

Electronic Supplementary Information

A gradient Sn⁴⁺@Sn²⁺ core@shell structure induced by strong metal oxide-support interaction for enhanced CO₂ electroreduction

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Table of content

1. Supplementary experiments

1.1 Preparation of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets

1.2 Preparation of GO nanosheets

2. Supplementary figures and tables

Fig. S1. SEM images of g-C₃N₄ and GO

Fig. S2. SEM, TEM and HRTEM images of SnO₂/rGO

Fig. S3. N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms and the corresponding pore size distributions of SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO.

Fig. S4. FTIR spectra of g-C₃N₄, SnO₂/g-C₃N₄, GO and SnO₂/rGO

Fig. S5. ¹H-NMR spectra of the cathodic electrolytes after constant potential electrolysis under CO₂ and Ar atmospheres.

Fig. S6. Potential-dependent faradaic efficiencies of HCOOH and CO for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO.

Fig. S7. GC spectra of the gas products of CO and H₂ detected by the FID and TCD after constant potential electrolysis under the atmosphere of CO₂ and Ar.

Fig. S8. 3D color pie chart for the faradaic efficiencies of H₂, HCOOH and CO after constant potential electrolysis under the atmosphere of Ar.

Fig. S9. Potential-dependent energy efficiencies for converting CO₂ into HCOOH over SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂-rGO.

Fig. S10. Scan rate-dependent CV curves at different scan rates and the corresponding double layer capacitances for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO.

Fig. S11. Normalized C₁ partial current densities for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO

Fig. S12. XRD patterns and SEM/TEM images of commercial SnO₂.

Fig. S13. LSV curves recorded at Ar- and CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ and the corresponding faradaic efficiencies of H₂, CO and HCOOH for commercial SnO₂.

Fig. S14. Faradaic efficiencies of C1 products and H₂ at different potentials over SnO₂/g-C₃N₄, SnO₂/rGO and commercial SnO₂.

Fig. S15 Survey, Sn 3d and O 1s spectra of commercial SnO₂.

Fig. S16. Sn 3d XPS for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ after reaction.

Fig. S17. Nyquist plots of SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO obtained at -1.06 V vs. RHE

Fig. S18. Tafel plot for the commercial SnO₂.

Table S1. Comparison of CO₂RR performances of Sn-based catalysts for C₁ product.

1. Supplementary experiments

1.1 Preparation of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets

g-C₃N₄ nanosheets were synthesized according to a reported method with slight modifications.¹ Typically, 6 g of urea was placed in crucible with a lid and annealed at 550 °C for 2 h with a ramping rate of 1 °C min⁻¹ under the flow of N₂ in a tube furnace. After cooling down to the room temperature, light yellow powders of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets were obtained.

1.2 Preparation of GO nanosheets

Graphite oxide (GO) nanosheets were fabricated according to a modified Hummer' method.² Firstly, an aqueous solution containing 180 mL of H₂SO₄ and 20 mL of H₃PO₄ was added to the powders of KMnO₄ (9.0 g) and graphite (1.5 g). The mixture was then stirred for 12 h. After cooling to room temperature, the suspension was mixed with an aqueous solution of H₂O₂ (30%) and a certain amount of ice. Then, the mixtures were centrifuged for 20 min with a rotation rate of 2000 rpm before being washed with water, concentrated hydrochloric acid solution and anhydrous ethyl ether at least twice. Finally, brownish GO nanosheets were collected after filtration using a polytetra fluoroethylene (PTFE) membrane with a pore size of 0.45 μm, followed by vacuum drying overnight at the ambient temperature.

2. Supplementary figures and tables

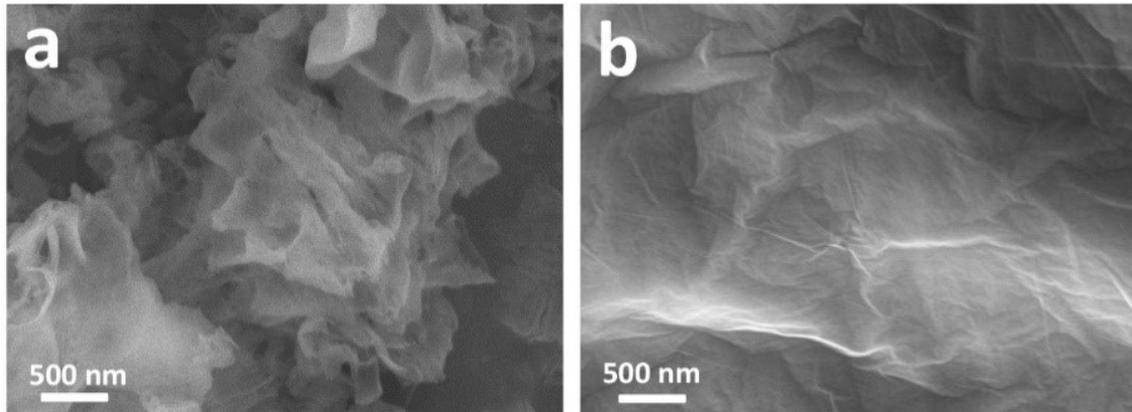


Fig. S1. SEM images of g-C₃N₄ (a) and GO (b) nanosheets.

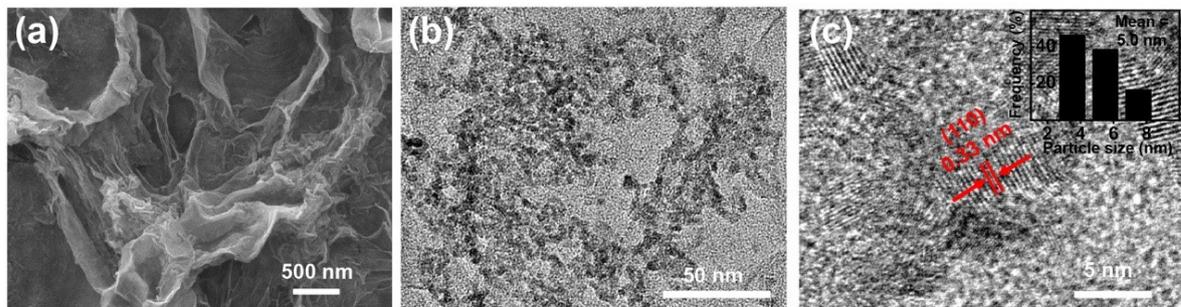


Fig. S2. SEM (a), TEM (b) and HRTEM (c) images of SnO₂/rGO

Fig. S1 and **S2** showed the morphologies and microstructures of g-C₃N₄, graphene oxide (GO) and SnO₂/rGO, respectively. Obviously, the surface of GO was slightly smoother than that of g-C₃N₄. During the hydrothermal process, GO was thermally converted to the reduced graphene oxide (rGO). Meanwhile, SnO₂ nanoparticles were grown on the rGO support homogeneously and densely via a hydrolysis-condensation process. The average particle size of SnO₂ NPs loaded on rGO was estimated to be about 5.0 nm (**Fig. S2c**), almost identical with the dimensional size of SnO₂ on g-C₃N₄ (4.8 nm). During the loading of tin oxides under the solvothermal conditions, the graphene oxide (GO) nanosheets were thermally reduced with the partial removal of oxygen-containing functional groups at the surfaces. As a result, the electrostatic repulsion between the functional groups was weakened and the reduced graphene oxide (rGO) nanosheets became destabilized. To resist the strain, the surfaces of rGO turned to be more folded spontaneously to achieve an equilibrium state with the lowest energy.

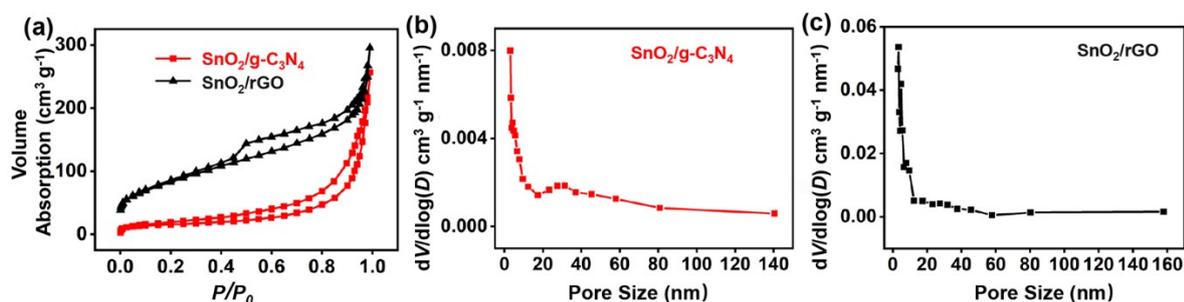


Fig. S3. N₂ adsorption isotherms (a) and corresponding pore size distributions (b-c) of SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (b) and SnO₂/rGO (c).

N₂ adsorption-desorption curves of the samples were measured at 77 K in a liquid nitrogen bath. SnO₂/rGO showed slightly higher N₂ uptake than SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (**Fig. S4a**). The BET surface areas were calculated to be 53.26 and 195.97 m²/g for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO, respectively. Correspondingly, the pore size distributions were determined using the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method based on the adsorption branches. As can be seen from **Fig. S4b-c**, the pores of SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO centered around 6.5 and 3.4 nm, respectively.

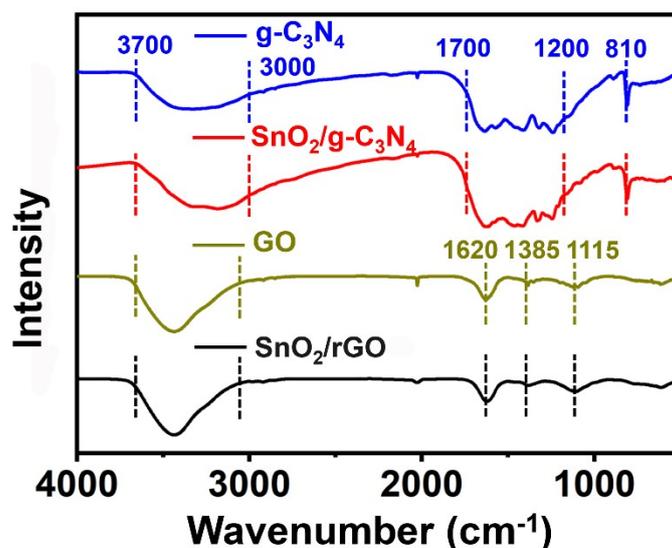


Fig. S4. FTIR spectra of g-C₃N₄, SnO₂/g-C₃N₄, GO, and SnO₂/rGO

For g-C₃N₄ (blue line) and SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (red line), the broad peak from 3000 cm⁻¹ to 3700 cm⁻¹ corresponded to the stretching vibration of amine groups or water.⁴ The waves occurred between 1200 and 1700 cm⁻¹ were ascribed to CN heterocycles' stretching and bending modes.⁵ The breathing mode of tri-s-triazine units showed up at about 810 cm⁻¹.⁶ Similarly, for GO (olive line) and SnO₂/rGO (black line), the broad peak from 3100 cm⁻¹ to 3700 cm⁻¹ was typical of the stretching vibration of the absorbed water molecules. The stretching vibration of C-O bond and sp² hybridized C=C bond occurred at about 1115 and 1620 cm⁻¹, respectively. The peak located around 1385 cm⁻¹ was assigned to the deformation mode of C-O-H.⁷ In all, the FTIR spectra showed no obvious differences between the substrates and the corresponding composites loaded with SnO₂ nanoparticles, indicating that the compositions and chemical groups were

well preserved during the hydrothermal synthesis process.

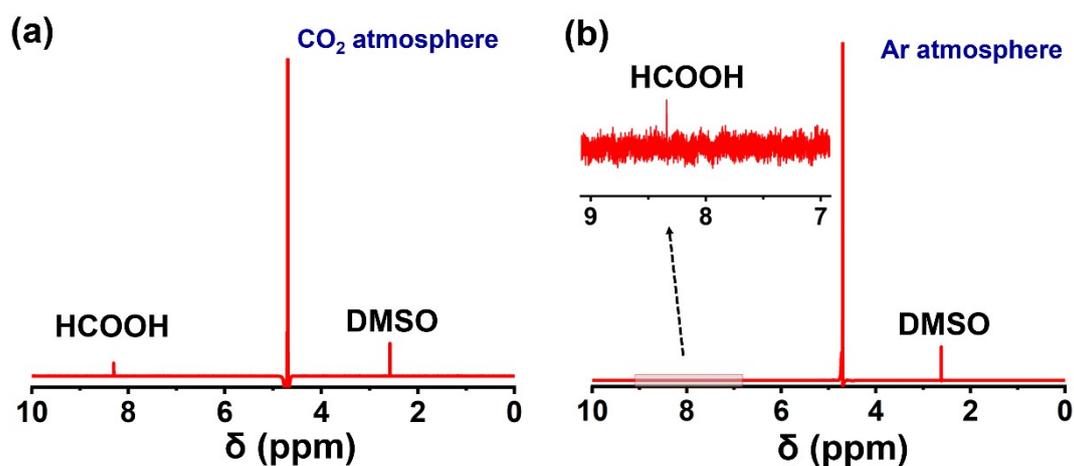


Fig. S5. $^1\text{H-NMR}$ spectra of electrolytes after electrolysis at 1.06 V vs. RHE for 1 h under the CO_2 (a) and Ar (b) atmospheres over $\text{SnO}_2/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, respectively.

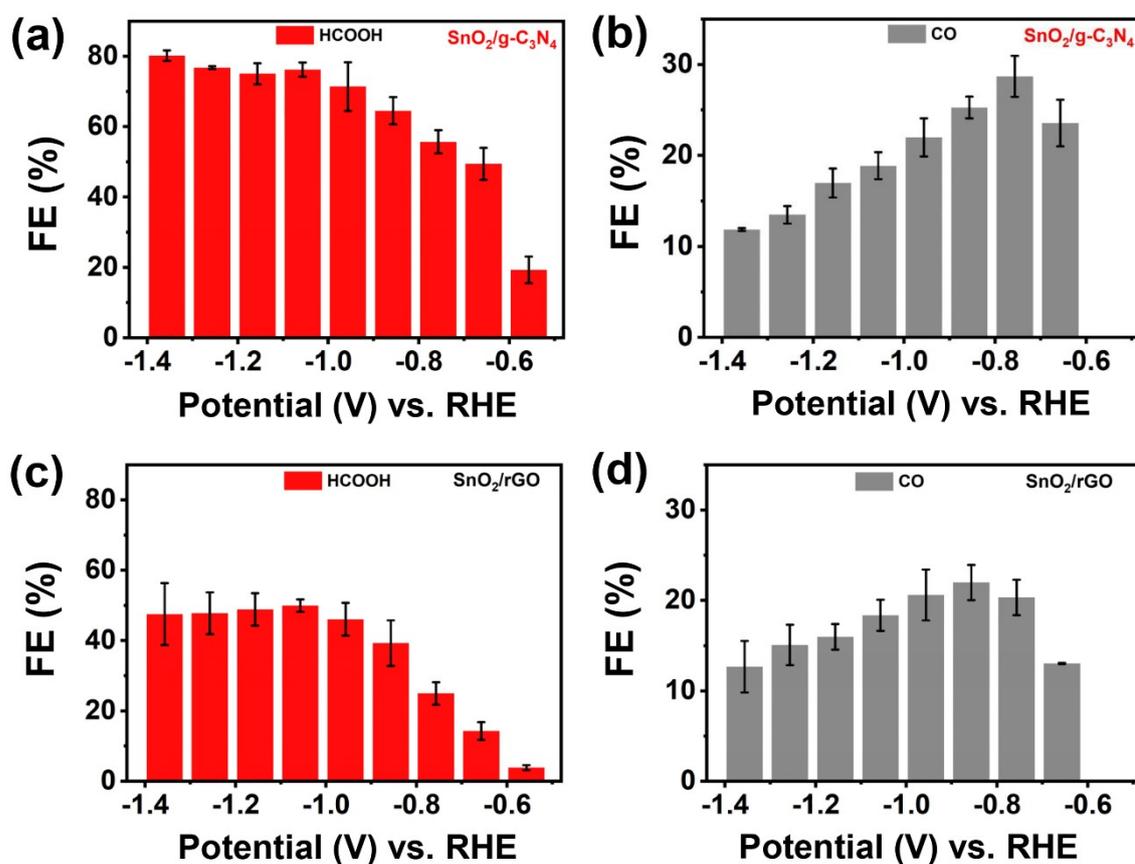


Fig. S6. Faradaic efficiencies of HCOOH (a, c) and CO (b, d) for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO at different potentials.

The liquid and gas products during electrolysis were detected by the ¹H-NMR (**Fig. S5**) and GC spectra (**Fig. S7**), respectively. The FEs of HCOOH for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (19.3-80.2%) electrode were significantly higher than that for SnO₂/rGO (3.9-50.0%) (**Fig. S6a, c**). In contrast, the difference of the CO generating ability of the two catalysts was not that big (**Fig. S6b, d**). Both catalysts exhibited volcano-like trends between CO FEs and the potentials. For SnO₂/g-C₃N₄, the values ranged from 11.8% to 28.7%, whereas for SnO₂/rGO, the values varied from 12.6% to 21.9%. Overall, the former showed slightly higher selectivity toward CO than the latter.

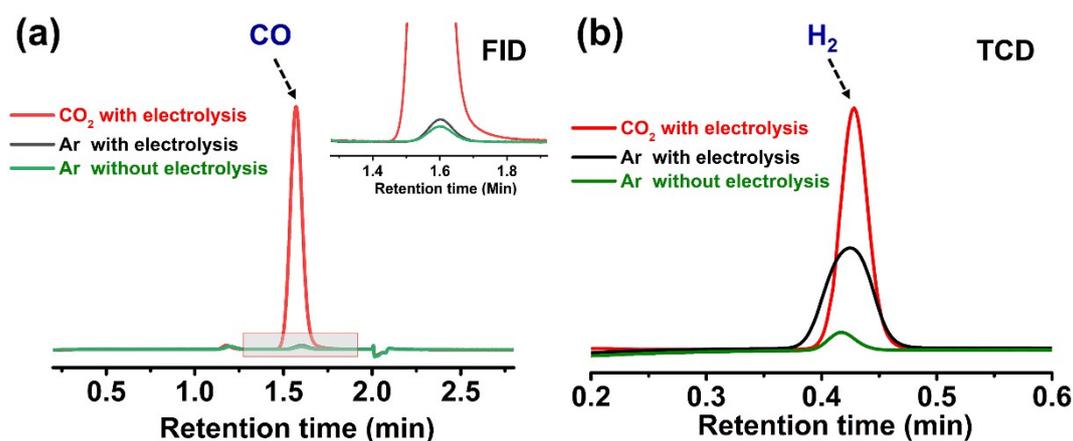


Fig. S7. GC spectra of the gas products of CO and H₂ detected by the FID and TCD after electrolysis at 1.06 V vs. RHE for 1 h under the atmosphere of CO₂ or Ar. For comparison, the feeding gas of Ar was directly purged into the GC. It can be observed that trace amounts of CO and H₂ were present in the feeding Ar gas.

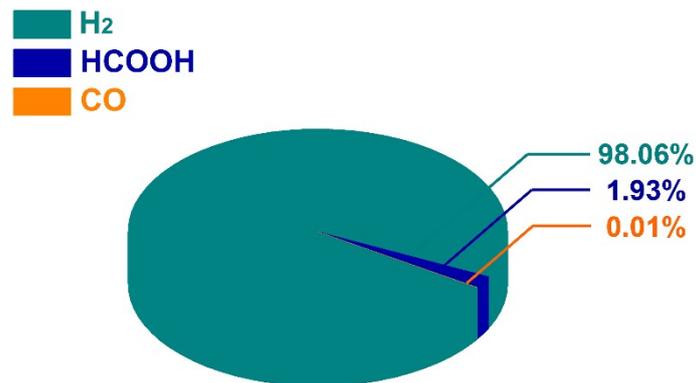


Fig. S8. 3D color pie chart for the faradaic efficiencies of H₂, HCOOH and CO after electrolysis at -1.06 V vs. RHE for 1 h under the atmosphere of Ar.

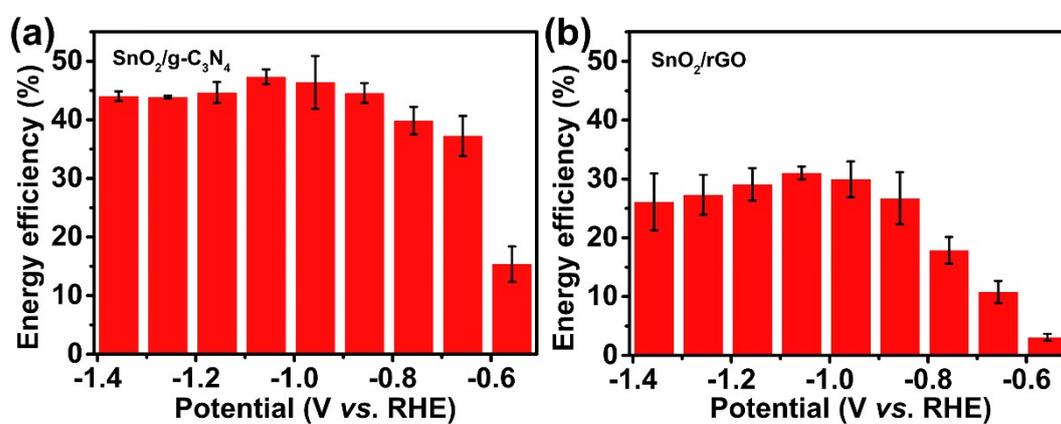


Fig. S9 Potential-dependent energy efficiencies for converting CO₂ into HCOOH over SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (a) and SnO₂-rGO (b).

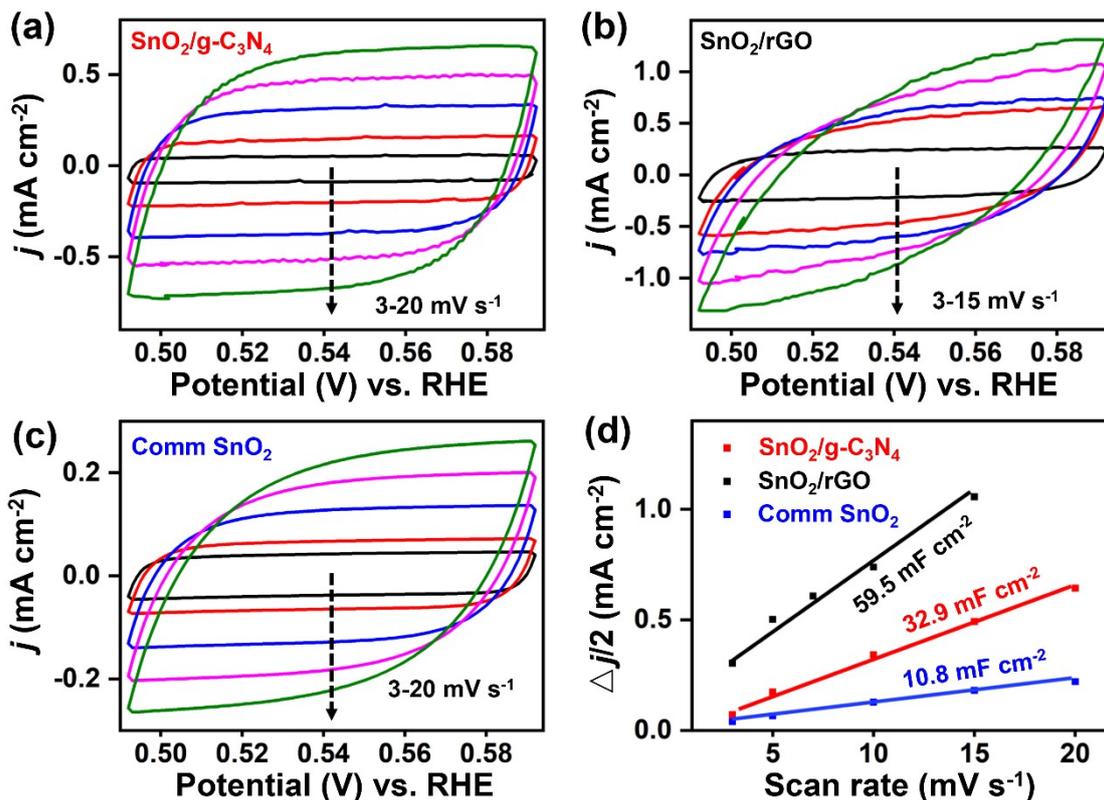


Fig. S10. CV curves obtained with the scan rates from 10 to 50 mV s⁻¹ on SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (a), SnO₂/rGO (b) and commercial SnO₂ (c) and the corresponding double-layer capacitances (d).

The ECSA of SnO₂/g-C₃N₄, SnO₂/rGO and commercial SnO₂ were evaluated based on the double-layer capacitances (C_{dl}) (**Fig. S10**). Obviously, the value of C_{dl} for SnO₂/rGO (59.5 mF cm⁻²) was almost two and six times that of SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (32.9 mF cm⁻²) and commercial SnO₂ (10.8 mF cm⁻²), respectively. As shown in **Fig. S11**, after normalization to the double-layer capacitance, the partial current densities of Cl products for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ were higher than those of SnO₂/rGO over the entire potential range. Specifically, the value for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (0.29 mA mF⁻¹) is about four times that for SnO₂/rGO (0.07 mA mF⁻¹) at -1.36 V.

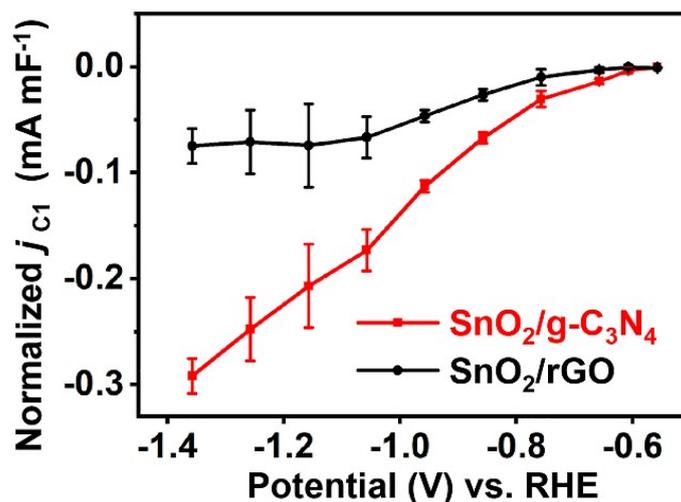


Fig. S11. Normalized C₁ partial current densities for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ and SnO₂/rGO.

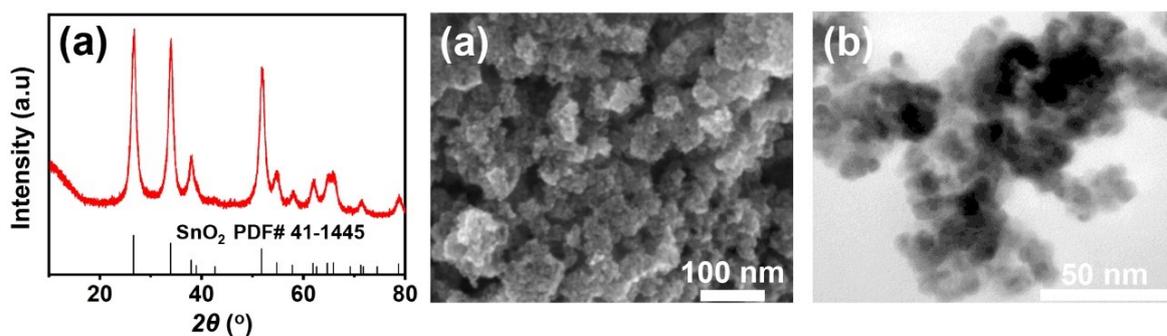


Fig. S12. (a) XRD pattern, (b) SEM and (c) TEM images of commercial SnO₂.

The typical diffraction peaks of commercial SnO₂ match well with the tetragonal SnO₂ (PDF #41-1445) (**Fig. S12 a**). SEM and TEM images indicate the uniformity of the SnO₂ NPs (**Fig. S12 b, c**). The differences in LSV curves taken under Ar and CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ solutions suggest that the commercial SnO₂ is also active for CO₂RR (**Fig. S13 a**). Product analysis shows that the FE of HCOOH varies from 13.2% to 71.3%. Meanwhile, the FE of C₁ products increases from 13.2% to 89.1%. The CO₂RR performances of commercial SnO₂ were superior to those of SnO₂/rGO but inferior to SnO₂/g-C₃N₄.

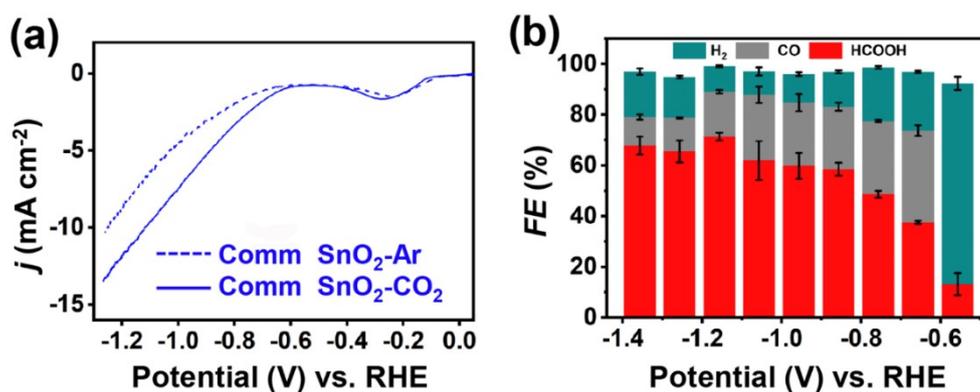


Fig. S13. LSV curves in Ar- and CO₂-saturated 0.1 M KHCO₃ (a) and the corresponding FEs of H₂, CO and HCOOH over commercial SnO₂.

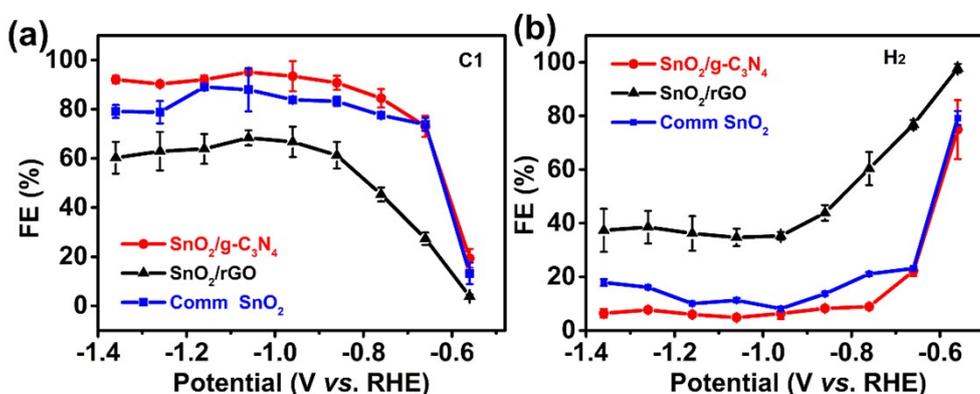


Fig. S14 Faradaic efficiencies of C1 products (a) and H₂ (b) at different potentials over SnO₂/g-C₃N₄, SnO₂/rGO and commercial SnO₂.

The CO₂RR performances of commercial SnO₂ were also investigated (**Fig. S13** and **S14**). The faradaic efficiencies of C1 products and H₂ at different potentials over SnO₂/g-C₃N₄, SnO₂/rGO and commercial SnO₂ were compared in **Fig. S14**. In terms of faradaic efficiencies of C1 products, SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ took obvious advantage over commercial SnO₂ at potentials more negative than -0.66 V. The maximum difference between the two samples reached about 13%. At potentials more positive than -0.66 V, they exhibited similar selectivity for C1 products. Noticeably, both were superior to the sample of SnO₂/rGO in producing C1 products from CO₂RR. The performance distinctions between the three samples further highlighted the importance of the metal oxide-support interaction in improving the catalytic properties.

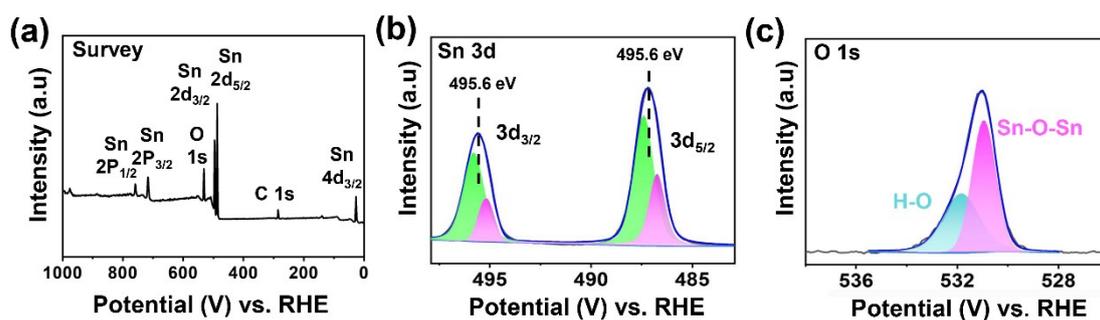


Fig. S15. Survey (a), Sn 3d (b) and O 1s spectra (c) of commercial SnO₂.

The survey XPS results indicate the presence of Sn and O in commercial SnO₂. The high-resolution Sn 3d XPS spectra show the Sn_{3/2} and Sn_{5/2} peak are located at 495.6 and 487.2 eV, respectively. Noticeably, the bivalent Sn²⁺ takes up 77% of the total surface Sn species. By careful comparison, we found that the FEs for HCOOH or C₁ product showed an increasing trend with the decrease of the binding energy of Sn 3d_{3/2} from 496.0 to 495.6 to 495.0 eV, implying that the chemical state of Sn species in the catalysts had significant impact on the CO₂RR performances.

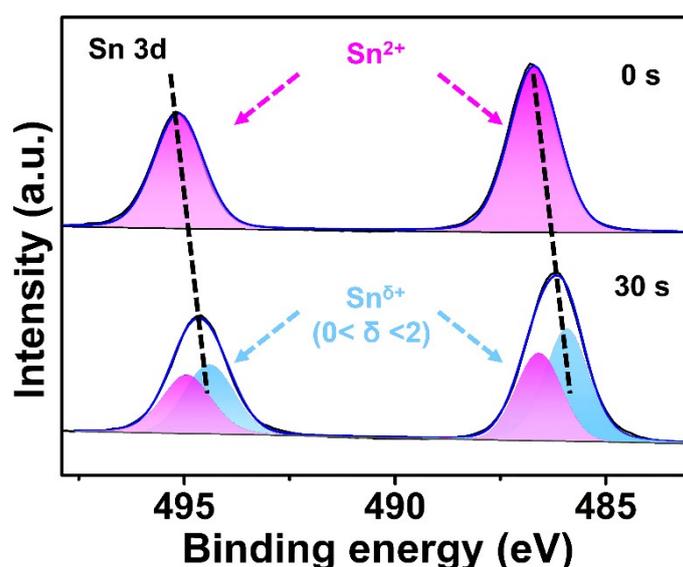


Fig. S16. Regular core-level Sn 3d XPS and depth profiles with 30 s Ar sputtering for SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ after reaction.

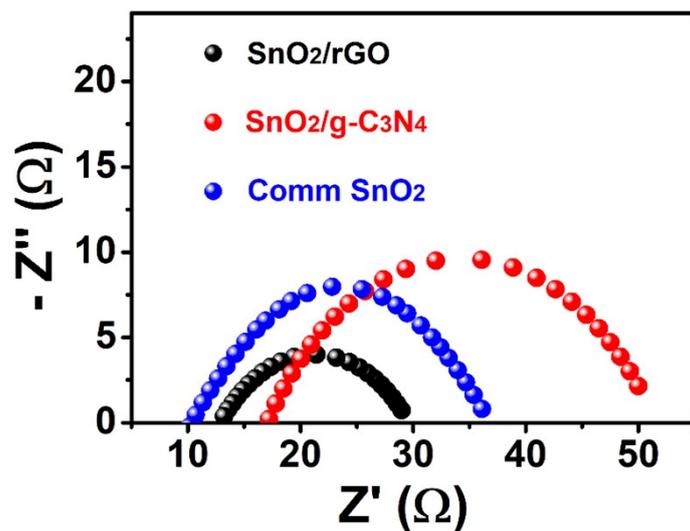


Fig. S17. Nyquist plots of SnO₂/g-C₃N₄, SnO₂/rGO and commercial SnO₂ at -1.06 V.

As can be seen from the Nyquist plots in **Fig. S17**, the charge transfer resistance increased from SnO₂/rGO to commercial SnO₂ and to SnO₂/g-C₃N₄. Noticeably, the value of the commercial SnO₂ lied in between that of SnO₂/rGO and SnO₂/g-C₃N₄. The smaller resistance for SnO₂/rGO compared with SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ might originate from the inherently higher electrical conductivity of rGO. Even though, SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ still delivered a higher partial current density of C₁ products, further confirming the intrinsic structural superiority of SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ in CO₂RR.

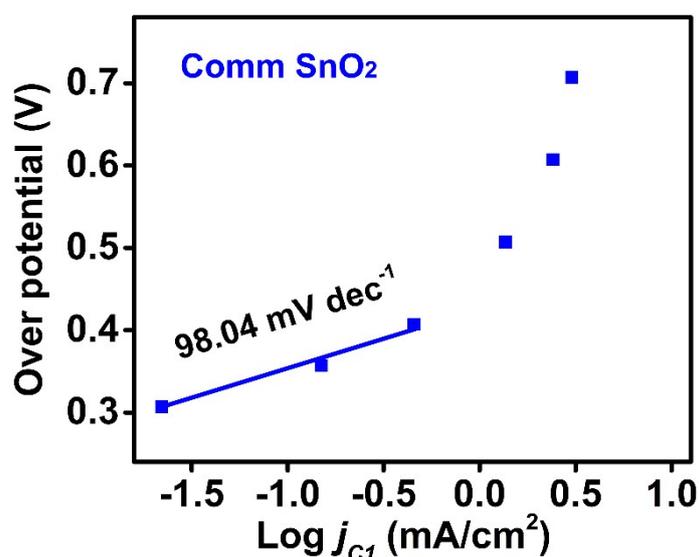


Fig. S18. Tafel plot for the commercial SnO₂.

Table S1. Comparison of CO₂RR properties of Sn-based catalysts for C₁ product.

| Catalyst | Electrolyte | Potential (V vs. RHE) | FE _{C1} (%) | Stability (h) | Ref. |
|---|-------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Sn/CP-UPED | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.16 | 92 | 10 | 8 |
| SnO ₂ QWs | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.05 | 90 | 7 | 9 |
| Sn-CF1000 | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -0.80 | 91 | 24 | 10 |
| heat-treated Sn dendrite | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.40 | 85 | 18 | 11 |
| Mn-doped SnO ₂ | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.05 | 91 | 7.6 | 12 |
| mSnO ₂ NTs-350 | 0.5 M KHCO ₃ | -1.20 | 97 | 12 | 13 |
| SnO ₂ @N-rGO | 0.5 M NaHCO ₃ | -0.80 | 89 | 20 | 14 |
| N-Sn(s) | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -0.70 | 96 | 20 | 15 |
| Vo-rich SnO ₂ | 0.5 M KHCO ₃ | -1.10 | 92 | 30 | 16 |
| WIT SnO ₂ | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.00 | 93 | 14 | 17 |
| SnO ₂ porous nanowire | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.00 | 87 | 15 | 18 |
| m-SnO ₂ | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.15 | 80 | 16 | 19 |
| SnO ₂ -nanoflakes | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.00 | 91 | 10 | 20 |
| Single-atom Sn ^{δ+} on N-doped graphene | 0.25 M KHCO ₃ | -0.96 | 88 | 200 | 21 |
| Bi-SnO/Cu foam | 0.1 M KHCO ₃ | -1.10 | 94 | 30 | 22 |
| SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ | 0.1 M KHCO₃ | -1.06 | 95 | 70 | This work |

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