1 Low-tortuosity water microchannels boosting energy utilization for

- 2 high water flux solar distillation
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ABSTRACT

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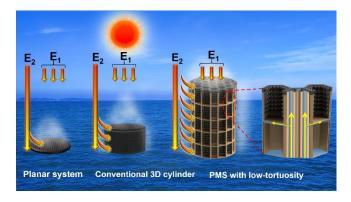
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Solar distillation through photo-thermal evaporators has approached solar light energy (E₁) limit under no solar concentration, but still suffers from modest vapor and clean water production. Herein, a nature-inspired low-tortuosity 3D evaporator is demonstrated to significantly improve water production. The solar evaporator, prepared from polypyrrole-modified maize straw (PMS), had upright vascular structures enabling high water lifting and horizontal micro-gaps facilitating broad water distribution to the out-surface. Consequently, this novel PMS evaporator dramatically enhanced the utilization of the heat energy stored in the environment (E₂) for promoting evaporation. The maximum vapor generation rate of a single PMS respectively increases 2.5 times and 6 times compared with the conventional 3D evaporators and the planar evaporators of identical occupied area. Consequently, a scaled-up PMS array achieved a state-of-the-art vapor generation rate of 3.0 L m⁻² h⁻¹ (LMH) under simulated condition and a record-high clean water production of 2.2 LMH for actual seawater desalination under natural conditions (one-sun intensity). This breakthrough reveals great potentials for cost-effective freshwater production as well as the rational design of high-performance photothermal evaporators for solar distillation.

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1. INTRODUCTION

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35	Solar distillation, as a direct utilization technology of solar energy, holds immense
36	potential in fresh water production, water treatment, power generation and so on. ¹⁻⁴ In
37	particular, it is one of the most promising approaches for water purification in remote
38	areas and in some emergency circumstances where access to centralized drinking water
39	supply or electricity is unavailable. ^{5, 6} Solar distillation relies on the photothermal
40	evaporators to adsorb and convert light energy to localized heat to driven steam
41	generation and transportation. ⁷⁻¹⁰ So far, researchers have been mainly focusing on the
42	development of photothermal evaporators with broadband solar spectrum absorption
43	capacity, excellent thermal insulation and super-hydrophilicity to improve the
44	efficiency of solar light energy utilization. 11-18
45	However, a critical bottleneck of solar distillation is the low theoretical value of
46	vapor-producing flux (1.4 L m ⁻² h ⁻¹ , LMH) under one sun irradiation (1 kW m ⁻²), even
47	if the light energy is totally absorbed and transferred into the vapor. 19-21 Researchers
48	found that reducing the enthalpy of water through novel material design can potentially
49	improve water production. ²²⁻²⁶ Nevertheless, the requirement of forming the porous
50	structure in hydrogel under harsh condition (e.g. repeated freeze thawing in liquid-
51	nitrogen) prevents the economical scaling up of this technology. An alternative
52	approach should be to develop much more facile and economical strategies to break
53	through the limitation of water production.

In the actual operation of a solar evaporator, two parts of energy can contribute to

the evaporation of water (Figure 1): (1) the light energy (E_1) that irradiates on the confined evaporator surface, which is converted to localized heat energy by the photothermal materials; (2) the heat energy (E_2) that is stored in the environment, which determines the environmental temperature.²⁷ In traditional 2D planar evaporation, E_1 is the main driver for vapor generation. Three-dimensional (3D) evaporators can enhance evaporation by capturing E_2 . Theoretically, increasing the height of water transport in a 3D evaporator can promote better utilization of E_2 . Nevertheless, the evaporation enhancement contributed by E_2 (EC_{E2}) for conventional 3D evaporators is generally less than 40%, which is largely limited by capillary water lifting and distribution capacity.²⁸-

Nature provides us an inspiring solution. The vascular bundle structure of maize straws (MS, an agricultural waste) features low-tortuosity water micro-channels. Serve as the aorta of the plant, these straight microchannels can transport water from the bottom soil to dozens of meters high and then distribute water horizontally through the micro-gaps connected to vascular. Inspired by the outstanding ability of MS water channels to transport and distribute water, we prepared a highly efficient 3D solar evaporator using a simple chemical decoration of MS by polypyrrole (PPy) (denoted as PMS). The simultaneous actions of efficient vertical capillary water lifting by the straight vascular structures and the horizontal water transport to the outside surface through its micro-gaps enabled a single PMS to achieve an outstanding solar-to-vapor efficiency of 91.3% through E₁ and high vapor production of 10.3 LMH by the

enhancement of E₂. When forming an array, the vapor production still reached a state-of-the-art value of 3.0 LMH with an EC_{E2} of approximately 106% by reducing the interaction among each evaporation field of individual PMS straws. A prototype of optimized PMS array exhibited a vapor production rate of 2.2 LMH (normalized to one-sun intensity) for actual seawater desalination under natural condition, which is 4 times that of a planar photothermal system, highlighting its great potential for practical applications.

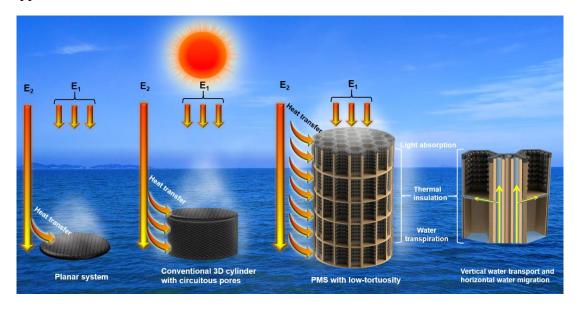


Figure 1. The schematic illustration of the solar energy utilization among typical planar system, conventional 3D cylinder with circuitous pores and PMS with low-tortuosity in water evaporation.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Fabrication of PMS. The MS was first immersed in the homogeneous Py monomer (2 g/L) aquatic solution for pre-absorption. Afterward, the FeCl₃•6H₂O (8 g/L) as oxidant was added into the above solution to start the chemical polymerization of PPy. After 1 h of

- 91 polymerization, the obtained PMS was washed with DI water and dried at room temperature.
- The detailed chemicals and procedures provided in the section 1, SI.

Solar distillation experiment. The as-prepared samples were stabled by Expandable polyethylene (EPE) foams with their underparts immersing in DI water. In this case, the water surface was totally covered by the EPE foam, without exposed area. Then, the solar distillation was operated in both simulated condition in lab and natural condition under sun. The vapor generation rates were calculated as the mass-change of feedwater balanced by an electronic balance, while the clean water production rate under real sun was determined by the weight of the collected distilled water. The detailed procedures, characterizations and other experimental information were all provided in the SI.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Fabrication and morphologies. The fabrication process of the PMS was facile and easily scaled-up attributing to mild reaction conditions. As illustrated in Figure 2A, the MS cut from a maize plant (without shell) was immersed in the homogeneous Py solution with oxidant. After polymerization, the MS cylinder presented a black appearance owing to the coverage of PPy particles, revealing an enhancement of light absorption.³⁷ Strong interactions and connections between PPy particles and MS matrix were expected due to that Py was able to bound to native substance via the hydrogen bonding between –N on Py rings and – OH of cellulose.³⁸ The result of Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) demonstrated the existence of abundant – OH groups in pristine MS and additional signals of C–N stretching vibration bands of PPy

(Figure S1), indicating the successful coating. ^{39, 40} Figure 2B shows the PMS consisted of honeycomb cell structures layer-by-layer and vascular bundle structures along with tracheid. After polymerization, the hexagonal structures on the top layer were well preserved (Figure 2C) and the PPy nanoparticles were found symmetrically anchored on the surface of the cell walls (Figure 2D). The average diameter of the tangent circles of these hexagons was $\approx 100 \mu m$ (ranging from 20 to 200 μm , Figure S2A) and the thickness of the robust cell wall was $\approx 0.3 \mu m$ (Figure S3A). The cross-section of the core consisted of rectangular square boxes and vascular bundles for water transportation and storage (Figure 2E and F). Coincidentally, the average height of the honeycomb box layer was also 100 µm (ranging from 35 to 200 µm in Figure S2B), indicating the regularity of its cell arrangement. The vascular bundle consists certain tubulars with no diaphragm for rapid water lifting. The diameters of the tubulars were ranging from 10 to 200 µm and the heights of tubulars corresponded to the height of the stem (Figure 2E and S3B). As a masterpiece of nature, this perfect structure of the PMS played an essential role in the rapid and uniform water transport in plants, which also made sense in light absorption and heat insulating over solar distillation.

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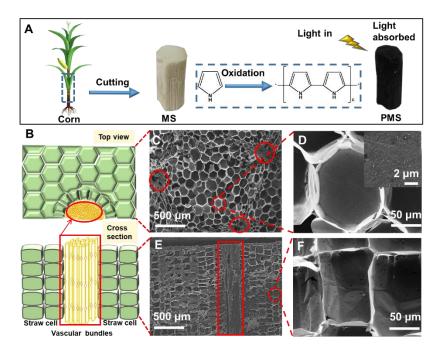


Figure 2. Fabrication and morphologies of the PMS. (A) The graphical illustration of the polymerization process of the PMS. (B) Schematic illustration of the structure of the top view and cross-section view of the PMS. SEM images of (C) the top view of the PMS and (D) the magnified image of a whole cell. The inset shows the magnification of the PPy coated cell wall. SEM images of (E) the cross-section view of the PMS and (F) the magnified image of a whole cell.

The optical absorption capacity as an essential property of solar evaporator was measured by an ultraviolet–visible–near infrared (UV–Vis–NIR) spectrophotometer from 250 - 2500 nm equipping with an integrating sphere (Figure 3A). Taking energy distribution of the solar spectrum into account (AM 1.5 G, grey line in Figure 3A), the average solar energy absorption rate of PMS was ultimately calculated to be 97.5%. This dramatic high value was attributed to the broadband capacity of PPy nanoparticles and the low reflection of the honeycomb structures at surface. The compressive capacities of the as-prepared samples were tested by a universal testing machine as

shown in Figure 3B. For comparison, the pristine MS was also treated at 500°C in Ar for 1 h to obtain the carbonized MS.²⁵ As shown in Figure S4, the volume of the PMS increased 5 - 8% after polymerization, in the meanwhile, the carbonized MS shrank about 40% in comparison with the pristine MS. Correspondingly, the compressive stress of the PMS was increased to 0.8 MPa, which is higher than that of the pristine MS (0.7 Mpa) and carbonized MS (0.2 MPa), indicating that the polymerization process enhanced the mechanical strength of the PMS.

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Since the solar evaporator was filled up with water during evaporation, it is important to understand its properties under a wet state. First, the water absorption capacity of the PMS was 579 wt%, which is lower than that of the pristine MS (759%) due to that the swelling property of cellulose was weakened by PPy coating (Table S1). The thermal isolation of the wetted evaporator was measured using a laboratory-built test-apparatus and captured by IR camera (Figure S5). The thermal conductivity of the wet PMS was calculated to be 0.3909 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹, which is lower than that of water (0.6000 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹ at room temperature), indicating that the heat generated from solar illumination can be effectively localized in PMS instead of being transported to the underneath bulk water. The wettability of the samples was shown in Figure 3D. The water drop was immediately absorbed by the cores of MS and PMS within 2 s, indicating the superhydrophilicity (water contact angle (WCA) is 0°). Four dry PMS cylinders (10-cm-height) with different diameters was conducted to optimize the water transportation (Figure S6A). Once in touch with water, the dynamic temperature

variations of the cylinders were captured by an infrared (IR) camera. As shown in Figure S6B, the larger the diameter of PMS is, the lower the height of water that can be transported. Only PMS with a diameter around 1.5 cm can be transported to a height of 10 cm. It is reasoned capillarity of the vascular bundle is weaker in the PMS with larger area (detailed in Figure S7). Hence, the sample with diameter of around 1.5 cm was chosen as the optimized evaporator.

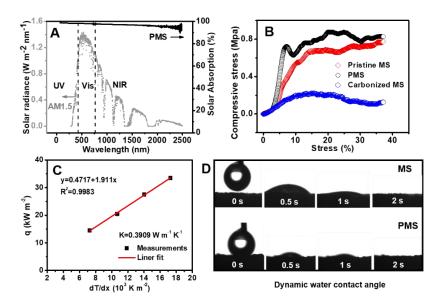


Figure 3. Optical behaviors and water transportation of PMS. (A) The solar spectral irradiance (AM 1.5 G) (gray, left side axis) and solar absorption (black, right side axis) of the PMS. (B) Compressive stress-strain curve of the MS, PMS and carbonized MS.

Solar evaporation experiments. A single PMS cylinder as a 3D solar evaporator could vaporize 10.3 LMH steam (based on the occupied area) by concurrently energy utilization of both E₁ and E₂. The solar evaporation capacity of the upper surface of PMS under a 2D state was systematically evaluated to test its utilization of E₁. Typical mass-change curves of the upper surface under different conditions were plotted in

Figure 4A. Upon illumination, the water at the upper layer, absorbed by the capillarity of the PMS, vaporized to steam as a result of the photo-thermal conversion. The whole evaporation rate of the upper layer was calculated to be 1.69 LMH under one-sun illumination, which was 3.4 times that of the upper layer without E₁ irradiation (0.51 LMH). In contrast, the evaporation rate of the pure water under illumination without solar evaporator was only 0.4 LMH, resulting from its poor light-absorb capacity. The dynamic heat distribution and transfer over the PMS system were recorded by IR thermal imager, meanwhile, the maximum temperatures (T_{max}) and average temperatures (T_{ave}) of the upper layer were plotted as a function of time (Figure 4B). Attributing to the water infiltration and evaporation, the T_{ave} at the upper surface of the PMS without E₁ is 3.4°C lower than the room temperature (19.6°C). Only 20 s after illumination, the T_{ave} and T_{max} increased by about 10 and 11.2°C compared with the original temperature. The thermal equilibrium of the system reached after 120s and lasted for an hour, and the $T_{\rm max}$ and $T_{\rm ave}$ at equilibrium were ≈ 36.8 and $34.3^{\circ}{\rm C}$, respectively. The temperature of the bulk water increased from 19.6°C to 21.4°C due to the heat conduction loss from the PMS. Above results demonstrated that the PMS can effectively covert the E₁ into heat so as to improve the efficiency of light - vapor conversion under direct illumination. The solar-to-vapor efficiency of E₁ was calculated to be of the upper layer was calculated to be $81.6 \pm 4.52\%$ with a power density of 1 kW m⁻², (detailed in Section 3, SI) which is a relatively high value among early reports due to its low heat consumption.^{38, 39} Moreover, the evaporation rate of the upper layer

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under 3, 5, 7, and 10 Sun were calculated to be 4.37, 7.20, 10.00, and 14.31 LMH, respectively. Accordingly, the light-to-vapor efficiencies of the upper layer under various illuminations are calculated to be 89.6%, 93.8%, 95.6% and 97.8% under 3, 5, 7, and 10 Sun (Figure S8). The remarkable light-to-vapor conversion efficiencies of the upper layer of PMS should be attributed to the unique natural structure, broadband solar absorption, excellent water transpiration and thermal insulation, which also offered an option for the application in solar evaporation systems with solar concentrators. Above results demonstrated that the upper surface of the PMS possesses the excellent solar evaporation capacity under E₁ illumination.

The PMS cylinder can extend its evaporation area to the 3D space to harvest more E_2 in surroundings, attributing to its excellent water-lifting capacity. To evaluate the evaporation capacity of the 3D evaporator, a pre-wetted PMS cylinder (≈ 1.5 cm in diameter) was fixed in the middle of a 100 ml beaker by a foam, with the cylinder bottom immersing in water, as shown in Figure 4C. Then, the evaporation rates of the PMS cylinder at different heights under illumination and the IR image were recorded in Figure 4D and E. Unless other specified, each calculation of evaporation rate was based on the occupied area of the cylinder. Figure 4E shows that the evaporation rates of the PMS evaporator were increased with the height of the cylinder attributing to the increased harvesting of E_2 , and reached the maximum at the height of 10-cm-height (10.30 LMH). It can also be confirmed by the evaporation-rate curve of the PMS cylinder system without E_1 illumination (Figure S9). The evaporation rate of the single

PMS cylinder is the highest value among the recent reports (Table S2). Correspondingly, the T_{ave} of the upper surface of the 10-cm-height PMS system was maintained at 35.2°C after 60 min illumination, which is consistent with the value in its upper surface experiment. Meanwhile, the T_{ave} of the side surface of the PMS cylinder (17.1°C) was 2.8°C lower than the surrounding temperature, indicating that the whole side part of the PMS was continuously capturing the heat energy of E2 and evaporating during the operation. Besides, the heat conduction loss to bulk water in the upper surface evaporation experiment (10.4%) was utilized by the evaporation of the side surfaces in 3D evaporation experiment, thus the utilization of E₁ was also improved at the height of 10 cm. Above results indicate that a reasonable 3D structured evaporator can effectively improve the utilization of both E₁ and E₂, and further increase the flux of water production in solar evaporation. For comparison, a commercial cotton fiber cylinder as common 3D evaporator with the same diameter (1.5 cm) was also coated by PPy (defined as PCF) for the evaporation test. The maximum evaporation rate of the single PCF was only 2/5 that of PMS cylinder. The reason for the limit evaporation of the cylinders is reasoned that the capillary transport rate cannot satisfy the evaporation rate of the upper surface after reaching a certain height. The decrement of the evaporation after reaching the height is because the upper surface gradually lost its evaporation when the height of the cylinder is above the capillary transport. 40,41 To further evaluate the water lifting process of each sample, the dry PMS cylinder and PCF cylinder (10-cm-height) were proposed as

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Figure 4C, respectively. In the initial stage, the temperatures of the cores were in accordance with the surrounding (19.9°C). With the increase of time, the side surfaces of the cylinders were gradually getting dark (16.2°C) due to infiltration and evaporation of water. The PMS cylinder was wholly infiltrated up by water after 180 min, revealing the great potential of transporting water into 3D space. On the contrary, only around 1/3 height of the PCF cylinder was wetted by water in the same procedures. It is probably reasoned that the interlaced cotton fibers impeded the further water elevation due to the large aperture and tortuous (Figure S10). The vascular bundle is a tubular structure with no diaphragm, the tortuosity of this capillary-structure is almost 0, which enabled vertical water lifting to a higher level (Detailed in Figure S11). At the same time, regular and horizontal micro-gaps between the cell walls can facilitate the uniform distribution of water to the outside surface of the evaporators for water vaporing.⁴² The tortuosity of the whole PMS and PCF was 1.5 and 1.6, respectively (Mercury measurements, Micromeritics AutoPore IV 9510). This combination of the vertical water lifting and horizontal water distribution is the reasoned that PMS achieved a breakthrough in solar water production, which also indicates that the upper limit of evaporation rate can still be raised as long as the structure is properly designed. The durability of the PMS was tested by conducting a recycle experiment for 10 days. The evaporator was irradiated under light for 8 h each day, then totally immersed in the water until the operation of the next day. As observed in Figure S12A, after 10 days of repeat measurement, there was no obvious decrease on the evaporation rate (10.16 \pm

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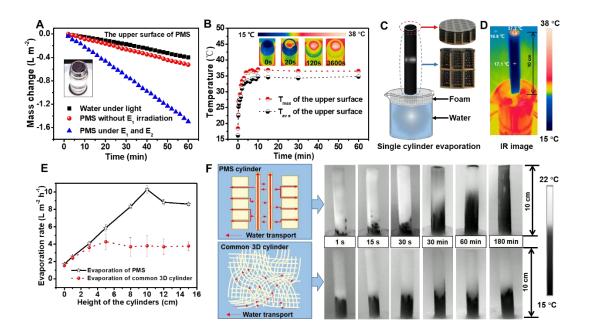
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0.19 LMH). The PPy on the MS was also stable after 10 days of operation as shown in Figure S12B, indicating the excellent durability.



in PMS and common 3D cylinder.

Figure 4. Solar evaporation of a single PMS cylinder. (A) The mass change of the upper layer of the PMS under different intensities of solar illumination. (B) Maximum and average temperatures of surfaces of PMS as a function of time. Inserts show the photograph and IR images of the upperview over the PMS. The IR photos correspond to t = 0, 20, 50, 100 and 3600 s after illumination. (C) Schematic setup for 3D evaporation capacity test of the PMS. (D) IR image of the 10-cm-height PMS under 1 sun illumination. (E) The evaporation rates of single PMS and common 3D cylinder with different heights. (F) The schematic illustrations and IR images of the water transport process

The PMS array presents a superior vapor flux after a reasonable arrangement. In addition to the single PMS cylinder, the evaporation of the PMS array also needs to be tested to verify its scaled-up capacity. As illustrated in Figure 5A, the utilization of the

E₁ of a single PMS cylinder in the array was rarely reduced when forming an array, attributing to that the evaporation fields of each upper surface were independent. At the initial state, the surrounding temperature (T₂) obtained through the E₂ was higher than the temperature of the side surface of the PMS cylinder (T₁), which triggered the evaporation of the side surfaces. However, the evaporation at the side surfaces of each PMS cylinder would mutually interfere with each other due to the interaction of their evaporation fields and competing for the utilization of E₂, resulting in the decrement of the evaporation. A reasonable arrangement of the array with optimized distance among each cylinder is required to reduce the disturbance between the evaporation fields of the side surfaces. As shown in the inner images of Figure 5B, a type of the PMS array (3×3) with one side under varying distances (set as x mm) was performed in the solar evaporation experiment, the evaporation rates of which based on the occupied area (with blue appearance) were calculated. When the PMS array is closely aligned, the evaporation rate was calculated to be 2.1 LMH, indicating that the side evaporation still played a role attributing to the space left by the tangent of cylinders. As the distance increases, the water production of the array was enhanced owing to that the E₂ was increased with space increasing (Figure S13). In contrast, the evaporation rates based on the occupied area were varying with the distance increasing, resulting from the sacrifice of E₁ in the blank space. In other words, the increase of the distance between cylinders would lead to increase utilization of the E₂ and decrease utilization of the E₁. As shown in Figure 5B, the curves reached an inflection point at the distance of 15 mm,

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and the maximum evaporation rate (3.0 LMH) of the array was also reached at this point, which is much higher than the early reported arrayed 3D evaporators. The energy enhancement contributed by E₂ of the array (EC_{E2}) at the maximum evaporation rate was calculated through the following express: $EC_{E2} = (R_0 - R_1)/R_1$, where the R_0 is the evaporation of the whole evaporation under both E₁ and E₂, the R₁ is the evaporation under only E₁. Assuming that the E₁ was 100% utilized, the EC_{E2} at the maximum evaporation flux (3.0 LMH) was calculated to be 106 %. It indicates that the contribution of E₂ was at a high level when the PMS cylinders forming an array with a proper arrangement. For comparison, an array with totally independent cylinders was also performed as shown in Figure S14, the maximum evaporation rate of which was only 2.1 LMH. The reason for the great performance of our array is probably due to the more efficient water lifting and transportation (twice speeder than the totally independent array, proved by Figure S15) and more efficient energy utilization. In support of our experimental results, a Comsol model was developed to simulate the evaporation process of the single and the arrayed PMS cylinder. The modeled structure was shown in Figure S16, models with different numbers (n = 1, 3) and distances (x = 1, 3)0, 1, 1.5 cm), stable height (h = 100 mm) and diameter (d = 15mm) were established in a 3D mapping. A simple model of the evaporation of porous media was used to describe the consumption of E₂ (without E₁) around the cylinder during evaporation. The simulation results of the steady-state temperature of the single and arrayed PMS cylinder were presented in Figure 5C. When forming an array, the temperature of the

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inner space between cylinders (T₂) was varying with the distance changing due to the interaction of each evaporation fields. The temperature of the PMS cylinder (T₁) was stable at 21.6°C, which is 2.4°C lower than the original environment due to the evaporation consumption. When the cylinders were closely aligned, the T₂ in cylinders was about 20.5°C, which is 1.1°C lower than T₁ in the steady-state, which is reasoned that the exchanged and replenished of the E2 cannot catch up with the rate of evaporation energy consumption at the inner spaces of the array, then resulting in an impediment of the side evaporation. As the distance increased to 15 mm, the T₂ recovered to the normal value consistent with T₁ attributing to the increased energy replenishing and exchanging, indicating that the evaporation of the side surfaces of the array can be maintained continuously at this optimized distance. These predicted results were consistent with our experimental result. Above results indicate that the arrayed PMS cylinders with proper arrangement still possessed a superior solar utilization on both E_1 and E_2 .

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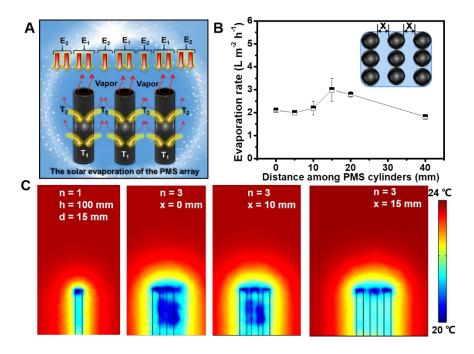


Figure 5. Solar evaporation experiments of a PMS array. (A) The schematic illustration of the solar evaporation in array. (B) The evaporation rate of our array as function of the distance change among the PMS cylinders based on the occupied area (with blue appearance). Insets show the photograph and scheme of the PMS array. (C) The Comsol simulation results about the evaporation of the side views of the single PMS cylinder and the PMS array.

Outdoor water production. Figure S17 shows the PMS building blocks can flexibly take advantage of 3D space to increase the area of light absorption and evaporation as much as possible, whether in traditional flat still, single slope still, double slope still or semi-circular still. To test the outdoor water distillation capacity of the PMS building blocks, a typical single slope solar distillation device was designed as our prototype (Figure 6A and Figure S18A). The devices were placed at the campus of Harbin Institute of Technology (North latitude 45°) from 10:00 to 16:00 on May 26th, 2018 (Figure 6B). Under nature solar illumination, seawater obtained from Bohai,

China (average salinity, 26%) was transferred to vapor attributing to the heat generation. The solar intensity, outdoor temperature and the inside temperature of the still were recorded in Figure S19. A planar system consisted of PPy paper integrated with insulation foam in the same type of prototype was employed as a comparison system (Figure S19B), the light-to-vapor efficiency (E₁) of which was calculated to be 90% under one-sun. As shown in Figure 6C, the mass of the collected water was increasing with evaporation time and achieved 8.0 L m⁻² (based on the occupied area of the PMS array) after 6 h of evaporation (average solar flux is 0.55 kW m⁻²). When the light intensity is normalized to one-sun intensity, we estimate that the amount of pure water collection can reach a record production of 2.2 LMH, which was 4 times higher than that of the planar system, indicating that the utilization of 3D space can significantly improve the water collection flux in the outdoor environment. For comparison, the water production from recently reports in outdoor were also normalized to one-sun intensity and listed in Figure 6D. Besides, there was no salt crystals form on the surface of PMS after one-day of operation. To further prove this the performance, a single PMS was placed in 3.5% NaCl water for 8 h of continuous solar evaporation under one-sun. As shown in Figure S20, the evaporation rate of the PMS was stable at about 8.45kg m⁻ ² h⁻¹ without decrement and no salt crystals on the surface. It is probably reasoned that the evaporator has abundant water transport channels, the movement of ions in the brine during evaporation reaches an equilibrium in these channels. 43-45

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and the collected fresh water were measured. As shown in Figure 6E, the concentrations of the five primary elements (Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and B³⁺) presented in the seawater were all below 1 mg L⁻¹ after distillation, the decrement of which were more than 98%. The concentration values of elements in the distilled water were far below the standards of the World Health Organization (1000 mg L⁻¹).⁴⁶ Notably, the toxic pollutant B³⁺ in seawater, which is hard trapped by conventional reverse osmosis (RO) technology, could be effectively removed (remove rate is 98.32%).⁴⁷ Besides, the PMS cylinders could be easily scaled-up as shown in Figure S21, revealing a huge potential for the practical application. Moreover, as a by-product of natural maize agricultural production, the annual yield of MS in China reaches 900 million tons, while the comprehensive utilization of which on average was less than 40%.⁴⁸ Therefore, offering a more reasonable way to turn this "waste" into "wealth" also makes a great sense.

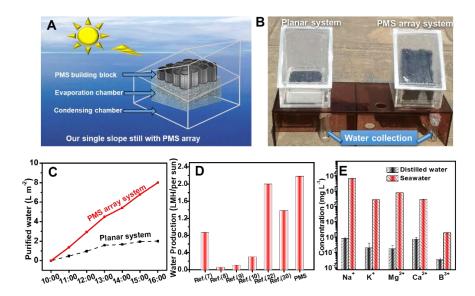


Figure 6. Outdoor water production. (A) the PMS building blocks in our solar still. (B) The photograph shows the evaporation test of the planar system and PMS system in the outdoor

condition. (C) The amount of the purified water during 6 h of outdoor experiment. (D) Comparison of the outdoor water production of the previous reports under normalized one-sun intensity. (E) The concentration of the elements in seawater and distilled water.

Implications. We have rationally demonstrated a high-water-produced 3D solar evaporator based on a photo-thermal vascular structure to resolve the low water production problem in solar distillation system. The low-tortuosity vascular structures enabled high water lifting vertically and the horizontal micro-gaps transported the water broadly to the 3D space of the evaporators, which contributed to the effective utilization of the heat energy in the surroundings. The state-of-the-art vapor generation rate (3.0 LMH), clean water production capability (2.2 LMH) under one sun condition and fabrication from agricultural by-product make this development more competitive than other solar distillation.

Of course, the water production of the seawater desalination is still at a low level compared to a pump-driven RO system. However, no requirement for pretreatment, post-treatment and additional energy input makes solar distillation simple and inexpensive, hence, it is still a great option for water production and seawater desalination in emergency circumstances or remote rural and island areas. Besides, the effective removal of boron element from seawater is another attractive feature of PMS solar distillation. The present development is also expected to combine with other previous strategies to further enhance the solar distillation, and is believed to be quite meaningful for not only solar desalination, but also solar disinfection, power generation,

- 403 wastewater volume reduction and so on.
- 404 ASSOCIATED CONTENT
- 405 Supporting Information
- 406 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website
- 407 at DOI:
- 408 Experimental section (PDF)
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