

# Electrospun nanofibers for electrochemical reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>: From spinning fabrication techniques to electrocatalyst design

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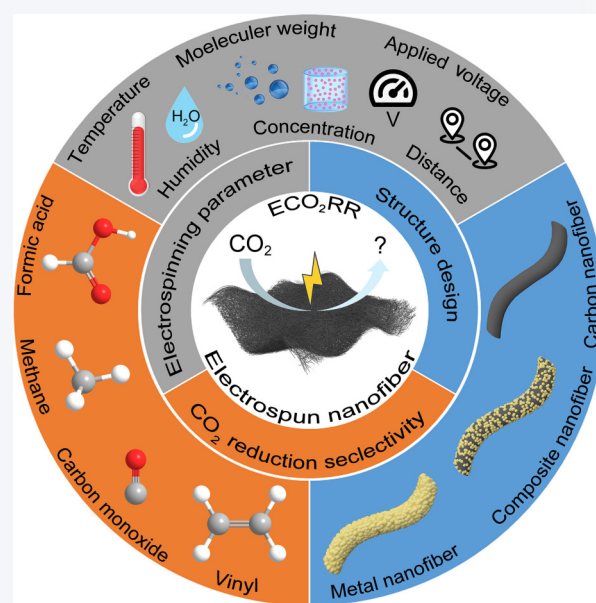
**ABSTRACT:** Electrochemical reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> (ECO<sub>2</sub>RR) into value-added fuels and chemicals presents a promising avenue for mitigating CO<sub>2</sub> emissions while simultaneously contributing to economic growth, thereby addressing critical environmental and energy challenges. However, the large-scale implementation of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR is significantly impeded by the necessity to design efficient catalysts that exhibit both high activity and selectivity. These catalysts must overcome the sluggish kinetics associated with ECO<sub>2</sub>RR as well as the competing hydrogen evolution reaction. In recent decades, electrospun nanofibers have garnered considerable attention as potential catalysts for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR, attributable to their high surface area with abundant active sites, tunable functionalities, and enhanced selectivity. This review comprehensively examines the rational design of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts utilizing electrospinning technology. We commence with an in-depth exploration of the principles underlying the electrospinning process and subsequently summarize key factors influencing this process, including solution parameters, environmental conditions, and electrospinning operational parameters. Moreover, we discuss recent advancements in ECO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts synthesized through electrospinning, encompassing carbon nanofibers, composite nanofibers, and metal nanofibers. Finally, we delineate future perspectives and the challenges that electrospun materials face in the context of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR applications. This review aims to inspire high-quality research directed toward the advancement of electrospun materials for improved performance in ECO<sub>2</sub>RR.

**KEYWORDS:** CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction, catalyst design, electrospinning, single-atom catalysts

## 1 Introduction

The atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) has risen sharply since the industrial revolution due to the large-scale use of

fossil fuels [1–5]. This increase has led to significant environmental risks, including global warming, rising sea levels, ocean acidification, and more frequent extreme weather events [6–10]. It has been reported that atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels have surged dramatically, rising from below 280 ppm in the 1760s to over 415 ppm today [11–13]. To reduce dependence on fossil fuels, there has been growing interest in renewable energy sources such as solar, wind, and hydropower [14–16]. Advances in harnessing technologies have led to a substantial decrease in the cost of green electricity and a significant increase in production [17–20]. However, the intermittent nature of electricity generated from



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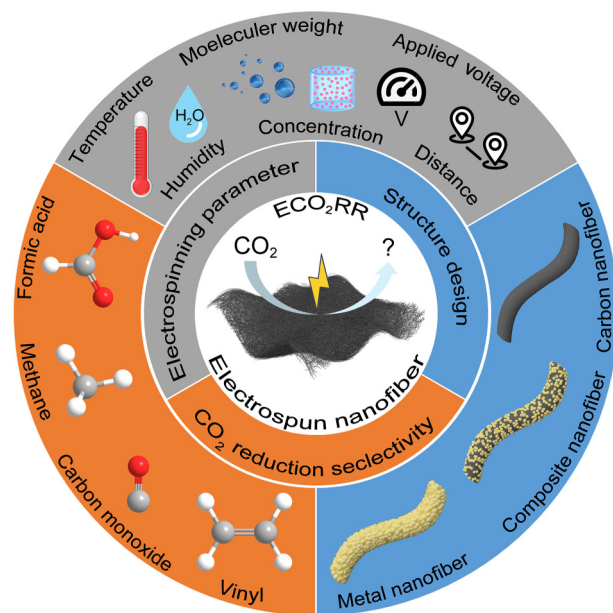
renewable sources poses challenges for its integration into the electrical power grid [21, 22]. Alternatively, green electricity can be utilized to produce various raw chemicals through electrocatalytic processes, such as the electrochemical  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction reaction ( $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ ) [23–29]. In this process, electrons serve as reductive agents, typically in conjunction with a proton source like water ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) [30]. The  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  can be conducted at ambient temperature and pressure, provided that electricity is supplied [31–36]. The reduction products, including carbon monoxide ( $\text{CO}$ ), formate ( $\text{HCOOH}$ ), methanol, methane ( $\text{CH}_4$ ), ethylene ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$ ), and ethanol, are valuable raw chemicals and fuels [37–40]. Consequently, the advancement of  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  is expected to mitigate the  $\text{CO}_2$  emission and contribute to economic growth, addressing environmental and energy problems [41–44].

Although  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  technology holds significant promise, several challenges hinder its widespread implementation and efficiency [45–48]. The chemical inertness of  $\text{CO}_2$ , stemming from its symmetrical linear structure and strong  $\text{C}=\text{O}$  bonds (with a bond energy of  $750 \text{ kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ ), creates substantial barriers to the electrochemical process, resulting in a high activation energy [49–51]. Furthermore, the  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  involves intricate multi-electron and multi-proton transfer mechanisms, which produce a variety of reaction intermediates [52–54]. Developing ideal catalysts that exhibit high activity, stability, and cost-effectiveness for efficient  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  is urgently needed [55–60]. Side reactions such as the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) can become significant at both low and high potentials. This is because the thermodynamic requirements for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction are similar to those for HER. In practice,  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  demands a higher energy input than the theoretical minimum. This discrepancy allows HER to proceed more easily, thereby reducing the overall energy efficiency of the electroreduction system [17, 61–63].

In recent years, significant efforts have been dedicated to developing catalysts with high efficiency and selectivity, leading to notable advancements in the field [64–66]. Among these catalysts, carbon nanofibers (CNFs) have emerged as a up-and-coming class of electrocatalysts for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ , attracting substantial attention [67–69]. CNFs offer several unique advantages in  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ : (1) Their exceptional porosity and surface area enhance the exposure of active sites and facilitate rapid mass transportation. (2) The electronic properties of CNFs can be precisely tuned through metal doping or functionalization, which affects the reaction pathways for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ . (3) The polymer nanofiber could work as attractive precursors or templates to fabricate numerous metal nanofibers (such as metal alloy nanofibers and metal oxide nanofibers) as electrocatalysts for selective  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ . Among various nanofiber synthesis methods, such as melt spinning [70], phase separation [71], and template-based synthesis [72], electrospinning is recognized as a convenient, versatile, and cost-effective technique for synthesizing nanofibers with a high surface area-to-volume ratio, controllable dimensions, tunable functionalities, lightweight characteristics, and high porosity [73–75]. Recently, hydrophobized electrospun nanofibers with hierarchical porosity have been developed via electrospinning and employed as integral gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) for full-pH  $\text{CO}_2$  electroreduction. The optimized GDE achieved near-unity Faradaic efficiency (FE) for  $\text{CO}$  production and demonstrated stable operation for over 273 h, with a total energy efficiency of 38% in a neutral membrane electrode setup. Additionally, it exhibited a high single-pass  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion rate of 78% in an acidic membrane configuration. These

results pave the way for industrial-scale  $\text{CO}_2$  electrolysis through innovative GDE design [76].

For the past few years, CNFs and their functional derivatives have made notable advancements in the field of  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  [77]. Although a limited review exists in this field, providing an updated perspective on their application in  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  is both timely and necessary given the rapid advancements in this area. Furthermore, the influence of key factors on electrospinning, which are critical for the successful synthesis of nanofibers and the rational design of nanofiber structures for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ , has not been discussed in the existing review [78]. This review begins by highlighting the distinctive characteristics of electrospinning, followed by a detailed discussion of its principles. Key factors that influence the electrospinning process, such as solution parameters, environmental parameters, and process parameters, are summarized. We then reviewed the recent advancements in electrospun nanofibers as catalysts for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  toward different products from the perspective of materials design strategies such as carbon nanofiber, composite nanofiber (carbon nanofiber with metal species), and metal nanofibers, as shown in Fig. 1. Finally, the challenges ahead and future perspectives are discussed.



**Figure 1** Schematic diagram of CNFs and their derivatives for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ .

## 2 Overview of electrospinning

### 2.1 History for electrospinning

The development of electrospinning spans over a century, with contributions from various scientists and engineers who discovered and refined the basic principles behind the process. The early prototype of electrospinning goes back to the 1700s when electrostatic atomization was developed. This process shares similar physics with electrospinning, where an applied electrostatic field counteracts surface tension to increase the liquid body's surface area [79]. In the early foundations, from the late 19<sup>th</sup> century to the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, people began to discover the phenomenon of electrostatic spinning and tried to use it to produce fibers. In 1897, Lord Rayleigh laid the theoretical groundwork for electrospinning

by studying the behavior of fluid droplets subjected to electrostatic forces [80]. His work on the instability of charged liquid jets, later known as “Rayleigh instability”, became essential for understanding the process of jet formation in electrospinning. In 1902, Cooley [81] and Morton [82] each filed patents on the electrical dispersion of fluids through electrospraying, a process based on the same fundamental principles as electrospinning.

Formhals made significant contributions to the practical development of electrospinning [83]. He filed a series of patents in the 1930s and 1940s, describing machines and methods for producing polymer fibers using electrostatic forces. His designs focused on producing textile fibers from cellulose acetate, marking one of the earliest commercial applications of the electrospinning process [84]. Research into electrospinning was reignited in the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century when scientists began investigating its potential for producing ultrafine fibers (now called nanofibers). Different polymers have been explored for electrospinning, and the understanding of electrospinning parameters, including electric field strength and solvent properties, has been refined. The development of electrospinning theory progressed slowly over time. Taylor initially provided a critical theoretical explanation for jet formation during electrospinning [85]. By applying a mathematical model to describe the shape of a fluid droplet influenced by electrostatic forces, he derived the voltage balance equation for the Taylor cone and calculated that its stable angle is 49.3°, now known as the “Taylor cone”, which was experimentally verified later [86].

The growing interest in nanotechnology and the need for materials with high surface area-to-volume ratios led to a resurgence of research into electrospinning [87]. Electrospinning has been explored to produce nanofibers for various high-tech applications, such as filtration, drug delivery, and tissue engineering [88, 89]. Reneker and Chun published a pivotal paper in 1995 that sparked renewed interest in electrospinning [90]. They demonstrated how electrospinning could create polymer nanofibers with diameters as small as a few nanometers, highlighting the potential applications in materials science and medicine. Throughout the 2000s, electrospinning gained significant interest from both the scientific community and industry [91, 92]. As one of the fast-moving fields, researchers developed more sophisticated electrospinning techniques, including co-axial, tri-axial, centrifugal, corona, bubble, rotary metals (cylinder, disk, and ball), high-speed, and three-dimensional (3D) electrospinning to produce composite nanofibers with specific properties [93]. In recent years, the number of publications on electrospinning has increased year by year and has gained broad interest in the field of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR.

## 2.2 Principle for electrospinning

The fundamental principle of electrospinning involves utilizing electrostatic forces to stretch and extrude a polymer solution or melt into ultrafine fibers (Fig. 2(a)). The process begins with dissolving a polymer in an appropriate solvent or melting it. The resulting solution or melt must possess specific viscosity, surface tension, and conductivity for stable fiber formation during electrospinning. Initially, a pendant droplet forms on the spinneret due to the liquid's surface tension. A high-voltage power supply is then activated to create an electric field between the polymer solution in a syringe and a grounded collector, typically ranging from 5 to 30 kV, depending on the materials and configuration used. As the voltage increases, the electrostatic forces surpass the surface tension at the syringe tip, forming a cone-shaped structure

known as a “Taylor cone”. When the electric field exceeds a critical threshold, a fine jet of polymer solution is emitted from the tip of the Taylor cone (Fig. 2(b)). The critical voltage  $V_c$  for electrospinning is described by the following expression derived from Taylor's calculation [93]

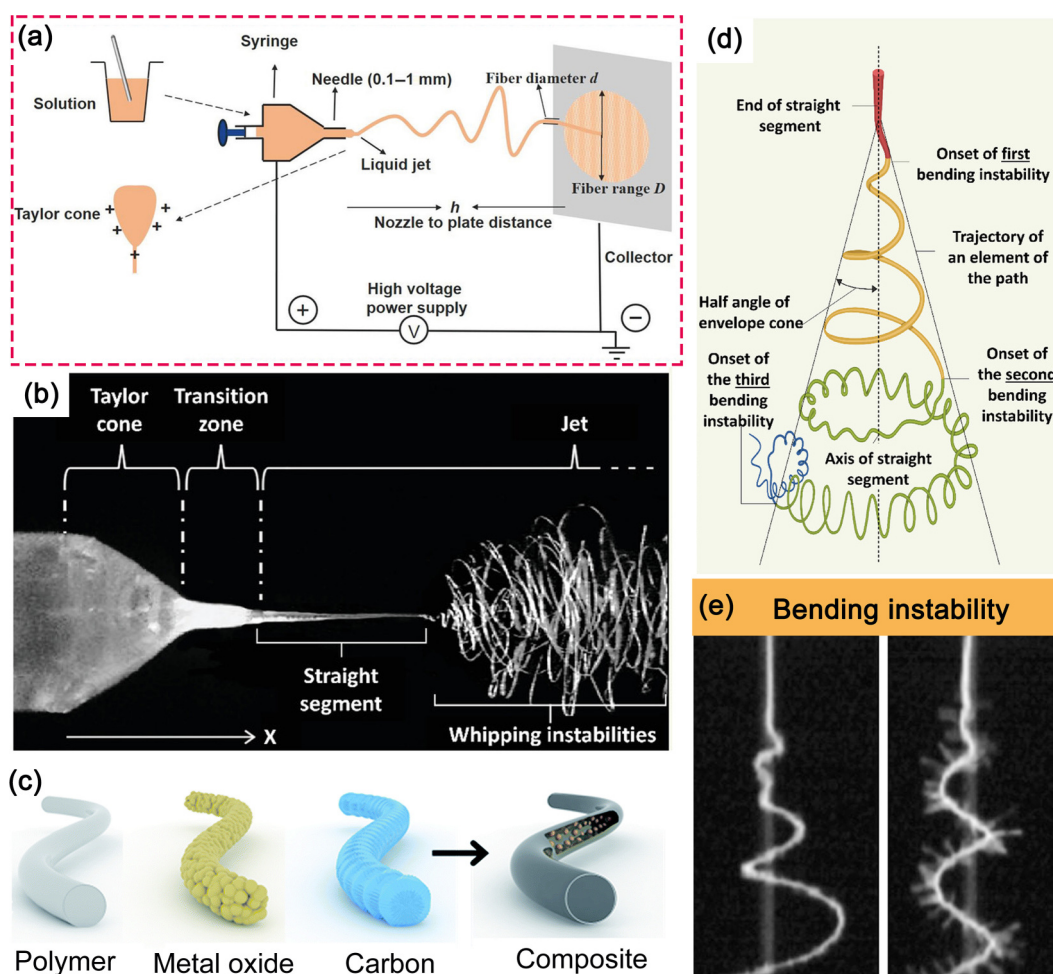
$$V_c = (4H^2/h^2) [\ln(2h/R) - 1.5] (1.3\pi R\gamma) \times 0.09 \quad (1)$$

Here,  $H$ ,  $h$ ,  $R$ , and  $\gamma$  denote the distance from the spinneret tip to the collector, the length of the liquid column, the inner radius of the spinneret, and the surface tension of the spinning solution, respectively. A factor of 0.09 is incorporated to estimate the voltage. As the jet moves toward the collector, it experiences stretching and thinning due to electrostatic repulsion. Concurrently, the solvent evaporates or the melt cools, leading to the formation of solidified fibers. These fibers are then deposited onto the grounded collector, forming either a non-woven mesh or aligned fibers, depending on the specific setup. Electrospinning is a straightforward and highly versatile technique, with a key advantage being its ability to produce one-dimensional (1D) nanostructured materials, including polymer nanofibers, metal oxide nanofibers, CNFs and their composites (Fig. 2(c)).

The transition from jet to fiber formation is highly complex. Although the actual spinning process occurs within a few milliseconds, extensive studies have shown that the jet's path is intricate, including significant bending, whipping, and stretching motions that ultimately lead to the formation of the final fiber. Yarin et al. [94, 95] observed the jet path with a high-speed camera and analyzed the bending instability during flight. Through a combination of experimental and modeling studies, they discovered that the typical trajectory of the jet involves an initial straight segment followed by a series of coils with progressively larger diameters (Fig. 2(d)). The formation of a spiraling coil with an expanding diameter is caused by bending instability, which results from the repulsive forces between charged segments of the jet. Furthermore, additional bending instabilities may emerge on the existing curved coil, forming smaller spirals that wrap around the path of the primary coil (Fig. 2(e)). This phenomenon persists in a repetitive coil pattern until the solvent evaporates, at which the solidified polymer prevents any further elongation. Zhang et al. categorized this process into five key stages: (i) the formation of a Taylor cone under the influence of an electrostatic field; (ii) the attainment of a critical voltage leading to the ejection of the jet; (iii) the stable straight-line extension of the charged jet; (iv) the onset of whipping instability, which thins the jet in the electric field; and (v) the evaporation of the solvent, resulting in solid fiber formation and subsequent collection [96]. Moreover, the electrospinning process is influenced by various factors, including solution parameters, process conditions, and environmental variables, which significantly impact the quality of the resulting fibers. A comprehensive discussion of these factors will be provided in the subsequent sections.

Electrospun nanofibers produced from electrospinning exhibit a wide range of unique properties that are absent in their bulk counterparts [83]. These properties result from their high specific surface area, large surface-to-volume ratio, and significant fiber length-to-diameter aspect ratio. Consequently, electrospun nanofibers display enhanced reaction rates per unit mass due to unique quantum effects, high electrical conductivity, and favorable redox potentials [97]. Furthermore, these attributes facilitate the formation of highly porous structures with adjustable pore sizes and





**Figure 2** (a) Basic illustration of the electrospinning setup. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [99], © WILEY-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, Weinheim 2020. (b) High-speed photograph outlining the Taylor cone formation, the linear segment of the polymer jet, and the whipping jet region. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [83], © Keirouz, A. et al. 2023. (c) Diverse electrospun nanofibers are obtained by controlling various parameters such as precursor, calcination atmosphere, and the type of nozzle. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [100], © The Royal Society of Chemistry 2016. (d) The prototypical instantaneous position of the jet path succeeding through the three sequential bending instabilities. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [83], © Keirouz, A. et al. 2023. (e) Branches on the electrical bending coils of a jet of polycaprolactone dissolved in acetone. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [95], © Elsevier Ltd. 2008.

large surface area, enabling efficient chemical functionalization [98]. As a result of these advantages, electrospun nanofibers are extensively utilized in the design and synthesis of highly efficient electrocatalysts for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ .

### 3 Factors influencing the nanofiber formation

The formation of nanofibers by electrospinning is influenced by several critical factors, which can be categorized into solution parameters, processing parameters, and environmental conditions. Understanding and optimizing these factors are essential for achieving desired nanofiber properties, including diameter, uniformity, and mechanical strength. Adjustments to each parameter can lead to significant changes in fiber morphology and functionality, making it critical for researchers to fine-tune the electrospinning process for specific applications.

#### 3.1 Environment parameters

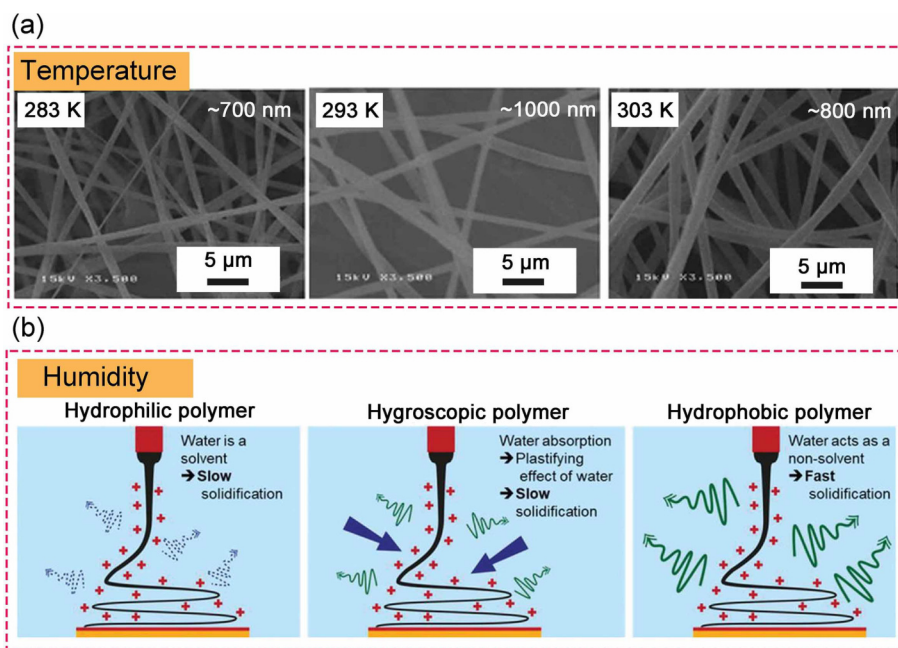
##### 3.1.1 Temperature

The temperature affects the diameter of nanofibers through two

opposing mechanisms: (i) It increases solvent evaporation, and (ii) it decreases solution viscosity. As the temperature rises, the viscosity of the polymer solution generally decreases, enhancing the solution's flow ability and facilitating the formation of continuous jets. However, if the viscosity drops too much, the polymer jet may become unstable, forming droplets or beaded fibers. Additionally, higher temperatures speed up solvent evaporation during electrospinning, leading to faster fiber solidification. Nevertheless, excessively rapid evaporation may cause defects, such as incomplete fiber formation or irregular diameters. In general, higher temperatures tend to produce fibers with smaller diameters, as observed by Vrieze et al. in their study using cellulose acetate (CA) and poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (PVP) for electrospinning (Fig. 3(a)) [101].

##### 3.1.2 Humidity

Humidity affects nanofibers' diameter by influencing the solidification process of the charged jet. However, this effect depends on the chemical properties of the polymer (Fig. 3(b)) [102]. When water or hydrophilic solvents, such as ethanol, are involved, increased humidity has been shown to delay solvent



**Figure 3** (a) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the PVP (10%) nanofibers at different temperatures (283, 293, and 303 K). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [101], © Springer Science+Business Media, LLC 2008. (b) Effects of humidity on the solidification rate of the electrospinning jet as a function of the polymer hydrophilicity. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [103], © Wiley-VCH GmbH 2021.

evaporation, thereby postponing the solidification of fibers and reducing the diameter of nanofibers [103]. S. De Vrieze et al. [101] reported that the average diameter of polyvinylpyrrolidone nanofibers decreased from approximately 900 to 600 nm as humidity increased from 20% to 45%. This finding aligns with the observations of Tripatanasuwan et al., who noted a similar reduction in the average diameter of poly(ethylene oxide) (PEO) nanofibers with increasing humidity [104]. Unlike Tripatanasuwan et al., S. De Vrieze et al. did not use water as the solvent. The evaporation rate of ethanol remains constant across different relative humidity levels at the same temperature. Nevertheless, the absorption of surrounding moisture impacts the solidification rate of the nanofibers, allowing for extended jet elongation, which leads to thinner nanofibers. In hydrophobic polymer systems, water absorption in the jet induces early solidification through precipitation, leading to thicker nanofibers at higher humidity. Sung et al. [105] reported that the diameter of polystyrene nanofibers (hydrophobic) increased gradually from 130 to 380 nm as the relative humidity rose from 10% to 70%.

## 3.2 Solution parameters

### 3.2.1 Concentration

Variations in the concentration of the polymer solution affect the uniaxial stretching of the charged jet during the electrospinning process. For instance, at low concentrations of the polymer solution, the applied electric field and surface tension can cause entangled polymer chains to fragment before reaching the collector, resulting in the formation of beads or beaded nanofibers. As the concentration increases, the viscosity rises, enhancing the chain entanglement and enabling the polymer chains to overcome the surface tension, which leads to the production of uniform and bead-free electrospun nanofibers. However, if the concentration exceeds a critical threshold, it can obstruct the flow of the solution through

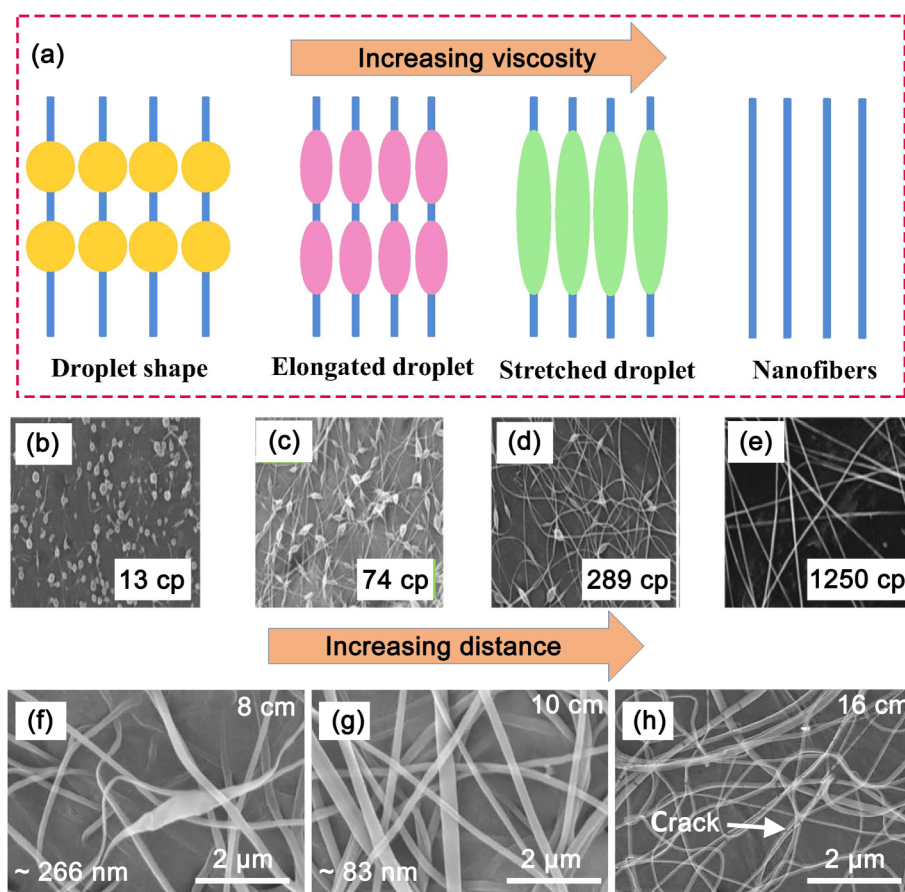
the needle tip. This blockage may cause the polymer solution to dry at the tip of the metallic needle, resulting in defective or beaded nanofibers. The morphologies of the beads exhibit a notable transition from a rounded droplet-like shape (in low-viscosity solutions) to an elongated droplet or ellipse, and ultimately to smooth fibers as viscosity increases [106].

### 3.2.2 Conductivity

The conductivity of the polymer solution affects the stretching and formation of nanofibers. Higher conductivity increases the charge density within the solution, enhancing electrostatic forces that stretch the charged jet, leading to improved fiber quality, such as fewer beads and thinner fiber diameters [107]. However, if the conductivity is too low, the electrostatic forces may be insufficient to overcome surface tension and viscoelastic resistance, preventing the continuous stretching of the liquid jet [108]. Using highly conductive solvents (e.g., acetone, chloroform, and ethyl acetate) or adding salts or electrolytes has enhanced the uniformity of electrospun fibers by minimizing bead formation and reducing fiber diameter [107].

### 3.2.3 Viscosity

The viscosity of the polymer solution is influenced by the polymer's molecular weight and concentration, which can affect the behavior of the electrospinning jet and the resulting fiber morphology. In a low-viscosity solution, the reduced entanglement between polymer chains limits jet stretching, leading to the fragmentation of the charged droplets into numerous tiny mists. As the viscosity increases, these mist particles begin to merge, causing the bead shapes in the fibers to shift from spherical to spindle-like, ultimately resulting in the formation of smooth fibers (Figs. 4(a)–4(e)) [99]. At an even higher viscosity, the charged jet cannot achieve sufficient stretching and refinement, producing larger fiber diameters with a broader diameter distribution.



**Figure 4** (a) Schematic variation and (b)–(e) SEM images of the morphology of electrospun PEO nanofibers with viscosity. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [102], © Production and hosting by Elsevier B.V. on behalf of King Saud University 2015. SEM images of 10 wt.% PVA nanofibers at working distance of (f) 8, (g) 10, and (h) 16 cm. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [110], © WILEY-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, Weinheim 2010.

### 3.2.4 Molecular weight

In general, a higher molecular weight polymer dissolved in a solvent will exhibit higher viscosity compared to the same polymer with a lower molecular weight. This occurs because the increased entanglement of polymer chains in the solution is essential for sustaining a continuous jet during electrospinning. These chain entanglements are crucial to stabilizing the jet, preventing droplet formation, and influencing the morphology of the resulting nanofibers, whether they form as beads or smooth fibers [109]. For successful electrospinning, the solution must contain a polymer with sufficient molecular weight and adequate viscosity to facilitate fiber formation.

## 3.3 Electrospinning parameters

### 3.3.1 Tip-to-collector distance

The tip-to-collector distance plays a significant role in influencing the jet path and the time the polymer jet spends traveling before it reaches the collector. As the polymer jet moves through the electric field, it is stretched by electrostatic forces, during which the solvent evaporates, allowing the jet to solidify and maintain its morphology. It has been reported that increasing the distance between the tip and the collector can reduce fiber diameter due to the greater stretching distance available [109]. However, if the applied voltage remains constant, the electric field strength decreases as the tip-to-collector distance increases, eventually leading to thicker fibers due

to the weaker field. Guo et al. evaluated the effect of tip-to-collector distance on the morphology of electrospun polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) nanofibers under constant voltage [110]. They found that increasing the distance from 8 to 10 cm resulted in thinner fibers (from 266 to 93 nm). However, further increasing the distance to 16 cm led to decreased fiber uniformity and cracks in the fibers, as the electrostatic force became insufficient to counter the mechanical stress of stretching (Figs. 4(f)–4(h)).

### 3.3.2 Applied voltage

The applied voltage affects both the charge density of the solution and the strength of the electric field between the needle and the collector. An increase in voltage accelerates the electrospinning jet, drawing a larger volume of solution from the needle tip. If the solution feed rate remains constant, this can lead to a smaller and less stable Taylor cone [89]. Without considering the feed rate, higher voltage generally enhances the stretching of the solution, resulting in thinner fibers [111]. However, surpassing a certain voltage threshold can destabilize the process, leading to the formation of more beads on the fibers [112].

## 4 ECO<sub>2</sub>RR fundamentals

ECO<sub>2</sub>RR typically occurs in an electrochemical cell where CO<sub>2</sub> is reduced at the cathode while water or hydrogen is oxidized at the anode. The first prototype for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction dates back to 1887 when CO<sub>2</sub> was electrochemically converted to formic acid using a



mercury electrode as the cathode in an aqueous electrolyte [113]. In a breakthrough discovery in 1986, Hori and colleagues demonstrated that metallic copper could catalyze the conversion of  $\text{CO}_2$  into hydrocarbons such as  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$  [114]. Since then, copper and its derived catalysts have become the most extensively studied materials for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ , as copper remains the only material capable of achieving high yields of hydrocarbon products. With the rapid development of material synthesis methods and nanotechnology, significant progress has been achieved in catalysts for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ , including metal catalysts, non-metal catalysts, and metal-oxide and hybrid catalysts.

The  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  mechanism involves several key steps: (i)  $\text{CO}_2$  is adsorbed onto the surface of the catalyst, leading to the formation of  $^*\text{CO}_2$  (\* represents the active site) at the surface of the catalysts. This step poses significant thermodynamic challenges due to the strong bonding energies associated with the carbon-oxygen double bond [115]. (ii)  $\text{CO}_2$  undergoes multiple proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) processes to form intermediates such as  $^*\text{COOH}$ ,  $^*\text{OCHO}$ , or  $^*\text{CO}$ . (iii) Depending on the pathway, the reaction intermediates are further reduced to produce  $\text{C}_1$  ( $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ , etc.) to  $\text{C}_{2+}$  products (including multi-carbon hydrocarbons and oxygenates, etc.) (Fig. 5). Within the context of the  $\text{C}_1$  pathway,  $\text{HCOOH}$  is one of the primary liquid products generated through a two-electron reduction process. Typically,  $^*\text{CO}_2^-$  binds to the catalyst surface through two oxygen atoms, forming the  $^*\text{OCHO}$  intermediate, from which  $\text{HCOOH}$  is preferentially produced via a proton-coupled electron transfer step. The formation of  $^*\text{CO}$  is crucial for generating  $\text{C}_2$  product, and the reaction pathways involving  $^*\text{CO}$  intermediates, whether through multiple CPET or

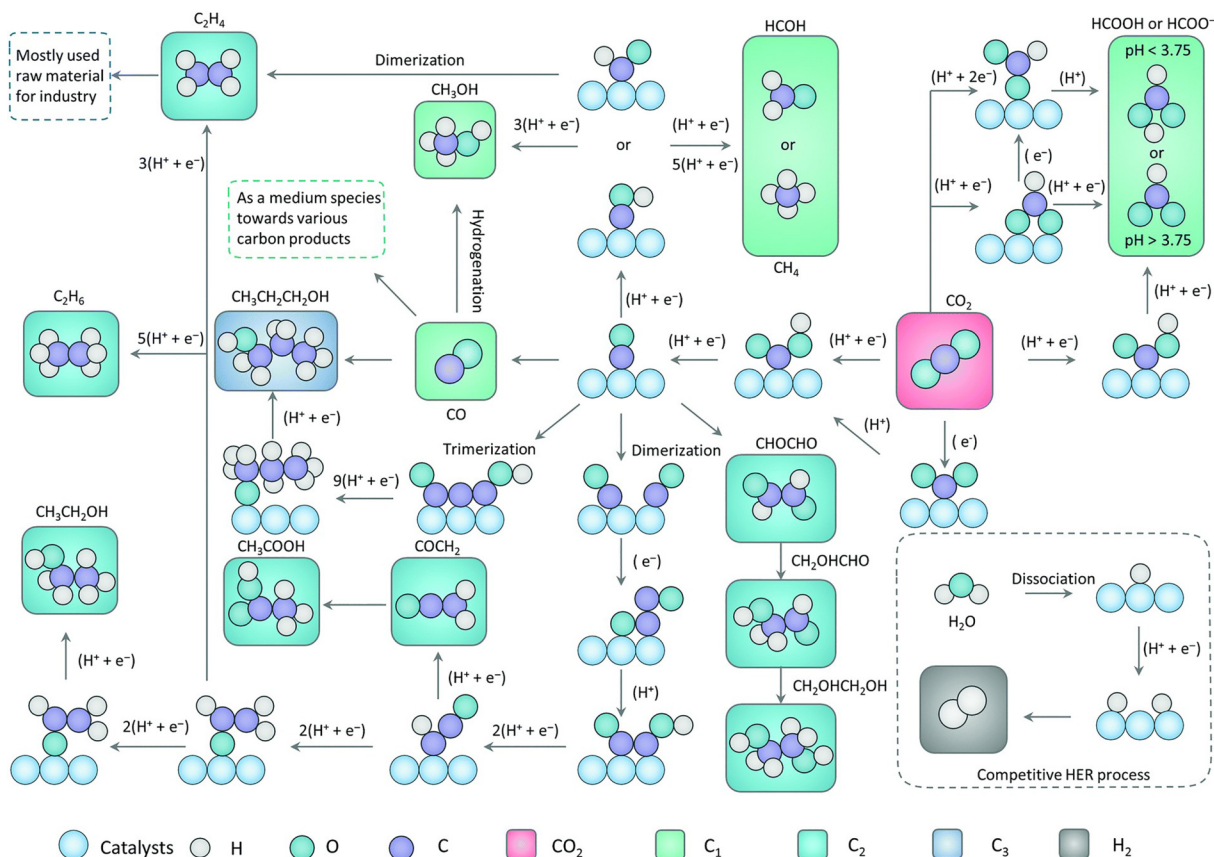
other steps, determine the final  $\text{C}_2$  products. Cu-based materials have been identified as the most efficient catalysts, demonstrating significant selectivity and Faradaic efficiency for  $\text{C}_2$  products. On the Cu (100) surface,  $^*\text{CO}$  dimerization occurs before protonation at low overpotential and serves as the rate-determining step for the formation of  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ , and  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$  [116].

The pH and applied potential are critical factors that directly impact the reactivity and selectivity of the  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ , resulting in various reduction products [117]. Side reactions such as the HER can become significant at both low and high potentials. This is because the thermodynamic requirements for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction are similar to those for HER. In practice,  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  demands a higher energy input than the theoretical minimum. This discrepancy allows HER to proceed more easily, thereby reducing the overall energy efficiency of the electroreduction system. Furthermore, the  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction process involves multiple intermediates that can strongly influence the reaction pathways and final products [118]. The selectivity of  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  is predominantly determined by the binding affinities of key intermediates (e.g.,  $^*\text{COOH}$ ,  $^*\text{OCHO}$ , and  $^*\text{CO}$ ) on the surface of the electrocatalyst.

## 5 Electrospun nanofibers as the $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ catalysts

### 5.1 Carbon nanofibers

CNFs have received extensive attention in  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  due to their unique properties such as good electrical conductivity, large specific surface area, and adjustable structure. However, traditional CNFs



**Figure 5** Possible roadmaps of  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  towards various value-added products. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [17], © The Royal Society of Chemistry 2022.

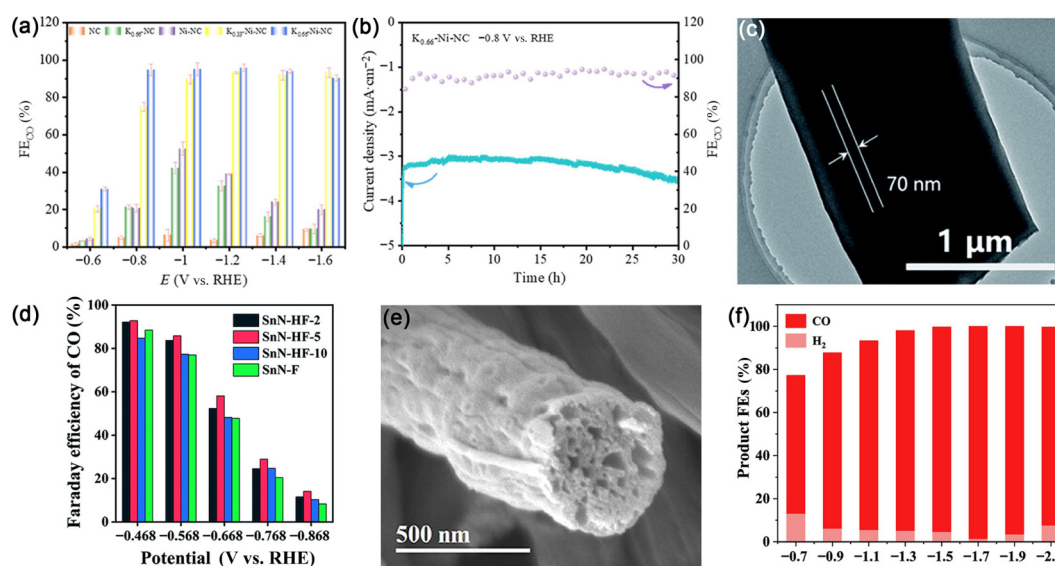
still have certain limitations in catalytic performance. Therefore, how to improve the catalytic performance of CNFs for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR by regulating their structure has become a research hotspot.

In some studies, pore structure is regulated by introducing pore-forming agents during the preparation process of carbon materials. Chuai et al. prepared a carbon film electrode embedded with Ni single-atom (SA)-modified nitrogen-doped carbon nanofiber (Ni-N<sub>x</sub>-C) through electrospinning and pyrolysis methods [119]. During the preparation process, potassium chloride is selected as a pore-forming agent to adjust the porous structure of the carbon film. At the same time, electrochemical tests were conducted in an H-cell to evaluate the performance of the Ni-N<sub>x</sub>-C catalyst. It was found that the optimized porous carbon film electrode (K<sub>0.66</sub>Ni-NC) has a CO Faradaic efficiency (FE<sub>CO</sub>) exceeding 90% within a wide potential range of −0.8–1.6 V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) (Fig. 6(a)). Moreover, in a 30 h durability test, it can still maintain more than 90% FE<sub>CO</sub> at −0.8 V vs. RHE (Fig. 6(b)). This indicates that the porous structure facilitates the mass transfer of CO<sub>2</sub> and increases the exposure degree of active sites during the ECO<sub>2</sub>RR process. A simple and scalable method was developed to prepare self-supporting carbon film electrodes, avoiding the stability problems caused by using polymer binders in traditional powder catalysts. By adjusting the porous structure of the carbon film, the ECO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of the electrode is significantly improved. However, further in-depth research is still needed for the reaction mechanism of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR, especially in terms of how the porous structure specifically affects electron transfer and intermediate adsorption during the reaction process.

Another method to regulate pore structure is to adjust the size of through-holes in carbon nanofibers by controlling the pre-oxidation process. For example, by adjusting the pre-oxidation heating rate, different multi-channel hollow structures with abundant mesopores can be formed inside the carbon nanofiber [120]. Taking SnN-HF-5 as an example, it has a uniform diameter and a clear multi-channel structure, with an internal channel diameter of about 70 nm (Fig. 6(c)). This unique structure enhances the adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub>, significantly contributing to the

current density for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction in the potential range of 0.4–0.8 V vs. RHE, and having a high FE<sub>CO</sub> at 0.47 V vs. RHE (Fig. 6(d)). This is because the appropriate through-hole size and multi-channel structure are beneficial for the diffusion and adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> inside the carbon nanofiber, providing more contact opportunities for the reaction and thereby improving the catalytic performance. At the same time, element doping is another effective method to regulate the structure of carbon materials. The doping of Sn and N changes the electronic structure of carbon materials, which is beneficial for the adsorption and activation of CO<sub>2</sub> and then affects the reaction path of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR. SnN-HFs with abundant mesopores and controllable multi-channel hollow structures are prepared by electrospinning technology. Elemental doping to modulate the carbon structure plays a crucial role in enhancing catalytic performance, enabling carbon nanofibers to achieve high FE<sub>CO</sub> and increased current density at specific potentials. This is because doping changes the electron cloud distribution of carbon materials, enhancing its adsorption capacity for CO<sub>2</sub> molecules. At the same time, it may also affect the stability of reaction intermediates and promote the reaction to generate target products. The research mainly focuses on the Sn-N co-doped system and the effects of doping with other elements or different doping combinations on the performance of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR have not been involved. The accuracy and universality of the established reaction mechanism model may need further verification and improvement.

Combining active site modification with structure regulation is an effective strategy to further improve catalytic performance. The role of single-atom active sites and how to better expose and utilize these sites can be further explored. Wang et al. used electrospinning technology and took polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) as a pore-forming agent to prepare a self-supporting porous carbon nanofiber electrode modified with atomically dispersed nickel active sites (Ni-PCNF) (Fig. 6(e)) [121]. As a gas diffusion electrode, Ni-PCNF achieved a FE<sub>CO</sub> of 98.6% in an H-cell (Fig. 6(f)). In addition to modifying active sites, optimizing pore distribution is also essential. Using PMMA to adjust pore distribution and form a vertically aligned porous structure is beneficial for the adsorption and mass



**Figure 6** (a) Faradaic efficiencies of the CO. (b) Durability tests of the K<sub>0.66</sub>Ni-NC for 30 h at −1.0 V vs. RHE in the H-cell (0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub>). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [119], © American Chemical Society 2024. (c) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of the SnN-HF-5. (d) Faradaic efficiency of CO formation for Sn/N-CNFs at −0.468–−0.868 V (vs. RHE). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [120], © The Royal Society of Chemistry 2021. (e) SEM image of the Ni-PCNF-0.5PMMA. (f) FEs of all products of Ni-PCNF-0.5PMMA in the H-cell. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [121], © American Chemical Society 2022.



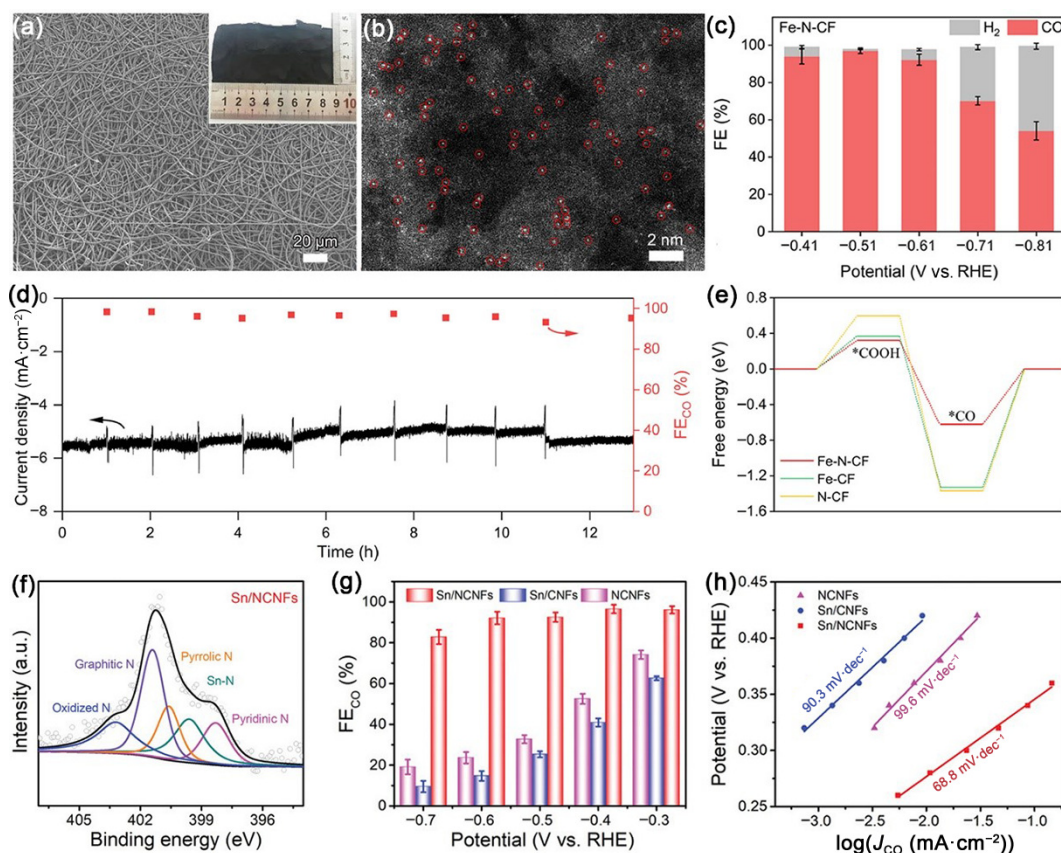
transfer of  $\text{CO}_2$ . The single nickel catalyst effectively converts  $\text{CO}_2$  into CO. By adjusting the content of PMMA, the pore structure of the electrode can be effectively controlled, thereby optimizing its  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  performance. Although certain tests have been conducted for the stability of the electrode during long-term operation, further in-depth research is still needed on factors that may affect stability, such as the structural evolution of carbon nanofibers and the long-term activity of nickel atoms.

Single-atom catalysts (SACs) have attracted significant interest in the field of  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  due to their high activity and selectivity. Supported on CNFs, SACs offer multiple advantages. By altering the central metal atom, the adjacent coordinating elements, and the coordination number, the electronic structure and catalytic performance of the CNFs can be effectively modulated [122, 123]. In a recent study, researchers reported on the fabrication of polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) nanofiber membranes enriched with  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  ions using the electrospinning technique (Fig. 7(a)) [124]. These membranes were further processed through defluorination crosslinking to create a robust scaffold structure. The study revealed that  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  ions within the nitrogen-doped porous carbon fiber membrane catalyst (Fe-N-CF) were present as SAs, establishing a stable  $\text{Fe-N}_4\text{-C}$  coordination environment (Fig. 7(b)). This configuration played a crucial role in enhancing the catalytic performance of the material. When evaluated in a 0.5 M  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  at  $-0.51$  V vs. RHE, the Fe-N-CF catalyst demonstrated an impressive  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of 97%, showcasing its high selectivity towards the reduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  to CO (Fig. 7(c)). The Fe-N-CF catalyst also

exhibited excellent durability for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  (13 h) (Fig. 7(d)). Furthermore, density functional theory (DFT) calculations demonstrated that the Fe-N-CF catalyst substantially lowered the energy barriers associated with the formation of the intermediate  $^*\text{COOH}$  and the subsequent desorption of CO (Fig. 7(e)). In another study, the use of zeolitic imidazolate framework-8 (ZIF-8) as a template for assisted pyrolysis led to the successful synthesis of tin-nitrogen doped porous carbon nanofibers (Sn/NCNFs) [125]. The Sn/NCNFs catalyst, benefiting from the porous fibrous morphology and a large number of exposed Sn-N active sites (Fig. 7(f)), demonstrated a  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  as high as 96.5% and a low Tafel slope of  $68.8 \text{ mV}\cdot\text{dec}^{-1}$  (Figs. 7(g) and 7(h)).

## 5.2 Composite nanofibers (carbon nanofibers with metal species) as the $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ catalyst

The  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  presents a complex challenge due to the ability to produce a diverse array of  $\text{C}_1$  products, each following distinct reaction pathways. This diversity complicates the precise manipulation and enhancement of the reaction process. A choice of metal species is a pivotal factor in directing the conversion of  $\text{CO}_2$  towards specific  $\text{C}_1$  products (such as  $\text{HCOOH}$ , CO, and  $\text{CH}_4$ ). Leveraging electrospinning techniques, the incorporation of metal salts into the spinning solution facilitates the creation of CNFs catalysts, which are intricately embedded with metal nanoparticles or isolated metal atoms [126–128]. These metal species serve as active sites, effectively lowering the activation energy necessary for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction and augmenting the reaction rate. Significantly, this



**Figure 7** (a) and (b) SEM image images of Fe-N-CF. (c) Faradaic efficiency of CO product in  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  on Fe-N-CF at various cathode potentials. (d) Stability test of Fe-N-CF at  $-0.51$  V vs. RHE. (e) Free energy for CO on Fe-N-CF. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [124], © Elsevier B.V. 2024. (f) High-resolution N 1s X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectrum of the Sn/NCNFs. (g)  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of Sn/NCNFs at different potentials in a flow cell. (h) Tafel slopes of Sn/NCNFs. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [125], © Wiley-VCH GmbH 2022.

approach allows for an extensive range of metal species to be integrated, both in terms of type and quantity, which greatly amplifies the selectivity for the production of the desired  $C_1$  products [129, 130].

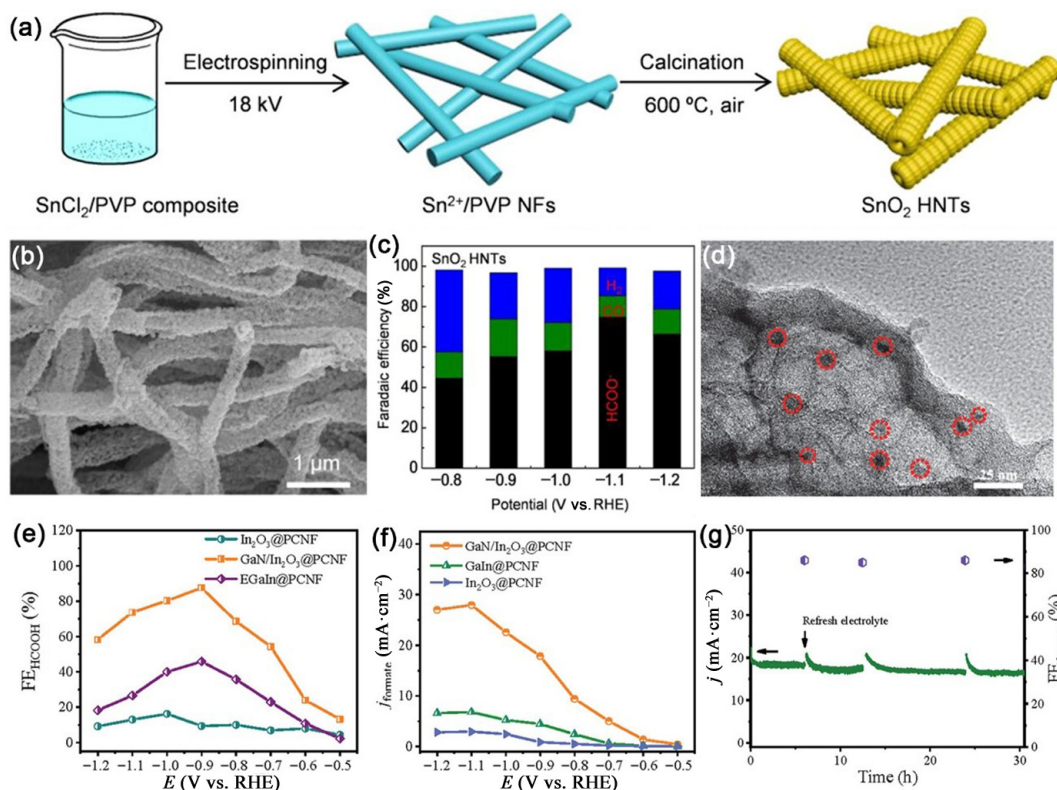
### 5.2.1 HCOOH

HCOOH, a prominent  $C_1$  compound, has become a focal point in chemical safety due to its potential for hydrogen storage applications [131–133]. The latest research reveals that the efficiency of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR can be significantly amplified by the strategic design of catalysts, with particular emphasis on tin (Sn), bismuth (Bi), and indium (In)-based nanomaterials.

Sn-based catalysts are extensively utilized in the study of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR for formate production. Notably, the oxidation state of tin exhibits excellent selectivity for formate. Zhang et al. employed electrospinning to fabricate a tin dioxide hollow nanotube (SnO<sub>2</sub> HNT) with a sophisticated three-dimensional cross-linked network (Figs. 8(a) and 8(b)) [134]. This nanostructure substantially boosts the catalyst's specific surface area and significantly increases the density of active sites. Such features greatly enhance the mass transfer dynamics and modify the electronic structure, which are crucial for catalytic activity. Remarkably, the SnO<sub>2</sub> HNTs demonstrated a FE of 87.4% for producing of  $C_1$  products at an electrode potential of  $-1.1$  V vs. RHE. Furthermore, at this potential, the SnO<sub>2</sub> HNTs achieved an impressive  $FE_{HCOOH}$  of 75.0%, a figure markedly superior to that of conventional SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (Fig. 8(c)). This research underscores the potential of meticulously tailoring the electronic and geometric attributes of metal oxides to significantly uplift the efficiency of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR.

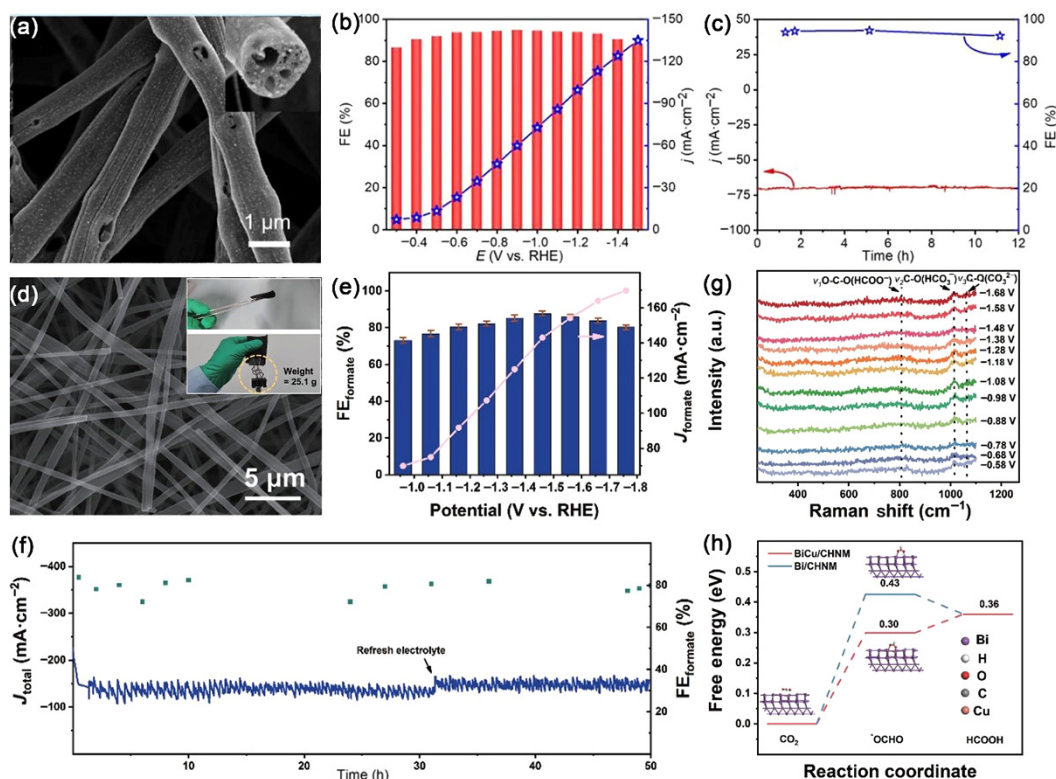
In-based compounds, such as In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, exhibit exceptional selectivity for formate production in the ECO<sub>2</sub>RR. By reducing the energy barrier for the formation of the key intermediate HCOO<sup>−</sup>, they effectively facilitate the generation of formate. For instance, a heterostructure of GaN and In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> encapsulated porous carbon nanofibers was constructed via electrospinning and the phase transition of eutectic gallium-indium during calcination, denoted as GaN/In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>@PCNF (Fig. 8(d)) [135]. The GaN/In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>@PCNF heterostructure catalyst exhibited a maximum  $FE_{HCOOH}$  of 87% (Fig. 8(e)) in a 0.5 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> solution, with a maximum partial current density of 29.7 mA·cm<sup>−2</sup> (Fig. 8(f)), and demonstrated prolonged durability (Fig. 8(g)). This remarkable activity is attributed to the rich defect structure and interactions between GaN and In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which may reduce electron transfer resistance and accelerate the electron transfer to CO<sub>2</sub> molecules.

Owing to their abundant reserves and environmental benignity, Bi-based catalysts are also commonly utilized in ECO<sub>2</sub>RR. These Bi-based catalysts exhibit excellent selectivity for formate production in the ECO<sub>2</sub>RR. The bismuth-loaded, nitrogen-doped, and porous carbon nanofibers (Bi@PCNF-500) catalyst was fabricated by electrospinning and subsequent thermal treatment (Fig. 9(a)) [136]. The presence of the nitrogen-doped porous carbon matrix modulates the surface charge density, promotes electron delocalization, and facilitates the formation of favorable intermediates, thereby enhancing catalytic performance. Results indicate that Bi@PCNF exhibits a  $FE_{HCOOH}$  of 94.9% (Fig. 9(b)) and maintains excellent catalytic stability over 12 h in a flow cell (Fig. 9(c)). The integration of metal catalysts with carbon supports



**Figure 8** (a) Schematic illustration of the synthetic procedure and structure of SnO<sub>2</sub> HNTs. (b) SEM image of SnO<sub>2</sub> HNTs. (c) SnO<sub>2</sub> HNTs in ECO<sub>2</sub>RR under different applied voltages. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [134], © American Chemical Society 2023. (d) High-magnification TEM image of the GaN/In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>@PCNF. (e) Faradaic efficiency of formate for GaN/In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>@PCNF at different applied potentials. (f) Partial current density of formate for GaN/In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>@PCNF at different potentials. (g) Durability test and FE of formate for GaN/In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>@PCNF. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [135], © Dalian Institute of Chemical Physics, the Chinese Academy of Sciences 2023.





**Figure 9** (a) High-magnification SEM image of the Bi@PCNF-500. (b) FE of formate and partial current density of the Bi@PCNF-500 catalyst in 1 M KOH. (c) Stability test of the Bi@PCNF-500 catalyst. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [136], © Youke Publishing Co., Ltd. 2024. (d) SEM image of the BiCu/CHNM. (e) Potential-dependent FE and partial current densities toward formate on BiCu/CHNM in the flow cell. (f) Durability test of the BiCu/CHNM in 1 M KOH electrolyte. (g) *In situ* Raman spectra of the BiCu/CHNM in CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated 0.5 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> at different applied potentials. (h) Free energy diagram of different pathways for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR to formate. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [137], © Science China Press 2024.

effectively leverages their respective advantages, achieving efficient ECO<sub>2</sub>RR.

Electrospun CNFs can be directly utilized as self-supported gas diffusion electrodes (GDEs) in flow battery configurations. Song et al. synthesized a self-supported BiCu/carbon hybrid nanofiber membrane (BiCu/CHNM) using an electrospinning-calcination approach and employed it directly as the working electrode in a flow cell (Fig. 9(d)) [137]. At a biased current density of 142.9 mA·cm<sup>-2</sup> for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, the Faradaic efficiency reached as high as 87.67% (Fig. 9(e)). During stability tests, the FE<sub>HCOOH</sub> of BiCu/CHNM electrodes remained above 80% at a local current density of > 100 mA·cm<sup>-2</sup>, sustaining for 50 h (Fig. 9(f)). The enhanced conductivity of carbon nanofiber networks lowers the reduction of energy barriers for HCOO<sup>-</sup> formation on Bi (012) planes due to copper doping, as confirmed by *in situ* Raman spectroscopy and density functional theory calculations (Figs. 9(g) and 9(h)).

### 5.2.2 CO

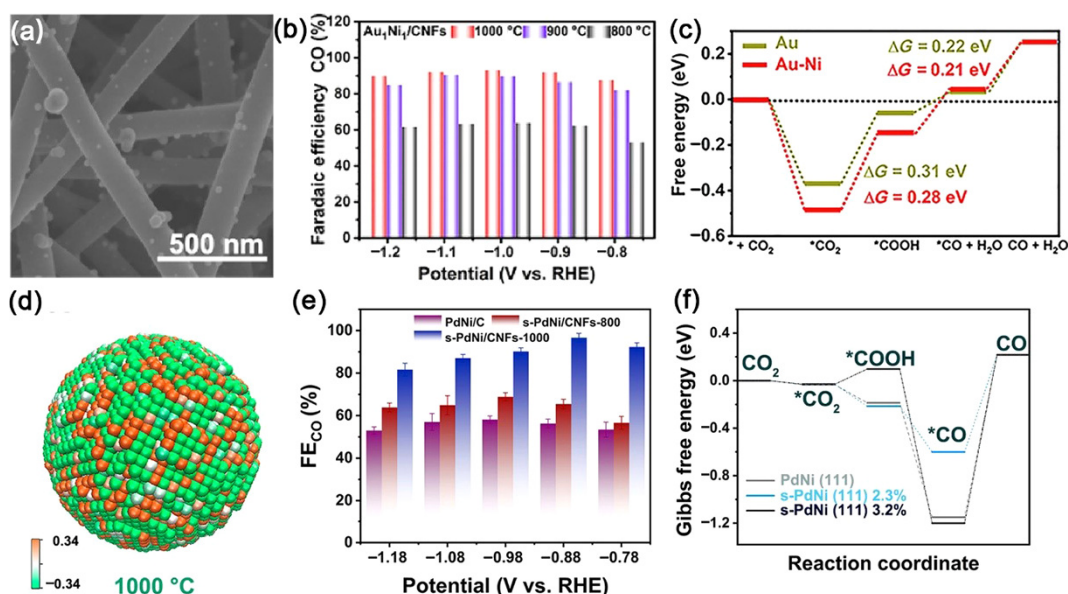
CO possesses a broad spectrum of application prospects, encompassing the chemical and metallurgical industries. Fischer-Tropsch (FT) chemistry can convert CO into long-chain hydrocarbons under certain conditions. These hydrocarbons serve as crucial feedstocks for the production of a multitude of chemical products and intermediates. Previous studies have shown that bimetallic and heterostructure catalysts are promising catalysts for CO production [138, 139].

Bimetallic catalysts offer an advantage in ECO<sub>2</sub>RR by fine-tuning

the electronic structure of each metal constituent, which in turn modulates the binding energy of reaction intermediates. This merit not only optimizes the interaction between the catalyst and key reaction species but also mitigates the competing HER. In 2021, Hao and his colleagues reported the concept of atomic-polymer hybridization [140]. Preparing homogeneous solid solution alloy nanoparticles of AuNi with positively charged Ni centers on CNFs through electrospinning and graphitization processes (Fig. 10(a)). The Au<sub>1</sub>Ni<sub>1</sub>/CNFs catalyst, graphitized at 1000 °C, exhibited a FE<sub>CO</sub> value of 92% at -0.98 V vs. RHE (Fig. 10(b)), which is significantly higher than pure Au and Ni nanoparticles. Subsequent DFT calculations indicated that the combination of Ni with Au increases the positive charge of the d-band center, reducing the free energy barrier for the activation of CO<sub>2</sub> into \*COOH and the desorption of \*CO (Fig. 10(c)). In 2022, Hao's group reported a strain relaxation strategy to determine the lattice strain of bimetallic alloys (Fig. 10(d)) [141]. CNFs-supported strained PdNi alloy nanoparticles were prepared using the electrospinning method. By thermally driven strain relaxation, the lattice strain of the metal alloy was controllable and optimized. Results showed that the strained PdNi alloys (s-PdNi) with a strain of 2.3% exhibited the best FE<sub>CO</sub> of 96.6% at -0.88 V vs. RHE (Fig. 10(e)). DFT calculations revealed that strain relaxation effectively improved the activity and selectivity of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR by optimizing the formation energies of \*COOH and \*CO intermediates on the s-PdNi alloy surface (Fig. 10(f)).

In the process of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR, PCET is a crucial step, and the slow kinetics of this process is a major challenge in improving catalytic efficiency. Heterostructure engineering is an effective strategy to





**Figure 10** (a) SEM image of the  $\text{Au}_1\text{Ni}_1/\text{CNFs}$ . (b)  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of the  $\text{Au}_1\text{Ni}_1/\text{CNFs}$  prepared at 800, 900, and 1000 °C. (c) DFT calculations of the free energy diagrams for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  pathways on  $\text{AuNi}$  (111) catalyst surface. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [140], © Elsevier B.V. 2020. (d) Surface strains of  $\text{s-PdNi}$  nanoparticles prepared at 1000 °C, calculated by molecular dynamics simulations. (e)  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of the  $\text{s-PdNi}$ . (f) Calculated free energy diagrams for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  to  $\text{CO}$  on  $\text{s-PdNi}$ . Reproduced with permission from Ref. [141], © American Chemical Society 2022.

facilitate charge conduction and optimize the PCET process. Wei et al. fabricated a  $\text{Ni}/\text{Ni}_3\text{ZnC}_{0.7}$  heterostructure catalyst supported on porous N-doped carbon nanofibers (PNFC) through electrospinning [142]. The nickel acetate, zinc acetate, and zinc oxide precursors were dispersed in polyacrylonitrile nanofibers and then annealed at 900 °C under an Ar atmosphere. During the pyrolysis process, the formation of PNFC occurred as the zinc-containing components evaporated. Concurrently, the  $\text{Ni}/\text{Ni}_3\text{ZnC}_{0.7}$  heterostructure nanoparticles formed and were homogeneously embedded within the carbon nanofibers. As a  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  electrocatalyst, the  $\text{Ni}/\text{Ni}_3\text{ZnC}_{0.7}$  in 0.5 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  exhibited a high  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of 91.5% at  $-0.8$  V and a partial current density of  $11 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , demonstrating excellent long-term stability over 45 h of continuous electrolysis. The authors attribute the superior performance of the  $\text{Ni}/\text{Ni}_3\text{ZnC}_{0.7}$  to the enhanced charge transfer process at the interface.

In the process of  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ , PCET is a crucial step, and the slow kinetics of this process is a major challenge in improving catalytic efficiency. Heterostructure engineering is an effective strategy to facilitate charge conduction and optimize the PCET process. Wei et al. fabricated a  $\text{Ni}/\text{Ni}_3\text{ZnC}_{0.7}$  heterostructure catalyst supported on PNFC through electrospinning [142]. The nickel acetate, zinc acetate, and zinc oxide precursors were dispersed in polyacrylonitrile nanofibers and then annealed at 900 °C under an Ar atmosphere. During the pyrolysis process, the formation of PNFC occurred as the zinc-containing components evaporated. Concurrently, the  $\text{Ni}/\text{Ni}_3\text{ZnC}_{0.7}$  heterostructure nanoparticles formed and were homogeneously embedded within the carbon nanofibers. As a  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  electrocatalyst, the  $\text{Ni}/\text{Ni}_3\text{ZnC}_{0.7}$  in 0.5 M  $\text{KHCO}_3$  exhibited a high  $\text{FE}_{\text{CO}}$  of 91.5% at  $-0.8$  V and a partial current density of  $11 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , demonstrating excellent long-term stability over 45 h of continuous electrolysis. The authors attribute the superior performance of the  $\text{Ni}/\text{Ni}_3\text{ZnC}_{0.7}$  to the enhanced charge transfer process at the interface.

### 5.2.3 Others ( $\text{CH}_4$ and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$ )

In the products generated through the  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$  is recognized as a pivotal feedstock for the synthesis of various chemical compounds, particularly aromatic hydrocarbons [143, 144]. Consequently, the development of  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ , which enables the selective transformation of  $\text{CO}_2$  into  $\text{CH}_4$ , is of significant importance in the fields of chemical engineering and sustainable energy practices [145]. A Ru-CNF catalyst was prepared via electrospinning techniques to reduce  $\text{CO}_2$  to  $\text{CH}_4$  in  $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}_2$  fuel cells [146]. The catalyst exhibited a  $\text{CH}_4$  production rate of  $308.46 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  at 170 °C. The authors attribute the enhanced  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  performance of the Ru-CNF to the uniform dispersion of Ru nanoparticles within the CNF matrix and the synergistic effect between Ru sites and nitrogen species, which results in an increased number of active sites for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction, thereby boosting the catalytic activity. A  $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  nanobamboo ( $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  NBs) perovskite catalyst with rich twin boundaries was prepared by Huang et al. [147]. When used as a catalyst for  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ ,  $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  NBs show a high FE toward  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$  of 60% at  $-1.0$  V vs. RHE. The total geometric current density of the  $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  NBs remains stable for up to 12 h during the stability test, and only subtle fluctuation was observed. This is mainly due to the strong adsorption affinity of  $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  NBs for CO intermediates, which improves the selectivity toward  $\text{C}_2$  products.

In conclusion, combining of CNFs with metallic species markedly enhances the reactivity of the  $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ . These catalysts leverage unique structural features to increase active site exposure and finely tune their electronic structure. Such fine-tuning improves the selectivity towards particular products.

### 5.3 Metal nanofibers as the $\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$ catalyst

$\text{ECO}_2\text{RR}$  can convert  $\text{CO}_2$  into molecules such as  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{HCOOH}$ , and  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$  using electricity generated from renewable energy sources, realizing recycling, and thereby reducing dependence on fossil fuels. Metal nanofibers have a high specific surface area, good

electrical conductivity, and unique electronic structure, providing potential advantages for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR. Early synthesis methods are relatively simple but have some limitations. For example, metal nanofibers prepared by some physical methods have uneven sizes. The electrospinning method produced nanofibers from a solution containing a metal precursor by applying a high-voltage electric field. This method allows precise control over the diameter and length of nanofibers, enabling the production of metal nanofibers with high specific surface area and excellent flexibility, and is suitable for large-scale fabrication.

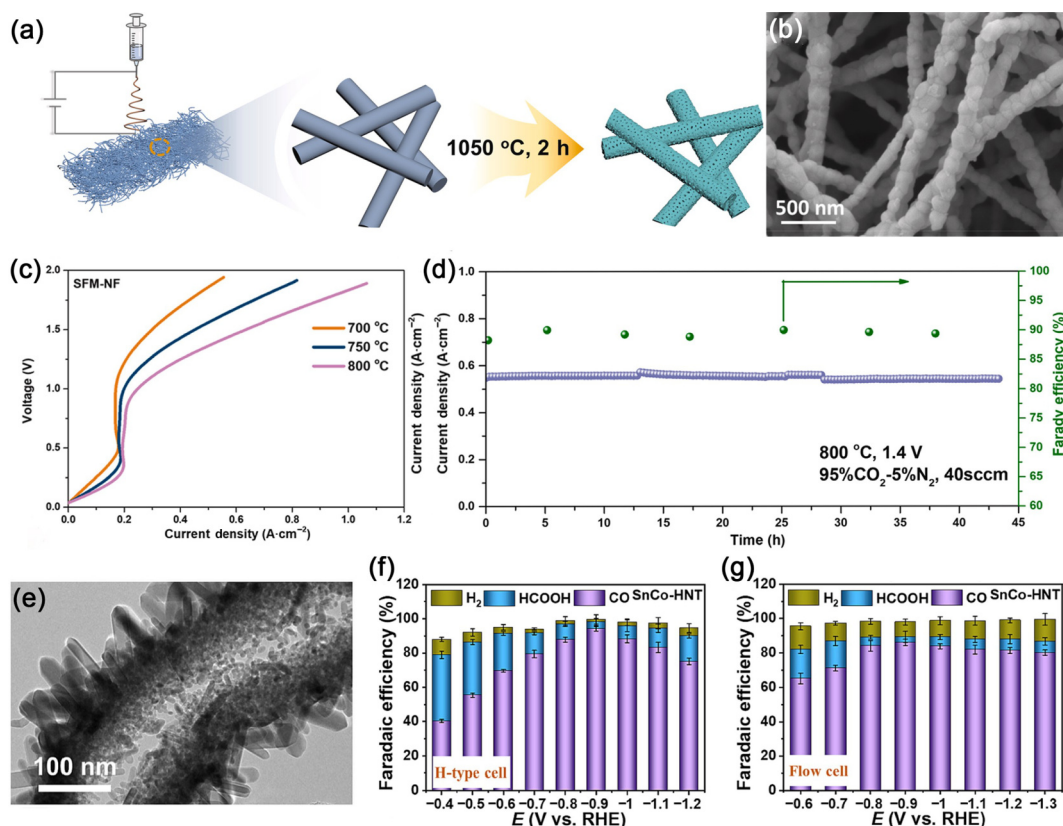
### 5.3.1 CO

Single metal oxides usually have a relatively simple structure and preparation method with low cost. They exhibit high stability and resist structural changes under reaction conditions [126]. Zhang et al. synthesized cobalt-free perovskite oxide Sr<sub>2</sub>Fe<sub>1-5</sub>Mo<sub>0.5</sub>O<sub>6-8</sub> nanofibers (SFM-NF) with unique double perovskite structure and reticular nanofiber morphology by electrospinning technology (Figs. 11(a) and 11(b)) [148]. The larger specific surface area and oxygen vacancies increase the adsorption sites of CO<sub>2</sub>, accelerate the adsorption, dissociation, and activation processes of CO<sub>2</sub>, and thereby increase the reaction rate. At 800 °C and 2.0 V, the current density of the SFM-NF single cell reaches 1.173 A·cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 11(c)). In the stability test, SFM-NF maintained no significant performance degradation for 45 h, and the FE<sub>CO</sub> exceeded 90% (Fig. 11(d)). However, the catalytic activity and selectivity of single metal oxides are often limited. They may require a higher overpotential (the additional voltage required to drive the reaction) to achieve

ECO<sub>2</sub>RR, and the selectivity for specific products is limited, which may lead to the generation of multiple by-products.

In bimetallic oxides, there is a synergistic effect between two different metal ions, which can significantly improve the catalytic performance of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR [149]. For example, the electronic structures of the two metal ions interact with each other, changing the adsorption and activation ability of the catalyst for CO<sub>2</sub>, thereby reducing the overpotential of the reaction. Moreover, the interaction between bimetals can also regulate the selectivity of the catalyst, making the reaction more inclined to generate specific products. Jiang et al. prepared tin-cobalt bimetallic oxide/carbon matrix composite material (SnCo-HNT) by electrospinning technology (Fig. 11(e)) [150]. In an H-type cell, the FE of SnCo-HNT for C<sub>1</sub> products reaches 98.1% at -0.9 V (vs. RHE), and it has the highest selectivity for CO (Fig. 11(f)). In a flow cell, it has a Faradaic efficiency of 91.2% for C<sub>1</sub> products at 241.3 mA·cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 11(g)).

Composite nanofibers have significant advantages in CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Their high specific surface area can provide a large number of active sites, enabling the catalyst to full contact with CO<sub>2</sub> and improving reaction efficiency and rate. Akromjon et al. prepared a new hybrid La<sub>0.6</sub>Sr<sub>0.4</sub>Co<sub>0.15</sub>Fe<sub>0.8</sub>Pd<sub>0.05</sub>O<sub>3-δ</sub> nanofiber electrode (H-LSCFP) [151]. At 700 °C, the LSCFP nanofibers underwent consecutive treatment in 100% H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>, forming a perovskite phase containing Co metal nanocatalysts and a high concentration of surface oxygen species. This unique structure enhances effective CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. The solid oxide electrolysis cells (SOECs) with the H-LSCFP electrode achieved an outstanding current density of



**Figure 11** (a) A scheme of the preparation of the electrospun SFM-NF. (b) SEM image of the SFM-NF. (c) *i*-*V* curves of the SFM-NF catalysts. (d) Long-term stability test of SFM-NF cathode at an applied voltage of 1.4 V. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [148], © Elsevier B.V. 2023. (e) TEM image of the SnCo-HNT. (f) The FEs of SnCo-HNT at cathode potential of -0.4—1.2 V<sub>RHE</sub> in an H-type cell. (g) The FEs of the SnCo-HNT at -0.6—1.3 V<sub>RHE</sub> in a flow cell. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [150], © Science Press and Dalian Institute of Chemical Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences 2023.

2.2 A·cm<sup>-2</sup> at 800 °C and 1.5 V. Zong et al. synthesized ZnO nanoparticle catalysts rich in oxygen vacancies through electrospinning technology to achieve efficient ECO<sub>2</sub>RR [152]. Results show that using Zn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub> precursor helps generate oxygen vacancies in the ZnO catalyst, thereby enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and stabilizing intermediates. In a flow cell configuration, the ZnO nanoparticle catalyst (p-ZnO-800) can obtain a current density of 150 mA·cm<sup>-2</sup> with a FE<sub>CO</sub> of > 80%, which is of great significance for the industry.

### 5.3.2 HCOOH

By controlling the pyrolysis temperature and time, the structure and properties of metal nanofibers can be adjusted [153]. Electrospinning combined with pyrolysis treatment can prepare metal nanofibers with special structures and properties. Li et al. prepared an In-Bi bimetallic nanofiber catalyst with a controllable crystal plane by electrospinning and electrochemical reduction methods (Fig. 12(a)) [154]. The synthesized In-Bi bimetallic nanofibers (Bi<sub>5</sub>In<sub>5</sub> NFs) have a high proportion of InBi (200) crystal plane which has a high activity and selectivity for formate. At the same time, the synergistic effect of bimetals stabilizes reaction intermediates and inhibits the hydrogen evolution reaction. The maximum Faradaic efficiency of Bi<sub>5</sub>In<sub>5</sub> NFs for formate is 96.8% at -1.1 V vs. RHE (Fig. 12(b)).

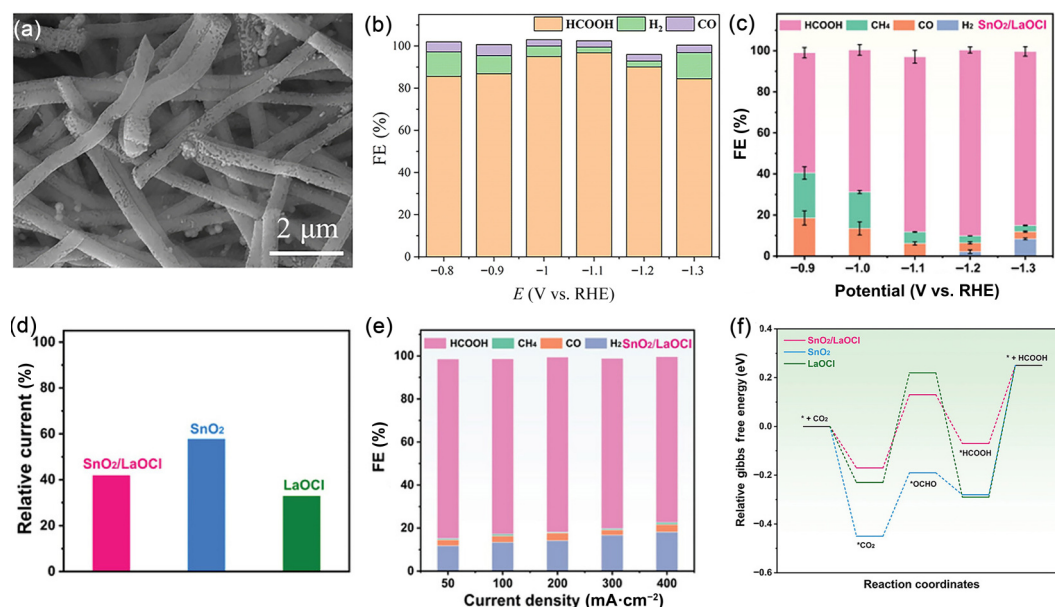
In electrospinning, calcination is usually used to remove organic substances in nanofibers, improve the crystallinity of nanofibers, and enhance the thermal stability of nanofibers. By controlling the calcination temperature and time, the structure and properties of the nanofiber can be adjusted. Li et al. prepared SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl nanofibers with a built-in electric field by electrospinning [155]. SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl nanofibers reached a Faradaic efficiency of C<sub>1</sub> products close to 100% when the voltage is -0.9--1.1 V vs. RHE in an H-cell. When the voltage is -1.2V vs. RHE, FE<sub>HCOOH</sub> reaches up to 90.1% (Fig. 12(c)). SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl nanofibers show excellent performance in an H-cell and still have good stability after 10 h of electrolysis. In a flow cell, the current density of the SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl

nanofibers reaches nearly 400 mA·cm<sup>-2</sup> with high FE<sub>HCOOH</sub> (83.4%) (Figs. 12(d) and 12(e)). DFT calculations demonstrate that SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl nanofibers exhibit a more robust adsorption capacity for CO<sub>2</sub>, which is favorable for the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (Fig. 12(f)).

Electrospinning offers a versatile method for fabricating nanofibers, with various post-treatments such as pyrolysis, electrochemical reduction, calcination, and annealing capable of further tailoring the structure and properties of the nanofiber [156]. These treatments enable control over crystal structures, formation of specific interfaces or built-in electric fields, and introduction of oxygen vacancies. Such diverse preparation strategies provide valuable approaches for designing and developing efficient materials for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR. Future research can build on these techniques to refine and optimize material synthesis processes, aiming for even higher performance.

## 6 Conclusions and outlook

The increasing atmospheric concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> puts serious environmental risks in people's lives and development. Converting CO<sub>2</sub> to value-added fuels and chemicals via ECO<sub>2</sub>RR is expected to mitigate the CO<sub>2</sub> emission and contribute to economic growth, addressing both of environmental and energy problems. However, the key challenges for the large-scale application of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR lie in designing efficient catalysts with high activity and selection. Electrospinning provided a safe, facile, and straight way to produce nanofibers with a high surface area-to-volume ratio, controllable dimensions, tunable functionalities, lightweight characteristics, and high porosity. Those electrospun nanofibers show characteristic advantages of exposure active sites, tunable functionality, and high selectivity as a catalyst for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR. In this review, we first took a detailed look at the principle of electrospinning technology and summarized the key factors that influence the electrospinning process, including solution parameters (concentration, viscosity, and conductivity), environment parameters (temperature and



**Figure 12** (a) SEM image of Bi<sub>5</sub>In<sub>5</sub> NFs. (b) FE for HCOOH, H<sub>2</sub>, and CO at different potentials on Bi<sub>5</sub>In<sub>5</sub> NFs. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [154], © The Royal Society of Chemistry 2023. (c) FE of the products for SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl NFs. (d) The decreased percentages of current density after 10 h of continuous electrolysis at -1.1 V<sub>RHE</sub> of SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl NFs. FE of products for SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl NFs in the flow-cell at various current densities. (f) DFT calculations of reaction pathways for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR on the surface of SnO<sub>2</sub>/LaOCl NFs. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [155], © Wiley-VCH GmbH 2024.



humidity), and electrospinning parameter (applied voltage and tip-to-collector distance). With the optimized parameters, various nanofibers were produced, such as carbon nanofiber, metal nanofiber, and composite nanofiber (carbon nanofiber with metal compound). Then we discussed the emerging progress of electrospun nanomaterials as catalysts for the ECO<sub>2</sub>RR toward different products from the perspective of materials design strategies.

Extensive research on ECO<sub>2</sub>RR has primarily focused on developing electrocatalysts with enhanced selectivity for specific products and improved stability. Table 1 summarizes the recent performance of electrospun materials reported in the literatures. For ECO<sub>2</sub>RR technology to advance from laboratory studies to industrial-scale applications, it is crucial to adopt a holistic approach that ensures both efficiency and durability under practical conditions. Based on previous studies [157], the following key parameters are critical for achieving industrial performance benchmarks. (1) FE: FE measures the proportion of the electrical charge utilized for the formation of the desired product relative to the total current. Low FE leads to increased by-products, complicating product separation and escalating industrial costs for purification and energy consumption. At present, only C<sub>1</sub> products like CO and formic acid can achieve near-unity FE (~ 100%). In contrast, multicarbon (C<sub>2+</sub>) products generally exhibit lower FE. For example, CH<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, and CH<sub>3</sub>OH can reach FE values exceeding 80%, while C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH achieves 52%, and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>7</sub>OH remains limited to 30%. (2) Current density: Current density serves as a key indicator of catalytic activity, reflecting the reaction rate of an electrocatalytic process. To meet industrial requirements, catalysts must sustain high activity to achieve production rates of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR products exceeding 200 mA·cm<sup>-2</sup>. (3) Stability: Stability encompasses the consistency of current density, Faradaic efficiency, and energy efficiency over time. It is influenced by factors such as catalyst deactivation, membrane degradation, electrode flooding, and operational impurities. Industrial electrocatalysts must demonstrate prolonged stability, maintaining performance over

extended periods to ensure reliability. However, most CO<sub>2</sub>RR studies to date have evaluated catalysts for less than 100 h, falling significantly short of industrial standards.

Despite the enormous progress in understanding the fundamentals of the electrospinning process and connecting the electrospinning parameters to the fiber morphologies, structures, and properties. The basic lab-scale set-up of the electrospinning machine with a low production amount is far from the practical application in view of production scale, cost, and sustainability. First of all, most of the current nanofibers are produced from commercial polymers, such as polyacrylonitrile, polyvinylpyrrolidone, and polyethylene glycol, due to their high electrospinnability. Since the electrospinnable solution system is the footstone for the electrospinning process, it is critical to expand the range of electrospinning-friendly materials to develop electrospinning as a broadly applied processing technology. Meanwhile, large amounts of solvents are involved in industrial upscale, resulting in both economic and environmental concerns. Therefore, it is critical to develop methods based on “green” solvents or even solvent-free systems. In the case of large-scale production, the current single-needle system with a low pumping rate results in a low yield that is far from the industrial requirement. Therefore, different electrospinning designs (multi-needle systems) and accessories are needed to increase the production scale and meet the demand of the market. However, ensuring the stability of electrostatic spinning, fiber homogeneity, and continuity is very important for the mass production of fibers. Addressing these critical challenges is essential for designing highly efficient nanofiber catalysts for industrial-scale CO<sub>2</sub> electrolysis.

Despite significant advancements in the development of electrospun nanofibers as catalysts for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR, product selectivity remains limited, with CO and HCOOH being the predominant products. This limited range of products reflects challenges in controlling reaction pathways and achieving higher-value multicarbon products, which are essential for enhancing the

**Table 1** ECO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of various electrospun nanofibers reported in the literatures

| Type of nanofibers   | Catalyst                                 | Electrolyte              | Potential (V vs. RHE) | Main product                  | FE (%) | Electrolyzer | References |
|----------------------|------------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------------|------------|
| Carbon nanofibers    | K <sub>0.66</sub> Ni-NC                  | 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -0.8--1.6             | CO                            | > 90.0 | H-cell       | [119]      |
|                      | SnN-HF-5                                 | 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -0.47                 | CO                            | 98.0   | H-cell       | [120]      |
|                      | Ni-PCNF                                  | 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -1.50                 | CO                            | 98.6   | H-cell       | [121]      |
|                      | Fe-N-CF                                  | 0.5 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub> | -0.51                 | CO                            | 97.0   | H-cell       | [124]      |
|                      | Sn/NCNFs                                 | 1 M KOH                  | -0.40                 | CO                            | 96.5   | H-cell       | [125]      |
| Composite nanofibers | SnO <sub>2</sub> HNTs                    | 0.5 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub> | -1.10                 | HCOOH                         | 75.0   | H-cell       | [134]      |
|                      | GaN/In <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> @PCNF | 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -0.90                 | HCOOH                         | 87.0   | H-cell       | [135]      |
|                      | Bi@PCNF-500                              | 1.0 M KOH                | -1.10                 | HCOOH                         | 94.9   | Flow-cell    | [136]      |
|                      | BiCu/CHNM                                | 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -1.46                 | HCOOH                         | 87.7   | Flow-cell    | [137]      |
|                      | Au <sub>1</sub> Ni <sub>1</sub> /CNFs    | 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -0.98                 | CO                            | 92.0   | H-cell       | [140]      |
|                      | s-PdNi                                   | 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -0.88                 | CO                            | 96.6   | H-cell       | [141]      |
|                      | Ni/Ni <sub>3</sub> ZnCo <sub>0.7</sub>   | 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -0.80                 | CO                            | 91.5   | H-cell       | [142]      |
|                      | La <sub>2</sub> CuO <sub>4</sub> NBs     | 0.1M KHCO <sub>3</sub>   | -1.00                 | C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> | 60.0   | H-cell       | [147]      |
|                      | SnCo-HNT                                 | 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -0.90                 | CO                            | 91.2   | H-cell       | [150]      |
| Metal nanofibers     | p-ZnO-800                                | 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub>  | -1.00                 | CO                            | 82.9   | Flow cell    | [152]      |
|                      | Bi <sub>3</sub> In <sub>5</sub> NFs      | 1.0 M KOH                | -1.10                 | HCOOH                         | 96.8   | Flow cell    | [154]      |
|                      | SnO <sub>2</sub> /LaOCl NFs              | 1.0 M KOH                | -2.31                 | HCOOH                         | —      | Flow cell    | [155]      |

economic viability of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR. During the ECO<sub>2</sub>RR process, carbon-based materials often become increasingly hydrophilic, which undesirably promotes the hydrogen evolution reaction over CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, thereby diminishing the selectivity for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR products. The wettability of electrodes plays a critical role in the adsorption and transport of reactants and products at the solid–liquid–gas triple-phase interface. A super hydrophilic electrode surface can lead to flooding and the obstruction of gas transport pores, potentially contributing to the narrow potential range for formate selectivity. To address this issue, surface coating strategies can enhance the stability of CNF-based catalysts during prolonged cycling. Another major challenge lies in the insufficient stability of catalysts under prolonged operational conditions and the low current densities, both of which hinder the scalability and industrial applicability of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR technology.

To overcome these challenges, future development of electrospun nanomaterials for ECO<sub>2</sub>RR will focus on the following areas:

(1) Electrospun nanofibers functionalized with active sites can effectively modulate their electronic structure, influencing the reaction pathways. The integration of the active site and single-atom catalyst modification and structural regulation synergistically enhances catalytic activity and selectivity. These findings provide valuable theoretical insights and practical guidance for advancing the design of efficient ECO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts. Future research should focus on exploring the synergistic effects of various structural regulation strategies, such as element doping [158], vacancies [159], and synergistic effect of cationic and aprotic solvents [160], and assessing their feasibility in real-world applications to further promote the development and implementation of ECO<sub>2</sub>RR technology.

(2) The interactions between reactants, active sites, and catalyst components during ECO<sub>2</sub>RR remain unclear, posing a critical challenge for further catalyst research. Advanced techniques, such as *in situ* Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy and *in situ* X-ray absorption fine structure, are needed to analyze the formation rates of intermediate products during catalysis and to clarify the molecular, atomic, and electronic structural relationships under real-time reaction conditions.

(3) The integration of machine learning and mathematical modeling can significantly reduce the time and effort required for experimental work. Theoretical computations have demonstrated unique advantages in catalyst screening, and it is anticipated that data-driven high-throughput methods will play a dominant role in the future of intelligent nanofiber catalyst synthesis.

## Data availability

All data needed to support the conclusions in the paper are presented in the manuscript. Additional data related to this paper may be requested from the corresponding author upon request.

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## Declaration of competing interest

All the contributing authors report no conflict of interests in this work.

## Author contribution statement

Y. B. L.: Writing – original draft. P. F.: Conceptualization, writing – original draft. Z. Z. W.: Writing – original draft. Y. Y.: Writing – review & editing. Y. Z. (Yong Zheng): Writing – original draft. Y. Z. (Yu Zhang): Writing – review & editing. M. K. L.: Conceptualization, writing – review & editing. All the authors have approved the final manuscript.

## Use of AI statement

None.

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