

# The Synergistic Effect between Metal and Sulfur Vacancy to Boost CO<sub>2</sub> Reduction Efficiency: A Study on Descriptor Transferability and Activity Prediction

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Cite This: *JACS Au* 2024, 4, 125–138



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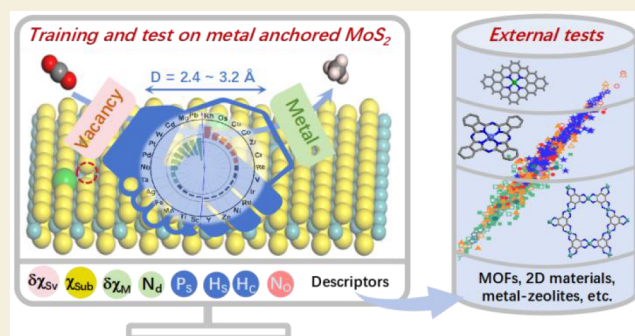
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**ABSTRACT:** Both metal center active sites and vacancies can influence the catalytic activity of a catalyst. A quantitative model to describe the synergistic effect between the metal centers and vacancies is highly desired. Herein, we proposed a machine learning model to evaluate the synergistic index,  $P_{\text{Syn}}$ , which is learned from the possible pathways for CH<sub>4</sub> production from CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) on 26 metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> with and without sulfur vacancy. The data set consists of 1556 intermediate structures on metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub>, which are used for training. The 2028 structures from the literature, comprising both single active site and dual active sites, are used for external test. The XGBoost model with 3 features, including electronegativity, d-shell valence electrons of metal, and the distance between metal and vacancy, exhibited satisfactory prediction accuracy on limiting potential. Fe@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> and Os@MoS<sub>2</sub> are predicted to be promising CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts with high stability, low limiting potential, and high selectivity against hydrogen evolution reactions (HER). Based on some easily accessible descriptors, transferability can be achieved for both porous materials and 2D materials in predicting the energy change in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR and nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR). Such a predictive model can also be applied to predict the synergistic effect of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR in other oxygen and tungsten vacancy systems.

**KEYWORDS:** CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, metal–vacancy synergistic effect, MoS<sub>2</sub>, machine learning, DFT calculations



## INTRODUCTION

The widely used metal–supported catalysts are composed of active metal atoms anchored on supports. Excellent catalytic performance is achieved through the interaction between the metal and support, which affects the electronic structure and morphology of the catalyst.<sup>1–4</sup> Surface vacancies are unavoidably introduced during the preparation of the surface-supported catalysts, tuning the electrical, magnetic, and optical properties.<sup>5–7</sup> For instance, metal–supported catalysts enriched with anion vacancies (oxide, sulfide, and nitride vacancies) effectively promoted charge separation, enhanced oxygen adsorption, and stabilized interfacial structures, thus improving the activity and selectivity for surface reactions.<sup>8–11</sup> The vacancies on metal–supported catalysts are also able to promote light absorption, charge separation, and CO<sub>2</sub> conversion.<sup>12–16</sup> The essential role of vacancies, including vacancy type and location, vacancy concentration, and doped metal-based motifs, has been revealed in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reactions (CO<sub>2</sub>RR).<sup>17–19</sup> The oxygen-vacancy-rich MoO<sub>2–x</sub> nanosea-urchins can promote CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and activation, displaying extremely strong CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction ability.<sup>20</sup> In the NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> system, the synergistic effect between oxygen vacancies and Ni facilitates CH<sub>4</sub> generation and vacancy

regeneration, showing an attempt at precise control of photocatalytic selectivity and stability.<sup>21</sup> Introducing vacancies and Zn atoms into CoO systems was beneficial in enhancing the stability of the vacancies in photocatalysts. The synergistic effect between metal and vacancies, which was attributed to a significant improvement of CO<sub>2</sub> photocatalytic efficiency.<sup>22</sup> Promotion of CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity was achieved by constructing a gradient tungsten vacancy on Bi<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>6</sub>, promoting rapid electron migration, and reducing the formation barrier of key intermediates.<sup>23</sup> The vacancies not only modulate the local electronic structure but also serve as a docking site to anchor the metal species or adsorbates as a new active site. It is essential to get in-depth insight into the synergistic effect between metal centers and vacancies in metal–supported catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR.

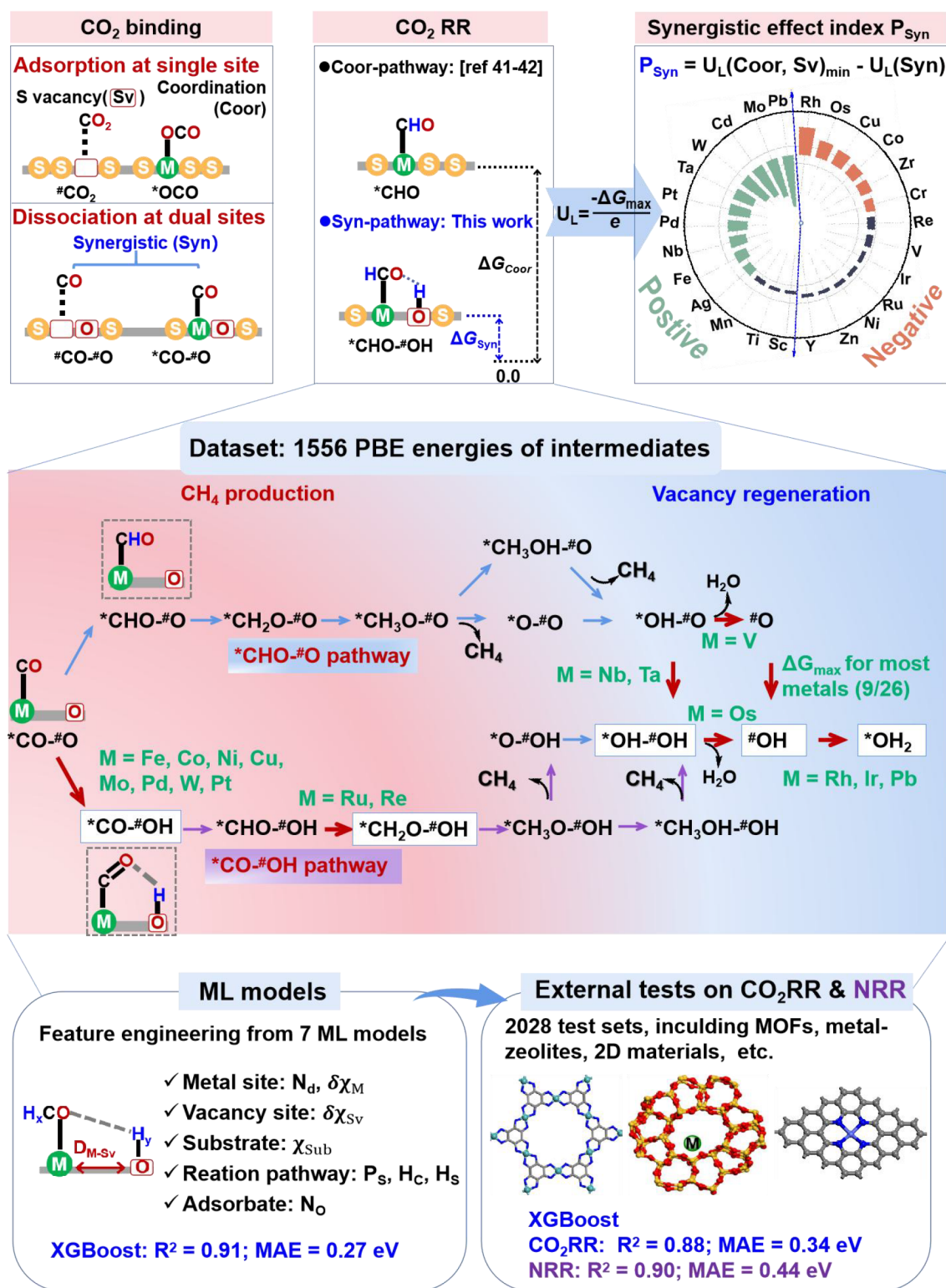
**Received:** September 22, 2023

**Revised:** December 15, 2023

**Accepted:** December 18, 2023

**Published:** January 10, 2024





**Figure 1.** Schematic illustrations of the ML models for predictions of synergistic effect, reaction pathway, free energy change and limiting potential for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> with and without sulfur vacancy, transferring to the external tests on other systems for both CO<sub>2</sub>RR and NRR.

Machine learning (ML) models have been applied to establish the relationship between the reaction activity and catalyst structures.<sup>24–26</sup> The descriptors used for catalytic activity prediction on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR are collected in Table S1 of Supporting Information. Among them, some electronic

structure descriptors need the aid of density functional theory (DFT) calculations. Instead, there are also some easily available descriptors, such as d-shell valence electron numbers, electron type and number, electronegativity, enthalpy of vaporization, coordination number, and coordination bond

length of metal atom to the nearest neighbor atoms.<sup>27–35</sup> Moreover, some DFT-calculated parameters, such as charge transfer, catalyst mode, and work function, could be replaced by easily available descriptors.<sup>36–39</sup> As an illustration, the charge transfer between the catalyst and the adsorbates can be predicted by the formulated atomic ionization energy and electronegativity parameters.<sup>40</sup> To the best of our knowledge, the ML model for describing the interplay between the vacancy and the metal sites has rarely reported.

In this work, the ML models for free energy change ( $\Delta G$ ) and limiting potential ( $U_L$ ) prediction will be trained from 1556 intermediate energies of 26 kinds of metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> with and without sulfur vacancy (metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> and metal@MoS<sub>2</sub>) on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. As illustrated in Figure 1, after the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the surface, there were two kinds of reaction pathways, called the coordination pathway (Coor-pathway, Figure S1) and synergistic pathway (Syn-pathway, Figure S2), respectively. The Coor-pathway is well recognized for single-atom catalysts (SACs).<sup>41,42</sup> In contrast, the Syn-pathway is usually found for dual-atom catalysts.<sup>43</sup> It will be demonstrated that the vacancy generation steps of #O → #OH are the potential-determining step (PDS) for most kinds of metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> in this work. Abbreviations used in this article were listed in Table S2 for the catalysts, Table S3 for the calculated limiting potential of CO<sub>2</sub>RR intermediates on different pathways, and Table S4 for descriptors used in ML models.

To quantitatively describe the synergistic effect between the metal center and vacancy, the synergistic index,  $P_{\text{Syn}}$ , is defined to assess the thermodynamic advantages of competing reaction pathways. Some easily accessible features for describing active sites on different substrates and reaction intermediates will be found to have good applicability in prediction of free energy changes of both the CO<sub>2</sub>RR and nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR) on 2028 external tests, including metal–zeolites, metal–organic frameworks (MOFs), and 2D materials. The consistency between experimental data and the ML-predicted limiting potential is also exhibited in the synthesized oxygen and tungsten vacancies, which contain with evident synergistic advantage.

## COMPUTATIONAL METHODS

The first-principles DFT calculations were performed using the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP) with the projector-augmented wave (PAW) method.<sup>44,45</sup> Theoretical calculations for the exchange–correlation potentials were based on the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) method in the form of Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) functional.<sup>46–48</sup> The effects of the long-range van der Waals (vdW) corrections were treated using the Grimmes zero-damping DFT-D3 method.<sup>49,50</sup> The plane wave cutoff energy was set to 450 eV. The model of MoS<sub>2</sub> was built in a 5 × 5 × 1 supercell. The vacuum thicknesses were set to 15 Å to reduce interactions between adjacent layers in periodically repeated cells. The spin polarization was taken into consideration. The 2D Brillouin zone was sampled using a 2 × 2 × 1 Monkhorst–Pack  $k$ -point grid in reciprocal space. The convergence thresholds for the force and total energy component were set as 4.0 × 10<sup>−2</sup> eV/Å and 1.0 × 10<sup>−5</sup> eV, respectively.

The binding energies ( $E_b$ ) of metal anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> with and without sulfur vacancy were evaluated according to eqs 1 and 2:

$$E_b = E_{\text{metal@Sv-MoS}_2} - E_{\text{Sv-MoS}_2} - E_{\text{metal}} \quad (1)$$

$$E_b = E_{\text{metal@MoS}_2} - E_{\text{MoS}_2} - E_{\text{metal}} \quad (2)$$

where  $E_{\text{metal@Sv-MoS}_2}$ ,  $E_{\text{metal@MoS}_2}$ ,  $E_{\text{Sv-MoS}_2}$ ,  $E_{\text{MoS}_2}$ , and  $E_{\text{metal}}$  represent the calculated energies of metal–supported catalysts (metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> and metal@MoS<sub>2</sub>), substrate without metal atom (Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub>), and isolated metal atom in vacuum. When  $E_b < 0$  eV, the metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> and metal@MoS<sub>2</sub> were assumed to be thermodynamically favorable.

The computational hydrogen electrode (CHE) model proposed by Nørskov and co-workers was employed to estimate the thermodynamic free energies of the fundamental reactions.<sup>51,52</sup> Based on this method, the change in Gibbs free energy ( $\Delta G$ ) for the elementary steps in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR was obtained by following eq 3. The relative free energy,  $\Delta G$ , of each reaction intermediate was referred to as energy of the free CO<sub>2</sub> molecule. The free energy difference,  $\Delta\Delta G$ , was referred to as the free energy change between two successive steps on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR process.

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta E_{\text{ZPE}} + T\Delta S + eU + \Delta G_{\text{pH}} \quad (3)$$

In the above equation,  $\Delta E$  represents the electronic energy difference between two reaction species, the  $\Delta E_{\text{ZPE}}$  represents zero-point energy change, which can be obtained by vibrational frequencies. The  $T\Delta S$  represents the entropy change, and the simulation temperature  $T$  is 298.15 K. The  $eU$  term represents the electron transfer with the electrode potential contribution. The last term in eq 3,  $\Delta G_{\text{pH}} = 2.303k_{\text{B}}T \times \text{pH}$ , where  $k_{\text{B}}$  is the Boltzmann constant. The experimental conditions in acidic medium with pH = 0 and 3 were taken into consideration.

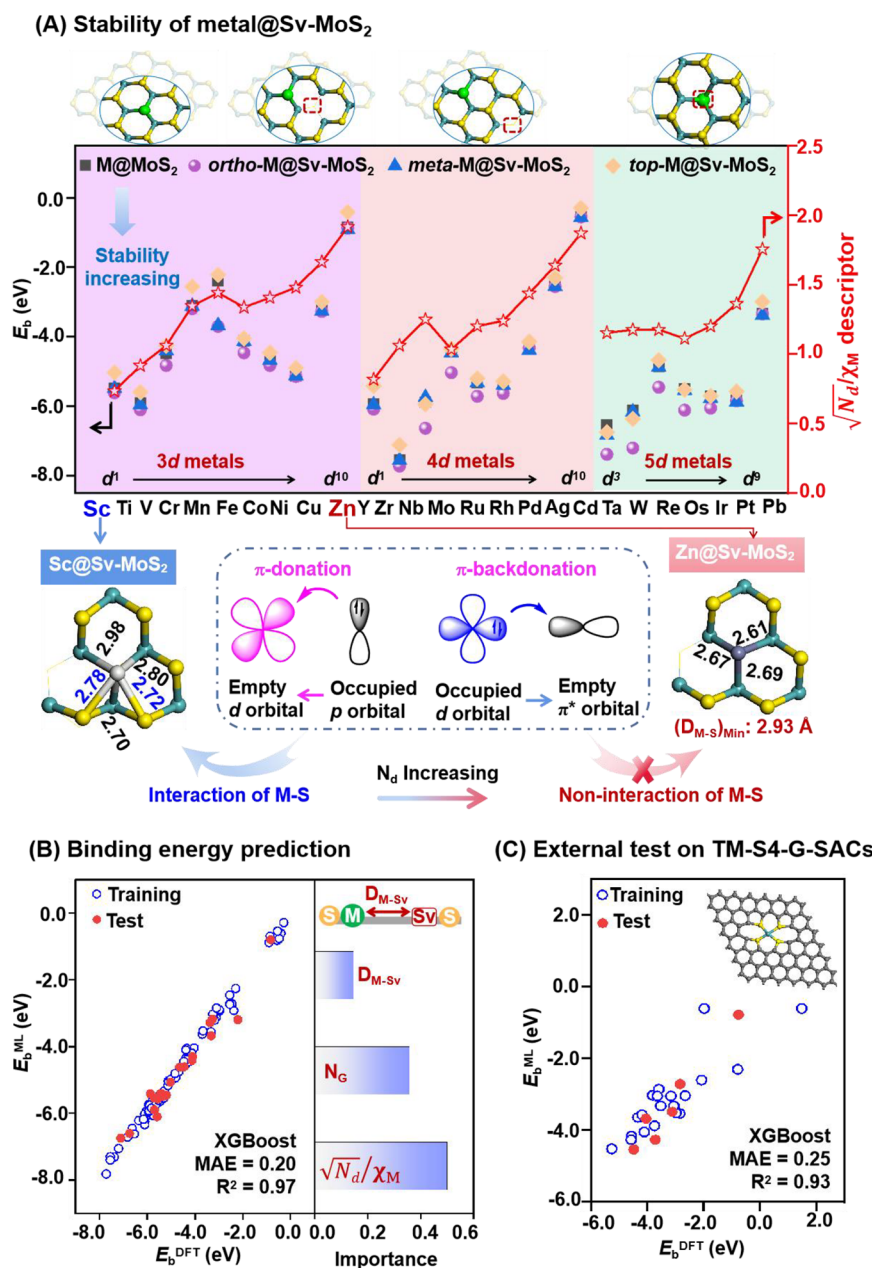
The corresponding limiting potential ( $U_L$ ) was determined by the potential-determining step, which was the maximum free energy change of the whole process ( $\Delta G_{\text{max}}$ ). Therefore, the  $U_L$  represents the minimum applied potential to overcome the barrier in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, which was obtained by eq 4.

$$U_L = \Delta G_{\text{max}}/e \quad (4)$$

Mo@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> was used to test the performance of different DFT functionals, including PBE, Perdew–Wang 91 (PW91), and local density approximation (LDA), as shown in Figure S3 (PBE, PW91, and LDA functionals calculated by using DMol<sup>3</sup>),<sup>53,54</sup> Figure S4 (PBE, PW91, and LDA functionals calculated using VASP), and Table S5. The reaction step for conversion from \*CO–#O to \*CO–#OH was predicted to be the potential-determining step for all of the selected DFT functionals. In VASP calculations, the absence of Grimmes zero-damping DFT-D3 corrections on the PW91 and LDA functionals results in large  $\Delta G_{\text{max}}$  values. DMol<sup>3</sup> calculations show moderately small  $\Delta G_{\text{max}}$  values using the PBE, PW91, and LDA functionals. It can be assumed that there was little influence from the DFT functional selection on the subsequent machine learning of the DFT-calculated results.

All ML algorithms were conducted by the open-source code Scikit-learn and PyTorch package in the Python3 environment.<sup>55</sup> As shown in Table S6, ten algorithms, including Extreme gradient boosting regression (XGBoost), Gradient boosting regression (GBR), Extra-Trees, Decisiontree (DT),  $k$ -nearest neighbor (kNN), Linear ridge, Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO), Multiple Linear regression (MLR), Artificial neural network (ANN), and Support vector regression (SVR), were applied for free energy change and limiting potential prediction. To make sure of the generalization and accuracy, the collected data obtained from DFT calculations and external literature were randomly shuffled and divided into the training set and test set in a ratio of 80:20. The normalization preprocessing was applied for the ML model in training and prediction. Three indexes were selected to evaluate prediction errors, the mean absolute error (MAE), the root-mean-square error (RMSE), and the coefficient of determination values ( $R^2$ ), as described in the eqs 5–7.

$$\text{MAE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \hat{y}_i| \quad (5)$$



**Figure 2.** (A) Calculation results for the stability prediction of metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>. The distances between metal and neighboring atom were given in Å. (B) Performance of XGBoost model for the prediction of binding energy using three features. (C) External test on TM-S4-G-SACs for the prediction of binding energy.

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2} \quad (6)$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{y}_i - y_i)^2} \quad (7)$$

In the above equations,  $y_i$ ,  $\hat{y}_i$ , and  $\bar{y}_i$  mean the  $i$ th predicted value by ML, the DFT calculation result, and the average value of DFT calculated results, respectively.

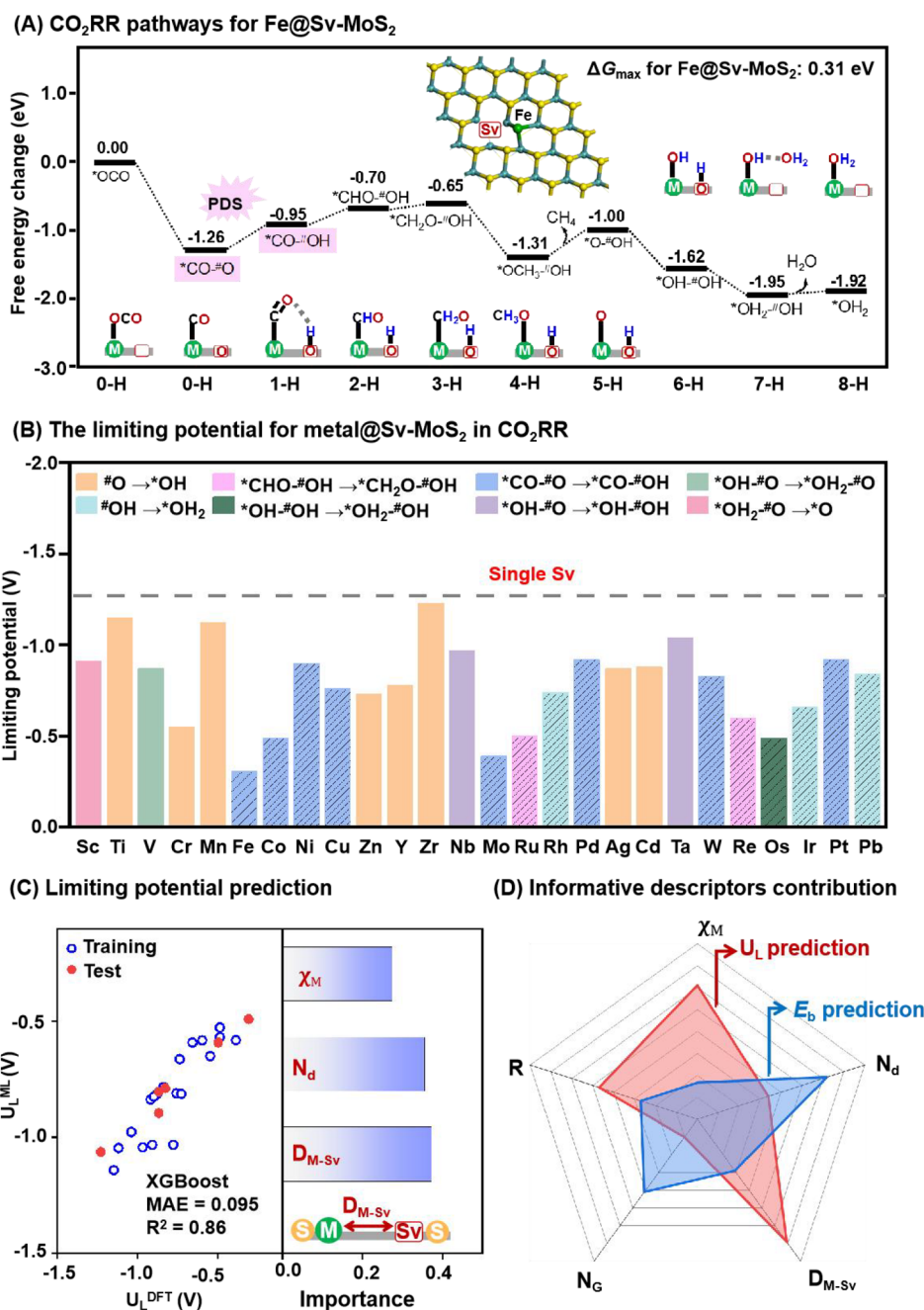
## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Stability Predictions

The DFT calculations indicated that the studied 26 metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> systems were thermodynamically stable, with negative

binding energies ( $E_b = -7.72$  to  $-0.55$  eV, Figure S5). As shown in Figure S5A, the thermodynamic stability of metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> decreased with the number of d-shell valence electrons number ( $N_d$ ) of  $d^5$  and  $d^{10}$ . Similarly, the 26 selected metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> without a sulfur vacancy (metal@MoS<sub>2</sub>) also exhibited negative binding energies ( $E_b = -7.55$  to  $-0.48$  eV, Figure S5B), demonstrating the thermodynamic stability of the metal@MoS<sub>2</sub>.

As depicted in Figure 2A, on the metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> substrate, the sulfur vacancy (Sv) may have three possible positions: (1) Sv located adjacent to the metal (*ortho*-M@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>), (2) Sv situated in the meta position of the metal (*meta*-M@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>), and (3) Sv positioned on the top position of the metal (*top*-M@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>). Three different vacancy configurations were described by the different values of distance between



**Figure 3.** (A) Illustrations of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR pathways, the free energy change,  $\Delta G$ , and the PDS in Fe@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>. (B) The limiting potential for metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, the lines represent the \*CO–OH pathway, the rest for the \*CHO–O pathway. (C) The prediction of the limiting potential ( $U_L$ ) in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR by XGBoost and the feature importance of the XGBoost model. (D) Evaluate the contribution of information descriptors to binding energy ( $E_b$ ) and limiting potential ( $U_L$ ) predictions.

vacancy, named as  $D_{M-Sv}$  in inset of Figure 2B. The relative stability and binding energies for the Sv at three possible positions were given in Figures S6 and S7, respectively. The configurations for *ortho*-M@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $D_{M-Sv}$  ranging from 2.41–3.25 Å) was more stable than that of *meta*-M@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $D_{M-Sv}$  ranging from 5.88–6.37 Å), and *top*-M@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $D_{M-Sv}$  ranging from 3.27–4.03 Å, Figure 2A). It can be conceived that the p-type lone pair electrons of the sulfur atom favor coordination with the early transition metal. In turn, the d electrons in transition metals easily form the  $\pi$ -backbonding between metal center and sulfur on metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>. Taking Sc@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> as an example, the Sc atom (3d<sup>1</sup>) exhibits a

significant contribution to the projected density of state (PDOS), with  $\pi$ -bonding and  $\pi$ -backbonding bands appearing near the Fermi level (−0.3 to 0.9 eV), as shown in Figure S8A. In contrast, the 3d<sup>10</sup> Zn atoms make a negligible contribution to the electronic states in Zn@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figure S8B). The penta-coordinated Sc@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> displays a higher oxidation state ( $Q_{Sc}$ : 0.88  $e$ ) than tricoordinated Zn@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $Q_{Zn}$ : 0.12  $e$ ). We expected that the easily accessible parameter of electronegativity of metal ( $\chi_M$ ) could replace the DFT-calculated values of atomic charge, as demonstrated in previous work.<sup>40</sup> Here, in addition to the value of  $D_{M-Sv}$ , the ratio of d-shell valence electrons to the electronegativity of metal center (

$\sqrt{N_d}/\chi_M$ ) was found to be correlated with the stability (the right side in Figure 2A). It is also displayed that with the increase in the number of groups ( $N_G$ ) of metal atoms in the periodic table, the stability has slightly increased.

Using the above-mentioned three descriptors ( $D_{M-Sv}$ ,  $\sqrt{N_d}/\chi_M$ , and  $N_G$ ), the ML model was then applied to rapidly predict the binding energy for metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> with and without sulfur vacancy (M@MoS<sub>2</sub>, *ortho*-, *meta*-, *top*-M@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>). As illustrated in Figure 2B, the XGBoost model gives a good prediction (MAE = 0.20 eV,  $R^2 = 0.97$ ) of binding energy values and reaches state-of-the-art results via 10-fold cross-validation (Figure S9). The external test was also conducted on TM-S4-G-SACs<sup>56</sup> systems using the same 3-feature sets of  $\sqrt{N_d}/\chi_M$ ,  $N_G$ , and  $D_{M-Sv}$ , yielding satisfactory binding energy prediction results in Figure 2C (MAE = 0.25 eV,  $R^2 = 0.93$ ).

### Adsorption Selectivity Tests

The adsorption energies of CO<sub>2</sub> on metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> ranged from -0.13 to -0.64 eV, indicating effective capture of CO<sub>2</sub> in \*OCO configurations (Figure S10). The CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption energies on the metal active site showed relatively strong adsorption compared to the van der Waals adsorption energies on single sulfur vacancy and double sulfur vacancies (-0.20 eV for both single-Sv and double-Sv), indicating that metal sites enhance CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and facilitate its activation. The sulfur vacancy on the MoS<sub>2</sub> surface affects the charge distribution around the metal center, promoting diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> to the vacancy. The synergistic interaction between the Sv and metal center contributes to CO<sub>2</sub> dissociation on metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> (for the step of \*OCO → \*CO-<sup>#</sup>O,  $\Delta\Delta G$  was in the range of -2.29 to -0.71 eV), suggesting that the metal center and Sv could lead to spontaneous CO<sub>2</sub> dissociation. The resultant CO molecule was easily captured by metal center, accompanied by the oxidation of sulfur vacancy. Note that the strong CO adsorption on the catalysts leads to further reduction to CH<sub>4</sub> instead of desorption, due to the relatively high desorption energy ( $\Delta\Delta G = 0.17$ – $1.64$  eV).

An efficient CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalyst should suppress competing hydrogen evolution reactions (HER) to achieve a high Faraday efficiency. The difference in adsorption energies between \*OCO and \*H was investigated to understand the competition between the CO<sub>2</sub>RR and HER. As depicted in Figure S11, most of the investigated metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> can avoid \*H poisoning, suggesting a high selectivity for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR over the HER. The exceptions were found for the Os@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> and Ir@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> systems. In the following hydrogenation step, early transition metals (M = Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Y, Zr, Nb, and Ta) and d<sup>10</sup> metals (M = Zn, Ag, and Cd) predominantly formed the \*CHO-<sup>#</sup>O intermediate, while other kinds of metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> preferred to produce the \*CO-<sup>#</sup>OH intermediate (Figure 1 and Figure S2). The formation of hydrogen bonding played a crucial role in lowering the reaction energies with hydrogen bonding distance ranging from 1.54–2.82 Å on \*CO-<sup>#</sup>OH, except for d<sup>10</sup> metal, Cu-, Zn-, and Cd@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figure S12). The free energy change for metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> adsorbed \*CHO-<sup>#</sup>O or \*CO-<sup>#</sup>OH species was much smaller than that of \*H, highlighting the potential of metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> as a highly selective CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalyst (Figure S11).

### Activity Evaluation

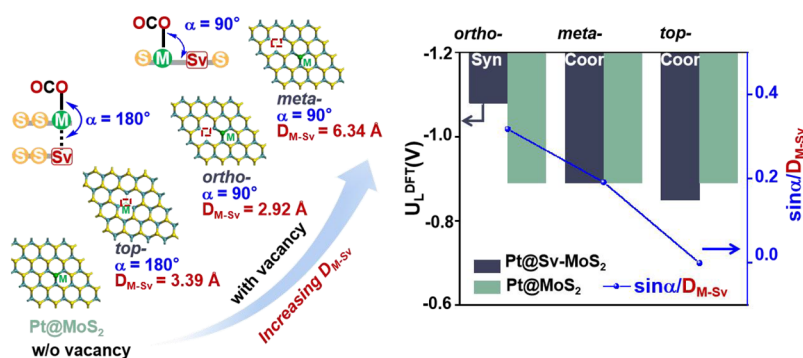
Figure 1 displays two possible pathways for the CO<sub>2</sub>RR (\*CHO-<sup>#</sup>O and \*CO-<sup>#</sup>OH). Subsequent hydrogenation

reactions occur primarily at the metal active site, followed by the vacancy site. In the \*CHO-<sup>#</sup>O pathway, the d<sup>5</sup> and d<sup>10</sup> metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> (M = Mn(3d<sup>5</sup>), Zn(3d<sup>10</sup>), Ag(4d<sup>10</sup>), and Cd(4d<sup>10</sup>)) preferentially produce \*CH<sub>3</sub>OH-<sup>#</sup>O species on the fourth hydrogenation, while other metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> tend to form \*O-<sup>#</sup>O with the release of CH<sub>4</sub>. The cases containing late transition metals and main group metal (Pb) prefer the \*CO-<sup>#</sup>OH pathway, where consecutive protonation at the C atom leads to the formation of the \*CH<sub>3</sub>O-<sup>#</sup>OH species. In the fifth hydrogenation, transition metals with more d-shell valence electrons number, the metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> (M = Co(3d<sup>7</sup>), Ni(3d<sup>8</sup>), Cu(3d<sup>10</sup>), Rh(4d<sup>8</sup>), Pd(4d<sup>10</sup>), and Pt(5d<sup>9</sup>)) were more likely to generate \*CH<sub>3</sub>OH-<sup>#</sup>OH species, while other metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> tends to form \*O-<sup>#</sup>OH, with the release of CH<sub>4</sub> (Figure S13). In most metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> systems (Figure 3), the hydrogenation step for converting \*CO-<sup>#</sup>O to \*CO-<sup>#</sup>OH (when M = Fe–Cu, Mo, Pd, W, and Pt) and <sup>#</sup>O to <sup>#</sup>OH (when M = Ti, Cr, Mn, Zn–Zr, Ag, and Cd) is the potential-determining step during vacancy regeneration.

The Syn-pathway network seems to be more concise than the Coor-pathway network. The synergistic effect was observed between metal center and Sv in three ways: (1) providing C-affinity (metal center) and O-affinity sites (Sv) for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, (2) reducing the possible reaction pathways, intermediates, and products, and (3) improving the selectivity for CH<sub>4</sub> production by suppressing HER process.

Taking Fe@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> as an example, the CO<sub>2</sub>RR on Fe@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> follows the \*CO-<sup>#</sup>OH pathway (Figure 3A). The C–O dissociation corresponds to a  $\Delta G$  of -1.26 eV. During the hydrogenation of CO<sub>2</sub>, the conversion of \*CO-<sup>#</sup>O to \*CO-<sup>#</sup>OH was the potential-determining step, with a maximum free energy change ( $\Delta G_{\max}$ ) of 0.31 eV. This value was lower than those reported for SACs, such as Fe-supported graphitic carbon nitride (Fe@N<sub>4</sub>-C: 0.74 eV, Fe@N<sub>4</sub>O-C: 1.02 eV),<sup>29</sup> Fe-zeolites (0.96 eV),<sup>40</sup> and Fe-MOF (0.69 eV)<sup>57</sup> for CH<sub>4</sub> or CH<sub>3</sub>OH production, demonstrating the superior activity of metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> for CO<sub>2</sub>RR. The calculated values of limiting potential range from -0.31 to -1.23 V (Figure 3B). Specifically, metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> has a lower limiting potential value compared to those of single-Sv (-1.29 V) and double-Sv (-1.34 V, Figure S14). It is worth noting that the limiting potential values for metal@MoS<sub>2</sub> were in a range from -0.29 to -1.55 V (Figures S15–S16). Without consideration of vacancy regeneration, the limiting potential values for metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> ranged from -0.13 to -1.04 V, as plotted in Figure S17. Although vacancy regeneration often occurs during electrocatalytic reactions,<sup>58</sup> it is important to note that the metal active sites can continue to catalyze CO<sub>2</sub> reduction regardless of whether vacancy was regenerated or not. Therefore, metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> seems to display superior activity for CH<sub>4</sub> production.

As mentioned above, the distance between the metal center and sulfur vacancy,  $D_{M-Sv}$  is an important descriptor for reflecting stability, electronic structures, and the catalytic activity of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Again, the feature of  $D_{M-Sv}$  is a prerequisite for evaluating the synergistic effect. For example, when the sulfur vacancy is located in the meta position of the metal ( $D_{M-Sv} > 5.88$  Å), no synergistic effect was observed between the sulfur vacancy and the metal site (Figure S18). When the sulfur vacancy located in the ortho position of the metal ( $D_{M-Sv} < 3.25$  Å), the limiting potential value was reduced as  $D_{M-Sv}$  increased, indicating a weakening of the synergistic effect between the sulfur vacancy and the metal site



**Figure 4.** Relationship of limiting potential with orientation angle,  $\alpha$ , and distance between metal and vacancy,  $D_{M-Sv}$ .

(Figure S19). A ML model was constructed using three features, i.e.,  $N_d$ ,  $\chi_M$ , and  $D_{M-Sv}$  to predict the limiting potential value for 26 metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> systems. According to Figure 3C, the XGBoost model demonstrated satisfactory prediction results for limiting the potential value, with a MAE of 0.095 V and a  $R^2$  of 0.86.

Subsequently, we attempted to test the performance of using a combination of physical parameters in two ways. In the first test, a complex descriptor,  $F_{M-Sv}$ , was proposed to describe limiting potential, taking into account the contribution of both the metal site  $\left(\frac{N_d + \chi_M}{N_d - \chi_M}\right)$  and the vacancy site  $\left(\exp(D_{M-Sv}) - \exp\left(\frac{\chi_M}{R}\right)\right)$ , as defined in eq 8.

$$F_{M-Sv} = \left(\frac{N_d + \chi_M}{N_d - \chi_M}\right) + \left(\exp(D_{M-Sv}) - \exp\left(\frac{\chi_M}{R}\right)\right) \quad (8)$$

Here,  $R$  represents the radius of the metal atom. With the addition of the  $R$  into the three feature sets of  $N_d$ ,  $\chi_M$ , and  $D_{M-Sv}$ , the XGBoost model displayed comparable prediction accuracy (MAE = 0.11 V and  $R^2 = 0.83$ ) to the 3-feature model (Figure S20). Our results show that reaction activity could be evaluated by four easily obtainable descriptors or their combination in eq 8, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.82 (Figure S21).

The second scheme for building the complex descriptors is stimulated by an investigation of key reaction intermediates. In Coordination pathway, the adsorption free energies of carbon-involved (Figure S22) and oxygen-involved (Figure S23) intermediates were strongly correlated with  $\Delta G_{*CHO}$  and  $\Delta G_{*OH}$ , respectively. The values of  $\Delta G_{*CHO}$  and  $\Delta G_{*OH}$  served as indicators to describe the limiting potential associated with the CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity (Figures S24 and S25). The sure independence screening and sparsifying operator (SISSO) method<sup>59</sup> was employed to yield two descriptors,  $F_{CHO}$  and  $F_{OH}$ , which were defined as follows:

$$F_{CHO} = (N_d - \chi_M)EV^2/e^{(N_d/\chi_M)} \quad (9)$$

$$F_{OH} = IE^*N_d/\chi^*\sqrt[3]{e^{N_d}} \quad (10)$$

In the above equations,  $EV$  and  $IE$  represent the enthalpy of vaporization and the first ionization energy of metal, respectively. The predictions for  $\Delta G_{*CHO}$  and  $\Delta G_{*OH}$  were also satisfactory, with Pearson correlation coefficients of  $-0.85$  and  $-0.91$ , respectively (Figure S26).

The usage of the two complex features,  $F_{CHO}$  and  $F_{OH}$ , and the five descriptor sets of  $R$ ,  $N_G$ ,  $N_d$ ,  $\chi_M$ , and  $D_{M-Sv}$  gives a

good correlation to binding energy and limiting potential. Among them, the distance between the metal center and sulfur vacancy ( $D_{M-Sv}$ ) has the most significant impact on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity. The d-shell valence electrons of metal ( $N_d$ ) has the dominant influence on catalyst stability (Figure 3D). The important role of d-shell valence electrons and electronegativity of metal in stability prediction was also demonstrated in metal-zeolites.<sup>60</sup>

Furthermore, the influence of the relative orientation of the vacancy to the metal was investigated. As shown in Figure 4, different positions of Sv on Pt anchored the Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> (*ortho*-, *meta*-, and *top*-Pt@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>), are indicated by the angle,  $\alpha$ , between adsorbate on the upmost metal atom and the Sv vacancy site. In the case of *top*-Pt@MoS<sub>2</sub>, the angle  $\alpha$  is 180° with the linear structure of O...M...Sv. For *ortho*-Pt@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> and *meta*-Pt@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>, the angle  $\alpha$  is about 90°. The *top*- and *meta*-Pt@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> systems prefer to follow the Coordination pathway (Figure S18). The *ortho*-Pt@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> favors the Syn pathway, which exhibits relatively lower free energy changes of the potential-determining step ( $\Delta G_{max} = 0.92$  eV) compared to the *top*- ( $\Delta G_{max} = 1.15$  eV) and *meta*- ( $\Delta G_{max} = 1.12$  eV) cases. Interestingly, the limiting potential decreases as the value of  $\sin\alpha/D_{M-Sv}$  decreases, highlighting the importance of orientation and distance between the vacancy and metal sites. Here, the use of the sinusoidal function of angle  $\alpha$  was capable of transferring the 90° or 180° into the values of 1 and 0, which is much closer to the value of  $D_{M-Sv}$ .

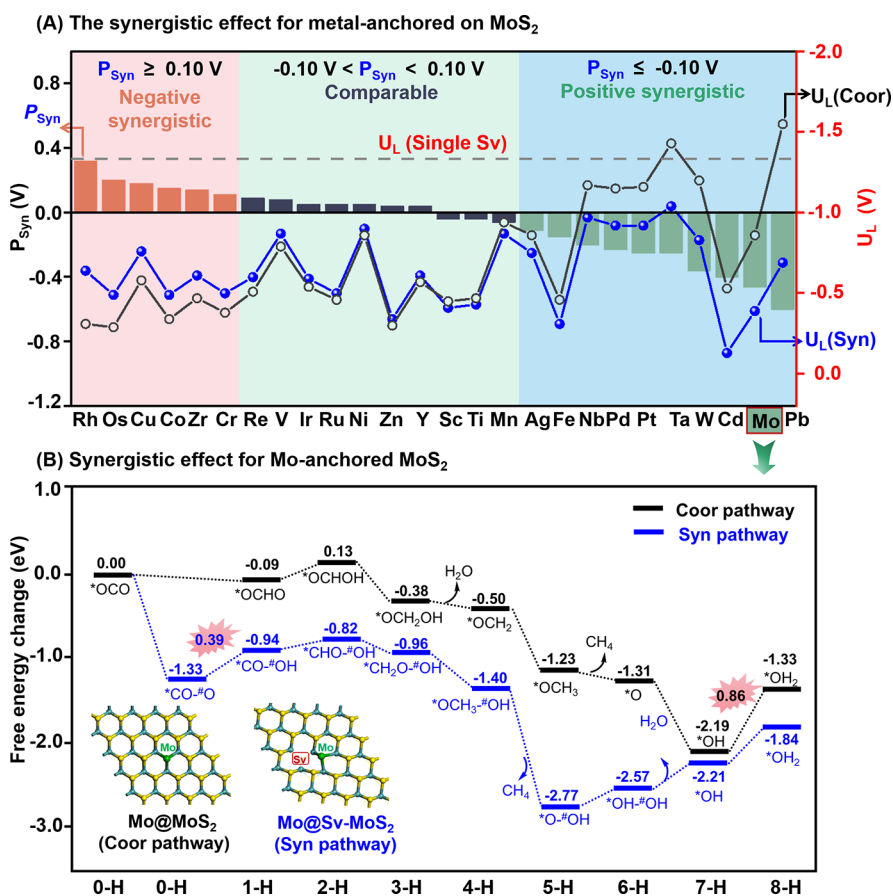
### Synergistic Effect

To efficiently assess the synergistic effect of metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, a synergistic effect index,  $P_{Syn}$ , was defined to distinguish the activity difference between metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub>, metal@MoS<sub>2</sub>, and single sulfur vacancy on MoS<sub>2</sub> in eq 11.

$$P_{Syn} = U_L(\text{Coord}, Sv)_{min} - U_L(\text{Syn}) \quad (11)$$

The term  $U_L(\text{Coord}, Sv)_{min}$  represented the minimum limiting potential in CO<sub>2</sub>RR through either the Coordination pathway for metal@MoS<sub>2</sub> or single sulfur vacancy pathway (Sv-pathway) for vacancy only. The  $U_L(\text{Syn})$  represented the limiting potential via the Syn pathway without considering vacancy regeneration.

When  $P_{Syn}$  was greater than 0.10 V, the Coordination pathway was more favorable, indicating a negative synergistic effect on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. When  $P_{Syn}$  was within the range of  $-0.10$  to 0.10 V, the Coordination pathway and Syn pathway were comparable without the synergistic effect in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. When the value of  $P_{Syn}$  was smaller than  $-0.10$  V, the Syn pathway was more favorable, indicating a positive synergistic effect on CO<sub>2</sub>RR.



**Figure 5.** (A) Definition of synergistic effect evaluation index ( $P_{\text{Syn}}$ ) to distinguish the synergistic effect on the Coor-pathway, Sv-pathway, and Syn-pathway in  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ . (B) Illustration of the synergistic effect for Mo-anchored  $\text{MoS}_2$ .

Figure 5A illustrates that the Syn-pathway was more favorable for  $d^5$  ( $M = \text{Mo}$ ) and  $d^{10}$  ( $M = \text{Ag}, \text{Cd}, \text{and Pd}$ ) metal@Sv- $\text{MoS}_2$  in the  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ . For example, in Mo@Sv- $\text{MoS}_2$ , the conversion of  $^*\text{CO}-\# \text{O}$  to  $^*\text{CO}-\# \text{OH}$  was calculated as the potential-determining step with a  $\Delta G_{\text{max}}$  of 0.39 eV. The  $\Delta G_{\text{max}}$  of Mo@ $\text{MoS}_2$  was calculated to be 0.86 eV for the conversion of  $^*\text{OH}$  to  $^*\text{OH}_2$  (Figure 5B). The  $\Delta G_{\text{max}}$  of the Sv-only pathway on  $\text{MoS}_2$  was calculated to be 1.29 eV for the conversion of  $^*\text{O}$  to  $^*\text{OH}$ , implying a positive synergistic effect in Mo@Sv- $\text{MoS}_2$  for  $\text{CH}_4$  production.

The external potential and pH value of the solution could change the thermodynamics and electrochemical potential-energy diagrams, since the polar intermediates are sensitive to pH values on  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ .<sup>61</sup> As shown in Figure S27, both Fe@Sv- $\text{MoS}_2$  and Os@ $\text{MoS}_2$  required less additional electric field to achieve a high conversion efficiency for  $\text{CO}_2$ . Increasing the pH value from pH = 0 to pH = 3, the limiting potential for Fe@Sv- $\text{MoS}_2$  (pH = 0,  $U_L = -0.31$  V) and Fe@ $\text{MoS}_2$  (pH = 0,  $U_L = -0.46$  V) decreases to  $-0.49$  and  $-0.64$  V, respectively (Figure S28). In fact, the synergistic effect between the metal center and the vacancy ( $P_{\text{Syn}} = -0.15$ ) was not varied by the pH change from 0 to 3.

### Free Energy and Limiting Potential Prediction and External Tests

It was demonstrated that the adsorption free energies of key intermediates, such as  $\Delta G_{^*\text{OCH}_2}$ ,  $\Delta G_{^*\text{CHO}}$ , and  $\Delta G_{^*\text{OH}}$  are highly relevant to the catalytic performance of single-active site catalysts in  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ .<sup>28,40,62</sup> Until now, the synergistic effect of the active metal site and vacancy in adsorption free energies

was rarely studied yet. Herein, taking single-active site catalysts (metal@ $\text{MoS}_2$ ) and dual-active site catalysts (metal@Sv- $\text{MoS}_2$ ) as a prototype, we built ML models for predicting the free energy change of intermediates. To achieve this goal, we defined 3 descriptors for active sites on substrates, including electronegativity difference of metal center and vacancy ( $\delta\chi_M$ ,  $\delta\chi_{\text{Sv}}$ ) and global electronegativity on substrates ( $\chi_{\text{sub}}$ ). The  $\delta\chi_M$  and  $\delta\chi_{\text{Sv}}$  were applied to reflect the interaction strength for the active site with various intermediates. The descriptor  $\overline{\chi}_M$ , through the combination of metal center with the nearest coordination atoms, was constructed for the reactive sites. This strategy was applied in our previous work<sup>40</sup> and other literature.<sup>29</sup> The value of  $\delta\chi_M$  between catalyst and reduction intermediates in each step of  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  process was easily estimated from eq 12 by the abstraction from  $\overline{\chi}_M$  with the average electronegativity in absorbed intermediate ( $\overline{\chi}_{\text{Int}}$ ).

$$\delta\chi_M = \overline{\chi}_M - \overline{\chi}_{\text{Int}} = \frac{\chi_M + \chi_{\text{Mo}}}{\chi_{\text{Mo}}} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{atom}}} N_i \chi_i}{N_{\text{atom}}} \quad (12)$$

The descriptor developed for the vacancy site ( $\delta\chi_{\text{Sv}}$ ) was calculated by the joint effect of the absorbed intermediate with the nearest neighboring atoms and sulfur vacancy deductions. Furthermore, we added the distance between the metal center and vacancy,  $D_{\text{M-Sv}}$  via eq 13 to evaluate the synergistic effects between the metal and vacancy.



## (A) Features selection without the need of DFT calculation

## &gt; Active site on substrate (Metal &amp; Vacancy)

 $N_d$ :  $d$ -shell valence electrons of metal $\delta\chi_M$ : Electronegativity difference on metal $\delta\chi_{Sv}$ : Electronegativity change on vacancy

## &gt; Substrate

 $\chi_{Sub}$ : Global electronegativity for substrate

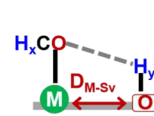
## &gt; Pathway

 $H_S$ : Number of H in  $H_2O$ ,  $CH_3OH$ , and  $CH_4$  $P_S$ : Number of ( $H^+ + e^-$ ) transfer in  $CO_2RR$  $H_C$ : Number of H in C of intermediate

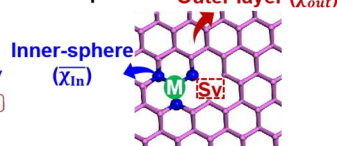
## &gt; Adsorbate

 $N_O$ : Coordination number of O to metal

Side view



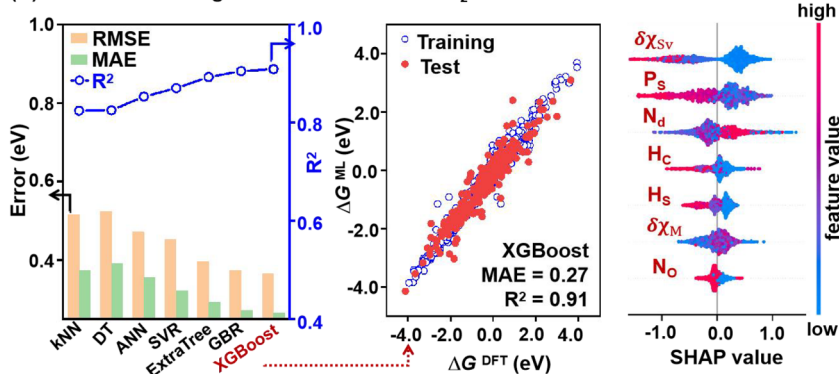
Top view



$$\delta\chi_M = \frac{\chi_M + \chi_{Mo}}{\chi_{Mo}} - \overline{\chi_{INT}}$$

$$\delta\chi_{Sv} = \frac{\chi_O - \chi_S + \chi_{Mo}}{\chi_{Mo} * D_{M-Sv}} - \overline{\chi_{INT}}$$

$$\chi_{Sub} = \frac{\overline{\chi_{In}} + \overline{\chi_{Out}}}{\overline{\chi_{Out}}}$$

(B) ML model training for metal anchored  $MoS_2$ 

**Figure 6.** (A) The definition and construction of 8 descriptors in the  $CO_2RR$  process. (B) ML model construction for  $\Delta G$  prediction and comparison of the performance of different algorithms; prediction of  $\Delta G$  of the  $CO_2RR$  process by the XGBoost algorithm; and SHAP values of each sample on  $CO_2RR$ .

$$\delta\chi_{Sv} = \frac{\chi_O + \chi_{Mo} - \chi_S}{\chi_{Mo} * D_{M-Sv}} - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N_{atom}} N_j \chi_j}{N_{atom}} \quad (13)$$

The global electronegativity of the substrate ( $\chi_{sub}$ ) could reflect the interaction strength between the substrate and the metal center. The  $\chi_{sub}$  value was estimated from eqs 14 and 15 by dividing the substrate into two groups, the inner sphere consisting of the coordinate atoms (N, O, etc.) in proximity to the metal center ( $\overline{\chi_{In}}$ ) and the out-layer ( $\overline{\chi_{Out}}$ ) in substrate.

$$\overline{\chi_{Out}} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N_{atom}} N_k \chi_k}{N_{atom}} \quad (14)$$

$$\chi_{sub} = \frac{\overline{\chi_{In}} + \overline{\chi_{Out}}}{\overline{\chi_{Out}}} = \frac{\chi_{N/O} + \overline{\chi_{Out}}}{\overline{\chi_{Out}}} \quad (15)$$

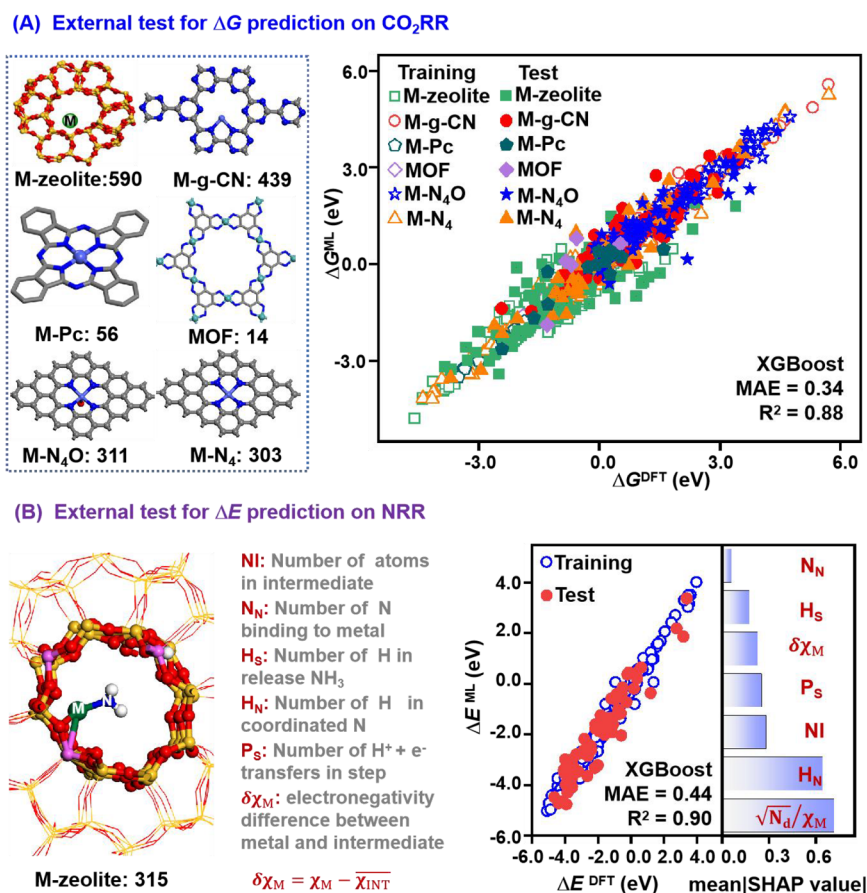
For dual-active sites, we defined the average electronegativity value of the metal center site ( $\chi_{sub}$ ) and vacancy ( $\chi_{sub-Sv}$ ) substrate in eqs 16–18.

$$\overline{\chi_{Out-Sv}} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N_{atom}} N_k \chi_k}{N_{atom}} \quad (16)$$

$$\chi_{sub-Sv} = \frac{\overline{\chi_{In}} + \overline{\chi_{Out-Sv}}}{\overline{\chi_{Out-Sv}}} = \frac{\chi_{Mo} + \overline{\chi_{Out-Sv}}}{\overline{\chi_{Out-Sv}}} \quad (17)$$

$$\chi_{sub} = \frac{\chi_{sub} + \chi_{sub-Sv}}{2} \quad (18)$$

The free energy change in each hydrogenation step was predicted with an 8-feature scheme, including  $N_d$ ,  $\delta\chi_M$ ,  $\delta\chi_{Sv}$ , and  $\chi_{sub}$  for active sites on substrates,  $P_S$ ,  $H_C$ , and  $H_S$  for reaction pathways, and  $N_O$  for adsorbate (Figure 6A). A grid search was performed in 10 algorithms to determine the appropriate hyper-parameters that would achieve the highest accuracy. The cross-validation metric was selected by RMSE, MAE, and  $R^2$  to obtain a more reliable estimate of the model's performance. The 10-fold cross-validation was applied on the selected 10 ML models, which shows the accuracy of the model on the entire volume of nonlinear data (Tables S7 and S8 and Figure S29). The XGBoost achieved the most satisfactory prediction results with MAE and  $R^2$  values of 0.27 eV and 0.91, respectively (Figure 6B). Based on Pearson correlation analysis, a nonlinear correlation was observed between the features and free energy change (Figure S30). The XGBoost model calculated the average feature importance of each feature (Figure S31) by a 10-fold cross-validation, showing that  $P_S$ ,  $H_S$ ,  $H_C$ , and  $\delta\chi_{Sv}$  were important features. Shapley additive explanations (SHAP)<sup>63</sup> algorithm was combined with the trained model to further analyze the positive or negative correlation between features and predicted results. As shown in Figure 6B and Figure S31,  $\delta\chi_{Sv}$ ,  $P_S$ ,  $N_d$ ,  $H_S$ , and  $H_C$  were the top 5 features with relatively large SHAP values for the free energy change prediction. The SHAP analysis reveals a negative correlation among  $\delta\chi_{Sv}$ ,  $P_S$ ,  $H_S$ , and  $H_C$ , while  $N_d$  exhibits a positive correlation. The XGBoost measures the importance of features based on information gain, while SHAP is a globally accurate additive method that



**Figure 7.** (A) External tests for  $\Delta G$  prediction on CO<sub>2</sub>RR via 8 features by metal–zeolites, M-g-CN, M-Pcs, MOFs, M-N<sub>4</sub>O, and M-N<sub>4</sub> catalysts. (B) The university descriptors transfer for NRR relative energy change prediction on metal–zeolites with 7 features and feature importance; the absolute SHAP value of each feature was averaged in the data set, called mean |SHAP value|.

identifies the importance of most global features. The different method and parameter in XGBoost model and SHAP resulting in a different ranking of feature importance.

The SISO<sup>59</sup> was used to generate the formulas describing the relationship between the features and free energy change. The feature reconstruction by SISO for free energy change prediction based on the 1D, 2D, and 3D descriptors exhibits the results of  $R^2 = 0.41$ , 0.62, and 0.71, respectively (Figure S32). The synergistic effect between the metal center and vacancy can be described by the term  $\delta\chi_M - \delta\chi_{Sv}$ , which appeared in 2D and 3D descriptors from the SISO method.

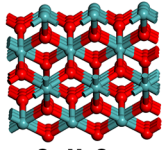
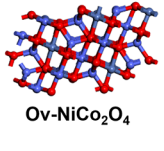
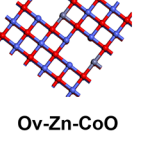
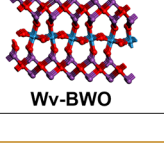
Other algorithms, including GBR (Figure S33), ExtraTree (Figure S34), ANN, SVR, and DecisionTree (DT), also showed satisfactory prediction performance with  $R^2$  values greater than 0.80 and MAE values less than 0.40 eV (Figure S35). The SHAP analysis results based on different models, such as GBR, and ExtraTrees, were consistent with the XGBoost model in prediction of the free energy change (Figure 6B and Figures S36 and S37). Partial dependence plot<sup>64</sup> was used to compare with SHAP analysis. As shown in Figure S38, the range of  $\delta\chi_{Sv}$  was large (the blue line was steeper), which has a significant impact on the free energy prediction. In addition, the distribution of SHAP values of  $P_S$ ,  $N_N$ ,  $H_S$ , and  $H_C$  has the same tendency for partial dependence plots.

Linear models, such as MLR, linear ridge, and LASSO, were subjected to a grid search to find the appropriate hyper-

parameters. More detailed parameters of models can be found in Tables S9–S12. However, even after this optimization process, these models still yielded poor prediction results, with low  $R^2$  values and high the mean absolute errors ( $R^2 < 0.5$  and MAE > 0.7 eV, as shown in Tables S12 and Figure S39). As a result, the top three ensemble algorithms (XGBoost, GBR, and ExtraTree) were selected for the prediction of energy properties for both the CO<sub>2</sub>RR and NRR in the following subsection. More importantly, the number of atoms in the intermediates (NI) can be used as an effective adsorbate descriptor to predict the free energy change, with MAE and  $R^2$  values of 0.25 eV and 0.92, respectively (Figure S40).

Again, the three formulated descriptors,  $F_{M-Sv}$ ,  $F_{CHO}$ , and  $F_{OH}$ , were applied for the reaction energy prediction. As shown in Figure 6 and Figure S41, The XGBoost performance with 7 descriptors (MAE = 0.27 eV,  $R^2 = 0.91$ ) was comparable to the models with 8 descriptors (in which  $F_{M-Sv}$  was added, MAE = 0.29 eV,  $R^2 = 0.90$ ) and 9 descriptors (in which  $F_{CHO}$  and  $F_{OH}$  were added, MAE = 0.27 eV,  $R^2 = 0.89$ ). The electronegativity of the active metal site plays a crucial role in predicting free energy changes in CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Previous studies have demonstrated that the use of other electronic descriptors, such as band gap ( $E_g$ ),<sup>40</sup> the lowest unoccupied and highest occupied molecular orbitals ( $E_{LUMO}$  and  $E_{HOMO}$ ), the vertical ionization potential (IP),<sup>65</sup> etc., is efficient for predicting CO<sub>2</sub>RR and radical reactions. By replacing the electronegativity in  $\delta\chi_{Sv}$  and  $\delta\chi_M$  with the first ionization energy ( $\delta IE_{Sv}$  and  $\delta IE_M$ ), a comparable

Table 1. Application of the ML Model to Experimentally Reported Systems with Different Vacancy Characteristics

System	Experiments		DFT Results		ML prediction (This work)
	product	Selectivity	$P_{\text{Syn}}^{\text{DFT}} (\Delta G_{\text{max}}^{\text{DFT}} / \Delta G_{\text{max}}^{\text{DFT}})$	PDS	$P_{\text{Syn}}^{\text{ML}} (\Delta G_{\text{max}}^{\text{ML}} / \Delta G_{\text{max}}^{\text{ML}})$
 Ov-MoO <sub>2-x</sub>	CH <sub>4</sub>	~80% ref [20]	-0.66 (1.10 / 0.44)	Pristine & Ov *CO → *CHO *COOH → *CO	-0.98 (1.34 / 0.36)
 Ov-NiCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	CO	99% ref [21]	-0.66 (1.37 / 0.71)	Pristine & Ov *CO <sub>2</sub> → *COOH *CO <sub>2</sub> → *COOH	-0.72 (1.18 / 0.46)
 Ov-Zn-CoO	CH <sub>4</sub>	96.3% ref [22]	-0.46 (0.85 / 0.39)	Pristine & Ov *CO <sub>2</sub> → *COOH *CO <sub>2</sub> → *COOH	-1.06 (1.38 / 0.33)
 Wv-BWO	CH <sub>4</sub>	63.8% ref [23]	-0.75 (1.21 / 0.46)	Pristine & Wv *CO <sub>2</sub> → *COOH *CO <sub>2</sub> → *COOH	-0.72 (1.18 / 0.46)

prediction ability was achieved, with MAE = 0.29 eV and  $R^2 = 0.91$  (Figure S42).

Different ratios for dividing the training set and test set (70:30, 80:20, and 90:10) were also investigated (Figure S43). The training set and test set randomly scrambled into 70:30 (MAE = 0.29 eV,  $R^2 = 0.88$ ) and 90:10 (MAE = 0.26 eV,  $R^2 = 0.92$ , Figure S44) displayed performance comparable to that of 80:20 (MAE = 0.27 eV,  $R^2 = 0.91$ ).

Such 8 descriptors can be further transferred to other metal-supported catalysts, both in two- and three-dimensional topologies. The combination of 1713 external tests, including metal-supported graphitic carbon nitride (M-g-CN),<sup>28</sup> porpyridinic-like M-N<sub>x</sub> complexes (M-N<sub>4</sub>O and M-N<sub>4</sub>),<sup>29</sup> metal-zeolites,<sup>40</sup> metal-phthalocyanines (M-Pcs),<sup>66</sup> and MOFs<sup>57,67</sup> on CO<sub>2</sub>RR, were incorporated into the ML models to predict free energy change. Again, the XGBoost model demonstrated satisfactory performance with an MAE of 0.34 eV and  $R^2$  of 0.88 (Figure 7A). The substrate descriptor displayed a relatively high feature importance, highlighting its significant role in the CO<sub>2</sub>RR process (Figures S45 and S46). Additionally, the GBR (MAE = 0.34 eV,  $R^2 = 0.88$ ) and ExtraTree (MAE = 0.41 eV,  $R^2 = 0.86$ ) models also exhibited prediction performance comparable to that of XGBoost (Figure S47).

Furthermore, the proposed descriptors in this work can be utilized to evaluate the performance of metal-zeolites in nitrogen reduction reactions (NRR) with 315 data samples.<sup>68</sup> As depicted in Figure 7B, the XGBoost model exhibits a satisfactory prediction capability (MAE = 0.44 eV,  $R^2 = 0.90$ ) for the relative energy value of the reaction intermediates ( $\Delta E$ ) with 7 descriptors. These descriptors include the metal center

descriptor ( $\sqrt{N_d}/\chi_M$ ), electronegativity difference between metal center and intermediate ( $\delta\chi_M$ ), numbers of the nitrogen binding to metal center ( $N_N$ ), number of hydrogen atoms on the coordinated nitrogen ( $H_N$ ), number of proton-electron pair transfer in the reduction step ( $P_S$ ), the number of atoms in the intermediates (NI), and number of hydrogen atoms in released NH<sub>3</sub> ( $H_S$ ). The SHAP analysis based on the XGBoost model on NRR reveals that the complex metal center descriptor ( $\sqrt{N_d}/\chi_M$ ) was the most significant feature in regulating the catalyst performance (Figure 7B and Figure S48). The performance was comparable to the reported XGBoost model (MAE = 0.51 eV,  $R^2 = 0.84$ )<sup>68</sup> trained from metal-zeolites. In addition, both GBR and ExtraTree models exhibit similar prediction capabilities (GBR: MAE = 0.44 eV and  $R^2 = 0.89$ ; ExtraTree: MAE = 0.51 eV and  $R^2 = 0.87$ , Figures S49–S51) to XGBoost. Meanwhile, using the aforementioned 7 descriptors, the XGBoost model also provides a good prediction of energy difference between two successive steps ( $\Delta\Delta E$ ) on the NRR process in metal-zeolites, with a MAE of 0.46 eV and an  $R^2$  value of 0.83 (Figure S52).

The present ML model for predicting synergistic effect evaluation was applied to metal-supported catalysts with different types of vacancy sites. Table 1 shows the selected systems, such as Ov-MoO<sub>2-x</sub>,<sup>20</sup> Ov-NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>,<sup>21</sup> Ov-Zn-CoO,<sup>22</sup> and Wv-BWO,<sup>23</sup> which represent the influence of various vacancy characteristics, including type, position, concentration, and doped metal, on the synergistic effect. All these selected systems have been demonstrated to have high production rates and selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub> conversion in experiments, consistent with the predicted positive synergistic effect ( $P_{\text{Syn}} < -0.10$  V) from our ML model. The performance of DFT calculation and

ML prediction of the maximum free energy change on 26 metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> with and without sulfur vacancy were presented in Table S13 for P<sub>Syn</sub> prediction. The predicted  $\Delta G_{\max}$  for Sc@MoS<sub>2</sub> and Ag@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> was slightly higher than the DFT calculated  $\Delta G_{\max}$ , whereas the predicted  $\Delta G_{\max}$  for the Mo@MoS<sub>2</sub> was smaller than the DFT calculated  $\Delta G_{\max}$ . It should be mentioned that the data set we used to construct the ML model was derived from the free energy changes of reducing intermediates ( $\Delta G$ , referring to free CO<sub>2</sub> molecules and catalyst), rather than the free energy difference between two consecutive steps ( $\Delta\Delta G$ ). The achievement of quantitative power of ML models for free energy change prediction is still a big challenge. Further effort to improve the prediction accuracy of P<sub>Syn</sub> based on  $\Delta\Delta G$  is of great significance for better guiding experimentalists in rational designing and screening of catalysts.

## CONCLUSIONS

The synergistic effect between the metal and vacancy has been revealed in a general model for CO<sub>2</sub> activation in metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> and other systems. The stability of the sulfur vacancy at different positions and catalytic activity of metal@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> are related to the number of d-shell valence electrons, group number, electronegativity of the metal center, and distance between the sulfur vacancy and the metal site. The Os@MoS<sub>2</sub> (−0.29 V) and Fe@Sv-MoS<sub>2</sub> (−0.31 V) are the most promising CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts, with very low limiting potentials and high selectivity against the HER. A quantitative model for synergistic effect evaluation was proposed to assess the thermodynamic advantages of CH<sub>4</sub> conversion in three possible pathways (Syn, Coor, and Sv). Descriptors related to active sites on substrates, reaction pathways, and adsorbates were used to predict the change in free energy for CO<sub>2</sub>RR ( $R^2 = 0.91$ ), and successfully transferred to an external test for NRR ( $R^2 = 0.90$ ). An interpretable ML model based on SHAP analysis reveals that  $\delta\chi_{Sv}$ ,  $\delta\chi_{Sub}$ , P<sub>S</sub>, and N<sub>d</sub> are the most significant descriptors affecting the catalyst activity. The predicted limiting potential value and synergistic evaluation index are in agreement with the observed synergistic advantage for oxygen and tungsten vacancy systems in experiment, showing applicability of the present ML models to the prediction of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR reactivity on other metal-supported catalysts. This work offers a practical tool for the design of efficient CO<sub>2</sub>RR and NRR catalysts.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacsau.3c00558>.

Feature selection for catalytic activity prediction, coordination and synergistic pathway on CO<sub>2</sub>RR, the abbreviation explanations in this work, free energy change calculation with different functionals, binding energies and CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption energy for metal-anchored MoS<sub>2</sub> with and without sulfur vacancy, machine learning for limiting potential prediction, descriptors for  $\Delta G_{*CHO}$  and  $\Delta G_{*OH}$  prediction, the external potential and pH effects, machine learning for free energy change prediction and external test (PDF)

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### Author Contributions

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (22033004 and 22373049), National Key Laboratory (2009DS690095) and the Jiangsu Provincial Excellent Postdoctoral Program (2023ZB655). We are grateful to the High Performance Computing Centre of Nanjing University for providing the IBM Blade cluster system, Mr. Lifeng Zheng, Jiawei Chen, and Xu Gu for the help of building dataset webpage.

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