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Elemental-Doped Catalysts for Photoelectrochemical CO₂ Conversion to Solar Fuels

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Elemental-doped catalysts for photoelectrochemical CO₂ conversion to solar fuels

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Solar-driven photoelectrochemical (PEC) CO₂ conversion to valuable chemicals, combining the advantages of photocatalysis and electrocatalysis, represents a promising approach towards establishing a carbon-neutral society and harnessing solar energy. Photoelectrode materials doped with metals and/or non-metals have shown promise in achieving high CO₂ reduction efficiency. Metal or non-metal doping entails introducing a heteroelement into the semiconductor, thereby

modifying the band potentials of the semiconductor through the addition of a defective state. This alteration may improve the charge transfer kinetics of the catalysis. Furthermore, doping aids in creating active CO₂ adsorption offers anchoring sites for CO₂ molecules, and can promote product selectivity. This review aims to provide a concise summary of elemental-doped photoelectrodes for converting CO₂ into fuels through photoelectrochemical processes. We discuss several key factors affecting the performance of PEC CO₂ reduction, including the interaction of reactants with catalysts, reaction conditions, and the impact of the photoelectrode. Moreover, we compare various PEC CO₂ reduction systems, with a specific focus on enhancing the efficiency of CO₂ reduction. Finally, we provide a summary of key considering aspects for further development of the PEC CO₂ reduction.

1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) reduction to chemical fuels using heterogeneous catalysis is a promising approach for addressing the issues of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and energy supply.^[1-4] Several strategies such as photo-, thermo-, electro-, and biocatalysis have been utilized for converting CO₂ into products, such as CO, HCOOH, CH₄, CH₃OH, etc.^[5-11] Photoelectrochemical (PEC) catalytic conversion of CO₂ into chemical fuel has shown potential for recycling CO₂ via solar energy in the past few years which can help meet our energy needs.^[12-14] Solar-driven PEC CO₂ reduction possesses several key benefits such as (i) utilization of waste CO₂, (ii) useful chemicals like CO, CH₄, C₂H₆, and CH₃OH can be synthesized and (iii) it can be operated at atmospheric conditions, no harsh reaction conditions are required (compared to thermocatalysis which operates a high temperature).^[15-19] Importantly, oxidation and reduction products are readily carried out in separate cells in a PEC system, which enables efficient product

separation and quantification.^[13] Therefore, given the advantages of PEC CO₂ conversion, there has been growing interest from the scientific community in recent years, as shown in **Figure 1**.

The efficiency of the PEC cell depends on the light source, electrode materials, electrolyte solution, pH of the solution, bias voltage, CO₂ concentration and solubility, and the nature of the ion exchange membrane.^[13,16,18] CO₂ reduction reaction includes thermodynamic and kinetic factors; the thermodynamic factors involve the photon energy and electronic band energies (i.e., valence and conduction band potentials) of the material;^[20] while kinetic factors of CO₂ reduction involve charge separation, surface active sites, and adsorption/desorption of reactant/intermediates. PEC CO₂ reduction starts with charge separation when the surface of electrodes is exposed to light irradiation, followed by charge diffusion, and redox reaction in PEC cells on the surface of the catalysts.^[20,21] Therefore, it is worth noting that material design plays an important role in PEC CO₂ reduction reactions. In this regard, there has been intensive investigation within the PEC and photocatalytic materials, including metal oxides,^[22,23] chalcogenides,^[21,24] carbon-based materials,^[25,26] metal complexes,^[27,28] perovskites,^[29] MXenes,^[30] etc. for the transformation of CO₂ into chemicals and fuels. However, single metal oxide materials such as TiO₂, WO₃, Bi₂O₃, etc. possess low light absorption ability in the visible region, poor charge separation, and insufficient active sites on the surface of the catalyst, leading to low PEC performance. Researchers have tried different approaches to enhance the usability of electrode materials and improve CO₂ conversion rates, current density, and faradaic efficiency at low bias.^[31] To this end, methods like elemental doping, the use of cocatalysts, heterojunction combinations, and hybrid composites have been commonly utilized to improve the photoelectronic properties of the electrode materials.^[32–35] Among these, the elemental (metal/non-metal) method is one of the

simplest and most effective strategies to enhance the photoelectronic properties of the electrode materials.^[36–38]

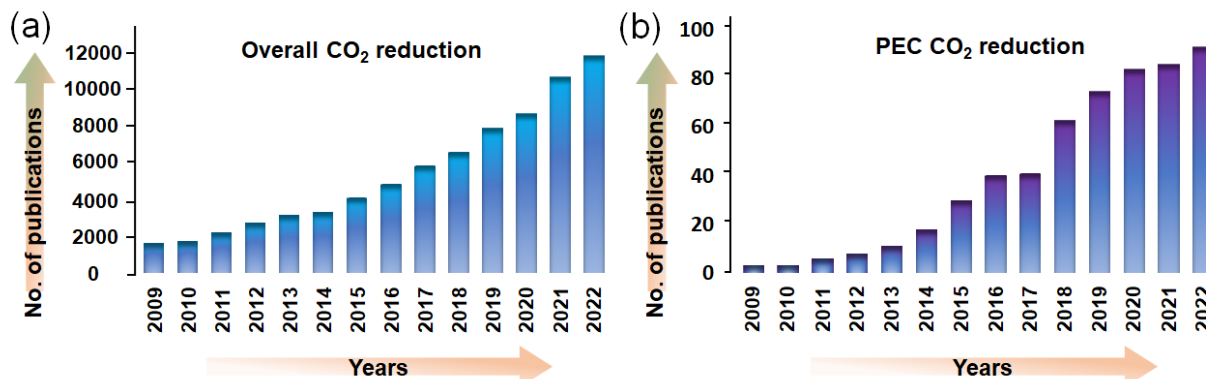


Figure 1. The publications trends on the (a) overall CO₂ reduction, and (b) PEC CO₂ reduction from 2009 to 2022, obtained from the Web of Science database using the keywords “CO₂ reduction” and “photoelectrocatalytic CO₂ reduction”, respectively, with a few filters.

The elemental doping approach involves adding non-metal or metal ions to semiconductors during the synthesis of catalysts. This method has gained significant attention for various catalytic applications. When non-metal or metal ions are introduced to electrode material, it forms a defective state that changes the electronic and geometric structure of the catalysts, improving extended light absorption ability. Ran et al. demonstrated that the introduction of phosphorus (P) to g-C₃N₄ generates mid-gap states, which significantly enhances light absorption in the visible region^[39]. Additionally, metal incorporation increases the local electron density of the adsorption sites on the surface of the catalyst through the interfacial charge transfer process, which enhances the electron transfer kinetics for catalysis. Jang et al. prepared N-doped ZnTe nanorods coupled with an N-doped carbon layer for the production of CO through PEC CO₂ conversion.^[40] N-doping to ZnTe nanorods decreased the ZnTe’s bandgap and reduced the charge recombination. Hence, enhancement in the PEC CO₂ reduction activity was observed. The surface or lattice of the

elemental doping catalyst provides numerous active sites for the absorption of CO₂ and has an impact on surface reactivity. These new active sites help stabilize the crucial intermediates of the CO₂ reduction reaction, which subsequently affects the performance and selectivity of PEC CO₂ reduction. According to the literature, the selectivity of CO₂ reaction products varies depending on the type of dopants used. The reduction of CO₂ can lead to the formation of different products through intermediates like CO₂⁻, CO, COH, HCOO^{*}, CHO, etc. The selectivity of CO₂ reduction to produce specific products largely depends on the dopant's nature and the adsorption/stabilization of these intermediates. Metals like Pt, Ag, Au, and Pd tend to favor the formation of ^{*}CO₂⁻ intermediates that lead to CO and CH₄ products. On the other hand, In, Bi, and Sn, which have p electrons, tend to form HCOOH as the main product during CO₂ reduction through their affinity towards ^{*}CO₂⁻ intermediate through oxygen. Cu-based catalysts exhibit CO₂ reduction activity leading to the formation of various products such as CO, HCOOH, CH₄, CH₃OH, C₂H₄, etc. This is because of their effective binding strength with the ^{*}CO intermediate, which facilitates subsequent transformations. It has been observed that Cu²⁺ ions provide more adsorption sites for CO₂ and stabilization of HCOO^{*} intermediate, leading to high selectivity towards formate in an aqueous solution. Gao et al. employed a Cu-doped BiVO₄ electrocathode for the PEC CO₂ reduction into HCOOH^[41]. Non-metals such as O, S, and N can also be doped to semiconductors to form CO, CH₄, and HCOOH. For instance, Zhou et al. demonstrated the tailored product selectivity of PEC CO₂ reduction on CZTS/CdS via S-vacancy. When S-vacancies were replenished by oxygen doping (O-doping) during heat treatment in the air, CO₂ reduction towards HCOOH formation was increased. Conversely, catalyst heat treatment in an inert atmosphere promoted the desorption of surface-bound CO molecules, resulting in higher CO selectivity. Therefore, it is necessary to discuss the structure-activity relationship, which includes the doping

effect of catalysis, adjustment of bandgaps, tuning of electronic bands, charge separation, adsorption and desorption of CO₂/intermediates, and selectivity.

In our previous reviews, we explored the photocatalytic conversion of CO₂ into solar fuels.^[42–46] Those included discussing the challenges involved in CO₂ photoreduction and exploring various approaches to enhancing overall activity, product selectivity, and long-term stability of CO₂ reduction reaction. There are a few review articles that provide in-depth PEC CO₂ reduction, for example, Chen et al. in 2021 summarized the fundamentals, advances, and challenges of PEC CO₂ reduction.^[18] Kumaravel and coworkers published a review article on PEC CO₂ reduction emphasizing various types of materials, such as plasmonic metals, porous nanostructures carbon-based catalysts, 2D/3D materials, metal–organic frameworks, and biological molecules.^[47] In another review, Tang et al. reviewed the latest developments in semiconductor-based PEC CO₂ reduction including various p-type and n-type materials.^[48] Dhabarde and colleagues reviewed the preparation, characterization, and development of carbon-supported films,^[21] on the other hand, Wang and colleagues reviewed Cu-based photocathodes for PEC CO₂ reduction.^[49] A review by Wang and coworkers summarized the advancement in the development of CO₂ reduction through PEC reaction focusing on the electrode material design perspective.^[13] The majority of review articles on PEC CO₂ reduction in the literature focus on progress and challenges, emphasizing various types of materials like p-type and n-type materials, carbon-based materials, and Cu-based photocathodes. We believe that narrowing down the topic of the review article to a specific problem and providing a comprehensive solution is crucial to deepen the understanding of the content. Therefore, in this review, we provide a detailed insight into the progress of various metal/non-metal doped electrode materials for PEC CO₂ reduction. First, insights on PEC CO₂ reduction highlighting fundamental of PEC CO₂ reduction, PEC cell, applied bias, role of electrolytes, product selectivity, kinetics and reaction mechanisms were discussed. Then,

various synthesis strategies of elemental doped catalysts are discussed. In order to emphasize the structure-activity relationship of the catalysts, the chemical composition of the material, and elemental doping plays an important role. Therefore, the optimization strategies of the electrode materials like defect engineering, dopant-support interaction, band position alteration, introduction of active site for CO₂ adsorption, are discussed aimed at improving photoelectric properties for PEC CO₂ reduction. Later, elemental doped catalysts with activity and product selectivity of PEC CO₂ reduction, and their relationship with metal doping to electrode materials are discussed. Finally, summary and outlook of the review article has been provided.

2. Fundamentals of PEC CO₂ conversion (CO₂ reduction, PEC cell, bias potential, electrolytes, reaction pathways, product selectivity)

There has been a surge in research focused on PEC CO₂ reduction in recent years to address its low activity and poor selectivity in PEC CO₂ reduction. A semiconductor photoelectrode is employed to generate electrons through photoexcitation in a PEC cell at different bias voltages. These generated electrons are then directed to the electrode surface (cathode case) by the discrepancy in energy level between the conduction band and the surface energy states and band bending at the solid/liquid interface, facilitating the catalytic reduction of CO₂, as shown in **Figure 2a**. The CO₂ molecule is linear, and to break the bond between C-O, it needs the activation energy for bond cleavage (750 kJ mol⁻¹), which can be provided photoelectrochemically in the PEC system.^[50] Proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) reaction could decrease this high required energy for CO₂ reduction.^[51] Reduction of CO₂ can be carried out into different products depending on the required energy and numbers of electrons and protons, as shown in **Figure 2b**. Bias refers to the voltage or potential that is applied during the PEC CO₂ conversion process that plays a significant role on the efficiency of the CO₂ reduction reaction. It determines the driving force for

the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ and affects the kinetics of the various reaction steps. Optimizing the bias can result in improved efficiency of the reaction, leading to higher conversion rates and more selective production of desired products. For instance, Wang et al. conducted a study on the selectivity of PEC CO₂ reduction reaction using Au-loaded N-doped TiO₂ plate nanoarray photoanode and Zn-doped Cu₂O cathode to reduce CO₂ to CH₃COOH via PEC^[52]. The resulting catalysts had a Faradaic efficiency of 58.1% for CH₃COOH at 0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl, along with a small fraction of CO and H₂. Interestingly, they observed that the Faradaic efficiency of CH₃COOH decreased when the anodic potential was more positive or negative, which made C₂ selectivity dependent on the applied potential. When the bias voltage was lower than 0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl, C-C coupling was not observed, while a higher bias voltage than 0.5 V led to the deposition of amorphous carbon that buried the catalytic active sites and inhibited the formation of CH₃COOH. Apart from that, the applied bias affects the stability of photoelectrode, an extreme bias can lead to degradation and affect performance. Therefore, optimization of bias is crucial for maintaining the PEC system's performance.

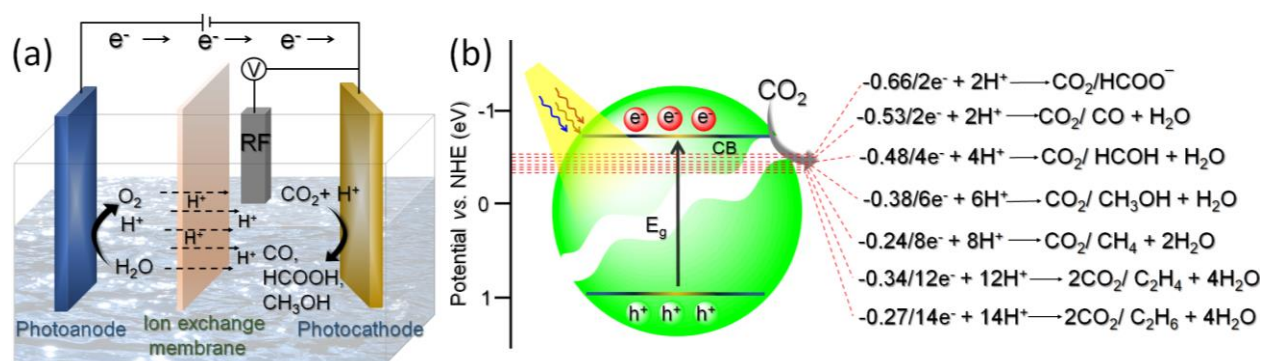


Figure 2: (a) Schematics of photoelectrochemical reduction of CO₂ in a three-electrode cell, (b) The mechanism of photoinduced CO₂ reduction into different products on a semiconductor according to their redox potentials (vs. NHE).

Besides, the electrolyte is also a key aspect in the reduction of CO₂ in PEC cells, and two main types are aqueous and nonaqueous. Aqueous electrolytes, such as bicarbonate (NaHCO₃, KHCO₃), hydroxide (NaOH, KOH), and sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄), are used. However, due to poor CO₂ solubility in aqueous electrolytes (~34 mM under ambient conditions), nonaqueous electrolytes such as N, N-dimethylformamide (DMF), n-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP), and acetonitrile (ACN) can be used.^[53] Also, ionic liquids such as 1-ethyl-3-methyl-imidazolium tetrafluoroborate ([EMIM]BF₄) can be used as electrolytes.^[54] According to simulation data reported by Lim et al., the overpotential energy of the first PCET step (CO₂(g) + [H⁺ + e⁻] → *COOH(solv.)) can be reduced ~310 meV in [EMIM][BF₄] and mixed solution (20:80 [EMIM][BF₄]:H₂O) compared to an aqueous solution (100% H₂O) at applied potential as -0.11 V_{SHE} on Ag(111) surface.^[55] This simulation data agrees well with experimental data of Rosen et al.'s electrochemical CO₂ conversion to CO using [EMIM][BF₄], reporting an overpotential of 0.17 V.^[56] Moreover, ionic liquids have been recognized for their ability to reduce the activation energy required for CO₂ reduction and enhance the solubility of CO₂ within the electrolyte.^[57] For example, Mohammed et al. reported the maximum capacity value for CO₂ of [EMIM][BF₄] was 0.0795 mol (CO₂ abs)/mol (IL).^[58] Zhao et al. also measured the CO₂ solubility in 11 types of functionalized ionic liquids at room temperature and atmospheric pressure.^[59] The CO₂ solubility of liquid ionic was from 0.74 to 16.2 wt.% higher than that of aqueous solution without liquid ionic (0.15 wt.%).

There are some oxygen evolution reaction (OER) photoanode cases, but most studies demonstrated p-type photocathode for the CO₂ reduction PEC systems. For p-type semiconductors, holes situated at bulk move to the interface during electrolyte contact equilibration and disclose space charge region (SCR) with fixed negative charges. The depletion layer forms by removing

the majority of holes in the SCR, resulting downward bending of the p-type semiconductor.^[60,61] This downward bending at SCR occurs at the p-type semiconductor/electrolyte interface until the Fermi levels (E_f) are equal, as shown in **Figure 3**. When the negative electrical bias (E_b) is applied to a p-type semiconductor, the degree of bending can be increased. When a p-type semiconductor is illuminated and photoexcited at an equilibrium state, the as-formed electrons transfer to the conduction band while holes remain at the valence band. This induces the E_f to split into two different quasi-Fermi levels for electrons ($E_{f,n}^*$) and holes ($E_{f,h}^*$).^[62] After photoexcitation, the excess electrons affect the minority carrier distribution while excess holes have little effect on major carrier distribution because the number of holes added can be negligible considering the sufficient amount of majority holes. Therefore, the quasi-fermi level of the electron shifts to the opposite compared to the initial equilibrium of E_f . The difference between $E_{f,n}^*$ and $E_{f,h}^*$ is the photovoltage (V_{ph}). The maximum photovoltage is the difference between flat-band potential (E_{FB}) and redox potential. This photovoltage effectively separates photogenerated electrons and holes. The photogenerated electrons can transfer to an electrochemical CO_2 reduction reaction due to a higher E_{CB} than the reduction potential of CO_2 . However, the E_{VB} is too low to transfer the holes for oxidation reaction (O/O') thermodynamically. Therefore, the oxidation reaction happens at the anode side by applying negative bias potential to the photocathode for increasing downward band bending and lowering the counter electrode's E_F ($E_F \rightarrow E_{F'}$: not enough potential, $E_F \rightarrow E_{F''}$: enough potential for O/O'), resulting in charge separation enhancement by satisfying the electrochemical oxidation reaction (O/O').

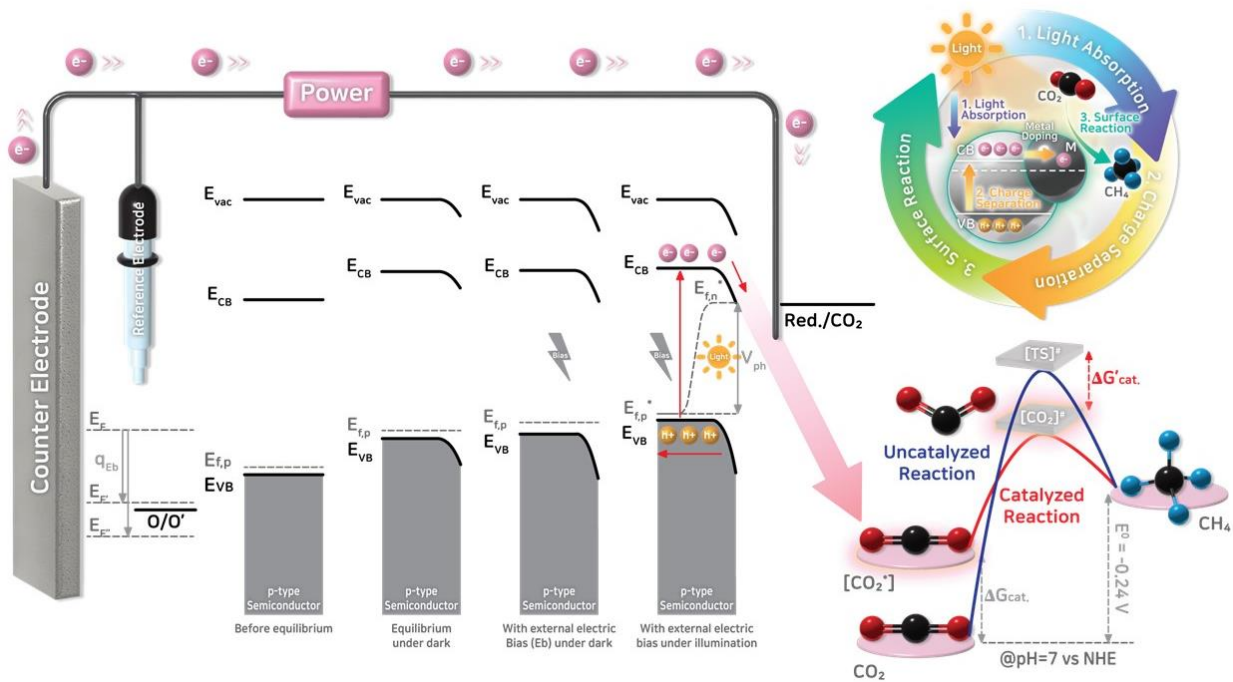


Figure 3: The band energetics of a p-type semiconductor and electrolyte contact showing the energy band diagram before & after equilibrium under dark, applied external electric bias under dark, and illumination with CO₂ activation process based on thermodynamics and kinetics. The right top Figure shows the general process of CO₂ reduction under light illumination.

To improve the charge transfer efficiency, many research groups also introduced metal doping to the semiconductor surface. Metal doping can make the trapping energy that decreases conduction band alignment as well as suppress the non-radiative recombination of charge carriers by forming spin-forbidden transition for the recombination process,^[63] leading to improved charge separation and transfer. Later, the surface catalytic reaction takes place at the interface of the photocathode and electrolyte.^[64] Another approach is to increase the active sites to enhance the CO₂ adsorption ability. Metal doping can lead to improved active sites for the reaction.^[65–68] For example, Hu et al. theoretically predicted that the CO₂ adsorption energy of MgO significantly increased after metal (Ca, Fe, and Al) doping.^[69] In another study, Cho et al. revealed that transition metal

integrated ZIF-8 ($\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{Zn}_{0.5}/\text{ZIF-8}$) showed ~ 68 times higher electrochemical active surface area than ZIF-8, indicating that $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{Zn}_{0.5}/\text{ZIF-8}$ has more active sites for CO_2 adsorption than ZIF-8^[70]. Apart from that, studies have reported that metal doping may result in faster desorption of the product resulting in high product selectivity of CO_2 reduction.^[71,72] Doping can minimize the overpotential for the reduction of CO_2 by accelerating the sluggish kinetics of PCET. The well-designed catalyst can make the activated CO_2 complex ($[\text{CO}_2^*]$) and offset the activation energy of ΔG_{cat} . When electrons transfer to $[\text{CO}_2^*]$ as $[\text{CO}_2]^\ddagger$, the energy of the transition state of CO_2 can be reduced as much as $\Delta G'_{\text{cat}}$ compared to $[\text{TS}]^\ddagger$. These $[\text{CO}_2]^\ddagger$ complexes undergo several steps through PCET processes to convert CO_2 into different products, as shown in **Figure 3**.^[51]

The hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) is the virtually inevitable competitive reaction for CO_2 reduction reaction in the aqueous electrolyte. Low CO_2 concentration, low CO_2 flow rate, and high water content inhibit the access of CO_2 on the surface of the electrode. Also, low pH condition thermodynamically favors HER over CO_2 reduction. If the HER is suppressed effectively, various carbonaceous products of the photoelectrochemical CO_2 reduction reaction (PEC CO_2RR) can be produced depending on the type of the absorbed intermediate states (CO^* , COOH^* , CHO^* , and COH^*), as illustrated in **Figure 4**. The weak interaction of intermediates and the catalyst's surface leads to the formation of formate and CO. In this context, the binding nature of catalysts with reactants or intermediates significantly affects the selectivity of the CO_2 reduction reaction. For example, CO_2^- intermediates desorb easily from the surface of In, Sn, Hg, and Pb metals, leading to produce HCOO^- , while Zn, Pd, Ag, Au, and Bi bind COOH^* intermediates firmly but do not bind CO^* intermediates tightly leading to the formation of CO.^[8] Unlike other metals, Cu can strongly bind with CO^* intermediates, generating alcohol or hydrocarbons (CH_4 and C_{2+}) via COH^* or CHO^* intermediates by dimerization process.^[73] To convert CO_2 into C_{2+} products, regulation of

the microenvironment surrounding the catalytic reaction site has drawn attention dramatically due to its vital role in the reaction.^[74] For example, the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ratio and pH also affect the CO_2 reduction towards C_{2+} selectivity by minimizing the conversion reaction of H_2O .

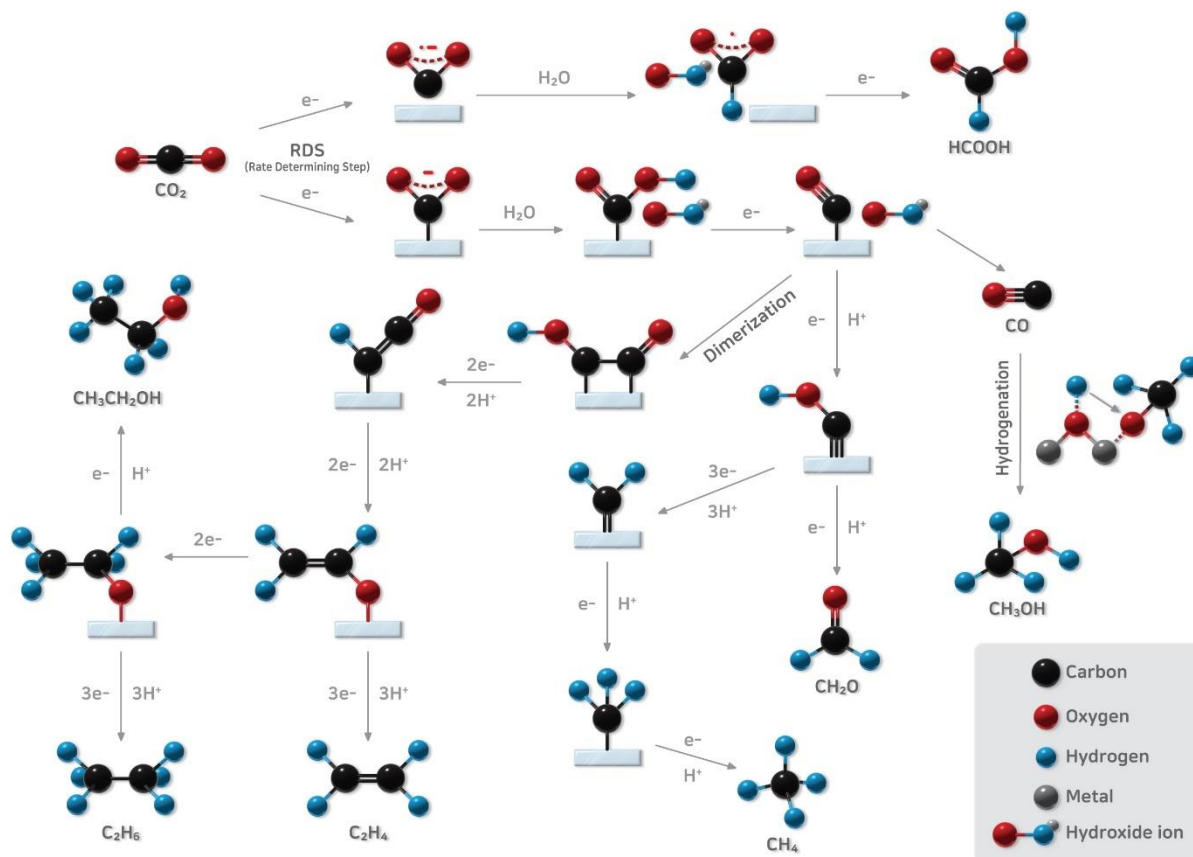


Figure 4. Schematic illustration of CO_2 reduction pathways to several products in an aqueous solution.

For example, Kim et al. developed copper (Cu) electrodes with bilayer ionomer coatings composed of the Nafion layer (Naf850) and Sustainion layer (Sus).^[75] Sustainion is one of the typical anion exchange membranes (AEM) that has an affinity for CO_2 adsorption due to its imidazolium group.^[76,77] Using of anion exchange membrane is also one of the HER suppression strategies however the crossover of $\text{CO}_3^{2-}/\text{HCO}_3^-$ and formate decreases stability^[78]. In Kim et al's work, the Nafion membrane was stacked onto the sustaining membrane which traps OH^- , increasing local

pH.^[75] The local CO₂/H₂O molecular ratio in the Naf850/Sus/Cu electrode is around 350 x 10⁻⁴ at Sus, but it is less than 100 x 10⁻⁴ at Naf850. This Naf850/Sus/Cu electrode displayed a C₂₊ faradaic efficiency of 90% while the faradaic efficiency for H₂ evolution was 4%, indicating that the increased CO₂ reduction activity towards C₂₊ was probably associated with the local CO₂/H₂O ratio. Also, the large cation size of the electrolyte affects C₂₊ selectivity due to the positive shift of the outer Helmholtz plane (OHP) potential of photoanode by lower hydration number of cations based on Frumkin's theory.^[79,80] For example, Singh et al. measured the products of CO₂ reduction using an Ag cathode applied -1.0 V_{RHE} in a CO₂-saturated 0.1M MHCO₃ (M = Cs, K, Na, Li) electrolyte.^[80] The faradaic efficiency of C₂₊ was 2.17 (0.1M LiHCO₃), 7.84 (0.1M NaHCO₃), 13.51 (0.1M KHCO₃), 36.66 (0.1M RbHCO₃), and 45.71% (0.1M CsHCO₃). Apart from the kinetics of the CO₂RR on the PEC electrodes, it has been observed that the PEC CO₂ reduction reactions possess low stability due to corrosion of the photocathode. There are two reasons for the low stability of CO₂RR. The first reason is corrosion at the photocathode. When the cathodic decomposition potential (nE_{decomp}) is lower than the energy level of quasi-Fermi level for electrons ($E_{F,n}^*$), electrons can be consumed for the corrosion reaction.^[81] The kinetics of the interface chemical redox reaction influences the rate of photocorrosion. In the case of a fast redox reaction on the semiconductor surface, the surface electron can be consumed, resulting in $E_{F,n}^*$ drops below the nE_{decomp} . However, in the case of the slow redox reaction, the surface concentration of the electrons at the semiconductor and $E_{F,n}^*$ is affected a little, resulting in cathodic photocorrosion, and chemical redox reactions can happen simultaneously.^[82] To overcome the photocorrosion issue of photocathode several strategies have been employed including (i) design of photocathode with an energy matched properly to avoid the photocorrosion reaction such as energy band alignment^[83] and spatial decoupling,^[84] (ii) covering the chemically unstable surface of photocathodes by

passivation layer^[85] or grafting molecular catalyst,^[86] and (iii) selecting a proper electrolyte with optimized pH conditions considering its electrochemical stability window in Pourbaix diagram.^[87] The other reason for the low stability of CO₂RR is salt precipitation by bicarbonate formation at the cathode in the alkaline electrolyte. When CO₂ is reduced to CO at the surface of the cathode, hydroxide ions are also formed, and these hydroxide ions react with CO₂ molecules, forming carbonate ions (CO₃²⁻). Cations from electrolytes such as K⁺ can be migrated to the surface of the cathode by the electric field. These cations and CO₃²⁻ can induce salt growth at the surface of the cathode. This carbonate salt can be removed by (i) reducing cation concentration, (ii) flushing water to the cathode, (iii) pulsed electrolysis, and (iv) using a bipolar membrane.^[88] (i)-(iii) techniques decrease the concentration of carbonate ions at the surface of the cathode by mechanical force or methods. Especially for reducing metal cation concentration, there is an exchange between salt formation and cell voltage drop. Endrődi et al. measured the CO₂ reduction performance with 0.1M KOH and pure water electrolyte using MEA applied 3.1 V_{cell}.^[89] The current density with 0.1M KOH was 300 mA cm⁻², but that with pure water decreased to 100 mA cm⁻². Also, the charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) value increased 3 times approximately when they changed the electrolyte from 0.1M KOH to pure water, due to the low ionic conductivity of the electrolyte. CO₂ electrolyzer using pure water exhibited high stability over 100 h operation with the faradaic efficiency of CO (FE_{CO}) staying 90-95%.^[90] Zhao et al. also reviewed a study on CO₂ electrolyzers using pure water compared to various electrolytes.^[91] They reported that a CO₂ electrolyzer using pure water showed higher stability (over 200 h, FE_{CO}: 70-85%) than a CO₂ electrolyzer using other electrolytes such as alkaline for producing C₁ product (over 20 h, FE_{CO}: over 99%).^[89,92] It means that avoiding an excess amount of cation is beneficial for stability but a small amount of cation is essential for ionic conductivity. Therefore, flushing water and using pulsed electrolysis are alternatives to reduce the concentration of

cations at the surface of the cathode temporarily. The bipolar membrane consists of two types of membranes, (i) the cation exchange membrane (CEM) which is situated at the cathode, and (ii) an anion exchange membrane (AEM) which is situated at the anode. The water inside the bipolar membrane is separated into protons (H^+) on the cathode side and hydroxide ions (OH^-) on the anode side. These protons from CEM interact with bicarbonate to regenerate CO_2 . Also, the metal cation migration is decreased then the proton turns into the primary charge carrier. Therefore, the migration of lots of metal cations is reduced, resulting in metal cation carbonate precipitation decreases.

3. Synthesis methods for elemental doped catalysts

The synthesis of photoelectrode materials with high catalytic active sites, through the incorporation of elemental-doped catalysts, is feasible using a range of synthesis techniques discussed below.

3.1 Sol-gel method

Sol-gel is a commonly used chemical method for elemental doping to semiconductors from a colloidal suspension wherein a dopant can be introduced by adding an aqueous solution of a metallic salt^{[93][94]}. Usually, it involves the formation of sol by mixing the catalyst precursor with solvents which further undergo hydrolysis and condensation reactions and the different processes that affect the precursor to form a fluid with viscosity known as a gel. Then it is subjected to the calcination for metal/non-metal ion doping of semiconductors. A broad range of metal oxides and their composites have been reported in the literature for the synthesis of catalysts for CO_2 reduction applications using the sol-gel route^{[95][96]}. It has several advantages including an easy synthesis procedure, the use of mild reaction conditions, and a scalable technique. In-situ fabrication of the elemental doped materials on photoelectrode can be achieved by sol-gel technique, for example, hydrothermal-assisted sol-gel and microwave-assisted sol-gel are sub-categories of the sol-gel synthesis used in various catalytic materials. For example, Benammar et al. prepared rare earth elemental (such as Er and Yb) doped

Y₂Ti₂O₇ pyrochlore NPs by using the hydrothermal-assisted-sol-gel method^[97]. This method leads to control structure and morphology of the materials, which makes it possible to prepare tailor-made material for specific applications. In another study, Gorli et al. prepare Zr-doped TiO₂ photocatalysts using a microwave-assisted sol-gel approach which facilitates the substitutional doping of Ti⁴⁺ with Zr⁴⁺, resulting in reducing the band gap and high efficiency in the segregation of photogenerated charge carriers for catalysis^[98]. Their research emphasized that a microwave-irradiation method has various advantages over traditional heating, such as easy, and fast synthesis, and high thermal homogeneity can be achieved, which will assist in lowering calcination temperatures.

3.2 Electrochemical process

The electrochemical process employs a three-electrode setup in an electrolyte solution to deposit specific materials onto a desired substrate^[99]. Through this approach, it is possible to design and synthesize metal-doped semiconductors, which can be tailored to modify the localized electronic structure, making them suitable for PEC CO₂ reduction^[100]. The synthesis rate can be precisely regulated by adjusting both the applied voltage and the physicochemical properties of the electrolyte. Several studies employed this method for the preparation of photocathodes for PEC CO₂ reduction^[101–104]. For example, Guo et al. developed a PEC CO₂ reduction system by electrochemically depositing gadolinium (Ga) doped Cu₂O onto a Cu mesh^[105]. The synthesis involved mixing CuSO₄·5H₂O and 2-hydroxy propionic acid, adjusting the solution pH to 11 with NaOH, and electrodeposition at -0.6 V bias voltage for 30 min at 60 °C. A standard three-electrode cell system was used with the Cu mesh as the working electrode, Pt electrode as the counter electrode, and Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference electrode. After deposition, the material was washed, vacuum-dried at 50 °C, and subjected to thermal treatment at 600 °C in N₂ for 3 h to obtain the catalyst (Ga-Cu₂O). For the synthesis of catalysts, the morphology and structure of the catalysts in the

electrochemical technique can be influenced by various factors such as electrolyte solution, pH, overpotential, and substrate type, therefore the optimization of these parameters is necessary to obtain the ideal catalysts^[99].

3.3 Hydrothermal treatment

The hydrothermal technique is well known for synthesizing various materials within a sealed reactor, utilizing an aqueous solution at elevated pressure and temperature. The conditions of high temperature and pressure in the reactor facilitate the synthesis of highly crystalline materials. The hydrothermal method allows for the synthesis of materials with diverse compositions, including elemental doping, heterostructures, binary or ternary composite structures, etc. for various applications. For example, Yan et al. employed a hydrothermal method for the synthesis of Sb-doped SnS₂ used for electrochemical CO₂ reduction to formate^[106]. Similarly, it has been one of the commonly utilized methods for the fabrication of photocathode materials for PEC CO₂ reduction^[41,107,108]. Li et al. prepared Bi, and S codoped SnO_x catalysts through a hydrothermal method for PEC CO₂ reduction^[109]. Briefly, a precursor (i.e., SnCl₄·5H₂O) was mixed with dopants such as Bi(NO₃)₃ and thiourea in distilled water. Then, the mixture was then transferred to a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave and reacted at 160°C for 6 hours. After cooling, the sediment was collected, washed, and dried. The obtained powder was calcined at 400°C for 2 hours to get the desired catalyst for the PEC CO₂ reduction reaction.

3.4 Thermal treatment

In this method for synthesizing catalytic materials, heat is employed to decompose chemical bonds within the compound. This process allows the formation of monodispersed NPs with varying sizes, depending upon the reaction conditions. As this technique relies on high temperatures for catalyst

synthesis, the thermal energy induces the elemental doping to support the material and the creation of defect states, thereby modifying the optoelectronic properties of the materials for CO₂ reduction^[110]. Lu and colleagues synthesized Re (Rhenium)-doped CuO NPs supported on TiO₂ NTs for PEC conversion of CO₂ to alcohols through thermal decomposition^[111]. In this process, the Re precursor, i.e., ammonium perrhenate (NH₄ReO₄) was introduced into a solution of copper nitrate. The resulting solution was then coated onto the TiO₂-NTs support under vacuum conditions. Various calcination temperatures were employed during the fabrication of Re-doped CuO supported catalysts. In another study, Wang et al. introduced a thermal polymerization technique for the synthesis of O-incorporated C₃N₄ NSs which was employed for PEC CO₂ reduction^[112]. The thermal decomposition technique has a limitation due to its dependence on high temperatures, and the determination of processing parameters can be a time-consuming aspect.

4. Elemental doped photoelectrodes: effect of doping on PEC CO₂ reduction

To achieve the feasible CO₂ conversion, the energy level of the conduction band should be above the CO₂ reduction potential to specific products (e.g., -0.61 V vs. NHE for CO₂/HCOOH) while the valance band potential should be below H₂O/O₂ oxidation (i.e., 0.82 V vs. NHE), respectively. Suitable catalysts are essential for the PEC CO₂ conversion process to achieve high efficiency. Single semiconductor materials, for instance, TiO₂, ZnO, SnO₂, and C₃N₄ are commonly used materials for PEC reactions that possess a wide band gap that can produce a high photovoltage; however, it leads to limited light absorption of the visible light region as well as charge recombination. In the context of efficient CO₂ conversion, non-metal or metal doping can alter the optoelectronic properties of support. Introducing impurities into the crystal lattice of support materials creates surface defects and modifies the electronic band structure, which increases light absorption across a wide range of the spectrum and enhances charge separation ability. Dopants also serve as CO₂ adsorption sites, which

effectively improve CO₂ adsorption, resulting in improved catalytic activity and high product selectivity. **Figure 5** illustrates the concept of elemental doping to photoelectrodes and its impact on PEC CO₂ reduction.

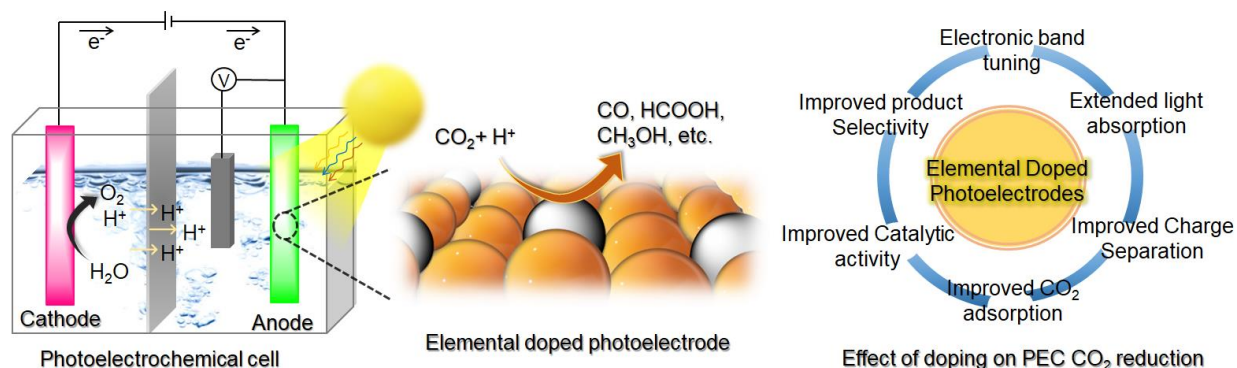


Figure 5: Schematic representation of the effect of elemental doping on PEC CO₂ reduction.

4.1 Non-metal doped photoelectrodes

Studies have been reported on non-metallic heteroatom doping in semiconductor materials, including N, O, B, S, etc. Non-metal doping improves the optoelectronic properties of the semiconductor and creates active sites for CO₂ reduction. For example, Wang et al. introduced the effect of O-doping on the C₃N₄ photoanode used for PEC CO₂ reduction that significantly improved photoelectric efficiency towards formate formation as compared to pristine C₃N₄. In this study, four different samples of C₃N₄ (referred to as CN1, CN2, CN3, and CN4) were prepared with different oxygen contents using thermal polymerization. CN1 was synthesized by mixing melamine and urea (oxygen-containing precursor), then heating under N₂ flow while CN2 was prepared under N₂/O₂. CN3 was obtained by heating melamine without mixing urea under N₂, and CN4 was prepared using the same process as CN3, but thermally polymerized under N₂/O₂. The electrical conductivities and photoelectric responses of CN1 were improved by incorporating controlled oxygen content, doping form, and surface defects, leading to better separation of photo-generated charges during PEC CO₂

reduction. According to the photocurrent response (**Figure 6a**), the CN4 sample, which was synthesized by pyrolysis of melamine in an inert atmosphere (i.e., N₂), possessed the lowest photocurrent response under light irradiation. While the CN1 sample synthesized using the oxygen-containing precursor (i.e., urea) demonstrated the highest photocurrent response among all samples, this suggests that oxygen is useful for the separation of charges. Therefore, the CN1 catalyst showed higher PEC CO₂ reduction to formate activity with a rate of 273.58 μmol cm⁻² h⁻¹ at a bias of -0.9 V vs. RHE (**Figure 6b-c**) as compared to the other samples. It also demonstrated remarkable stability in photocurrent density during 24 hours of exposure to light. As it is widely recognized, the process of CO₂ reduction to produce value-added chemicals is intricate, involving various pathways and the formation of multiple intermediates such as CO*, COH*, and CHO*

Efficient charge carrier transfer improves the PEC CO₂ reduction catalytic activity, whereas the photocathode's surface states regulate the product selectivity. Therefore, adsorption and desorption of products/intermediates tune the selectivity of CO₂ reduction towards specific products. Usually, defect states (such as vacancies) are produced by eliminating/replacing atoms from semiconductor lattices; these defects serve as catalytic active sites for CO₂ reduction reactions. Therefore, tuning surface defect states is one of the efficient strategies for altering the CO₂ reduction reaction pathway that tunes the product selectivity. In this regard, recent research by Pang et al. demonstrated very meaningful results.^[113] They found that creating S-vacancies in ZnS by Ni-doping dramatically increases the activity and selectivity toward photocatalytic CO₂ reduction to HCOOH. Zhou and colleagues also accelerated electron transfer and altered product selectivity on CZTS/CdS by introducing the S-vacancies for PEC CO₂ reduction.^[114] The CZTS/CdS catalyst underwent a synthesis process involving heat treatment in distinct environments, specifically air, and N₂, as shown in **Figure 6d**.

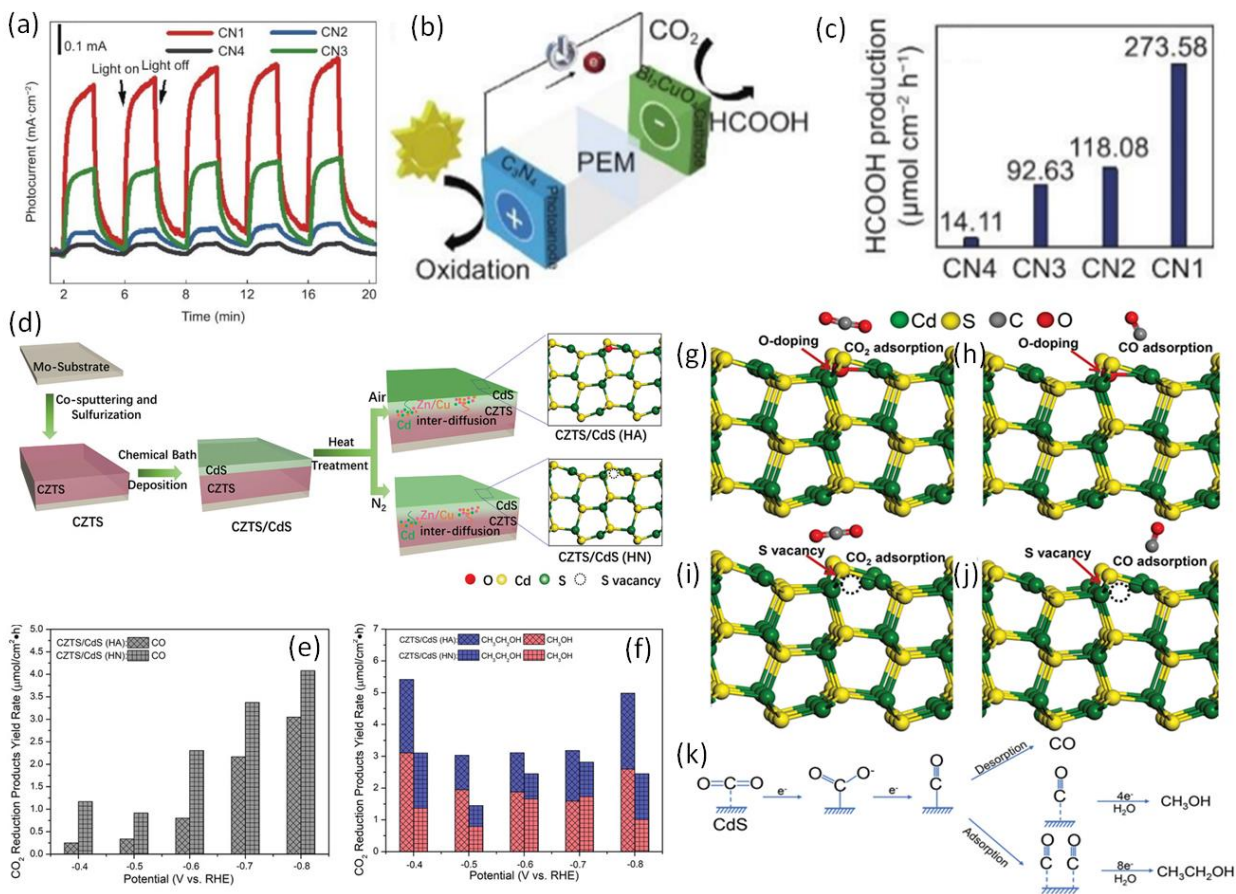


Figure 6: (a) Transient amperometric I-t curves at -0.9 V vs. RHE under 1.5G illumination, (b) schematic illustration of PEC CO₂ reduction in CN photoanode and (c) PEC performance of CN toward CO₂ reduction to formate. Taken with permission from ref.^[112]. Copyright 2022, Elsevier Publications. (d) Synthesis process of various samples of CZTS, (e) CO₂ reduction to CO, and (f) hydrocarbons in CZTS/CdS (heat treatment in the air (HA)) and CZTS/CdS (heat treatment under N₂(HN)), DFT optimized structures for CO₂ and CO adsorbed on (g-h) O-doped CdS and (i-j) CdS with S-vacancy, and (k) CO₂ reduction pathways to CO and hydrocarbons. Taken with permission from^[114], Copyright 2021, Wiley Publications.

This process resulted in a deliberate alteration of surface vacancies on the CdS component. When CZTS was subjected to heat treatment in an air atmosphere, S-vacancies were refilled by O-

doping. This modification effectively adjusted the catalyst's capacity for adsorbing CO₂ and CO, thus enhancing its selectivity towards hydrocarbon formation during CO₂ reduction (**Figure 6e**). Conversely, when the catalyst underwent heating in an inert condition (i.e., N₂), it led to an increased presence of S-vacancies on the catalyst's surface. This, in turn, promoted the desorption of surface-bound CO molecules, resulting in higher CO selectivity, as shown in **Figure 6f**. Based on DFT calculations, it is observed that the introduction of oxygen (O) into CdS enhances its ability for CO₂ adsorption. However, the adsorption energy for CO is comparatively lower on O-CdS, consequently, strong adsorption of CO₂ molecules was observed on the surface of the catalyst, which in turn promotes the generation of higher hydrocarbons, as depicted in **Figure 6g-h and k**. Conversely, when CdS lacks O-doping (i.e., S-defected CdS), its adsorption energy for CO is higher, resulting in enhanced CO desorption capacity. Consequently, this configuration tends to favor the production of CO as the primary product in CO₂ reduction, as depicted in **Figures 6i-j and k**.

In vice-versa of the previous example, sulfur (S) was employed as a dopant to the Cu₂O/CuO hybrid structure to achieve an increased PEC CO₂ reduction.^[104] In this study, the band gaps for Cu₂O/CuO and S-Cu₂O/CuO were observed as ~1.92 and ~2.05 eV, correspondingly. Electronic delocalization occurs in the S-Cu₂O/CuO cluster as a result of sulfide bridges present in the inner layer of the surface of the catalyst. CO₂ conversion to methanol and acetone is driven by the generation of H⁺ on the counter electrode, as shown in **Figure 7a**. A slight increase in the band gap (~0.15 eV) after S-doping to Cu₂O/CuO endorses the conduction band from 0.43 to 0.46 eV vs. RHE which was reported to decrease electron-hole recombination for CH₃OH and CH₃COCH₃ formation. Thus, improved PEC CO₂ reduction under light illumination was achieved from the S-Cu₂O/CuO for the CH₃OH and CH₃COCH₃ formation with the rate of 32 μmol cm⁻² h⁻¹ and 22

$\mu\text{mol cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, respectively. The cumulative Faradaic efficiency of 75% was obtained at a low overpotential of 0.47 V vs. RHE. Importantly, the photocurrent density of the S-Cu₂O/CuO was 0.34 mA cm⁻², which was 118 times higher as compared to Cu disc and 2.5 times higher than Cu₂O/CuO with excellent photocurrent stability of ~8000 s. Overall, doped sulfur acts as an electron transfer mediator in Cu₂O/CuO structure, tunes the energy band position, and promotes electron mobility by O-vacancy formation to improve the catalytic activity and photocurrent stability of PEC CO₂ reduction. During PEC CO₂ reduction, electrode materials can undergo photoelectrochemical corrosion in aqueous electrolyte solutions that can limit the stability of the reaction. To address the stability and photocorrosion issue, elemental doping can be applied to the electrode material. Jang and colleagues synthesized N-doped ZnTe nanorods adorned with an N-doped carbon layer using an entirely solution-based method. This approach facilitated the selective PEC conversion of CO₂ to CO at an applied bias of -0.11 V vs. RHE.^[40] Incorporating N-doping into the nanorods of the ZnTe lattice results in a reduction of the catalyst's bandgap and an enhancement of the charge transfer capability, ultimately improving the activity and stability of the reaction, as illustrated in **Figure 7b-d**. The faradaic efficiency of N-doped ZnTe was ~80%. However, the application of an N-doped carbon layer on ZnTe nanorods significantly improved faradaic efficiency exceeding 90%. The improved faradaic efficiency was ascribed to the diminished photocorrosion and increased catalytic stability observed in an aqueous electrolyte solution. Additionally, the high conductivity of the carbon layer facilitates efficient charge transfer. The N-doped carbon, with its lone-pair electrons, promotes the adsorption and activation of CO₂, leading to selective production of CO on the catalyst's surface through PEC CO₂ reduction.

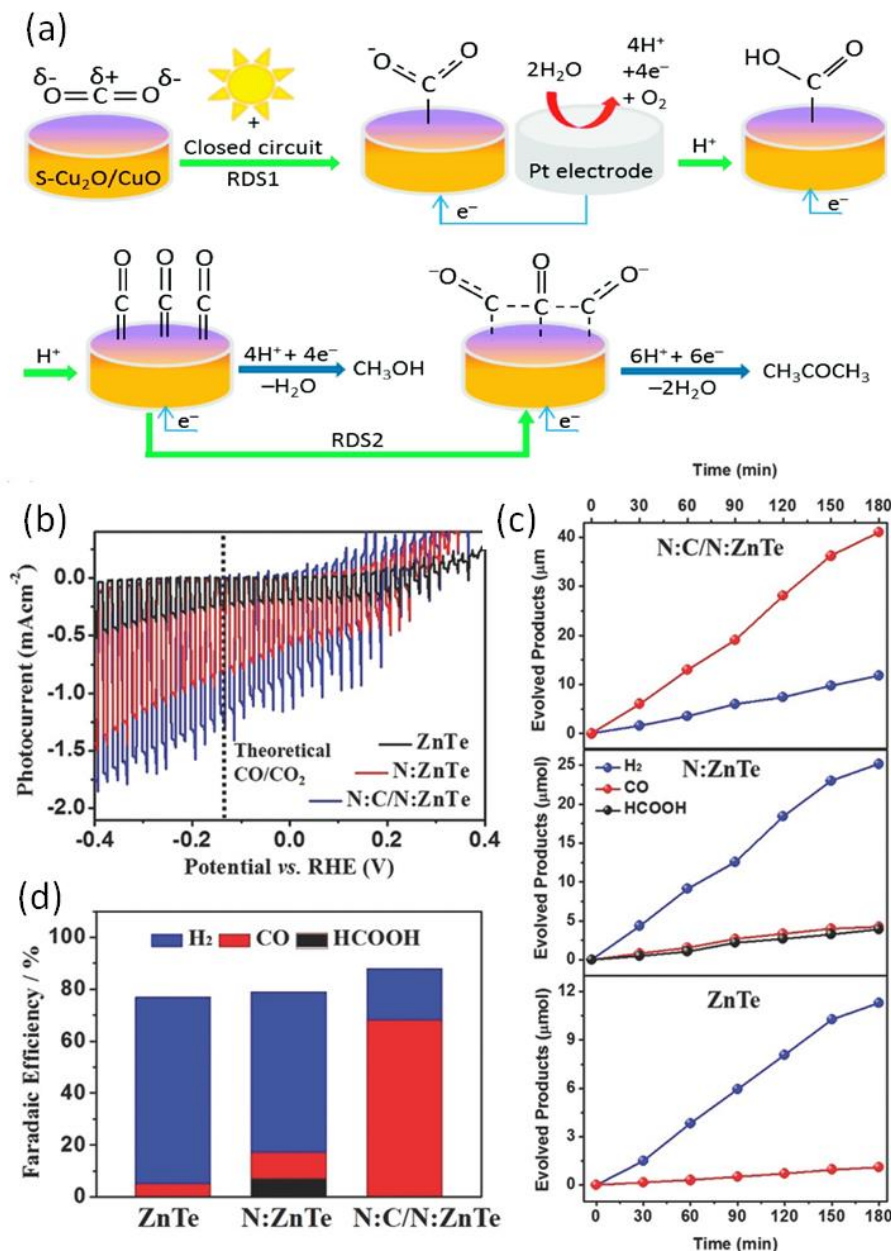


Figure 7: (a) CO₂ reduction mechanism to CH₃COCH₃ using S-Cu₂O/CuO, Taken with permission from^[104], Copyright 2017, Elsevier. (b) *J-V* curves, (c) PEC CO₂ reduction to products, and (d) Faradaic efficiencies of the evolved products for N:C/N: ZnTe samples. Taken with permission from^[40], Copyright 2018, Wiley Publications.

In a previous example, non-metal doped electrode materials have been discussed for PEC CO₂ reduction, while literature also reported the combination of non-metal elements doping and introducing metal NPs cocatalysts together to the semiconductor to promote PEC CO₂ reduction more efficiently. For example, Sagara and coworkers reported a p-type boron (B)-doped g-C₃N₄ coated with Au, Ag, or Rh cocatalyst that showed significantly improved PEC CO₂ reduction activity towards C₂H₅OH formation.^[110] The electronic band structure of g-C₃N₄ was modified through optimal doping of B to create BCN. As a result, the VB and CB were situated at +2.19V and -0.44V vs. NHE at pH 0, respectively. The p-type characteristics of BCN make it effective for CO₂ reduction, with its high CB potential allowing it to produce various CO₂ reduction products. This led to a significant increase in photocurrent response, with BCN exhibiting a response about fivefold more than pristine g-C₃N₄. Furthermore, the introduction of Au, Ag, or Rh cocatalysts to B-doped CN improved its catalytic activity. All the samples showed CO₂ conversion activity towards C₂H₅OH as a major product with a small amount of CO. Among them, B-doped CN with Au coating (Au-BCN) showed the highest CO₂ reduction activity towards C₂H₅OH with a rate of 150 nmol than pristine CN (~60 nmol), Ag-BCN (~60 nmol) and Rh-BCN (~100 nmol). The enhanced catalytic activity of Au-BCN in converting PEC CO₂ to C₂H₅OH resulted from improved charge separation. While multi-electron reduction of CO₂ facilitated by metal particle electron accumulation increased C₂H₅OH selectivity. In another study, a photoanode made of Au-loaded N-doped TiO₂, and a dark cathode made of Zn-doped Cu₂O were used to reduce CO₂.^[52] The results demonstrate that Zn-doped Cu₂O was one of the important factors in modifying the electronic structure and active site of Cu to promote *CH₂/*CH₃ intermediates formation/stabilization for C-C coupling to produce CH₃COOH.

Yupeng et al. modified SnO₂ by Bi and S co-doping to improve the photoresponse towards CO₂ reduction to formate.^[109] SnO₂ has a wide band gap, making it challenging to be excited by

visible light. The pristine SnO₂ has a polygon structure of ~10 nm in size, with interplanar distances of 0.247 nm and 0.325 nm, corresponding to the (110) and (101) planes. Bi³⁺ and S²⁻ doping to SnO₂ causes decreased interplanar distances to 0.241 nm and 0.325 nm for (110) and (101) planes, respectively. Therefore, introducing Bi³⁺ and S²⁻ doping into the lattice structure of SnO₂ severally replaces Sn⁴⁺ and O²⁻ respectively, which narrows the bandgap and enhances its optoelectronic properties. The doped 3%-(Bi, S)-SnO₂ exhibited a formate faradaic efficiency of 55.6% at a low overpotential of around 360 mV and a current density of 9.33 mA cm⁻² at -1.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl. Enhanced catalytic activity was due to the lattice defect caused by elemental doping to SnO₂ and increased catalytic reactive sites for CO₂ adsorption/activation.

4.2 Metal-doped photoelectrodes

The introduction of transition metals as dopants in semiconductors induces alterations in the crystal structure and the generation of novel active sites, resulting in enhanced CO₂ reduction activity. Moreover, transition metals with their multi-valency, improve charge separation and transfer by trapping photogenerated electrons and holes leading to enhanced catalytic activity.^[115,116] Nevertheless, excess doping acts as recombination centers and may reduce the photocatalytic activity.^[117] Cobalt (Co)-doped MoS₂ catalyst was prepared to achieve PEC CO₂ reduction to methanol formation.^[118] Co is an inexpensive and non-toxic element. The introduction of Co-doping into MoS₂ results in the formation of new active sites which lowers the conductive band, narrows the band gap, and enhances the charge separation for the reduction of CO₂ induced by solar light. In this study, Co-doped MoS₂ exhibited suitable band positions for CO₂ reduction, where their VB and CB were situated at 0.89 V and -0.52 V, respectively. According to EIS (electrochemical impedance spectroscopy) results, the conductivity was significantly increased after Co-doping to MoS₂. The importance of the PEC system has also been investigated. The CO₂ conversion to

methanol using Co-MoS₂ NPs was 35 mmol L⁻¹ in 350 minutes, which was higher than that of photocatalysis (i.e., 7 mmol L⁻¹), electricity (i.e., 8 mmol L⁻¹), and combined photo and electricity (i.e., 18 mmol L⁻¹), as shown in **Figure 8a**. The Co-doped MoS₂ NPs' electronic band potentials are sufficiently oxidative to facilitate the H₂O oxidation reaction and produce hydrogen proton, and the conduction band is also suitable for CO₂/CH₃OH reduction potential, as shown in **Figure 8b**. Apart from that, researchers utilized Co doped CdS QDs as a superior photocathode in combination with p-nCu₂O loaded FeOOH in a recent study^[119]. The resulting composite photocathode, which is known as FeOOH/p-nCu₂O/Co:CdS, demonstrated an improved photovoltage and produced HCOOH with a selectivity of faradaic efficiency of 82.9%. The addition of Co impurities to CdS helped to decrease the band gap of the photocathode, thus improving its light absorption in the visible range and increasing its photoelectrochemical properties. The study revealed that the outer layer of the photocathode, made up of Co doped CdS, increased the binding energy toward the *OOCH intermediate, resulting in the formation of HCOOH with high selectivity.

Surface Cuⁿ⁺ sites in Cu-based catalysts have been proposed as active sites for CO₂ reduction.^[120] When Cu is added to metal oxides (e.g., TiO₂), it can replace titanium atoms in the crystal lattice and create a vacancy state beneath the TiO₂ conduction band. This process introduces a new energy level to increase the light response of TiO₂ in the visible region. In this regard, Hasan et. al. prepared a Cu-doped RGO-TiO₂ nanocomposite for the reduction of CO₂ into higher hydrocarbon products such as formic acid and methanol.^[121] The Cu-doped RGO-TiO₂ exhibits enhanced light absorption in the visible region (400-800 nm) than TiO₂ and RGO-TiO₂ samples. The addition of Cu to the TiO₂ lattice offers intermediary states for the transportation of photogenerated electrons, facilitating the successful electron-hole pairs separation. Consequently,

the catalyst underwent CO₂ photoelectrocatalysis under light irradiation, resulting in a photocurrent density of 1.31 mA cm⁻² at -0.61 V vs. SCE with HCOOH (255 mmol h⁻¹ cm⁻²) and CH₃OH (189.06 mmol h⁻¹ cm⁻²) were generated during the photoelectrochemical CO₂ conversion process in methyl diethanolamine solution. At first, HCOOH was formed, serving as an intermediate in the subsequent formation of CH₃OH. However, after 3 hours of reaction time, the production of CH₃OH was increased in the Cu-RGO-TiO₂.

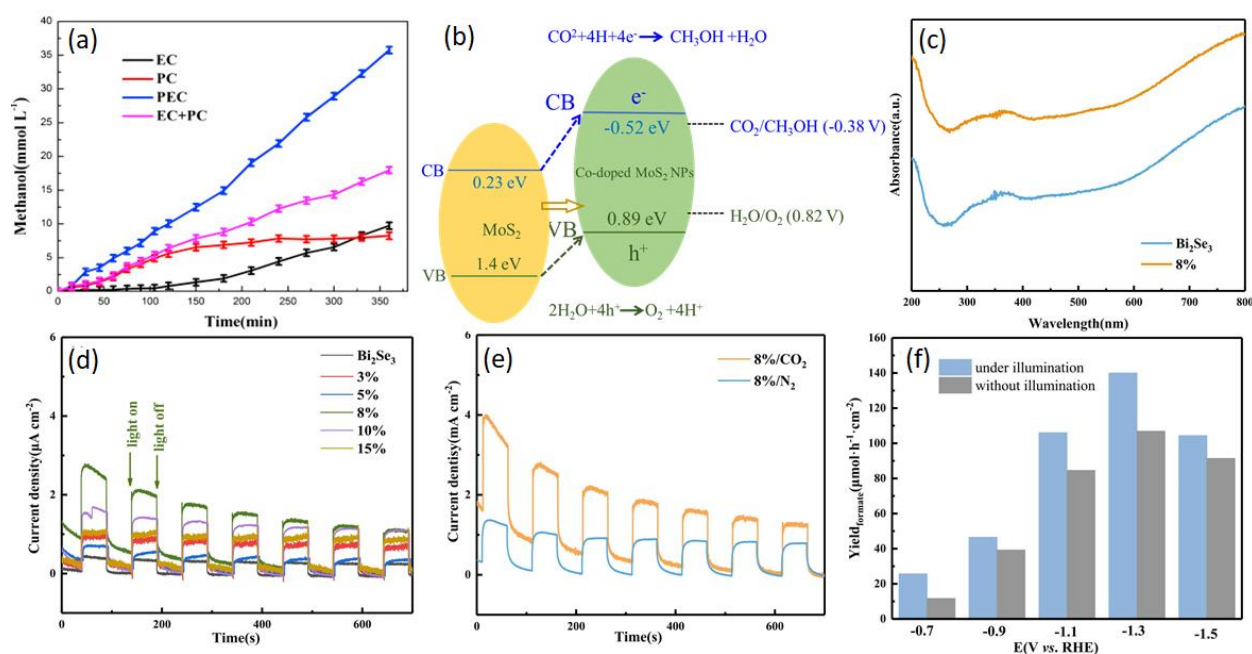


Figure 8: (a) CO₂ reduction to methanol in different catalysis conditions using Co-doped MoS₂ NPs, (b) PEC CO₂ reduction mechanism on the Co-doped MoS₂. Taken with permission from^[118], copyright 2015, Elsevier. (c) UV-Vis spectra of Bi₂Se₃ and 8% Cu-Bi₂Se₃, Photocurrent response (d) with different doping ratios of Cu atoms to Bi₂Se₃, (e) 8% Cu-Bi₂Se₃ in CO₂ and N₂ atmosphere, and (f) formate yield in 8% Cu-Bi₂Se₃ for PEC and EC systems. Taken with permission from^[107], Copyright 2022, Elsevier.

In another study, Zhu and colleagues developed a Cu-doped Bi₂Se₃ catalyst that generates selenium (Se)-vacancies through the oxidation state mismatch of cations which promotes CO₂

adsorption and enhances the catalytic activity for PEC CO₂ reduction into formate.^[107] UV-Vis spectra showed that an 8% Cu-doped Bi₂Se₃ has improved light absorption in the visible range as depicted in **Figure 8c**. Optimum Cu-doping to Bi₂Se₃ significantly enhanced photocurrent response in the CO₂ atmosphere, see **Figure 8d-e**. The faradaic efficiency of Cu-Bi₂Se₃ was achieved to be 65.31% for formate with a negative potential of -1.3 V vs. RHE which was three times higher than pristine Bi₂Se₃. Furthermore, CO₂ reduction through a photoelectrochemical system under solar light yielded 139.97 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ of formate, as shown in **Figure 8f**.

In another study, Cu-doped BiVO₄ was also reported for PEC CO₂ reduction towards HCOOH formation where Cu²⁺ ions in BiVO₄ provide abundant active sites for the adsorption and activation of CO₂.^[41] Cu addition to BiVO₄ reduces interfacial charge separation resistance and increases the charge transfer and surface reaction rates, as shown in **Figure 9a**. Hence, the optimized sample of Cu- BiVO₄ showed high selective electroreduction of CO₂ towards formate formation with a faradaic efficiency of 87.15 % at -1.0 V vs. RHE (**Figure 9b & c**). In the context of CO₂ reduction through PEC, the combination of Cu-BiVO₄ and WO₃ resulted in the generation of formate at a rate of 354.26 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ when operated at -1.2 V vs. RHE, as shown in **Figure 9d**. Moreover, the Cu-doped BiVO₄ cathode showed excellent stability (~24 h at -1.0 V vs. RHE) and the faradaic efficiency was also stable between 86.5-93%. Apart from the above-mentioned band energy and defect engineering approaches, Zhang and colleagues introduced a hydrophilic-hydrophobic structure of Cu-SnO₂/ZIF-8 composite compounding ZIF-8 with hydrophobic and Cu-SnO₂ with hydrophilic characteristics.^[122] Usually, the limited solubility of CO₂ in the aqueous phase, and competition of the HER, results in low activity of CO₂ reduction. When H₂O is used as a proton source, catalysts utilize a small quantity of CO₂ dissolved in water, precluding the use of gas-phase CO₂ for the reaction. The hydrophilic-hydrophobic structural approach proves beneficial

in augmenting CO₂ reduction by restraining HER. The hydrophobic layer facilitates the direct transport of CO₂ gas to the reaction system, thereby suppressing the competitive HER. Meanwhile, the hydrophilic layer contributes protons to the reaction, effectively enhancing CO₂ reduction. Herein, the ZIF-8 structure promoted electron transfer while Cu-doped SnO₂ provided additional active sites for CO₂ adsorption to promote the PEC CO₂ reduction towards HCOOH formation. Moreover, the porous structure of ZIF-8 enhanced the adsorption of CO₂, and its hydrophobic nature enables the capture of CO₂ bubbles directly in the electrolyte, allowing for the coexistence of gas, liquid, and solid phases at the nanometer level. This structure facilitates the CO₂ transfer from the gas phase to the PEC reaction interface, resulting in the efficient capture of electrons and improved photoelectric catalytic efficiency. Cu ions impurity introduced to SnO₂ improved visible light absorption and inhibited the recombination of electrons and holes. The Cu-SnO₂/ZIF-8 composite exhibited enhanced photocatalytic and electrocatalytic properties (faradaic efficiency: 68.96% for HCOOH, an overpotential: ~364 mV, and current density: 12.8 mA cm⁻² at -1.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl). In another study, Yang and colleagues conducted a study on Cu and N-doped SnO₂ for effective photoelectrochemical conversion of CO₂ to formate.^[108] The findings showed that the introduction of Cu and N to SnO₂ greatly improved the catalytic activity for CO₂ reduction. This was due to the defect levels that reduced the band gap and accelerated charge transfer.

Ghahramanifard et al. conducted a study on photoelectrocatalysis, using Cu-doped ZnO nanorods (NRs).^[123] They electrodeposited p-type Cu-doped ZnO NRs on FTO glass, where Cu²⁺ substituted Zn²⁺ in the ZnO NRs hexagonal wurtzite structure. The XRD spectra of Cu-ZnO nanorods reveal the absence of Cu oxide or any contaminants. This suggests that the introduced Cu has likely replaced Zn²⁺ ions, without altering the hexagonal wurtzite structure of the ZnO nanorods. However, as the dopant (Cu²⁺) concentration increased the peak intensity of the (002)

plane decreased, indicating that the incorporation impacts the crystallinity of the films since the crystal radius of Cu^{2+} (71 picometers) is lesser than that of Zn^{2+} (74 picometers). The UV-Vis analysis showed a clear improvement in the absorption of visible light in ZnO after Cu-doping, as a result of the decreased optical bandgap. In addition, Cu-doping leads to the formation of an acceptor level below the conduction band of ZnO. In the Mott-Schottky analysis, it is observed that the introduction of Cu ions (1.7 and 3.6%) to ZnO resulted in the role of substitutional Cu ions as acceptors, leading to a conversion of conductivity from n-type to p-type. Additionally, with the increase in Cu concentration, a reduction in the bandgap of ZnO was observed. Furthermore, the conduction band position of p-type Cu-doped ZnO became more negative, surpassing CO_2 reduction potential. This created a driving force for the reduction of CO_2 . ZnO nanorods with 3.6% Cu-doping showed improved visible-light-driven CO_2 reduction, resulting in high current density at a low negative overpotential.

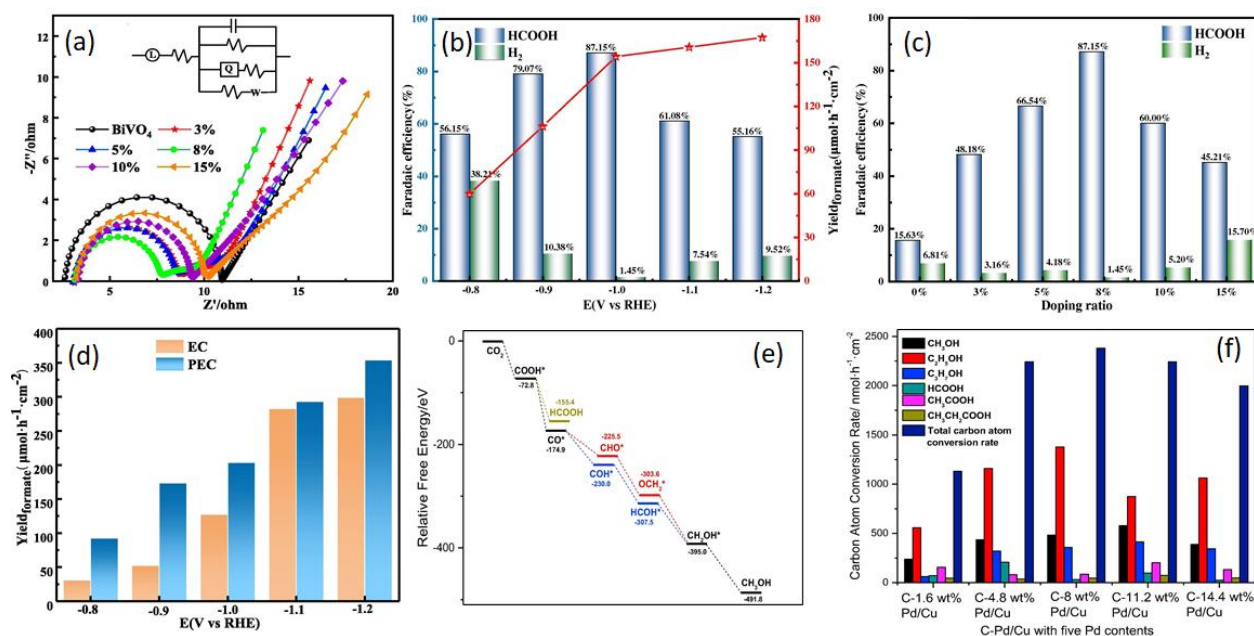


Figure 9: (a) EIS plots of BiVO_4 and Cu-BiVO_4 with different concentrations of Cu-doping (inset: the equivalent circuit impedance model), (b) Faradaic efficiency and formate yield of 8% Cu-

doped BiVO₄ EC CO₂ reduction, and (c) Formate yield in EC and PEC system using 8% Cu-doped BiVO₄, and (d) Stability test of 8% Cu-doped BiVO₄ at -1.0 V (vs. RHE). Taken with permission from^[41], Copyright 2023, Elsevier. (e) CO₂ reduction free energy pathways to CH₃OH and HCOOH, and (f) CO₂ reduction over C-Pd/Cu catalysts with different Pd concentrations. Taken with permission from^[124], Copyright 2019, Elsevier.

Cheng et al. reported the reaction of CO₂ reduction using the C-Pd/Cu catalyst.^[124] In this investigation, the carbonization of Cu(BTC) doped with Pd NPs (designated as Pd@Cu(BTC)) was carried out to produce an octahedral C-Pd/Cu catalyst, aiming at selectively converting CO₂ into alcohols. The presence of Pd-doping in Cu was verified through XPS analysis. Raman analysis indicates that the C-Pd/Cu, characterized by defects, offers a higher number of active sites for intermediate adsorption and promotes electron transfer. It is well known that a theoretical understanding of density functional theory (DFT) calculation can offer a reliable approach to predicting the selectivity of CO₂ reduction. Cheng et al. also provided a set of DFT calculations on the Pd/Cu slab model surface. The study involved a comparison of the energy profiles of pathways leading to HCOOH and CH₃OH. The findings suggest that C-Pd/Cu exhibited a greater preference for methanol formation (CH₃OH) over formic acid formation (HCOOH). The relative free energy for CH₃OH formation was lower (19.5 eV) than for HCOOH formation, as shown in **Figure 9e**. Hence, the formation of CH₃OH follows CO₂ → COOH* → CO* + H₂O → COH* → HCOH* → CH₂OH* → CH₃OH pathway. Later on, catalytic tests were conducted for a CO₂ PE cell with a C-Pd/Cu catalyst as cathode and Pt-TiO₂ nanotubes (Pt-TNTs) as anode. The result showed that the optimized catalyst (C-8 wt.% Pd/Cu) showed a CO₂ reduction rate of 2380 nmol h⁻¹ cm⁻² (total carbon atom conversion), as shown in **Figure 9f**, and the alcohol selectivity reached

93.2%. The overall alcohol yield including CH_3OH , $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$, and $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$, reached $2217.8 \text{ nmol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$.

Gu et al. synthesized Mg-doped CuFeO_2 using a solid-state method for PEC CO_2 reduction, which resulted in photocurrents of 1 mA cm^{-2} in CO_2 -saturated 0.1 M NaHCO_3 (pH 6.8).^[101] In bulk electrolysis experiments, formate was observed as the main reduction product under blue LED light illumination; however, no quantitative yield was shown. The faradaic efficiency for formate formation was only 10% at -0.9 V vs. SCE on Mg-doped CuFeO_2 . Such a low faradaic efficiency was due to the competitiveness of H_2 evolution. The measurement of incident photon-to-current efficiencies (IPCE) was conducted on electrodes composed of Mg-doped CuFeO_2 at -0.4 V vs. SCE in a 0.1 M NaHCO_3 solution, with careful consideration given to minimizing the impact of dark current. An IPCE efficiency of 14% was recorded at the short wavelength (i.e., 340 nm), but this efficiency declined notably to 2% at longer wavelengths (780 nm). To observe the impact of Mg-doping on CuFeO_2 catalysis, an XRD analysis was conducted on the electrode before and after electrolysis. The XRD findings following 8 hours of electrolysis revealed the absence of noticeable Cu^0 on the surface, suggesting a sluggish Cu^0 production. Meanwhile, formate is detected before the 8 h reaction, signifying that Cu^0 on the electrode surface does not expedite formate generation, confirming that Mg-doped CuFeO_2 contributes to CO_2 conversion. In addition to the studies mentioned earlier, Sn has been successfully used as a dopant along with WO_3 to convert CO_2 into formic acid. WO_3 has a band gap of about 2.6 eV for CO_2 reduction reaction, and its valence band edge has sufficient potential to drive H_2O oxidation. However, WO_3 's efficiency in CO_2 reduction is low due to charge recombination and poor OER kinetics. Therefore, doping the Sn, as an electron donor, could increase the carrier density of WO_3 , enhancing the electrical conductivity. To this end, Sn-doped WO_3 films were studied for PEC CO_2 reduction into formic

acid.^[125] Sn-doping to WO_3 resulted in the formation of 485 nmol cm^{-2} of HCOOH in 3 hours, which was more than twice as much as WO_3 . The 5% Sn- WO_3 photoanode among various Sn-doped WO_3 films has the highest relative PEC performance; however, the activity was reduced with the increased concentration of Sn, which may be attributed to excess Sn, which may lead to charge recombination.

The buried junction, e.g., the p-n junction, architectures have also been widely studied to enhance the catalytic activities via increased band-bending within the bulk catalyst or PEC electrode surface. For example, constructing a p-n heterojunction may create an internal electric field, which provides electrostatic force to enhance charge transfer. Zhang et al. in 2020 reported such a p-n junction of Nb-doped TiO_2 nanotube arrays (TNNTs) with CuFeO_2 .^[126] TNNTs were produced through anodic oxidation of a TiNb alloy in a 0.5% HF solution. To assess the heat stability of the nanotubes, their morphology was examined following calcination at $650 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The findings suggest that the nanotube array structure remains intact after calcination, underscoring the significant enhancement in heat stability attributed to the presence of Nb in TNNTs. CuFeO_2 worked as a coating layer to a p-n junction leading to enhancement in the visible light absorption and photogenerated charge carriers. Interestingly, the change in the photocurrent response was observed with the coated amount of CuFeO_2 on TNNTs. Initially, the samples exhibit good photoresponse behavior, with photocurrents of $20 \text{ } \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$. Photocurrents rose with the coating amount and reached $80 \text{ } \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ at 1.8 g m^{-2} CuFeO_2 . However, after coating 3.0 g m^{-2} of CuFeO_2 , the photocurrent was dropped. As CuFeO_2 is less conductive, thicker coatings lead to a decrease in photocathode conductivity. CO_2 reduction for the $\text{CuFeO}_2/\text{TNNTs}$ photocathode was performed, and ethanol (3.3 mol/5h) was produced as the major product after 5 hours of reaction. The selectivity changed to formaldehyde at a lower potential of -0.2 V as the CO_2 reduction to

formaldehyde is a two-electron transfer process. When the applied potential was lower (-0.4 V), ethanol production increased while formaldehyde production decreased. The HER begins when the applied potential is too low (-0.6 V). Furthermore, current efficiency reached 75% at -0.4 V. This study emphasizes the higher hydrocarbon formation as a result of CO_2 reduction.

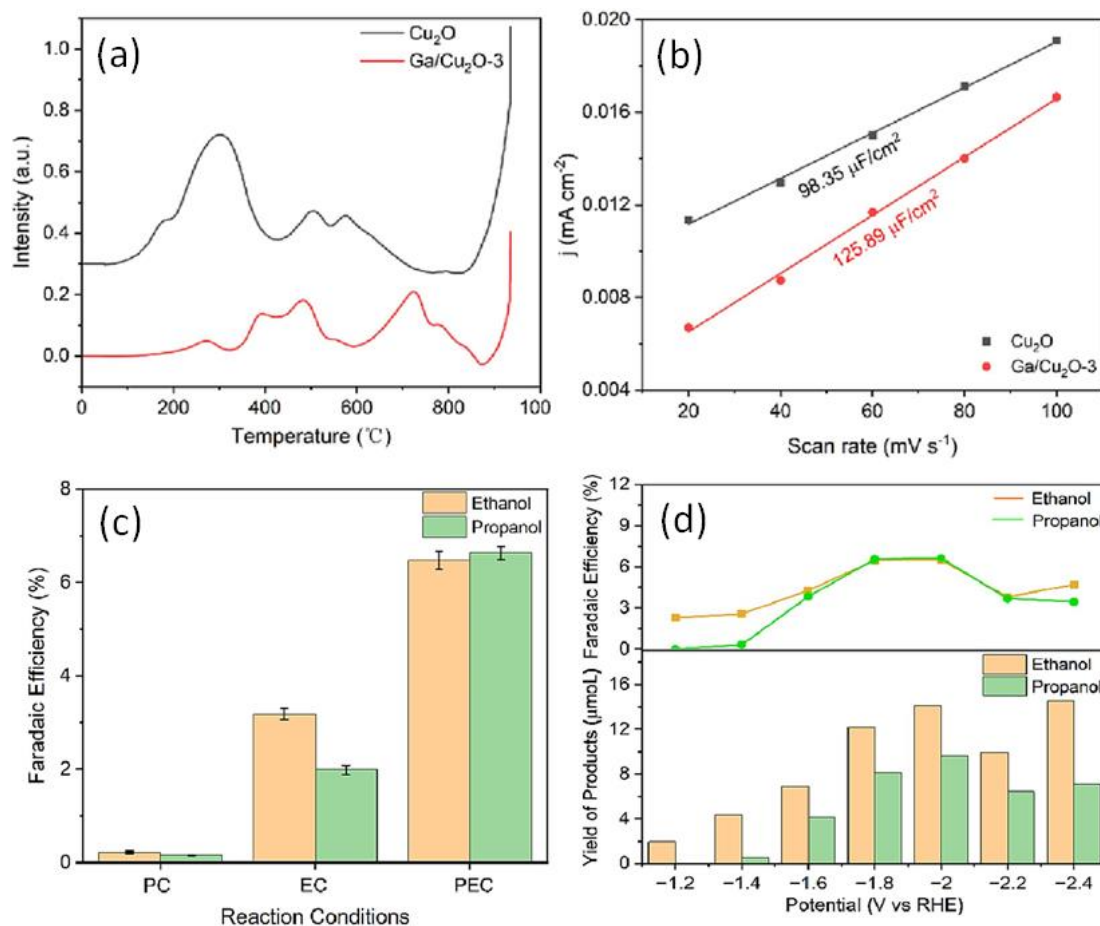


Figure 10: (a) CO_2 -TPD and (b) double-layer capacitance of Cu_2O and $\text{Ga/Cu}_2\text{O-3}$, (c) faradaic efficiencies of ethanol and propanol over $\text{Ga/Cu}_2\text{O}$, and (d) product yield and faradaic efficiency (%) of the ethanol and propanol with $\text{Ga/Cu}_2\text{O-3}$ at -1.2 to -2.4 V vs. RHE. Taken with permission from^[105], Copyright 2019, Elsevier.

Yang et al. reported PEC CO_2 reduction using Gallium (Ga)-doped Cu_2O aimed at enhancing the generation of C_{2+} products.^[105] The introduction of Ga through partial substitution in the Cu_2O

lattice resulted in an increased number of O-vacancies, thereby influencing the electronic structure of the catalyst's surface. This modulation facilitated the regulation of CO₂ adsorption and activation. CO₂-TPD (temperature programmed desorption) results indicated that Ga-doped Cu₂O exhibited three desorption peaks and Cu₂O has two main desorption peaks. This result suggests that Ga-doping created a higher density of CO₂ adsorption sites than Cu₂O, as shown in **Figure 10a**. Notably, the double-layer capacitance value for Ga-doped Cu₂O (125.89 μF cm⁻²) surpassed that of undoped Cu₂O (98.35 μF cm⁻²), indicating that Ga-doping significantly expanded the electrochemical active surface area (**Figure 10b**). Furthermore, Ga-doping significantly affected improved charge separation and suppressed charge recombination. Consequently, the faradaic efficiencies for ethanol and propanol in the PEC system were 6.5% and 6.64%, respectively at -1.8 V vs. RHE, surpassing the efficiencies in PC and EC systems (**Figure 10c**). The superiority of PEC CO₂ reduction over PC and EC systems stemmed from the generation of additional electrons during light irradiation over Ga-doped Cu₂O. The faradaic efficiencies for ethanol and propanol formation were 1.53 and 1.49 times higher in Ga-doped Cu₂O than pristine Cu₂O. Interestingly, at a lower potential of -1.2 V vs. RHE, only ethanol was produced, while higher hydrocarbon formation occurred as the potential increased from -1.2 V to -2.0 V vs. RHE, as depicted in **Figure 10d**. This study introduces a strategy for designing metal-doped catalysts to efficiently generate C₂₊ products in PEC CO₂ reduction.

Several studies have been conducted combining TiO₂ with graphene oxide combination for catalytic applications. TiO₂/graphene oxide significantly improves the absorption in the visible region, improves CO₂ adsorption, and enhances the charge separation ability for catalytic reactions^[127]. Apart from such binary electrode materials, ternary composites have also been investigated for PEC CO₂ reduction. For example, Hasan and colleagues fabricated a

nanocomposite comprising Ga-RGO-TiO₂ through a straightforward sol-gel method on an ITO substrate using electrophoretic deposition.^[128] A thin film catalyst was prepared and placed in a cubic quartz cell of a PEC reactor to reduce CO₂ under the illumination of solar light. Combining RGO with Ga-doped TiO₂ enhances light absorption and charge separation, improving CO₂ reduction. The findings indicated that the main outcomes of photoreduction were formic acid, accompanied by minor quantities of methanol. The Ga-RGO-TiO₂/ITO photoelectrode generated the highest photocurrent, reaching 4.6 mA at -0.57 V vs. SCE. In contrast, the TiO₂ or RGO-TiO₂ thin film photoelectrodes did not produce any significant photocurrent. The maximum amount of formic acid produced during a 120-minute reaction was 178 ppm. **Table 1** represents the summaries of the various materials discussed in the review article.

5. Summary and Outlook

So far, several catalytic systems have been explored for the efficient conversion of CO₂ into value-added chemicals. The utilization of combined solar light and electricity, i.e., photoelectrochemical (PEC) conversion, has garnered significant interest as a clean and sustainable approach for CO₂ recycling. Electrode materials like metal oxides, metal hydroxides, metal chalcogenides, hybrid nanocomposites, and 2D materials, have shown promising PEC CO₂ conversion to improve the catalytic conversion and achieve high product selectivity of PEC CO₂ reduction reactions. Various strategies such as heterojunction formation, p-n junction, elemental doping, and metal NPs deposition on semiconductors have been investigated to further improve the catalytic activity of reaction. In this regard, elemental doped electrode materials (featuring non-metals such as O, N, and S and metals such as Fe, Co, Ni, and Cu) for the conversion of CO₂ through photoelectrocatalysis have also been investigated to enhance the optoelectronic properties of the materials. Elemental doped catalysts feature vacancy formation, tune the electronic band,

extend the light absorption in the visible region, improve the charge separation, and ultimately enhance the PEC CO₂ reduction. Specifically, catalysts containing elemental copper have surfaced as favorable choices for catalysis due to their ability to enhance optoelectronic properties and environmentally friendly characteristics. Additionally, electrode materials based on copper have demonstrated elevated activity, sustained stability, and increased selectivity towards higher hydrocarbons. Hence, it is logical to conclude that electrode materials containing copper can be fine-tuned to attain improved catalytic activity with higher carbon product formation.

Metal-doped photoelectrode materials offer key advantages for the PEC CO₂ reduction reactions. Alongside these benefits, there are notable downsides to consider. In comparison to electrochemical CO₂ conversion, there has been a lack of studies on PEC CO₂ reduction using these materials. The existing challenge lies in the insufficient efficiency of catalytic conversion and the selectivity of CO₂ reduction reactions, hindering their practical and widespread implementation. Current research mainly covers single-element doped catalysts. We should explore novel materials like single-atom catalysts (SACs) or dual-element doping to improve efficiency and control selection. For instance, Pengsong Li et al. conducted a study where they synthesized a combination of Ag and S doped onto Cu₂O/Cu host material^[129]. The study revealed that S doping altered the electronic structure and morphology of the catalysts, which favored methanol formation. On the other hand, Ag suppressed the HER. Hence, dual doping significantly improved the activity and selectivity of electrochemical CO₂ reduction to methanol. Research in the field of PEC CO₂ conversion predominantly emphasizes achieving high catalytic activity. However, there exists a notable gap in our understanding of the factors responsible for diminished catalytic activity and catalyst deactivation. To tackle these challenges, employing in-situ analysis and theoretical calculations becomes crucial. The issue of reduced active sites for CO₂ reduction

arises from the excessive introduction of elemental dopants, leading to surface passivation or unwanted side reactions. Thus, controlled doping under optimized reaction conditions poses a significant challenge. Although high temperatures are necessary for element doping, they can inadvertently result in dopant aggregation, serving as charge recombination centers. Long-term stability issues, particularly under extended exposure to light, confront doped photoelectrode materials. Therefore, ensuring the long-term stability and robustness of elemental-doped catalysts in aqueous systems is important for practical applications. The scale-up of elemental-doped photoelectrode material synthesis while maintaining performance and cost-effectiveness presents a substantial obstacle. Addressing all these challenges is essential for proceeding with the practical application of metal-doped photoelectrode materials in photoelectrocatalytic CO₂ reduction reactions. In addition to material design, further research should be directed towards optimization of operating conditions and reactor upscaling.

Overall, the photoelectrochemical conversion of CO₂ into fuels is an increasingly compelling scientific topic, holding significant promise for industrial-scale implementation. This technology presents a potential facet of the solution to the challenges posed by global warming and energy demands. It is imperative for researchers to actively engage in interdisciplinary collaborations to effectively address existing issues. Through ongoing studies, our collective efforts can contribute to the continual enhancement of knowledge, bringing us closer to the development of an efficient PEC system for renewable energy.

Table 1: Summary of elemental doped electrode materials for PEC CO₂ reduction, detailing catalysts, reaction condition, catalytic performance (product yield, faradaic efficiency (FE), and photocurrent density).

Catalysts	Reaction conditions	Product yield, FE%, Photocurrent density, Selectivity, and Photocurrent stability	Remark	Year of publication [Ref.]
Oxygen-incorporated C ₃ N ₄ (CN)	Three electrode system, 0.5 mol L ⁻¹ Na ₂ SO ₄ , a bias of -0.9 V vs. RHE, 300 Xe lamp	HCOOH: 273.56 μmol cm ⁻² h ⁻¹ , Photocurrent density: 587 μA cm ⁻²	Product selectivity and long-term stability have not been discussed.	2022 ^[112]
CZTS/CdS (Oxygen doped CdS)	H-type cell, CO ₂ -saturated 0.1 m KHCO ₃ , standard potential of Ag/AgCl: 0.1976 V, Light of 100 mW cm ⁻²	CO: ~4.0 μmol cm ⁻² h ⁻¹ at -0.8 V vs. RHE, CH ₃ OH+CH ₃ CH ₂ OH: ~5.5 μmol cm ⁻² h ⁻¹ at -0.4 V vs. RHE	Stability has not been discussed.	2021 ^[114]
S-Cu ₂ O/CuO	Three electrode system, 0.25 M NaHCO ₃ , bias potential of 0.47 V vs. RHE, 1W LED lamp	CH ₃ OH: 32 μmol cm ⁻² h ⁻¹ , FE of CH ₃ OH: 39%, CH ₃ COCH ₃ : 22 μmol cm ⁻² h ⁻¹ , FE of CH ₃ COCH ₃ : 35.7%, Photocurrent stability: 8000 s	The CO ₂ reduction reaction was carried out using a 1-watt LED lamp. FE% is low for higher hydrocarbons.	2017 ^[104]
S, N-codoped Nanoporous Carbon	0.1M KHCO ₃ , bias potential of 0.67 V vs. RHE, 150 W Xe lamp	CO: 15.8 μmol h ⁻¹ , FE of CO: 27.0%, 5 h, Stability: 12 h at -0.84 V	Product selectivity has not been discussed (due to the scope of this paper) although ¹ H NMR detected methanol, formic acid, and acetone.	2018 ^[130]
N-doped carbon/N-doped ZnO@ZnTe nanorods (N:C/N:ZnTe)	CO ₂ -saturated 0.5 m KHCO ₃ , 1 sun illumination (100 mW cm ⁻²), DC potential of -0.11 V vs. RHE	CO: 40.99 μmol cm ⁻² , FE of CO: 71.65% at -0.11 V _{RHE} after 3 h, CO selectivity: 78.17%	A significant amount of H ₂ evolution of 11.54 μmol cm ⁻² and FE of 20.01%	2018 ^[40]
Au-B-C ₃ N ₄ (Au-BCN)	0.5 M NaHCO ₃ , -0.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl, AM 1.5 G solar-simulated system	C ₂ H ₅ OH: ~150 nmol, FE _{Au-BCN} of C ₂ H ₅ OH: 47%, FE _{BCN} of C ₂ H ₅ OH: 78%, CO: ~20 nmol, FE _{Au-BCN} of CO: 0.9%, FE _{BCN} of CO: 0.7%	Low catalytic activity. Small amounts of CO and H ₂ were observed in the gas phase.	2016 ^[110]
Zn-Cu ₂ O (Au/N-TiO ₂ photoanode)	H-type quartz reactor, 0.5 mol L ⁻¹ Na ₂ SO ₄ and 0.1 mol L ⁻¹ KHCO ₃ , 200 mW cm ⁻² illumination	CH ₃ COOH: 1.1 μmol/6h (output potential 1.5 V), FE of CH ₃ COOH: 58.4% at .5 V vs. Ag/AgCl CH ₃ COOH selectivity: 91.5%	Au-loaded N-doped TiO ₂ plate array was used as a photoanode while Zn-doped Cu ₂ O used a dark cathode. The long-term stability of the reaction has not been carried out.	2021 ^[52]
(Bi, S)-SnO ₂	0.5 M NaHCO ₃ , onset potential of -0.88 V vs. SHE	Current density: 9.33 mA cm ⁻² at -1.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl, FE of formate: 55.6%, Current stability: 10 h at -1.0 V in CO ₂ and N ₂	The amount of formate formation and product selectivity has not been detected.	2019 ^[109]
Co-MoS ₂	A sealed two-cell reactor, 0.1 M KHCO ₃ , 500 W Xe lamp	CH ₃ OH: 35 mmol L ⁻¹ at -0.9 eV	The product selectivity has not been discussed.	2015 ^[118]

Co-CdS QDs	H-type cell, 0.5 M KHCO ₃ , PLS-FX300 HU Xenon lamp	FE of HCOOH: 82.9%, photocathode stability: 180 min, Photocurrent density: -2.6 mA cm^{-2} at -0.75 vs. RHE	Stability (current density) was shown for 1200 s. The quantitative analysis of the products is not mentioned.	2024 ^[119]
Cu-RGO-TiO ₂	Cubic quartz photoelectrochemical cell, 0.1 M Na ₂ SO ₄ , CO ₂ saturated 10% methyl diethanolamine (MDEA), -0.61 V vs. SCE, 150 W Xe arc lamp	HCOOH: $255 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, CH ₃ OH: $189.06 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, Photocurrent density: 1.31 mA cm^{-2} at -0.61 V vs. SCE	Longer reaction time forms CH ₃ OH. The photocurrent density fluctuated during the reaction. Initial photocurrent density (4.56 mA cm^{-2}) was significantly decreased (0.63 mA cm^{-2}) at the end of the reaction (6 h)	2015 ^[121]
Cu-doped Bi ₂ Se ₃	H-type cell, CO ₂ -saturated 0.5 M NaHCO ₃ , 300 W Xe lamp	HCOO ⁻ : $139.97 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, FE of HCOO ⁻ : 65.31% at $\sim 500 \text{ mV}$ vs. RHE, Current density: $-24.14 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ at -1.3 V vs. RHE, Stability: 24 h (current density)	HCOO ⁻ was the only liquid product observed during the CO ₂ reduction reaction. A significant amount of HCOO ⁻ was reported without light illumination ($111.18 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$)	2022 ^[107]
Cu-doped BiVO ₄	H-type electrolytic cell, CO ₂ saturated 0.5 mol L ⁻¹ NaHCO ₃ , 300 W Xe lamp	HCOOH: $354.26 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, FE of HCOOH: 87.15 % at -1.0 V vs. RHE, Current density: $-20.68 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ at -1.3 V vs. RHE, Stability: 24 h	HCOO ⁻ was the only liquid product observed during the CO ₂ reduction reaction.	2023 ^[41]
(Cu, N)-SnO _x	H-type cell, 0.5 mol/L NaHCO ₃ solution saturated with CO ₂ , 300 W Xe lamp	HCOOH: 617.35 mg L ⁻¹ , Current density: 12 mA cm^{-2} at -1.6 V , Potential: 1.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl	FE (54.97%) was low compared to several SnO ₂ -based materials.	2020 ^[108]
Cu-SnO ₂ /ZIF-8	H-type cell, 0.5M NaHCO ₃ , 300 W Xe lamp	FE of HCOOH: 68.96%, Overpotential: $\sim 364 \text{ mV}$, Current density: 12.8 mA cm^{-2} at -1.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl, Electrolysis stability: 10 h at -1.0 V vs. Ag/AgCl	The quantitative analysis of the products is not mentioned.	2021 ^[122]
Cu/ZnO NRs	Single compartment sealed glass cell, 0.1 M tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate (TBAHP), 100 W LED light	Photocurrent: 500 mA cm^{-2} at -0.5 V vs. NHE	The photoelectrocatalytic property of the catalysts has been carried out, but quantitative measurement of the CO ₂ reduction reaction has not been shown.	2018 ^[123]
C-Pd NPs/Cu	H-shaped double chamber reactor, PLS-SXE300CUV Xe lamp, 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ (anolyte), 0.5 M NaHCO ₃ (catholyte)	Total carbon atom conversion: $2380 \text{ nmol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, CH ₃ OH + CH ₃ CH ₂ OH + CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ OH: $2217.8 \text{ nmol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (Selectivity: 93.2%) Photocurrent density: 2.8 mA cm^{-2}	The stability of current density stability was decreased after 2 h from $\sim 2.8 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ to $\sim 1.7 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ and lasted for 12 h.	2019 ^[124]
Mg- CuFeO ₂	Pyrex test tube, 0.1 M NaHCO ₃ , 75 W Xe Arc lamp	FE of HCOOH: 10% at -0.9 V vs. SCE, IPCE: 14% at 340 nm at -0.4 V vs. SCE	Quantitative CO ₂ conversion efficiency was not determined.	2013 ^[101]

Sn-doped WO ₃	H-type cell, 0.2 M Na ₂ SO ₄ electrolyte in anodic chamber and CO ₂ -saturated 0.5 M KHCO ₃ , 150 W Xe lamp (400-nm cutoff filter)	HCOOH: 485 nmol cm ⁻² (3 h), Photocurrent density: 1.11 mA cm ⁻² at 1.2 V vs. Ag/AgCl, IPCE: 45.1% at 350 nm	H ₂ production was predicted as a side reaction at -0.9 V vs. SCE. The stability of the catalyst has not been carried out. A small amount of water splitting was observed.	2017 ^[125]
Nb-doped TiO ₂ (CuFeO ₂ /TNNTs)	80 ml gas-tight glass container, 0.1 mol/L NaHCO ₃ , 250 W Xe lamp	HCHO: 2.0 μmol at -0.2 V, CH ₃ CH ₂ OH: 3.3 μmol at -0.4 V, FE: 75% at -0.4 V, Photocurrent: 80 μA cm ⁻²	When the potential exceeds -0.6 V, the current increases suddenly due to H ₂ evolution.	2020 ^[126]
Ga/Cu ₂ O	H type cell, Nafion 117 proton exchange membrane, CO ₂ saturated 0.1 M KHCO ₃ solution, 300 W Xe lamp (400 ≤ λ ≤ 800 nm)	C ₂ H ₅ OH: 14.13 μmol, FE of C ₂ H ₅ OH: 6.50%, C ₃ H ₇ OH: 6.50 μmol, FE of C ₃ H ₇ OH: 6.64%, Photocurrent: 13.23 mA cm ⁻²	Along with ethanol and propanol as main products, the PEC CO ₂ reduction also showed activity towards CO, C ₂ H ₄ , CH ₄ , C ₂ H ₆ , and H ₂ .	2023 ^[105]
Ga-RGO-TiO ₂	A cubic quartz cell, 5% triethanolamine (TEA) CO ₂ saturated solution, light intensity: 10 mW cm ⁻²	HCOOH: 178 ppm (2 h), Photocurrent: 4.6 mA at -0.57 V vs. SCE	The photocurrent was significantly dropped from 4.6 mA to 1.65 mA during the first 30 min.	2015 ^[128]

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Table of Contents

Considering the progress of the photoelectrochemical (PEC) conversion of CO_2 into useful chemical products, different materials have been studied in recent years. The elemental doping to electrode materials tunes their photoelectronic properties through the incorporation of impurities, creating defect states that result in band gap tuning, expanded light absorption, enhanced charge separation, and improved CO_2 adsorption capability. In this regard, this review comprehensively summarizes the progress of elemental-doped photoelectrode materials for PEC CO_2 reduction.

