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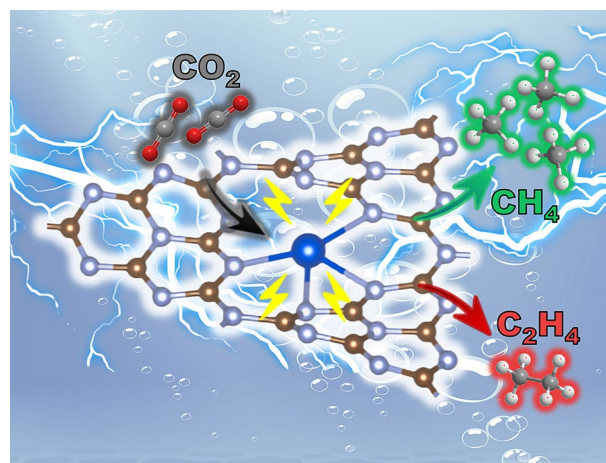
# Atomic Cu Sites Engineering Enables Efficient CO<sub>2</sub> Electroreduction to Methane with High CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> Ratio

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## HIGHLIGHTS

- The Cu-doped graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) material is synthesized by an in situ thermal polymerization strategy, through which the atomic dispersion and coordination structure of Cu on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> are realized by regulating the doping level of Cu.
- High Faraday efficiency of CH<sub>4</sub> of 49.04% and a maximum CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> ratio up to 35.03 are achieved for the first time on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-supported Cu single-atom catalyst.
- Structure–activity relationship analysis based on experimental and theoretical studies demonstrates the well-defined Cu single atoms coordinated with N atoms in the nitrogen cavity of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> are active sites for CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CH<sub>4</sub>.

**ABSTRACT** Electrochemical reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> into high-value hydrocarbons and alcohols by using Cu-based catalysts is a promising and attractive technology for CO<sub>2</sub> capture and utilization, resulting from their high catalytic activity and selectivity. The mobility and accessibility of active sites in Cu-based catalysts significantly hinder the development of efficient Cu-based catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> electrochemical reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR). Herein, a facile and effective strategy is developed to engineer accessible and structural stable Cu sites by incorporating single atomic Cu into the nitrogen cavities of the host graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) as the active sites for CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CH<sub>4</sub> conversion in CO<sub>2</sub>RR. By regulating the coordination and density of Cu sites in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, an optimal catalyst corresponding to a one Cu atom in one nitrogen cavity reaches the highest CH<sub>4</sub> Faraday efficiency of 49.04% and produces the products with a high CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> ratio over 9. This work provides the first



experimental study on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-supported single Cu atom catalyst for efficient CH<sub>4</sub> production from CO<sub>2</sub>RR and suggests a principle in designing highly stable and selective high-efficiency Cu-based catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR by engineering Cu active sites in 2D materials with porous crystal structures.

**KEYWORDS** CO<sub>2</sub>RR; Cu single-atom catalyst; g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>; Methane; CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> ratio

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## 1 Introduction

Cu-based electrocatalysts have received extensive attentions for CO<sub>2</sub> electrochemical reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR), because of their unique ability to convert CO<sub>2</sub> into high-value deep reduction products [1–5]. Motivated by the great CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CO performance in CO<sub>2</sub>RR obtained on various carbon-supported single-atom catalysts, such as Ni [6–8], Fe [9, 10], Co [11, 12], and Zn [13], the Cu single-atom catalysts (Cu-SACs) have also been investigated for CO<sub>2</sub>RR [14]. Similar to the nanostructured Cu-based materials [15], the reported Cu-SACs also exhibited selectivity characteristics toward various reduction products in CO<sub>2</sub>RR, including CO [16], CH<sub>4</sub> [17, 18], CH<sub>3</sub>OH [19, 20], C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH [21, 22], and CH<sub>3</sub>COCH<sub>3</sub> (acetone) [23]. The isolated Cu single atoms are usually regard as the main active centers for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, and the coordination environment and density of the atomic Cu species play a key role in the selectivity of the Cu-SACs. Cai and co-workers reported that carbon dots-supported Cu-SACs with unique Cu-N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> sites enabled efficient CO<sub>2</sub>RR to CH<sub>4</sub> [24]. Xu and co-workers found that O atom coordinated single Cu atoms supported on carbon underwent a reversible transition between atomic sites and Cu<sub>n</sub> clusters under CO<sub>2</sub>RR condition, and the later catalyzed CO<sub>2</sub> into ethanol [21]. Zheng and co-workers reported that the distance between the atomic Cu-N<sub>x</sub> sites was critical for the selectivity between CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, where the neighboring Cu-N<sub>x</sub> sites promoted the C-C coupling and decreased the CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> ratio [25]. During the synthesis of Cu-SACs, however, a high-temperature pyrolysis process is often involved, resulting in poorly defined coordination structure and the aggregation of the atomic Cu sites and thus poorer catalytic selectivity and less accessibility of the active sites [15, 26]. Compared to the pyrolytic SACs, molecular catalysts with explicit and tunable structures are more preferred, due to their well-defined and uniform coordination environments [24].

The challenges in preparing more structural stable and well-configured Cu-SACs triggered our interest in searching more suitable catalyst supports to anchor the active single atoms in a stable and well-coordinated environment. Similar to the well-documented graphene single-atom support, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) has a perfect 2D morphology with single atomic thickness to ensure the best accessibility of the active sites. But differently, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> contains

periodic heptazine units and well-defined “nitrogen pots” that consist of six lone pairs from pyridine-like nitrogen atoms among the heptazine units (nitrogen cavities) [27, 28]. The abundant and periodic nitrogen cavities in the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> framework makes them become perfect anchoring points for incorporating dense metal atoms with defined distance and coordination numbers [29–31]. Various metal-doped g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> catalysts have been investigated for different electrocatalysis processes, such as hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) [32], oxygen evolution and reduction reaction (OER and ORR) [27, 33], nitrogen reduction reaction [34], and even CO<sub>2</sub>RR [35]. Specifically, it has been reported that a Cu-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> catalyst exhibited strong CO<sub>2</sub> affinity for promoted CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption toward deep reduction for converting CO<sub>2</sub> into high-value hydrocarbons. However, the Faraday efficiencies (FEs) of these deep reduction reactions were very low, and the role of the Cu sites incorporated in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> framework for CO<sub>2</sub>RR remains unclear [36]. Therefore, further efforts in further enhancing the FEs of the Cu-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> catalytic system together with a clear mechanism understanding are urgently needed.

In this work, a facile thermal polymerization method is employed to synthesize Cu single atoms loaded in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> catalysts with different site distance and coordination environments (denoted as Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN) for CO<sub>2</sub>RR by adjusting the ratios of Cu to g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> in the precursors during the preparation. The synthesis-structure-activity analysis of Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts demonstrated that the Cu single atoms anchored in the nitrogen cavities of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> are highly active and selective for the production of CH<sub>4</sub>. For the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst with a coordination of N atoms in nitrogen cavities and a chemical state of dominant Cu<sup>+</sup>, the most optimal Cu-CN catalyst, presented the highest activity and CH<sub>4</sub> FE (49.04%) and reached 7.97 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at -1.2 V<sub>RHE</sub> with a high CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> ratio of 9, which, to the best knowledge of authors, is the best CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CH<sub>4</sub> performance on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-supported catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Combining experimental evidence and density functional theory (DFT) calculations, it is revealed that one Cu single atom in one nitrogen cavity and coordinated with 4 N atoms of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> exhibit a preferred CH<sub>4</sub> catalytic pathway than the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> pathway, while the preferred pathway is reversed after forming an adjacent O-coordinated Cu atom. The coordination environment regulated Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts for high-efficiency CH<sub>4</sub> production provide a feasible way to fabricate single-atom Cu active sites for efficient

and selective CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysis and offer some insights into the design of future electrocatalysts.

## 2 Experimental Section

### 2.1 Materials

Dicyandiamide (DCDA), copper (II) acetylacetonate (Cu(acac)<sub>2</sub>), Iron (III) acetylacetonate (Fe(acac)<sub>3</sub>), and nickel (II) acetylacetonate (Ni(acac)<sub>2</sub>) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., LTD. Potassium bicarbonate (ACS, 99.7–100.5%) and deuterium oxide (D<sub>2</sub>O, 99.9 atom% D) were purchased from Shanghai Aladdin Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd. Nafion solution (5 wt% in mixture of lower aliphatic alcohols and water) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Nafion 117 membrane was purchased from Shanghai Hesen Electric Co., LTD. Standard liquid products: methanol (>99.9%), sodium formate (99.99%), ethanol (>99.8% for GC), and n-propanol (99.99%) were purchased from Shanghai Macklin Biochemical Co., Ltd. Deionized water (18.2 MΩ cm<sup>-2</sup>) was used in this work. The gas products, including H<sub>2</sub>, CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, were calibrated using standard mixed gases purchased from Dalian Special Gases Co., LTD.

### 2.2 Preparation of Catalysts

To synthesis Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts, 1 g of DCDA and certain amount of Cu(acac)<sub>2</sub> were well mixed in a mortar with the mass ratio of Cu(acac)<sub>2</sub> to DCDA of *x* (*x* = 0.01, 0.05, 0.2, and 0.5 in this work). The well-mixed and grinded powder in a quartz boat was placed in the middle of a tubular furnace. Then the calcination process starts from room temperature to 550 °C at 5 °C min<sup>-1</sup> and holds at 550 °C for 4 h in Ar atmosphere. After cooling to room temperature, the product was grinded into fine powder. CN sample was prepared by the same procedure except for the absence of Cu(acac)<sub>2</sub>. Ni<sub>x</sub>-CN and Fe<sub>x</sub>-CN materials were synthesized by the same method using Ni(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Fe(acac)<sub>3</sub> as the metal sources.

In order to leach out the Cu in Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst for comparison, the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst was washed with 1.0 M nitric acid for 12 h at room temperature. After washing with deionized water to neutral pH, the sample that labeled as 0.05-CN was obtained, in which almost all of the Cu metal was removed by acid treatment (Table S1).

### 2.3 Characterization of Materials

Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images were acquired using JEOL 2100F operated at 200 kV. High-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) and elemental mapping analysis were performed on Talos F200S operated at 200 kV. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) was obtained on Bruker D2 Phaser with a 2θ ranging from 10° to 90° using a Cu Kα X-ray. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were taken on Escalab 250Xi device. <sup>1</sup>H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were collected on Bruker AVANCE III 600 MHz nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometer. Solid-state <sup>13</sup>C magic angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance (MAS NMR) spectra were acquired with a Bruker AVIII400 spectrometer with a 4 mm MAS BB-1H probe at frequency of 100.63 MHz. Elemental analysis (EA) was performed with Elementar Vario EL III elemental analyzer to quantitatively determine the elemental content of C, H, and N. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectrum was measured with a Nicolet 6700 FTIR spectrophotometer in the range of 400–4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> using KBr pellet technique. Spherical aberration-corrected transmission electron microscope (AC-TEM) was performed on Themis ETEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific) transmission electron microscope. The measurements of X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) at the Cu K-edge containing the X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) were taken at the beamline BL14W1 of Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF), China. The data processing of XAS measurements was performed using the Demeter software package. Nitrogen sorption–desorption measurements were taken at Micromeritics ASAP2046 machine. Before the measurements, the samples were degassed in a vacuum at 180 °C for at least 10 h. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method was utilized to calculate the specific surface areas using the adsorption data at P/P<sub>0</sub> = 0.02–0.20. The pore size distribution was calculated from the adsorption branch by using the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) model.

Electrochemical in situ attenuated total reflection Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) reflection spectroscopy was investigated on a Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (FTIR, Nicolet iS50, Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with a liquid nitrogen-cooled mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) detector. The measurement was conducted in a homemade

electrochemical cell equipped with a Pt-mesh and an Ag/AgCl as counter and reference electrodes, respectively. An Au-coated Si crystal loaded with catalysts was embed into the bottom of the cell to serve as the working electrode. CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> is used as the electrolyte for the in situ ATR-FTIR measurement, during which CO<sub>2</sub> gas is continuously bubbled. Chronoamperometry is used for the in situ CO<sub>2</sub>RR test, and the spectrum is collected by 32 scans with 4 cm<sup>-1</sup> resolution. All spectra were subtracted with the background.

## 2.4 Electrode Preparation

Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalyst (1 mg) and carbon black (0.25 mg) were dispersed in methanol solution (190 uL). Subsequently, 10 uL of Nafion (5 wt%) was added, followed by ultrasonication for at least 1 h. Then 6 uL catalyst ink was dropped onto a L-type glass carbon electrode with a diameter of 4 mm (geometric area: ~0.1256 cm<sup>2</sup>) using a pipette and dried under ambient air. The catalyst loading was about 0.24 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. The catalysts were electrochemically activated in CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> solution by CV (10 scans) from -0.5 to -1.5 V<sub>RHE</sub>.

## 2.5 Electrochemical Reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>

CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis was carried out in a gastight, custom-made two-compartment cell, in which the working electrode was separated from the counter electrode by a Nafion 117 membrane. Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl) was used as the reference electrode, and the three-electrode setup was connected to a potentiostat (Biologic VMP3). A 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte solution was used for all CO<sub>2</sub>RR tests, and the electrolyte in the cathodic compartment was stirred at a constant rate of ~300 rpm during electrolysis. Before CO<sub>2</sub>RR, the catholyte was bubbled with CO<sub>2</sub> (99.99%) for 30 min to reach saturation, and CO<sub>2</sub> was kept purging into the cathodic compartment at 10 sccm with stirring at ~500 rpm during the CO<sub>2</sub>RR. To determine the Faradaic efficiencies (FEs) of the reduced products, chronoamperometry was performed for 1 h at constant iR-corrected potentials. For the long-term stability test, the CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte was extracted and replaced every 4 h to determine the liquid products. The FEs of gas products were calculated and recorded when the FEs were stable during the last 3 h.

All potentials were measured against an Ag/AgCl reference electrode (3.5 M KCl, stored in a 3.5 M KCl solution before and after use) and converted to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) scale by

$$E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.2046 + 0.059 \times \text{pH} \quad (1)$$

The resistance between the reference and working electrodes was measured by potential electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (PEIS) and the ohmic drop was compensated automatically by the software (80%) and the rest 20% remained uncompensated. All the potentials in the text were iR-corrected if not otherwise specified. Generally, the value of resistance (R) was about 110–115 Ω in CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub>.

## 2.6 Analysis of Gas and Liquid Products

Gas products from the cathodic compartment during CO<sub>2</sub>RR were analyzed using a GC-2014 (Shimadzu) equipped with a TCD detector and two FID detectors, one of which was coupled with a methanizer to detect CO concentration. High-purity Ar (99.999%) was used as the carrier gas. The calibration curves of gas and liquid products can be referred to our previous publication [3].

The Faradaic efficiencies of the gas products were calculated by the GC data using the following equation:

$$FE_g = \frac{Q_g}{Q_{\text{total}}} \times 100\% = \frac{\frac{v}{60 \text{ s/min}} \times \frac{y}{24.5 \text{ L/mol}} \times n \times F}{j_{\text{average}}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

where *v* is gas flow rate measured by a flowmeter (Beijing FLOWS instruments Co, Ltd), which is 10 sccm for all the tests, *y* the measured volumetric content of the gas product, *n* the number of electrons required to form the gas products, and *n* = 2, 2, 8, and 12 for H<sub>2</sub>, CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, respectively, *F* the Faraday constant (96,485 C mol<sup>-1</sup>), and *j* the average current density.

Liquid products were analyzed by a 600 MHz NMR spectrometer (Bruker Avance 3 HD 600 MHz) using a presaturation technique to suppress water peak. To take <sup>1</sup>H NMR measurement, 800 uL of electrolyte sampled after CA or stability tests was mixed with 100 uL DMSO standard solution (100 ppm) and 100 uL D<sub>2</sub>O. The faradaic efficiencies of liquid products were calculated as follows:

$$FE_l = \frac{Q_l}{Q_{\text{total}}} \times 100\% = \frac{n_l \times n \times F}{Q_{\text{total}}} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$



where  $n_i$  is the total content of certain liquid products in the catholyte, which was calculated by the concentration and the volume of the catholyte (45 mL), and  $n$  is the number of electrons required to form the liquid products, and  $n = 2, 6, 8, 12,$  and  $18$  for formate, methanol, acetate, ethanol, and 1-propanol, respectively.

## 2.7 Computational Details

We carried out all the DFT calculations in the Vienna ab initio simulation (VASP5.4.4) code [37]. The exchange–correlation is simulated with PBE functional, and the ion–electron interactions were described by the PAW method [38, 39]. The vdWs interaction was included by using empirical DFT-D3 method [40]. The Monkhorst–Pack-grid-mesh-based Brillouin zone  $k$ -points are set as  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  for all periodic structure with the cutoff energy of 450 eV. The convergence criteria are set as  $0.025 \text{ eV } \text{\AA}^{-1}$  and  $10^{-4} \text{ eV}$  in force and energy, respectively. A  $20 \text{ \AA}$  vacuum layer along the  $z$  direction is employed to avoid interlayer interference.

The free energy calculation of species adsorption ( $\Delta G$ ) is based on Nørskov et al.'s hydrogen electrode model [41].

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta E_{\text{ZPE}} - T\Delta S \quad (4)$$

Herein  $\Delta E$ ,  $\Delta E_{\text{ZPE}}$ , and  $\Delta S$ , respectively, represent the changes of electronic energy, zero-point energy, and entropy that caused by adsorption of intermediate. The entropy of  $\text{H}^+ + \text{e}^-$  pair is approximately regarded as half of  $\text{H}_2$  entropy in standard condition [42].

## 3 Results and Discussion

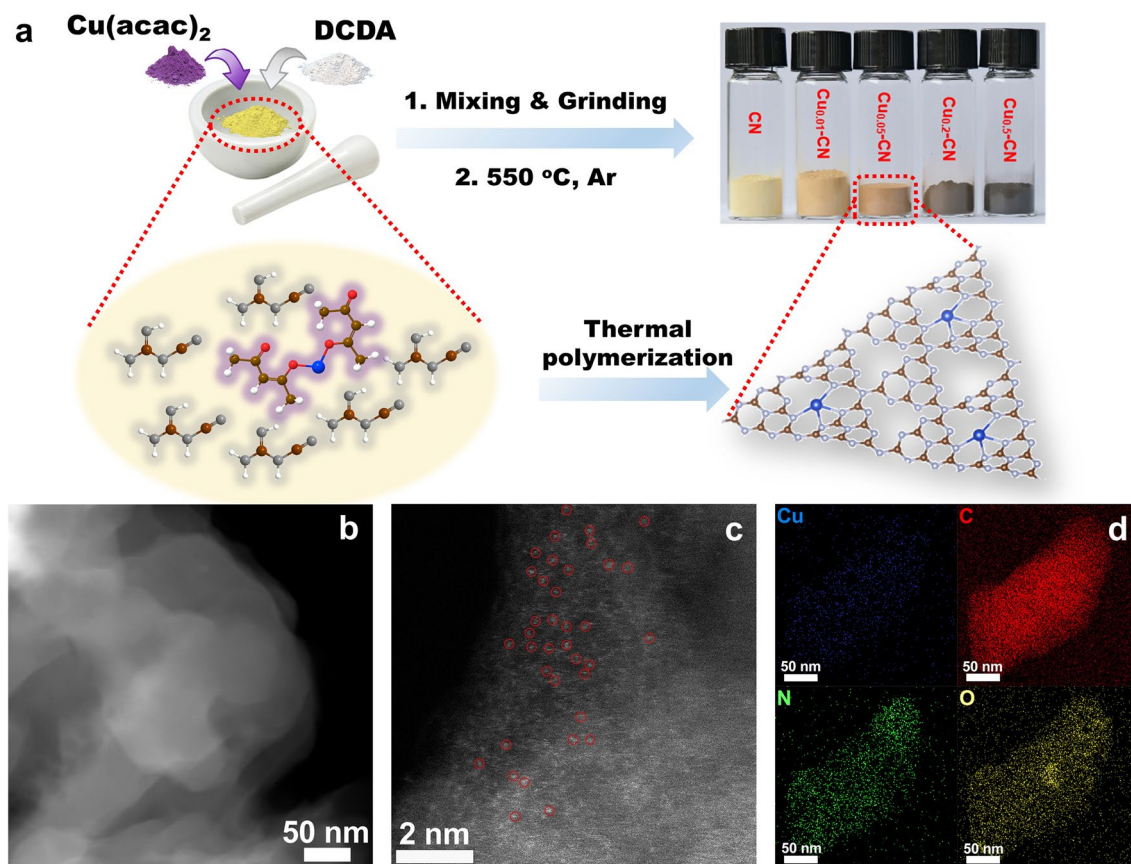
### 3.1 Synthesis and Characterizations of $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$ Catalysts

The single Cu atoms anchoring in the nitrogen cavities of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  catalysts with tailoring Cu coverage and coordination ( $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$ ) were synthesized via an in situ thermal polymerization method by using dicyandiamide (DCDA) and copper (II) acetylacetonate ( $\text{Cu}(\text{acac})_2$ ) as precursors for  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  host and Cu active species, respectively (Fig. 1a). In the synthesis,  $\text{Cu}(\text{acac})_2$  and DCDA with a mass ratio of  $x$  ( $x = 0.01, 0.05, 0.2,$  and  $0.5$ ) in  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts were mixed and then calcined under  $\text{N}_2$  at  $550 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to obtain the

$\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts. The pure  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  (denoted as CN) is yellowish powders. With the increase in Cu contents in  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts, the color gradually turns into dark brown (Fig. 1a).

The morphology of the catalysts and the dispersion state of Cu species are first characterized. The TEM and high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) images of both the CN and the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts (Figs. 1b and S1–S2) confirm their stacking layered structures and exclude the existence of crystalline or aggregated Cu species in these catalysts. The stacked layers gradually became fragmentary with the increasing Cu content in  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts, demonstrating the increasing surface area and pore structure. Thus, the as-prepared material is investigated by the  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption–desorption measurements. As expected, after loading Cu the surface area and porosity of  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts increase significantly as compared with the pristine CN sample (Fig. S3). As observed on the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalyst by aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM, the bright dots scatteringly distribute in the  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  host, indicating the presence of isolated Cu atoms in the catalyst (Fig. 1c). Interestingly, even at high Cu contents, isolated Cu atoms appeared at a high density rather than forming crystalline species or aggregated clusters, for example, in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts (Fig. S2c), which is consistent with the TEM results. The uniform distribution of Cu, C, N, and O elements in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalyst is further verified by the elemental mappings (Figs. 1d and S4). The high density of the atomic sites shortens the distance between single atoms, which may impact on both the activity and the selectivity of the catalysts [25, 43]. Besides, this facile strategy can be extended to other transition metals to form  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -supported single metal atoms, such as Ni and Fe (Figs. S5–S6).

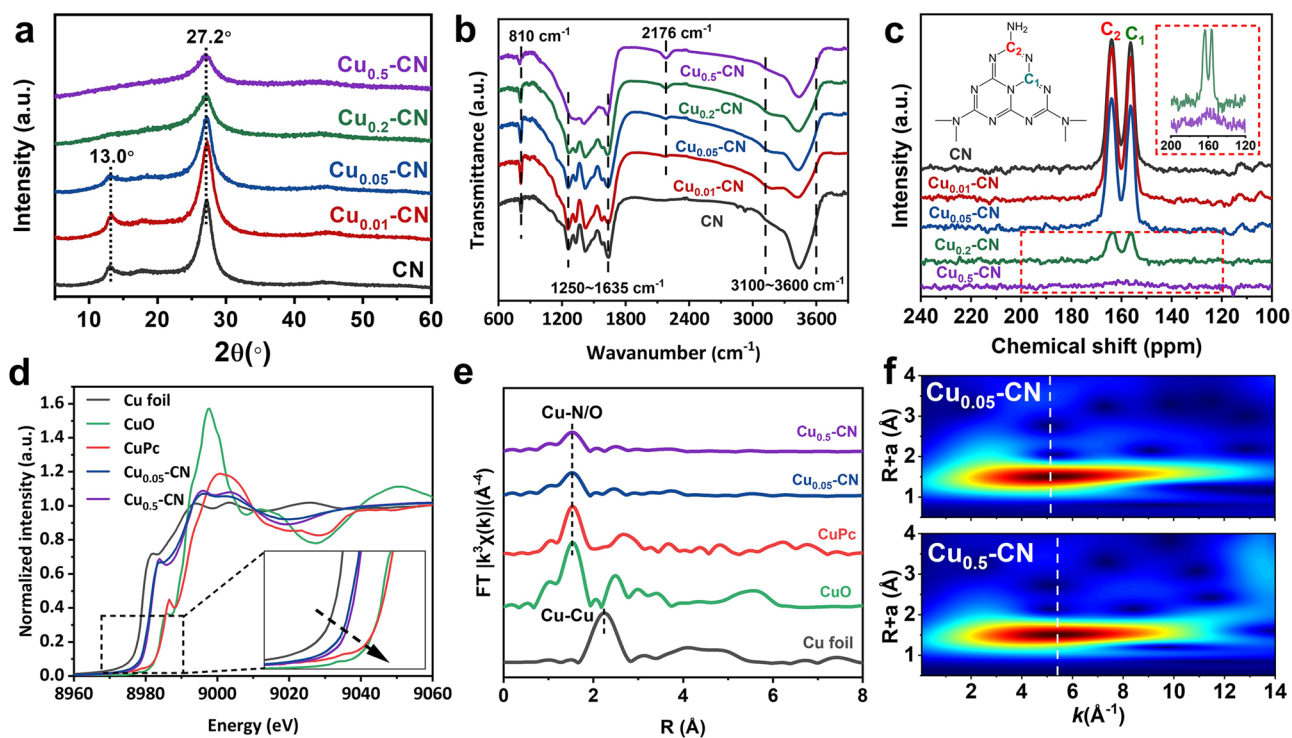
The XRD patterns of the CN, the  $\text{Cu}_{0.01}\text{-CN}$ , and the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts exhibit the (100) and (002) peaks of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  appeared at  $13.0^\circ$  and  $27.2^\circ$ , corresponding to the repeating in-plane melem units and the stacking of graphite-like layer structure, respectively (Fig. 2a) [28]. For the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts, the intensity of (002) peak decreased and the (100) peak disappeared, indicating the loss of periodical repeatability of the in-plane melem units in these two catalysts. No phase of Cu species appeared in all catalysts, which excludes the existence of crystalline Cu species and indicates the likely chemical coordination of Cu into the  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  host in the form of  $\text{Cu-N}_y$  structure ( $y$  is the coordinated N number) [28]. The FTIR spectra of all



**Fig. 1** **a** Schematic illustration of the synthesis of  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts and the optical photographs of the as-synthesized  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts. **b** HAADF-STEM image, **c** aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM image, and **d** EDS mapping of  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts

samples exhibit a broad peak between  $3100$  and  $3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$  that can be attributed to N–H and O–H stretching [44, 45], while the weak peaks appear at  $\sim 2176\text{ cm}^{-1}$  can be assigned to the stretching of triple  $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$  bond, which is considered as defects within  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  [46]. The increasing intensity of  $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$  peaks support the fact that the defect increases with increasing Cu content in  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts. The typical bands of the stretching vibrations of C–N heterocycles and breathing mode of *s*-triazine units appears in at  $\sim 1250\text{--}1635$  and at  $\sim 810\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively [47–49]. Notably, at low Cu loads, these two characteristic FTIR spectra of the  $\text{Cu}_{0.01}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts are almost identical with that of the pure  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  (Fig. 2b), indicating the well-preserved  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  frameworks. On the contrary, these characteristic bands are significantly weakened in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts, indicating the high Cu loads in the catalysts can partially damage of the C–N heterocyclic structure [50]. To further confirm the local structures of the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts,

solid-state  $^{13}\text{C}$  nuclear magnetic resonance ( $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR) spectra were carried out on the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  with various Cu contents (Fig. 2c). Two distinct peaks at chemical shift of  $156.3$  and  $164.0$  ppm, which are assigned to the C atoms connected to different N atoms in C–N heterocycle [49], are observed in the CN,  $\text{Cu}_{0.01}\text{-CN}$ , and  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  samples, indicating the skeleton structure of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  are well retained and the introduced Cu atoms are likely to incorporate into the nitrogen cavities among C–N heterocyclic structures in these samples. However, the two peaks dramatically attenuate for the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts, demonstrating the destruction of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  framework by increasing  $\text{Cu}(\text{acac})_2$  content in the preparation. Obviously, the XRD, FTIR, and  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR results explicitly suggest that the basic structure units and framework of the  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  host are well retained for  $\text{Cu}_{0.01}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts with low Cu loads, which is likely associated with the preferential incorporation of isolated Cu atoms in the nitrogen cavities of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$



**Fig. 2** **a** XRD patterns of  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts. **b** FTIR spectra of  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts. **c** Solid-state  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra of  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts. **d** Cu K-edge XANES spectra of Cu foil,  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$ ,  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$ , CuPc, and CuO samples. **e** Fourier transform (FT) EXAFS spectra of Cu K-edge of Cu foil,  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$ ,  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$ , CuPc, and CuO samples. **f** Wavelet transform (WT) of  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts

with Cu–N structures. On the other hand, the destructed C–N heterocycles and g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  framework of  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts indicate the changed atomic coordination at relatively high Cu loads.

To get a clearer understanding on the chemical states and coordination of Cu atoms in the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts, XAFS measurements were taken together with Cu foil, copper (II) phthalocyanine (CuPc), and CuO as references. As illustrated by the X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) in Fig. 2d, the positions of Cu K-edge for the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts are close, which are located between the Cu K-edge edges of Cu foil and CuO. The average oxidation states of Cu in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts are found to be close to +1 by fitting (Fig. S7) [51]. The Fourier transformed extended EXAFS spectra with  $k^3$ -weight of  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$ ,  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$ , and the references are depicted in Fig. 2e. It is found that the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts exhibited only one dominating peak around  $1.53 \text{ \AA}$ , which could be assigned to the scattering of either Cu–N or Cu–O coordination [24]. As references, CuO shows a main peak attributed to Cu–O at  $1.53 \text{ \AA}$  while the Cu–Cu coordination in Cu foil

is at  $2.24 \text{ \AA}$ . These results further verify that no Cu–Cu interaction existed but only the isolated Cu atoms in the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts, even for  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  with high Cu loads. Notably, the  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalyst exhibited a lower intensity at  $1.53 \text{ \AA}$  than that of the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalyst, suggesting a possible different coordination environment achieved at higher Cu contents [52, 53]. Due to the great resolution in both  $k$  and  $R$  spaces, the wavelet transform of Cu K-edge EXAFS spectra were performed to investigate the atomic configuration of  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts (Fig. 2f). summits at  $5.2$  and  $5.4 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$  were identified for  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$ , respectively, in the  $k$  space. Although the wavelet transform of Cu K-edge EXAFS is unable to discriminate the N and O coordination completely [24], these results confirm the coordination environment of the Cu single atoms in  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  can be varied as the variation of Cu loading amounts.

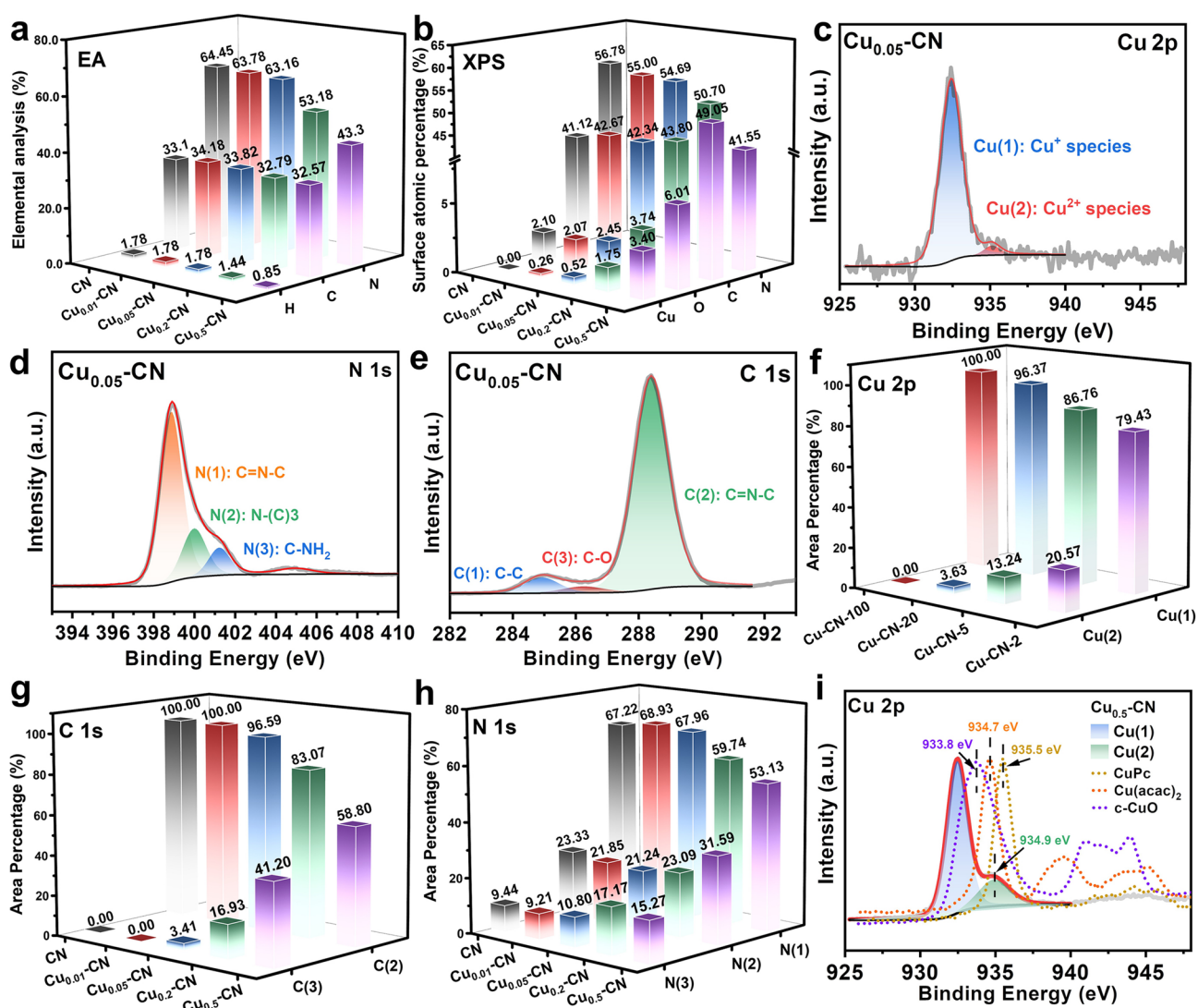
The composition, valence state, and detailed structural and binding information of the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts were further investigated by various characterizations. To verify the actual Cu contents in each catalyst, inductively coupled plasma–atomic emission spectrometry (ICP–AES) was



employed. It reveals that the actual Cu contents are proportional to the  $\text{Cu}(\text{acac})_2$  addition amounts, and the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalyst had a Cu content of 0.954 wt% (Table S1). The compositions of the CN and  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts were then probed by an elemental analysis (EA). As shown in Fig. 3a, the CN and  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts possess similar C content, while the N and H contents decrease distinctly for the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts. Similarly, the significant decrease of N content in these two catalysts was also observed by the atomic percentage determined by XPS (Figs. 3b and S8), accompanying with the increases in Cu and O contents. The composition variations indicate that the Cu atoms are

successfully introduced in  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  host accompanied by the introduction of O atoms, which is hypothesized to be caused by the use of oxygen-containing copper salt (copper acetylacetonate) in the polymerization process of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ .

The bonding and chemical states of the elements in CN and  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts are analyzed by the XPS spectra collected on the Cu, C, and N elements of all catalysts. The Cu 2p peaks can be fitted with two peaks (Figs. 3c and S9). The Cu(1) peak at about 932.4 eV is predominant in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.01}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts and can be ascribed to  $\text{Cu}^0$  or  $\text{Cu}^{1+}$  species, while the Cu(2) peak at about 935.0 eV ascribed to  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  species increases



**Fig. 3** **a** Elemental analysis of the catalysts. **b** Surface composition of the catalysts determined by XPS. **c–e** Peak fitting of Cu 2p, N 1s, and C 1s spectra of the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalyst. **f–h** Peak fitting summary of Cu 2p, C 1s, and N 1s spectra of the catalysts. **i** Comparison of Cu 2p spectra of the  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalyst with other cupric compounds



significantly in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts with higher Cu contents (Fig. S6d-e). Further, according to the XANES results and the Cu LMM Auger spectra of  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts, it can be concluded that Cu(1) peaks in  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  should be ascribed to  $\text{Cu}^{1+}$  species, as the overwhelming  $\text{Cu}^{1+}$  peaks and negligible  $\text{Cu}^0$  peaks in the Cu LMM spectra (Fig. S9f) [54]. The N 1s spectra can be deconvoluted into three states of N(1), N(2), and N(3) at about 398.7, 399.8, and 401.1 eV, respectively (Figs. 3d and S10), as well as a small peak at 404.9 eV, which corresponds to the  $\pi$ -excitation. The N(1), N(2), and N(3) peaks can be attributed to the  $sp^2$  hybridized nitrogen in C-N heterocycles ( $\text{C}=\text{N}-\text{C}$ ), the tertiary N ( $\text{N}(\text{C})_3$ ), and the N in amino functional groups ( $\text{C}-\text{NH}_2$ ), respectively [55]. The C 1s peaks can also be fitted with three peaks denoted as C(1), C(2), and C(3) at about 284.8, 288.3, and 286.6 eV, respectively (Figs. 3e and S11). The C(1) peak can be ascribed to graphitic carbon and used for calibration. The C(2) peak is the main component of C 1s spectra for all catalysts, which should be the C atoms in the C-N heterocycles ( $\text{C}=\text{N}-\text{C}$ ). The C(3) state gradually emerges and rises with the increase of Cu contents in  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts, which may attribute to the C in a C-O structure [55–57].

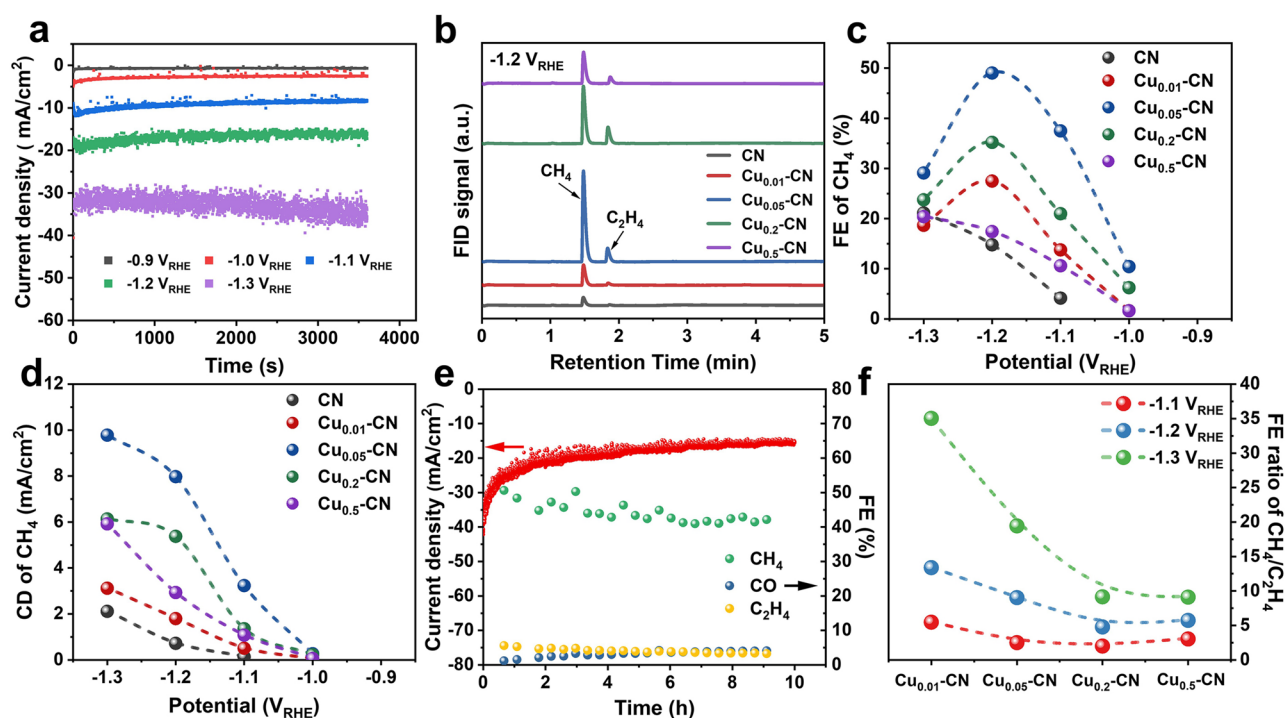
The fitting results of the Cu 2p, C 1s, and N 1s spectra are summarized in Fig. 3f-h. In accordance with the structural characterization of the catalysts in Fig. 2, the fitting results show that the species and ratio of C and N are almost unaffected for the  $\text{Cu}_{0.01}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts. Combined the results of XAFS measurements, it is reasonable that the isolated Cu atoms preferentially embed nitrogen cavities to form Cu-N coordination structures with little effects on the C-N heterocyclic structure in these two catalysts. However, with the increasing addition of  $\text{Cu}(\text{acac})_2$  in the preparation, the significantly reduced N(1) and C(2) peaks further confirm the destruction of the C-N heterocyclic structure of the  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  host in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts. Meanwhile, the concurrent increases of the Cu(2) species and the O atomic ratio for the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts imply the emerging  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  species is related to the increasing C-O structures, which is evidenced by increased C(3) peaks and the O 1s spectra (Figs. 3g and S12). Further, by comparing the Cu 2p spectra of the  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalyst with some references, including commercial CuO powder,  $\text{Cu}(\text{acac})_2$ , and CuPc, it is found that the binding energy of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  species in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalyst is close to  $\text{Cu}(\text{acac})_2$

(Fig. 3i), indicating the structure of the emerging  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  sites in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts are likely the O-coordinated structure [58]. Therefore, the possible evolution of the atomic configurations of the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts can be drawn from the above analysis. In the  $\text{Cu}_{0.01}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts, the atomic Cu sites predominantly embed in the nitrogen cavities of the  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  host, forming Cu-N coordination without affecting its framework structure. However, in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{-CN}$  and  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{-CN}$  catalysts, the O-coordinated Cu species emerge substantially accompanied with the partial destruction of the C-N heterocycles and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  framework.

### 3.2 Catalytic Performance of $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$

The  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  performance of the CN and  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts was evaluated in a H-cell with 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  as the electrolyte. The potential dependent FE of different products on the CN and  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts was collected by a chronoamperometry test of 1 h in the potential range from -0.9 to -1.3  $\text{V}_{\text{RHE}}$  (Fig. 4a). The gaseous products account for the major reduction products on all catalysts (Figs. 4b and S13-S14). Compared with the pristine  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts exhibited higher activity and selectivity toward  $\text{CH}_4$  in the tested potential range. The highest FE of 49.04% at -1.2  $\text{V}_{\text{RHE}}$  for  $\text{CH}_4$  reached on the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalyst with a  $\text{CH}_4$  current density of 7.97  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$ , which further increased to 9.78  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$  at -1.3  $\text{V}_{\text{RHE}}$  (Fig. 4c-d). Although the CN catalyst also exhibits certain activity toward  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  in the potential range, it only shows quite low  $\text{CH}_4$  activity and selectivity with a maximum  $\text{CH}_4$  current density of 2.11  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$  at -1.3  $\text{V}_{\text{RHE}}$ . Clearly, the enhanced  $\text{CH}_4$  production obtained on the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  catalysts indicates the incorporated Cu sites in these catalysts are active sites for  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  catalysis. Probably contributed by the stable configuration of single Cu atoms in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts (Fig. S15), the catalytic stability up to 10 h of continuous  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  test was performed on the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalyst at -1.2  $\text{V}_{\text{RHE}}$ , which showed a slight decrease within the stability test (Fig. 4e).

To gain further insight into the improved  $\text{CH}_4$  activity and selectivity and elucidate the role the atomic Cu sites in the  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalyst, temperature-programmed CO desorption and control experiments were carried out. The larger desorption peak area and stronger chemisorption of CO on



**Fig. 4** CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of CN and Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts. **a** Typical chronoamperometry curves at different potentials on Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalysts. **b** FID signals of GC showing the main gaseous CO<sub>2</sub>RR products of CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> on Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts. **c** FE of CH<sub>4</sub> at different potentials on Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts. **d** Current density (CD) of CH<sub>4</sub> at different potentials on Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts. **e** Catalytic stability of Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst during 10 h of CO<sub>2</sub>RR test at -1.2 V<sub>RHE</sub>. **f** FE ratio of CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> on Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts at different potentials

the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst than CN indicate the increased CO binding sites and enhanced CO binding strength resulted by Cu incorporation (Fig. S16a) [36]. To probe the role of the single Cu atoms for CO<sub>2</sub>RR-to-CH<sub>4</sub>, the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst was washed by 1.0 M nitric acid for 12 h at room temperature to obtain 0.05-CN sample and the almost all of the Cu metal was removed by acid treatment (Table S1). Compared with the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst, the 0.05-CN catalyst exhibits much lower current density without CH<sub>4</sub> product at -1.2 V<sub>RHE</sub> (Fig. S16b-c). In addition, the effect of carbon black in the preparation of catalysts ink on the CO<sub>2</sub>RR is also excluded (Fig. S16d). Therefore, it is believed that the high CO<sub>2</sub>RR-to-CH<sub>4</sub> activity and selectivity on the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst are originated from the single Cu sites embedded into the nitrogen cavities in the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> host. However, it should be noted that the semiconductor characteristic of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> host lead to the poor charge transfer ability of the Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts, although the charge transfer resistance of CN can be reduced slightly by Cu doping (Fig. S17) [30]. Therefore, improving the conductivity may be a promising

for further boosting the CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts.

### 3.3 Discussions

It has been reported that the isolated Cu sites tended to convert CO<sub>2</sub> into C<sub>1</sub> products in CO<sub>2</sub>RR, such as CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, and CH<sub>3</sub>OH [16, 19, 25, 59]. On the other hand, the C<sub>2+</sub> products could also be obtained on Cu single-atom catalysts if the atomically dispersed Cu reversibly transformed into clusters or nanoparticles under reaction conditions or additional active centers acted collaboratively with single Cu sites [21, 22]. Furthermore, the density of Cu sites and their distance played a key role in the selectivity between the CH<sub>4</sub> and the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> products and the ratio of CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> as the adjacent Cu-N<sub>2</sub> sites enabled the C-C coupling, which is prerequisite for C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> formation [25]. Given two types of controllable and adjustable Cu sites in the Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts in this work, the FE ratios of CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> on

Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts are compared at different potentials. As shown in Fig. 4f, the FE ratio of CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> increased with the decrease of potentials for all catalysts. The Cu<sub>0.01</sub>-CN catalyst with the lowest Cu content and exclusive single-atom Cu sites shows the highest FE ratio of CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> of 35.03 at -1.3 V<sub>RHE</sub>. Such high FE ratio of CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> outperforms most reported results (Fig. S18), which is suggested to ascribed to the highly selective toward CH<sub>4</sub> of the single Cu atomic sites in nitrogen cavities and the long distance between these sites of the Cu<sub>0.01</sub>-CN catalyst with low Cu load. The Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst shows a CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> FE ratio of 9.03 at -1.2 V<sub>RHE</sub>, at which the highest FE of CH<sub>4</sub> is achieved. The decreased CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> FE ratio on the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst is hypothesized to be resulted from the shortened distance between single Cu atoms at increasing Cu loads and the small amount of Cu<sup>2+</sup> species in the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst [25]. Therefore, the high CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> FE ratio on the Cu<sub>0.01</sub>-CN catalyst and the outstanding CO<sub>2</sub>RR-to-CH<sub>4</sub> performance on the Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalyst support the hypothesis that the single Cu atoms embedded into the nitrogen cavities of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> host are active sites for CH<sub>4</sub> formation.

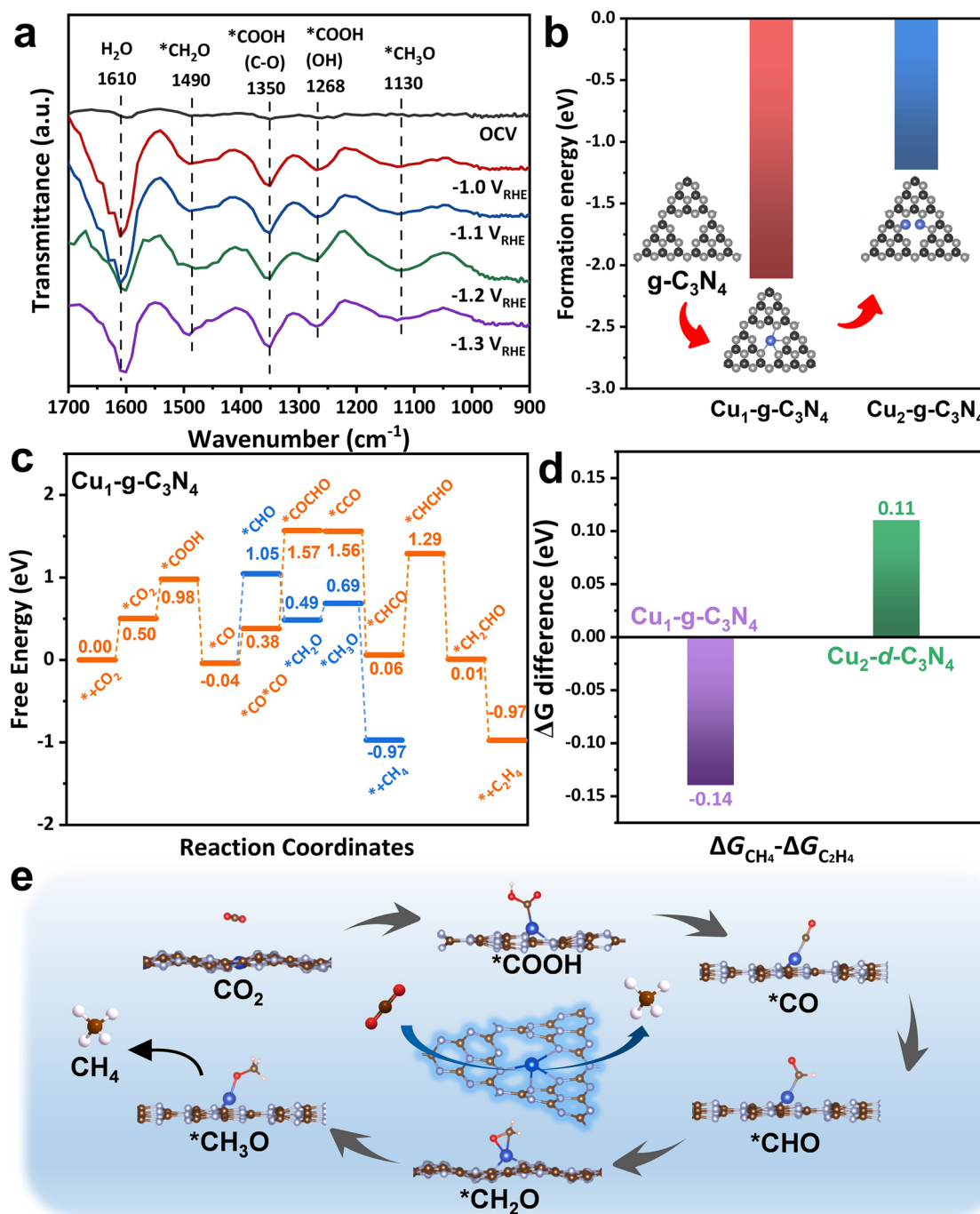
To explore the reaction mechanism of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR on Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts, in situ ATR-FTIR measurements were taken to identify the key intermediates during CO<sub>2</sub>RR in a homemade cell (Fig. S19). As shown in Fig. 5a, the peaks at 1268 and 1350 cm<sup>-1</sup> can be ascribed to the \*COOH intermediate, which is generally considered as the key intermediate for CO<sub>2</sub> electrochemical conversion to CO and further reduction [60]. Notably, the signals at 1130 and 1490 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which can be assigned to \*CH<sub>2</sub>O and \*CH<sub>3</sub>O, respectively [61], intensify as the potentials decreased from -1.0 V<sub>RHE</sub> to -1.2 V<sub>RHE</sub>. Therefore, the formation of CH<sub>4</sub> on Cu<sub>0.2</sub>-CN catalysts is likely through the proton–electron transfer of \*COOH, \*CO, \*CHO, \*CH<sub>2</sub>O, and \*CH<sub>3</sub>O in succession [60, 62].

To gain a comprehensive insight into the formation of atomic Cu sites and the structure–activity relationship of Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts, DFT calculations were then performed. Previously, both experimental and theoretical studies have demonstrated that the nitrogen cavity consists of six nitrogen atoms in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, which is the prevailing and stable structure for accommodating single metal atoms [36, 63]. The calculation also shows that the formation energy of a Cu atom incorporated in one nitrogen cavity of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Cu<sub>1</sub>-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) is -2.11 eV (Fig. 5b),

which is far less than that for forming two Cu atoms into one cavity (Cu<sub>2</sub>-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>). Furthermore, the experimental EXAFS spectrum can be fitted with great accuracy using Cu<sub>1</sub>-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> model, giving the average bond length R of 1.92 Å and the coordination number N of about 3.3 for Cu–N bond (Fig. S20 and Table S2). The optimized structure shows that the incorporated Cu atom coordinates with four N atoms in the nitrogen cavities and the charge transfer occurs from Cu to N atoms (Fig. S21). The calculated free energy profile demonstrates that the rate determining step (RDS) for the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CH<sub>4</sub> is \*CO → \*CHO with a ΔG of 1.09 eV on the Cu<sub>1</sub>-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> single active site, which is about 0.14 eV lower than the ΔG of RDS of the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> pathway (Fig. 5c). Therefore, it is more energy favorable to form CH<sub>4</sub> rather than other hydrocarbons on single Cu atomic sites hosted by g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. Based on the experimental observation, which shows the destructed g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> structure and the increasing O-coordinated Cu atoms in the Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts with increasing Cu loads, the model of Cu<sub>2</sub>-d-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> consisted of adjacent Cu sites and damaged C–N heterocycles is built (Fig. S22). The free energy barrier of the RDS for the CH<sub>4</sub> pathway is 0.11 eV higher than that for the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> pathway on the dual-site Cu<sub>2</sub>-d-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. S23). According to the free energy differences between CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> pathways (Fig. 5d), it is concluded that the CH<sub>4</sub> pathway prevails over the C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> pathway on single Cu atomic sites in nitrogen cavities of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, while the trend reverses on dual Cu sites on destructed g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> host. Therefore, the emergence of adjacent O-coordinated Cu sites in the Cu<sub>x</sub>-CN catalysts with high Cu loads suppresses the CH<sub>4</sub> formation but facilitates the production of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, as observed in experiments. Based on the mechanism and theoretical study, the CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CH<sub>4</sub> pathway on the favorable Cu sites is proposed to proceed via the intermediates of \*COOH, \*CO, \*CHO, \*CH<sub>2</sub>O, and \*CH<sub>3</sub>O (Fig. 5e).

## 4 Conclusions

In this work, structurally stable single Cu atoms embedded in the nitrogen cavities of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> frameworks have been successfully synthesized with controlled configurations and chemical states to catalyze CO<sub>2</sub>RR for CH<sub>4</sub> production. High CH<sub>4</sub> activity and selectivity and high FE ratio of CH<sub>4</sub>/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> were achieved on the Cu<sub>0.01</sub>/Cu<sub>0.05</sub>-CN catalysts with



**Fig. 5** Mechanism and theoretical study. **a** In situ ATR-FTIR spectra of  $\text{Cu}_{0.05}\text{-CN}$  catalysts at decreasing potentials in a  $\text{CO}_2$ -saturated 0.1 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  electrolyte. **b** Calculated formation energies of single and dual Cu sites in the nitrogen cavity of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ . **c** Free energy diagram of  $\text{CO}_2$  to  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$  on  $\text{Cu}_1\text{-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ . **d** Difference of free energy barriers between  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$  pathways on  $\text{Cu}_1\text{-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and  $\text{Cu}_2\text{-d-C}_3\text{N}_4$ . **e** Proposed reaction pathway of  $\text{CH}_4$  formation on  $\text{Cu}_1\text{-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$

predominant single Cu atomic sites. The increase of Cu contents in the  $\text{Cu}_x\text{-CN}$  catalysts leads to the emerging of a second O-coordinated Cu sites accompanied with the structural destruction of  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  support, resulting in reduced  $\text{CH}_4$

activity and selectivity and thus decreased  $\text{CH}_4/\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$  ratio. This work provides a new strategy for constructing efficient single Cu atom catalysts for the conversion of  $\text{CO}_2$  to  $\text{CH}_4$  and delivers some insights into the understanding on the



regulation of Cu-based catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR to achieve desired selectivity and products.

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#### Declarations

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare no interest conflict. 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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