

Supporting Information

Thermally-Assisted Photocatalytic Conversion of CO₂-H₂O to Ethylene over Carbon Doped In₂S₃ Nanosheets

Lei Wang,^{‡a} Bohang Zhao,^{‡a} Changhong Wang,^a Mengyao Sun,^a Yifu Yu^a and Bin Zhang^{*ab}

^aDepartment of Chemistry, School of Science, Institute of Molecular Plus, Tianjin University, Tianjin 300072, China

^bTianjin Key Laboratory of Molecular Optoelectronic Sciences, Tianjin University, Tianjin 300072, China

[‡]These authors contributed equally.

*E-mail: bzhang@tju.edu.cn

1. Experimental section.

1.1 Chemicals. Indium chloride ($\text{InCl}_3 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$), L-cysteine, triethylenetetramine (TETA) and thiourea were purchased from Aladdin Ltd. The carbon dioxide (CO_2) gas was bought from Air Liquide (Tianjin) Co. Ltd. Deionized water (DIW) was used in all the experimental processes. All chemicals were of analytical grade and used without further purification.

1.2 Synthesis of carbon doping In_2S_3 (C- In_2S_3). The organic-inorganic hybrid precursor InS-TETA was synthesized by our previous method.¹ 0.2212 g $\text{InCl}_3 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 0.7269 g L-cysteine were dissolved in 12 mL H_2O and 6 mL TETA (triethylenetetramine) in an aqueous solution, stirred vigorously for 30 minutes, and then transferred to a 25 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave. The mixture was heated to 160 °C for 24 hours, then naturally cooled to room temperature. At the end of the reaction, the white product formed was washed three times with deionized water and absolute ethanol and placed in a vacuum drying oven for drying. The obtained organic-inorganic hybrid is called InS-TETA. 10 mg as-prepared hybrid InS-TETA was put into a solvent of 12 mL DIW in a 20 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave under vigorous stirring for 30 minutes to form a homogeneous solution. The autoclave was sealed and kept at 180 °C for 10 h. The yellow precipitate was washed by DIW and absolute ethanol, respectively, and dried in a vacuum oven to obtain C- In_2S_3 .

1.3. Synthesis of In_2S_3 . As reported in the literature,² 0.5863 g $\text{InCl}_3 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 0.6089 g thiourea were put in an agate and mixed uniformly. Then the mixture was placed in a 6 mm diameter quartz tube and put into a tube furnace. Then the temperature was raised to 220 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C/min under the air atmosphere for 5 minutes. Finally, it was cooled down naturally to room temperature. The as-obtained powder was washed three times with hot DIW and ethanol to remove impurities and dried in a vacuum oven to obtain an orange-

red solid called In_2S_3 .

2. Materials Characterizations.

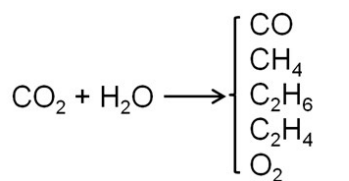
Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed on a Bruker D8 Focus Diffraction System using a $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ source ($\lambda=0.154178$ nm). SEM was conducted with a Hitachi S-4800 scanning electron microscope equipped with the Thermo Scientific energy-dispersion X-ray fluorescence analyzer. TEM, HRTEM were obtained with a JEOL-2100F system equipped with an EDAX Genesis XM2. XPS measurements were conducted with a PHI-1600 X-ray photoelectron spectrometer equipped with Al $\text{K}\alpha$ radiation. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed on a photoelectron spectrometer using Al $\text{K}\alpha$ radiation as the excitation source (PHI 5000 VersaProbe) with or without illumination. All the peaks were calibrated with the C 1s spectrum at a binding energy of 284.8 eV. UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra (UV-Vis DRS) were recorded on a Lambda 750 UV-Vis spectrometer (PerkinElmer) equipped with an integrating sphere. The UV-Vis DRS spectra of solid samples were collected in 200-800 nm against BaSO_4 reflectance standard. Raman spectroscopy was recorded on Renishaw inVia reflex Raman microscope under an excitation of 532 nm laser light with a power of 20 mW. Ultraviolet photoemission spectroscopy (UPS) measurements were performed with an unfiltered He I (21.22 eV) gas discharge lamp and a total instrumental energy resolution of 100 meV. Spectroscopy Photoluminescence (PL) was carried out on a Supermini 200 with a 50 kV X-ray tube. *In situ* diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) analysis is carried out in a continuous-flow mode under Visible light irradiated and dark conditions, respectively, with external heating of 150 °C. And the results were calculated by the Kubelka-Munk function. The gas-phase product was measured on Agilent 7890A with thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and Shimadzu GC-2010 Plus with Barrier Discharge Ionization Detector (BID). Helium (He) was used as a carrier gas. The C_2H_4 generated by $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ and D_2O isotope experiments were analyzed by the QP2010Ultra gas

chromatography-mass spectrometer.

3. Thermal assisted Photocatalytic CO₂ Conversion.

The thermal assisted photocatalytic conversion of CO₂ and H₂O was carried out in a stainless steel reaction chamber equipped with a quartz window at a chamber volume of 75 mL. Before the photoreaction, the sample (30 mg) was well dispersed in the reaction chamber, and the gas in the chamber was discharged by a mechanical pump. CO₂ was bubbled into the chamber with 0.1 mL water and reached atmospheric pressure. The products formed in the irradiated chamber were measured at regular intervals under the 300 W xenon lamp (Beijing Perfect light PLS-SXE-300UV) with the light intensity of 1 W/cm² and external heating at 150 °C.

When the products were subjected to barrier discharge ionization detection for gas chromatography analysis, the GC-2010 gas chromatograph equipped with an activated carbon packed column (carrier gas He) was used. The overall formula during the photocatalytic conversion of CO₂-H₂O to C₂H₄ over C-In₂S₃ is supposed to be



The evolution rate of different products was calculated using equations (1). The selectivity of C₂H₄ among all products and hydrocarbons were calculated using equation (2) and (3).

$$\text{Evolution Rate } (\mu\text{mol} / \text{g} / \text{h}) = \frac{\text{peak area of X} \times \text{C}}{\text{peak area of standard gas} \times t \times m} \times V \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Selectivity}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4) = \frac{\text{Evolution Rate of C}_2\text{H}_4}{\text{Evolution Rate of all products}} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Selectivity}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4) = \frac{\text{Evolution Rate of C}_2\text{H}_4}{\text{Evolution Rate of hydrocarbons}} \quad (3)$$

X : The different products including H_2 , CO , CH_4 , C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 .

C : The concentration of X in standard gas.

t : The illumination time.

m : The mass of used catalyst.

V : The volume of used reactor.

4 The measurement of Quantum Efficiency. The Quantum Efficiency (QE) of our system is measured under external heating at 150 °C. In a typical procedure of the measurement of QE, 100 mg photocatalyst was well-dispersed in a stainless steel reaction chamber equipped with a quartz window at a chamber volume of 75 mL. CO_2 was bubbled into the chamber with 0.1 mL water and reached atmospheric pressure. 180 W Light Emitting Diode (LED) Electro Luminescent (EL) with the light intensity of $10 \text{ mW}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ in the wavelength of 420 nm was used as the light source and the irradiation area was fixed to 1.0 cm^{-2} under external heating at 150 °C. The details of QE calculation were blown.

(1) The number of absorbed photons (N_{absorbed}):

$$N_{\text{absorbed}} = \frac{t(\text{s}) \times P(\text{W} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}) \times \lambda(\text{m})}{h(\text{J} \cdot \text{s}) \times c(\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})}$$

$$N_{\text{absorbed}} = \frac{1(\text{s}) \times 0.01(\text{W} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}) \times 1(\text{cm}^2) \times 420 \times 10^{-9}(\text{m})}{6.626 \times 10^{-34}(\text{J} \cdot \text{s}) \times 3 \times 10^8(\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})} = 2.1 \times 10^{16}$$

(2) The QE of CO_2 reduction was obtained by:

$$\text{QE} = \frac{(2n_{\text{CO}} + 8n_{\text{CH}_4} + 12n_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4} + 14n_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6})(\text{mol}) \times N_A(\text{mol}^{-1})}{N_{\text{absorbed}}} \times 100\%$$

$$\text{QE} = \frac{(2 \times 10.04 \times 10^{-11} + 8 \times 7.91 \times 10^{-11} + 12 \times 3.0 \times 10^{-10} + 14 \times 2.01 \times 10^{-11}) \times 6.02 \times 10^{23}}{2.1 \times 10^{16}} \times 100\% = 13.33\%$$

P : The optical power.

λ : The wavenumber of the incident light.

c : The speed of light.

h : Planck constant.

5. *In situ* diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS).

In situ DRIFTS analysis was carried out in two sequential steps in a continuous-flow mode. Firstly, the catalysts were desorbed for 1 h in the N₂ atmosphere under 200 °C. Next, Data was collected in a continuous steam-saturated high purity carbon dioxide flow for 30 min at 4 cm⁻¹ resolution and 128-time points were recorded under 150 °C for each experiment, with and without the LED light (420 nm) illumination. It should be noted that the background was collected in the N₂ atmosphere under 150 °C to exclude the effect of residues on the catalyst surfaces.

6. Supplementary data and figures.

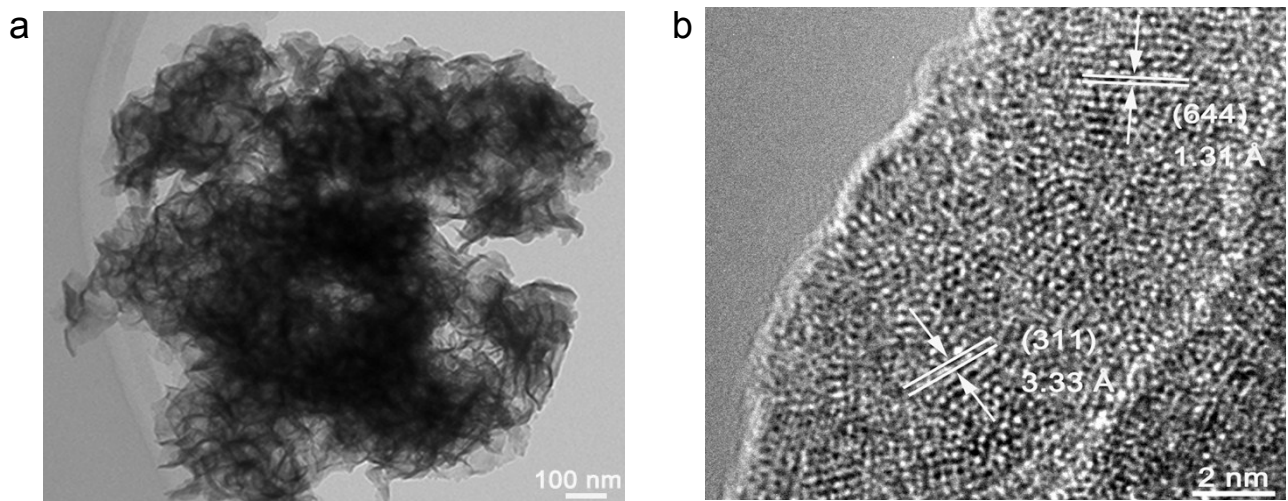


Figure S1. TEM (a) and HRTEM (b) images of C-In₂S₃.

Figure S1a reveals the morphology of C-In₂S₃. Figure S1b shows that the lattice fringes of (311) plane of C-In₂S₃ become disordered after doping with carbon.

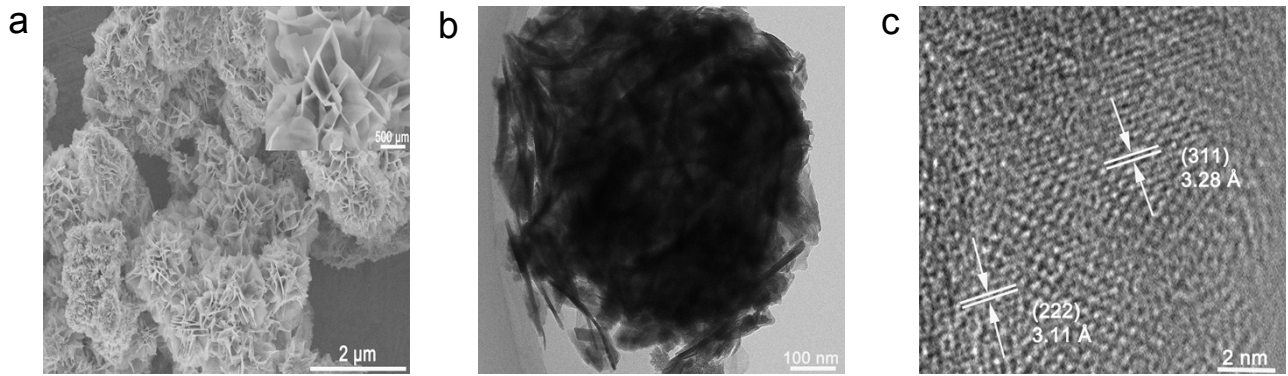


Figure S2. SEM (a), TEM (b) and HRTEM (c) images of In₂S₃.

Figure S2 reveals that the morphology of In₂S₃ is the same as C-In₂S₃ and the orderly lattice of In₂S₃ without carbon doping.

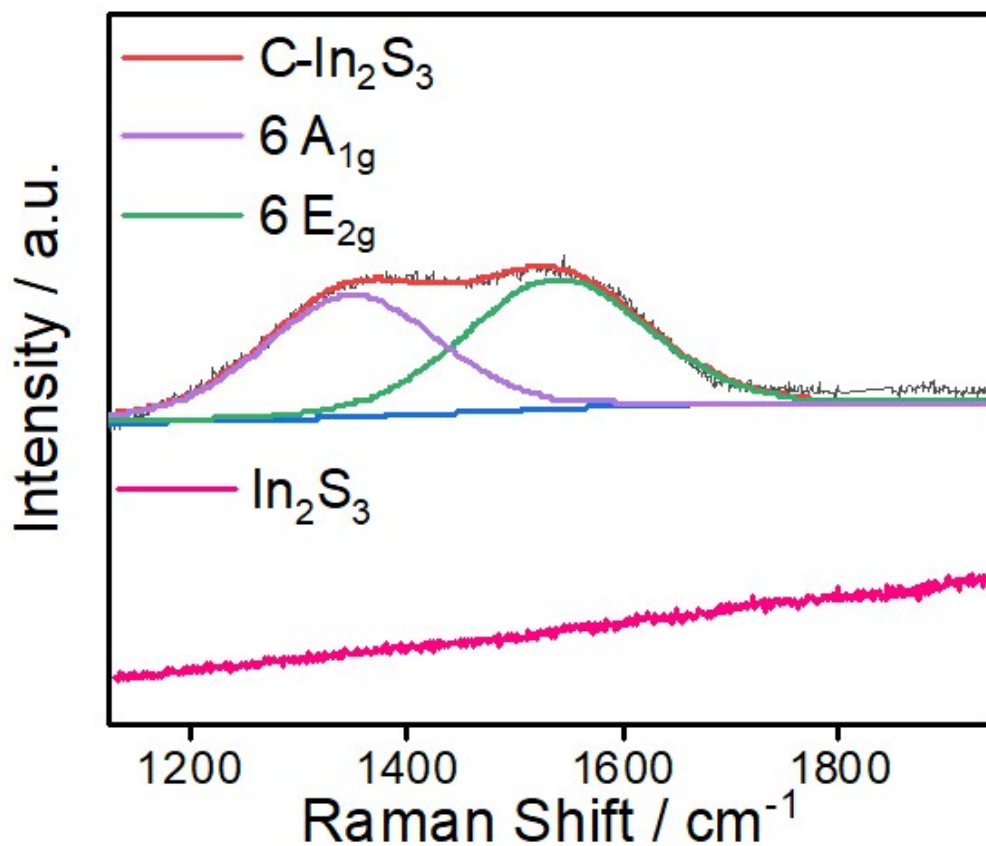


Figure S3. Carbonaceous matters analysis of the C-In₂S₃ and In₂S₃ by Raman spectra.

Figure S3 shows the Raman spectra of C-In₂S₃ reveals additional peaks ~1340, and 1525 cm⁻¹, which matches the characteristic vibrational modes of 6 A_{1g}, and 6 E_{2g}, respectively, in doped amorphous carbon with pentatomic and heptatomic rings.³ And the In₂S₃ sample did not show any characteristic peak at 1200-1600 cm⁻¹ (Figure S3), which indicates that the non-carbon-doped In₂S₃ did not form any carbonaceous materials.

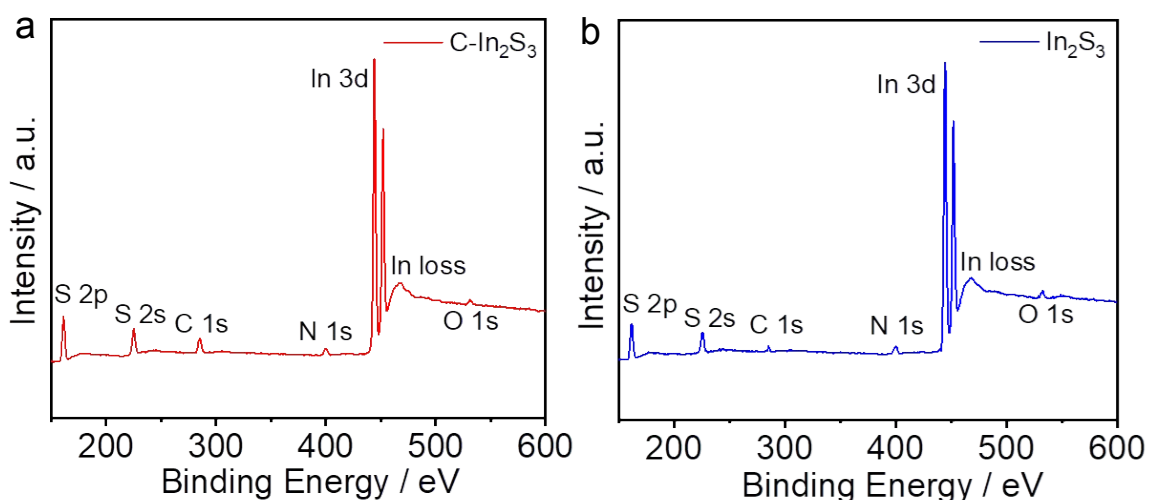


Figure S4. The XPS spectra for survey scan of C-In₂S₃ (a) and In₂S₃ (b).

To prove the impact of C doping instead of N doping, we performed the XPS spectra for a survey scan of C-In₂S₃ and In₂S₃. The N element can be detected from the XPS spectra of both samples in Figure S4. It can be seen from the XPS spectra that the intensity of the N 1s peak is almost the same in both samples, but C-In₂S₃ has a stronger C 1s peak than In₂S₃. The signals for N may come from the XPS chamber during the measurements. So, we ignore the effect of N doping, and the dominant effect of C doping leads to the differences of product distributions between our two samples. Additionally, the N doping effect was often ignored in the other reports.⁴

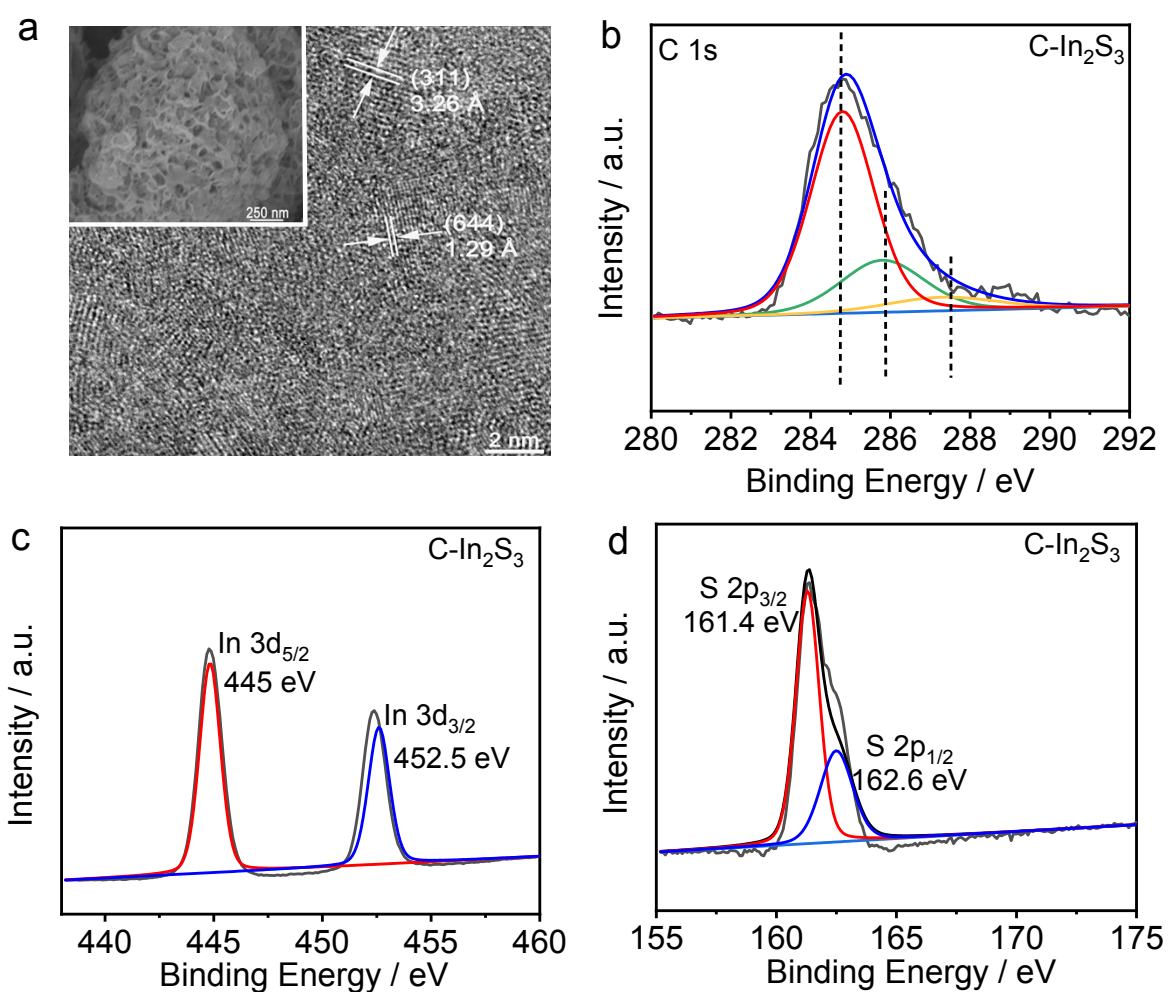


Figure S5. The (a) SEM (inset) and HRTEM after CO₂ reduction test for five cycles at 150°C, (b-d) XPS spectra for C 1s (b) In 3d (c) S 2p survey scan (d) after CO₂ reduction test for five cycles at 150°C

Figure S5 shows the SEM, HRTEM image and XPS spectra for C 1s, In 3d and S 2p survey scan of C-In₂S₃ after long-term CO₂ reduction test at 150°C. These results demonstrate that the C-In₂S₃ catalyst preserves its morphology and components after a long-term CO₂ reduction test.

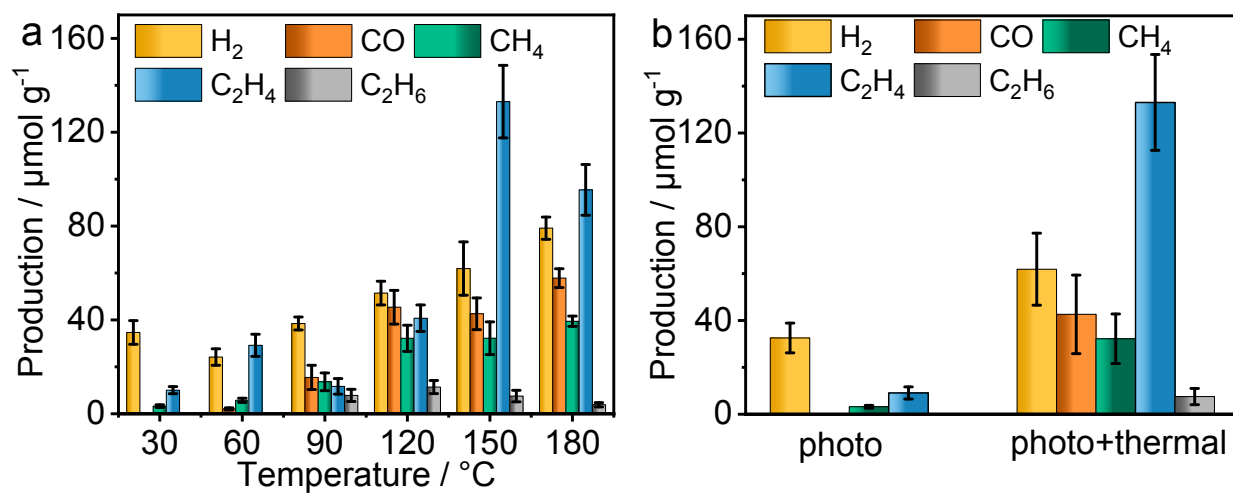


Figure S6. (a) The CO₂-H₂O reduction performances of C-In₂S₃ at different temperatures for five hours. (b) The product distribution of C-In₂S₃ reacted for five hours of photocatalytic and thermal assisted photocatalytic, respectively.

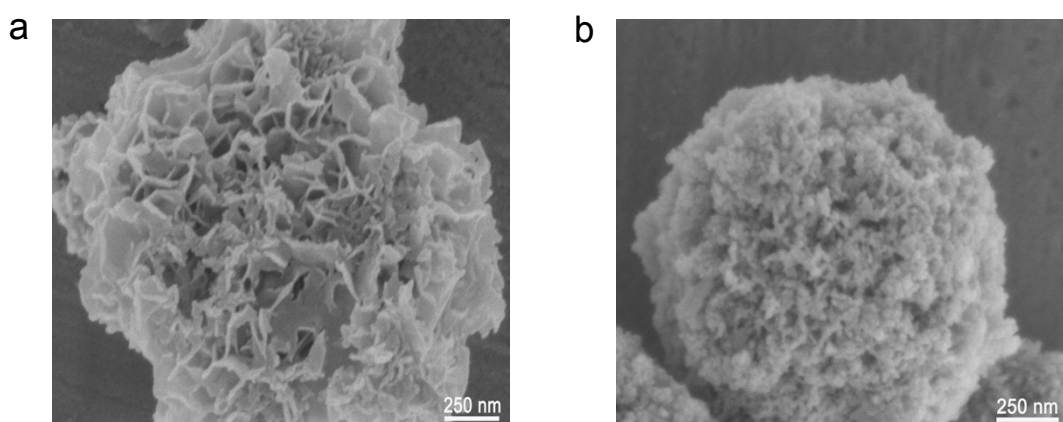


Figure S7. SEM image after CO₂ reduction test for (a) one cycle and (b) five cycles at 180 $^{\circ}\text{C}$.

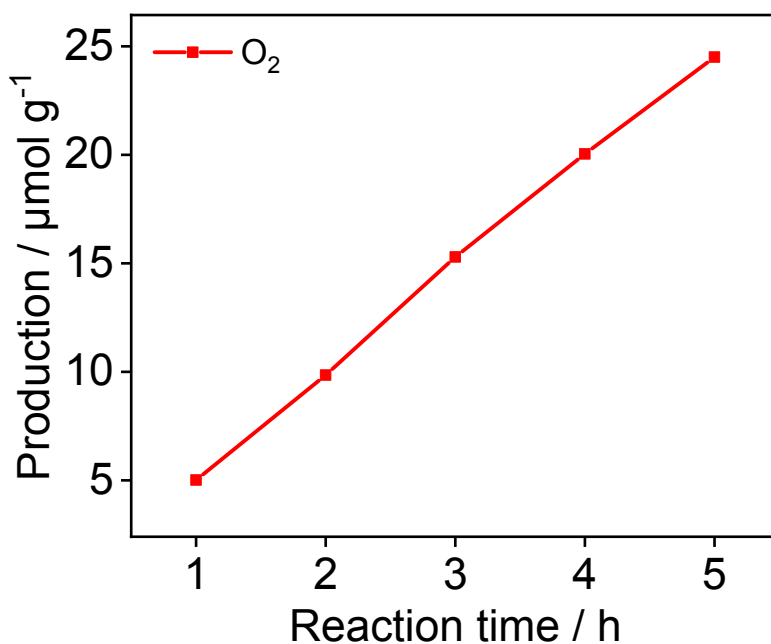


Figure S8. The production of O₂ as a function of the reaction time of C-In₂S₃ under room temperature and slightly negative pressure in an online quartz reactor.

To demonstrate the overall photocatalytic mechanism, the evolution rate of oxygen as the oxidation product under room temperature and slightly negative pressure in an online quartz reactor was measured. Figure S8 showed the O₂ evolution rate of C-In₂S₃. The O₂ evolution rates over C-In₂S₃ were 4.9 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, equivalent to 39.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ of electrons, respectively. In the reduction reaction, the C-In₂S₃ consumed about 13.87, 5.22 and 24.16 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ of electrons, respectively, to produce H₂, CH₄, and C₂H₄ under room temperature. The electrons from the water oxidation were almost comparable to the consumed electrons for the reduction reaction on the C-In₂S₃. This result demonstrated that H₂O as an electron donor in the whole photocatalytic process.

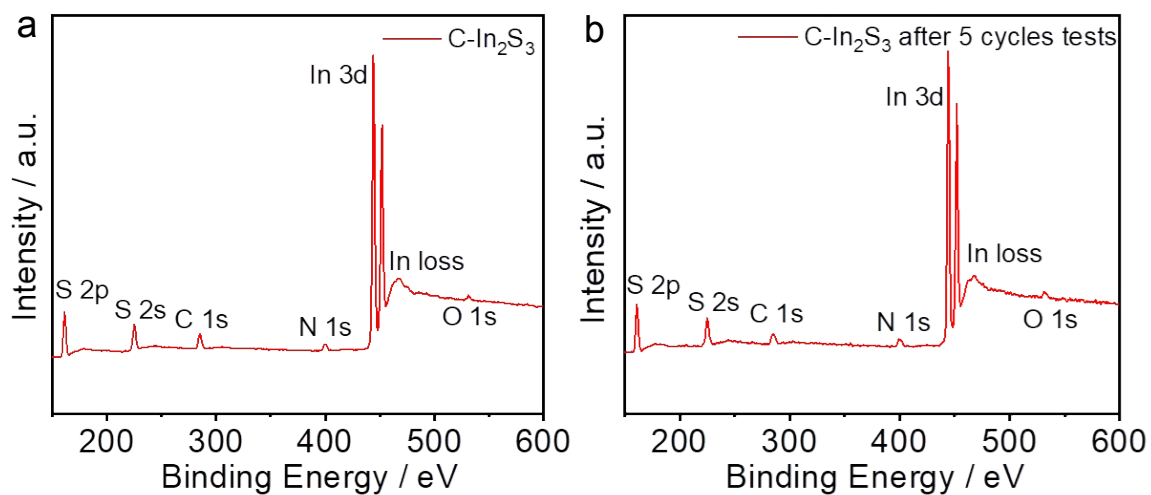


Figure S9. The XPS spectra for a survey scan of C-In₂S₃ (a) before and (b) after five cycles of photocatalytic conversion.

We did not detect any oxidation products other than O₂ in the product. This also confirms that the water acts as the electron donor and photocatalytic water splitting provides hydrogen source for C₂H₄.

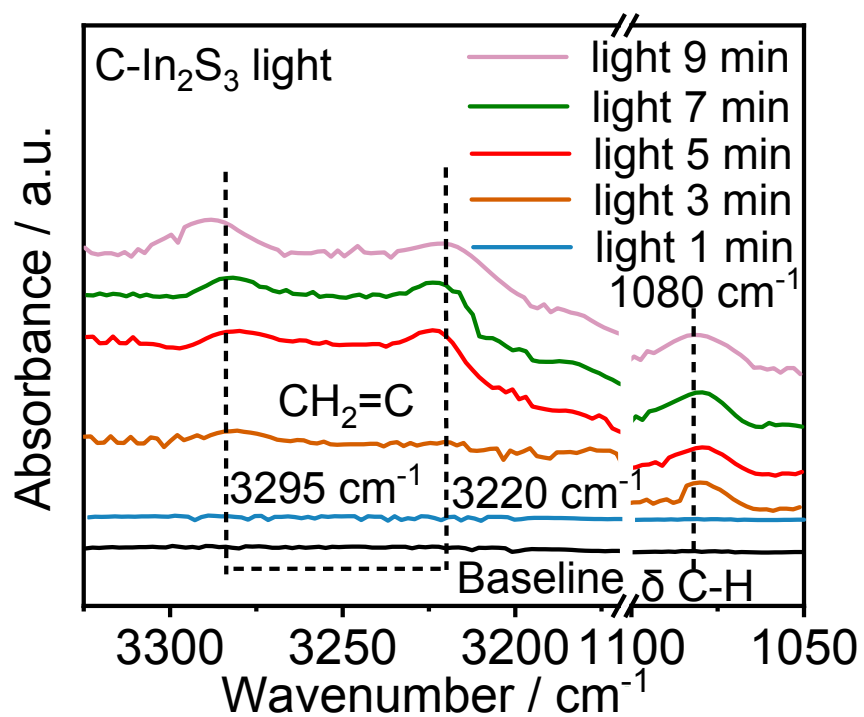


Figure S10. *In situ* DRIFTS spectra for CO₂ / H₂O vapor adsorption on C-In₂S₃ under Visible light irradiation at different times.

Computational calculations

The Materials Studio software was supported by the National Supercomputing Center in Shenzhen. Performing spin-polarization first-principles calculation based on Density Functional Theory (DFT) using CASTEP.⁵ The description of exchange-correlation energy was utilized the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange-correlation-function⁶ of the generalized gradient approximation (GGA). For the pseudopotentials, the projector-augmented-wave (PAW)⁷ method was adopted. Setting 450 eV as the energy cutoff for the plane-wave basis expansion. Setting the force on each atom to 0.05 eV / Å for the convergence criterion. In order to avoid layer-to-layer interaction, the slab model was constructed with a 15 Å vacuum layer in the z-direction. According to the Monkhorst-Pack method,⁸ the sampling in the Brillouin zone was set with 1×2×1. The van der Waals interaction was considered using the DFT-D3 scheme.⁸ In₂S₃ was simulated by a slab p(1×1)-(311) surface with a thickness of ~ 9 Å, with five bottom layers fixed to represent the bulk features during geometry optimization and reaction calculations. The surface is dominated by three-coordinated In and S, which termination can minimize the dangling bonds. Carbon dopants are introduced to replace sulphur at the sublayers, without directly bonding with CO₂ and other intermediates, but dopants can affect the local geometries and electronic structures of surface atoms. The Computational models are displayed following:

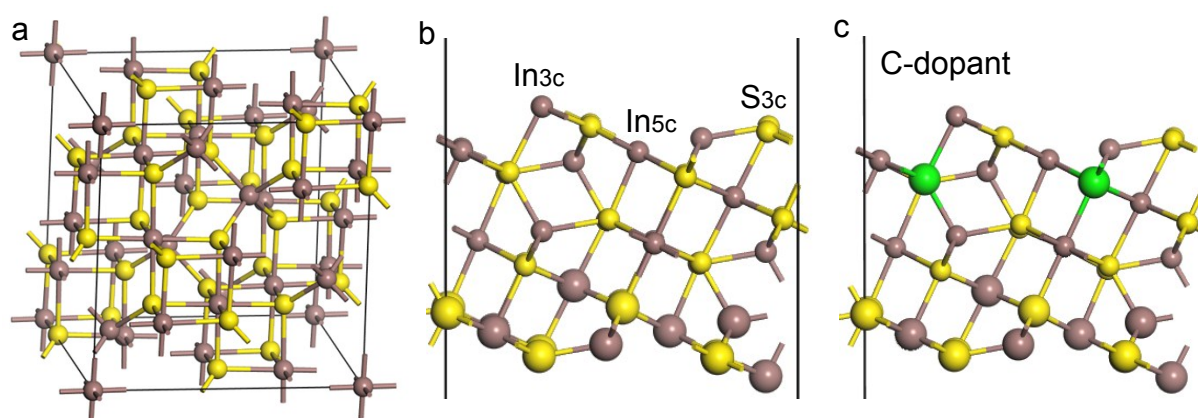


Figure S11. The Computational models of In₂S₃ (a, b) and C-In₂S₃ (c).

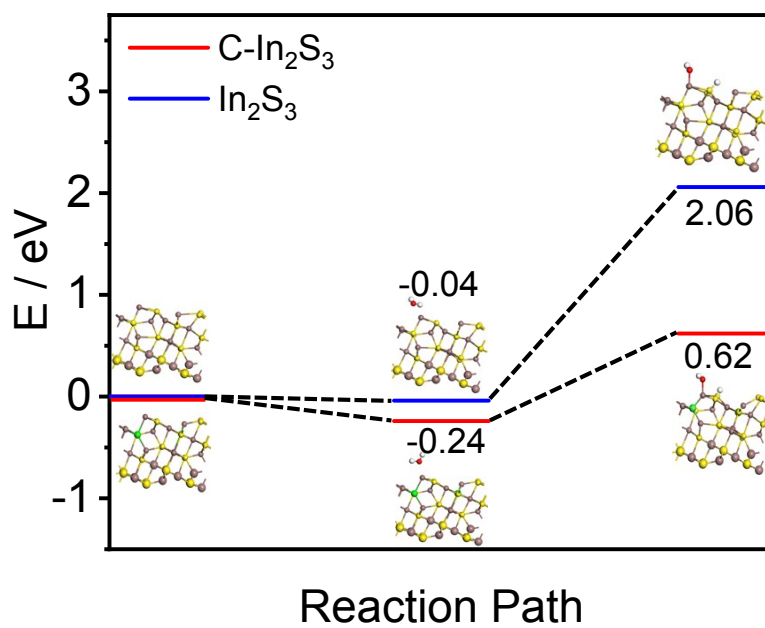


Figure S12. Calculated reaction energy diagram of H_2O to $\text{H}^* + \text{OH}^*$ over $\text{C-In}_2\text{S}_3$ and In_2S_3 .

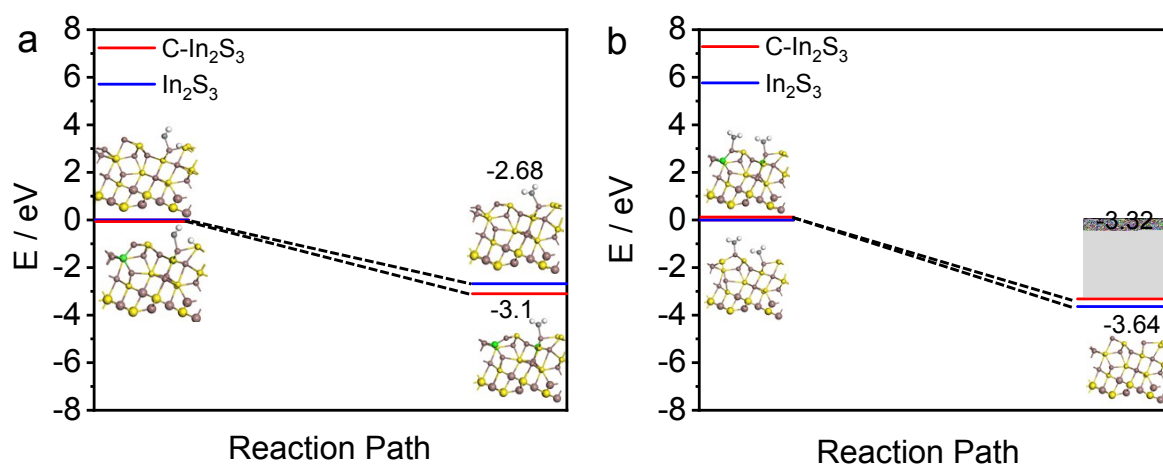


Figure S13. Calculated reaction energy diagram of CH* to CH₂* (a) and 2CH₂* to C₂H₄ (b) over C-In₂S₃ and In₂S₃.

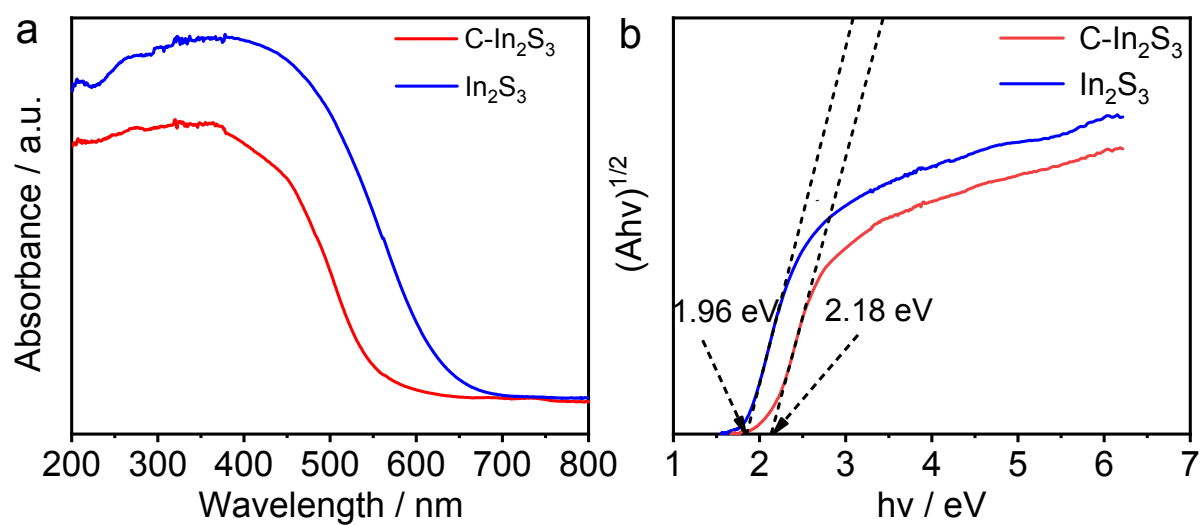


Figure S14. Uv-Vis diffuse reflectance (a) and Tauc plots with both direct and indirect fittings (b) of C-In₂S₃ and In₂S₃.

Figure S14 shows that the (E_g) of In₂S₃ and C-In₂S₃ are obtained to be 1.96 and 2.18 eV by fitting the Uv-Vis diffuse reflectance spectrum with a modified Kubelka-Munk function.

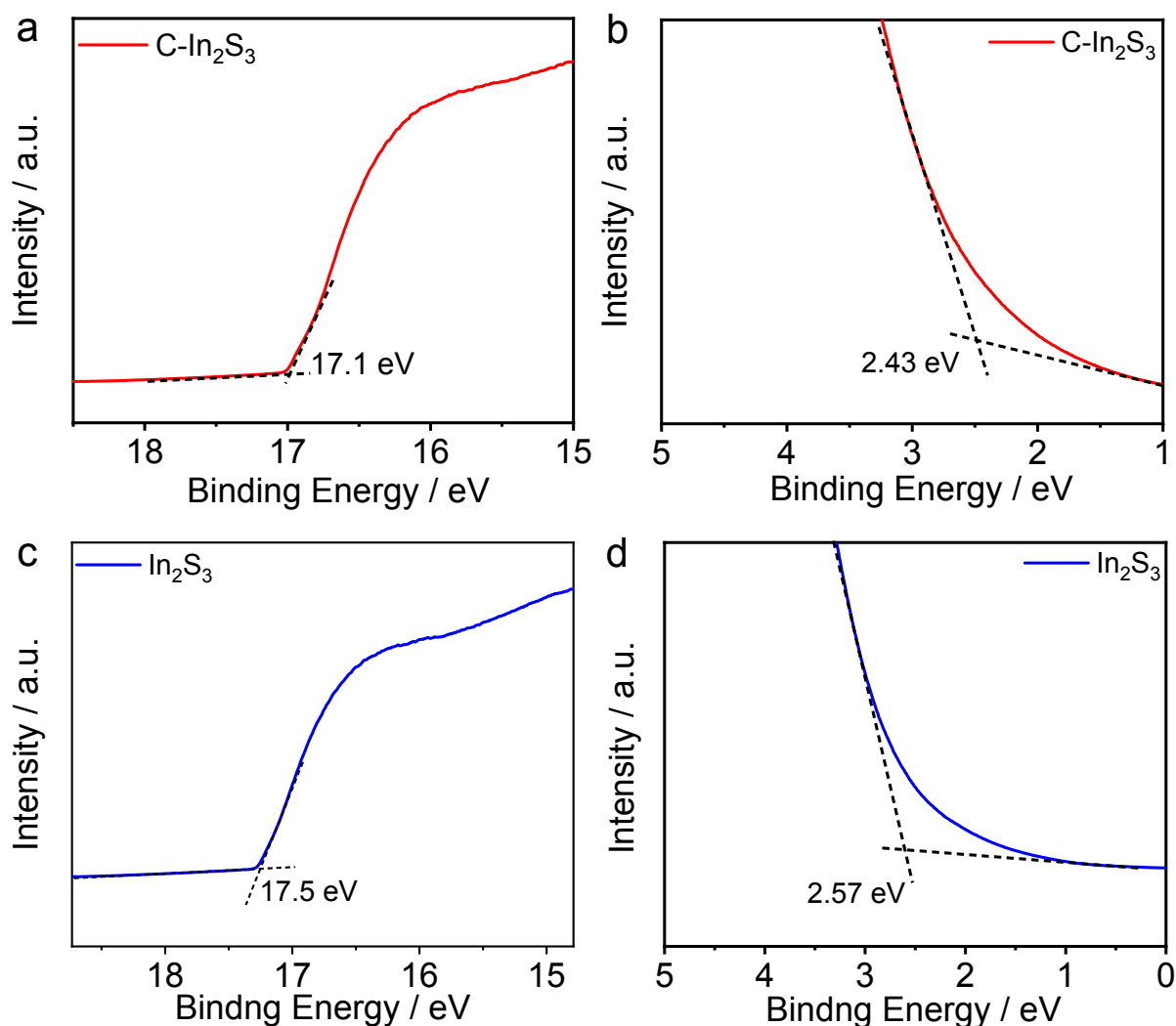


Figure S15. Ultraviolet photoemission spectroscopy (UPS) study in the cutoff (a) and the onset energy (b) regions of C-In₂S₃ and In₂S₃ (c, d). (UV light source is He I, 21.2 eV (80 mA, 530 V, 5.0 × 10⁻² mbar): valence band, with 0 eV binding energy corresponding to the Fermi level.)

We carried out the study of ultraviolet photoemission spectroscopy (UPS) (Figure S15). The valence band of C-In₂S₃ is 1.28 eV, which is more positive than the valence band of 1.24 eV of In₂S₃, which indicate that C-In₂S₃ has a stronger ability to oxidize H₂O.⁹

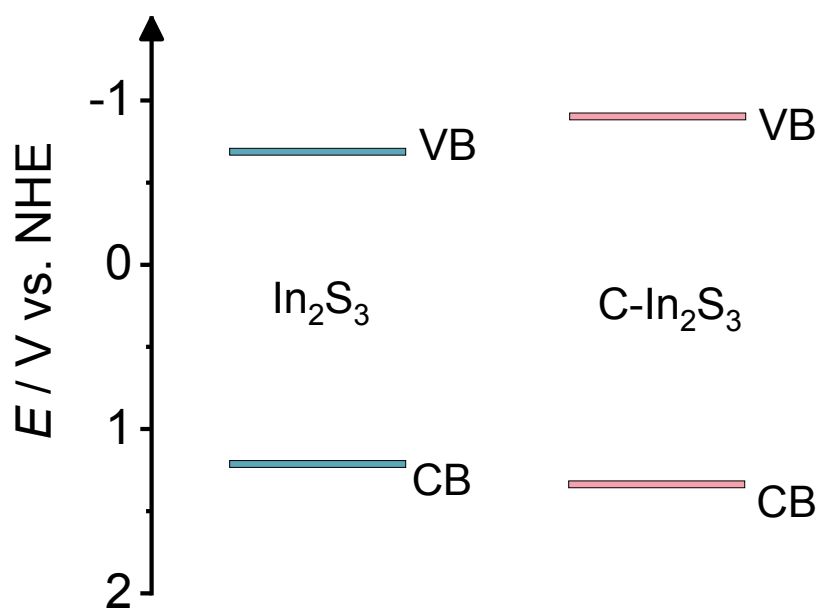


Figure S16. Schematic illustration of the band structure of In_2S_3 and $\text{C-In}_2\text{S}_3$.

Changing the band structure of a material has an important effect on adjusting the redox properties of the material. The band structure of In_2S_3 and $\text{C-In}_2\text{S}_3$ was confirmed by the results of the Uv-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra (Figure S14) and ultraviolet photoemission spectra (Figure S15), as shown in Figure S16. We adjust the bandgap of the semiconductor by introducing carbon in indium sulfide. After doping with carbon, it was found that the bandgap of In_2S_3 became wider and the conduction band position became more negative, so it had a stronger ability to reduce CO_2 , while the valence band position was higher with the ability to oxidize water enhanced. Both the reductive and oxidative ability of catalysts can be enhanced after carbon doping, benefiting the multi-electron reduction process.

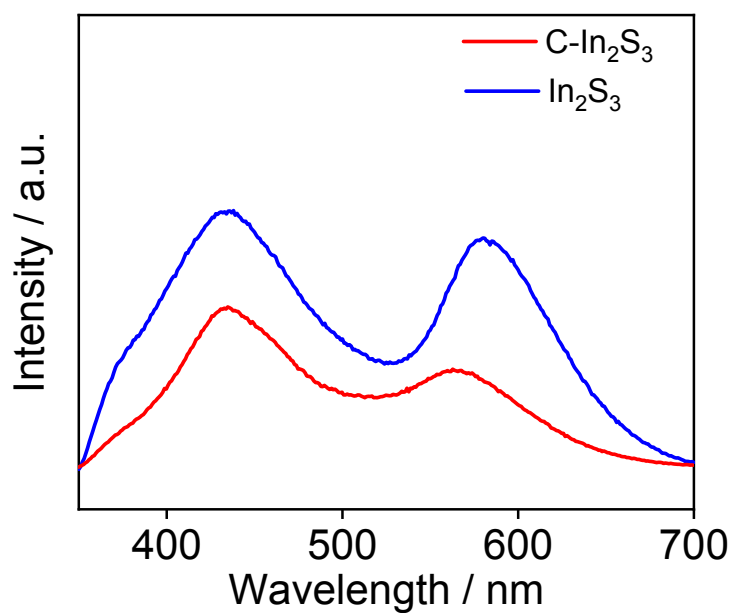


Figure S17. Spectroscopy Photoluminescence (PL) of C-In₂S₃ and In₂S₃.

To evaluate the composite ability of photogenerated charge carriers of prepared C-In₂S₃ and In₂S₃, the determination of photoluminescence (PL) was performed. The corresponding peaks at around 450 nm and 580 nm of C-In₂S₃ are relatively weaker than that of In₂S₃ (Figure S17), indicating that the photoinduced carrier recombination is greatly reduced, which may be due to carbonaceous matter and the interface charge transfer between C-In₂S₃ is enhanced.

Table S1. The total consumed electron number (TCEN) for CO₂ conversion of the C-In₂S₃ and other semiconductors.

Photocatalyst	Condition	Light source	H ₂ ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	CO ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	CH ₄ ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	C ₂ H ₄ ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	C ₂ H ₆ ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	CH ₃ OH ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	TCEN ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)
C-In ₂ S ₃	CO ₂ +H ₂ O	UV-Vis	14.6	10.0	7.9	30.0	2.1		472.7
CdS/Ni ₉ S ₈ /Al ₂ O ₃ ¹⁰	CO ₂ +H ₂ O	Visible light	841.0	121.0					242.0
ZnIn ₂ S ₄ ¹¹	CO ₂ +H ₂ O	Simulated sunlight		33.2					66.4
TiO ₂ -graphene ¹²	CO ₂ +H ₂ O	Full light		5.2	26.7				224.0
TiO ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄ ¹³	CO ₂ +H ₂ O	Visible light		0.8	5.2				43.2
Ag/TiO ₂ ¹⁴	CO ₂ +H ₂ O	Visible light			1.7				13.6
Pt/GaN ¹⁵	80 kPa CO ₂ +H ₂ O	Full light		~50.0	~14.8				218.4
WN-WO ₃ ¹⁶	CO ₂ +H ₂ O	Simulated sunlight	368.5	15.2	40.6				355.2
CdS-WO ₃ ¹⁷	CO ₂ +H ₂ O	Visible light			1.0				8.2

Table S2. Chemical compositions of C-In₂S₃ and In₂S₃

Sample \ Element	In	S	C
C-In ₂ S ₃	34.93	53.88	11.18
In ₂ S ₃	38.74	58.12	3.14
Error ±2-3 % (atomic %)			

Table S3. The chemical composition of C-In₂S₃ after five consecutive cycles.

Sample \ Element	In	S	C
C-In ₂ S ₃	36.03	54.02	9.93
Error ±2-3 % (atomic %)			

Table S4. The catalytic activity of CO₂ conversion on C-In₂S₃ under different conditions

Feed gas	illumination	Temperature (°C)	Production (μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)				
			H ₂	CO	CH ₄	C ₂ H ₄	C ₂ H ₆
CO ₂ +H ₂ O	sun light	Room temperature	34.68	trace	3.26	10.07	trace
CO ₂ +H ₂ O	sun light	150	61.89	42.62	32.22	133.05	7.54
CO ₂ +H ₂ O	dark	150	trace	1.74	n.d. [a]	n.d. [a]	n.d. [a]
CO ₂ +H ₂	dark	150	/ [b]	0.97	n.d. [a]	n.d. [a]	n.d. [a]

[a]: n.d.= not detectable. [b]: hydrogen is not quantified due to the presence in the feed gas.

References

- (1) R. Wu, Y. Xu, R. Xu, Y. Huang, B. Zhang, *J. Mater. Chem. A* 2015, **3**, 1930-1934.
- (2) S. Y. Li, Z. N. Du, Y. C. Zhang, *Adv. Mater. Res.* 2010, **152**, 63-66.
- (3) T. E. Doyle, J. R. Dennison, *Phys. Rev. B* 1995, **51**, 196-200.
- (4) 39 I. Shown, S. Samireddi, Y. C. Chang, R. Putikam, P. H. Chang, A. Sabbah, F. Y. Fu, W. F. Chen, C. I. Wu, T. Y. Yu, P. W. Chung, M. C. Lin, L. C. Chen, K. H. Chen, *Nat. Commun.* 2018, **9**, 169.
- (5) S. J. Clark, M. D. Segall, C. J. Pickard, P. J. Hasnip, M. J. Probert, K. Refson, M. C. Payne, *Z. Kristallogr.* 2005, **220**, 567-570;
- (6) J. P. Perdew, J. A. Chevary, S. H. Vosko, K. A. Jackson, M. R. Pederson, D. J. Singh, C. Fiolhais, *Phys. Rev. B* 1992, **46**, 6671-6687.
- (7) P. E. Blochl, *Phys. Rev. B* 1994, **50**, 17953-17979.
- (8) (a) H. J. Monkhorst, J. D. Pack, *Phys. Rev. B* 1976, **13**, 5188-5192;(b) S. Grimme, J. Antony, S. Ehrlich, H. Krieg, *J. Chem. Phys.* 2010, **132**, 154104.
- (9) C. H. Ihara, H. Abe, S. Endo, T. Irie, *Solid State Commun.* 1978, **28**, 563-565.
- (10) S. Li, Q. Wang, X. Yan, H.-Q. Zhuang, C. Yuan, J. Feng, M. Wang, R. Li, W. Li and Y.-X. Pan, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 2019, **240**, 174-181.
- (11) X. Jiao, Z. Chen, X. Li, Y. Sun, S. Gao, W. Yan, C. Wang, Q. Zhang, Y. Lin, Y. Luo and Y. Xie, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 2017, **139**, 7586-7594.
- (12) M. Xu, X. Hu, S. Wang, J. Yu, D. Zhu and J. Wang, *J. Catal.* 2019, **377**, 652-661.
- (13) K. Li, B. Peng, J. Jin, L. Zan and T. Peng, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 2017, **203**, 910-916.
- (14) S. Feng, M. Wang, Y. Zhou, P. Li, W. Tu and Z. Zou, *APL Mater.* 2015, **3**, 104416.
- (15) B. AlOtaibi, S. Fan, D. Wang, J. Ye and Z. Mi, *ACS Catal.* 2015, **5**, 5342-5348.
- (16) D. L. Liu, C. H. Wang, Y. F. Yu, B. H. Zhao, W. C. Wang, Y. H. Du, B. Zhang, *Chem* 2019, **5**, 376-389.

(17) J. Jin, J. Yu, D. Guo, C. Cui and W. Ho, *Small* 2015, **11**, 5262-5271.