



# Progress of Nb-containing catalysts for carbon dioxide reduction: a minireview

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## Abstract

Nb-containing catalysts have the potential to catalyze carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) reduction due to their strong surface acidity and CO<sub>2</sub> activation sites. Still, they have not been widely used in the development and design of catalysts due to the theoretical/cost/safety limitations. Related advances have been continuously reported in the literature, demonstrating to some extent the promise of catalytic applications of Nb-containing catalysts in this area. In this minireview, we discuss the structure–activity relationships of Nb-containing catalysts for photo-, electro-, and thermocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. The engineering strategies of Nb-containing catalysts for enhancing the conversion and selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction are discussed, ranging from Nb doping, noble metal decoration, surface acidity adjustment, oxygen vacancy engineering, and heterojunction construction to Nb or Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> particle decoration. The theoretical calculation research for the possible reaction paths and product selectivity is also discussed. Finally, the prospects for designing and optimizing Nb-containing catalysts are proposed. With a deep understanding of catalytic activity and reaction mechanism, this minireview is expected to present the optimization of the Nb-containing catalysts for efficient and highly selective CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

**Keywords** Niobium · Carbon dioxide reduction · Photocatalysis · Electrocatalysis · Thermocatalysis

## 1 Introduction

The reduction of carbon dioxide into fuels [1] (e.g., CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, CH<sub>3</sub>H<sub>2</sub>OH) or other high-value products [2] (e.g., HCOOH, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>) is a feasible way to alleviate energy crisis and global warming [3]. CO<sub>2</sub> can be reduced through electrocatalysis [4], photocatalysis [5], and thermocatalysis [6]. The catalytic pathway can be typically divided into four steps [7]: (i) adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> on the active sites of the catalyst surface; (ii) CO<sub>2</sub> activation (increasing C=O bond strength or bending CO<sub>2</sub> molecule; (iii) hydrogenation, deoxygenation, and carbon–carbon coupling of adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub>; (iv) desorption of reduction products. The first two steps are typically identified as

rate-determining steps of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, while the product selectivity highly depends on the third and fourth steps.

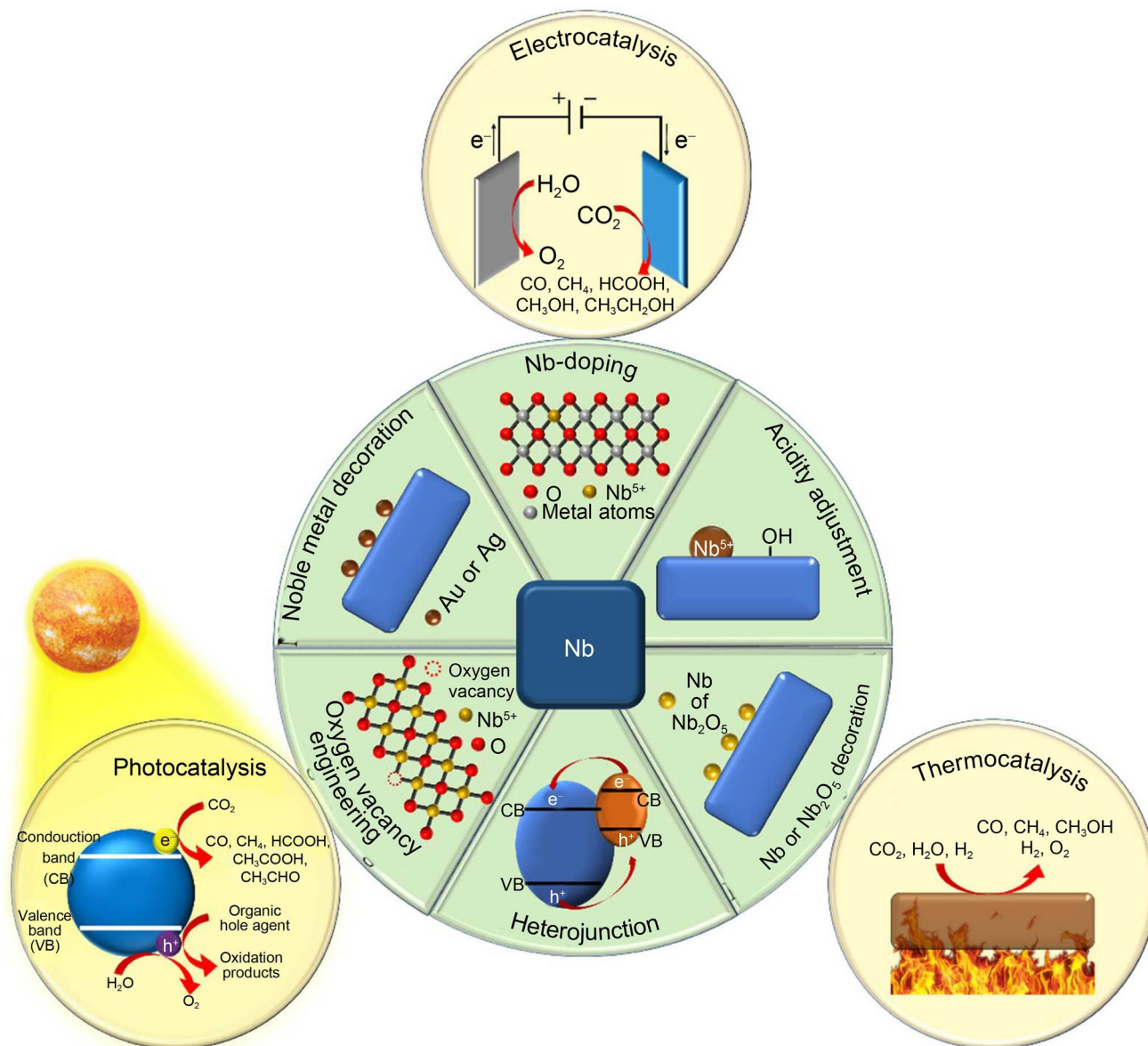
Nb-based catalysts have been applied in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction benefiting from their strong surface acidity [8], nontoxicity [9], low cost, high mechanical stability, and excellent redox stability [10]. During CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, the strong surface acidity favors the formation of carbon-based intermediates, such as bidentate carbonates, monodentate carbonates, and bicarbonates [11]. In addition, Nb could act as the dopant to adjust the electronic structure of the matrix materials to promote CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by optimizing each step, such as enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption [12, 13], accelerating CO<sub>2</sub> hydrogenation [14] and promoting CO desorption [15]. Many researchers have reported Nb-based catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction under different catalytic driving forces, but few reviews have summarized the structure–activity relationship of such catalysts. Herein, this minireview summarizes the applications, structure–activity relationship, and theoretical calculation studies of Nb-containing catalysts for the photo-, electro-, and thermocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. Different structure engineering procedures, including Nb doping, noble metal decoration, surface acidity adjustment, oxygen vacancy engineering, heterojunction building, and Nb or

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**Fig. 1** Schematic illustration of engineering strategies on Nb-containing catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> particle decorating, are also addressed for performance increase (Fig. 1). Finally, the advantages, limitations, and feasible future development directions of Nb-containing catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction are outlined.

## 2 Photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

Photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is a green catalytic technology with low-energy consumption and no secondary pollution [16]. Under irradiation, photoexcited electrons from the conduction band (CB) of semiconductor-based photocatalysts reduce the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> to produce CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, HCOOH, etc. [17]. Depending on the number of

transferred electrons and the reduction potential of different intermediates [18, 19], CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to different products is summarized in Table 1. The redox capacity of the catalysts, the adsorption–desorption, and the activation behavior of CO<sub>2</sub> on the surface of the catalysts can impact the yield and selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction products [20, 21]. Therefore, selecting or engineering an appropriate photocatalyst for the desired reduction products is important. Niobium-based photocatalysts currently used for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction include Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> [22, 23], Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> [24], HNb<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> [25], Nb-based perovskites [26], and Nb-containing high-entropy nitrides [27].

**Table 1** Standard electrochemical potentials for reducing CO<sub>2</sub> into different products

CO <sub>2</sub> reduction reaction	$E^0$ (V) vs. SHE <sup>a</sup> at pH 7	References
CO <sub>2</sub> + e <sup>-</sup> → CO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	- 1.90	[18]
CO <sub>2</sub> + 2H <sup>+</sup> + 2e <sup>-</sup> → HCOOH	- 0.61	[18]
CO <sub>2</sub> + 2H <sup>+</sup> + 2e <sup>-</sup> → CO + H <sub>2</sub> O	- 0.53	[18]
CO <sub>2</sub> + 4H <sup>+</sup> + 4e <sup>-</sup> → HCHO + H <sub>2</sub> O	- 0.48	[18]
CO <sub>2</sub> + 6H <sup>+</sup> + 6e <sup>-</sup> → CH <sub>3</sub> OH + H <sub>2</sub> O	- 0.38	[18]
CO <sub>2</sub> + 8H <sup>+</sup> + 8e <sup>-</sup> → CH <sub>4</sub> + 2H <sub>2</sub> O	- 0.24	[18]
2CO <sub>2</sub> + 8H <sup>+</sup> + 8e <sup>-</sup> → CH <sub>3</sub> COOH + 2H <sub>2</sub> O	- 0.18	[19]
2CO <sub>2</sub> + 12H <sup>+</sup> + 12e <sup>-</sup> → C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> + 4H <sub>2</sub> O	- 0.35	[19]
2CO <sub>2</sub> + 12H <sup>+</sup> + 12e <sup>-</sup> → C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>5</sub> OH + 3H <sub>2</sub> O	- 0.33	[19]

<sup>a</sup>SHE standard hydrogen electrode

## 2.1 Nb doping

TiO<sub>2</sub>, a nontoxic and inexpensive semiconductor photocatalyst, has a suitable electronic band structure for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [28]. The electrons on the CB [ $E_{CB} = -0.50$  V (vs. SHE at pH 7)] are sufficiently energetic to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> into the majority of the products [29]. However, the adsorption and activation of CO<sub>2</sub> on TiO<sub>2</sub> are weak [30]. Nb element can act as the heteroatom dopant to replace Ti<sup>4+</sup> and introduce structural defects such as Ti<sup>3+</sup> into TiO<sub>2</sub> [31]. In addition to improving the charge separation efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub>, the structural defects and Nb atoms can also promote the adsorption and activation of CO<sub>2</sub> around the doped Nb atom. Qian et al. [23] used the electrochemical anodic oxidation method to substitute Ti<sup>4+</sup> in TiO<sub>2</sub> with Nb<sup>5+</sup> and obtain Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays. Nb<sup>5+</sup> doping did not change the band gap of TiO<sub>2</sub> because the Nb<sup>5+</sup> defect state was located above the bottom of the CB. Figure 2a shows that the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed on Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> was significantly higher than that on unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub>. First-principle calculations suggested that CO<sub>2</sub> was adsorbed and activated on the Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> surface around the doped Nb atom. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) C1s spectra in the dark showed that after CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, CO<sub>2</sub><sup>δ-</sup> species were formed on Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> but not TiO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2b). It should be noted that CO<sub>2</sub><sup>δ-</sup> represents the chemisorbed CO<sub>2</sub> species in a bent configuration that obtains electrons on Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub>, which is different from the formation of linear CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. The increased number of active electrons on the surface of Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> promoted the generation of CO<sub>2</sub><sup>δ-</sup>. CO<sub>2</sub><sup>δ-</sup> could be transformed into HCOOH or CH<sub>3</sub>O<sup>-</sup>, which could be further converted to CH<sub>3</sub>CHO. Under the simulated solar light illumination at 200 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> and using triethanolamine (TEOA) as the hole sacrificial agent, the CH<sub>3</sub>CHO production rate on Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> was up to 572 μmol·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>, 2.86 times higher than that on TiO<sub>2</sub>. The product selectivity toward CH<sub>3</sub>CHO was

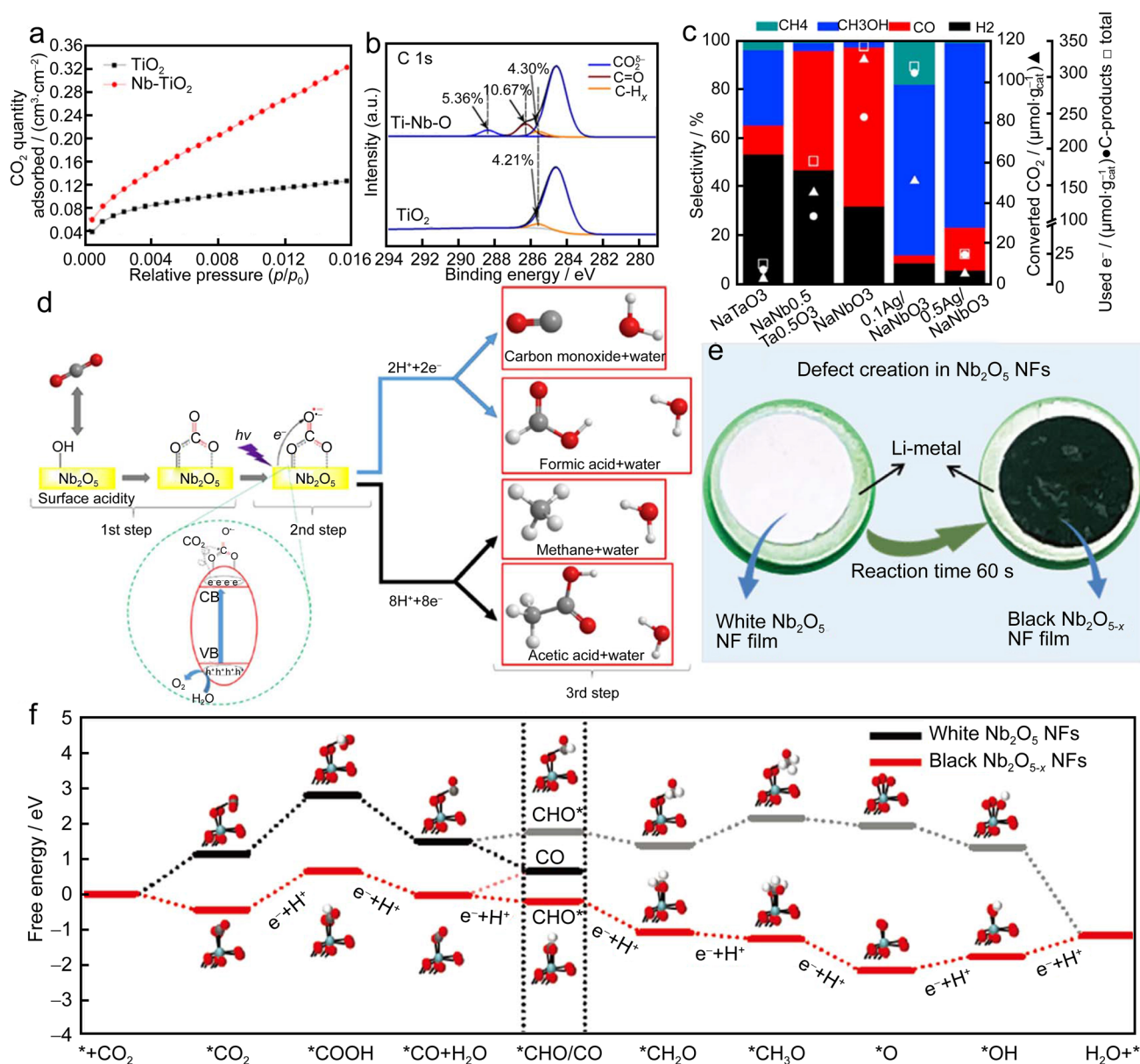
over 99% after 24 h. To date, CO and CH<sub>4</sub> are the primary products of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays, as reported in most works [32–35]. However, this study reported that Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays mainly reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>CHO. The authors proposed a possible mechanism for photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by the Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube array with water as the reductant and TEOA as the sacrificial agent. When photogenerated holes reacted with TEOA to be consumed by producing TEOA<sup>+</sup>, photogenerated electrons progressively reduced CO<sub>2</sub> to form CO<sub>2</sub><sup>δ-</sup>, formate, methoxy, and formyl species on the catalyst surface and finally generated CH<sub>3</sub>CHO.

Unlike the above study, Truc et al. [36] reported that Nb<sup>5+</sup> doping narrowed the band gap of TiO<sub>2</sub> due to the significant increase of Ti<sup>3+</sup> in the Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, compared with the pristine TiO<sub>2</sub>, the generation rates of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO on Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> increased to 268 and 109 μmol·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> without any hole sacrificial agents under visible light illumination. Nogueira et al. [22] prepared Nb<sup>4+</sup>-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> (Nb<sup>4+</sup>–TiO<sub>2</sub>) via the Pechini method and deposited Nb<sup>0</sup> on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> (Nb<sup>0</sup>–TiO<sub>2</sub>) via the sputtering deposition method. Under ultraviolet (UV) light (150 W mercury UV lamp) irradiation, the methanol yield on Nb<sup>4+</sup>–TiO<sub>2</sub> was only 0.54–1.00 μmol·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>, significantly lower than that on P25 consisting of 80% anatase and 20% rutile. Moreover, Nb<sup>0</sup>–TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited a lower methanol yield than Nb<sup>4+</sup>–TiO<sub>2</sub>. To sum up, the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction rates on Nb<sup>4+</sup> and Nb<sup>0</sup>-modified TiO<sub>2</sub> were significantly lower than that on Nb<sup>5+</sup>–TiO<sub>2</sub>, suggesting the photocatalytic activity of different valence states of Nb decreased in the following order: Nb<sup>5+</sup> > Nb<sup>4+</sup> > Nb<sup>0</sup>.

High-entropy materials have attracted the attention for photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction due to their high chemical stability and diverse electrical characteristics [37]. Li et al. [27] firstly synthesized Nb-containing high-entropy (Ti, Hf, Nb, Ta, Mo) nitride ceramic nanofibers (HENCNFs) via the electrospinning–calcination–nitridation method. HENCNFs exhibited strong adsorption of visible and near-infrared light. The production rates of CO and CH<sub>4</sub> were maintained at 469 and 242.5 μmol·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, after five 10 h cycles. A clear understanding of the photocatalytic mechanism of HENCNFs is a challenge, so the authors speculated that the combination of several metal elements in HENCNFs may contribute to hybridized cation orbitals, which promote the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO and CH<sub>4</sub>.

## 2.2 Noble metal decoration

Nb-based perovskites are typical photocatalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction due to their suitable electronic band structure [8], carrier separation property [38], and isolated redox sites [39]. Fresno et al. [40] reported that NaNbO<sub>3</sub> presented higher CO<sub>2</sub> conversion, electron efficiency, and CO



**Fig. 2** **a**  $\text{CO}_2$  quantities adsorbed on  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Nb-TiO}_2$ ; **b** XPS C 1s spectra of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Nb-TiO}_2$  after  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption in the dark. **a** and **b** are reproduced with permission from Ref. [23]. Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society. **c** Product selectivities (colored bars),  $\text{CO}_2$  conversions (triangle symbols), and electron use (circle symbols: in C-products; open square symbols: in C-products +  $\text{H}_2$ ) in photocatalytic reactions. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [40]. Copy-

right 2021 Elsevier. **d** Proposed pathways for  $\text{CO}_2$  photoreduction adsorbed on the acid surface of  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  ( $h\nu$ : photon energy). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [44]. Copyright 2019 Elsevier. **e** A sketch to show the room-temperature defect control strategy; **f** calculated Gibbs free energy diagram for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction toward  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  over the white  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  and black  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_{5-x}$  NFs. **e** and **f** are reproduced with permission from Ref. [46]. Copyright 2022 Wiley-VCH

selectivity (Fig. 2c) than  $\text{NaTaO}_3$  and  $\text{NaNb}_{0.5}\text{Ta}_{0.5}\text{O}_3$ . In  $\text{NaNbO}_3$ ,  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$  was the main active site, and  $\text{Nb}^{4+}$  was not conducive to  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction. However, bare  $\text{NaNbO}_3$  produced plenty of  $\text{H}_2$ , competing with  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction to consume photogenerated electrons. Noble metal (e.g., Ag, Au, and Pt) decoration strongly influences the selectivity of  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction products due to their differences in the adsorption/activation of reactant molecules [41]. Noble

metals with a high ability to extract photogenerated electrons from base photocatalysts can enhance the surface photogenerated electron density, promoting profound  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction. Thus, they loaded Ag nanoparticles to  $\text{NaNbO}_3$  ( $\text{Ag}/\text{NaNbO}_3$ ). Under UV illumination,  $\text{CO}_2$  tended to be adsorbed and activated on Ag-related sites. The reduction product,  $\text{CO}$ , could be strongly adsorbed on  $\text{Ag}^+$  sites on the  $\text{Ag}/\text{NaNbO}_3$  surface. The Ag decoration also promoted

the transfer of photogenerated electrons to CO<sub>2</sub> and reduction intermediates. More electrons are required to convert CO<sub>2</sub> to methanol than CO. The enhanced CO adsorption and electron transfer on Ag/NaNbO<sub>3</sub> surface were beneficial for the further conversion of CO to methanol (Fig. 2c), which consumes a large number of protons to inhibit H<sub>2</sub> formation.

### 2.3 Surface acidity adjustment

The surface acid–base property of photocatalysts significantly affected CO<sub>2</sub> reduction performance [42]. Bhatlacharyya et al. [11] proposed that the surface acid sites as electron acceptors provided favorable situations for the formation of bidentate carbonates during CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, as a semiconductor with a highly acidic surface, was previously reported to show photocatalytic activity for pollution degradation [43]. da Silva et al. [44] firstly applied Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> to photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and found that niobic acid (Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>·*n*H<sub>2</sub>O) was the active phase. The reaction rate and selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction were significantly correlated with the surface acidity of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. High surface acidity of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> tended to promote the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into CO, HCOOH, and CH<sub>3</sub>COOH, while low surface acidity would favor the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into CH<sub>4</sub>. The photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction paths on Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> are shown in Fig. 2d. The acid sites on Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (surface –OH) drive the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and activation through the bidentate coordination of the CO<sub>2</sub> molecule.

### 2.4 Oxygen vacancy engineering

Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> has a wide band gap (~3.0 eV) [45] and is less capable of converting CO<sub>2</sub> into CH<sub>4</sub>. Lin et al. [46] prepared flexible mesoporous black Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5-x</sub> nanofibers (NFs) for visible light–driven CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CH<sub>4</sub> by electrospinning and diffusion–reduction methods at room temperature (Fig. 2e). The abundant oxygen vacancies and unsaturated Nb in black Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5-x</sub> NFs lowered the band gap to 2.25 eV and broadened the absorption edge of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> from UV to visible light range. The mesoporous structure formed from polyvinyl pyrrolidone could provide more active sites for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. By inhibiting CO desorption and turning the conversion from CO\* to \*CHO (\* represents catalyst surface) into a spontaneous thermogenic process, the oxygen vacancies and unsaturated Nb active dual sites significantly boosted CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and activation as well as increased the CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity (Fig. 2f). The CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity on black Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5-x</sub> NFs reached 64.8%, while it was 0% on white Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> NFs. Moreover, dual

active sites promoted photogenerated carrier separation as carrier capture centers.

### 2.5 Heterojunction construction

The rate of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction was dependent on the photogenerated electron yield and transfer [47]. Jiang et al. [48] constructed a two-dimensional (2D) heterojunction between KCa<sub>2</sub>Nb<sub>3</sub>O<sub>10</sub> nanosheets and ZnIn<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub> nanosheets (ZnIn<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>/KCNO), which efficiently promoted charge separation and transfer (Fig. 3a). In composite materials, the ultrathin structure of KCa<sub>2</sub>Nb<sub>3</sub>O<sub>10</sub> perovskite was beneficial for the rapid transmission of photogenerated electrons. The nanoflower structure of ZnIn<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub> exposed more active sites for reactants and enhanced the production and transmission of protons from water oxidation (Fig. 3b). The CO production rate of composite material was 4.69 μmol·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>, up to 1.95 and 12.31 times that of pure KCa<sub>2</sub>Nb<sub>3</sub>O<sub>10</sub> nanosheets and ZnIn<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub> nanosheets, respectively.

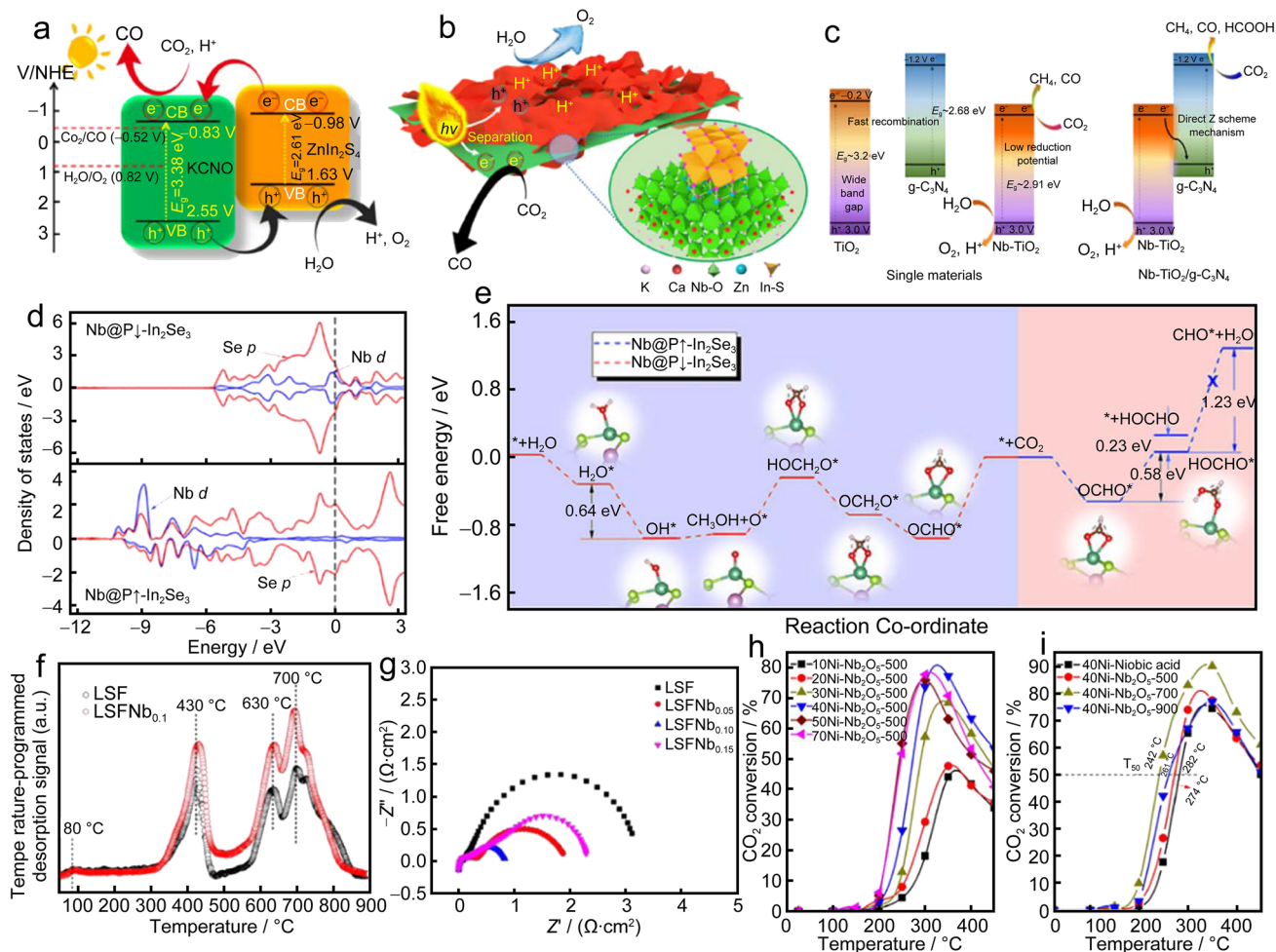
Due to its limited reduction capacity, photogenerated electrons on the CB of Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> cannot reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to produce HCOOH. Although the reduction ability of photogenerated electrons on the CB of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was sufficient to convert CO<sub>2</sub> into HCOOH, the separation efficiency of electron/hole pairs by g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is low [49]. The heterojunction construction can significantly promote charge separation and maintain good adsorption capacity of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, Truc et al. [36] constructed the direct Z-scheme heterojunction between Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Nb–TiO<sub>2</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>). The Z-scheme heterojunction not only facilitated charge separation to boost CH<sub>4</sub> and CO generation, but also led to the formation of HCOOH due to the strong reduction ability of the photogenerated electrons on the CB of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 3c).

## 3 Electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

During CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, the next step after CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption is the activation of the CO<sub>2</sub> molecule. Two possible activation pathways of CO<sub>2</sub> on the catalyst surface during the electrocatalytic reduction [50] are as shown in Eqs. (1) and (2):



Equations (1) and (2) are the electron-coupled proton transfer reactions, which determine the product selectivity [51]. \*COOH is more likely to be the intermediate for CO generation, while \*OCHO is more feasible to evolve into HCOOH [52]. The products of CO<sub>2</sub> activation depend on the composition and structure of catalysts [51]. Through density



**Fig. 3** **a** Charge separation and transfer in ZnIn<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>/KCNO heterojunction (NHE: normal hydrogen electrode). **b** Possible photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction mechanism over ZnIn<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>/KCNO 2D/2D nanosheet heterojunction photocatalysts. **a** and **b** are reproduced with permission from Ref. [48]. Copyright 2021 Elsevier. **c** Direct Z-scheme mechanism of Nb-TiO<sub>2</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [36]. Copyright 2019 Elsevier. **d** Partial density of states of Nb@P↓-In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> and Nb@P↑-In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>; **e** calculated paths for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on Nb@In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>. **d** and **e** are

reproduced with permission from Ref. [55], licensed under CC BY 4.0. **f** Temperature-programmed desorption of CO<sub>2</sub> on LSF and LSFNb<sub>0.1</sub>; **g** the EIS of the three-electrode half cells measured in pure CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere at applied voltages of 0.8 V. **f** and **g** are reproduced with permission from Ref. [57]. Copyright 2021 Elsevier. **h** CO<sub>2</sub> conversion for Ni-loading Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> with different Ni loading and **i** 40Ni-Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> with the pre-calcination temperatures of 500, 700, and 900 °C. **h** and **i** are reproduced with permission from Ref. [69]. Copyright 2019 Elsevier

functional theory (DFT) calculations, Zhao et al. [53] analyzed 190 transition metal near-surface alloys (NSAs), promising catalysts for electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Among 20 NSAs that could selectively reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to HCOOH, Pd/W, Au/Hf, and Au/Zr were predicted to be the most active catalysts with a lower overpotential. On Au- and Ag-containing NSAs, \*COOH may be formed during the initial hydrogenation step of CO<sub>2</sub>. Considering the weaker adsorption of \*CO and stronger adsorption of \*COOH, Ag/Hf and Ag/Zr were the most active catalysts with the higher overpotential. They discovered that the higher difference in electronegativity between metal pairs in NSA catalysts was advantageous for the selective electrocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO.

Due to the ability to form CO and the strong adsorption of CO, Ag/Ta and Ag/Nb were suitable candidates for electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CH<sub>3</sub>OH and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>. Theoretical calculation researches suggest that Nb on PdH(111) could effectively reduce the formation energy of \*COOH, maintain moderate CO adsorption energy, and inhibit the conversion of \*COOH to \*H [54]. Because of these advantages, Nb on PdH(111) exhibited better kinetic activities to generate more CO selectively. Ju et al. [55] proposed that single atom Nb on ferroelectric In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> (Nb@In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>) was an effective catalyst for electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction based on comprehensive DFT computations. Figure 3d shows that the polarization direction of In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> determined the final products (CH<sub>3</sub>OH

and HCOOH) on Nb@In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> due to the great difference of the *d* band center between Nb@In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> with the opposite polarization directions (Nb@P↓-In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> and Nb@P↑-In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>). Figure 3e depicts the possible pathway of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on Nb@In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>. However, in molecular electrocatalysis, Guo et al. [56] found that the product of the electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by Nb/corrole complex was CH<sub>4</sub>. The potential determining step was the CH<sub>2</sub>O\* hydrogenation to CH<sub>2</sub>OH\*. The above theoretical calculation results show that the supports in Nb-based catalysts are critical to the process and products of electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

### 3.1 Nb doping

In most studies on electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by Nb-containing catalysts, CO was the main product [12, 15, 57]. Abbasi et al. [15] doped Nb into the crystal lattice of MoS<sub>2</sub> without changing its lattice parameters for the effective electrocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO. Nb doping enhanced the catalytic activity of active sites and increased active sites by 50% through activating edge Mo atoms due to the fewer valence states of Nb than those of Mo. The strong adsorption of \*CO on MoS<sub>2</sub> was weakened by Nb doping, which simultaneously kept the exergonic formation of \*COOH. The CO formation turnover frequency of Nb–MoS<sub>2</sub> was one order of magnitude higher than that of MoS<sub>2</sub>, and the CO selectivity was 82%, with the potential of –0.8 V (vs. SHE at pH 7).

The solid oxide electrolysis cell is an effective electrocatalytic technique for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by utilizing industrial waste heat [58]. Perovskites are promising fuel electrode materials for direct CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis due to their mixed ionic–electronic conductivity [59] and redox stability [60]. Wang et al. [57] prepared Nb-doping ferrite-based perovskite oxides, La<sub>0.6</sub>Sr<sub>0.4</sub>Fe<sub>1–x</sub>Nb<sub>x</sub>O<sub>3–δ</sub>. Figure 3f reveals the stronger chemical adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> on La<sub>0.6</sub>Sr<sub>0.4</sub>Fe<sub>0.9</sub>Nb<sub>0.1</sub>O<sub>3–δ</sub> (LSFNb<sub>0.1</sub>) than on La<sub>0.6</sub>Sr<sub>0.4</sub>FeO<sub>3–δ</sub> (LSF). The substitution of Fe by Nb increased the surface oxygen vacancies to promote CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and carbonate dissociation. Figure 3g shows that La<sub>0.6</sub>Sr<sub>0.4</sub>Fe<sub>1–x</sub>Nb<sub>x</sub>O<sub>3–δ</sub> exhibited a much lower polarization resistance (the distance between the intercept of high-frequency and low-frequency electrochemical impedance spectrum (EIS) on the real axis) than LSF. This result suggested that Nb doping improved the electrode reaction kinetics in favor of electron transfer to CO<sub>2</sub>. Nb doping prevented the Sr segregation in La<sub>0.6</sub>Sr<sub>0.4</sub>Fe<sub>1–x</sub>Nb<sub>x</sub>O<sub>3–δ</sub> during high-temperature CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis, and the material displayed remarkable redox stability.

### 3.2 Noble metal decoration

Au and Ag are the most studied noble metals for electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO due to their weak adsorption of CO [61]. Current research on Au- and Ag-based

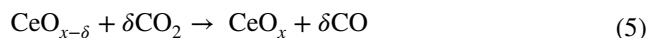
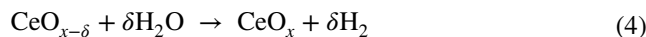
electrocatalysts has focused on increasing the faradaic efficiency of CO production rather than achieving the appropriate CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio between 0.5 and 2 [62], which is essential for subsequent utilization. Thus, Nian et al. [63] selected NbC and NbN with high mechanical stability and electric conductivity as supports to tune the active Ag and Au species for the controllable CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio. NbC and NbN transferred electrons to Au and Ag to optimize their electronic structure, thereby lowering the free energy of the potential determining step and the formation of \*COOH. Therefore, the CO production rate and selectivity on Ag and Au supported on NbC and NbN were enhanced, resulting in a CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio between 0.5 and 2.

## 4 Thermocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

Thermocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction exhibits a higher reaction rate and product yield than photocatalysis and electrocatalysis, and the products do not require separation [64, 65]. As the typical thermocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction process, the reduction reaction from CO<sub>2</sub> to CO by H<sub>2</sub> is endothermic (CO<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub> → CO + H<sub>2</sub>O, Δ*H* = 41.2 kJ·mol<sup>–1</sup>, *T* = 298.15 K) [66]. So the temperature rise is conducive to the reaction. Nb-containing thermocatalysts currently used for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction include Nb-doping CeO<sub>2</sub> [67, 68], Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> [24, 69], Nb-particle-decorated [70, 71] and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> particle-decorated catalysts [24].

### 4.1 Nb doping

Due to the ease of forming surface oxygen vacancies and Ce<sup>3+</sup>/Ce<sup>4+</sup> redox couple, CeO<sub>2</sub> is widely used in a variety of thermocatalytic applications [72]. The thermocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction cycle over Ce-based catalysts is as shown in Eqs. (3)–(5):



In the above redox cycle, *x* is lower than 2; *δ* is the oxygen exchange capacity (OEC), which is a crucial parameter of material optimization because it is directly proportional to the product amount generated in a single cycle per unit mass catalyst [73]. Tetravalent metal doping is a potential modification strategy for increasing OEC and maintaining thermo-mechanical stability simultaneously because the hetero-metal atoms could enhance the redox activity of CeO<sub>*x*–*δ*</sub> without changing the oxygen nonstoichiometry [74, 75]. Jacot et al. [67] found that Zr(IV)-, Hf(IV)-, Ta(IV)-, and

Nb(IV)-doped CeO<sub>2</sub> had a higher OEC than pure CeO<sub>2</sub> and maintained high thermo-mechanical stability after evaluating 26 metals that could adopt an oxidation state of +IV. They hypothesized that the effective dopant radius was closely related to the OEC and that the optimal radius for the maximal OEC was around 0.08 nm. In their subsequent work, they found that Hf, Zr, and Nb doping exhibited long-term stability during the 50 redox cycles of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The homogeneous dispersion of dopants in CeO<sub>2</sub> was a crucial stability condition [76]. Muhich et al. [68] proposed that using trivalent and pentavalent cations, paired charge-compensating doped ceria can boost the flexibility of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O conversion on CeO<sub>2</sub> more flexibly while maintaining its thermo-mechanical stability. M(III)/Nb(V) (M = La, Y, and Sc) co doping enhanced the reduction ability, and the lower oxidation state of the trivalent dopant could result in a lower oxygen vacancy formation energy.

## 4.2 Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>

Based on the activation of CO<sub>2</sub> on Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and the strong metal support interaction (SMSI) for metals supported on Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, Gnanakumar et al. [69] loaded Ni on Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> for the catalytic hydrogenation of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub>. All Ni-loading Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> catalysts showed the highest conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> methanation at the reaction temperatures below 350 °C (Fig. 3h), hence inhibiting CO formation. Ni aggregation, the production of volatile Ni(CO)<sub>4</sub>, and coke deposition have the potential to inhibit catalytic activity. By pre-calcining Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, they modified the surface acid sites to enhance the interaction between Ni and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. The enhancement of the SMSI effect and strong acid sites increased the CO<sub>2</sub> conversion to almost 90% and reduced the T<sub>50</sub> (the temperature at which 50% conversion had occurred) to 242 °C (Fig. 3i).

## 4.3 Nb or Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> particle decoration

Santana et al. [24] doped Cu/ZnO with Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> as a promoter for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CH<sub>3</sub>OH in light of the fact that a small amount of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> could enhance the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction activity and the structural stability of the catalyst. Compared with Cu/ZnO (UN), the loading of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> increased the dispersion and metallic area of Cu. Among the four synthesis methods of Cu/ZnO/Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (i.e., coprecipitation (CP), deposition–precipitation (DP), wet impregnation (WI), and incipient wetness impregnation (IW)), the CP method resulted in the largest specific surface area (48 m<sup>2</sup>·g<sup>-1</sup>), the highest Cu dispersion (Fig. 4a) and metallic area (15.6 m<sup>2</sup>·g<sup>-1</sup>), and the greatest CO<sub>2</sub> absorption. Thus, Cu/ZnO/Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-CP

exhibited the highest CH<sub>3</sub>OH space–time yield (STY) of 70.1 g·kg<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> at 200 °C (Fig. 4b). The CH<sub>3</sub>OH selectivity of Cu/ZnO/Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-CP was 70.2%, 1.9 times higher than that of Cu/ZnO (Fig. 4c). Noh et al. [70] also proved that the co-loading of Nb and Cu on SiO<sub>2</sub> significantly increased the CO<sub>2</sub> conversion and CH<sub>3</sub>OH selectivity. The high CH<sub>3</sub>OH selectivity resulted from abundant Lewis acid Nb sites, which enhanced the stabilization of intermediates (formate and methoxy) during the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CH<sub>3</sub>OH.

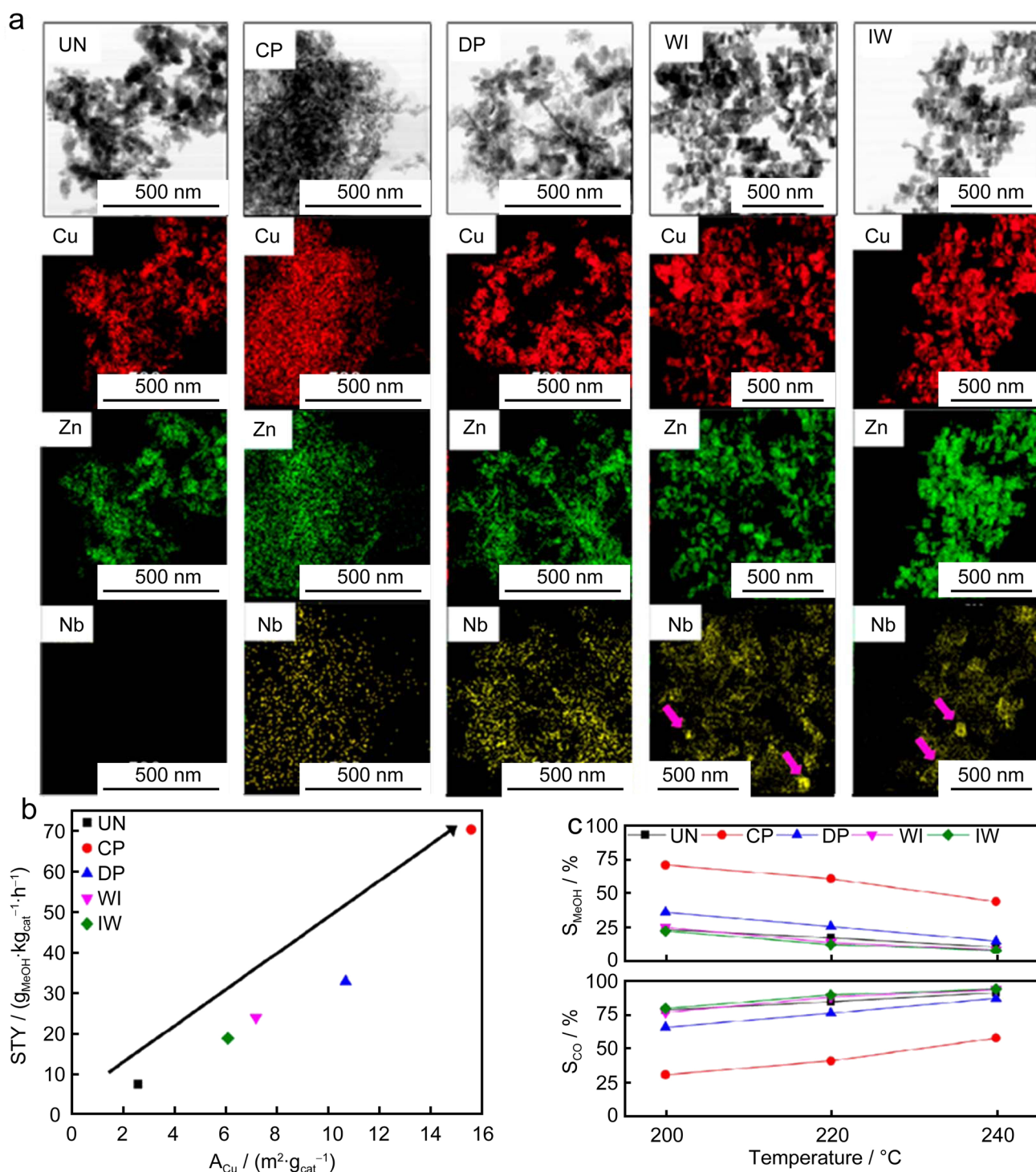
## 5 Conclusion and future perspectives

This minireview summarizes various Nb-containing catalysts, such as Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, Nb-based perovskites, Nb-doping catalysts (e.g., Nd–TiO<sub>2</sub>, Nd–MoS<sub>2</sub>, and Nd–CeO<sub>2</sub>), and Nb particle-decorated catalysts (e.g., Nb@In<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> and Cu/Nb@SiO<sub>2</sub>), for the application of photo-, electro-, and thermocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. In Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> catalysts, Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>·*n*H<sub>2</sub>O is the active species, Nb<sup>5+</sup> is the main active site, and the adjustment of acid sites can change the product selectivity. Nb doping can not only enhance the thermo-mechanical and redox stability but also optimize the electron structure of the base catalysts to increase the number of active sites and enhance the activity of the active site. Moreover, the base catalysts affected the product selectivity and potential determining step on Nb doping and Nb-loaded catalysts.

The prospects for the design and optimization of Nb-containing catalysts in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction are as follows:

- i. Theoretical calculations have ruled out many active Nb-containing catalysts, but only a few have been confirmed experimentally. Thus, it is essential to synthesize these Nb-containing catalysts with prospective catalytic activity and investigate the mechanism of the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction.
- ii. There are few reports on Nb-based metal–organic framework catalysts for catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Metal–organic framework catalysts have an enormous specific surface area and abundant pores in favor of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. In addition, Nb in metal–organic frameworks can be highly exposed and designed to be coordinately unsaturated, which is expected to promote CO<sub>2</sub> activation.
- iii. To improve the catalytic efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction without any sacrificial agents, Nb-containing catalysts can be designed and applied to photoelectrocatalysis CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction can reduce energy consumption, enhance carrier separation, and realize the quick transfer of multi electrons and protons in favor of forming desired long-chain organics.





**Fig. 4** **a** Transmission electron microscope–energy dispersive spectroscopy elemental mappings of Cu/ZnO, Cu/ZnO/Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-CP, Cu/ZnO/Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-DP, Cu/ZnO/Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WI, and Cu/ZnO/Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-IW; **b** the STY of CH<sub>3</sub>OH at 200 °C; **c** the CH<sub>3</sub>OH ( $S_{MeOH}$ ) and CO ( $S_{CO}$ ) selec-

tivity (reaction conditions: H<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>=3, gaseous hourly space velocity = 6 L·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>, and 3 MPa). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [24]. Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society

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## Declarations

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

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