

Enhanced Cuprophilic Interactions in Crystalline Catalysts Facilitate the Highly Selective Electroreduction of CO₂ to CH₄Lei Zhang,⁺ Xiao-Xin Li,⁺ Zhong-Ling Lang,⁺ Yang Liu, Jiang Liu, Lin Yuan, Wan-Yue Lu, Yuan-Sheng Xia, Long-Zhang Dong, Da-Qiang Yuan, and Ya-Qian Lan*Cite This: *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 2021, 143, 3808–3816

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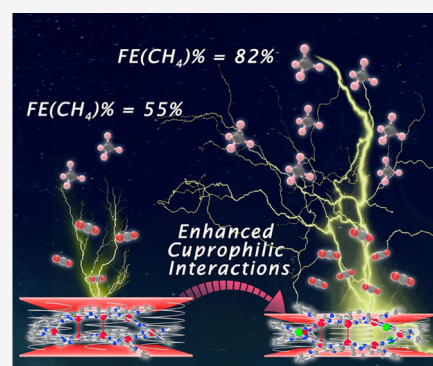


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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Cu(I)-based catalysts have proven to play an important role in the formation of specific hydrocarbon products from electrochemical carbon dioxide reduction reaction (CO₂RR). However, it is difficult to understand the effect of intrinsic cuprophilic interactions inside the Cu(I) catalysts on the electrocatalytic mechanism and performance. Herein, two stable copper(I)-based coordination polymer (NNU-32 and NNU-33(S)) catalysts are synthesized and integrated into a CO₂ flow cell electrolyzer, which exhibited very high selectivity for electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CH₄ conversion due to clearly inherent intramolecular cuprophilic interactions. Substitution of hydroxyl radicals for sulfate radicals during the electrocatalytic process results in an in situ dynamic crystal structure transition from NNU-33(S) to NNU-33(H), which further strengthens the cuprophilic interactions inside the catalyst structure. Consequently, NNU-33(H) with enhanced cuprophilic interactions shows an outstanding product (CH₄) selectivity of 82% at −0.9 V (vs reversible hydrogen electrode, $j = 391 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$), which represents the best crystalline catalyst for electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CH₄ conversion to date. Moreover, the detailed DFT calculations also prove that the cuprophilic interactions can effectively facilitate the electroreduction of CO₂ to CH₄ by decreasing the Gibbs free energy change of potential determining step (*H₂COOH → *OCH₂). Significantly, this work first explored the effect of intrinsic cuprophilic interactions of Cu(I)-based catalysts on the electrocatalytic performance of CO₂RR and provides an important case study for designing more stable and efficient crystalline catalysts to reduce CO₂ to high-value carbon products.



INTRODUCTION

Electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to highly valued fuels or chemicals has emerged as an important and efficient method, which is expected to reduce the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere and alleviate the energy crisis.^{1–7} In particular, the highly selective electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to hydrocarbon fuels, such as methane and ethylene, has received enough attention recently, because these hydrocarbon products have been widely used in human life or industry and occupied a dominant position.^{8–14} In recent years, Cu-based catalysts have been proved to have unique advantages in CO₂ electroreduction for they can reduce CO₂ to various products with high selectivity, including hydrocarbons, alcohols, etc.^{15–21} However, there is still a lack of research on the main factors affecting the high selective conversion of CO₂ to specific products, which will greatly limit the design and synthesis of more advanced electrocatalysts. From the previous work, the effects of crystal face,²² macroscopic morphology,²³ size,²⁴ valence state,^{25,26} and other factors^{27,28} of Cu-based catalysts on the activity and selectivity of CO₂RR have been carefully investigated. Especially, Cu(I)-based catalysts have received much attention for their outstanding performance on CO₂RR, which have studied the effect of grain boundaries on

selectivity of products at present.^{29,30} Nevertheless, it is very important but challenging to effectively stabilize the Cu(I) active site rather than be reduced to Cu(0) during the process of electrocatalytic CO₂RR. In this regard, recently, Sargent and co-workers constructed a series of boron-doped copper catalysts with stable oxidant state (~+0.25 to +0.78) and realized outstanding stability for ~40 h sustained CO₂RR to C₂ hydrocarbons.³¹ Similarly, effectively stabilizing the Cu(I) active sites in Cu-based electrocatalysts would also have an important effect on the durable conversion of CO₂ to specific products, although it has not been reported so far. To our knowledge, the materials containing strong cuprophilic interactions (with Cu–Cu distance in the range of 2.4–3.0 Å) are beneficial to stabilize Cu(I) ions and enhance the electronic conductivity.^{32,33} Thus, we think these materials with such advantages are proper candidates to construct

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electrocatalysts with stable Cu(I) catalytic sites and then study their impact on CO₂RR.

Coordination polymers are a kind of crystalline material composed of metal ions or clusters connected with organic ligands through coordination bonds whose well-defined single crystal structure can be accurate to the atomic level, and they are ideal catalyst models that can be designed and assembled reasonably according to specific structural requirements.^{34–37} These materials can also provide accurate structural information for the identification of catalytic active sites and the study of a catalytic reaction mechanism.^{38–41} In addition, assembling suitable metal ions and organic ligands can endow the compounds with excellent stability.^{42–44} Based on the above, the coordination polymer materials have great advantages in the design of the specific structure of catalysts for electrocatalytic CO₂RR.^{45–47} Therefore, in order to design and synthesize the above-mentioned catalysts with intramolecular cuprophilic interactions to study their effects on the electrocatalytic stability and performance, we hope to achieve this goal with the help of the structural designability of coordination polymers.

Taking into account the above considerations, two stable coordination polymers NNU-32 and NNU-33(S) (S = sulfate radical) were constructed by a rigid nitrogen-containing polydentate chelating ligand 2-(5-(3-(5-(pyridin-2-yl)-1H-1,2,4-triazol-3-yl)phenyl)-1H-1,2,4-triazol-3-yl) pyridine (H₂bptb) and Cu(I) ions. NNU-32 is an octanuclear Cu(I) cluster, and NNU-33(S) can be regarded as a two-dimensional compound with sql topology connected by NNU-32 clusters (as subunits) and Cu(I) ions (as linkers). Both NNU-32 and NNU-33(S) are crystallized with clear intramolecular cuprophilic interactions. We found that NNU-32 can be stable in 1 M KOH solution while NNU-33(S) was transferred to NNU-33(H) (H = hydroxyl radical) with anion exchange, which was proved by PXRD, XPS analysis, and DFT calculation. When utilized NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) as electrocatalysts, the products of CO₂RR were mainly CH₄ because of the contribution of cuprophilic interactions. The greatly enhanced cuprophilic interactions were observed in NNU-33(H) and endowed it with efficient performance of high selectivity for CO₂ to CH₄ electrocatalytic conversion with 82% faradic efficiency at −0.9 V vs RHE (*j* = 391 mA/cm²), which showed one of the best performance among reported Cu-based catalysts for electrocatalytic CO₂ to CH₄ conversion. The *in situ* OH[−] substitution for the inherent SO₄^{2−} in the molecule made NNU-33(H) have better adsorption capacity for CO₂ to further improve the CO₂RR performance. Importantly, the Cu(I) catalytic centers in NNU-33(H) were proved to be extremely stable under CO₂RR conditions by X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS), *in situ* Raman, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and *in situ* Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) characterizations and thus an outstanding electrocatalytic stability on CO₂-to-CH₄ reduction for at least 5 h. Based on experimental results, DFT calculations were carried out to prove that cuprophilic interactions indeed play an essential role in the CO₂RR to CH₄ process for lowering the free energy of potential determining step (*H₂COOH → *OCH₂). It is worth noting that our study is the first case to achieve electrocatalytic CO₂-to-CH₄ conversion with such high selectivity catalyzed by coordination polymer catalysts with well-defined and stable structures and explore the role of

cuprophilic interactions in electrochemical CO₂RR to a specific hydrocarbon product (CH₄).

RESULTS

Structure and Characterization of NNU-32 and NNU-33(S). Single crystal X-ray diffraction analysis revealed that NNU-32 crystallizes in triclinic space group *P*-1 with an asymmetric unit consisting of two octanuclear copper clusters and one DMF molecule (Figure S1). Each cluster unit contains eight Cu ions and four bptb^{2−} ligands (Figure 1a). The

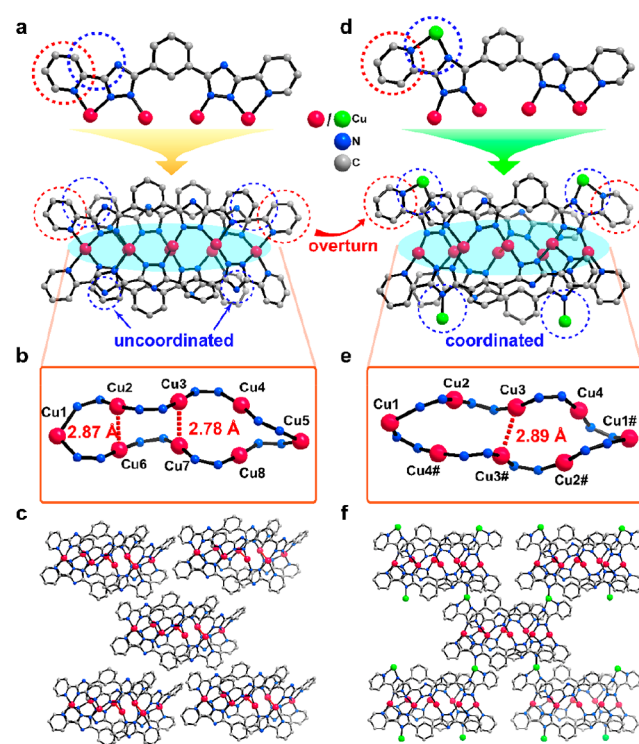


Figure 1. The crystal structures of NNU-32 and NNU-33(S): (a) structure of NNU-32, (b) coordination environment of Cu(I) ions in NNU-32, (c) arrangement of neighboring five {Cu₈} clusters, (d) subunit structure of NNU-33(S), (e) coordination environment of Cu(I) ions in subunit of NNU-33(S), and (f) {Cu₈} clusters connected with Cu(I) ions to form a single layer.

coordination environment of the four ligands is the same, of which two Cu ions are chelated by N from pyridine (dotted red circle in Figure 1a) and triazole, the other two Cu ions are coordinated with the adjacent nitrogen atom from triazole (Figure S2). All the N atoms in dotted blue circles are uncoordinated. The location of eight Cu ions in NNU-32 forms an ellipse and two cuprophilic interactions (Cu₂–Cu₆ and Cu₄–Cu₈) can be found due to the short distance (<3.0 Å) between three pairs of opposite Cu ions (Figure 1b and Figure S3). Due to the lack of linkers, the {Cu₈} clusters are independent of each other (Figure 1c).

NNU-33(S) crystallizes in tetragonal space group *P*₄2₁2 with an asymmetric unit containing five Cu ions, two deprotonated bptb^{2−} ligands, and 1/2 dissociative SO₄^{2−} ion (Figure S4). The subunit of NNU-33(S), an octanuclear copper cluster, has a similar architecture with NNU-32 (Figure 1d). The difference is that two of the terminal pyridine rings are overturned and chelated another Cu ion (dotted blue circles in Figure 1d and Figure S5) which coordinated with a N

atom from neighboring subunit. The coordination environment of Cu ions in the subunit of NNU-33(S) is almost the same as those in NNU-32 except that Cu₁ and Cu_{1#} of NNU-33(S) corresponding to Cu₁ and Cu₅ in NNU-32 are coordinated in CuN₃ environments rather than CuN₄ (Figure 1e and Figure S6). Cuprophilic interaction between Cu₃ and Cu_{3#} is determined for the appropriate distance (2.89 Å). Cu₅ in NNU-33(S) acts as a linker connecting two adjacent clusters coordinated with the pyridine N and two triazole in a triangular geometry, causing each subunit to connect with four other clusters to form a 2D layer (Figure 1f). Figure S7 shows the layer network stacking along the *a*, *b*, and *c*-axes. Besides, regarding the subunit cluster as a 4-connected node, the skeleton of NNU-33(S) features a topology with the Schläfli symbol of 4⁴ · 6², which reveals the topology of the sql code (Figure S8). The oxidation states of all the Cu ions are calculated to be Cu(I) from their coordination environment, which suggest the 2D layers are cationic frameworks with SO₄²⁻ as counterions.

Chemical Stability of NNU-32 and NNU-33(S). Phase purity and chemical stability of NNU-32 and NNU-33(S) were determined by analysis of powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns. The well-matched curves of simulated, experimental and after soaking NNU-32 sample in 1 M KOH solution suggested that NNU-32 can maintain its structure in alkaline conditions (Figure S9). Nevertheless, when leaving NNU-33(S) in 1 M KOH solution, some of the peaks of PXRD patterns were changed from the original curve over time (Figure 2a). It can be found that the peak originally located in 10.46° gradually shifted to the left along with the weakening of intensity and eventually disappearing after 24 h. Simultaneously, a new peak near 11° sprouted and the intensity kept increasing. The location of new peak was shifting to right slightly and finally ended at 11.24°. On the range of ~24–30°, two peaks at 26.88° and 27.58° were gradually fading and disappearing accompanied by a new peak arising at 26.01°. All the changes of PXRD patterns indicated the structure of NNU-33(S) had changed slightly and continually in 1 M KOH solution, while the generally similar curves can prove that the framework of NNU-33(S) was not dissociated. In order to get the final skeleton, we soaked NNU-33(S) single crystals in 1 M KOH and analyzed the crystal structure by single-crystal X-ray diffraction (SCXRD). SCXRD analysis revealed that single-crystal-to-single-crystal transformation indeed happened from NNU-33(S) to NNU-33(I) (I = intermediate state). The reason for calling it an intermediate state is that the simulated PXRD pattern of NNU-33(I) still has a slight difference to that after soaking in KOH solution (Figure S10). Furthermore, based on the initial structure of NNU-33(I), a refined model NNU-33(H) (H = hydroxyl) was obtained using density functional theory (DFT) by Materials Studio 9.0 version (DMol³ program). Le Bail fitting on the PXRD pattern using the EXPO-2014 program with *R_w* and *R_{wp}* values of 2.803% and 3.742% are evidence of the reliability of the computation result (Figure 2b). PXRD patterns compared the simulated and experimental NNU-33(S), NNU-33(S) after soaking in 1 M KOH, and simulated NNU-33(H) suggested the structure of NNU-33(H) is more reasonable to the real configuration. NNU-33(H) assumes the space group of *P*4₁2₁2 with *a* = *b* = 16.3355 Å, *c* = 31.5523 Å, and $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$. Compared with the original structure NNU-33(S), the subunit {Cu₈} cluster is more compressed. The height of the cluster was reduced from 7.77 to 6.72 Å (Figure 2c,d), resulting in the distance between

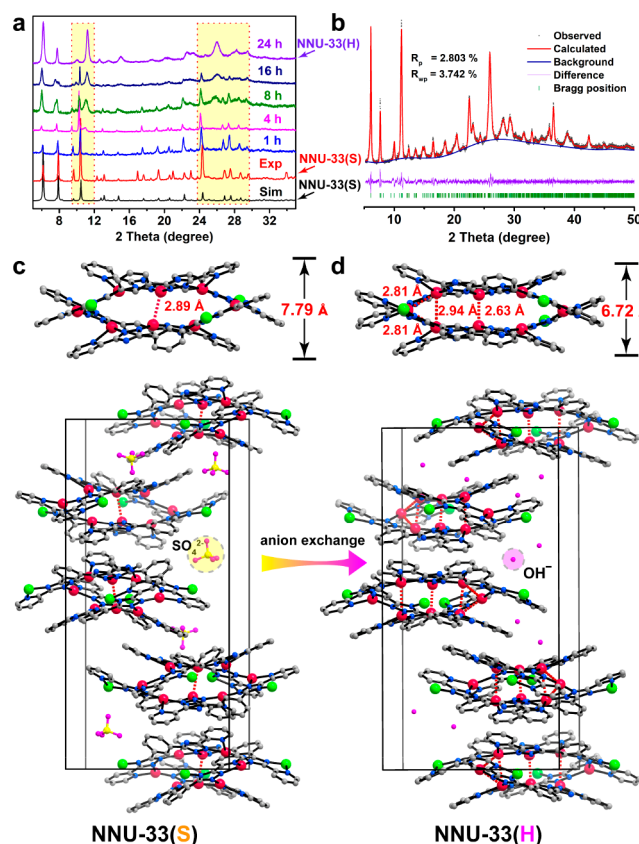


Figure 2. Dynamic transition of catalyst structure from NNU-33(S) to NNU-33(H): (a) PXRD patterns of soaking NNU-33(S) in 1 M KOH solution at different times, (b) PXRD patterns of simulated and observed NNU-33(H), and (c and d) structures of {Cu₈} clusters and unit cell in NNU-33(S) and NNU-33(H), respectively.

the middle pair of Cu ions (Cu₃–Cu_{3#}) decreasing from 2.89 to 2.63 Å (Figures S11–S14). In addition, the distances of Cu₁–Cu₂, Cu₁–Cu_{2#}, and Cu₂–Cu_{2#} are all close to less than 3 Å (2.81 Å, 2.81 Å, and 2.94 Å, respectively), which indicates the enhanced cuprophilic interactions in NNU-33(H) than NNU-33(S). From the view of the unit cell, the original SO₄²⁻ ions were exchanged with OH⁻ (Figure 2c,d). In contrast to NNU-33(I) (*a* = *b* = 16.441 Å, *c* = 31.090 Å), the length of the *c* axis of NNU-33(H) shows an increase (Table S4). It indicates that the basal spacing of NNU-33(H) is wider than NNU-33(I) and suggests that the interlayer distances of NNU-33(H) are expanded along with structural transformation, which might result in more CO₂ adsorption and catalytic sites explosion during the electrochemical CO₂RR progress.

Performance of Electrocatalytic CO₂ Reduction. Both NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) can keep stable in 1 M KOH solution, so we utilized them as electrode materials and tested their performance of CO₂RR. All electrochemical tests were evaluated in a custom three-channel flow cell. The Faradaic efficiency (FE) of electrocatalytic gaseous products were evaluated by gas chromatography (GC), and the liquid products were evaluated by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and ion chromatography (IC). Before CO₂RR electrochemical experiments were carried out, linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves of NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) were measured under CO₂ and Ar streams, respectively, across 1 M KOH interface at a wide potential range from –0.5 V to –1.0 V (vs RHE, all the following potentials are on the RHE scale).

As shown in Figure S17, both of the two samples delivered higher current densities and lower onset potential in CO₂ flow than that in Ar, suggesting the possibility of CO₂ electroreduction. Meanwhile, the current density of NNU-33(H) was always higher than that of NNU-32, which revealed that NNU-33(H) has higher activity for the CO₂RR. Then the current outlines along with NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) under the fairly wide range of potentials were measured and shown in Figure S18. It revealed that both of NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) can maintain a stable current from −0.5 V to −1.0 V. Compared with NNU-32 constituted by isolated clusters, NNU-33(H) with a two-dimensional framework showed higher current densities at each potential, signifying that NNU-33(H) is more conducive for electron transfer. Moreover, the values of electrochemical double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) were calculated from cyclic voltammograms (CV) curves to evaluate the electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) of NNU-32 and NNU-33(H).⁴⁸ The C_{dl} value of NNU-33(H) was calculated to be 3.94 mF cm^{−2}, which is much higher than that of NNU-32 (2.47 mF cm^{−2}) (Figures S19 and 20). It suggested that NNU-33(H) can provide more catalytic sites to contact the electrolyte, leading to increase the reaction speed during the electrocatalytic process.

The electrochemical reduction of CO₂ performance in NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) was measured in 1 M KOH aqueous electrolyte (the detailed values of faradaic efficiency of each product using NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) as electrocatalysts are listed in Tables S6 and S7, respectively). As shown in Figure S21a, as for the catalytic selectivity toward the formation of different products over NNU-32 samples, the CO₂ electroreduction experiments were performed at different potentials (−0.5 to −1.0 V), and the corresponding product distribution is illustrated. It revealed that the products were mainly H₂, CO, CH₄, and C₂H₄, while the FE_{HCOO}[−] were below 2% at all potentials (Table S6). NNU-32 gave the highest FE_{CO} (44.46%) at −0.5 V and with a current density of 28.54 mA cm^{−2}, along with a FE_{H₂} of 50.78%. Little amounts of CH₄ (1.14%), C₂H₄ (3.92%), and HCOO[−] (0.88%) were also detected. When the potentials increased to −0.6 V (j = 32.07 mA cm^{−2}) and −0.7 V (j = 47.83 mA cm^{−2}), the FE_{H₂} were decreased to 45.72% and 35.21%, respectively. Also, the FE_{CO} were decreased to 42.02% (−0.6 V) and 33.53% (−0.7 V), which showed that H₂ and CO were the main products at applied potentials of ≤ −0.7 V. Nonetheless, the FE_{CH₄} and FE_{C₂H₄} kept increasing from 1.14% to 23.11% and 3.92% to 6.16% with the applied potentials increasing from −0.5 V to −0.7 V. As the potential applied to higher than −0.8 V, the main electroreduction products tended to be CH₄. It exhibited the highest FE_{CH₄} that was 55.1% at −1.0 V (j = 384.16 mA cm^{−2}), and the corresponding FE_{CO} was decreased to 1.57% with a FE_{H₂} of 40.41%. The FE_{HER}, FE_{CO₂RR}, and FE_{CH₄} at each potential are summarized in Figure S21b. The faradaic efficiency of hydrogen as the competitive product along with NNU-32 as the electrocatalyst were above 30% at all the potentials from −0.5 V to −1.0 V. The highest FE_{CO₂RR} was 63.93% at −0.8 V. It can be found when the potential exceeded −0.7 V, CH₄ was the main product of CO₂RR.

In contrast, when the catalyst was changed into NNU-33(H), as shown in Figure 3a, under the same sample density of 1 mg cm^{−2}, CO was also the primary reduction product with FE values of about 64.46% and 58.41% along with FE_{H₂} of 30.78% and 29.32% at potentials at −0.5 V (j = 60.58 mA cm^{−2}) and −0.6 V (j = 102.67 mA cm^{−2}), respectively. The

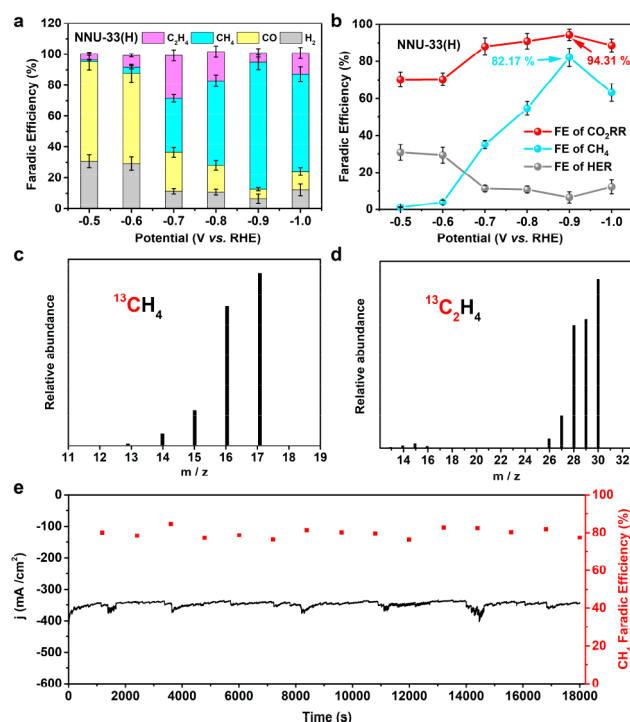


Figure 3. Electrocatalytic performances of NNU-33(H): (a) faradaic efficiency (FE) of H₂, CO, CH₄, and C₂H₄ products with NNU-33(H) as electrocatalyst; (b) comparison of FE for HER, total CO₂RR, and CH₄ conversion catalyzed by NNU-33(H); (c and d) mass spectra extracted from GC-MS analysis of CH₄ and C₂H₄ product from ¹³CO₂ reduction; (e) current profile and FEs of CH₄ at a constant voltage of −0.9 V vs RHE.

faradaic efficiencies of CH₄ and C₂H₄ were all less than 8%. Specifically, NNU-33(H) gave the highest FE_{C₂H₄} value (27.71%) at −0.7 V (j = 176.08 mA cm^{−2}). The FE_{H₂} and FE_{CO} decreased to 11.34% and 25.1% with FE_{CH₄} increasing to 35.1%. With the potential continuously increasing, CH₄ became the dominant competitive advantage over other carbon products evolution. Only 6.58% of FE_{H₂}, 6.1% FE_{CO}, and 6.04% of FE_{C₂H₄} were detected at −0.9 V. The highest FE_{CH₄} was determined to be 82.17 (j = 391.79 mA cm^{−2}), and the total FE_{CO₂RR} was up to 94.31% (Figure 3b), which is the first case to achieve electrochemical CO₂RR to CH₄ with such high selectivity along with a coordination polymer as the catalyst and shows the one of the best performances of electroreduction from CO₂ to CH₄ among Cu-based catalysts^{8,9,22,23,29,49–53} (Table S8). When the applied potential reached to −1.0 V, the FE_{CH₄} was reduced to 63.19% while the FE_{H₂} increased to 12.24%, which suggested the most appropriate applied potential of NNU-33(H) is −0.9 V. In addition, the FE_{HCOO}[−] remained below 1% at the applied potentials from −0.5 V to −0.7 V and less than 0.01% at −0.8 V to −1 V (Table S7). It is worth noting that the FE_{CO₂RR} values of NNU-33(H) kept above 69% and higher than those of NNU-32 at all the potentials from −0.5 V to −1.0 V. Importantly, isotope labeling experiment conducted under a ¹³CO₂ atmosphere revealed that all the carbon products were converted from CO₂ (Figure 3c,d and Figure S24). Catalytic stability for selective CO₂ reduction (into CH₄) was also evaluated in Figure 3e through monitoring variations in FE_{CH₄} at intervals. The current density of NNU-33(H) maintained stable approximately j = 350 mA cm^{−2} and FE_{CH₄}

values kept at about 75% all along in 5 h of continuous electroconversion at -0.9 V by detecting CH_4 every 20 min. It demonstrated that NNU-33(H) can keep both the activity and selectivity during the CO_2 reduction process.

DISCUSSION

It can be concluded from the above test performance that CH_4 was the main components of electrocatalytic CO_2RR along with NNU-32 (55.1%/58.7%, $\text{FE}_{\text{CH}_4}/\text{FE}_{\text{CO}_2\text{RR}}$ at -1.0 V) and NNU-33(S) (82.17%/94.31%, $\text{FE}_{\text{CH}_4}/\text{FE}_{\text{CO}_2\text{RR}}$ at -0.9 V) as electrocatalysts. The excellent performance of CO_2 -to- CH_4 conversion caught our attention. Through comparison, the PXRD patterns before and after the test, it can be found that NNU-32 could maintain its structure and NNU-33(S) indeed converted into NNU-33(H) (Figures S25 and S26). It is worth noting that no obvious peak corresponding to $\text{Cu}(0)$, Cu_2O , or CuO can be observed, which suggests the structure of catalysts can remain unchanged during the electrocatalytic process. The test of catalytic stability above revealed that NNU-33(H) was the real catalyst in CO_2RR . In order to further investigate the structural stability of these electrocatalysts and the oxidation state of $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ catalytic center during the CO_2RR process, XAS, *in situ* Raman, XPS, and *in situ* FTIR were performed. According to the results of Cu K-edge X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and corresponding absorption edge changes of NNU-33(H) before and after CO_2RR catalysis, the oxidant state of $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ in NNU-33(H) was found to be unchanged, which indicated that the $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ centers were not reduced to $\text{Cu}(0)$ particles or turned into Cu_2O or CuO (Figure 4a,b).³¹ The stable $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ oxidant state was also proved by the unchanged Cu LM2 XPS spectra before and after CO_2RR under ~ -0.5 to -1 V (vs RHE) (Figure S25). Furthermore, *in situ* Raman spectroscopy was examined on NNU-33(H) before and during the CO_2RR process at different applied potentials (~ -0.5 V to -1 V vs RHE) to demonstrate the structural stability and track whether there

was any Cu_2O or CuO generated on the surface of electrocatalysts. The unvaried Raman spectra before and under CO_2RR conditions suggested that NNU-33(H) can keep stable during CO_2RR (Figure 4c).⁵⁴ No peaks appeared in the range of $300\text{--}800\text{ cm}^{-1}$ indicated that no Cu_2O or CuO produced on the surface of NNU-33(H) under the reaction potentials (Figure 4d).^{55,56} In addition, the stability of electrocatalyst was also proved by *in situ* FTIR (Figure S26). All the evidence indicated that the structures and $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ oxidant state of electrocatalysts could keep stable under the CO_2 reduction conditions. Moreover, theoretical results, based on thermodynamic calculations and dynamic simulations, indicate the high stability of $\{\text{Cu}_8\}$ stems from the strong coordination of $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ sites, including the $\text{Cu}\text{--}\text{N}$ bonding and the cuprophilic interaction between the opposite $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ ions, which prevent the dissociation of catalysts and formation of Cu clusters under electroreduction conditions (Figures S27–S30 and Movie S1).

From the structure analysis, the catalytic sites between NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) are almost the same to be the three pairs of $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$ in the middle of $\{\text{Cu}_8\}$ clusters ($\text{Cu}_2\text{--}\text{Cu}_6$, $\text{Cu}_3\text{--}\text{Cu}_7$, and $\text{Cu}_4\text{--}\text{Cu}_8$ in NNU-32 and $\text{Cu}_2\text{--}\text{Cu}_{2\#}$, $\text{Cu}_3\text{--}\text{Cu}_{3\#}$, and $\text{Cu}_4\text{--}\text{Cu}_{4\#}$ in NNU-33(H)) due to the steric hindrance of the rest of the Cu ions (Cu_1 and Cu_5) to the attack of CO_2 . We found that both the valence (+1) and coordination environments of the corresponding catalytic sites in NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) are nearly identical (Figure 1b and Figure S14c) except the difference of cuprophilic interactions, which may be the core to explain the high selectivity of CH_4 product. In NNU-32, only two cuprophilic interactions are determined and measured as 2.87 and 2.78 Å. While in NNU-33(H), because of the deformation of $\{\text{Cu}_8\}$ cluster subunits, four cuprophilic interactions are measured as 2.81 Å, 2.81 Å, 2.94 Å, and 2.63 Å (4.06 Å, 3.70 Å, 2.87 Å, and 2.78 Å at the same location in NNU-32, respectively). Not only has the number of cuprophilic interactions doubled, it should be noted that the distances of Cu ions shorten obviously, which suggests the cuprophilic interactions in NNU-33(H) are more enhanced than NNU-32. Combined with the faradic efficiency of CH_4 during electrocatalytic CO_2RR of NNU-32 (55.1%) and NNU-33(H) (82.17%), a rough positive correlation between FE_{CH_4} and cuprophilic interactions is assumed: the existence of cuprophilic interactions can promote the conversion of CH_4 , and the more the quantity and the shorter the distance, the more CH_4 can be produced.

On the other hand, to prove the anion exchange from SO_4^{2-} to OH^- during CO_2RR process in 1 M KOH solution, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analyses were carried out to detect sulfur content in NNU-33(S) and NNU-33(H) (Figure S31). A peak located at 167.9 eV is corresponding to S of SO_4^{2-} in the obtained original structure, while it almost disappeared in NNU-33(H) suggesting only a trace S content remained in the skeleton. Furthermore, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) characterization of NNU-33(S) soaking in 1 M KOH aqueous solution for different times was measured (Figure S32). It was shown that the IR asymmetric stretching vibration of SO_4^{2-} of NNU-33(S) at 1140 cm^{-1} gradually disappeared over time, and no distinct peak could be found after 32 h. This evidence can prove that SO_4^{2-} in NNU-33(S) can be substituted by OH^- in alkaline conditions by electrification. Because the volume of OH^- is smaller than the outgoing SO_4^{2-} , the distance between the two adjacent layers shrinks from 8.438 to 7.773 Å. Nonetheless, combined with

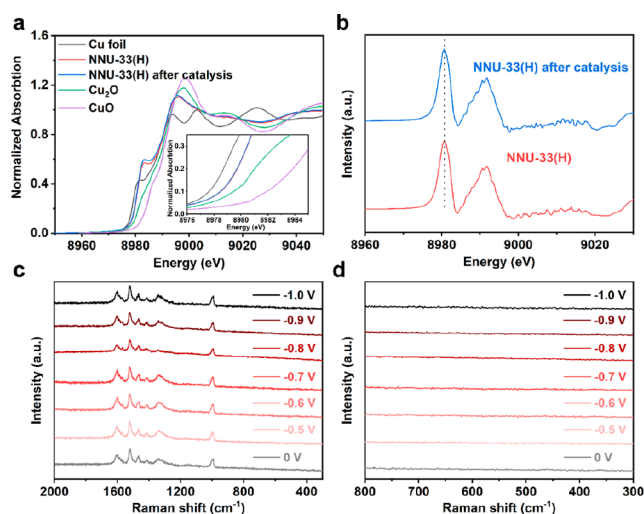


Figure 4. Stability of NNU-33(H) during the CO_2RR process: (a) Cu K-edge XANES spectra of NNU-33(H) before and after CO_2RR catalysis, (b) absorption edge changes of NNU-33(H) before and after CO_2RR catalysis. The curves were determined by the first derivatives of the Cu K-edge XANES spectra, (c) *in situ* Raman spectra from 300 to 2000 cm^{-1} before and under CO_2RR potentials, and (d) magnified *in situ* Raman spectra from 300 to 800 cm^{-1} to detect the formation of Cu_2O or CuO .

changes in the skeleton, the void volume of NNU-33(H) becomes larger than NNU-33(S) due to the formation of narrow pores along the *a* and *b* axes. PLATON analysis revealed that the free volume proportion of NNU-33(H) is 17.4% (1459.7 Å³ out of the 8404.0 Å³ unit cell volume), which can facilitate rapid gas transport across the electrode–electrolyte interface at high current densities. In addition, due to the hydroxide being introduced, NNU-33(H) displays a far greater performance on CO₂ adsorption (26.918 cm³ g^{−1}) than original NNU-33(S) (4.249 cm³ g^{−1}) and NNU-32 (3.081 cm³ g^{−1}) at 298 K (Figures S33 and S34), which is more conducive to CO₂RR.

DFT CALCULATIONS

In both NNU-32 and NNU-33(H), the up–down Cu(I)–Cu(I) distances located in a range of 2.78–2.94 Å, which are a little larger than twice the covalent radius of Cu (2.34 Å) but significantly shorter than twice its van der Waals radius (5.76 Å). This suggests a cuprophilic interaction may exist in the crystal, which may induce a remarkable influence on its catalytic activity and efficiency. To characterize the nature of those Cu(I)–Cu(I) interactions and reveal their role in the catalytic process, topological analysis of the electron density within the quantum theory of atoms in molecules (QTAIM) was performed for a {Cu₈} cluster model at the M06/6-31G** (C, N, O, H) and LANL2D(Cu)/PCM levels.^{57–61} This theory establishes that a chemical bond exists if a line of a locally maximum electron density links two neighboring atoms and also if along that line there is a bond critical point (BCP). As the green ball representation in Figure 5a, all the intuitively

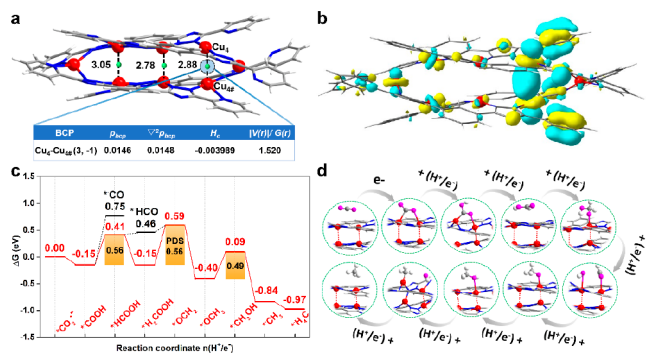


Figure 5. Cu(I)–Cu(I) bond interaction and DFT computed CO₂RR energy profile: (a) side view of the DFT optimized {Cu₈} cluster model taken from NNU-33(H) and the corresponding Cu(I)–Cu(I) distances (Å); bond critical points (BCP) are labeled in green; electron densities ρ [e Å^{−3}], its Laplacian $\nabla^2\rho$ [e Å^{−5}], total energy density (H_c), and $|V(r)|/G(r)$ ratio at the BCP between Cu₄ and Cu_{4#}. (b) Relevant molecular orbitals involved in the Cu₄–Cu_{4#} interaction. (c and d) Calculated free energy diagram and the corresponding intermediates for CO₂ electrocatalytic reduction to CH₄ on the Cu₈ model catalyst.

expected bonds between the up and down Cu(I) ions are characterized by such BCPs. However, the electron density (ρ) at the BCP between Cu₄ and Cu_{4#} is 0.0146 e Å^{−3} (taking Cu₄–Cu_{4#} as an example), significantly lower than a general covalent-bond, such as C–C (1.698 e Å^{−3}). A comprehensive evaluation of $\nabla^2\rho_{\text{bcp}} > 0$, $H_c < 0$, and $1 < |V(r)|/G(r) < 2$ at this BCP indicates the Cu₄–Cu_{4#} interaction is an “intermediate interaction” that should be termed as partially covalent and partially electrostatic. In addition, the molecular

orbital character by overlapping of Cu (3d_z) and Cu (3d_z) orbitals shown in Figure 5b also emphasized the donation nature of the Cu–Cu bond.

After confirming the Cu(I)–Cu(I) interactions in the crystal, we then paid attention to the detailed pathways for CO₂ reduction to reflect the role of the Cu–Cu interaction in the electrocatalytic procedure. Under electrochemical condition, CO₂ is generally fixed and was reduced stepwise to different products depending on the nature of the catalysts. As seen in Figure 5c,d, the dominant intermediates and energies involved in each elementary step are summarized. The *CO₂ precursor is preferred to form on the Cu(I) with adsorption free energy of 0.27 eV in a line mode. The first elementary step of CO₂RR is the hydrogenation of CO₂ by adding of a proton and extracting an electron from the electrode to form *COOH (* indicates the catalyst surface). However, this process is calculated to experience an extreme high energy of ~1.00 eV, which may lead the rest steps to stand in a high energy level. Instead, the CO₂ could experience an electron transfer initially to form the *CO₂^{•−} anion radical, and the originally linear structure of CO₂ is regulated into a bent mode. Once CO₂^{•−} is formed, the subsequent H⁺/e[−] addition to form COOH* is thermodynamic with much feasibility with the Gibbs free energy change of −0.15 eV and significantly more promoted than the direct H⁺/e[−] addition on CO₂ mediated by the preliminary catalyst. The second H⁺/e[−] hydrogenation occurred alternatively on O and C of *COOH to form *HCOOH and *CO, respectively. The formation of *HCOOH (0.56 eV) is thermodynamically easier than CO* (0.90 eV), supporting a relatively less selectivity for formation of CO. The *HCOOH intermediate is then further stepwise reduced to *H₂COOH, *OCH₂, *OCH₃, *CH₃OH, *CH₃, and *CH₄ with a corresponding free energy change of −0.55, 0.74, −0.99, 0.49, −0.93, and −0.13 eV. Looking at the overall reaction network, we can obtain the fourth hydrogenation step, namely, *H₂COOH → *OCH₂, suffering the highest free energy change step ($\Delta G = 0.74$ eV). In other words, this step is recognized as the potential determining step (PDS) for CO₂RR to generate CH₄ on the NNU-32 and NNU-33(H). However, the PDS process is significantly limited ($\Delta G = 1.11$ eV) when we removed the Cu(I)–Cu(I) interaction by taking half of the model into account (Figure S35). This result confirms that the internal Cu–Cu interaction plays an essential role in the CO₂RR process.

CONCLUSION

In summary, we have synthesized two stable Cu(I)-based coordination polymer electrocatalysts (NNU-32 and NNU-33(H)) with cuprophilic interactions and explored their performance of electrocatalytic CO₂RR in a flow-cell electrolyzer, which showed excellent abilities of CO₂-to-CH₄ conversion with high selectivity (82% at −0.9 V vs RHE catalyzed by NNU-33(H)) due to the existence of cuprophilic interactions. Because of the in situ dynamic crystal structure transition from NNU-33(S) to NNU-33(H) with substitution of hydroxyl radicals for sulfate radicals, it led to obviously enhanced cuprophilic interactions and the ability of CO₂ adsorption of NNU-33(H), which resulted in such outstanding performance of selective CO₂-to-CH₄ electrocatalysis together. The systematic study of NNU-32 and NNU-33(H) revealed that cuprophilic interactions played a crucial role for the generation of CH₄, and the selectivity of CH₄ depends on the quantity and distance of cuprophilic interactions. Briefly,

cuprophilic interactions endow the electrocatalysts with the ability to catalyze CO₂ to CH₄ selectively, and more quantities of cuprophilic interactions and shorter Cu(I)–Cu(I) distance can improve the selectivity of CH₄ formation. Specially, DFT calculation proved that the inherent cuprophilic interactions reliably accelerate the conversion efficiency of CO₂ to CH₄ by decreasing the free energy of potential determining step (*H₂COOH → *OCH₂) for CO₂RR to generate CH₄. It is also important that the stable Cu(I) active sites endowed NNU-33(H) with good catalytic durability for at least 5 h. This work is the first time to discover the effect of the important structural information in Cu(I)-based catalysts on the selective CO₂-to-CH₄ conversion in electrocatalytic CO₂RR and establish an apparent and concrete structure–property relationship of cuprophilic interactions and electroreduction of CO₂ to CH₄, which opens great perspectives in designing novel and efficient Cu-based CO₂RR electrocatalysts.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

■ Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.0c11450>.

Detailed information regarding the characterization analysis and electrochemical measurement (PDF)

Movie S1, dynamic simulation of {Cu₈} (MP4)

Accession Codes

CCDC 2025580–2025581 contain the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif, or by emailing data_request@ccdc.cam.ac.uk, or by contacting The Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK; fax: +44 1223 336033.

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

Ya-Qian Lan – Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Centre of Biomedical Functional Materials, Jiangsu Key Laboratory of New Power Batteries, School of Chemistry and Materials Science, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing 210023, P. R. China; School of Chemistry, South China Normal University, Guangzhou 510006, P. R. China; orcid.org/0000-0002-2140-7980; Email: yqlan@njnu.edu.cn, yqlan@mscnu.edu.cn

Authors

Lei Zhang – Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Centre of Biomedical Functional Materials, Jiangsu Key Laboratory of New Power Batteries, School of Chemistry and Materials Science, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing 210023, P. R. China

Xiao-Xin Li – School of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Southeast University, Nanjing 211189, P. R. China

Zhong-Ling Lang – Key Laboratory of Polyoxometalate Science of the Ministry of Education, Faculty of Chemistry, Northeast Normal University, Changchun 130000, P. R. China; orcid.org/0000-0002-8301-3629

Yang Liu – Analysis and Testing Center, Tianjin University, Tianjin 300072, P. R. China

Jiang Liu – Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Centre of Biomedical Functional Materials, Jiangsu Key Laboratory of New Power Batteries, School of Chemistry and Materials

Science, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing 210023, P. R. China

Lin Yuan – Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Centre of Biomedical Functional Materials, Jiangsu Key Laboratory of New Power Batteries, School of Chemistry and Materials Science, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing 210023, P. R. China

Wan-Yue Lu – Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Centre of Biomedical Functional Materials, Jiangsu Key Laboratory of New Power Batteries, School of Chemistry and Materials Science, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing 210023, P. R. China

Yuan-Sheng Xia – Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Centre of Biomedical Functional Materials, Jiangsu Key Laboratory of New Power Batteries, School of Chemistry and Materials Science, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing 210023, P. R. China

Long-Zhang Dong – Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Centre of Biomedical Functional Materials, Jiangsu Key Laboratory of New Power Batteries, School of Chemistry and Materials Science, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing 210023, P. R. China; orcid.org/0000-0002-9276-5101

Da-Qiang Yuan – State Key Laboratory of Structural Chemistry, Fujian Institute of Research on the Structure of Matter, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Fuzhou 350002, P. R. China; orcid.org/0000-0003-4627-072X

Complete contact information is available at:

<https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.0c11450>

Author Contributions

*L. Z., X.-X. L., and Z.-L. L. contributed equally to this work.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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