



Communication

Amorphous MoS₃ enriched with sulfur vacancies for efficient electrocatalytic nitrogen reduction

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ABSTRACT

Developing low-priced, yet effective and robust catalysts for the nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR) is of vital importance for scalable and renewable electrochemical NH₃ synthesis. Herein, we provide the first demonstration of MoS₃ as an efficient and durable NRR catalyst in neutral media. The prepared amorphous MoS₃ naturally possessed enriched S vacancies and delivered an NH₃ yield of 51.7 µg h⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and a Faradaic efficiency of 12.8% at -0.3 V (RHE) in 0.5 M LiClO₄, considerably exceeding those of MoS₂ and most reported NRR catalysts. Density functional theory calculations unraveled that S vacancies involved in MoS₃ played a crucial role in activating the NRR via a consecutive mechanism with a low energetics barrier and simultaneously suppressing the hydrogen evolution reaction.

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Artificial N₂ fixation to NH₃ plays a crucial role in the human society, because NH₃ is a critical fertilizer precursor and also a promising carbon-free power source [1]. Nonetheless, the conventional NH₃ production is highly dependent on the Haber-Bosch process that is highly energy intensive and CO₂ emissive [2]. Ambient electrochemical N₂ reduction reaction (NRR) represents the most attractive alternative for renewable NH₃ synthesis [3–5]. Unfortunately, the efficiency of NRR process is largely prohibited by the poor N₂ polarization, large energetics barriers and great competitive hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) [6]. Therefore, it is critically important to design low-priced, yet active and stable electrocatalysts to facilitate the NRR and restrain the undesired HER. In recent years, intensive research has been triggered to develop a wide range of potential NRR catalysts, such as precious metals [7–10], earth-abundant metal compounds [11–17], and metal-free materials [18–21], with their performance further improved by manipulating size/phase [22–24], creating vacancies/strain [25–29], and introducing dopants/heterointerfaces [30–32].

Recent advance has shown that MoS₂ is a very promising NRR candidate attributed primarily to its active edge sites in facilitating the N₂ activation [33–35]. Nonetheless, the NRR performance of most existing MoS₂-based catalysts is still far less satisfactory

due possibly to their limited available edges and poor intrinsic conductivity. MoS₃, possessing a disordered molecular-chain-like structure, is another type of important molybdenum sulfide material [36]. MoS₃ has recently emerged as a fascinating catalyst for electrocatalytic reactions by virtue of its special structural/physical advantages, including amorphous nature, high S concentration and good conductivity. These advantages of MoS₃ are also highly attractive for the NRR because: (1) amorphous structure of MoS₃ contains abundant unsaturated coordination sites and surface-exposed defects which provide plentiful active sites to capture and activate the inert N₂ molecule [37]; (2) higher S concentration of MoS₃ than MoS₂ favors the creation of more S vacancies that are conducive to the effective N₂ adsorption/activation [30]. (3) MoS₃ possesses a higher intrinsic conductivity than MoS₂ due to its smaller band gap [38], which is advantageous to the NRR kinetics by accelerating the electron transfer efficiency [22]. These distinct merits demonstrate the great promise of MoS₃ as an efficient NRR catalyst, which, however, has not been studied thus far.

Herein, we report MoS₃ as an effective and stable electrocatalyst for the NRR. The prepared amorphous MoS₃ naturally contained rich S vacancies and exhibited an NH₃ yield of 51.7 µg h⁻¹ mg⁻¹ and a Faradaic efficiency (FE) of 12.8% at -0.3 V (RHE) in 0.5 M LiClO₄, dramatically outperforming the crystalline MoS₂. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations unveiled that S vacancies involved in MoS₃ acted as the catalytic centers to effectively activate N₂ and boost the NRR energetics.

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The sheet-like MoS₃ was prepared through the liquid exfoliation of bulk MoS₃, and the preparation details are given in the Experimental Section (Supporting Information). As shown in Fig. 1(a), the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of MoS₃ shows no diffraction peaks, suggesting the amorphous phase of MoS₃. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) is used to examine the surface chemical states of MoS₃. The deconvoluted Mo 3d spectra (Fig. 1(b)) reveal three well-resolved peaks of S2s (225.9 eV), Mo⁶⁺ 3d_{5/2} (228.7 eV) and Mo⁶⁺ 3d_{3/2} (232.2 eV). The deconvoluted S 2p spectra (Fig. 1(c)) show two doublets, corresponding to terminal (161.8, 162.7 eV) and bridging (163.5, 164.8 eV) sulfide ligands (S₂²⁻/S²⁻), coinciding well with those of reported MoS₃ [36]. The transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Fig. 1(d)) image of MoS₃ presents the morphology of interconnected porous nanosheets. Such porous nanostructure can also be reflected by the nitrogen adsorption–desorption measurement (Fig. S1), showing a large specific surface area (123.7 m² g⁻¹) together with the abundant mesopores (centered at 10–20 nm), which facilitate the electrochemical reactions by providing more catalytically active sites and sufficient reactant/ion transport. Also, a halo feature can be observed in the selected area electron diffraction (SAED, Fig. 1(d), inset) pattern of MoS₃, confirming the amorphous structure of MoS₃.

Scanning TEM (STEM, Fig. 1(e)) analysis of MoS₃ presents the uniform distribution of Mo and S elements. The S/Mo molar ratio

is determined to be 2.71 by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES), suggesting the existence of rich S vacancies in MoS₃. Furthermore, in the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of MoS₃ (Fig. 1(f)), two randomly selected regions (labeled as 1 and 2) are analyzed by the Fourier transform (FFT) and corresponding inverse FFT (IFFT) techniques [39–43], which reveal the sun-like pattern (FFT, top) and highly disordered lattice fringes (IFFT, bottom), further testifying the amorphous feature of MoS₃, which shows the disordered molecular-chain-like structure, as illustrated in Fig. 1(g). All these characterizations prove the successful synthesis of amorphous MoS₃.

As illustrated in Fig. 2(a), after thermal annealing amorphous MoS₃ at 600 °C for 3 h under argon atmosphere, the crystalline MoS₂ can be obtained, which can be verified by the following characterizations. After annealing, the XRD pattern (Fig. 2(b)) shows the appeared peaks that can be well indexed to 2H-MoS₂ (JCPDS No.87–1536). The XPS S 2p spectra (Fig. 2(c)) show fitted S 2p_{3/2} (162.3 eV) and S 2p_{1/2} (163.5 eV) of 2H-MoS₂, which differ significantly from the S 2p spectra of MoS₃. The SAED pattern (Fig. 2(d), inset) displays the clear diffraction rings that are well assigned to (002), (100) and (110) facets of 2H-MoS₂ (Fig. S2). The HRTEM image (Fig. 2(e)) presents the clear lattice fringes with an interplanar distance of 0.62 nm, assigned to (002) facet of 2H-MoS₂. Furthermore, as depicted in Fig. 2(f), the electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra reveal that MoS₃ shows a much stronger

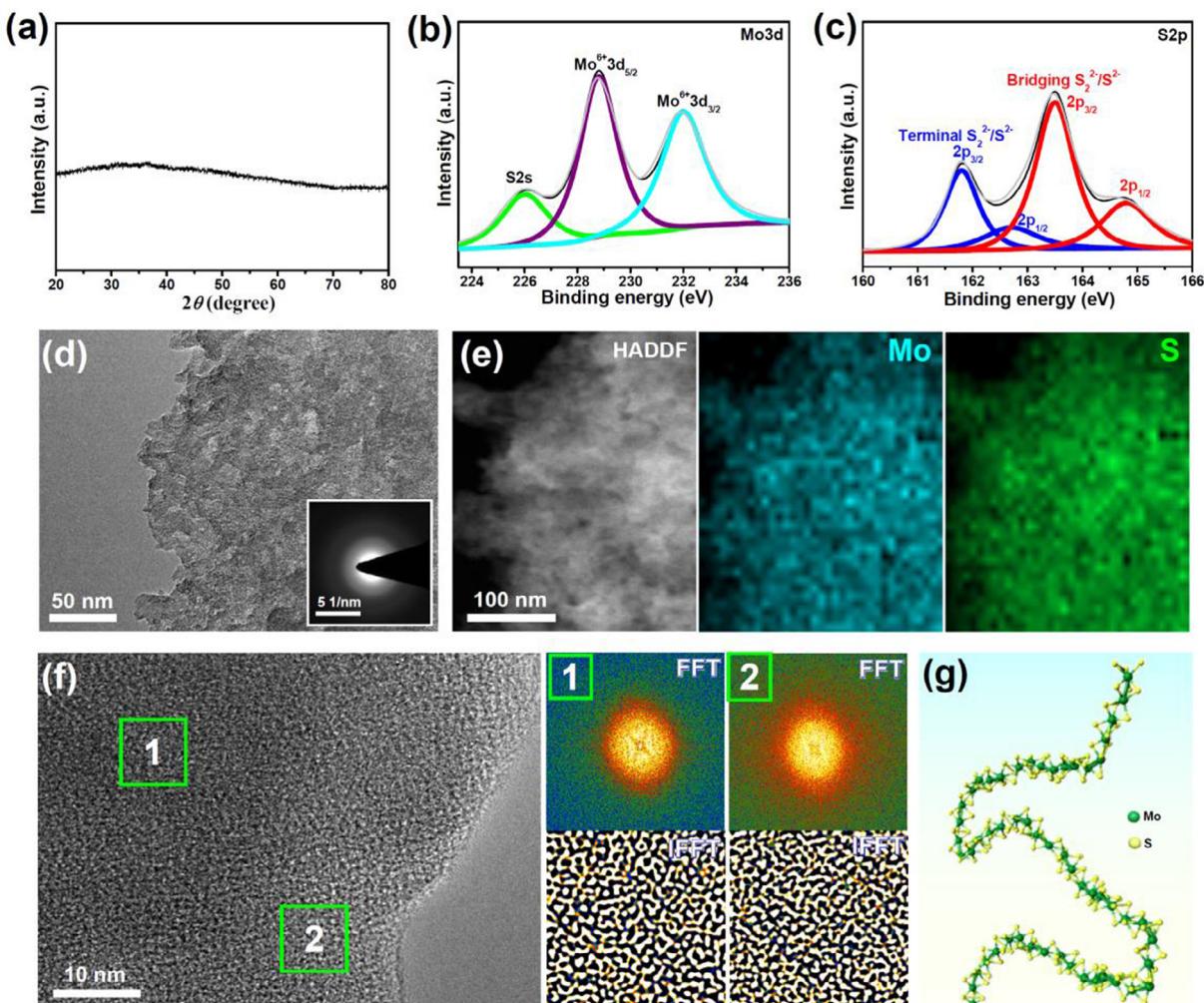


Fig. 1. Characterization of as-prepared MoS₃: (a) XRD pattern; (b) XPS Mo 3d spectra; (c) S 2p spectra; (d) TEM image (inset: SAED pattern); (e) STEM element mapping images; (f) HRTEM image and corresponding FFT/IFFT analysis selected in the regions of 1 and 2; (g) Schematic of the disordered molecular-chain-like structure of MoS₃.

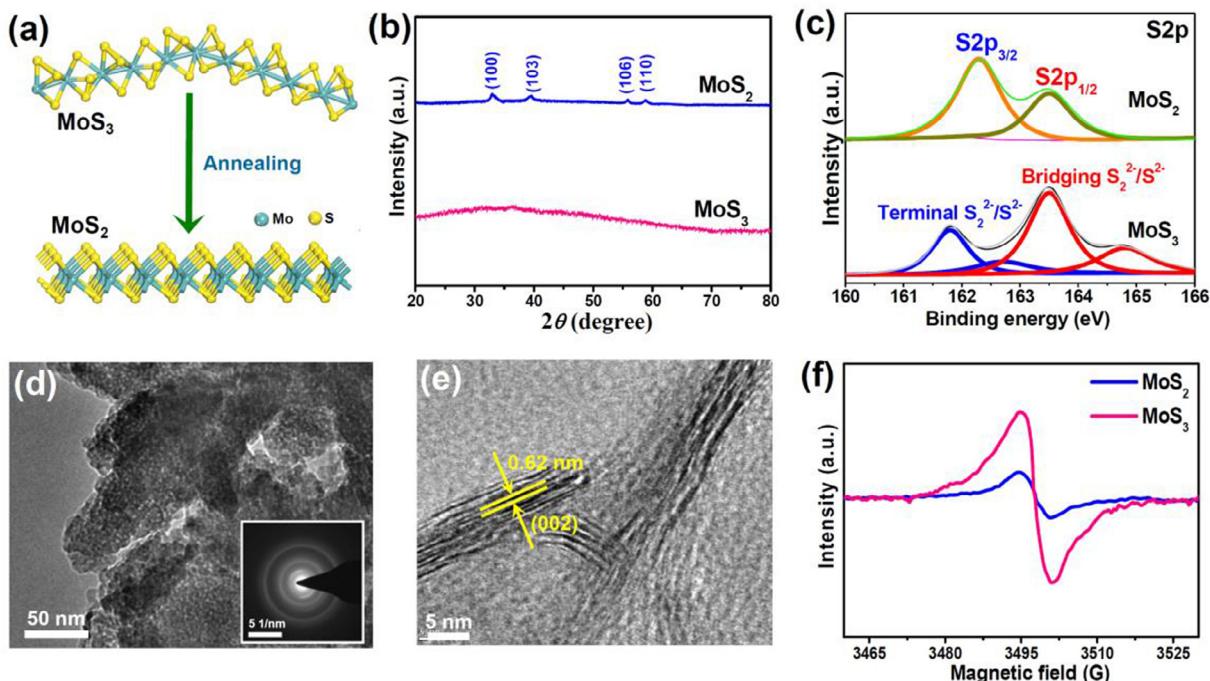


Fig. 2. (a) Schematic of the phase transformation from amorphous MoS₃ to crystalline MoS₂. (b) XRD patterns of MoS₂ and MoS₃; (c) XPS S 2p spectra of MoS₂ and MoS₃; (d) TEM image of MoS₂ (inset: SAED pattern); (e) HRTEM image of MoS₂; (f) EPR spectra of MoS₂ and MoS₃.

EPR signal intensity than MoS₂. This suggests that MoS₃ naturally possesses a high concentration of S vacancies and most of vacancies would be vanished during the conversion of amorphous MoS₃ to crystalline MoS₂. The enriched S vacancies involved in MoS₃ are expected to remarkably promote the NRR activity owing to the strong electron-donating effect of vacancy to favorably transfer the electrons into the 2π* antibonding orbitals of N₂ molecule for N₂ activation [30,31].

The catalytic NRR performance of MoS₃ deposited on carbon cloth (CC) was assessed in 0.5 M LiClO₄ using a gas-tight H-type cell [44]. A selection of LiClO₄ as the NRR electrolyte is two-fold: 1) it is extensively used for NRR reaction [45–47]. 2) Li⁺ ions can, to some extent, retard the HER process by virtue of Li-O or Li-S interactions in hindering H⁺ adsorption and H₂ evolution [35,48]. As shown in the linear scan voltammetry curves of MoS₃ (Fig. S3), an noticeably increased current density can be seen in N₂-saturated with respect to Ar-saturated electrolyte in the potential range of −0.2 – −0.6 V, which indicates the occurrence of NRR over MoS₃ in such potential window [16]. The chronoamperometry tests were combined with the colorimetric measurements to quantitatively evaluate the NRR performance of MoS₃ [49,50]. The reductive products including NH₃ and possible N₂H₄ were analyzed by the colorimetric methods, and their calibration curves are presented in Figs. S4 and S5. After electrolysis over MoS₃ from −0.2 to −0.6 V (Fig. 3(a)), the produced NH₃ was determined by the UV-vis absorption spectra, and corresponding data of NH₃ yield and FE are shown in Fig. 3(b). Clearly, MoS₃ exhibits the optimum NRR performance at −0.3 V, achieving the highest NH₃ yield of 51.7 μg h^{−1} mg^{−1} (10.3 μg cm^{−2} h^{−1}) and FE of 12.8%, which exceed those of most reported electrocatalysts (Table S1). Nonetheless, with increasing the potential over −0.3 V, a sharp decline can be found for both NH₃ yield and FE, which is due primarily to the enhanced HER to restrict the NRR [51]. Moreover, as shown in Fig. S6, the N₂H₄ as a by-product is undetectable, which means a high NRR selectivity of MoS₃.

To get further insight into the NRR activity of MoS₃, the NRR performance of comparative MoS₂ is also considered (Fig. S7). As presented in Fig. 3(c), MoS₂ presents the much unsatisfactory NRR performance with the optimum NH₃ yield (11.3 μg h^{−1} mg^{−1}) and FE (3.9%) to be 4.6 times and 3.3 times poorer than those of MoS₃, respectively. To uncover the significant NRR enhancement in MoS₃ as compared to MoS₂, we conduct the double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}), dinitrogen temperature-programmed desorption (N₂-TPD) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements. The C_{dl} test (Fig. 3(d) & Fig. S8) shows that MoS₃ (6.5 mF cm^{−2}) possesses a nearly twice larger C_{dl} than MoS₂ (3.4 mF cm^{−2}), indicating a higher concentration of catalytically active sites in MoS₃, which is attributed to the amorphous structure of MoS₃ enriched with S vacancies (Fig. 2(f)), as well as the porous nanostructure of MoS₃ with large surface area (Fig. S1) [52–54]. Specifically, the abundant S vacancies involved in MoS₃ can act as trapping sites for effectively capturing and adsorbing N₂ [27], as evidenced by the N₂-TPD test (Fig. 3(e)) showing a more positive and stronger chemical desorption peak for MoS₃ with respect to MoS₂. Additionally, EIS test (Fig. 3(f)) indicates that MoS₃ presents a smaller charge resistance than MoS₂, suggesting the enhanced charge transfer efficiency and boosted electrocatalytic kinetics of MoS₃. Therefore, in comparison with crystalline MoS₂, the amorphous MoS₃ with rich S vacancies exhibits improved N₂ chemisorption and accelerated electron transfer, engendering the greatly promoted NRR performance.

To testify the reliable NRR experiments, the control tests were performed to exclude the possible interferences from any environmental N-containing contaminants. Isotopic labelling experiment is carried out to trace the origin of N source [55], as shown in Fig. 4(a). After electrolysis over MoS₃ using ¹⁵N₂ or ¹⁴N₂ as feed gas, ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra present a distinguished doublet for ¹⁵NH₄⁺ (*J*-coupling: ~72 Hz) when using ¹⁵N₂, or a triplet for ¹⁴NH₄⁺ (*J*-coupling: ~52 Hz) when using ¹⁴N₂. No labeled ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁴NH₄⁺ can be detected when using Ar as feed gas,

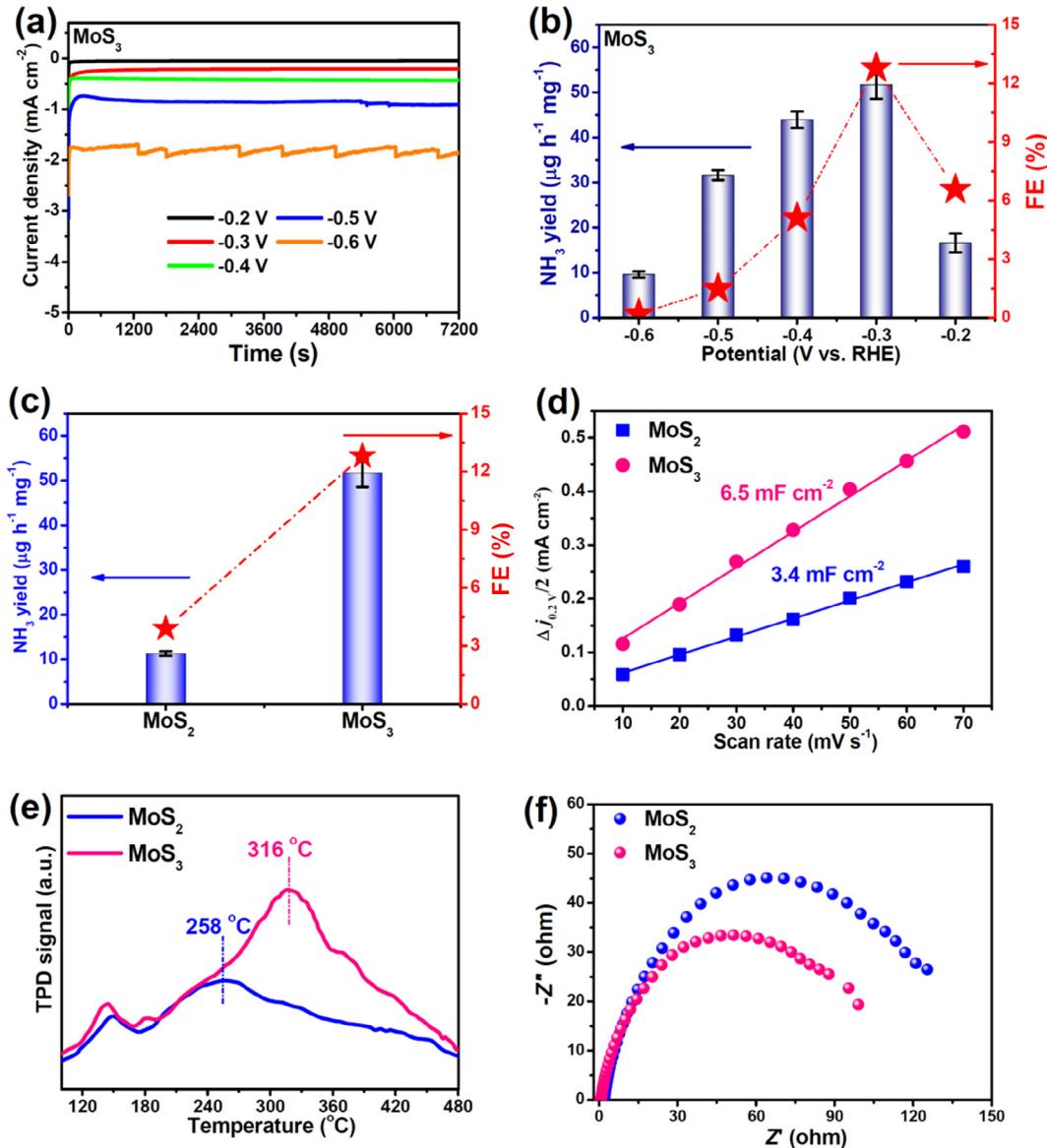


Fig. 3. (a) Chronoamperometry test of MoS₃ for 2 h of NRR electrolysis at various potentials, and (b) corresponding NH₃ yields and FEs. (c) Comparison of the optimum NH₃ yields and FEs of MoS₂ and MoS₃. (d) double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) measurements of MoS₂ and MoS₃. (e) N₂-TPD spectra of MoS₂ and MoS₃. (f) Electrochemical impedance spectra of MoS₂ and MoS₃.

indicating that the detected ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁴NH₄⁺ are derived from the NRR [56–58]. In addition, the control tests in terms of colorimetric measurements (Fig. S9) do not generate a detectable amount of NH₃ [59]. Thus, we can surely confirm that the generated NH₃ definitely derives from the NRR rather than from unnoticed contaminations.

We further assess the NRR durability of MoS₃. When performing seven chronoamperometric runs (Fig. 4(b)), it is seen in Fig. 4(c) that MoS₃ displays small fluctuations in the values of NH₃ yield and FE, suggesting the good cycling stability [60,61]. MoS₃ also possesses the excellent long-term operation durability, as evidenced by the negligible loss of the current density for 20 h of continuous electrolysis (Fig. 4(d)). Furthermore, MoS₃ still retains its amorphous structure (Fig. 4(e and f)), porous nanosheet morphology (Fig. S10) and chemical bonding states (Fig. S11), confirming the stable structure of MoS₃ for the NRR. Therefore, the high NRR activity and robust durability demonstrate that present MoS₃ is a promising catalyst candidate for the N₂ electroreduction.

DFT calculation was performed to establish a basic understanding for the high NRR activity of MoS₃. To simulate the molecular-

chain-like structure of MoS₃, we build one-dimensional Mo₆S₁₈ cluster model consisting of six MoS₃ units, as illustrated in Fig. S12. To begin with, we consider the N₂ adsorption which is the prerequisite step to initialize the NRR [62–64]. As seen in Fig. 5(a), the absorbed N₂ molecule can not form the bond with the surface atom(s) of MoS₃, resulting in nearly unchanged N≡N bond and negligible charge transfer, thus making pristine MoS₃ catalytically inactive for NRR.

When a surface S vacancy (V_s) is introduced in MoS₃ (MoS₃–V_s), N₂ can be well fixed into the V_s position of MoS₃–V_s through either end-on (Fig. 5(b)) or side-on (Fig. 5(c)) pattern, indicating that V_s plays a critical role in polarizing the inert N₂. The higher degree of N≡N bond elongation and electron donation for side-on adsorption (1.176 Å, -0.38 |e|) as compared to end-on adsorption (1.147 Å, -0.25 |e|) suggests that N₂ adsorption preferentially occurs via side-on configuration. For side-on pattern, after initial hydrogenation by adding one H atom (Fig. 5(d)), the N≡N triple bond can be cleaved into the N = N double bond with the bond lengthen further stretched to 1.289 Å, indicating that MoS₃–V_s

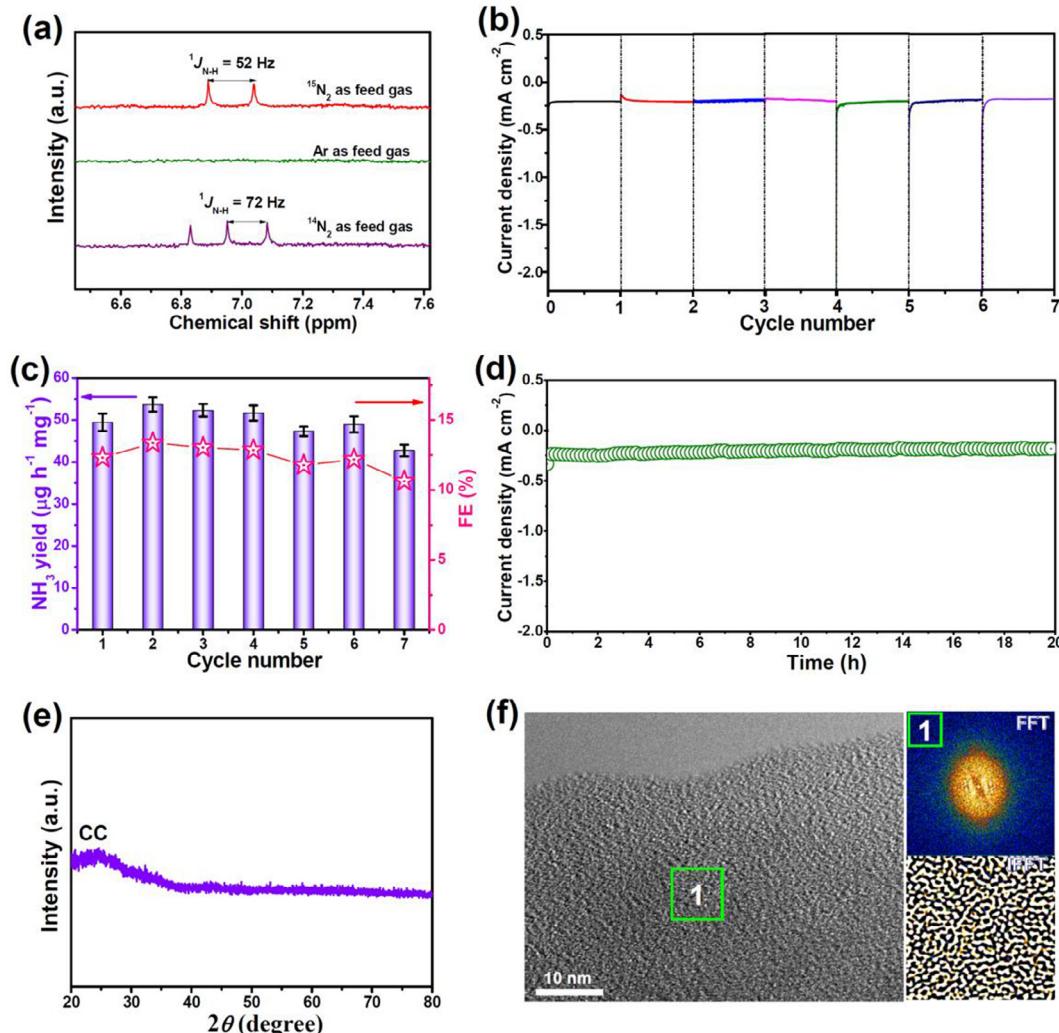


Fig. 4. (a) ^1H NMR measurements over MoS_3 using $^{14}\text{N}_2$, $^{15}\text{N}_2$ and Ar as feed gases. (b) Chronoamperometry tests of MoS_3 for seven cycles, and obtained (c) NH_3 yields and FEs. (d) Chronoamperometry test of MoS_3 for 20 h of NRR electrolysis at -0.3 V . (e) XRD and (f) HRTEM image (FFT/IFFT recorded in 1 region) of MoS_3 after the stability test.

can effectively activate N_2 to promote the $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ bond dissociation and hydrogenation reaction.

We then move on to assess the energetics of $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$ by constructing the Gibbs free energy diagrams (Fig. 5(f)) via two possible associative hydrogenation pathways, including enzymatic and consecutive (similar to distal mechanism but through side-on pattern [30]) mechanisms, with their optimized atom configurations of the reaction intermediates shown in Fig. 5(e). For the enzymatic pathway, the rate-determining step (RDS) is $^*\text{NH}-\text{N H} \rightarrow ^*\text{NH}-^*\text{NH}_2$ with the highest energy barrier (ΔG_{RDS}) of 1.07 eV, whereas the most difficult step for consecutive pathway is the initial hydrogenation of $^*\text{N}_2 \rightarrow ^*\text{N}-^*\text{NH}$ with the ΔG_{RDS} considerably reduced to 0.58 eV. Thus, the hydrogenation of $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$ prefers to undergo through consecutive pathway rather than enzymatic pathway. In general, the scaling relation exists in the electrocatalytic NRR process [65], that is, the strong N_2 adsorption/activation to lower the initial hydrogenation barrier may cause the excessive binding of certain NRR intermediates to largely increase the energy barrier of following reaction steps. Accordingly, such scaling relation works well for the enzymatic pathway by substantially lifting the energy barrier of $^*\text{NH}-\text{N H} \rightarrow ^*\text{NH}-^*\text{NH}_2$ due to the excessive binding of $^*\text{NH}-^*\text{NH}$, whereas the consecutive pathway can weaken the scaling relation to favorably balance the binding energies of NRR intermediates, eventually resulting in reduced energetic barrier and more

preferred NRR process. We further calculate the overpotential η of $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$ on the basis of $\eta = U_e - U_L$ [66], where U_e is the equilibrium potential of NRR (-0.16 V) and U_L is the limiting potential ($U_L = -\Delta G_{\text{PDS}}/e = -0.58 \text{ V}$). The calculated η is 0.42 V for $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$, which is theoretically lower than those of most reported MoS_2 -based NRR electrocatalysts, such as MoS_2 (0.71 V [32]), defect-rich MoS_2 (0.44 V) [33], $\text{MoS}_2/\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ heterostructure (0.46 V) [32], and Co-doped MoS_2 (0.78 V) [67], suggesting the great promise of $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$ for the NRR.

We finally sought to examine whether NRR-efficient $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$ is also active for the HER. In general, HER involves a two-step process in neutral or alkaline electrolyte: water dissociation and then hydrogen evolution [44]. An efficient HER catalyst should possess low water dissociation energy ($\Delta G_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$) and have a nearly zero $^*\text{H}$ adsorption energy ($\Delta G_{^*\text{H}}$). As presented in Fig. 5(g), albeit $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$ favors the H_2 evolution with a relatively low $\Delta G_{^*\text{H}}$ (-0.32 eV), it possesses a highly positive $\Delta G_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ (0.97 eV), which inhibits the initial cleavage of H-OH bond and limits the overall HER kinetics. We also find that $\Delta G_{^*\text{N}_2}$ (-0.47 eV) is more negative than $\Delta G_{^*\text{H}}$ (-0.32 eV), suggesting the preferential adsorption of N_2 rather than H^+ on $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$ in the catalytic reactions, which is more likely to facilitate the NRR and restrict the HER. Therefore, $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_s$ can effectively suppress the HER and activate the NRR in neutral electrolyte, agreeing well with the favorable NRR performance of MoS_3 determined in the experiments.

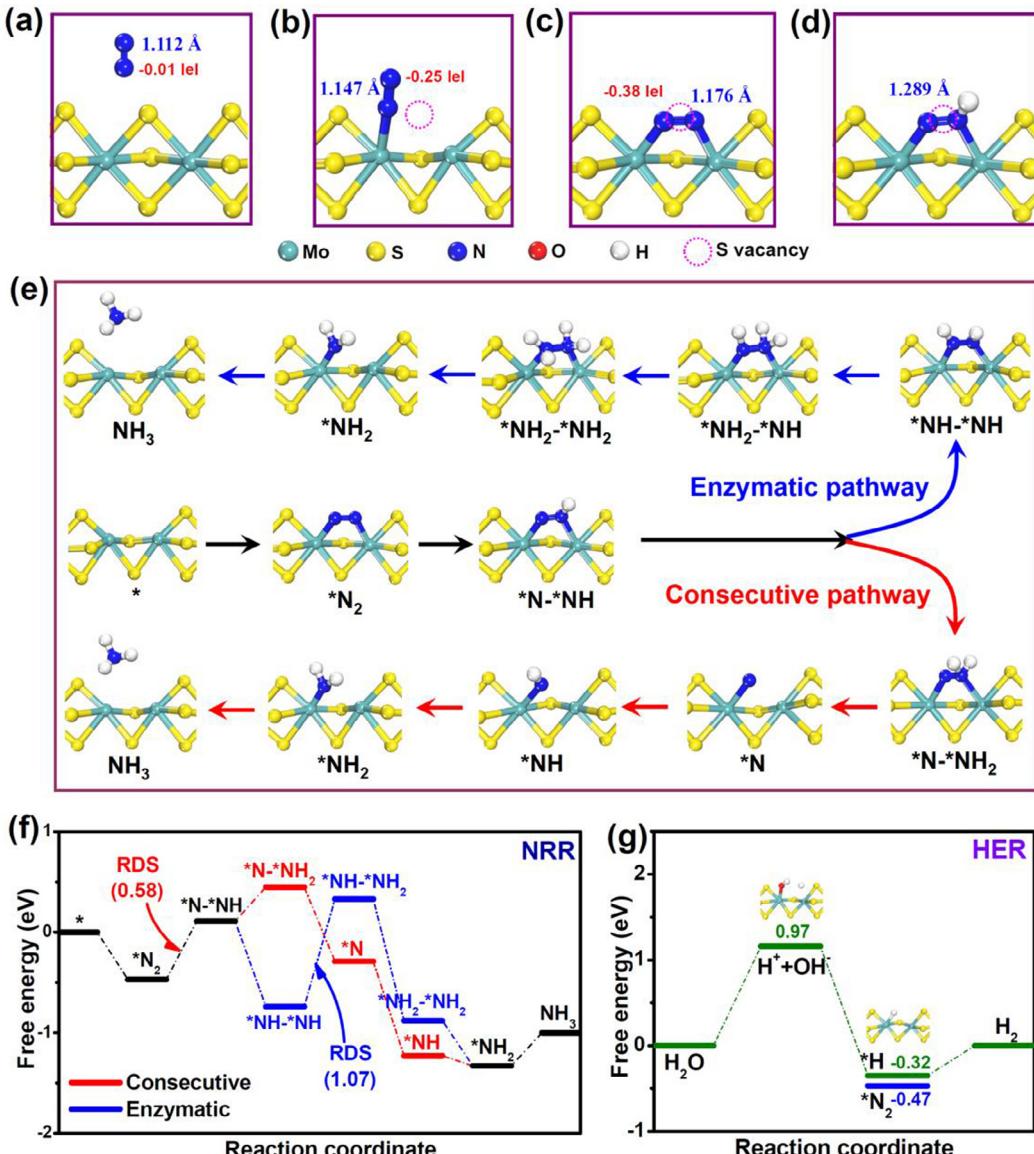


Fig. 5. (a–c) Optimized structures of $^*\text{N}_2$ over (a) pristine MoS_3 , (b, c) MoS_3 with a surface V_s ($\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_\text{s}$, b: end-on pattern, c: side-on pattern). (d) Optimized structures of $^*\text{N}\text{-}^*\text{NH}$ over $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_\text{s}$. (e) Schematic of the NRR pathways over $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_\text{s}$. (f) Free energy diagrams of NRR pathways over $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_\text{s}$ at zero potential. (g) Free energy diagram of HER pathway over $\text{MoS}_3\text{-V}_\text{s}$ in neutral media.

In summary, a combination of experimental methodology and computational calculations validated that amorphous MoS_3 enriched with S vacancies could be a highly efficient NRR catalyst with an NH_3 yield of $51.7 \mu\text{g h}^{-1} \text{mg}^{-1}$ and an FE of 12.8% at -0.3 V in 0.5 M LiClO_4 , together with the outstanding long-term durability. DFT analysis unveiled that S vacancies involved in MoS_3 served as the catalytic centers that could effectively activate N_2 , reduce the energetics barrier through a consecutive mechanism, and concurrently inhibit the HER. These findings suggest the promising potential of MoS_3 and related materials for application in electrochemical N_2 fixation to NH_3 .

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecchem.2020.04.074>.

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