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# REVIEW



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## 1. Introduction

Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) plays an important role in the manufacturing industries such as fertilizers, plastics, pharmaceuticals, *etc.*<sup>1-3</sup> Recently, the emerging "hydrogen economy" and "carbon neutralization" have caused NH<sub>3</sub> to be regarded as a carbon-free fuel and a portable energy carrier owing to its high energy density (4.32 kW h L<sup>-1</sup>); in addition, NH<sub>3</sub> can be used as a "green fuel" to produce electricity *via* direct ammonia fuel cells.<sup>4,5</sup> Importantly, NH<sub>3</sub> is a natural hydrogen carrier with a high H<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of 17.75%,<sup>6</sup> making liquid ammonia a safer hydrogen storage medium. Thus, the primary innovation directions of "ammonia = hydrogen 2.0" are derived,<sup>7-10</sup> and a new market for NH<sub>3</sub> is estimated to be created soon.

However, NH<sub>3</sub> is still produced by an energy-intensive Haber–Bosch process which requires harsh conditions of high temperature (400–600 °C) and pressure (200–350 atm), resulting in large amounts of global energy consumption and carbon dioxide emission (450 million metric tons).<sup>11–15</sup> Exploring alternative NH<sub>3</sub> synthetic techniques driven by sus-

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# Recent developments in Ti-based nanocatalysts for electrochemical nitrate-to-ammonia conversion

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Recently, electrochemical  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion *via* the nitrate reduction reaction ( $NO_3^-RR$ ) has received much attention because it is regarded as an available option for sewage treatment and ammonia synthesis under mild conditions. Exploring promising electrocatalysts with low cost, reduced overpotential, high yield rate and faradaic efficiency toward  $NH_3$ , and sufficient stability is the most crucial factor for  $NO_3^-$ to- $NH_3$  conversion and energy efficiencies. Considering the advantages of being nontoxic and having wide availability, outstanding stability, hydrogen evolution inertness, and mature fabrication techniques, titanium-based (mainly metallic Ti- and TiO<sub>2</sub>-based) nanomaterials have emerged as potential candidates for  $NO_3^-$ to- $NH_3$  conversion over a wide pH range. This review summarizes the overview of the  $NO_3^-$ RR and fundamental insights into metallic Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>, and clarifies the relationship among the design strategy, material structure, and performance enhancement. Furthermore, the recent progress in next-generation Ti-based nanomaterials is discussed, including Ti-based MXene and single atomic catalysts. Finally, the challenges and future directions of the  $NO_3^-$ RR and Ti-based nanocatalysts are elucidated. This review aims to provide some inspiration for developing effective electrocatalysts for electrochemical  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion.

tainable energies at room temperature and under an air atmosphere is significant for developing "green ammonia".<sup>16,17</sup> On the other hand, N2, NH3, and NO3- are the key inorganic species for the global nitrogen cycle. Humans utilize the Haber-Bosch process for nitrogen fixation, and as-produced NH<sub>3</sub> is used for chemical fertilizer manufacture or provides nitrates via the Ostwald process for the chemical and ammunition industries. Fertilizer-intensive agriculture generates NO3-containing sewages,<sup>18</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is also a major waste byproduct stream of industrial production (for instance, the effluent produced from the ammunition industries contains 65% ammonium nitrate and 20% amine nitrates<sup>19</sup>). Extensive nitrogen fixation eventually results in the accumulation of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, excessive NO3<sup>-</sup> cannot be converted naturally in time, interferes with the global nitrogen cycle and pollutes the surface and ground waters.<sup>20</sup> Therefore, it's necessary to develop a denitrification technique to establish a closed nitrogen cycle. The electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction reaction (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR) for  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion  $(NO_3^- + 6H_2O + 8e^- \rightarrow NH_3 + 9OH^-)$ driven by sustainable energies is regarded as an alternative for "green ammonia" production and an efficient artificial denitrification technique to repair the disturbed global nitrogen cycle, which has received great attention in recent years.<sup>21</sup>

Electrochemical  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion is an aqueousbased electrochemical strategy for ammonia synthesis using

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### Review

water as a hydrogen source, which gets rid of H<sub>2</sub> that is needed for NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis. Moreover, the high theoretical potential (0.69 V vs. RHE) of  $NO_3^{-}$ -to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion and the high solubility of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> make the efficiency of NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis superior to that of the electrochemical nitrogen reduction reaction (NRR) а traditional electrochemical nitrogen fixation technique.<sup>4,8,22</sup> Nevertheless, electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion still suffers from the following issues: although electrochemical NO3-to-NH3 conversion presents an ideal theoretical potential, it requires a large overpotential (>400 mV) to trigger the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR in reality,<sup>23,24</sup> due to which the energy conversion efficiency is seriously retarded; the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR is a complicated multi-electron coupled proton transfer process, in which a series of nitrogen-containing products such as NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO, N<sub>2</sub>O, N<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>2</sub>OH, and NH<sub>3</sub> could be generated, and toxic NO2- and low added-value N2 are the major competitive products relative to NH<sub>3</sub>.<sup>25,26</sup> Studying the reactive mechanisms of the NO3-RR and exploring efficient electrocatalysts are the keys to solving the above bottlenecks.

Recently, Cu- and Co-based electrocatalysts for electrochemical NO3-to-NH3 conversion have been intensively developed.<sup>27-35</sup> However, most of them only work in neutral or alkaline electrolytes, as NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> exhibits strong oxidability in acid solutions. Although noble metal-based electrocatalysts exhibit a strong resistance to acid corrosion, their NO<sub>3</sub>-RR activity is severely compromised by hydrogen evolution. It is desirable to develop efficient electrocatalysts for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion to treat sewage containing NO3<sup>-</sup> over a wide pH range and potential range. Ti-based materials have the inherent advantages of being non-toxic and cost-effective, and having superior stability over a wide pH range and HER inertness, making them ideal candidates. Currently, increasing studies reveal that Ti-based electrocatalysts, typically metal Ti <sup>36-38</sup> and TiO<sub>2</sub> composite materials,<sup>39-42</sup> exhibit comparable electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion activity. Furthermore, there are a series of low-cost fabrication techniques that enable largescale fabrication of Ti-based materials with various nanostructures under mild conditions. The above superiorities indicate that exploring Ti-based nanomaterials is a crucial development direction for electrocatalysts for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion. Although some exciting results of Ti-based electrocatalysts have been reported in the literature, there is still a lack of comprehensive evaluation of Ti-based electrocatalysts for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion, and the fundamentals of compositional and structural features associated with electrochemical NO3--to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion performances have not been thoroughly summarized.

Herein, brief summaries about the fundamental insights of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR and inorganic Ti-based materials are proposed. Ti-based electrocatalysts with various structures and their catalytic performances for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion have been reviewed in detail. Finally, the challenges and opportunities for further research are also discussed. This review aims to give some new inspiration to develop highly efficient Ti-based nanocatalysts for electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion.

### 2. Brief overview of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR

### 2.1. Reactive pathway

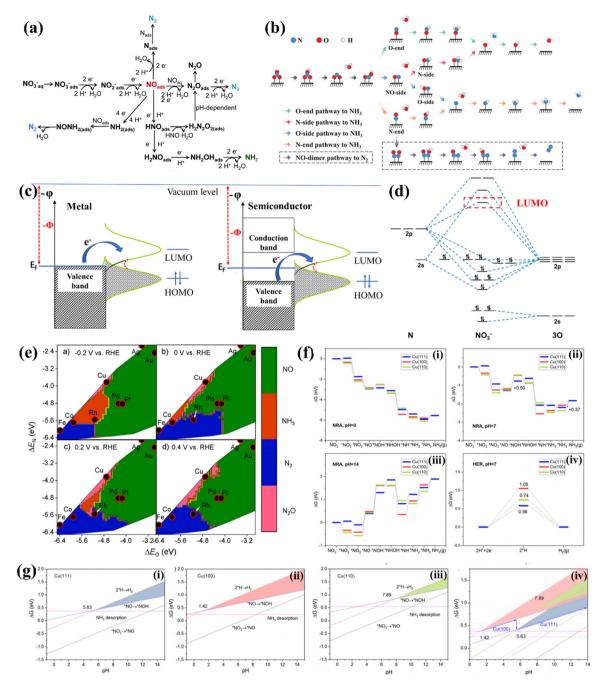
The NO<sub>3</sub> RR is a complicated process involving multi-electron coupled multi-proton transfer (Fig. 1a).<sup>43</sup> Different NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations, potential ranges and the pH of electrolytes may trigger diverse possible reactive pathways and result in various nitrogen-containing products, including NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, etc. Moreover, the exact reactive pathway of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR is still under debate. Niu et al. proposed five possible reactive pathways of the NO3<sup>-</sup>RR. They can be classified into O-end, O-side, N-end, N-side and NO-dimer pathways based on the adsorption configuration of \*NO (\* denotes the state of being adsorbed), as depicted in Fig. 1b.44 However, there is still a lack of sufficient experimental evidence to verify the exact reactive pathway. Some of the studies used the N-end pathway of  $NO_3^- \rightarrow *NO_3 \rightarrow *NO_2 \rightarrow *NO \rightarrow$ \*NOH  $\rightarrow$  \*NHOH  $\rightarrow$  \*NH  $\rightarrow$  \*NH<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  \*NH<sub>3</sub>  $\rightarrow$  NH<sub>3</sub>(g) to perform the density functional theory (DFT) study, while the O-end pathway of  $NO_3^- \rightarrow *NO_3 \rightarrow *NO_2 \rightarrow *HNO_2 \rightarrow *NO$  $\rightarrow$  \*HNO  $\rightarrow$  \*H<sub>2</sub>NO  $\rightarrow$  \*HNO  $\rightarrow$  \*O  $\rightarrow$  \*OH was often used for Ti-based electrocatalysts.

#### 2.2. Overpotential

Overpotential is a crucial parameter for evaluating the energy conversion efficiency of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR. The theoretical potential for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion is 0.69 V vs. RHE.<sup>8</sup> In reality, a large overpotential (usually more than 400 mV) is needed for triggering the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion. The ideal electrocatalyst is still to be developed, and the origin of overpotential should be further clarified. The NO3-RR is a cathodic reduction reaction in which NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is transferred to a series of nitrogen-containing products by accepting electrons on the electrode surface. The rate-limiting step in the entire reaction is usually the reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to the intermediate product  $NO_2^*$  due to the difficulty of breaking the N–O bond.<sup>21,45</sup> It is the process of electron transition from electrodes to the lowest occupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, according to the standpoint of frontier orbital theory. This process can be vividly expressed in Fig. 1c for metal and semiconductor electrodes. The molecular orbital diagram of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> shown in Fig. 1d suggests that the high-energy LUMO of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ion and the d orbitals of transition metals (except Hg) are hard to match with the LUMO of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, thus extra energy is needed for reducing  $NO_3^{-}$  to the intermediate product  $NO_2^{*}$ .<sup>46</sup> Therefore, exploring electrocatalysts with high energy in the highest occupied state (HOS) is essential for reducing the overpotential.47,48

### 2.3. Product selectivity

For  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion,  $NH_3$  is the target product of the  $NO_3^-$ RR. Thus, the selectivity and faradaic efficiency (FE) of  $NH_3$  are crucial parameters. However,  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion involves eight electrons coupled with the transfer of nine protons. Many intermediates with the valence of nitrogen between +5 and -3 may desorb from electrocatalysts to gene-



**Fig. 1** (a) The possible pathways of the  $NO_3^-RR.^{43}$  Reproduced from ref. 43 with permission from The Royal Society of Chemistry, copyright 2021. (b) Detailed pathways of the  $NO_3^-RR$ , including O-end, O-side, N-end, and N-side pathways to  $NH_3$ , as well as the NO-dimer pathway to  $N_2.^{44}$  Reproduced from ref. 44 with permission from Wiley-VCH, copyright 2020. (c) Electronic band structures of metal- and semiconductor-based electrodes, and the electron transfer from the electrode to the frontier orbitals of the adsorbate. (d) Molecular orbital diagram and the LUMO of  $NO_3^-$ . (e) Theoretical selectivity maps to NO,  $N_2O$ ,  $N_2$  or  $NH_3$  products from electrocatalytic  $NO_3^-$  reduction as a function of O and N adsorption energy under different applied voltages.<sup>49</sup> Reproduced from ref. 49 with permission from American Chemical Society, copyright 2019. (f)  $NO_3^-RR$  pathways at Cu(111), Cu(100), and Cu(110) at (i) pH = 0, (ii) pH = 7, (iii) pH = 14, and (iv) the HER pathway at pH = 7. (g) Competing relationship between the  $NO_3^-RR$  and the HER on (i) Cu(111), (ii) Cu(100), and (iii) Cu(110), and (iv) comparison between different facets. The shaded zones are predominated by the  $NO_3^-RR.^{56}$  Reproduced from ref. 56 with permission from American Chemical Society, copyright 2021.

rate various by-products, and the coupling reaction between neighboring \*N leads to the generation of N<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> or N<sub>2</sub>O as by-products. Liu *et al.* revealed that the adsorption strengths of O and N atoms ( $\Delta E_O$  and  $\Delta E_N$ ) could be used as descriptors of selectivity on transition metals. As depicted in Fig. 1e, moderate adsorption of O and N prefers  $NH_3$  generation, strong adsorption of O and N results in  $N_2$  formation, and the weak adsorption intensity of N and O tends to produce NO. They

Furthermore, the d-band model is commonly used for describing and anticipating the selectivity of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR. The d-band center  $(E_d)$  is related to the adsorption strengths of intermediates, which increase with the  $E_d$  of active sites approaching the Fermi level. NO2<sup>-</sup> is regarded as a major byproduct of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion. A more negative  $\Delta(G_{NO^*})$  $-G_{NO_*}$ ) is desired for increasing the preference toward nitrite reduction to nitric oxide. As E<sub>d</sub> approaches the Fermi level,  $\Delta(G_{\rm NO^*} - G_{\rm NO^*})$  becomes increasingly negative, and \*NO<sub>2</sub> tends to be reduced to \*NO.<sup>50,51</sup> Subsequently, the adsorbed nitric oxide (\*NO) serves as a critical intermediate in determining the selectivity between nitrogen/oxides and ammonium or hydroxylamine.<sup>52</sup> NH<sub>3</sub> could be generated from \*NO via two pathways: one is the so-called Eley-Rideal-like proton-coupled electron transfer, in which \*NO was reduced to hydroxylamine (\*NH<sub>2</sub>OH),<sup>53</sup> and the other involves the dissociation of \*NO into \*N and \*O and the Langmuir-Hinshelwood-like hydrogenation of \*N by \*H to NH<sub>3</sub>.<sup>54,55</sup> The latter has been proposed to favor NH<sub>3</sub> production, namely, dissociative adsorption of nitric oxide is desired for NO3<sup>-</sup>to-NH3 conversion. Theoretical studies revealed that the dissociation activation barriers of \*NO decrease with increasing its adsorption strength, suggesting that the  $E_d$  of active sites should be close to the Fermi level to activate the dissociation of nitric oxide for NH<sub>3</sub> formation.50

On the other hand, the HER is the major competitive reaction of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR, which also retards the selectivity and FE of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion. Hu et al. found that the pH influences the competition between the HER and the NO3<sup>-</sup>RR on the (100), (111), and (110) facets of Cu. As depicted in Fig. 1f, the Gibbs free energies  $(\Delta G)$  of intermediates along pathways on Cu(111), Cu(100), and Cu(110) are dependent on the pH of the electrolyte, and the  $\Delta G$ -pH plots of the potential ratedetermining step of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR and HER are shown in Fig. 1g (i-iii). The pH range corresponding to the triangle zone is suitable for the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR, and the critical pH values of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR are 5.63, 1.42 and 7.89 for Cu(111), Cu(100) and Cu(110), respectively. Fig. 1g(iv) suggests that Cu(100) works at pH ranging from 1.42 to 5.63 while Cu(111) works at pH ranging from 5.63 to 14, indicating that Cu(111) works more effectively. Moreover, the product selectivity is highly dependent on the applied potential, and a negative potential is needed for NH<sub>3</sub> generation while the HER tends to retard the FE and selectivity of NH<sub>3</sub>.<sup>56</sup> The above results verify that the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR is potential-dependent and pH-sensitive; thus, seeking HER inert materials for constructing NO3-RR electrocatalysts which can work in a wide pH and potential range is highly desired.

# 3. Fundamental insights of metallic titanium and titanium oxides

Titanium (Ti) is not only a HER inert element but also one of the most abundant elements in the Earth's crust. Metallic

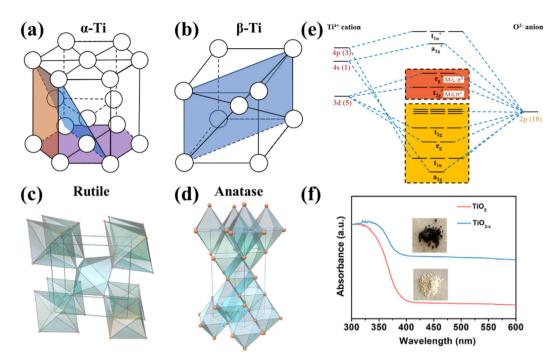
Ti or its alloys and oxides have been widely used in aerospace, photocatalysis, energy storage, and other fields due to their advantages of low cost, superior mechanical strength, unique electronic structure, excellent corrosion resistance and stability, *etc.*<sup>57</sup> Some studies revealed that Ti-based inorganic nanomaterials, majorly, metallic Ti- and TiO<sub>2</sub>-based nanomaterials exhibited impressive performances of electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion. The exploration of low cost and highly-efficient Ti-based electrocatalysts for the conversion of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> has attracted much attention. In this part, we systematically review the structure of metallic Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub> to help rationalize the design of Ti-based nanomaterials for electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion.

### 3.1. Metallic Ti

Metallic Ti is a silver-white transition metal with a high melting point of 1660  $\pm$  10 °C, a low density of 4.506 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, and excellent corrosion resistance. The valence electronic configuration of Ti is [Ar]3d<sup>2</sup>4s<sup>2</sup>. There are two isomers of titanium:  $\alpha$ -Ti and  $\beta$ -Ti; their crystallographic structures are depicted in Fig. 2a and b, respectively. a-Ti belongs to the hexagonal crystal system with an atomic space utilization rate of 74%, while β-Ti presents body-centered cubic dense packing with a utilization rate of 68%. The transition temperature of the above isomers is 882.5 °C, α-Ti is stable below 882 °C, and  $\beta$ -Ti is stable between 882 °C and the melting point; thus  $\alpha$ -Ti is the common form in reality.<sup>58,59</sup> The work function ( $\Phi$  shown in Fig. 1c) of metallic Ti is 4.33 eV, lower than those of Co (5 eV), Cu (4.65 eV), Fe (4.5 eV), and Ru (4.71 eV) usually regarded as electrocatalysts for the NO3<sup>-</sup>RR,<sup>60</sup> suggesting that Ti presents a high-energy Fermi level and may be an ideal candidate with a lower overpotential of the NO3<sup>-</sup>RR. However, titanium usually forms a stable oxide layer on its surface when exposed to air, and the active sites should be carefully identified while using metallic Tibased materials as catalysts.

### 3.2. Titanium oxides

TiO<sub>2</sub> belongs to the category of typical semiconductors.<sup>61</sup> There are many kinds of crystallographic structures, including rutile, anatase, brookite and TiO<sub>2</sub>(B), and several metastable polymorphs, such as TiO<sub>2</sub> (H), TiO<sub>2</sub> II, and perovskites, have been artificially synthesized.<sup>61</sup> Metastable phases are rarely observed as stable electrocatalysts, and the TiO2 (B) phase is less common. Thus, they will not be discussed in this review. Anatase and rutile have more comprehensive applications because they are more stable than brookite,<sup>57</sup> hence they are emphatically discussed. Generally, rutile is the most stable phase and is usually synthesized by hightemperature deposition or annealing. Anatase-phased nanomaterials are commonly obtained by solution-based or lowtemperature vapor deposition systems.<sup>61</sup> Anatase and rutile phases present tetragonal structures (as depicted in Fig. 2c and d) with slightly distorted TiO<sub>6</sub> octahedra as a fundamental building block,<sup>57,62,63</sup> and have bandgaps of 3.2 and 2.96 eV, respectively.<sup>57,64</sup> A large bandgap results in poor



**Fig. 2** Unit cells of (a)  $\alpha$ -Ti, (b)  $\beta$ -Ti, (c) rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> and (d) anatase TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>61</sup> Reproduced from ref. 61 with permission from American Chemical Society, copyright 2014. (e) Molecular orbitals of the octahedral TiO<sub>6</sub> unit. (f) UV–vis absorption spectra (the insets are optical photographs) of TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2-x</sub>.<sup>65</sup> Reproduced from ref. 65 with permission from American Chemical Society, copyright 2020.

electron conductivity of TiO<sub>2</sub>. Based on the ligand-field theory, the orbital diagram of the TiO<sub>6</sub> octahedral unit is shown in Fig. 2e. Since the valence electronic configuration of Ti<sup>4+</sup> is [Ar]3d<sup>0</sup>4s<sup>0</sup>, the bonding orbitals ( $a_{1g}$ ,  $t_{1u}$ ,  $e_g$  and  $t_{2g}$ ) are mainly contributed by the 2p orbitals of O<sup>2-</sup>, and the unoccupied anti-bonding orbitals ( $a_{1g}^*$ ,  $t_{1u}^*$ ,  $e_g^*$  and  $t_{2g}^*$ ) are mainly contributed by the 3d, 4s and 4p orbitals of Ti<sup>4+</sup>. Therefore, the valence band maximum and the conduction band minimum originate from O 2p and Ti 3d, respectively.

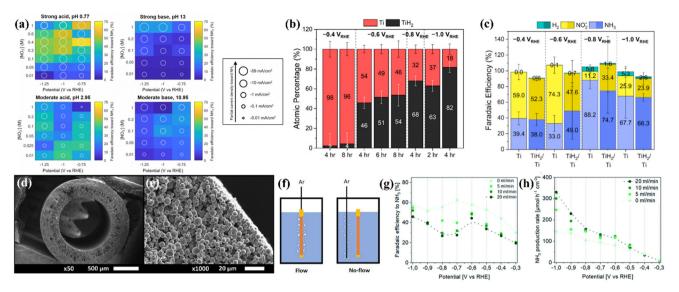
Oxygen vacancies (OVs) are easily created on the surface of  $TiO_2$ , thereupon leading to the formation of unsaturated  $Ti^{3+}$ sites and nonstoichiometric  $TiO_{2-x}$  (0 < x < 1). According to the stoichiometry theory for semiconductors,  $TiO_{2-x}$  belongs to an n-type semiconductor with a narrow bandgap compared to TiO<sub>2</sub>,  ${}^{57,66}$  and the electrons in TiO<sub>2-x</sub> are easily excited from the valence band to the conduction band to form holes and carriers. Therefore,  $TiO_{2-x}$  can absorb visible light to show color (Fig. 2f), and the electron conductivity of  $TiO_{2-x}$  is strengthened compared to that of intrinsic TiO2.65 Furthermore, the Fermi level could be upshifted by transforming the intrinsic semiconductor to an n-type semiconductor, which is desired for reducing the overpotential of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR, as discussed in section 2.2. On the other hand, the electron conductivity of TiO2 can also be modified by heteroatom doping. By controlling the doping pattern, intrinsic TiO<sub>2</sub> can be transformed to an n- or p-type semiconductor.<sup>57,67</sup> The bandgap, electron conductivity, and the Fermi level could be regulated subsequently.

# 4. Nitrate-to-ammonia conversion performance of Ti-based nanocatalysts

### 4.1. Metallic Ti-based electrocatalysts

Considering that titanium exhibits a higher Fermi level, poor HER activity and high corrosion resistance, as discussed in section 3, some researchers tried to explore metallic Ti-based electrocatalysts for  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion.

Fajardo et al. studied the NO3<sup>-</sup>RR on a series of transition metals Ti, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, and Sn by electroreduction of 100 mg  $L^{-1}$  NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N in 50 mM Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at 20 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and 360 min of treatment time. They found that the  $NO_3^-$  degradation on the above materials conformed to the pseudo-firstorder characteristic. The selectivity of N2 for Ti is almost negligible, the FE<sub>NH2</sub> of Ti is close to those of Co and Fe and higher than those of Ni, Cu, Zn and Sn, and the reaction kinetics of Ti is even comparable to that of Pt. The above results suggest that NH<sub>3</sub> generation on Ti is electrocatalytically preferential over  $N_2$  evolution.<sup>36</sup> To further reveal the rule of the  $NO_3$ -RR on Ti, McEnaney et al. systematically studied the effect of pH, nitrate concentration, and applied potential on the  $FE_{NH_3}$  of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR on the Ti electrode. The heatmaps constructed by an entire grid of electrolyte conditions and FE<sub>NH2</sub> shown in Fig. 3a suggest that (1) more extreme pH values give significantly higher total current densities than those of moderate pH, (2) lower pH generally corresponds to higher  $FE_{NH_2}$ , and (3) in moderate base and moderate acid electrolytes, moderate



**Fig. 3** (a) Heatmap plots at four distinct pH values showing faradaic efficiency to  $NH_3$  by varying applied potentials and nitrate concentrations. Each grid block displays the data from a 30 min potentiostatic experiment performed at the indicated pH, nitrate concentration, and applied potential.<sup>13</sup> Reproduced from ref. 13 with permission from American Chemical Society, copyright 2020. (b) Ti atomic percentages of the Ti foil cathode after the  $NO_3^-RR$  obtained from the EXAFS modeling. (c) Faradaic efficiencies toward the production of ammonia, nitrite, and hydrogen gas on unamended Ti and TiH<sub>2</sub>/Ti electrodes.<sup>38</sup> Reproduced from ref. 38 with permission from American Chemical Society, copyright 2022. (d) SEM images the cross section of a Ti hollow fiber electrode at different magnifications; (e) gas flow configurations of the working electrode compartment; (f) performance of Ti hollow fiber electrodes for the electrochemical reduction of  $NO_3^-$  to  $NH_3$  in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> using 50 mM KNO<sub>3</sub>; potential- and Ar flow rate-dependent (g) faradaic efficiency and (h) production rate toward ammonia.<sup>37</sup> Reproduced from ref. 37 with permission from the Royal Society of Chemistry, copyright 2022.

nitrate concentrations (between 0.025 and 0.2 M NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) generate higher  $FE_{NH_2}$ . According to the above results, the authors used an electrolytic cell constructed by using a Nafion membrane divider with 0.1 M HNO<sub>3</sub>/0.3 M KNO<sub>3</sub> electrolyte for the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR, and achieved the highest FE<sub>NH2</sub> of 82%. Importantly, the authors first revealed that titanium hydride  $(TiH_x)$  is generated on the Ti electrode after the reaction.<sup>13</sup> Subsequently, Liu et al. focused on this issue and utilized highly surface-sensitive techniques such as ex situ grazing-incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) and total electron yield X-ray absorption spectroscopy (TEY XAS) to deeply elucidate the self-reconstruction of metallic Ti foil. The GIXRD result suggests that α-Ti was the primary phase of unamended Ti foil; the diffraction patterns for  $TiH_x$ appeared after the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR was performed at -0.6 V vs. RHE in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> + 0.8 mM KNO<sub>3</sub>. The quantitative analysis of Ti K-edge TEY XAS measurements further suggested that more negative applied potential and longer applied durations promoted near-surface TiH<sub>2</sub> enrichment, as depicted in Fig. 3b. The electrochemical NO3<sup>-</sup>RR performance of unamended Ti and preformed TiH2/Ti electrodes was assessed with 30 min chronoamperometry experiments at -0.4, -0.6, -0.8, and -1.0 V vs. RHE in 1 M NaClO<sub>4</sub> + 10 mM HNO<sub>3</sub>, GIXRD of unamended Ti electrodes after such a short-time chronoamperometry showed that self-reconstruction could not be observed, and the NO3-RR performance of unamended Ti could be attributed to the intrinsic Ti foil. Surprisingly, the  $FE_{NH_2}$ , FE<sub>NO<sub>2</sub>-</sub> and FE<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> of unamended Ti and preformed TiH<sub>2</sub>/Ti electrodes depicted in Fig. 3c followed a similar trend with almost identical partial current densities of  $NH_3$ .<sup>38</sup> Thus, the mystery of whether the active species of the metallic Ti electrode for the  $NO_3$ <sup>-</sup>RR is Ti, Ti hydride, or a combination of species remains under debate, and the above two studies remind us that the self-reconstruction during the  $NO_3$ <sup>-</sup>RR cannot be neglected, even if Ti-based materials are usually regarded as stable components. It should be highlighted that the near-surface structure is important for the  $NO_3$ <sup>-</sup>RR.

A representative study about electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion on metallic Ti-based nanomaterials reported by Krzywda et al. suggested that a tubular porous Ti electrode prepared by dry-wet spinning exhibited interesting catalytic behaviors. The as-prepared Ti electrode exhibited uniform pore distribution over the entire length of the fiber (Fig. 3d and e). They introduced a flow of inert gas exiting the wall of the hollow fiber electrode (Ar flow through the hollow fiber electrode from the inside to the outside, denoted as flow-through conditions), as illustrated in Fig. 3f. The current density of tubular porous Ti electrodes with flow-through conditions is higher than that with no-flow (Ar was introduced through an external sparging line next to a hollow fiber electrode) and vigorous magnetic stirring conditions. This result excluded the possibility that enhanced current density originated from the bubbling induced convective flow. Although the flow-through conditions decreased the FE<sub>NH2</sub> (Fig. 3g), the yield rates and partial current densities of NH<sub>3</sub> eventually improved (Fig. 3h). The authors suggested that the flow-through conditions promote the transport of protons and nitrate towards the elec-

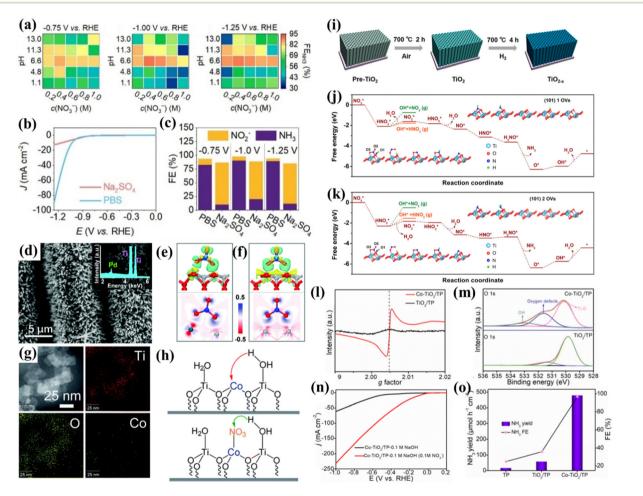
Review

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trode, thus increasing the catalytic current density. However, the flow-through conditions take NO and N<sub>2</sub>O away from the solution, promote the homogeneous reaction of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>2</sub>OH to NO and N<sub>2</sub>O, hinder the consecutive electrochemical reduction of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>2</sub>OH towards NH<sub>3</sub>, and eventually result in a decrease of  $FE_{NH_3}$ .<sup>37</sup> Furthermore, Tarpeh *et al.* constructed a representative flow-cell configuration with a polycrystalline titanium electrode for the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR and revealed that NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>3</sub> accounted for almost all NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR products, the selectivity was flow rate dependent, and NH<sub>3</sub> was favored at the lowest flow rate. The above results suggested that the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR was subject to mass transport limitations.<sup>68</sup>

### 4.2. TiO<sub>2</sub>-based electrocatalysts

 $TiO_2$  is suitable as a substrate for loading active materials due to its low cost, non-toxic nature and corrosion resistance. The electrons in  $TiO_2$  can be excited from the valence band to the conduction band, and the electrons and holes are able to diffuse to the semiconductor surface for participating in the reaction; thus, modulating the valence electronic structure is an alternative for narrowing the bandgap and improving the electron conductivity of intrinsic  $TiO_2$ . In this section, three common strategies for modulating the  $NO_3$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion performances of  $TiO_2$ based nanomaterials including heteroatom doping, creating oxygen vacancies and heterostructures will be introduced.



**Fig. 4** (a) Heatmaps of  $FE_{NH_3}$  in electrolyte solution with different  $NO_3^-$  concentrations and pH values under three applied potentials; comparison of  $NO_3^-RR$  activities in 1.0 M PBS and 1.0 M  $Na_2SO_4$  with 0.4 M KNO<sub>3</sub>, (b) LSV curves, (c)  $FE_{NH_3}$ <sup>39</sup> reproduced from ref. 39 with permission from Wiley-VCH, copyright 2022; (d) SEM images and the EDX spectrum (inset) of Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays; (e and f) 3D and 2D electron density difference mappings for the optimized (e) Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and (f) TiO<sub>2</sub>-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> structures;<sup>40</sup> reproduced from ref. 40 with permission from the Royal Society of Chemistry, copyright 2021; (g) EDS elemental mapping images of Co/TiO<sub>2</sub> NSs; (h) proposed hydrogen-activated routes and the corresponding hydrogen acceptors in the HER and  $NO_3^-RR$  processes;<sup>41</sup> reproduced from ref. 41 with permission from the Royal Society of Chemistry, copyright 2022; (i) schematic illustration for TiO<sub>2-x</sub> synthesis; calculated free energy changes of the nitrate reduction reaction on the TiO<sub>2</sub> (101) surface with (j) one, and (k) two oxygen vacancies in one 1 × 3 slab at 0 V vs. RHE;<sup>65</sup> reproduced from ref. 65 with permission from American Chemical Society, copyright 2020; (l) EPR spectra and (m) O 1s regions of Co-TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP and TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP; (n) LSV curves of Co-TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP in 0.1 M NaOH with and without 0.1 M NO<sub>3</sub><sup>--</sup>; (o) NH<sub>3</sub> yields and FEs of Co-TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP, TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP, and bare TP at -0.5 V vs. RHE.<sup>42</sup> Reproduced from ref. 42 with permission from The Royal Society of Chemistry, copyright 2022.

Firstly, the electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion behavior of intrinsic TiO2 must be clarified. Xu et al. synthesized anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> and systematically studied its NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR behavior affected by electrolytic conditions, including pH values, nitrate concentration, and the type of electrolyte. The heatmap in Fig. 4a shows that the relationship between  $FE_{NH_{2}}$  and the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration exhibits an approximate volcano shape, and the relationship between  $FE_{NH_2}$  and the pH of the electrolyte also obeys a similar tendency. According to the heatmap, higher FE<sub>NH</sub>, could be achieved in neutral media of 0.4 M  $KNO_3 + 1.0 M PBS$  (pH = 6.6), unlike metallic Ti, which is more inclined to produce NH<sub>3</sub> in acidic electrolytes (Fig. 3e). This phenomenon demonstrates that NO<sub>3</sub> RR behaviors on both metallic Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub> are pH-sensitive. To further understand the insightful effect of the electrolyte, the electrolyte was switched into another neutral solution of 0.4 M KNO<sub>3</sub> + 1.0 M  $Na_2SO_4$  (pH = 6.7). Fig. 4b and c suggest that  $TiO_2$  displayed a much lower catalytic current density, FE<sub>NH2</sub> and partial current density of NH<sub>3</sub> in an electrolyte of 0.4 M KNO<sub>3</sub> + 1.0 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. To reveal the essence of this phenomenon, the authors tested the pH values of two electrolytes after 30 min electrolysis. Consequently, PBS only increased 0.3 pH units while in Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution the pH drastically increased from 7 to 13. Therefore, the pH of the electrolyte could be maintained in a suitable range for NH<sub>3</sub> formation in the buffer. However, the pH of Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> quickly ascended to an inferior area shown in Fig. 4a, which inhibited the NH<sub>3</sub> formation. Moreover, the authors proposed that faster proton transport in PBS is responsible for the larger catalytic current density. This effect could increase the proton concentration on the electrode surface and facilitate the hydrogenation of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NH<sub>3</sub>.<sup>39</sup> This study preliminarily revealed the NO3-RR behavior on TiO2 and demonstrated optimal electrochemical conditions for electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion using TiO<sub>2</sub> as an electrocatalyst.

**4.2.1. Heteroatom doping.** Heteroatom doping modifies the valence electronic structure of  $TiO_2$  by elemental interaction, which is a straightforward strategy for modulating the electrochemical performances.

A representative study of heteroatom doping is presented by Guo et al., who successfully doped Pd atoms into TiO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4d) for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion. They proved that the lattice stress caused by doping Pd atoms into the TiO<sub>2</sub> phase creates dislocations and distortions forming the active sites of the catalytic reactions. DFT studies revealed that the HOMO of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is located at the O atoms. Fig. 4(e and f) further illustrate that the introduction of Pd atoms makes the electrons of TiO2 transfer to Pd atoms, forming an electron-rich accumulation on Pd, promoting electron transfer to the oxygen atoms of nitrate ions, and eventually accelerating the dissociation of the N-O bond. Meanwhile, a novel Zn-nitrate cell system was assembled for the first time based on the Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst as the cathode and metal Zn as the anode. The battery delivers remarkable dual functions, i.e., it generates electricity and produces NH3 at the same time with a peak power density of 0.87 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> and a high FE<sub>NH<sub>2</sub></sub> of 81.3%. This study demonstrated the feasibility of the galvanic nitrate-based cell, which

broadens the field of Zn-based batteries.40 Xu et al. synthesized  $Co(\pi)$ -decorated TiO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets (Fig. 4g) exhibiting excellent nitrate performance with an FE and NH<sub>3</sub> yield of 97.4% and 0.348 mmol cm<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> respectively in 1.0 M phosphate buffer solution (PBS, pH = 6.53). The inhibited HER mechanism was also investigated. They demonstrated a proton pumping mechanism for thermodynamically facilitating proton transfer in the presence of nitrate as follows: in the HER, the hydrogen/ proton acceptor should be the Co atoms on Co/TiO2 NSs, while the hydrogen/proton acceptor switches into the N/O atoms of nitrate adsorbed on the Co sites in the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR, and Ti serves as active sites for water dissociation, as depicted in Fig. 4h. Due to the negative charge and delocalized conjugated  $\pi$  electron cloud on NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, the barrier of proton transportation from  $H_2O$  to  $NO_3^-$  (0.508 eV) is much lower than that to  $Co^{2+}$  (0.805 eV), thus the HER could spontaneously switch to the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR and the energy input for the NO<sub>3</sub>-RR could be lowered simultaneously.41

**4.2.2. Oxygen vacancy.** The OVs, as an anionic defect, provide electrons to the catalyst surface and endow the lattice oxygen with a higher electron density, making it easier to participate in the catalytic reaction. OVs are easy to form on  $\text{TiO}_2$  and they can vary the coordinative structure and the valence state of Ti on the surface (as discussed in section 3.2). Creating OVs is also a common strategy for optimizing the electronic structure of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Moreover, the increase of OVs in  $\text{TiO}_2$  is closely related to the  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{RR}$  activity.

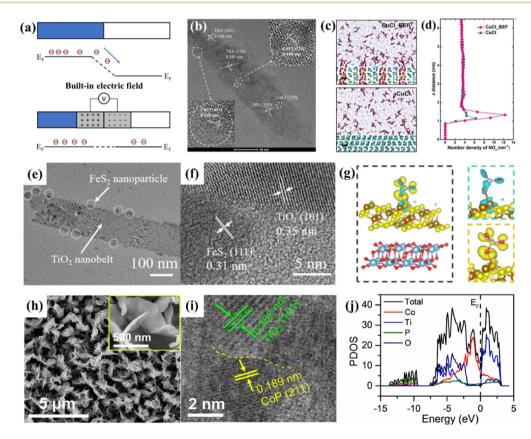
Jia *et al.* synthesized oxygen vacancy-enriched  $\text{TiO}_{2-x}$  nanotubes by hydrogen reduction (Fig. 4i) and the as-prepared  $\text{TiO}_{2-x}$  nanotubes were regarded as an efficient electrocatalyst for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion. DFT calculations suggested that introducing OVs on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> resulted in the occupation of excess 3d electrons of Ti, and the Fermi level could be moved into the conduction band minimum, eventually giving rise to the metallic behavior of TiO<sub>2-x</sub> and then improving the electron conductivity. This study revealed that OVs are the adsorption sites filled by the oxygen atoms in nitrate, which weaken the N–O bonding. By comparing the Gibbs free energy diagram of TiO<sub>2</sub> (101) with one and two vacancies, the latter needed a higher reaction barrier for the formation of HNO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4j and k), thus suppressing the generation of byproducts.<sup>65</sup>

The enhancement of oxygen vacancies by metal doping has also received much attention. Song *et al.* utilized electrochemical anodic oxidation and electrodeposition to synthesize a highly dispersed Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube array (Cu/TNTA) cathode with a high electrocatalytic NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR efficiency and long-term stability. They discovered that just doping trace amounts of Cu into TiO<sub>2</sub> could activate more OVs during the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR process. The OVs highly promoted charge transfer between the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and the electrocatalyst, thus reducing the energy barrier of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR, eventually reducing the overpotential required for triggering the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR and improving the yield rate of NH<sub>3</sub> and FE<sub>NH<sub>3</sub></sub>.<sup>69</sup> Similarly, Yu's group synthesized a unique structure of Cu clusters homogeneously supported on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets with abundant OVs (10Cu/TiO<sub>2-x</sub>).

DFT calculations suggested that OVs should be the strong adsorption sites of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. The N-O bond of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> breaks automatically during the adsorption process, and the by-products of NO<sub>2</sub> or HNO<sub>2</sub> are suppressed by OVs with higher reaction barriers, suggesting that the positive effect of interfacial OVs optimized the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR on 10Cu/TiO<sub>2-x</sub>.<sup>70</sup> Zhao *et al.* skillfully utilized Na<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> grown on a Ti plate as a precursor to prepare CoTi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> by an ion exchange strategy, and then the Co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoribbon array grown on the Ti plate (Co-TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP) was achieved by Ar-annealing of CoTi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. XRD patterns suggested that Co in the lattice of TiO<sub>2</sub> reduced the crystal quality. Moreover, the EPR and XPS results verified that OVs were introduced into TiO<sub>2</sub> after Co doping (Fig. 4l and m). DFT calculations revealed that Co-TiO<sub>2</sub> shows a higher impurity level near the Fermi level compared to TiO<sub>2</sub>, which facilitates charge transfer at the interface. Co doping and OVs also reduced the Gibbs free energy barrier from \*NO to \*N, which was regarded as a potential determining step in these systems. These advantages enabled Co-TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP to attain an improved onset potential compared to TiO2/TP, a large NH3 yield of 1127  $\mu$ mol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup> at -0.9 V and a high FE<sub>NH<sub>3</sub></sub> of 98.2% at -0.5 V vs. RHE (Fig. 4n and o).<sup>42</sup>

The above Cu/Co induced OVs generated in TiO<sub>2</sub> could be attributed to the charge difference between  $Cu^{2+/}Co^{2+}$  and  $Ti^{4+}$ . Doping  $Cu^{2+/}Co^{2+}$  into the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice must create OVs to compensate for the missing positive charge while remaining charge neutral.<sup>71</sup>

**4.2.3.** Heterostructure. Stacking any two dissimilar materials with different Fermi levels (work functions,  $\Phi$  shown in Fig. 1c) to form a heterostructure could form a built-in electric field (BEF). As shown in Fig. 5a, the Fermi level (or work function) represents the electrochemical potential of electrons in the materials, and the difference in Fermi levels results in electrons crossing the heterostructure from the material with a higher Fermi level to the other to form a BEF until their Fermi levels reach equilibrium. Therefore, the electronic interaction that originated from the rectifying effect can also effectively modify the valence electronic structure of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based materials. Based on the above discussions, a series of studies achieved impressive results.



**Fig. 5** (a) The formation of a built-in electric field at the heterostructure composed of two components with different Fermi levels. (b) Representative HRTEM image of CuCl\_BEF. (c) Molecular dynamics simulation of CuCl and CuCl\_BEF in KNO<sub>3</sub> (100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) solution. Scale bar, 0.5 nm. (d) Distribution of  $NO_3^-$  along the *z*-axis electrode distance based on the molecular dynamics simulation.<sup>72</sup> Reproduced from ref. 72 with permission from Wiley-VCH, copyright 2022. (e) TEM and (f) HRTEM images of FeS<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP. (g) Charge density difference of FeS<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> with adsorbed  $NO_3^-$ , where yellow and cyan color indicate electron accumulation and depletion, respectively, and the isosurface values are set to 0.000213 Å<sup>-3.73</sup> Reproduced from ref. 73 with permission from The Royal Society of Chemistry, copyright 2022. (h) SEM images and (i) HRTEM images of CoP/TiO<sub>2</sub>. (j) Calculated PDOS of CoP/TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>76</sup> Reproduced from ref. 76 with permission from Elsevier, copyright 2022.

Sun *et al.* stacked CuCl (111) and rutile  $TiO_2$  (110) layers together (Fig. 5b), a BEF could be induced by electron transfer from TiO<sub>2</sub> to CuCl due to the difference in their Fermi levels, and the BEF strength was roughly estimated to be  $8 \times 10^8$  V m<sup>-1</sup>. Molecular dynamics simulation and finite element analysis suggested that the BEF accumulated NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the diffusion layer near the surface of the electrocatalyst (Fig. 5c and d). This study demonstrated that the BEF increased the free energy of \*ON, resulting in a great decrease of  $\Delta G$  of the potential determining step. This phenomenon could be elucidated as the BEF resulted in electron richer Cu(I), which suppressed the electron donation from \*NO but facilitated the back donation to the  $\pi^*$  anti-bonding orbital of \*NO, thus, destabilizing the N-O bond of \*NO. The above advantages endowed the heterostructure with an NH<sub>3</sub> selectivity of 98.6% and a yield rate of 1.82 mg  $h^{-1}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> at -1.0 V vs. RHE in  $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ NO}_3^{-} + 0.5 \text{ M Na}_2 \text{SO}_4.^{72}$ 

Wang et al. reported a heterostructure of an FeS2 nanoparticle-decorated TiO<sub>2</sub> nanobelt array supported on a titanium plate (FeS<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP), as depicted in Fig. 5e and f. They proved that the abundant heterostructures endowed FeS2@TiO2/TP with excellent electrocatalytic performance with an NH<sub>3</sub> yield of 860.3 mmol  $h^{-1}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> and a FE<sub>NH<sub>2</sub></sub> of 97% at -0.4 V vs. RHE in 0.1 M NaOH + 0.1 M NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. Furthermore, they elucidated the positive effect of the FeS2@TiO2 heterostructure by DFT studies. The charge density difference and partial density of states suggested that the electrons were spontaneously transferred from TiO<sub>2</sub> to FeS<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 5g). The corresponding charge accumulation and depletion endowed the FeS<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> interface with local nucleophilic and electrophilic regions, thus favoring the adsorption of targeted species. Moreover, such a heterostructure achieves the targeted adsorption of molecules by electrostatic interaction, promoting the charge transfer between the active site and the O atom of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, resulting in the activation of the N–O bond.<sup>73</sup> Similar results are obtained for the CoS2@TiO2/TP heterostructure synthesized by Zhao et al. They utilized XPS to prove the electron transfer from TiO<sub>2</sub> to CoS<sub>2</sub>, and the heterostructure eventually resulted in an improved electrocatalytic performance of CoS<sub>2</sub>(a)TiO<sub>2</sub>/TP with a high FE<sub>NH2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> yield rate of 92.80% and 538.21 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively.<sup>74</sup>

Based on the conclusion that CoP is proven to be an effective and stable electrocatalyst for  $NO_3^{-}$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion,<sup>75</sup> Deng *et al.* designed a heterostructure of CoP/TiO<sub>2</sub>(a)TP, as depicted in Fig. 5h and i. Interestingly, XPS proved that the BEF of the CoP/TiO<sub>2</sub> heterostructure was established by the electrons transferring from CoP to TiO<sub>2</sub>, which is reversed for the heterostructures mentioned above. This phenomenon should be attributed to the fact that CoP exhibits the metallic character of a continuous electron occupation state at the Fermi level, and the work function of CoP should be lower than that of TiO<sub>2</sub> with semiconductor properties. Moreover, the heterostructure displayed an impurity level near the Fermi level compared with CoP and TiO<sub>2</sub>, indicating that more charge carriers were created (Fig. 5j), thereby enhancing the electron conductivity of CoP/TiO<sub>2</sub>.

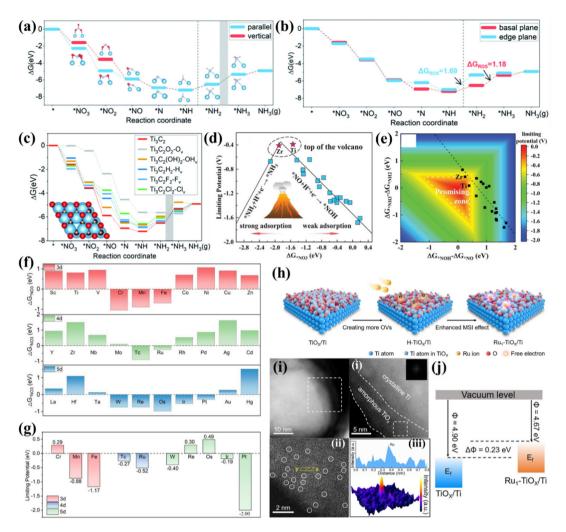
diagram suggested that the potential-determining step of conversion of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to \*NO<sub>3</sub> presented a lower energy barrier in the CoP/TiO<sub>2</sub> heterostructure. Therefore, such CoP/TiO<sub>2</sub>@TP attained an excellent FE<sub>NH<sub>3</sub></sub> of 95.0% with a large NH<sub>3</sub> of 499.8  $\mu$ mol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>.<sup>76</sup>

# 4.3. New generation Ti-based MXene and single atomic catalysts

In addition to the traditional metallic Ti- and TiO<sub>2</sub>-based nanomaterials, MXene attracts much attention in electrocatalysis. Moreover, single atomic catalysts (SACs) are emerging as fantastic materials due to their ultra-high active site utilization and outstanding catalytic activity. Therefore, developing Ti-based MXene and SACs for electrochemical NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion could be a prevailing trend, although related studies are still rarely reported. In this section, we summarized some preliminary experimental and theoretical achievements of Ti-based MXene and SACs for the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR and hope to provide inspiration for designing novel Ti-based electrocatalysts.

4.3.1. Ti-based MXene for the NO<sub>3</sub> RR. Transition metal carbides, nitrides, and carbonitrides with 2D structures, known as MXenes, were first reported in 2011 and received much attention due to their advantages of large surface area, structural flexibility, and surface tunable chemistry.<sup>77</sup> MXenes are commonly synthesized by top-down etching of layered ternary MAX phases with the formula  $M_{n+1}AX_n$  (n = 1-4) as precursors. Here, "M" represents early transition metals, "A" is the elements of group 13-14, and "X" is C or/and N. In the MAX precursors, the edge-sharing octahedron of [MX<sub>6</sub>] extends laterally to form an "M-X" layer, while "A" layers are located on both sides of the "M-X" structures to form a sandwich-like structure. By removing the "A" layers from the MAX phase, 2D MXenes with alternately arranged structures "M" and "X" were formed. Moreover, -F, -OH, -Cl could also be coordinated to the surface of the M layer to form abundant surface terminations (denoted as  $T_x$ ). Therefore, MXene is always written as  $M_3C_2T_x$ .<sup>78</sup> Ti<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>T<sub>x</sub> is the most widely studied MXene.

Li's group investigated the possible mechanism and catalytic activity of electrochemical NO3-to-NH3 conversion on Ti<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub> MXene by theoretical calculations. They proposed that the reactive pathway of  $NO_3^- \rightarrow *NO_3 \rightarrow *NO_2 \rightarrow *NO \rightarrow *N \rightarrow$ \*NH  $\rightarrow$  \*NH<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  \*NH<sub>3</sub>  $\rightarrow$  NH<sub>3</sub>(g) is thermodynamically preferable to that of  $NO_3^- \rightarrow *NO_3 \rightarrow *NO_2 \rightarrow *NO \rightarrow *NOH \rightarrow$ \*NHOH  $\rightarrow$  \*NH  $\rightarrow$  \*NH<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  \*NH<sub>3</sub>  $\rightarrow$  NH<sub>3</sub>(g). \*NO<sub>3</sub> and \*NO<sub>2</sub> prefer to adsorb on Ti<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub> MXene in parallel adsorption modes due to the O atoms of \*NO3 and \*NO2 being inclined to bond with Ti, resulting in drastic distortion of \*NO3 and \*NO2 (Fig. 6a). Moreover, the Gibbs free energy suggests that the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR prefers to occur on the basal plane rather than the edge plane of Ti<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub> MXene because basal plane sites present lower energy barriers for the potential determining step (Fig. 6b). The termination effects of  $Ti_3C_2T_2$  (T = O, OH, H, Cl, F, representing the terminal atoms located at the surface of Ti<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub> MXene) for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion were also elucidated in detail. As illustrated in Fig. 6c, the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR is more competitive than the HER on the O-terminated  $Ti_3C_2O_2$  with OVs



**Fig. 6** (a) Gibbs free energy diagram of  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  on  $Ti_3C_2$  in vertical and parallel \* $NO_3$  adsorption modes. The grey zone means that \* $NH_2 \rightarrow$  \* $NH_3$  is the RDS. (b) Gibbs free energy diagram of  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  on the basal plane and edge plane of  $Ti_3C_2$ . (c) Gibbs free energy diagram of the reaction pathway of  $Ti_3C_2T_2$ - $T_v$ , and the grey zone highlights the step \* $NH_2 \rightarrow$  \* $NH_3$  as the RDS. <sup>79</sup> Reproduced from ref. 79 with permission from The Royal Society of Chemistry, copyright 2022. (d)  $NO_3^-$ RR volcano plot of TM/g-CN with a descriptor of  $\Delta G_{*NO3}$ . (e) Contour plot of limiting potential as a function of two potential-determining steps (\* $NO + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow$  \*NOH and \* $NH_2 + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow$  \* $NH_3$ ). The promising zone is highlighted.<sup>44</sup> Reproduced from ref. 44 with permission from Wiley-VCH, copyright 2020. (f) Gibbs free energy change of  $NO_3^-$  absorption on  $Ti_3C_2O_2$ - $TM_{SA}$ . (g) Summary of limiting potentials on  $Ti_3C_2O_2$ - $TM_{SA}$ .<sup>81</sup> Reproduced from ref. 81 with permission from Springer Nature, copyright 2023. (h) Schematic illustration of preparing the Ru<sub>1</sub>-TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti electrode *via* an inherent surface oxide anchoring strategy. (i) (i and ii) Low-magnified HAADF-STEM images of Ru<sub>1</sub>-TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti. (iii) Atomic-resolution HAADF-STEM image of Ru<sub>1</sub>-TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti. (iii) Atomic-resolution HAADF-STEM and the corresponding 3D surface intensity profile. (j) Schematic illustration of the work functions of Ru<sub>1</sub>-TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti and TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti. <sup>82</sup> Reproduced from ref. 82 with permission from Wiley-VCH, copyright 2022.

(denoted as  $Ti_3C_2O_2-O_v$ ), and all free energy changes of  $NO_3^-$ to- $NH_3$  on the  $Ti_3C_2O_2-O_v$  are negative, signifying that the termination effect of oxygen promotes the hydrogenation of nitrogen-containing intermediates.<sup>79</sup> Another study utilized  $Ti_3C_2T_x$  nanosheets as a promising molecular catalyst substrate. CuPc can be spontaneously dispersed on delaminated  $Ti_3C_2T_x$  to overcome their large  $\pi$ -conjugated stacking. The prepared CuPc@MXene exhibited a high yield rate and selectivity for  $NH_3$ , which is superior to other counterparts of FePc@MXene, NiPc@MXene, and CoPc@MXene. DFT calculations suggested that  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion tends to obey the ONH pathway

because the Gibbs free energy required only 0.27 eV to form \*ONH.  $^{\rm 80}$ 

**4.3.2. Ti-based SACs for the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR.** Recently, SACs have become a frontier of research due to their outstanding catalytic performance and relatively simple coordinative structure. A typical structure of SACs denoted as  $M-N_x/C$  is a transition metal atomic site singly separated on nitrogen (N)-doped carbon (C)-based substrates.<sup>83–86</sup> Moreover, metallic oxides,<sup>87</sup> phosphides,<sup>88</sup> and sulfides<sup>89</sup> could also be used as substrates for anchoring the atomic metal sites. Recently, significant advances in SACs were achieved in water splitting and CO<sub>2</sub>

reduction. However, Ti-based SACs designed for  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion are currently rare. In this section, we summarized a theoretical prediction of the catalytic activity of Ti SAs and Ti-based substrates for anchoring the noble metal SAs, to provide some inspiration for the design of Ti-based SACs for the  $NO_3^-$ RR.

Niu et al. established several transition metal atoms from Ti to Au supported on graphitic carbon nitrides (g-CN) as representatives (TM/g-CN) to study the NO3 RR rule of SACs. They found that the adsorption energies of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $\Delta G_{*NO_2}$ ), protons  $(\Delta G_{*H})$ , and the N<sub>2</sub> molecule  $(\Delta G_{*N_2})$  on TM/g-CN exhibited periodic regulations. Furthermore, they proposed that the N-end pathway is the most reasonable on TM/g-CN because the N-end adsorption of NO presents the lowest energy. Based on the above reactive pathway, the performance criteria of limiting potential on TM/g-CN were evaluated. A volcano plot of limiting potential vs.  $\Delta G_{*NO_2}$  on TM/g-CN was proposed. As shown in Fig. 6d, too strong adsorption of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> results in a larger energy barrier in the step from \*NH<sub>2</sub> to \*NH<sub>3</sub>. In contrast, too weak adsorption leads to a sluggish step from \*NO to \*NOH, and Ti/g-CN and Zr/g-CN stand exactly near the top of the volcano. Regarding selectivity, the large energy barriers prevented the formation of NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, N<sub>2</sub>O, and N<sub>2</sub> on Ti/g-CN, guaranteeing a high  $FE_{NH_3}$  of Ti/g-CN. In addition, the linear scaling relationship between  $(\Delta G_{*NH_3} - \Delta G_{*NH_2})$  and  $(\Delta G_{*NOH})$  $-\Delta G_{*NO}$  hinders the exploration of more effective electrocatalysts (Fig. 6e), hence, a critical strategy to break such a scaling relationship is desired.<sup>44</sup> Another study that predicts TM/ g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (TM = Sc to Au, except Tc, Cd, and Hg) for the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR also proposes a similar volcano plot and suggests that Ti/ g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> should be an ideal candidate with outstanding limiting potential and FE<sub>NH2</sub>.90

Recently, Ti-based MXene and oxides are also predicted to be suitable substrates for anchoring SAs. Wang *et al.* screened out 30 single transition metal atoms (3d: Sc–Zn, 4d: Y–Cd, and 5d: La–Hg) anchored on  $Ti_3C_2O_2$  by means of first principles calculations. They found that SAs with half-filled d orbitals (around d<sup>5</sup>) are favorable for  $NO_3^-$  activation due to high electronic states at the Fermi level (Fig. 6f). Further screening suggested that Cr, Re and Os SAs anchored on  $Ti_3C_2O_2$  present negative free energy changes in the whole  $NO_3^-$ -to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion process and thus exhibit positive limiting potentials (Fig. 6g); hence, they are recognized as the most efficient candidates.<sup>66</sup>

An experimental study utilized Ti foil as a substrate to prepare binder-free monolithic single-atom electrodes (MSAEs). Metallic Ti inevitably undergoes oxidation in air to form a thin metal oxide layer  $(TiO_x)$  with abundant dangling bonds and defects, thereby providing unique on-site hosts for the dispersion of SACs. A two-step annealing approach depicted in Fig. 6h was employed to successfully anchor Ru atoms into the  $TiO_x$  layer (Fig. 6i). The as-prepared MSAEs were named Ru<sub>1</sub>-TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti. Anchoring of Ru atoms upshifted the Fermi level, as proven by the lower work function of Ru<sub>1</sub>-TiO<sub>x</sub>/ Ti compared to  $TiO_x/Ti$ , as shown in Fig. 6j. This characteristic endowed Ru<sub>1</sub>-TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti with much improved catalytic current density and  $FE_{NH_3}$  at various applied potentials. The highest  $FE_{NH_3}$  and  $NH_3$  yield rate of 87.6% and 22.2 mol g<sup>-1</sup> were respectively achieved at -0.3 V vs. RHE for Ru<sub>1</sub>-TiO<sub>x</sub>/Ti.<sup>82</sup>

Although DFT studies predicted Ti-based SACs to be outstanding candidates as electrocatalysts for  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion, there is still a lack of experimental achievement to fulfill the above results. Further synthesis strategies and performance studies should be conducted.

### 5. Conclusion and perspective

Emerging "hydrogen economy" and "carbon neutralization" have caused NH<sub>3</sub> to be regarded as a carbon-free fuel and a portable energy carrier, endowing the electrochemical nitrate reduction reaction for NO3-to-NH3 conversion with a new opportunity for "green ammonia" synthesis. Compared to noble metal-based electrocatalysts, Ti-based electrocatalysts mainly composed of metallic Ti- and TiO2-based nanomaterials are attractive due to their inherent advantages of being nontoxic and cost-effective and having outstanding stability and HER inertness. Fundamental studies revealed that metallic Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub> are more suitable for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-to-NH<sub>3</sub> conversion over a wide pH range. Many strategies including morphological design, heteroatom doping, creation of OVs, and the construction of heterostructures have been developed for reducing the overpotential while improving the FE<sub>NHa</sub>. To sum up, regulating the work function (for metallic Ti) or ionizing energy (for  $TiO_2$ ) to reduce the gap between the HOS and the LUMO of nitrogen-containing intermediates is essential for reducing the overpotential, modulating the d-band structure to optimize the binding energy of O- and N-containing intermediates is crucial for regulating the reactive route and faradaic efficiency of NH<sub>3</sub>, and designing secondary active sites for splitting H<sub>2</sub>O on Ti-based nanomaterials is also crucial for the hydrogenation of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and consequent intermediates in neutral and alkaline electrolytes. In particular, since potential induced self-reconstruction exists for Ti-based electrocatalysts, the use of *in situ* characterization techniques is encouraged to reveal the real active sites for the NO3<sup>-</sup>RR.

Finally, the difficulties and opportunities of Ti-based nanocatalysts for electrochemical  $NO_3^-$ -to- $NH_3$  conversion are discussed.

The large bandgap of TiO<sub>2</sub> (~3 eV) results in poor electronic conductivity which is the major reason for low electrochemical activity. Narrowing the bandgap of TiO<sub>2</sub> is an essential strategy to solve the problem of electronic conductivity. Therefore, characterizing the bandgap by UV-Vis spectroscopy, UPS, or DFT calculations is suggested to be performed for TiO<sub>2</sub>-based nanomaterials. Moreover, constructing metal/TiO<sub>2</sub> heterostructures (such as Ti/TiO<sub>2</sub>) and *in situ* compositing the TiO<sub>2</sub>based nanomaterials with electronic conductive additives such as graphene, carbon nanotubes or acetylene black are effective strategies for solving the electronic conductivity issue. Recently, novel Ti-based MXenes with a large specific area and outstanding electron conductivity have been proposed as ideal candidates for nitrate-to-ammonia conversion; thus developing Ti-based MXene electrocatalysts is an important development direction in the future.

The effect of lattice facets is rarely considered for Ti-based nanomaterials for the  $NO_3$  RR. Different lattice facets present unique atomic arrangements, signifying that the nanostructure with different exposed lattice facets exhibits disparate catalytic performance. Typically, high-index facets represent better catalytic activity. Therefore, exploring the effect of the lattice facets of Ti-based nanomaterials on the catalytic performance of the  $NO_3$  RR is important for designing Ti-based nanomaterials with desired exposed lattice facets, reducing the overpotential and improving the FE<sub>NH<sub>3</sub></sub>.

Although heteroatom doping is a common modification strategy for inorganic materials, OVs in  $TiO_2$  could also be simultaneously formed by doping metallic atoms with lower valence than  $Ti^{4+}$ . Therefore, doping-induced OVs should be considered but unfortunately, they are often neglected.

In addition to NH<sub>3</sub>, producing high value-added organic molecules with deeply reduced nitrogen functional groups (such as urea,<sup>91,92</sup> methylamine,<sup>93</sup> formamide,<sup>94</sup> glycine,<sup>95</sup> etc.) by electrochemical reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is also an emerging direction. Since TiO<sub>2</sub>-based nanomaterials exhibit profound reduction ability of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, some preliminary studies successfully coupled the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction and the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>RR on TiO<sub>2</sub>-based nanomaterials to produce urea.<sup>91</sup> Zhang *et al.* revealed that constructing secondary active sites on TiO<sub>2</sub> for adsorbing carbon-containing intermediates is a feasible strategy for the gC–N coupled reaction.<sup>92</sup>

We hope that this review will shed light on the exploration of Ti-based nanocatalysts and pave the way for low-cost and efficient Ti-based nanocatalysts to realize large-scale industrial applications.

## Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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