



Communication Defective PrO_x for Efficient Electrochemical NO₂⁻⁻-to-NH₃ in a Wide Potential Range

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Abstract: Electrocatalytic reduction of nitrite (NO₂⁻) is a sustainable and carbon-neutral approach to producing green ammonia (NH₃). We herein report the first work on building defects on PrO_x for electrochemical NO₂⁻ reduction to NH₃, and demonstrate a high NH₃ yield of 2870 μ g h⁻¹ cm⁻² at the optimal potential of –0.7 V with a faradaic efficiency (FE) of 97.6% and excellent FEs of >94% at a wide given potential range (–0.5 to –0.8 V). The kinetic isotope effect (KIE) study suggested that the reaction involved promoted hydrogenation. Theoretical calculations clarified that there was an accelerated rate-determining step of NO₂⁻ reduction on PrO_x. The results also indicated that PrO_x could be durable for long-term electrosynthesis and cycling tests.

Keywords: green chemistry; electrocatalysis; ammonia synthesis; rare earth; defect engineering



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1. Introduction

Ammonia (NH_3) is not only one of the most essential chemicals, but also a promising high-density energy carrier contributing to carbon neutrality [1-6]. However, current NH₃ industrial production based on the traditional Haber-Bosch process suffers from harsh conditions and high CO_2 emissions [7–9]. Consequently, exploring a sustainable and carbonneutral approach to green NH₃ is of great importance [10-12]. Recently, electrochemical N₂ reduction reaction (NRR) with H₂O as the proton source has caused worldwide concern as an alternating method for ambient NH_3 synthesis using clean energy [13,14]. Nevertheless, low N₂ solubility in aqueous electrolytes, hard $N \equiv N$ bond (with an ultra-high bond energy of 941 kJ mol⁻¹) activation, and undesired hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) are becoming the main factors hindering the further application of NRR [15]. Compared with N_2 , nitrite (NO_2^-) has a higher solubility and lower dissociation energy of N=O bond (204 kJ mol⁻¹), coherently decreasing the thermodynamic limit of its conversion to NH_3 [16,17]. In addition, NO_2^{-1} is a widespread N-pollutant causing water pollution and a public health issue, and has also recently been reported as one of the main N₂ derivatives in eco-friendly plasmatic air oxidation [18–20]. Hence, electrocatalytic NO_2^- reduction to NH₃ provides opportunities to remove NO₂⁻ from contaminated water, utilization of renewable nitrogen sources, and production of green NH₃ through renewable energydriven pathways.

Rare earth, the strategic source known as a modern industrial vitamin, was regarded as a key component in catalysts for many emerging reactions [21,22]. Its unique ground-state electronic configurations and unpaired 4f orbital electrons are expected to be promising electrocatalysts for NO₂⁻ conversion. For instance, rare earth oxides such as CeO₂ could achieve an excellent performance for NH₃ electrosynthesis [23–25]. However, the reports

on rare earth-based catalysts are still very limited, and the catalytic activity needs to be improved further. Introducing defects to the surface of oxide catalysts was proved to be an efficient strategy to modulate the electron configuration of the catalytic sites and thus promote the formation and conversion of key intermediates during the reaction [26–29]. As a result, constructing defect structures could be a promising methodology to develop novel rare earth-based catalysts in the enhancement of NO₂⁻ reduction.

Herein, we have demonstrated the first work on building defects on praseodymium oxide (PrO_x) for electrochemical NO₂⁻ reduction to NH₃. When tested using 0.01 M KNO₂ as the nitrogen source and 0.5 M K₂SO₄ as the supporting electrolyte, PrO_x could achieve a high NH₃ yield of 2870 μ g h⁻¹ cm⁻² at -0.7 V, which is 8 times larger than the pristine Pr₆O₁₁. In addition, PrO_x could exhibit an excellent faradaic efficiency (FE) of >94% in a wide given potential range of -0.5 V to -0.8 V. The kinetic isotope effect (KIE) study indicates there is promoted hydrogenation during NO₂⁻ reduction on PrO_x. The NH₃ products were identified using isotope labelling. PrO_x also showed robust durability for long-term bulk electrosynthesis and cycling tests.

2. Results and Discussion

The process of preparing defective PrO_x catalysts is illustrated in Figure 1A. The intermediate products obtained from the hydrothermal method were proven to be $Pr(OH)_3$ nanorods by X-ray diffraction (XRD, JCPDS No. 83-2304) patterns, scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) in Figures S1–S4, which could transfer to Pr_6O_{11} through calcining in air [30]. Thermal treatment of Pr_6O_{11} in an H₂ atmosphere at different temperatures (300 °C, 500 °C, and 700 °C) was utilized to construct oxygen vacancies (V_0) on its surface. The obtained samples were donated as PrO_x -T (T = 300, 500, and 700). The XRD patterns of Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x -500 are exhibited in Figure 1B. Similar peaks presented by Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x -500 at 27.7, 32.1, 46.1, 54.6° are well indexed to the (111), (200), (220), and (311) crystallographic planes of Pr_6O_{11} (JCPDS No. 42-1121). Very little Pr₂O₃ phase (JCPDS No. 74-1146) was observed. The gradual color change was found from the optical photograph (Figure 1B inset and Figure S5) from Pr₆O₁₁ to PrO_x powders, which was characteristic of Pr^{3+} and indicated the increase of Pr^{3+} with the increasing temperature of PrO_x preparation [31]. The results of XRD as well as SEM and low-resolution TEM images shown in Figure 1C and Figures S6–S8, indicated that the introduction of defects could not result in a significant change of crystal phase, morphology, and particle size of ca. 200 nm. High-resolution TEM (HR-TEM) images in Figure 1D and Figure S9 revealed that PrO_x -500 posed distinct lattice fringes and a lattice spacing of 0.326 nm, which could be consistent with the cubic fluorite structure of the $Pr_6O_{11}(111)$ plane. In addition, PrOx-500 exhibited disrupted fringes due to the presence of dot defects which was not observed in Pr_6O_{11} samples (Figure S10), thereby confirming the existence of defects introduced by the H₂ treatment. Figure 1E displays the energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) elemental mapping images of PrOx-500, suggesting there was uniform distribution of Pr and O elements.

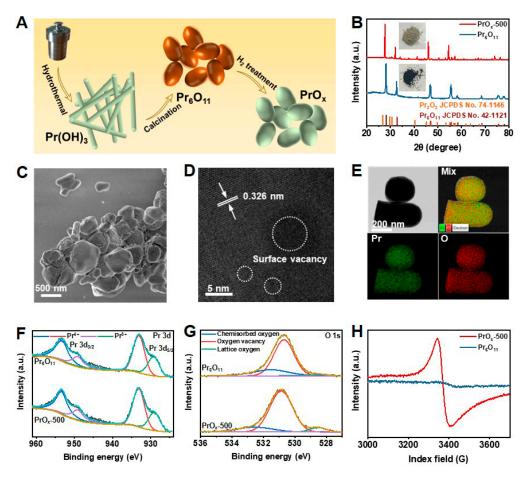


Figure 1. (**A**) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of PrO_x electrocatalyst. (**B**) XRD patterns and optical photographs (inset) of Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x -500. (**C**) SEM image of PrO_x -500. (**D**) HR-TEM image and (**E**) corresponding EDX mapping images of PrO_x -500. XPS spectra of Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x -500 in the regions of (**F**) Pr 3d and (**G**) O 1s. (**H**) EPR curves of Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x -500.

Further analysis of the PrO_x surface was performed using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS,AXIS ULTRA DLD, UK). The Pr 3d spectra in Figure 1F and Figure S11 were observed in the PrO_x -500 sample, with peaks at 953.1 eV (Pr 3d_{3/2}) and 933.1 eV (Pr $3d_{5/2}$) being attributed to Pr⁴⁺ and peaks at 949.1 eV (Pr $3d_{3/2}$) and 929.2 eV (Pr $3d_{5/2}$) being assigned to Pr³⁺ [32,33]. As the temperature increased, the intensity of the Pr³⁺ peaks increased, indicating that more Pr⁴⁺ was reduced to Pr³⁺. The O 1s spectra in Figure 1G and Figure S12 indicated the presence of different chemical environments for oxygen atoms in the PrO_x catalysts. The concentration of V_0 increased with the increasing calcination temperature. The peaks at 531.5, 530.7, and 528.3 eV corresponded to chemisorbed oxygen, oxygen deficiency, and lattice oxygen, respectively [34–36]. As the temperature increased, the peak of oxygen vacancy was found to increase due to more V_0 on the surface of PrO_x -500 compared with Pr_6O_{11} . The slight shifts of Pr 3d and O1s peaks between Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x samples were also attributed to the introduced defects. Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra were used to confirm the presence of V_0 in Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x catalysts (Figure 1H). Compared with Pr_6O_{11} , PrO_x had a distinct EPR signal of V_0 at g = 2.004, demonstrating again the successful preparation of PrO_x with V_0 [31–37].

The electrochemical performance of PrO_x -500 for NH₃ synthesis was evaluated in 0.5 M K₂SO₄ aqueous solution with 0.01 M KNO₂ saturated by Ar, utilizing an H-type cell with a three-electrode configuration (Figure S13). All potentials reported in this paper were converted to the relative hydrogens electrode (RHE). The performances reported in this paper are verified by three repeated experiments, and the average results with error bars are given. A catalyst ink of PrO_x -500 powder was prepared and loaded on a carbon paper

evenly (1 mg cm $^{-2}$), which served as the working electrode. As presented in Figure 2A, the electrochemical catalytic activity of PrO_x -500 for NO_2^- reduction to NH_3 was firstly investigated using the linear scanning voltammetry (LSV) curves (scan rate = 10 mV s^{-1}). Adding 0.01 M KNO₂ promoted the current density (j) remarkably, indicating there was excellent activity of NO_2^- reduction over PrO_x -500 in neutral media. To investigate the optimal efficiency of NH₃ production, chronoamperometry tests were carried out by applying various potentials ranging from -0.4 to -0.9 V. As shown in Figure 2B, these chronoamperometry curves remained stable during electrochemical tests for 3600 s. The corresponding UV-vis spectra showed that the peak of absorption curves increased with the applied potential, meaning there was an increase in the NH₃ yield with growing potential (Figure 2C). The NH₃ yield and FE calculated from calibration curves in Figure S14 are presented in Figure 2D. PrO_x -500 exhibited the highest FE of 97.6% at -0.7 V with a NH₃ yield of 2870 μ g h⁻¹ cm⁻². In addition, PrO_x-500 had an ideal performance with an FE of >94% from the range of applied potential from -0.5 to -0.8 V, which is essential for further application. Since -0.7 V was chosen as the optimal potential for NH₃ production, we further studied different Pr-based catalysts on -0.7 V. The results in Figure 2E indicate that Pr_6O_{11} , PrO_x -300, and PrO_x -700 exhibited lower NH₃ yields (372, 1643, and 1387 μ g h⁻¹ cm⁻²) and poor FEs (19.7%, 67.8%, and 58.2%), implying that the construction of defects under optimal temperature is a useful strategy to boost NO_2^- reduction reaction for NH₃ electrosynthesis. Further experiments were conducted to clarify the acceleration of the kinetics process during the NO_2^- reduction by examining the KIE of H/D (H₂O/D₂O) over the Pr₆O₁₁ and PrO_x-500 catalysts. The KIE values, which serve as a descriptor of proton transfer rate, were calculated and compared in Figure 2F. The results showed a significant decrease in KIE value from 1.58 in the PrO_x -500 sample to 1.24 in the PrO_x -500 catalyst, indicating there was a faster rate of hydrogenation kinetics [38–40]. Additionally, the onset potential of the Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x 500 samples depicted in Figure 2F (inset) suggested that their performance was enhanced in H₂O solvent as compared to D₂O solvent, which is consistent with the variation in NH₃ yield obtained using different catalysts and solvents. To eliminate the influence of other nitrogen sources, control experiments were performed. The results of these experiments, as presented in Figure 3A, indicated that our electrodes, electrolyte, and reagents were not contaminated by N-impurities, as there was an absence of NH_3 production in the cathode solution after electrolysis at the open circuit potential (OCP) with a blank electrolyte. The NH_3 production of PrO_x -500 was further evaluated by alternately conducting experiments in electrolytes with and without NO₂⁻ for three cycles at -0.7 V (Figure 3B). The results showed that NH₃ was only detected in electrolytes containing NO₂⁻. Next, ¹⁵N isotope labelling was performed using ¹⁵NO₂⁻ as an additive electrolyte. Figure 3C showed two peaks of ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and three peaks of ¹⁴NH₄⁺ in the corresponding ¹H Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra (signals of standard samples were shown in Figure S15), obtained from experiments with ${}^{15}NO_2{}^{-}$ and $^{14}\text{NO}_2^{-}$ as additive electrolytes, further confirming that the NH₃ came from the reduction of NO_2^- . The stability of electrocatalysts is critical for industrial applications because it determines the longevity and efficiency of the electrochemical reactions [41]. To assess the remarkable catalytic stability of PrOx-500, we performed cycling experiments using the same working electrode and refreshed the electrolyte for each cycle. The results showed that the NH₃ yields and FEs for the ten cycles remained stable with negligible fluctuations. In addition, the similarity in color (Figure S16), XRD patterns (Figure S17), SEM images (Figure S18), TEM images (Figure S19), EDS elemental mapping images (Figure S20), XPS spectra (Figures S21 and S22), and LSV curves (Figure S23) of PrO_x-500, both prior to and after extended electrolysis, further supports the excellent electrochemical and structural stability of PrO_x -500 as a catalyst in the reduction of NO_2^- for the synthesis of NH_3 .

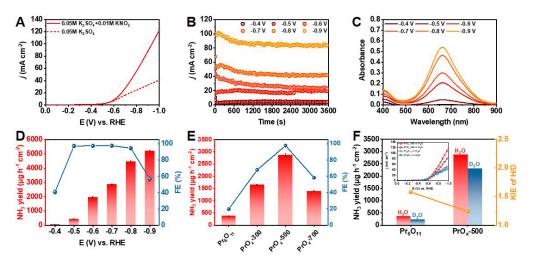


Figure 2. (**A**) LSV curves of PrO_x -500 in 0.5 M K₂SO₄ aqueous solution in the presence and absence of 0.01 M KNO₂. (**B**) Chronoamperometry curves of NO₂⁻ reduction from -0.4 V to -0.9 V over PrO_x -500 catalyst. (**C**) Corresponding UV-vis spectra of PrO_x -500 catalyzed NO₂⁻ reduction. (**D**) Potential-dependent NH₃ yields and FE of PrO_x -500. (**E**) Comparison of the performance of various Pr-based catalysts. (**F**) KIE study of H/D over Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x -500 and LSV curves (inset) of Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x -500 in H₂O and D₂O solvents.

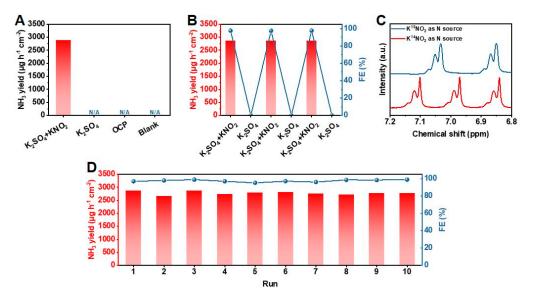


Figure 3. (A) NH₃ yields of PrO_x -500 for NO₂⁻ reduction at various conditions. (B) NH₃ yields and FE of NO₂⁻ reduction on PrO_x -500 during the alternating cycling test between 0.5 M K₂SO₄ with/without additional 0.01 M KNO₂. (C) ¹H NMR spectra of NH₃ products in the electrolytes after the reduction of K¹⁴NO₂ and K¹⁵NO₂ at -0.7 V for 3600 s. (D) NH₃ yields and FE of PrO_x-500 during consecutive recycling tests.

A density functional theory (DFT) study was then carried out to investigate the reaction pathways of NO₂⁻ reduction on Pr-based catalysts with different defects and thus modified electronic structure. The (111) facet was found to be the main plane in Pr_6O_{11} and PrO_x samples according to XRD patterns and HR-TEM images shown in Figure 1B and 1D. The catalyst models of $PrO_x(111)$ were thus built by constructing V_0 on the perfect $Pr_6O_{11}(111)$ facet. Figure 4A presented the reaction-free energy levels of various intermediates for NO_2^- reduction on PrO_x and Pr_6O_{11} , revealing that the rate-determining step (RDS) on the PrO_x and Pr_6O_{11} surface was *NOH plus H to generate *N. Additionally, the corresponding structures of NO_2^- reduction number of Pr near the defect was lower, thus increasing the

adsorption capacity of *N, and lowering the energy barrier of the PDS. Hence, the free energy of the final RDS on PrO_x is reduced compared to that on the perfect Pr_6O_{11} surface. Hence, constructing defects on PrO_x catalysts could significantly accelerate the RDS, leading to the better performance of electrochemical NO_2^- reduction.

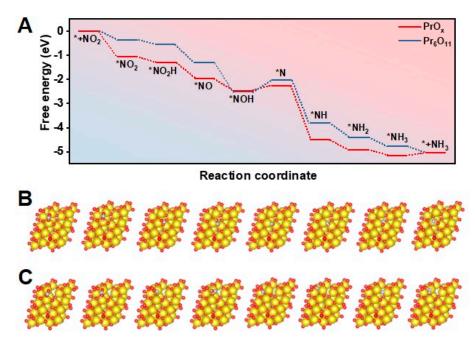


Figure 4. (**A**) Free energy of various intermediates generated during NO_2^- reduction on $PrO_x(111)$ and $Pr_6O_{11}(111)$. Atomic configurations of the intermediates on (**B**) $PrO_x(111)$ and (**C**) $Pr_6O_{11}(111)$ during the electrochemical progress (Pr: gold, O: red, N: purple, and H: pink).

3. Conclusions

In summary, this work has demonstrated the highly efficient electrochemical reduction of NO_2^- to NH_3 utilizing PrO_x catalysts with defects. Electrocatalysis tests showed a high yield of 2870 µg h⁻¹ cm⁻² at an optimal potential of -0.7 V and FE of >94% in a wide applied potential range. A KIE study confirmed the promotion of hydrogenation during the reduction process, and the products were identified using isotope labelling. Additionally, PrO_x demonstrated robust durability for long-term electrosynthesis and cycling tests. DFT calculations demonstrated that PrO_x could accelerate the RDS of NO_2^- reduction, resulting in the enhanced performance of NH_3 production. The work opens up new avenues for the development of ambient, efficient, and sustainable NH_3 synthesis processes and lays a foundation for the development of next-generation electrochemical systems for environmental protection, energy conversion, and chemical manufacturing.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at: https: //www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/chemistry5020053/s1, Figure S1. Optical photograph of Pr(OH)₃ after hydrothermal treatment, Figure S2. XRD pattern of Pr(OH)₃ obtained from hydrothermal method, Figure S3. SEM images of synthesized Pr(OH)₃ nanorods, Figure S4. TEM image of Pr(OH)₃ nanorods, Figure S5. Optical photograph of (A) PrO_x-300 and (B) PrO_x-700 samples, XRD patterns of (A) PrOx-300 and (B) PrOx-700, Figure S7. SEM images of the as-synthesized (A) Pr₆O₁₁, (B) PrO_x-300, and (C) PrO_x-700 samples, Figure S8. TEM images of the as-synthesized (A) Pr₆O₁₁, (B) PrO_x-300, and (C) PrO_x-700, Figure S9. Well-resolved lattice fringe of PrO_x-500 in Figure 1D, Figure S10. HR-TEM image of Pr₆O₁₁, Figure S11. XPS curves of Pr 3d orbital of PrOx-300 and PrOx-700 surface, Figure S13. Illustration of H-cell used in this study, Figure S14. UV-vis absorption curves of indophenol assays kept with samples with different [NH₄⁺] for at least 2 h at 25 °C. (b) Calibration curve to estimate unknown [NH₄⁺], Figure S15. ¹H NMR spectra of ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁴NH₄⁺ standard samples, Figure S16. Optical photograph of working electrodes loading with PrO_x-500 catalysts before and after reactions, Figure S17. XRD pattern of PrO_x -500 after electrolysis, Figure S18. SEM image of PrO_x -500 after electrolysis, Figure S19. TEM image of PrO_x -500 after electrolysis, Figure S20. EDX mappings of PrO_x -500 after electrolysis, Figure S21. XPS curves of Pr 3d orbital of PrO_x -500 surface after reduction, Figure S22. XPS curves of O 1s orbital of PrO_x -500 surface after reduction, Figure S23. LSV curves of PrO_x -500 before and after reduction. References [30,42–45] are cited in the supplementary materials.

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Data Availability Statement: The data presented in this study are available on request from the corresponding authors (Prof. Xiaofu Sun and Prof. Buxing Han).

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