

Modulating the Coordination Environment of Atomically Dispersed Nickel for Efficient Electrocatalytic CO₂ Reduction at Low Overpotentials and Industrial Current Densities

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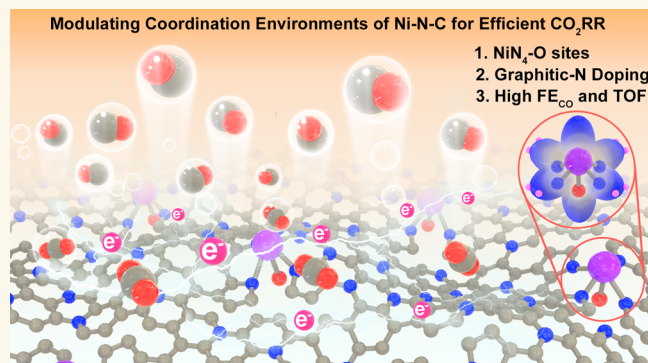
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ABSTRACT: Electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversion with a high CO Faradaic efficiency (FE_{CO}) at low overpotentials and industrial-level current densities is highly desirable but a huge challenge over non-noble metal catalysts. Herein, graphitic N-rich porous carbons supporting atomically dispersed nickel (NiN₄-O sites with an axial oxygen) were synthesized (denoted as O-Ni-N_x-GC) and applied as the cathode catalyst in a CO₂RR flow cell. O-Ni-N_x-GC showed excellent selectivity with a FE_{CO} over 92% at low overpotentials ranging from 17 to 60 mV, and over 99% at 80 mV. The FE_{CO} was ~100% at industrial-level current densities from 200 to 900 mA·cm⁻². Impressively, O-Ni-N_x-GC delivered a state-of-the-art FE_{CO} of >96% at 1 A·cm⁻² with a turnover frequency of 81.5 s⁻¹ in a 1 M KOH electrolyte. O-Ni-N_x-GC offered excellent stability during long-term operation for 140 h at 100 mA·cm⁻², maintaining a FE_{CO} > 99%. Mechanism studies revealed that the axial oxygen at the atomically dispersed nickel sites enhanced electron delocalization, with the graphitic N-rich porous carbon support lowering the CO₂-to-CO energy barrier and inducing a negative shift in the Ni-3d d-band center, effectively promoting the formation of the *COOH intermediate while weakening the adsorption of the *CO intermediate, thus optimizing the catalytic activity/selectivity to CO under practical conditions.

KEYWORDS: metal–nitrogen–carbon, NiN₄-O site, CO₂ electroreduction, high FE_{CO}, ampere-level current density



The electrocatalytic carbon dioxide reduction reaction (CO₂RR) offers a promising strategy for achieving global carbon balance and avoiding the worst impacts of climate change caused by anthropogenic CO₂ emissions.^{1–4} Utilizing renewably generated electricity in combination with efficient electrocatalysts to convert CO₂ into high-value bulk chemicals and carbon-neutral fuels, CO₂RR emerges as a vital process in the pathway to decarbonization.^{5,6} Among the various possible products of electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction, CO holds significant importance as a feed in many important industrial chemical processes, especially Fischer–Tropsch syntheses of multicarbon oxygenates and hydrocarbon products.⁷ Further, CO is used as a reducing agent in the manufacture of steel. For electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversions at industrial-scale, it is essential to develop catalysts

that exhibit high activity, high selectivity to CO, a high turnover frequency (TOF), high energy conversion efficiency, and excellent durability under ampere-level current densities.^{8–11} However, finding catalysts that satisfy all of the aforementioned criteria has proved a huge challenge to date, especially catalysts that can achieve nearly 100% Faradaic efficiency to CO (FE_{CO}) at high current densities (>200 mA·

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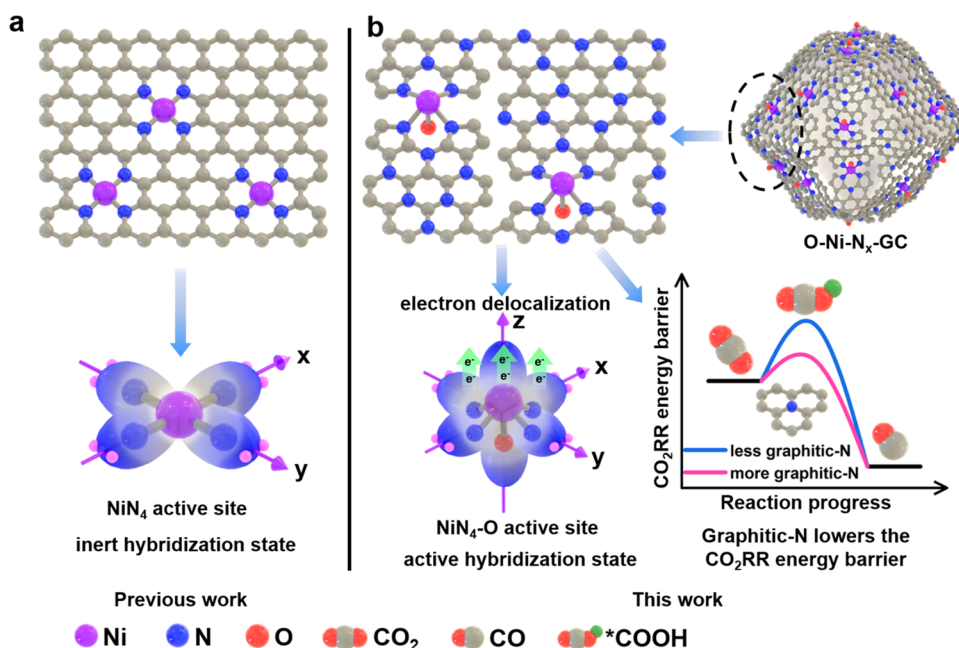


Figure 1. The general strategy for electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction in our study. (a) Schematic illustration of the carbon supported NiN₄ catalyst. (b) Schematic illustration of the synthesized graphitic N-doped porous carbon supported NiN₄-O active sites (denoted as O-Ni-N_x-GC). Highlight the graphitic-N and NiN₄-O sites to lower the CO₂RR energy barrier.

cm⁻²) without the occurrence of the competing hydrogen evolution reaction (HER).^{12–15} This work represents a significant advancement by addressing these challenges through the rational design of a novel NiN₄-O coordinated catalyst that delivers outstanding performance under industrial conditions with almost no occurrence of HER.

Recently, metal–nitrogen–carbon (M–N–C) catalysts have emerged at the forefront of electrocatalytic CO₂RR due to their low-cost, near maximal metal atom utilization, well-defined active sites, and excellent chemical/electrochemical stability.^{16–21} Most reported M–N–C typically exhibit a planar phthalocyanine-like structures (MN₄), where the square-planar MN₄ moieties are considered the primary active sites. However, certain MN₄ species, owing to their higher structural/electronic symmetry, exhibit chemical inertness, hampering electron transfer to reactants to some extent.^{22,23} Particularly, the electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversion performance of most M–N–C catalysts is limited under industrial current density conditions due to significant increases in overpotential, and their stability is also adversely impacted under such high current densities, reducing the energy conversion efficiency.^{24,25} A recent notable contribution reported a method utilizing single-atom nickel-decorated carbon membranes for CO₂ electroreduction, achieving stable performance over a 120 h testing period at a current density of 308.4 mA·cm⁻² with FE_{CO} > 95%.²⁶ Although this work signifies a significant advancement in the field, it should be noted that the FE_{CO} obtained at low overpotentials was relatively low, with the maximum CO partial current density (*j*_{CO}) reaching only 336.5 mA·cm⁻² with a FE_{CO} of 83%. These results indicate there is still substantial scope for improvement in the design of M–N–C electrocatalysts to meet the practical requirements of electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversion with high FE_{CO} under both low overpotential and high current density conditions.

To simultaneously achieve efficient electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversion performance at both low overpotentials and high current densities, we herein designed and synthesized graphitic N-rich porous carbon hollow capsules supporting atomically dispersed nickel. The nickel sites possessed a NiN₄-O coordination, consisting of a square-planar NiN₄ with an axial oxygen, with the developed O-Ni-N_x-GC catalyst outperforming traditional M–N–C catalysts for CO₂RR to CO (Figure 1). The introduction of axial oxygen (NiN₄-O) enhances the electron delocalization at the nickel center, which together with graphitic N-rich porous carbon support lowers the energy barrier for the formation of the *COOH intermediate and the desorption of the *CO intermediate, enabling O-Ni-N_x-GC to deliver excellent catalytic performance over a wide current density range from 10 mA·cm⁻² to 1 A·cm⁻² (corresponding overpotentials ranged from 17.4 mV to 2 V, vs RHE, with *iR* correction) in a 1 M KOH electrolyte. Through detailed experimental studies, O-Ni-N_x-GC achieved a record high TOF of 81.5 s⁻¹ with ~100% Faradaic efficiency for FE_{CO} across a broad current density range from 100 to 900 mA·cm⁻², far exceeding reported M–N–C catalysts and other state-of-the-art catalysts under similar conditions. Moreover, O-Ni-N_x-GC demonstrates exceptional stability, maintaining a FE_{CO} > 99% over 140 h at a current density of 100 mA·cm⁻² in a 1 M KOH electrolyte. The excellent performance of the developed O-Ni-N_x-GC catalyst and the cooperative functions of specific components guide the rational design of efficient electrocatalyst for CO₂-to-CO conversion under industrial conditions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis and Characterization of Materials. To address the challenge of efficient electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversion at both low overpotentials and industrially relevant current densities, graphitic N-rich porous carbon capsules functionalized with atomically dispersed nickel with a NiN₄-O

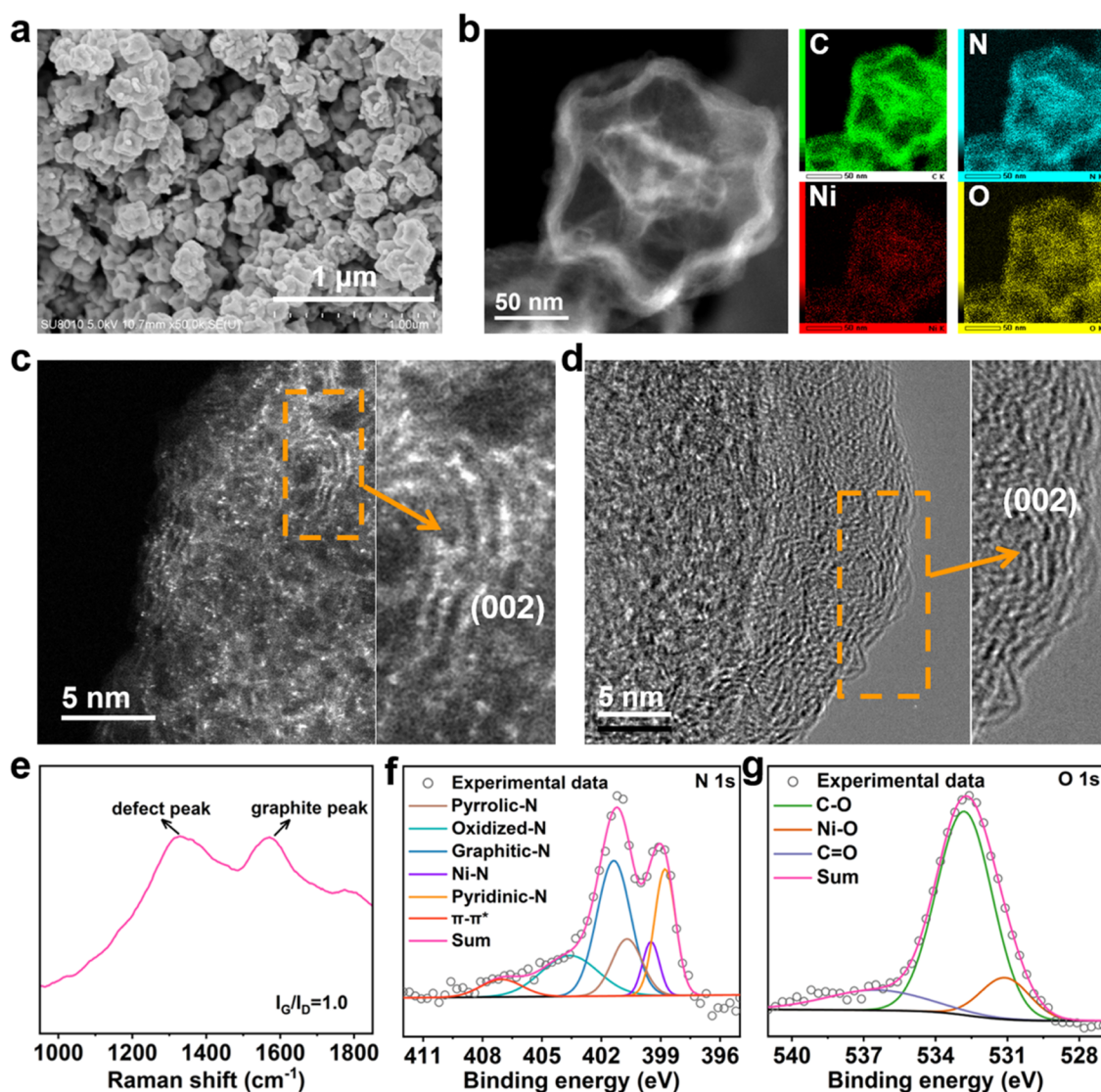


Figure 2. Structural characterization of O–Ni–N_x–GC. (a) SEM image of O–Ni–N_x–GC. (b) HAADF-STEM and corresponding EDS mapping images for O–Ni–N_x–GC. (c, d) Spherical-aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM and TEM images for O–Ni–N_x–GC (highlighting the atomically dispersed Ni sites and graphitic-N doped carbon). (e) Raman spectrum for O–Ni–N_x–GC. f, g N 1s and O 1s X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) for O–Ni–N_x–GC.

coordination (O–Ni–N_x–GC) were synthesized (Figure S1). Initially, ZIF-8 nanocrystals were synthesized and then coated with a potassium-tannic acid (TA) coordination polymer, yielding a ZIF-8@K-TA (Figures S2 and S3). Subsequently, potassium cations were replaced by nickel ions through ion-exchange in a Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O/methanol solution, producing ZIF-8@Ni-TA. Next, the ZIF-8@Ni-TA was pyrolyzed at 1000 °C in an argon atmosphere, followed by etching with hydrochloric acid (HCl) and a second pyrolysis at 1000 °C, resulting in atomically dispersed NiN₄–O immobilized on graphitic nitrogen-rich porous carbon capsules. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) revealed that O–Ni–N_x–GC possessed polyhedral morphology, similar to the ZIF-8, ZIF-8@K-TA, and ZIF-8@Ni-TA (Figures 2a and S4). Low-magnification high-angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) images showed the hollow morphology, and corresponding energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) images revealed uniform distribution of C, N, Ni, and O through the O–Ni–N_x–GC sample (Figure 2b). Spherical-aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM

further revealed the presence of highly dispersed bright spots (average size ~0.2 nm), verifying the existence of atomically dispersed Ni species on the hollow capsules (Figure 2c). No large nanoparticles were observed, reaffirming the high dispersion of Ni in the sample. Notably, the O–Ni–N_x–GC catalyst exhibited a pronounced graphitic structure, evidenced by the typical (002) basal planes, indicating a high degree of graphitization (Figure 2c,d). This was further confirmed by Raman spectroscopy, where the I_G/I_D intensity ratio was ~1.0 (Figure 2e).^{27,28} Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) showed two distinct peaks at ~25° and ~44°, attributed to the (002) and (101) planes of graphite (PDF#75-1621-Graphite, Figure S5).^{29,30} No peaks associated with Ni metal or Ni oxides were seen. The elemental composition of O–Ni–N_x–GC was probed using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) and elemental analysis (EA), with the nickel and nitrogen contents determined to be 1.04 and 5.6 wt %, respectively (Table S1).

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy (XAS) were next employed to

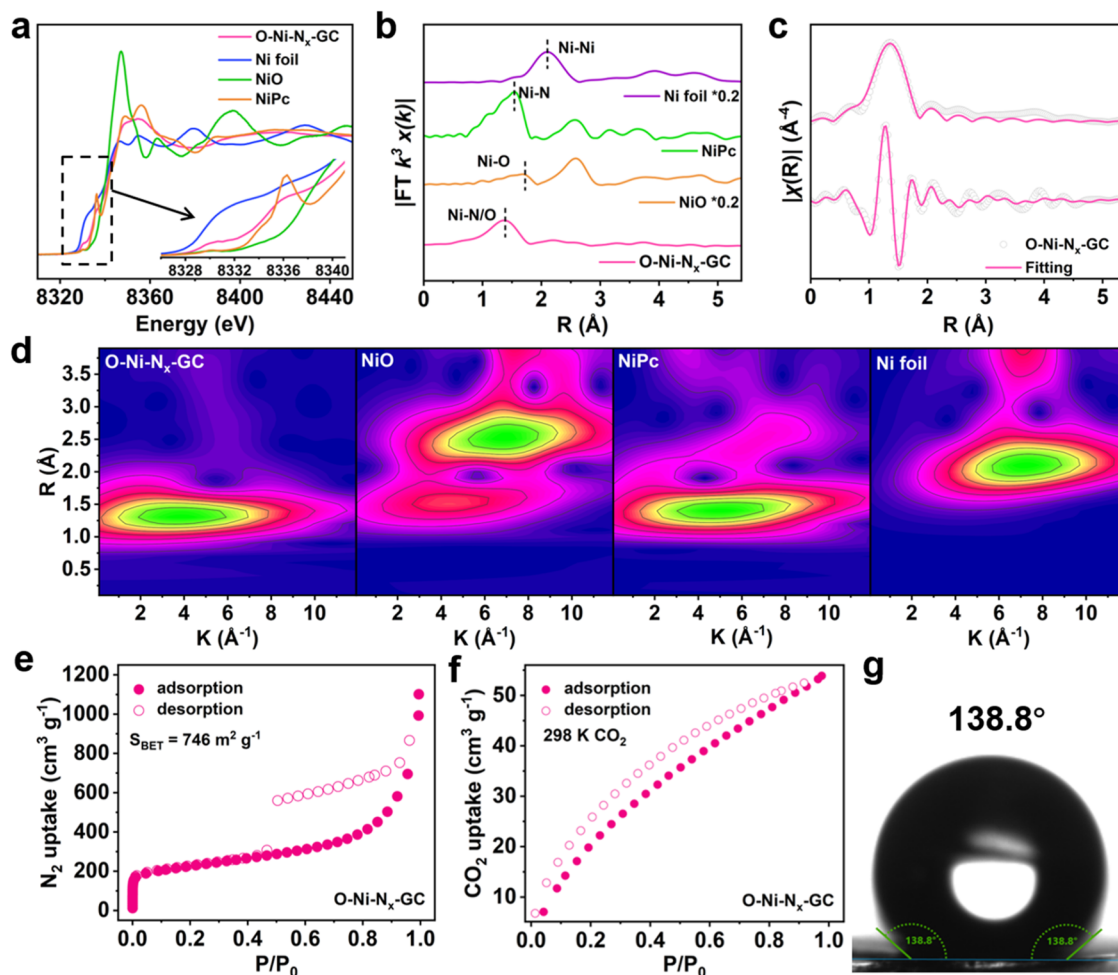


Figure 3. Electronic structure, Ni coordination geometry and water contact angle of O-Ni-N_x-GC. (a) Ni K-edge XANES spectra for O-Ni-N_x-GC, Ni foil, NiO, and NiPc. (b) Corresponding EXAFS spectra for O-Ni-N_x-GC, Ni foil, NiO, and NiPc. (c) EXAFS fitting of data for O-Ni-N_x-GC in R space. (d) WT contour plots for O-Ni-N_x-GC, Ni foil, NiO, and NiPc. (e) N₂ sorption isotherms for O-Ni-N_x-GC measured at 77 K. (f) CO₂ sorption isotherms for O-Ni-N_x-GC measured at 298 K. (g) Contact angle for a water droplet on pressed pellets of O-Ni-N_x-GC.

explore the electronic structure of O-Ni-N_x-GC. The XPS survey spectrum showed the presence of C, N, O, and Ni elements in O-Ni-N_x-GC (Figure S6). The high-resolution C 1s spectra showed C-C, C-N, and C-O/C=O peaks, confirming the successful doping of N and O in O-Ni-N_x-GC (Figure S6). The additional $\pi-\pi^*$ signal in the C 1s spectrum proved the high degree of graphitization in O-Ni-N_x-GC.³¹ The high-resolution N 1s XPS spectrum showed peaks due to pyridinic-N (~398.7 eV), pyrrolic-N (~400.7 eV), graphitic-N (~401.3 eV), oxidized-N (~403.6 eV) and $\pi-\pi^*$ (~407.0 eV) in O-Ni-N_x-GC, with the graphitic-N content ~35.2% of total N (Figure 2f).³²⁻³⁴ The additional peak at ~399.5 eV corresponds to pyrrolic-nitrogen species forming Ni-N_x bonds through coordination with Ni atoms, suggesting that O-Ni-N_x-GC mainly contains pyrrolic-type Ni-N structures.¹⁵ As shown in Figure 2g, the high-resolution O 1s XPS spectra of O-Ni-N_x-GC displayed a peak centered at 531.2 eV, which can be attributed to the formation of the Ni-O bond.³⁵ The Ni 2p spectrum showed peaks at ~855 eV (Ni 2p_{3/2}) and 872.3 eV (Ni 2p_{1/2}) in a 2:1 area ratio, indicating O-Ni-N_x-GC contained Ni²⁺ ions (Figure S6).³⁶ The observation of Ni²⁺ “shake-up” satellites in the XPS spectrum verified this hypothesis.

XAS measurements were carried out to further elucidate the Ni oxidation state and local coordination geometry of Ni atoms in O-Ni-N_x-GC. NiO, nickel phthalocyanine (NiPc), and Ni foil were used as reference materials. The Ni K-edge X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectra reveal that the absorption edge of O-Ni-N_x-GC was similar to those of NiO and NiPc (Figure 3a), indicating that the oxidation state of nickel ions was likely +2, consistent with the XPS results.²⁵ The pre-edge features in the XANES spectra showed a peak ~8330 eV (representing a quadrupole-allowed transition, 1s → 3d). For NiPc, this peak was weak due to the high D_{4h} center of symmetry in the molecule, whereas the same feature was much more intense for O-Ni-N_x-GC suggesting hybridization of 3d and 4p orbitals of the Ni atoms, resulting in dipole-allowed 1s → 4p transitions to create more unpaired 3d electrons.³⁷⁻³⁹ This hybridization was likely caused by distortions from D_{4h} symmetry, most probably due to the axial oxygen coordination disrupting the D_{4h} symmetry. The 1s → 4pz transition at ~8336 eV for O-Ni-N_x-GC was significantly less pronounced compared to the same peak for NiPc, again consistent with a distortion from the typical square planar Ni-N₄ structure, further evidencing the distorted D_{4h} symmetry of the Ni atoms in O-Ni-N_x-GC.^{40,41} Fourier

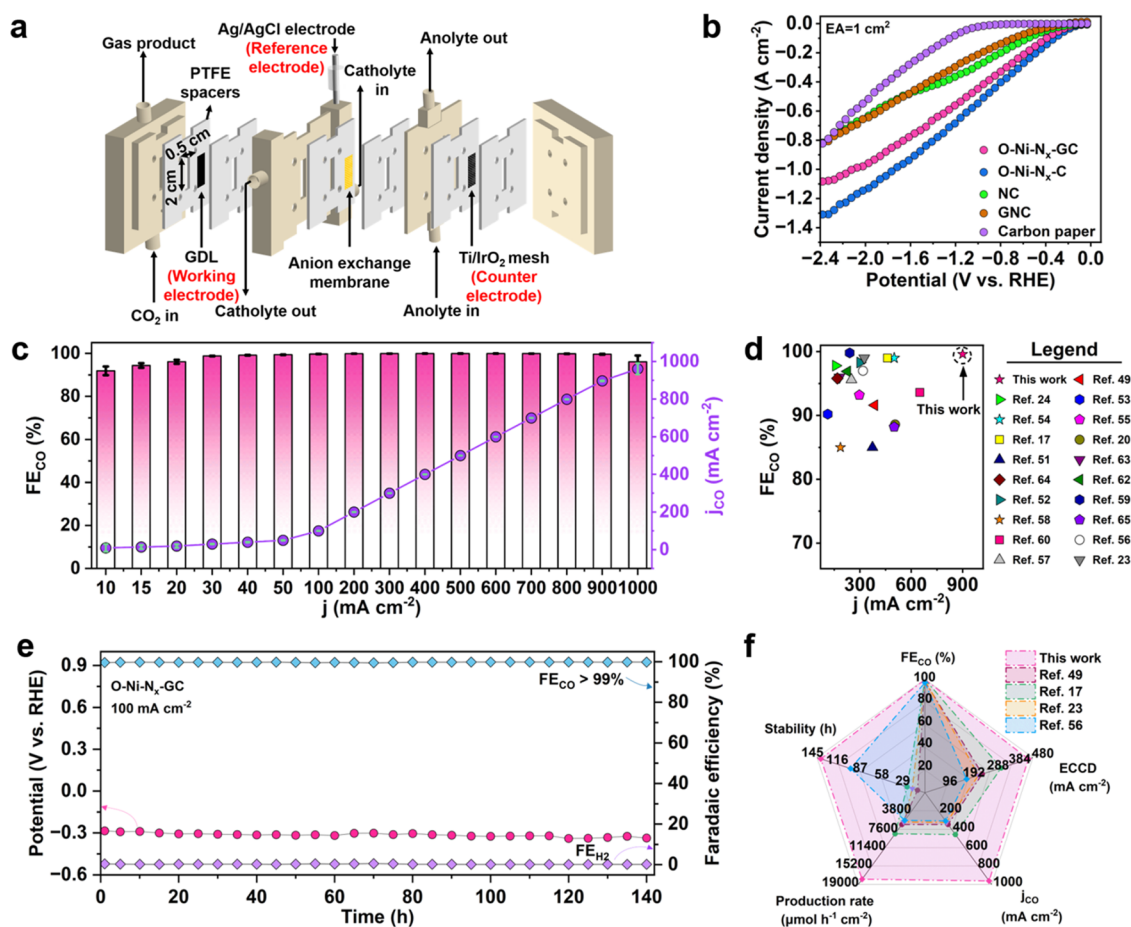


Figure 4. The CO₂RR performance of O-Ni-N_x-GC. (a) Schematic diagram of the GDE-based flow cell. (b) LSV curves for O-Ni-N_x-GC, O-Ni-N_x-C, GNC, and NC in 1 M KOH (the area of the GDE is 1 cm², scan rate, 5 mV·s⁻¹). (c) FE_{CO} and j_{CO} for O-Ni-N_x-GC at different j values. (d) Comparison of the FE_{CO} and maximum j values in a 1 M KOH electrolyte of recently reported state-of-the-art catalysts. (e) Durability tests of O-Ni-N_x-GC for CO₂RR at a current density of 100 mA·cm⁻². (f) Comparison of the stability, FE_{CO}, ECCD, CO production rate and partial current density to CO of O-Ni-N_x-GC and other state-of-the-art electrodes. Overall performance comparison between O-Ni-N_x-GC and reported state-of-the-art catalysts for CO₂-to-CO conversion. The error bars represent standard deviations of three measurements and the dashed lines are added guides to the eye. All measurements were conducted under the same conditions (1 M KOH, pH = 13.85, *i*R corrected 0.9 Ω, 25 °C).

transform-extended X-ray absorption fine structure (FT-EXAFS) spectra show a primary peak at ~ 1.4 Å (Figure 3b), attributable to the scattering interactions of Ni atoms with the first shell (Ni-N/O) in O-Ni-N_x-GC.⁴² No Ni-Ni scattering path at ~ 2.1 Å was seen for O-Ni-N_x-C, confirming that Ni is atomically dispersed, consistent with HAADF-STEM and PXRD results. Next, bond lengths and coordination numbers were extracted from the optimized EXAFS curve fitting results to verify the coordination microenvironment around Ni atoms in O-Ni-N_x-GC (Figure 3c and Table S2).⁴² These data supported the presence of a NiN₄-O (one axial O) active site in O-Ni-N_x-GC. The corresponding wavelet transform (WT)-EXAFS contour plot (Figure 3d) exhibited a strong WT signal at ~ 1.4 Å in R space, associated with Ni-N/O coordination in O-Ni-N_x-GC. The optimal average coordination numbers for O-Ni-N_x-GC was 4.86 (close to 5), with mean bond lengths of 1.96 Å, indicating the presence of five coordinated atoms around the nickel atoms, differing from the M-N₄ sites obtained from ZIF-8 reported previously (Table S2).^{43–45}

Next, we carried out nitrogen sorption measurements at 77 K to study the porosity of O-Ni-N_x-GC. Type IV

adsorption-desorption isotherms were observed, suggesting the presence of layered micropore/mesoporous structures in the sample (Figure 3e). The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area of O-Ni-N_x-GC was 746 m²·g⁻¹. The CO₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms for O-Ni-N_x-GC were also measured up to 1 bar at 298 K (Figure 3f). The CO₂ uptake value is 53.8 cm³·g⁻¹ at 298 K, providing a basis for good CO₂ mass transfer. A water contact angle experiment showed that the water contact angle of O-Ni-N_x-GC is 138.8°, suggesting considerable hydrophobicity (Figure 3g). Taken together, these data strongly suggest the presence of an axial oxygen atom at NiN₄ sites in O-Ni-N_x-GC. On the basis of such NiN₄-O catalytic sites, high porosity, graphitic-N-rich carbon structural features, as well as excellent CO₂ uptake ability, O-Ni-N_x-GC possessed all the essential components to be a good electrocatalyst for CO₂-to-CO conversions, as was confirmed by the electrocatalytic experiments below. Moreover, the aforementioned structural characterizations of O-Ni-N_x-GC also provide solid experimental basis for subsequent density functional theory (DFT) modeling and mechanism studies of the CO₂RR.

To accurately assess the electrocatalytic CO₂RR performance of O–Ni–N_x–GC, we also synthesized graphitic N-rich porous carbon (denoted as GNC), N-doped carbon with a lower content of graphitic nitrogen (denoted as NC), and NC supporting atomically dispersed nickel with NiN₄–O sites (denoted as O–Ni–N_x–C). The synthesis and characterization data for these samples are provided in the [Supporting Information](#) (experimental section and material characterization). As expected, we found that GNC still exhibited a graphitic structure similar to O–Ni–N_x–C. SEM, PXRD, HAADF-STEM, and XAS revealed that O–Ni–N_x–GC and NC also had similar structures as O–Ni–N_x–GC and GNC, except with lower graphitic-N contents, respectively ([Figures S7–S14, Tables S1 and S2](#)).

Electrocatalytic CO₂RR Performance. To evaluate the electrocatalytic CO₂RR ability of the aforementioned catalysts, a traditional three-electrode setup was employed and applied in a flow cell device equipped with a gas diffusion electrode (GDE). The synthesized catalytic materials were coated on carbon papers to form working electrodes, with Ag/AgCl and Ti/IrO₂ used as reference and counter electrodes, respectively ([Figure 4a](#)). A 1 M KOH aqueous solution was used as the electrolyte, and a peristaltic pump used to circulate the solution through the anode and cathode compartments. Considering the impact of CO₂ consumption during the reaction, real-time monitoring of the gas outlet flow was achieved using an electronic soap bubble flowmeter to enhance the precision of Faradaic efficiency analysis.⁴⁶ Concurrently, a constant current method based on transient electrochemical technology was utilized for convenience and accuracy of current measurement at the working electrode. The linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves revealed that O–Ni–N_x–GC and O–Ni–N_x–C exhibited a significantly higher current response for CO₂ reduction than GNC and NC ([Figure 4b](#)). Carbon paper demonstrated much lower activity than GNC and NC. The data suggests that the presence of atomically dispersed Ni markedly enhanced the CO₂ reduction activity. The higher metal content observed in O–Ni–N_x–C compared to O–Ni–N_x–GC, as indicated by ICP-MS results ([Table S1](#)), accounts for the slightly higher current density observed in O–Ni–N_x–C at the same applied potentials. Gas products were collected at the gas outlet of the flow cell using gas bags, and their components and concentrations analyzed offline by gas chromatography (GC). Liquid reduction products were analyzed using offline ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H NMR) spectroscopy. CO and H₂ were the only gaseous products identified, with no evidence found for any liquid products being formed ([Figure S15](#)). As shown in [Figure 4c](#), O–Ni–N_x–GC achieved a remarkable FE_{CO} of 91.9% at an ultralow onset potential of –0.12 V vs RHE (10 mA·cm^{–2}) and delivered >99% FE_{CO} at –0.18 V vs RHE (overpotential ~80.9 mV, with *iR* correction; 30 mA·cm^{–2}). In comparison, O–Ni–N_x–C exhibited a 88.5% FE_{CO} at –0.12 V vs RHE and >99% FE_{CO} at –0.26 V vs RHE (overpotential ~159.8 mV, with *iR* correction) ([Table S3 and Figure S16](#)). Notably, O–Ni–N_x–GC was more effective in suppressing the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) compared to O–Ni–N_x–C across a wide range of current densities ([Figure S17](#)). Impressively, O–Ni–N_x–GC demonstrated an excellent FE_{CO} (>99%) across a broad current density range from 100 to 900 mA·cm^{–2}, with FE_{H₂} values close to 0% over the same potential range. At a higher current density of 1 A·cm^{–2}, O–Ni–N_x–GC exhibited a FE_{CO} of >96%, higher than that of O–Ni–N_x–C ([Figures 4c](#)

and [S16](#)). The maximum *j*_{CO} values for O–Ni–N_x–GC and O–Ni–N_x–C were 960.5 and 944.1 mA·cm^{–2}, respectively, thus satisfying industrial-scale current density requirements ([Table S4](#)). Such performance exceeds all other previously reported CO₂-to-CO electrocatalysts in 1 M KOH ([Figure 4d](#) and [Table S4](#)), making both catalysts (especially O–Ni–N_x–GC) promising candidates for industrial-scale electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction. Moreover, CO production rates of 17916.51 and 17609.75 μmol·h^{–1}·cm^{–2} were realized for O–Ni–N_x–GC and O–Ni–N_x–C, respectively, at a current density of 1 A·cm^{–2} ([Figure S18](#)). On the basis of atomically dispersed nickel sites, the calculated TOF values for O–Ni–N_x–GC and O–Ni–N_x–C were 81.5 s^{–1} and 24.0 s^{–1}, respectively ([Figure S19 and Table S4](#)). O–Ni–N_x–GC thus showed a TOF value 3.3 times higher than that of O–Ni–N_x–C, providing substantial evidence efficiency of NiN₄–O sites on the highly graphitized-N doped porous carbon capsules for driving CO₂RR. To the best of our knowledge, this number is a record value as it exceeds the TOF value at ampere-level current densities of all Ni–N–C catalysts reported to date, such as Ni–N₅–C single-atom nanozyme (total current density of 1230 mA·cm^{–2}, TOF of 69.4 s^{–1}),⁹ as well as Ni₁–N–C-50 carbon-based single atoms synthesized via microwave method on a ZIF-8 substrate (total current density of ~1104 mA·cm^{–2}, TOF of ~66.9 s^{–1}).⁴⁷ Next, the performance of O–Ni–N_x–GC was assessed using the energy conversion current density (ECCD), a parameter that encapsulates energy conversion efficiency, product selectivity, and current density. The ECCD approach enables meaningful comparisons between catalysts and is a reliable measure of catalytic performance and selectivity.⁹ The ECCD was calculated to be 460.4 mA·cm^{–2} at 1 A·cm^{–2} for O–Ni–N_x–GC, a record value that surpasses all other reported known electrocatalysts under similar conditions ([Table S4 and Figure S20](#)). Durability is a further important criterion when evaluating catalysts. Hence, we carried out constant current stability tests on O–Ni–N_x–GC during CO₂RR at current densities of 100 and 200 mA·cm^{–2}, respectively. As shown in [Figure 4e](#), O–Ni–N_x–GC delivered a stable FE_{CO} close to 100% stable over 140 h of testing at a current density of 100 mA·cm^{–2}. At a current density of 200 mA·cm^{–2}, over 98% FE_{CO} was maintained for 34 h ([Figure S21](#)). The decreased FE_{CO} during the test is attributed to the reaction between the KOH electrolyte and CO₂ (CO₂ + OH[–] → HCO₃[–], CO₂ + 2OH[–] → CO₃^{2–} + H₂O),⁴⁸ which created carbonate/bicarbonate precipitates that disrupted the hydrophobic layer of the carbon paper, ultimately resulting in flooding. PXRD analysis of the O–Ni–N_x–GC catalyst after the long-term durability test revealed that besides the characteristic peaks of accumulated salt crystals and the microporous layer of the carbon paper ([Figure S22](#)), there were no characteristic peaks of Ni crystallites, indicating that the single Ni atoms remained well-dispersed without aggregation. TEM images of O–Ni–N_x–GC after stability tests demonstrate that the hollow structure did not collapse after 100 and 34 h at current densities of 100 and 200 mA·cm^{–2}, respectively ([Figure S23](#)). This verifies that the decline in catalytic performance was due to flooding rather than the catalyst itself, further demonstrating the exceptional durability of O–Ni–N_x–GC in CO₂RR. Comparing the overall electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversion performance such as FE_{CO}, ECCD, *j*_{CO}, production rate, and durability, it is evident that O–Ni–N_x–GC outperforms other previously reported electrocatalysts in 1 M KOH electrolyte,

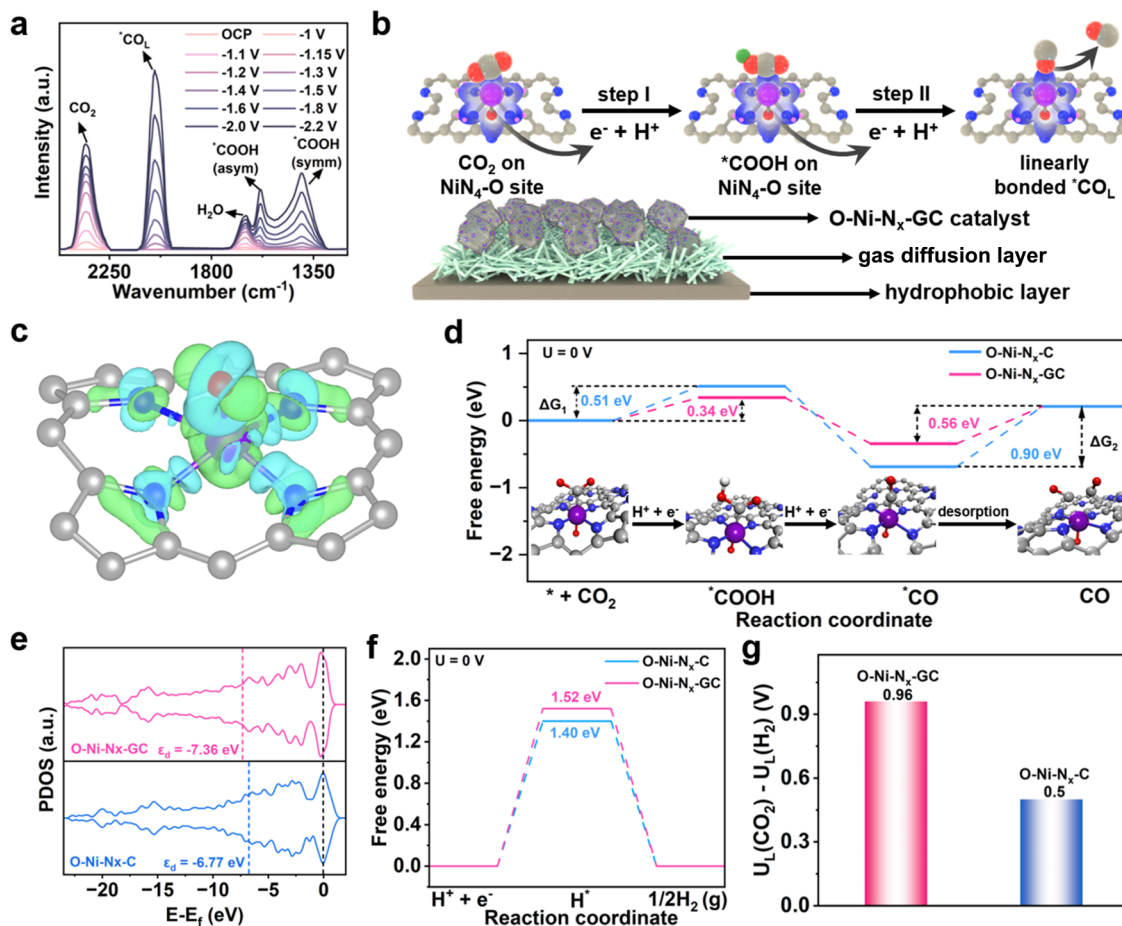


Figure 5. *In-situ* ATR-SEIRAS experiment and DFT calculation. (a) *In-situ* ATR-SEIRAS spectra of O-Ni-N_x-GC at different potentials in a 1 M KOH electrolyte. (b) Schematic illustration of the CO₂RR mechanism in the flow cell system. (c) The charge density difference of O-Ni-N_x-GC, with an iso-surface level of 0.005 e bohr⁻³ (the Cyan and green regions indicate electron accumulation and depletion, respectively). (d) Free energy diagram of CO₂RR on NiN₄-O active site at U = 0 V (inset shows the DFT model of O-Ni-N_x-GC adsorbing CO₂, *COOH, and *CO, and desorbing CO). (e) Projected d-density of states of Ni over O-Ni-N_x-GC and O-Ni-N_x-C surfaces. (f) Free energy diagram of HER on O-Ni-N_x-GC and O-Ni-N_x-C at U = 0 V. (g) Limiting potential differences for CO₂RR and HER on O-Ni-N_x-GC and O-Ni-N_x-C at U = 0 V.

positioning it as an excellent candidate for industrial-scale electrocatalytic CO₂RR (Figure 4f and Table S4).^{9,17–20,23,24,48–65}

Electrocatalytic CO₂RR Mechanism. To further elucidate the electrocatalytic CO₂RR mechanism of O-Ni-N_x-GC, we conducted *in situ* attenuated total reflectance-surface-enhanced infrared absorption spectroscopy (ATR-SEIRAS) measurements in a 1 M KOH aqueous solution. Potential-dependent ATR-SEIRAS spectra were obtained from -1 to -2.2 V vs Ag/AgCl, using the infrared spectra obtained at open circuit voltage as the baseline. Signals corresponding to CO₂ adsorption and interfacial H₂O (H-O-H bending vibration) appeared at around 2355 and 1647 cm⁻¹, respectively (Figure 5a). With an increase in potential, the signal of adsorbed CO₂ gradually intensified. Meanwhile, the concurrent enhancement of the interfacial H₂O signal would promote the hydrogenation of adsorbed CO₂, accelerating the formation of the *COOH intermediate and thus improving the efficiency of CO₂ reduction. This suggests that CO₂ adsorption and activation are enhanced at higher potentials. The concomitant enhancement of the interfacial H₂O peak signal will facilitate the hydrogenation of adsorbed CO₂, expediting the generation of *COOH intermediates, and thereby improves the efficiency of

CO₂ reduction.⁵⁶ The high-frequency bands above 1800 cm⁻¹ originate from CO adsorption on metal binding sites.⁶⁶ The peak around 2050 cm⁻¹ is typical for linearly bonded *CO_L (adsorbed CO, Ni-C≡O). No bridge-bonded *CO_B adsorption was detected, and there was no shift in the *CO_L signal position with increasing CO coverage, indicating the absence of any interaction between adsorbed CO molecules, confirming once again the atomic dispersion of Ni active sites.^{51,67} The signal for *CO_L gradually intensified with increasing voltage, consistent with experimental results. Two peaks were observed near 1405 and 1581 cm⁻¹, attributed to the symmetric stretching (C=O) and asymmetric stretching (C-O) of surface *COOH intermediates, recognized as a key intermediate in the generation of CO.

Additionally, we conducted time-dependent ATR-SEIRAS spectroscopy measurements and recorded the infrared spectra of O-Ni-N_x-GC at -1.3 V (Figure S24). At 30 s, *COOH and *CO_L were detected, indicating that the adsorbed CO₂ molecules were rapidly converted to *COOH. Additionally, the signal of each characteristic peak intensified with extending the electrolysis time. Therefore, we propose a reaction pathway involving three steps (Figure 5b). First, a CO₂ molecule adsorbs onto the single-Ni-atom centers, forming *COOH

intermediates through proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET, step I).⁶⁸ Subsequently, addition of a further electron and a proton yields *CO and H₂O (step II). Finally, the last step involves the desorption of *CO from the catalyst surface, resulting in gaseous CO production.

Subsequently, DFT calculations were conducted to gain a deeper understanding of the superior CO₂RR catalytic activity of the O–Ni–N_x–GC catalyst. Models for O–Ni–N_x–GC and O–Ni–N_x–C were established and optimized based on the above structure characterization data. As shown in Figure 5c, the charge density difference analyses for O–Ni–N_x–GC and O–Ni–N_x–C reveal that, unlike the traditional Ni–N₄ coordination,⁶⁹ electrons in both samples are transferred not only to the N atom but also to the axial O, significantly enhancing electron delocalization at the Ni center and reducing the energy barrier of the rate-determining step (RDS) in CO₂RR.⁷⁰ Furthermore, Gibbs free energy calculations (Figure 5d) indicate that, at $U = 0$ V, the ΔG_1 (CO₂ + * → *COOH) on O–Ni–N_x–GC is 0.34 eV, significantly lower than that on O–Ni–N_x–C (0.51 eV), suggesting that *COOH is more stably adsorbed on the highly graphitized O–Ni–N_x–GC catalyst, facilitating the production of CO at lower potentials. With the aid of PCET, the ΔG for the dissociation of *COOH to form *CO and H₂O was shown to be downhill on both catalyst models. Moreover, the desorption energy barrier (ΔG_2 , *CO → CO + *) of O–Ni–N_x–GC (0.56 eV) for *CO was much lower than that of O–Ni–N_x–C (0.90 eV), explaining the higher selectivity of O–Ni–N_x–GC toward CO. These theoretical results agree well with the experimental results. The ΔG_2 was higher than ΔG_1 on both materials at $U = 0$ V, and when $U = -0.3$ V, the ΔG_1 decreased for both materials, favoring CO₂RR, while the nonelectrochemical step of CO desorption, ΔG_2 , remained constant in both models (Figure S25). However, ΔG_1 remained lower than ΔG_2 , indicating that the desorption of *CO is the RDS, which explains the presence of *CO signals in the *in situ* ATR-SEIRAS experiments. Thus, the *in situ* ATR-SEIRAS results and DFT calculations confirm the presence of *COOH and *CO intermediates on the electrocatalyst surface, consistent with the assumed ECR pathway. Additionally, the projected density of states (PDOS) of the Ni-3d orbitals for O–Ni–N_x–C and O–Ni–N_x–GC were calculated (Figure 5e). Compared to O–Ni–N_x–C, the d-band center of the Ni-3d orbital of O–Ni–N_x–GC shifts toward the negative state as the degree of graphitization increases. This shift weakens the adsorption of *CO intermediates on O–Ni–N_x–GC, thereby enhancing the selectivity for CO.

Considering that HER is the main side reaction of CO₂RR, the difference in the thermodynamic limiting potentials ($U_{L(\text{CO}_2)} - U_{L(\text{H}_2)}$, ΔU_L) for CO₂RR and HER ($U_L = -\Delta G/e$) was calculated on each catalyst to determine the competition and selectivity of the reactions.^{55,71} Based on the free energy diagrams of CO₂RR and HER (Figure 5d,f), the relevant thermodynamic limiting potentials are shown in Figure 5g. Generally, a higher positive ΔU_L indicates a higher selectivity for CO₂RR. As expected, compared to O–Ni–N_x–C, O–Ni–N_x–GC with a highly graphitized structure exhibited the more positive ΔU_L value (0.84 V). Utilizing these structures, the Gibbs free energy with graphitic-N as the catalytic site was calculated. As expected, compared to O–Ni–N_x–C, graphitic-N in the O–Ni–N_x–GC structure was found to more effectively in reducing the energy barrier of the RDS (Figure S26). Moreover, graphitic-N site on O–Ni–N_x–GC

demonstrated a higher HER free energy than for O–Ni–N_x–C, suggesting that O–Ni–N_x–GC is more capable of suppressing hydrogen evolution reactions (Figure S27). These results are highly consistent with the experimental observations of GNC exhibiting optimal FE_{CO} performance and enhanced selectivity for CO generation (Figures S28 and S29). On the basis of experimental results and theoretical calculations, we conclude that the active sites enriched with graphitic-nitrogen enable the O–Ni–N_x–GC catalyst to deliver excellent CO₂RR activity while suppressing the competitive HER. The exceptional electrocatalytic activity of O–Ni–N_x–GC for the reduction of CO₂-to-CO is based on its unique axial oxygen coordination NiN₄–O structure and supplemented by the catalytic effect of graphitic-N, which contributes to better ΔG values for *COOH formation and *CO desorption.

Taken together, the aforementioned experimental and theoretical results demonstrate that the combination of atomically dispersed nickel (coordinated by 4 in-plane N atoms and axial oxygen) and graphitic N-rich porous carbon support creates a very effective electrocatalyst for CO₂ reduction. The presence of NiN₄–O active sites with graphitic-N species synergistically reduce the activation energy barrier for CO₂ adsorption and promotes the formation of intermediate *COOH. It also facilitates *CO desorption from O–Ni–N_x–GC capsules, improving the electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversion performance and avoiding hydrogen evolution. In addition, the high porosity of the porous carbon capsules allows efficient mass transport, resulting in fast CO₂ adsorption on NiN₄–O active sites, together with quick reduction to a CO product. Further, the relationship between the O–Ni–N_x–GC structure and their CO₂ reduction performance has been clearly identified at a molecular level. We anticipate that our proof-of-concept study will promote the synthesis of improved metal–nitrogen–carbon catalysts for electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction and other target applications.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, atomically dispersed nickel (with a NiN₄–O coordination) on a graphitic N-rich porous carbon support (denoted herein as O–Ni–N_x–GC) delivers excellent CO₂-to-CO conversion performance over a wide range of current densities (0.01 to 1 A·cm⁻²). The Faradaic efficiencies achieved (~100% FE_{CO}) surpass the performance of most previously reported metal–nitrogen–carbon catalysts, especially at low overpotential and ampere-level current densities. Experimental and theoretical calculations indicated that the presence of abundant graphitic-N close to the NiN₄–O active sites in O–Ni–N_x–GC not only lowered the energy barrier for *COOH production and the desorption of *CO, but also suppressed the competitive hydrogen evolution reaction. Our findings not only offer new vistas for the design of atomically dispersed catalysts for CO₂RR, but also underscore the regulatory capability of graphitic-N in modulating the catalytic performance of metal active sites, which holds significant implications for the future development of CO₂-to-CO electrocatalysts.

METHODS

Synthesis of ZIF-8, ZIF-8@K-TA, and ZIF-8@Ni-TA Nano-crystals. ZIF-8 nanocrystals were synthesized using a reported procedure with a slight modification.⁷² In a typical synthesis, 4.1 g of 2-methylimidazole was dissolved in 60 mL of MeOH to form a clear

solution. Next, 1.58 g of $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ was then added into the 2-methylimidazole solution followed by vigorous stirring for 1 h. The mixture was then incubated at room temperature without stirring. After 24 h, the product was isolated as a white powder by centrifugation and washed several times with MeOH, and finally dried overnight under vacuum (yielding ZIF-8 nanocrystals).

Next, 250 mg of ZIF-8 nanocrystals were dispersed in deionized water by sonication for 10 min. Then, a tannic acid solution (24 mM, 10 mL) of pH = 8 (adjusted by adding 6 M KOH aqueous solution) was added to the ZIF-8 dispersion under constant stirring. After stirring for 5 min, the solid product was collected by centrifugation, and washed several times with deionized water and MeOH, yielding ZIF-8@K-TA.

Subsequently, 200 mg of nickel nitrate hydrate ($\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$) was dissolved in 150 mL of MeOH under stirring for 10 min. Then, the obtained ZIF-8@K-TA was added to the nickel nitrate solution, with the resulting dispersion being stirred for 3 h at room temperature. The solid product was collected by centrifugation and washed several times with MeOH. Finally, the product was dried in an oven at 40 °C under vacuum to yield ZIF-8@Ni-TA.

Synthesis of Hollow O-Ni-N_x-GC, O-Ni-N_x-C, NC, and GNC Capsules. ZIF-8@Ni-TA was placed in a tube furnace and heated to 1000 °C (3 °C/min) under an argon atmosphere. After annealing at 1000 °C for 3 h, the black powder sample was cooled to room temperature and then immersed in 3 M HCl at 120 °C for 12 h, followed by washing with deionized water. After being dried at 75 °C in a vacuum oven, the powder was again heat-treated at 1000 °C for 3 h under an argon atmosphere to obtain O-Ni-N_x-GC. GNC was synthesized using the same heating protocol using the ZIF-8@K-TA precursor. O-Ni-N_x-C and NC were prepared via similar synthetic routes (using a lower pyrolysis temperature of 900 °C) from ZIF-8@Ni-TA and ZIF-8@K-TA precursors, respectively.

Carbon Dioxide Electroreduction Reaction Measurements. All electrochemical measurements were conducted using a CHI 1140D potentiostat at 25 °C. The measurement potentials were manually corrected using the *iR* compensation function of the potentiostat to extract the actual working potential of the cathode for comparison with other catalysts (~0.9 Ω resistance). All potentials were calibrated to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) and converted using the formula:

$$E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.0591 \times \text{pH} + 0.197 \text{ V} - iR_u$$

where *i* is the applied current and *R_u* is the solution resistance.

Gas products were analyzed using a gas chromatograph (FULI GC9790PLUS) and the liquid products were detected using Bruker Avance III HD 500 MHz nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR). The gas chromatograph was equipped with both a packed molecular sieve 5A column and a HAYESEPA-A column, with high-purity argon (99.999%) serving as the carrier gas. Quantification of the CO fraction was performed using a flame ionization detector (FID) equipped with a nickel conversion furnace, while the H₂ fraction was quantified using a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). The standard curves for CO and H₂ are shown in Figure S30. The reported FEs represented average values derived from a minimum of three measurements. Faradaic efficiency was calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{FE} (\%) &= \frac{Q_{\text{gas}}}{Q_{\text{total}}} = \frac{V \times t \times v_{\text{m}}^{\%} \times N \times F}{i_{\text{total}} \times t} \\ &= \frac{V \times v_{\text{m}}^{\%} \times N \times F}{i_{\text{total}} \times 60 (\text{s min}^{-1})} \times 100\% \end{aligned}$$

Q: charge number.

V: the flow rate of CO₂ (s.c.c.m).

v (%): the measured gas product concentration in the GC sample loop.

V_m: the molar volume of gas: 24 L·mol⁻¹.

N: the number of electron transferred for product formation, which is 2 for CO.

F: Faradaic constant, 96,500 C·mol⁻¹.

i_{total}: the total current.

The experiment was conducted in a flow cell reactor equipped with a gas diffusion electrode (GDE, Gaossunion 101017-1), with an electrolysis window of 2 × 0.5 cm², resulting in an effective area of 1 cm². A conventional three-electrode configuration was employed for CO₂RR measurements, with the cathode consisting of a gas diffusion layer (GDL, YLS-30T, from Suzhou Siner, China), the anode composed of IrO₂-Ti mesh (2 × 0.5 cm², 1 mg·cm⁻², 0.1 mm thickness, from Kunshan Yiwanlin Electronic Technology Co., Ltd.), and the Ag/AgCl reference electrode (filled with saturated KCl solution) placed in the cathode compartment. The cathode and anode compartments were separated by an anion exchange membrane (Fumasep FAB-PK-130). During the preparation of the GDE, 5 mg of catalyst was mixed with 50 μL of a 5 wt % Nafion solution, 475 μL of ethanol, and 475 μL of deionized water, and sonicated for 2 h at 25 °C. The obtained catalyst ink was carefully sprayed onto a commercial Sigracet GDL with dimensions of 2.3 × 0.8 cm² (actual working area: 2 × 0.5 cm²) to achieve a catalyst loading of 1 mg cm⁻². The geometric area of the electrode was used to calculate all current densities. A double-sided copper foil tape (0.05 mm thick, 10 mm wide) was used as the current collector for the cathode. After drying the GDE overnight at room temperature, it was integrated into the flow cell with the side of the cathode coated with the catalyst facing the electrolyte. A high-purity CO₂ gas (99.999%) was supplied directly to the GDE cathode at a rate of 90 s.c.c.m (as measured by a soap film flow meter). The cathodic electrolyte composed of 1 M KOH was continuously circulated through the cathode chamber at a flow rate of 5 s.c.c.m using a peristaltic pump. For CO₂ reduction product detection experiments, the catalyst was initially activated by electrolysis at 10 mA for 30 min. Subsequently, the electrode was operated in constant current mode (potentiostatic measurements), with each current applied for 10 min to obtain Faradaic efficiencies at different current densities. The potential was recorded after the applied current reached a stable state. Gas collection was performed using a gas bag after reaction for ten min. Furthermore, considering the reduction in the outlet gas flow rate caused by the consumption of CO₂ during the cathodic reaction process and the neutralization of CO₂ by KOH, the outlet gas flow rate was monitored in real-time using a soap film flow meter to accurately quantify the Faradaic efficiencies of CO and H₂. During the stability test, electrolysis was periodically paused, and the electrode cleaned to prevent the loss of GDE hydrophobicity and to mitigate flooding over time.

The turnover frequency (TOF, h⁻¹) for CO generation was calculated as follows:

$$\text{TOF} = \frac{j_{\text{CO}}/n \times F}{\omega \times m_{\text{catalyst}}/M_{\text{metal}}}$$

j_{CO}: partial current of CO.

ω: the content of Ni in the catalyst acquired from ICP-MS.

m_{catalyst}: the catalyst loading (1 mg·cm⁻²).

M_{metal}: the atomic mass of Ni (58.69 g·mol⁻¹).

The cathodic energy conversion efficiency (ECE, %) and energy conversion current density (ECCD, mA·cm⁻²) in the flow cell were calculated as follows:

$$\text{ECE} = \frac{E_{\text{cell}} \times \text{FE}_{\text{CO}}}{1.23 - E_{\text{applied}}}$$

$$\text{ECCD} = \frac{E_{\text{cell}} \times j_{\text{CO}}}{1.23 - E_{\text{applied}}}$$

E_{cell}: thermodynamic cell potential between cathode and anode reactions, which is *E_{cell}* = -1.23 V - (-0.1 V) = 1.33 V, where -0.1 V vs RHE represents the thermodynamic cell potential of CO, and 1.23 V vs RHE represents the thermodynamic cell potential of water oxidation.

E_{applied}: the applied potential.

In-Situ ATR-SEIRAS Measurements. *In-situ* attenuated total reflection surface-enhanced infrared absorption spectroscopy (ATR-SEIRAS) measurements were conducted on a Nicolet iS50 FTIR spectrometer. Diamond-like carbon was coated onto silicon chips ($5 \times 8 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$) to prepare internal reflection elements (IRE). Prior to the experiments, the coated IRE was ultrasonically treated with 30 wt % concentrated H_2SO_4 for 2 min, followed by rinsing with deionized water. Catalyst ink ($1 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ in ethanol/Nafion/ H_2O) was dropped onto the IRE and left to dry in air at room temperature. Glassy carbon paper was placed on top of the catalyst layer to ensure good electrical contact. A glassy carbon rod, Pt mesh, and Ag/AgCl in 3 M KCl were connected to the IRE as the working electrode, counter electrode, and reference electrode, respectively. *In-situ* ATR-SEIRAS measurements were performed using an FTIR spectrometer equipped with a mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) detector. During the recording of infrared spectra, a Gamry Reference 600 potentiostat was utilized.

Computational Methods. The first-principles calculations within the framework of density functional theory (DFT),^{73–76} including structural and energetic performances, were carried out based on the Dmol³ module in Materials Studio 2020.⁷⁷ The generalized gradient approximation (GGA) function was implemented in the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange correlation function.^{78,79} The basic set of the double numerical plus polarization (DNP) and the DFT-D method for van der Waals dispersion corrections with the TS scheme were employed to describe the occupied molecular orbital expansion and to measure electrostatic interactions accurately, respectively. The convergence criteria for electronic energy, max displacement and max force on each atom were set to be 10^{-5} Ha, 0.005 \AA and $0.002 \text{ Ha}\cdot\text{\AA}^{-1}$, respectively.

Gibbs free energy change in each elementary step of the CO_2 reduction reaction and hydrogen evolution reaction could be calculated according to the following equation:

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta \text{ZPE} - T\Delta S - \Delta G_U$$

in which ΔZPE , T , and ΔS represent the change of the zero-point energy, temperature (298.15 K), and the change of entropy, respectively. $\Delta G_U = -eU$.

Charge density difference calculations are performed in the framework of the density functional theory with the projector augmented plane-wave method, as implemented in the Vienna *ab initio* simulation package.⁸⁰ Spin polarization was also included. The cutoff energy for the plane wave was set to 450 eV. The energy criterion is set to 1×10^{-06} eV in the iterative solution of the Kohn–Sham equation. The electron smearing width of $\sigma = 0.03$ eV was employed according to the Gaussian smearing technique.

The charge density difference was evaluated using the formula $\Delta\rho = \rho(\text{slab}) - \rho(\text{slab-atom}) - \rho(\text{atom})$, then analyzed by using the VESTA code.⁸¹

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsnano.4c14192>.

Materials and measurements, scheme of the experimental setup, additional materials characterization (FTIR, PXRD, TGA, SEM, XPS, NMR, Raman, TEM, HRTEM, XANES, EXAFS, GC data, *in situ* ATR-SEIRAS spectra, gas sorption analysis, DFT calculations, and other electrochemical performance characterization of catalysts) (PDF)

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H.Y., X.W., and S.M. conceived and designed the research. Y.S., X.L., J.T., Z.Z., Y.L., Y.X., and M.H. performed the synthesis and characterization and carried out the experiments. Y.S., X.L., and Z.C. performed and analyzed the TEM and DFT calculations. H.Y., X.W., G.I.N.W., and S.M. wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed to the discussion, and gave approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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