

# Computational Identification of Transition-Metal Dichalcogenides for Electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> Reduction to Highly Reduced Species Beyond CO and HCOOH

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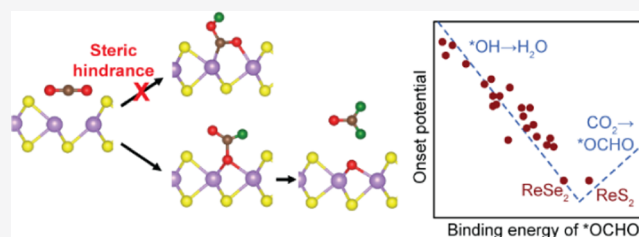


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**ABSTRACT:** Practical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (CO<sub>2</sub>R) catalysts are desirable to have high selectivity for highly reduced products at small overpotentials and minimal activity for the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). Herein, to find such catalysts, we investigate the CO<sub>2</sub>R activities of anion vacancies of two-dimensional (2D) transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) by first-principles calculations. For 38 TMDs found in experiments, we calculate free energies of intermediates along the pathways to C<sub>1</sub> products. In most TMDs, the steric hindrance of anion vacancies leads to the selective reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to HCHO. Among them, we suggest ReS<sub>2</sub> and ReSe<sub>2</sub> as promising candidates having a low onset potential for CO<sub>2</sub>R and high selectivity vs the HER. In addition, they allow further reduction of HCHO to highly reduced species. Detailed mechanism analysis shows that free energies of \*OCHO and \*H (\* denotes adsorbates) can be descriptors for efficient evaluation of CO<sub>2</sub>R activities. Given the importance of the geometrical constraints of vacancies for the CO<sub>2</sub>R mechanism, our results will help identify potential CO<sub>2</sub>R catalysts with vacancies that are electrochemically active.



## 1. INTRODUCTION

The electrochemical carbon dioxide reduction (CO<sub>2</sub>R) is receiving much attention as a promising method to convert CO<sub>2</sub> into valuable chemical fuels.<sup>1</sup> While CO<sub>2</sub>R on most of known electrochemical catalysts produces simple C<sub>1</sub> species such as CO and HCOOH, production of highly reduced products such as methanol, ethylene, and 1-propanol can yield higher economic benefits.<sup>2–4</sup> Cu is a prototype CO<sub>2</sub>R catalyst that has been extensively studied.<sup>5–8</sup> Cu can convert CO<sub>2</sub> to various products including multicarbon species like ethanol with high faradic efficiencies of ~60%. However, the applied potential for producing such highly reduced products is fairly large on Cu [about –1 V vs reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE)], impeding wide utilization of Cu. Recently, nickel phosphides were found to selectively convert CO<sub>2</sub> to C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species such as 2,3-furandiols as major CO<sub>2</sub>R products at a low overpotential of 10 mV with a high faradic efficiency of 71%.<sup>9</sup> However, its catalytic activity declined rapidly with further increasing overpotential, limiting the maximum current density to less than 0.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. Therefore, high-performance CO<sub>2</sub>R catalysts producing high-order carbon products are yet to be discovered.

Two-dimensional (2D) transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) with chemical formula MX<sub>2</sub> (M = transition metals and X = S, Se, and Te), in particular MoS<sub>2</sub>, are emerging candidates as electrochemical catalysts for diverse purposes like hydrogen evolution because of various merits such as earth abundance, high durability under acidic conditions, and low

costs.<sup>10–13</sup> In stable TMDs, pure basal planes are known to be largely inert while edges or vacancies serve as good active sites.<sup>14,15</sup> Recently, Francis et al. examined CO<sub>2</sub>R products on MoS<sub>2</sub> and demonstrated that 1-propanol is produced as a main CO<sub>2</sub>R product at reasonably small applied potentials (about –0.5 V vs RHE).<sup>16</sup> This result is very intriguing because C<sub>3</sub> species are rarely produced as a main CO<sub>2</sub>R product on the known catalysts, especially at such small potentials, except for nickel phosphides. In a previous work, we investigated the CO<sub>2</sub>R pathways of MoS<sub>2</sub> thoroughly using first-principles calculations, demonstrating that sulfur vacancies can serve as active sites for CO<sub>2</sub>R reactions yielding 1-propanol.<sup>17</sup> We also revealed that the key mechanism for producing highly reduced species on MoS<sub>2</sub> is the condensation of HCHO that is one of the elementary CO<sub>2</sub>R products.

Although the catalytic behavior of MoS<sub>2</sub> was studied theoretically and experimentally in the past, the faradic efficiency of the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) on MoS<sub>2</sub> far exceeds that of CO<sub>2</sub>R.<sup>16,17</sup> As a result, MoS<sub>2</sub> will not be practically attractive as long as the selectivity issue is not resolved. In this respect, it is worthwhile to examine other

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TMDs for the superior selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub>R against HER. Ji et al. examined CO<sub>2</sub>R pathways to CO and CH<sub>4</sub> at anion vacancies of TMDs.<sup>15</sup> However, this work did not take into account pathways including the formation of \*OCHO (\* denotes a pure active site or an adsorbate) that would be favored at vacancies of TMDs compared to the \*COOH formation (see below and ref 17.). Consequently, a question remains whether anion vacancies of other TMDs may serve as good active sites for CO<sub>2</sub>R, possibly better than sulfur vacancies of MoS<sub>2</sub>.

Here, we perform computational screening of TMDs to identify promising catalysts for efficient CO<sub>2</sub>R using density functional theory (DFT) calculations. We focus on anion vacancy (V<sub>X</sub>) as active sites for CO<sub>2</sub>R reactions, as for MoS<sub>2</sub>. Note that anion vacancies in TMDs are one of the native defects with low formation energies, and therefore, a moderate amount of V<sub>X</sub> is always expected to be introduced in TMDs during synthesis.<sup>18–26</sup> In addition, V<sub>X</sub> can be intentionally created in TMDs by plasma treatment,<sup>27</sup> electrochemical reduction,<sup>28</sup> and reaction with CO.<sup>29</sup> We study the free energies of intermediates that can be found in CO<sub>2</sub>R pathways to CO, HCOOH, and HCHO for 38 TMDs. Based on these free energies, we show that most TMDs prefer the pathway to HCHO, which enables the formation of highly reduced species because of steric hindrance as well as high oxygen affinities at vacancy sites. Among the 38 TMDs, we suggest promising candidates such as ReS<sub>2</sub>, ReSe<sub>2</sub>, WTe<sub>2</sub>, CrSe<sub>2</sub>, and VSe<sub>2</sub> as potential CO<sub>2</sub>R catalysts, and they are predicted to exhibit better catalytic performance than Cu. We also confirm that CO<sub>2</sub>R pathways to C<sub>2</sub> products in ReS<sub>2</sub> and ReSe<sub>2</sub> are significantly downhill in energy at onset potentials that open the pathways to HCHO. Moreover, based on our data, we develop simple, but general descriptors for evaluating the catalytic performance of compounds with vacancies, which will help design new CO<sub>2</sub>R catalysts enabling the evolution of highly reduced species.

## 2. METHOD

### 2.1. Computational Hydrogen Electrode (CHE)

**Model.** To calculate the free energy of intermediates of CO<sub>2</sub>R pathway, we employ the computational hydrogen electrode (CHE) model. The original CHE model applied to metal catalysts assumes concurrent addition of a proton–electron pair to the former adsorbate.<sup>30</sup> However, in defective semiconductors with localized levels around an active site, the electron transfer does not depend on the protonation step such that active sites can be charged by exchanging electrons with the electrode regardless of the adsorption of hydrogen. To take this point into account, we use the generalized CHE model in which the free energy of an intermediate \*C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>O<sub>z</sub><sup>q</sup> at potential  $U$  [ $G^U(*C_xH_yO_z^q)$ ] is given by<sup>17,31</sup>

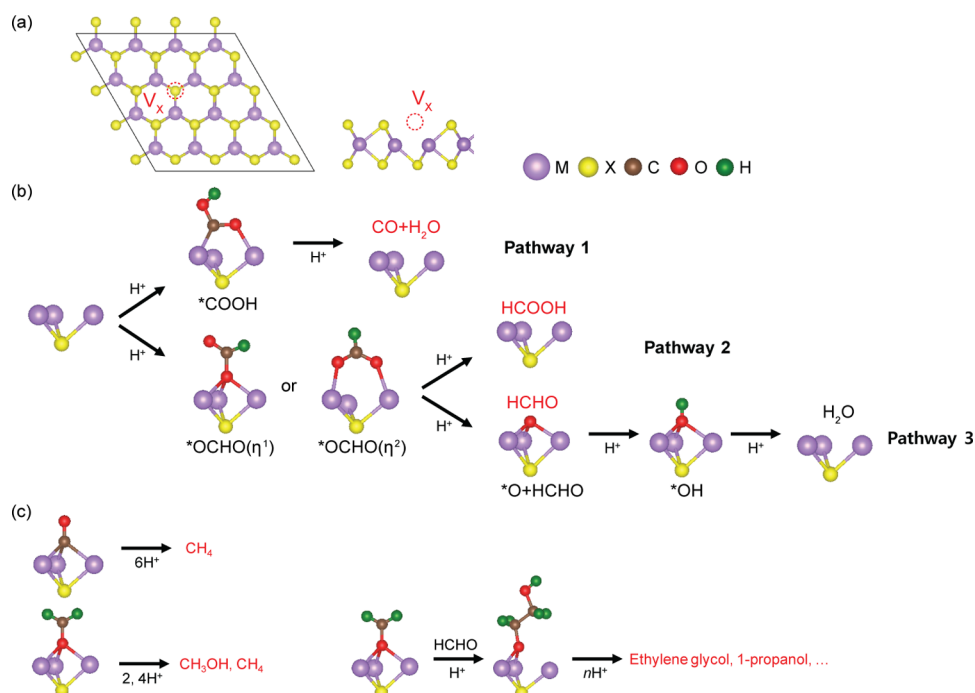
$$\begin{aligned} G^U(*C_xH_yO_z^q) = & E(*C_xH_yO_z^q) - E(*) - xG(\text{CO}_2) \\ & - (2x + 0.5y - z)G(\text{H}_2) \\ & - (z - 2x)G(\text{H}_2\text{O}) \\ & + (4x + y - 2z)eU - eqU \\ & + 0.059 \text{ pH} \times q + q\mu_{\text{SHE}}(e^-) + E_{\text{add}} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where  $E(*)$  and  $E(*C_xH_yO_z^q)$  are the DFT total energy of the bare catalyst and an adsorbate, respectively;  $\mu_{\text{SHE}}(e^-)$  is the

electron energy of the standard hydrogen electrode:  $-4.44$  eV on the absolute scale; and  $U$  is the applied potential referenced to RHE. Herein, pH is set to 7.<sup>2</sup>  $G(\text{CO}_2)$ ,  $G(\text{H}_2)$ , and  $G(\text{H}_2\text{O})$  are the free energies of CO<sub>2</sub>(g), H<sub>2</sub>(g), and H<sub>2</sub>O(g), respectively. We consider a partial pressure of 1 atm for CO<sub>2</sub>(g) and H<sub>2</sub>(g) and room temperature. For H<sub>2</sub>O(g), we assume that it is in equilibrium with H<sub>2</sub>O(l) at room temperature, which leads to a vapor pressure of  $3.49 \times 10^{-2}$  atm.  $E_{\text{add}}$  is the additional energy term to convert the DFT energy of intermediates into free energy. It includes zero-point energy (ZPE), entropy, and average of vibrational energies obtained from heat capacity.<sup>32</sup>  $q$  is the most stable charge state of an adsorbate at a given  $U$ . It has a negative(positive) value if extra electrons are added into (removed from) the active site. While  $q$  should always be 0 for every intermediate on metallic catalysts or semiconductor catalysts without midgap states, it can have a nonzero value in defective semiconductor catalysts if defect-induced levels are presented between the gap.<sup>17</sup> The derivation of eq 1 is provided in the Supporting Information. (We provide free energies of all of the adsorbates in the neutral state, namely,  $q = 0$ , in Table S1 and charging energies in Table S2.) The importance of explicit consideration of the charging effect in the CHE model was recently highlighted by Zhao et al., who theoretically investigated CO<sub>2</sub>R on Ni-doped graphene.<sup>33</sup>

We calculate the  $E_{\text{add}}$ 's in MoS<sub>2</sub> (Table S3) and consider them for the corresponding adsorbates in all of the TMDs, because  $E_{\text{add}}$  of an adsorbed species typically varies by less than 0.02 eV over different catalysts.<sup>34,35</sup> In the case of gaseous species (CO<sub>2</sub>, CO, H<sub>2</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>O), the ZPE is obtained using DFT calculations while entropy and heat capacity are taken from experimental data.<sup>36</sup> The free energies of products that are soluble in water [HCOOH(aq) and HCHO(aq)] are obtained by calculating the free energy of the corresponding molecule in the gas phase, assuming that they are in equilibrium with their aqueous states having an activity of 0.01.<sup>32</sup> For CO(g), we consider the correction energy ( $-0.45$  eV), which is calculated using the same method as in a previous calculation,<sup>32</sup> to fix the error of DFT calculations in describing the triple bond of CO.

**2.2. DFT Calculations.** All DFT calculations are performed with the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP).<sup>37</sup> The Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange–correlation functional is used for describing the electron–electron interaction.<sup>38</sup> The plane-wave cutoff energy is set to 500 eV. Throughout this work, spin-polarized calculations are carried out. Atomic structures are relaxed until atomic forces acting on each atom are reduced under 0.03 eV/Å;  $4 \times 4$  supercells of monolayer TMDs are employed, and  $5 \times 5 \times 1$   $k$ -point mesh is used to sample Brillouin zone (BZ). We remove one chalcogen atom (X) in the supercell to create a V<sub>X</sub>, which corresponds to 6.25% of concentration. For TMDs with local magnetic moments (VS<sub>2</sub>, VSe<sub>2</sub>, WTe<sub>2</sub>, CrSe<sub>2</sub>, and CrTe<sub>2</sub>), we consider the ferromagnetic spin configuration for simplicity. For Au(111), Cu(111), and Sn(110) surfaces, we use  $3 \times 3$  supercells for the first two and a  $4 \times 2$  supercell for the last, including three atomic layers each, and use  $3 \times 3 \times 1$   $k$ -point mesh for BZ sampling. About 15 Å of vacuum region is inserted into all supercells to avoid spurious interactions between periodic atomic images within the periodic boundary condition. The solvation energy of an intermediate is calculated using implicit solvation model<sup>39</sup> with parameters of 78.4 (dielectric constant), 0.6 Å (cavity width), 0.525 meV/



**Figure 1.** (a) Atomic structure of a vacancy site of MX<sub>2</sub>, where M and X stand for transition metal and chalcogen element, respectively. (b) C<sub>1</sub> pathways to CO (pathway 1), HCOOH (pathway 2), and HCHO (pathway 3). (c) Possible reaction pathways opened by the further reduction of CO (top) and HCHO (bottom) at X-vacancy.

$\text{\AA}^2$  (surface tension), and  $0.0025 \text{ \AA}^{-3}$  (cutoff charge density). D2 scheme is employed to account for van der Waals interactions.<sup>40</sup> The formation energy of  $V_X$  ( $E_f$ ) is calculated as follows

$$E_f = E(V_X) - E(\text{crystal}) + \mu_X \quad (2)$$

where  $E(\text{crystal})$  and  $E(V_X)$  are the total energy of a clean TMD supercell and a supercell including one  $V_X$ .  $\mu_X$  is the chemical potential of X, which is determined considering standard corrosion resistance of X.<sup>14,41</sup> The calculated  $E_f$ 's of  $V_X$  in TMDs are listed in Table S4.

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**3.1. Computational Screening.** To screen potential 2D TMD catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>R, we first search for inorganic compounds with the chemical composition of MX<sub>2</sub> (M = transition metals and X = S, Se, and Te) from Inorganic Crystal Structure Database.<sup>42</sup> Among them, we consider only compounds with sixfold coordinated M atoms like MoS<sub>2</sub>. MX<sub>2</sub> can have various phases like H, T, T', and T'' phases. Herein, we adopt the most stable phase for each TMD. Ruling out TcS<sub>2</sub>, in which Tc is radioactive, and CrS<sub>2</sub>, whose pure phase is known to be hardly obtained, we choose 38 materials that were experimentally identified.<sup>14</sup> For all of the TMDs considered in the present work, we present information on phases, electrical properties (metal vs semiconductor), and positions of  $V_X$  levels in Table S4.

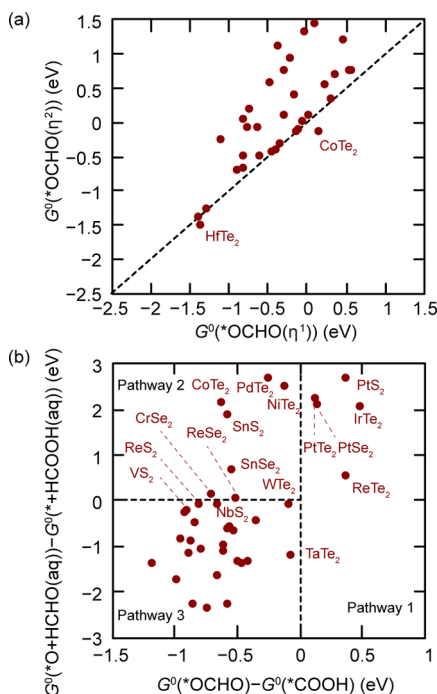
Figure 1a shows the atomistic structure of vacancy site of MX<sub>2</sub>, and Figure 1b shows three possible reaction pathways to elementary C<sub>1</sub> products that can occur at  $V_X$  sites of 2D TMDs.<sup>17</sup> In pathway 1, CO<sub>2</sub> in solution is reduced to \*COOH at the initial protonation step, yielding CO as a product. Meanwhile, the first intermediate can be \*OCHO producing HCOOH (pathway 2) and HCHO (pathway 3). Resorption of CO and HCHO at  $V_X$  can lead to the formation of other C<sub>1</sub>

products like CH<sub>4</sub>, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and multicarbon species, as depicted in Figure 1c. We focus on pathways 1–3 in the following discussions because the primary goal here is not to predict the final products precisely, but to suggest catalysts with a good CO<sub>2</sub>R selectivity relative to HER as well as a low onset potential to open reaction pathways for CO<sub>2</sub>R. Such issues can be addressed by considering pathways 1–3; reduction steps beyond the formation of HCHO to form highly reduced species are known to be more energetically benign than the prior ones<sup>17</sup> (also see Section 3.2). On the other hand, the coupling between CO molecules at active sites, which is suggested to produce C<sub>2</sub> or C<sub>3</sub> species on Cu surfaces,<sup>43–46</sup> is unlikely to happen at  $V_X$  of TMDs because carbon atoms in CO are not exposed to the surface. Therefore, only C<sub>1</sub> species such as CH<sub>4</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub>OH are possible to be formed by the further reduction of CO.

Considering the site-blocking effect, the preferred reaction pathway would be determined by comparing the free energy between competing intermediates at 0 V vs RHE.<sup>17,32,47–49</sup> This approach successfully predicted the major CO<sub>2</sub>R products on the RuO<sub>2</sub> and Cu surface.<sup>32,47</sup> Thus, if  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  is lower than  $G^0(*\text{COOH})$ , we assume that this reaction proceeds through pathway 2 or 3 rather than pathway 1. Similarly, the relative preference between pathways 2 and 3 is assessed by comparing  $G^0(*+\text{HCOOH}(\text{aq}))$  and  $G^0(*\text{O}+\text{HCHO}(\text{aq}))$ . This criterion was applied to discover the preferred CO<sub>2</sub>R pathways in MoS<sub>2</sub>.<sup>17</sup> Nonetheless, if the energy difference between competing intermediates is small, then both pathways may play a role. On the other hand, when determining the favorable pathway, we pay attention to the difference in free energies at 0 V. However, the free-energy difference can change depending on the electrode potential in the case of semiconducting TMDs with localized in-gap states when  $q$  differs between competing intermediates (see eq 1 and Figure S1). As a result, different preferred pathways may

appear while the potential decreases. However, we confirmed that comparing free energies at 0 V is still valid in predicting preferred CO<sub>2</sub>R pathways in such semiconducting TMDs for a wide range of potentials; the favorable pathway predicted at 0 V is maintained until about  $-0.8$  V (Figure S1). In MoSe<sub>2</sub>, MoTe<sub>2</sub>, and WS<sub>2</sub>, the preferred pathways can be changed at negatively large potentials below  $-0.8$  V, compared to those at 0 V.

For \*OCHO, there are two possible configurations which are denoted as  $\eta^1$  and  $\eta^2$  in Figure 2a. Between them, we find



**Figure 2.** (a) Comparison of free energies of \*OCHO( $\eta^1$ ) and \*OCHO( $\eta^2$ ). (b) Free-energy differences between competing intermediates for the first and second protonation steps.

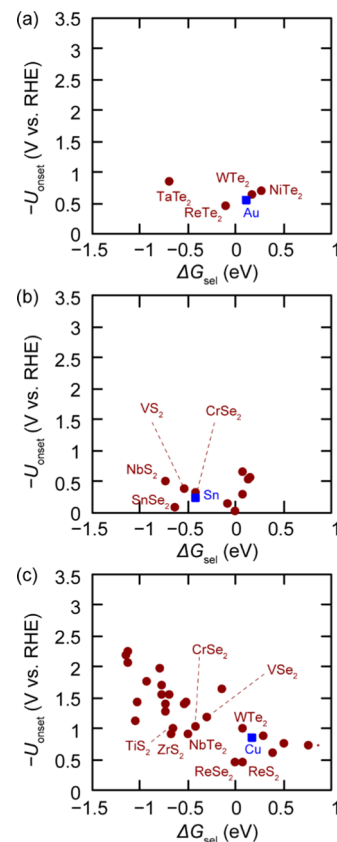
that \*OCHO( $\eta^1$ ) is much more stable than \*OCHO( $\eta^2$ ) in most TMDs, except for CoTe<sub>2</sub> and HfTe<sub>2</sub>. This larger preference of \*OCHO( $\eta^1$ ) originates from the structural feature of active sites. Namely, the bowl shape of V<sub>X</sub> sterically hinders the simultaneous adsorption of two atoms at one vacancy site because it would cause significant distortions of the lattice around the vacancy site.<sup>17,50</sup> Including \*OCHO, all of the geometries of intermediates examined in the present work are provided in the Supporting Information (see Figures S2 and S3).

Figure 2b shows energy differences of the competing intermediates. It is notable that the CO<sub>2</sub>R reaction is predicted to favor pathway 2 or 3 over pathway 1 in most TMDs, showing  $G^0(*COOH) > G^0(*OCHO)$ . This also results from the steric hindrance. Meanwhile, in tellurides such as TaTe<sub>2</sub>, NiTe<sub>2</sub>, and WTe<sub>2</sub>, \*COOH and \*OCHO display similar energies such that these materials might exhibit no clear preference among the pathways. In addition, in ReTe<sub>2</sub>, IrTe<sub>2</sub>, and PtS<sub>2</sub>, \*COOH shows lower free energies than \*OCHO. This is attributed to their large lattice parameters ( $>3.6$  Å), which weakens the steric hindrance of V<sub>X</sub>. We further compare  $G^0(*+HCOOH(aq))$  and  $G^0(*O + HCHO(aq))$  to identify the preference between pathway 2 and 3. This comparison shows that pathway 3 can be a main CO<sub>2</sub>R route in the

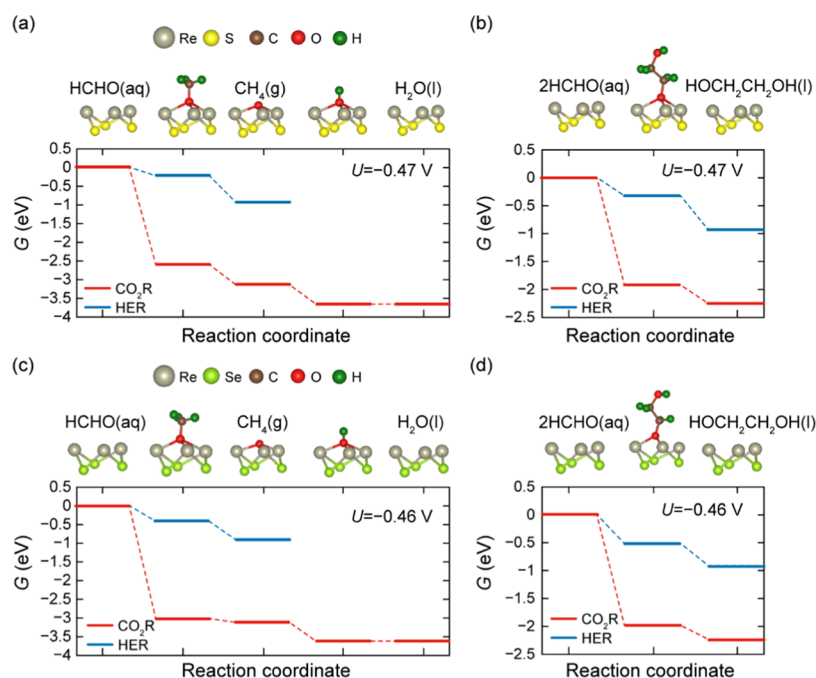
majority of TMDs. This fact stems from the strong binding of oxygen to the transition metal at the vacancy site,<sup>17,51</sup> generally resulting in lower energies of \*O + HCHO(aq) than \*+HCOOH(aq) at V<sub>X</sub> in TMDs.

Hereafter, TMDs in which the CO<sub>2</sub>R reaction prefers Pathway N will be classified as Type N. As stated in the foregoing discussion, a clear-cut classification may be difficult for some TMDs due to similar energies between competing intermediates. Furthermore, PBE was reported to have some errors in describing surface reactions (Figure S4).<sup>52</sup> Considering these facts, if the magnitude of the energy difference between competing intermediates is less than 0.2 eV, we classify TMDs to include in both types.

Next, we assess the theoretical onset potential ( $U_{\text{onset}}$ ) and the selectivity of the CO<sub>2</sub>R reaction against the HER of TMD catalysts. The  $U_{\text{onset}}$  is evaluated as the least-negative electrode potential at which the reaction free energy of every reaction step becomes negative.<sup>30,32</sup> The selectivity between CO<sub>2</sub>R and the HER is determined by the free-energy difference of the first reaction intermediates of CO<sub>2</sub>R and HER at  $U_{\text{onset}}$  ( $\Delta G_{\text{sel}}$ ), i.e.,  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}} = G^{U_{\text{onset}}}(*COOH) - G^{U_{\text{onset}}}(*H)$  for pathway 1 and  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}} = G^{U_{\text{onset}}}(*OCHO) - G^{U_{\text{onset}}}(*H)$  for pathways 2 and 3, in line with previous calculations.<sup>17,49,53,54</sup> In Figure 3a–c,  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}}$ 's at  $U_{\text{onset}}$  are presented for Type 1–3 TMDs, respectively. In these plots, materials that appear in the bottom left of the figure are more promising catalysts. For comparison purpose, we also mark the calculated values on Au(111), Sn(100), and Cu(111), which are well-known CO<sub>2</sub>R catalysts producing CO, HCOOH, and highly reduced species,



**Figure 3.** Distribution of  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}}$  and  $-U_{\text{onset}}$  of TMD catalysts for (a) pathway 1, (b) pathway 2, and (c) pathway 3. The materials that appear in the bottom left are more promising.



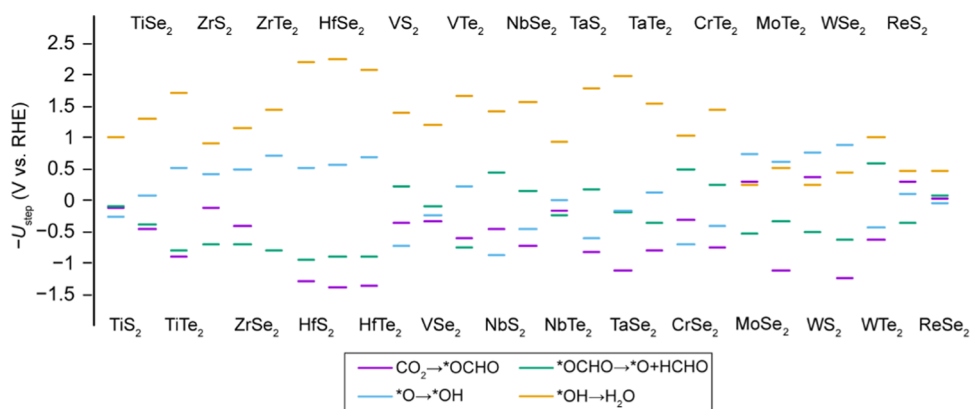
**Figure 4.** Free-energy diagrams for the (a)  $C_1$  pathway to methane and (b)  $C_2$  pathway to ethylene glycol of  $\text{ReS}_2$ . Free-energy diagrams for the (c)  $C_1$  pathway to methane and (d)  $C_2$  pathway to ethylene glycol of  $\text{ReSe}_2$ .

respectively, in Figure 3. Several TMDs such as  $\text{MoS}_2$ ,  $\text{PtS}_2$ ,  $\text{PtSe}_2$ ,  $\text{PtTe}_2$ , and  $\text{IrTe}_2$  are omitted in Figure 3 because the reaction free energy of the initial protonation step, namely,  $G^U(*\text{OCHO})$  or  $G^U(*\text{COOH})$ , always remains positive at any  $U$ . This happens due to a more negative charge state of pure  $\text{V}_X$  than that of  $*\text{OCHO}$  or  $*\text{COOH}$  in those materials (see Figure S1).<sup>17</sup> Note that uniformly positive reaction energies in the initial reduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  would indicate unfavorable  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$  selectivity against the HER as well as low faradic efficiencies. Indeed, it was reported that  $\text{MoS}_2$  suffers from poor selectivity and low faradic efficiency in  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$ .<sup>16</sup>

Among Type 1 TMDs, we find that  $\text{ReTe}_2$ ,  $\text{TaTe}_2$ ,  $\text{NiTe}_2$ , and  $\text{WTe}_2$  are promising  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$  catalysts (Figure 3a). In particular,  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}}$  of  $\text{TaTe}_2$  is much lower than that of Au, implying  $\text{TaTe}_2$  is advantageous over Au in terms of the  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$  selectivity. On the other hand,  $\text{SnSe}_2$ ,  $\text{VS}_2$ , and  $\text{NbS}_2$  are notable among Type 2 TMDs, showing  $U_{\text{onset}}$  of  $-0.09$ ,  $-0.39$ , and  $-0.49$  V and  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}}$  of  $-0.54$ ,  $-0.43$ , and  $-0.63$  V, respectively. These values are more favorable than those of Sn (Figure 3b). This finding is consistent with the recent experiments where  $\text{SnSe}_2$  catalysts produce  $\text{HCOOH}$  as the main product at negatively small onset potentials ( $> -0.5$  V) with high faradic efficiencies ( $\sim 90\%$ ) and good stability during the reactions.<sup>55,56</sup> Among Type 3 TMDs, the  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}}$  and  $U_{\text{onset}}$  values of several TMDs such as  $\text{ReS}_2$ ,  $\text{ReSe}_2$ ,  $\text{WTe}_2$ ,  $\text{CrSe}_2$ , and  $\text{VSe}_2$  are on par with those of Cu. In particular,  $\text{ReS}_2$  and  $\text{ReSe}_2$  are of interest more than the others because they are predicted to be superior to Cu. Furthermore, these materials are known to be stable under reduction environments.<sup>57–59</sup> We also confirm the stability of the candidate materials, namely,  $\text{SnSe}_2$ ,  $\text{ReS}_2$ , and  $\text{ReSe}_2$ , by calculating oxidation/reduction leaching potential (Figure S5).<sup>60</sup>

**3.2.  $C_N$  Pathways in  $\text{ReS}_2$  and  $\text{ReSe}_2$ .** Pathways to highly reduced species can open due to the resorption of HCHO produced via pathway 3. For instance, the HCHO reduction was also proposed as an important mechanism for  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$

catalysts such as  $\text{MoS}_2$ ,<sup>17</sup> Cu-CNT,<sup>61</sup> Cu foil,<sup>62</sup> and Fe–N–C.<sup>63</sup> In this subsection, we examine free-energy diagrams for  $C_1$  pathways to methane and methanol and  $C_2$  pathways to ethylene glycol ( $\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ ) in  $\text{ReS}_2$  and  $\text{ReSe}_2$ , to check whether such pathways can indeed open. These  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$  products were reported to be generated on  $\text{MoS}_2$  electrodes even if their faradic efficiencies were low,<sup>16</sup> and the plausible pathways for them were suggested based on resorption of HCHO at active sites in previous calculations.<sup>17</sup> However, it should be kept in mind that there can be various possible pathways to  $C_N$  species starting from the HCHO resorption that are thermodynamically favorable, and it is challenging to predict a major product without detailed analysis of reaction kinetics.<sup>17</sup> Figure 4a,c shows the free energies and atomic structures of intermediates for the  $C_1$  pathways to  $\text{CH}_4$  in  $\text{ReS}_2$  and  $\text{ReSe}_2$ , respectively. In both catalysts, every protonation step is downhill in energy at  $U_{\text{onset}}$  that opens pathway 3. Thus, these pathways are feasible. In the case of the  $C_1$  pathways to  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ , it is less favorable than that for  $\text{CH}_4$ , but can also open in both materials (Figure S6). In Figure 4b,d, we plot the free energies and atomic structures of intermediates for the  $C_2$  pathways to  $\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$  in  $\text{ReS}_2$  and  $\text{ReSe}_2$ , respectively. It turns out that the protonation of the dimerized HCHO molecule at active sites in these materials, namely,  $2\text{HCHO} \rightarrow * \text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ , is also downhill in energy at the  $U_{\text{onset}}$  for pathway 3. Therefore, these pathways are viable. (Herein, we focus on the protonation steps within the CHE model for the  $C_2$  pathways, but the actual reactions are likely to entail more complicated reaction steps based on the Langmuir–Hinshelwood or Eley–Rideal mechanism.<sup>64</sup> Detailed mechanisms for the HCHO condensation will be investigated in our future study.) Among the  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  pathways examined in this subsection, we find the pathway to  $\text{CH}_4$  to be most thermodynamically favorable. Interestingly, we see that the  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  pathways are largely preferred over the HER in energy. This may imply that there are few



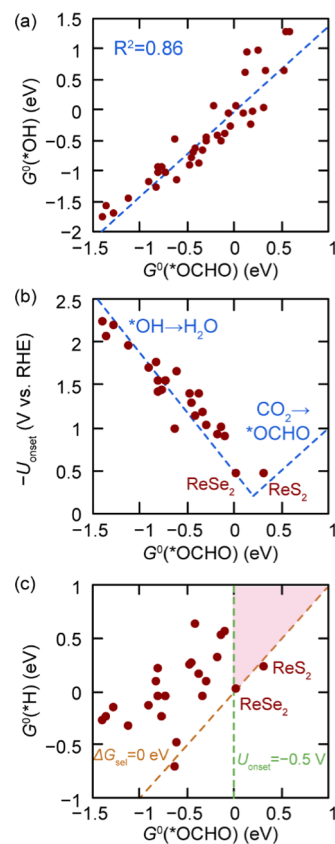
**Figure 5.** Limiting potentials of each reaction step of the CO<sub>2</sub>R pathway to HCHO (pathway 3).

selectivity issues of CO<sub>2</sub>R against the HER for the following C<sub>N</sub> pathways, once HCHO is produced as a primary C<sub>1</sub> product on a given TMD catalyst.

**3.3. Simple Descriptor for Predicting HCHO Production.** As mentioned above, highly reduced chemical species that can evolve from the HCHO reduction (e.g., methanol, ethylene glycol, and 1-propanol) as well as HCHO itself are highly valuable practically.<sup>2,3</sup> Therefore, identifying simple descriptors for the onset potential of pathway 3 is highly desirable, which will help design CO<sub>2</sub>R catalysts capable of producing high-value species. To find such descriptors, we first reveal which reaction step contributes to  $U_{\text{onset}}$  in Type 3 TMDs. Figure 5 shows that the limiting potential at which the reaction free energy becomes 0 eV for each step in pathway 3 ( $U_{\text{step}}$ ). In most Type 3 TMDs, the limiting step with the largest negative  $U_{\text{step}}$ , i.e.,  $U_{\text{onset}}$ , occurs at the reaction step of  $*\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Exceptions are MoSe<sub>2</sub>, MoTe<sub>2</sub>, WS<sub>2</sub>, and WSe<sub>2</sub>, wherein the potential limiting step appears at  $*\text{O} \rightarrow *\text{OH}$ . This is attributed to an increase in  $q$  during the reaction process of  $*\text{O} \rightarrow *\text{OH}$  in these materials (see Table S2).

Since the potential limiting step mostly occurs at  $*\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , it would be reasonable to choose  $G^0(*\text{OH})$  as a descriptor for onset potentials. However, we find that  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  linearly correlates with  $G^0(*\text{OH})$ , as shown in Figure 6a. Such a linear relation would arise from the fact that the adsorbates, namely,  $*\text{OH}$  and  $*\text{OCHO}$ , involve M–O bonds. Since  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  can be used to assess the selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub>R over the HER by directly comparing with  $G^0(*\text{H})$ , we select  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  as the descriptor. In Figure 6b, we present  $-U_{\text{onset}}$  with respect to  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  for 23 Type 3 TMDs where the potential limiting step occurs at  $*\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , which shows a good scaling relation between them.

We find a volcanic behavior of the scaling relation wherein the minimum value of  $-U_{\text{onset}}$  is about 0.2 V at  $G^0(*\text{OCHO}) = 0.2$  eV (Figure 6b). This minimum of  $-U_{\text{onset}}$  is smaller than that for CO<sub>2</sub>R on typical transition metals.<sup>65</sup> The volcano relation can be explained as follows: at large, negative  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$ ,  $*\text{OH}$  is stable so that the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O is difficult, yielding a large  $-U_{\text{onset}}$ . In contrast, as  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  positively grows, the limiting potential for the reduction of  $*\text{OH}$  declines, but at the same time, the initial reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to form  $*\text{OCHO}$  becomes more difficult. As a result, the formation of  $*\text{OCHO}$  can become a potential limiting step at large  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$ , although most of TMDs considered in the present work lead to  $*\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$  as the limiting step. Note that, in ReS<sub>2</sub> wherein  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  is close to 0.2 eV, the

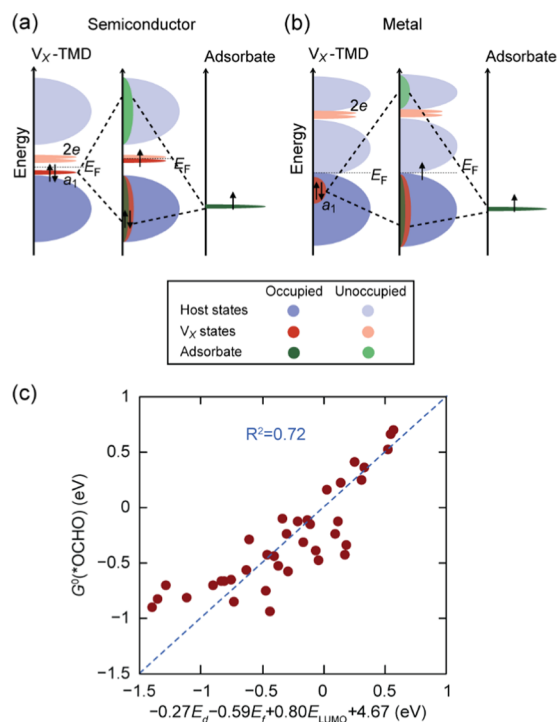


**Figure 6.** (a) Scaling relation between  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  and  $G^0(*\text{OH})$ . (b) Volcano plot of  $-U_{\text{onset}}$  as a function of  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$ . (c) Distribution of  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  and  $G^0(*\text{H})$  in Type 3 TMDs. The shaded area represents the sweet spot for  $-U_{\text{onset}} < 0.5$  V and  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}} < 0$  eV.

$-U_{\text{step}}$  values for  $*\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $* + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow *\text{OCHO}$  are indeed similar to each other (Figure 5). The inconsistency between the location of the data of ReS<sub>2</sub> in the volcano plot and the actual potential limiting step arises from the incomplete scaling relation between  $G^0(*\text{OH})$  and  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  (the volcano plot based on  $G^0(*\text{OH})$  is shown in Figure S7). Based on the volcano plot in Figure 6b, we graphically present the free-energy conditions for choosing good CO<sub>2</sub>R TMD catalysts in Figure 6c. The shaded region represents the sweet spot wherein the catalysts are expected to show  $U_{\text{onset}} > -0.5$  V and  $\Delta G_{\text{sel}} < 0$  eV. The promising

candidates such as  $\text{ReS}_2$  and  $\text{ReSe}_2$  appear very close to the sweet spot, indicating that our descriptors are valid.

**3.4. Electronic Structure of \*OCHO.** To gain chemical insights into the free energy of \*OCHO in type 3 TMDs, we analyze the electronic structure of \*OCHO. In Figure 7a, we



**Figure 7.** Schematic band diagrams illustrating the interaction between \*OCHO and  $V_X$  of (a) semiconducting TMDs with midgap states and (b) metallic TMDs. (c) Regression result showing the correlation between  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  and physical parameters such as  $E_d$ ,  $E_f$ , and  $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ .

present a schematic band diagram illustrating the interaction between OCHO and  $V_X$  in semiconducting TMDs (see the calculated density of states in Figure S8). In TMDs with vacancies ( $V_X$ -TMDs), the hybridization among the dangling bonds of cations adjacent to  $V_X$  develops three defect levels: one  $a_1$  state and two degenerate e states. When OCHO is adsorbed, the lower  $a_1$  state reacts with the frontier state of OCHO, which results in bonding and antibonding states. In the case of the bonding state, its level appears below the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) level of  $V_X$ -TMDs and is occupied with two electrons. In contrast, the antibonding state lies above the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) level ( $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ ) of  $V_X$ -TMDs. Accordingly, the antibonding level remains empty in \*OCHO. Like semiconducting TMDs, the hybridization between the  $a_1$  state in metallic  $V_X$ -TMDs and the HOMO level of OCHO produces the occupied bonding state below the HOMO of the  $V_X$ -TMDs, while the unoccupied antibonding state lies above the Fermi level (Figure 7b).

With the insights obtained from the analysis of the electronic structure above, we identify key materials properties that affect  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$ . The first one is the position of the d band of cations of TMDs, which is typically represented by the d-band center ( $E_d$ ). Because the vacancy states in  $V_X$ -TMDs consist of d orbitals of cations adjacent to the vacancy site, the energy of the  $a_1$  state increases with  $E_d$ . As a result, a larger decrease in

energy can be obtained by the electron transfer from the  $a_1$  state to the bonding state upon the OCHO adsorption as  $E_d$  increases. Therefore,  $E_d$  has a negative correlation with  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$ . Next, the LUMO level of  $V_X$ -TMDs accepts the excess electron after occupying the bonding state. Thus,  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  decreases with the  $E_{\text{LUMO}}$  of  $V_X$ -TMDs. Note that LUMO of  $V_X$ -TMDs, in particular, metallic or semiconducting systems without localized states in the gap, is formed by the hybridization between cation and anion states. Thus,  $E_{\text{LUMO}}$  does not solely depend on  $E_d$  in general. Finally, another important factor is the vacancy formation energy that can be a measure of the stability of  $V_X$ . Thus, higher  $E_f$  indicates a larger energy loss associated with breaking bonds between cations and OCHO at active sites. To corroborate the correlation of the three materials parameters, namely,  $E_d$ ,  $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ , and  $E_f$ , with  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$ , the  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  data are fitted by multiple linear regression scheme using such factors as independent variables (Figure 7c). The result shows that  $G^0(*\text{OCHO})$  is indeed reasonably well described by these factors. Note that, unlike transition-metal catalysts,  $E_d$  alone cannot describe free energies of adsorbates in  $V_X$ -TMDs (see Figure S9).

## 4. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we have explored the  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$  activity of anion vacancies of the 38 TMDs using first-principles calculations. The majority of TMDs are predicted to produce HCHO that acts as a source to evolve highly reduced species with larger economic benefits due to steric hindrance of  $V_X$ . Several TMDs such as  $\text{ReS}_2$  and  $\text{ReSe}_2$  are selected as promising  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$  catalysts, which are expected to have both low overpotential and high selectivity. To gain more insight into the HCHO pathway, we have analyzed potential limiting steps of  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$  reactions, suggesting that the free energy of \*OCHO and \*H can be good descriptors for the  $\text{CO}_2\text{R}$  activity and selectivity. Since the preference of the HCHO formation originates from the geometrical constraints at  $V_X$ , which leads to steric hindrance, our analysis and the descriptors are universally applicable to evaluating the catalytic performance of other compounds with vacancies as active sites. Accordingly, the present study will also contribute to discovering novel catalysts that can efficiently produce high-value chemicals from  $\text{CO}_2$ .

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcc.0c07113>.

Derivation of the main equation, all free energies of TMDs, geometry of adsorbates, density of states of representative materials, and d-band center fitting results (PDF)

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## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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