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Advancements in computational approaches for rapid metal site discovery in carbon-based materials for electrocatalysis

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Heterogeneous electrocatalysts exhibit immense potential for advancing energy technologies. However, the constraints associated with noble metals have sparked a surge of interest in the exploration of single-atom catalysts and metal–carbon hybrids as alternative options. Designing metal sites in carbon-based materials has demonstrated high activity, selectivity, stability, and cost-effectiveness in various electrochemical reactions. In spite of these advantages, the intricate nature of the designed structures and the expansive design space encompassing potential metal site structures pose formidable challenges in terms of experimental characterization and optimization. To address these challenges, computational approaches have emerged as powerful tools to accelerate the discovery of new metal sites in carbon-based materials and understand the structure–catalytic property relationships for electrocatalysis. In this review paper, we provide an overview of the state-of-the-art computational approaches from reported modeled structures, theoretical foundations of computational methods in modeling electrochemical reactions, to the data-driven approaches to accelerate new catalyst design. We summarize the utilization of structure-binding energy relationships, virtual high-throughput screening methods, and machine learning techniques to explore a wide range of metal site structures and identify promising candidates for experimental validation. Furthermore, the review highlights the importance of considering the solvent effect and the impact of spin/oxidation states on extra electron transfer to enhance the accuracy of predicting binding energies. Finally, we summarize the current challenges and offer a brief perspective on future opportunities in the field of computational acceleration for carbon-based catalyst development.

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1 Introduction

Electrochemical reactions are critical for sustainable energy and environment, as they form the basis of numerous essential technologies like batteries, fuel cells, and electrocatalysis.¹ Heterogeneous electrocatalysts facilitate electrochemical reactions; thus, developing effective heterogeneous electrocatalysts is crucial for advancing these technologies and promoting sustainable energy and environmental practices. The bulk metals exhibit striking electrocatalytic properties for small molecule activation, for example, Pt for oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER),^{2,3} Cu for CO₂ RR,^{4,5} and Ru, Pd, and Ag for NRR.^{6–9} However, most of them are either noble metals or exhibit poor stability, selectivity, and activity. These limitations emphasize the necessity of developing new electrocatalysts to overcome these challenges.

Carbon materials, such as graphene and carbon nanotubes (CNT), hold great promise for electrocatalysis due to their high surface area, excellent electric conductivity, and remarkable thermal stability. Moreover, carbon is abundant and environmentally friendly, and has a multitude of allotropes that offer a diverse range of tunable properties through structural variations. The shortcoming of chemical inertness can be addressed by introducing defects and dopants which can act as active sites while the carbon materials behave as the substrate or host materials. For example, single atom catalysts (SACs) as one of the emerging heterogeneous catalysts consist of isolated metal atoms dispersed on a support material (*e.g.*, graphitic carbon, metals or metal oxides).¹⁰ Numerous studies have demonstrated that carbon-based SACs and other metal–carbon hybrid structures (metal clusters on graphene or CNTs) are promising as the next-generation electrocatalysts for various electrochemical reactions, for example, water splitting, CO₂ RR, ORR, and NRR, with the potential to replace precious metal catalysts.^{11–13} Therefore, the development of metal-doped carbon-based electrocatalysts has gained significant attention in recent decades

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In this review, our main focus is the application of modeling and computation to expedite the design of carbon-based materials with carefully engineered metal sites. We first overview the well-studied modeled systems and summarize the quantum simulation-based approaches to understand the properties related to the electrochemical reactions (Section 2). Although these approaches can offer detailed insights into the structure–property relationships, enabling the design of efficient catalytic sites, the main challenge lies in the extensive design space and the inherent limitations in accuracy associated with these methods. To tackle these challenges, data-driven approaches such as high-throughput screening and machine learning models are employed. In the next two sections, we review the utilization of data-driven approaches to accelerate the exploration of the extensive design space (Section 3) and the ongoing endeavors to improve the accuracy of the computational models (Section 4). At last, we envision future opportunities from the computational perspective, poised to expedite the development of metal sites in carbon-based materials (Section 5).

2.1 Overview of well-explored structures

In addition to M-N₄, the general M-N_x moieties in the graphene lattice have also been explored. The number of coordinated nitrogen atoms varying from 1 to 6 can be modeled

Investigations have also been conducted on alternative coordinated atoms, apart from nitrogen. The most common alternatives are oxygen,⁷⁶ sulfur,^{77–80} boron,⁸¹ and phosphorus^{82,83} with conclusions that some of the dopants coordinated with metal can show better catalytic activity than nitrogen^{76,79,83} but the stability may decrease.⁷⁷ Dual metals⁸⁴ and metal trimers⁸⁵ are also investigated on graphene and graphdiyne. However, the metal clusters beyond that are barely explored due to the ambiguous metal cluster structures. Experimentally, the dual metal catalysts have been synthesized with Cu₂, CuNi,⁸⁶ FeNi,^{87–89} and FeCo⁹⁰ and the improved performance for CO₂RR and ORR is explained by synergistic electronic modulation effects.^{89–91}

Computational approaches based on DFT simulations provide an atomistic understanding of catalytic reactivity and stability. In the next two subsections, we will provide a brief overview of the approaches and their application in understanding these properties.

2.2.1 DFT-based electrochemical modeling. In electrochemical reactions, a series of intermediate steps occur, and each step involves the transfer of electrons and protons. In heterogeneous catalysts, the electrochemical process happens at the electrode/electrolyte interface, where the electrode/electrolyte serves as the conductor for electron/proton respectively. Under equilibrium, an electrochemical system is a grand canonical ensemble as it can exchange electrons with the electrode, while the standard DFT is performed in the canonical ensemble where the charge of the system is fixed. Hence, it is challenging to accurately describe the practical reactivity dependence on the electrode potential with DFT. Here, we focus on reviewing two most commonly used computational methods for modeling electrochemical reactions: the computational hydrogen

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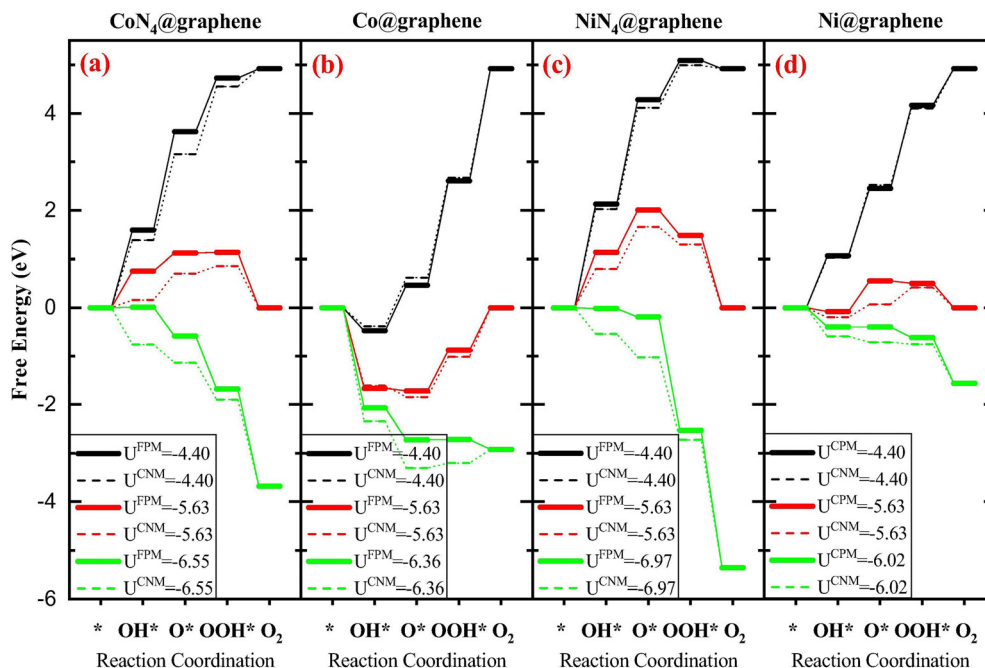


Fig. 1 The free energy diagrams associated with the OER on four different systems: (a) CoN₄@graphene, (b) Co@graphene, (c) NiN₄@graphene, and (d) Ni@graphene. FPM is GCDFT and CNM is CHE. Reprinted with permission from ref. 101. Copyright 2020 Elsevier.

details regarding thermodynamic stability and electrochemical stability.

Thermodynamic stability. To quantify the thermodynamic stability, the binding energy (E_b), formation energy (E_f), and diffusion barriers are usually calculated as criteria. The first criterion, E_b , is defined as

$$E_b = E_{M@sub} - (E_{sub} + E_M), \quad (2)$$

where $E_{M@sub}$ and E_{sub} are the total energies of the substrate with and without the metal atom, and E_M is the energy of the isolated metal atom. According to this definition, a negative E_b indicates that the structure is thermodynamically favorable (the more negative the E_b , the more stable the structure).

The second criterion, E_f , employs a different reference energy of atoms to estimate the thermodynamics stability of the structure. For example, in the case of one metal anchored in the divacancy of N-doped graphene, the metal atom is coordinated with four atoms (*i.e.*, $M@N_xC_{4-x}$), where the metal atom is bonded with x nitrogen atoms ($x \leq 4$) and $4 - x$ carbon atoms. The value of E_f can be calculated using the following equation:

$$E_f = E_{M@N_xC_{4-x}} + (x + 2)E_C - (E_{psub} + xE_N + E_{M^0}). \quad (3)$$

Here, $E_{M@N_xC_{4-x}}$ and E_{psub} are the total energies of the system and the pristine substrate, and E_C , E_N , and E_{M^0} are the energies of one carbon atom, one nitrogen atom, and one metal atom. The energy of atoms can be obtained from the most stable phase of each atom (*e.g.*, E_C as the carbon atom in graphene, E_N as the nitrogen atom in N₂, and E_{M^0} as the metal atom in the bulk phase). The formation energy, depending on the reference

states of the atoms, represents the energy required to form the designed structures from the stable phases of those atoms.

It is also important to consider the stability of the metal atoms against aggregation. This could be examined by comparing the E_b of the metal in the carbon substrate and the metal bulk cohesive energy (E_{coh}) which is defined as $E_{coh} = E_{M^0} - E_M$. Therefore, satisfying both conditions of $E_b < 0$ and $E_b > E_{coh}$ indicates the metal atom's propensity to aggregate. The mobility of the metal atoms in the carbon substrate has been employed as a means to assess their stability from a kinetic perspective. The diffusion barrier of the metal atom migrating in the substrate can be obtained by searching the transition states in the migration path. The lower the diffusion barrier, the easier the metal can migrate, potentially leading to favorable aggregation.

The mentioned criteria were employed in various studies. Some studies have only considered E_f for the stability.^{55,110} Others have employed a combination of those criteria.^{34,85,108} For example, the stability of Fe-N-C and Mn-N-C can be assessed based on E_f , E_b , diffusion barriers, and E_{coh} .^{38,111}

Electrochemical stability. The limitations of thermal and thermodynamic stability lies in their failure to consider the impact of electrode potential, pH, or electrolyte in actual catalytic reactions. In contrast, the evaluation of electrochemical stability specifically takes these factors into account. In the following, we will briefly discuss some attempts to address the electrochemical stability.

One way to evaluate the electrochemical stability is to consider whether the embedded metal atom will dissolve in



solution. This can be examined by the dissolution potential U_{diss} (relative to the SHE),¹¹² which is calculated as

$$U_{\text{diss}} = U_{\text{diss}}^0(\text{metal, bulk}) - (E_{\text{f}}/nq). \quad (4)$$

Here $U_{\text{diss}}^0(\text{metal, bulk})$ is the standard dissolution potential (pH = 0) of the bulk metal, experimentally determined for pure metals in an aqueous solution; n is the number of electrons transferred during dissolution, which depends on the specific chemical reaction that takes place; and q is the electron charge. According to this definition, a more positive U_{diss} relative to the equilibrium potential indicates that the metal atom binds the substrate strongly, and the dissolution of metal atoms can be avoided under electrochemical conditions. The approach was initially proposed for surface alloys and then applied to SACs in N-doped carbon materials for catalytic reactions such as HER and OER,¹¹³ CO₂RR¹¹⁴ and ORR.^{110,115}

Another way to examine the electrochemical stability under operando conditions is through the Pourbaix diagram. The Pourbaix diagram depicts the thermodynamics stability regions of different chemical species in an aqueous solution as a function of electrode potential and pH.¹¹⁶ Examples of constructing Pourbaix plots for SACs can be found in the literature.^{117–120} For example, Holby *et al.*¹²⁰ proposed an approach based on DFT-calculated properties to explore the electrochemical stability of Fe–N₄ in bilayer graphene. The presented methodology can take reaction environment variables into account, such as pH, electrode potential, and reaction intermediates. Experimental observations regarding relative stability in acid vs alkaline environments, dissolution of Fe at low potential, and the possible role of O₂ can be well interpreted within the presented framework. There are also some other proposed approaches to incorporate environmental conditions to make results comparable with experiments. For example, experimentally reported reversible transformation between Cu single atoms and clusters under the realistic reaction conditions^{105,107} can be explained by the constant potential hybrid-solvation dynamic model.¹²¹

The computational frameworks offer a unique approach to comprehending the structure–property relationship at an atomistic scale. By combining DFT-based simulations with fundamental physical principles, these frameworks can provide valuable design principles to guide experimental synthesis. The current focus in designing metal sites with carbon materials primarily revolves around manipulating the coordination environment surrounding single or dual metal sites within graphitic carbon structures. Through a combination of experimental synthesis and characterization, the incorporation of metal atoms into carbon-based materials exhibits tremendous potential for electrocatalysis. Given the diverse methods available to engineer the molecular interactions between metals and carbon during materials design, as well as the intricacies of electrochemical processes, the development of data-driven and accuracy-driven models has emerged as a solution to address challenges and expedite catalyst design. In the subsequent sections, we will delve into the exploration of these two aspects

separately, specifically in relation to the design of atomic metal sites in carbon-based materials.

We aim to provide an overview of recent successful applications of data-driven models in the field of designing metal atomic sites in carbon catalysts, encompassing high throughput screening, machine learning, and identification of key descriptors. In order to enhance the accuracy of computational modeling, we also review approaches for incorporating solvation effects, as well as electron and proton transfer mechanisms, spin states, and oxidation states into the models.

3 Structure–binding energy relationship

Catalysts are composed of various elements and combinations, which result in a high-dimensional composition space to be explored for specific catalytic reactions. In addition, catalytic reactions often involve multiple intermediates and reaction pathways which make the mechanism complex. Besides, catalyst properties depend on different factors such as surface morphology and electronic properties. Therefore, performing *ab initio* calculations for all possibilities becomes very challenging because of the high computational cost. The data-driven approaches to address these challenges will be discussed in this section.

3.1 Linear scaling relationship and BEP relationship

The scaling relationship is a fundamental principle in catalyst design. It simplifies complex catalytic reactions which involve multiple reaction steps by finding relationships between those steps. There are two well-accepted scaling relationships for catalyst design: the linear scaling relationship and the Bell–Evans–Polanyi (BEP) relationship. The linear scaling relationship refers to the relationship between the adsorption energies of intermediates that bind to the catalyst surface through the same atom. For example, in CO₂ RR, the possible intermediates are *COOH, *CO, *CHO, *COH, *CH₂O, *OH, and *OCH (* denotes the adsorption site). DFT studies revealed a linear relationship between $E_{\text{ads}}[\text{CH}_2\text{O}]$, $E_{\text{ads}}[\text{CHO}]$, and $E_{\text{ads}}[\text{COOH}]$ against $E_{\text{ads}}[\text{CO}]$ on transition-metal surfaces.¹²² Based on the scaling relationship, the complete free energy profile can be depicted by considering the adsorption energy of one (or a few) intermediate(s) on the same adsorption site. From these adsorption energies, the activity and selectivity can be inferred.^{123–125} The linear scaling relationship can be explained through the bond order conservation theory.^{126–128}

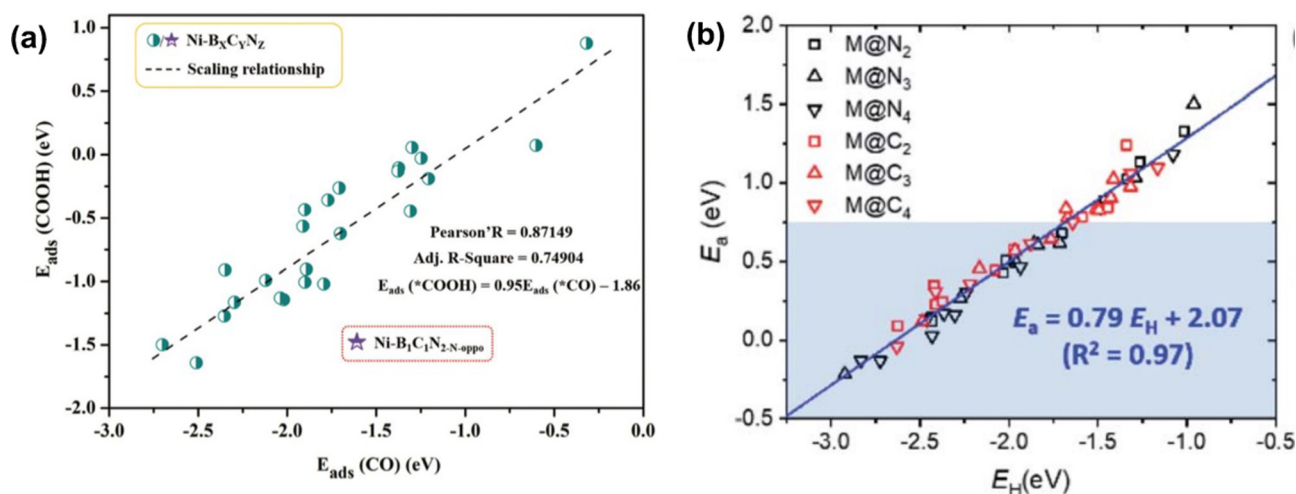
The BEP relationship establishes a connection between the activation energy (energy of the transition state) and reaction enthalpy (the enthalpy change in an elementary reaction). It states that these two quantities are proportional to each other. This idea was first demonstrated by Evans and Polanyi in 1937, who showed that an increase of reaction enthalpy causes a decrease in activation energy in classic molecular reactions.¹³¹ After that, Michaelides *et al.* found that the linear relationship between activation energy change and enthalpy change was



Both scaling relationships have been examined in carbon-based SACs for various reactions. For example, in SACs on N-doped graphene and C_2N , the scaling relationship was established between the intermediates of ORR where ΔE_{ads} between $^*\text{OH}$ and $^*\text{O}$ exhibited a slope close to 2, and $^*\text{OH}$ and $^*\text{OOH}$ showed slopes close to 1.^{60,136–138} For CO_2 RR, a linear relationship with a slope close to 1 was observed between the adsorption energy of $^*\text{CO}$ and $^*\text{COOH}$ or $^*\text{CHO}$ on a single metal site with C-, N-, or B-doped graphene and C_2N (Fig. 2(a)).^{59,83,129} For NRR, a scaling relationship was established between the adsorption energy of N_2H^* and NH_2 with a slope close to 0.8^{139–141} on metal (M) in single porphyrin sites and N-doped graphene ($M = \text{Cr}, \text{Mn}, \text{Fe}, \text{Co}$). The BEP relationship was also examined for SACs in carbon-based materials. For example, to examine the activation energy for the transition state in ORR reaction, Wang *et al.* investigated the BEP relationship on zigzag, armchair, and basal plane of graphene and graphene oxide. A clear linear relationship was observed between the energy of the transition state and the chemisorption energy of the O atom with different functional groups.¹⁴² Similar results were also observed in carbon-based SAC systems. Choi *et al.* studied 13 transition metals coordinated with N and C in graphene (denoted as $M@N_xC_y$) for C–H bond activation. The

With the scaling relationships demonstrated for metal-carbon materials, the parameters that tune the adsorption energies of the key species can be used to screen new catalysts or catalytic sites that provide the best reactivity. However, it should be noted that the scaling relationships only apply to adsorbates that are adsorbed on the same site through the same type of atom that forms the chemical bonds with the site. Therefore, the application of linear relationships for catalyst design should be complemented by a thorough identification of active sites.¹⁴³ Compared to transition metal catalysts, the active sites in metal-carbon materials exhibit greater diversity. The scaling relationship, as a consequence, can be modified if different adsorption sites are introduced.^{91,144,145} For example, both metal and non-metal as adsorption sites were observed in $M@N_4C_4$ moieties ($M = Fe, Co, Ni$) for ORR. $*O$ and $*OH$ were found to preferentially adsorb on the carbon site, while $*OOH$ favored the metal site, circumventing the scaling relationship between their adsorption energies.¹⁴ Similar strategies have also been used for NRR and CO_2 RR on the C_3N monolayer and PC_6 .^{139,144,146}

One of the applications of the scaling relationships is virtual high-throughput screening (VHTS). The VHTS can rapidly screen and evaluate a large number of materials and active sites, and thus the process of catalyst discovery and optimization can be accelerated. In metal-carbon materials, both metal and carbon substrates can be tuned through various strategies. For instance, optimizing the activity can be achieved by using



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different metals,^{100,136} different host materials,¹⁴⁷ and different coordination environments.^{55,56,65,66,68}

Such flexibility in metal–carbon electrocatalysts was probed by Guo *et al.* They screened a total of 210 carbon-based SACs for ORR¹¹⁰ by exploring 30 different transition metals in combination with various coordination and substrate materials, including defective graphene, N-doped graphene, and phthalocyanine (Pc). Among them, 31 SACs have the potential to break the scaling relationship, and high activity and selectivity can be achieved towards hydroperoxide by screening the adsorption energy of O* (Fig. 3(a) and (b)). In their study, 7 SACs showed higher activity and selectivity than the benchmark PtHg₄ in acidic media. Zn@Pc–N₄ was recognized as the best catalyst with a small overpotential of 0.15 V, which was supported by experiments.¹⁴⁸ In NRR, multi-step screening strategies have been used to search for the optimized catalysts.^{139,149,150} Ling *et al.* screened 540 SACs in nitrogen-doped graphene by varying metal coordinated atoms and single metal species. They found that W₁C₃ site exhibited the most outstanding performance with an extremely low onset potential of 0.25 V.¹⁵⁰ In contrast, fewer VHTS have been applied for CO₂RR.^{100,144} Guo *et al.* explored 72 candidates of 12 metals with 6 different coordination environments. By screening the ΔE_{ads} of *CO, *COOH and competing adsorption of *H, they found that Fe–N₄, Ni–N₄, Cu–N₄, Pd–N₄, and Pd–N₄ are the most selective sites for CO₂RR against HER.

In addition to the energetic screening for the adsorbents, stability has also been considered in the screening process.^{68,100,110} In a previous example,¹¹⁰ before screening the adsorption energy of O*, the structures were first screened regarding the thermodynamic and electrochemical stability. The criterion for stability was $U_{\text{diss}} > 0$ and $\Delta E_{\text{f}} < 0$ as we explained in Section 2.2.2. Based on the examination of stability, the substrates such as BN, Pc–N₄, and Py–N₄ are found to be good supports to host metal atoms. In terms of metal species, transition metals from group 8–12 are more likely to be stabilized under reaction conditions. In total, 146 SACs out of 210 were screened out (Fig. 3c), and Zn@Pc–N₄ is verified as the best candidate for both stability and high activity for 2-electron ORR. As a support, these active moieties also have been synthesized successfully including Ni–N₄–C, Fe–N₄–C, and Co–N₄–C.¹⁴

VHTS is a powerful tool that greatly reduces the effort required for conducting experiments. This approach enables the exploration of various tuning parameters simultaneously. However, performing a large number of DFT calculations is still computationally expensive. Machine learning-assisted high-throughput screening can be further leveraged to accelerate the VHTS.

3.3 Machine learning for adsorption energies

As discussed, the energetic descriptor such as ΔE_{ads} can be used as the property in VHTS to screen new catalysts; however, calculating the energetic property from DFT to explore the vast design space is time-consuming. A surrogate model based on machine learning methods provides a faster way to predict

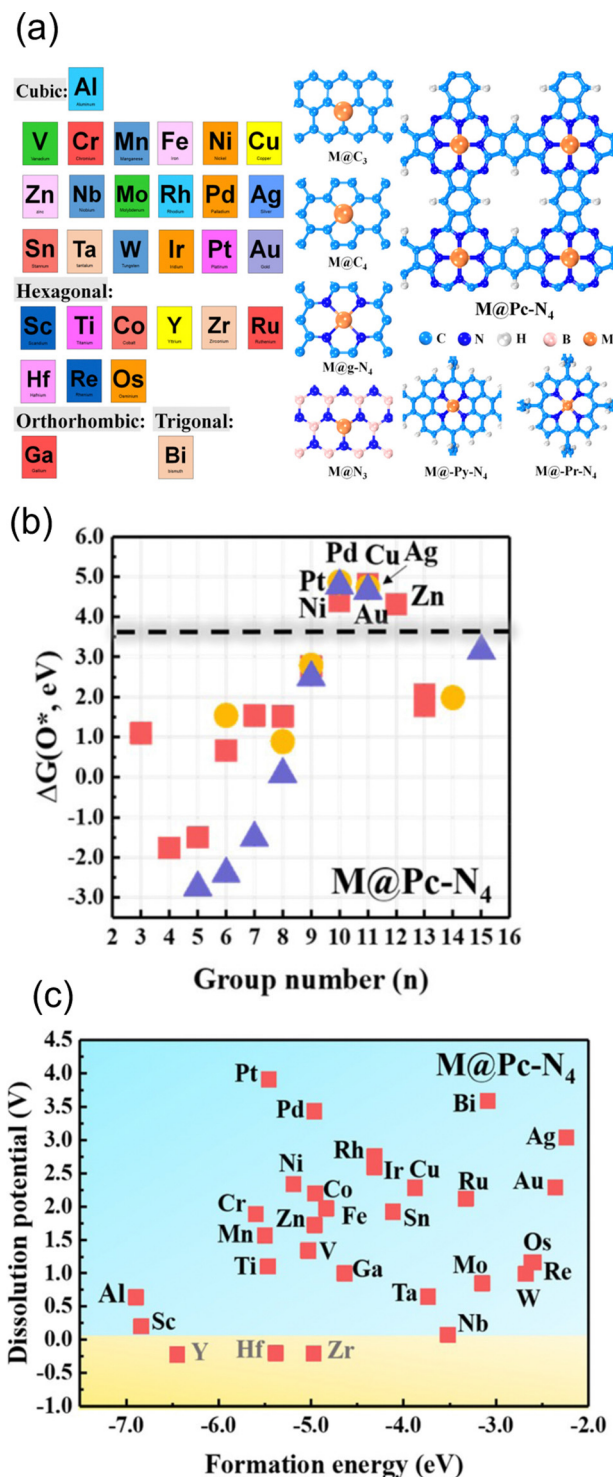


Fig. 3 (a) Schematic illustration of screened metal atoms with their most stable bulk structure and all considered substrates. (b) The O* adsorption energy screening of metal from group 3–15 on Pc–N₄ configuration. Squares, circles, and triangles represent Al, 3d transition metal, 4d transition metal, and 5d transition metal, respectively. (c) The stability screen for metal on Pc–N₄ configuration. Reprinted with permission from ref. 110. Copyright 2019 American Society of Chemistry.

ΔE_{ads} .¹⁵¹ The properties that machine learning model get trained to predict adsorption energy are known as features.

By selecting key features, machine learning models can not only predict accurate ΔE_{ads} but also provide insights into the underlying mechanisms and design principles. In SACs, several machine learning models have been explored, including deep neural network (DNN),¹⁵² random forest regression (RFR),^{60,153} support vector machine (SVM),¹⁵⁴ gradient boosted regression (GBR)^{68,155,156} and sure-independence screening and sparsifying operator (SISSO).^{157,158} The training data for these models range from ten to thousands. For example, Kaspe *et al.* combined DFT simulations and machine learning models to predict the ΔE_{ads} of *OH in carbon-based materials for ORR.¹⁵⁴ They explored 2500 sites in 0D (graphene flakes), 1D (graphene nanoribbons), and 2D (graphene) doped with S, P, SO₂ and PO₂, and applied six machine learning models with 13 electronic and structural features. The SVM achieved the best performance in testing, with an R^2 coefficient of determination of 0.87, followed by multiple linear regressor ($R^2 = 0.84$), K -nearest neighbor (KNN) ($R^2 = 0.84$), RFR ($R^2 = 0.83$), Extreme Gradient Boosting Regressor ($R^2 = 0.79$), and Decision Tree Regressor ($R^2 = 0.78$). Fischer *et al.* studied 1700 transition metals doped in defective N-doped graphene by varying the metal species, the number of dopants, and the number of vacancies for the adsorption energies of O and H adsorbate species. The best performance was given by the RFR model with MAE = 0.31 eV for testing in predicting the ΔE_{ads} of *O compared to SVM with MAE = 0.32 eV. Umer *et al.* screened 364 SACs by anchoring 3d–5d single metal atoms on various substrates. A combined DFT-machine learning framework found that mono- or dual-type

non-metal (B, N, and P) doping in g-C₃N₄, two-dimensional π -conjugated polymer, graphene and hexagonal boron nitride can substantially improve HER activity and stability. For predicting the adsorption energy for H*, Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LGBM), Histogram-based Gradient Boosting Regressor (HGBR), Extremely Randomized Trees (ERT), Gradient Boosting (GB), Bagging, XGBoost regressor (XGBR), RFR and AdaBoost regressor (ABR) are used. The top three performances are given by LGBR with RMSE = 0.20 eV, HGBR with RMSE = 0.24 eV and ERT with RMSE = 0.26 eV (Fig. 4(a)).

Besides predicting ΔE_{ads} , machine learning models have also been used to reveal the structure–property–performance relationship where there are multiple properties that could influence the catalytic performance. For instance, Zhu *et al.*¹⁵⁵ employed DFT and machine learning to study ORR on dual-metal site catalysts (DMSCs) in the carbon substrate and provide a comprehensive depiction of the relationship between intrinsic properties of these catalysts and their catalytic activity. They found that electron affinity, van der Waals radius, and electronegativity of two metal sites are important properties related to the adsorption energy of OH*. In another example, Deng *et al.* employed a DFT-machine learning study to understand the origin of the activity of bi-atom catalysts on N-doped graphene for ORR. They considered 20 electronic and geometric features in an RFR model, and the ranking of feature importance directly translated from the weight of each feature. Two dominant features, M–M (distance of two metals) and M–N (average distance between the metal and coordinated N atoms),

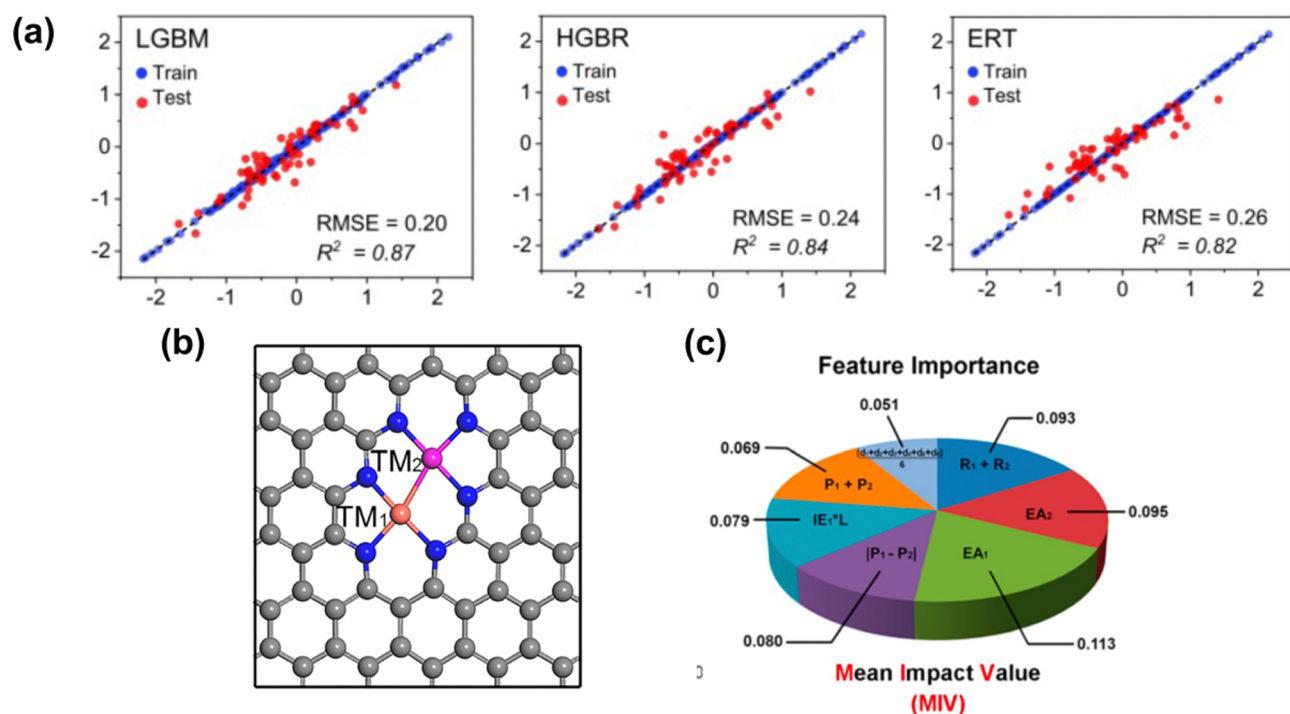


Fig. 4 (a) Machine learning model performance for predicting the adsorption energy of H* on 2D carbon materials. (b) Schematic illustration of the bi-metal site on graphene. (c) Mean impact value (MIV) employed for considering feature importance. Reprinted with permission from ref. 159. Copyright 2022 Royal Society of Chemistry.

Category	ϕ	Property	System	Reaction	Ref.
Physical-based	d-Band center	$\Delta E_{\text{ads}} \propto$ d-band			160
	$\theta_{\text{d}} \times E_{\text{TM}}$	$\Delta E_{\text{ads}}[\text{OH}^*]$	g-C ₃ N ₄	ORR	163
	$k(S_{\text{v}}^2/\chi^{\beta}) + b$	ΔE_{ads}	Various substrates	CO ₂ RR, NRR, ORR	164
	θ_{p}	$\Delta E_{\text{ads}}[\text{OH}^*]$, $\Delta E_{\text{ads}}[\text{OOH}^*]$	N-Doped CNT, B-doped CNT	ORR	165
Fitting-based	$\theta_{\text{d}} \times \frac{E_{\text{M}} + \alpha \times (n_{\text{N}} \times E_{\text{N}} + n_{\text{C}} \times E_{\text{C}})}{E_{\text{O/H}}}$	Activity, $\Delta G[\text{OH}^*]$, $\Delta G[\text{H}^*]$	N-Doped gra- phene SACs	ORR, OER, HER	166
	$\frac{V_{\text{M}} \left[X_{\text{M}} \left(\prod_{L=1}^N \frac{1}{d^L} X_L \right) \right]^{1/(N+1)}}{X_{\text{C/O}}}$	$\Delta E_{\text{ads}}[\text{*CHO}]$	M-N ₄ -C	CO ₂ RR	114
	$(4 \times V_{\text{M}_1} \times (E_{\text{M}_1} + E_{\text{N/O}})/E_{\text{N/O}} + V_{\text{M}_2} \times (E_{\text{M}_2} + E_{\text{N/O}})/E_{\text{N/O}}) \times L_{\text{M}_1-\text{N/O}}$	Catalytic activity	Bimetallic 2D MOFs	CO ₂ RR	167
Machine learning-based	$-1.032 \times (e_{\text{d}}/q) + 13.424 \times (1/r_{\text{cov}}) + 1.726 \times (e_{\text{d}} \times \text{EN}) - 0.045 \times d_{\text{occ}}^2 - 9.241$	$\Delta G[\text{H}^*]$	N-Doped gra- phene SACs	HER	157
	$0.69 + 0.00029\sqrt{\text{EA}_1} + 0.15\text{EA}_1 - 0.067\sqrt{\text{EA}_2} + 0.0076\text{EA}_2$	$\Delta G[\text{OH}^*]$	Dual-metal catalysts	ORR	155
	$-0.012(R_1 + R_2) - 1.19 P_1 - P_2 ^2$				

Electrocatalytic processes occur in aqueous solutions; hence, there are more complex interactions and other physical parameters involved in the actual reaction that have not been fully considered. Besides, in metal-carbon systems, the spin and

oxidation states are usually neglected. This section highlights the importance of accounting for both the solvent effect, which governs the interaction between the electrolyte and the electrocatalyst surface, and the spin state-induced extra electron transfer to improve the accuracy of binding energy predictions.

4.1 Solvation effects

There is direct interaction of solvent molecules with substrates, catalysts, products, intermediates, and transition states. These interactions can profoundly influence electrocatalysis; the solvent not only influences the solubility and transport of reactant molecules,¹⁶⁸ but also interacts with intermediates and catalytic sites;^{169,170} thus the reaction mechanisms can differ from the gas phase simulations and include the solvent effects, which further influences the reaction rate and selectivity.^{171–173} For example, the adsorption energy of a flat molecule on a clean Pt surface in the gas phase vs. solvent is different,¹⁶⁹ and different solvent coverage can alter the kinetics.¹⁷⁴ Those observations are also proved to be true in SACs. Wang *et al.* experimentally studied the solvent effect on N-doped graphene cobalt single-atom by altering the water/ethanol ratio.¹⁷⁵ After adding 30% water to the ethanol solvent, the activity increased from 43.2 to 76.8 h^{−1}, and the aniline selectivity increased from 62.8 to 99.1% for efficient hydrogenation of nitroarenes. Through further DFT study, the introducing of water weakened the binding between nitrobenzene and Co-N₄ which benefits the desorption of aniline from the surface. Cao *et al.* studied Mn-N₄/C SAC by using *ab initio* MD simulation and DFT calculations to investigate the influence of the solvation effect on the mechanisms of ORR by using explicit water molecules.¹⁷⁶ Fig. 5 illustrates the surface models in the gas phase and liquid phase used in this study, as well as the free-energy pathways. They found that the solvent environment promotes the charge transfer from the substrate to O₂, which leads to a dissociative pathway to rupture the O–O bond before protonation. In addition, water molecules could also increase the reactivity of the protonation step for *O and *OH by

elongating the Mn–O bond through a hydrogen bond.¹⁷⁷ As the last example,¹⁷⁸ Dub and Gordon considered metal–ligand bifunctional catalysts. They showed that when eight explicit water molecules are further added to the simulation, the first step (hydride transfer) proceeds similarly, but the relative activation barrier lowers by ~5 kcal mol^{−1}. They also found that in the second step of the reaction (proton transfer), the source of the proton is not C–H functionality, but the solvent. Their conclusions show that the inclusion of solvent effects changes both the reaction mechanism and the actual role of the ligand. Thus, to give an accurate reaction mechanisms, the roles of the solvent molecules must be considered in computational modeling.

Recent articles give an overview of various theoretical approaches that have been proposed to tackle solvation effects.^{179–181} These approaches include the solvation effects within implicit (or continuum), hybrid implicit/explicit (cluster/continuum) or explicit approaches. In the following, we briefly introduce these three main ways to include the solvent effects in quantum mechanical calculations.

Nowadays, most of the DFT in catalysis consider the solvent by continuum models. This methodology has proven to be highly successful in treating the solvent effects. The simplest approximation of the solvent effect is the implicit solvent models. In implicit solvent models, also known as the continuum models, the solvent is treated as a homogeneous medium, described by the dielectric constant ϵ . In this way, the “*ad hoc*” solvation correction is directly added to the Gibbs free energy of adsorption calculated in vacuum.^{94,182} The solvation-free energy can be calculated using various continuum solvation models, such as the polarizable continuum models (PCM)^{183,184} and the conductor-like screening models (COSMO).^{185,186} These methods are computationally efficient as they avoid sampling over solvent degree of freedom. However, it does not provide an accurate model when solvent molecules directly participate in the reaction. More examples of the success and limitations of continuum solvent models can be found in ref. 187.

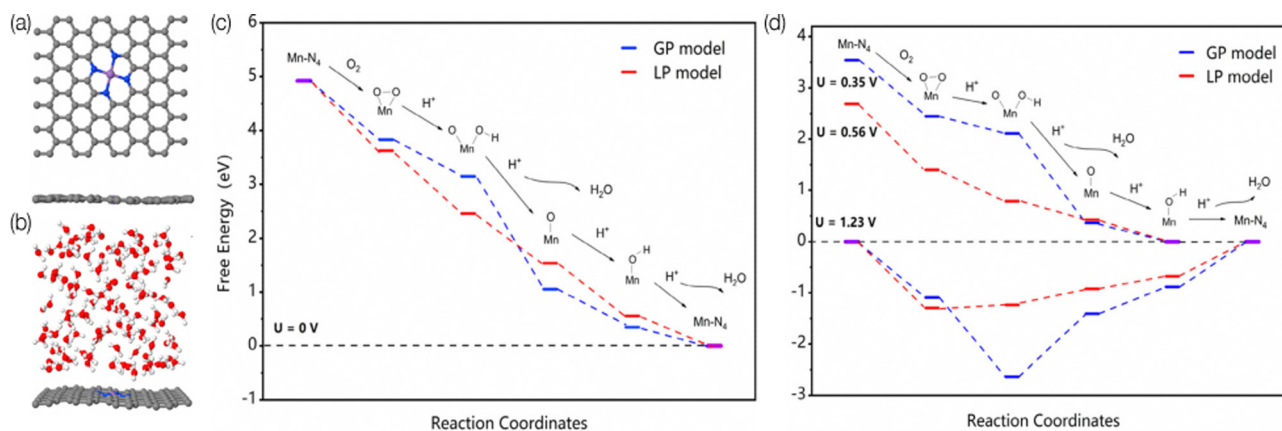


Fig. 5 The surface models of MnN₄–graphene in the (a) gas-phase (GP) and (b) liquid-phase (LP) model. The Mn, C, N, O, and H atoms are represented in purple, gray, blue, red, and white, respectively. Predicted free-energy pathways for ORR under different electrode potentials at pH = 0. (c) $U = 0$ V. (d) $U = 1.23$ V for both GP and LP models, $U = 0.35$ V for the GP model, and $U = 0.56$ V for the LP model. Reprinted with permission from ref. 176. Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society.



A realistic description of the solvent in which catalytic reactions occur is the full inclusion of explicit solvent molecules in the model as individual particles. Then, the computational models can simulate the dynamics of the system which could be done for instance by *ab initio* MD simulations and kinetic Monte Carlo simulations, which have been developed, improved, and employed by many groups.^{194–197} During the simulation, each of the individual particle interacts with the solute molecule through intermolecular forces such as van der Waals and electrostatic interactions. Thus, the calculations are computationally expensive. So far, the widely accepted way to study the solvent effect on interactive interfaces is employing *ab initio* MD simulation to treat solvent molecules explicitly while maintaining the accuracy of interatomic force.¹⁹⁸ This method allows for thermodynamic and dynamic equilibrium under certain temperatures, with empirically applied force fields. Quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics (QM/MM) has also been proved to be an accurate and affordable strategy for

Some studies consider only the role of different spin states and demonstrate how these states alter the reaction pathway of catalytic reactions.^{104,203–206} For example, spectroscopic studies of Fe–N–C systems consider two distinct moieties, namely high-spin FeN₄C₁₂ and low/intermediate-spin FeN₄C₁₀.¹⁰⁴ The results show that both sites initially contribute to the ORR activity but only the low/intermediate-spin moiety substantially contributes after 50 hours of operation. This experimental evidence motivated the examination of oxidation and spin states in computational catalysis. For example, DFT studies on the (salen)Mn(III)-catalyzed epoxidation reaction mechanism reveal that competing channels have different spin states.²⁰³ DFT results on M–N₄–C (M = Mn, Fe, and Co) systems for ORR show that Mn–N₄ and Fe–N₄ centers in graphene exhibit the lowest O₂ dissociation energies across three spin channels,

while for Co-N₄ they find two spin channels require the same dissociation energy.²⁰⁴ Additionally, a study on Fe-N-C systems for ORR indicates that the change of electronic spin moments of Fe and O₂ due to molecular-catalyst adsorption scales with the amount of electron transfer from Fe to O₂, as shown in Fig. 6, promoting the catalytic activity of C₂N-Fe for driving ORR.²⁰⁶ Based on the relationship between catalytic activity and spin moment variation, they suggested that the electronic spin moment could be a promising catalytic descriptor for Fe SACs.

Some studies consider the effect of both oxidation and spin states in the catalysts.^{207,208} For example, an experimental study on Fe-N-C for selective oxidation of C-H bonds provides evidence that among different FeN_x ($x = 4-6$), the medium-spin Fe(III)N₅ affords the highest turnover frequency (6455 h⁻¹), and is at least 1 order of magnitude more active than the high-spin and low-spin Fe(III)N₆ structures and 3 times more active than the Fe(II)N₄ structure, although its relative concentration in the catalysts is much lower than that of the Fe(III)N₆ structures.²⁰⁵ Yang *et al.*²⁰⁷ investigated dual-metal atomically dispersed Fe, Mn/N-C catalysts and found that the O₂ reduction preferentially takes place on Fe(III) in the FeN₄/C system with the intermediate spin state which possesses one e_g electron (t_{2g}⁴e_g¹) readily penetrating the antibonding π -orbital of oxygen. Both magnetic measurements and the theoretical calculation reveal that the adjacent atomically dispersed Mn-N moieties can effectively activate the FeIII sites by both spin-state transition and electronic modulation, rendering the excellent ORR performances of Fe,Mn/N-C in both alkaline and acidic media. Gong *et al.*²⁰⁸ developed a facile strategy to manipulate the cobalt spin state over COF-367-Co by changing the oxidation state of Co, resulting in the regulation of the photocatalytic performance for CO₂RR and enhanced selectivity to HCOOH. According to their DFT calculations and experimental results, Co(II) and Co(III) are embedded in COF-367 with $s = \frac{1}{2}$ and 0 spin ground states, respectively.

In electrocatalysis, the transfer of electrons and protons between the electrode, catalyst, and reactants is important. Proton transfer is often coupled with electron transfer in a process known as proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET), which can modulate the pathway that the reactants follow. Therefore, this coupled motion of electrons and protons plays a critical role in a wide range of electrochemical processes such as CO₂RR, ORR, and N₂RR in carbon and carbon-metal systems.^{134,209-214} Fig. 7 provides a representative example demonstrating how electron transfer (ET), proton transfer (PT) and PCET affect the reaction mechanism during the four-electron ORR on nitridated carbon (NC) catalysts. Generally, PCET describes the mechanism of electron and proton transfer from atom to atom, which is also important for catalyst design. As described in Section 2.2, CHE predicts the thermodynamics properties of electrochemical reactions. Thus, PCET reactions can be evaluated using CHE which uses gas phase H₂ formed from H⁺ and e⁻ as a reference reaction. This intrinsically connects the PCET step to the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE) scale. To understand PCET at interfaces, where there are spatially inhomogeneous internal electric fields and electrostatic potentials within the active site, we need modeling strategies to explore PCET thermodynamics and further develop molecular active sites. Recent works have attempted to provide atomic-scale insight into interfacial PCET reactions, which are key steps in catalyst design. For instance, Hammes-Schiffer *et al.*²¹⁵ provide a first-principles modeling strategy based on DFT calculations. They illustrated that investigating the interfacial PCET at graphite-conjugated catalysts (GCC) bearing organic acid moieties explains the absence of a cyclic voltammetry peak. This combined theoretical-experimental study not only demonstrates the critical role of continuous conjugation and strong electronic coupling between the GCC acid sites and the graphite in enabling PCET at acid sites, but also emphasizes the importance of understanding the connection between the atomic structure of the surfaces and the

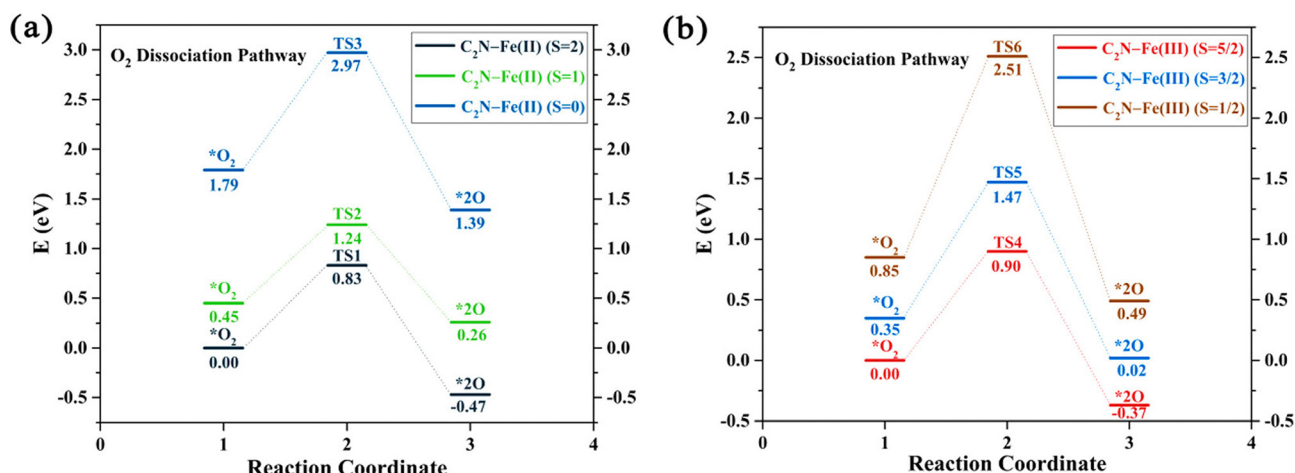


Fig. 6 The potential energy profiles for the O₂ dissociation pathway calculated for two systems: (a) C₂N-Fe(II) with spin states $S = 2, 1$, and 0 , and (b) C₂N-Fe(III) with spin states $S = 5/2, 3/2$, and $1/2$. The relative energies represented in the profiles correspond to Gibbs free energies, with the energies of the spin ground states set as a reference point at 0 eV. Reprinted with permission from ref. 206. Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society.



development and optimization of metal sites in carbon-based materials for electrocatalysis, propelling us closer to realizing efficient and scalable energy technologies.

Author contributions

Somayeh Faraji: literature curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, writing – original draft, writing – review and editing; Zhiyu Wang: literature curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, writing – original draft, writing – review and editing; Paola Lopez-Rivera: literature curation; Mingjie Liu: conceptualization, supervision, writing – review and editing.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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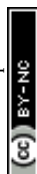
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