

# Photoelectrocatalytic carbon dioxide reduction: Fundamental, advances and challenges



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## ARTICLE INFO

### Keywords:

Photoelectrocatalytic  
CO<sub>2</sub> reduction  
Basic principles  
Influencing factors  
Reaction mechanisms

## ABSTRACT

With the rising global population, increasing energy demand and rapid climate change, great concerns have been raised for environment and energy security in future. Solar-driven CO<sub>2</sub> reduction provides a promising way to deal with energy crisis and global warming, which has been widely concerned. Photoelectrocatalysis technology can effectively utilize solar energy and avoid to use high-temperature and high-voltage reduction environment by integrating the vantages of both photocatalysis and electrocatalysis, which exhibits a broad application prospect of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction with a high efficiency and excellent selectivity. In this review, basic principles of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by photocatalysis, electrocatalysis and photoelectrocatalysis are briefly reviewed, also comparing the technical characteristics of the above technologies. Different photoelectrocatalytic systems for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction are described and compared. The several key influencing factors of photoelectrocatalytic performance of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction are discussed, including interaction between reaction molecules and catalysts, reaction conditions and influence of photoelectrode. Then, the advances on reaction mechanisms and strategies of performance enhancement by optimizing photoexcitation, charge separation efficiency and surface reaction were reviewed. Besides, the challenges and prospects of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction will be also discussed.

## 1. Introduction

With the increase of global population, energy demand and climate change, great concerns have been raised for future energy security. Energy consumption mainly comes from the combustion of fossil fuels such as coal, oil, and natural gas, which also releases excessive carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) into atmosphere and thus exacerbates greenhouse effect to cause global warming [1–3]. Converting atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> into low-carbon fuels or small-molecule organic compounds not only benefits CO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction, but also can be used as a carrier of energy storage, which exhibits great significance to alleviate energy shortage and global environmental pollution [4–7].

At present, the artificial methods for CO<sub>2</sub> conversion mainly include high-temperature catalytic hydrogenation, electrocatalytic reduction, photocatalytic conversion and photoelectrocatalytic methods [8–11]. For the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by high-temperature catalytic hydrogenation, the process must input high energy and hydrogen sources that is usually

provided by the combustion of fossil fuels. Therefore, such conversion itself will cause the energy consumption and the generation of more CO<sub>2</sub> [12]. Due to the sufficient electrons in the electrocatalytic reduction, which will simultaneously realize the multi electron reduction process, resulting in a variety of products. Additionally, the different reduction medium (gas phase or liquid phase) and reaction temperature (high or low temperature) will further lead to the increase of product types. If the external voltage is too high, it will also lead to the competitive reaction of hydrogen evolution, resulting in the reduction of Faraday efficiency in the process of electrocatalytic reduction. In addition, the type of electrode or catalyst and the magnitude of external voltage lead to the fact that the electrocatalytic reduction does not have absolute selectivity for a product (usually a mixture of several substances), which is a grand challenge for electrocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> [13,14]. Contrast to above technologies, photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction can effectively utilize the solar energy and avoid the use of high-temperature and high-voltage reduction environment, which has a broad application prospect.

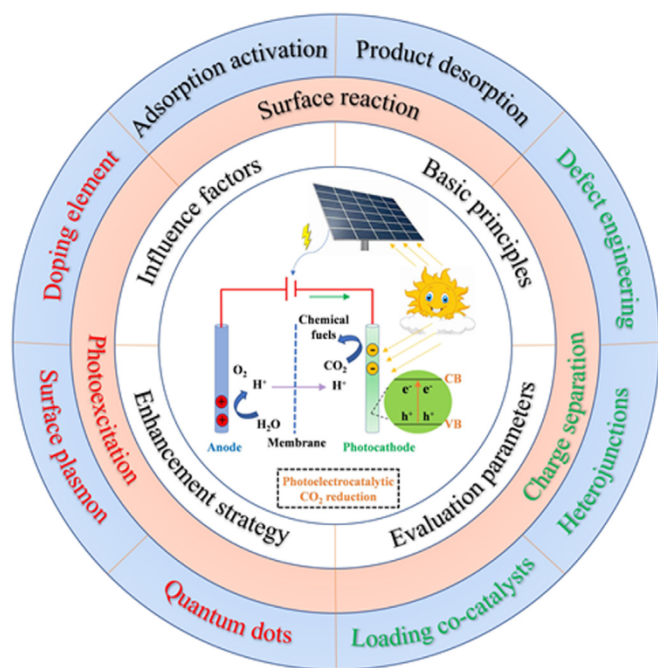
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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nanoms.2021.05.003>

Received 20 March 2021; Accepted 25 April 2021

Available online 1 June 2021

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Scheme 1. The whole framework of this review.

However, photocatalysts generally exist limited utilization efficiency of solar energy and low separation efficiency of photogenerated carrier, which leads to the low efficiency of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Besides, abundant sacrificial agents are often added in the liquid-solid photocatalytic system of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, leading to the increase of economic cost. Additionally, the current catalytic efficiency is relatively low in the gas-solid photocatalytic system of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Therefore, the practical application of current photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction technology is restricted [11,15,16]. Considering those problems, the researchers put forward the technology of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by integrating the characteristics of photocatalysis and electrocatalysis. Photoelectrocatalytic system can promote the carrier separation by adjusting overpotential and also realize the quick transfer of multi electrons and protons, which results in improving catalytic reaction efficiency to rapidly obtain the products of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on the cathode. And product selectivity can be tuned by optimizing the main reaction steps of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction process on cathode. Moreover, photoelectrocatalysis can overcome the energy barrier owing to insufficient redox potential by using external voltage, realizing higher solar conversion efficiency compared with photocatalysis [11,17–19]. These excellent characteristics make the technology of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction show great application potential.

In this review (Scheme 1), basic principles of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by photocatalysis, electrocatalysis and photoelectrocatalysis will be briefly reviewed. The several key influencing factors of photoelectrocatalytic performance are discussed, including interaction between reaction molecules and catalysts (initial activation and C–C bond formation), reaction conditions (such as light source, electrolyte effect and overpotential, etc.) and influence of photoelectrode (thermodynamics and kinetics). The advances on the design of photoelectrocatalytic materials, reaction mechanisms, influence factors and strategies of performance enhancement will be comprehensively reviewed. The main strategies of enhancing product activity and selectivity on photoelectrode for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction are proposed, including photoexcitation (e.g., doping element, introducing surface plasmon and quantum dots), charge separation efficiency (e.g., loading co-catalysts, constructing heterojunction and defect structure), surface reaction (e.g., adsorption and activation of reactants, adsorption/desorption of intermediates), and their synergistic effects.

## 2. Basic principles of catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

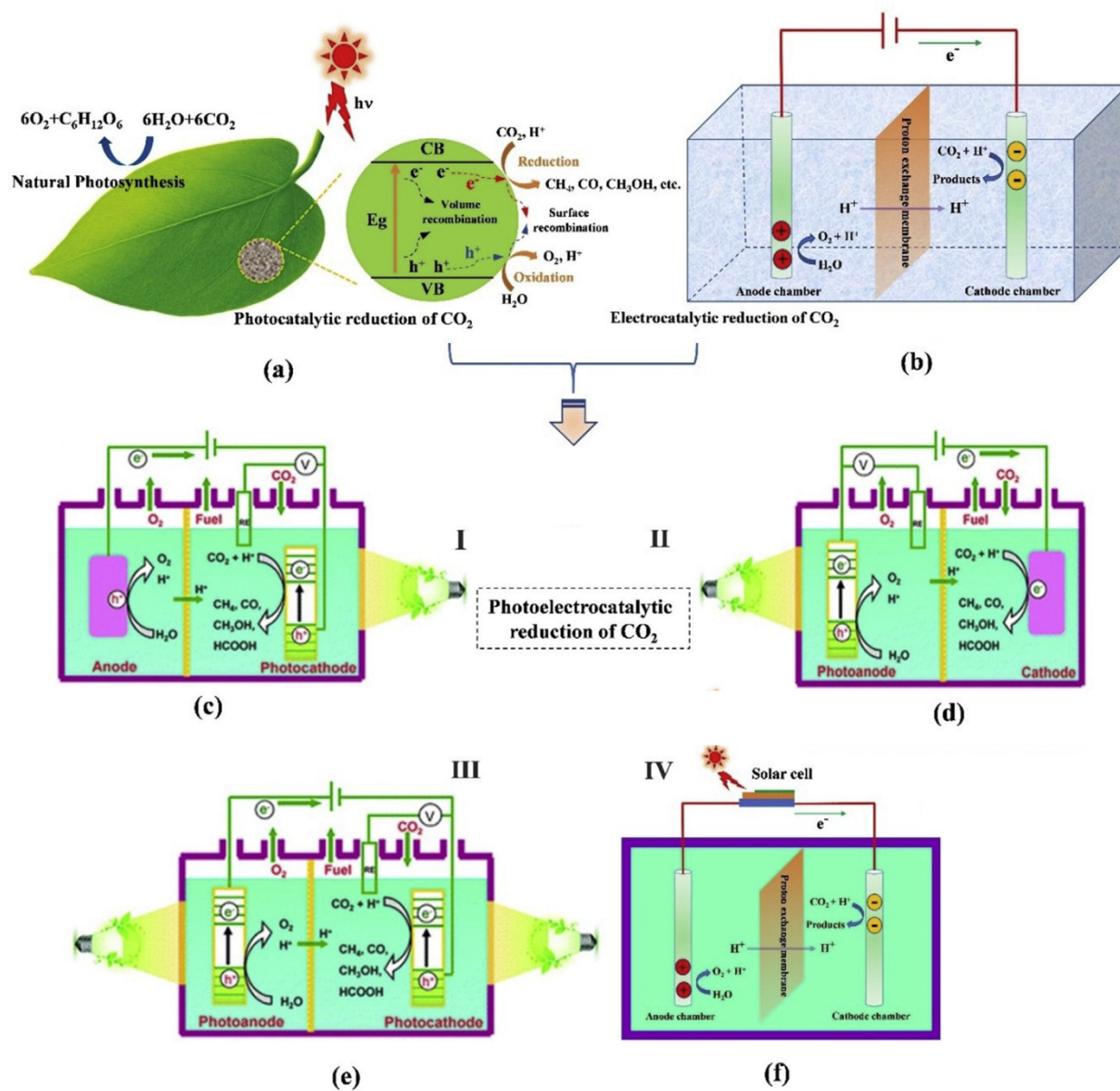
### 2.1. Photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

The most common CO<sub>2</sub> conversion method is photosynthesis in natural world, which means that green plants or photosynthetic bacteria convert CO<sub>2</sub> in the air into oxygen and/or energy materials necessary for growth under light conditions. Photocatalytic (PC) reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> is similar to plant photosynthesis in Fig. 1a [20,21], which is that the electrons and holes on surface of photocatalyst respectively reduce CO<sub>2</sub> and oxidized water to produce oxygen under light irradiation. When the incident light energy is larger than the band gap ( $E_g$ ), the electrons would be excited to conduction band (CB) while holes will be generated in valence band (VB), as shown in Fig. 1a. On the one hand, the photo-generated electrons and holes would recombine (volume recombination and surface recombination). On the other hand, the photogenerated electrons react with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed on the surface to generate CO, CH<sub>4</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub>OH, etc., while photogenerated holes oxidize water to H<sup>+</sup> and O<sub>2</sub> [15, 16,22,23].

Over the years, researchers have developed and designed many types of photocatalysts, including metal oxides [24–29], metal chalcogenides [30,31], metal nitrides [32], metal phosphides [33], layered double hydroxides (LDHs) [34] and non-metal semiconductors [35–37], etc. Although there are various photocatalytic materials, their practical application efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is still not ideal. Therefore, researchers developed plentiful strategies of catalyst modification to optimize photocatalytic performance, including morphology and size control [38,39], crystal face control [40], doping [41,42], noble metal deposition [43,44], semiconductor recombination [45], dye sensitization [46], and defect construction [47,48], etc. To some extent, these modification strategies can improve efficiency of light utilization and carrier separation, thus enhancing the reactivity and product selectivity. However, a series of problems still exist in the practical application. For examples, many sacrificial agents usually need to be added in liquid-solid reaction system of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction that leads to increase the cost, while the catalytic efficiency is relatively low in the gas-solid reaction system, which further restricts the application of this technology. Therefore, it is necessary to develop new photocatalysts or new CO<sub>2</sub> reduction systems. Additionally, the studies about surface reaction process, absorption mechanism of solar energy, separation and migration of electrons/holes, are all conducive to elucidation of the surface microstructure and energy band structure of the catalyst, so as to improve the catalytic efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [7,49–51].

### 2.2. Electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

The process of electrocatalytic (EC) CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is that using external electric field as the main energy source to induce redox reaction on electrodes (Fig. 1b). The H<sub>2</sub>O is oxidized to produce oxygen and protons on anode. And the protons migrate to participate in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on cathode through proton exchange membrane. The reaction process of electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is controllable by adjusting voltage and reaction condition. Due to the sufficient electron source in the electrocatalytic reduction, it will simultaneously realize the multi electron reduction process, resulting in a variety of products [13,14]. It should be noted that if the external voltage is too high, it will also lead to the competitive reaction of hydrogen evolution, which will lead to the reduction of Faraday efficiency of electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Moreover, the type of electrode or catalyst and the magnitude of external voltage would lead to the fact that the electrocatalytic reduction does not have absolute selectivity for a product, which usually includes a mixture of several substances. Therefore, one of the main challenges is to improve product selectivity of electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by optimizing the electrode or catalyst. At present, the technology of electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is still not mature enough due to the obstacles such as low energy efficiency, poor reaction selectivity and total conversion rate [13,



**Fig. 1.** Basic principles of catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. (a) Analogy diagram of natural photosynthesis and schematic of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [20]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2017, American Chemical Society. (b) Schematic diagrams for electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system. **Photoelectrocatalytic systems:** (c) photocathode + dark anode, (d) dark cathode + photoanode, (e) photocathode + photoanode [58], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2016, Royal Society of Chemistry. (f) solar cell + electrodes.

14,52–54]. Birdja et al. points out that the systematic understanding of the intricate interaction among initial activation of CO<sub>2</sub>, formation of C–C bond, surface structure, electrolyte effect and mass transfer is still insufficient [13]. In addition to focusing on the design of catalysts, researchers should also recognize the importance of electrode surface structure, reaction and process conditions. Therefore, combining with theory calculation and *in-situ* electrochemistry technology is necessary to develop more rigorous experiments and standardized procedures, to have a deeper understanding of the electrocatalysis on the catalyst surface, and to develop multi-scale calculation and modeling methods [13,49,55–57].

### 2.3. Main systems and principle of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

Due to the limitation of photocatalytic and electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction in practical application, the researchers combined the two technologies to develop photoelectrocatalytic (PEC) reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. The photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction refers to the process that the

semiconductor photoelectrode generates electrons by photoexcitation, and then the electrons migrate to the electrode surface under the guidance of external voltage to carry out the catalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> [59–62]. The action of external electric field is helpful to promote the directional transfer of photogenerated electrons and holes, and thus enhancing the separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers to greatly improve the redox ability. Simultaneously, when the band position of photocatalyst is not conducive to CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and H<sub>2</sub>O oxidation, the redox potentials can be adjusted by applying appropriate bias voltage in the photoreduction system [17]. Compared to photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction process, photoelectrocatalysis can realize the rapid transfer of electrons to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> on the photocathode at a lower overpotential, greatly enhancing reduction efficiency. Compared with single electrocatalysis, photoelectrocatalysis can use sunlight as the energy source to excite the generation of carriers, then participates in the oxidation-reduction reaction to finally realize the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction with low energy consumption. The whole process can reduce the input of

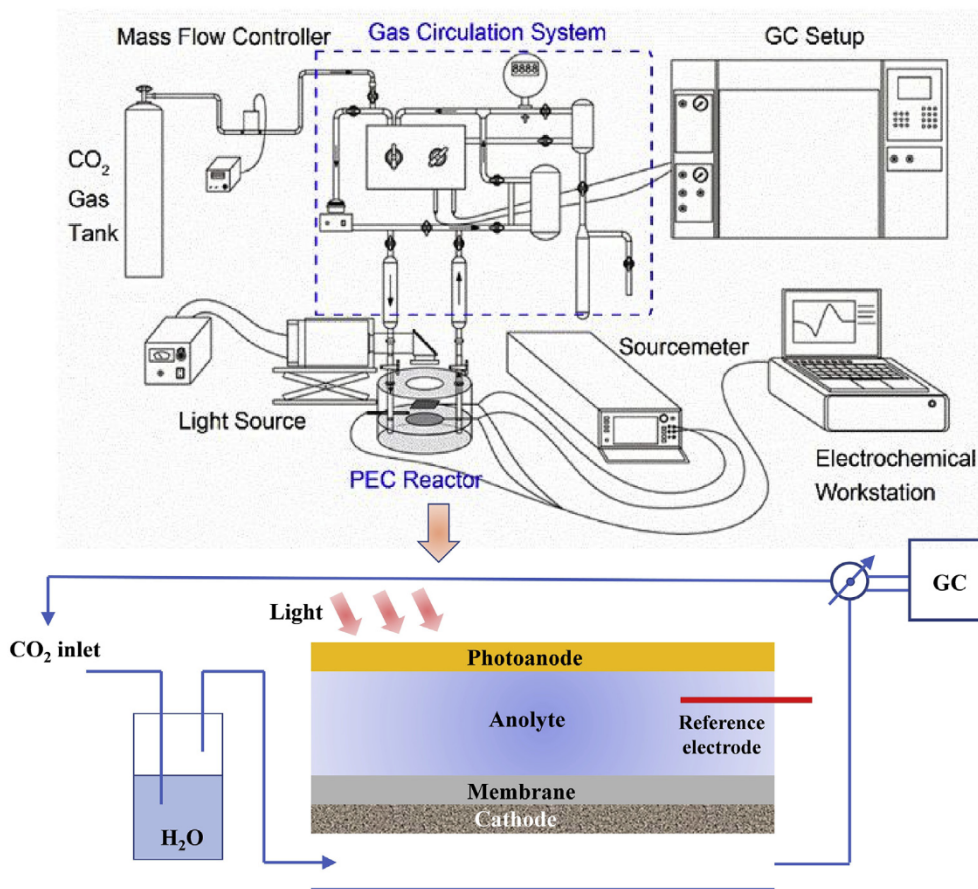


Fig. 2. Continuous-flow PEC CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system [81]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2020, American Chemical Society.

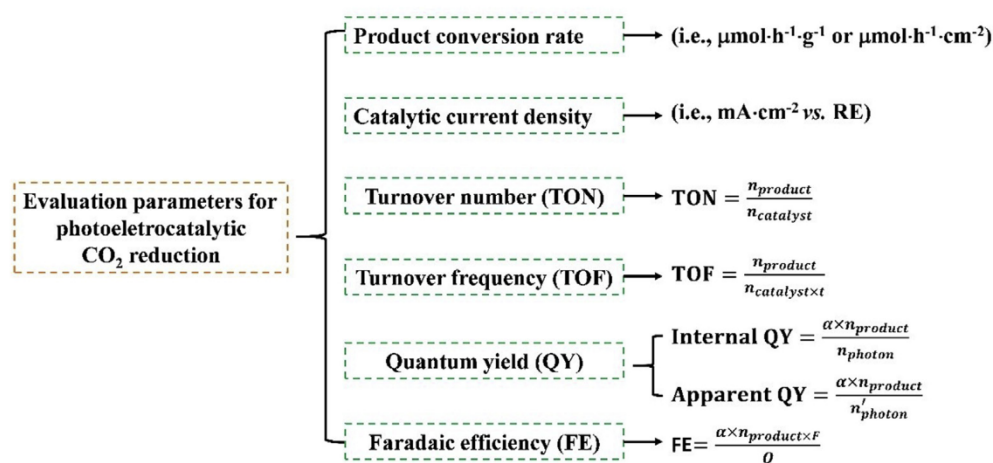
external energy and realize the utilization of low-carbon clean and sustainable energy. The excellent photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system can not only use photocatalysis activity to excite and generate carriers under light conditions, effectively reducing the energy input of external electrons and energy consumption, but also use electrocatalytic activity to improve the electron-hole separation and transmission, greatly enhancing reduction efficiency.

Most experiments of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction are mostly conducted in a three-electrode system including working electrode, counter electrode and reference electrode respectively. According to the different semiconductor materials of photoelectrode, the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system can be divided into following categories (Fig. 1c–e): I. dark anode and *p*-type photocathode, II. dark cathode and *n*-type photoanode, III. *p*-type photocathode and *n*-type photoanode [58,63–66]. The *p*-type semiconductor photocathode not only works as a center of generating electrons and holes but also need to act as the catalyst for CO<sub>2</sub> activation to carry out reduction reaction. Generally, the *p*-type semiconductor photocathodes have negative CBs which are favorable for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. But VB potentials of most *p*-type semiconductor are insufficient to oxidize water, which needs a higher bias potential generally to excite the reaction [58,67]. Additionally, H<sub>2</sub> is usually generated with CO and HCOOH on *p*-type semiconductor photocathodes, affecting the selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The frequently-used *p*-type materials as photocathode including *p*-GaP, *p*-InP, *p*-Cu<sub>2</sub>O, *p*-CuO and *p*-CdTe, but which are generally expensive, toxic and/or unstable in aqueous solutions [68–71]. Instead, the most *n*-type semiconductors (e.g., TiO<sub>2</sub>, WO<sub>3</sub>, ZnO, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and BiVO<sub>4</sub>) that made of earth-abundant elements are generally low-toxic or nontoxic and/or also highly stable in aqueous solutions [72–74]. Which makes the system (dark cathode and *n*-type photoanode) would be an attractive alternative. Furthermore, the combination of

appropriate *p*-type and *n*-type semiconductors with matched band structure respectively as photocathode and photoanode to form Z-scheme heterojunction can realize efficient CO<sub>2</sub> reduction without external voltage [17,58]. However, it is worth noting that not all of this kind PEC CO<sub>2</sub> reduction systems can avoid bias voltage. For instance, the system composed of an *n*-type TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode and a *p*-type Si photocathode was still needed a bias voltage to promote CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [75]. Additionally, a novel tandem device is developed by integrating a solar cell for supplying external voltage to promote CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (Fig. 1f), also showing the excellent efficiency and promising potential [76–78]. When the external bias voltage generated by the solar cell is high enough, the system can realize the unassisted CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and avoid the strict conditions that needs to form Z-scheme heterojunction. Recently, some researchers considered the challenges of CO<sub>2</sub> conversion in traditional aqueous solution such as serious mass transfer limitation stemmed from low solubility and slow diffusion of raw material CO<sub>2</sub> in water [79,80], developing a continuous-flow system for PEC CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by direct introduction of gas CO<sub>2</sub> onto the surface of catalysts [81–84], as shown in Fig. 2. This new system shows an obvious advantage is that no limitations in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration exist due to solubility and diffusion through the double layer and competitive chemisorption of water is largely reduced [81,82].

### 3. Evaluation parameters for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

The evaluation parameters for photocatalysis and electrocatalysis can combine to assess photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, as shown in Fig. 3 [61]. Which mainly include product conversion rate, catalytic current density, turnover number (TON), turnover frequency (TOF), quantum



yield (QY) and Faradaic efficiency (FE). The product conversion rate is generally calculated the yield per hour of per unit mass or per unit area on photoelectrode. The catalytic current density is also an important index to evaluate the reaction efficiency, which needs to be compared with the reference electrode (RE). TON and TOF can reflect the activity of catalytic active centers. The utilization and conversion efficiency of solar energy can be evaluated by calculating the QY. Additionally, the product selectivity can be assessed by calculating FE.

#### 4. Influence factors of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

The influence factors of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction should be considered comprehensively from two aspects of photocatalysis and electrocatalysis [13,85–87]. Fig. 4 summarizes the main influencing factors of photoelectrocatalytic reduction of carbon dioxide, including influence of photoelectrode (thermodynamics and kinetics), interaction between reaction molecules and catalysts (initial activation and C–C bond formation), reaction conditions (such as light source, electrolyte effect and overpotential, etc.).

##### 4.1. Thermodynamics and kinetics on photoelectrode

Photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction belongs to complex multistep reactions, intrinsic properties of semiconductor photoelectrode can influence the reduction efficiency and product selectivity [87]. Firstly, the critical start step is to produce electrons and holes in semiconductor photoelectrode by photoexcitation. The energy of light absorption determines whether the semiconductor can be excited and how many electron-hole pairs can be generated, which affects reaction rate and product selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction from thermodynamic. Significantly, the different reduction potentials will determine the specific products in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Photogenerated electrons need sufficient reduction ability to trigger a specific reduction reaction in thermodynamics, thus affecting the product selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The reduction ability of photogenerated electron is correlated with the CB position of semiconductor photoelectrode. Fig. 4a outlines the correlation between standard redox potential of various products and the positions of CB and VB in some typical semiconductors. The effective electron-hole separation can increase the electron density on the surface of the photoelectrode, which can dynamically increase reaction rate and obtain higher reduction state products. In addition, the interaction between reactants and surface catalytic active sites can directly affect multi-step reaction of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, thus determining the product selectivity. Exploring the relationship between the dynamic changes of surface active sites and the reaction efficiency is the key to achieve accurate control of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [88]. Moreover, the adsorption/desorption of

reactants/intermediates can affect the exposure of active sites and the reaction rate on the surface photoelectrode, which will also determine the product selectivity from kinetics [87,89–92].

reactants/intermediates can affect the exposure of active sites and the reaction rate on the surface photoelectrode, which will also determine the product selectivity from kinetics [87,89–92].

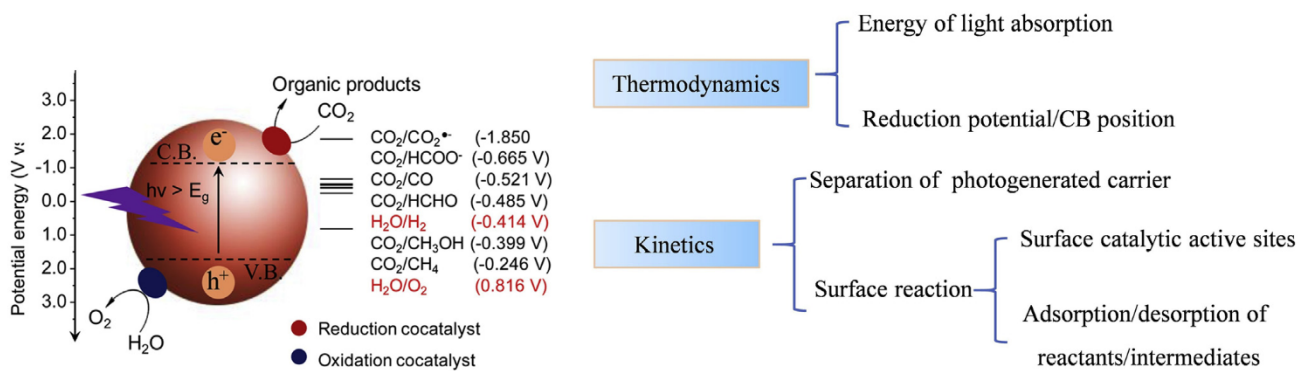
##### 4.2. Interaction between molecules and catalysts

###### 4.2.1. Initial activation of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules

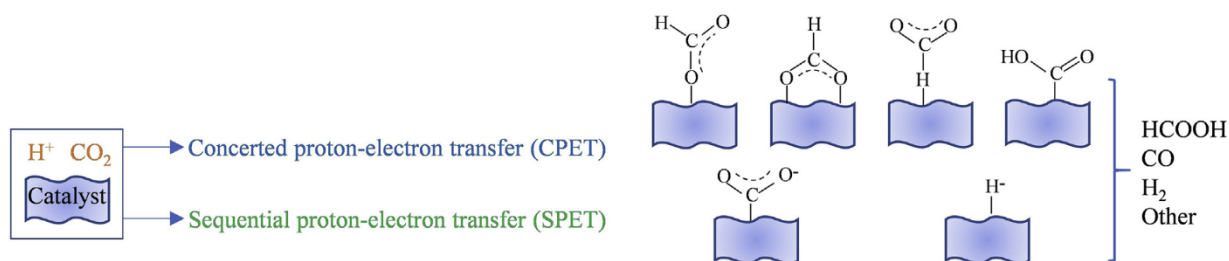
The activation of CO<sub>2</sub> molecule is first step in photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. In general, the activation and reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> is difficult owing to the negative reduction potential of forming the CO<sub>2</sub>•<sup>-</sup> radical intermediate by first electron transferring and because CO<sub>2</sub> is a very stable molecule [93]. A less negative reduction potentials can be induced via forming chemical bonds between CO<sub>2</sub> and suitable photoelectrocatalysts, thus stabilizing CO<sub>2</sub>•<sup>-</sup> radicals or intermediates. Therefore, selecting the right catalyst can directly reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to two-electron products (CO or HCOOH) at low overpotential [94–96]. Birdja et al. [13] considered four reduction processes related to CO<sub>2</sub> activation (Eqs. (1)–(4)):



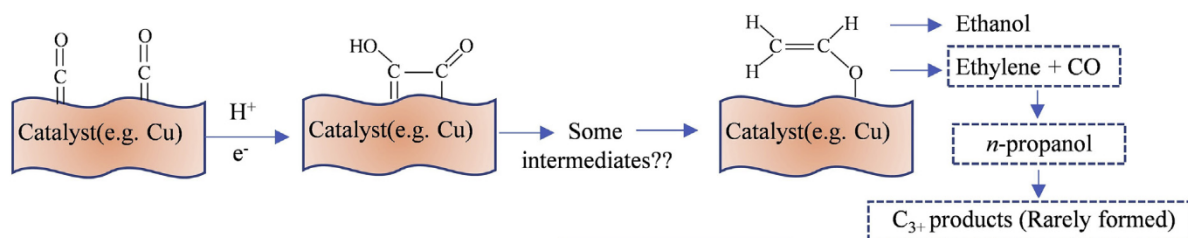
Considering the simultaneous transfer of protons and electrons, the initial activation of CO<sub>2</sub> can be deduced according to equations (1) and (2), and four possible bonding modes were shown in Fig. 4b, which are called concerted proton–electron transfer (CPET) reactions [97]. Whether \*COOH or \*OCHO is the first intermediate of generating CO or HCOOH still remains controversial. By calculating the binding energy, it is found that post-transition metals (e.g., Pb and Sn) are more likely to combine CO<sub>2</sub> through oxygen and have selectivity for formic acid, while transition metal electrodes are more likely to combine CO<sub>2</sub> through carbon [97]. When the initial activation of CO<sub>2</sub> involves only one-electron transfer, the binding step of CO<sub>2</sub> can be deduced via equation (3). If the formation of \*CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> is rate determining step, the product selectivity is strongly influenced by the pH value [98]. Additionally, equation (4) shows the formation of anionic hydride on the surface of catalyst. The Rh, Sn and In protoporphyrins can reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to formic acid with a high selectivity, and the main reason is that the formation of the key intermediate (anionic hydride) to attack C atom of CO<sub>2</sub> according to density functional theory (DFT) results [99,100]. The steps involved in equations (3) and (4) called sequential proton–electron transfer (SPET), Fig. 4b exhibits a summary of the discussed activation mechanisms for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [13]. Compared with the formed intermediates in CPET,



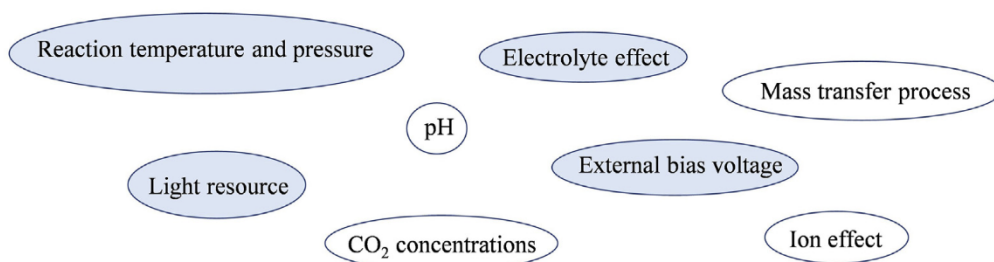
**(a) Thermodynamics and kinetics of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction**



**(b) Initial activation**



**(c) C-C bond**



**(d) Influences of reaction conditions**

**Fig. 4.** Influence factors of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. (a), Thermodynamics and kinetics on photoelectrode [20]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2017, American Chemical Society. (b), Initial activation of CO<sub>2</sub>. (b) The C–C bond formation to generate C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3+</sub> products. (d) The external conditions, including light source, PH, Ion effect and so on.

the intermediates generated via CO<sub>2</sub> activation in SPET are generally charged (or strongly polarizable), which is susceptible to pH and cation effects [13]. Therefore, the activation of CO<sub>2</sub> is important to affect the reaction efficiency and product selectivity.

#### 4.2.2. C–C bond formation

During the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR), one or more C–C bonds were usually formed on copper-based electrodes during CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, which can realize the selectivity improvement of C<sub>2</sub> products by tuned the structure of copper [101,102]. In addition, NiGa, PdAu, and NiP catalysts were also reported to generate C<sub>2</sub> or other more carbon products while the efficiency is different from that of copper [103–106]. The most typical multi-carbon products in liquid phase reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> are ethylene and ethanol, which have high energy density and economic value [107]. The production of ethylene include two pathways: one is the high-overpotential pathway mainly occurred on Cu (111) with the generation of intermediate such as methane, while another is the low-overpotential pathway mainly occurred on Cu (100) without producing C<sub>1</sub> products [108]. The pH dependence of these two pathways is also different, the former pathway is PH dependent while the latter pathway is not, which makes CO<sub>2</sub> and CO have (local) high pH sensitivity on copper-based catalyst. Several experimental and theoretical studies have indicated the key intermediate is a CO dimer in this pathway to form C<sub>2</sub> product [109–113]. The DFT calculation shows that CO dimerization is not easy to occur at a more negative potential, and the coupling reaction of \*CO and \*CHO has a lower activation energy [113]. Combined with the results of experiments and DFT calculations, the rate of C–C coupling is determined by the proton-electron transfer involved in the step, and explain its PH sensitivity [111]. In alkaline LiOH electrolyte, the presence of hydrogen CO dimer intermediate (OCCOH) can be observed in Fourier infrared spectroscopy, which further certified the formation of C–C coupling is sensitive for structure and PH [114]. In addition to ethylene, other C<sub>2</sub> products including acetaldehyde and ethanol can also be observed in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The hydrogenation of intermediates promotes acetaldehyde and ethanol formation, and then the hydrogenolysis of intermediates induces the formation of ethylene [111]. The formation of advanced (C<sub>3+</sub>) hydrocarbons with the FE of 20% has also been observed on appropriated copper [115]. Additionally, the propanol and propanal are main C<sub>3</sub> products observed, also including a small amount of hydroxyacetone, allyl alcohol and acetone. The basic formed pathways of these C<sub>3</sub> products have not been studied clearly yet. There is literature has been reported that C–C coupling between CO and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> precursors would form *n*-propanol [116]. Fig. 4c shown the formation of C–C bond related to C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3+</sub> products on the surface of catalyst e format. Based on the above discussion, the selectivity of products can be optimized by tuning photoelectrocatalyst structure to form C–C bonds during CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

### 4.3. Reaction conditions

#### 4.3.1. Light source

For the system of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, the energy of light plays an important role for semiconductor to generate excited electrons in the system [64]. First, different reaction systems (mainly gas reaction system and liquid reaction system) have different requirements for light sources. Research shows that the ultraviolet ray drastic decay from gas phase into liquid phase [117,118]. Therefore, the UV light source should be fully considered the light source intensity, distance of light source to electrode and other factors in the liquid-phase reaction system. Additionally, different photoelectrodes need different excitation energies due to the differences of band gaps. When selecting a light source, the emitted light must contain the wavelength portion of the excitable semiconductor. At present, the most ideal light source is the sun. Its spectrum consists of about visible light (wavelength ≈ 400–760 nm), infrared light (wavelength > 760 nm) and ultraviolet light (wavelength < 400 nm). Among them, UV can stimulate most semiconductor

catalysts to produce photogenerated electrons. The synthetic light source mainly includes metal halide lamp, mercury lamp, ultraviolet lamp, xenon lamp and LED [119–121]. The wavelength of the synthetic light source can be adjusted according to the different experimental parameters, but the main drawback is the need for additional power to drive, thus increasing energy consumption. So far, most of the basic research in laboratory is to use artificial light source for conventional research, and finally to carry out experiments with the sun as the light source for industrial application. In the future, the solar light source is the ultimate goal for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction from laboratory to large-scale use. Therefore, the reaction system integrated solar cell might be a good development direction.

#### 4.3.2. Reaction temperature and pressure

The influence of temperature on the efficiency of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction mainly focused on these aspects including dissolution, diffusion and/or migration of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules. In the liquid phase reaction system, there are two following situations. On the one hand, the HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> ions would be generated by CO<sub>2</sub> dissolved in water, and movement speed of them also accelerates with the increase of temperature, which can promote the reaction [61,122]. And there is molecular state of CO<sub>2</sub> in the liquid phase system saturated with CO<sub>2</sub>, which can directly obtain the photogenerated electrons and be converted when the temperature is appropriate. But on the other hand, the temperature causes the gas solubility to decrease and the high temperature causes the system energy consumption to increase greatly [61]. In photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, the main purpose is to achieve energy conservation and environmental protection, so the reaction temperature should be carefully considered. Additionally, the pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> also affects the solubility. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in solution can be increased under high-pressure environment, promoting higher photoelectrocatalytic current density and CO<sub>2</sub> reduction rate. In addition, some reports showed that the high CO<sub>2</sub> pressure could also enhance the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction rather than proton reduction, improving the stability of photocathode and product selectivity [61,123,124].

#### 4.3.3. Electrolyte effect

The electrolyte effect (pH, ion effect, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and mass transfer process, etc.) will affect the reduction efficiency and product selectivity [125]. The pH, electrolyte composition and buffer capacity can influence on CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> equilibria in water, which makes carbonaceous species have different concentrations in solution [126–128]. Compared with other electrolytes, bicarbonate electrolyte can enhance CO<sub>2</sub> reduction activity because of the formation of bicarbonate-CO<sub>2</sub> complex, which is as the main carbon source during the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction period, inducing CO<sub>2</sub> concentration to increase in near the electrode. The existence of bicarbonate was proved by isotope labeled infrared spectroscopy [129]. During CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, the alkaline pH close to the electrode was higher than that of base solution because of the formation of hydroxide. This locally alkaline pH is the result of mass transfer and changes in local pH are proportional to current density, depending on factors such as the nature of the electrolyte and buffering capacity, as well as the shape of the electrode [130–132].

The properties of cations and anions in electrolytes importantly affect the reduction efficiency and product selectivity in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Generally, larger cations in electrolytes can bring about a higher C<sub>2</sub>/C<sub>1</sub> ratio and a higher CO<sub>2</sub> reduction rates on copper electrodes [13,133]. The cation hydrolysis effect can increase local concentration of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> because the buffering was enhanced near the electrode for larger cations [133]. Researches show that the onset potential for ethylene depends on the nature of cation while that for methane was unrelated to cation size [134]. In terms of halide adsorption on catalyst surface, anion effects are generally explained as changing the electronic structure, and subsequently enhancing reduction efficiency and product selectivity. And the halide size and concentration also affect the efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [135]. The relationship between reaction conditions and the

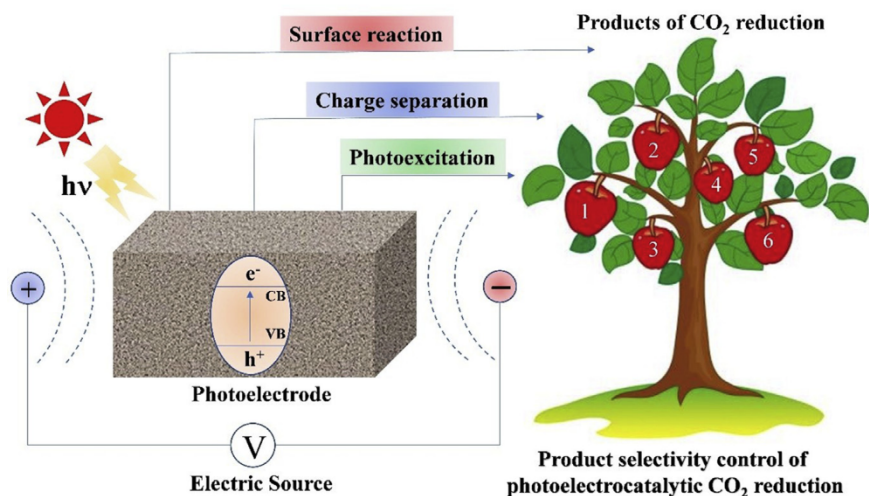


Fig. 5. Main optimizing process for enhancing product selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on photoelectrode.

individual effects mentioned above is very important, but which is still poorly understood.

#### 4.3.4. External bias voltage

In the process of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, the external bias voltage can effectively separate photogenerated electron-hole pairs, thus improving the photoelectrocatalytic efficiency on photoelectrode. Hasan et al. [136] studied the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction performance during the voltage range was  $-1.5$ – $0.0$  V, finding that the products were mainly formic acid (HCOOH) and methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH) under  $-0.61$  V bias. Generally speaking, there is an optimization condition between the external bias voltage and the photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction conversion rate. Under the optimal bias voltage condition, separation efficiency of photogenerated electron-hole pairs reaches the maximum. If the external bias voltage continues to increase, the photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction efficiency will no longer increase. Additionally, excessive bias voltage will not only increase the reduction products and reduce the selectivity of the products, but also increase the energy loss of the whole photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system. Therefore, the effect of external bias voltage on the reduction performance should be investigated in the actual photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system so as to find the best bias voltage.

## 5. Enhancement strategy of photoelectrocatalytic performance

Recently, much progress has been developed in photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Castro et al. [59] reviewed the main materials of photoelectrodes, photocatalytic reactors of different configurations and their characteristics. Which provides a deep understanding on the photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction from the aspects including photoelectrode structures and photoelectrocatalytic reactor. Simultaneously, the application of photoactive materials and key variables of configuration in reaction performance are also discussed. Gong et al. [60] reviewed the research progress of cocatalyst modified semiconductor based photoelectrode from the perspective of material modification, discussed the role of cocatalyst in reaction, and summarized the relationship between the performance of the photoelectrode and its structure. Xiong et al. [61] started from the fine structure of the photocathode, summarized strategies including improving the light utilization rate, providing catalytic active sites and controlling reaction paths, and summarized various novel photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction devices.

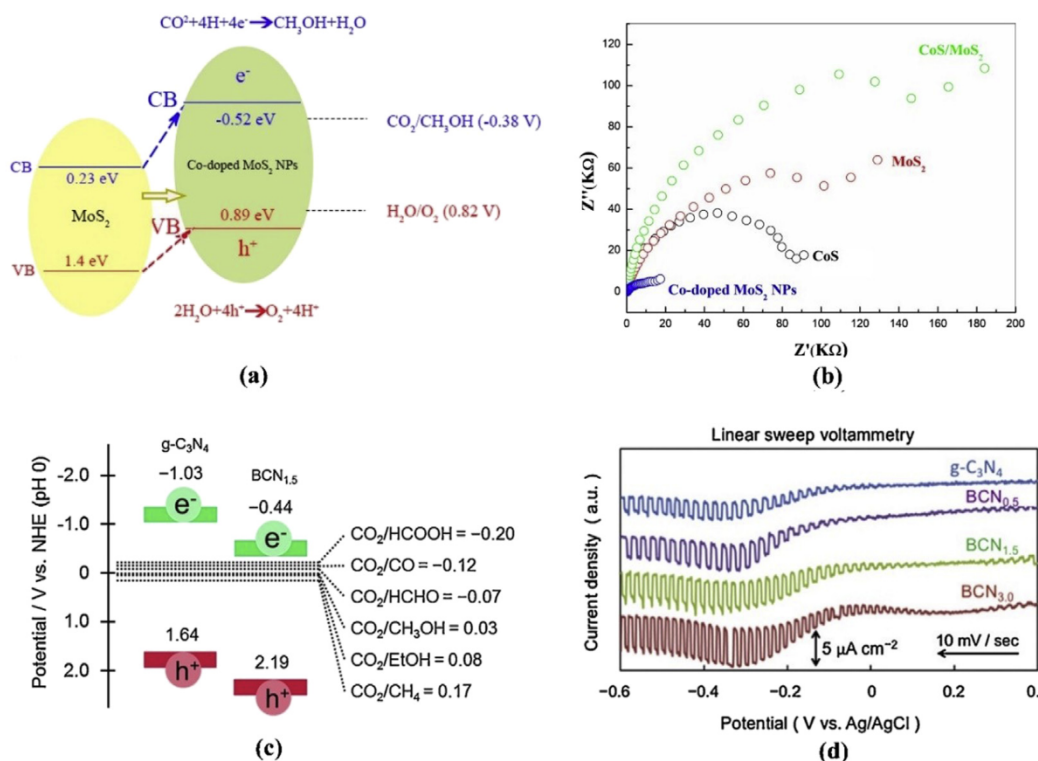
Crucially, the important aim in photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is to obtain high yield of target product. However, the undesired byproducts

were generally produced by consume valuable photogenerated electrons on the surface, which makes the output of target products obviously lower. The poor product selectivity usually leads to the mixing of multiple products, which leads to another challenge that is to separate valuable target products from mixed products. Therefore, enhancing the product selectivity in the reaction process of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is one of the keys to realize its application [87,90,91]. The main process of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is that the semiconductor photoelectrode generates electrons by photoexcitation, and electrons transfer to electrode surface under the guidance of external voltage to carry out the catalytic reaction of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The structure and reaction characteristics on photoelectrode are the key factors affecting the efficiency and selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Therefore, product selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction can be adjusted by optimizing the multiple process in terms of photoexcitation, charge separation efficiency and surface reaction on photoelectrode, as shown in Fig. 5. The main strategies for enhancing the reaction efficiency and product selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on photoelectrode include photoexcitation (e.g., doping element, introducing surface plasmon and quantum dots), charge separation efficiency (e.g., loading co-catalysts, constructing heterojunction and defect structure), surface reaction (e.g., adsorption and activation of reactants, adsorption/desorption of intermediates), and their synergistic effects. In the following parts, we will discuss the methods, structural properties and mechanisms involved in above process.

### 5.1. Photoexcitation

The energy of light absorption determines whether the semiconductor can be excited and how many electron-hole pairs can be generated, which affects reaction rate and product selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction from thermodynamic [87,137]. In semiconductor photoelectrode, the band gap can generally determine the excitation energy needed, thus wavelength range of the incident light to be used. Additionally, the CB position (i.e., reduction potential) of photoelectrode is greatly related to the reduction abilities of photogenerated electrons. Adjusting the band structure of photoelectrode can optimize reduction potentials of electrons, which can effectively regulate the product selectivity from thermodynamics. Doping is an effective method to adjust band structure of photoelectrode, which can control the thermodynamic CO<sub>2</sub> reaction and thus greatly affect the product selectivity. Gu et al. [138] reported a *p*-type Mg-doped CuFeO<sub>2</sub> electrode, which realized photoelectrochemically reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to formate at an underpotential (400





**Fig. 6.** (a) Reduction mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub> on the Co-doped MoS<sub>2</sub> NPs and (b) Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of samples [139], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2015, Elsevier. (c) The band potential diagram of B-doped g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (BCN<sub>x</sub>) and (d) photocurrent of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on BCN<sub>x</sub> [140]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2016, Elsevier.

mV). The introduction of Mg enhanced the visible light absorption and current density. When the applied electrode potential is  $-0.4$  V vs SCE, irradiating with wavelength of  $\sim 800$  nm can produce photocurrent, and a value of 14% for photon-to-current efficiency can be obtained at 340 nm. Peng et al. [139] prepared Co-doped MoS<sub>2</sub> NPs and used for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The Co element upshifted CB position, which makes the band gap of MoS<sub>2</sub> is narrowed and resistance is also reduced. Therefore, the photoelectrocatalytic performance of reducing CO<sub>2</sub> to methanol is excellent (Fig. 6a and b). Sagara et al. [140] prepared a *p*-type boron-doped g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (BCN<sub>x</sub>) electrode for photoelectrochemical reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> under visible light irradiation. The BCN<sub>x</sub> not only obviously changed the energy band structure (Fig. 6c), but also showed a remarkable *p*-type conductivity. Additionally, the photocurrent was greatly enhanced in BCN<sub>3.0</sub> (Fig. 6d), and the main product is C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH. At present, the self-doping of photoelectrode was rarely reported for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. But we believe it can be developed for optimizing photoelectrodes to improve the reduction efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub> in near future.

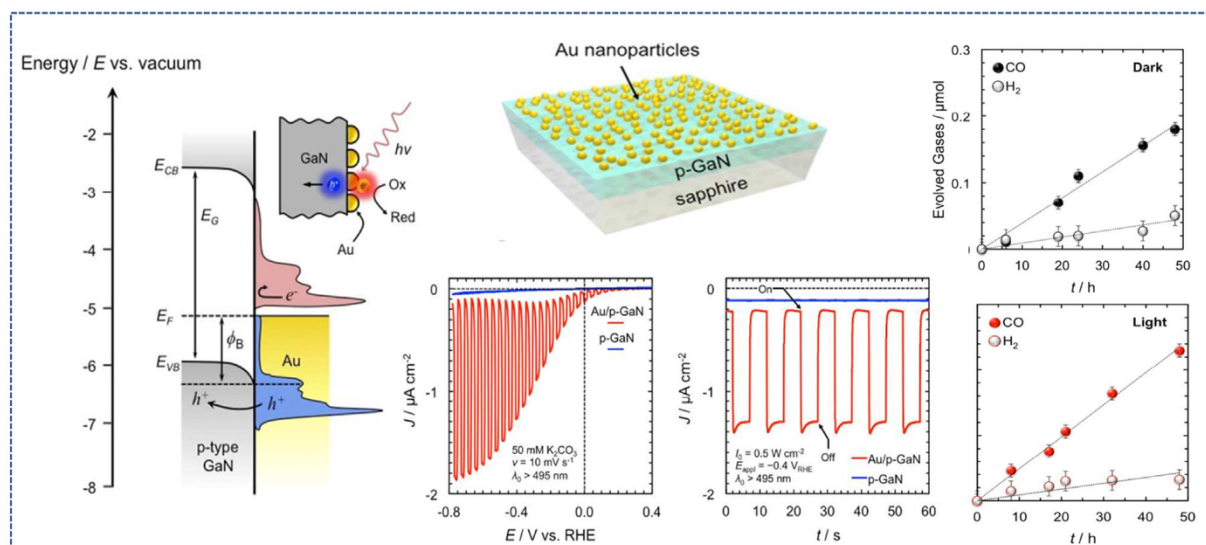
In addition, if plasmonic photocatalyst is used as photoelectrode, which shows different light absorption and excitation modes compared with traditional semiconductor-based photoelectrode, which can obtain strong light absorption via localized surface plasmon resonances. The adsorbed reactants can be activated by energetic (hot) electrons, promoting the reaction of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The energy and density of the photons greatly affect the distribution of photoexcited hot electrons, leading to different reaction rates and pathways [141–145]. DuChene et al. [141] fabricated gold/*p*-type gallium nitride (Au/*p*-GaN) Schottky junctions and studied the capture and conversion plasmon-induced hot-hole in photoelectrochemical reactions. The Au/*p*-GaN can keep a sustained photovoltage by plasmon excitation (Fig. 7a), which makes the selectivity of CO generation greatly improve in aqueous electrolytes by plasmon-driven photoelectrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (Fig. 7a). Kim et al. [142] demonstrated the enhanced photoelectrochemical performance of

CO<sub>2</sub> reduction via surface plasmon on silver nanostructured electrodes. Under light irradiation, the photogenerated plasmonic hot electrons of nanostructured silver electrodes would transfer to the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (MO) acceptor energy levels of adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> or their reductive intermediates, which can enhance the yield, efficiency and selectivity of photoelectrochemical processes. In addition to Au, Ag and other precious metals, Cu also has plasma effect. Shen et al. [144] decorated metallic Cu nanoparticles in Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanotube arrays (Fig. 7b), which showed a high selectivity of formate in photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Therefore, it is feasible to control the product selectivity by adjusting the photoexcitation of plasmonic photoelectrode.

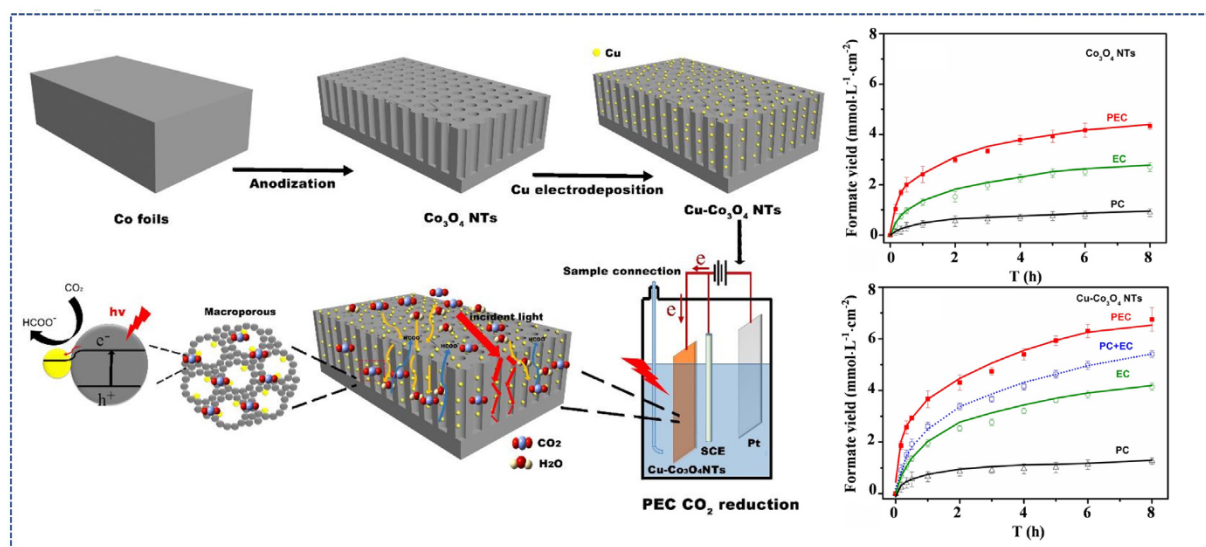
Moreover, the introduction of dye molecules and quantum dots (QDs) into the photoelectrode can also effectively enhance the light absorption. Xu et al. [146] reported that the introduction of Eosin Y disodium salt can improve light absorption. Simultaneously, the introduced Pd nanoparticles and amine ligands can capture protons and CO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The major liquid product was methanol, and the highest selectivity reached approximately 100%. The schematic diagram of catalyst action is shown in Fig. 8a. Isaacs et al. [147] reported that it was possible to modify ITO electrodes with assemblies (polycations/QDs), with polycations PDDA and PMAEMA. Polycations can limit the effects of light on the QDs photoelectrocatalytic properties because different monomer structures of Polycations will generate different arrangements in the assemblies. The modified electrodes with (PMAEMA/QDs)<sub>6</sub> assemblies exhibited better selectivity of HCOH during photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (Fig. 8b).

## 5.2. Charge separation efficiency

The separation efficiency of photogenerated electron-hole pairs greatly determines the density of photogenerated electrons on photoelectrode surface [148–151]. The electron density would strongly affect the multi-step reactions of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, leading to different conversion



(a) Au plasma



(b) Cu plasma

**Fig. 7.** The plasmonic photoelectrodes improved activity and selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. (a) Au/p-GaN photocathodes with plasma effect [141], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2018, American Chemical Society. (b) Cu–Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NTs photocathode with surface plasmon [144]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2015, American Chemical Society.

pathways to obtain different products. Therefore, enhancing the electron-hole separation efficiency in photoelectrode should be a critical strategy to regulate product selectivity [152–154]. The external voltage can promote the separation and transfer of photogenerated carriers, and obtain higher density of photogenerated electrons on photoelectrodes for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, which is a major feature and advantage of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The higher surface electron density can obviously change the product selectivity [136,147]. Besides, utilizing surface modification or interface control to optimizing photoelectrodes, such as loading metal co-catalysts, constructing heterojunction and defect engineering, can be an effective way to enhance the efficiency of photogenerated electron-hole separation and obtain high surface electron density.

### 5.2.1. Loading metal co-catalysts

A large overpotential generally needs to overcome caused by kinetic sluggishness of multi-electron reactions, which make the efficiency of

CO<sub>2</sub> reduction be limited. Loading co-catalysts on semiconductor is believed an effective method to enhance efficiency of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [70,155–159]. The overpotential and energy barrier can be reduced via the effects of co-catalysts, promoting CO<sub>2</sub> activation. Additionally, the co-catalysts can also promote the transfer of photogenerated charge carriers to reactants, accelerating surface reaction from kinetics. Moreover, selecting appropriate co-catalysts can restrain side or back reaction to design reduction pathway, improving product selectivity. Therefore, co-catalysts can be used to improve the reaction efficiency and product selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The mechanisms and fundamentals of loading co-catalysts on semiconductor photoelectrodes will be discussed in this section.

The metal co-catalysts generally have two positive roles: 1) capturing photogenerated electrons to promote carrier separation; and 2) acting as catalytic active sites to reduce overpotential and carry out the reaction [156,160,161]. The Schottky junction at the interface would be formed by directly loading metal nanoparticles on semiconductor, which will

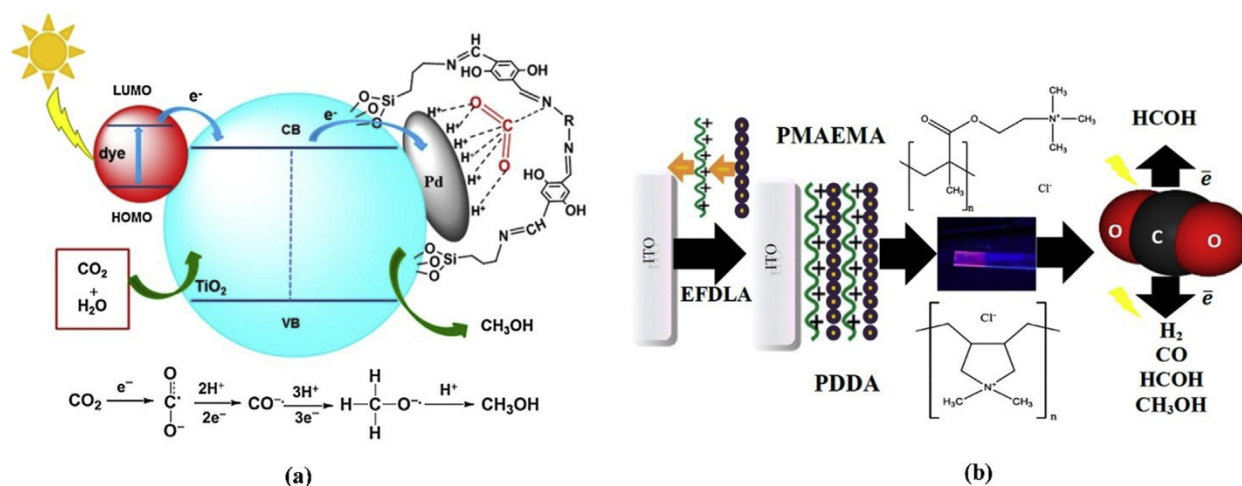


Fig. 8. (a) Schematic reduction mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub> on multi-functionalized TiO<sub>2</sub> photocathodes [146]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2017, Elsevier. (b) Schematic diagram of electrode assembly and photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction of quantum dot-modified electrodes [147]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2015, American Chemical Society.

affect the charge transfer. If the work function of *p*-type semiconductor is larger than that of metal, the electrons on metal surface would transfer to semiconductor after contact. But in photoelectrocatalytic system, which is different. For *p*-type semiconductor photocathode, the separated photoinduced holes would transfer to the counter electrode to trigger oxidation reaction through the external bias under light irradiation. And the electrons would accumulate on metal of photocathode surface to promote CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Although many metals as co-catalysts exhibited excellent performance, not all metals are suitable candidates for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. And the biggest concern is that some metal co-catalysts would lead to serious competitive reactions such as H<sub>2</sub> evolution [93,122]. Fig. 9 shows that the typically metal electrodes are categorized by their primary products in solution: formic acid, carbon monoxide, or hydrogen. Copper is widely used in electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction due to the ability to produce a variety of hydrocarbons [122]. Therefore, an excellent metal co-catalyst should simultaneously realize the improvement of Faradaic efficiency and suppression of competitive reactions in photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

In recent years, the effect of loading metal co-catalysts on photoelectrodes was investigated for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction

[162–164]. For example, *p*-Si photocathode was modified by Cu, Ag and Au nanoparticles for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Fig. 10a and b showed the mechanism diagram of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The main products were CO and HCOOH for Ag and Au, while the Cu cocatalyst could induce CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> to produce [163]. Similarly, Pb, Ag, Au, Pd, Cu and Ni as co-catalysts on *p*-InP photocathode were also studied in photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Both CO and HCOOH can be produced by Pb, Ag, Au and Cu co-catalysts while the only product was CO via Pd modification according to the experiments. The selectivity of products was related to the different enthalpy and Gibbs energy of dissociative adsorption of CO(g) on metal surface [162]. Jang et al. [165] designed a new Au-coupled ZnTe/ZnO-nanowire photocathode for selective CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO. In general, the H<sub>2</sub> evolution was verified to be the dominant competitive reaction on ZnTe/ZnO, which is attributed to its negative CB position. When Au nanoparticles were as co-catalyst on ZnTe/ZnO surface, the activity and selectivity were enhanced (Fig. 10c–e). Additionally, Au, Ag, Cu, etc. metals have plasmon effect and can be loaded on the photoelectrode to achieve enhancement of light excitation and charge separation to control the product selectivity, which have been discussed in above section of photoexcitation [141,142,144].

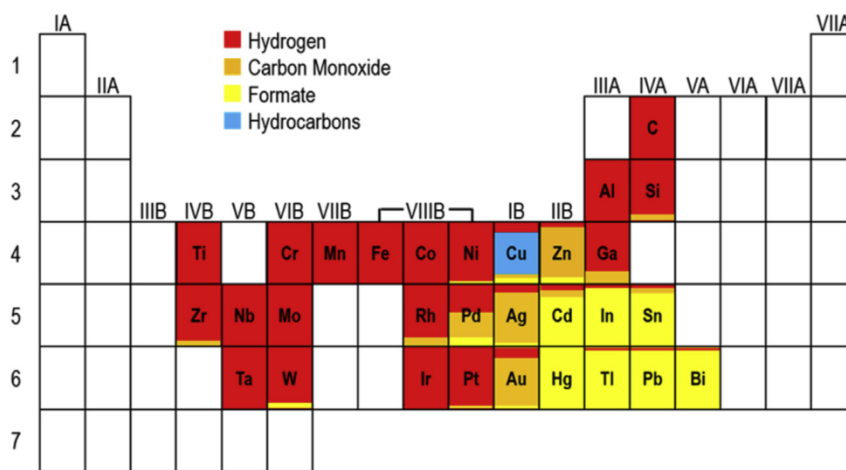


Fig. 9. Periodic table depicting the primary reduction products in CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated aqueous electrolytes on metal and carbon electrodes [122]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2015, American Chemical Society.

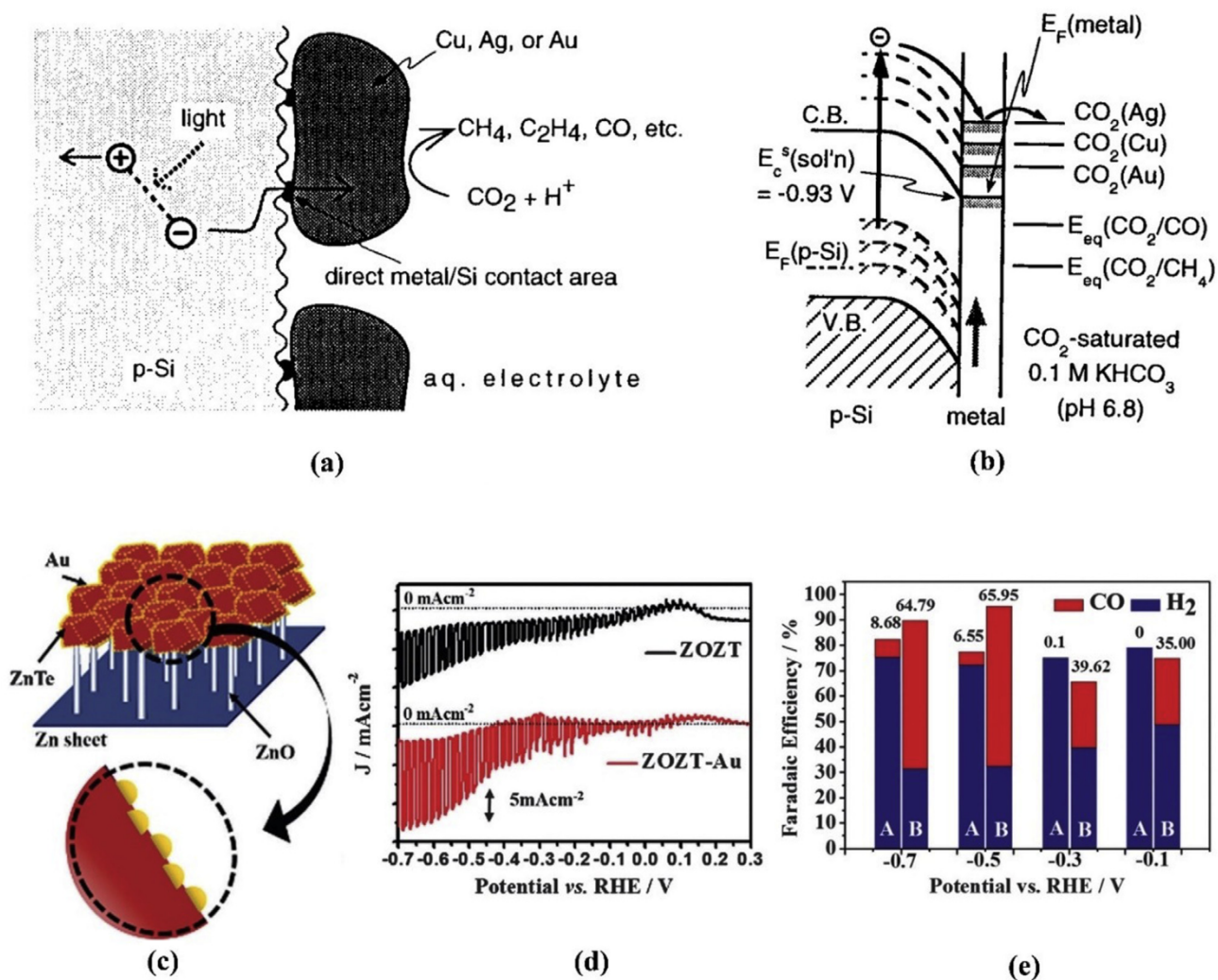


Fig. 10. (a) Schematic of metal particles modifying *p*-Si electrodes and (b) Energy band diagrams of particulate-metal/*p*-Si [163], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 1998, American Chemical Society. (c) Schematic of the Au coupled ZOZT composite, (d) Photocurrent response and (e) FEs of CO and H<sub>2</sub> from the photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction with ZnTe/ZnO (A) and Au-coupled ZnTe/ZnO (B) photocathodes [165]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2015, Royal Society of Chemistry.

Therefore, selecting suitable metals as co-catalysts loaded on photoelectrode is feasible to improve efficiency and selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

### 5.2.2. Constructing heterojunction

The construction of heterojunction is an effective strategy to improve the separation efficiency of photogenerated electron-hole pairs in photocatalytic process. The heterojunctions include various types, such as

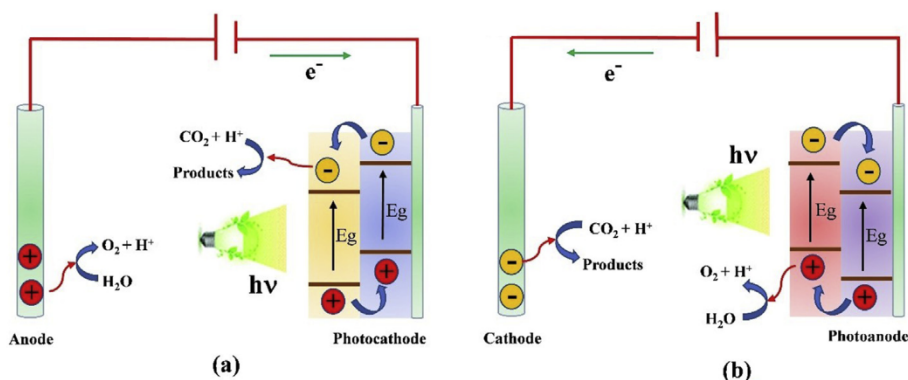
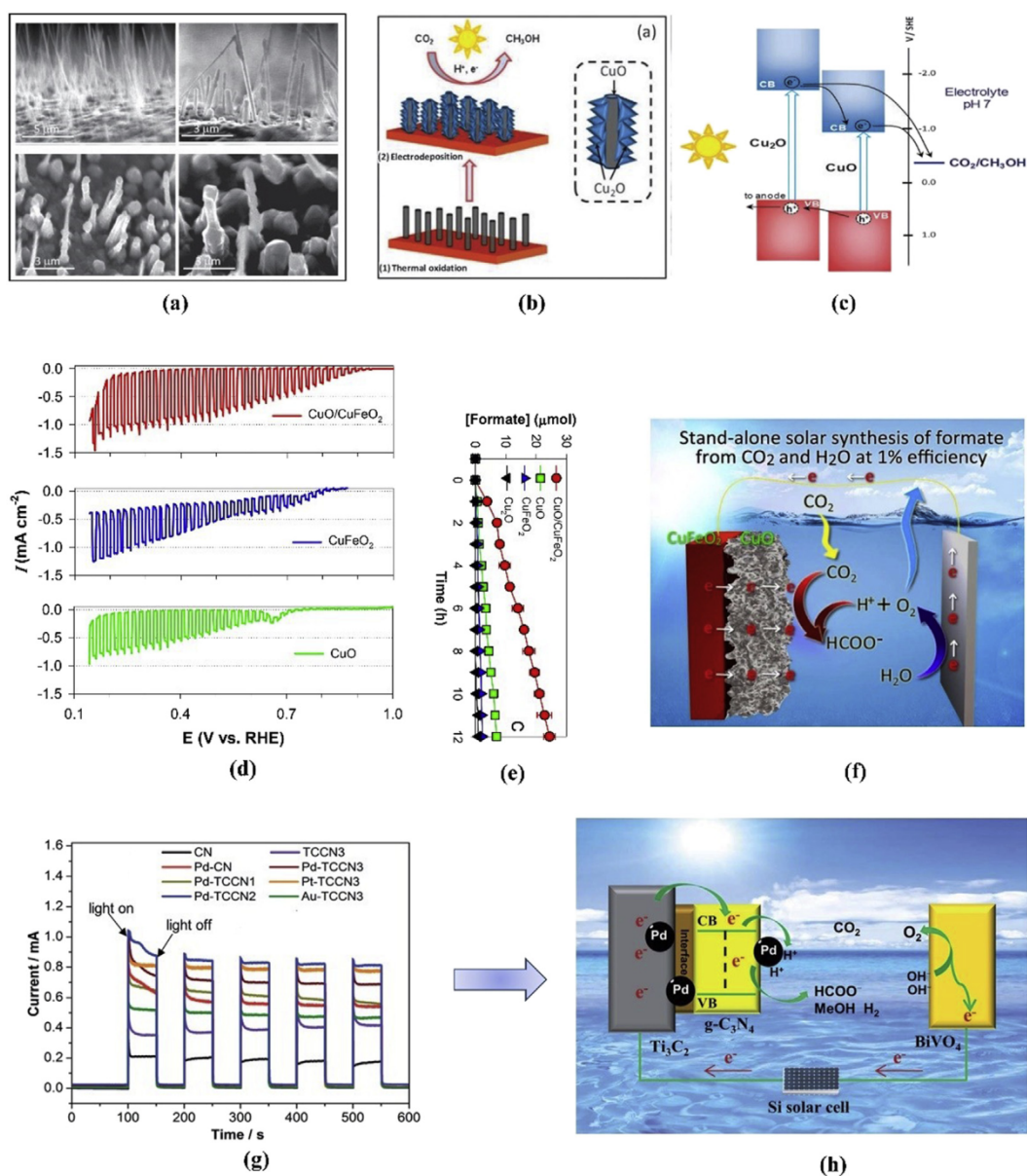


Fig. 11. Schematic diagrams for photoelectrode: (a) photocathode, (b) photoanode.



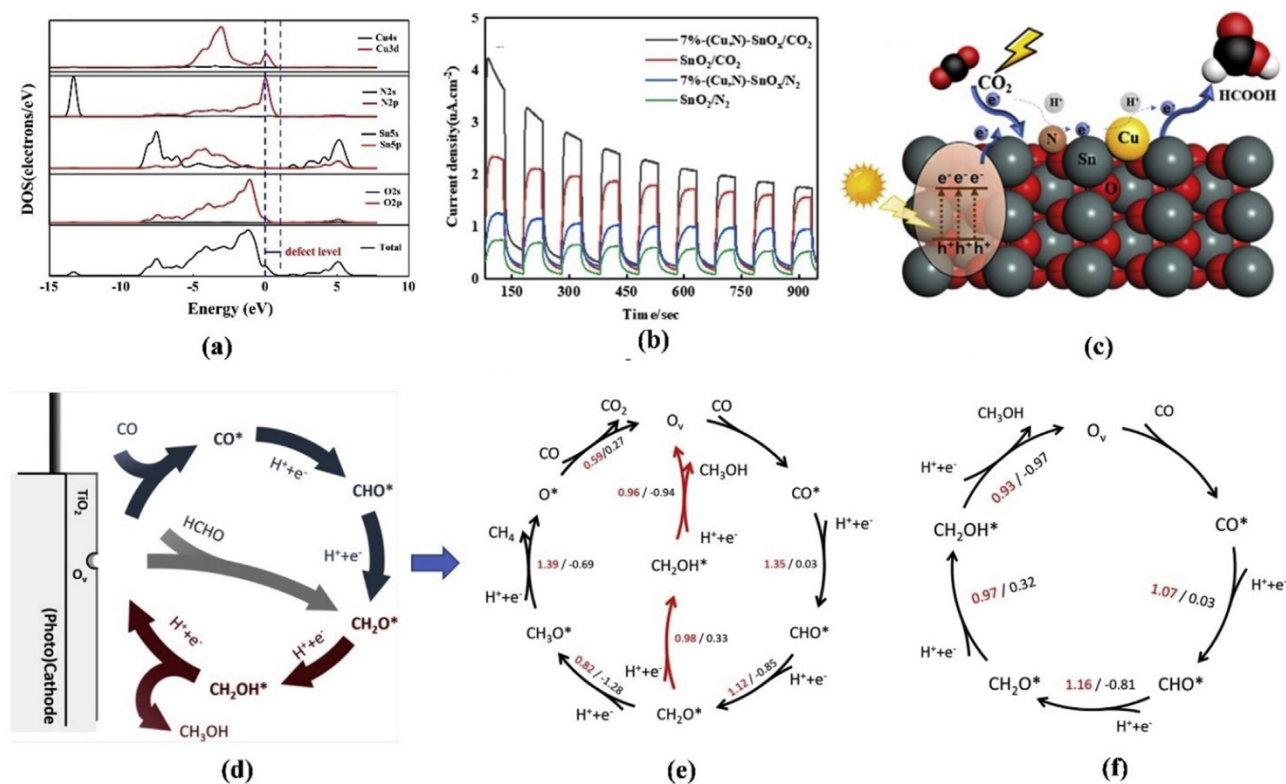
**Fig. 12.** (a) Morphology of a CuO–Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanorod, (b) Schematic of synthesizing CuO–Cu<sub>2</sub>O hybrid nanorod arrays, (c) Energy band diagram of CuO–Cu<sub>2</sub>O and mechanism for solar CO<sub>2</sub> [170], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2013, Royal Society of Chemistry. (d) Linear sweep voltammograms for CuFeO<sub>2</sub>/CuO, (e) Formate productions, (f) Mechanism of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on CuFeO<sub>2</sub>/CuO photocathode [173], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2015, Royal Society of Chemistry. (g) Transient photocurrent responses, (h) Proposed mechanism for PEC reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> into chemical fuels [174]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2018, Royal Society of Chemistry.

conventional type-II heterojunction, metal–semiconductor (m–s) junction, p–n junction, direct Z-scheme heterojunction, and surface heterojunction, which are feasible to separate photogenerated electrons and holes [166–168]. By constructing heterojunction, the recombination of photogenerated carriers can be greatly reduced during migration process, promoting more electrons to reach the surface of photocatalyst and thus obtaining higher surface electron density. The multi electron reactions would be more easily to occur under higher surface electron density, which can facilitate the generation of higher reduced state products. Therefore, product selectivity is related with the migration process of carriers through heterojunction.

Although constructing heterostructure to effectively improve charge separation efficiency is widely studied in photocatalysis, it is developing and need to strengthen the research in photoelectrocatalysis [169]. In terms of photoelectrocatalytic system, the type-II heterostructure was most widely studied and Fig. 11 shown the heterostructure of

photoelectrode. The photogenerated electrons migrate from the semiconductor with a higher CB to that with a lower CB. Under light irradiation, while holes would be accumulated at the semiconductor with higher VB. Driven by external voltage, photogenerated electrons are accumulated at the CB of photocathode to carry out CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, while holes are migrated to the counter electrode to participate in H<sub>2</sub>O oxidation. For photoanode, the photogenerated electrons are moved to the counter electrode and conduct CO<sub>2</sub> reduction while holes are left to carry out H<sub>2</sub>O oxidation. Through designing heterostructure and adjusting external electric field, the charge will be highly separated and thus enhancing the efficiency of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

Ghadimkhani et al. [170] prepared CuO–Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanorod arrays as p-type semiconductor photocathode to carry out photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Fig. 12a and b showed the prepared approach and microstructure of CuO–Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanorod arrays. Fig. 12c exhibited the mechanism of charge separation and migration at the interface by strong



**Fig. 13.** (a) Density of states for co-doping SnO<sub>2</sub>, (b) Transient photocurrent responses, (c) Mechanisms of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on the (Cu, N)-SnO<sub>x</sub> [185], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2020, Elsevier. (d) Schematic diagram of the CO<sub>2</sub> (CO) reduction catalytic cycle on the defective anatase surface: (e) at the S/C interface, (f) at the E/C interface [180]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2020, American Chemical Society.

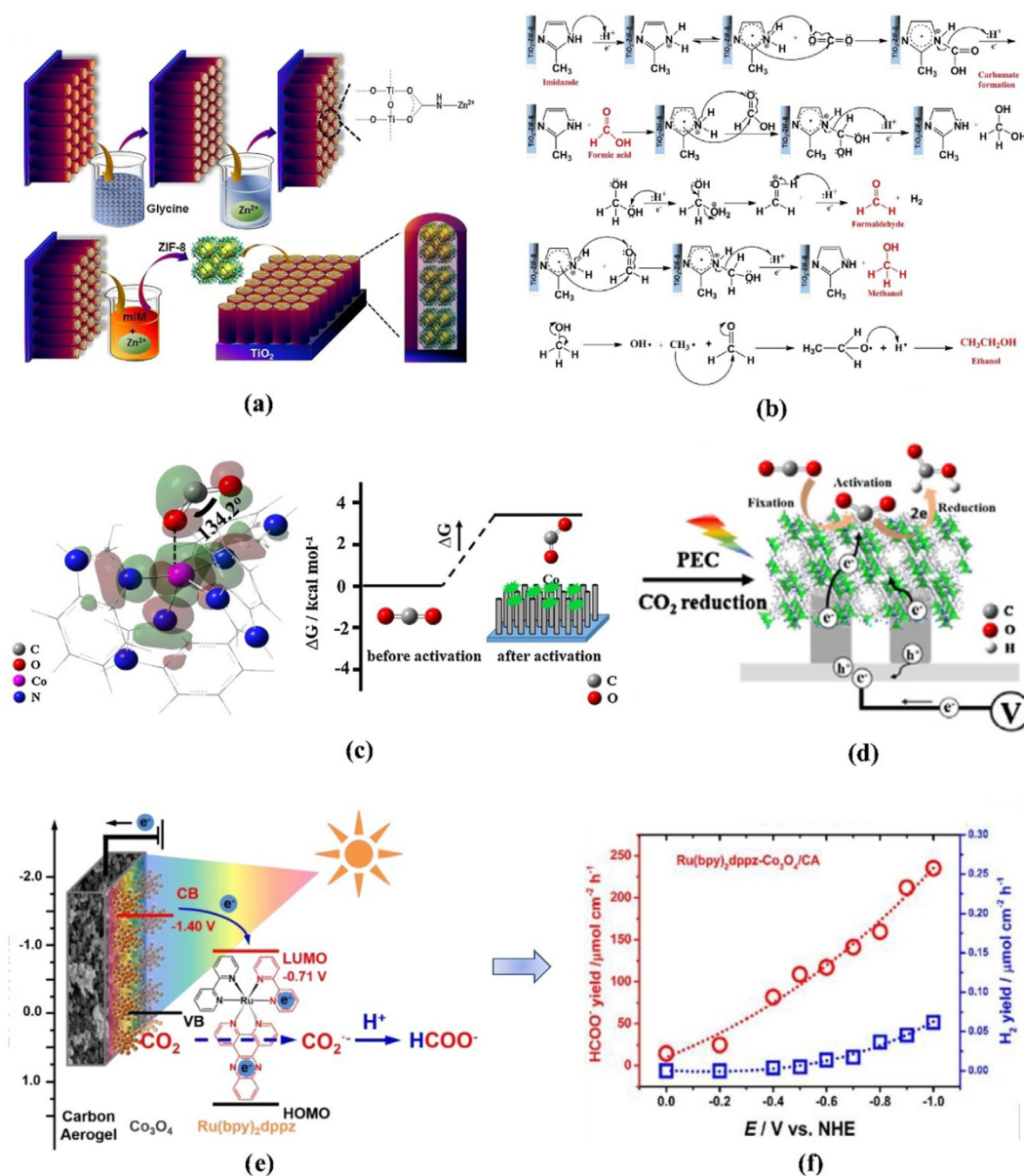
electric field built-in electric field. At an underpotential, CuO–Cu<sub>2</sub>O photocathode exhibited an excellent photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to methanol. Additionally, Takanabe et al. [171] also reported a Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CuO heterojunction photocathode on Cu foil, which made CO<sub>2</sub> reduce to CO with 60% selectivity under constant current conditions ( $-1.67 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) at  $-0.6 \text{ V}$  versus RHE. Moreover, Won et al. [172] pointed out that Cu<sub>2</sub>O/Cu would be produced on the surface by reduced from CuO (CuO/Cu<sub>2</sub>O photocathodes), which would destroy the electron–hole pathways. Other Cu-based heterojunction photoelectrodes also showed excellent performance for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Kang et al. [173] prepared a CuFeO<sub>2</sub>/CuO catalyst for photoelectrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The CuFeO<sub>2</sub>/CuO photocathode exhibited an enhanced photocurrent (Fig. 12d) and improved photoelectrocatalytic performance of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (Fig. 12e). The selectivity of formate was over 90% under simulated solar light. Fig. 12f showed the mechanism of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on CuFeO<sub>2</sub>/CuO photocathode. Additionally, Xu et al. [174] fabricated Ti<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (TCCN) heterojunctions for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The heterojunction not only enhanced light absorption but also promoted the charge separation to increase the photocurrent (Fig. 12g). On the basis of the heterojunction, the modification by nanometal particles would further accelerate charge transfer to improve surface electron density. And mechanism for charge separation and CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is proposed in Fig. 12h.

### 5.2.3. Defect engineering

For photocatalysis and electrocatalysis, defect engineering has been developed to increase the carrier separation efficiency, promote adsorption activation of reactants, enhance reaction efficiency and product selectivity [47,175–181]. Higher electron density can be obtained at defect positions, and importantly affect the product selectivity of multi-electron reaction involved in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. However, some other studies present that defects could also adversely perform as the

electron–hole recombination centers, leading to decrease photocatalytic activities [182,183]. Notably, these contradictory effects of defects might due to the complex defect structures closely related to photocatalytic activity and selectivity. However, there is still a lack of advanced *in-situ* characterization techniques to characterize the complex relationship between structure and properties. Zhang et al. [184] pointed out that the defects cannot only serve as active sites for molecular chemisorption, but also spatially supply channels for energy and electron transfer. They emphatically outline how the parameters of defects (e.g., concentration, location, geometric and electronic structures) can serve as the knobs for maneuvering molecular adsorption and activation as well as altering subsequent reaction pathway. Moreover, Wang et al. [177] summarized the design methods of surface defects and functional interface from atomic-level in electrocatalysts to promote efficiency and selectivity. Xue et al. [178] summarized the construction of the diverse defect types for carbon materials in electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, and revealed the relationship between structure and activity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

According to above analysis, we believe that adjusting the defect structure of the catalyst should be applicable for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. But the current photoelectrocatalytic research is in a relatively initial stage, and the understanding of defect promoting the photoelectrocatalytic performance remains to be developed. Yang et al. [185] reported a Cu and N co-doped SnO<sub>2</sub>-based catalyst with defect for photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The DFT revealed that the defect levels can narrow band gap for accelerating charge transfer, thus improving the photoelectrocatalytic performances in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to formate (Fig. 13a–c). Additionally, Yuan et al. [180] uses DFT to study photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on the defective TiO<sub>2</sub> surface (Fig. 13d), at both solvent/catalyst and electrolyte/catalyst interfaces. Their study revealed an essential role of oxygen vacancy in the reduction process. The defect can promote the adsorption and activation by charge transfer between defective site and chemical adsorbed molecules on the



**Fig. 14.** (a) ZIF-8 formation on Ti/TiO<sub>2</sub>NT, (b) Formation mechanism of alcohol on Ti/TiO<sub>2</sub>NT-ZIF-8 electrodes [196], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2018, Elsevier. (c) The adsorption mode of CO<sub>2</sub> and Gibbs energy by DFT calculation (d) Mechanism of PEC CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on ZIF9-Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NWs [197], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2017, Elsevier. (e) Conversion pathways of CO<sub>2</sub> on this photocathode, (f) Variation of the yield rate of formate (circles) and hydrogen (squares) on Ru(bpy)<sub>2</sub>dppz-Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/CA with the applied potentials [198]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2016, Royal Society of Chemistry.

surface (Fig. 13e and f). They also explained why the main product is methanol in electrolyte and why the reaction and/or diffusion process can control the overpotential.

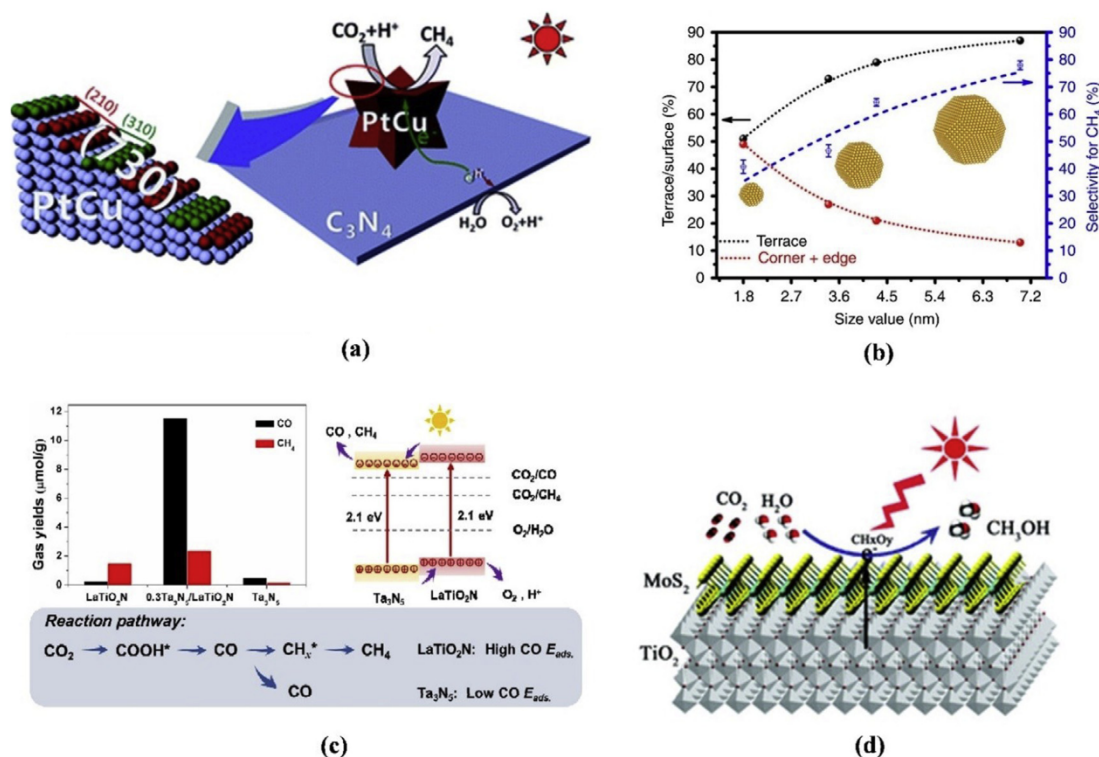
### 5.3. Surface reaction

Surface reaction is an important step in the process of photoelectrocatalysis. After generating electron/hole pairs, they need to be separated and transferred to the catalyst surface to carry out redox reaction. The adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> on the active sites on catalyst is very important, which is the basis of starting catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction. Therefore, enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption can effectively improve the efficiency of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. Additionally, CO<sub>2</sub> is a stable nonpolar linear molecule, which is difficult to be directly reduced. Enhancing the activation of CO<sub>2</sub> on photoelectrocatalyst can reduce the

reaction barrier and improve reduction efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub>. Moreover, activation of CO<sub>2</sub> also can affect the reaction pathway to determine product selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. In photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, various intermediates or byproducts can be obtained. Notably, the adsorption and desorption of intermediate or byproducts can also affect the selectivity of target product. The section will discuss the effects of surface reaction on photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and also summarized how to control the surface reaction of catalyst to enhance the photoelectrocatalytic performance.

#### 5.3.1. Adsorption and activation of reactants

Generally, the main reactants include CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O in photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. CO<sub>2</sub> is a stable nonpolar linear molecule and the bond energy C=O is 799 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, which determine the activation and direct reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> is difficult [186]. Enhancing adsorption and activation



**Fig. 15.** (a) The high-index (730) facets of PtCu co-catalysts on  $C_3N_4$  [203], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2017, Royal Society of Chemistry. (b) Correlations between  $CH_4$  selectivity and surface site proportion as functions of the size of Pt NPs [39], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2018, The Author(s). (c) Schematic illustration about the product selection for  $CO_2$  reduction depends on the surface chemistry of  $Ta_3N_5$  and  $LaTiO_2N$  photocatalyst [204], Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2018, Royal Society of Chemistry. (d) Mo sites especially Mo-terminated edges on  $MoS_2$  nanosheets benefit the stabilization of intermediate products ( $CH_xO_y$ ) [205]. Reproduced with permission: Copyright 2017, Royal Society of Chemistry.

of  $CO_2$  on photocathode can improve  $CO_2$  utilization efficiency and reduce reaction barrier, which greatly affects product selectivity [187]. Adjusting the coordination modes with  $CO_2$  by changing the surface atomic construction of photocathode can significantly enhance adsorption and activation of  $CO_2$  [87]. In addition,  $H_2O$  not only consumes photogenerated holes to undergo oxidation half-reaction but also provides proton source for  $CO_2$  hydrogenation process [64,188]. Moreover,  $H_2O$  can affect the adsorption structures of  $CO_2$  on catalyst surface due to the co-adsorption of  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$  [189]. Therefore, enhancing adsorption activation of  $CO_2$  and balancing the competitive adsorption of  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$  are the key to determine the reaction efficiency and product selectivity of  $CO_2$  reduction [87,189–195]. And for photoelectrocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction system with two electrode chambers mentioned in Fig. 1, the  $H_2O$  oxidation and  $CO_2$  reduction are carried out in anode chamber and cathode chamber, respectively. Therefore, the competitive adsorption of  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$  would be obviously inhibited. The key of regulating the reaction efficiency and product selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction is to enhance the adsorption and activation of  $CO_2$ . Cardoso et al. [196] reported a Ti/ $TiO_2$  nanotubes by zeolite imidazole framework-8 (ZIF-8) for photoelectrocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction to alcohols (Fig. 14a). The experiment results exhibited the increased photocurrent of ZIF-8 at Ti/ $TiO_2$  electrodes. And the concentration of  $CO_2$  was dramatically increased in saturated solution with  $CO_2$ , which indicated the efficient preconcentration of  $CO_2$  on the electrode. When  $CO_2$  adsorbed on ZIF-8, the nitrogenated sites of the imidazolate groups in the ZIF-8 complex would interact with  $CO_2$  (Fig. 14b) to form stable carbamates, which promoted the adsorption and activation of  $CO_2$ . Under light irradiation, photoelectrocatalytic efficiency of  $CO_2$  reduction to form alcohols was greatly improved. Under UV-vis irradiation and an external potential, the formation mechanism of alcohol on Ti/ $TiO_2$ NT-ZIF-8 electrodes was proposed in Fig. 14b.

Additionally, Shen et al. [197] constructed a biomimetic photoelectrocatalytic interface. The cobalt-containing zeolite imidazole framework (ZIF9) acts as  $CO_2$  fixation and activation substrate, and  $Co_3O_4$  nanowires (NWs) performs as the photoelectrocatalyst. For ZIF9 modified  $Co_3O_4$  NWs,  $CO_2$  could be concentrated on ZIF9 and activated via binding Co atom to the O atom of  $CO_2$  (Fig. 14c). By photoelectrochemical  $CO_2$  conversion, formate was produced with conversion rate ( $72.3 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) and selectivity ( $\sim 100\%$ ) at a low overpotential of 290 mV. The proposed mechanism of photoelectrocatalytic  $CO_2$  reduction on ZIF9- $Co_3O_4$  NWs was shown in Fig. 14d. Moreover, Huang et al. [198] established a photoelectrocatalytic interface with semiconductor/metal-complex hybrid, which can enhance adsorption and activation of  $CO_2$  by using a carbon aerogel as the  $CO_2$  fixation substrate. Compared the  $CO_2$  surface concentration on  $Co_3O_4$ /FTO, that in this hybrid interface has a 380-fold increase. The photoelectrocatalytic mechanism of  $CO_2$  reduction was exhibited in Fig. 14e,  $CO_2$  was firstly activated to form  $CO_2^*$  and then turned into  $HCOO^-$  by protonation, converting to the formate in the end. The yield of formate reached at  $110 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  (Fig. 14f) with a selectivity of 99.95%.

### 5.3.2. Active sites and adsorption/desorption of intermediates

The intrinsic properties of active sites would determine their practicability for different target catalytic reactions, which makes the product selectivity is closely related to the number and type of active sites [199]. Therefore, designing and regulating active sites can effectively adjust product selectivity of  $CO_2$  reduction [51,87,200–202]. The low coordinated atoms on surface of catalyst can generally perform as good active sites to activate  $CO_2$  and promote reaction. And the high-index facets may form more low coordinated atoms. For example, Lang et al. [203] found the high-index (730) facets of PtCu co-catalysts showed better improvement effect on generating efficiency and selectivity of  $CH_4$  than



**Table 1**  
Some photo-electrocatalytic systems reported for the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

Electrode	Efficiency <sup>a)</sup>	Conditions <sup>b)</sup>	Ref.
<b>Type I: photocathode + dark anode</b>			
Photocathode: Cu <sub>2</sub> O AF-PSi Anode: Stainless steel sheet	HCOOH, FE:61%	HAL-320 (Asahi Spectra), 1 Sun, 2 h 0.2 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , -0.3 V (vs. Ag   AgCl)	[209]
Photocathode: 5% PANI@CuFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Anode: Pt	Methanol: 33.7 mmol/L.cm <sup>2</sup> FE: 73%	Visible light, 4 h, -0.4 V vs. NHE	[210]
Photocathode: Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Microbial anode Photocathode:	HCOOH: 239 μmol CO, FE:56%	150 W Xe lamp (380–780 nm), 10 h, 0.1 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , resistance (300 Ω) AM1.5G, 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 100 min, +0.17 V vs. RHE	[211] [212]
Photocathode: Cu/ <i>p</i> -NiO Anode: Pt	CO and HCOO <sup>-</sup> , FE: account for 50% of total FE from the device	high-power LEDs, 50 mM K <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> , -0.7 V <sub>RHE</sub> (V vs. RHE)	[213]
Photocathode: CoPc/CNT-C- CsFAPb(IbR) <sub>3</sub> Anode: graphite plate	CO, FE: 68.4%–87.5%	AM 1.5G, 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.47 V–0.17 V vs. RHE	[214]
Photocathode: Cu <sub>2</sub> O/CuFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Anode: Pt	Formate, FE: 21.6%, Acetate, FE: 68.6%	300W Xe lamp (100 mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ), 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.35 V vs. RHE, 30min	[215]
Photocathode: Si/ Bi <sub>5</sub> Anode: Pt	Formate, FE: 73.0%	AM 1.5G, 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , -1.43 V vs. RHE, 30min	[216]
Photocathode: Ti/ TiO <sub>2</sub> NT- Ru <sub>3</sub> (BTC) <sub>2</sub> Anode: DSA®	Methanol: 314 μmol/L	UV–vis light, 0.1 mol L <sup>-1</sup> Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , -0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl, 3 h	[217]
Photocathode: Si NW/Ni SA Bioanodes	CO, FE: ~80%, Tunable CO:H <sub>2</sub> ratio: (0.1–6.8)	1 sun illumination, 0.25 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.24 V vs. RHE	[218]
Photocathode: Ti/ TiO <sub>2</sub> NT@PDA- AgNP Anode: DSA®	Methanol, FE:78%	UV–vis light, 0.1 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , -0.7 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[219]
Photocathode: Zn <sub>0.5</sub> CZGS <sub>5</sub> 40 Anode: Pt	CO: 0.28 μmol, FE: 3.3% H <sub>2</sub> :6.8 μmol, FE: 80.0%	AM 1.5G, 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 1.5 h–2h,	[220]
Photocathode: NiO Si- Poly(RuII)- Poly(ReI) Anode: Pt	CO: 1248 nmol, FE:65% TON <sub>CO</sub> :58	Visible light (100 mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ), 10 h, 50 mM NaHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.7 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[221]
Photocathode: a- Si/TiO <sub>2</sub> /Au Anode: Pt	CO/H <sub>2</sub> ratios: 1:2 to 1:3.1(ST-4Au), CO/H <sub>2</sub> ratios: 1:1 (ST-7Au)	AM 1.5G (100 mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ), 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> ,	[222]
Photocathode: Si with Ag- supported dendritic Cu catalysts Anode: IrO <sub>2</sub>	C <sub>2</sub> –C <sub>3</sub> products, FE: 70%	AM 1.5G, 0.1 M CsHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.4 vs. RHE	[223]
Photocathode: NiO/QD/Re Anode: Pt	CO, FE:32% TON: 11	Visible light (LED), 0.1 M AgNO <sub>3</sub> in acetonitrile, -0.87 V vs. NHE	[224]
Photocathode: Cu- MOF/Cu <sub>2</sub> O Anode: Pt	CO, FE: 95%	AM 1.5G, 1 h, between -1.77 and -1.97 V vs Fc/Fc <sup>+</sup> , 0.1 M tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate	[71]
Photocathode: Si   <i>n</i> -GaN   -NPhN- Ru(CP) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> -RuCt Anode: Pt	Formate, FE:64%	AM 1.5G, 20 h, 50 mM NaHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.25 V vs. RHE,	[169] [225]

**Table 1 (continued)**

Electrode	Efficiency <sup>a)</sup>	Conditions <sup>b)</sup>	Ref.
Photocathode: CuFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Anode: Pt/C	Methanol, FE: 62% Quantum efficiency:14.4%	Visible light, 0.1 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.50 V vs. NHE	[226]
Photocathode: Cu <sub>2</sub> O/TiO <sub>2</sub> -Cu <sup>+</sup> Anode: Pt	Methanol, FE: 56.5%	AM 1.5G, 0.3 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.3 V (vs. RHE)	[226]
Photocathode: <i>n</i> <sup>+</sup> <i>p</i> -Si/Sn- <i>p</i> NWs Anode: Pt	HCOOH, FE: ~60%	AM 1.5G, 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.4 V vs. RHE	[143]
Photocathode: CuFeO <sub>2</sub> /CuO Anode: Pt	Acetate, FE: 80%, Formate	Visible light, 2 h 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[227]
Photocathode: Au-TiO <sub>2</sub> NTPC/ Cu NPs Anode: graphite plate	HCOOH: 1019.3 μmol L <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup> , FE: 82.6%	AM1.5 G, 6 h 0.1 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub> , -1.0 V vs. Ag/AgCl,	[228]
Photocathode: Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> NWs/ZIF9 Anode: Pt	Formate: 578.8 μmol L <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup> , FE: 70.5%	Xenon lamp, 8 h 0.1 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , -0.9 V vs. SCE,	[229]
Photocathode: Si NWs/Au <sub>3</sub> Cu NPs Anode: Pt	CO, FE: 80%	AM1.5 G, 3 h 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.2 V vs. RHE	[230]
Photocathode: Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> / Ru(bpy) <sub>2</sub> dppz Anode: graphite plate	Formate: 110 mmol cm <sup>-2</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> , FE: 86%	Visible light, 8 h, 0.1 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.6 V vs NHE,	[198]
<b>Type II: dark cathode + photoanode</b>			
Cathode: MPC-GDE Photoanode: TiO <sub>2</sub>	CO, FE: 98%	Hg lamp, 3 h, 0.1 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , -0.8 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[231]
Cathode: CoO <sub>x</sub> Photoanode: TNTs	Formic acid: 56.6 μmol/(cm <sup>2</sup> ·h)	300 W Xe lamp, 1 h, 0.5 mol/L Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , 0.6 V (vs. Ag/AgCl)	[232]
Biocathode: CHT/ Ni Foam Photoanode: FTO/ BiVO <sub>4</sub> /Mo	Acetate, 6.42 ± 1.21 mM FE: 62 ± 12%, Solar-to-acetate efficiency: 0.97 ± 0.19%	AM 1.5G (50 mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ), 7d, -0.72 ± 0.03 V vs. SHE	[233]
Biocathode Photoanode: TiO <sub>2</sub> / CdS	CH <sub>4</sub> , FE: 94.4%, Solar-to-fuel efficiency: 1.28%	AM 1.5G, 6d, No external bias, 0.35 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> and 0.25 M Na <sub>2</sub> S·9H <sub>2</sub> O	[234]
Cathode: Cu mesh electrode Photoanode: TCN/ TiO <sub>2</sub>	HCOOH: 110 ± 10 μmol/h, selectivity of ca. 51.7%.	50 W LED light, 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 1.2 V <sub>RHE</sub>	[235]
Cathode: Cu Photoanode: TiO <sub>2</sub> - based MEA	Methanol: 9.5 μmol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> , FE: 16.2%, Ethanol: 6.8 μmol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> , FE: 23.2%	UV LED light (100 mW cm <sup>-2</sup> ), -1.8 V versus Ag/AgCl	[236]
Cathode: CuZn-0.5 Photoanode: BiVO <sub>4</sub>	HCOOH, FE:60%	Simulated sunlight, -1.1 V vs RHE, 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> (cathodic), 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> -0.05 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> (anodic)	[237]
Cathode: Pt Photoanode: Co-Pi/ BiVO <sub>4</sub> /SnO <sub>2</sub> NSA Cathode: Pt Photoanode: 0.4CdS	CO, maximum FE: 90.0%, CO: 316 μmol·g <sup>-1</sup> ·h <sup>-1</sup> ,	AM 1.5G, 1.1 V, 0.5 M Potassium phosphate buffer visible light, 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.3 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[238] [239]
Cathode: Cu/Cu <sub>2</sub> O Photoanode: TiO <sub>2</sub> Cathode: Indium Photoanode: WO <sub>3</sub>	CH <sub>3</sub> OH, FE: 53.6% Formic acid: 9.21 mmol h <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup> , FE: 45.45%	AM 1.5G, 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.75 V vs. RHE AM 1.5G, 3 h 0.2 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> (anodic), 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> (cathodic), 1.2 V (vs. Ag/AgCl)	[240] [241]
Cathode: IO-TiO <sub>2</sub>   FDH Photoanode: IO- TiO <sub>2</sub>  dpp  POs-PSII	Formate, FE: 78 ± 8%	AM 1.5G, 100 mM NaHCO <sub>3</sub> , -0.6 V vs. SHE	[242]

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Electrode	Efficiency <sup>a)</sup>	Conditions <sup>b)</sup>	Ref.
Cathode: Cu foam Photoanode: Sn- WO <sub>3</sub>	HCOOH: 485 nmol cm <sup>-2</sup> ; IPCE: 45.1%	Visible light, 3 h 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.8 V vs. Ag/AgCl,	[243]
Cathode: Pt Photoanode: B- WO <sub>3</sub> (002)	HCOOH, IPCE: 66.7%	AM1.5 G, 3 h, 0.2 M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl	[244]
Cathode: MWCNTs/ CoII(Ch) Photoanode: BiVO <sub>4</sub> /FeOOH	CO, FE: 83%	AM1.5 G, 50 h, 5.0 × 10 <sup>-3</sup> M Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , −1.3 V vs. cathode,	[245]
Cathode: Pd-/C-Ti mesh Photoanode: GaAs/ InGaP/TiO <sub>2</sub> /Ni	Formate; FE: 94%	AM1.5 G, 3 h, 1.0 M KOH + 2.8 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 8.5 mA cm <sup>-2</sup>	[246]
Cathode: EC-PDA Photoanode: BiVO <sub>4</sub> /CoPi	Formate, FE: 99.2%	AM1.5 G, 24 h, 0.1 M Na phosphate buffer, no bias	[247]
Cathode: Pd <sub>7</sub> Cu <sub>3</sub> Photoanode: CNTs/ ZnO/Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> NW	CO, FE: 75%	AM1.5 G, 4 h, 0.1 M K <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> + 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , −1.3 V vs. cathode	[248]
<b>Type III: photocathode + photoanode</b>			
Photocathode: CoPc/CNT-C- CsFAPb(IbR) <sub>3</sub> Photoanode: IrO <sub>x</sub> /a- Si	CO, FE:83%, H <sub>2</sub> , FE: 14%	AM 1.5G, No external bias 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , 20 h	[214]
Photocathode: p- GaN/AuNPs/ RuCY Photoanode: α-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /FTO	HCOOH, FE: 96.8 %, Selectivity: 98.2%	AM 1.5G, 20 h, 0.2 M phosphate buffer −1.05 V <sub>RHE</sub>	[249]
Photocathode: TiO <sub>2</sub> Photoanode: BiVO <sub>4</sub>	Methanol: 55.5 μM·h <sup>-1</sup> ·cm <sup>-2</sup>	300 W Xe lamp (100 mW/ cm <sup>2</sup> ), 0.1 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.6 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[250]
Photocathode: Mn: CdS-CST-TiO <sub>2</sub> Photoanode: NiOOH/FeOOH/ BiVO <sub>4</sub>	Methanol: 90 μM·h <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup> ,	Xe lamp, 0.1 M [APMIm]Br IIs	[251]
Photocathode: BiFeO <sub>3</sub> Photoanode: Co-Pi/ α-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	CH <sub>3</sub> OH: 220 μmol h <sup>-1</sup>	AM 1.5G, 6 h, 0.8 V, 50 × 10 <sup>-3</sup> M phosphate buffer	[252]
Photocathode: H-SiNW Photoanode: 3-jn- Si/ITO/CoPi	Formate: 0.26 × 10 <sup>-3</sup> M; FE: 16.18%	Visible light, 50 × 10 <sup>-3</sup> M phosphate buffer, 1.8 V, 6 h	[253]
Photocathode: Si NWs@CoN/CN Photoanode: TiO <sub>2</sub> NWs@CoP/CN	CO, FE: 73%	Visible light, 0.5 M H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , 1 M KOH, −0.2 V vs. RHE, 8 h	[254]
<b>Type IV: (photo)cathode + solar cell</b>			
Cathode: Au Solar cell: perovskite photovoltaics Anode: IrO <sub>2</sub>	CO, FE: exceeding 90%	AM 1.5G, 2 h, 0.5 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub> , −0.4 V vs. RHE	[76]
Photocathode: BCW-X Solar cell: Si Photoanode: BiVO <sub>4</sub>	Ethanol: 11.4 μM·h <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup> (600 μmol·h <sup>-1</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> ), Selectivity: 80.0%	300W Xe lamp, 2 h, 0.1 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , −1.0 V	[255]
Photocathode: ZnO/ZnTe/ CdTe/Au Perovskite solar cell: CH <sub>3</sub> NH <sub>3</sub> PbI <sub>3</sub> Anode: Co-Ci	CO: 35 μmol	AM1.5 G, 3 h, 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , no bias	[256]
Photocathode: GaN NW-silicon solar cell Anode: Pt	CH <sub>3</sub> OH: 25.5 mmol h <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup> , FE: 19%	AM1.5 G, 100 min, 0.5 M KHCO <sub>3</sub> , −1.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl,	[257]
<b>Type V: continuous-flow system</b>			
Cathode: Ag nanocubes	CO, FE: 92.1%	AM 1.5G, 4 h, 1.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl	[81]

Table 1 (continued)

Electrode	Efficiency <sup>a)</sup>	Conditions <sup>b)</sup>	Ref.
Photoanode: WO <sub>3</sub> / BiVO <sub>4</sub>			

<sup>a)</sup> Including the reduction product amounts, concentrations, or rates, turnover number (TON) and/or Faradaic efficiency (FE); <sup>b)</sup> Including light source, electrolyte, applied potential, and/or reaction time.

low-index (100) facets. Which might be attributed to the formation of more low-coordinated metal active sites in high-index (730) facets (Fig. 15a). Moreover, the surface structure of catalyst will be greatly affected by size and might induce the formation of different active sites on surface, which can significantly determine product selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. For instance, Dong et al. [39] studied the size effect of Pt NP co-catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The selectivity of CH<sub>4</sub> shows a consistent trend with the terrace site fraction but shows the opposite relationship with the low-coordinated site fraction over the variously sized Pt NPs (Fig. 15b). Therefore, they conjectured that the active sites were terrace sites to generate CH<sub>4</sub> on Pt NPs while the low-coordinated sites might be active sites to hydrogen evolution. The structure of semiconductor photoelectrode is essentially similar to that of photocatalyst or electrocatalyst, so the construction and design of active sites on photoelectrode to control the efficiency and selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction can actually find inspiration from the cases of photocatalysis or electrocatalysis. At present, the research progress on the construction of active sites in photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is relatively slow and insufficient, and the typical cases of active site design in photocatalyst or electrocatalyst can guide and develop the design of photoelectrodes with unique active sites. According to the above analysis, it might be feasible that the efficiency and selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction could be effectively improved by constructing suitable active sites on photoelectrode. This is also an important research direction of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

Additionally, many kinds of intermediates or byproducts can be obtained during the process of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The adsorption and desorption of intermediate or byproducts would influence on the target product selectivity. If the interaction between intermediate and catalyst is strong, it may be difficult for the intermediate to desorb from the catalyst surface, which makes further hydrogenation reduction reaction more possible. On the contrary, the weak interaction would lead to easier desorption and release from the surface of catalyst for byproducts, which might greatly affect the active site exposure and product selectivity [87, 204–208]. For example, the adsorption and desorption properties of CO, as an important intermediate, would significantly determine the product selectivity in photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [204,206,207]. Lu et al. [204] reported that the weak adsorption of CO on the surface of Ta<sub>2</sub>N<sub>5</sub> led to the rapid desorption of CO, which became the main product on Ta<sub>3</sub>N<sub>5</sub>. However, CO can strongly adsorb on the surface of LaTiO<sub>2</sub>N, which made CH<sub>4</sub> become the final product. Besides CO, the adsorption properties of the methoxy (-OCH<sub>3</sub> and -CH<sub>3</sub>) radicals and CH<sub>x</sub>O<sub>y</sub> intermediates also greatly influence on product selectivity of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction [205,208]. For example, Tu et al. [205] reported that CO<sub>2</sub> can selectively reduce to form CH<sub>3</sub>OH on MoS<sub>2</sub>-modified TiO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 15d). During photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, the Mo sites can stabilize CH<sub>x</sub>O<sub>y</sub> intermediates by electrostatic attraction, which is beneficial to selectively reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to form CH<sub>3</sub>OH. For photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on semiconductor photoelectrode, the conversion process of CO<sub>2</sub> is similar to that on semiconductor photocatalyst, which means that the adsorption and desorption of intermediate also can determine product selectivity. According to above discussions, there is a strong correlation between active sites and adsorption/desorption of intermediates. Therefore, when designing and constructing the active sites, it is necessary to comprehensively consider the effects on adsorption/desorption of the intermediates, enhancing product selectivity in photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

## 6. Some reported PEC CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system application

Up to now, various photoelectrocatalysts have been reported to be used in typical systems of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (Figs. 1 and 2) and Table 1 summarized the detailed experimental conditions and obtained efficiencies as follows. Generally, photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is carried out in a three-electrode system including work electrode, counter electrode and reference electrode. Additionally, light source, electrolyte and applied bias voltage are usually used as reference for basic experimental conditions. According to the reported results, the most evaluation parameters of efficiency include Faraday efficiency (FE), product conversion rate or current density. And a few results calculated the turnover number (TON) or quantum yield (QY). In fact, there is still no standard test specification, which make it difficult to reliably compare the results of different laboratories. We recommend the evaluation parameters discussed in the third part of this paper, which integrated the efficiency evaluation of electrocatalysis and photocatalysis. Moreover, the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction on photoelectrode is very complex involving the adsorption-conversion-desorption of intermediates. Therefore, the reaction stability of the photoelectrode is very important for the practical application of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and a stability test is needed in the experiments. Although various kinds of photoelectrocatalytic materials have been developed for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, they are basically in the laboratory research stage and far from practical application.

## 7. Summary and prospect

With development of society and increase of world population, the demand for energy is soaring year by year. Among various applications, solar-driven CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to generate low-carbon fuels or small-molecule organic compounds not only benefits CO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction, but also can be used as a carrier of energy storage to some extent, which is significant to alleviate energy shortage and global environmental crisis. Among diversiform methods for CO<sub>2</sub> conversion, the photoelectrocatalysis can endow more remarkable performance by integrating photocatalysis with electrocatalysis and developing the merits of both approaches. In recent years, the photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction developed rapidly, which have been systematically summarized and discussed in this review.

To better understand the principle of photoelectrocatalysis, technical principles of photocatalysis and electrocatalysis were firstly summarized and expounded, respectively, and their advantages and disadvantages were compared. Then the main system and principle of photoelectrocatalysis are summarized. According to the different materials of photoelectrode, the photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system can be divided into following categories: I. dark anode and *p*-type photocathode, II. dark cathode and *n*-type photoanode, III. *p*-type photocathode and *n*-type photoanode. Recently, some novel system have been also developed to carry out photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. IV, a novel tandem device is developed by integrating a solar cell for supplying external voltage to promote CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction, also showing the excellent efficiency and promising potential. V, a continuous-flow PEC CO<sub>2</sub> reduction system was also developed, which directly introduce gas CO<sub>2</sub> onto the surface of cathode to carry out reduction reaction, showing excellent selectivity. Then, the influence factors of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction were also discussed and analyzed, including influence of photoelectrode (thermodynamics and kinetics), interaction between reaction molecules and catalysts (initial activation and C–C bond formation), reaction conditions (such as light source, electrolyte effect and overpotential, etc.). Notably, enhancing the product selectivity in the reaction process of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is one of the keys to obtain high yield of target product and realize practical application. Considering that the structure and reaction characteristics on photoelectrode are the key factors affecting the efficiency and selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic

CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, we discussed the main strategies for enhancing the reaction efficiency and product selectivity of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on photoelectrode include photoexcitation (e.g., doping element, introducing surface plasmon and quantum dots), charge separation efficiency (e.g., loading co-catalysts, constructing heterojunction and defect structure), surface reaction (e.g., adsorption and activation of reactants, adsorption/desorption of intermediates), and their synergistic effects.

Although these strategies have been made in enhancing reaction efficiency and product selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, many explorations and approaches are still in the initial stage, which leads to a fact that realizing large-scale practical applications still need a long way to go. Some typical challenges and issues are listed below: (1) the conversion efficiency and product selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> are still insufficient for practical application; (2) the comprehensive and reliable detection system and standard is lacking; (3) developing more advanced *in-situ* characterizations to reveal reaction mechanism and conversion pathway is necessary; (4) combining with DFT calculation and experiment is powerful to guide the design of photoelectrocatalyst. Although challenges and hidden dangers still exist in this field, we believe optimistically that the technology of photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction can realize the practical application. With the further development and combination of experiment and computation to deeply explore conversion mechanism, novel and efficient photoelectrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction systems will be designed to accommodate large-scale applications in the near future.

## Declaration of competing interest

None.

## Acknowledgement

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos. 21822601, 21777011, and 52002054), the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (ZYGX2019Z021), the 111 Project (B20030), and the Plan for “National Youth Talents” of the Organization Department of the Central Committee.

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