



## Full Length Article

# Unlocking the Size-Dependent mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on Carbon-Supported Ni<sub>n</sub> clusters

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## ABSTRACT

The precise size control of metal nanoclusters represents a frontier in catalysis, as their atomically defined structures give rise to electronic structures intermediate between larger nanoparticles and bulk materials. Herein, we introduce a strategic approach utilizing carbon-supported, size-specific nickel nanoclusters, ranging from single atoms to pentamers, high-value-added fuels are produced through efficient electrochemical conversion of CO<sub>2</sub>. We systematically evaluated the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) performance of these catalysts through comprehensive density functional theory (DFT) calculations. Crucially, our work pioneers the application of molecular dynamics simulations, combined with electronic structure and charge density analysis, to confirm the exceptional stability of the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> (x = 1–5) configurations. SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> have been confirmed as candidate materials, which both are respectively proficient in the formic acid and CO pathways and can effectively inhibit HER side reactions. The product distribution is elucidated by the regulatory function of the center of the d band position. We demonstrate that both SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> possess low limiting potentials and optimal intermediate adsorption strengths, underpinning their superior performance. This study clarified the correlation between the structure and performance of cluster catalysts at the atomic scale, laying a theoretical foundation for the rational design of efficient SACs and cluster catalysts.

## 1. Introduction

Global climate mitigation strategies encompass two complementary approaches, reducing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions through energy efficiency and low-carbon energy sources, and deploying negative emissions technologies (NETs) to actively remove atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> [1,2]. While emission reduction remains paramount, NETs are increasingly essential for achieving climate targets, particularly for hard-to-abate sectors where conventional carbon capture and storage is impractical. With global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions exceeding 51 billion tons annually and fossil fuels supplying 63.1% of energy—rising to 85% in developing economies by 2050—the development of low-cost, widely applicable NETs has become urgent. Among emerging NET strategies, electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction stands out as a promising approach to convert captured CO<sub>2</sub> into valuable fuels and chemicals, simultaneously addressing carbon removal and sustainable energy production. However, breaking the strong C=O bonds in

CO<sub>2</sub> requires high activation energy, making the process challenging. Existing electrocatalysts still struggle with stability, reaction rate, overpotential, current density, and selectivity, limiting their efficiency [3–5]. Developing better catalysts to enhance CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance is essential.

In electrocatalysts, active metals directly participate in the catalytic reaction, and their coordination environment considerably affects the electronic structure, thereby determining the catalytic activity [6]. However, understanding coordination effects in heterogeneous catalysts remains challenging because of their ill-defined surface structures. As a typical model catalytic system, single-atom catalysts (SACs) feature well-defined and accessible active sites, making them an ideal platform for exploring surface coordination chemistry [7]. SACs anchor metal active centers stably on the support surface through coordination bonds, allowing the modulation of electrocatalytic activity and selectivity via strong metal-support interactions [8]. Featuring outstanding catalytic

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performance and maximum atom utilization, SACs have been widely applied and recognized as highly efficient catalysts. In particular, metal atoms ( $M = \text{Fe}, \text{Co}, \text{Ni}, \text{Cu}$ ) anchored in two-dimensional carbon materials in the form of  $M\text{-N}_4\text{-C}$  structures have emerged as promising electrocatalysts for the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  [9–17]. For instance, Xie et al. [11] reported that Ni SACs with  $\text{N}_4$  coordination supported on N-doped carbon display superior activity and stability toward  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ . The coordination configuration and bonding nature of SACs are crucial for optimizing their catalytic performance. Nevertheless, SACs suffer from a lack of adjacent active sites, limiting their performance in reactions that require multiple neighboring sites. To address this issue, it is meaningful to explore whether the uniform distribution of metal–metal bonded nanoclusters near single-atom sites can boost the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  catalytic activity while preserving high metal atom utilization [18].

Nanoparticles (NPs) are widely used as alternatives to traditional bulk metal catalysts. They offer high activity, excellent selectivity, and low cost [19–23]. Nanoclusters, which typically contain fewer than 150 atoms, and sub-nanoclusters, usually composed of fewer than 30 atoms, exhibit strong quantum confinement effects. These effects lead to unique electronic states and catalytic performance. Their well-defined atomic structures set them apart from larger nanoparticles and bulk materials [23,24]. Due to their tunable size, composition, and geometry, as well as their low coordination site density and high specific surface area, sub-nanoclusters show great potential in nanocatalysis. Their catalytic properties often emerge from atomic-scale features and can change dramatically with the addition or removal of a single atom. Metal nanoclusters with atomic-level precision have opened a new frontier in electrocatalysis research [25–27]. They can be synthesized with molecular purity and have structures determined by crystallography [28,29], enabling clear investigation of structure–property relationships.

Recent studies have shown that reducing nanoparticle size to the nanocluster regime significantly improves atomic utilization efficiency. Various metallic nanoparticles, including Cu, Ni, Au, Ag, Bi, Pd, and Sn, have been investigated [30–36]. These findings consistently indicate that nanoparticle size governs both  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  activity and product selectivity. In general, nanoparticles exhibit higher  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  activity than bulk metal surfaces. Specific metal nanoclusters can effectively bridge uncoordinated metal atoms, enabling efficient  $\text{CO}_2$ -to- $\text{CO}$  conversion. These clusters exhibit both high reactivity and excellent stability. They maintain high CO current density and faradaic efficiency over extended periods, ensuring the continuous and efficient progression of the catalytic process [12,37]. Metal nanoclusters can function either as active centers or as supports for SACs. In doing so, they further enhance the overall catalytic performance. The combination of metal nanoclusters with SACs creates a synergistic effect. This synergy improves both catalytic activity and stability, opening new possibilities for efficient catalysis [38–42]. This integration also helps address the individual limitations of each material. Some metal nanoclusters exhibit high activity but suffer from poor stability. In contrast, SACs offer excellent stability but limited activity. By combining the two, the resulting catalyst achieves significantly enhanced stability while retaining high activity. This approach extends the catalyst's service life and provides a more reliable option for practical applications.

Isolated atoms and ultrafine clusters demonstrate remarkable catalytic performance as  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  catalysts. However, the influence of metal content on the structure–activity relationship of these catalysts remains insufficiently understood. Therefore, a systematic investigation into how metal atoms and their quantities affect catalytic behavior is essential. Such fundamental understanding is critical for developing rational strategies to design low-cost and efficient catalysts.

Recent years have seen great advances in  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion catalysis. Noble metal catalysts (Pt, Pd, Au, etc.) show high  $\text{CO}_2$  hydrogenation performance but suffer from high cost and sintering, spurring the search for earth-abundant alternatives [43].  $\text{Ni}_n$  transition metal clusters are promising candidates, with DFT confirming their size and electronic

structure jointly regulate  $\text{CO}_2$  activation [44]. However, relevant studies focus only on discrete sizes ( $n = 2\text{--}6, 8$ ) and activation energetics, ignoring product selectivity. Atomically precise coinage metal nanoclusters have realized precise size/ligand control [45], yet such research is dominated by Au and Ag systems. Besides, electronic metal-support interactions enable Ag nanoparticles to achieve nearly 100% CO Faradaic efficiency [46], and tailored Cu clusters on defective supports selectively produce methane via the  $^*\text{COOH}$  pathway [47]. Despite these advances, the mechanistic origin of size-dependent selectivity in earth-abundant transition metal clusters—especially how intrinsic size modulates the  $\text{CO}/\text{HCOOH}$  pathway competition—remains unquantified.

The selection of  $\text{Ni}_1\text{--Ni}_5$  clusters as the research focus is grounded in the unique scientific significance of this size regime, which encompasses the complete structural transition from single atoms ( $\text{Ni}_1$ ) to sub-nanometer clusters ( $\text{Ni}_2\text{--Ni}_5$ ) while maintaining relatively low structural complexity. This size range exhibits pronounced size-dependent catalytic behavior extensively documented in both theoretical and experimental literature [48,49]. Notably,  $\text{Ni}_5$  represents the critical threshold for the two-dimensional to three-dimensional structural transition, with clusters larger than five atoms tending to form complex 3D configurations that substantially increase computational and experimental complexity [50,51]. Within the  $\text{Ni}_1\text{--Ni}_5$  regime, catalytic performance in  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction demonstrates stepwise evolution with increasing atomic number: single-atom  $\text{Ni}_1$  achieves optimal CO selectivity with Faradaic efficiency up to 97%, while  $\text{Ni}_2\text{--Ni}_5$  clusters enable product switching (e.g.,  $\text{Ni}_4$  favoring  $\text{CH}_4$  production) and syngas ratio tuning, with performance extremum also observed in HER, OER, and ORR. Beyond five atoms, size sensitivity diminishes and competing reactions such as HER become more pronounced [52]. Therefore, the  $\text{Ni}_1\text{--Ni}_5$  series constitutes an ideal model system for elucidating the fundamental correlations among geometric structure, electronic configuration, and catalytic performance.

In this work, we construct a series of metal clusters into atomic-level precise theoretical models, ranging from single atoms to  $\text{Ni}_x$  ( $x = 1\text{--}5$ ) clusters supported on carbon substrates, to systematically evaluate their efficacy as electrocatalysts for  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ . Our computational methodology commenced with a rigorous assessment of structural stability and electronic properties via *ab initio* molecular dynamics (AIMD) and density of states (DOS) analysis. We subsequently probed the critical initial stages of catalysis, including  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption, activation, and the competitive adsorption against HER. To unravel the reaction pathways and origin of selectivity, the thermodynamic and electronic structure characteristics of the reaction path were determined through the calculation of Gibbs free energy and limiting potential as well as Crystal Orbital Hamiltonian Population (COHP) analysis. This multi-faceted investigation not only deciphers the structure–activity–selectivity relationships in  $\text{SA@Ni}_x$  catalysts but simultaneously providing a transferable theoretical framework toward the development of next-generation, carbon-supported cluster catalysts.

## 2. Computational details

The theoretical analysis and all calculations of the study using the DMol<sup>3</sup> module based on the first principles of DFT, with a focus on exploring the adsorption characteristics of  $\text{CO}_2$  on the  $\text{SA@Ni}_x$  monolayer [53,54]. The Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional, specifically its density-dependent (density-dependent GGA approximation) is selected as the method to describe the exchange correlation effect [55,56]. To precisely describe van der Waals interactions, all calculations were carried out using TS's DFT-D method, as weak interactions cannot be accurately described by standard PBE functionals [57]. In order to make the calculation result of total energy more accurate, spin polarization is introduced in the calculation and DFT correction is carried out. Strict convergence criteria (energy,  $10^{-5}$  eV, force, 0.05 eV/Å) were set in the calculation, and a  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  K-point grid centered on

point  $\gamma$  was adopted. To isolate the periodic mirror image interaction, the vacuum layer of 20 Å was added in the vertical direction, and all atoms were relaxed during the optimization process. An implicit solvation model was employed to represent the solvent, with the dielectric constant set to 78.4 for water.

It should be noted that the present calculations are based on a periodic DFT framework with an implicit solvation treatment and without explicit electrode potential control. Although such approximations may influence the absolute free energy values and predicted overpotentials, they are widely adopted in theoretical CO<sub>2</sub>RR studies and have been demonstrated to reliably capture relative trends in adsorption energetics and reaction pathways. Therefore, the mechanistic insights and comparative catalytic trends discussed here are expected to remain qualitatively valid, while quantitative predictions may require more advanced approaches incorporating explicit solvent dynamics and constant-potential simulations.

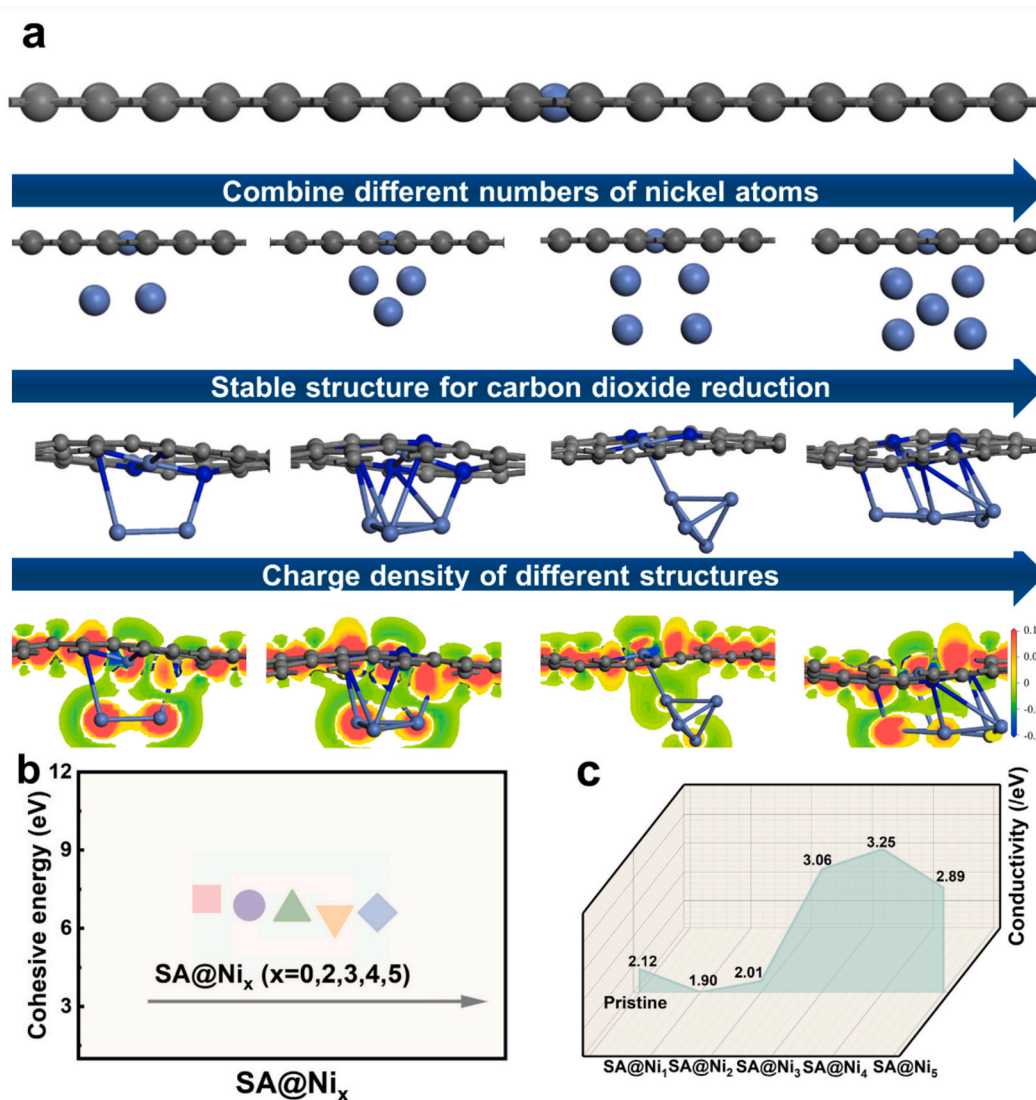
Furthermore, AIMD simulations were performed to evaluate the thermal stability of the catalysts at finite temperature, complementing static DFT optimizations. While static DFT calculations identify minimum-energy structures, AIMD captures dynamic structural

fluctuations and provides a more realistic assessment of stability. COHP analysis was employed to quantify bonding and antibonding interactions, enabling a deeper understanding of electronic structure contributions to catalytic activity. It should be noted that density functional theory, particularly within the PBE functional, may introduce systematic errors in describing electron correlation and temperature-dependent effects. Although absolute energies may be affected, the relative trends and mechanistic insights discussed here are expected to remain reliable within the adopted computational framework.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Structural stability

In this part, we designed a novel single-atom synergistic cluster catalyst supported on graphene doped with transition metal Ni single atoms. As shown in Fig. 1 a, the model consists of a graphene monolayer containing 66 carbon (C) atoms and 4 nitrogen (N) atoms, which serves as a stable support for the catalyst. The detailed structure is illustrated in Fig. S1. To maximize catalytic activity, a single nickel atom is precisely



**Fig. 1.** Structural and electronic properties of SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> monolayers. (a) Optimized structures (upper) and charge density difference maps (lower) of SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> (x = 1–5); yellow and cyan isosurfaces indicate electron accumulation and depletion, respectively, revealing charge redistribution upon cluster formation. (b) Cohesion energy of SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> monolayers; more negative values indicate higher thermodynamic stability, with Ni<sub>4</sub> and Ni<sub>5</sub> showing comparable stability. (c) DOS at the Fermi level; higher values correlate with enhanced metallic character and catalytic activity, where Ni<sub>3</sub> and Ni<sub>4</sub> exhibit elevated DOS favorable for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

anchored onto the upper surface of graphene, while additional Ni atoms remain suspended below the graphene layer. This configuration preserves overall structural stability and enhances catalytic efficiency. Specifically, the Ni atom directly bonded to the graphene surface forms strong coordination bonds with four adjacent N atoms. This coordination further reinforces the structural stability of the catalyst through a strong metal-support interaction.

To determine whether the differences in catalytic performance are

determined by the Ni metal content, we systematically optimized the graphene surfaces with different Ni loading amounts, as shown in Fig. 1 a. Subsequently, the stability of the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> structure was evaluated through combined energy calculations and charge density analysis. Additionally, AIMD simulations were conducted to assess the stability of the structure under operating conditions. Finally, the DOS of SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> and the original graphite monolayer were quantified, which served as a key indicator for the catalyst's electrical conductivity.

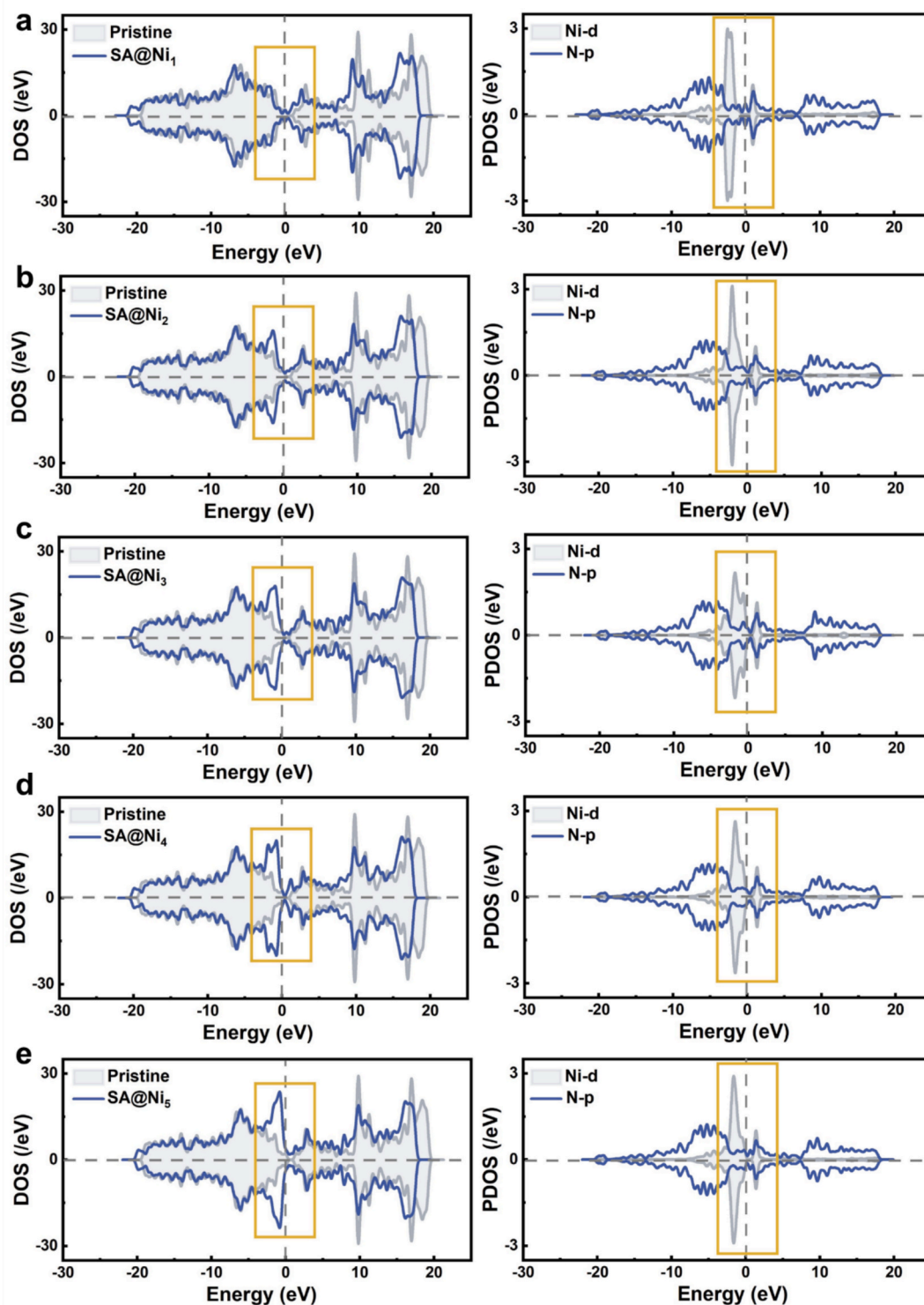


Fig. 2. The density of states of (a) SA@Ni<sub>1</sub>, (b) SA@Ni<sub>2</sub>, (c) SA@Ni<sub>3</sub>, (d) SA@Ni<sub>4</sub>, and (e) SA@Ni<sub>5</sub>.

High stability is essential for the practical application of catalysts. In the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> system, this stability is directly indicated by the cohesive energy, with larger values corresponding to enhanced structural stability [58–60]. The cohesion energy ( $E_{\text{coh}}$ ) is defined by the following formula [61]:

$$E_{\text{coh}} = \frac{n_1 E_{\text{TM}} + n_2 E_{\text{C}} + n_3 E_{\text{N}} - E_{\text{C2N}}}{n_1 + n_2 + n_3} \quad (1)$$

Here  $E_{\text{C}}$  and  $E_{\text{N}}$  represent the energies (in eV) of C and N atoms, respectively.  $n_1$ ,  $n_2$ , and  $n_3$  correspond to the numbers of metal, C, and N atoms. Fig. 1 b presents the calculated cohesive energies for the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> structures. The results indicate that these structures are less stable than the pristine graphene monolayer (−9 to −10 eV/atom) but exhibit greater stability than phosphorene (4.12 to 6.45 eV/atom) and silicene (3.71 eV/atom) [62]. (Refer to Table S1 for detailed data) Therefore, these results illustrate the substantial stability of all SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> configurations.

To investigate the interaction between the nickel and the graphene monolayer, charge density analysis was performed on the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> system. As shown in Fig. 1 a, the charge distribution reveals a depletion of electron density around the nitrogen atoms and an accumulation around the metal atoms. This indicates a net electron transfer from the nickel atoms to the underlying N-doped graphene support. The resulting interaction stabilizes the bond between the Ni atoms and the adjacent nitrogen atoms. To further assess the thermodynamic stability of the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> structures, AIMD simulations were conducted. The simulations were performed at 500 K for a total of 10 ps, with structural snapshots recorded every 10 fs. The results, detailed in Fig. S2, confirm that the materials exhibit excellent structural stability under the simulated conditions.

Finally, the electrical conductivity of the catalyst was evaluated by examining the DOS at the Fermi level [61,63–65]. The DOS serves as a key indicator of a material's conductive properties. As shown in Fig. 1 c, the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> structure exhibits a higher DOS at the Fermi level compared to pristine graphene. This enhancement suggests that the incorporation of Ni species significantly improves the catalytic performance. Detailed calculation results are provided in Fig. 2.

The introduction of Ni notably enhances the total DOS near the Fermi level, indicating improved charge transport properties in the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> system. To gain further insight, projected density of states (PDOS) analysis was performed to reveal the electronic properties of the Ni-doped. A pronounced overlap is observed between Ni and N states, signifying strong Ni-N coupling. This strong interaction enables Ni to bind firmly to the graphene monolayer. The resulting bonds between the Ni atoms and the substrate therefore ensure the structural stability of the catalyst.

### 3.2. Activity and selectivity

To understand the catalytic mechanism and advantages for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, we evaluated the d-band center and CO<sub>2</sub> activation degree. Reaction pathway selectivity was explored by calculating the free energy changes of key intermediates (\*COOH and OCHO) relative to H. Promising SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> catalysts were further screened to ensure optimal CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance. Finally, the diffusion behavior of CO<sub>2</sub> on different material surfaces was assessed by computing diffusion coefficients using molecular dynamics simulations.

CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption constitutes the first and critical step in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR process, with stable adsorption serving as a prerequisite for the subsequent reaction. The degree of CO<sub>2</sub> activation can, to some extent, reflect the catalytic performance. As demonstrated in Fig. S3 and S4, which presents the three-dimensional configuration of adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub>, the catalyst surface exhibits stable CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity. Accordingly, the molecular geometry of CO<sub>2</sub> undergoes significant distortion, indicating its preliminary activation.

To further elucidate the activation level, electrical conductivity, and charge transfer behavior during the interaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> surface, charge density difference and DOS analyses were performed, with results also presented in Fig. S3 and S4. The results reveal substantial charge transfer within the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed system. The prominent red region surrounding CO<sub>2</sub> clearly indicates electron donation from SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub>, confirming a strong interaction between the two species. Moreover, the p-d orbital interaction involving CO<sub>2</sub> and the transition metal in SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> further corroborates this electronic coupling. For quantitative assessment, key parameters—including CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption energy, optimized bond lengths, and bond angles—are detailed in Table S2. A reduction in the O-C-O bond angle is directly correlated with an enhanced degree of CO<sub>2</sub> activation. Specifically, the C-O bond lengths range from 1.22 to 1.30 Å, while the O-C-O bond angles vary between 131.58° and 165.85° (Fig. 3 b). These geometric distortions collectively demonstrate the effective activation of CO<sub>2</sub> on the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> surface.

The interaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and Ni atoms was characterized using the d-band center model. This approach reveals the adsorption mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub> on the catalyst surface. As shown in Fig. 3 a, the adsorption energy of SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> exhibits a linear correlation with the d-band center. This correlation is in good agreement with the predictions of the theoretical d-band model. The upshifted d-band center of Ni<sub>3</sub> leads to stronger \*CO adsorption, favoring the CO pathway, while the downshifted d-band of Ni<sub>5</sub> weakens \*COOH binding, steering selectivity toward HCOOH. This consistency suggests that the upward shift of the anti-bonding orbital enhances the adsorption energy.

The HER is kinetically more favorable and thus competes with CO<sub>2</sub>RR. An effective catalyst must therefore suppress HER to enable efficient CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. We first examined HER through H<sub>2</sub>O adsorption, as CO<sub>2</sub>RR typically operates in neutral or alkaline electrolytes. As shown in Table S1 and S2, the adsorption energy of H<sub>2</sub>O is consistently lower than that of CO<sub>2</sub> on all SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> surfaces. This indicates that CO<sub>2</sub> binds more strongly than H<sub>2</sub>O, allowing CO<sub>2</sub> to occupy the initial active sites and thereby inhibit HER. During the early protonation stage, CO<sub>2</sub> hydrogenation proceeds via two key intermediates, \*COOH and \*OCHO. Fig. 3 c compares the free energies of \*COOH, \*OCHO and \*H. Both SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> lie in the lower right quadrant, the region associated with CO<sub>2</sub>RR selectivity. This indicates a thermodynamic preference for \*COOH or OCHO formation over H.

Together, these findings demonstrate that SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> selectively promote CO<sub>2</sub>RR while effectively suppressing HER under electrochemical conditions.

CO<sub>2</sub> mass transfer on the catalyst surface limits the reaction rate in this system [66,67]. To evaluate practical catalytic performance, we calculated the diffusion coefficients of CO<sub>2</sub> on different material surfaces using molecular dynamics simulations. Figs. S5 and S6 show the equilibrium adsorption configurations of CO<sub>2</sub> on all catalysts. We first computed the mean square displacement (MSD) for each SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> structure, as presented in Fig. 3 d. The results indicate that SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> initially exhibits the lowest diffusion activity. We then applied Einstein's diffusion equation to derive the diffusion coefficients, which are summarized in Table S4. SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> shows the optimal diffusion performance, with a diffusion coefficient of  $1.44 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ . Notably, the diffusion coefficient governs CO<sub>2</sub> surface diffusion. A smaller diffusion coefficient corresponds to more stable CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, which in turn leads to superior catalytic performance.

### 3.3. CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO or HCOOH

We calculated the free energies of key intermediates involved in the CO and HCOOH pathways for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. On this basis, we systematically evaluated the free energy changes along the entire reaction pathway. On SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> surfaces, CO<sub>2</sub> conversion proceeds through two distinct pathways. It can be reduced to CO via the COOH intermediate or to HCOOH via the OCHO intermediate. Fig. 4 presents the free energy

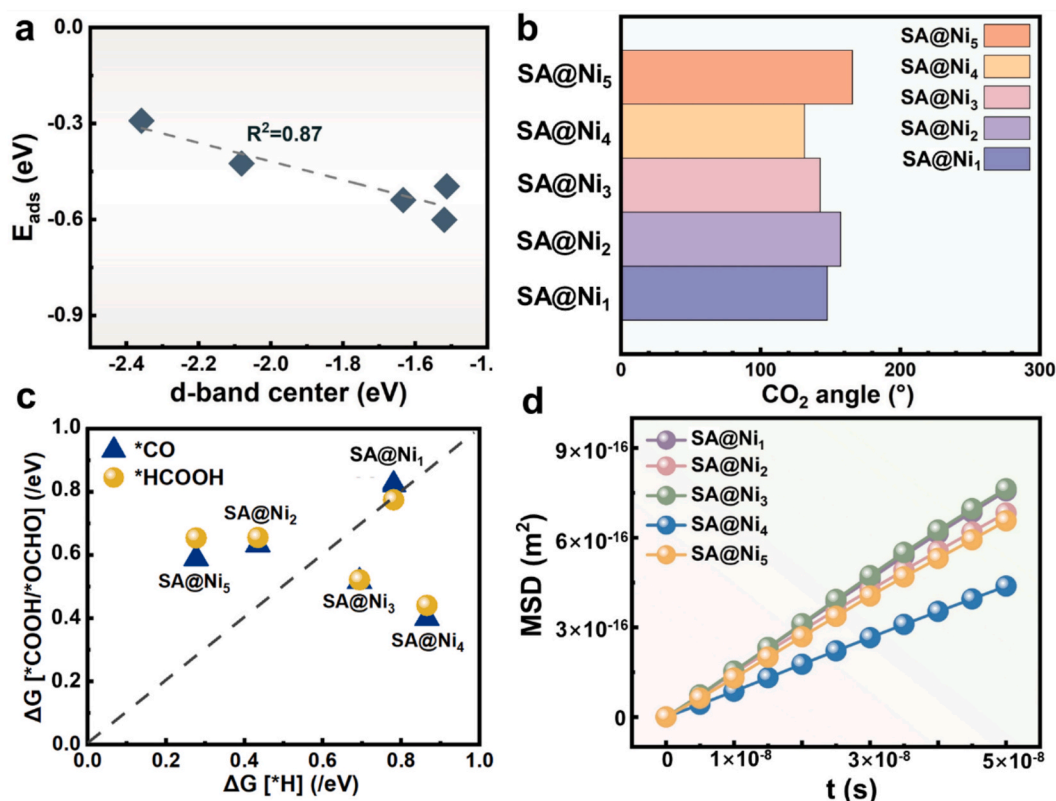


Fig. 3. Mechanistic analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on SA@Ni<sub>x</sub>. (a) Linear correlation between d-band center and CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption energy; Ni<sub>3</sub> and Ni<sub>4</sub> exhibit optimal d-band positions. (b) CO<sub>2</sub> activation angle (O-C-O bending); smaller angles on Ni<sub>3</sub> and Ni<sub>4</sub> indicate stronger activation. (c) Free energy diagram for CO<sub>2</sub>RR vs. HER; lower barriers for \*COOH/\*OCHO than \*H on Ni<sub>3</sub>/Ni<sub>4</sub> explain their high selectivity. (d) CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion barriers; moderate barriers on Ni<sub>3</sub>/Ni<sub>4</sub> balance reactant supply and surface residence time.

profiles for CO and HCOOH formation from CO<sub>2</sub> through the two-electron pathway on SA@Ni<sub>x</sub>. The corresponding limiting potentials and overpotentials are also illustrated schematically.

We calculated Gibbs free energy profiles to determine the rate-determining steps and energy barriers for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO and HCOOH on different catalysts. For the CO path, the speed decision step of SA@Ni<sub>1</sub> is determined to be CO desorption, with an energy barrier as high as 1.14 eV. After the introduction of Ni clusters, the rate-determining step of SA@Ni<sub>2</sub> remains CO desorption, but the energy barrier is reduced to 0.78 eV. The speed determination steps of SA@Ni<sub>3</sub>, SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>5</sub> were all transformed into \*COOH → \*CO steps, and the energy barriers of the three were controlled at 0.68 eV, 0.50 eV and 0.78 eV respectively. Among them, the energy barrier of SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> is pushed to the minimum, indicating that its CO generation activity is optimal. For the HCOOH path, the speed decision step of SA@Ni<sub>1</sub> is HCOOH desorption, with an energy barrier of 1.04 eV. The speed-determining steps of SA@Ni<sub>2</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>5</sub> were determined to be OCHO → HCOOH, with energy barriers of 0.86 eV for both. The speed-up step of SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> is HCOOH → HCOOH, and the energy barrier drops to 0.66 eV. The energy barrier of SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> in this path is pushed up to 1.37 eV, and its speed decision step is \*OCHO → \*HCOOH. Among them, the energy barrier of SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> is suppressed to the lowest level and is regarded as the best catalyst for generating HCOOH.

### 3.4. Catalytic performance

To quantitatively compare catalytic activity, Fig. 4 c and 4d show the limiting potential ( $U_L$ ) and overpotential ( $\eta$ ) for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO and HCOOH on SA@Ni<sub>x</sub>. Compared with other single-atom and multi-atom catalysts, SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> exhibit superior catalytic performance with lower overpotentials. Overpotential is a key parameter that

determines the energy consumption of the electrochemical reaction. Excessively strong adsorption energy can substantially reduce reaction efficiency. Therefore, correlating overpotential with product adsorption energy provides insight into the structure–performance relationship of the catalyst.

Fig. 5 a shows that during the carbon dioxide generation process, SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> performed the best, with an overpotential of only 0.50 V. This indicates that it has excellent catalytic activity and lower energy consumption. The peak of the volcano plot corresponds to the medium adsorption energy of the product, and this energy value can produce the best catalytic effect.

As shown in Fig. 5 b, SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> demonstrated the best overall performance in synthesizing HCOOH. The overpotential for HCOOH generation was 0.66 V, indicating that moderate adsorption is beneficial for achieving a high HCOOH yield. When  $|\eta|$  exceeds 0.9 V, this reaction requires a large amount of energy input, and therefore is unlikely to proceed.

This analysis indicates that CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalyzed by SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> is feasible. While SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> become the best catalysts for achieving high CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance.

Our study investigates the outstanding performance of SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> for electrocatalytic deep hydrogenation of CO<sub>2</sub> at low electrode potentials. For CO and HCOOH production, SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> exhibit the best catalytic performance, respectively. These results demonstrate the great potential of graphene monolayers doped with Ni single atoms and Ni clusters for CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Accordingly, SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> are identified as the best-performing catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction in this study.

### 3.5. Catalytic mechanism

To understand why SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> exhibit the best catalytic

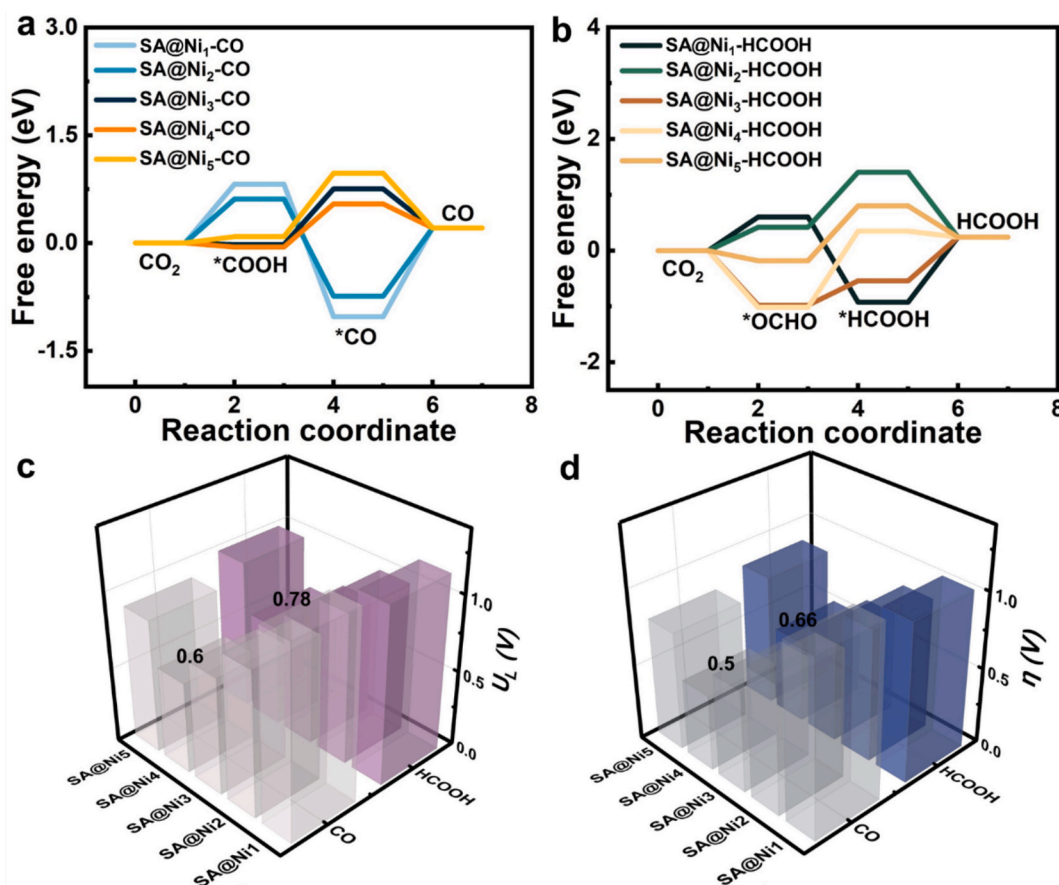


Fig. 4. Energetics and selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on SA@Ni<sub>x</sub>. (a) Gibbs free energy for CO pathway; Ni<sub>4</sub> shows the lowest barrier. (b) Gibbs free energy for HCOOH pathway; Ni<sub>3</sub> is most favorable. (c) Limiting potentials for CO and HCOOH; Ni<sub>4</sub> and Ni<sub>3</sub> require the lowest overpotentials, respectively. (d) Overpotentials confirming Ni<sub>3</sub> and Ni<sub>4</sub> as optimal catalysts for HCOOH and CO production.

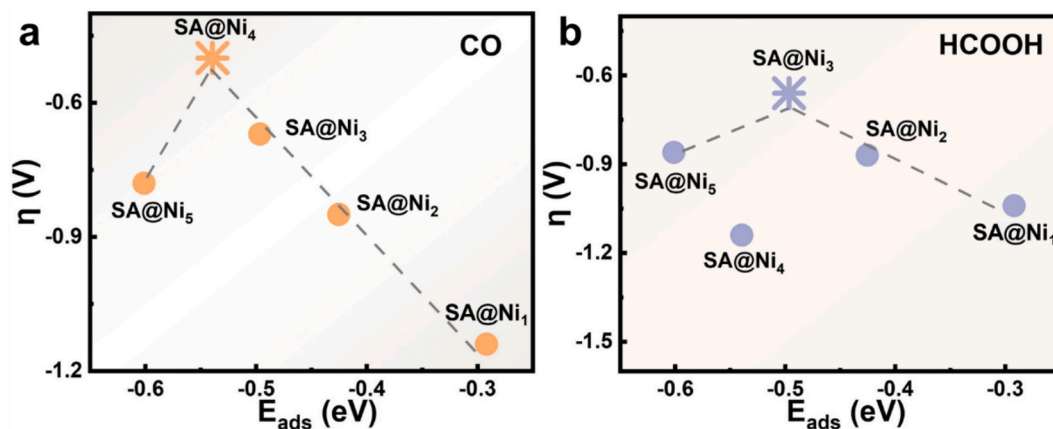


Fig. 5. Overpotential on SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> determined by product adsorption energy. (a) CO adsorbed on the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub>. (b) HCOOH adsorbed on the SA@Ni<sub>x</sub>.

performance, we analyzed the interaction between key intermediates and the catalytic active sites from a molecular orbital perspective. Previous studies have shown that bonding orbitals at the active site dominate the adsorption process [68–73]. An optimal interaction should be balanced. If the interaction is too strong, it increases the reaction barrier for subsequent steps and becomes rate-limiting. If the interaction is too weak, it reduces catalytic efficiency and may render the catalyst inactive. Therefore, moderate interaction strength is essential for achieving high-performance catalysis. We performed COHP analysis to examine the interaction between intermediates and the active sites on SA@Ni<sub>3</sub>

and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub>.

Fig. 6 shows the distribution of bonding and antibonding orbitals of SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> with gas atoms near the Fermi level, with the corresponding integrated crystal orbital Hamiltonian population (ICOHP) values (in absolute terms) plotted. The ICOHP values reflect the bond strength the interaction between Ni and C atoms. For CO production, the ICOHP value on the SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> catalyst surface is 0.71 eV, and on the SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> catalyst surface it is 0.81 eV. As shown in Figs. S7, on the SA@Ni<sub>1</sub> catalyst surface, the ICOHP value the Ni-C interaction is 0.41 eV, on the SA@Ni<sub>2</sub> catalyst surface it is 0.57 eV, and on the SA@Ni<sub>5</sub>

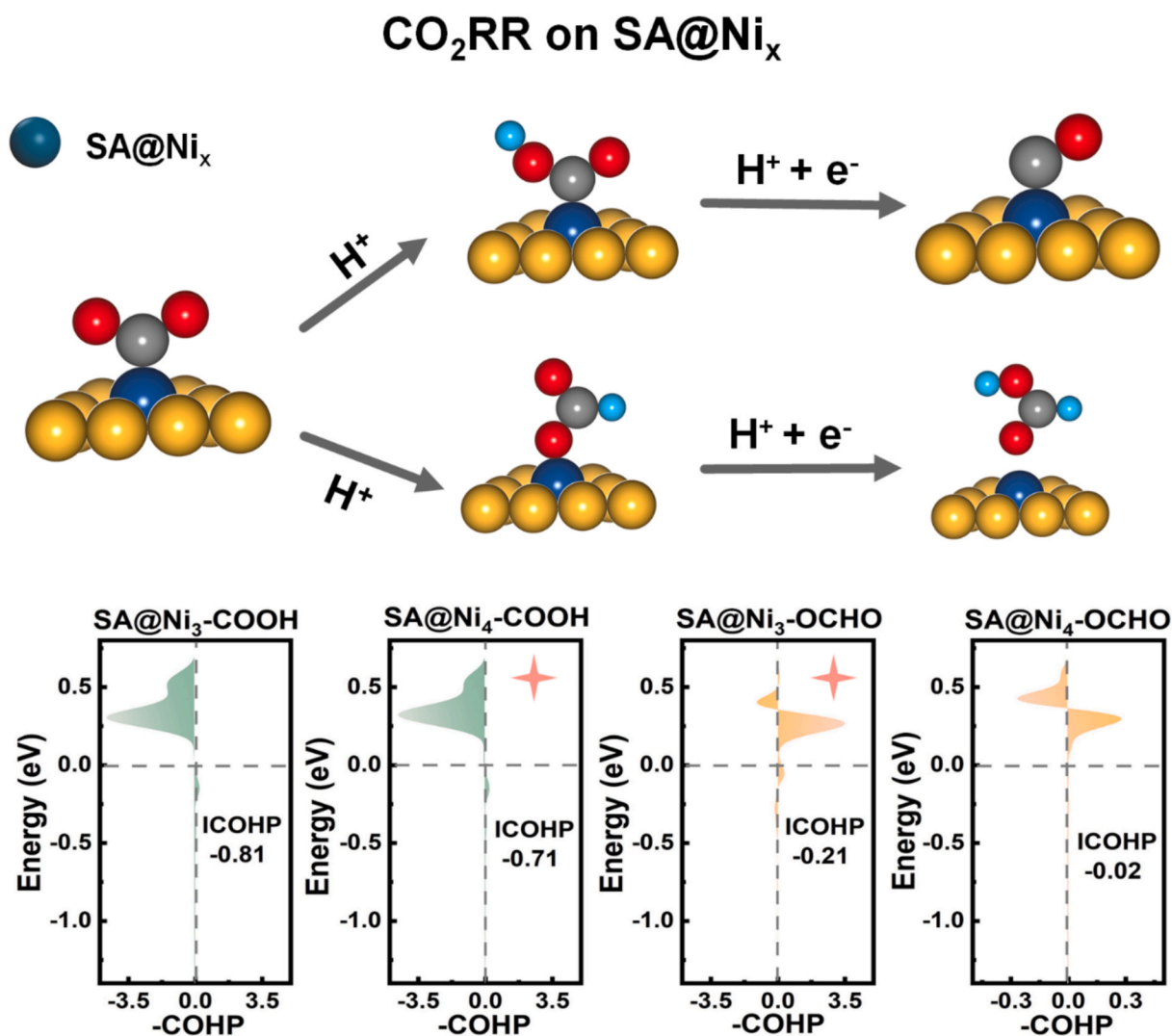


Fig. 6. ICOHP values for \*COOH and \*OCHO on SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub>, quantifying bond strength (more negative indicates stronger bonding). Ni<sub>3</sub> exhibits stronger \*OCHO binding favoring HCOOH, while Ni<sub>3</sub> shows stronger \*COOH binding favoring CO, consistent with their predicted product selectivity.

catalyst surface it is 0.64 eV. These results indicate that for CO production, the interaction strength between the \*C of the \*COOH intermediate and the Ni atoms in the SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> catalyst is moderate, thereby guaranteeing the optimal performance of the SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> catalyst in generating CO.

For HCOOH production, the ICOHP value on the SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> catalyst surface it is 0.21 eV, and on the SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> catalyst surface is 0.02 eV. As shown in Figs. S7, on the SA@Ni<sub>1</sub> catalyst surface, the Ni–C interaction is 0.19 eV, on the SA@Ni<sub>2</sub> catalyst surface it is 0.23 eV, and on the SA@Ni<sub>5</sub> catalyst surface it is 0.22 eV. These results indicate that for HCOOH production, the interaction strength between the O atom in the OCHO intermediate and the Ni atoms in the SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> catalyst is moderate, thereby guaranteeing the optimal performance of the SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> catalyst in generating HCOOH. Furthermore, relying on the corresponding relationship between the center of the d-band and the adsorption energy (Fig. 3 a), nickel cluster doping can optimize the position of the center of the d-band of the catalyst material.

Therefore, SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> have moderate adsorption energies for the key intermediates (COOH and OCHO), thereby demonstrating optimal catalytic performance. In conclusion, SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> are the best catalysts for the simultaneous production of CO and HCOOH.

The size-dependent selectivity advantages of SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> for CO<sub>2</sub>RR are further supported by existing experimental studies on Ni-

based catalysts, and the theoretical conclusions exhibit good consistency with experimental observations. The size-dependent product distribution (CO/HCOOH) predicted by DFT calculations is consistent with the catalytic behavior of Ni nanoparticle-single atom hybrid catalysts, where optimized Ni–N coordination can achieve a CO Faradaic efficiency (FE<sub>CO</sub>) of up to 99.26% [74]. The predicted low overpotential range (0.5–0.66 V) for high selectivity is also in line with experimental reports, in which porous NiPNC catalysts maintain ~ 100% FE<sub>CO</sub> at –0.8 to –1.1 V (vs. RHE) [75,76] and Ni<sub>n</sub>N<sub>x</sub> clusters exhibit FE<sub>CO</sub> > 90% at –0.3 to –0.8 V (vs. RHE) [77]. In addition, the key role of Ni–N coordination emphasized in theoretical calculations is directly verified by XPS and XAFS characterizations, which confirm a positive correlation between Ni–N bond content and catalytic selectivity—for example, a 4.8-fold increase in Ni–N bond abundance can elevate FE<sub>CO</sub> from < 60% to 98.6% [78].

Current experimental techniques cannot directly probe the atomic-scale electronic interactions and thermodynamic trends that determine catalytic selectivity, making DFT-derived quantitative parameters (d-band center, ICOHP, free energy barrier) indispensable for revealing the intrinsic catalytic mechanism. Theoretical models eliminate the interference of experimental variables such as pore structure and electrolyte composition, and accurately isolate the core cluster size-selectivity correlation to realize the quantitative interpretation of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR

catalytic mechanism.

#### 4. Conclusions

In conclusion, this DFT study systematically unravels the size-dependent catalytic behavior of carbon-supported Ni nanoclusters (SA@Ni<sub>x</sub>, x = 1–5) for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. The SA@Ni<sub>x</sub> configurations are confirmed to be structurally stable and metallically conductive, providing a robust foundation for electrocatalysis. Our calculations identify SA@Ni<sub>4</sub> and SA@Ni<sub>3</sub> as the most promising catalysts, which demonstrate high selectivity towards CO and HCOOH, respectively, while simultaneously suppressing the competing HER. The origin of this superior performance is deciphered through electronic structure analysis. The activity and selectivity of the catalyst are determined by the d-band center of the Ni site, and this d-band center is regulated by the cluster size. The adsorption strength of the key intermediates (COOH in the CO pathway and OCHO in the HCOOH pathway) was thus regulated to the optimal level, as further evidenced by COHP analysis. This work underscores the critical role of precise size regulation of cluster catalysts and establishes a fundamental theoretical framework that rational design of high-performance and high-selectivity electrocatalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> resource utilization. The structure–activity relationships elucidated herein may also provide generalizable guidance for optimizing coordination environments in other single-atom and cluster catalyst systems, fostering innovation in the broader field of electrocatalysis for sustainable energy and environmental applications.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Yimeng Sun:** Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Lin Tao:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Meixu Lu:** Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Xin Quan:** Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Mingjie Wu:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Javed Rehman:** Supervision, Methodology. **Nan Wang:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Formal analysis. **Lixiang Li:** Supervision, Resources, Formal analysis. **Baigang An:** Supervision, Formal analysis.

#### 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.fuel.2026.139263>.

#### Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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