Journal of Materials Chemistry A



COMMUNICATION

View Article Online
View Journal | View Issue



Cite this: *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2020, **8**, 1652

Received 16th October 2019 Accepted 8th January 2020

DOI: 10.1039/c9ta11408d

rsc.li/materials-a

Oxygen vacancy engineering in spinel-structured nanosheet wrapped hollow polyhedra for electrochemical nitrogen fixation under ambient conditions†

Feili Lai,^{ac} Jianrui Feng,^a Xiaobin Ye,^c Wei Zong,^a Guanjie He, b * Chao Yang,^d Wei Wang, b ^d Yue-E. Miao, b ^a Bicai Pan, b ^c Wensheng Yan,^c Tianxi Liu* and Ivan P. Parkin * *

Electrochemical nitrogen-to-ammonia conversion by the nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR) under ambient conditions is regarded as a potential approach to tackle the energy-intensive Haber-Bosch process with excessive CO₂ emission. However, the NRR is still restricted by low faradaic efficiency and NH₃ yield, which is due to the chemical inertness of N-related groups for efficient adsorption/activation on the electrocatalysts. Here, a series of spinel-structured nanosheet wrapped hollow nitrogen-doped carbon polyhedra with abundant oxygen vacancies are constructed successfully. From theoretical aspects, these materials show increased charge density on their surface for enhanced capture and activation of N2 molecules. As a result, oxygen vacancy-rich NiCo₂O₄ on hollow N-carbon polyhedra (V_o-rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP) shows outstanding electrocatalytic NRR performance with high production yield (NH₃: $4.1 \mu g h^{-1} cm^{-2}/17.8 \mu g h^{-1} mg^{-1}$; faradaic efficiency: 5.3%) and high stability under ambient conditions and is superior to the counterpart oxygen vacancy-poor electrocatalysts. Oxygen vacancy engineering introduces a new concept for rational design of advanced NRR catalysts for energy conversion systems.

Introduction

Ammonia (NH₃) is one of the most important carbon-free energy intermediates with low liquefying pressure and high

hydrogen density1,2 and is widely used in producing numerous chemicals, such as nitrogen fertilizers or pharmaceuticals, to satisfy the increasing demand from a booming world population.3-5 Up to now, over 1% of the world's energy supply is used to produce ammonia by the traditional Haber-Bosch process which is responsible for 1.6% of global CO₂ emissions and requires harsh operating conditions (400-600 °C and 20-40 MPa) due to the chemical inertness of N2 with a high bond energy of 940.95 kJ mol⁻¹.6-9 In contrast, the electrochemical N₂ reduction reaction (NRR, $N_2 + 6H^+ + 6e^- \rightarrow NH_3$) occurs at ambient temperature and pressure and is regarded as a more sustainable and energy-efficient process for ammonia generation.10-14 Although some electrocatalysts have recently been investigated for the NRR, including noble metal electrocatalysts (such as Ru, Au, and Rh),13-16 non-noble metal-based electrocatalysts (such as Fe-, Co-, and Mo-based materials),7,12,17,18 and conducting polymers (such as polyaniline and polypyrrole),19,20 their electrocatalytic properties are still limited by the low faradaic efficiency due to the confined electro-active sites in the corresponding bulk. 10,11,21 Therefore, constructing multilevel nanostructures (such as one-dimensional nanofibers/nanotubes, 22,23 two-dimensional ultrathin nanosheets, 24,25 and threedimensional hollow nanostructures26,27) has become an efficient solution to obtain outstanding NRR electrocatalysts with a high specific surface area, thus resulting to an increased number of active sites for efficient reactant adsorption.

Apart from this, the impeded NRR process is deeply rooted in the chemical inertness of N_2 molecules. Then, the question on how to capture and activate N_2 gas much more efficiently using electrocatalysts arises. Atomic surface engineering (such as defect engineering^{28,29} and doping engineering³⁰) is the best choice to regulate the electronic structure and alter the charge density distribution. Among various types of defects, the vacancy-type defect (such as oxygen vacancies) is regarded as a kind of point defect, which is caused by independent atoms escaping from the atomic surface.^{31–33} Up to now, several possible strategies have been discovered for generating oxygen vacancies in metal oxides, including chemical reduction,³⁴ annealing in an oxygen poor atmosphere,^{35,36} and

[&]quot;State Key Laboratory for Modification of Chemical Fibers and Polymer Materials, College of Materials Science and Engineering, Innovation Center for Textile Science and Technology, Donghua University, Shanghai 201620, P. R. China. E-mail: txliu@dhu.edu.cn

^bChristopher Ingold Laboratory, Department of Chemistry, University College London, 20 Gordon Street, London WC1H 0AJ, UK. E-mail: g.he@ucl.ac.uk; i.p.parkin@ucl.ac. uk

Hefei National Laboratory for Physical Sciences at the Microscale, University of Science and Technology of China, Hefei, Anhui 230026, P. R. China

^dDepartment of Materials Science and Engineering, College of Engineering, Peking University, Beijing 100871, P. R. China

 $[\]dagger$ Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available: SEM, TEM, XRD, EDS, TGA, and XPS results, adsorptive properties of samples, XANES data, UV-Vis curves, electrochemical properties of samples, and theoretical calculations. See DOI: 10.1039/c9ta11408d

heterogeneous atom substitution.37 Furthermore, the oxygen vacancies created on the metal oxide surface could serve as trapping sites to capture and activate inert gas molecules of N2. However, to our knowledge, the proper control of the oxygen vacancy content in the electrocatalytic N₂ reduction reaction is still in the rudimentary state.

To figure out the contribution of the oxygen vacancies in NRR applications, we conducted density functional theory (DFT) calculations by using NiCo2O4 with a perfect surface and oxygen vacancy-introduced surface as two models. As shown in Fig. 1, the introduction of oxygen vacancies in NiCo2O4 is beneficial for enhancing its stability towards NNH groups due to the presence of fewer coordination sites of Ni/Co cations around the vacancies. As further proved by the differential charge density of NiCo₂O₄ with oxygen vacancies, the bonded electrons can be delocalized to electron donors (Ni and Co elements) near the oxygen vacancies and be activated dramatically. As a result, the NiCo₂O₄ with oxygen vacancies exhibits a lower stabilization energy of 0.30 eV for NNH groups than NiCo₂O₄ with a perfect surface (0.61 eV), indicating the positive role of oxygen vacancies in the following nitrogen reduction reactions. In addition, the delocalized electrons on the surface of NiCo2O4 with oxygen-vacancies are easier to excite to the conduction band, which is favorable not only for enhanced conductivity35,38 but also for activation of N-related groups, by transferring its electrons into their antibonding orbitals. At the same time, the hollow carbon polyhedron is beneficial not only for electron transfer from buried carbon to the oxygen vacancyrich NiCo2O4 surface for the fast NRR process, but also for increasing the number of active sites for the capture of NNH groups.

In this study, we design a series of highly efficient oxygen vacancy-rich spinel-structured nanosheets on hollow N-carbon polyhedra to facilitate the electrocatalytic N2 reduction reaction. Taking the oxygen vacancy-rich NiCo2O4 on hollow Ncarbon polyhedra (Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP) as an example, it exhibited a high production yield (NH₃: $4.1 \,\mu g \, h^{-1} \, cm^{-2}/17.8 \,\mu g$ h⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and faradaic efficiency: 5.3%), good selectivity at -0.25 V versus RHE, and high stability during the NRR process and is much more outstanding than the corresponding oxygen vacancy-poor NiCo2O4 on hollow N-carbon polyhedra (Vo-poor

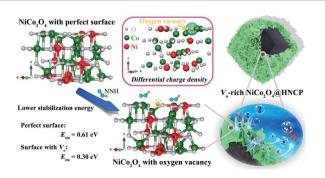


Fig. 1 Schematic illustration of the stabilization of NNH groups on the NiCo₂O₄ with perfect and oxygen vacancy-introduced surfaces, as well as the partial charge density of V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄.

NiCo2O4@HNCP). Furthermore, this oxygen vacancy engineering can also be applied in other spinel-structured nanosheets (such as ZnCo₂O₄ and Co₃O₄), which leads to a general solution for the design of advanced NRR electrocatalysts.

Results and discussion

According to the theoretical work, oxygen vacancy-rich NiCo₂O₄ on hollow N-carbon polyhedra (Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP) was synthesized (Fig. S1†). As shown in Fig. 2a, the Vo-rich NiCo2-O₄@HNCP displays a regular geometrical shape with a maximum length of \sim 850 nm. A blurry interface between HNCP and V₀-NiCo₂O₄ nanosheets can be observed in the corresponding HRTEM image (Fig. 2b), with mixed phases of amorphous carbon and crystalline NiCo2O4, which is beneficial for the charge accumulation and transfer. As a result, the two parts of HNCP and Vo-rich NiCo2O4 nanosheets can be well connected with a shared electron transfer region. Meanwhile, the fringe spacing of V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄ is revealed to be \sim 0.23 nm in its HRTEM image (corresponding to the (311) plane), which demonstrates a negative role of oxygen vacancies in the crystalline NiCo₂O₄. As shown in the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP (Fig. 2c), three typical peaks at $2\theta =$ 36.9° , 43.0° , and 62.7° can be well indexed to the (311), (400) and (440) planes of spinel-structured NiCo2O4 (JCPDS card no. 73-1702), demonstrating its successful loading on the hollow nitrogen-doped carbon polyhedra. The nine-fold higher specific surface area (82.1 m² g⁻¹) of V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP compared to the V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄ bulk (9.0 m² g⁻¹) (Fig. 2d) indicates its higher number of active sites, leading to shortened diffusion paths for reagents during the NRR process.

Further, for comparison, oxygen vacancy-poor NiCo2O4 on hollow N-carbon polyhedra (V₀-poor NiCo₂O₄@HNCP) was obtained by calcining the corresponding nickel-cobalt layered double hydroxide nanosheet wrapped hollow nitrogen-doped carbon polyhedra (Ni-Co LDH@HNCP) in an oxygen atmosphere, and a series of characterization experiments was conducted (Fig. S2-S8†). In the N 1s X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectrum (Fig. 2e), the peaks at 400.6 eV, 399.7 eV, and 398.7 eV corresponded to the graphitic N, pyrrolic N, and pyridinic N of the HNCP template, which is beneficial for the efficient connection of both V_0 -rich and V_0 poor NiCo2O4 nanosheets to form a charge-rich region. In addition, the nitrogen content was calculated to be 11.6 wt% (Fig. S9†). The binding energies of Co $2p_{3/2}$ (780 eV) and Co $2p_{1/2}$ (795 eV) for Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP show negative shifts compared to those for V_0 -poor $NiCo_2O_4$ @HNCP (Fig. 2f). This indicates that some Co3+ ions in the NiCo2O4 nanosheets are reduced to Co²⁺ after introduction of oxygen vacancies, 39-42 due to the charge transfer from the V_0 to the $Co(Ni)^{3+}$ with a decreased number of Co(Ni)-O bonds at the surfaces (Fig. S10†). In the O 1s XPS spectra (Fig. 2g), the peaks at 529.5, 531.1 and 532.5 eV are associated with Co(Ni)-O bonds (O1), oxygen vacancies or defects with lower oxygen coordination (O2), and surface adsorbed water molecules (O3), respectively.43-45 The proportion of the integral-area of the O2 peak in Vo-rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP is much larger than that in Vo-poor

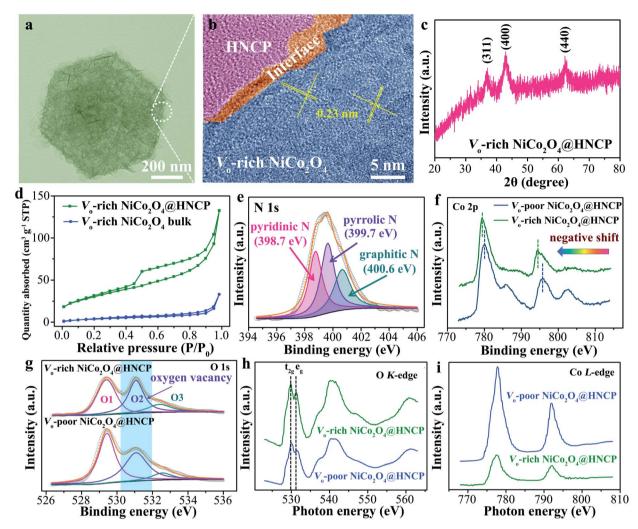


Fig. 2 (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images of V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP. (c) XRD pattern of V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP. (d) N₂ adsorption isotherms of V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP and the V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP and V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP. (f) Co 2p and (g) O 1s spectra of V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP and V_o -poor NiCo₂O₄@HNCP. (h) O K-edge and (i) Co L-edge XANES spectra of V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP and V_o -poor NiCo₂O₄@HNCP.

NiCo2O4@HNCP, indicating the successful introduction of abundant oxygen vacancies in Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP.35,39 In addition, the V_0 (O2) proportion in V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNPC increases from 33.0% to 68.2% as the annealing temperature increased from 200 to 300 °C (Fig. S11†), which means that the incorporated V_0 amount can be well controlled by adjusting the annealing temperature. This finding could be further confirmed using the X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) of the O K-edge and Co L-edge. Fig. 2h shows the O K-edge XANES spectra of Vo-rich and Vo-poor NiCo2O4@HNCP with two main folds. In the first fold at lower energy, another two sub-folds are centered at about 529.7 and 531.4 eV, which are denoted as t_{2g} and e_g by the ligand field, respectively. A relatively high intense ratio of eg to t2g can be observed for Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNPC, indicating the successful generation of abundant V_0 , which can be further proved in the magnified version of t_{2g} and e_g at the O K-edge (Fig. S12-S13†). Meanwhile, attributed to the Co 2p to 3d transition and spin-orbit coupling, the Co L-edge spectra can be split into two parts, L3-edge and L2-edge (Fig. 2i).46,47 The lower

peak intensity for both the Co L3-edge and L2-edge in V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP indicates that more electrons would occupy the Co 3d orbitals, providing more crucial evidence for the presence of abundant V_0 on the surface of V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP. A similar phenomenon is observed in the Ni L-edge spectrum (Fig. S14†). The generation of oxygen vacancies is due to the inadequate oxidation of NiCo₂O₄ in an oxygen-deficient atmosphere as compared to an oxygen atmosphere, leading to abundant partially unoxidized metal domains in the NiCo₂O₄ structure. ^{48,49}

To reveal the role of oxygen vacancies in tuning the electronic structures of the NiCo₂O₄ nanosheets, DFT calculations were performed for different types of oxygen vacancies. Considering that there are two types of oxygen (*e.g.* surface and sub-surface oxygens) in the perfect crystallographic lattice of NiCo₂O₄ (Fig. 3a), we separately studied each situation regarding their density of states, formation possibility and adsorption ability towards the key NRR intermediates of NNH groups. The surface oxygen was removed first for building the

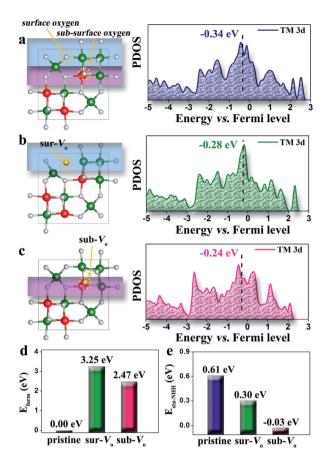


Fig. 3 (a) Pristine NiCo₂O₄ structure and projected density of states (PDOS) of the surface transition metal. (b) The defect model with removal of a surface oxygen vacancy (sur- V_0) and its PDOS. (c) The defect model with removal of a sub-surface oxygen vacancy (sub- V_0) and its PDOS. (d) The formation energy of oxygen vacancies for the three catalyst models. (e) Adsorption energy of NNH groups in the three catalyst models.

surface oxygen vacancy (sur- V_0) model, as shown in Fig. 3b. We found that the d-band center of the sur- V_0 model is -0.28 eV, much closer to the Fermi level compared with that of the pristine NiCo₂O₄ model (-0.34 eV). This result indicates that oxygen vacancies can induce more activity of the metal atoms, that is, the adsorption strength of molecules and radicals over the metal atoms will be enhanced. As shown in Fig. 3c, we tested another type of oxygen vacancy, the sub-surface oxygen vacancy (sub- V_0) model, which has the closest d-band center (-0.24 eV) to the Fermi level among the three models. In the subsequent calculation, we found that the possibility of the formation of these two types of oxygen vacancies is not the same (Fig. 3d). As a more positive formation energy denotes that a vacancy is more difficult to form, the results show that sub-Vo (2.47 eV) has a higher stability than sur- V_0 (3.25 eV). Finally, we calculated the adsorption strength of the three models by using NNH as a probe and found that the sub-V_o model presents the most favorable energy (-0.03 eV). The adsorption energy of the sur- V_0 (0.30 eV) is also more negative than that of the pristine model (0.61 eV), indicating its enhanced adsorption ability, which is consistent with the d-band center results. According to the

trend of formation energy, we can deduce that the sub- V_0 is preferentially formed when the vacancy density is relatively low. Therefore, the adsorption enhancement will be significantly dependent on the vacancy density in the region of low vacancy

To illustrate the role of oxygen vacancies in the NRR, a twocompartment cell was assembled by employing V_0 -rich NiCo₂-O₄@HNCP as the cathode catalyst with continuous N₂ bubbling in a 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ electrolyte. The highest average yields and corresponding faradaic efficiencies of Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP are achieved when the negative potential increases to -0.25 Vversus the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) and are calculated to be about 4.1 μ g h⁻¹ cm⁻²/17.8 μ g h⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and 5.3%, respectively (Fig. 4a and S15 \dagger). This production yield at -0.25 V is also confirmed by the nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) method as shown in Fig. S16-S18 and Table S1.† Beyond this negative potential, the NH3 yields and faradaic efficiencies decrease significantly because of the overwhelming competition from the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). The NRR performance of the Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP catalyst is much more outstanding than that of the Vo-poor NiCo2O4@HNCP catalyst $(1.6 \mu g h^{-1} cm^{-2}/6.9 \mu g h^{-1} mg^{-1} and 1.8\% at -0.25 V)$, as well as other results under ambient conditions or at high temperatures and pressures (Table S2†). Note that no hydrazine is detected in the electrolyte (Fig. S19†). In addition, the charge amounts of the experimentally quantified NH3 and H2 gases and the calculated one (Fig. S20†) are roughly in agreement (S2 \approx S3). These results indicate the high selectivity of the V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP catalyst for NH₃ generation except for H₂ gas. For practical use, stability is another critical criterion to evaluate the NRR performance of a catalyst. As shown in Fig. 4b and S21-26,† the NH₃ yield, faradaic efficiency, and current density of the V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP catalyst are all stable without obvious fluctuation. As shown in Fig. S27,† the Vo-rich NiCo2-O₄@HNCP catalyst displays ultra-stable properties in both NH₃ yield and faradaic efficiency even after working for 100 h and is comparable to the recently reported catalysts but with a much longer practical life.50 By using XRD and XPS analyses (Fig. S28†), the Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP catalyst is found to exhibit an unchanged crystal structure and only slightly decreased oxygen vacancy content after working for 100 h, which demonstrates the relatively stable structure of V_0 -rich NiCo2O4@HNCP as an NRR catalyst. Due to the similar results of NH3 yield and faradaic efficiency after varying the nitrogen flow rate at -0.25 V (Fig. 4c), the N_2 diffusion process becomes a non-rate-determining step as it is an independent gas-solid interface. Moreover, by varying the reaction temperature of the NRR, both the NH₃ yield and faradaic efficiency of the V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP catalyst increase simultaneously (Fig. 4d). For instance, the NRR yield is about 2.5 times higher at 60 °C than at 0 °C, indicating that mass transfer plays a key role in enhancing the reaction rate of the Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP catalyst. In accordance with the Arrhenius equation and Arrhenius plot (Fig. S29†), the apparent activation energy of V_0 rich NiCo2O4@HNCP for the NRR is calculated to be 11.4 kJ mol⁻¹. The UV/Vis absorption spectra of various samples (Fig. 4e) and photographs of NH₄⁺-containing solutions before

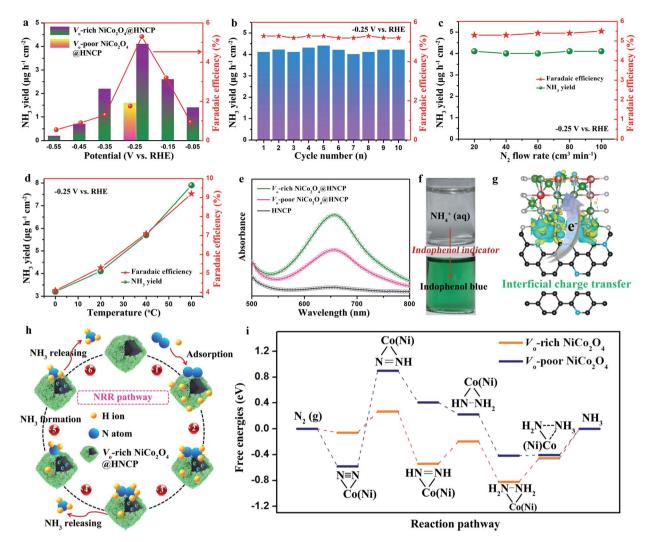


Fig. 4 Electrocatalytic NRR of V_o -rich and V_o -poor NiCo₂O₄@HNCP in an aqueous solution of 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ under ambient conditions. (a) Yield of NH₃ (bar graph) and faradaic efficiency (red) at each given potential. (b) Recycling test of V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP at a potential of -0.25 V. Yield rate of NH₃ (green) and faradaic efficiency at different (c) N₂ flow rates and (d) temperatures at -0.25 V. (e) UV-Vis absorption spectra of various samples after chronoamperometry testing at -0.25 V *versus* RHE. (f) NH₄⁺-containing solution stained with indophenol indicator. (g) Charge density distribution of V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP around the interface and oxygen vacancy. (h) Schematic illustration of the proposed electrochemical NRR pathway by using the V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP catalyst. (i) Free energy diagram of the electrochemical reduction of N₂ to NH₃ in an alternating pathway on the surface of the V_o -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP catalyst.

and after staining with indophenol indicator (Fig. 4f) are exhibited. After comparing the EIS spectra (Fig. S30†) and the performance of the $V_{\rm o}$ -rich NiCo₂O₄ bulk (1.4 µg h⁻¹ cm⁻²/6.1 µg h⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and 1.6% at -0.25 V) in Fig. S31,† it could be seen that the hollow nitrogen-doped carbon polyhedron template in $V_{\rm o}$ -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP is extremely vital for its enhanced NRR performance, due to the increased specific surface area (Fig. 2d) and well-formed interface between HNCP and $V_{\rm o}$ -rich NiCo₂O₄ nanosheets for charge accumulation/transfer. For the verification of the source of ammonia, a 15 N isotope labeling experiment using NMR (600 MHz) was performed. As shown in Fig. S32,† the 1 H NMR signals of 14 NH₄ $^{+}$ produced 14 N triplets in the region of 6.8–7.1 ppm. Importantly, the 1 H NMR signal of 15 NH₄ $^{+}$ only produced an 15 N doublet without the appearance of 14 N triplets in the same region, which demonstrates that the

doped nitrogen atoms in the HNCP template are stable and do not escape from the structures. Therefore, the source of ammonia is the feed N_2 gas rather than the electrocatalyst.

For further detailed insights into the structure–activity relationship between the $V_{\rm o}$ -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP catalyst and its enhanced NRR properties, DFT calculation was carried out from the perspective of thermodynamic and kinetic acceleration. First, from the thermodynamic point of view, the electrons that previously occupied the O 2p orbital would partially delocalized to the neighboring Ni/Co cations after introduction of oxygen vacancies, which suggests that a surface with oxygen vacancies is much more activated. Meanwhile, a rational model for the $V_{\rm o}$ -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP catalyst was constructed by aligning optimized $V_{\rm o}$ -rich NiCo₂O₄ with highly conductive nitrogendoped carbon (Fig. 4g and S33†). After analysis in detail,

abundant charges accumulated on the blurry interface between V₀-rich NiCo₂O₄ and nitrogen-doped carbon, leading to the successful generation of highly active regions for the electrocatalytic process. As shown in Fig. S34 and S35,† the electrons are prone to transfer from nitrogen-doped carbon to V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄ due to their inconsistent charge distribution. In turn, the Ni/Co cations show increased electronic states of the dorbital around the Fermi level, which is beneficial for activation of N₂ and formation of an N-catalyst bond. From the kinetic point of view, the hollow nitrogen-doped carbon polyhedron template endows the V₀-rich NiCo₂O₄ nanosheets with a higher specific surface area with more exposed active sites for adsorption/activation of N-related species. Attributed to the structural merits of the Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP catalyst, a possible NRR mechanism is depicted in Fig. 4h and i. Firstly, the N_2 gas can be easily adsorbed on the surface of the V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP catalyst to form chemisorbed Co(Ni)-N₂ bonds, which can be denoted as $N_2(g) \rightarrow N_2^*$ (here, the asterisk * denotes an adsorption site). After full structural relaxation, two energetically favorable configurations were found: end-on and side-on. On the V₀-poor NiCo₂O₄ surface, an N₂ molecule was more likely to anchor in the end-on configuration with a Co-N bond length of 1.84 Å (Fig. S36a†), whereas, on the V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄ surface, two Co-N bonds (1.20 Å in length) in the sideon configuration are formed with an elongated N-N bond length from 1.12 Å to 1.16 Å (Fig. S36b†). When taking $\Delta E_{\rm ZPE}$ and entropy into consideration, the ΔG values for N₂ adsorption are -0.05 eV for the V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄ surface and -0.57 eV for the Vo-poor NiCo2O4 surface, respectively. Secondly, six consecutive protonation and reduction processes on the V_0 rich(poor) NiCo₂O₄ surfaces were further proposed with atomic configurations at various states of each elementary step (Fig. S37†). As discussed in Fig. 4i and Table S3,† the free energies of all these states were slightly downhill for the V_0 -rich NiCo₂O₄ surface compared to the V_o-poor NiCo₂O₄ surface, which also proves that the successful introduction of oxygen vacancies in NiCo2O4 is beneficial for the nitrogen reduction reaction process theoretically.

We further studied the NRR activity of other spinel-structured nanosheet wrapped HNCP, such as ZnCo₂O₄@HNCP and Co₃-O₄@HNCP, in which oxygen vacancies were deliberately introduced. It should be noted that the XPS O 1s spectra (Fig. S38†) reveal that abundant oxygen vacancies were successfully introduced into the surface of both the V_0 -rich ZnCo@HNCP and V_0 rich Co@HNCP catalysts. As shown in Fig. 5a, all the catalysts with abundant oxygen vacancies showed a higher NH₃ yield rate and faradaic efficiency than their Vo-poor counterparts in 0.1 M Na_2SO_4 . Taking V_0 -rich ZnCo@HNCP and its V_0 -poor counterpart as examples, the NH3 yield rate and faradaic efficiency for the V_0 -rich ZnCo@HNCP catalyst were 3.7 μ g h⁻¹ cm⁻²/16.0 μ g h⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and 3.6%, respectively, which are much more outstanding than those of the V_o -poor ZnCo@HNCP catalyst (1.6 $\mu g h^{-1} cm^{-2}/6.9 \mu g h^{-1} mg^{-1}$ and 1.7% at -0.25 V). Besides, the time-dependent curves of various catalysts at -0.25 V (Fig. 5b) exhibited excellent stability, indicating the stable vacancy structure in both the V_o -rich ZnCo@HNCP and V_o -rich Co@HNCP catalysts during the NRR process.

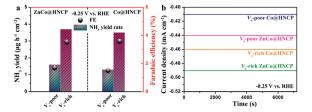


Fig. 5 (a) Average NH₃ yields and faradaic efficiency of other spinelstructured nanosheet wrapped HNCP (ZnCo@HNCP and Co@HNCP) with and without oxygen vacancies after chronoamperometry testing at -0.25 V versus RHE. (b) Time-dependent current density curves of various catalysts for the NRR at −0.25 V versus RHE.

Conclusions and outlook

In summary, we uncovered the positive role of oxygen vacancies in spinel-structured nanosheets on hollow N-carbon polyhedra (e.g. V_o-rich NiCo₂O₄@HNCP, V_o-rich ZnCo₂O₄@HNCP, and V_orich Co₃O₄@HNCP) towards the electrocatalysis of the nitrogen reduction reaction. For example, the Vo-rich NiCo2O4@HNCP catalyst showed higher production yield (NH₃: 4.1 µg h⁻¹ cm⁻²/ 17.8 μ g h⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and faradaic efficiency: 5.3%), good selectivity and high stability when compared with its V_0 -poor counterpart (NH₃: 1.6 μ g h⁻¹ cm⁻²/6.9 μ g h⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and faradaic efficiency: 1.8%). As revealed by DFT calculations, the oxygen vacancies enhance the reactivity of the active sites, leading to reduced stabilization energy of NNH groups. Meanwhile, the HNCP template increased the number of active sites for facilitating the reaction on the surface of Vo-rich NiCo2O4 nanosheets and improved the conductivity for interfacial electron transfer between V₀-rich NiCo₂O₄ and HNCP. Systematic study from both theoretical and experimental aspects further confirmed the superior kinetics for NH₃ production using V₀-rich NiCo₂-O₄@HNCP. Therefore, this work provides a guideline for the rational design of novel and highly efficient catalysts towards N2 electrochemical reduction by increasing the surface area and introducing surface oxygen vacancies in spinel-structured nanosheets simultaneously.

Experimental section

Details of the synthetic procedures, characterization and theoretical calculation methods can be found in the ESI†.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

We are very grateful for the financial support from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (51433001, 21674019, and 21604010), the Science and Technology Commission of Shanghai Municipality (16520722100), the Program of Shanghai Academic Research Leader (17XD1400100), the "Chenguang Program" supported by the Shanghai Education Development

Foundation and Shanghai Municipal Education Commission (16CG39) and the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC, EP/L015862/1). The computational center of the USTC is acknowledged for computational support.

References

- 1 T. Spatzal, K. A. Perez, O. Einsle, J. B. Howard and D. C. Rees, *Science*, 2014, 345, 1620–1623.
- 2 R. Lan, J. Irvine and S. W. Tao, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, 2012, 37, 1482–1492.
- 3 K. A. Brown, D. F. Harris, M. B. Wilker, A. Rasmussen, N. Khadka, H. Hamby, S. Keable, G. Dukovic, J. W. Peters, L. C. Seefeldt and P. W. King, *Science*, 2016, **352**, 448–450.
- 4 B. M. Hoffman, D. Lukoyanov, Z. Y. Yang, D. R. Dean and L. C. Seefeldt, *Chem. Rev.*, 2014, **114**, 4041–4062.
- 5 V. Rosca, M. Duca, M. T. de Groot and M. Koper, *Chem. Rev.*, 2009, **109**, 2209–2244.
- 6 M. Kitano, Y. Inoue, Y. Yamazaki, F. Hayashi, S. Kanbara, S. Matsuishi, T. Yokoyama, S. W. Kim, M. Hara and H. Hosono, *Nat. Chem.*, 2012, 4, 934–940.
- 7 S. Kuriyama, K. Arashiba, K. Nakajima, Y. Matsuo, H. Tanaka, K. Ishii, K. Yoshizawa and Y. Nishibayashi, *Nat. Commun.*, 2016, 7, 12181.
- 8 M. Ali, F. L. Zhou, K. Chen, C. Kotzur, C. L. Xiao, L. Bourgeois, X. Y. Zhang and D. R. MacFarlane, *Nat. Commun.*, 2016, 7, 11335.
- 9 Y. H. Lu, Y. Yang, T. F. Zhang, Z. Ge, H. C. Chang, P. S. Xiao, Y. Y. Xie, L. Hua, Q. Y. Li, H. Y. Li, B. Ma, N. J. Guan, Y. F. Ma and Y. S. Chen, ACS Nano, 2016, 10, 10507–10515.
- 10 C. X. Guo, J. R. Ran, A. Vasileff and S. Z. Qiao, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2018, 11, 45–56.
- 11 G. F. Chen, X. R. Cao, S. Q. Wu, X. Y. Zeng, L. X. Ding, M. Zhu and H. H. Wang, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2017, **139**, 9771–9774.
- 12 Y. Nishibayashi, Inorg. Chem., 2015, 54, 9234-9247.
- 13 S. J. Li, D. Bao, M. M. Shi, B. R. Wulan, J. M. Yan and Q. Jiang, Adv. Mater., 2017, 29, 170000133.
- 14 M. M. Shi, D. Bao, B. R. Wulan, Y. H. Li, Y. F. Zhang, J. M. Yan and Q. Jiang, Adv. Mater., 2017, 29, 160655017.
- 15 V. Kordali, G. Kyriacou and C. Lambrou, *Chem. Commun.*, 2000, 1673–1674.
- 16 H. M. Liu, S. H. Han, Y. Zhao, Y. Y. Zhu, X. L. Tian, J. H. Zeng, J. X. Jiang, B. Y. Xia and Y. Chen, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2018, 6, 3211–3217.
- 17 K. Arashiba, E. Kinoshita, S. Kuriyama, A. Eizawa, K. Nakajima, H. Tanaka, K. Yoshizawa and Y. Nishibayashi, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2015, **137**, 5666–5669.
- 18 S. Kuriyama, K. Arashiba, H. Tanaka, Y. Matsuo, K. Nakajima, K. Yoshizawa and Y. Nishibayashi, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2016, 55, 14291–14295; *Angew. Chem.*, 2016, 128, 14503–14507.
- 19 F. Koleli and D. B. Kayan, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2010, **638**, 119–122.
- 20 F. Koleli and T. Ropke, Appl. Catal., B, 2006, 62, 306-310.
- 21 R. Lan, J. Irvine and S. W. Tao, Sci. Rep., 2013, 3, 1145.
- 22 F. L. Lai, D. Y. Yong, X. L. Ning, B. C. Pan, Y. E. Miao and T. X. Liu, *Small*, 2017, **13**, 16028667.

- 23 F. X. Ma, L. Yu, C. Y. Xu and X. W. Lou, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2016, 9, 862–866.
- 24 S. C. Chen, Z. X. Kang, X. Hu, X. D. Zhang, H. Wang, J. F. Xie, X. S. Zheng, W. S. Yan, B. C. Pan and Y. Xie, *Adv. Mater.*, 2017, 29, 170168730.
- 25 J. Q. Xu, X. D. Li, W. Liu, Y. F. Sun, Z. Y. Ju, T. Yao, C. M. Wang, H. X. Ju, J. F. Zhu, S. Q. Wei and Y. Xie, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed., 2017, 56, 9121–9125; Angew. Chem., 2017, 129, 9249–9253.
- 26 B. Y. Guan, S. L. Zhang and X. W. Lou, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2018, 57, 6176–6180; *Angew. Chem.*, 2018, **130**, 6284–6288.
- 27 L. Yu, J. F. Yang, B. Y. Guan, Y. Lu and X. W. Lou, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2018, 57, 172–176; *Angew. Chem.*, 2018, **130**, 178–182.
- 28 Y. Tong, Y. Q. Guo, K. J. Mu, H. Shan, J. Dai, Y. Liu, Z. Sun, A. D. Zhao, X. C. Zeng, C. Z. Wu and Y. Xie, Adv. Mater., 2017, 29, 1703123.
- 29 J. F. Xie and Y. Xie, ChemCatChem, 2015, 7, 2568-2580.
- 30 Y. Shi, Y. Zhou, D. R. Yang, W. X. Xu, C. Wang, F. B. Wang, J. J. Xu, X. H. Xia and H. Y. Chen, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2017, 139, 15479–15485.
- 31 A. R. Singh, B. A. Rohr, J. A. Schwalbe, M. Cargnello, K. Chan, T. F. Jaramillo, I. Chorkendorff and J. K. Norskov, *ACS Catal.*, 2017, 7, 706–709.
- 32 C. van der Ham, M. Koper and D. Hetterscheid, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2014, 43, 5183–5191.
- 33 H. K. Lee, C. Koh, Y. H. Lee, C. Liu, I. Y. Phang, X. M. Han, C. K. Tsung and X. Y. Ling, Sci. Adv., 2018, 4, eaar32083.
- 34 S. J. Peng, F. Gong, L. L. Li, D. S. Yu, D. X. Ji, T. R. Zhang, Z. Hu, Z. Q. Zhang, S. L. Chou, Y. H. Du and S. Ramakrishna, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2018, 140, 13646–13653.
- 35 J. Bao, X. D. Zhang, B. Fan, J. J. Zhang, M. Zhou, W. L. Yang, X. Hu, H. Wang, B. C. Pan and Y. Xie, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, 2015, 54, 7399–7404; *Angew. Chem.*, 2015, 127, 7507–7512.
- 36 H. Yuan, J. T. Li, W. Yang, Z. C. Zhuang, Y. Zhao, L. He, L. Xu, X. B. Liao, R. Q. Zhu and L. Q. Mai, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces, 2018, 10, 16410-16417.
- 37 Y. X. Zeng, Z. Z. Lai, Y. Han, H. Z. Zhang, S. L. Xie and X. H. Lu, *Adv. Mater.*, 2018, **30**, 1802396.
- 38 Y. C. Wang, T. Zhou, K. Jiang, P. M. Da, Z. Peng, J. Tang, B. A. Kong, W. B. Cai, Z. Q. Yang and G. F. Zheng, Adv. Energy Mater., 2014, 4, 140069616.
- 39 W. J. Xu, F. L. Lyu, Y. C. Bai, A. Q. Gao, J. Feng, Z. X. Cai and Y. D. Yin, *Nano Energy*, 2018, **43**, 110–116.
- 40 S. Zhang, P. Kang and T. J. Meyer, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2014, **136**, 1734–1737.
- 41 L. Xu, Q. Q. Jiang, Z. H. Xiao, X. Y. Li, J. Huo, S. Y. Huang and L. M. Dai, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed., 2016, 55, 5277–5281; Angew. Chem., 2016, 128, 5363–5367.
- 42 J. J. Wu, R. M. Yadav, M. J. Liu, P. P. Sharma, C. S. Tiwary, L. L. Ma, X. L. Zou, X. D. Zhou, B. I. Yakobson, J. Lou and P. M. Ajayan, ACS Nano, 2015, 9, 5364–5371.
- 43 Y. L. Ge, K. Kan, Y. Yang, L. Zhou, L. Q. Jing, P. K. Shen, L. Li and K. Y. Shi, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2014, 2, 4961–4969.
- 44 V. M. Jimenez, A. Fernandez, J. P. Espinos and A. R. Gonzalezelipe, *J. Electron Spectrosc. Relat. Phenom.*, 1995, **71**, 61–71.

- 45 M. Ma, K. Zhang, P. Li, M. S. Jun, M. J. Jeong and J. H. Park, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed., 2016, 55, 11819-11823; Angew. Chem., 2016, 128, 11998-12002.
- 46 N. Kornienko, J. Resasco, N. Becknell, C. M. Jian, Y. S. Liu, K. Q. Nie, X. H. Sun, J. H. Guo, S. R. Leone and P. D. Yang, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2015, 137, 7448-7455.
- 47 P. Z. Chen, T. P. Zhou, M. L. Chen, Y. Tong, N. Zhang, X. Peng, W. S. Chu, X. J. Wu, C. Z. Wu and Y. Xie, ACS Catal., 2017, 7, 7405-7411.
- 48 X. R. Li, J. L. Wei, Q. Li, S. S. Zheng, Y. X. Xu, P. Du, C. Y. Chen, J. Y. Zhao, H. G. Xue, Q. Xu and H. Pang, Adv. Funct. Mater., 2018, 28, 1800886.
- 49 L. Hua, Z. Y. Hui, Y. Sun, X. Zhao, H. Xu, Y. J. Gong, R. Y. Chen, C. Y. Yu, J. Y. Zhou, G. Z. Sun and W. Huang, Nanoscale, 2018, 10, 21006-21012.
- 50 H. Cheng, L. X. Ding, G. F. Chen, L. L. Zhang, J. Xue and H. H. Wang, Adv. Mater., 2018, 30, 1803694.