectivity and good catalytic performance for the process of NRR [22-24]. However, they have significant issues of poor stability and high cost. To tackle this issue, embedding single transition metal (TM) atoms into 2D substrates have been widely explored as effective electrocatalysts for N₂ reduction [25-29]. Owing to their tunable electronic structures and low coordinated configurations, these single-atom catalysts (SACs) are developed to improve the electrocatalytic performance and selectivity of catalysts for the NRR process [30-34]. However, due to the d orbitals interactions in TMs, the TM atoms easily become severely agglomerated during the NRR process. Thus there is a critical need to find the appropriate methods to prevent the severe agglomeration of these TM atoms and boost their catalytic activities.

In numerous studies, graphene is widely used as a support for SACs [35, 36]. However, creating suitable holes in a two-dimensional (2D) planes while firmly embedding isolated metal atoms is difficult in large-scale application. 2D metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) have larger porosity, which facilitates the diffusion of gases, disperses the active metal ions uniformly on the plane [37] and greatly increases the catalytic sites. Self-assembly of TM atoms with conjugated organic ligands containing functional groups can effectively form 2D conductive MOFs [38, 39]. Their effective coordination sites can stably and uniformly anchor single metal atoms and prevent their agglomeration. Therefore, these 2D c-MOFs can be applied as an ideal platform for immobilizing transition metal atoms. The charge redistribution and strong in-plane d-p conjugations can be generated by the TM atoms in these 2D c-MOFs, which could effectively facilitate the NRR process [40]. In addition, the 2D c-MOFs have ultrathin

thicknesses, large specific surface areas, abundant unsaturated active sites, large porosity, and tunable surface properties, all of which are beneficial to the electrocatalytic N₂ reduction reactions [41].

Previously, Xu et al. reported to use 2D MOFs of MC4S4 (M = Fe, Ru, Os, Co, Rh, Ir, Ni, Pd, Pt, Cr, Mn, Mo, and W) for the NRR process, and their results showed that OsC4S4 and RuC4S4 monolayers exhibit suitable NRR catalytic activities [42]. Li et al. systematically investigated the potential of coronene-based TM-perthiolated coronene as SACs for NRR, and their results showed that the N₂ molecules could be readily reduced to NH₃ on V/Fe-PTC [43]. Feng et al. proposed a 2D MOFs of TM₃(C₂O)₁₂, and reported that the Mo₃(C₂O)₁₂ monolayer exhibited an excellent electrocatalytic performance [44]. Zhang et al. investigated the possibilities of using Mo-based 2D TM₃(C₆X₆)₂, namely, Mo₃(C₆X₆)₂, as the electrocatalysts for NRR [45]. Lv et al. investigated a series of nitrogen-free MOFs of TM–benzenehexathiol (TM–BHT) for NRR and reported that Mo–BHT exhibited the suitable value of the U_L for the NRR [46]. It is noteworthy to mention that the conductivity of 2D MOFs determines the catalytic performance. Therefore, these 2D MOFs with their higher electrical conductivities are particularly suitable in the design of NRR electrocatalysts.

Recently, to obtain stable and conductive 2D MOFs, crystalline structures of electrically conducting TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers were formed by combining TM (Co and Ni) atoms with the ligand of 2,3,7,8,12,13-hexahydroxy tetraazanaphthotetraphene (HHTT) [47]. The energetic overlap of orbitals of the delocalization of the electronic charge in the conjugated structures and metal atoms could improve electrical conductivity of 2D MOFs [40]. Electronic structure, metal conductivity, and thermal stability of 2D c-MOFs can be restructured via applying the central bridging metal atoms [18]. For example, it was reported that the diameter of hexagonal mesoporous of 2D MOFs of Cu₃(HHTT)₂ is around 2.47 nm [36], which is essential for the gas-phase catalysis process and desorption of gas molecules. The Cu₃(HHTT)₂ MOF materials

were also reported to show good catalytic properties for CO₂ reduction reaction [37]. Recently, Co₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer was also reported as the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) electrocatalyst [48].

Despite the above mentioned studies using the TM₃(HHTT)₂ catalysts for CO₂RR and ORR processes, there are few reports on the studies of mechanisms of using TM₃(HHTT)₂ electrocatalysts for the NRR process. In this study, the electrocatalytic performance of TM₃(HHTT)₂ (TM = Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mo, W, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn) monolayers for the synthesis of NH₃ is studied by density functional theory (DFT). The obtained results suggest that among all TM₃(HHTT)₂, Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer exhibits the best electrocatalytic performance on N₂ reduction due to its excellent performance in activating N₂, adsorption of *NNH intermediates, and desorption of NH₃. Moreover, it exhibits an excellent structural stability (e.g., E_f = -2.96 eV, and U_{diss} = 1.28 V), high catalytic activity (U_L = -0.60 V) and a good selectivity (U_d = -0.38 V) for the NRR. Our results show that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can be used as a promising electrocatalyst for NH₃ production from the gas of N₂.

2. Computational Details

The Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP) code was used to calculate the structure relaxation and total energy [49]. The Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange-correlation functional with a generalized gradient approximation (GGA) was adopted to calculate the exchange-correlation potential. The ion-electron interaction was calculated by the projector augmented wave (PAW) pseudopotential, and the cutoff energy was set to 500 eV. The generalized gradient approximation of the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (GGA-PBE) functional was used to calculate the exchange-correlation potential [50-52]. The van der Waals (vdW) correction described by the DFT-D3 was applied. [53]. The supercell contained a vacuum layer of 15 Å to avoid the interactions between two slabs, which is verified by the convergence of different vacuum layers. The convergence criterion of the force was set to 0.02 eV/Å. The Brillouin zone was

sampled with $3 \times 3 \times 1$ Monkhorst-Pack mesh k-points [54]. The values of different K-points are checked and the results show that the K-points mesh with $3 \times 3 \times 1$ is sufficient to achieve computational accuracy. The electronic properties were processed by the VASPKIT [55].

The Gibbs free energy (ΔG) was calculated based on the computational hydrogen electrode (CHE) model in the NRR performance [56].The value of ΔG for a protonelectron pair is 0.5 G(H₂, g) [57]. The change in the values of ΔG is defined as:

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta Z P E - T \Delta S + e U + \Delta G_{pH}, \qquad (1)$$

where ΔE denotes the reaction energy difference of intermediates, ΔZPE represents the change of the zero-point energy, and ΔS is the entropy change at the temperature of T= 298.15 K, both of which can be obtained from the vibrational frequency calculation. The entropy correction and zero-point energy of the gas phase molecules (H₂, N₂, and NH₃) are available from the NIST database [58], as listed in Table S1. The symbol e indicates the electrons transferred number, while symbol U indicates the applied electrode potential. Moreover, ΔG_{pH} is the pH-dependent free energy correction defined as $\Delta G_{pH} = 2.303 \times k_{B}T \times pH$, where k_B is the Boltzmann constant.

The limiting overpotential (UL) has been calculated according to the equation:

$$U_L = -\Delta G_{max} / e, \qquad (2)$$

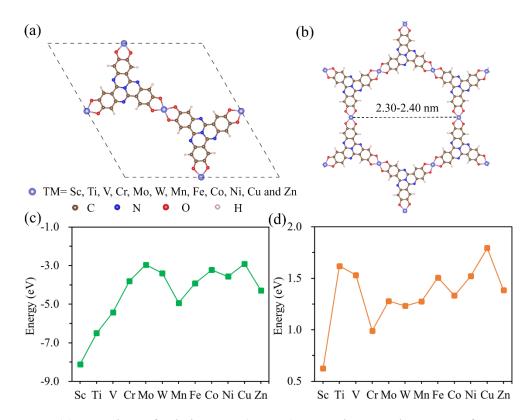
where ΔG_{max} is the maximum change of the Gibbs energy during the NRR process. The formation energy (E_f) per metal atom of the unit-cell TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers and dissolution potential (U_{diss}) are calculated using:

$$E_{f} = (E_{TM3(HHTT)2} - 3E_{TM} - 2E_{HHTT}) / 3,$$
 (3)
 $U_{diss} = U^{\circ}_{diss} (metal, bulk) - E_{f} / ne,$ (4)

where $E_{TM3(HHTT)2}$, E_{TM} , and E_{HHTT} are the total energies of (1) the TM₃(HHTT)₂, (2) metal atom in bulk structure, and (3) HHTT organic ligands. The U°_{diss} (metal, bulk)

denoted the standard dissolution potential of a bulk metal. The symbol n denotes the number of electrons in the dissolution [59]. Based on previous studies [60], when $E_f < 0 \text{ eV}$, the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is considered as thermodynamically stable; when $U_{diss} > 0 \text{ V}$, the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is considered as electrochemically stable. Table S2 lists the detailed data of E_f and U_{diss} .

3. Results and discussion



3.1 Anlaysis of Stability and Structure.

Figure 1. (a) Top view of pristine $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers. The atoms of TM, C, N, O, and H are described by purple, brown, blue, red, and white balls. (b) The metal macrocycles of $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers. (c)The E_f and (d) U_{diss} of unit cell of the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers.

Before screening the NRR electrocatalytic properties of different $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers, the optimized structures of $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers were theoretically investigated by using DFT calculations. The obtained results are shown in Fig. 1(a). For all the different optimized structures, all the atoms are located in the same plane without bending, meaning that these two-dimensional structures can co-exist stably. The detailed optimized lattice parameters of $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ are listed in Table S2.

Honeycomb-like 2D nets are formed by the coordination of the TM and triangular HHTT ligands, as shown in Fig.1(b). Each HHTT ligand, as the coordination organic linker, is attached to three equivalent transition metal atoms. The transition metal and the surrounding O₄ atoms form the plane and conductive structure, which effectively prevents the formation of metal clusters and improves the utilization of transition metal atoms. The pore size of the honeycomb-like 2D structure of the TM₃(HHTT)₂ is as large as $2.30 \sim 2.40$ nm. The large pore size structure can facilitate the transport of N₂ and NH₃ gases.

The thermodynamic and electrochemical stabilities of $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers were further investigated. The values of E_f and U_{diss} of $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers were calculated to avoid the diffusion and aggregation of TM atoms during the NRR process. The results are shown in Figs. 1(c) and 1(d), respectively. The values of E_f for the $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers are all less than 0. For the calculated U_{diss} values of the $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers, all the values are much higher than 0. The results indicate that these $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ all have good stability and should be easily experimentally synthesized. According to the calculated results, all the twelve $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayers we have studied have good thermodynamic and electrochemical stabilities for NNR catalytic applications.

3.2. Screening the TM₃(HHTT)₂ for NRR catalysis.

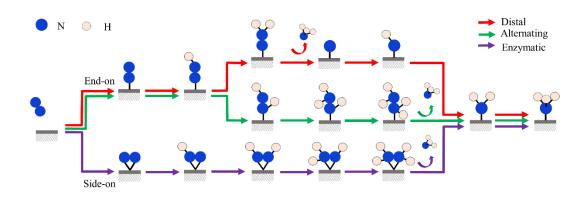


Figure 2. Schematic representation of NRR process along distal, alternating, and enzymatic pathways.

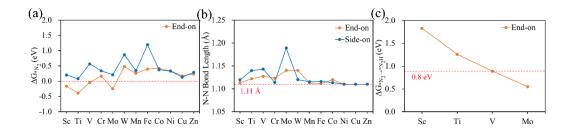


Figure 3. (a) The values of ΔG^*_{N2} for N₂ on TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers in end-on and side-on configurations. (b) The N–N bond lengths of N₂-TM₃(HHTT)₂ in end-on and side-on configurations. (c) The values of $\Delta G^*_{N2\to *N2H}$ for Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer.

Fig. 2 displays three typical reaction mechanisms involved in the NRR process, e.g., distal, alternating, and enzymatic pathways. For N₂ adsorption on the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer, there are two types of configurations, i.e., end-on and side-on. Only one N atom is bound to the Mo atom of the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer for the end-on configuration. In contrast, both atoms of the N₂ gas molecules form the bonding of Mo-N with the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer for the side-on configurations, six consecutive protonation processes for the NRR follows the process: N₂ (g) + 6H⁺ + 6e⁻ \rightarrow 2NH₃. The NRR process will be along a distal mechanism, or following an alternating mechanism for N₂ adsored on the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer in the end-on configuration. The enzymatic mechanism will occur along the side-on configuration [61].

The electrocatalytic performance of TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers for the NRR were screened based on the following three criteria: (1) The catalyst can effectively activate N=N bond and can form N₂ molecules chemisorption (e.g., $\Delta G^*_{N2} < 0$); (2) The hydrogenation of the *N₂ to *N₂H has a small value of Gibbs free energy change, which can accelerate the NRR process (e.g., $\Delta G^*_{N2} \rightarrow N_{2H} < 0.80$ eV); (3) The intermediate of *NH₃ with smaller Gibbs free energy change can easily dispel from the surface of the catalyst (e.g., $\Delta G^*_{N12} \rightarrow *_{NH3} < 0.80$ eV). If all the above three screening criteria can be met, the candidate electrocatalytic monolayers could serve as suitable NRR catalysts with rapid desorption capability of NH₃, stable generation of intermediates, and low limiting potentials.

A prerequisite for the NRR process is that N₂ molecules can be spontaneously adsorbed on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer. The N=N triple bonds were weakened. The corresponding values of Gibbs free energy change for N₂ adsorption on the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers for the end-on configuration and side-on configuration were studied as shown in Fig. 3(a). All detailed results of ΔG_{*N2} are listed in Table S3. If $\Delta G_{*N2} < 0$ eV, this indicates a strong N₂ adsorption ability of the electrocatalysts. The values of ΔG_{N2} for all the TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers in the side-on configuration are positive, which indicates that it is inactive for N₂ absorption. Thus, N₂ adsorption on these TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers in side-on configurations is unsuitable for the subsequent NRR process and excluded from the following studies. Whereas for N₂ adsorption cases on Sc₃(HHTT)₂, Ti₃(HHTT)₂, V₃(HHTT)₂, and Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers in their end-on configurations, the values of ΔG_{*N2} are negative, indicating that these four types of 2D c-MOFs can effectively adsorb and activate N₂ molecules. Thus, the Sc₃(HHTT)₂, Ti₃(HHTT)₂, V₃(HHTT)₂, and Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers have been selected for the further screening studies.

It should be noted that the bond length of N-N after adsorption is a direct indicator for the degree of activations. The N atom becomes readily bound to the proton-electron pairs after the N-N length is stretched. Contrast with the N-N bond length of the N₂ gas molecules (1.11Å), these N₂ adsorptions on TM₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers are stretched into different degrees, which is different for the end-on configuration and side-on configuration as shown in Fig. 3(b). For the end-on configuration, the lengths of N-N bond of N₂ are elongated to 1.12 Å (Sc₃(HHTT)₂), 1.13 Å (Ti₃(HHTT)₂), 1.12 Å (V₃(HHTT)₂), and 1.14 Å (Mo₃(HHTT)₂) from 1.11 Å for the isolated N₂ molecules.

Based on the previous studies [61, 62], the protonation step of *N₂ to *NNH or *NH₂ to *NH₃ is the decisive step in the NRR process. Therefore, most transition-metal-based catalysts exhibit an essential hydrogenation step in a maximum positive value of ΔG along different catalytic pathways. The values of the $\Delta G_{*N2 \rightarrow *NNH}$ for the Sc₃(HHTT)₂, Ti₃(HHTT)₂, V₃(HHTT)₂, and Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers were investagied as shown in Fig. 3(c). The $\Delta G_{*N2 \rightarrow *N2H}$ of Sc₃(HHTT)₂, Ti₃(HHTT)₂, and V₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers are 1.83, 1.26, and 0.89 eV, which cannot meet the second screening criteria ($\Delta G_{*N2 \rightarrow *N2H} < 0.80$ eV). The above results indicate that the hydrogenation of *N₂ to *N₂H cannot be achieved on the Sc₃(HHTT)₂, Ti₃(HHTT)₂, and V₃(HHTT)₂ monolayers. Whereas the $\Delta G_{*N2 \rightarrow *N2H}$ for Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is 0.55 eV, which has met the requirement of the second screening criteria. Therefore, the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer will be selected for the third screening step. The obtained value of $\Delta G_{*NH2 \rightarrow *NH3}$ for the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is 0.60 eV. The above results indicate that the NRR process.

3.3. Full Reaction Pathways on Mo₃(HHTT)₂

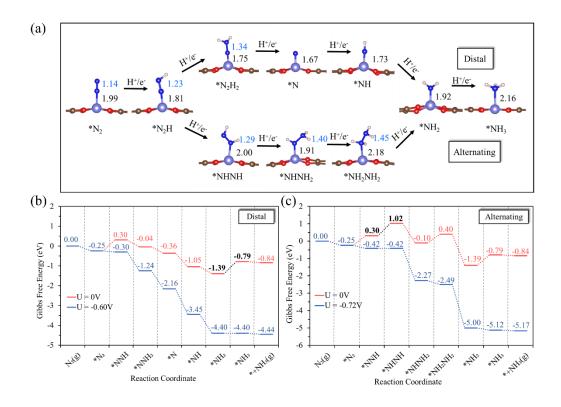


Figure 4. (a) Side views of the optimized structure of the intermediates along distal and alternating pathways for the NRR process. The N–N and Mo–N bond (Å) are shown in blue and black font, respectively. Here * represents the intermediates species. Gibbs free energy diagrams on the surface of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer for the NRR at zero and respective onset potentials along the (b) distal and (c) alternating pathways.

The N₂ adsorption onto the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer in the end-on configuration can be efficiently activated. We have further studied the corresponding optimized structure of the intermediates as shown in Fig. 4(a). The obtained values of the Gibbs free energy on the surface of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer for the NRR process along distal pathway, and along an alternating pathway are shown in Figs. 4(b) and 4(c), respectively. All the corresponding details of parameters are listed in Table S4. For the distal pathway, the N atom, which is not bounded to the Mo atom, has been reacting with the protonelectron pairs. While, for the alternating pathway, the both two N atoms are attacked by the proton-electron pairs [63]. These two pathways generate an NH₃ molecule involving six proton-electron pairs transfer processes. The value of the Gibbs free energy for N₂ adsorption on the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer is 0.21 eV in the side-on configuration, indicating that N_2 cannot be activated on the surface of the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer. Thus, its enzymatic mechanism is not considered.

The Gibbs free energy of N₂ atoms adsorption on the site of Mo atom of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is -0.25 eV along the distal pathway for NRR. Moreover, the N-N length is enlarged to 1.14 Å from 1.11 Å. In this process, the reaction of *N₂+ (H⁺ $(e^{-}) \rightarrow$ *NNH is the first step of hydrogenation with a Gibbs free energy of 0.30 eV with the N-N length of 1.23 Å. The N-N bond length of intermediate of *NNH₂ with the Gibbs free energy of -0.04 eV is further elongated to 1.34 Å. All the results indicate that the activated degree of the N2 molecule continues to increase. When the protonelectron pairs are bonded to the distal N of *NNH2 intermediate on the surface of the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer, the first NH₃ is generated. Then, there is only one N atom at the Mo site on the surface of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer. The value of the Gibbs free energy for the intermediate of *N is decreased to -0.36 eV. The proton-electron pairs attack the N atom of the intermediate of *N until the second NH₃ molecule is produced. The values of the ΔG for the processes of the *N \rightarrow *NH and *NH \rightarrow *NH₂ are -0.69 eV and -0.34 eV. For the last step of hydrogenation, the $\Delta G_{NH2 \rightarrow NH3}$ is 0.60 eV, which is a potential-determining step (PDS) for the NRR on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer along the distal pathway. Thus, the limiting potential of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is -0.60 V, which is more suitable for the NRR catalytic process if compared to the value of the Ru(0001) with the limiting potential of -0.98 V [64].

The first two and last two steps of the alternating pathway on the surface of the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer are the same as those of the distal pathway. The process of *NHNH \rightarrow *NHNH₂ with the ΔG of 0.72 V is the PDS for the alternating pathway. The values of free energy of *NHNH₂ and *NH₂NH₂ are -0.10 eV and 0.40 eV, respectively. The first NH₃ molecule is produced after the H⁺/e⁻ pair attacks the intermediate of *NHNH₂. The following hydrogenation process produces the second NH₃ molecule. The NRR process can spontaneously occur with the applied electrode

potentials of -0.60 and -0.72 V along distal and alternating pathways. The values of U_L for the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer along the distal and alternating pathways are more significant than those for the reported Ru(0001) (-0.98 V) [64, 65]. Moreover, the summary of the NRR electrocatalytic performance with the reported electrocatalysts, including reaction pathways, potential-determining step (PDS) and limiting overpotential (U_L) is listed in Table S7. The above results show that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer should have a good NRR catalytic performance.

3.4 NRR Catalytic Mechanisms.

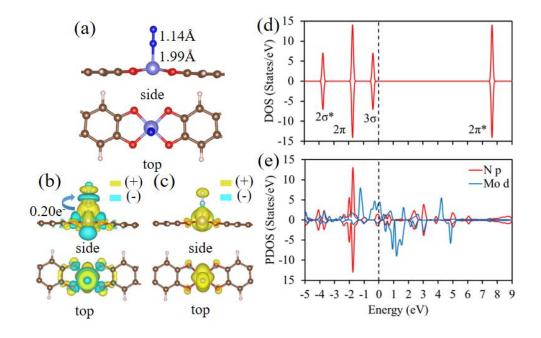


Figure 5. Side and top views of (a) optimized structure, (b) charge density difference, and (c) spin density of N₂ adsorbed on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer. The yellow regions indicate the accumulation of charge or spin density, and the blue regions indicate the depletion of charge or spin density. The isosurface level is set to 0.002 e/Å³. PDOS of (d) free N₂ and (e) N₂ adsorbed on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer.

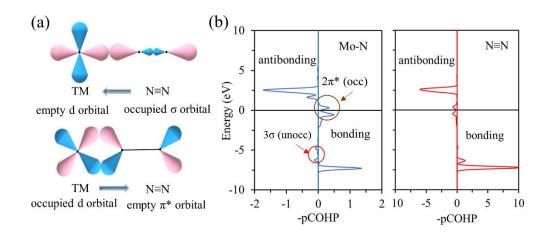


Figure 6. (a) Schematic diagram for the electron orbitals of N₂ adsorption on $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer. (b) The -pCOHP for the Mo–N and N=N bonds of the N₂ adsorption on $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer.

To understand the cooperativity between the Mo atoms and the organic ligands in the NRR process, the electron localization function (ELF) of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer was calculated as shown in Fig. S1 (a). The values of ELF > 0.5 demonstrate the covalent characteristics of the C-C, C-N, C-H, and C-O bonds, which indicates that electrons of HHTT are localized. The electrons of the O atoms in the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer are in the localized state, which facilitates the anchoring of lone-pair electrons to Mo atoms. The above results indicate that the Mo and O atoms could act as the active center of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer for the NRR process. Therefore, the catalytic performance for NRR of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can be achieved via the synergistic effect between the Mo atoms and organic ligands of HHTT. The total magnetic moment of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is 6.94 µB. The NRR catalytic process can be facilitated by the highly spin-polarized transition-metal atoms [66-68]. The spin density diagram is illustrated in Fig. S1(c). The central magnetic regions are located around Mo atoms, indicating that Mo atoms of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can act as the active sites. The band structure and density of states of Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer were calculated (Fig. S2a-b). It indicated that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer possess a metal property due to the fermi level crossed the electronic density of states.

The bonding mechanism between the N₂ molecule and Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer was further studied. The optimized structure of N2 adsorption on Mo3(HHTT)2 monolayer in the end-on configuration is described in Fig. 5(a). The Mo-N length for the N2 and Mo atom is 1.99 Å, which is smaller than that of the M–O bond of 2.03 Å. The length of N-N bond of N₂ adsorption on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is elongated to 1.14 Å compared to the isolated N₂ (1.11 Å) molecule. The charge density difference (CDD) was further investigated for N2 adsorption on M03(HHTT)2 monolayer, as shown in Fig. 5(b). The approximately 0.20e per electric charge is transferred to N-N from the Mo-O bond, i.e., the charges of Mo atoms can be transferred to the antibonding orbitals of N₂. Thus, the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer can activate the inert N_2 gas molecules. Fig. 5(c) is the spin density diagram of N2 adsorption on Mo3(HHTT)2 monolayer. The total magnetic moment of the N₂ adsorbed on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ is 5.55 µB, which is reduced compared to that of Mo₃(HHTT)₂ (i.e., 6.94 µB) monolayer. Most of the spin density is distributed around the Mo atom, with the magnetic moment around the N atoms accounting for only a small proportion. These results indicate that the activation source for $N \equiv N$ is attributed to the contribution of spin density transfer interactions between N and Mo atoms.

To obtain an in-depth understanding of the bonding mechanism of N₂ on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer, the partial density of states (PDOS) for the gas N₂ molecule and the N₂ adsorbed on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer were investigated as shown in Figs. 5(d) and 5(e). Results indicate that the electronic states between the two orbitals--p molecular orbitals of the N atom and d orbitals of the Mo atom have a remarkable overlap in all the energy ranges. The electronic redistribution between Mo atoms and N₂ forms phenomena of splitting and hybridization for the antibonding orbitals of N₂. The 3 σ orbitals of N₂ on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer shift the Fermi level relative to that of the free N₂ molecule, which indicates that there are electrons donated to the 4d orbitals of the Mo atom from 2 π and 3 σ orbitals of N₂. Meanwhile, due to electrons of the occupied orbitals of the Mo atom transferring to the 2 π * orbitals of N₂, the 2 π * peak

moves towards the Fermi level. The above analysis results explain the mechanisms of the π^* back-donation and σ -donation as shown in Fig. 6(a) [46, 69]. Therefore, the N=N triple bond of N₂ adsorption on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer in the end-on configuration is weakened via the strong d-2 π^* coupling.

The σ -donation and π^* back-donation mechanisms can often be inferred from the crystal orbital Hamilton population (COHP). Therefore, Fig. 6(b) displays the calculated COHPs of Mo-N and N-N of the N₂ adsorption on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer. The unoccupied 3 σ orbital becomes an antibonding orbital (marked in the red circle in Figure 6(b)) after N₂ adsorption onto the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer, indicating that the lone pair electrons of N₂ are transferred to the Mo atom. Moreover, the occupied 2 π^* orbital of N₂ is located around the Fermi level, which is marked in the brown circle in Figure 6(b). Results indicate the existence of the d-2 π^* coupling. The antibonding state of Mo-N is farther from the Fermi level than the N-N antibonding state in the 0 ~ 1.0 eV energy region. Thus, the N-N antibonding orbitals are filled with injected electrons, which are crucial for the catalysis of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer.

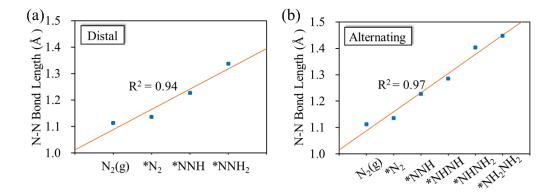


Figure 7. The N-N length of intermediates along the (a) distal and (b) alternating pathways. Calculated details are given in Table S5.

In order to further insight the NRR catalytic properties of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer, the N–N lengths of each intermediate along the distal and alternating pathways are calculated, and the obtained results are displayed in Figs. 7(a) and 7(b).

The activation process of N₂ molecules on the surface of Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can be traced by the bond length of N–N in the intermediates. The longer the N–N bond of the intermediates is, the greater the amount of activation of the N₂ molecule [70, 71]. The N–N bond length of intermediates is linearly increased for both the distal and alternating pathways with their best determination coefficients of 0.94 and 0.97, respectively. Thus, the N₂ was activated gradually. The Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can fully activate N₂ molecule.

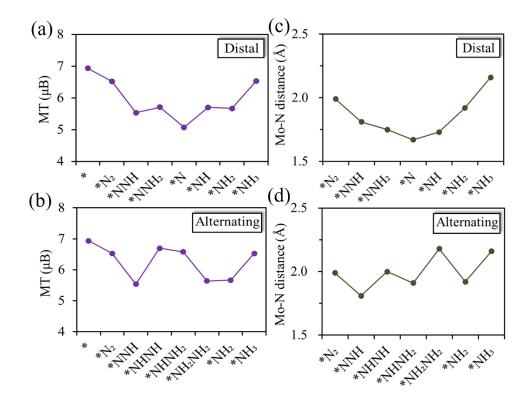


Figure 8. The total magnetic moment of intermediates via (a) distal and (b) alternating pathways. The distances of Mo–N of intermediates via (c) distal and (d) alternating pathways.

The total magnetic moments of intermediates for along distal and alternating pathways were obtained, and the results are shown in Figs. 8(a) and 8(b). The details of values are listed in Table S6. Due to the charge transfer, the total magnetic moments of each intermediate of NRR are decreased to about 5.07-6.70 μ B. In the NNR process on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer, the spin density of the intermediates is mainly from the

Mo atoms, whereas the adsorbed species contribute little to the total density (Fig. S3). The interactions of the spin density between the Mo atoms and the adsorbed species leading to an effective process for NRR [35].

Figs. 8(c) and 8(d) show the distances of the Mo–N bonds of the intermediates along the distal and alternating pathways. For distal pathway, there is a downward trend for the Mo–N distances form *N₂ to *N, which has an inversely proportional relationship with the change length in the N-N bond of intermediates. This variation facilitates the activation of N₂. Moreover, there is an upward trend of intermediates from *N to *NH₃ along the distal pathway. The alternating pathway exhibits a wave-like variation of the length of Mo–N distances, which can be attributed to alternating attacking of protonelectron pairs during the hydrogenation process.

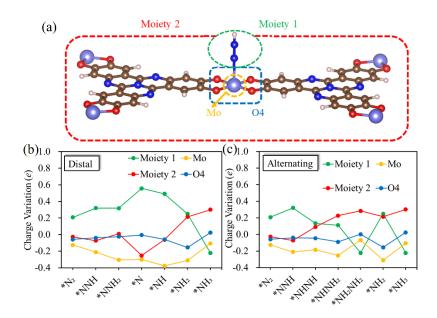


Figure 9. (a) Schematic diagram of four moieties of intermediates for NRR. The diagram of charge variation of these moieties on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer along the (b) distal and (c) alternating pathways.

The Bader charge transfers of intermediates at each hydrogenation step are evaluated along the distal and alternating pathways. Each hydrogenated system is divided into four moieties, i.e., the moiety 1 (*NxHy), the moiety 2 (HHTT), Mo atom, and O4 unit. The scheme of four moieties of intermediates is shown in Fig. 9(a). Fig. 9(b) shows the calculated charge variations of the intermediates for all the hydrogenation steps of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer along distal pathway. For N₂ adsorbed on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer, the N₂ can obtain 0.21e mainly from Mo atom. In the following hydrogenation steps, the moiety 1(*NxHy) acts as an electron acceptor until the formation of *NH₃. At the same time, the Mo atom acts as the charge emitter and lose electrons in the range of $0.11 \sim 0.38e$. In the NH₃ formation process, the charge transfers from *NH₃ to Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can be clearly observed, which is the reason why NH₃ needs a high desorption energy. For alternating pathway as shown in Fig. 9(c), the moiety 1 gains electrons in the range of $0.11 \sim 0.32e$ until formation of *NH₂NH₂. The charge of the *NH₂NH₂ are mainly transferred to the moiety 2 (0.28e), which indicates that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can reasonably regulate the charge transfer in the NRR process. In general, the Mo atom effectively transfers electrons to the intermediates, and could serve as NRR active sites. Moreover, the O4 unit can transport electrons between Mo atom and the organic ligands. Therefore, the cooperative interaction of Mo atom and organic ligands contributes to the catalytic performance of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer for the NRR.

3.5 Selectivity and stability of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂

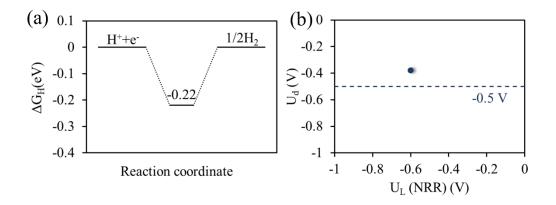


Figure 10. (a) Gibbs free energy for the HER of $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer. (b) The diagram of $U_L(NRR)$ versus U_d on the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer of the NRR process.

The blue dashed line indicates the U_d of the metal-based benchmark.

The critical competitive reaction, i.e., HER, of NRR catalytic activity on Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer was further considered. The ΔG values of the two hydrogenation steps of the HER on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer are described in Fig. 10(a). According to the previous study [72], the step of $*H \rightarrow H_2$ is the PDS of the HER. The U_L of the HER on the surface of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is -0.22 V. The selectivity of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer can be measured by the potential difference (U_d) between the U_L of NRR and HER, i.e., $U_d = U_L(NRR) - U_L(HER)$ [73]. The greater the positive value of U_d , the better the selectivity of the NRR on the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer. The value of U_d is more positive than the metal-based benchmark (approximately -0.5 V), as shown in Fig. 10(b) [74, 75], which indicates a higher selectivity for the NRR over the HER. The value of U_d for the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is -0.38 V, indicating that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is the favorite one for the NRR process rather than the HER. The ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulation was used to evaluate the structural stability of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer, which was performed at 300 K for 4000 fs. As shown in Fig. S4, the total energy of Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer finally oscillates around the initial value as the simulation proceed. Moreover, the surface morphology is almost not changed, and the framework is slightly distorted, indicating that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is thermal stable. We believe that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is a durable electrocatalyst under reduction process.

4. Conclusions

In summary, a series of 2D c-MOFs, i.e., $TM_3(HHTT)_2$ (TM = Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mo, W, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn) as candidates for the NRR were systematically studied using the DFT computations. The calculated results show that the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer has the best electrocatalytic performance for the NRR process along the distal pathway with a low U_L of -0.60 V. The good stability of the Mo₃(HHTT)₂ monolayer is further proven. The dissolution potential and formation energy of the

 $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer have also been calculated, indicating that the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer have high thermodynamic stability and could be efficiently synthesized experimentally. Moreover, the selectivity of the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer between NRR and HER was studied. The value of U_d for NRR and HER are found to be more positive than the metal-based benchmark (approximately -0.5 V), indicating that the catalytic reaction will proceed in the direction of the NRR rather than HER. Therefore, our study shows that the $Mo_3(HHTT)_2$ monolayer can be used as a highly stable and highly selective electrocatalyst for NRR.

Declaration of Competing Interest:

There are no conflicts to declare.

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