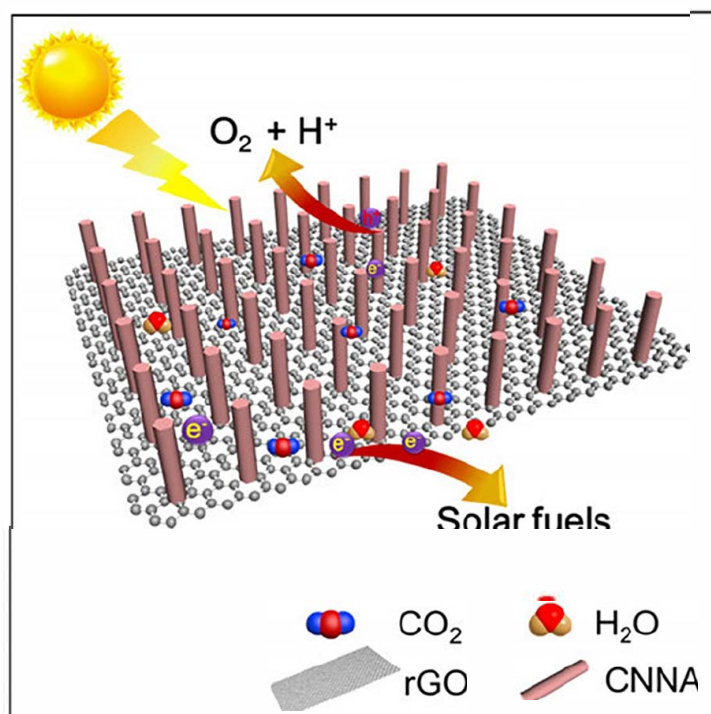


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Highly Selective CO₂ Capture and Its Direct Photochemical Conversion on Ordered 2D/1D Heterojunctions

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A heterojunction material involving highly crystalline carbon nitride nanorods with ordered alignment on graphene is successfully synthesized, and it shows a comparably high selectivity of CO₂/N₂ up to 44, with an isosteric heat of adsorption of 55.2 kJ/mol for CO₂. This material also shows remarkable improvements of light absorption, exciton splitting, and charge transport, which enables the efficient photochemical reduction of wet CO₂ in the gas phase and without any sacrificial agent.

Highly Selective CO₂ Capture and Its Direct Photochemical Conversion on Ordered 2D/1D Heterojunctions

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SUMMARY

Polymeric carbon nitrides (CNs) are regarded as most sustainable materials for solar energy conversion via photocatalytic processes. However, the first-generation CNs suffered from imperfect charge separation and insufficient CO₂ adsorption. Herein, the construction of a heterojunction material involving highly crystalline CN-nanorods with ordered alignment on graphene is delineated, which improves light harvesting, CO₂ capture, and interface charge transfer. The graphene supported 1D nano-arrays of crystalline CNs shows a comparably high selectivity of CO₂/N₂ up to 44, with an isosteric heat of adsorption of 55.2 kJ/mol for CO₂. The heterojunction material also drives the simple and efficient CO₂ photoreduction in the gas phase, without the addition of any cocatalyst or sacrificial agent, even at the more relevant case of low concentrations of CO₂. These findings provide a robust way for tailoring the performance of carbon nitride materials, with the aim of a practicable technological application for CO₂ capture and photoreduction.

Keywords: CO₂ capture, CO₂ photoreduction, heterojunction, polymeric carbon nitride, graphene, charge transfer

INTRODUCTION

Artificial solar-driven CO₂ reduction into valuable fuels such as carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH₄), and methanol (CH₃OH) based on semiconductor-mediated photocatalysis could be one of the long-term solutions to global warming and fuel shortage.¹⁻³ In many aspects, polymeric carbon nitrides (CNs) are the most promising candidates for CO₂ photoreduction among various semiconductor photocatalysts, because of their metal-free nature, low-cost and environmental friendly production, and appropriate electronic properties with sufficiently strong reduction by the photoelectrons in the conduction band.⁴⁻⁷ However, the construction of an efficient and stable photochemical system for CO₂ reduction is still a challenge, because single-component semiconductors (including CNs) are less effective in exciton splitting towards single charge carriers, and the linear CO₂ molecules are chemically rather inert against activation during photocatalysis.⁸⁻¹⁵ Hence, a second semi-conductor or semi-metal, for example, graphene, is necessary to form a bulk heterojunction which accelerates exciton splitting into the two subphases, charge transfer and surface catalytic processes then promoted by single charges. Graphene, the *sp*² bonded two-dimensional (2D) carbon material exhibits excellent conductivity and electron mobility and has a lower conduction band than carbon nitride, which helps to transfer and accumulate photoelectrons in the graphene subphase for

surface CO₂ reduction reaction,¹⁶⁻¹⁹ while the carbon nitride then drives the oxidation reactions. At the same time, the improvement of CO₂ binding for a photocatalytic material is also of vital importance not only to improve the local CO₂ concentration, but also to improve the catalytic efficiency in surface CO₂ electron transfer reactions.

The first-generation of CNs, prepared by conventional thermal condensation of nitrogen-containing precursors still suffered from two weaknesses:²⁰⁻²² (1) low crystallinity with a larger content of defects, which is harmful for the bulk-to-surface charge migration of CNs; (2) tightly packed materials with low specific surface area, which largely reduce the interface contact area of CNs with the reaction media. To handle these aspects, we are trying to construct highly crystalline CN nanorods with an ordered alignment on graphene, in order to optimize the final performance of CO₂ photoreduction. Recently, it was shown that recondensation and recrystallization of melon in molten salts highly improves the structure of CNs, up to a practically fully condensed polyheptazineimide (PHI) structure with high crystallinity and reduced defects.²³⁻³⁰ We expect that ordered nanostructures of highly crystalline CNs could be prepared with the assistance of suitable nucleation substrates.

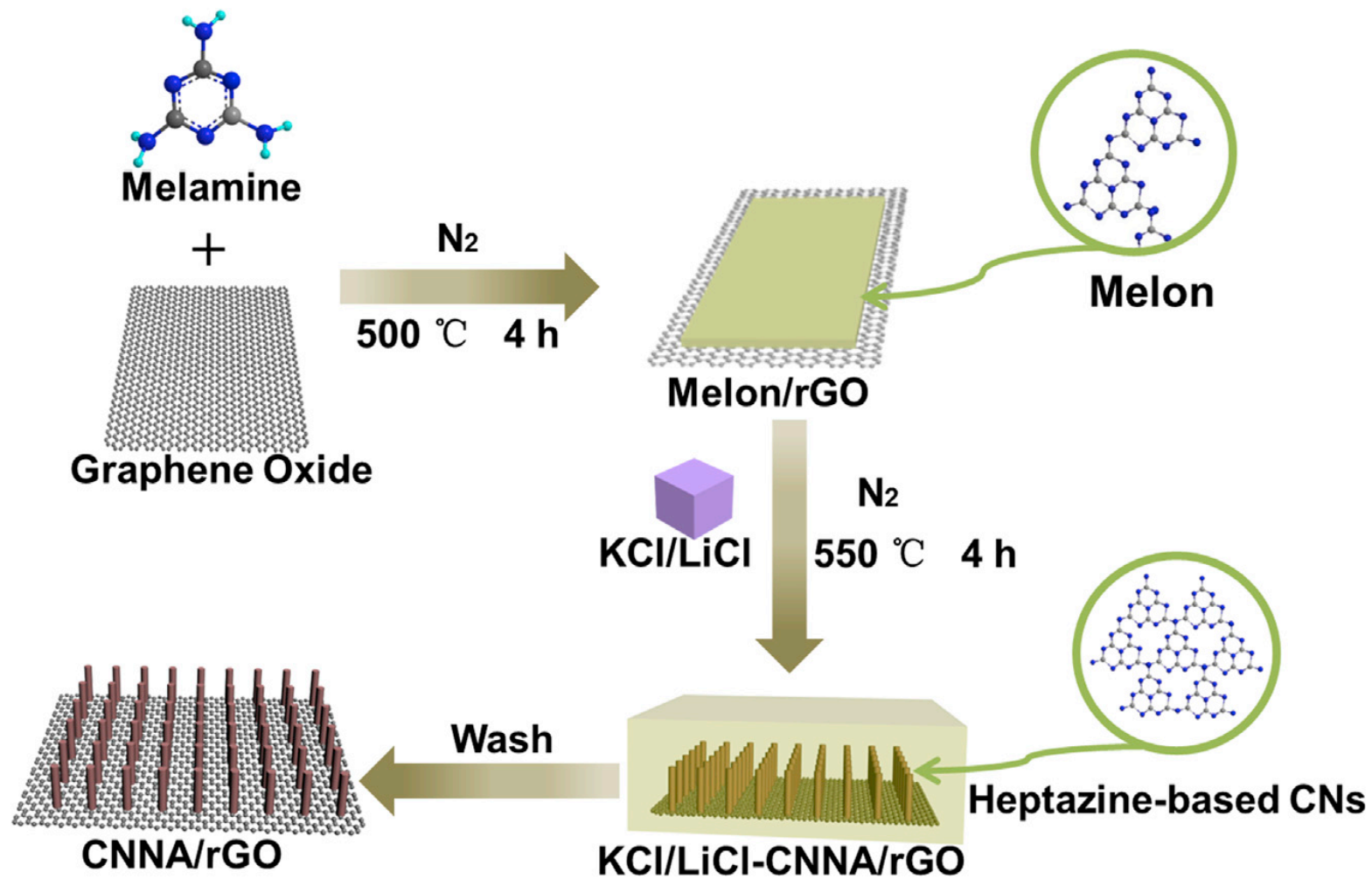
In the current study, we describe the growth of one-dimensional (1D) nano-arrays of crystalline CN nanorods on graphene via an ionothermal

method. The ordered 1D crystalline structure provide channels for light harvesting and sufficient roughness to balance the (slow) oxidation reactions with the much faster reduction processes, and direct pathways for the transport of photoelectrons to the surface of graphene. The photo-absorption, bulk-to-surface and interface charge transfer of the resultant material are improved. Moreover, the unique 2D/1D heterojunction of graphene/CNs shows a (for covalent materials) high selectivity of CO₂/N₂ up to 44, with an isosteric heat of adsorption up to 55.2 kJ/mol for CO₂. As a consequence of these advantages, an excellent photocatalytic reduction of wet CO₂ into chemical fuels is achieved, in the gas phase and without any cocatalyst and sacrificial agent, even at a low concentration of CO₂.

RESULTS

Synthesis and Structural Analysis of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs

The proof-of-concept experiments are illustrated in Scheme 1. At first melamine molecules were anchored via their amine groups onto the surface of graphene oxide (GO) through the C=O surface functionalities and hydrogen bridges. Under heating melamine was condensed to melon and grafted onto the graphene oxide, and the GO was reduced to gain the preheated melon/rGO hybrid. When this melon/rGO hybrid was



Scheme 1. Proof-of-Concept Experiments of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs
The schematical formation of CNNA/rGO composite in the molten salt medium. rGO represents reduced graphene oxide.

dispersed in the molten salt (KCl/LiCl) flux at 550 °C, melon in partly solubilizes, recondenses and recrystallizes³¹ from the graphene sheets to generate a vertically aligned morphology of PHI nanorods protruding from the graphene surface. Nucleation from graphene is potentially promoted by epitaxy, but also by the electronic interaction between the two precursor subphases.

As shown in Figure 1A, the powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of preheated carbon nitride (denoted as bCN) shows two characteristic diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 13.0^\circ$ (100) and 27.4° (200), which correspond to the repeated in-plane structural motif (0.68 nm) and the periodical interlayer-stacking (0.325 nm) of the aromatic rings, respectively.^{32,33} The molten salt treatment leads to massive re-condensation of the conjugated framework and thus causes a downshift of (100) peak to 7.9° for the resultant polyheptazineimide (denoted as CNNA), showing a large intraplanar repeat period of 1.12 nm. Moreover, the sharper and narrower (002) peak of CNNA is located at 28.2° , indicating the formation of a highly crystalline CNs with a reduced interlayer distance of 0.316 nm. Note that the sample prepared in presence of graphene (denoted as CNNA/rGO) shows a similar XRD pattern to CNNA, suggesting that high crystallinity of CNs is not influenced by the accelerated nucleation of ordered nano-arrays from the graphene surface. The chemical structure of CN nanorods is also well retained despite the existence of graphene

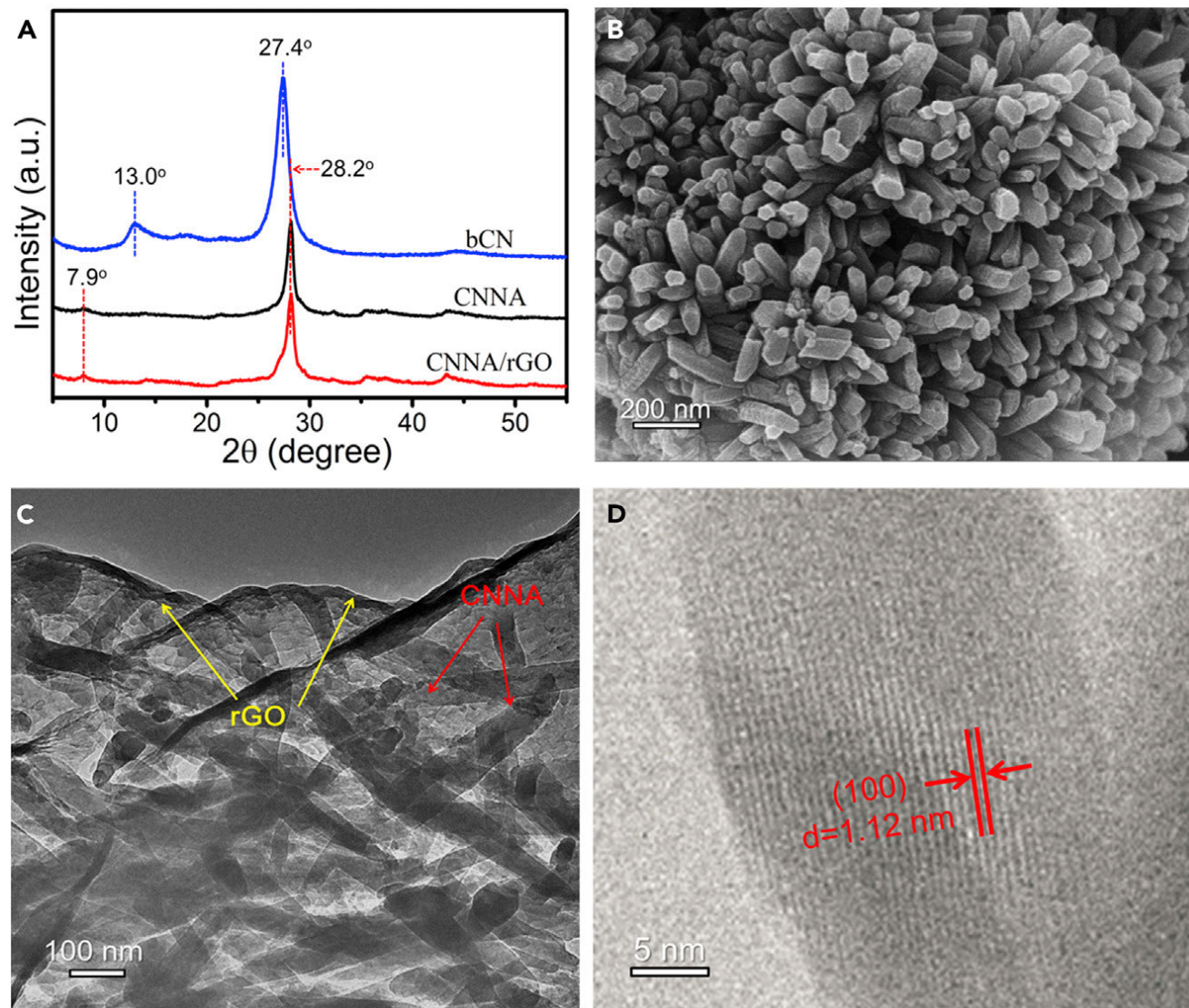


Figure 1. Characterization of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs

(A) XRD patterns of the bCN, CNNA and CNNA/rGO. (B) FESEM and (C) TEM images of CNNA/rGO. (D) HRTEM image of the inner structure of a CN nanorod in CNNA/rGO.

as a growth substrate during the entire synthetic process, as evidenced by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis. The survey spectra (Figure S1A) indicate the presence of C, N, O, K and trace-amount Cl^- on the surface of CNNA and CNNA/rGO. The high resolution XPS spectra of C 1s spectra (Figure S1B) show three peaks at 284.8 (potential surface impurities of sp^2 carbon, or graphene), 286.5 ($\text{C}\equiv\text{N}/\text{C}-\text{O}$), and 288.3 eV ($\text{N}=\text{C}-\text{N}_2$) for both CNNA and CNNA/rGO.³⁴⁻³⁶ Meanwhile, the N 1s spectra (Figure S1C) indicate the existence of sp^2 -hybridized nitrogen (398.7 eV), tertiary N groups (400.4 eV) and imide groups (401.3 eV) for both CNNA and CNNA/rGO, the weakest N 1s peak at 404.1 eV is due to the charging effects.³⁷⁻³⁹ The K 2p spectra (Figure S1D) can be fitted into two small peaks at about 293.0 eV and 295.8 eV, which is in accordance with the binding energy of K^+ that coordinates to the electron-rich imide N atoms within the cavity of the PHI frameworks.⁴⁰ These integrated K^+ ions indeed help to delocalize the π electrons of nitrogen, thus facilitating the mobility and separation of photogenerated carriers.⁴¹ The weak signals of Cl 2p at 197.8 and 199.6 eV (Figure S1E) indicate the tiny amount of Cl^- on the surface of CNNA and CNNA/rGO, which is likely entrapped in the structure during the crystallization process. No signal of Li 1s can be observed as shown in Figure S1F. In addition, the binding energies of the various elements for CNNA have been compared and contrasted with common poly (triazine

imide) (PTI) and polymeric CN materials from other literatures (Table S1), it was found that the Li^+ is easily incorporated into the common PTI, while the K^+ is easily incorporated into the CNNA.

The elemental analysis (EA, Table S2) indicates that the C/N molar ratio of CNNA is 0.73. This is close to the theoretical value of polymeric carbon nitride (0.75), suggesting the relatively higher structure order of CNNA as compared to weakly crystalline carbon nitride with more defects.⁴² Note that the C/N molar ratio increases to 0.81 for CNNA/rGO, due to the good coupling of rGO with CNNA. Moreover, the atomic absorption spectroscopic analysis was used to detect the content of K, Li and Cl (Table S3). Only trace amount of Li and Cl was found in the samples, and the amount of K is 4.63 wt% and 3.82 wt% in CNNA and CNNA/rGO, respectively.

Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra (Figure S2) reveal the existence of characteristic peaks of melon-based carbon nitride for both CNNA and CNNA/rGO. Especially, a new peak appeared at 1480 cm^{-1} in the spectrum of CNNA/rGO, which can be assigned to the skeletal vibration of the rGO sheets.⁴³ We have measured the solid-state ^{13}C and ^{15}N magic angle spinning (MAS) nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra, which are shown in Figure S3. In the ^{13}C NMR spectra (Figure S3A), two distinct peaks are observed at 156.7 and 163.5 ppm for bCN. The first resonance at δ_1 was related to the carbon atoms in “ CN_3 ”, and

the second resonance at δ_2 is attributed to the carbon atoms in “CN₂(NH_x)”. Note that the spectra of CNNA and CNNA/rGO show three peaks. In addition to the two peaks at 156.7 and 163.5 ppm, a new peak appeared at 167.9 ppm (δ_3). This peak can be assigned to the carbon atoms in “CH₂(N⁻)” due to the incorporation of potassium ions.⁴⁴ More importantly, in the ¹⁵N NMR spectrum of CNNA/rGO (Figure S3B), the strong isolated signal at 230.5 ppm can be identified to the central nitrogen atom (N_c) in the heptazine core, suggesting the heptazine-based nature of CNNA. The signals between 160 and 200 ppm are characteristic of tertiary nitrogen atoms (N_{tert}). The signals between 250 and 265 ppm are assigned to NH groups, and the remaining signals at 269, 274 and 281 ppm belong to NH₂ groups. These results (especially the ¹⁵N NMR spectrum) confirm the presence of heptazine units in CNNA/rGO.⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷

SEM images show that bCN (Figure S4A) is severely aggregated and rather densely packed, while CNNA (Figure S4B) is composed of randomly distributed nanorods. In contrast, CNNA/rGO (Figure 1B and S4C) exhibits a regular composite structure with a vertical alignment of nanorods to the graphene nucleation planes. A typical length of around 200–400 nm and diameter of about 15–40 nm can be taken from SEM and the TEM images (Figure 1C and S4D). TEM also confirms that the CN nanorods are tightly anchored at the surface of graphene. The

elemental mapping (Figure S5) of the CNNA/rGO clearly shows the homogenous distribution of the elements C, N and O. The HRTEM observation (Figure 1D) of a single CN nanorod further demonstrates the high crystallinity with organized lattice fringes of 1.12 nm parallel to the long axis, i.e. the nanorods grow into the z-direction, the direction of charge transport, with all the catalytically active edge sites exposed to the outer medium. The crystallization and microstructure evolution caused by molten salt treatment has led to a remarkably increased specific surface area from 7 m² g⁻¹ (for bCN) to 64 m² g⁻¹ (for CNNA) (See Table S4 and Figure S6). Note that CNNA/rGO shows both slightly reduced specific surface area (55 m² g⁻¹) and interstitial nanorod-mesopores.

Optical and Charge Transfer Properties of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs

The optical properties shown in Figure 2A reveal a red shift of absorption edge from 460 nm (for bCN) to 475 nm (for CNNA), corresponding to a slight band gap narrowing from 2.70 eV to 2.61 eV. This is typical for PHI-K materials and related to the improved interlayer packing.⁴⁸ Moreover, CNNA exhibits a significantly higher extinction coefficient, typical for nanopigments of strongly absorbing materials where colour strength depends on particle size. The introduction of rGO further

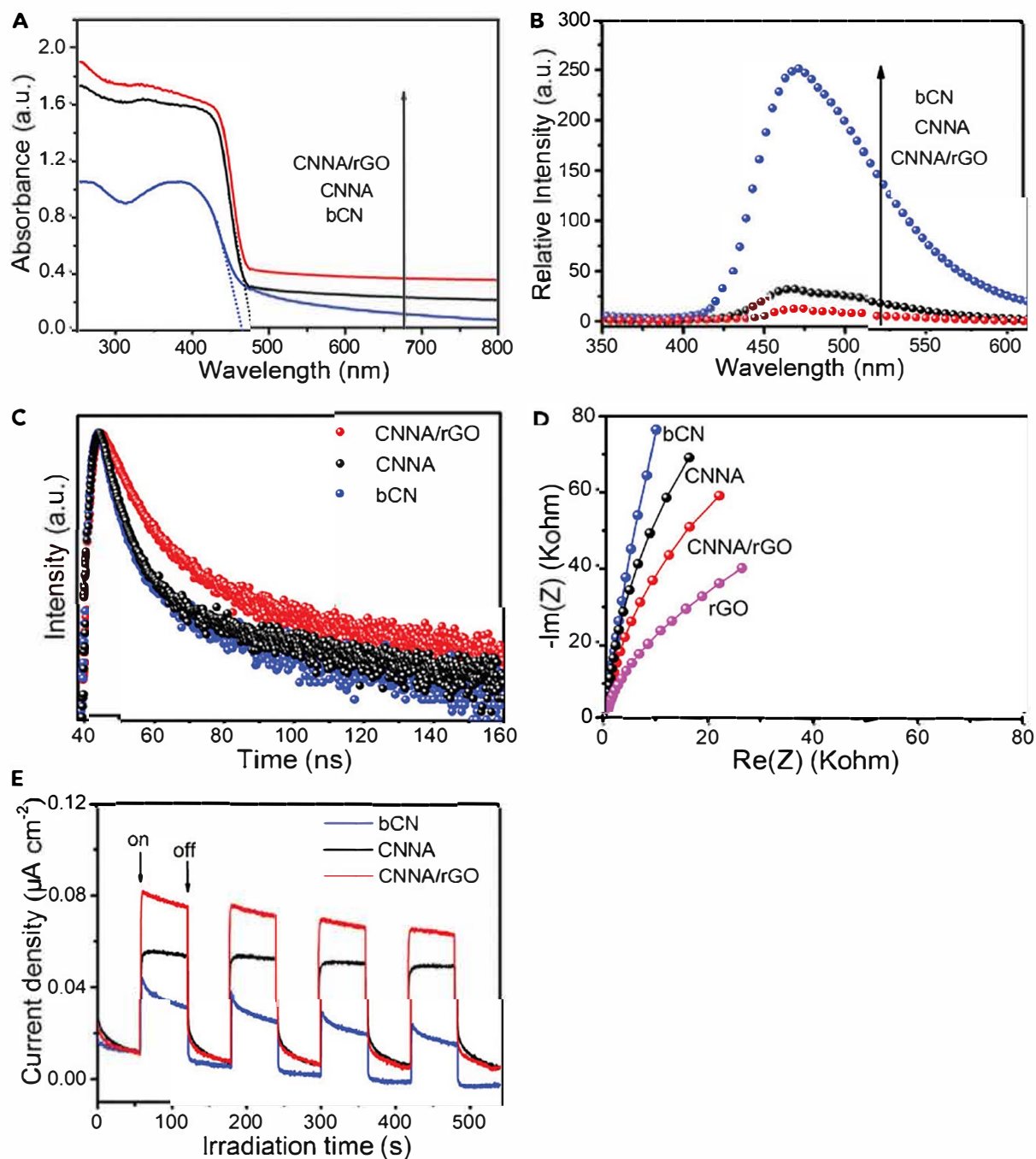


Figure 2. Optical and Charge Transfer Properties of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs
 (A) UV - vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS),
 (B) steady-state room-temperature PL spectra,
 (C) TRPL spectra of bCN, CNNA, and CNNA/rGO,
 (D) EIS Nyquist plots of bCN, CNNA, rGO and CNNA/rGO, and
 (E) transient photocurrent responses of bCN, CNNA and CNNA/rGO.

enhances the photo-absorption in the range of <450 nm and 450–800 nm, which we attribute to charge transfer and the formation of an active heterojunction, bringing relaxation strength. This adds to the weak background absorption of carbon.

The nanostructure and the well operative heterojunction improve exciton splitting and charge transfer, as also seen by the remarkably decreased emission intensity of CNNA photoluminescence (PL) (Figure 2B). Improved crystallinity already helps charge transport to the surface, but the lowest PL intensity is found for CNNA/rGO. The time-resolved transient photoluminescence (TRPL) analysis (Figure 2C) gives an average fluorescence lifetime (τ_A) of 7.18, 8.82 and 12.58 ns for bCN, CNNA and CNNA/rGO (see Table S5), demonstrating indeed the lowering of defects and grain boundaries which act as internal recombination sites. Moreover, after the introduction of rGO, the interfacial charge transfer is improved. Hence, charges have to travel longer until they are much more rarely recombined due to synergistic effect of high crystallinity of CN nanorods and heterojunction effect of CNNA/rGO.^{49,50} The improvement of solid state conductivity is further confirmed by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) where smaller radius is found in Nyquist plots (Figure 2D) of CNNA/rGO in comparison with bCN and CNNA. rGO has the smallest radius, indicating its good conductivity and demonstrating that rGO contributes to the low resistance or high electron mobility of CNNA/rGO. In addition, we find the largest photocurrent (Figure 2E)

in a CNNA/rGO-based electrode, indicating again the low degree of charge recombination and the low charge-transfer resistance of CNNA/rGO. For bCN, a photocurrent spike appeared and then a slow reduction in photocurrent was observed when the working electrode was under light irradiation. This was mainly due to the rapid recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes and subsequently, the photocurrent dropped steeply as the light switched off. In contrast, for CNNA, the photocurrent kept relatively stable when the light switched on. This was because the lower defect density enabled the photogenerated electrons to transfer to the cathode with lower recombination rate. After light off, those electrons would travel longer distance, i.e., longer decay time. The photocurrent curve of CNNA/rGO displayed similar shape with the CNNA. In addition to effective charge migration across CNNA, rGO helped to accumulate these separated electrons, which gradually decayed after switching off the light.⁵¹⁻⁵³

CO₂ Capture Performance of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs

The CO₂ adsorption performance of the materials at different temperature is shown in Figure S7. At 298K, CNNA and CNNA/rGO show similar CO₂ adsorption capacity, but it is much higher than that of bCN, CN/rGO-Li and CN/rGO-K. SEM observation in Figure S8 suggests that CN/rGO-Li and CN/rGO-K are composed of bulk solid agglomerates and cannot form the nanorod arrays. These results indicate that the main

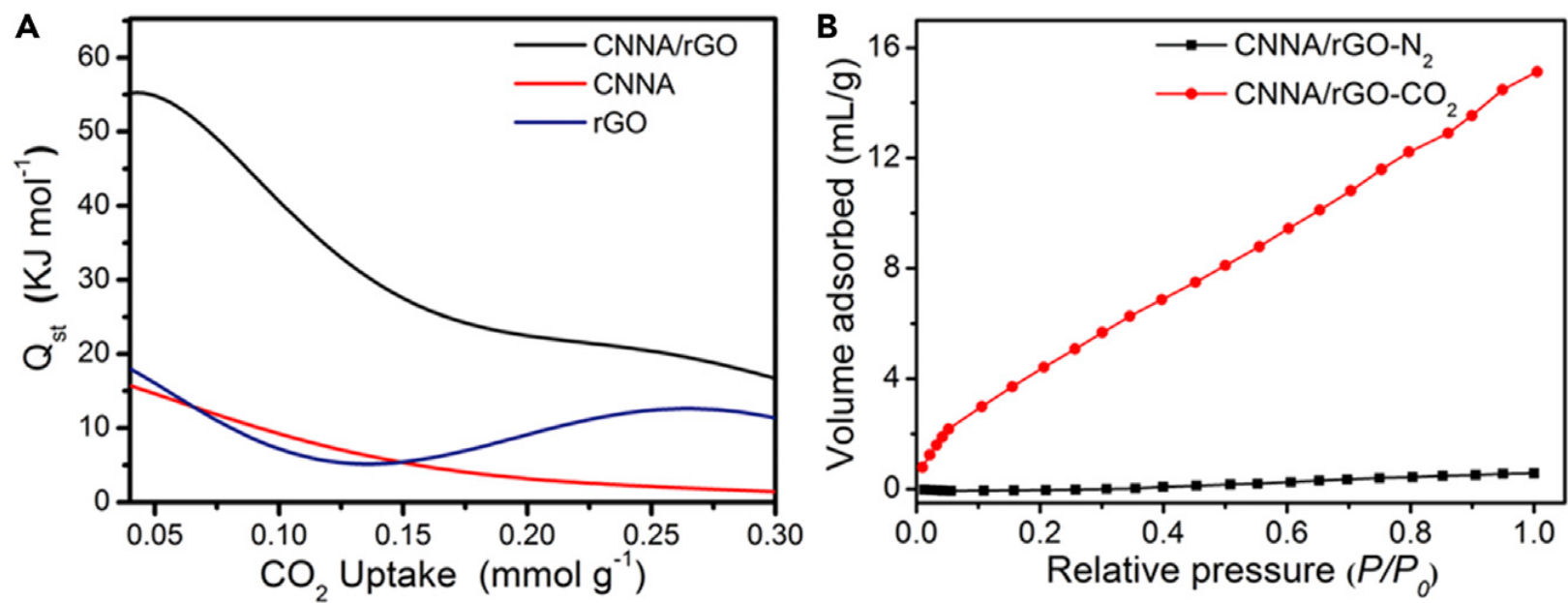


Figure 3. CO₂ Adsorption of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs

(A) The calculated isosteric heat (Q_{st}) of CO₂ adsorption on CNNA, rGO and CNNA/rGO. (B) Adsorption isotherms of CO₂ and N₂ on CNNA/rGO at 273K and 1 atm.

reason of the improved CO₂ adsorption performance are the heterojunction effect and ordered 1D structure rather than K incorporation. More importantly, CNNA/rGO shows a remarkably higher temperature dependence of CO₂ adsorption capacity than CNNA, bCN and rGO. This result reveals a much stronger adsorption strength between CO₂ molecules and the surface of CNNA/rGO, which could be further quantified by calculating the isosteric heat (Q_{st}) of CO₂ adsorption using the Clausius–Clapeyron equation.⁵⁴ As shown in Figure 3A, the low-coverage isosteric heat of CO₂ adsorption calculated for CNNA/rGO could be up to 55.2 kJ/mol, which is much higher than that for CNNA (15.7 kJ/mol) and rGO (18.2 kJ/mol). This value is even higher than many reported values for specialized CO₂ capture materials such as porous carbon materials,^{55,56} porous polymer networks^{57,58} and MOF materials,^{59,60} indicating an unusually strong chemisorption of CO₂ molecules onto the surface of CNNA/rGO. The high Q_{st} of CNNA/rGO clearly underlines the heterojunction effect already when not illuminated. Charge transfer from rGO to CNNA changes the electronic environment and causes charge redistribution, obviously improving polarity and polarizability and thereby the adsorption strength.^{61,62} As shown in Figure 3B, the CO₂ uptake increases sharply as the pressure increases, while the N₂ adsorption capacity only slightly increases in the pressure range. The calculated CO₂/N₂ selectivity is 44, which is even comparable to

those values of performance separation products. The Q_{st} decreases monotonically with the surface coverage by the restrictions of heterojunction charge transfer, which is less than monolayer coverage, i.e. just the first CO_2 molecules can be activated in that mode. These CO_2 adsorption motifs are ideally set for photocatalytic materials, because photoelectrons have a direct transfer path to the strongly bound CO_2 molecules, while the less polarizable reaction products get released from the surface. As compared to typical CO_2 adsorption materials, the adsorption capacity values looks low, but we must consider that the samples as functional photocatalysts are not porous, i.e. they have only 2.5 % of the specific interface to compare with. In terms of adsorption per contact area, the values are indeed remarkably high and already set in at rather low relative pressures. In this case, a strongly polarizing surface is more important for CO_2 uptake at 1 bar than a high specific surface area, as accessed by nitrogen sorption.⁶²

Photocatalytic CO_2 Reduction Activity of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs

The as-prepared materials were applied in one of the most demanding reactions of artificial photosynthesis, the photocatalytic gas-phase CO_2 reduction, in the absence of any sacrificial agent. Note that for closing the redox cycle the CO_2 must be wet, i.e. the reaction is:

Figure 4

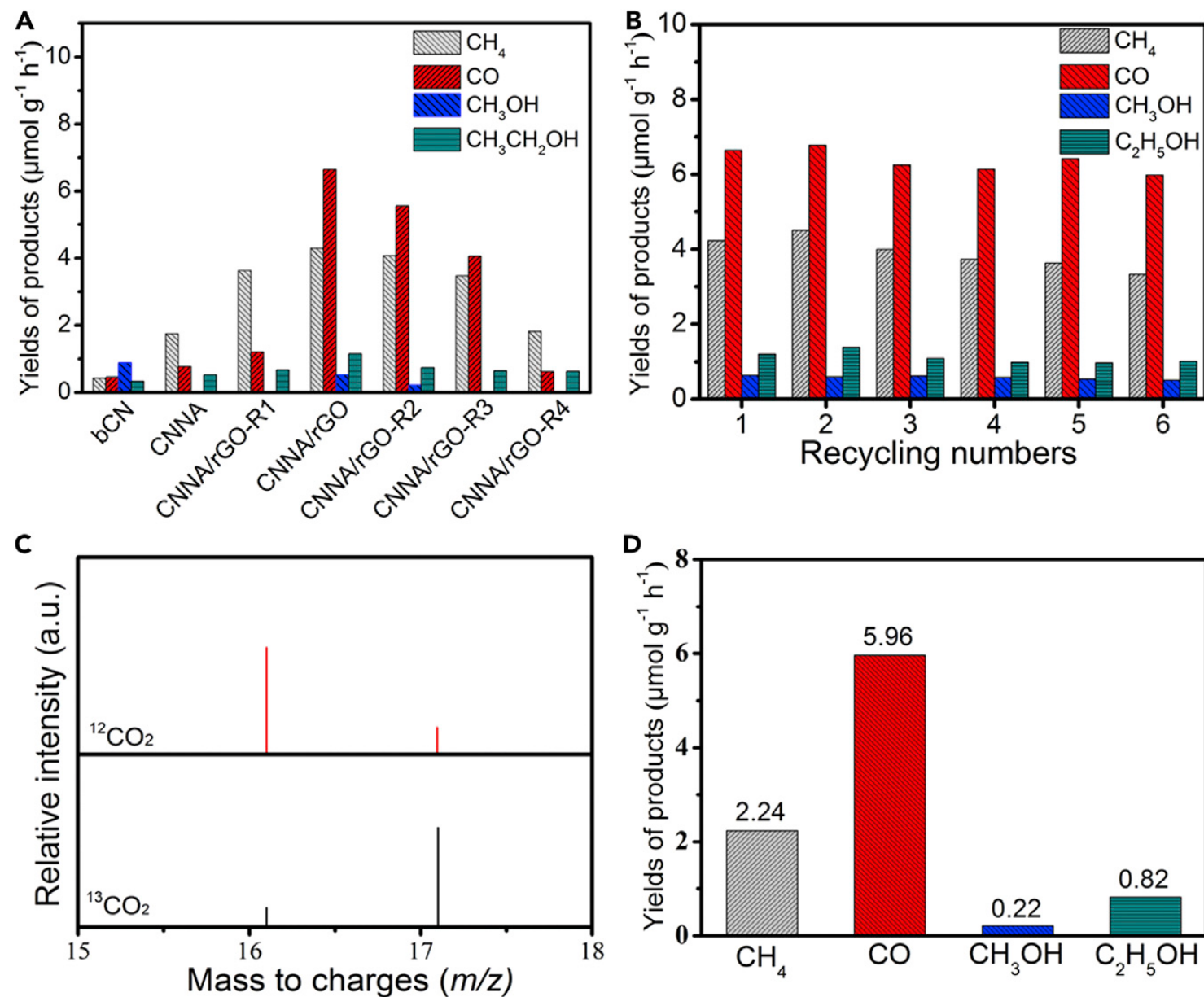
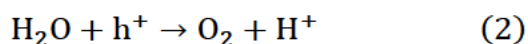
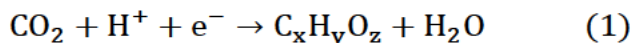


Figure 4. CO₂ Photoreduction Properties of 2D/1D Heterojunction of Graphene/CNs

(A) Photocatalytic CO₂-reduction property of bCN, CNNA, CNNA/rGO-R4 and CNNA/rGO at various amount of rGO in water vapor-saturated wet CO₂ gas. (B) Cycling test of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction over CNNA/rGO. (C) GC-MS analysis of methane labeled by ¹³C and ¹²C from photocatalytic CO₂-reduction reactions over CNNA/rGO. (D) Photocatalytic CO₂-reduction property of CNNA/rGO in low-concentration CO₂ gas phase.



First, a reaction environment of water vapor-saturated wet CO₂ gas was employed. Control experiments confirmed that no noticeable product was observed in the absence of photocatalyst, CO₂ or light irradiation, which also excludes bare decomposition of the catalyst as a source of chemical compounds. For the real reaction, indeed a spectrum of fuel molecules is found. Figure 4A and Table S6 shows the yield of these main products of CO₂ reduction, i.e. C=O, CH₄, CH₃OH, and C₂H₅OH over various photocatalysts. CNNA exhibits better CO₂ photoreduction performance than the reference bCN, but the binary CNNA/rGO shows the best performance with a total CO₂ conversion of 12.63 μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹. This value can be compared with other optimized systems of carbon nitride-based photocatalysts (Table S7) as well as graphene-based photocatalysts (Table S8) for CO₂ reduction and turned out to be comparably high. Note that CNNA with higher crystallinity is beneficial for the formation of C₂H₅OH in comparison with CH₃OH. The introduction of rGO further increases the production rate of C₂H₅OH noticeably, possibly because rGO helped to accumulate the photoelectrons and improve the CO₂ adsorption. C₂H₅OH can be produced by coupling of methoxyl (•OCH₃) and methyl (•CH₃) radicals, which served as reaction intermediates during the process of

photocatalytic CO₂ conversion.^{63,64} Additionally, in order to investigate the effect of trace-amount metal on photocatalytic performance, reference samples of bCN-K and bCN+K (4.6 wt% KCl was ground with bCN) were prepared for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction and the products are shown in Table S6. It is noted that CH₄, CO, CH₃OH, C₂H₅OH and H₂ yields for bCN+KCl has little change as compared to those of bCN. While CH₄, CO, CH₃OH, C₂H₅OH and H₂ yields for bCN-K are increased, which is because the doped K could act the electron donor and facilitate the electron transfer between the layers of bCN.^{38,41} The total quantum yield of CO₂ conversion into CH₄, CO, CH₃OH, and C₂H₅OH was measured as 0.254 % under 420-nm light irradiation (see also Table S9). The turnover number (TON) of CNNA/rGO for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction is 1.6, under simulated solar light irradiation with 4 hours. Moreover, only a minor amount of H₂ could be detected over CNNA/rGO (1.93 μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹). Importantly, the yield of H₂ is much lower than the conversion of CO₂, which demonstrates the high selectivity of CO₂ photoreduction (87%) in this cocatalyst-free and sacrificial agent-free system, with reference to hydrogen evolution that is otherwise the competing side reaction. We also checked for the oxidation product and found dioxygen, accordingly (Figure S9), which is the product of water oxidation for the closure of the photoredox cycle. We have calculated the detected yield of O₂ from photocatalytic CO₂ reduction on CNNA/rGO, which is 21.15

$\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$. Given that the water oxidation to O_2 is the sole reaction to consume the photogenerated holes ($2\text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{O}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^-$), CO_2 is reduced by accepting H^+ and e^- to form CO , CH_4 , CH_3OH and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$. Thus, the stoichiometric yield of O_2 should be calculated as $17.14 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, which is slightly lower than the detected yield. Such deviation is reasonable within experimental errors and might be related to the undetectable species beyond the GC limitation. Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopic (UPS) measurements in Figure S10A show that the valence band energies of CNNA and CNNA/rGO are calculated to be 1.25, and 1.36 V, respectively (vs. NHE, pH=7), which are located much more positively than the oxidation level (0.82 V) for H_2O to O_2 , allowing holes to transfer and react with H_2O molecules (see diagram in Figure S10B). Meanwhile, it also reveals that the presence of rGO in CNNA/rGO can obviously adjust the band structure of CNNA. This is analogous to the previous studies on GO/reduced blue titania and black phosphorus/CN.^{65,66} Furthermore, after the introduction of rGO, the high crystallinity of CNNA and good conductivity of rGO promote the charge migration and separation at the surface/interface. The electrons accumulate on the surface of rGO and subsequently reduce CO_2 , leaving behind the holes in carbon nitride to oxidize water (see Figure S11). Note that inadequate or excessive loading of rGO causes a lowered CO_2 photoreduction efficiency (See data of CNNA/rGO-R1, R2

and R3 in Figure 4A and Table S6), i.e. it is important to match the reduction and oxidation sites in a system engineering approach.⁶⁷ With increasing loading amount of rGO in CNNA, the composites have different light absorption properties, resulting in the difference in the light intensity profile through the photocatalytic system, while these changes are nonlinear with respect to mass fractional composition. Therefore, non-synergistic activity at higher loading amount of rGO correlates nonlinearly with mass fractional composition of rGO.⁶⁸ Another reference sample with grinding (CNNA/rGO-R4, see experimental details in Supplemental information) shows much lower product yields than that of CNNA-rGO sample, demonstrating the importance of the first organization between melamine and GO. The excellent photocatalytic stability of CNNA/rGO was demonstrated by a 9-h cycling test, as shown in Figure 4B. In addition, the XRD and XPS of CNNA/rGO were measured after the 9-h cycling test and showed no obvious change (Figure S12 and S13).

To confirm the carbon source of the photocatalytic products is CO₂, gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC-MS) was used to detect ¹²CH₄ and ¹³CH₄ in the presence of isotope labelled CO₂. As shown in Figure 4C, it is obvious that the peak of $m/z = 16.1$ (¹²CH₄) and $m/z = 17.1$ (¹³CH₄) were dominated in the GC–MS spectra of photocatalytic ¹²C-labeled CO₂ and ¹³C-labeled CO₂ reduction, respectively. The weak

signal at $m/z=16$ when using $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ as the carbon source belongs to $^{13}\text{CH}_3$ due to the ionization.^{69,70} The isotopic labelling experiments about the carbon and hydrogen sources labeled by ^{13}C , ^{12}C and ^2H (D) from photocatalytic CO_2 -reduction reactions over CNNA/rGO were also performed and the results are displayed in Figure S14. The signals of molecular ions for alcohol are at $m/z = 45.1$, $m/z = 47.1$ and $m/z = 51.1$ when using $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ to react with H_2O (Figure S14A), $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ to react with H_2O (Figure S14B) and $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ to react with D_2O (Figure S14C), respectively. Note that the intensity of the peaks at $m/z = 45.1$, $m/z = 47.1$ and $m/z = 51.1$ is stronger than that of the peak at $m/z = 46.1$ ($^{12}\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$), $m/z = 48.1$ ($^{13}\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$) and $m/z = 52.1$ ($\text{C}_2\text{D}_5\text{OD}$) due to the higher stability of molecular ions. These results strongly support that the photocatalytic products originate from CO_2 reduction.

Then, an experiment with lower concentration of CO_2 and high concentration of N_2 (similar to flue gas) was employed. As compared to the above-mentioned condition of wet CO_2 gas, nearly 90 vol.% of CO_2 was replaced by N_2 . It is surprising that the CNNA/rGO heterojunction material still exhibits a relatively good activity (see Figure 4D), and the total CO_2 conversion could still be as high as $9.24 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$, demonstrating the benefits originating from the unique CO_2 adsorption behavior with high selectivity and strong binding affinity.

DISCUSSION

The simple synthesis of a uniquely structured and highly active photocatalyst has been presented. Nano-arrays of crystalline carbon nitride rods are grown on rGO. The obtained hybrid material with regular and crystalline microstructure operates as a colloidal heterojunction and shows remarkable improvements of light absorption, exciton splitting, charge transport, as well as selective CO₂ binding, which enables the highly efficient photochemical reduction of wet CO₂ into chemical fuels, here in the gas phase and without any sacrificial agent. This occurs even at the more relevant case of CO₂ concentrations similar to flue gas. This finding represents to our opinion a relevant strategy of structure design of polymeric carbon nitride hybrids toward a potential technological application of CO₂ capture and photoreduction. Following work will consider to work on the system engineering approach to further improve activity, as well as to handle educt enrichment and product release.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Sample preparation

Graphene oxide was synthesized from the natural graphite powder by modified Hummers method.⁷¹ The carbon nitride nanorod arrays supported on rGO (CNNA/rGO) was prepared by an ionothermal method. Typically, 3 g of melamine powder and 3 mL of GO aqueous solution (1.0

g/L) were added into 50 mL deionized water under vigorous stirring. The formed suspension was dried at 80 °C overnight and then calcined at 500 °C for 4 h with a heating rate of 10 °C/min under N₂ atmosphere. After cooling to room temperature, the preheated bCN/rGO was obtained. Thereafter, 0.5 g of preheated sample was mixed with KCl (2.75 g) and LiCl (2.25 g), and ground on the hot plate at 100 °C. After that, the mixture was heated in N₂ atmosphere at a heating rate of 5 °C/min to 550 °C for 4 h. The final product was washed with boiling distilled water, and then followed by drying at 60 °C overnight in a vacuum oven. Reference samples of CNNA/rGO-R1, R2 and R3 were prepared using the similar procedure, except that the volume of GO aqueous solution was 1 mL, 5 mL and 7 mL. Reference samples of CNNA, CN/rGO-Li, CN/rGO-K were prepared by the same procedure without adding graphene oxide, KCl, and LiCl respectively. The preheated carbon nitride without adding graphene oxide before molten salt treatment was labeled as “bCN”. The reference sample of CNNA/rGO-R4 was also prepared, by grinding the preheated carbon nitride with GO and subsequent treatment of molten salt (see experimental details in Supplemental information). The reference sample of bCN-K was prepared by the same procedure of bCN, but with the addition of KCl (see experimental details in Supplemental information).

CO₂ and N₂ adsorption measurements

CO₂ adsorption measurements were carried out up to 1 bar at 273 K (ice-water bath) and 298 K (room temperature) on a Quantachrome Quadrasorb SI apparatus. Before adsorption, the samples were degassed at 200 °C under vacuum for 12 h. The same test procedure was adapted for the N₂ adsorption measurements at 273 K.

The selectivity (S_{IAST}) for binary gas mixtures of CO₂ and N₂ is calculated based on the Ideal Adsorption Solution Theory (IAST) and is defined as:

$$S_{IAST} = \frac{q_{CO_2}/q_{N_2}}{p_{CO_2}/p_{N_2}} \quad (3)$$

Where q_{CO_2} and q_{N_2} are the molar loading of CO₂ and N₂, mmol g⁻¹; P_{CO_2} and P_{N_2} are the partial pressure of CO₂ and N₂, respectively.

Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in water vapor-saturated wet CO₂ gas

The photocatalytic performance of the samples was evaluated by CO₂ photoreduction in a 200 mL customized Pyrex reactor with two necks. Particularly, 100 mg of sample was added to the reactor, dispersed in 10 mL deionized water by ultrasonication, and then dried at 80 °C to form a smooth and thin film on the bottom of the reactor. The wet CO₂ was blown through the reactor for 30 min to ensure anaerobic conditions of the reaction system, and used as CO₂ and H₂O sources. A 350 W Xe arc lamp with an AM1.5 filter was employed as simulated sunlight source to irradiate the reactor. The resulting gas species were monitored and recorded by a gas chromatography with a FID and a TCD detector, and a

methanizer (PGC-80, PANNA, CHINA). The standard curves of CH₄, CO, CH₃OH and C₂H₅OH were recorded by using commercial standard gases.

Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in low-concentration CO₂ gas

Similar to the above procedure, the photocatalyst (100 mg) was put onto the bottom of a two-neck Pyrex reactor (200 mL) with two parallel planes. Next, NaHCO₃ (0.084 g) was carefully put into a groove on one of the necks. Then the two necks were sealed with the rubber plugs. After that, this reactor was purged with nitrogen for 1 h. The CO₂ gas was generated from a simple reaction between H₂SO₄ and NaHCO₃ in the sealed reactor. Particularly, 0.3 mL of 2 M H₂SO₄ was elaborately injected into the groove to react with NaHCO₃. A 350 W Xe arc lamp with an AM1.5 filter was employed as simulated sunlight source to irradiate the reactor. The resulting gas species were monitored and recorded by a gas chromatography with a FID and a TCD detector, and a methanizer (PGC-80, PANNA, CHINA).

Isotopic measurement

The experimental process of isotopic measurement is same with that of photocatalytic CO₂-reduction experiments, except that the NaH(¹²C)O₃ is replaced by the NaH(¹³C)O₃ (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories Inc., USA) and the H₂O is replaced by the D₂O (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories Inc., USA). Then, the ¹²CH₄, ¹³CH₄, ¹²C₂H₅OH, ¹³C₂H₅OH and C₂D₅OD

species were detected by a gas chromatography-mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies 6890N GC system with 5975 MSD, USA).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes characterizations, photoelectrochemical measurement, 14 figures, and 9 tables and can be found with this article online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joule.xxxxxx>.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.A., J.Y., S.C. and Y.X. conceived and designed the experiments. Y.X. carried out the synthesis of the materials and photocatalytic test. Z.T. performed the CO₂ adsorption test. Y.X., Z.T., T.H., A.M. and B.C. performed materials characterizations. Y.X., Z.T., T.H., A.M., B.C. and S.C. contributed to data analysis. M.A., J.Y. and S.C. supervised the project. M.A., J.Y., S.C. and Y.X. wrote the paper. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Supplemental Experimental Procedures

Synthesis of CNNA/rGO-R4:

Firstly, 3 g of melamine powder was calcined at 500 °C for 4 h with a heating rate of 10 °C/min under N₂ atmosphere. After cooling to room temperature, the obtained sample was ground into powder and then mixed with 3 mL of GO aqueous solution (1.0 g/L). Subsequently, the mixture was dried at 80 °C overnight and then ground with KCl (2.75 g) and LiCl (2.25 g) on the hot plate at 100 °C. After that, the mixture was heated in N₂ atmosphere at a heating rate of 5 °C/min to 550 °C for 4 h. The final product was washed with boiling distilled water, and then followed by drying at 60 °C overnight in a vacuum oven.

Synthesis of bCN-K:

3 g of melamine powder ground with KCl (2.75 g) on the hot plate at 100 °C. After that, the mixture was calcined at 500 °C for 4 h with a heating rate of 10 °C/min under N₂ atmosphere. The final product was washed with boiling distilled water, and then followed by drying at 60 °C overnight in a vacuum oven. This sample was denoted as bCN-K.

Characterization:

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a Bruker D8 Advance instrument with Cu-K α as the radiation source. The chemical compositions and optical performance of samples were characterized by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (VG ESCALAB 210, U.K.), Fourier transform infrared (FTIR, Nicolet iS50, TMO, USA) spectroscopy, and UV-visible spectrophotometer (UV-2600, Shimadzu, Japan). The morphologies of the as-obtained samples were characterized by a double-corrected JEOL ARM200F transmission electron microscope equipped with a cold field emission gun, and a JSM-7500 field emission scanning electron microscope. The specific surface area and pore structure were analyzed by N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms using a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 Apparatus (Micromeritics Instruments, USA). The valence band positions were determined by ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) on the VG ESCALAB 210 spectrometer. The elemental analysis was performed on an elemental analyzer (Vario EL cube, Elementar, Germany) and an atomic absorption spectrometer with a continuous light source (contraA800, Jena, Germany). Solid state NMR spectra were recorded with a Bruker Avance 400 MHz spectrometer operating at 100.56 MHz for ¹³C, 40.53 MHz for ¹⁵N using a 4 mm MAS HX double resonance probe. The spectra were measured using contact time of 2.0 ms for ¹³C and 4.0 ms for ¹⁵N and recycle delays of 2 and 5 s, respectively. A $\pi/2$ pulse length of 5 μ s was applied for ¹³C and a $\pi/6$ pulse length of 2 μ s for ¹⁵N, using a recycle delay of 90 s in both cases. All ¹³C spectra are referenced to external TMS at 0 ppm using adamantane as a secondary reference. All ¹⁵N spectra are referenced to neat nitromethane CH₃NO₂ at 0 ppm using solid NH₄Cl as a secondary reference. Room temperature photoluminescence (PL) emission spectra of the samples were collected on a Hitachi F-700 fluorescence spectrophotometer at an excitation wavelength of 325 nm. Time-resolved transient photoluminescence (TRPL) spectra were recorded on a fluorescence lifetime spectrophotometer (FLS920, Edinburgh, UK) at an excitation wavelength of 325 nm.

Photoelectrochemical measurement:

The photoelectrochemical measurements for the as-obtained samples were performed by a CHI660 electrochemical workstation (CHENHUA, China) using a standard three-electrode system. The sample was coated onto FTO glass, which was used as working electrode. Platinum wire, Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl) and 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ solution (pH = 6.8) were used as counter electrode, reference electrode and electrolyte, respectively. The transient photocurrent response test was performed by using a 3 W LED (420 nm) as light source. The open-circuit voltages were set as the initial bias voltages in the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy and transient photocurrent tests.

Quantum yield measurement:

The photochemical quantum yield was measured under the same photocatalytic reaction condition except that four 420-nm LEDs (3 W) (Shenzhen LAMPLIC Science Co. Ltd., China) were used as light sources to trigger the photocatalytic reaction, instead of the xenon arc lamp. The LEDs were positioned on the top of the reactor and the focused intensity on the reactor for total of them was ca. 5100 μW/cm². Meanwhile, the catalyst film area in reactor (circle, r = 2.5 cm) was 19.63 cm² and the photon energy (at 420 nm wavelength) was 6.00 × 10⁻¹⁹ J. Thus, quantum yields of CO, CH₄, CH₃OH and C₂H₅OH can be calculated using the following equations. Two, eight, six and twelve electrons are required to convert CO₂ to CO, CH₄, CH₃OH and C₂H₅OH, respectively.

$$\Phi_{CO}(\%) = \frac{2 \text{ mol of CO yield}}{\text{moles of photon absorbed by catalyst}} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$\Phi_{CH_4}(\%) = \frac{8 \text{ mol of CH}_4 \text{ yield}}{\text{moles of photon absorbed by catalyst}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

$$\Phi_{CH_3OH}(\%) = \frac{6 \text{ mol of CH}_3OH \text{ yield}}{\text{moles of photon absorbed by catalyst}} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

$$\Phi_{C_2H_5OH}(\%) = \frac{12 \text{ mol of C}_2H_5OH \text{ yield}}{\text{moles of photon absorbed by catalyst}} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

$$\Phi_{total} = \Phi_{CO} + \Phi_{CH_4} + \Phi_{CH_3OH} + \Phi_{C_2H_5OH} \quad (5)$$

Turnover number (TON) calculation:

The turnover number (TON) is defined as mole of reacted electrons from the system per mole of catalyst after irradiation at a certain time. Therefore, TON of CNNA/rGO (based on the amount of the rGO) for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction under simulated solar light irradiation with 4 hours can be calculated from following eq.(6).

$$TON = \frac{\text{Number of reacted electrons}}{\text{Amount of catalyst}} \quad (6)$$

Table S1 The comparison and contrast of binding energy of various elements for CNNA and common PTI and polymeric CN materials from other literatures.

Sample	Binding energy (eV)					Ref.
	C (1s)	N (1s)	Li (1s)	K (2p)	Cl (2p)	
Bulk CN	283.8	398.1				1
	287.0	399.6	—	—	—	
	287.7	403.1				
Bulk CN	284.6	398.6				2
	288.1	399.6	—	—	—	
	288.8	400.7				
Bulk poly(triazine imide) (PTI)		404.4				3
	284.5	398.2		Not given	197.7	
	286.2	399.8	55.1		199.4	
Amorphous poly(triazine imide) (aPTI)	287.7					4
	284.6	398.5	Not given	Not given	Not given	
	286.1	399.8				
CNNA	287.8	403.6				This work
	284.8	398.7	No signal	293.0	197.8	
	286.5	400.4		295.8	199.6	
	288.3	401.3				
		404.1				

Table S2. Elemental analysis of CNNA and CNNA/rGO.

Sample	C (wt%)	N (wt%)	C/N molar ratio
CNNA	26.97	43.27	0.73
CNNA/rGO	29.85	42.79	0.81

Table S3. The content of K, Li, Cl tested by atomic absorption spectrograph over CNNA and CNNA/rGO.

Sample	Li (wt%)	K (wt%)	Cl (wt%)
CNNA	0.041	4.63	0.051
CNNA/rGO	0.022	3.82	0.037

Table S4. Specific surface area and pore volume of bCN, CNNA and CNNA/rGO.

Sample	S_{BET} ($\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$)	Pore volume ($\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$)
bCN	7	0.02
CNNA	64	0.20
CNNA/rGO	55	0.19

Table S5. The fitted parameters obtained from decay curves of various samples.^a

Sample	τ_1 (ns) (Rel. %)	τ_2 (ns) (Rel. %)	τ_A /ns
bCN	2.56 (39.86)	8.14 (60.14)	7.18
CNNA	2.96 (34.04)	9.74 (65.96)	8.82
CNNA/rGO	4.51 (26.07)	13.53 (73.93)	12.58

^aThe decay curves of bCN, CNNA and CNNA/rGO are well fitted by bi-exponential decay equation ($y = y_0 + A_1 \exp(-t/\tau_1) + A_2 \exp(-t/\tau_2)$). The average lifetime (τ_A) of the fluorescence in each sample is calculated based on the equation ($\tau_A = (A_1\tau_1^2 + A_2\tau_2^2)/(A_1\tau_1 + A_2\tau_2)$). τ_1 and τ_2 represent the short lifetime and the long lifetime, and A_1 and A_2 are the pre-exponential factors of decay curves.

Table S6. The yield of gas products ($\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$) of gas-phase CO_2 photoreduction over various photocatalysts, without any sacrificial agent.

Samples	CH_4	CO	CH_3OH	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$	Total CO_2 conversion	H_2
bCN	0.43	0.46	0.89	0.33	2.11	trace
CNNA	1.74	0.77	trace	0.52	3.03	trace
CNNA/rGO-R1	3.63	1.20	trace	0.68	5.51	0.21
CNNA/rGO	4.30	6.65	0.53	1.15	12.63	1.93
CNNA/rGO-R2	4.07	5.56	0.22	0.74	10.59	0.77
CNNA/rGO-R3	3.47	4.06	trace	0.65	8.18	0.19
CNNA/rGO-R4	1.81	0.62	trace	0.63	3.06	0.14
bCN-K	0.61	0.54	1.27	0.46	2.88	0.17
bCN+KCl	0.45	0.49	0.95	0.37	2.26	0.10

Table S7. Comparison of gas-phase CO₂ photoreduction over carbon nitride-based photocatalysts in the absence of any sacrificial agent reported in literatures.

Photocatalysts and total mass	Light source	Products and yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Ref.
g-C ₃ N ₄ (40 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 200 \text{ nm}$)	CO (2.1) CH ₄ (0.24)	5
Tubular g-C ₃ N ₄ (30 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CO (1.79)	6
Mesoporous g-C ₃ N ₄ (50 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CO (3.27)	7
Phosphorus-doped g-C ₃ N ₄ (50 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CO (2.37) CH ₄ (1.81)	8
Oxygen-doped g-C ₃ N ₄ (50 mg)	350 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CH ₃ OH (0.88)	9
MnO ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄ (50 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CO (3.4)	10
BiOI/g-C ₃ N ₄ (100 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 400 \text{ nm}$)	CO (4.86) CH ₄ (0.18)	11
Bi ₂ WO ₆ /g-C ₃ N ₄ (100 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CO (5.19)	12
SnS ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄ (50 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CH ₄ (0.64) CH ₃ OH (2.3)	13
ZnO/g-C ₃ N ₄ (10 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CH ₃ OH (0.6)	14
Carbon/g-C ₃ N ₄ (100 mg)	500 W Xe lamp	CO (2.51) CH ₄ (1.39)	15
Ru/g-C ₃ N ₄ (15 mg)	300 W Xe lamp (420-780 nm)	CO (4.78) CH ₄ (0.78)	16
Pt/g-C ₃ N ₄ (50 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CH ₄ (0.8)	17
Au/g-C ₃ N ₄ /ZIF-9 (50 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CO (7.66)	18
NiAl-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄ (50 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CO (8.2)	19

Table S8. Comparison of gas-phase CO₂ photoreduction over graphene-based photocatalysts in the absence of any sacrificial agent reported in literatures.

Photocatalysts and total mass	Light source	Products and yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Ref.
Fe ₂ V ₄ O ₁₃ /RGO/CdS (25 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CH ₄ (2.04)	20
Amine-functionalized graphene/CdS (50 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CH ₄ (2.84)	21
Cu/GO (100 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CH ₃ OH (2.94) CH ₃ CHO (3.88)	22
1,1'-bi(2-naphthalene) functionalized graphene quantum dots (100 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CH ₃ OH (0.695)	23
CdS/rGO (100 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$)	CH ₄ (2.51)	24
TiO ₂ /graphene (10 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CO (8.91) CH ₄ (1.14)	25
Ag ₂ CrO ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄ /GO (100 mg)	300 W Xe lamp	CO+CH ₄ (0.35)	26
WO ₃ /graphene (100 mg)	300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 400 \text{ nm}$)	CH ₄ (1.11)	27

Table S9. Details of the quantum efficiency over CNNA/rGO.

Product	yield ^a ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	The quantum efficiency (Φ) (%)
CH ₄	1.38	0.11
CO	3.67	0.074
CH ₃ OH	0.13	0.0078
C ₂ H ₅ OH	0.50	0.062

^aReaction conditions: photocatalyst, 100 mg; light source, 420-nm LEDs.

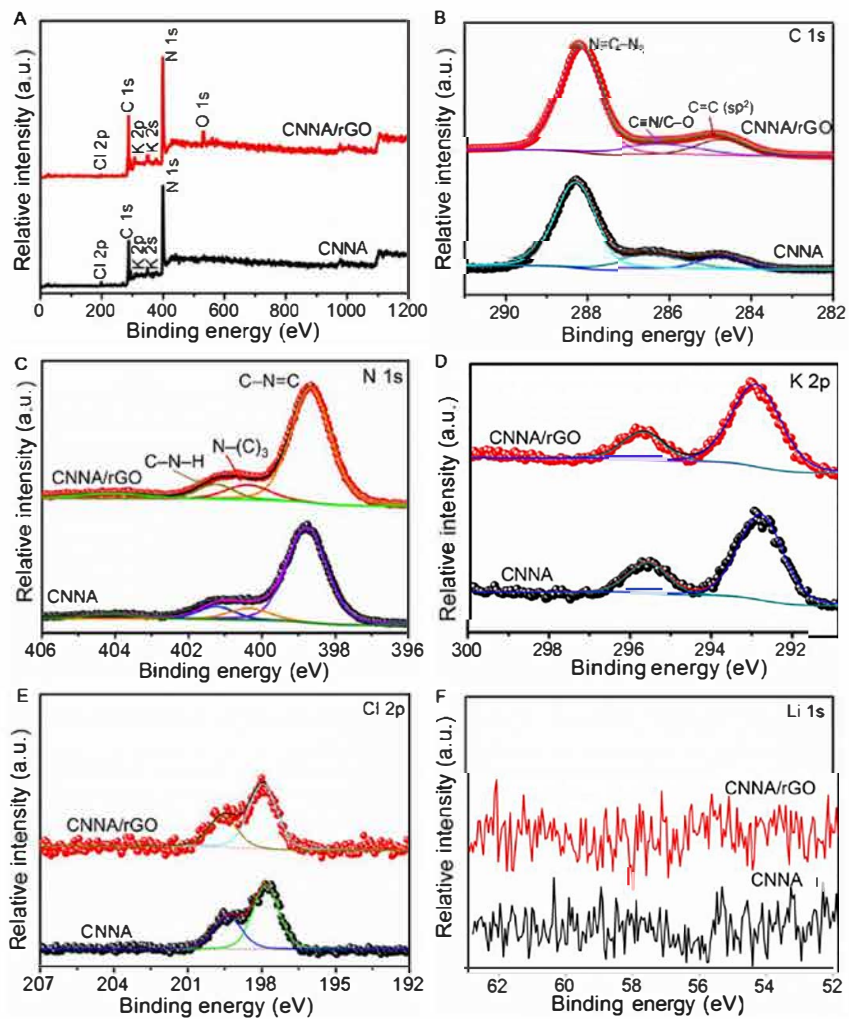


Figure S1. XPS survey spectra (A), high-resolution spectra of the C 1s (B) and N 1s (C) K 2p (D), Cl 2p (E) and Li 1s (F) for CNNA and CNNA/rGO.

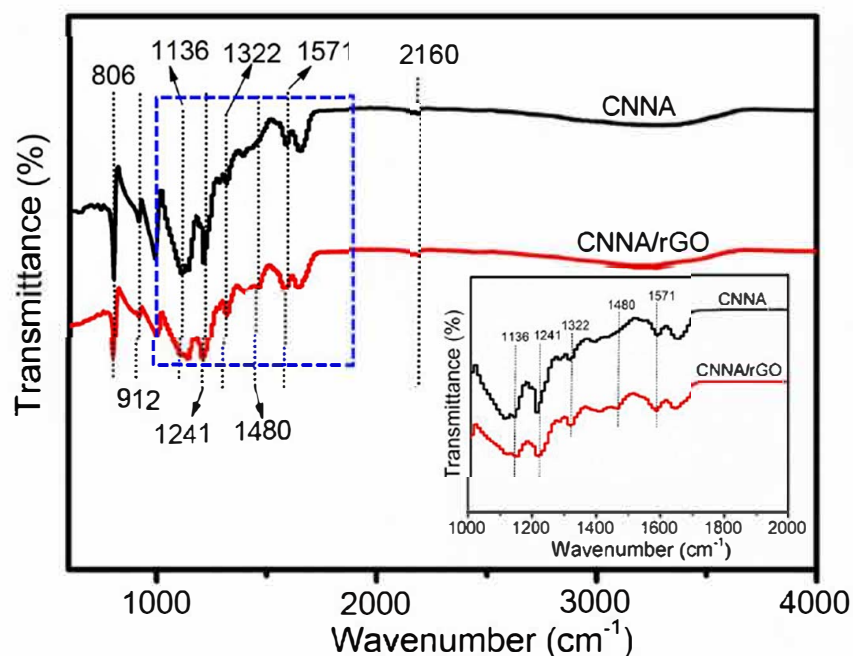


Figure S2. FTIR spectra of CNNA and CNNA/rGO. For both CNNA and CNNA/rGO. The broad peaks in the region of $3000\text{--}3500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ correspond to the stretching vibration modes of amino groups. The peak at 2160 cm^{-1} is assigned to terminal cyano groups $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$. Additionally, the location of peaks at 1571 , 1322 , 1241 , 1136 , 912 and 806 cm^{-1} correspond to the typical absorption peaks of tri-s-triazine derivatives and triazine units. A new peak appeared at 1480 cm^{-1} for the spectrum of CNNA/rGO, which can be assigned to the skeletal vibration of rGO.

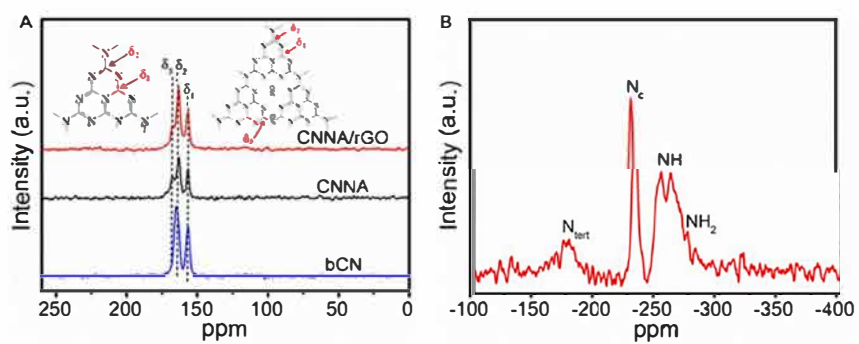


Figure S3. ^{13}C CP-MAS NMR spectra of bCN, CNNA and CNNA/rGO (A); ^{15}N CP-MAS NMR spectrum of the CNNA/rGO (B).

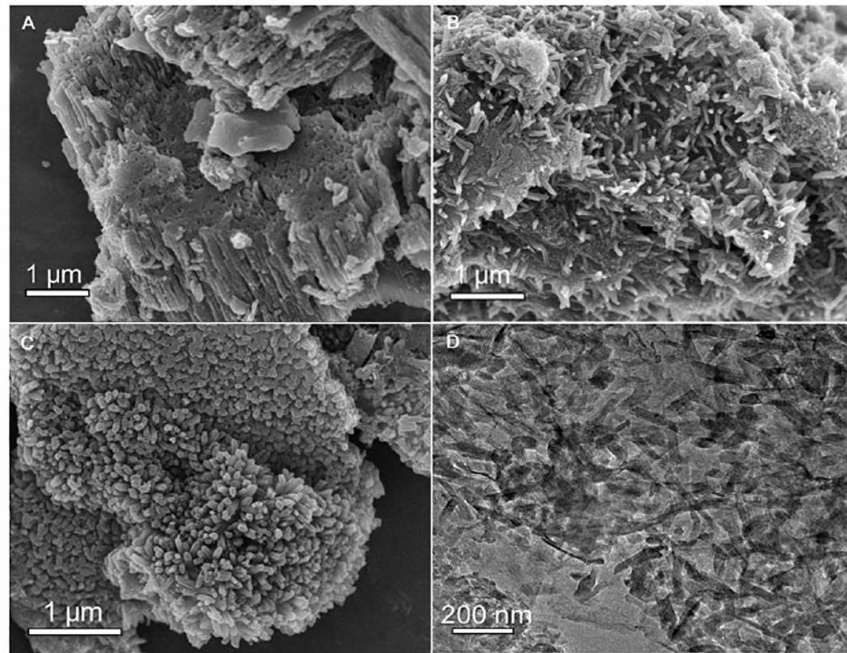


Figure S4. SEM images of (A) bCN, (B) CNNA, (C) CNNA/rGO. (D) TEM image of CNNA/rGO after continuous sonication.

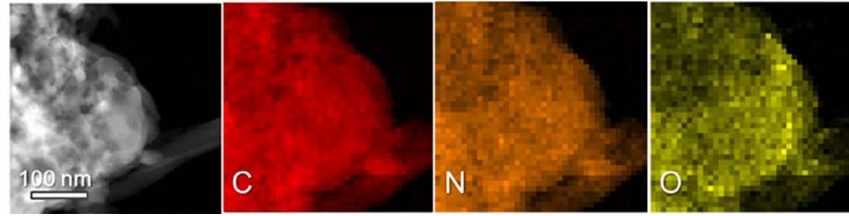


Figure S5. Elemental mapping images of C, N and O for CNNA/rGO.

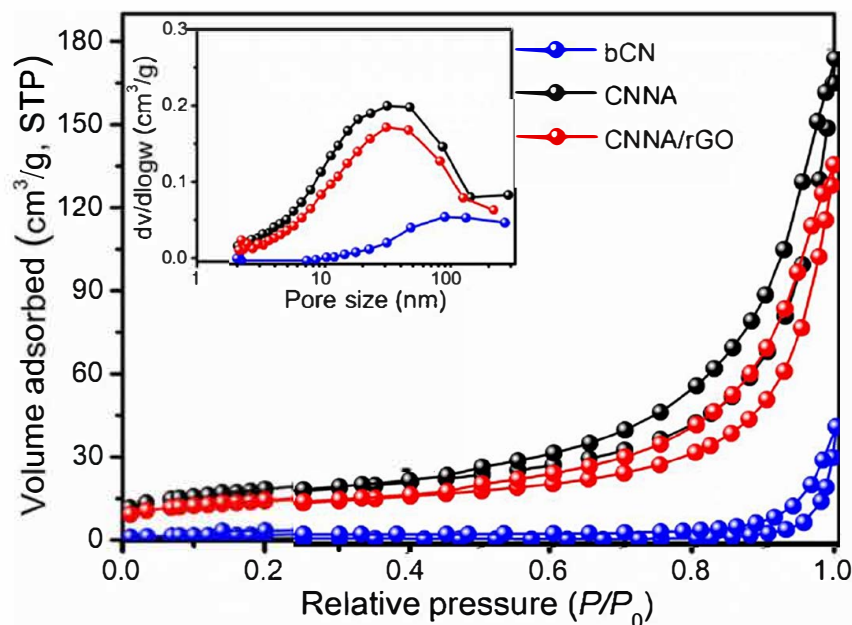


Figure S6. N₂ adsorption–desorption isothermal and the corresponding pore size distribution curves (inset) of bCN, CNNA and CNNA/rGO. The pore size distribution was obtained by the BJH method using adsorption branch data. The three samples show type IV adsorption–desorption isotherm according to the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) classification. The isotherms of CNNA and CNNA/rGO shift upward compared with that of bCN, indicating the enlarged BET surface area of CNNA and CNNA/rGO. Additionally, the hysteresis loops of type H3 for these samples suggest the existence of narrow slit-shaped pores. The inset reveals the significantly increased mesopores and macropores for CNNA and CNNA/rGO, due to the inter-particle or nanorod aggregation.

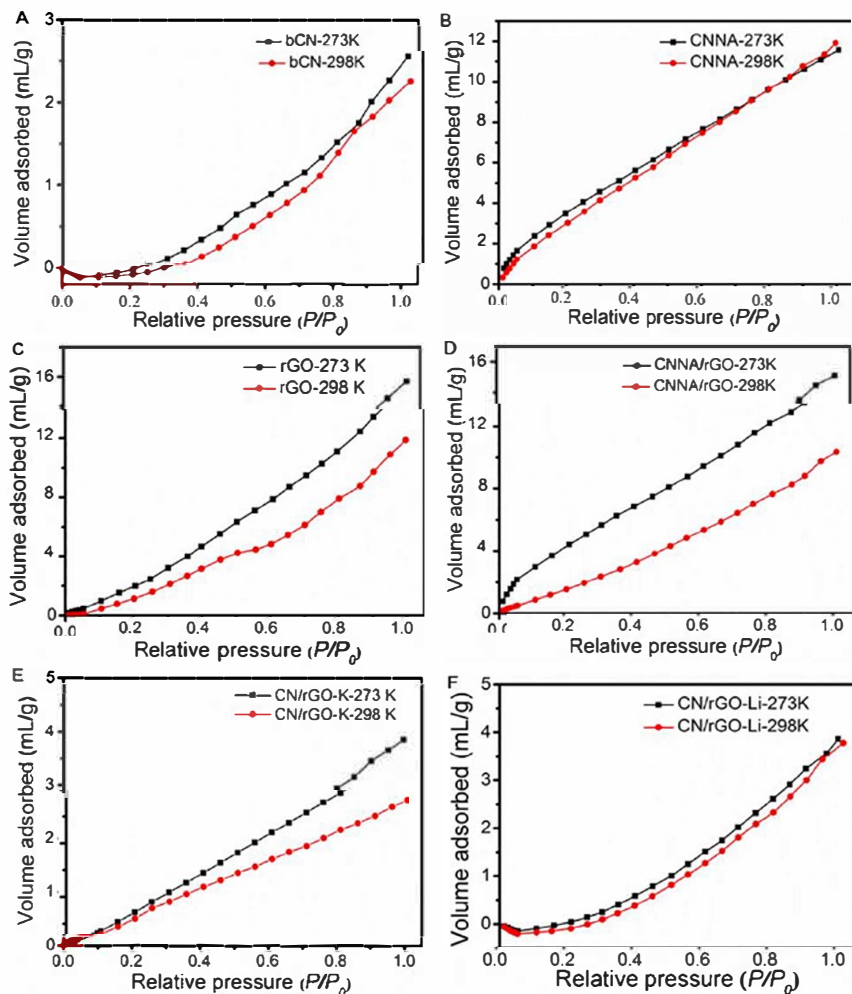


Figure S7. CO₂ adsorption isotherms on bCN (A), CNNA (B), rGO (C), CNNA/rGO (D), CN/rGO-K (E) and CN/rGO-Li (F) at 273K and 298K, respectively.

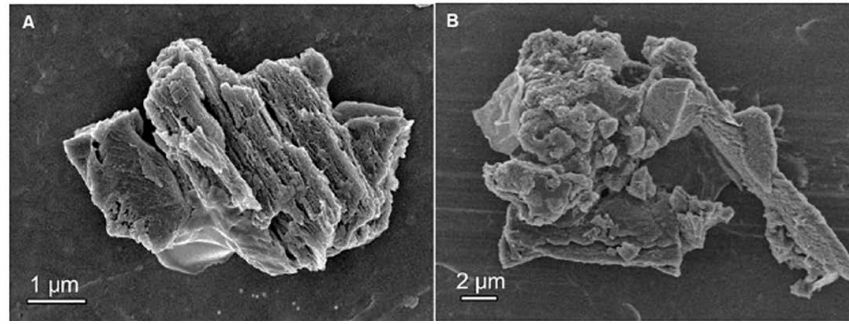


Figure S8. SEM images of CN/rGO-K (A) and CN/rGO-Li (B).

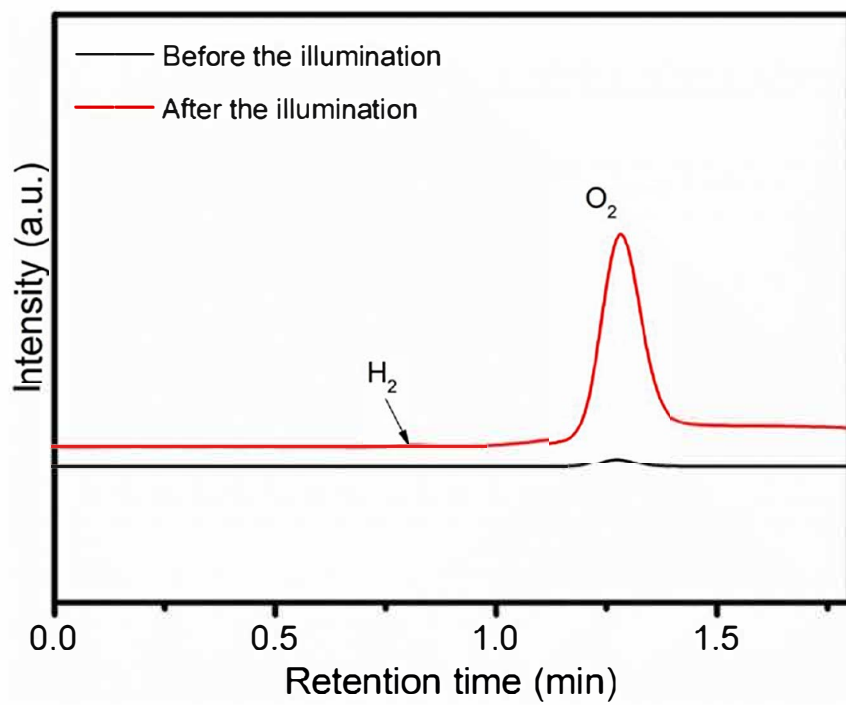


Figure S9. The GC spectra of resulting O₂ after photocatalytic CO₂-reduction reaction over CNNA/rGO.

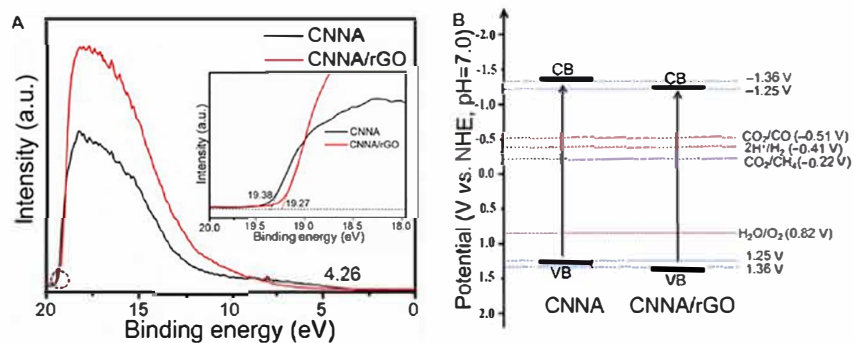


Figure S10. UPS spectra of CNNA and CNNA/rGO (A) and band positions of CNNA and CNNA/rGO (B). The valence band positions (E_{VB}) of CNNA and CNNA/rGO are calculated to be 1.25, and 1.36 V, respectively (vs. NHE, pH=7) by subtracting the width of the He I UPS spectrum from the exciting energy (21.22 eV).

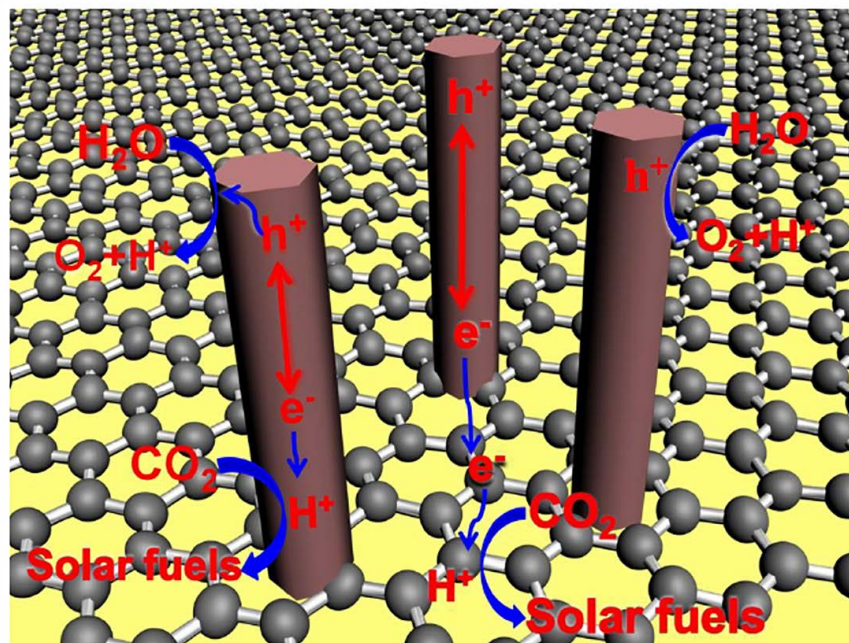


Figure S11. The scheme of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction mechanism on CNNA/rGO.

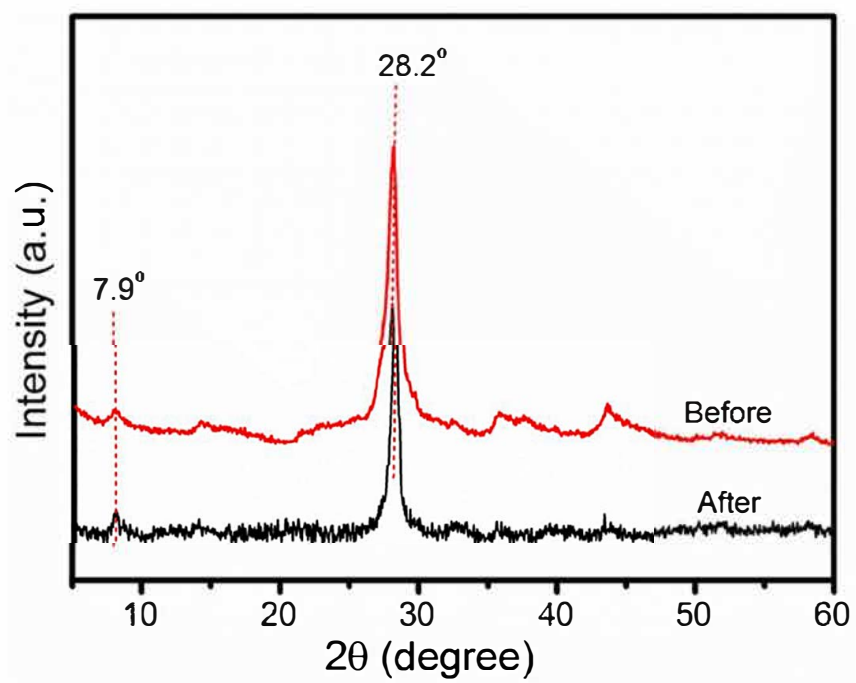


Figure S12. XRD patterns of CNNA/rGO before and after the stability measurement.

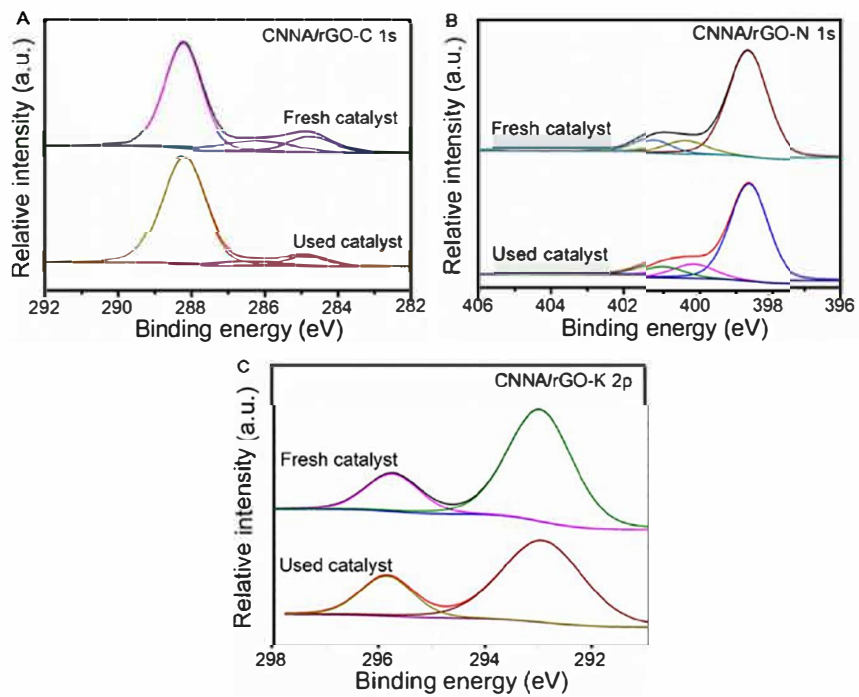


Figure S13. High-resolution XPS spectra of C 1s (A), N 1s (B) and K 2p (C) of CNNA/rGO before and after the stability measurement.

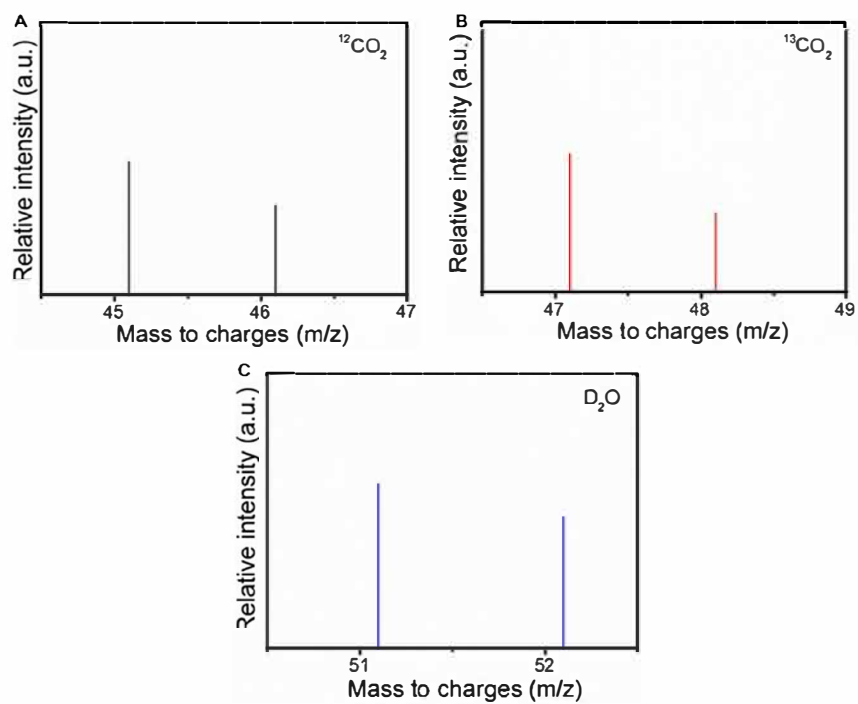


Figure S14. GC-MS analysis of the produced C_2H_5OH over CNNA/rGO using $^{12}CO_2$ to react with H_2O (A), $^{13}CO_2$ to react with H_2O (B) and $^{12}CO_2$ to react with D_2O (C), respectively.

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