

# Solar-Driven Carbon Dioxide Reduction: A Fair Evaluation of Photovoltaic-Biased Photoelectrocatalysis and Photovoltaic-Powered Electrocatalysis

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The salient question addressed in this work is whether and how photovoltaic-biased photoelectrocatalysis (PV-PEC) can fairly and practically be as competitive as photovoltaic-powered electrocatalysis (PV-EC) for solar-driven carbon dioxide reduction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR). It was argued that to fairly evaluate PV-PEC and PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR approaches in terms of techno-economy, the two devices should be driven by the same PV cell and produce the same group of products for the same series of Faradaic efficiency for each product. For this condition, PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR was shown to surprisingly have higher solar-to-chemical (STC) energy conversion efficiency than PV-EC. Results show that the STC efficiency of 8%, double the state-of-the-art efficiency, is achievable for PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR that employs low-cost perovskite PV cell and silicon PEC photocathode. This non-trivial performance was achieved by leveraging novel design of light management. In particular, the proposed reflective-spectrum-splitting light management configuration enables the use of high-efficiency opaque perovskite PV cell, which significantly boosts the efficiency of PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Furthermore, the framework generalized in this work is also applicable to other solar-driven catalytic processes with various different products such as productions of  $H_2O_2$  by water oxidation and ammonia by nitrogen fixation.

Keywords: solar fuel, CO2 reduction, photoelectrocatalysis, electrocatalysis, techno-economy

# INTRODUCTION

Converting carbon dioxide and water into useful chemicals using solar energy offers a means to provide an alternative to fossil fuels and to mitigate global warming (White et al., 2015; Kumaravel et al., 2020). Since approximately 2.6 V voltage is needed for carbon dioxide reduction reaction ( $CO_2RR$ ), water oxidation reaction and corresponding overpotentials (White et al., 2015), no single semiconductor can provide such a high voltage except for those having wide band gaps and thereby absorbing solar energy over a very narrow spectrum. Therefore, a photovoltaic (PV) cell that provides an extra bias, can be coupled to a photoelectrocatalysis (PEC) cell comprising a semiconductor photocathode for  $CO_2RR$  and a counter electrode for water oxidation.  $CO_2RR$  devices that use the photovoltaic-biased photoelectrocatalysis (PV-PEC) approach (Gurudayal et al.,

2019), have shown higher solar-to-chemical (STC) energy conversion efficiency compared to those use photocatalysis (Sorcar et al., 2019). Ager and his colleagues (Gurudayal et al., 2019) reported the state-of-the-art STC efficiency of 3.5% for PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR that produced  $C_{2+}$  products; while the efficiency for photocatalysis CO<sub>2</sub>RR was as low as 1% reported by Sorcar et al. (Sorcar et al., 2019) where methane and ethane were produced. A PV cell can also power an electrocatalysis (EC) cell to construct a PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device, which is thought to be technologically more mature (Gurudayal et al., 2017; Schreier et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019; Huan et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2020; Kumaravel et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2020). By using III-V multi-junction solar cells and noble metal-based catalysts, the STC efficiency of ~20% has been demonstrated for PV-EC CO2RR that produced carbon monoxide (Cheng et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2020). For PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR that produces C<sub>2+</sub> products, the state-of-the-art STC efficiency is 8.4% reported by Gurudayal et al. (Gurudayal et al., 2017) where III-V multi-junction solar cell was used, and is ~5.2% reported by Huan et al. (Huan et al., 2019) where perovskite solar cell was used.

Longstanding debate goes for and against PV-PEC versus PV-EC. For PV-PEC and PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR devices, the solar-tochemical energy conversion efficiency,  $\eta_{\text{STC}}$ , is expressed as (White et al., 2015)

$$\eta_{\rm STC} = \frac{J_{\rm op} \times \sum_{i} (FE_i \times E_i^0)}{P_{\rm in}} \tag{1}$$

where  $P_{in}$  is the incident solar power,  $FE_i$  and  $E_i^0$  are the Faradaic efficiency and the thermodynamic potential of product *i*, and  $J_{op}$  is the operating current density of the device. The operating condition is determined as the cross point of the current density-voltage (J-V) curve of the PV cell and the J-V curve of the PEC or EC cells. Since the summation of the voltage produced by the photocathode and that by the PV cell, provides the necessary device voltage for PV-PEC, the PV cell in PV-PEC provides a smaller voltage than that in PV-EC, thereby generating a larger current density. Thus, a PV-PEC device has potentially higher  $\eta_{\text{STC}}$  than PV-EC according to Eq. 1. However, for devices that use low-cost perovskite solar cells and produce C2+ products, the state-of-the-art STC efficiency for PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR is 3.5% (Gurudayal et al., 2019) which is lower than the efficiency of ~5.2% for PV-EC (Huan et al., 2019). These efficiency numbers contradict what Eq. 1 tells and skepticism has grown regarding PV-PEC as an alternative to PV-EC (Jacobsson, 2018). Therefore, the core question addressed in this work is whether PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR can practically be as competitive as PV-EC, and how.

### CONCEPT

We believe that the comparison of the efficiency numbers without any prerequisites is not fair to evaluate PV-PEC and PV-EC  $CO_2RR$  approaches; and thus, we proposed a new method to fairly compare their performance. Let us revisit the STC efficiency of a PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device. It can always operate at the maximum power point of the PV cell by 1) using a power management unit (shown in **Figure 1A**), 2) adjusting the area ratios of PV cell to the PEC cell (Schreier et al., 2017) or 3) connecting more or fewer EC cells to the PV cell. Therefore, the STC efficiency of a PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device,  $\eta_{PV-EC}$ , is expressed as

$$\eta_{\rm PV-EC} = \eta_{\rm PV} \times \frac{1}{V_{\rm op}} \times \sum_{\rm i} \left( FE_{\rm i} \times E_{\rm i}^{\rm 0} \right) \tag{2}$$

where  $\eta_{PV}$  is the solar-to-electricity conversion efficiency of the PV cell and  $V_{op}$  is the operating voltage of the EC cell. **Eq. 2** shows that, to fairly compare the performance of PV-EC and PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR devices, they should be driven by the same PV cell (corresponding to the first term in **Eq. 2**,  $\eta_{PV}$ ); and the PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device should operate at such  $V_{op}$  (corresponding to the second term,  $1/V_{op}$ ) that PV-EC and PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR devices produce the same group of products for the same series of Faradaic efficiency for each product (corresponding to the third term,  $\sum (FE_i \times E_i^0)$ ).

Noteworthy, these prerequisites are self-consistent in terms of techno-economy. A comprehensive economic comparison of these two technologies, which are still under development, may be speculative and is beyond the scope of this work. However, it is interesting to perform a thought experiment. Let us take the product price divided by the device cost as the measure (Jacobsson et al., 2014). CO<sub>2</sub>RR products have various profitability (Singh et al., 2015), so the product prices of PV-PEC and PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR devices match if they produce the same group of products for the same series of Faradaic efficiency for each product. Their device costs, a large portion of which comes from the PV cell, are also comparable to each other if they are driven by the same PV cell. Therefore, for this condition, the approach with higher STC efficiency is more competitive.

More insights can be given into Eq. 2. First, it tells that  $\eta_{PV-FC}$ can be easily enhanced by using III-V multi-junction solar cells with high  $\eta_{PV}$ . However, the cost of this type of solar cells is very high; and thus, they are not practical for large scale applications. This also demonstrates that driven by the same PV cell is a necessary prerequisite to fairly compare PV-EC and PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Secondly, the same catalyst (usually metallic nanostructures) can be used for both the cathode in a PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device, but also the co-catalyst of the photocathode in the counterpart PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device (shown in Figure 1B). This is a specific feature of CO<sub>2</sub>RR where high loading of metal cocatalyst nanoparticles or other nanostructures are required to increase selectivity to CO<sub>2</sub>RR and to decrease H<sub>2</sub> production (Song et al., 2017), and as a result dominate the electrolysis properties of the photocathode (Gurudayal et al., 2019). Thus, PV-EC and the counterpart PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR devices will produce the same group of products for the same series of Faradaic efficiency for each product, if they operate at the same current density, *i.e.*, the working voltage of the metallic catalyst is equal to the summation of the voltage produced by the photocathode and that by the PV cell (Beranek, 2019). Therefore, our proposed comparison method is fair and viable.



# **PROOF-OF-CONCEPT**

In the first step, careful management of light and choice of PV and PEC cells were presented for PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR to enhance its STC efficiency and resultantly improve its competitiveness. In a PV-PEC device both PV and PEC cells absorb sunlight, from separated spectra though, and they overlap each other sharing the same area, unlike the configuration of a PV-EC device where only the PV cell absorbs light. In addition, although the overall voltage is the sum of the voltages of these 2 cells, the operating current density is limited by the smaller one determined by sunlight absorption of each cell. Therefore, the optical coupling between PV and PEC cells must be carefully optimized to enhance  $\eta_{\text{STC}}$ according to **Eq. 1**. Toward this end, guided by careful light management, we proposed the PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device architecture shown in **Figure 1B** with following features. 1) sunlight is illuminated from the un-reaction side of the photocathode. As mentioned above, high loading of metal cocatalyst is required to increase CO<sub>2</sub>RR selectivity. This co-catalyst layer has very low optical transmission (Jang et al., 2016; Song et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2018) compared to the co-catalyst layer of photoelectrode for water splitting (usually higher than 90% (Abdi et al., 2013), see **Supplementary Figure S1** for the architecture of a typical PV-PEC water splitting device). Thus, sunlight absorption in the semiconductor absorber, the photocurrent density and the resultant  $\eta_{STC}$  according to **Eq. 1**, would be reduced in a reaction-side-illumination architecture compared to the un-reaction-side-illumination one. 2) The PV cell is in front of the PEC cell so that the PV cell is not blocked by optically thick metal co-catalyst layer and thereby absorbs enough sunlight. 3) As a result, the semiconductor material in the PEC cell has a narrower band gap than that in the PV cell so that the back PEC cell can absorb sunlight below the band gap wavelength of the semiconductor material in the front PV cell.

More insights can be given into the proposed architecture. The first is given to the semiconductor material used for the PEC cell. An anti-reflection layer is needed on the illumination side to maximize optical absorption. A selective hole collection layer on the illumination side, and a selective electron collection layer and a surface passivation layer on the reaction side, are also needed to promote charge carrier separation and transport. This analysis leads to our choice of crystalline silicon (c-Si), a mature narrow band gap semiconductor in industry, for scale-up, because commercial techniques can be used for c-Si processing including anti-reflection, doping, and passivation. The second is the solar cell. Since c-Si photocathode can provide a photovoltage of about 0.6 V (Green et al., 2019; Gurudayal et al., 2019), the solar cell must provide the rest 2.0 V to achieve the target voltage of 2.6 V. This leads to our choice of two perovskite solar cells connected in series because they have suitable band gaps, high open circuit voltages and can be fabricated using potentially low cost methods (Green et al., 2019). Usually, semi-transparent perovskite solar cells should be used so that sunlight below their band gap wavelength can be transmitted to the c-Si photocathode. However, the efficiency of semi-transparent perovskite solar cells has been much lower compared to their opaque counterparts. For example, the reported efficiency of the semi-transparent perovskite solar cell in Gurudayal et al. (Gurudayal et al., 2019) is as low as 8.4% ( $V_{oc} = 1.06 \text{ V}$ ,  $J_{sc} = 14.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , FF = 0.55). Hence, we proposed the reflective-spectrum-splitting light management configuration so that high-efficiency opaque perovskite solar cells can be used for PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR. As shown in Figure 1B, this configuration, inspired by window blinds (Liu et al., 2016; Liu and Li, 2017; Zheng et al., 2019), features an array of solar cell panels comprising one side coated by perovskite solar cell and another specular reflective side, or with perovskite solar cells on both sides, so sunlight below their band gap wavelength is not transmitted, but reflected to the c-Si photocathode; and thus, state-of-the-art opaque planar perovskite solar cells can be used. For example, the perovskite solar cell reported in our recent work (Zheng et al., 2019), was used later for theoretical predictions of STC efficiency. The efficiency of this solar cell is as high as 16.7%, which is twice the efficiency of the previous semi-transparent solar cell. So far, it is noteworthy that the proposed PV-PEC  $CO_2RR$  device (Figure 1B) is totally different from diverse devices reported in literature (Abdi et al., 2013; Jang et al., 2015; Jang et al., 2016; Rothschild and Dotan, 2017; Song et al., 2017; Young et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2018; Gurudayal et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019; Kan et al., 2020; Kempler et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021a; Dong et al., 2021).

In the next step, let us compare the performance of PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR and its counterpart PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR.  $\eta_{STC}$  is determined by **Eq. 1** where the current density-voltage (*J*-*V*) curves of both PV and PEC/EC cells are needed. The *J*-*V* curve of the PV cell can be

approximated by the ideal diode equation (Rothschild and Dotan, 2017) expressed as

$$J = J_{\rm sc} - J_0 \left[ \exp\left(\frac{qV}{kT}\right) - 1 \right]$$
(3)

where experimental short-circuit current density ( $J_{sc}$  = 19.00 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) and open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$  = 1.19 V) reported in a recent work by our group (Zheng et al., 2019) for a single perovskite solar cell (1.66 eV band gap) are the input parameters. For two perovskite solar cells connected in series,  $J_{sc}$  will be reduced by a factor of two with  $V_{oc}$  being doubled. The black dashed curve in **Figure 2A** shows the *J*-*V* curve of two of these perovskite solar cells connected in series. This perovskite solar cell was chosen for three reasons. 1) It employs planar structure which is a requisite for the reflective spectrum splitting configuration. 2) Two of these perovskite solar cells connected in series can produce high  $V_{oc}$  of 2.38 V 3) They can also produce  $J_{sc}$  of 9.50 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> rendering  $\eta_{STC}$  higher than 10% corresponding to **Eq. 1**.

The two-electrode J-V curve of the PEC cell with the photocathode comprising a c-Si photoabsorber and a high loading of metal co-catalyst, can be calculated from the measured J-V behavior of a c-Si photoabsorber for light condition and the measured two-electrode J-V curve of an electrocatalysis cell using a metallic cathode for dark condition (Coridan et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2016), because the electrolysis properties of the photocathode were dominated by the metal cocatalyst, and resultantly, the light harvesting process of the c-Si photoabsorber and the electrolysis process of the metal cocatalyst are decoupled from each other. As mentioned above, the same metal catalyst is used for both the photocathode in PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR but also the cathode in the counterpart PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR, so we took the results for the nanostructured Cu-Ag bimetallic catalyst reported in Gurudayal et al., (Gurudayal et al., 2017) as an example. The cathode employing this catalyst showed high selectivity to the production of hydrocarbons and oxygenates that can exploit existing infrastructures. Moreover, its required voltage at the current density of ~10 mA  $\rm cm^{-2}$  can be provided by the summation of the photo-voltages generated from the PV cell and the c-Si photoabsorber. When this Cu-Ag catalyst is loaded on the photocathode surface, the product distribution of PEC should be similar to that of EC where the catalyst works by itself; at the same time, the operating potential of PEC is positively shifted due to the photo-voltage from the photocathode. The J-Vbehavior of the c-Si photoabsorber for light condition was also approximated by the ideal diode equation (see Supplementary Figure S2). In the proposed architecture (Figure 1B), the PV cell is in front of the PEC cell, so the back c-Si photoabsorber receives less sunlight and thus, generates smaller  $J_{sc}$ . The perovskite solar cell absorbs sunlight below 747 nm (1.66 eV), thereby reducing the  $J_{sc}$  of the c-Si photoabsorber by 55%. Therefore, the input parameters into the diode equation are experimental short-circuit current density (30 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) reduced by 55% and open-circuit voltage (0.6 V) reported for the c-Si photoabsorber (Gurudayal et al., 2019). The measured two-electrode J-V curve of an electrocatalysis cell using the Cu-Ag catalyst cathode for dark



*J-V* curve of PEC cell with the photocathode comprising a c-Si photoabsorber and a high loading of nanostructured Cu-Ag bimetallic co-catalyst. (B) Faradaic efficiency of each product for both PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR and the counterpart PV-EC corresponding to the operating point (the operating point for PV-EC was obtained from **Supplementary Figure S2**). They have the same product distribution. (C) STC efficiency of PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR and the counterpart PV-EC and **Eq. 2** for PV-EC. Input parameters for **Eqs 1**, 2 were obtained from **Figures 2A,B**. (D)–(F) Achievable STC efficiency of PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR. In this case, **Eq. 4** was used to describe the PV cell and the input parameters for **Eqs 1**, 2 were obtained from **Figures 2D,E**. PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR still has higher STC efficiency than PV-EC because they are driven by the same PV cell.

condition was taken from Gurudayal et al. (Gurudayal et al., 2017) (see **Supplementary Figure S2**). Then, the two-electrode J-V curve of the PEC cell with the photocathode comprising a c-Si photoabsorber and a high loading of nanostructured Cu-Ag bimetallic co-catalyst was calculated and shown as the red curve in **Figure 2A**.

This model device of PV-PEC  $CO_2RR$  operates at 9.46 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and 2.24 V as shown in **Figure 2A**. The

corresponding Faradaic efficiency of each product shown in **Figure 2B** was obtained from Gurudayal et al. (Gurudayal et al., 2017). This operating condition is very close to the maximum power point of the PV cell as a result of novel light management and careful cell choice. The solar-to-chemical conversion efficiency,  $\eta_{\text{PV-PEC}}$ , was calculated using **Eq. 1**. STC efficiency for each product was shown in **Figure 2C** with their thermodynamic potential listed in **Supplementary Table S1** 

(Gurudayal et al., 2017). STC efficiency for all products is as high as 11.5% with a notable efficiency of 6.5% for producing hydrocarbons and oxygenates. Then, STC efficiency of the counterpart PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device was calculated from Eq. 2.  $\eta_{\rm PV} = 21.3\%$  was obtained from the *J*-*V* curve of the PV cell shown in Figure 2A.  $V_{op} = 2.81$  V, which corresponds to the current density of 9.46 mÅ cm<sup>-2</sup>, was obtained from the two-electrode J-V curve of the EC cell shown in Supplementary Figure S2. The Faradaic efficiency of each product was the same as that of PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device shown in Figure 2B. The calculated STC efficiency of this counterpart device, which is driven by the same two perovskite solar cells connected in series, was also shown in **Figure 2C**. Noteworthy,  $\eta_{PV-EC}$  for all products is 9.2%, which is lower than  $\eta_{\text{PV-PEC}}$  of 11.5%. These results demonstrate the competitiveness of PV-PEC CO2RR comparable to PV-EC CO<sub>2</sub>RR. Again, this non-trivial performance, which has never been demonstrated before, is attributed to our novel design of light management and careful choice of both the PV and PEC cells.

## DISCUSSION

Achievable STC efficiency of our proposed PV-PEC  $CO_2RR$  device. Besides the light management, the gap between the measure STC efficiency in literature and the theoretical predictions in this work is also caused by the performance of the photoabsorber of the photocathode and the performance of the PV cell. In previous analyses, the *J*-*V* behavior of the c-Si photoabsorber was approximated by the ideal diode equation (**Eq. 3**). Its performance, however, will be reduced by the non-ideal series and shunt resistances. Therefore, we use the following equation (Fountaine et al., 2016),

$$V = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left[ \frac{J_{\rm sc} - J - (V + JR_{\rm s})/R_{\rm sh}}{J_0} + 1 \right] - JR_{\rm s}, \tag{4}$$

to describe c-Si photoabsorber. The input parameters are  $V_{\rm oc} = 0.6$  V,  $J_{\rm sc} = 13.5$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup>,  $R_{\rm s} = 0.1 \,\Omega$  cm<sup>-2</sup> and  $R_{\rm sh} = 5 \times 10^7 \,\Omega$  cm<sup>-2</sup>. These parameters have been experimentally validated (Gurudayal et al., 2019). The obtained result was then used to calculate the two-electrode *J*-*V* curve of the PEC cell. Figure S3 shows that the operating point and resultantly, the STC efficiency are nearly identical to those predicted using Eq. 3. These results are expected because mature techniques have been developed for the processing of c-Si, and both  $R_{\rm s} = 0.1 \,\Omega$  cm<sup>-2</sup> and  $R_{\rm sh} = 5 \times 10^7 \,\Omega$  cm<sup>-2</sup> are high-quality values.

The *J*-*V* curve of the perovskite solar cell was also approximated by the ideal diode equation in previous analyses, so again, we use **Eq. 4** to describe this solar cell. The input parameters are  $V_{oc} = 1.146 \text{ V}$ ,  $J_{sc} = 19.0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ,  $R_s = 6.2 \Omega \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and  $R_{sh} = 926 \Omega \text{ cm}^{-2}$ . Specifically, these realistic parameters are for inclined illumination with an incident angle of 45° (Zheng et al., 2019), which is required by the reflective spectrum splitting configuration. **Figure 2D** shows that the non-ideal series and shunt resistances decrease the fill factor of the PV cell; as a result, the operating current density of PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device is reduced to  $7.09 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ . The corresponding Faradaic efficiency of each product is shown in **Figure 2E** with the resultant STC efficiency shown in **Figure 2F**. The STC efficiency for all products is reduced to 8.6%, which is ~2.4 times the value reported in Gurudayal et al. (Gurudayal et al., 2019). Since our proposed light management strategy allows the integration of opaque perovskite solar cell with an efficiency twice the efficiency of the semi-transparent perovskite solar cell used in Gurudayal et al. (Gurudayal et al., 2019), we believe the STC efficiency of ~8% is achievable for PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR.

Perspectives on the scale-up of our proposed PV-PEC CO<sub>2</sub>RR device. First, the preparation of the photocathode shown in Figure 1B could use the following steps. 1) Texturing silicon wafer on both sides. This could be done with conventional chemical etching methods. 2) Preparing the selective charge carrier collection layers. The ion implantation method could be used to perform n<sup>+</sup> doping for the preparation of the selective electron collection layer on the reaction side, and  $p^+$ doping for the selective hole collection layer on the illumination side. 3) Preparation of the passivation coating. The vapour deposition and atomic-layer deposition (ALD) methods could be used to prepare a thin oxide coating (TiO<sub>2</sub>, SiO<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, etc.) to passivate the silicon surface. 4) Fabrication of the metallic cocatalyst layer. This could be done with vapour deposition and electrodeposition methods. Notably, all these steps could be performed using commercial techniques. Secondly, the stability of the photocathode is also important for scale-up (Hu et al., 2015; Kumaravel et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021b). Studies have shown that the passivation coating of oxide thin films, especially TiO<sub>2</sub> films prepared by ALD, can also effectively protect photocathodes made of non-oxide materials (silicon in this work), and efficiently transport electrons to the co-catalyst layer (Hu et al., 2015).

Outlook. In this work, the advantage of PV-PEC over PV-EC has been demonstrated for solar-driven CO2RR in terms of techno-economy. This advantage was enabled by novel design of light management. We must further emphasize that the framework generalized in this work is also applicable to other solar-driven catalytic processes with various different products such as productions of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> by water oxidation and ammonia by nitrogen fixation (Liu et al., 2019; Xue et al., 2019). Moreover, PEC can be topologically transformed to the approach of suspended semiconductor nanoparticles with two different cocatalysts deposited on the surface (shown in Figure 1C) (Tilley, 2019), rendering it a much cheaper technology. Therefore, this work, in combination with a previous viewpoint demonstrating the advantage of PEC in terms of selectivity (Beranek, 2019), motivates PEC investigations, a less explored area, for highperformance solar-driven catalytic technologies.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/**Supplementary Material**, further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding authors.

# **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

YZ, CY, and DL conceived the project. YZ, CY, JD, and HF performed the theoretical work. DL and QL provided the framework and directed the project. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

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# SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fenrg.2022.956444/ full#supplementary-material

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