

nonmetal hydrides are among the candidate materials suitable for high-capacity hydrogen storage [7]. The listed compounds, like $B_{12}H_{12}$, BH_3 , and $NaAlH_4$, consist of bound hydrogen atoms, which pose challenges in catalysis for breaking the H_2 bond and ensuring efficient loading kinetics. But if the intrinsic binding energy of H_2 is too strong, the kinetics of hydrogen release is also adversely affected. Another option for candidate materials involves utilizing light-element-based materials [8], like carbon nanotubes or other nanostructures, non-carbon-based nanotubes, mesoporous silica, and covalent-organic frameworks (COFs) [9, 10]. With adsorption energies in the meV range, the absorbent material weakly bind to the H_2 molecule, leading to its desorption at extremely low temperatures. High pressures are necessary to ensure sufficient storage due to the weak adsorption energetics. Additional researches reveal that, the addition of a small amount of alkali metals (such as Na, Li, and Ca) significantly boosts the binding strength between carbon nanostructures and H_2 molecules [11–14]. In the case of transition metals (such as Sc, Ti, and V), the H_2 molecule tends to stay at the special metal site due to an interaction combining physisorption and chemisorption [15–17]. However, how to prevent the aggregation of adsorbent metal atoms and the resulting degradation of H_2 storage performance remains a challenge [18–20]. Theoretical findings, in Yoon *et al.*'s study [21], indicate that charging fullerenes increases the adsorption of H_2 molecules, potentially achieving high-capacity hydrogen storage. However, experimental control over the charging of fullerenes is challenging. Theoretical research, conducted by Niu *et al.* [22], demonstrates the potential for molecular binding of H_2 when it is near a positively charged transition-metal ion. Zhou *et al.* [23] have suggested an alternative method for tackling the aforementioned issues concerning hydrogen storage, ensuring efficient reversibility and speedy kinetics. Take boron nitride (BN) as an example, applying an electric field to produce a polarized substrate can significantly improve its hydrogen storage performance. The storage capacity of the BN sheets increases by 7.5 wt% and the release of stored H_2 molecules becomes easy once the electric field is removed, allowing for fast and reversible storage. Nevertheless, the necessary electric field of $23\,000\text{ MV}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$ is excessively huge and impractical for daily use. To decrease the necessary electric field, researchers propose using a substrate with higher polarizability (such as AlN and $H_8Si_8O_{12}$) sheets. While this achieves the required energy for H_2 adsorption with a reduced electric field, for $H_8Si_8O_{12}$ and AlN , the gravimetric densities of stored hydrogen drop significantly to 2.6 and 4.5 wt% respectively. These values fall below the hydrogen storage target set by the U.S. DOE in 2010.

Graphitic carbon nitrides, emerging two-dimensional conjugated polymers, have recently gained significant attentions due to their unique anisotropic geometric morphologies and aromatic p-conjugated frameworks [4,

24]. The chemical formula of these 2D allotropes is C_xN_y , in which x and y are on behalf of the amount of C and N atoms in the unit cell, respectively. They exhibit robust and stable characteristics due to the strong covalent bonds formed between C–C and C–N bonds. The electronic, optical, electrochemical, mechanical, and thermal conduction properties of these carbon nitride allotropes depend on the composition of C and N atoms in different atomic lattices [25]. Their suitable bandgap and surface-engineered qualities make them ideal candidates for a variety of energy and environmental applications [26], such as photocatalytic water splitting [27–29], hydrogen production [30], CO_2 conversion [31], organosynthesis [32], and others [33]. Moreover, the maximum hydrogen storage mass density for Li, Na, and K decorated C_9N_4 monolayers have been reported to reach 7.04, 8.70, and 8.10 wt%, respectively [34, 35]. Those findings suggest that C_9N_4 monolayer has the potential to be used as a hydrogen storage material. However, it remains a major challenge to address the decrease in hydrogen mass density due to the introduction of metal atoms to form metal nanoclusters, which is currently the major obstacle to overcome in utilizing C_9N_4 for hydrogen storage. Recently, charge modulation has been found to be a reliable method for the enhancement of H_2 storage performance of g- C_4N_3 monolayer [36]. Inspired by the exciting result, in this work, we systematically study the hydrogen storage performance of C_9N_4 monolayer and the charge modulation induced enhancement on it through first-principle calculations.

Our work suggests that efficient hydrogen storage could be achieved by adjusting the charge state of g- C_9N_4 nanosheet. The injection of four extra electrons into the adsorbent can significantly decrease the adsorption energy of H_2 molecules on g- C_9N_4 from 0.23 eV to approximately -1.27 eV. When completely covered by hydrogen, negatively charged g- C_9N_4 can achieve gravimetric density of up to 10.8 wt%. The stored H_2 molecules can be readily desorbed from the adsorbent by removing the additional electrons. Notably, unlike other methods of hydrogen storage, the storage and release of H_2 happen naturally, and the control and reversible nature of these processes can be easily achieved by turning the charging voltage on or off. Moreover, given the excellent electrical conductivity and high electron mobility, the experimental modification is flexible to adjust the charge states of g- C_9N_4 . Our predictions could greatly aid in the search for a new type of hydrogen storage materials that possess optimal reversibility and thermodynamics, providing a high storage capacity.

2 Computational methods

The DS-PAW package is used to implement our DFT calculations [37]. We adopt the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) [38] and Heyd–Scuseria–Ernzerhof (HSE06) [39]

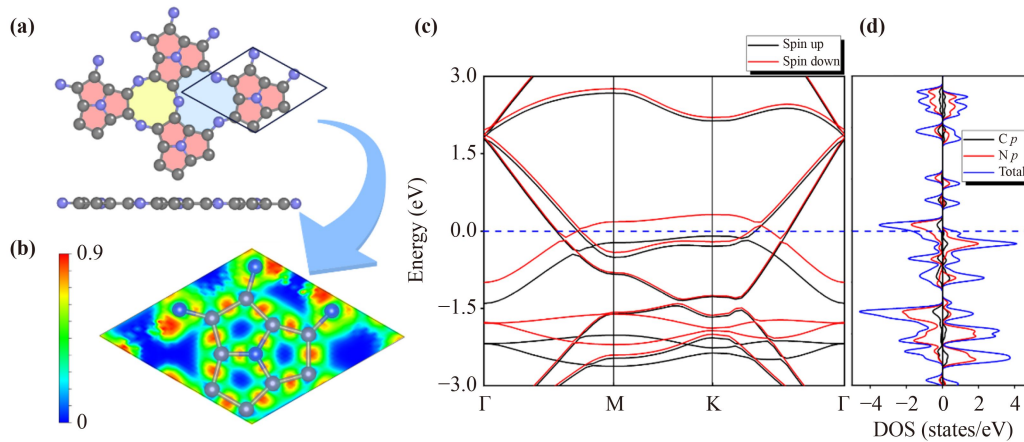


Fig. 1 (a) Top and side views of a reconstructed C₉N₄ monolayer. The N and C atoms are symbolized by the blue and grey balls correspondingly. (b) Electron localization functions. (c) The electronic band structure and (d) the projected density of states, relative to the Fermi level, which is represented by the blue dashed line.

functional in conjunction with a generalized gradient approximation (GGA). Our computations utilize a DFT+D3 approach in Grimme's scheme to describe the van der Waals (vdW) correction [40, 41]. To examine the interaction between H₂ molecules and C₉N₄ nanosheets, we put a H₂ molecule on a 1 × 1 C₉N₄ cell, employing periodic boundary conditions in the *x-y* plane. To prevent interactions between periodic images, the vacuum space along the *z* direction is increased to more than 20 Å. In geometric optimizations, all atomic coordinates are entirely relaxed, guaranteeing that the residual atomic forces are less than 0.05 eV/Å, and the total energy is converged to 10⁻⁴ eV. A 5 × 5 × 2 Monkhorst-Pack k-point mesh is used to simulate the Brillouin zone interaction. The average adsorption energy of the adsorption system composed by *n* H₂ molecules adsorbing on the C₉N₄ monolayer is defined as

$$\bar{E}_{\text{ads}} = (E_{\text{total}} - n_{\text{H}_2} E_{\text{H}_2} - E_{\text{C}_9\text{N}_4}) / n_{\text{H}_2}, \quad (1)$$

where $E_{\text{C}_9\text{N}_4}$, E_{H_2} , E_{total} , and n_{H_2} stand for the total energy of isolated C₉N₄ monolayer, an individual H₂ molecule, the adsorption system, and the amount of the adsorbed H₂ molecules. When $n_{\text{H}_2} = 1$, the \bar{E}_{ads} stands for the adsorption energy of one H₂ molecule adsorbing on the C₉N₄ monolayer. Based on this definition, the greater the negative adsorption energy, the stronger the binding of the H₂ molecule to the adsorbent. With the Bader method, the determination of electron distribution and transfer mechanism is accomplished.

Plane integration charge density difference (CDD) is performed using the following formula [42]:

$$\Delta\rho = \rho_{\text{total}} - \rho_{\text{C}_9\text{N}_4} - \rho_{\text{H}_2}, \quad (2)$$

where ρ_{H_2} and $\rho_{\text{C}_9\text{N}_4}$ are defined as the charge densities of the adsorbed H₂ molecule and C₉N₄ monolayer, respectively. ρ_{total} represents the charge density of the adsorption configuration.

To measure the stability of the C₉N₄ monolayer, the binding energy E_b is calculated using the following equation [43]:

$$E_b = (E_{\text{C}_9\text{N}_4} - n_{\text{C}} E_{\text{C}} - n_{\text{N}} E_{\text{N}}) / (n_{\text{C}} + n_{\text{N}}), \quad (3)$$

where $E_{\text{C}_9\text{N}_4}$, n_{C} , n_{N} , E_{C} and E_{N} are defined as the total energy of the C₉N₄ monolayer, the numbers of C and N atoms in the unit cell, the energies of the isolated C and N elements, respectively.

3 Result and discussion

3.1 Geometric and electronic structures of C₉N₄ monolayer

We first investigate the geometric and electronic structures of C₉N₄ monolayer. Figure 1(a) illustrates the hexagonal atomic lattices of the energy minimized C₉N₄ monolayer. These hexagonal atomic lattices consisting of porous structures are formed by three pentagon cores [pink areas in Fig. 1(a)] connected by the N atoms. The porous structures exhibit repetitive 12 and 9 membered rings [yellow and blue areas in Fig. 1(a), respectively] composed of covalent networks of C and N atoms. The hexagonal lattice constant of C₉N₄ monolayers is measured to be 6.95 Å, which is considerably very close to the previously observed lattice value of 6.88 Å [43]. In the single layer C₉N₄, the C–C bond length in the 9-membered rings is 1.56 Å, while the one in the 12-membered rings is 1.46 Å. Clearly, the C–N bonds, serving as connectors of pentagon cores, exhibit the shortest bond lengths, indicative of their high rigidity. Conversely, the C–C bonds in the 9 membered rings are the longest bonds in the nanosheet. As displayed in Fig. 1(b), the electron localization function (ELF) demonstrates that, the electron localization is around the center of all the C–C and C–N bonds, confirming the

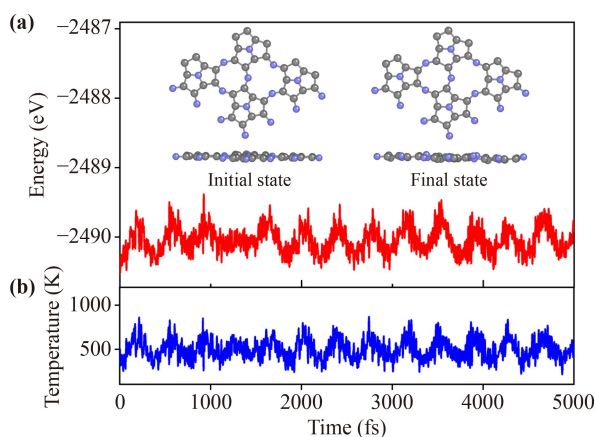


Fig. 2 (a) AIMD simulations on total energy for C_9N_4 monolayer for 5 ps with a time step of 1 fs at 500 K. (b) The corresponding temperature for each step.

prevalence of covalent bonding in these innovative nano-materials. Strong electron localization is also around the N atoms acting as connectors of pentagon cores. The binding energy for C_9N_4 monolayer is calculated to be -8.50 eV/atom, almost the same as the previous result (-8.46 eV/atom) reported by Mortazavi's group [43], who has confirmed the dynamical and structural stability of C_9N_4 monolayer based on the phonon dispersion calculation results. Besides, the stability and reducibility of a novel material are typically determined by the thermal stability, a crucial factor in their overall performance. *Ab initio* molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulations are conducted for 5 ps at the temperature of 500 K to evaluate the thermal stability of the C_9N_4 monolayer. The slight fluctuation in total energy and the minor geometric reconstructions reveal that, C_9N_4 nanosheet can remain completely intact at temperature up to 500 K (see Fig. 2). Both the dynamic and thermal stabilities of C_9N_4 nanosheet offer promising insights into its potential for experimental synthesis and practical applications at room temperature.

Next, we explore the electronic characteristics of the C_9N_4 nanosheet by calculating the electronic band structure along the high symmetry Γ -M-K- Γ path and density of states (DOS) using the PBE/GGA method. The electronic band structure of the C_9N_4 monolayer, depicted in Fig. 1(c), reveals an overlap of the conduction and valence bands at the Fermi level, indicating metallic electronic features, which differs from most carbon nitride 2D systems with semiconductor properties. As displayed in Fig. 1(d), the corresponding DOS shows that, the Fermi level is crossed by both N 2*p* and C 2*p* orbitals, which is the origin of the metallic character. Considering that the PBE function usually underestimates the band gap, we use the HSE06 hybrid function to obtain a more accurate electronic band structure. As shown in Fig. S1 of the Electronic Supplementary Materials (ESM), the HSE06 result favors the conclusion that

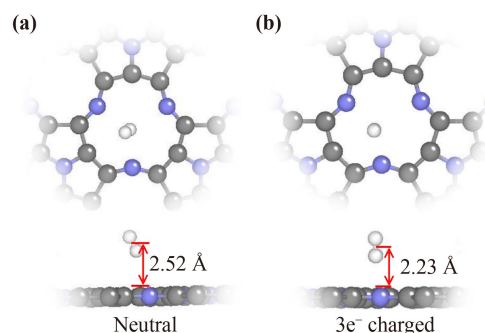


Fig. 3 Top and side views of the lowest-energy configurations of (a) neutral and (b) $3e^-$ charged C_9N_4 monolayers with a H_2 molecule adsorbed on them, respectively. The blue, grey and white balls represent N, C, and H atoms, respectively. The adsorption distance, which is apart from the barycenter of the adsorbed H_2 molecule to the surface of the C_9N_4 monolayer, is marked out in the figure.

the C_9N_4 monolayer is metallic as well. The metallicity means that C_9N_4 possesses favorable electrical conductivity, making it conducive for efficient electron injection and release. This property is particularly advantageous for charge-controlled switchable hydrogen storage applications.

3.2 Single H_2 molecule adsorption on neutral and negatively charged C_9N_4 nanosheets

In our investigation of the C_9N_4 monolayer's hydrogen storage capabilities in the following, we initially explore the H_2 adsorption on neutral C_9N_4 nanosheets. As shown in Fig. S2 of the ESM, on the surface of C_9N_4 monolayer, there are two kinds of N and C atoms, respectively. We separately mark them as N1 (three-coordinated N atom), N2 (two-coordinated N atom), C1 (C atom attached to N1 atom), and C2 (C atom attached to N2 atom). Besides, as mentioned above, there are three regions, i.e., five-membered, nine-membered, and twelve-membered rings. Therefore, we considered 7 kinds of sites for H_2 molecule adsorption, which are the top of (i) five-membered ring, marked with **F**, (ii) nine-membered ring, marked with **Nr**, (iii) twelve-membered ring, marked with **T**, (iv) N1 atom, marked with **N1**, (v) N2 atom, marked with **N2**, (vi) C1 atom, marked with **C1**, (vii) C2 atom, marked with **C2**.

As listed in Table S1 of the ESM, among the considered cases, the configuration where the H_2 molecule is adsorbed at the **T** site [see Fig. 3(a)] exhibits the lowest total energy, indicating the most favorable adsorption site. In this configuration, the adsorbed H_2 molecule is aligned perpendicular to the surface of C_9N_4 monolayer, and situated 2.52 Å vertically away from the C_9N_4 monolayer, while the bond length between the two hydrogen atoms is 0.76 Å. In the neutral state, the H_2 molecule demonstrates a weak interaction with C_9N_4 ,

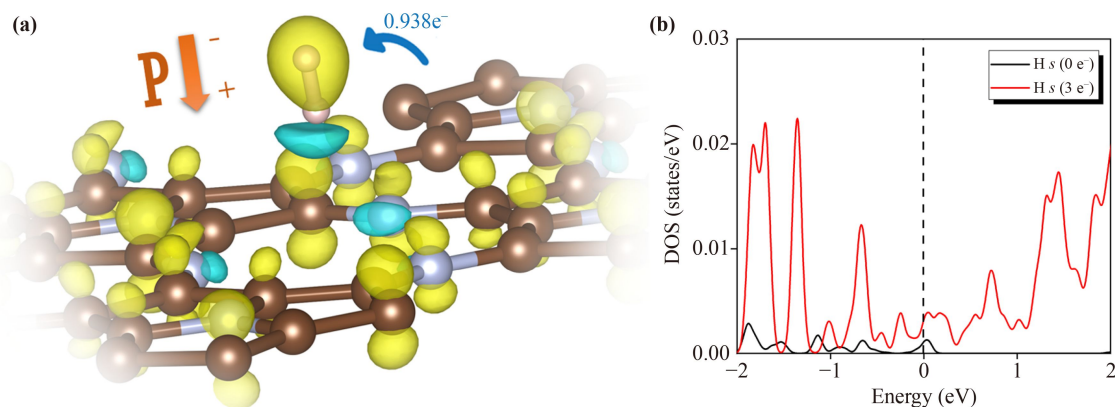


Fig. 4 (a) The charge density difference for the adsorption system, constructed by a H_2 molecule adsorbing on $3e^-$ negatively charged C_9N_4 . Yellow and cyan regions refer to the electron-rich and -deficient areas, respectively. The isosurface value is $7 \times 10^{-4} e/\text{au}$. (b) The H s -orbital from the adsorbed H_2 , before and after the introduction of three electrons, with the dashed line being the Fermi energy level.

resulting in an adsorption energy of $0.24 \text{ eV}/\text{H}_2$. The positive value of the adsorption energy indicates an endothermic adsorption process. By comparison, the inverse process, the desorption process, is exothermic and can occur spontaneously.

Then, we inject three additional electrons into the C_9N_4 monolayer, and obtain the most stable configuration for the H_2 adsorption [Fig. 3(b)]. The H_2 molecule, that is perpendicular to C_9N_4 monolayer, still is situated in close proximity on the **T** site. However, compared to the case of the H_2 molecule adsorption on neutral C_9N_4 monolayer, the vertical adsorption distance decreases from 2.52 to 2.23 \AA , while the H–H bond length increases from 0.75 to 0.76 \AA . Moreover, the adsorption energy is significantly decreased to $-1.08 \text{ eV}/\text{H}_2$, indicating a spontaneous adsorption process for the H_2 molecule on the $3e^-$ negatively charged C_9N_4 monolayer.

The significant enhancement in the adsorption capacity of the negatively charged C_9N_4 monolayer probably comes from the enhanced electrostatic interactions between the adsorbate and adsorbent, which depends on the charge transfer at the interface. According to Bader analysis, we find that there is almost no charge transfer (merely $0.003e$) between the H_2 and neutral C_9N_4 monolayer. As the increasing number of injected electrons in C_9N_4 monolayer, there is a significant increase in the electron transfer from negatively charged C_9N_4 monolayer to the adsorbed H_2 molecule. For instance, the adsorbed H_2 molecule obtains up to $0.94e$ from the $3e^-$ negatively charged C_9N_4 monolayer. It is noteworthy that the H atom, closer to the adsorbent, carries a positive charge ($+0.14e$), while the other H atom carries a negative charge ($-1.08e$), implying that the electrons of the H_2 molecule are polarized.

To comprehend the interfacial charge transfer, we visualize it by computing the CDD. As plotted in Fig. 4(a), an electron-rich area (yellow region) is

distributed on the upper H atom, while an electron-depleted area (cyan region) is observed on the lower H atom, which verifies the polarization of the adsorbed H_2 molecule. The possible explanation for the polarization could be expressed as follows. A larger number of electrons are aggregated on the C atoms (yellow region) and delocalized over the N atoms (cyan region). The presence of charge reconstruction at the surface of $3e^-$ negatively charged C_9N_4 monolayer creates a strong electric field [44], which, in turn, polarizes the adsorbed H_2 molecule, significantly increasing the adsorption capacity of the negatively charged C_9N_4 for H_2 molecules. In addition, we also calculate the density of states of the adsorbed hydrogen molecule with (red line) and without (black line) the introduction of the three extra electrons. Clearly, after the three extra electrons are introduced into the adsorbent, the peaks of the s -orbitals of the H_2 molecule near the Fermi energy level are obviously increased, indicating that the activity of the hydrogen molecule has been greatly enhanced, aligning with the conclusions drawn above.

To comprehensively explore the relationship between the details of H_2 adsorption and the number of injected electrons in the adsorbent, we calculate the changes in H–H bond length, vertical adsorption distance, adsorption energy, and H_2 dipole moment in the adsorption system for different charged states of the adsorbent. As displayed in Fig. 5(a), the H–H bond length exhibits a slight increase (less than 1.99%) with the rising number of injected electrons, which indicates that the shape of the adsorbed hydrogen molecule remains intact and is not obviously affected by the external charges. However, as shown in Fig. 5(b), along with the increasing injected electrons, there is a pronounced decrease (up to 15.48%) in the vertical adsorption distance between the H_2 molecule and the adsorbent, from 2.52 \AA (neutral state) to $2.13 \text{ e}\cdot\text{\AA}$ ($5e^-$ charged state). The decreased adsorption

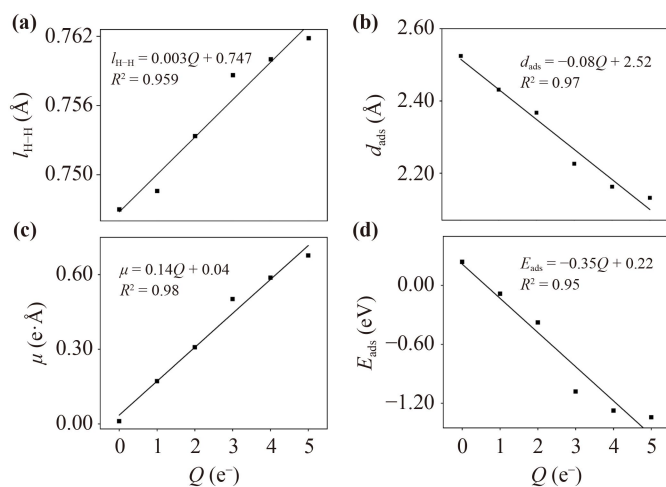


Fig. 5 (a) The H–H bond length, (b) vertical distance from H₂ to C₉N₄, (c) induced dipole moment of H₂ molecule and (d) adsorption energy as well as their corresponding fittings, with respect to the amount of charge introduced (Q). Q could represent the valence of C₉N₄ monolayer. R^2 is the correlation coefficient.

distance predicts an enhanced interaction between the adsorbed H₂ molecule and adsorbent, originating from the polarization of adsorbed H₂ molecule, as discussed before. The increase in electron density, resulting from the increasing injected electrons, amplifies the electric field at the surface of the negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer, therefore, leading to a shift in the electronic polarization of the adsorbed H₂ molecule. This shift is evident in the raised dipole moment, as illustrated in Fig. 5(c), increasing from 0.01 e·Å (neutral state) to 0.68 e·Å (5e⁻ charged state). Not surprisingly, the adsorption energies of a H₂ molecule on C₉N₄ monolayer become more negative, as the number of the injected electrons increases. For the traditional hydrogen storage materials, excessively negative adsorption energies usually ask for an extremely high temperature to release the adsorbed H₂ molecule, which may lead to serious energy consumption and the decomposition of the hydrogen storage materials. So that, the U.S. DOE standard requires the ideal adsorption energies larger than -0.60 eV/H₂. However, for the negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer, the release of hydrogen only requires the removal of the extra charge, making it nearly temperature-independent. From this standpoint, the more negative the adsorption energy, the better the hydrogen storage performance of C₉N₄ monolayer. As shown in Fig. 5(d), the adsorption energy falls below -0.38 eV/H₂ when the number of injected electrons exceeds two, satisfying the upper limit (≤ -0.20 eV/H₂) requirement from U.S. DOE standard for the adsorption. Therefore, the negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer proves to be an exceptional medium for hydrogen storage.

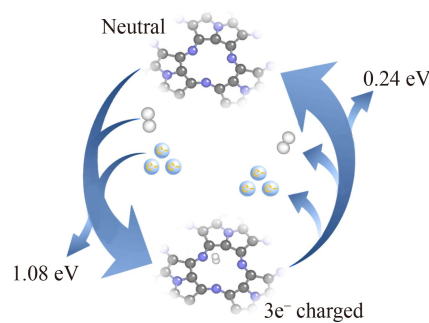


Fig. 6 Reversible energy cycle diagram of C₉N₄ monolayer adsorbing and releasing an H₂ molecule through introducing and removing electrons.

3.3 Potential kinetic pathways for hydrogen storage/release on C₉N₄ monolayer

To elucidate the potential kinetic pathways for hydrogen storage/release on the C₉N₄ monolayer, we examine the energy transformation during these two processes. Herein, as illustrate in Fig. 6, we take the case of addition/removal of the three extra electrons into the C₉N₄ monolayer as an example. During the H₂ adsorption process, introducing three additional electrons into C₉N₄ causes a significant increase in the interactions between the H₂ molecule and the 3e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄, leading to the spontaneous binding of the H₂ molecule with an adsorption energy of -1.08 eV/H₂. The process exhibits an exothermic nature with a heat release of 1.08 eV/H₂. In contrast, when three electrons are extracted from the 3e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer, the H₂ molecule naturally returns to a weakly bonded state and detaches from C₉N₄ surface. This transition releases energy amounting to 0.24 eV/H₂. In order to remove the electrons smoothly, it is likewise necessary for C₉N₄ to maintain its metallicity after adsorbing H₂ molecules. To validate this issue, we calculate the DOS of C₉N₄ monolayer in this case. As shown in Fig. S3 of the ESM, some electronic states pass the Fermi energy level, indicating that the C₉N₄ monolayer with the introduction of a H₂ molecule still maintains its metallicity. Consequently, the process of adsorbing and releasing hydrogen on C₉N₄ monolayer is reversible, and it exhibits rapid kinetics. Additionally, the control of these two processes can be easily achieved by introducing or removing extra electrons.

3.4 The gravimetric density of stored hydrogen on negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayers

According to the results of adsorption energy shown in Fig. 4(d), the 3e⁻–5e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayers have a relatively more negative value (less than -1.00 eV), so we choose these three cases to study the gravimetric density of stored hydrogen on negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayers. As shown in Figs. S4, S5, and

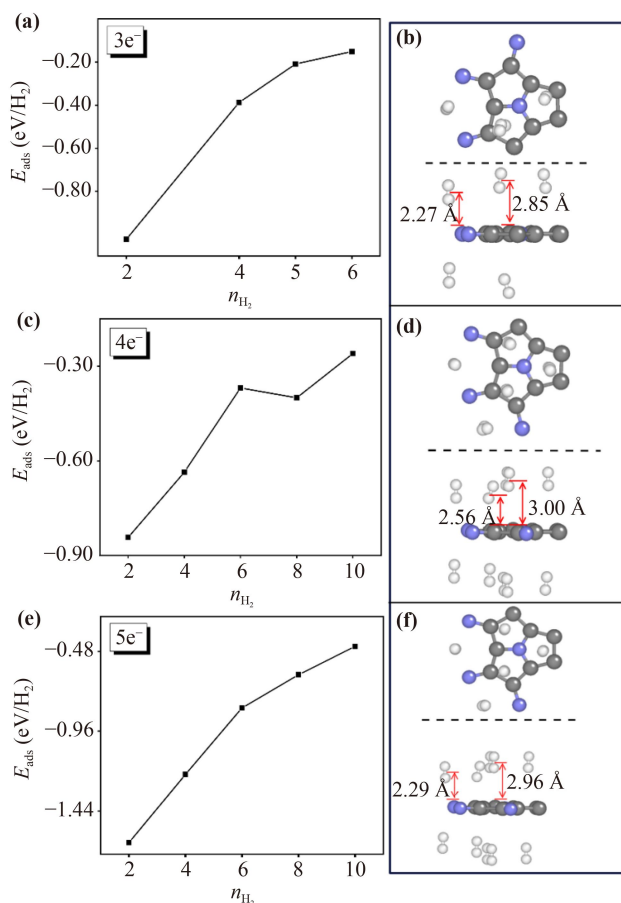


Fig. 7 Average adsorption energy of H₂ on the (a) 3e⁻, (c) 4e⁻, and (e) 5e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer with different coverage. Top and side views of the lowest-energy configuration of (b) 3e⁻, (d) 4e⁻, and (f) 5e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ at full hydrogen coverage.

S6 of the ESM, on the 3e⁻–5e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayers, we separately add one hydrogen molecule to each of the top and bottom symmetric positions at a time. That is to say, we add two hydrogen molecules every time.

For the case of 3e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayers, when the number of the introduced hydrogen molecules equals to six ($n_{\text{H}_2} = 6$), the average adsorption energy is $[-0.15 \text{ eV/H}_2]$, seeing Fig. 7(a)], which is already over the highest average adsorption energy of U.S. DOE standard (-0.20 eV/H_2). Then, we test the case of $n_{\text{H}_2} = 5$, and the optimized adsorption structure is shown in Fig. 7(b). The average adsorption energy is -0.21 eV/H_2 , falling within the average adsorption energy of U.S. DOE standard. But in this case, the hydrogen storage mass density is only 5.70 wt%, which does not satisfy the U.S. DOE standard for hydrogen storage mass density (6.5 wt%).

As illustrated in Fig. 7(c) and Fig. S3 of the ESM, the 4e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ has the capacity to capture a maximum of 10 H₂ molecules, with a decrease in average

adsorption energy from -1.27 eV/H_2 ($n_{\text{H}_2} = 1$) to -0.26 eV/H_2 ($n_{\text{H}_2} = 10$). As shown in Fig. S7 of the ESM, due to the steric hindrance effect between the H₂ molecules during adsorption, the introduction of more hydrogen molecules ($n_{\text{H}_2} = 12$) causes a release of hydrogen molecules, whose adsorption distance is over 4 Å, undoubtedly beyond the van der Waals force region. As a result, we decide that $n_{\text{H}_2} = 10$ is a probable threshold for complete hydrogen coverage, and the optimized configuration is shown in Fig. 7(d). Significantly, the gravimetric density of stored hydrogen is 10.8 wt%, greatly surpassing the U.S. DOE standard for hydrogen storage mass density. It is also larger than many traditional hydrogen storage two-dimensional materials, such as Ti decorated graphene (7.80 wt%) [45], Li decorated penta-octa-graphenes (9.90 wt%) [46], Ti decorated penta-octa-graphenes (6.50 wt%) [46], Li decorated boron phosphide (4.92 wt%) [47], Na decorated boron phosphide (4.56 wt%) [47], Na decorated boron monolayer (6.80 wt%), and Ca decorated boron monolayer (7.60 wt%) [48]. Moreover, with regard to raising the hydrogen storage mass density of C₉N₄ monolayer, introducing extra electrons is more efficient than introducing extra single metal atoms. For Li, Na, and K decorated C₉N₄ monolayers, the maximum hydrogen storage mass density (7.04, 8.70, and 8.10 wt%, respectively) [34, 35] are all below the one of 4e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer (10.80 wt%).

At last, we conduct the calculations on the hydrogen storage mass density of 5e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer. Our calculations reveal that, the hydrogen storage mass density of the 5e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer is the same as that in the 4e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer. Comparatively speaking, the average adsorption energy $[-0.45 \text{ eV/H}_2]$, see Fig. 7(e) under the case of $n_{\text{H}_2} = 10$ for the 5e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer is lower than the one (-0.26 eV/H_2) for the 4e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayer. Substantially enhanced repulsive force between the adsorbed molecules in the excessive density led to the escape of adsorbed H₂ molecules, as we continued to introduce H₂ molecules on the $n_{\text{H}_2} = 10$ adsorption system (seeing Fig. S6 of the ESM). So, $n_{\text{H}_2} = 10$ is served as a likely threshold for achieving complete hydrogen coverage, and Fig. 7(f) illustrates the optimized configuration.

In general, the less charge injected into a conductor, the lower the amount of external energy required, and the lower the demands on the electronics, thus the easier it is to realize. Therefore, from a cost-effective point of view, the realization of adsorbing and releasing hydrogen during the conversion of neutral and 4e⁻ negatively charged C₉N₄ monolayers is a preferable option.

4 Conclusions

In summary, based on the DFT calculation results, we

demonstrate that modification in the charged condition enables C_9N_4 monolayer to achieve high-capacity hydrogen storage. This approach is experimentally feasible, possesses good reversibility, and exhibits fast kinetics. Specifically, the metallicity suggests that C_9N_4 possesses favorable electrical conductivity, enabling efficient electron injection and release for charge-controlled switchable hydrogen storage. During the H_2 adsorption process, introducing additional electrons into C_9N_4 causes the spontaneous binding of the H_2 molecule, exhibiting an exothermic nature. When extra electrons are extracted from negatively charged C_9N_4 monolayer, the H_2 molecule naturally revert to the state of weak bonding and detach from C_9N_4 monolayer. Moreover, the gravimetric density of stored hydrogen on $4e^-$ negatively charged C_9N_4 monolayer is up to 10.80 wt%, greatly surpassing the U.S. DOE standard and the values of many traditional hydrogen storage materials. Our work offers a potential solution to address the primary obstacles associated with mobile hydrogen storage.

Declarations The authors declare that they have no competing interests and there are no conflicts.

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