



# Copper Nitride ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ ): A Review on Properties, Synthesis and Applications

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## Abstract:

Copper nitride ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ ) has emerged as a metastable, earth-abundant semiconductor with a range of functional properties attractive for next-generation energy, electronics, and environmental applications. Structurally,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  crystallizes in a cubic anti- $\text{ReO}_3$ -type lattice ( $Pm\bar{3}m$ ), offering a tunable indirect bandgap ranging from 0.8 to 2.0 eV depending on synthesis method and defect concentration [1,2]. Advances in deposition techniques - including magnetron sputtering [3], chemical vapor deposition [4], and colloidal synthesis [5] have enabled precise control over film crystallinity, morphology, and electronic doping. Recent studies have demonstrated bipolar doping behavior, where  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  can exhibit either *n*-type or *p*-type conductivity depending on growth conditions, a rare feature among inorganic semiconductors [6].

$\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  also exhibits visible-light absorption, a high absorption coefficient, and low toxicity, positioning it as a potential candidate for solar absorbers [7], transparent conductors, and thin-film photovoltaics [8]. Additionally, its rich defect chemistry and surface reactivity make it highly effective in catalysis (e.g., electrochemical nitrate-to-ammonia conversion [9]) and gas sensing (notably  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  detection at low temperatures) [10]. Nanostructured and porous  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  architectures, synthesized via template-free aerosol and non-classical crystallization routes, have significantly improved its performance in supercapacitors and battery systems [11,12].

Despite its promise,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ 's thermal metastability (decomposing above  $\sim 300\text{--}400^\circ\text{C}$ ), limited phase stability in air, and scalability challenges remain key obstacles to commercialization. Ongoing research aims to overcome these limitations through doping, heterostructure integration, and surface ligand engineering [5,13]. This review synthesizes recent progress in the structural, optical, and functional properties of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ , with emphasis on linking synthesis strategies to performance in photovoltaics, catalysis, gas sensing, and flexible electronics.

**Key words:** Anti- $\text{ReO}_3$ , Heterostructure, Metastability, Photocatalytic, Photocatalysts

## 1. Introduction

Copper nitride ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ ) has gained significant attention over the past two decades as a metastable, non-toxic, and earth-abundant semiconductor with promising properties for applications in electronics, optoelectronics, energy storage, and catalysis. It belongs to the class of transition metal nitrides and is particularly attractive due to its favorable bandgap, cost-effective synthesis routes, and environmental compatibility compared to traditional semiconductors such as CdTe or GaAs [1,2]. Crystallographically,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  adopts a cubic anti- $\text{ReO}_3$  structure (space group  $Pm\bar{3}m$ ), where copper atoms occupy the face-centered positions and nitrogen resides at the center of the unit cell [14]. This structure allows for rich defect chemistry, particularly the presence of copper interstitials ( $\text{Cu}_i$ ) and

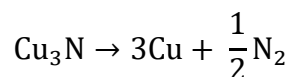
vacancies ( $V_{Cu}$ ), which significantly influence its electronic behavior and enable bipolar doping - a rare feature for an inorganic semiconductor [6,15]. Notably,  $Cu_3N$  can exhibit *n*-type conductivity at low temperatures due to  $Cu_i$  donors, and *p*-type conductivity at higher synthesis temperatures due to Cu vacancies, offering tunability of charge carrier type through process conditions [16]. While thermodynamically metastable under ambient conditions,  $Cu_3N$  is kinetically stable and can be processed at relatively low temperatures (100–300 °C), making it compatible with flexible substrates and scalable deposition methods such as magnetron sputtering, pulsed laser deposition, and solution-based approaches [3,8]. Its moderate bandgap (typically ranging between 1.2 and 2.0 eV) and high absorption coefficient in the visible region make it particularly suitable as a potential absorber layer in thin-film photovoltaics [7]. Moreover, the material exhibits excellent optical transmittance when prepared in thin-film form, making it also viable for applications in transparent conducting layers and optical coatings [10].

Recent advances in colloidal synthesis have further expanded the utility of  $Cu_3N$  by enabling the fabrication of nanostructured and porous architectures with controlled size, morphology, and surface chemistry [5]. These nanocrystals and mesocrystals exhibit enhanced surface area and reactivity, which are beneficial in catalytic and sensing applications. For instance,  $Cu_3N$ -based nanomaterials have demonstrated remarkable performance in electrochemical nitrate-to-ammonia conversion and gas detection (e.g.,  $NO_2$ ,  $NH_3$ ) at low operating temperatures [9,12]. Despite its broad potential, the use of  $Cu_3N$  remains limited by its metastability (which restricts high-temperature operations), sensitivity to oxidation, and challenges in scaling up high-quality production. However, ongoing research in doping strategies, surface engineering, and composite formation has shown promise in mitigating these issues and enhancing  $Cu_3N$ 's long-term stability and functional performance [13,17].

## 2. Crystal Structure and Stability

Copper nitride ( $Cu_3N$ ) crystallizes in a simple cubic structure known as the anti- $ReO_3$  type, with space group  $Pm\bar{3}m$  (No. 221). In this configuration, nitrogen atoms occupy the body center of the unit cell, while copper atoms reside at the face centers, forming a three-dimensional framework analogous to an empty perovskite structure [2,18]. The unit cell exhibits a lattice constant typically ranging between 3.80–3.89 Å, depending on the synthesis technique and defect concentrations [3]. The coordination environment in  $Cu_3N$  involves each nitrogen atom being octahedrally coordinated by six copper atoms, while each copper atom is linearly coordinated with two nitrogen atoms across adjacent unit cells. This structural arrangement allows for extensive defect formation, notably copper interstitials ( $Cu_i$ ) and copper vacancies ( $V_{Cu}$ ), which significantly impact the electronic properties of the material [15]. One of  $Cu_3N$ 's most intriguing features is its bipolar doping behavior, where it can transition between *n*-type and *p*-type conductivity based on synthesis conditions. At lower growth temperatures ( $\leq 50$  °C), copper interstitials dominate, introducing donor states and leading to *n*-type conductivity. At higher temperatures (100–150 °C), copper vacancies form preferentially, resulting in *p*-type conductivity [6]. This behavior, confirmed by both theoretical density functional theory (DFT) studies and experimental Hall measurements, makes  $Cu_3N$  unique among semiconductors [16].

Despite its promising features,  $Cu_3N$  is thermodynamically metastable. It decomposes at elevated temperatures (typically  $\geq 300$ –400 °C) into metallic copper and nitrogen gas via the reaction:



This decomposition has been demonstrated via thermo gravimetric analysis (TGA) and in situ X-ray diffraction (XRD) [19,12]. However, under ambient conditions,  $Cu_3N$  exhibits good kinetic stability, maintaining its phase for extended periods, especially when protected from oxidation and humidity. The presence of competing phases such as Cu,  $Cu_2O$ , or  $Cu_4N$  under suboptimal synthesis conditions can compromise phase purity. XRD, Raman spectroscopy, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) are essential tools for identifying and confirming the phase composition [8]. In particular,  $Cu_4N$  has been detected in copper-rich environments, while  $Cu_2O$  forms readily upon exposure to air [20]. To mitigate these effects, optimized nitrogen flow during sputtering, as well as surface passivation strategies, are commonly employed [21].

Recent advancements in colloidal synthesis and nanostructuring of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  have shown that the material's surface chemistry - especially the binding of amines and carboxylates - can further influence structural integrity and phase stability [5]. Furthermore, doping with elements like Ag and Pd has been explored to stabilize the structure and modify electronic characteristics [13]. The cubic anti- $\text{ReO}_3$  crystal structure of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  provides a flexible platform for defect engineering and electronic tunability. While metastable,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ 's kinetic stability and adaptability make it suitable for various low-temperature device applications. Continued efforts in doping, encapsulation, and defect control are key to unlocking its full potential.

### 3. Electronic and Optical Properties

Copper nitride ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ ) exhibits a unique combination of semiconducting behavior, tunable electrical conductivity, and optical absorption properties, making it a compelling material for applications in optoelectronics, photovoltaics, and catalysis. Its electronic structure and bandgap energy are highly sensitive to synthesis conditions, doping, and intrinsic defects such as copper interstitials ( $\text{Cu}_i$ ) and vacancies ( $\text{V}_{\text{Cu}}$ ).

#### 3.1 Band Structure and Conductivity

The electronic structure of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  has been studied using density functional theory (DFT) and corroborated by various experimental techniques such as UV-Vis spectroscopy and Hall effect measurements. Theoretical calculations generally predict that  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  is a semiconductor with an indirect bandgap in the range of 0.2 - 0.9 eV for ideal stoichiometric crystals [15]. However, experimental values of the bandgap vary significantly - from 0.8 to 2.0 eV - due to the presence of structural defects, oxygen incorporation, and non-stoichiometry [2,3,8]. This discrepancy is attributed to the defect-tolerant nature of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ . Specifically, copper interstitials ( $\text{Cu}_i$ ) act as shallow donors, inducing *n*-type behavior, while copper vacancies ( $\text{V}_{\text{Cu}}$ ) serve as acceptors, giving rise to *p*-type conductivity [6]. These two defect types can be selectively introduced by controlling the growth temperature and nitrogen partial pressure. At lower synthesis temperatures (e.g.,  $\leq 50^\circ\text{C}$ ),  $\text{Cu}_i$  dominates, producing *n*-type films. Conversely, at elevated temperatures ( $\sim 100\text{--}150^\circ\text{C}$ ),  $\text{V}_{\text{Cu}}$  formation is favored, yielding *p*-type films [16]. This bipolar doping capability is rare among inorganic semiconductors and provides a powerful tool for electronic tuning [18].

#### 3.2 Optical Properties

$\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  also demonstrates favorable optical characteristics, particularly in the visible region, making it suitable for light-harvesting applications. The optical bandgap of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  thin films, measured using Tauc plots derived from UV-Vis absorption spectra, typically falls between 1.2 and 2.1 eV, depending on the method of deposition (e.g., sputtering, pulsed laser deposition, or colloidal synthesis) and the crystallographic orientation of the film [3,10]. The material exhibits a high absorption coefficient ( $\sim 10^5\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) in the visible range, comparable to other photovoltaic materials like CdTe and  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ , making it a promising candidate for absorber layers in solar cells [7]. Furthermore, thin films of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  show moderate optical transmittance in the near-infrared (NIR) region and can act as transparent conductive coatings when doped appropriately [19].  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ 's optical properties are also defect-sensitive. Urbach tails observed in absorption spectra indicate the presence of disorder or sub-gap states caused by point defects and grain boundaries. These defects contribute to non-radiative recombination and influence photoluminescence (PL) and carrier lifetimes, both critical parameters in optoelectronic device design [21].

#### 3.3 Modifications and Doping Effects

Recent studies have shown that doping  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  with elements like Ag, Pd, or O can lead to bandgap narrowing, improved electrical conductivity, and enhanced catalytic performance [5,13]. For example, Pd-doped  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  shows metallic or semi-metallic behavior, while Ag-doped variants offer improved charge mobility and stability [20].

In conclusion, the electronic and optical properties of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  are highly tunable via defect engineering, doping, and synthesis control. These features, combined with its environmental benignity and scalability, position  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  as a multifunctional material for emerging optoelectronic and catalytic technologies.



## 4. Synthesis Methods

The synthesis of copper nitride ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ ) has been widely explored using various physical, chemical, and hybrid techniques. Each method influences the resulting film's crystallinity, morphology, defect density, and electrical/optical properties. Because  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  is thermodynamically metastable, its formation typically occurs under low-temperature and nitrogen-rich conditions. This section outlines the major synthesis routes used for  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  thin films and nanomaterials.

### 4.1 Physical Vapor Deposition (PVD)

Reactive Magnetron Sputtering is the most commonly employed technique for  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  film fabrication. In this process, a copper target is sputtered in a nitrogen-containing atmosphere (e.g., Ar +  $\text{N}_2$ ). Deposition temperatures are kept relatively low (100–300 °C) to avoid decomposition of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  into metallic copper and nitrogen gas [2,18]. Key parameters affecting film quality include nitrogen partial pressure, substrate temperature, RF power, and post-annealing. Studies by Fernández et al. (2023) and Yang et al. (2023) demonstrated that increasing the  $\text{N}_2/\text{Ar}$  ratio improves phase purity but also promotes Cu vacancies, thereby altering conductivity [3,8].

Pulsed Laser Deposition (PLD) is another method that offers high control over stoichiometry and crystallinity. Here, a high-energy laser ablates a Cu or  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  target in nitrogen ambient.  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  films grown by PLD have shown excellent crystallinity at temperatures as low as 100 °C [7].

### 4.2 Chemical Routes

Solvothermal and hydrothermal synthesis have enabled the formation of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  nanoparticles and porous structures. Typically, copper salts (e.g.,  $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  or  $\text{CuCl}_2$ ) are reacted with nitrogen-rich reducing agents such as hydrazine, ammonia, or urea under elevated temperature and pressure (120–200 °C) in closed vessels [13]. These methods offer excellent control over particle size and morphology, with potential for large-scale, low-cost production. Colloidal synthesis has recently gained popularity for fabricating  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  nanocrystals. Jonathan De Roo et al. (2022) used primary amines and copper nitrate in oleylamine solvents to yield cubic  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  nanoparticles under air-free conditions. This route allows ligand-controlled surface chemistry, which is beneficial for catalytic and optoelectronic applications [5].

### 4.3 Thermal Nitridation

Thermal nitridation of pre-deposited copper films or nanoparticles in an ammonia or nitrogen plasma environment is another method for  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  formation. This process involves heating the copper layer (typically 200–400 °C) in  $\text{NH}_3$  or  $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2$  plasma, which facilitates nitrogen diffusion and phase transformation [20]. However, this method can lead to incomplete conversion and the formation of mixed phases such as  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{Cu}_4\text{N}$  if not carefully controlled [12].

### 4.4 Ion Implantation and Atomic Layer Deposition (ALD)

Ion implantation has been explored to dope nitrogen into copper films, followed by low-temperature annealing to induce  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  formation. While precise, this method is limited by low throughput [22]. Atomic Layer Deposition (ALD) remains relatively unexplored for  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ , but recent efforts have shown promise using copper amidinate precursors with  $\text{NH}_3$  plasma, offering high conformality and sub-nanometer control [21].

The choice of synthesis method significantly impacts the structural, electronic, and optical properties of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ . While reactive sputtering remains the most mature method for thin films, colloidal and solvothermal techniques offer scalable routes for nanomaterials. Advancing synthesis protocols with precise control over defects and interfaces is essential for realizing  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ 's potential in electronics, photovoltaics, and catalysis.

## 5. Applications

Copper nitride ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ ), with its semiconducting behavior, low-temperature processability, and environmental compatibility, is emerging as a multifunctional material with potential across several technological fields. Its tunable electronic structure, visible-light optical activity, and bipolar doping capability make it suitable for use in electronics, optoelectronics, photovoltaics, and catalysis. This section highlights the recent developments and practical applications of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  in various domains.

### 5.1 Photovoltaic and Solar Energy Harvesting

One of the most promising applications of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  is in thin-film solar cells. With an optical bandgap tunable between 1.2–2.0 eV and a high absorption coefficient ( $\sim 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ),  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  is well suited as an absorber layer in photovoltaic (PV) devices [15]. It is often proposed as an earth-abundant, non-toxic alternative to traditional materials like CdTe or  $\text{Cu}(\text{In,Ga})\text{Se}_2$  (CIGS). Studies by Rauwel et al. (2022) and Fernández et al. (2023) demonstrated that  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  films deposited by reactive sputtering or PLD show good photo response under simulated solar illumination [2,3].

Additionally,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  can be used as a buffer layer or hole transport layer (HTL) in heterojunction solar cells. The ability to engineer p-type or n-type conductivity via temperature or defect control allows  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  to interface effectively with other semiconductors like Si, ZnO, or perovskites, enhancing charge separation and reducing recombination [18,16].

### 5.2 Transparent Conducting Films

$\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ 's semi-metallic nature (when doped) and moderate optical transparency in the near-infrared (NIR) make it a candidate for transparent conducting oxides (TCOs). Unlike traditional TCOs such as indium tin oxide (ITO),  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  is indium-free and can be deposited at low temperatures, which is beneficial for flexible and plastic substrates [21]. By incorporating dopants like Ag or Pd, the conductivity of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  can be further improved, enabling its use in touchscreens, OLEDs, and smart windows. Boerma et al. (2004) demonstrated that Ag-doped  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  nanocrystals showed enhanced carrier mobility and stability in ambient conditions [13].

### 5.3 Gas and Chemical Sensing

Due to its surface sensitivity and defect-induced conductivity,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  has shown promise in gas sensing, particularly for detecting  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{H}_2$ . These sensors operate based on resistance changes upon gas adsorption, and  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ 's high surface-to-volume ratio in nanoparticulate form enhances this sensitivity [20]. Matthias Driess et al. (2019) fabricated  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ -based sensors that demonstrated rapid response and recovery times for low concentrations of  $\text{NH}_3$  at room temperature [10].

### 5.4 Photocatalysis and Water Splitting

$\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  also exhibits potential in photocatalysis, especially for hydrogen evolution reactions (HER) and  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction. Its visible-light absorption and ability to form Schottky junctions with metals or semiconductors enable effective charge carrier separation during photocatalytic reactions. Jonathan De Roo et al. (2022) reported colloiddally synthesized  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  nanoparticles exhibiting enhanced HER performance due to optimized surface ligand exchange and improved band alignment [5].

Additionally, when coupled with co-catalysts like Pd or  $\text{MoS}_2$ ,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  can support photocatalytic water splitting with improved efficiency. This positions it as a cost-effective alternative to noble-metal-based catalysts in clean energy applications [12].

## 5.5 Data Storage and Spintronics

Though still in early stages, Cu<sub>3</sub>N's potential in magneto-electronic and data storage applications is under investigation. Doped Cu<sub>3</sub>N films (e.g., with Fe or Mn) have shown weak ferromagnetic ordering, opening avenues for spintronic devices and magnetic memory applications [22]. Its cubic anti-ReO<sub>3</sub> structure and defect flexibility allow incorporation of magnetic ions without compromising structural integrity.

## 5.6 Electrochemical Applications

Cu<sub>3</sub>N has also been investigated as an electrode material in Li-ion and Na-ion batteries. Its porous nature and redox-active copper centers enable fast ion diffusion and reversible charge storage. Recent studies have reported Cu<sub>3</sub>N nanostructures with high specific capacities and stable cycling performance, particularly when used as an anode or current collector material [8].

## 6. Challenges and Future Perspectives

Despite its promising properties and broad range of potential applications, Cu<sub>3</sub>N (copper nitride) faces several critical challenges that hinder its commercial deployment. These challenges stem from issues related to stability, synthesis control, defect management, and integration with existing technologies. Understanding and addressing these barriers are essential to unlocking the full potential of Cu<sub>3</sub>N in optoelectronic, catalytic, and energy-related applications.

### 6.1 Thermodynamic Instability and Phase Decomposition

One of the most significant obstacles to Cu<sub>3</sub>N's widespread use is its thermodynamic metastability. Cu<sub>3</sub>N decomposes readily at elevated temperatures (>300 °C) or under vacuum, yielding metallic copper and nitrogen gas:



This thermal instability limits its application in high-temperature environments, including backend CMOS processing and certain annealing steps in device fabrication [6]. Additionally, exposure to reducing atmospheres or high-energy photons can trigger phase decomposition, complicating its use in outdoor photovoltaic or photocatalytic applications [16].

### 6.2 Defect Control and Electronic Uniformity

While defect tolerance is one of Cu<sub>3</sub>N's attractive features, uncontrolled defect formation-particularly copper interstitials (Cu<sub>i</sub>) and vacancies (V<sub>Cu</sub>) - can lead to spatially inhomogeneous electrical properties. This complicates the reliable fabrication of electronic devices such as transistors or p-n junctions [18]. Moreover, achieving controlled p-type or n-type doping remains nontrivial, as conductivity is highly sensitive to synthesis temperature and ambient gas composition. Strategies to dope Cu<sub>3</sub>N with foreign elements (e.g., Ag, Pd, or O) have shown promise but require further optimization to ensure long-term electrical stability and minimal dopant diffusion [5,13].

### 6.3 Scalability and Reproducibility

Although methods like reactive sputtering and colloidal synthesis offer good control over composition and morphology, scalability remains an issue, especially for large-area films or nanostructures. Parameters such as substrate temperature, nitrogen partial pressure, and plasma energy must be tightly controlled to obtain reproducible material properties [8].



For instance, sol-gel and colloidal synthesis routes often result in batch-to-batch variations in particle size, surface chemistry, and phase purity. These inconsistencies impact device performance and limit commercial viability [12].

#### 6.4 Interface Engineering and Device Integration

Successful deployment of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  in optoelectronic or catalytic devices requires careful interface engineering, especially when integrated with other semiconductors or metals. Mismatch in lattice constants, band alignment issues, and interfacial defect states can impede charge transport and reduce efficiency [21].

Future work should focus on the development of heterostructures, passivation strategies, and core-shell architectures to stabilize interfaces and enhance charge transfer. Additionally, the exploration of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ -based composites or hybrids with 2D materials may yield improved performance in applications such as sensors and supercapacitors [20].

#### 6.5 Future Perspectives

Moving forward, several research directions could enhance  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ 's utility:

- High-throughput synthesis methods such as chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and atomic layer deposition (ALD) should be further explored for uniform thin films on complex substrates [22].
- In situ characterization techniques (e.g., operando XPS or TEM) can shed light on real-time phase changes and defect evolution during operation, guiding defect mitigation strategies.
- Integration of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  in emerging fields like flexible electronics, transparent devices, and spintronics remains largely unexplored and could unlock novel applications.

### 7. Conclusion

Copper nitride ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ ) has emerged as a versatile and sustainable semiconductor material with promising applications across photovoltaics, optoelectronics, catalysis, gas sensing, and energy storage. Its unique combination of properties - including a tunable bandgap, bipolar conductivity, visible-light absorption, and relatively low synthesis temperature - positions  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  as an eco-friendly and earth-abundant alternative to conventional semiconductor materials.

In this review, we have discussed in detail the crystal structure and stability of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$ , highlighting its anti- $\text{ReO}_3$ -type cubic configuration and inherent metastability under thermal stress. We examined its electronic and optical properties, emphasizing their strong dependence on synthesis conditions and defect chemistry. Various synthesis routes, including physical vapor deposition, solvothermal processes, and colloidal methods, were evaluated in terms of scalability, control, and applicability to device fabrication. Despite significant progress,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  still faces considerable challenges, particularly regarding thermal and chemical stability, reproducible doping control, and integration into functional device architectures. These limitations must be addressed to fully exploit its potential. Future research should focus on advanced doping strategies, real-time characterization of degradation mechanisms, and the development of scalable deposition methods such as atomic layer deposition (ALD) or solution-phase self-assembly.

Furthermore, the versatility of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  opens avenues for next-generation technologies, such as transparent electronics, flexible solar cells and photocatalysts for water splitting. Its compatibility with other earth-abundant materials and ability to operate under ambient conditions make it highly attractive for sustainable applications.

In conclusion,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{N}$  represents a compelling candidate for low-cost, high-performance devices in a range of energy and environmental technologies. Continued interdisciplinary research combining materials science, surface chemistry, and device engineering will be crucial in overcoming current limitations and realizing the full potential of this emerging nitride semiconductor.

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