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Single-atom catalysis for carbon dioxide dissociation using greigitesupported $M_1/\text{Fe}_3S_4(111)$ (M = Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn) under electrostatic fields

David Santos-Carballal^{a,*}, Nora H. de Leeuw^{a,b}

^a School of Chemistry, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, United Kingdom
^b Department of Earth Sciences, Utrecht University, Princetonplein 8A, 3584 CD Utrecht, The Netherlands

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ABSTRACT

Single transition metal adatoms (M) supported on a solid surface – here the reactive greigite $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface - combine the best properties of homogeneous and heterogeneous catalytic systems and are highly selective materials capable of altering the pathway of difficult reactions. We have employed state-of-the-art first-principles simulations to investigate the process of carbon dioxide (CO₂) dissociation on the single-atom catalyst (SAC) M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111). We discuss how reconstructions of the symmetrical stacking sequence of charged atomic planes determines the possible stable non-polar terminations of the $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface. The thermodynamic stability and the work function are the main descriptors that are affected by external electrostatic fields, both for the most stable termination of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface as well as the $M_1/\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_4(111)$ catalysts. We present the electron density plots for the $M_1/$ Fe₃S₄(111) surfaces, which show that the *M* adatom forms covalent metal-support interactions (CMSI). In general, positive external electrostatic fields enhance the adsorption properties of the $M_1/\text{Fe}_3S_4(111)$ catalysts towards the CO₂ molecule, which activates chemically upon interaction. Our energy profiles for the dissociation of the CO₂ molecule show that carefully selected transition metal adatoms, such as V, Cr and Co, and positive external electrostatic fields can be used to tune the catalytic properties of SACs. © 2023 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (http:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

1. Introduction

Single-atom catalysts (SAC), which consist of identical and uniformly dispersed monoatomic transition metal (M_1) active sites deposited on a support [1-3], display exceptionally good efficiency [4], selectivity and activity towards targeted chemical reactions [5-9]. The most extensively investigated substrates used to stabilise the active sites are high surface area metal oxides, such as the reducible oxides Fe₃O₄ [10-17], Fe₂O₃ [18,19], FeO_x [3,20-24], CeO₂ [25-30], MnO₂ [31-36], CoO_x [37-43], NiO [44], CuO [45,46], Cu₂O [47], ZnO [48-52], and photoactive TiO₂ [53-57], and irreducible oxides MgO [58-62], Al₂O₃ [63-67] and SiO₂ [68-72], as well as zeolites [73-77], metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) [78] and single-layered materials [79-81]. The single atom represents the limit of the smallest possible dimension of a nanoparticle, with the largest theoretical surface area to volume ratio, bringing the

* Corresponding author.
 E-mail addresses: D.Santos-Carballal@leeds.ac.uk (D. Santos-Carballal), N.H.
 deLeeuw@leeds.ac.uk, N.H.deLeeuw@uu.nl (N.H. de Leeuw).

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discipline of heterogeneous catalysis closer to homogeneous and enzymatic catalysis, where the only active site is exposed [82-86]. The archetypal SACs are based on single, often noble, metal atoms Pd [15,17], Pt [3,14,16,18,24], Au [10,12,13,21,87], Ir [20,44,62,88,89], Rh [90-93] and Ag [31-33,35,36], other transition metal atoms such as Ni [94-96], Cu [94,97-100], V [56,94,101], Cr [55,94], Fe [53,54,94,102,103], Mn [94], Co [94,104-107], Mo [19,69,76,94,108], Os [109], Ti [70,77], Ta [110] and Re [71], W in the form of WO_x species [111], and even alkali metals [31,34]. Single-atom promoters La [63,112], Sn [113,114] and Zn [115], Ni [116], Cu [117], Zr [118] are considered a special type of SAC and are used to enhance the catalytic activity of metal nanoparticles or to stabilise their interface with the metal oxide substrate [8]. Exotic inverse SACs have been prepared by selectively depositing metal (hydr)oxide species containing a single metal atom, e.g. Fe₁(- OH_{x} [119] and MoO_{x} [108], on top of Pt nanoparticles stabilised over an oxide support, such as SiO_2 or WO_x . Single-atom alloy (SAA) catalysts, which are formed by depositing isolated metal atoms of catalytically active elements on the surface of a less active





JOURNAL OF CATALYSIS but more selective metal host, have also emerged as an important class of SACs [120-122].

The catalytic activity and selectivity of SACs is strongly linked to the nature of specific single atoms and to the particular chemical environment of the coordination sites in the support [83]. Tailored SACs have been developed for applications in well-established fields such as thermo-, electro- and photo-catalysts, as well as for the more contemporary multistep cascade reactions. Examples of thermo-catalytic applications include the water-gas shift reaction [123-125], preferential CO oxidation [3,29,119], selective oxidation of alkane to alcohols [102,126,127] and from the latter to aldehydes [21,128], selective hydrogenation of unsaturated C-C bonds [120,129,130], as well as coupling reactions between two C atoms [131-133] and between one C atom and one heteroatom [134-136]. The most important single-atom electro-catalysts (SAECs) uses are for the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) [137-139], oxygen evolution reaction (OER) [140-142], oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) [143-145], carbon dioxide reduction reaction (CO2RR) [146-148] and nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR) [149-151]. SACs have also been applied with significant success in several photo-catalytic processes comprising, for example, water splitting [152-154], carbon dioxide (CO_2) reduction [107,155,156], dinitrogen fixation [157,158], organic synthesis [159] and environmental remediation [160-162]. Rh and Ru SACs have been used for the one-pot cooperative tandem olefin isomerization-hydrosilylation process, whereas single Co sites dispersed on a Ti MOF catalyse the cascade reduction of Nheteroarenes [163].

The cubane-structured active sites of greigite (Fe₃S₄), which is the sulfide counterpart of the industrial catalyst magnetite (Fe₃O₄), have been associated with several hypotheses for the origin of life [164,165]. This theory was subsequently tested in a pilot study which showed that slightly acidic conditions were required for the adsorption and reduction of CO₂ into small soluble organic molecules over the catalytically active $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface [166]. Further investigations have indicated that the $Fe_3S_4(111)$ facet is also capable of catalysing the direct combination of C1 species of different composition to produce acetic acid (CH₃COOH) via a glvoxylic acid intermediate (CHOCOOH) [167]. The Fe₃S₄(111) surface was found to preferentially reduce the carbon monoxide (CO) molecule to methanol (CH₃OH) [168], but it was unable to catalyse the dissociation of adsorbed water (H₂O) [169] or become reduced by hydrogen [170]. Studies into the nature of the Fe₃S₄ surfaces in the presence of water [171] and during the electrochemical H_2 evolution and CO₂ reduction reactions have found that this material forms core-shell iron sulfide/iron hydroxide nanoparticles [172]. This partial oxidation of the surfaces of sulfide materials has been shown to increase the catalytic activity with respect to the pristine surface towards the conversion of CO₂ into formate (HCOO⁻) [173] and oxalic acid $(H_2C_2O_4)$ [174].

The use of transverse electrostatic fields has been shown to reduce the band gap of catalytic systems, including carbon nanotubes and boron nitride nanotubes. The electrostatic field is able to combine the band levels in the valence and conduction bands individually, making the band gap value dependent on the electrostatic field [175]. Internal electrostatic fields caused by the coadsorption of ions on metal surfaces can dictate significant changes in the rate of heterogeneous catalytic processes [176], whereas external electrostatic fields can be used in so-called field-assisted catalysis, which is particularly suited to experimental investigation by pulsed field mass desorption spectroscopy, complemented computationally by density functional theory (DFT) calculations [177].

Anthropogenic CO_2 , which is a pollutant produced in large quantities by the combustion of fossil fuels, can be harnessed as an alternative C1 carbon feedstock [178]. Carbon dioxide is currently utilised directly in strongly exergonic to moderately ender-

gonic processes, where the entire CO₂ moiety is incorporated into the final product. In these thermal syntheses of commodity chemicals, such as urea (RHN)₂CO, salicylic acid (HOC₆H₄CO₂H) and inorganic carbonates, the C atom maintains its oxidation number of 4 + or is just reduced to 3+. There is also a growing global interest in very endergonic applications for CO₂ to produce chemicals, e.g., carboxylic acids (RCOOH), and in particular formic acid polyurethanes (HCOOH), polycarbonates (-ROCOO-),(-RNHCOOR'OCONHR-) and carbamates (RR'NCOOR") and acrylates (RCH₂CHCOOR'R"), as well as fuels including CO, methanol (CH₃OH), methane (CH₄) and larger hydrocarbons. However, these processes, which can contribute to the recycling of CO₂, whilst also reducing our dependence on natural fossil fuel resources, require stable, efficient, active and selective heterogeneous catalysts to facilitate the reduction of the oxidation number of the C atom to 2 + or lower to form the desired product.

This work reports the novel use of SACs supported on a reactive surface of the iron sulfide material greigite, $M_1/\text{Fe}_3S_4(111)$, where *M* is a 3*d* transition metal from groups III to XII of the periodic table, in a systematic investigation of the catalytic dissociation of CO₂ under the effect of external electrostatic fields. We have used unrestricted ab initio methods to study the thermodynamic stabilities and geometries, as well as the electronic and magnetic properties, of the non-polar terminations of the Fe₃S₄(111) surface. Next, we have simulated the deposition of the single transition metal atoms onto the surface and discussed the impact on the major properties of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface. We have inspected the adsorption of CO₂ and evaluated the chemical activation at the catalytic M_1 sites in the absence and in the presence of transversal electrostatic fields. Finally, we have calculated the geometries and energy profiles for the dissociation reaction of the CO₂ molecule over the $M_1/\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_4(111)$ catalyst.

2. Computational methods

2.1. Calculation details

The Vienna Ab Initio Simulation Package (VASP) [179-182] was used to simulate the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface and the $M_1/$ Fe₃S₄(111) SACs, as well as the mechanistic pathways for the dissociation of the CO₂ molecule. We employed the strongly constrained and appropriately normed (SCAN) exchange-correlation functional [183], within the *meta*-generalized gradient approximation (*meta*-GGA), for all our spin-polarised DFT calculations. The projected augmented wave (PAW) method [184,185], including the nonspherical contributions of the density gradient within the onecentre terms, were used to model the frozen core electrons, their kinetic energy densities and their interaction with the valence states. The 3s3p3d4s levels of Sc, Ti and V; the 3p3d4s levels of Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni and Cu; the 3d4s levels of Zn; the 2s2p levels of O and C; and 1s level of H were treated as valence states. We used the charge-dielectric function proposed by Kerker for the initial approximation of the charge densities [186], which included up to the g orbitals of the one-centre PAW charge densities and were subsequently mixed employing the Pulay method [187]. We used a combination of the blocked Davidson iteration scheme [188-190] for the initial phase of the diagonalisation of the Kohn-Sham (KS) Hamiltonian, followed by the residual minimization method direct inversion in the iterative subspace (RMM-DIIS) [187] until the energy difference in two consecutive selfconsistent loop steps dropped below 10^{-5} eV. A kinetic energy cut-off of 400 eV was applied for the periodic plane-wave basis set used to expand the KS valence states. The D2 semiempirical method of Grimme was included in our calculations to correct the long-range dispersion interactions [191] and improve the description of non-bonded distances and non-covalent interaction energies [192-200]. The SCAN + U approach is known to be required for the appropriate simulation of the *d* electrons in transition metal atoms forming oxides [201,202] and sulfides [174] and to enhance the description of the structural, energetic and electronic properties of these materials. Thus, a simplified rotationally invariant GGA Hubbard parameter [203,204] U_{eff} = 5.26 eV for Fe was employed to enhance the simulation of the electron correlations in the 3*d* levels of the cations in the support of the catalyst [174]. This specific $U_{\rm eff}$ parameter was developed fully theoretically using the versatile and universal approach of Cococcioni and Gironcoli [205], which has been widely applied, e.g. in the simulation of both magnetic CrI₃ nano-ribbons [206] and TaS₂ [207] with the PBE GGA functional, as well as metal oxides with the SCAN meta-GGA functional [208]. However, no Hubbard Hamiltonian was employed for the *d* states of the transition metal adatoms, as they are already delocalised due to their low concentration [209]. The DFT + U method is not free from limitations, as $U_{\rm eff}$ values are developed by fitting to observables such as band gaps, magnetic moments and heats of oxidation or using the linear response approach. U_{eff} can take values between 0, *i.e.* no correction typically used for pure metals, to several eV for the transition metal atom in semiconducting or insulating oxides or in our context sulfides [210]. We are confident of the $U_{\rm eff}$ value that we developed for the lattice Fe ions, since it predicts well the main structural, electronic and magnetic properties of the bulk of Fe₃S₄ and the catalytic activity of the (111) surface for the conversion of CO₂ into oxalic acid [174]. However, with the lack of experimental information of the SACs investigated in this work, we do not feel it appropriate to employ an arbitrary $U_{\rm eff}$ value to describe the single transition metal adatom. If we consider that an isolated transition metal atom is supported over the $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface of our SAC systems, then we do not need to use $U_{\rm eff}$ value for the adatoms, which are catalytically active sites supported on stable and easy to separate heterogeneous catalysts. We consider that although not perfect, our approach captures the trends of the catalytic activity of the SAC under investigation here, which is usually the main objective in theoretical surface science and catalysis [211].

We used a Newton line optimiser, which is an efficient conjugate gradients method [212,213], to perform the geometry optimisations, which curvature was estimated using a finite difference step size of 5×10^{-3} Å and a maximum allowed step size $\lambda = 0.2$ Å. The geometry optimisations were considered converged when the Hellmann-Feynman forces on all atoms became smaller than 0.01 eV.Å⁻¹. We confirmed that, within the methodology used in this study, the total electronic energy was converged to within 1 meV atom⁻¹.

2.2. Surface and molecular models

We used METADISE [214] to cut the Fe_3S_4 bulk and construct the (111) surface, which was modelled using the periodic p (2×1) supercell. A vacuum void of 18 Å was included in the direction perpendicular to the simulation cell to avoid interaction with the periodically repeated images while ensuring that the surface can hold the CO₂ molecule in any conformation. The stacking sequence of the (111) surface slabs consisted of four formula unit (f.u.) layers, which is equivalent to 13 atomic layers, with an area of 87.647 $Å^2$. The ions in the two bottommost f.u. layers were fixed at their optimised bulk positions, whereas the ions in the two top f. u. exposed layers were allowed to move during geometry optimisations, to represent the bulk phase and surfaces, respectively. We used the Gaussian smearing [215-218], with a sigma value σ = 0.01 eV to determine the electronic partial occupancies during all our geometry optimisations. The electronic integrations of the pristine Fe₃S₄(111) surface and M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111) SAC were calculated

in the reciprocal space using Γ -centered Monkhorst–Pack (MP) grids [219] of $4 \times 2 \times 1$ *k*-points, in line with earlier works [167,220]. The simulation of the isolated CO₂ molecule was carried out considering only the Γ point of the Brillouin zone (BZ), using a cell with broken symmetry and a volume of 9240 Å³. We applied dipole corrections [221,222] parallel to the [111] direction of our surface slabs to correct the errors to the total energy introduced by the molecules interacting on the relaxed side of the SAC [167,171,173,174,192,195,220,223-232]. We tested the convergence of energy differences within 1 meV per atom using different numbers of relaxed and total atomic layers as well as vacuum thicknesses for our simulation supercell.

The external electrostatic fields were applied using the Neugebauer and Scheffler method [221]. The work function (Φ) was obtained by subtracting the Fermi level of the slab $(E_{\rm F})$ to the potential at the vacuum level (E_{vac}). The magnetic moments and effective Bader atomic charges were integrated within the atomic basins obtained using an enhanced grid of charge density values without lattice bias [233-235]. The climbing image nudged elastic band (cNEB) algorithm was used to simulate the saddle points and minimum energy pathways (MEP) connecting reactants and products [236,237]. The cNEB method has been widely employed in the simulation of the saddle point energies and structures as well as the MEPs of a number of heterogeneous catalytic reactions [167,171,173,192,220]. The MEP were calculated using five images, which were optimised globally employing the limited-memory Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shannon (LBFGS) method [213,238]. Consecutive images were separated by no more than 0.6 Å across all our cNEB calculations, which was enough to resolve the curvature along the dissociation path of the CO₂ molecule. A single imaginary vibrational frequency along the reaction coordinate was used to confirm saddle points. The wavenumbers of the fundamental harmonic vibrational modes were calculated via the central finite differences method, where each atom was permitted to make small movements in the three Cartesian directions.

2.3. Surface energy diagrams

The adsorption energy (E_{ads}) was estimated using the equation,

$$E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{CO}_2 + \text{SAC}} - E_{\text{CO}_2} - E_{\text{SAC}} \tag{1}$$

Where E_{CO_2+SAC} , E_{CO_2} and E_{SAC} refer to the energy of the SAC containing the CO₂ molecule, the energy of the isolated adsorbate molecule, and the energy of the pristine SAC surface, respectively, in their ground state configurations.

We used the energy of the saddle point (E_{SP}) and the energy of the adsorbed CO₂ molecule (E_{CO_2}) to obtain the activation energy as $E_a = E_{SP} - E_{CO_2}$. The energy of the elemental step (ΔE) was obtained as the difference of the energy of the products and the energy of the reactants. The energy diagrams were prepared using the most stable binding modes of the reactants, intermediates and final products, which were connected by saddle points and MEPs.

The charge density differences ($\Delta \rho$) were plotted as,

$$\Delta \rho = \rho_{\rm CO_2 + SAC} - \rho_{\rm CO_2} - \rho_{\rm SAC} \tag{2}$$

where $\rho_{\rm CO_2+SAC}$ is the charge density of the $M_1/{\rm Fe}_3S_4(111)$ SAC with the interacting CO₂ molecule, whereas $\rho_{\rm CO_2}$ and $\rho_{\rm SAC}$ are the charge densities of the adsorbate and catalyst surface with the same geometry as the adsorption mode.

We used the Visualization for Electronic and Structural Analysis (VESTA) program [239] to generate the structural representations and charge density flows. VASPKIT [240] was employed to extract and analyse the charge density differences and the projected den-

sity of states (PDOS). We used OriginPro [241] to plot the PDOS and energy diagrams.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Pristine Fe₃S₄(111) surface

Our starting point are the two non-polar stoichiometric and symmetric terminations of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface, where we have maintained the lattice parameters fixed at the value obtained for the bulk, illustrated in Fig. 1. The stacking sequences of the atomic planes are Fe_{B3} - S_8 - Fe_{A2} - Fe_{B2} - Fe_{A2} - S_8 - Fe_{B6} - S_8 - $Fe_{A2}-Fe_{B2}-Fe_{A2}-S_8-Fe_{B3}$ and $Fe_B-Fe_{A2}-S_8-Fe_{B6}-S_8-Fe_{A2}-Fe_{B2}-Fe_{A$ S_8 -Fe_{B6}- S_8 -Fe_{A2}-Fe_B for the terminations Fe_{B3} and Fe_B, respectively. We have used the $p(2 \times 1)$ surface unit cells to model terminations Fe_{B3} and Fe_B of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ facet, as these are the smallest periodically repeating simulation cells that allow the Tasker type 3 reconstructions [242] of the surface of this catalyst. The dipole moment was quenched before geometry optimisation of terminations Fe_{B3} and Fe_B by moving half of the cations from the exposed stoichiometric stacking sequence at the top of the surface to the bottom of the surface. Termination Fe_{B3} has a bulk-like structure consisting of a full monolayer (ML) of S atoms with a hexagonal cubic closed-packed (ccp) distribution, where 12.5% retain the tetrahedral configuration of the anions in the bulk, 62.5% become 3-fold and the remaining 25% have two dangling bonds. The topmost plane of termination Fe_{B3} also contains 0.375 ML of 3-fold Fe_B cations occupying the hexagonal close-packed (hcp) position, which are coordinated by the same central S atom. Termination Fe_B also comprises 1 ML of S atoms with the typical arrangement found in the bulk, where 37.5% have 4-fold configuration and the remaining 62.5% have one dangling bond. Termination Fe_B is decorated by 0.125 ML of 3-fold Fe_B ions in the hcp site and 0.25 ML of Fe_A ions with one dangling bond sited in the ccp position.

Fig. 2 displays the relaxations of the interplanar distances, which were estimated as $\Delta_{ij} = 100(d_{ij} - d_{ij}^{\circ})/d_{ij}^{\circ}$, where d_{ij} is the distance between the relaxed *i* and j = i + 1 planes and d_{ij}° is the



Fig. 1. Side (top panels) and top (bottom panels) views of terminations (a) Fe_{B3} and (b) Fe_B of the $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface after geometry optimisation. Layers containing atoms with dangling bonds are highlighted. Crystallographic directions and stacking sequence of the atomic layers before geometry optimisation are indicated. Fe_A atoms are in dark yellow, Fe_B atoms are in magenta and S atoms are in light yellow. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)



Fig. 2. Relaxation of the interplanar distances (Δ_{ij}) for the terminations (a) Fe_{B3} and (b) Fe_B of the Fe₃S₄(111) surface in black and red, respectively. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

distance between the corresponding layers in the bulk [243]. Our calculations suggest that the interplanar relaxation becomes progressively reduced towards the bulk after geometry optimisation for terminations Fe_{B3} and Fe_B . We found that consecutive *i* and *j* planes moved in opposite directions during the surface relaxations. The most exposed threefold cations of the Fe_B-1 layer of termination Fe_{B3} experienced a strong relaxation towards the bulk of 93% when they merged with the subsurface S-2 layer, as shown in Fig. 1 (a) and 2. The sub-surface layer S-2 of soft anions, with negative charge and the ccp structure, suffered only a moderate 25% outward movement, as it had to accommodate the cations of the Fe_B-1 layer. The shift of 8% towards the bulk of the sub-surface plane Fe_A-3 can be justified as the electrostatic repulsion caused by the layer S-2 above, which lost part of its negative charge during the incorporation of the Fe_B-1 layer. The sub-surface plane Fe_B-4 moved outward by 41%, as it tried to merge with the plane Fe_A -3 above. The positively charged Fe_A -5 plane preferred to reduce by 33% its interplanar distance to the closer negatively charged S-6 layer, which in turn displaced outwards by 6%, due to their Coulomb attraction. The Fe_B -7 plane, which was the last layer allowed to relax, only experienced a negligible shift towards the surface. The trend of the relaxation observed for termination Fe_B of the Fe₃S₄(111) surface is in line with the relaxation calculated for the equivalent termination of the magnetite Fe₃O₄(111) surface [224]. Moreover, the expansions and contractions of the interplanar distances Fe_B-4 and Fe_A-5 are considerably larger for termination Fe_B than for termination Fe_{B3} . Our calculations indicate that the Fe_A-5 layer migrated by 219% to the sub-surface Fe_B -7 plane, to reduce the number of dangling bonds, allowed by the soft nature of the anions within the intermediate S-6 layer, as illustrated in Fig. 2. Note that the Fe_A -5 layer also migrates inwards in termination Fe_B of the $Fe_3O_4(111)$ surface, but it cannot diffuse across the O-6 layer, since the anions are hard and packed closer together in the oxide counterpart, whose lattice parameter is 1.5 Å smaller than in Fe₃S₄ [224]. The sub-surface Fe_B-7 plane was displaced only by 3% towards the surface. Despite the negligible displacement of the S-6 plane, we found that the S-8 layer moved 14% outwards

due to the electrostatic attraction of the plane Fe_B -7 above containing more carriers of positive charge. The Fe_A -9 plane experienced only a minor shift towards the bulk.

The surface energies for the slab before (γ_u) and after relaxation (γ_r) were calculated as,

$$\gamma_{\rm u} = \frac{E_{\rm u,Fe_3S_4(111)} - n_{\rm b}E_{\rm Fe_3S_4}}{2A} \tag{3}$$

$$\gamma_{\rm r} = \frac{E_{\rm r, Fe_3S_4(111)} - n_{\rm b}E_{\rm Fe_3S_4}}{A} - \gamma_{\rm u} \tag{4}$$

where E_{u,Fe_3S_4} , E_{r,Fe_3S_4} and $E_{Fe_3S_4}$ are the energies of the unrelaxed Fe₃S₄(111) surface slab, the half-relaxed slab and one Fe₃S₄ f.u. in the bulk, respectively, whereas *A* and n_b are the surface area and the number of Fe₃S₄ f.u. in the supercell, respectively. The degree of relaxation (*R*) was obtained as $R = 100(\gamma_u - \gamma_r)/\gamma_u$.

Our simulations suggest that termination Fe_B is the most stable of the Fe₃S₄(111) planes, since it has the lowest surface energies before and after geometry optimisation, see Table 1. The relaxation of R = 20.05% calculated for termination Fe_B, which is the largest reported in this work, quantifies energetically the impact of the large displacement of the Fe_A -5 layer into the sub-surface Fe_B -7 layer. We have also obtained the Bader charges, which are lower for the atoms with dangling bonds than for the fully coordinated ions in the bulk, with the exception of the surface Fe_A cation in termination Fe_B, which has the same charge reported for the bulk [174]. In general, the ions of termination Fe_B are more ionic, *i.e.* have larger charge, than those in termination Fe_{B3} . The magnetic moments simulated for the exposed Fe_B and S atoms are larger in termination Fe_{B3} than in termination Fe_{B} . However, in both terminations our simulations only predict larger magnetic moments than in the bulk for the Fe_B ions with dangling bonds [174]. Both terminations display half-metallic properties, but Fe_{B3} has a band gap of 1.14 eV in the majority channel of spins, whereas termination Fe_B has a slightly larger energy gap of 1.28 eV in the minority spin channel. Note that the band gaps calculated for the $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface are substantially lower than the value of ~2.8 eV obtained for the minority channel of the spins in the bulk [174]. The work function implies that termination Fe_B is slightly more reactive, by 0.137 eV, than termination Fe_{B3} , as it can supply more readily the electron from the Fermi level needed for the catalytic dissociation of CO₂. In view of the above, we do not consider the Fe_{B3} termination for further analysis, due to its large relaxed surface energy, which makes it unlikely to be expressed in the crystal morphology of Fe₃S₄.

Unsurprisingly, the possible terminations of the reconstructed Tasker type 3 (111) surface are similar for both Fe_3S_4 and its isostructural oxide counterpart magnetite Fe_3O_4 [224], which are spinel-structured materials. To rationalise the calculated proper-

Table 1

Surface energies before (γ_u) and after relaxation (γ_r) , percentage of relaxation (R), average atomic charges (q), average magnetic moments (m_s) , energy gap (E_g) and work function (Φ) for terminations Fe_{B3} and Fe_B of the pristine Fe₃S₄(111) surface. Negative atomic magnetic moments indicate antiparallel alignment.

Termination	Fe _{B3}	Fe _B
$\gamma_{\rm u}$ (meV Å ⁻²)	118.7	76.4
γ_r (meV Å ⁻²)	103.6	61.0
R (%)	12.72	20.05
$q(Fe_A)$ (e atom ⁻¹)	1.246	1.372
$q(Fe_B)$ (e atom ⁻¹)	1.126	1.162
q(S) (e atom ⁻¹)	-0.792	-0.910
$m_{ m s}({ m Fe}_{ m A})~(\mu_{ m B}~{ m atom}^{-1})$	3.963	4.059
$m_{ m s}({ m Fe}_B)~(\mu_{ m B}~{ m atom^{-1}})$	-3.793	-3.659
$m_{ m s}({ m S})$ ($\mu_{ m B}$ atom $^{-1}$)	0.148	0.004
$E_{\rm g}~({\rm eV})$	1.14	1.28
Φ (eV)	5.795	5.658

ties of the most stable Fe_B termination of the $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface, we compare it to the isostructural most stable termination of the $Fe_3O_4(111)$ surface. Despite having a similar stacking sequence, the Fe₃S₄(111) surface has smaller unrelaxed and relaxed surface energies than the Fe₃O₄(111) surface, with $\gamma_{\rm u}$ = 98.59 meV Å⁻² and γ_r = 68.64 meV Å⁻², respectively [224]. Thus, replacing the soft S by the hard O atoms in the (111) surface increases the relaxation from 20.05% [224] to 30.4%. The average Bader charges of the undercoordinated Fe_A ions are 1.37 and 1.24 e atom⁻¹ in the (111) surface of the sulfide and oxide, respectively. However, we found the opposite trend in the Bader charges of the exposed Fe_B cations, with a lower value of 1.16 e atom⁻¹ computed for the Fe₃S₄(111) surface and the larger q = 1.21 e atom⁻¹ for the Fe₃O₄(111) surface. The average Bader charge of the S atoms with dangling bonds is -0.91 e atom⁻¹, whereas q = -1.14 e atom⁻¹ for O in the (111) surface, in agreement with the different electronegativities of the anions. Our simulations suggest that the difference in magnetic moments of the protruding Fe_A ions in the (111) surface is negligible between the sulfide and oxide phases, at 4.059 and 4.032 μ_B atom⁻¹, respectively. The magnetic moment of the exposed Fe_B ions is approximately 0.24 μ_B atom⁻¹ smaller in the Fe₃S₄(111) surface than in the Fe₃O₄(111) surface, at 3.91 μ_B atom⁻¹ calculated for the latter. The magnetic moment vanishes for the anions with dangling bonds in both the sulfide and oxide surfaces. A band gap of 1.28 and 0.69 eV in the minority spin channel was obtained for the Fe₃S₄ and Fe₃O₄(111) surfaces [224], respectively, suggesting that the sulfide is a better insulator than the oxide. The larger work function of 5.658 eV calculated for the Fe₃S₄(111) surface implies that this system is less reactive than the Fe₃O₄(111) surface, with the smaller Φ = 3.90 eV [220].

Weak electrostatic fields, typically of the order of 10^{-2} to 10^{-5} V Å⁻¹, are only capable of orienting diatomic [244], linear [245] or asymmetric top polar molecules [246], depending on their dipole moment, rotational constant and rotational temperature, without affecting noticeably their electronic structure or geometry [177]. External electrostatic fields of intermediate strengths between 0.1 and 1.0 V $Å^{-1}$ are known to modify moderately the electronic structure of heterogeneous catalytic systems, affecting the energy of saddle points [176,247] and leading to new mechanistic pathways that are not available otherwise [177]. However, electrostatic fields with extreme strengths above 1 V Å⁻¹ can move considerably the atomic and molecular energy levels, leading to the desorption [221] and ionisation of molecules [248]. Since we want to model the effect of electrostatic fields in the dissociation of CO_2 using our SACs, we have decided to use strengths of E =-0.475 and 0.475 V Å⁻¹. To gain further insight into termination Fe_B of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface, we have re-optimized its atomic positions under external electrostatic fields to simulate its structural, electronic and magnetic properties. Fig. 3 (a) displays the structure of the simulation slab, where we have indicated how we have applied the external electrostatic field E = 0.475 V Å

⁻¹ by inserting a dipole sheet in the middle of the vacuum region between the surface and its periodically repeated image. The minima of the average electrostatic potential along the direction normal (*R*) to the simulation slab correspond to the position of the anion and the Fe_B layers, whereas the interlayer separation gaps lead to the local maxima, as shown in Fig. 3 (b). The slope of the average local potential in the vacuum region confirms that the slab is under the electrostatic field induced by the dipole sheet. $E_{eff} = 0.201 \text{ V } \text{Å}^{-1}$ is the effective electric field between the two surfaces of the slab, which is calculated as the slope of the line linking the left high-potential side with the right low-potential side in the vacuum. The top of the highest occupied band, which is marked by the dashed line, lies below the lowest average electrostatic potential in the vacuum region, which confirms the absence of the unrealistic artificial field emission. The grey rectangle indicates



Fig. 3. (a) Structure of termination Fe_B of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface, (b) average electrostatic potential, (c) electrostatic potential difference and (c) charge density difference $(\Delta \rho)$ along the direction normal (*R*) to the simulation slab. The electrostatic potential is plotted for the surface under an external electrostatic field of $E = 0.475 \text{ V Å}^{-1}$, whereas the electrostatic potential difference and charge density difference $(\Delta \rho)$ are represented for the slab under E = 0.000 and 0.475 V Å⁻¹. The vertical arrows indicate the positions of the atomic layers in the slab. Fe_A atoms are in dark yellow, Fe_B atoms are in magenta and S atoms are in light yellow. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

the maximum and minimum potential values used to calculate the work function of termination Fe_B of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface under an external electric field of E = 0.475 V Å⁻¹. It is clear from a theoretical point of view that the introduction of a planar dipole layer in the middle of the vacuum region parallel to the surface creates a potential jump that splits the work functions of the top and the bottom sides of the slab, as represented in Fig. 3 (a) and (b). To analyse the impact of the electrostatic fields on the electronic structure of termination Fe_B of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface, we have plotted the average electrostatic potential difference and the electronic charge density difference under an electrostatic field of 0.475 V Å⁻¹ and under its absence, averaged in the direction parallel to the surface plane, with both surfaces having the same geometry as the system under the electrostatic field, see Fig. 3 (c) and (d). The potential difference shows that the electrostatic field is screened within the surface of our transition metal sulfide at roughly 12 eV, with a dip to 9 eV at the centre of the slab. The average potential difference decreases at the vacuum, which is a trend that continues on the relaxed side of the slab, explaining the reduction of the work function for positive external electrostatic fields. Moreover, there are charge oscillations within the slab of Fe₃S₄(111), with large charge accumulations of around 0.6 e $Å^{-3}$ on

the subsurface Fe_{*B*} layers and more modest charge depletions of -0.25 e Å⁻³ on the exposed S layers. There is a small increase in charge of approximately 0.25 e Å⁻³ on the Fe_{*B*} cation with dangling bonds in the relaxed surface, which vanishes quickly at distances larger than 2.5 Å away from the slab. In contrast, the average electrostatic potential difference remains constant at 0 eV within the slabs of the metallic Al(111) [221] and Pt(111) surface [249], decreasing and increasing on either side of the vacuum depending on the direction of the external electrostatic field. The charge density difference for these metallic systems also remains constant within the surface slab, with only large charge accumulation and depletion on the vacuum sides [221,249].

Fig. 4 (a), (c) and (d) illustrate that the electrostatic fields do not affect noticeably the relaxation pattern of the surface, nor the charges or magnetic moments of the Fe_A, Fe_B or S atoms, at least for the moderate strengths of up to E = -0.475 and 0.475 V Å⁻¹ used in this study. Note that the small charge density differences of 0.25 and -0.25 e Å⁻³ reported for the exposed Fe_B cation and S layer in Fig. 3 (d), become negligible when they are integrated within the atomic volume and divided by the number of the atoms in the layer. Thus, charges become relatively independent of the external electrostatic field strength. However, our calculations suggest that electrostatic fields, and particularly positive values,



Fig. 4. (a) Relaxation of the interplanar distances (Δ_{ij}), (b) surface free energies (σ) at 0 K, (c) average atomic charges (q), (d) average atomic magnetic moments (m_s) and (e) work function (Φ) for termination Fe_B of the pristine Fe₃S₄(111) surface in the absence and under external electrostatic fields E = -0.475 and 0.475 V Å⁻¹.

stabilise thermodynamically the termination Fe_B of the pristine Fe₃S₄(111) surface, as shown in Fig. 4 (b). The application of transverse electrostatic fields has a moderate effect on the band gap of termination Fe_B of the pristine Fe₃S₄(111) surface, which reduces to 1.25 and 1.11 eV for E = -0.475 V Å⁻¹ and E = 0.475 V Å⁻¹, respectively. We also found that the work function has an inverse proportionality with the external electrostatic field, as E = -0.475 V Å⁻¹ leads to the most reactive surface with $\Phi = 2.086$ eV, see Fig. 4 (e).

3.2. Single-atom catalysts

The incorporation of the single 3d transition metal atoms M and their impact on the geometries, electron charges and magnetic properties of termination Fe_B of the Fe₃S₄(111) surface are discussed in this section. We have placed the single M atoms in the hcp position that was occupied in the bulk by the 0.125 ML of 3-fold Fe_B cations that were removed from the surface to eliminate the dipole moment of the simulation slab, as shown in Fig. 1 (b). The decoration of the Fe₃S₄(111) surface using a single M_1 atom from groups III to XII of the periodic table was treated as a solid-state reaction and modelled according to,

$$Fe_3S_4(111) + M = M_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$$
(5)

where Sc, Ti, Co and Zn were simulated using the hcp primitive unit cell containing two atoms; V, Cr, Mn and Fe were modelled using the body-centred cubic (bcc) primitive cell comprising one atom; and Ni and Cu were calculated using the face-centred cubic (fcc) primitive cell consisting of one atom.

The surface free energy (σ) of the M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111) surface has been computed as,

$$\sigma = \gamma_{\rm r} + \frac{E_{M_1/{\rm Fe}_3 {\rm S}_4(111)} - E_{{\rm Fe}_3 {\rm S}_4(111)} - E_M}{A} \tag{6}$$

where $E_{M_1/\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_4(111)}$ and E_M represent the energy of the $M_1/\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_4(111)$ catalyst and the energy of one atom in the bulk of M, respectively, in their thermodynamically most stable structures.

Fig. 5 (a) shows the distance between the single-atom M_1 and the S – 6 layer, which lie within the range 1.2 to 0.4 Å. Our calculations suggest that the interplanar separation becomes smaller as the external electrostatic field increases for M = Ti, V and Cr, whereas Sc, Mn, Ni and Cu prefer to move away from the surface when $E = 0 \text{ V} \text{ }^{A^{-1}}$. We found that positive external electrostatic fields favour the displacement of Ti and Ni towards the subsurface, as evidenced by the negative distance. Interestingly, the negative interplanar distance calculated for Fe in the absence of the external electrostatic field is in agreement with the embedding of the structural Fe_A cations observed in the pristine surface. The trend of the surface free energies at 0 K shows a general increase with the atomic number of *M*, see Fig. 5 (b). Positive external electrostatic fields are capable of stabilising thermodynamically the $M_1/\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_4(111)$ catalyst for M = Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Co and Zn with respect to the Fe₃S₄(111) surface. Our calculations suggest that removing the electrostatic field only marginally increases the surface free energy of these systems, with $Zn/Fe_3S_4(111)$ becoming the only catalyst less stable than the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface. However, Sc/Fe₃S₄(111) and Fe/Fe₃S₄(111) are the only surfaces that are thermodynamically more stable than the parent structure under the negative electrostatic field $E = -0.475 \text{ V} \text{ Å}^{-1}$. The stability of Fe/Fe₃S₄(111) SAC is barely affected by the external electrostatic field, while the systems containing Sc, Ni, Cu and Zn do not change their stabilities for E = 0 and -0.475 V Å⁻¹. Despite finding that external electrostatic fields can change the stability of the $M_1/$ Fe₃S₄(111) catalyst, understanding their impact on the bulk or surface atoms of the pure transition metals *M* is more complex. The free electrons of metals, which have a large conduction electron



Fig. 5. (a) Interplanar distance (d) of *M* with respect to the S–6 layer, (b) surface free energies (σ) at 0 K, (c) atomic charges (q(M)), (d) atomic magnetic moments ($m_3(M)$) and (e) work function (Φ) for the M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111) catalyst in the absence and under external electrostatic fields E = -0.475 and 0.475 V Å⁻¹. The dashed lines in (b) represent the surface energies (γ_r) of the pristine Fe₃S₄(111) surface.

density [250], move within the bulk in the direction opposite to an external electrostatic field, creating an internal electric field of equal magnitude but with opposite direction to the external field. Thus, metal atoms within the bulk will not be under the influence of a net electrostatic field when an external electrostatic field is applied. For example, the local potential and charge does not change within the slab of the metallic Al(111) [221] and Pt(111) [249] surfaces after an external electrostatic field is applied. However, increasing changes in the potential are expected in the vacuum region as we move away from the surface of the slab and a sharp peak in the charge density difference is anticipated in the vacuum region close to the surface of the slab [221,249]. However, we cannot rule out that processes such as incorporation and sintering of the transition metal adatoms can take place, which is a common problem in SACs. Fig. 5 (c) shows that M becomes positively charged upon incorporation, which value decreases with atomic number from Sc to Ni, then increases again from the latter to Zn. Both positive and negative electrostatic fields reduce the charge of *M* with respect to $E = 0 \text{ V} \text{ Å}^{-1}$. The analysis of the magnetic moments suggests that Sc, Ti, Cu and Zn are non-magnetic, whereas V has a small value, see Fig. 5 (d). Cr, Mn, Fe, Co and Ni display magnetic moments, which change in direction but not in absolute value, when an external electrostatic field is applied. However, the

negative external electrostatic field has a more erratic effect on the magnetic moment of Mn and Co. Fig. 5 (e) illustrates that the work functions of the M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111) catalysts remain relatively constant for each external electrostatic field applied. Negative values of the external electrostatic field increase the work function of the SACs to around 8 eV, whereas E = 0.475 V Å⁻¹ enhances their catalytic activity by reducing the work function to approximately 2 eV.

In order to assess the nature of the interaction between the positively charged transition metal adatom and the surface of the catalyst, the electron density plot of the $V_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ catalyst in the absence and in the presence of external electrostatic fields is shown in Fig. 6. We decided to construct contour plots in the plane parallel to the surface between the exposed S-6 layer and the nearest-neighbouring V and Fe atoms above. The plots show a denser mixture of charge density between the S and V atoms than between the S and Fe_B atoms, indicating a different degree of covalent bonding. We observe clearly that the electrons locate between the V adatom and the surrounding S atoms, forming covalent metalsupport interactions (CMSI), which has also been found in a range of other types of SACs [251]. These covalent interactions, which are more pronounced in the absence of the external electrostatic field, were not detected for the interaction of the structural Fe_B cation and its surrounding S anions, which is essentially ionic.

3.3. CO₂ adsorption on $M_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$

Next, we have investigated the interaction of the single CO_2 molecule with the M_1 site of the $M_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ catalysts. We have assessed the effect of these molecular adsorptions on the surface free energy, charge transfer, atomic magnetic moment and work function of the $M_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ surfaces. We also discuss the geometries of the most favourable adsorption modes of the CO_2 molecule.

We have probed the adsorption of a single CO₂ molecule in a pre-activated configuration, where we reduced its point group from $D_{\infty h}$ to $C_{2\nu}$, by bending the apex angle to \angle (O=C=O) = 130°. Note that this methodology, which we have applied in previous works, does not prevent the CO₂ molecule returning to the linear configuration if the adsorption site of the surface is unfavourable [166,167,200,220]. To characterise the adsorption configurations of our CO₂ molecule, we have borrowed the notation widely used in organometallics to describe the bonding and structural types of metal-CO₂ complexes, which is based on the hapticity of the ligand (μ_n) and the number of surface atoms (m) it can bridge (η^m)



Fig. 6. (a) Side view of the V₁/Fe₃S₄(111) surface for E = 0 V Å⁻¹. Crystallographic directions are indicated. V atom is in red, Fe_A atoms are in dark yellow, Fe_B atoms are in magenta and S atoms are in light yellow. Electron density plots of the V₁/Fe₃S₄(111) surface for (b) E = -0.475 V Å⁻¹, (c) E = 0 V Å⁻¹ and (d) E = 0.475 V Å⁻¹ projected in the plane parallel to the surface between the exposed S–6 layer and the V atom. Minimum and maximum values for the electron density are indicated for each contour map. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

[252-254]. We made the bent CO₂ molecule approach the surface in the $\mu_2 - \eta^2$ configuration, with both the C₂ rotational axis and the vertical mirror plane σ_v perpendicular to the surface, *i.e.* with the C atom coordinating one of the exposed S atoms of the catalyst and one of the molecular O atom binding the M_1 adatom. We placed the CO₂ molecule at 1.8 Å from the surface of the catalyst before allowing the atomic positions of the interface to relax.

Our calculations indicate that the CO₂ molecule energetically prefers to interact molecularly with all the SACs investigated in this work, *i.e.* it does not dissociate spontaneously upon adsorption. Fig. 7 (a) shows that, as anticipated, the largest exothermic adsorption energies of CO₂ are calculated when a positive external electrostatic field is applied to the catalysts containing V, Cr, Mn, Ni and Cu. We obtained endothermic and therefore thermodynamically unfeasible adsorptions of the CO₂ molecule on Sc₁/Fe₃S₄(111) under both positive and negative electrostatic fields; Cr₁/Fe₃S₄(111) at E = 0.475 V Å⁻¹; Fe₁/Fe₃S₄(111) at E = 0.475 V Å⁻¹; Fe₁/Fe₃S₄(111) at E = 0.475 V Å⁻¹ and Ni₁/Fe₃S₄(111) in the absence of an external electrostatic field. Interestingly, in the case of Ti, Co and Zn, negative external electrostatic fields led to the strongest adsorption modes for CO₂ on these SACs. The DFT simulations reveal that the Sc₁/Fe₃S₄(111) surface only releases the largest adsorption energy in the series when E = 0 V Å⁻¹. Despite



Fig. 7. (a) Adsorption energy (E_{ads}) of CO₂, (b) interatomic C-O distance (*d*), (*c*) O-C-O bond angle (\angle), (d) charge transfers ($\varDelta q$) and (e) work function (\varPhi) for the interaction of CO₂ with the M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111) catalyst in the absence and under external electrostatic fields E = -0.475 and 0.475 V Å⁻¹. Negative values of $\varDelta q$ indicate charge transfer from the surface to the adsorbate.

predicting exothermic adsorption modes for several of our SAC models, we found that the distance of the C-O bond is elongated only for M = Sc and Ti under positive electrostatic fields, and for V, Cr and Co at any E value, see Fig. 7 (b). We have represented the adsorption modes of CO_2 on the $Sc_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ catalyst in the absence and under negative and positive external electrostatic fields in Fig. 8 (a), (b) and (c). The CO₂ molecule showed a strong preference to adsorb in a linear configuration with the C-O bond distance relatively undisturbed when it interacts with the other less reactive SACs. The CO₂ molecule prefers to hover above the surface with the C atom lying at around 3.2–3.5 Å from the closest S anion and the O atom coordinating the Sc atom at 2.3 Å for $E = 0.000 \text{ and } - 0.475 \text{ V} \text{ Å}^{-1}$, see Fig. 8 (a) and (b). However, positive potentials, which reduce the work function of the catalyst and make it easier to transfer charge to the antibonding molecular orbital of CO₂, can also reinforce its chemical activation by favouring the creation of a bent geometry, with a dipole moment aligned in the same direction to the external electrostatic field, as represented in Fig. 7 (c). In contrast, the apex angle of the preactivated CO₂ molecule also remains bent at any strength of the external electrostatic field, as a testament of chemical activation, when the adsorbate interacts with catalysts, such as $V_1/$ $Fe_3S_4(111)$, that are capable of stretching the intramolecular bond distance, as shown in Fig. 7 (c) and Fig. 8 (d), (e) and (f). Previous work has shown that the CO₂ molecule prefers to adsorb linearly, releasing -0.02 eV on the Fe_A site of termination Fe_B of the pristine Fe₃S₄(111) surface, which interaction is less thermodynamically feasible than on the exposed Fe_B site of the same termination, with an adsorption energy of -0.19 eV [255]. The simulations of several of our $M_1/\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_4(111)$ catalysts indicate a superior performance than the parent material, as even in the absence of an external electrostatic field, we predict larger adsorption energies and the activation of CO₂ with a bent molecular apex angle and elongated

interatomic C-O distances. The adsorbate gains the largest electronic charges when it coordinates the Sc-, Ti-, V-, Cr- and Cobased catalysts, especially under a positive external electrostatic field, see Fig. 7 (d). The values observed for the charge transfers are in agreement with the trend of the work function of the catalysts before interacting with the CO₂ molecule at E = -0.475 V Å $^{-1}$. We have also quantified the work function of the catalyst surfaces after adsorption of a single CO₂ molecule, which indicates that despite these processes, the decreasing order of chemical reactivity remains $\Phi_{0.475 \text{ eV} \text{ Å}^{-1}} < \Phi_{0 \text{ eV} \text{ Å}^{-1}} < \Phi_{-0.475 \text{ eV} \text{ Å}^{-1}}$, as shown in Fig. 7 (d).

3.4. CO_2 dissociation on $M_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$

We have also investigated the catalytic activity of our SAC models towards the dissociation of the CO_2 molecule, which is regarded as the initial step for the reduction and conversion of this greenhouse gas. Our dissociation mechanism involves breaking the C– O bond between the atoms that are interacting with the surface when the catalytic system is in the absence and under external electrostatic fields. In our dissociation pathways, the CO fragment remains bound to the surface S atom, whereas the O atom coordinates M_1 . We only discuss the dissociation process for the cases where the CO_2 molecule is chemically activated at the surface of our catalysts, *i.e.* when the apex angle is different from 180°.

We have considered that the initial states consist of the isolated SAC surfaces and the isolated CO_2 molecule, which energy has been calibrated to zero, to facilitate comparisons, see Fig. 9. For negative external electrostatic fields, only the catalytic systems containing V, Cr and Co are able to bend the apex angle of the adsorbed CO_2^* molecule, see Fig. 9 (a). The lowest activation energy of 1.8 eV for the three saddle points calculated under these conditions suggest that $Co_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ is the best catalytic system, whereas



Fig. 8. Side view of the molecular adsorption of CO_2 on the surface of (a), (b) and (c) $Sc_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ and (d), (e) and (f) $V_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ in the absence and under external electrostatic fields. Interatomic distances, bond angles, crystallographic directions and the strength of the external electrostatic field are indicated. Sc and V atoms are in green, Fe_A atoms are in dark yellow, Fe_B atoms are in magenta, S atoms are in light yellow, O atoms are in red and C atoms are in black. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)



Fig. 9. Minimum energy pathways (MEPs) for the dissociation of CO₂ into CO and O on the M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111) surfaces at (a) E = -0.475 V Å⁻¹, (b) E = 0.000 V Å⁻¹ and (c) E = 0.475 V Å⁻¹. Minimum states and saddle point are represented by horizontal lines linked by dashed lines. Energies are referenced to the isolated CO₂ molecule and surface slab. Adsorbed species are presented followed by the symbol *.

the V-based SAC requires overcoming the largest energy barrier of 3.0 eV to dissociate the CO_2^* molecule. The final products are more stable than the isolated reactants when M = CO, but they are just less thermodynamically stable than the molecularly bound adsorbate, which implies that CO_2^* will prefer to stay in its molecular form at the surface of this SAC. In contrast, the CO^{*} and O^{*} fragments have very similar energies to the adsorbed CO_2^* molecule over the V₁/Fe₃S₄(111) surface, but the large activation energy also suggests that the adsorbate will remain bound in undissociated form. The dissociation pathway for CO_2 over the Cr SAC shows that the molecule has a strong preference to stay in the gas phase, and thus adsorption and dissociation are unlikely processes.

In the absence of an external electrostatic field, we found that only the V-, Cr- and Co-based SACs are catalytically active, see Fig. 9 (b). Under these conditions, the CO₂ molecule forms stable chemisorption modes with the catalyst surfaces, but the activation energies of the saddle points are still larger than 1 eV for the three SACs. Despite displaying the largest energetic barrier for dissociation, the $Cr_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface is the only SAC able to form dissociation products more stable than the molecularly adsorbed CO₂. The most favourable mechanistic pathways for the dissociation of the CO_2 molecule were found when M = V, Cr, Co and the external electrostatic field is $E = 0.475 \text{ V} \text{ Å}^{-1}$, see Fig. 9 (c). Under such electrostatic field and for these catalytic systems, the activation energy of the saddle points lies below the energy of the isolated surface and CO₂ molecule. Moreover, the energy of CO^{*} and O^{*} is only just below the energy level of the molecularly bound adsorbate for the V-, Cr- and Co-containing SACs, making these systems excellent catalysts for the dissociation of the CO_2 molecule. $Sc_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ leads to a mechanistic pathway where reactant, transition state and final products have larger energies than the isolated CO₂ and

surface, whereas the transition state is 1.02 eV less stable than $Ti_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ and the isolated CO_2 .

4. Conclusions

We have employed calculations based on the density functional theory to investigate the heterogeneous catalytic dissociation of CO_2 over the SACs $M_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$, where M = Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn. We have simulated the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface and determined the relaxation pattern of the atomic layers in the two possible reconstructed Tasker type 3 terminations. The protruding Fe_A cations in the termination with the lowest surface energy show a preference to migrate towards the sub-surface layer during optimisation. We predict that positive and negative electrostatic fields do not affect noticeably the relaxation pattern of the interplanar distances, atomic charges or atomic magnetic moments for the two terminations of the pristine $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface.

However, external electrostatic fields will stabilise the most stable termination of the $Fe_3S_4(111)$ surface with respect to E = 0 V Å⁻¹, whereas only E > 0 can reduce the value of the work function. The incorporation of a single 3*d* transition metal adatom reduces the surface free energy at 0 K of the $M_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ catalyst with respect to the pristine surface in the absence and for positive values of the external electrostatic field. Crucially, the work function, which we have used as a descriptor of the chemical reactivity of the SACs, remains below 2 eV for a positive external electrostatic field. The plot of the electron density for the $V_1/Fe_3S_4(111)$ catalyst at the three values of the electrostatic field considered in this work illustrates that there is a strong CMSI.

The adsorption energies of CO₂ on M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111) show a dependence on the nature of *M* and the external electrostatic field. The CO₂ molecule is only chemically activated for M = Sc, Ti, V, Cr and Co, which is confirmed by the elongated C–O bond, the bent apex angle and the electron density charge gained by the adsorbate. The work function of the SACs under a positive external potential remains around 2 eV, even after adsorption of a CO₂ molecule, suggesting that the surface stays catalytically active. We have also investigated the minimum energy pathways for the dissociation of CO₂ on the M_1 /Fe₃S₄(111) surface under various external electrostatic field values. We found that the dissociation of the CO₂ molecule is only thermodynamically and kinetically feasible when M = V, Cr or Co and the external electrostatic field is positive.

Future work will involve the simulation of SAC at the stepped surfaces of Fe₃S₄, which contain a larger number of undercoordinated and more reactive atoms than the flat facets investigated in this study. Thermodynamically and kinetically achievable dissociation of CO₂ of SACs supported on Fe₃S₄ surfaces could lend further support to the iron-sulfur theory of the Origin of Life.

Data availability

All data created during this research are provided in full in the results section of this paper.

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.jcat.2023.05.018.

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