CHEMISTRY

Oxygen-deficient metal oxides supported nano-intermetallic InNi₃C_{0.5} toward efficient CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol

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Direct CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol using renewable energy–generated hydrogen is attracting intensive attention, but qualifying catalysts represents a grand challenge. Pure-/multi-metallic systems used for this task usually have low catalytic activity. Here, we tailored a highly active and selective $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/ZrO_2$ catalyst by tuning the performance-relevant electronic metal-support interaction (EMSI), which is tightly linked with the ZrO_2 type–dependent oxygen deficiency. Highly oxygen-deficient monoclinic- ZrO_2 support imparts high electron density to $lnNi_3C_{0.5}$ because of the considerably enhanced EMSI, thereby enabling $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/$ tetragonal- ZrO_2 with an intrinsic activity three or two times as high as that of $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/$ amorphous- ZrO_2 or $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/$ tetragonal- ZrO_2 . The EMSI-governed catalysis observed in the $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/ZrO_2$ system is extendable to other oxygen-deficient metal oxides, in particular $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/Fe_3O_4$, achieving 25.7% CO₂ conversion with 90.2% methanol selectivity at 325°C, 6.0 MPa, 36,000 ml g_{cat}⁻¹ hour⁻¹, and H₂/CO₂ = 10:1. This affordable catalyst is stable for at least 500 hours and is also highly resistant to sulfur poisoning.

INTRODUCTION

The rapid growth of carbon-based energy consumption along with the global economic development are responsible for a massive emission of carbon dioxide (CO₂), raising its atmospheric concentration from suitable 300 up to 415 ppmv (parts per million by volume) in the last 60 years and causing serious problems of global warming, glacier melting, and ocean acidification (1). CO₂ capture and storage technology potentially reduces this emission, but the high storage cost and uncertainty about CO₂ leakage greatly limit the application of this technology, while converting CO₂ into commodity chemicals is a promising approach to recycle massive quantities of CO_2 (2–5). Among the commodity chemicals, methanol is not only a clean alternative fuel for gasoline and diesel but also an excellent chemical platform to produce olefins and other high valueadded chemicals commonly obtained from crude oil, with a worldwide demand of \sim 50 million tons per year (6, 7). In this context, the catalytic hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol (denoted as CO₂-to-methanol) using renewable hydrogen (H₂, produced by solar energy, hydropower, and wind power) has been attracting great attention for a CO_2 circular economy (8). Moreover, this reversible reaction also shows substantial potential to be used as a H₂ storage distribution system for applications in H_2 - O_2 fuel cells (9). However, this is a grand challenge because of the chemical inertness of the CO₂ molecule (5, 10). Accordingly, substantial catalytic advances are urgently required for the large-scale hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol.

Over the past decades, photo- and electro-catalytic CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol has been greatly advanced but still suffers from low productivity originating from the low photo-/electroenergy density (4, 11). A variety of homogeneous complexes enables Copyright © 2021 The Authors, some rights reserved; exclusive licensee American Association for the Advancement of Science. No claim to original U.S. Government Works. Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution NonCommercial License 4.0 (CC BY-NC).

a high methanol yield under relatively mild conditions (12), but their practical applications are limited by their high prices and complicated operations. Heterogeneous catalysts are composed of active components loaded on solid supports, endowed with the superior ability to address the operation issues. Nano-copper catalysts supported on metal oxides were extensively studied (5, 10, 13, 14), but severe problems exist, including low methanol selectivity (usually below 60%) caused by the competing reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction and rapid deactivation by Cu sintering (15). A range of precious metal catalysts, such as Pd/In₂O₃ (16) and Au/ZnO(CeO_x/TiO₂) (17, 18), were successfully used as a replacement of copper but are compromised by their limited natural abundance. A series of bimetallic oxides were found to be promising for this reaction, such as 5% CO2 conversion, 99.8% methanol selectivity, and $0.295 \text{ g}_{\text{MeOH}} \text{ g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1} \text{ hour}^{-1}$ methanol productivity on In₂O₃/ZrO₂ (19), and 10% CO₂ conversion, 86% methanol selectivity, and 0.73 g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹ methanol productivity on ZnO-ZrO₂ (20). Recently, Nørskov and coworkers (21) discovered a Ni₅Ga₃ intermetallic catalyst with the aid of theoretical calculations, achieving CO2 conversion of 4.9%, methanol selectivity of 44.8%, and methanol productivity of 0.1 $g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1}$ hour⁻¹ at atmospheric pressure. García-Trenco *et al.* (22) unveiled a PdIn catalyst, exhibiting CO₂ conversion of 0.6%, methanol selectivity of above 80%, and methanol productivity of $0.13 g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1} hour^{-1}$. Despite the fact that no intermetallics have proved to be superior over the catalysts reported ever, it is worthy to explore these emerging catalyst candidates for CO₂ hydrogenation, because the intermetallic compounds have facilely tunable components, variable constructions, and reconfigurable electronic structures, and great progress has been made on nano-intermetallic catalysts for CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol.

Very recently, the nano-intermetallic compound $InNi_3C_{0.5}$ structured on an Al₂O₃/Al-fiber, with superior RWGS performance at and above 400°C, was also found to be highly selective for the CO₂-to-methanol reaction below 300°C but not active enough (23). Notably, the electronic metal-support interaction (EMSI) is paramount to improve the catalyst performance via tuning the electronic

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properties of metal nanoparticles by supports (24-26). Campbell (24) showed that small platinum clusters experience large electronic perturbation when in contact with ceria, strongly enhancing the catalytic performance for the water-gas shift reaction. Recently, Rodriguez et al. (27) reported the advantages of metal-oxide and metal-carbide interfaces for CO2 conversion to methanol and confirmed that the metal-support interactions modify the electronic properties of metals. Moreover, it is interesting to recognize that zirconia (ZrO₂) with oxygen vacancies traps electrons at vacancy centers and modulates the electronic states of as-anchored metal nanoparticles (28, 29). For instance, Ni et al. (29) successfully tuned the electron density of Ni particles by ZrO₂ with oxygen vacancies to enhance the hydrogenation of fatty acids to alcohols. These findings may give an interesting hint to develop a high-performance CO2-to-methanol catalyst by dispersing InNi3C0.5 nanoparticles onto reducible oxides that can generate abundant oxygen vacancies. To check this idea, we chose three ZrO₂ supports that can generate different amounts of oxygen vacancies, including monoclinic-ZrO₂ $(m-ZrO_2)$, tetragonal-ZrO₂ $(t-ZrO_2)$, and amorphous-ZrO₂ $(a-ZrO_2)$, to tailor the catalysts. Among them, InNi₃C_{0.5}/m-ZrO₂ shows an excellent performance with 11.2% CO2 conversion and 85.4% methanol selectivity under the typical reaction conditions. A combined study of spectroscopic and electron microscopic methods, and theoretical calculations confirms that the electron structure of InNi₃C_{0.5} is tuned by ZrO₂ (especially by *m*-ZrO₂ with abundant oxygen vacancies), accompanied by the gradually enhanced CO₂ activation on the InNi₃C_{0.5} surface, thereby leading to remarkable improvement of the CO₂ conversion to methanol. According to this inspiring clue, a more efficient and affordable InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst, with further enhanced EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5} and Fe₃O₄, was tailored by carburizing a In2O3-NiO/Fe2O3 precursor. This catalyst achieves 25.7% CO2 single-pass conversion and 90.2% methanol selectivity at 325°C, gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) of 36,000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹, H₂/CO₂ molar ratio of 10:1, and 6.0 MPa [or a high space time yield (STY) of 2.62 $g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1}$ hour⁻¹ with 18.8% conversion and 92.8% selectivity using a high GHSV of 115,500 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹]. Moreover, this catalyst shows high resistance to sulfur poisoning. We take a big step forward in tailoring of a stable and highly active/selective catalyst for efficient synthesis of methanol from CO₂ hydrogenation.

RESULTS

Structural, morphological, and textural features of $InNi_3C_{0.5}/ZrO_2$ catalysts

We initially loaded InNi₃C_{0.5} on *m*-, *t*-, and *a*-ZrO₂ supports via incipient wetness impregnation and subsequent carburization (details in Materials and Methods). These catalysts were probed by x-ray diffraction (XRD), clearly identifying the characteristic patterns of InNi₃C_{0.5} (PDF#28-0468), *m*-ZrO₂ (PDF#86-1449), and *t*-ZrO₂ (PDF#50-1089) (Fig. 1A). *a*-ZrO₂ in InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂ was partially transformed into *t*-ZrO₂ during the carburization process at 600°C, as the tetragonal phase is thermodynamically more stable than the amorphous phase at high temperature (*30*). The main diffraction peaks of InNi₃C_{0.5} at 41.3° and 48.1° in these catalysts are similarly sharp and strong, indicating comparable grain size and crystallinity of InNi₃C_{0.5}. The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images illustrate that these three catalysts exhibit a uniform dispersion of InNi₃C_{0.5} grains with an average size of 16.0 ± 0.5 nm (Fig. 1, B to D). Moreover, the high-resolution TEM images (Fig. 1, E to G) show the lattice fringes of $InNi_3C_{0.5}$ (1-10) with spacing of 0.267 nm, indicating that the dominant exposed facet of $InNi_3C_{0.5}$ is the (111) plane (see detailed results and analysis in figs. S1 and S2). These three catalysts show rough and porous surface morphology aggregated from irregular-shaped lumps of 300 to 500 nm (fig. S3) and mesoporous feature with dominant mesopore size centered at 10 to 20 nm (fig. S4). The $InNi_3C_{0.5}/t$ - ZrO_2 catalyst presents the largest specific surface area (SSA) of 52.0 m² g⁻¹ (table S1), followed by $InNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ - ZrO_2 (10.0 m² g⁻¹) and $InNi_3C_{0.5}/a$ - ZrO_2 (5.0 m² g⁻¹).

Dependence of catalytic performance on ZrO₂ type

The InNi₃C_{0.5}/ZrO₂ catalysts were comparatively investigated for methanol synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation in a continuous-flow fixed-bed tubular reactor, under the reaction conditions of 300°C, 4.0 MPa, H₂/CO₂ molar ratio of 3:1, and GHSV of 12,000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹ (optimized as shown in fig. S5). The InNi₃C_{0.5}/SiO₂ catalyst offered a high methanol selectivity of 90% but a very low CO₂ conversion of only 2.5% (Fig. 2A; much lower than the thermodynamic equilibrium conversion of 11.6%; fig. S6). Our InNi₃C_{0.5}/ZrO₂ catalysts all raised CO2 conversion markedly compared to InNi3C0.5/ SiO₂, but interestingly, their catalytic performance showed a remarkable ZrO2-type dependence. Only InNi3C0.5/m-ZrO2 can achieve a CO_2 conversion (11.2%) close to thermodynamic equilibrium with an acceptable methanol selectivity of 85.4%. InNi₃C_{0.5}/t-ZrO₂ and InNi₃C_{0.5}/a-ZrO₂ delivered moderate conversions of 3.5 to 5.0% with similar methanol selectivity of 85 to 90%. As references, the pure ZrO₂ and SiO₂ supports were also tested in this reaction but yielded no more than 0.7% CO₂ conversion (Fig. 2A and table S2). Moreover, the STY of methanol was calculated to further assess the catalytic performance of the ZrO₂-supported InNi₃C_{0.5} catalysts. $InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂ exhibited a high STY of 0.62 g_{MeOH} g_{cat}⁻¹ hour⁻¹ at 300°C, much higher than that of InNi₃C_{0.5}/t-ZrO₂ (0.30 g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹), InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂ (0.20 g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹), and InNi₃C_{0.5}/SiO₂ (0.18 g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹) (Fig. 2B and table S3), as well as most reported catalysts (table S4).

These catalysts have similar surface morphology (aggregation of irregular shaped lumps; fig. S3) and InNi₃C_{0.5} grain size (~16 nm; Fig. 1, B to D), excluding the responsibility for their discrepancy of activity for CO₂ hydrogenation. To assess the intrinsic activity, their turnover frequencies (TOFs; defined as the number of reactant consumed on an active site per unit time) were measured. Not surprisingly, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ offered the highest TOF of 72.2 hour⁻¹ (Fig. 2B and table S3), being three and two times as high as that of InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂ (23.8 hour⁻¹) and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂ (34.2 hour⁻¹). Apparently, a special EMSI between ZrO₂ and InNi₃C_{0.5} is generated and accounts for the improvement of the catalyst activity, while the EMSI shows strong ZrO₂-type dependence. However, the nature of this ZrO₂-type dependence of the catalytic performance-relevant EMSI is still not clear.

Oxygen vacancy relevant EMSI

The EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5} and ZrO₂ supports was first explored by the quasi–in situ x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) technique, with the spectra displayed in Fig. 3. For the InNi₃C_{0.5}/SiO₂ catalyst, the binding energies of Ni $2p_{3/2}$ and Ni $2p_{1/2}$ located at 852.7 and 870.1 eV (Fig. 3A) are equal to those of the pure Ni⁰ metal. By comparison, the binding energy of Ni $2p_{3/2}$ for InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂, and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ is respectively lowered



Fig. 1. Structures of ZrO₂ supports and corresponding catalysts. (A) XRD patterns of m-ZrO₂, t-ZrO₂, a-ZrO₂, $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, and $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/a$ -ZrO₂. TEM images of (B) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/t$ -ZrO₂, and (D) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/a$ -ZrO₂ (insets: corresponding size distribution of the $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (F) t-ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (F) t-ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (F) t-ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (F) t-ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (F) t-ZrO₂, and $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (F) t-ZrO₂, (G) n-ZrO₂, (F) t-ZrO₂, (G) n-ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, $mni_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (F) t-ZrO₂, (G) n-ZrO₂, (I) $nNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂, (C) $lnNi_3$



Fig. 2. Catalytic performance of various catalysts. (**A**) CO₂ conversion and product selectivity (300°C, 4.0 MPa, $H_2/CO_2 = 3:1$, and a GHSV of 12,000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹). (**B**) STY of methanol and TOF (300°C, 4.0 MPa, $H_2/CO_2 = 3:1$, and a GHSV of 24,000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹).

from 852.7 to 852.5, 852.4, and 852.1 eV, showing the gradually enriched electron density especially of m-ZrO₂-supported InNi₃C_{0.5}. Similarly, the electron enrichment in In and C elements is also observed on InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂ and especially InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ (Fig. 3B

and fig. S7): For example, the binding energy of In $3d_{5/2}$ (31) shifts from 443.6 eV (for $InNi_3C_{0.5}/SiO_2$ and $InNi_3C_{0.5}/a$ -ZrO₂) to 443.3 (for $InNi_3C_{0.5}/t$ -ZrO₂) and 443.2 eV (for $InNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂). The above results confirm the existence of the ZrO₂ type-dependent

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Fig. 3. Electronic states and ability to activate CO₂ of ZrO₂ supports and corresponding catalysts. XPS spectra in (**A**) Ni 2p and (**B**) In 3d regions of InNi₃C_{0.5}/SiO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂, and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂. XPS spectra in (**C**) Zr 3d region for *a*-ZrO₂ (as the reference), InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂, and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂. XPS spectra in (**C**) Zr 3d region for *a*-ZrO₂ (as the reference), InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂, and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂. Are provided InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ (as the reference), InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂, *t*-ZrO₂, and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂, and analysis fittings in table S5. (**D**) CO₂-TPD-MS profiles for unsupported InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ catalysts. MS signal of the carbonaceous species for CO₂ desorption: CO₂ signal [mass/charge ratio (*m*/*z*) = 44] and CO signal (*m*/*z* = 28). (**F**) Plot of the TOF as a function of the amount of CO desorption (reaction conditions for TOF measurements: 300°C, 4.0 MPa, H₂/CO₂ = 3:1, and GHSV = 24,000 ml g_{cat}⁻¹ hour⁻¹).

EMSI and indicate that the strongest EMSI takes place between InNi₃C_{0.5} and *m*-ZrO₂. It should be noticed that some Ni²⁺ (at 855.4 eV) and In³⁺ (at 444.5 eV) species are observed on all ZrO₂-supported InNi₃C_{0.5} catalysts (Fig. 3, A and B), which are likely from the dissolving of Ni²⁺ and In³⁺ ions into the ZrO₂ lattice (29, 32). In addition, the peak areas of the XPS spectra of surface Ni²⁺ and In³⁺ species in all ZrO₂-supported InNi₃C_{0.5} catalysts are almost identical, and therefore, we believe that the Ni²⁺ and In³⁺ species are not responsible for the discrepancy of their activity for CO₂ hydrogenation.

The XPS spectrum of Zr $3d_{5/2}$ in pure *a*-ZrO₂ can be deconvoluted into two peaks with binding energies of 181.5 and 182.0 eV (Fig. 3C), respectively, assigned to partially reduced $Zr^{\delta+}$ (denoted as Zr_I, $\delta < 4$; related to oxygen vacancy) and stoichiometric ZrO₂ (Zr_{II}, Zr⁴⁺) (*33*). In comparison with pure *a*-ZrO₂, the three catalysts have more Zr_I species while showing lowered binding energy of Zr $3d_{5/2}$ from 181.5 eV to 181.2 to 181.4 eV (Fig. 3C). InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ has the highest amount of Zr₁ species (i.e., oxygen vacancies) and the lowest binding energy of Zr $3d_{5/2}$ (i.e., enriched electron density), followed by InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂ and then InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂ (table S5 and figs. S8 and S9). This sequence is in accord with the electron density tendency of InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ > InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂ (Fig. 3, A and B, and fig. S7). We are thus confident that the EMSI is grad-ually enhanced with the increase in Zr₁ species (i.e., oxygen vacancies) of the ZrO₂ supports, which accounts for the ZrO₂ type–dependent EMSI and the improvement of CO₂ hydrogenation activity especially of the InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ catalyst.

To further confirm this oxygen vacancy relevant EMSI and the dependence of EMSI strength on ZrO_2 type, these three catalysts were further investigated using hydrogen temperature-programmed desorption (TPD), electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR), and in

situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) of CO adsorption, with the results shown in fig. S10. All catalysts offer one H₂ desorption peak at 110°C (fig. S10A), which is ascribed to the H-species adsorbed on the InNi₃C_{0.5} surface. The area of this peak is almost identical for these catalysts, in line with their same particle size and amount of InNi₃C_{0.5}, but InNi₃C_{0.5}/m-ZrO₂ shows a narrower peak than the other two catalysts, suggesting a quite uniform electron structure of InNi₃C_{0.5} surface in comparison with the other two (34). Most notably, a strong H_2 desorption peak appears at 620°C for InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂, attributed to the H anions $(H^{\delta-})$ held at coordinatively unsaturated Zr_I sites (29, 35), but a very weak peak at 576°C for InNi₃C_{0.5}/t-ZrO₂ even nothing (at 550° to 650°C) for $InNi_3C_{0.5}/a$ -ZrO₂. As generally acknowledged, the surface of some reducible oxides (e.g., CeO₂, TiO₂, and ZrO₂) can be partially reduced by H₂ in association with the oxygen vacancy formed (36), and the as-formed oxygen vacancies are negatively charged with electron density maximally localized at the vacancy center (28). Clearly, the amount of $H^{\delta-}$ on Zr_I sites (i.e., oxygen vacancies) follows the order $InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂ > $InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/t$ -ZrO₂ > $InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/a$ -ZrO₂ (fig. S10A). Moreover, the EPR spectra of these three InNi₃C_{0.5}/ZrO₂ catalysts show axial signals with g value of 2.003 (fig. S10B), further indicating the presence of oxygen vacancies (37). As expected, the signal intensity of $InNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂ is much higher than that of InNi₃C_{0.5}/t-ZrO₂ and followed by InNi₃C_{0.5}/a-ZrO₂. Undoubtedly, $InNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂ has a much higher density of oxygen vacancies than the other two, in good agreement with our XPS results (table S5 and figs. S8 and S9) and literature results (29). In addition, as shown in fig. S10C, linearly adsorbed CO with infrared band at 2077 cm⁻¹ (23) is detected on InNi₃C_{0.5}/SiO₂ at room temperature. This linear adsorption of CO is also observed on the $InNi_3C_{0.5}/ZrO_2$ catalysts but exhibits a visible red shift from 2077 to 2075 (InNi₃C_{0.5}/a- ZrO_2) and further to 2047 and 2046 cm⁻¹ (InNi₃C_{0.5}/t-ZrO₂ and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂, respectively) because of an enhanced electron back-donation from InNi₃C_{0.5} to the anti-bonding orbitals of CO (38). These results confirm again the EMSI-enhanced electron density of InNi₃C_{0.5}, which is improved according to the oxygen vacancy density that is dependent on ZrO₂ type.

CO₂ adsorption and activation

Effective adsorption and activation of CO₂ on the catalyst is the prerequisite for converting CO₂ to methanol. Therefore, CO₂-TPD experiments in combination with mass spectrometry (MS) were conducted for the catalysts (InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂, and InNi₃C_{0.5}/SiO₂) as well as for the pure supports (SiO₂, *m*-ZrO₂, *t*-ZrO₂, and *a*-ZrO₂) and unsupported InNi₃C_{0.5} as references. The supports desorb little CO₂, showing the poor ability to adsorb CO₂, while the unsupported InNi₃C_{0.5} desorbs a huge amount of CO2 at 510°C (with trace CO) and 637°C (concomitantly with abundant CO; Fig. 3D), respectively assigned to the nondissociated CO₂ adsorption on the 3Ni-In sites and dissociated CO_2 adsorption on 3Ni-C sites on the InNi₃C_{0.5}(111) plane (23). The InNi₃C_{0.5}/SiO₂ and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂ catalysts also offer two CO2 desorption peaks at 500°C (with trace CO) and 635°C (with comparable CO amount) (Fig. 3E), which are similar to the unsupported InNi₃C_{0.5}, indicating the weak EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5} and SiO₂ or *a*-ZrO₂. In contrast, the CO₂ desorption peak at 500°C becomes very weak for InNi₃C_{0.5}/t-ZrO₂ and vanishes for the InNi₃C_{0.5}/ m-ZrO₂ catalysts, while the high-temperature CO₂/CO desorption at 650° to 660°C becomes stronger especially for InNi₃C_{0.5}/m-ZrO₂

with most CO formation from CO₂ dissociation (Fig. 3E). Notably, little CO₂ is desorbed below 500°C for these four catalysts, indicating the poor ability to adsorb CO₂ on supports even after loading InNi₃C_{0.5}. Therefore, CO₂ should be mainly adsorbed on the InNi₃C_{0.5} surface for these four catalysts. In spite of almost identical total amount of CO2 adsorption on InNi3C0.5, the CO desorption amount is very distinct: $InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂ (111.5 µmol g⁻¹) > $InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/t$ -ZrO₂ $(50.7 \ \mu mol \ g^{-1}) > InNi_3C_{0.5}/a$ -ZrO₂ (39.8 $\mu mol \ g^{-1}) > InNi_3C_{0.5}/a$ SiO₂ (30.2 μ mol g⁻¹) (table S6), consistent with the ZrO₂-type dependence of their EMSI strength. These results explicitly order the CO₂ dissociation activity of these four catalysts as follows: $InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/m$ - $ZrO_{2} > InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/t$ - $ZrO_{2} > InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/a$ - $ZrO_{2} \sim InNi_{3}C_{0.5}/a$ SiO₂. To further investigate the quantitative connection between the CO desorption amount and catalytic performance, the TOFs of these four catalysts are plotted against their CO desorption amount (Fig. 3F), showing a good linear correlation. On the basis of these results, we are confident that the discrepancy of the catalyst activity for the CO₂-to-methanol reaction is tightly linked with their different CO₂ dissociation activity that is governed by the ZrO₂ typedependent EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5} and ZrO₂ supports.

In-depth understanding of ZrO₂ type–dependent EMSI: Density functional theory calculations

To further gain insight into the EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5} and ZrO₂ supports, first-principle calculations were performed. We first established two interfaces between InNi₃C_{0.5} and perfect *m*-ZrO₂ or partially reduced m-ZrO₂ (denoted as m-ZrO_{2-x}) (Fig. 4A). Their electron density maps reveal that the electrons are accumulated to some extent at the InNi₃C_{0.5}-*m*-ZrO₂ interface but more accumulated at $InNi_{3}C_{0.5}$ -*m*-ZrO_{2-x} along with the oxygen vacancy formation on m-ZrO_{2-x}, confirming the EMSI at the interface; electrons also redistribute similarly at InNi₃C_{0.5}-t-ZrO₂ and InNi₃C_{0.5}-t-ZrO_{2-x} interfaces (Fig. 4B), but with lower electron density than at the InNi₃C_{0.5}-*m*-ZrO₂ and InNi₃C_{0.5}-*m*-ZrO_{2-x} interfaces. These calculations indicate the strongest EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5} and *m*-ZrO_{2-x} coinciding with the conclusions based on the XPS and DRIFTS results. Moreover, the electron structure of surface Ni is also affected, especially d electrons (see the evidences of projected density of states in Fig. 4C), making the CO₂ adsorption and concomitant dissociation ability of 3Ni-In close to that of 3Ni-C sites. The difference in the CO2 adsorption energies on 3Ni-In and 3Ni-C is reduced from 0.47 eV on unsupported InNi₃C_{0.5}(111) to 0.41, 0.39, 0.37, and 0.24 eV on $InNi_3C_{0.5}(111)$ surfaces supported on *m*-ZrO₂(-111), t-ZrO₂(011), t-ZrO_{2-x}(011), and m-ZrO_{2-x}(-111), respectively, again indicating the strongest EMSI between $InNi_3C_{0.5}(111)$ and m-ZrO_{2-x}(-111). Furthermore, the interfacial adhesion work (W_{ad}) of the four systems was also calculated, and InNi₃C_{0.5}(111)/m-ZrO_{2-x}(-111) exhibits the largest W_{ad} of 2.89 J/m², followed by InNi₃C_{0.5}(111)/t-ZrO_{2-x}(011), InNi₃C_{0.5}(111)/m-ZrO₂(-111), and InNi₃C_{0.5}(111)/t-ZrO₂(011), further consolidating the strongest EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5}(111) and m-ZrO_{2-x}(-111). This markedly enhanced EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5} and *m*-ZrO₂ imparts high CO₂ dissociation activity of the 3Ni-In sites quite comparable to the 3Ni-C sites, rationally explaining why $InNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂ offers a single strong CO₂/CO desorption peak in Fig. 3E. Also, the CO₂ chemical adsorption configurations are quite similar on the unsupported and ZrO₂-supported InNi₃C_{0.5} surfaces (Fig. 4, D and E), and therefore, the difference in CO₂ adsorption energy on these systems is attributed to the electronic rather than geometrical effect.



Fig. 4. Density functional theory studies. Three-dimensional (3D) interfacial configuration and electron density difference map for (**A**) InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂ (without oxygen deficiency) and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO_{2-x}, and for (**B**) InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂ (without oxygen deficiency) and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO_{2-x}. Top row: side view (left) and top view (right) of 3D interfacial unit cell. Middle row: depletion regions, blue; accumulation region, yellow. Bottom row: 2D configuration; cutting plane: the best plane of the chosen three atoms marked in circles in the middle 3D structures. (**C**) Total and partial density of states (TDOS and PDOS) for InNi₃C_{0.5}/and InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO_{2-x}. Chemically adsorbed CO₂ on 3Ni-In and 3Ni-C sites of (**D**) unsupported InNi₃C_{0.5}(111) surface and (**E**) defective *m*-ZrO_{2-x}(-111)–supported InNi₃C_{0.5}(111) surface. The C–O bond (the one parallel to the surface) length is provided.

Tailoring more advanced InNi₃C_{0.5} catalyst

Inspired by above interesting findings, we believed that there is a possibility to build more advanced InNi₃C_{0.5} catalysts via EMSI tailoring by using other oxides to replace m-ZrO₂. Given that the EMSI is tightly related to the reducible oxides enriched with oxygen vacancies, some universal transition metal oxides such as ZnO, TiO₂, CeO₂, and Fe₂O₃ were used to support InNi₃C_{0.5} nanoparticles (Fig. 5A and fig. S11). In particular, InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄, obtained by carburization treatment of an In₂O₃-NiO/Fe₂O₃ precursor (details in Materials and Methods), delivers a superior performance over the other candidates, for example, enabling CO2-to-methanol with 20.0% CO2 conversion and 91.2% CH3OH selectivity at 325°C, GHSV of 30,000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹, H₂/CO₂ molar ratio of 8:1, and 4.0 MPa, and even with 25.7% CO2 conversion and 90.2% CH3OH selectivity at 325°C, GHSV of 36,000 ml g_{cat}⁻¹ hour⁻¹, H₂/CO₂ molar ratio of 10:1, and 6.0 MPa (tables S4 and S7). Notably, no matter how harsh the reaction conditions became in the present work, methanol selectivity always stayed at 90 to 93% with CH₄ selectivity no more than 0.2%. The InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst was

further examined at 325°C and a fixed GHSV (for CO2) of 10,500 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹ but varied reaction pressure and H₂/CO₂ molar ratio; excitingly, when increasing the reaction pressure and H₂/CO₂ molar ratio from 4.0 MPa and 3:1 up to 6.0 MPa and 10:1, the STY of methanol gradually increased from 1.35 (with 10.0% conversion and 90.0% selectivity) to 2.62 $g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1} hour^{-1}$ (with 18.8% conversion and 92.8% selectivity; table S7). We also evaluated our InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst under the reported reaction conditions, and obviously, the InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst exhibited higher STY of methanol than the reported ones under the identical reaction conditions: for example, 1.01 versus 0.73 $g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1} hour^{-1}$ for ZnO-ZrO₂ at 320°C, 5.0 MPa, H₂/CO₂ molar ratio of 3:1, and 24,000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹ (20); 1.16 versus 0.86 $g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1}$ hour⁻¹ for In@Co at 300°C, 5.0 MPa, H₂/CO₂ molar ratio of 4:1, and 27,500 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹ (39); 1.30 versus 1.01 $g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1}$ hour⁻¹ for Pd-In₂O₃ at 280°C, 5.0 MPa, H₂/CO₂ molar ratio of 4:1, and 48,000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹ (40); 0.308 versus 0.288 $g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1}$ hour⁻¹ for hexagonal In_2O_3 at 280°C, 5.0 MPa, H_2/CO_2 molar ratio of 6:1, and 9000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹ (41). All things considered, such InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst



Fig. 5. Characterization and catalytic performance of InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄. (A) XRD patterns of the InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst. (**B**) CO_2 -TPD-MS profiles for In₂O₃-NiO/Fe₂O₃ catalyst precursor and InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst. MS signal of the carbonaceous species for CO₂ desorption: CO₂ signal (m/z = 44) and CO signal (m/z = 28). (**C**) Plot of TOF as a function of the amount of CO desorption (reaction conditions for TOF calculations: 300°C, 4.0 MPa, H₂/CO₂ = 3:1, and GHSV = 24,000 ml g_{cat}⁻¹ hour⁻¹). (**D**) XPS spectra in Ni 2p, In 3d, and C 1s regions of InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄. (**E**) CO₂ conversion and CH₃OH/CO/CH₄ selectivity along with the time on stream over the InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst (temperature of 250° to 350°C, H₂/CO₂ of 3:1 to 8:1, and GHSV of 12,000 to 42,000 ml g_{cat}⁻¹ hour⁻¹).

outperforms all ever-reported promising catalysts (5, 19, 20, 39-44) in terms of methanol STY, methanol selectivity (>90%), and intrinsic activity represented by TOF [for example, 133.7 hour⁻¹ based on total number of active sites (3Ni-In and 3Ni-C) or 89.1 hour⁻¹ based on total number of surface Ni atoms for our InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄, higher than 74.2 hour⁻¹ based on total number of surface Cu atoms for Cu-Zn-ZrO₂ (44); see detailed comparison in table S4]. As expected, the InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst exhibits further improved ability for CO₂ dissociative adsorption evidenced by much higher MS signal of CO than CO₂ in the CO₂-TPD profiles in comparison with the InNi₃C_{0.5}/ZrO₂ catalysts (Fig. 5, B and C, and table S6), thereby leading to a remarkable increase of the TOF to 133.7 hour⁻¹. This breakthrough is due to the strong EMSI between InNi₃C_{0.5} and Fe₃O₄, evidenced by lowered binding energy values of In, Ni, and C in InNi₃C_{0.5} (remarkably against unsupported InNi₃C_{0.5} and slightly against InNi₃C_{0.5}/*m*-ZrO₂; Fig. 5D and table S5).

Moreover, $InNi_3C_{0.5}/Fe_3O_4$ offers a much smaller $InNi_3C_{0.5}$ particle size of 7 nm than that (~16 nm) of the $InNi_3C_{0.5}/ZrO_2$ catalysts. Coupling this feature with the markedly improved activity for $InNi_3C_{0.5}/Fe_3O_4$ leads to a big reduction of the loading of $InNi_3C_{0.5}$

to 11.4 weight % (wt %), almost one-fourth of that (42.8 wt %; table S8) of $InNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂. Low loading of In together with using cheap Fe₃O₄ as support makes InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ more affordable, which is also an important consideration in practical application. Another advantage of our InNi₃C_{0.5} nano-intermetallic catalysts is the promising stability (Fig. 5E and figs. S12 and S13), and especially the InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst shows satisfying activity/selectivity maintenance throughout the entire 500-hour testing in a wide range of reaction conditions (Fig. 5E) without any sintering (fig. S12). Notably, no any FeC_x species was detected in the InNi₃C_{0 5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst even after 500-hour testing, according to the ⁵⁷Fe Mössbauer spectroscopy and Fe 2p XPS spectra (fig. S14 and Supplementary Text). By comparison, most literature catalysts are suffering from rapid deactivation because of the easy carbon deposition and/or catalyst sintering (15, 45, 46), such as the conventional CuZnAl catalyst, which loses more than 50% of its initial activity within 100-hour reaction under the identical reaction conditions (19). Our InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst also shows pleasing tolerance to sulfur poisoning even in the presence of 50 ppmv H₂S in the feed gas (fig. S15).

We demonstrate an outstanding oxide-supported InNi₃C_{0.5} nanointermetallic catalyst for efficient methanol synthesis from CO₂. First, interesting ZrO₂ type-dependent activity of the InNi₃C_{0.5}/ZrO₂ catalysts is observed, which is tightly linked with the EMSI strength governed by the type of ZrO₂ phase. Evidenced by experimental CO2-/H2-TPD, XPS, EPR, CO-DRIFTS spectral studies, and density functional theory (DFT) calculations, $InNi_3C_{0.5}/m$ -ZrO₂ achieves markedly enhanced EMSI that therefore endues InNi₃C_{0.5} with high electron density, due to the higher oxygen deficiency of m-ZrO₂ compared to t-ZrO₂ and a-ZrO₂. As a result, the InNi₃C_{0.5}/m-ZrO₂ catalyst shows superior activity for dissociative adsorption of CO2 and subsequent hydrogenation to form methanol over the two others. Inspired by this finding, a more advanced InNi₃C_{0.5}/Fe₃O₄ catalyst, with further enhanced EMSI effect, is developed via carburization of an In₂O₃-NiO/Fe₂O₃ precursor. As expected, over this catalyst, the CO₂ dissociative adsorption is markedly improved and therefore leads to a remarkable increase of the catalyst activity. This catalyst is also stable, highly resistant to sulfur poisoning, and cost-efficient because of the low In loading and cheap Fe₃O₄ support used. Our results will stimulate attempts to discover highly active/selective intermetallic catalysts by optimizing EMSI effect through combining theoretical and experimental studies, which might lead to commercial exploitation of an efficient CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol process.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Catalyst preparation

Synthesis of zirconia supports

Three zirconia supports with different phases (monoclinic, tetragonal, and amorphous zirconia, denoted as m-ZrO₂, t-ZrO₂, and *a*-ZrO₂, respectively) were synthesized according to the following methods. m-ZrO₂ was synthesized by a precipitation method: Zr(NO₃)₄·5H₂O (6.968 g) was dissolved in deionized water (100 ml), followed by dropwise addition of a 100-ml aqueous solution of (NH₄)₂CO₃ (3.119 g) in 30 min under vigorous stirring at 70°C to form a precipitate. The suspension was continuously stirred at 70°C for 2 hours, followed by aging at ambient temperature overnight, filtering, and washing several times with deionized water. Subsequently, the as-obtained sample was dried at 110°C for 4 hours and calcined at 500°C in static air for 3 hours to yield the m-ZrO₂ support. The t-ZrO₂ was synthesized by a combined precipitation and reflux digestion method (47): ZrOCl₂·8H₂O (16.106 g) was dissolved in deionized water (100 ml), followed by dropwise adding 200-ml NH₄OH solution (1 M) under vigorous stirring. The resulting material was heated in the mother liquor at 105°C under reflux for 240 hours, while the pH was maintained at 10, followed by aging, filtering, washing (until to no detectable chlorine anions in the filtrate by AgNO₃), drying at 110°C for 4 hours, and calcining at 800°C in static air for 3 hours to yield the t-ZrO₂ support. a-ZrO₂ was synthesized by a precipitation method assisted with surfactant (30, 48): Pluronic P123 (EO₂₀PO₇₀EO₂₀, 6.960 g) and ZrOCl₂·8H₂O (13.075 g) were dissolved in deionized water (200 ml) with vigorous stirring at 80°C; subsequently, a NH₄OH solution (1 M) was dropwise added to the obtained solution until a pH of 11. The obtained suspension was digested at 100°C for 240 hours, followed by aging at ambient temperature overnight, filtering, washing several times with deionized water, and drying at 110°C for 12 hours. Last, the product was calcined for 4 hours at 450°C in static air to obtain the a-ZrO₂ support.

Synthesis of supported InNi3C0.5 catalysts

The InNi₃C_{0.5}/m-ZrO₂ catalyst was taken as an example to describe the synthesis procedures (fig. S16): First, In(NO₃)₃·4H₂O (0.487 g) and Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (1.140 g) were dissolved in deionized water (1.500 g) under stirring at ambient temperature for 15 min. Then, the as-prepared m-ZrO₂ support (0.500 g) was impregnated with the as-obtained aqueous solution, followed by ultrasonication for 2 hours, aging at ambient temperature overnight, drying in air at 100°C for 12 hours, and calcining in static air at 350°C for 2 hours. Then, the resulting In2O3-NiO-ZrO2 catalyst precursor was packed into a continuous-flow fixed-bed tubular reactor made of stainless steel (inner diameter of 8 mm with length of 768 mm) and carburized in a stream of a mixture of H_2 and CO_2 (30 ml min⁻¹, H_2/CO_2 molar ratio of 3:1) at 600°C for 3 hours under atmospheric pressure. InNi₃C_{0.5}/*t*-ZrO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/*a*-ZrO₂, InNi₃C_{0.5}/SiO₂ (for comparison; commercial SiO₂, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd.), and InNi₃C_{0.5}/MO_x (MO_x = ZnO, TiO₂, CeO₂, and Fe₃O₄) were synthesized following the same procedures. The catalysts with different InNi₃C_{0.5} loadings were obtained by varying the adding amounts of indium nitrate and nickel nitrate precursors (table S8).

Catalyst characterization

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) measurements were conducted on a Rigaku Ultima IV diffractometer (Japan), using a Cu Ka radiation source generated at 30 kV and 25 mA in the 2 θ angle range of 10° to 60° at a scanning speed of 10° min⁻¹ with a step size of 0.02°. The catalyst micromorphology and nanostructure were observed by a scanning electron microscope (Hitachi S-4800, Japan; accelerating voltage: 3.0 kV) and TEM (FEI-Tecnai G2 F30, USA; accelerating voltage: 200 kV). Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were taken on a Quantachrome Autosorb-3B instrument (USA) at -196°C. The samples were evacuated at 300°C for at least 6 hours before the measurements. The SSA was calculated from the adsorption branch using standard Brunauer-Emmett-Teller theory. The pore size distribution and total pore volume were determined using the Barrett-Jovner-Halenda method based on the adsorption isotherm. Quasi-in situ XPS analyses were carried out on an AXIS SUPRA system (Shimadzu/Kratos) equipped with an in situ reactor chamber, using a standard Al Kα x-ray source (300 W) with an analyzer pass energy of 40.0 eV. The circular catalyst chips (1.5 mm diameter) were pretreated in H_2/CO_2 mixture (H_2/CO_2 molar ratio of 3:1, 30 ml min⁻¹) at 300°C for 2 hours in the reactor chamber and then cooled down to room temperature and transferred into the spectrometer chamber without exposure into air. All binding energies were referenced to the adventitious C1s line at 284.8 eV. EPR was performed on a Bruker EMXPLUS spectrometer at a microwave frequency of 9.83 GHz (X-band) with catalyst sample of 0.038 g. Spectra were collected accumulating 1 scan for field sweeps of 5000 G at -196°C with a microwave power of 0.2 mW. The ⁵⁷Fe Mössbauer spectra were recorded on a conventional spectrometer (Wissel MS-500, Germany) in transmission geometry with constant acceleration mode. ⁵⁷Co(Pd) was used as the radioactive source. The spectra were fitted with the appropriate superposition of Lorentzian lines. The real In and Ni contents of the InNi₃C_{0.5} catalysts were quantitatively analyzed by the inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectroscopy on Optima 8300 (PerkinElmer, USA).

H₂ and CO₂ TPD (H₂-/CO₂-TPD) measurements were performed on a TP 5080 multifunctional automatic adsorption/desorption instrument (Xianquan Industrial and Trading Co. Ltd., P.R. China) with a TCD and an online mass spectrometer (ProLine Dycor, AMETEK Process Instrument, USA). For each trial, the sample (0.1 g) was treated in a H₂ flow (30 ml min⁻¹) at 300°C for 1 hour and flushed by a He flow (30 ml min⁻¹) at 300°C for 30 min to clean its surface. After cooling to room temperature in a He flow, the catalyst sample was exposed to a H₂ (or CO₂) flow for 30 min for saturation adsorption of H₂ (or CO₂), and afterward, the carrier gas (ultrahighly purified N₂ for H₂-TPD or He for CO₂-TPD) was switched into the reactor at a flow rate of 30 ml min⁻¹ until stable baseline appeared before implementing. The TPD profiles were then recorded from room temperature to 850°C at a heating rate of 10°C min⁻¹.

In situ DRIFTS experiments for CO adsorption on the catalysts were carried out on a Bruker Tensor 27 spectrometer, equipped with a mercury-cadmium-telluride detector and a Harrick Scientific HV-CDRP-4 reaction cell fitted with ZnSe windows. The catalyst sample of 0.020 g was placed into the cell chamber, treated at 400°C for 2 hours in a H₂ flow (30 ml min⁻¹), purged with a He flow (30 ml min⁻¹) at 400°C for 1 hour, and cooled down to room temperature in He for taking a reference spectrum. Then, the catalyst was exposed to pure CO flow (10 ml min⁻¹) for 30 min and subsequently purged with He (30 ml min⁻¹) for 30 min, for taking CO-DRIFT spectrum. All spectra were recorded by collecting 32 scans from 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹ at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹.

Reactivity tests

The CO₂-to-methanol reaction was evaluated in a continuous-flow fixed-bed tubular reactor made of stainless steel (inner diameter of 8 mm with length of 768 mm) that was heated by an electronic furnace. Typically, the as-carburized catalyst with granule size between 100 and 125 μ m (0.500 \pm 0.002 g) was packed into the reactor, and the catalyst bed at the center of the reactor was supported by quartz wool at both ends. The reaction temperature, pressure, GHSV, and H₂/CO₂ molar ratio were varied in the range of 250° to 350°C, 1.0 to 6.0 MPa, 12,000 to 115,500 ml g_{cat}⁻¹ hour⁻¹, and 3:1 to 10:1, respectively.

The effluent gas was quantitatively analyzed by an online Agilent 7820 gas chromatograph equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector. The postreactor line was maintained at 150°C to prevent product from condensing. All the reaction data were collected after running for at least 3 hours under steady-state conditions. The gas sample was withdrawn every 30 min, and more than eight measurements were taken for each reaction parameter. The products from this reaction were CH₃OH, CO, and CH₄. The CO₂ conversion (%) and product selectivity (%) were calculated by the standard normalization method based on carbon atom balance according to the following equations

$$CO_{2} \text{ conversion } (\%) = \left(1 - \frac{f_{CO_{2}}A_{CO_{2},out}}{\sum f_{i}A_{i,out} + f_{CO_{2}}A_{CO_{2},out}}\right) \times 100\%$$

i selectivity $(\%) = \left(\frac{f_{i}A_{i,out}}{\sum f_{i}A_{i,out}}\right) \times 100\%$

where $A_{i,out}$ and f_i are the chromatographic peak area at the outlet and the relative molar calibration factor of the individual product *i* (*i*: CH₃OH, CO, and CH₄), respectively.

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STY of methanol, expressed as grams of CH₃OH per gram catalyst per hour ($g_{MeOH} g_{cat}^{-1}$ hour⁻¹), was calculated according to the following equation

$$CH_{3}OH STY = \frac{F_{CO_{2},in} \times X_{CO_{2}} \times S_{CH_{3}OH} \times MW_{CH_{3}OH}}{W_{cat} \times V_{m}}$$

where $F_{\text{CO2,in}}$ is the volumetric flow rate of CO₂ (milliliter hour⁻¹), X_{CO2} is the CO₂ conversion, S_{CH3OH} is the CH₃OH selectivity, MW_{CH3OH} is the molecular weight of CH₃OH (32 g mol⁻¹), W_{cat} is the overall mass of catalyst (g), and V_{m} is the ideal molar volume of CO₂ at standard temperature and pressure.

Thermodynamic analysis and TOF calculations

The thermodynamic analysis was performed by using the HSC Chemistry 6.0 software, with the results shown in fig. S6. In the analysis, the reaction pressure was increased from 0 to 100 bar (10 MPa) at different temperatures (from 200° to 400°C). The reactants of H₂ and CO₂ (with the molar ratio of 3:1) and aimed products CH₃OH and H₂O were considered (CO_{2(g)} + 3H_{2(g)} \leftrightarrow CH₃OH_(g) + H₂O_(g)). The theoretical equilibrium conversion of CO₂ (X_e) was calculated according to the following equation

$$X_{e} = \left(\frac{A - A_{0}}{A}\right) \times 100\%$$

where A is the initial amount of CO_2 (kmol) and A_0 is the amount of CO_2 (kmol) at thermodynamic equilibrium.

To assess the intrinsic activity of the supported $InNi_3C_{0.5}$ catalysts for the CO₂-to-methanol reaction, the TOF was measured (with CO₂ conversion below 10.0% at 300°C, 4.0 MPa, and 24,000 ml g_{cat}^{-1} hour⁻¹; table S3), which was defined as the produced methanol per active site per hour

$$\text{TOF} = \frac{\frac{F_{\text{CO}_2}}{V_{\text{m}}} \times X_{\text{CO}_2} \times S_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}} \times N_{\text{A}}}{W_{\text{cat}} \times x \times N_{\text{mum}}}$$

where $F_{\rm CO2}$ is the volumetric flow rate of CO₂ (milliliter hour⁻¹), $V_{\rm m}$ is the ideal molar volume of CO₂ at standard temperature and pressure, $X_{\rm CO2}$ is the CO₂ conversion, $S_{\rm CH3OH}$ is the CH₃OH selectivity, $N_{\rm A}$ is the Avogadro constant, $W_{\rm cat}$ is the mass (0.5 g) of the supported InNi₃C_{0.5} catalysts, and *x* is the mass fraction (42.8%) of InNi₃C_{0.5} in the supported InNi₃C_{0.5} catalysts. $N_{\rm num}$ is the number of available surface active sites (i.e., the total number of 3Ni-In and 3Ni-C) per gram InNi₃C_{0.5}, which can be calculated according to the following equation (23)

$$N_{\rm num} = \frac{\rm SA \times 25.0\%}{A_{\rm (3Ni-In \ or \ 3Ni-C)}}$$

where SA is the exposed SSA ($m^2 g^{-1}$) of the InNi₃C_{0.5} nanoparticles in the supported InNi₃C_{0.5} catalyst [assuming that all exposed surfaces of the supported InNi₃C_{0.5} nanoparticles were InNi₃C_{0.5} (111) surface], 25.0% is the percentage of the total area of the surface active sites (the 3Ni-In and 3Ni-C sites) in the total surface area of InNi₃C_{0.5} (111) surface, and $A_{(3Ni-In \text{ or } 3Ni-C)}$ is the area of one 3Ni-In or 3Ni-C active site (one 3Ni-In site has equal area to one 3Ni-C site of 3.013×10^{-20} m²). The SA can be estimated on the basis of their TEM-visualized particle size according to the following equation (3)

$$SA = \frac{6}{\rho \times d_{InNi_3C_{0.5}}}$$

where ρ is the density of bulk InNi₃C_{0.5}. The corresponding TEMvisualized particle size distribution of InNi₃C_{0.5} nanoparticles is shown in Fig. 1 (B to D) and table S1.

DFT calculations

We used spin-polarized DFT as implemented in the Vienna Ab initio Package. The self-interaction problem inherent with this functional has been partly removed by applying the DFT + U approach, where the Hubbard's U parameter for the 4d orbitals of the Zr ions was set to 4 eV (49). Core-valence and electron-electron interactions were treated by the projector augmented wave method (50) and the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof generalized gradient approximation (51, 52). The energy cutoff for the planewave basis set was 400 eV. Geometry optimization was considered to be converged when the forces was <0.03 eV/Å. Reciprocal space was sampled only at the Γ -point because of the large supercell. The interface structure of InNi₃C_{0.5}(111)/t-ZrO₂(011) was constructed using (2×4) InNi₃C_{0.5}(111) and (3×3) *t*-ZrO₂(011) with the lattice mismatch less than 3%, and the interface structure of $InNi_3C_{0.5}(111)/m$ -Z rO₂(-111) was constructed using (4×4) InNi₃C_{0.5}(111) and (3×3) m-ZrO₂(-111) with the lattice mismatch ~4% (Fig. 4, A and B). The bottom Ni at the left corner of InNi₃C_{0.5}(111) was used as the reference atom to construct different interfacial structures at top site of O, top site of Zr, and bridge site of O-Zr of ZrO₂. Three-layer thickness of InNi₃C_{0.5} was chosen to build the interfacial structures to save the cost of the computation where the interfacial structures of InNi₃C_{0.5}(111)/m-ZrO₂(-111) contain 360 atoms and the geometry optimization is very time-consuming and presents an experimental weight ratio of about 1:1 with the ZrO₂ support. All atoms of InNi₃C_{0.5} and the top ZrO₂ unit were allowed to relax. For the defective interfacial structures, the interfacial oxygen atoms were removed yielding an oxygen vacancy of 31.25 and 22%, close to the experimental value of ~30 and ~24% for InNi₃C_{0.5}/m-ZrO_{2-x} and InNi₃C_{0.5}/t-ZrO_{2-x}. respectively (the oxygen vacancy concentration was calculated according to XPS results; see table S5, fig. S9, and Supplementary Text).

To describe the interfacial binding strength qualitatively, the ideal adhesion work of the interface was defined as follows (53)

$$W_{\rm ad} = \frac{E_{\rm ZrO_2} + E_{\rm InNi_3C_{0.5}} - E_{\rm InNi_3C_{0.5}/ZrO_2}}{A}$$

The first, second, and third terms on the right side of the equation are the total energies of the optimized single ZrO_2 surface, single $InNi_3C_{0.5}$, and $InNi_3C_{0.5}/ZrO_2$ interface, respectively. *A* is the interfacial area. The larger the adhesion work, the stronger the interfacial binding of $InNi_3C_{0.5}$ with ZrO_2 .

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Supplementary material for this article is available at http://advances.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/7/32/eabi6012/DC1

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