

Application of Three-Dimensional Carbon Gel-based Catalysts in CO₂ Catalytic Conversion: A Review

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Abstract

With the excessive consumption of fossil energy and the massive emission of CO₂, energy and environmental problems have become increasingly serious. The catalytic conversion of greenhouse gas CO₂ into high value-added fuels and chemicals is an ideal way to solve energy shortage and environmental pollution. Photocatalysis, electrocatalysis and thermal catalysis are commonly used strategies for catalytic conversion of CO₂. The problems of high recombination rate of carriers, catalyst agglomeration and difficult recovery of catalyst are widespread in various catalytic processes. Three-dimensional (3D) carbon gel have been applied in various types of catalytic reaction systems to solve above mentioned problems, due to their high conductivity, high specific surface area, high porosity, high CO₂ adsorption, rich resources and environmental friendliness. In this review, the theoretical basis of CO₂ catalytic conversion and the principles of photocatalysis, electrocatalysis and thermal catalysis of CO₂ will be introduced. Furthermore, we focus on the recent progress of 3D carbon gel-based catalysts in three types of CO₂ catalytic conversion systems. The future development opportunities and challenges of 3D carbon gel-based catalysts are also put forward.

Keywords

3D Carbon Gel; CO₂ Catalytic Conversion; Photocatalysis; Electrocatalysis; Thermal Catalysis.

1. Introduction

Excessive extraction and utilization of fossil fuels and increased emissions of greenhouse gas lead to increasingly serious energy and environmental issues, posing significant threats to both human society and the natural environment [1-7]. Greenhouse gases, especially CO₂, induce the greenhouse effect, precipitating global warming, substantial ice and snowmelt, and consequent sea-level rise. Various extreme climatic phenomena have become increasingly prevalent on a global scale, including events such as floods, droughts, marine storms, and extreme cold and heatwaves [8-13]. The catastrophic consequences resulting from these aberrant weather patterns severely constrain human societal activities and development [14-28]. The effectively prevent and control the threaten caused by the greenhouse effect is currently an urgent and important task globally. Extensive research has been conducted on the capture, utilization, and storage of CO₂ [29-35]. Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) technologies were developed with the primary objective of minimizing the net emissions of the greenhouse gas CO₂ to the greatest extent possible [36-40]. In this regard, CO₂ capture technologies employ various separation and enrichment methods to obtain high-purity CO₂, such as physical/chemical adsorption, membrane separation, and cryogenic distillation [41-45]. Building

upon carbon capture, subsequent carbon storage primarily encompasses terrestrial geological storage [46-52] and deep-sea sediment storage [53-56]. However, CCS technologies still confront numerous unresolved issues, such as the large-scale implementation of carbon capture and the risk of CO₂ leakage [57,58]. Compared to CCS technologies, the chemical conversion of CO₂ into high-value carbon-containing fuels (CO, CH₄, CH₃OH, etc.) and other valuable chemicals (such as urea) not only reduces the atmospheric concentration of CO₂ but also provides new energy, is a win-win carbon reduction path [59-64].

Various methods have been explored for catalytic reduction of CO₂, including photocatalysis [65-69], electrocatalysis [70-76], and thermocatalysis [77-79]. Despite significant developments have been made, there are still great challenges, such as the low sunlight utilization and high recombination rate of photogenerated charge carriers in photocatalysis, the competition reaction of hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) in electrocatalysis and the aggregation of catalysts in thermocatalysis. Simultaneously, a variety of challenges are commonly encountered in catalysis, such as poor catalytic stability, challenging catalyst recovery, weak CO₂ adsorption, and high costs. 3D carbon materials are expected to solve the above problems due to their unique physical, mechanical and electronic properties. This review presents recent development of 3D carbon gel-based composite catalysts, including carbon aerogels, graphene aerogels and graphene hydrogels, as well as their applications in photocatalysis, electrocatalysis and thermalcatalysis of CO₂ conversion.

2. Theoretical Foundations of CO₂ Catalytic Reduction

2.1 Physicochemical Properties of CO₂

CO₂ is a linear and centrally symmetric molecule. The length and bond energy of C=O bond is 116.3 pm and 799 kJ/mol, respectively. Although the C=O bond in CO₂ is polar, the dipole moment of the CO₂ molecule is zero due to its linear structure. CO₂ is chemically inert with low electron affinity and a significant energy gap (13.7 eV) between its lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) and highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) [80]. Because of the highly oxidized state of carbon, CO₂ is thermodynamically stable ($\Delta_f G_{298}^\circ = -394.36$ kJ/mol) [13]. Consequently, the conversion of CO₂ is an energetically uphill process, requiring a substantial input of energy [81,82]. Under standard conditions (1 atm, 298.15 K), the enthalpy change (ΔH°) for the direct decomposition of CO₂ into CO and O₂ is 283.0 kJ/mol.

2.2 Adsorption and Activation of CO₂

The adsorption coordination of CO₂ molecules includes three modes: oxygen coordination, carbon coordination and mixed coordination [83]. For oxygen coordination, each O atom in CO₂ can donate lone pair electrons to the Lewis acid center on the adsorbent surface, which usually involves hydrogen bonding or electrostatic attraction. For carbon coordination, the C atom in CO₂ behaves as a Lewis acid, accepting electrons from Lewis base sites to form a carbonate-like structure; this coordination usually involves covalent bond formation. For mixed coordination, the interaction between the CO₂ molecule and the adsorbent surface involves both oxygen and carbon coordination, with the O and C atoms in CO₂ serving as electron donors and acceptors, respectively. The adsorption of CO₂ on the catalyst surface is typically accompanied by an activation process [84,85]. The activation of adsorbed CO₂ molecules is crucial for catalytic reduction of CO₂, which influences subsequent reduction processes and the extent of side reactions. At the catalyst surface, CO₂ molecules can interact with surface atoms, leading to a change in the electron distribution of the CO₂ molecules and the formation of partially charged CO₂^{δ-} species [86]. The CO₂^{δ-} species adsorbed on the catalyst surface determine the rate of CO₂ reduction and control product selectivity. The conversion of linear CO₂ molecules into bent anionic radicals CO₂^{δ-} requires additional energy for excitation to the high-energy state. Therefore, the energy barrier can be lowered by catalysts, which, in addition, can provide alternative reaction pathways to avoid the formation of high-energy intermediates.

2.3 Reaction Pathways of CO₂ Reduction

The reduction of CO₂ is a complex redox reaction process, which involves the transfer of multiple electrons/protons, the breaking of C=O bonds and the formation of C-H bonds [4]. The process involves multiple types of intermediates, which depends on the reaction conditions, catalyst and mechanism [87,88]. Different reaction paths and types of intermediates generate different products, including mainly C₁ compounds (such as CO, CH₄, HCOOH, CH₃OH, HCHO, etc.) and C₂ compounds (such as C₂H₄, C₂H₅OH, CH₃COOH, etc.) [89]. Table 1 lists some half-reactions of CO₂ reduction in electrochemical reactions (ECR) and the corresponding reduction potentials (E°) [90].

Table 1. The standard potentials (E°) of possible half-reactions of electrochemical CO₂ reduction in aqueous solutions for the different hydrocarbon products at 25 °C, 1 atm, and pH 7 [90].

Possible Half-Reactions in ECR	E° (V vs SHE)
$\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CO}_2^-$	-1.90
$\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{HCOOH}(\text{l})$	-0.55
$\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CO}(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$	-0.52
$\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{HCHO}(\text{l}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$	-0.48
$\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 6\text{H}^+(\text{l}) + 6\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OH}(\text{l}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$	-0.38
$\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 8\text{H}^+ + 8\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_4(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$	-0.24
$2\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 12\text{H}^+ + 12\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_4(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$	-0.38
$2\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 12\text{H}^+ + 12\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}(\text{l}) + 3\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$	-0.35
$2\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 14\text{H}^+ + 14\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_6(\text{l}) + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$	-0.28
$3\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 18\text{H}^+ + 18\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_3\text{H}_7\text{OH}(\text{l}) + 5\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$	-0.30

It can be concluded that efficient catalysts and sufficient energy input are essential conditions for the activation and reduction of CO₂ molecules during the catalytic reaction. Combining the catalyst with 3D carbon gel can effectively improve the catalytic performance (Figure 1) [91-93]. On the one hand, the 3D carbon gel has a high specific surface area, which increases the contact area between the catalyst and CO₂ molecules; on the other hand, the 3D carbon gel has a good adsorption of CO₂, which plays the role of CO₂ enrichment. The catalyst is uniformly dispersed on the 3D carbon gel in small size, which not only increases the number of reaction active sites, but also inhibits the agglomeration of the catalyst and improves the stability of the catalyst. Compared with powder catalysts, it is more convenient for recycling and reuse.

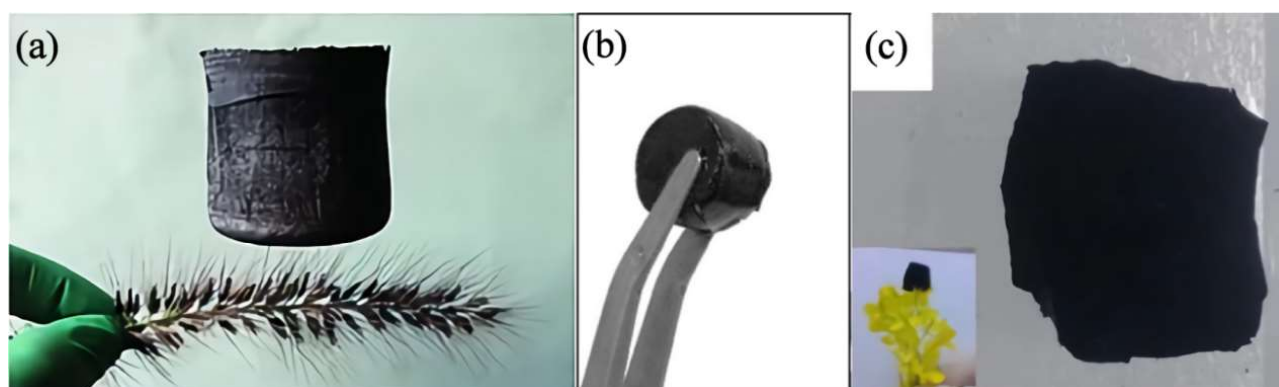


Figure 1. (a) Graphene aerogel^[91]; (b) Graphene hydrogel^[92]; (c) Carbon aerogel^[93].

3. Advancements in the Application of Three-Dimensional Carbon Gels in Catalytic CO₂ Reduction

3.1 Photocatalytic Reduction of CO₂

3.1.1 Principles of Photocatalytic Reduction of CO₂

The employment of solar-driven photocatalysis under mild conditions for the reduction of CO₂ holds significant promise. Semiconductor photocatalysts, activated by light radiation, engage photo-induced electrons in the reduction of CO₂, yielding high-value products [86]. The photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ primarily involves three sequential steps [94]: 1) Excitation via light absorption to generate electron-hole pairs; 2) Photogenerated charge carriers (electron-hole pairs) separation and migration to the photocatalyst's surface; 3) Subsequent photogenerated electron reduction of CO₂ and hole oxidation of redox agents at the photocatalyst's surface. During steps 2) and 3), electron-hole pairs may recombine, dissipating energy in the form of heat (non-radiative recombination) or light (radiative recombination), either within or at the surface of the photocatalyst, which is detrimental to the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂. Thus, only long-lived electrons and holes on the photocatalyst's surface possess the redox capability.

The preferred photocatalyst band gap is generally in the range of 1.75 to 3.0 eV, with strong absorption of visible light (about 43% of the solar spectrum), and should also have a high redox CO₂ potential. A suitable photocatalyst for CO₂ reduction needs to fulfill the following requirements: 1) A significant number of electrons should be easily captured by CO₂ molecules from the surface of the photocatalyst; 2) Its conduction band edge must be more negative than the reduction potential of CO₂ and its corresponding reduction products in electrochemistry; 3) CO₂ should be adsorbed on the photocatalyst, and product molecules should desorb and diffuse rapidly after reduction, avoiding photooxidation; 4) Photogenerated holes on the valence band of the photocatalyst should be consumed by a sacrificial agent, ideally generating gaseous O₂ through the oxidation of H₂O. Single semiconductor photocatalysts typically exhibit low photocatalytic efficiencies due to low solar energy capture capacity and poor carrier separation [95,96]. Therefore, efficient and stable composites are applied to overcome these limitations to improve the photocatalytic performance.

3.1.2 Application of Three-Dimensional Carbon Gels in Photocatalytic CO₂ Reduction

Given the inherent structural advantages and distinctive physicochemical properties of three-dimensional carbon gel materials, they play a significant role in enhancing the surface area and conductivity of photocatalysts and facilitating the separation of photogenerated charges. Jung et al. [97] fabricated TiO₂-graphene-MoS₂ (TGM) composite catalysts through a one-pot hydrothermal reaction, hybridizing TiO₂ nanoparticles, graphene aerogel (GA), and MoS₂ nanosheets (Figure 2a, b and c). Compared with the controls, TGM obtained the highest CO formation rate (92.33 μmol/(g·h)) (Figure 2d). The addition of GA provided carrier transfer channel, and the high conductivity of graphene facilitated charge transfer, effectively separating electron-hole pairs. Comparing the CO formation rates of TGM with different structures, TGM with macroporous 3D graphene and mesoporous TiO₂ obtained the CO formation rate ca. 3.4 times higher than that of TGM with non-3D graphene and mesoporous TiO₂ (nonmacro TGM) (Figure 2e). The 3D structure of GA not only inhibits the aggregation of the two-dimensional (2D) materials and provides more reaction sites and mass flow pathways, but also enhances the light absorption of the catalyst via multiple light reflections from the porous structure. In TGM, the photoinduced electrons were sequentially transferred through the TiO₂-graphene-MoS₂ (Figure 2f). Compared with 2D TiO₂-MoS₂, the photoinduced charges were transported stereographically in 3D graphene network, and the spatial separation for efficient carriers transfer increased the potential of oxidizing holes and reducing electrons, which significantly improved the charge transfer. In addition, the high concentration of electrons between the catalyst and graphene layers exceedingly improves the electronic conductivity of composites, which significantly enhances the co-catalytic activity of composites.

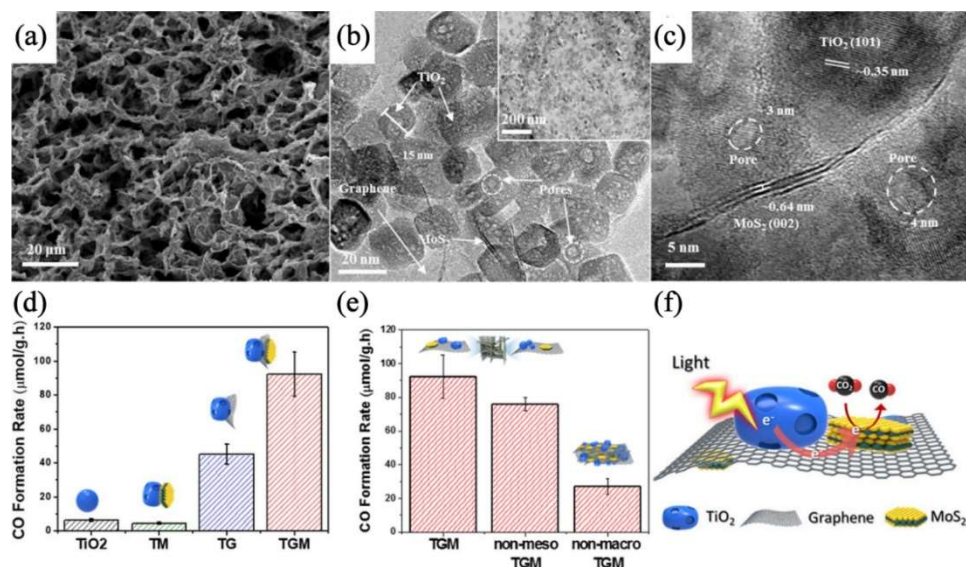


Figure 2. (a) SEM, (b) TEM and (c) HRTEM images of the TiO₂-graphene-MoS₂ (TGM) catalyst; (d) CO formation rates of TGM, TG, TM and TiO₂; (e) CO formation rates of TGM, nonmeso TGM and nonmacro TGM; (f) Possible CO₂ conversion mechanism of TGM^[97].

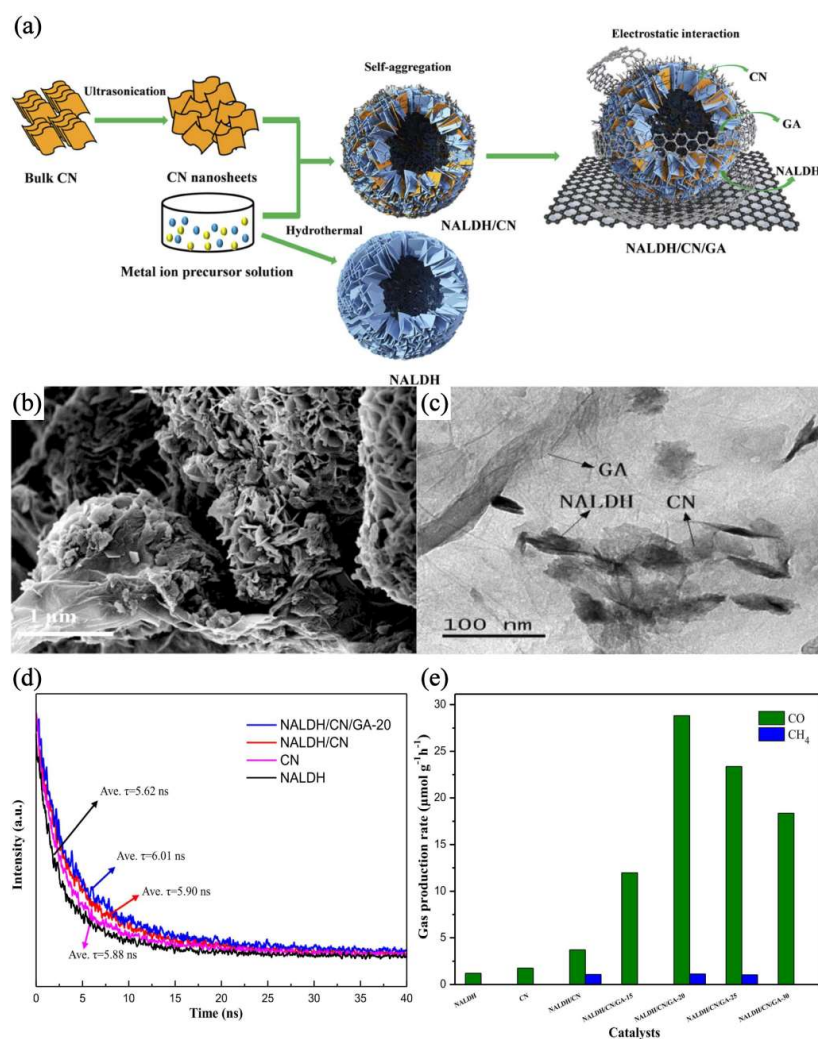


Figure 3. (a) Synthetic process for NALDH/CN/GA hybrid; (b) SEM and (c) TEM images of NALDH/CN/GA-20; (d) time-resolved fluorescence decay traces of the as-prepared samples; (e) CO and CH₄ average gas production rates over all synthesized photocatalysts^[98].

Yang et al.[98] prepared the hybrid heterojunction catalyst NALDH/CN/GA using a facile hydrothermal method by the compositing of NiAl layered double hydroxides (NiAl-LDH), g-C₃N₄ and graphene aerogel (Figure 3a). NALDH nanosheets and CN nanosheets form ultratight sheet-sheet heterojunctions in the presence of steric effect and hydrogen bonding. By introduction of GA, graphene was entwined with a curly folded layer structure, which enhanced the interfacial interaction between NALDH nanosheets and CN nanosheets (Figure 3b, and c). Compared with other samples, the average lifetime of the photogenerated charge carries in NALDH/CN/GA-20 is more prolonged (6.01 ns) (Figure 3d), and its CO yield rate reached 28.83 μmol/(g·h) (Figure 3e), which was 16 and 24 times those of pure CN and NALDH, respectively. The introduction of GA as an electronic medium and entwining agent, could furthermore promote charge transfer and coupling interface adhesion of heterojunctions, which enhance the separation of electron-hole pairs and mass transport, thus improving the photocatalytic performance.

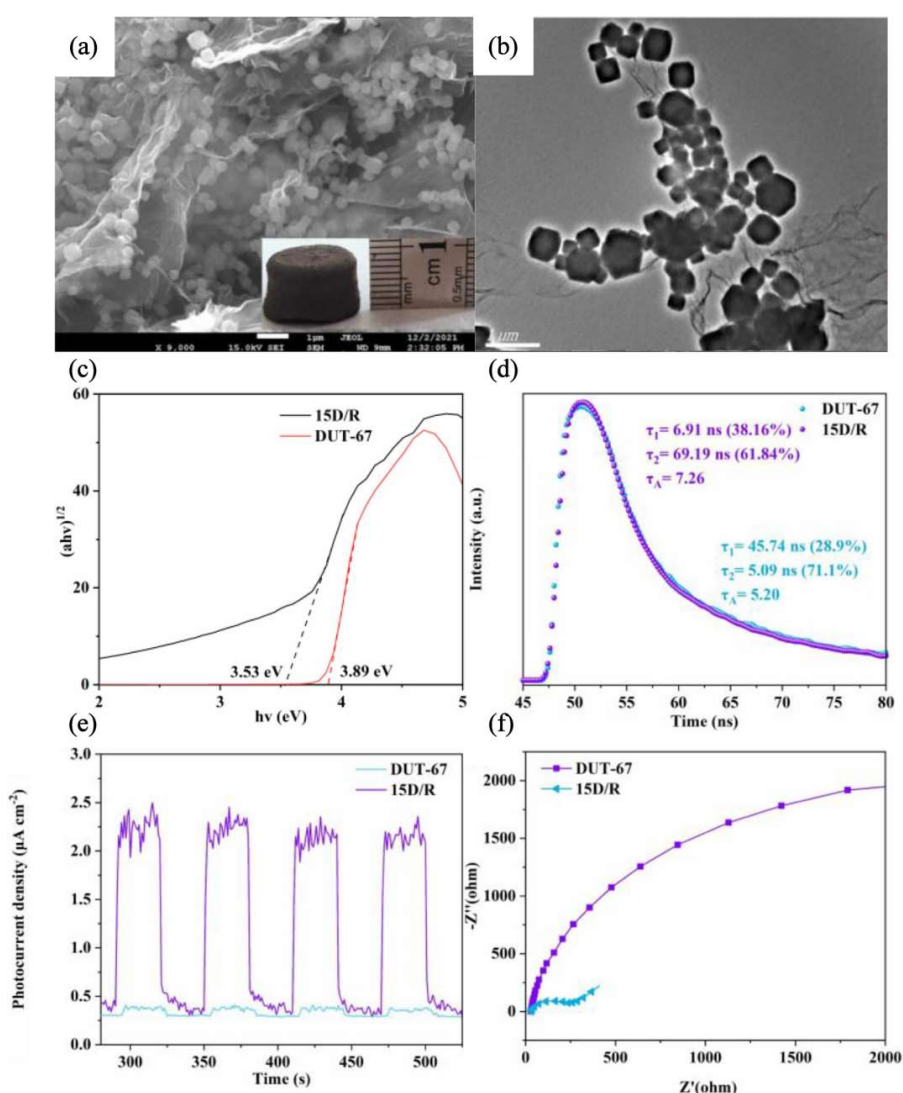


Figure 4. (a) SEM and (b) TEM images of 15D/R; (c) Tauc plots, (d) TRPL, (e) TPR and (f) EIS of DUT-67 and 15D/R^[99]

Zhao et al.[99] constructed 3D DUT-67/RGO aerogel macrostructures through simple hydrothermal and freeze drying, based on Zr-based MOFs (DUT-67) and assisted by reduced graphene oxide (RGO) (Figure 4a and b). The multilayer structure of the 3D RGO aerogel dispersed DUT-67 uniformly in different sheets. Compared with pure DUT-67, the optimal ratio of 15DU-67/RGO aerogel (15D/R) had a narrower band gap (Figure 4c), which could more effectively absorb solar energy to generate

electrons for photoreduction of CO₂. As a good electron acceptor, RGO prolonged the lifetime of photogenerated electrons through non-radiative quenching (Figure 4d), which increased the probability of photoelectrons participating in the photocatalytic reactions. The photocurrent density of 15D/R (2.21 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$) was 5.9 times that of DUT-67 (0.37 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$) (Figure 4e), and 15D/R also had the minimal charge transfer resistance (Figure 4f). 3D RGO aerogel had good electronic conductivity, which reduced the interface charge transfer resistance from DUT-67 to RGO and enhanced the photogenerated charge separation efficiency of DUT-67. In addition, it was confirmed that the synergistic effect of DUT-67 and RGO aerogel structure made 15D/R have strong adsorption/activation ability for CO₂.

In the above photocatalysis reports, the 3D graphene aerogel was introduced into the photocatalyst as a carrier, which could effectively reduce the interface charge transfer resistance and promote the photogenerated electron-hole pair separation due to its high conductivity and large specific surface area. The 3D network structure not only avoids the stacking caused by strong interactions between 2D graphene sheets but also improves the catalyst dispersion and inhibits the catalyst aggregation, which can provide more active sites for catalytic reactions. The highly interconnected porous structure provides a way for the adsorption and mass transfer of CO₂ and multiple reflections and absorption of incident light. It can be seen that the composites of photocatalysts with graphene aerogels can effectively address some of the issues in photocatalysis processes, further enhancing photocatalytic performance.

3.2 Electrocatalytic Reduction of CO₂

3.2.1 Principles of Electrocatalytic Reduction of CO₂

Electrocatalysis is the combination of electrochemistry and catalysis. Electrochemistry interconverts electrical and chemical energy, while catalysis reduces the activation energy of reactions and accelerates the rate of chemical reactions. Electrocatalysis is a special type of multiphase catalysis that involves interactions and electron exchange between reactants and electrocatalysts, and it utilizes currents to improve the rate and efficiency of chemical reactions. The electrocatalytic process encompasses cathodic and anodic reactions, driven by an external power source to facilitate non-spontaneous electron transfer reactions, thereby converting electrical energy into the chemical energy of the products. The composition of the cathode/anode in the process consists of the electron-conducting phase (electrode) connected by the ion-conducting phase (electrolyte). Electrocatalysts are typically used as electrodes or attached to the electrode surface, which can facilitate specific electrochemical conversions rapidly [100].

The CO₂ electrochemical reduction reaction (CO₂RR) occurs at the cathode electrode/electrolyte interface and consists of the following three main steps [101]: 1) CO₂ adsorption on the catalyst surface; 2) Proton and electron transfer; 3) Generation and diffusion of new products. The electrocatalytic interface structure is typically divided into five distinct regions, including the electrode surface, the inner Helmholtz plane (IHP), the outer Helmholtz plane (OHP), the diffusion layer and the bulk solution. The CO₂RR is an inner-sphere reaction process [102]. Adsorption and bond rearrangement of CO₂ molecules and reaction intermediates occur in the IHP [103]. As CO₂ molecules approach the electrode surface, they interact with the electrolyte and the electrode, resulting in proton and electron transfer.

An ideal CO₂RR catalyst should possess the following characteristics: 1) High voltage efficiency: promoting the reduction of CO₂ at lower potentials to enhance energy conversion efficiency; 2) High product selectivity: selectively converting CO₂ into the desired organic compounds or other products without generating unwanted byproducts; 3) Rapid kinetics: being capable of operating at high current densities to improve reaction rates and production rates; 4) Stability: exhibiting a long service life and good resistance to changes in feed gases and electrolytes, and common impurities that may be encountered. 3D carbon gels are carbon materials with outstanding properties, which are commonly used in electrocatalytic applications. The high surface area, conductivity, and porosity make them excellent catalyst support materials. 3D carbon gels can provide a large number of active sites,

contributing to the enhancement of CO₂RR catalyst performance. Furthermore, their structural stability and corrosion resistance also make them promising materials for electrocatalytic reactions.

3.2.2 Application of Three-Dimensional Carbon Gels in Electrocatalytic CO₂ Reduction

Xiao et al.[104] prepared carbon aerogels (CA) loaded with copper nanoparticles (Cu NPs) using resorcinol and formaldehyde as RF resin precursors and copper acetate as catalyst. Further activation was explored under CO₂ and N₂ calcination. The optimal catalyst Cu/CA-CO₂-N₂-700 was obtained under the secondary N₂ atmosphere and activation temperature of 700 °C. CA has an abundant porous structure (Figure 5a). The in-situ formed Cu NPs were uniformly dispersed in the carbon network (Figure 5b). The interconnected structure of Cu NPs and CA existed synergistic effect, facilitating the enhanced catalytic activity. Cu/CA-CO₂-N₂-700 exhibited lower onset potential in CO₂ as compared to N₂, indicating its higher activity for CO₂ reduction (Figure 5c). CO₂RR activity was higher than HER activity and could highly suppress HER. Cu/CA-CO₂-N₂-700 had excellent stability and was able to maintain the metallic nature of Cu component within the carbon aerogels during electrocatalysis, achieving the high selectivity toward CO, with a Faradaic efficiency of 75.6% (Figure 5d). The contact angle of Cu/CA-CO₂-N₂-700 was 113°. The hydrophobicity and porous structure of CA could repel water but benefit the diffusion of CO₂ and CO (Figure 5e).

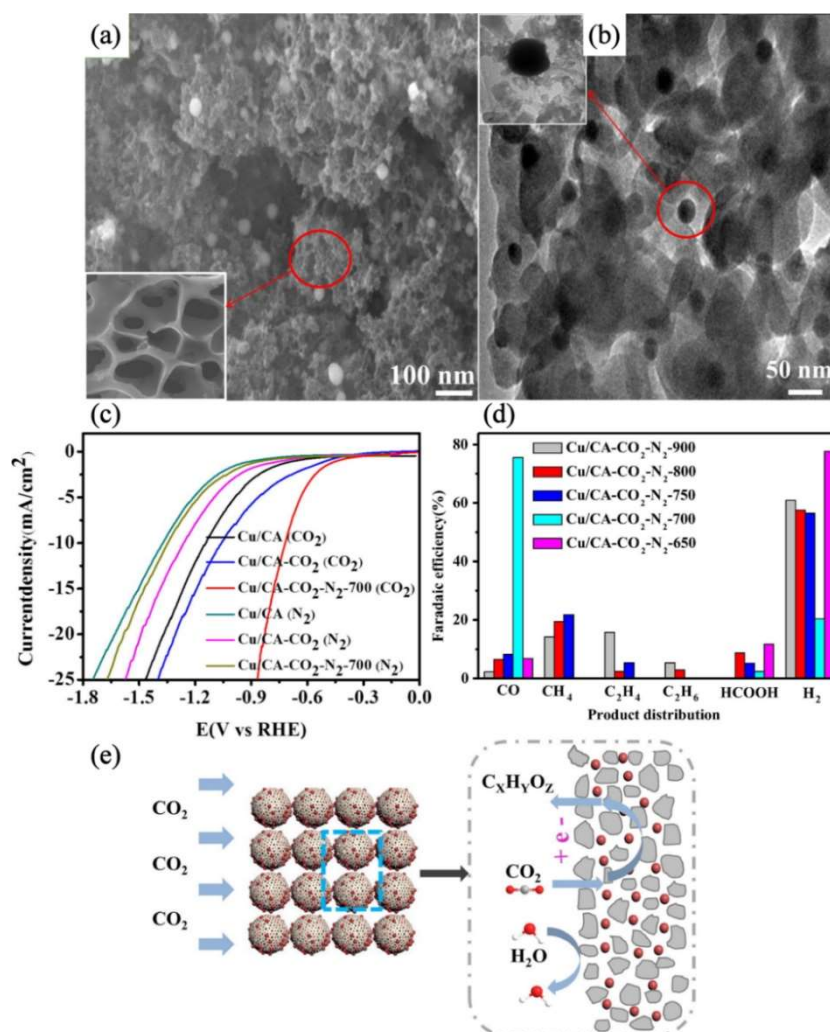


Figure 5. (a) SEM and (b) TEM images of Cu/CA-CO₂-N₂-700; (c) LSV curves of Cu/CA, Cu/CA-CO₂ and Cu/CA-CO₂-N₂-700 on glassy carbon electrodes in N₂- or CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ aqueous solution; (d) Faradaic efficiency (-0.6V vs. RHE) of CO₂ electro-reduction products of Cu/CA-CO₂-N₂-T (T=650 °C, 700 °C, 750 °C, 800 °C and 850 °C); (e) Schematic of CO₂ electrochemical reduction under Cu/CA-CO₂-N₂-T^[104].

Mou et al.[105] employed melamine foam (MF) as a template for graphene oxide (GO) aerogel (GA) and loaded Ni single atoms (NiSA) onto GA by impregnation-pyrolysis method (Figure 6a). Graphene-based aerogels can not only inherit graphene's outstanding intrinsic properties but also possess large specific surface area and pore volume, which allows for the uniform dispersion of the electrocatalysts on the graphene sheet. (Figure 6b). GO exhibits numerous defects that can serve as "traps" to capture nickel precursors and anchor nickel atoms with aid of charge-transfer effect, achieving a high nickel loading of approximately 2.6 wt%. At electrolytic potentials of -0.8 V vs RHE, the highest CO Faradaic efficiency reached 90.2% (Figure 6c). GA utilized doped N, derived from MF, to anchor neighboring Ni²⁺ ions and prevent agglomeration of Ni atoms, which constructed Ni-N_x sites (Figure 6d). Comparing the Gibbs free energy of reaction pathway on different Ni-N_x sites, the free energy for the formation of *COOH on Ni-N₂ (0.17 eV) and Ni-N₃ (0.84 eV) are significantly lower than that on Ni-N₄ (1.34 eV) (Figure 6e). The high CO₂RR activity originates from the coordinatively unsaturated Ni-N_x sites on graphene defects.

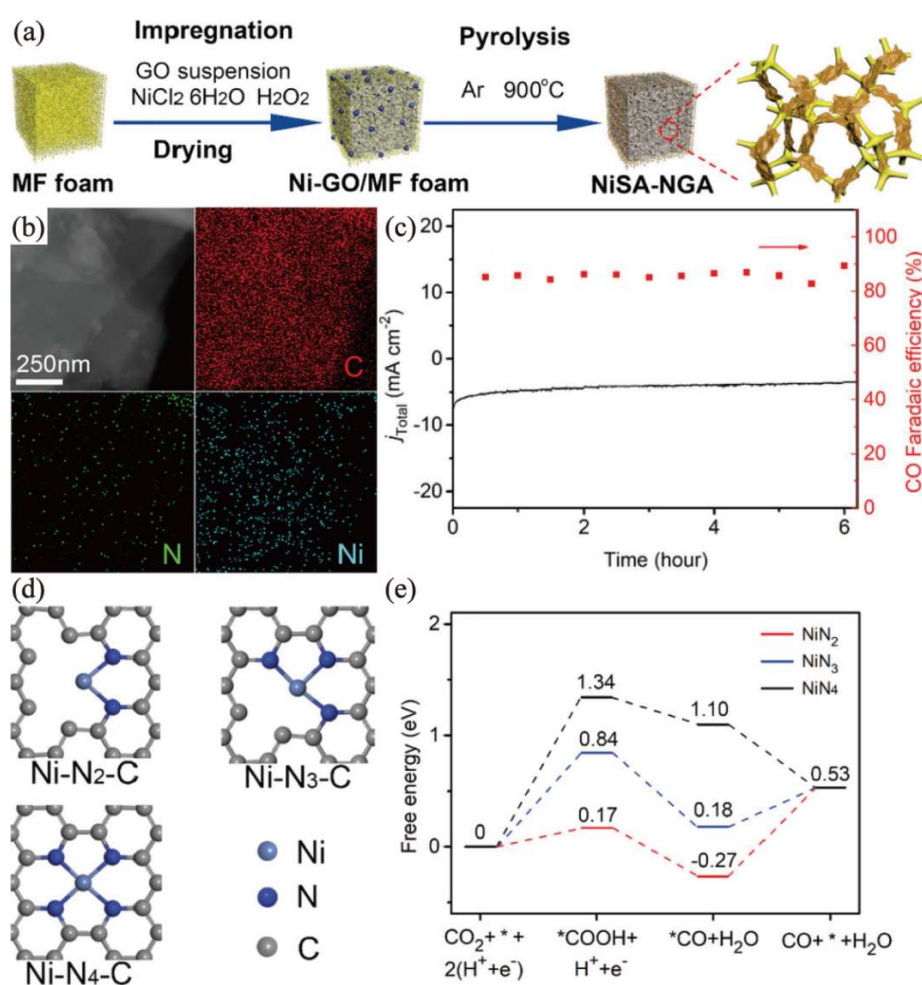


Figure 6. (a) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of NiSA-NGA; (b) STEM images and the corresponding EDS elemental maps of C, N, and Ni for NiSA-NGA; (c) Stability of total current density and the corresponding CO Faradaic efficiency of NiSA-NGA at electrolytic potentials of -0.8 V vs. RHE in 0.5 M KHCO₃ electrolyte; (d) Top view of Ni-N₂-C, Ni-N₃-C and Ni-N₄-C; (e) Free energy diagram for electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to CO on Ni-N_x sites (Ni-N₂, Ni-N₃ and Ni-N₄)^[105].

Choi et al.[106] synthesized a 3D highly porous and conductive iron porphyrin/graphene hydrogel (FePGH) by hydrothermal treatment of cationic iron porphyrin (FeTMAP) and liquid crystalline graphene oxide (LCGO) (Figure 7a). FePGH exhibited flat and large graphene structures (Figure 7b).

The positively charged FeTMAP helped to maintain the flat and large graphene oxide sheets through electrostatic interactions with the negatively charged carboxylate functionalities on the edge of LCGO as well as π - π interactions. FePGH exhibited higher strength and a more uniform deformation under compression (Figure 7c). Total geometrical current densities increased with the increasing amount of FeTMAP utilised for the formation of the FePGH (Figure 7d), which directly affected the catalytic activity for CO₂ reduction. Compared with FePGH-L (containing 0.6 mg FeTMAP), FePGH-H (containing 1.1 mg FeTMAP) obtained considerable current density with an enhanced CO conversion efficiency (Figure 7e). As a CO₂ reduction catalyst, FePGH benefits from various functional groups of 3D GH, which can integrate a number of catalytically active centres. In addition, hydrogels consist of highly porous structures. Formation of 3D porous conductive pathways along the graphene backbone facilitates gas diffusion and improves the catalytic conversion of CO₂. FePGH-H exhibited superior long-term durability at -0.39 V vs. RHE over 20 h electrolysis, affording a stable current density of 0.42 mA/cm² and 96.4% CO Faraday Efficiency (Figure 7f), showcasing excellent CO₂ reduction performance.

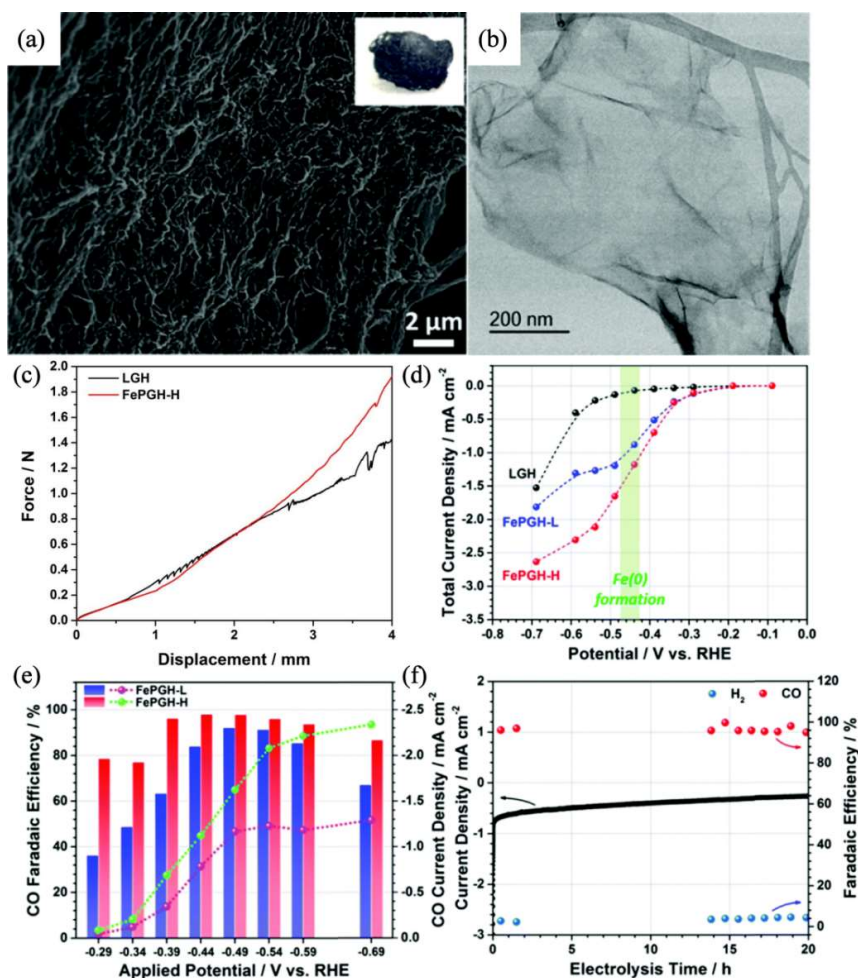


Figure 7. (a) SEM and (b) TEM images of FePGH; (c) Force versus displacement plots for LGH and FePGH; (d) Total current densities of LGH, FePGH-L and FePGH-H at different applied potentials with Fe(0) formation highlighted; (e) CO faradaic efficiencies (bar graph) and CO partial current densities (line graph) obtained by FePGH-L and FePGH-H; (f) Long-term stability at -0.39 V with respect to current density (black dots) and faradaic efficiency (coloured dots) of CO₂ reduction electrocatalysis by FePGH-H^[106].

In the electrocatalytic system, combining the electrocatalyst with three-dimensional carbon gels can effectively enhance the electrocatalytic activity. On the one hand, the large specific surface area and

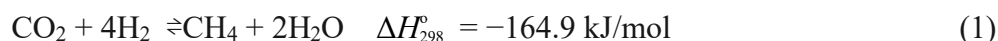
pore volume allow the catalyst to be uniformly dispersed on the carbon carrier, exposing more active sites. The defects or functional groups on the surface can capture and anchor the catalyst, inhibiting the agglomeration of the catalyst and reducing the deactivation of the catalyst. On the other hand, 3D carbon gels have good mechanical properties and chemical stability. The high-strength porous structure helps the diffusion of CO₂ and product gases. In addition, its hydrophobicity suppresses the competitive HER and improves the CO₂ catalytic conversion performance.

3.3 Thermocatalytic Reduction of CO₂

3.3.1 Principles of Thermocatalytic Reduction of CO₂

Utilizing CO₂ and H₂ for thermochemical conversion is one of the research hotspots in the fields of energy and environment. CO₂ thermocatalytic hydrogenation reactions are typically carried out at relatively low temperatures (≤ 523 K) for the production of high-value fuels and chemicals such as CH₄ and CH₃OH [107]. CO₂ molecules are thermodynamically and chemically stable and require a large amount of energy if used as single reactant. Introducing other substances with higher Gibbs free energy (e.g. H₂) as co-reactants can make the thermodynamic process more feasible [79].

In the thermocatalytic process, the reactant H₂ is more valuable than the products CH₄ and CH₃OH. Therefore, the hydrogen source for CO₂ thermocatalytic reduction is typically renewable H₂, derived from non-fossil sources. The H₂/CO₂ ratios for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to CH₄ and CH₃OH are 4 and 3, respectively, and a substantial amount of H₂ is required. From a thermodynamic perspective, converting CO₂ to CH₄ is the easier route [108]. Compared with the CH₃OH production process, CH₄ possesses a better energy storage capability [109].



From Equation (1), it is evident that the methanation process is highly exothermic, while reactor overheating remains one of the technical difficulties to be fully solved. Moreover, high temperatures are not conducive to the exothermic and reversible methanation process [110,111], and also accelerate catalyst deactivation. Currently, significant challenges are faced in the development of thermocatalysts with high catalytic performance and long-term stability. These adverse conditions can be ameliorated by 3D carbon gels, which have a high specific surface area and porous structure and can be introduced into thermocatalysts as supports.

3.3.2 Application of Three-Dimensional Carbon Gels in Thermocatalytic CO₂ Reduction

Hu et al.[112] used ammonia as a cross-linking agent to mix Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O aqueous with GO, and prepared the thermocatalyst Ni/GA through a hydrothermal process. Ni/GA had a 3D network structure (Figure 8a). The high porosity and large specific surface area of GA provided more space for the loading of Ni species. GA exhibited strong interactions with Ni species, limiting the size of Ni particles. Ni species were evenly distributed in graphene sheets with small particle sizes, which effectively inhibited the aggregation of Ni (Figure 8b). The CH₄ yield of Ni/GA catalyst (76.2%) was higher than that of Ni/GO (63.9%) at 350 °C (Figure 8c). Compared with 2D GO, 3D GA facilitates better dispersion for Ni species, and the resulting smaller Ni particles can activate and dissociate hydrogen more effectively. The catalytic experiment for 80 h showed excellent stability of Ni/GA at both 300 and 450 °C (Figure 8d). The Ni/GA catalyst reached the highest CO₂ conversion (80.4%) and CH₄ selectivity (94.8%) at 350 °C, both higher than the catalysts that Ni supported at GO and RGO. The transition from 2D to 3D structure contributes to the enhancement of catalytic performance. Deerattrakul et al.[113] synthesized the reduced graphene oxide aerogel catalysts (CuZn/rGOae) loaded with Cu-Zn by hydrothermal method and incipient wetness impregnation, which were applied to thermocatalytic CO₂ hydrogenation to MeOH. The sample exhibited porous 3D framework structure (Figure 9a). Cu-Zn metal nanoparticles were uniformly dispersed on the graphene sheets (Figure 9b). The catalyst had the highest specific surface area (458 m²/g) at the hydrothermal temperature of 140 °C (Figure 9c). The number of oxygen functionalities decreased with increasing

hydrothermal reduction temperature (Figure 9d). Higher temperature led to restacking of graphene sheets and surface area drastically decreased. Low temperature lacked sufficient energy to form a high-porous 3D network of rGOae. The optimal loading rate of Cu-Zn metal was 15 wt%. Higher loading resulted in the greater agglomeration of metal nanoparticles, while lower loading led to the fewer catalytic active sites. The 15%Cu-Zn/rGOae-140°C catalyst achieved the highest MeOH yield (94.53 mg_{MeOH}/(g_{cat}·h)) at a reaction temperature of 250 °C and a pressure of 15 bar (Figure 9e).

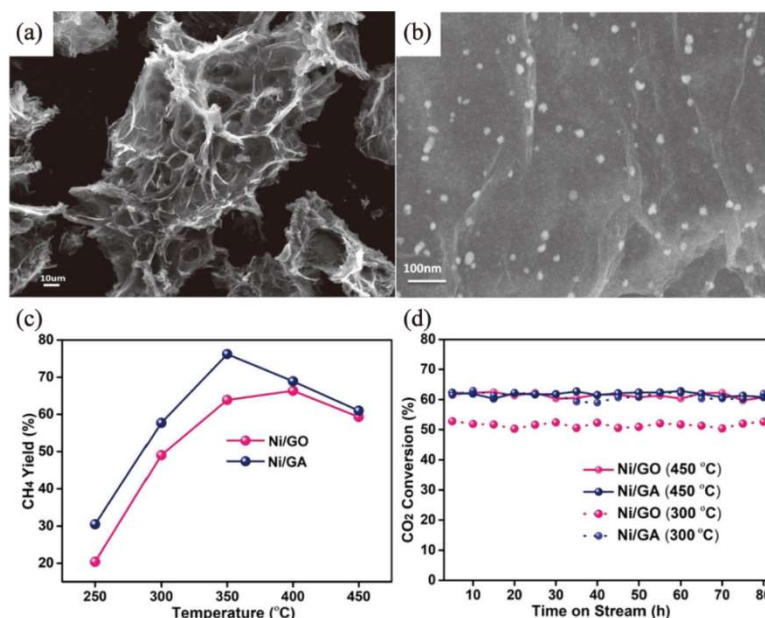


Figure 8. (a) and (b) SEM images of Ni/GA; (c) The yields of CH₄ for Ni/GO and Ni/GA at different temperatures; (d) The stability tests of the catalysts at 300 °C and 450 °C^[112].

The authors subsequently studied 15% CuZn/NrGOae [114], which is the nitrogen-doped reduced graphene oxide aerogel (NrGOae) loaded with 15 wt% Cu-Zn. The introduction of nitrogen impurities onto the graphene aerogel resulted in smaller size Cu-Zn particles that were uniformly dispersed on the graphene sheets of the porous aerogel (Figure 10a and b). The presence of N species (especially pyridine-N) facilitates the adsorption and activation of CO₂ as well as the dispersion of metals, which plays an important role in improving the catalytic performance. Different nitrogen sources resulted in varying nitrogen contents (Figure 10c). The catalyst, 15%CuZn/NrGOae-U (with urea as the nitrogen source), achieved the highest methanol space-time yield (405.49 mg/(g_{cat}·h)) (Figure 10d). The highest spatiotemporal yield of MeOH (STY_{MeOH}) was 405.49 mg/(g_{cat}·h) for the 15% CuZn/NrGOae-U (nitrogen source was urea) catalyst (Fig. 10d). It can be seen that the 3D graphene aerogel with structural defects obtained by doping nitrogen promotes the CO₂ thermocatalytic hydrogenation reaction and improves the reduction yield.

In the thermocatalytic reduction of CO₂, the introduction of 3D carbon gel can improve the performance of the catalyst. On the one hand, the defects present in 3D carbon gels as well as the doped non-carbon elemental impurities can serve as active sites to improve CO₂ adsorption and catalytic reduction activity. On the other hand, prolonged high-temperature and high-pressure operation may cause structural fatigue of the catalyst, leading to structural collapse as well as damage to the active sites, thereby reducing the catalyst activity. 3D carbon gels have good thermal stability and high mechanical properties, which can be used as supports to extend the service life of the catalysts. In addition, agglomeration of the catalyst particles may occur at high temperatures. The porous structure of the carbon gel has a large surface area, which can uniformly disperse and anchor the catalyst, inhibiting its agglomeration and deactivation.

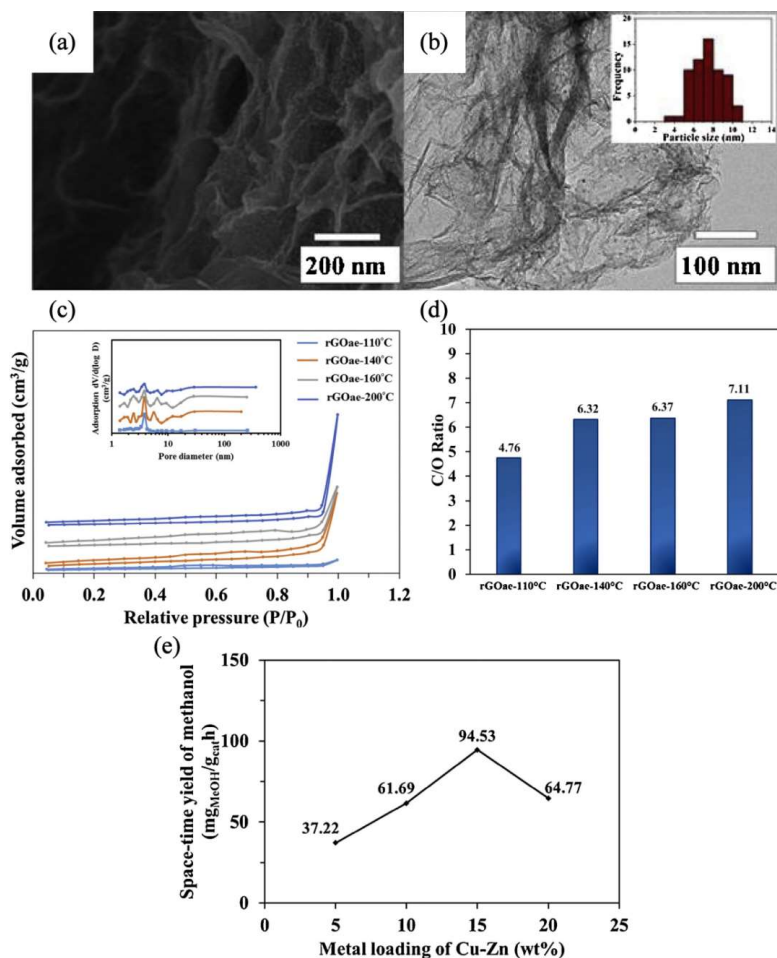


Figure 9. (a) FE-SEM and (b) TEM images of CuZn/rGOae–140 °C with the amounts of 15% Cu-Zn; (c) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of rGOae-T (T=110 °C, 140 °C, 160 °C and 200 °C); (d) C/O atomic ratios of rGOae at different reduction temperatures; (e) Space-time yield of methanol at 250 °C, 15 bar, GHSV of 2 444.397 9 h⁻¹[113].

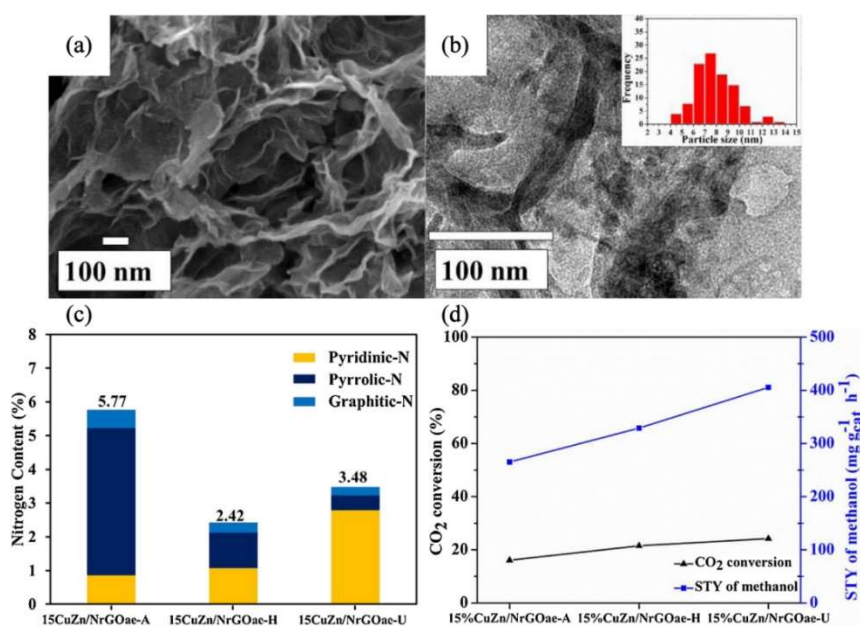


Figure 10. (a) FE-SEM and (b) TEM images of 15%CuZn/NrGOae-U; (c) specific nitrogen contents of the as-prepared catalysts; (d) CO₂ conversion and space-time yield of methanol at 250 °C and 15 bar of CO₂[114].

4. Summary and Outlook

Catalytic Reduction of CO₂ holds promising prospects as a research frontier, aiming to utilize electrical and thermal energy generated from solar power or other renewable sources for the conversion of CO₂ into high-value products, thereby achieving carbon neutrality. This paper provides an overview of the research progress on the utilization of three-dimensional carbon gels for catalytic CO₂ reduction, addressing common challenges encountered in photocatalytic, electrocatalytic, and thermocatalytic CO₂ reduction.

Three-dimensional carbon gels exhibit a substantial specific surface area, high porosity, and excellent electrical conductivity, characteristics that can enhance the rate and efficiency of catalytic reactions. In comparison to one-dimensional and 2D carbon materials, the superior network structure of 3D carbon gels not only facilitates better dispersion and prevents aggregation of loaded catalysts but also provides multidimensional pathways for mass and electron transfer during catalytic reactions. Additionally, three-dimensional carbon gels possess robust thermal stability, chemical durability, and high mechanical strength, indicating that catalysts supported on 3D carbon gels exhibit a degree of resistance to adverse environmental conditions. Notably, the high CO₂ adsorption capacity of three-dimensional carbon aerogels constitutes a crucial attribute, establishing a solid foundation for their application as catalyst supports in CO₂-related processes.

Despite substantial advancements, challenges and issues associated with 3D carbon gels remain to be addressed. Firstly, the synthesis of 3D carbon gels with precise dimensions, structures, and spatial arrangements significantly influences the size and catalytic performance of loaded catalysts. Secondly, while enriched CO₂ is typically employed in catalytic CO₂ reduction experiments, achieving high selectivity adsorption of CO₂ in the presence of competing gases is crucial for practical applications. This might require comprehensive adjustments in pore structure, carbon gel modification, and microenvironmental factors such as hydrophobic/hydrophilic properties and active sites. Additionally, gaining a deeper understanding of the interactions between reactants/intermediates/products and 3D carbon gel catalysts is essential for enhancing catalytic efficiency and developing the next generation of such catalysts. CO₂ reduction pathways involve multiple proton and electron transfer processes, encompassing various products and related reaction intermediates. For complex CO₂ reduction processes, establishing suitable theoretical models for catalytic mechanisms will necessitate the integration of advanced characterization techniques and precise theoretical calculations. Finally, efforts to improve the stability, product selectivity, and reaction activity of 3D carbon gel-based catalysts in CO₂ catalysis are still required.

Currently, the combination of photocatalytic, electrocatalytic, and thermal catalytic systems to create synergistic setups that enhance CO₂ catalytic conversion efficiency is emerging as a novel direction in CO₂ catalysis research. As research deepens, it is anticipated that the catalytic performance of 3D carbon gel-based catalysts will further improve, propelling the development of the CO₂ catalysis field.

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