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## REVIEW



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# Highly selective semiconductor photocatalysis for $CO_2$ reduction

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Over the past few decades, photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction has remained a prominent and growing research field due to the efficient conversion of  $CO_2$  to value-added chemicals. Among the various photocatalytic performances, product selectivity has garnered considerable attention, which is the focus of this review. Herein, we first introduce the general background of photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction, then according to the sequence of the entire reaction process, the adsorption and activation of reactants, the formation and stabilization of intermediates, and the desorption of products are summarized. After introducing each of the above steps that could mediate the final products, several modification techniques to improve the product selectivity are highlighted, including noble metal decoration, metal and non-metal doping, vacancy engineering, facet engineering, composite construction, and hydroxyl modification. Finally, current challenges and opportunities of interest in this rich field are discussed.

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#### 10th anniversary statement

*Journal of Materials Chemistry A* is one of the most important journals that concentrates on material applications in energy and sustainability and covers a wide range of specific content. In past studies, we focused on advanced materials for photocatalysis, piezocatalysis and electrocatalysis, including hydrogen production, nitrogen fixation, CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and degradation of organic pollutants. Our research interests include designing efficient catalysts *via* morphology control, vacancy engineering, size adjustment and modification. The source of synthetic reagents can be either chemical reagents or solid waste. Making solid waste into catalysts can alleviate the environmental problems caused by waste residue disposal sites. Moreover, we also concentrate on the catalytic mechanism using advanced spectroscopic techniques. On the occasion of the tenth anniversary of *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, we sincerely celebrate the 10th anniversary of *Journal of Materials Chemistry A* and look forward to making further progress with the development of the journal in the future.

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#### 1. Introduction

The industrial revolution has triggered the rapid development of science and technology,<sup>1-10</sup> however, the massive consumption of fossil fuels has caused a sharp increase in  $CO_2$ concentration.<sup>11-17</sup> As of December 2020,  $CO_2$  concentration in the atmosphere has reached 414.02 ppm, far higher than 270 ppm in the early 1800s, which is considerably higher than the safe value of atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentration (*i.e.*, 350 ppm).<sup>18</sup> As a consequence, a series of natural disasters, such as desertification, global warming and ocean acidification, have occurred frequently.<sup>19-21</sup> Therefore, it has become an urgent issue to both alleviate the pollution caused by  $CO_2$  and replace fossil fuels with clean and renewable energy sources.<sup>22-28</sup>

The photocatalytic conversion of  $CO_2$  into hydrocarbon fuels of small molecular weight, such as  $CH_4$ ,  $CH_3OH$  and  $C_2H_5OH$ , might kill two birds with one stone in terms of protecting the environment and saving energy.<sup>29–32</sup> In the past several decades, tremendous efforts have been made toward  $CO_2$  reduction initiated by solar light,<sup>33–38</sup> and thus far, the activity of photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction has greatly improved. Although the research and reports on the regulation of photocatalytic activity have been quite thorough,  $CO_2$  reduction still has an obvious drawback, which is low selectivity and can be mainly attributed to the following reasons. First, as the energy barrier of  $CO_2$ reduction to target products is comparable to that of hydrogen evolution (eqn (1)–(7) at pH 7 in aqueous solution), the side reaction (*i.e.*, hydrogen generation) is inevitable.<sup>39,40</sup>

 $CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e \rightarrow CO + H_2O \quad E^0 = -0.52 \text{ V vs. NHE}$  (1)



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CO<sub>2</sub> + 2H<sup>+</sup> + 2e → HCOOH 
$$E^0 = -0.61$$
 V vs. NHE (2)  
CO<sub>2</sub> + 4H<sup>+</sup> + 4e → HCHO + H<sub>2</sub>O  $E^0 = -0.51$  V vs. NHE (3)  
CO<sub>2</sub> + 8H<sup>+</sup> + 8e → CH<sub>4</sub> + 2H<sub>2</sub>O  $E^0 = -0.24$  V vs. NHE (4)  
CO<sub>2</sub> + 6H<sup>+</sup> + 6e → CH<sub>3</sub>OH + H<sub>2</sub>O  $E^0 = -0.38$  V vs. NHE (5)

 $CO_2 + 12H^+ + 12e \rightarrow C_2H_4 + 4H_2O \quad E^0 = -0.34 \text{ V vs. NHE}$ (6)

$$2H^+ + 2e \rightarrow H_2 \quad E^0 = -0.42 \text{ V vs. NHE}$$
 (7)

Thus,  $CO_2$  reduction exhibits limited selectivity in aqueous solutions due to the critical challenge of overcoming the competition with the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). In addition, the reduction potentials of converting  $CO_2$  to different products are similar (eqn (1)–(6)).<sup>41</sup> This phenomenon results in an undesirable mixture of products, which is hard to separate and utilize. Therefore, the improvement in selectivity is of key importance for photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction.<sup>42–45</sup>

This review aims to summarize recent impressive developments in the highly selective photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction. After a brief discussion that motivates the research on high product selectivity, the reaction mechanism of photocatalytic  $CO_2$ reduction is introduced to better understand the obstacle of reaction selectivity and the specific steps involved in the entire photocatalytic procedure. Then, the promotion of selective reaction at different reaction stages is summarized, including the adsorption and activation of reactants (*i.e.*,  $CO_2$  adsorption



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Fig. 1 Schematic illustration of photocatalyst modification and mechanisms in this review.

<sup>1</sup>and  $H_2$  evolution inhibition, electron supply and others), the formation and stabilization of intermediates (*i.e.*, the formation energy of crucial intermediates and stability of intermediates), and the desorption of products. Particularly, modification methods of photocatalysts to boost selective reactions are discussed, including noble metal decoration, metal and non-metal doping, vacancy engineering, facet engineering, composite construction, hydroxyl and ion modification and other decoration techniques (Fig. 1). Lastly, a perspective on the challenges and future research directions of photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction possessing enhanced photocatalytic selectivity is proposed.

## 2. Mechanism of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

Specific reaction processes of photocatalytic CO2 reduction are displayed in Fig. 2. Under light irradiation, the semiconductor photocatalyst absorbs photons. If the photon energy is equal to or larger than the band gap  $(E_g)$  of the photocatalyst, electrons and holes of the semiconductor are generated. The photogenerated electrons and holes then migrate to the surface of the photocatalyst.<sup>46</sup> Photogenerated electrons are capable of reduction reactions that reduce CO2 on the surface of the semiconductor be reduced, while the holes oxidize  $H_2O$  to  $O_2$ . Photo-excited electrons and holes are prone to recombine both during the migration to photocatalyst surface and after reaching the surface, which significantly reduces the photocatalytic efficiency. Some parameters affect the reaction selectivity, including the reduction potentials of CO2 to products, the adsorption and desorption of different substances (*i.e.*,  $CO_2$ , intermediates and products), and the utilization efficiency of photogenerated electrons.

The standard reduction potentials of  $CO_2$  are summarized in eqn (1)–(6) and eqn (8).<sup>47</sup> As shown in eqn (8),  $CO_2$ .<sup>-</sup> formation



Fig. 2 Schematic illustration of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

through the single-electron reduction of  $CO_2$  is unfavorable due to its very negative redox potential (*i.e.*, -1.90 V vs. NHE).

$$\operatorname{CO}_2 + e^- \to \operatorname{CO}_2^{\cdot -} E^0 = -1.90 \text{ V vs. NHE}$$
 (8)

Therefore, multi-proton-assisted CO2 reduction reactions are prone to occur, possessing a relatively low thermodynamic barrier and bypassing the formation of CO<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> (eqn (1)-(6)).<sup>48</sup> From a thermodynamic point of view, the potentials of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (eqn (1)-(6)) are comparable to the potentials of hydrogen evolution (eqn (7)), which leads to a large amount of H<sub>2</sub> as the by-product.<sup>49</sup> According to the less negative redox potentials, it seems that the photoconversion of CO2 to CH3OH and  $CH_4$  is more favorable than the  $H_2$  evolution ([eqn (4)], [eqn (5)] and [eqn (7)]). Nevertheless, the requirement of more electrons to accomplish highly selective formation of CH<sub>3</sub>OH and/ or CH<sub>4</sub> rather than H<sub>2</sub> is a great challenge.<sup>50</sup> Therefore, in order to realize the highly selective photoconversion of CO2, the photocatalysts should be carefully designed to suppress H<sub>2</sub> evolution. In addition to the interference of  $H_2$ , the small differences between the thermodynamic potentials of different CO<sub>2</sub> reduction products also make it tough to obtain single desirable products.40

Typically, the photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction process involves three major steps: (i) the chemical capture and adsorption of  $CO_2$  on the surface of the photocatalyst; (ii) activation and breaking of C–O bonds and the formation of C–H bonds *via* electron transfer and proton migration; (iii) the configuration rearrangement of products and desorption from the photocatalysts.<sup>51</sup> Each reaction step can be regulated by modifying photocatalysts or reaction conditions. In step (i), if the  $CO_2$ adsorption is enhanced and H<sub>2</sub>O adsorption is inhibited, the efficiency of  $CO_2$  reduction will be largely increased and the H<sub>2</sub> evolution will be reduced.<sup>52</sup> Similarly, in step (ii), to obtain the products such as  $CH_4$ ,  $CH_3OH$  and  $C_2H_4$ , a mass of electrons is needed. Thus, a sufficient electron supply and proper suppression of electron-hole recombination are beneficial for their generation.<sup>53</sup> During the configuration rearrangement and intermediate conversion process, the formation and stabilization of crucial intermediates determine the direction of the subsequent reactions, promoting the selective generation of the target products. Finally, the easy desorption of obtained products can further enhance the selectivity.

## 3. Typical methods to enhance the selectivity and mechanism

Diverse strategies, including noble metal decoration, metal and non-metal doping, vacancy engineering, the exposure of highly active crystal facets, construction of complex materials, surface modification, morphology control and other methods, have been explored to manipulate the selectivity of the photocatalytic CO2 reduction. These techniques significantly increase the selectivity in terms of kinetics, adsorption and desorption capacity, electron supply, and intermediate stability. Diverse modification methods will affect different steps of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Oxygen vacancies, noble metal and non-metal particles can not only affect the adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> but can also act as electron sinks, providing sufficient electrons for products. Composite construction, which can improve the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capability, also facilitates efficient photo-excited electron transfer and accumulation. Morphology control and facet engineering mainly affect the adsorption and desorption process during CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. We will introduce typical methods in the following sections. However, most of the work only briefly explains the reasons for the improvement of selectivity, rarely involving the essential reasons. The modified highly selective photocatalysts are listed in Table 1.

#### 3.1. Adsorption and activation of reactants

3.1.1. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and H<sub>2</sub> evolution inhibition. As mentioned in Section 2, the hydrogen evolution is one of the main competing reactions for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, which could remarkably decrease the efficiency and selectivity of CO2 reduction.49,80 Therefore, whether the catalysts tend to capture CO2 molecules or H2O and whether electrons tend to combine with CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sup>+</sup> or hydroxy groups from water molecules significantly affect the final products.46 As a consequence, CO2 adsorption is crucial to improve the selectivity. Here, we have summarized some special sites, including noble metal particles, oxygen vacancies and hydroxyl groups, which can effectively adsorb CO2 molecules and initiate rapid CO2 reduction reactions.46,72,81,82 Moreover, on exposing expected crystal planes and constructing composite structures, active sites can be provided for the preferential adsorption and conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules, suppressing the H<sub>2</sub> generation.<sup>83</sup>

For example, nearly 100% selective CO generation was achieved on the surface of spindle-like oxygen-vacancy rich (V<sub>O</sub>rich) Pt–Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 3a).<sup>81</sup> The oxygen vacancies served as the main sites for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.<sup>81</sup> Meanwhile, the hydrogen formed on Pt nanoparticles in the process of photocatalytic water splitting could quickly reduce the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>81</sup> Besides Pt, other noble metals also showed similar effects. After anchoring Au–Pd alloy on the  $\{101\}n$  facets of TiO<sub>2</sub>, the Au–Pd alloy provided abundant sites for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and activation.<sup>73</sup> Remarkably, the optimal sample achieved a high selectivity of 85% for hydrocarbons (71%: CH<sub>4</sub>, 14%: C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, Fig. 3b).<sup>73</sup>

Some special groups are also capable of the adsorption and activation of CO<sub>2</sub>. For instance, the –OH groups on the Cu<sub>2</sub>O surface facilitated the selective catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by suppressing the hydrogen evolution.<sup>84</sup> Besides, in the noble-metalfree SiO<sub>2</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub> system, the enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction selectivity was assigned to the rational hydrophobic modification of the TiO<sub>2</sub>–SiO<sub>2</sub> surface by replacing Si–OH with hydrophobic Si–F bonds.<sup>85</sup> This kind of modification changed the hydrophilicity and hydrophobicity of the photocatalyst surface and thus mediated the reaction process.<sup>85</sup> This improved selectivity was attributed to the efficient CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, triggering efficient CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction.<sup>85</sup>

Different crystal faces possess different CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities.<sup>86</sup> ZnO nanomaterials with a large ratio of {0001} facets could enhance the CO production selectivity and the exposed facets were terminated with a high density of oxygen atoms.<sup>87</sup> Therefore, oxygen vacancies were prone to form on the surface of ZnO.<sup>87</sup> These vacancies could preferentially capture CO<sub>2</sub> molecules and work as reduction sites for CO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>87</sup> As a consequence, the CO molecules could be produced as the main products.<sup>87</sup> In addition, BiOBr nanosheets exposing {001} facets were successfully synthesized in the presence of nitric acid.<sup>83</sup> Compared to the BiOBr nanosheets prepared in the absence of nitric acid (BiOBr-0), the {001} facets-dominated BiOBr nanosheets exhibited more efficient CO<sub>2</sub> absorption and activation, selectively converting CO<sub>2</sub> to CO (Fig. 3c).<sup>83</sup>

The adsorption and activation capacity can also be improved by changing the structure of the material. Typically,  $g-C_3N_4$ based composite catalysts display strong CO<sub>2</sub> capture ability, which promotes the generation of CO rather than H<sub>2</sub>.<sup>88</sup>

The selectivity enhancement of CO production also appeared in other semiconductor composites, such as LDH/Ti<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub> and Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.<sup>46,67</sup> Taking the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> catalyst as an example, the ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> layer could suppress the reduction of H<sup>+</sup>.<sup>67</sup> The proposed mechanism is displayed in Fig. 3d. Since a large number of active sites on the surface of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> could capture and reduce H<sup>+</sup>, the main reaction on the surface of Ag-Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was hydrogen production (Fig. 3d).<sup>67</sup> After the growth of the ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> layer on the surface of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, it blocked the active sites that are conducive to hydrogen evolution. Therefore, with the amount of ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> increasing from 0.1 to 10.0 mol%, the generation of H<sub>2</sub> was significantly suppressed. Finally, CO generation with nearly 100% selectivity was achieved over Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructures (Fig. 3e).<sup>67</sup> Crafting ultrathin two-dimensional semiconductor nanomaterials is another popular technique for achieving high photocatalytic selectivity.89-92 Bai found that compared with the bulk counterpart, the ultrathin Bi<sub>4</sub>O<sub>5</sub>Br<sub>2</sub> (Bi<sub>4</sub>O<sub>5</sub>Br<sub>2</sub>-UN) exhibited increased CO generation of over 99.5% through an enhanced CO2 adsorption capacity (Fig. 3f).72

#### Table 1 Summary of highly selective photocatalysts for CO2 reduction

Photocatalyst	Light source	Experimental conditions	Main products and selectivity	Ref.
Ag/CaTiO <sub>3</sub>	100 W Hg lamp	0.3 g of catalysts, NaHCO <sub>3</sub> acurous solution $(1.0 \text{ M})$	CO (180 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), 94%	54
TiO <sub>2</sub> –Pd@Au	300 W Xe lamp	15 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and 5 mL H <sub>2</sub> O	CH <sub>4</sub> (48.2 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), 93.5%	55
(Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> )@rGO	300 W Xe lamp	Certain amounts of catalysts,	CH <sub>4</sub> (41.3 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	56
Pt@Ag-TiO <sub>2</sub>	350 W Xe lamp	Certain amounts of catalysts, $CO_2$ and $Na_2SO_4$ aqueous solution (0.5 M)	CH <sub>4</sub> (160.3 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), 87.9%	57
Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	50 mg of catalysts, CO <sub>2</sub> and 50 mL H <sub>2</sub> O	CH <sub>4</sub> (150.04 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), nearly 100%	58
N-doped C dot/CoAl-LDH/ C2N4	300 W Xe lamp	50 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and 300 µL H <sub>2</sub> O	CH <sub>4</sub> (25.69 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), 99%	59
N-TiO <sub>2</sub>	200 W Hg lamp	Gas mixture of $CO_2$ and $H_2$ with a ratio of 1 : 1	CO (56.30 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	60
Cu–TiO <sub>2</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	60 mg of catalysts, 1.60 g NaHCO <sub>3</sub> and 5 mL $H_2SO_4$ solution (5.0 M)	CH <sub>4</sub> (150.9 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), 85%	61
WO <sub>3-x</sub>	UV-Vis-NIR light	5 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and 0.2 mL H <sub>2</sub> O	$C_2H_4$ (61.6 µmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	62
BiMoO <sub>6</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	50 mg of catalysts, 1.50 g NaHCO <sub>3</sub> and 5 mL H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> (4 M)	CH <sub>4</sub> (2.01 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), 96.7%	63
Defective CeO <sub>2</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	50 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and 0.2 mL H <sub>2</sub> O	CO (7 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), nearly 100%	64
g-C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub> /FeWO <sub>4</sub>	Visible light ( $\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$ )	40 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and $H_2O$	CO (6 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), 99%	65
NiAl-LDH/Ti <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	100 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and 0.4 mLH O	CO (11.82 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	66
Ag-loaded Ga <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /ZnGa <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	400 W Hg lamp	1 g of catalysts, $CO_2$ and 1 L	CO, nearly 100%	67
Pt/HAP/TiO <sub>2</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	20 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and 40 mL H O	CH <sub>4</sub> (4.64 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	68
$C_3N_4/Pd_9Cu_1H_x$	Visible light	$15 \text{ mg of catalysts, CO}_2 \text{ and}$	$CH_4$ (1.20 µmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	69
Cl <sup>-</sup> /Bi <sub>2</sub> WO <sub>6</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	$1_{2}$ O mg of catalysts, CO <sub>2</sub> and H <sub>2</sub> O	CH <sub>4</sub> (3.21 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	70
Pt@h-BN	300 W Xe lamp	10 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and 0.5 mL H-O	CH <sub>4</sub> (184.7 $\mu$ mol $g_{(Pt)}^{-1}$ h <sup>-1</sup> ),	71
Ultrathin Bi <sub>4</sub> O <sub>5</sub> Br <sub>2</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	20 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and $H_2O$	CO (31.565 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	72
Au–Pd alloying loaded TiO <sub>2</sub>	UV light	10 mg of catalysts, CO <sub>2</sub> and H <sub>2</sub> O	Hydrocarbon fuels (CH <sub>4</sub> , C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> , and C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>6</sub> ) (25.06 $\mu$ mol $\sigma^{-1}$ h <sup>-1</sup> ). 85%	73
V-defective BiVO <sub>4</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	100 mg of catalysts, CO <sub>2</sub> and H <sub>2</sub> O	$CH_3OH$ (398.3 µmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> )	74
Defective C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub>	350 W Xe lamp	100 mg of catalysts, CO <sub>2</sub> and H <sub>2</sub> O	CH <sub>4</sub> , CH <sub>3</sub> OH, and CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> OH (12.07 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ). 91.5%	75
W-doped g-C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub>	300 W Xe lamp	5 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and $H_2O$	CH <sub>4</sub> and C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> (11.91 $\mu$ mol $g^{-1}$ h <sup>-1</sup> ) 83%	76
Cu <sub>x</sub> In <sub>5</sub> S <sub>8</sub> -Cu <sub>y</sub> Se	300 W Xe lamp	10 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and $H_2O$	$CH_3OH (5.25 \ \mu mol \ g^{-1} \ h^{-1}),$	77
Microwave-synthesised	300 W Xe lamp	10 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and	CH <sub>3</sub> OH (13.9 $\mu$ mol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ),	78
$C_3N_4$ -supported CoS	300 W Xe lamp	10 mg of catalysts, $CO_2$ and $H_2O$	CH <sub>3</sub> OH (97.3 μmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> ), 87.2%	79

In summary, by constructing composites, introducing metal sites and constructing oxygen vacancies, the adsorption and activation capabilities of photocatalysts in the first step of the  $CO_2$  reduction reaction can be significantly improved. Therefore, the target reaction occurs instead of the competitive hydrogen evolution. However, in previous reports about the first



**Fig. 3** (a) The amount of products over  $V_0$ -enriched Pt-Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> after irradiation for 8 h. Reproduced with permission from ref. 81 copyright 2018 Springer. (b) Photocatalytic yield and stability of Au–Pd-alloy-decorated TiO<sub>2</sub>. Reproduced with permission from ref. 73. copyright 2019 Royal Society of Chemistry. (c) Production rates of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO over BiOBr photocatalysts under Xe light irradiation. Reproduced with permission from ref. 83 copyright 2017 Royal Society of Chemistry. (d) A proposed mechanism for the photocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> in H<sub>2</sub>O over Ag-loaded Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, Ag-loaded Zn-modified Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with a low Zn content, and Ag-loaded Zn-modified Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with a high Zn content. (e) Evolution rates of CO (black), O<sub>2</sub> (white), and H<sub>2</sub> (gray) in the photocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> over Ag-loaded ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-modified Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> containing different amounts of ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Reproduced with permission from ref. 67. Copyright 2016 Royal Society of Chemistry. (f) Evolution rates and selectivity over Bi<sub>4</sub>O<sub>5</sub>Br<sub>2</sub> and Bi<sub>4</sub>O<sub>5</sub>Br<sub>2</sub>-UN under UV-vis illumination. Reproduced with permission from ref. 72. Copyright 2017 Elsevier.

step of the  $CO_2$  reduction reaction, there is a lack of the selective generation of different carbon reduction products. In addition, how  $CO_2$  adsorption mediates carbon products needs to be further explored.

**3.1.2.** Electron supply. The formation of high-value-added products such as  $CH_4$  is usually a multi-electron reaction. In order to generate target products *via* multi-electron reactions, the accumulation of sufficient photogenerated electrons is necessary. Noble metals, non-metallic impurities and vacancies of photocatalysts can act as electron sinks, providing sufficient electrons for selective products.<sup>53,57,93-96</sup> Therefore, by constructing special nanostructures, electrons can be enriched in the target area to achieve selective reactions.

Pan *et al.* reported that after decoration by Pt nanoparticles, LaPO<sub>4</sub> reached a 5.6 times enhancement in CH<sub>4</sub> yield compared to pure LaPO<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 4a).<sup>53</sup> The selectivity of CH<sub>4</sub> production increased from the original 58.6% to 100% when the amount of modified Pt nanoparticles increased from 1 wt% to 3 wt% (Fig. 4a).<sup>53</sup> In this research, Pt nanoparticles functioned as the photogenerated electron sink, which thus accelerated the eightelectron reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub>.<sup>53</sup> This mechanism was proved in another report, where Pt/Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanoparticles trapped sufficient photogenerated electrons and ensured the multielectron photocatalytic reactions to form CH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 4b–d).<sup>97</sup> It is noteworthy that the electron sink effect of Pt also exists in other catalysts. The selectivity of CH<sub>4</sub> formation was improved when Pt@Ag core@shell structures were decorated on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (Fig. 4e).<sup>57</sup> The Pt core served as a sink for photogenerated electrons, and the Ag shell suppressed the competitive photocatalytic water-splitting process. By tuning the ratio of Pt to Ag, 1.95 wt.‰ Pt@Ag<sub>1.0</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> achieved the outstanding photocatalytic performance with a CH<sub>4</sub> formation rate of 160.3 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> and a CO<sub>2</sub> conversion selectivity of 87.90%.<sup>57</sup>

Besides noble metals, doped common metals could also perform as electron traps and active sites for the highly selective  $CO_2$  photoreduction.<sup>104,105</sup> For example, Cu doping effectively provided TiO<sub>2</sub> with electron traps, leading to a higher methanol yield.<sup>93,106</sup> The Cu sites of ZnO/CuO<sub>x</sub>–C (the abbreviation C stands for Cu doping) carbon nanofibers (CNFs), which worked as electron traps, could also generate enough electrons for CH<sub>4</sub> formation (Fig. 4f).<sup>99</sup> Among ZnO–Cu<sub>2</sub>O hybrid nanoparticles (ZnO@Cu<sub>2</sub>O), Cu<sub>2</sub>O cube–ZnO heterostructures (Cu<sub>2</sub>O@ZnO), Cu<sub>2</sub>O/ZnO nanocomposites (Cu<sub>2</sub>O/ZnO) and Cu<sub>2</sub>O/ZnO mixtures, ZnO/CuO<sub>x</sub>–C CNFs demonstrated the highest CH<sub>4</sub> generation rate of 241.6 µmol h<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> with the selectivity of

 $\sim$ 96% (Fig. 4g and h).<sup>99</sup> Besides the introduction of metallic Cu, highly selective CH<sub>4</sub> synthesis was achieved by introducing metal Mg.<sup>100</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction rates of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> decorated by different amounts of Mg are shown in Fig. 5a. Mg-TiO<sub>2</sub> promoted a large enhancement of electron trap sites, thereby ensuring sufficient electron supply for the selective reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub>.<sup>100</sup> Moreover, the doping or co-doping of other metals, such as Mo and Ce, could improve the photocatalytic conversion selectivity of CO2 to high value-added products by increasing electron traps.<sup>107,108</sup> However, not all metals have the function of electron sink. Due to high CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, In-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles achieved the highest CO selectivity of 94.39% with In doping of 10% (Fig. 5b) but with the limited electron supply, it was unable to achieve a high CH<sub>4</sub> vield.<sup>101</sup> Therefore, we need to select the appropriate metal to modify the photocatalyst according to the designed product target.101

The selective preparation of high-value-added products can be also achieved by creating oxygen vacancies.<sup>111</sup> Therefore,



Fig. 4 (a) Generation rates of CH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> over the LaPO<sub>4</sub> and LaPO<sub>4</sub>–Pt samples. Reproduced with permission from ref. 98 copyright 2015 Elsevier. (b) CO yields, (c) CH<sub>4</sub> yields and (d) PL spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub>, Cu<sub>2</sub>O/TiO<sub>2</sub>, Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub> and Pt–Cu<sub>2</sub>O/TiO<sub>2</sub>. Reproduced with permission from ref. 97 copyright 2017 Elsevier. (e) STEM mapping images of Pt@Ag<sub>1.0</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub>. Reproduced with permission from ref. 57 copyright 2018 Elsevier. (f) The proposed photocatalytic mechanism of highly selective CH<sub>4</sub> production over ZnO/CuO<sub>x</sub>–C CNFs. (g) The CH<sub>4</sub> yield and (h) the product selectivity of ZnO/CuO<sub>x</sub>–C CNFs, ZnO@CuO, Cu<sub>2</sub>O@ZnO, ZnO/Cu<sub>2</sub>O and Cu<sub>2</sub>O/ZnO. Reproduced with permission from ref. 99 copyright 2021 Elsevier.

defect-rich  ${\rm Bi_6Mo_2O_{15}}$  sub-microwires with abundant oxygen vacancies, which could capture sufficient photo-generated electrons, are favorable for the photocatalytic reduction of  ${\rm CO_2}$  to  ${\rm CH_4}$ .<sup>93</sup> Oxygen vacancies and metal vacancies can act synergistically to jointly improve the reaction selectivity.<sup>102</sup> Both oxygen and metal Ni vacancies were detected in NiCo-layered double hydroxide hollow nanocages (HC-NiCo-LDH), and the introduction of vacancies could create a new defect level in the middle of the band gap, causing a decreased band gap and enhanced charge transfer of HC-NiCo-LDH (Fig. 5c);<sup>102</sup> this guaranteed enough photo-induced electrons to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> molecules.<sup>102</sup> Finally, the CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity was increased from 8.92% to 62.66%.<sup>102</sup>

g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-based semiconductor composites could also selectively obtain CH<sub>4</sub> or other fuels.<sup>112,113</sup> Truc reported that compared with pure Cu<sub>2</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> (*i.e.*, 0) and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (*i.e.*, 0), the

50Cu<sub>2</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>/50g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalysts possessed more active electrons in the CB of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.<sup>114</sup> Enough electron supply of 50Cu<sub>2</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>/50g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> accomplished the selective generation of  $CH_4$  (*i.e.*, 1696 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> cat. h<sup>-1</sup>).<sup>114</sup> Additionally, in the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/ ZnO system, the electrons of ZnO recombined with the photogenerated holes of g-C3N4, thereby retaining the electrons with strong reduction capability in g-C3N4.115 Sufficient electrons in the CB of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> boosted the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>OH.<sup>115</sup> ZnO nanorod arrays@-carbon fiber (ZnO NA@CF) composites showed highly selective CH<sub>3</sub>OH production during the photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.<sup>116</sup> Owing to the interaction between ZnO nanocrystals and carbon fiber, photo-generated electrons could transfer from ZnO to the surface of the carbon fiber, thus preventing the recombination of electron-hole pairs.<sup>116</sup> Photo-induced holes in the VB of ZnO reacted with water to produce O2 and H<sup>+</sup>, while CO2 molecules were



Fig. 5 (a) The production rates of pure  $TiO_2$  and  $Mg-TiO_2$  containing different amounts of Mg doping, reproduced with permission from ref. 100 copyright 2014 Elsevier. (b) The yield of products of  $In-TiO_2$  with different amounts of In doping, reproduced with permission from ref. 101 copyright 2013 Elsevier. (c) Calculated total DOS (TDOS) and partial DOS (PDOS) plots of HC-NiCo-LDH without (upper) and with (lower) oxygen vacancies and Ni vacancies. Reproduced with permission from ref. 102 copyright 2018 Royal Society of Chemistry. (d) CH<sub>4</sub> production and (e) CO production over TiO<sub>2</sub>, Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>@rGO-2 and (Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub>)@rGO-*n* catalysts. Reproduced with permission from ref. 56 copyright 2018 Elsevier. A schematic illustration of the electron density-dependent CH<sub>4</sub> selective production over SiC/rGO heterojunctions with (f) low electron density and (g) high electron density on rGO. Reproduced with permission from ref. 103 copyright 2018 Wiley.

selectively reduced to CH<sub>3</sub>OH by sufficient electrons on the carbon fiber.<sup>116</sup> rGO is another appealing photocatalyst that can accumulate electrons of high energy to accelerate CH<sub>4</sub> generation via an eight-electron catalytic process.<sup>117</sup> Bare rGO is not active for the photocatalytic conversion of  $CO_2$  to  $CH_4$  (ref. 56) but rGO-wrapped Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub> ((Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub>)@rGO) photocatalysts achieved excellent selectivity (i.e., 99.1%) of CH<sub>4</sub> evolution (Fig. 5d and e).<sup>56</sup> Pt nanoparticles in (Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub>)@rGO-n photocatalysts functioned as an accumulator for electron transfer in the TiO<sub>2</sub>-Pt-rGO ternary system.<sup>56</sup> Due to the strong electronwithdrawing capacity of the rGO shell, the photogenerated electrons could further transfer from Pt to rGO.<sup>56</sup> Thus, the photo-generated electrons were transferred from TiO<sub>2</sub> to Pt and finally to the rGO shell (*i.e.*,  $TiO_2 \rightarrow Pt \rightarrow rGO$ ).<sup>56</sup> The photogenerated electrons accumulated on the rGO shell and subsequently reacted with the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> to produce CH<sub>4</sub>.<sup>56</sup> The photo-excited electron transfer and accumulation process was also observed in SiC/rGO composites.103 The electron density of the pure rGO surface was low.<sup>103</sup> In the SiC/rGO heterojunctions, the SiC served as the source of photogenerated electrons, while the rGO helped to quickly transfer energetic electrons for subsequent CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, resulting in a high CH<sub>4</sub> selectivity.<sup>103</sup>

It is worth noting that by choosing a suitable ratio of SiC to RGO, a high electron density could be formed on the surface, thereby promoting the selective formation of  $CH_4$  (Fig. 5f and g).<sup>103</sup> Additionally, crafting semiconductor composites might enhance photocatalytic selectivity *via* inducing oxygen vacancies.<sup>109</sup> Devi reported that the considerable carbon reduction selectivity of the In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-2wt% rGO nanocomposite (*i.e.*  $CH_4$  generation rate of 953.72 µmol h<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> with the selectivity of ~74%) could mainly be attributed to the induced oxygen vacancy defects by the addition of rGO (Fig. 6a-c).<sup>109</sup>

The adjustment of the nanostructure and morphology of the materials can also change the accumulation of electrons, thereby facilitating the enhancement of photocatalytic performance in terms of selectivity. Pt-coated hexagonal boron nitride nanoreactors (Pt@h-BN) were synthesized by a two-step technique (Fig. 6d).<sup>110</sup> Among pure Pt, pure BN and the intermediate state BN before obtaining Pt-coated BN nanoreactors (Pt@lS-AB, middle part of Fig. 6d), Pt@h-BN with the Pt:B molar ratio of 1:3 (Pt@h-BN<sub>3</sub>) demonstrated the best photocatalytic activity and achieved a nearly 100% selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 6e).<sup>110</sup> It was revealed that the special nanostructure composed of Pt as the core and h-BN as the shell (Fig. 6f and g)



**Fig. 6** Generation efficiency of various products over (a)  $In_2O_3$  and (b)  $In_2O_3$ -2 wt% rGO. (c) High-resolution XPS spectra of O 1s of  $In_2O_3$ -2 wt% rGO nanocomposites (upper) and  $In_2O_3$  nanostructures (lower). Reproduced with permission from ref. 109 copyright 2021 Elsevier. (d) Schematic diagram of the synthesis process of Pt@IS-AB and Pt@h-BN series catalysts originating from Pt. (e) The photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> conversion rate of Pt, Pt@IS-AB, Pt@h-BN series catalysts and pure h-BN. (f and g) HRTEM images of Pt@h-BN<sub>3</sub>. Reproduced with permission from ref. 110 copyright 2021 Wiley.

accelerated the electron mobility to produce the key intermediate  $\text{CO}^{2-}$  species on the surface of Pt@h-BN.<sup>110</sup> Compared to pure BiVO<sub>4</sub>, the lamellar BiVO<sub>4</sub> showed the selective generation of CH<sub>3</sub>OH due to efficient electron capture to form CO<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> radical anions.<sup>118</sup> These provided researchers with a new method to construct highly selective photocatalysts by the delicate design of the architectures of photocatalysts.

Adequate electron supply is the most common mechanism to explain the selective reduction of  $CO_2$  to  $CH_4$  and other high-value-added products.

**3.1.3.** Others. As the active sites, metal ions, oxygen vacancies and metals loaded on the surface of photocatalysts are capable of the chemical conversion from  $CO_2$  to specific products. Appropriate  $CO_2$  adsorption together with efficient electron accumulation are proposed to cause high product selectivity.

For example, non-metals and metals can be co-doped into the lattice of the photocatalyst in order to accomplish highefficiency selectivity.<sup>119</sup> The C and N co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes with Na<sup>+</sup> ions intercalated between the titanate layers were



Fig. 7 (a) Product yields of  $TiO_2$  and  $TiO_2$ -Bi after photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction for 14 h. (b) Photocatalytic  $CH_4$  generation of  $TiO_2$  and  $TiO_2$ -Bi. Reproduced with permission from ref. 122. Copyright 2018 Springer. (c) A high-resolution XPS spectrum of Ti 2p of 10% I–TiO\_2. Reproduced with permission from ref. 124. Copyright 2011 Elsevier. (d) The crafting process of  $TiO_2$ -AuCu–V. (e) Yields and (f) selectivity of  $CH_4$ , CO,  $H_2$  over  $TiO_2$ -based photocatalysts. Reproduced with permission from ref. 125 copyright 2019 Royal Society of Chemistry. (g) Photocatalytic reduction activity of  $CO_2$  to  $CH_4$  over  $TiO_2$ -010 and  $TiO_2$ -010 and their corresponding 1 wt% or 5 wt% Pt-loaded products under UV-light irradiation for 4 h. Reproduced with permission from ref. 130 copyright 2014 Elsevier.

prepared by an alkaline hydrothermal method and achieved an increase in CH<sub>4</sub> yield.<sup>120</sup> Na<sup>+</sup> ions introduced on the surface of C-N co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes during the synthesis process were proposed to act as the active sites for effective  $CO_2$ absorption and further increase the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub>.<sup>120</sup> Similarly, compared with pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, V and N co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocube arrays exhibited nearly four times improvement of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub> conversion.<sup>121</sup> In addition to the ions just mentioned, Bi<sup>3+</sup> ions adsorbed on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets favoured highly selective CH<sub>4</sub> photocatalytic production via stimulating the reduction of intermediate CO.122 In this study, isolated Bi<sup>3+</sup> ions were confined on the surface of 2D TiO<sub>2</sub> (TiO<sub>2</sub>-Bi).<sup>122</sup> Compared with the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> counterpart, the TiO<sub>2</sub>-Bi exhibited a higher photocatalytic selectivity and efficiency of CH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 7a and b).<sup>122</sup> The mechanism was the consecutive transfer of protons and electrons to intermediate CO, finally producing CH<sub>4</sub>, where the introduced Bi<sup>3+</sup> was

responsible for this fast conversion.<sup>122</sup> Furthermore, halogen element (*i.e.*, Cl, Br and I) doping can improve the catalytic selectivity.<sup>123</sup> XPS analysis of I-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> revealed that  $I^{5+}$ substituted for Ti<sup>4+</sup> in the lattice (Fig. 7c).<sup>124</sup> As a result, Ti<sup>3+</sup> was generated to balance the charge (Fig. 7c).<sup>124</sup> The high CO selectivity of I–TiO<sub>2</sub> was achieved after the  $I^{5+}$  doping.<sup>124</sup> We speculate that the low-valent titanium metal ions here are very likely to be used as active sites to promote the selective occurrence of the reaction, but direct experimental verification is needed.

Liu *et al.* loaded the Au–Cu alloy on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets (TiO<sub>2</sub>–AuCu) by ultrasonic and hydrothermal treatment and then obtained photocatalysts with Cu vacancies (TiO<sub>2</sub>–AuCu–V) by etching (Fig. 7d).<sup>125</sup> In comparison with TiO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>–Au, TiO<sub>2</sub>–Cu and TiO<sub>2</sub>–AuCu, the CH<sub>4</sub> generation selectivity of TiO<sub>2</sub>–AuCu–V was dramatically elevated to 94.7% (Fig. 7e and f).<sup>125</sup> The removal of Cu atoms at the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub>–AuCu–V enhanced



**Fig. 8** (a) CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction rate over pristine BTN and Cu-BTN with different amounts of Cu decoration. (b) *In situ* DRIFTS IR spectra of pristine BTN, Cu-BTN and Cu/BTN (obtained by depositing Cu on the as-prepared brookite TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes). Reproduced with permission from ref. 61 copyright 2017 Wiley. (c) Calculated reaction energy diagrams of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH\* over the H-terminated surfaces of pristine  $In_2S_3$  and  $C-In_2S_3$ . *In situ* DRIFTS spectra of (d)  $In_2S_3$  and (e)  $C-In_2S_3$ . Reproduced with permission from ref. 133 copyright 2020 Royal Society of Chemistry. Reaction pathways of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction over BiMoO<sub>6</sub> (f) with oxygen vacancies and (g) without oxygen vacancies. Reproduced with permission from ref. 63 copyright 2019 Elsevier. (h) Raman spectra of  $WO_{3-x}$  during the photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. (i) IR spectrum of  $WO_{3-x}$  after photocatalysis. (j) Schematic diagram of possible pathways of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO generation *via* photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction over  $WO_{3-x}$ . Reproduced with permission from ref. 62 copyright 2020 Elsevier.

the electron trapping ability, consequently providing sufficient electrons for the generation of  $CH_4$  as mentioned above.<sup>125</sup> Moreover, the experimental results also showed that there is a strong correlation between the yield of  $CH_4$  and the low-coordination Cu atoms near the vacancies, indicating that these Cu atoms could be used as active sites for the conversion of  $CO_2$  to  $CH_4$ , further enhancing the selectivity of  $CH_4$  generation.<sup>125</sup>

Interestingly, although some metals have been proven to be able to improve selectivity in research, the same kind of metal loaded on different crystal faces of a special catalyst may exhibit different site activities. Taking the commonly used anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst as an example, the theoretical surface energy order of the low index facets is  $\{101\}$  (*i.e.*, 0.44 J m<sup>-2</sup>) <  $\{010\}$  (*i.e.*, 0.53 J  $m^{-2}$  < {001} (*i.e.*, 0.90 J m<sup>-2</sup>).<sup>126,127</sup> This means that the most stable {101} facets exhibit the lowest catalytic reactivity for the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Thus, in order to manipulate products and achieve high photocatalytic efficiency, ratios of  $\{001\}$  to  $\{010\}$ TiO<sub>2</sub> exposed facets were tuned.<sup>128</sup> Due to the strong interaction between  $CO_2$  and the {010} surface of  $TiO_2$ , anatase  $TiO_2$  rods with dominant {010} facets accomplished the efficient photoreduction of CO2 to CH4.128 Ma reported that after Pt loading, anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> exposing {001} facets exhibited improved CH<sub>4</sub> evolution rates.<sup>129</sup> After modifying Pt on {001}TiO<sub>2</sub> facets, uniform Pt nanoparticles acted as active sites and led to a higher  $CH_4$  yield.<sup>130</sup> However, when decorated on the {010} TiO<sub>2</sub> facets, Pt nanoparticles agglomerated, exerting a negative effect on the photocatalytic reaction (Fig. 7g).<sup>130</sup>

To sum up, the introduction of metals, vacancies, and different ions to the photocatalysts might serve as active sites for the selective conversion of  $CO_2$  to the target products. However, the relationship between the active sites and the high reaction selectivity is not clear. The roles of some special ions, such as low-valence metal ions (Ti<sup>3+</sup>) generated together with the Vo (Fig. 7c) during the selective  $CO_2$  reduction reaction have not been fully assessed. Many of the discussions about the active sites just put forward conjectures that need to be further investigated by experiment.

#### 3.2. Intermediates

**3.2.1. Formation energy of crucial intermediates.** To produce high-value-added products, the formation of some key intermediates is particularly significant.<sup>131,132</sup> Taking the selective formation of  $CH_4$  as an example. There are two reaction paths after the formation of \*CO. One is that \*CO is released from the surface to generate CO, and the other is that \*CO is hydrogenated to generate \*CHO and finally converted to  $CH_4$ . It can be seen that the formation energy of \*CHO is lower than that of \*CO, and the reaction is inclined to generate  $CH_4$ . The formation energy of intermediates could be reduced *via* metal loading, vacancy construction and ion modification.

Cu-nanocluster-decorated brookite  $TiO_2$  quasi-nanocubes (Cu-BTN) exhibited good activity and selectivity (Fig. 8a).<sup>61</sup> When using 1.5% Cu-BTN as photocatalysts, the main products were CH<sub>4</sub>, accounting for about 85% of the total amount of final products.<sup>61</sup> The reason for this high photocatalytic selectivity of

Cu-BTN was explained as follows. When  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  ions were intermediates, CO would be the main product, while more  $\text{CH}_4$ would be produced if  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  ions were intermediates.<sup>61</sup> With the introduction of Cu nanoclusters and the gradual increase within the appropriate range, the formation of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  on the surface of Cu-BTN would become easier (Fig. 8b); finally,  $\text{CH}_4$ would be formed selectively.<sup>61</sup>

In addition to the experimental characterization of the formation of key intermediates, the free energy of intermediate formation was studied through theoretical calculations. Wang achieved a  $C_2H_4$  production selectivity close to 50% over C-doped  $In_2S_3$  nanosheets.<sup>133</sup> According to the calculated reaction energy, the reaction Gibbs free energies from OCH\* to HOCH\* and from HOCH\* to CH\* on C-In<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> were -0.56 and 0.19 eV, respectively, which were much lower than the corresponding energies on pure  $In_2S_3$  (*i.e.*, 0.95 and 1.34 eV), respectively (Fig. 8c).<sup>133</sup> It was indicated that OCH\* could be further hydrogenated to form CH\* on C-In<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 8d and e).<sup>133</sup> Meanwhile, unsaturated \*CH<sub>2</sub>=C, one of the important intermediates to produce  $C_2H_4$ , could be observed on the surface of C-In<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> in the *in situ* DRIFTS spectra, which was not detected on pure  $In_2S_3$  (Fig. 8d and e).<sup>133</sup>

Similarly, Yang et al. prepared Bi<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>6</sub> nanosheets containing oxygen vacancies via a facile one-step solvothermal process.63 According to the calculated stepwise Gibbs free energy (Fig. 8f and g), the further hydrogenation of the intermediate CO\* to the \*CHO over Bi2MoO6 with oxygen vacancies was thermodynamically supported, compared to Bi<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>6</sub> without oxygen vacancies.63 Since \*CHO was the prerequisite for the synthesis of CH<sub>4</sub>, it could be accompanied by the subsequent hydrogenation steps, ultimately realizing the highly selective CH<sub>4</sub> production of 96.7% under visible light irradiation.<sup>63</sup> The tuning of the energy barrier by oxygen vacancies was further confirmed on the surface of Ni-TiO2.136 Besides the theoretical calculations, the important intermediate formation could be identified by experiments.<sup>62</sup> For instance, the photocatalytic selectivity of WO3-x micro-rods reducing CO2 to C2H4 increased to 89.3% after introducing oxygen vacancies.62 It could be observed in Raman and Infrared (IR) spectra that essential intermediates, including C=C, C-C, adsorbed CO and HOCOO, appeared (Fig. 8h and i). It was indicated that adjacent oxygen vacancies provided active sites for C-C coupling to generate  $C_2H_4$ . The  $CO_2$  reduction pathway on the  $WO_{3-x}$  was proposed to be  $CO_2 \rightarrow COOH \rightarrow (COOH)_2 \rightarrow CH_3COOH \rightarrow$  $CH_3CH_2OH \rightarrow CH_2CH_2$  via a hydrogenation and dehydration process (Fig. 8j).62 Apart from the reactions mentioned above, CO2 could also be selectively reduced to methanol, formic acid and other hydrocarbons.74,75,137 For example, the energy barrier of the rate-limiting step (CO<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  HCOO) on the surface of MXene (0.53 eV) for the reduction of  $CO_2$  to HCOOH is much lower than that of anatase (0.87 eV), which was prone to producing HCCOH.97

Besides, metal vacancies of semiconductors can adjust the formation energy of intermediates, thereby affecting the photocatalytic reaction.<sup>134</sup> Since ZnS samples possessing Zn vacancies could be obtained by acid etching over commercial ZnS powders, different pH values of sulfuric acid were used to craft

ZnS containing various amounts of Zn vacancies and obtained different HCOOH formation selectivities (Fig. 9a and b).<sup>134</sup> Acidetched ZnS attained the highest selectivity of 86.6% for HCOOH production at pH = 0.2.<sup>134</sup> As displayed in Fig. 9c, with the existence of Zn vacancies, ZnS required a lower energy barrier for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to HCOOH.<sup>134</sup> Moreover, hydroxyl groups on the surface might bind closely with CO<sub>2</sub> molecules to form key intermediates during the photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>

reduction.<sup>135</sup> The proposed CH<sub>4</sub> formation mechanism on the hydroxylated mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> surface is shown in Fig. 10d.<sup>135</sup> According to the experimental results, on the hydroxyl-abundant surface of TiO<sub>2</sub>, the –OH groups could convert absorbed CO<sub>2</sub> molecules to carbonate or bicarbonate species (Fig. 9d).<sup>135</sup> The bidentate carbonate (b-CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2–</sup>) species sequentially received 2 electrons and 2 protons and were transformed into CH<sub>4</sub> through the sequence of Ti–OOCH<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  Ti–O–CH<sub>3</sub>  $\rightarrow$ 



**Fig. 9** (a) Yields and (b) selectivity of HCOOH, CO, H<sub>2</sub> over ZnS samples etched by sulfuric acid of different pH values. (c) Free energy diagram for the pathways of CO<sub>2</sub> conversion to formate on a perfect ZnS (blue) and V<sub>Zn</sub>-ZnS (pink) surface. Reproduced with permission from ref. 134 copyright 2019 American Chemical Society. (d) Proposed CH<sub>4</sub> and CO formation mechanism on the hydroxylated surface of TiO<sub>2</sub>. (e) The DRIFT spectra of adsorbed and transformed species on the hydroxylated surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> after different light irradiation times. Reproduced with permission from ref. 135 copyright 2020 American Chemical Society. (f) Yields and (g) selectivity of CO and CH<sub>4</sub> over BW, BiOCl, and BW–Cl<sub>x</sub> (x =1–5) after photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction for 3 h. Free energy diagrams of CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction over (h) Bi<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>6</sub> and (i) Cl<sup>-</sup>-modified Bi<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>6</sub>. Reproduced with permission from ref. 70 copyright 2020 American Chemical Society.



**Fig. 10** (a) Photocatalytic activities and selectivities of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction over TiO<sub>2</sub>,  $g-C_3N_4$  and BiOBr with or without Pt loading. (b) CO-TPD of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Pt-TiO<sub>2</sub>. Reproduced with permission from ref. 58 copyright 2018 Royal Society of Chemistry. (c) The evolution rates and the selectivity of CO and CH<sub>4</sub> over TiO<sub>2</sub> and various HAP/TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalysts. (d) A possible pathway for the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub> over Pt/HAP/TiO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O. *In situ* IR spectra of (e) Pt/HAP/TiO<sub>2</sub> and (f) Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>68</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 68 copyright 2018 Elsevier. (g) Schematic illustration of the photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> conversion to CH<sub>4</sub> over hydroxylated SiC nanosheets. Reproduced with permission from ref. 141 copyright 2019 Royal Society of Chemistry.

CH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 9d).<sup>135</sup> Meanwhile, the carboxylic species experienced the process of Ti–COOH → Ti–CHO → Ti–CH<sub>2</sub>OH → Ti–CH<sub>3</sub> → CH<sub>4</sub> to produce CH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 9e).<sup>135</sup>

Ion modification can also improve the selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by adjusting the formation energy of key intermediates.<sup>138</sup> Li prepared Bi<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>6</sub> (BW) nanosheets loaded with different amounts of Cl<sup>-</sup> ions, which were marked as BW-Cl<sub>x</sub> (x = 1-5).<sup>70</sup> A maximum selectivity of 94.98% for CH<sub>4</sub> generation was achieved on the surface of BW-Cl<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 9f and g).<sup>70</sup> In the presence of Cl<sup>-</sup> ions, the half-reaction (*i.e.*, oxygen evolution) of  $Bi_2WO_6$  nanosheets was greatly increased.<sup>70</sup> Simultaneously, the produced protons facilitated the formation of CH<sub>4</sub>.<sup>70</sup> Moreover, DFT calculations (Fig. 9h and i) confirmed that the presence of Cl<sup>-</sup> ions on  $Bi_2WO_6$  nanosheets was capable of lowering the energy barrier for the generation of crucial intermediate (*i.e.*, \*CHO), thus enhancing CH<sub>4</sub> production.<sup>70</sup>

In the above reports, the existence of key intermediates in some highly selective systems was verified by the experimental

data, and the formation energy of the target intermediates was studied through theoretical calculations. The difficulty in producing intermediates and the stability of the as-obtained intermediates will be discussed in the next section.

**3.2.2. Stability of intermediates.** In order to synthesize high-value-added products, the stability of target intermediates should be taken into account.<sup>139</sup> Stable intermediates facilitate electron transfer reactions in the subsequent hydrogenation process, while instability would lead to rapid desorption from the surface of photocatalysts and the reaction ends at this step. As mentioned in the previous section, the intermediate \*CHO is crucial for the formation of CH<sub>4</sub>, and it should be guaranteed that not only the formation energy of \*CHO is low, but also \*CHO is stable enough to generate CH<sub>4</sub>. The high stability of key intermediates could be achieved through the loading of precious metals and the combination of different materials.

For instance, the introduction of noble metals could reduce the intermediate desorption capacity of the photocatalysts and ensure that the intermediates are adsorbed on the surface of the catalysts for subsequent reactions.58 As shown in Fig. 10a, compared with pure semiconductor photocatalysts, nearly 100% selectivity of CH<sub>4</sub> generation was achieved by loading 1% Pt on the TiO<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and BiOBr photocatalysts, respectively.56,58,140 The temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) results confirmed that CO demonstrated an especially strong adsorption capacity on the Pt clusters (Fig. 10b).58 Meanwhile, since only physical adsorption occurred between CH<sub>4</sub> and the Pt clusters, CH<sub>4</sub> exhibited low adsorption energy on the Pt clusters, leading to the easy desorption of generated CH<sub>4</sub> from the Pt surface.58 Thus, most CO products produced during the photocatalytic process were anchored on the catalyst surfaces, and CH<sub>4</sub> molecules were desorbed from the photocatalyst surface, eventually achieving enhanced selectivity of CH<sub>4</sub> generation.<sup>58</sup>

Through compound modification of the catalysts, the stability of some key intermediates can also be improved. Hydroxyapatite (HAP)-decorated TiO<sub>2</sub> could achieve 99.1% selectivity of CH<sub>4</sub> generation (Fig. 10c).<sup>68</sup> The formation of much more stable intermediates over HAP/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanorods was responsible for this selectivity enhancement.<sup>68</sup> A possible pathway for the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub> over Pt/HAP/TiO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O is proposed in Fig. 10d.<sup>68</sup> Specifically, the formate-like species (HCOO<sup>-</sup>) was identified as the crucial intermediate for CH<sub>4</sub> production.<sup>68</sup> Compared with that of TiO<sub>2</sub>, IR peaks at 3000–2800 cm<sup>-1</sup> of Pt/HAP/TiO<sub>2</sub> were obviously enhanced, indicating that the HAP effectively improved the stability of HCOO<sup>-</sup> (Fig. 10e and f).<sup>68</sup>

Besides, as the cocatalyst of P25, surface alkalization of  $Ti_3C_2$  could dramatically enhance the evolution rate of  $CH_4$  (16.61 µmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>),<sup>142</sup> in which surface hydroxyls on selective  $CH_4$  generation over SiC nanosheets have gained much attention.<sup>141,143</sup> Hydroxyl groups on the surface of SiC nanosheets boosted the photoreduction of  $CO_2$  into  $CH_4$ , achieving the  $CH_4$  generation selectivity of about 80%.<sup>141</sup> The mechanism is depicted in Fig. 10g.<sup>141</sup> Specifically, –OH groups on the surface of SiC could provide sufficient protons to  $CO_2$ , which is critical to the  $CO_2$  activation.<sup>141</sup> Moreover, the intermediates could be stabilized by forming hydrogen bonds between the

intermediates and –OH groups. These effects improved the selective  $CH_4$  generation.<sup>141</sup>

Although the stability of the intermediates remarkably affects the reaction path of photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction, the relative investigations are limited in scope. More attention should be paid to the generation process and stabilization of key intermediates to make the study on  $CO_2$  reduction more comprehensive and convincing.

#### 3.3. Desorption of products

As one critical step in the entire  $CO_2$  reduction process, the desorption of the product from the surface of photocatalysts affects the selectivity. The rapid release of the product prevents the subsequent reaction, thereby maintaining the selective and continuous yield of this product. Various types of vacancies and crystal facets cause varied adsorption capabilities of products, which results in the adjustment of the final products.

Metal vacancies of semiconductors play a significant role in manipulating the photocatalytic selectivity. Different reduction products can be obtained by introducing various metal vacancies.<sup>144</sup> Selective CO generation could be achieved on the surface of BiOBr ultrathin nanosheets containing abundant Bi vacancies ( $V_{\rm Bi}$ ).<sup>144</sup> Compared with BiOBr nanosheets without  $V_{\rm Bi}$ , CO could be more easily desorbed from the surface of  $V_{\rm Bi}$ -BiOBr, leading to increasing the amount of CO production.<sup>144</sup>

In addition to the introduction of vacancies, some facets of photocatalysts may exhibit the unique ability of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and product desorption.<sup>145-147</sup> These beneficial effects can enhance the photocatalytic selectivity. As shown in Fig. 11a, distinguished from chemisorbed CO with a larger endothermic



Fig. 11 (a) The photocatalytic activity and (b) the production rates of CO to CH<sub>4</sub> over the ultrathin InVO<sub>4</sub> nanosheets, nanocubes, and obtained by SSR. (c) Calculated Gibbs free energy profiles of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO over InVO<sub>4</sub> of the (110) and (100) planes, respectively. Reproduced with permission from ref. 148 copyright 2019 American Chemical Society. (d) Photocatalytic production rate using  $\beta$ -Co(OH)<sub>2</sub>, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles (Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs), or Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> hexagonal platelets (Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> HPs) as catalysts under visible light ( $\lambda > 420$  nm) irradiation. Reproduced with permission from ref. 150 copyright 2016 Wiley.

value of 0.45 eV on the {100} facet, the exposed {110} facet of the InVO<sub>4</sub> atomic layer was confirmed to weakly bind the generated CO, leading to the quick desorption of CO molecules from the catalyst surface.<sup>148</sup> Therefore, by the facet engineering technique, ultrathin InVO<sub>4</sub> nanosheets possessing the {110} facet could gain much higher CO formation selectivity (*i.e.*, 98%) as compared with regular InVO<sub>4</sub> nanocubes showing the (100) facet and the bulk InVO<sub>4</sub> obtained by a conventional solid-state reaction (SSR, Fig. 11b and c).<sup>148</sup> Due to the favorable CO<sub>2</sub> absorption and easy desorption of CO, hexagonal Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoplatelets exposing {112} facets could realize the selectivity of 77.1% for CO generation (Fig. 11d).<sup>149</sup>

In general, both metal vacancies and crystal facets have selective desorption capacity. However, it is unknown whether other modification methods could mediate the desorption ability of products. There is limited discussion in this area, and further exploration is expected.

#### 4. Summary and outlook

There has been widespread interest in the fact that photocatalytic product selectivity is one of the crucial factors limiting the application of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The importance of photocatalytic CO2 reduction to energy utilization and environmental protection is summarized at the beginning of this review. We introduced different reaction steps that could increase the selectivity of the reaction, that is, the adsorption and activation of reactants (including CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and H<sub>2</sub> evolution inhibition, electron supply and others), the formation and stabilization of intermediates (including formation energy of crucial intermediates and stability of intermediates), and the desorption of products. The corresponding modification methods for achieving selective improvement at each stage are summarized, including noble metal decoration, metal and nonmetal doping, vacancy engineering, facet engineering, composite construction, hydroxyl modification and other decoration techniques. Although this research field has been developed for several decades, the photocatalytic conversion of CO2 to high-value products selectively is still in its infancy. A lot of effort should be made to achieve a great breakthrough.

Firstly, although many materials have been successfully fabricated for highly selective photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, the photocatalytic mechanism of high selectivity remains unclear. Most mechanisms have been proposed based on the simulation results instead of experimental data. In addition, plenty of intriguing phenomena, such as the formation of low-valent metal ions near the oxygen vacancies, and the production of surface hydroxyl groups, have been described but no explanations are given in detail. Therefore, more *in situ* characterization techniques, such as FITR, Raman, XRD and NMR, should be conducted to uncover the underlying photocatalytic process. To design highly selective catalysts on purpose, a deep understanding and exploration of the reaction must be gained.

Secondly, more investigations should be focused on the oxidation reaction during photocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction. Since main products are obtained *via* reducing  $CO_2$ , most research is concentrated on the reduction reaction caused by the photo-

generated electrons. However, as a half-reaction of the entire  $CO_2$  reduction, how photo-induced holes participate in the photocatalytic reaction might dramatically affect the catalytic performance of semiconductors. Once the oxidation reaction is restricted, it will be tough for the entire process to proceed. A quick oxidation half-reaction can suppress the inverse reactions of  $CO_2$  reduction. In addition, the oxidation products might participate in the reaction of  $CO_2$  reduction. Therefore, to have a comprehensive understanding of the entire  $CO_2$  reduction process, the oxidation half-reaction involving photo-generated holes requires more in-depth investigations.

Thirdly, precise modification techniques of photocatalysts should be further improved. The introduction of impurities into the lattice of semiconductors can increase the effective capture of electrons and thus improve the selectivity of  $CH_4$  generation. However, there is always an optimal doping concentration. Similarly, the construction of vacancies can bring about an increase in selectivity but excessive vacancies will destroy the bulk structure and reduce the catalytic performance. More delicate methods should be developed to craft decorated photocatalysts.

Fourthly, based on this review, it was found that each step during the entire CO<sub>2</sub> reduction can affect selectivity, so different modification methods could be combined to synergistically boost the reaction selectivity. For example, after oxygen vacancies were introduced into Pt-loaded Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, the selectivity of the reaction increased to nearly 100%.<sup>81</sup> The oxygen vacancies served as the main sites for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, while Pt nanoparticles used the hydrogen formed in the photocatalytic decomposition process to reduce the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>81</sup> This synergy increased photocatalytic production selectivity.<sup>81</sup> Besides, the photocatalytic conditions of the catalytic system can influence the production selectivity, including temperature, pressure, gas flow rate, reaction solution, *etc.* Thus, more explorations can be concentrated on adjusting the composition of photocatalysts and the reaction parameters.

In summary, photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> conversion to fuel products can not only alleviate carbon dioxide emissions but also provide clean chemical energy using green solar light. To realize high catalytic efficiency and achieve value-added products of high selectivity, the above four points require numerous efforts to explore. More advanced in situ characterization techniques, including solid-state NMR, isotope research, FITR, Raman, and XRD should be applied to study the chemical evolution of catalysts during the catalytic process. To understand the entire reaction process more comprehensively, more studies should be conducted that pay attention to both the reduction halfreaction and the oxidation half-reaction since how photoinduced electrons and holes participate in the photocatalytic reaction will affect the catalytic performance. Due to the different effects of various modification strategies on the reaction process, the modification process should be controlled more accurately, which requires more advanced synthesis equipment and more delicate fabrication strategies. Different modification techniques could be combined to synergistically achieve higher efficiency and selectivity.

## Author contributions

M. W. conceived the idea. M. W., S. Y. designed the conceptualization. S. Y., J. H., F. G., H. W., J. L., Y. B. performed the investigation and data curation. J. F., F. H., F. Z. conducted the supervision. M. W., S. Y. wrote the paper. All authors participated in the review and editing of the paper.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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