



# Direct parallel electrosynthesis of high-value chemicals from atmospheric components on symmetry-breaking indium sites

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Affiliations are included on p. 11.

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To tackle significant environmental and energy challenges from increased greenhouse gas emissions in the atmosphere, we propose a method that synergistically combines cost-efficient integrated systems with parallel catalysis to produce high-value chemicals from CO<sub>2</sub>, NO, and other gases. We employed asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S with symmetry-breaking indium sites as a highly efficient trifunctional catalysts for NO reduction, CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, and O<sub>2</sub> reduction. Mechanistic studies reveal that the symmetry-breaking at indium sites substantially improves d-band center interactions and adsorption of intermediates, thereby enhancing trifunctional catalytic activity. Employed in a flow electrolysis system, the catalyst achieves continuous and flexible production of NH<sub>3</sub>, HCOO<sup>−</sup>, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, maintaining over 90% Faradaic efficiency at industrial scales. Notably, the parallel electrolysis device reported in this study effectively produces high-value products like NH<sub>4</sub>COOH directly from greenhouse gases in pure water, offering an economically efficient solution for small molecule synthesis and unique insights for the sustainable conversion of inexhaustible gases into valuable products. Therefore, this work possesses considerable potential for future practical applications in sustainable industrial processes.

CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction | N<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction | O<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction | symmetry-breaking | electrosynthesis

Rampant combustion of fossil and biofuels over the decades has severely escalated emissions of greenhouse gases (e.g., CO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>) into the atmosphere, resulting in a detrimental impact on the environment and a burgeoning energy crisis (1–3). Electrocatalytic technologies, which leverage on renewable energy sources for driving electroconversion of earth-abundant inputs into value-added chemicals (e.g., electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR), NO reduction (NORR), or O<sub>2</sub> reduction (ORR)), have thus emerged as sustainable and green solutions for mitigating our environmental predicament (4–7). However, previous electrocatalytic research has predominantly focused on converting single substrates into basic chemical products, such as formic acid (HCOOH, ~\$0.35 kg<sup>−1</sup>), ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>, ~\$0.20 kg<sup>−1</sup>) and hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, ~\$0.56 kg<sup>−1</sup>) (6, 8, 9), which need to be further processed into higher-value chemical products to satisfy the broader needs of society and the chemical industry. In addition, their synthesis necessitates a variety of different catalysts, electrolytes, and experimental setups, leading to elevated production costs (Scheme 1*A* and *SI Appendix, Note S1–S3*) (10, 11).

Recently, to enhance the value of synthesized products, electrocatalytic C–N coupling reactions have emerged, converting CO<sub>2</sub> and nitrogenous pollutants into high-value downstream chemicals such as urea and methylamine (12–16). However, the practical application of electrocatalytic C–N coupling reactions is limited by several fundamental challenges. For instance, competitive side reactions, such as the propensity of multiple adsorbed species to undergo self-hydrogenation rather than the desired coupling reaction as well as hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), collectively result in lower Faradaic efficiencies (FE), reduced current densities, and the formation of complex product mixtures (16, 17).

An effective strategy for optimizing C–N coupling reactions is to first synthesize the primary products within the same device and then flexibly convert them into the desired complex downstream chemicals, such as ammonium formate (~\$2.52 kg<sup>−1</sup>, approximately an order of magnitude higher in value than the primary products, *SI Appendix, Note S1*) through physical or chemical methods. This approach has three major advantages (Scheme 1*B*): 1) achieving industrial-scale current densities, exceeding 90% FE and remarkable selectivity; 2) integrating different reactions within a single electrolysis device,

## Significance

Electrocatalytic technologies powered by renewable energy have emerged as promising solutions for transforming harmful greenhouse gases like CO<sub>2</sub> and NO into useful chemicals. However, previous research has focused on converting single substrates into basic chemical products such as formate and ammonia, which require further processing into higher-value chemicals to meet the broad needs of society and the chemical industry. Herein, we report that InO<sub>5</sub>S with symmetry-breaking indium sites acts as an efficient trifunctional catalyst for synthesizing formate, ammonia, and hydrogen peroxide and can directly convert greenhouse gases (CO<sub>2</sub> and NO) into ammonium formate using only pure water. This offers an economically efficient method for synthesizing high-value small molecules, presenting a significant advancement for sustainable chemistry.

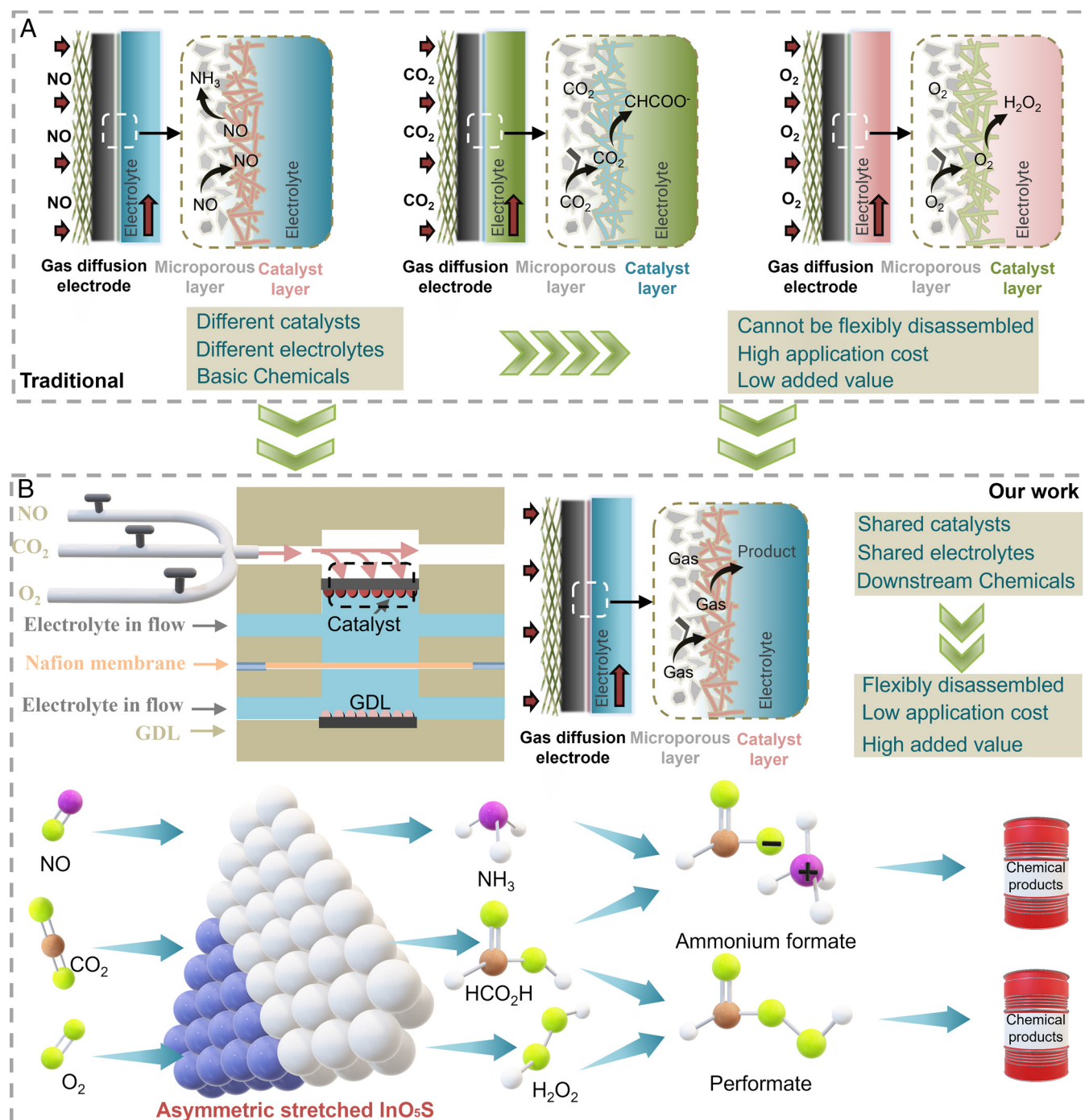
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**Scheme 1.** Schematic illustration of the design strategy for synthesizing small molecules (NH<sub>3</sub>, HCOO<sup>-</sup>, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) from air and parallel catalysis electrosynthesis of high-value-added products with an asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S as a trifunctional cathode catalyst. (A) Schematic illustrating the traditional process of electrocatalytic synthesis of small molecules (NH<sub>3</sub>, HCOO<sup>-</sup>, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>). Different catalysts and electrolytes are required to synthesize different small molecules through traditional electrocatalytic processes, resulting in low flexibility and high application costs. (B) The process of integrating electrocatalytic synthesis of small molecules and hand-over to synthesize high-value-added products. Using the same catalytic solution to flexibly synthesize small molecules in the same electrolyte reduces application costs. The small molecules produced can be mixed on demand to form high-value-added products.

avoiding the use of multiple catalysts and complex electrolytes, and enabling flexible switching of products without disassembling the device, thereby reducing production costs; and 3) producing a wide array of downstream chemical products from various primary products, leading to enhanced product value. Despite the many advantages of this technique, current catalysts are primarily designed for single catalytic reactions (18–20). Multifunctional electrocatalysts, with their multiple active sites, can simultaneously catalyze two or more distinct electrochemical reactions (21). As emphasized by Prof. Sagi and Pillai, these catalysts are essential

for addressing urgent energy challenges and are crucial for the development of sustainable energy systems (21). Therefore, there is a pressing need to develop catalysts with multifunctional active sites to achieve efficient catalysis.

Indium (In)-based catalysts exhibit high oxophilicity (22). The partially oxidized surface layer can effectively suppress HER and thermodynamically favor the adsorption of oxygen-containing intermediates, such as \*OCHO, for enhanced formate selectivity (22). Therefore, In-based catalysts inherently hold promise as multifunctional catalysts, exhibiting excellent catalytic activity and

selectivity in CO<sub>2</sub>RR to HCOO<sup>−</sup> (22), NORR to NH<sub>3</sub> (23), and ORR to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (24). Symmetry-breaking, which refers to the disruption of the original balance or symmetry of a material or central atom structure, is an effective strategy for precisely tuning the electronic structure of catalytic sites (25–27). By breaking inherent symmetry, active sites with unique electronic configurations can be created, enhancing the adsorption and desorption of intermediates (25–27). Integrating symmetry-breaking strategies into In-based catalysts can alter the electronic structure of In sites at the atomic level, steering the catalyst toward electronic configurations more favorable for the adsorption of intermediates and desorption of products, thereby further optimizing the multifunctional catalytic ability.

Herein, asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S with symmetry-breaking In sites was designed, serving as a highly selective and active trifunctional catalyst for CO<sub>2</sub>RR, NORR, and ORR. The trifunctional catalytic activity and enhancement mechanism of the symmetry-breaking In sites were elucidated through density functional theory (DFT) calculations and in situ experiments. Additionally, when the catalyst was integrated into a flow electrolysis system, findings reveal a continuous and versatile production of NH<sub>3</sub>, HCOO<sup>−</sup>, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, which consistently exceeds 90% in average FE. Furthermore, in the specially designed parallel electrolysis device, high-value chemical products, such as NH<sub>4</sub>COOH, were efficiently synthesized from greenhouse gases like NO and CO<sub>2</sub> in pure water. This work represents a significant advancement in converting greenhouse gases into high-value downstream chemical products, unveiling significant potential for future applications in sustainable industrial processes.

## Results

**Synthesis and Structural Characterizations.** Asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S with symmetry-breaking In sites was synthesized through a two-step procedure, involving a hydrothermal treatment to first obtain an indium metal-organic framework (In-MOF) nanorod precursor containing sulfur (S), followed by annealing in the absence of any additional S sources (*SI Appendix, Fig. S1*). Symmetrically stretched InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub> were also prepared via a similar procedure (Information under Material Synthesis). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the as-synthesized asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S reveal well-crystallized diffraction peaks assigned to the planes of In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (space group *Ia-3*, JCPDS No. 71-2195, *a* = *b* = *c* = 10.117 Å) and In<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> (space group *Fd-3 m*, JCPDS No. 84-1385, *a* = *b* = *c* = 10.774 Å) (*SI Appendix, Figs. S2–S4*). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images reveal uniform nanorod structures of InO<sub>5</sub>S with a size profile corresponding to a few micrometers in length and a diameter of ~100 nm, inherited from the morphology of fabricated In-MOF (*SI Appendix, Figs. S5–S7*). The corresponding element mapping proves that In, O, and/or S are homogeneously distributed across the nanorods (*SI Appendix, Figs. S5–S7 and Table S5*).

High-angle annular dark field-scanning transmission electron microscopy images (HAADF-STEM, *SI Appendix, Fig. S8*), corresponding fast Fourier transformation (FFT) patterns, and intensity line scans show that InO<sub>5</sub>S possesses distinct In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and In<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> domains, with well-resolved lattice fringes and interplanar distances of 0.326 and 0.41 nm, which match well with the (311) plane of In<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> and the (211) plane of In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, respectively. Furthermore, the magnified HAADF-STEM (*Fig. 1A*) image and corresponding molecular model of InO<sub>5</sub>S (inset of *Fig. 1A*) show obvious atomic dislocation and lattice distortions resulting from strain at the phase interface, as verified by geometric phase analysis (GPA) (*Fig. 1B*). In comparison, HAADF-STEM, diffraction

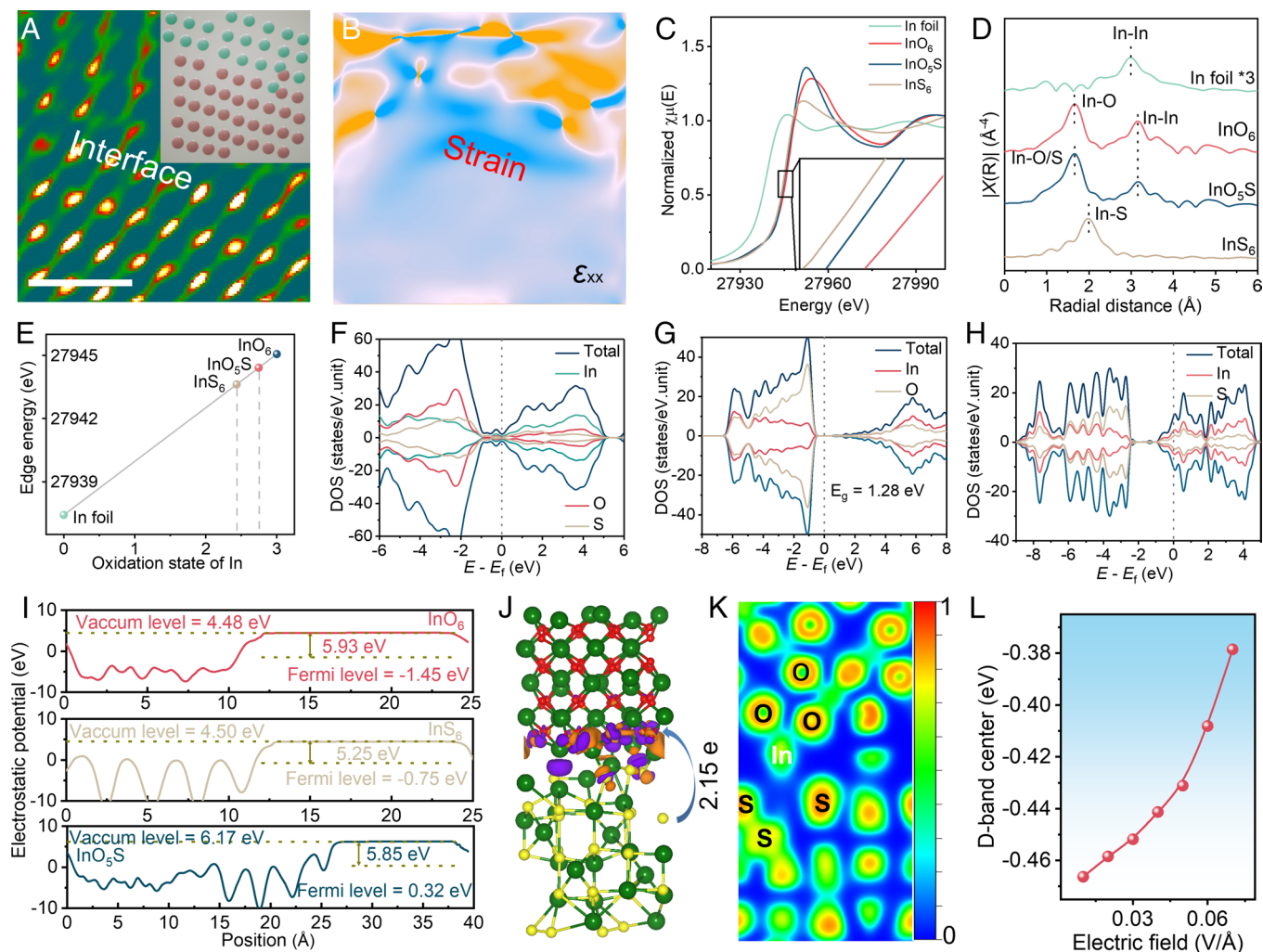
analysis, and GPA of both InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub> (*SI Appendix, Figs. S9–S16*) showed uniform interatomic spacings without atomic dislocations, lattice distortions, and strain, indicating that the crystal structures of InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub> possess good symmetry.

X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy were conducted, to elucidate insight into the fine coordination structures of InO<sub>5</sub>S. As shown in *Fig. 1C*, the In K-edge energy position gradually increases from InS<sub>6</sub> through InO<sub>5</sub>S to InO<sub>6</sub>, moving away from In foil. Similarly, the valence state, determined via the functional relationship between  $\Delta E$  and the oxidation states, increases from InS<sub>6</sub>, InO<sub>5</sub>S, to InO<sub>6</sub> which were +2.43, +2.75, and +3, respectively (*Fig. 1E*). Fourier-transform *k*<sup>3</sup>-weighted EXAFS (FT-EXAFS) spectra reveal distinct peaks at ~2.2 Å and 3.3 Å (*Fig. 1D*), corresponding to the In–O/In–S and In–In scattering paths. Moreover, EXAFS spectra fitting reveals that the In–O bond length in InO<sub>5</sub>S is slightly longer than InO<sub>6</sub> (2.24 vs. 2.16 Å), whereas the In–S bond length in InO<sub>5</sub>S is marginally shorter than in InS<sub>6</sub> (2.33 vs. 2.4 Å, *SI Appendix, Table S6*). Additionally, the EXAFS fitting results indicate that InO<sub>5</sub>S has an In–O coordination number (CN) of ~5 at ~2.24 Å and an In–S coordination number of ~1 at ~2.33 Å (*SI Appendix, Figs. S17–S20*), suggesting that In is coordinated with five O atoms and one S atom to form asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S. The wavelet transform analysis results are consistent and further support the EXAFS fitting results (*SI Appendix, Fig. S21*).

Subsequently, DFT calculations were performed to reveal the redistribution of atomic-level electronic structure at the In site resulting from asymmetric stretching. The calculated density of states (DOS, *Fig. 1 F–H*) and band structure (*SI Appendix, Fig. S22*) show that InO<sub>5</sub>S and InO<sub>6</sub> exhibit semiconductive behavior, while InS<sub>6</sub> presents metallic conductivity for the In and S orbitals across the Fermi level (*E<sub>F</sub>*). Compared to InO<sub>6</sub>, InO<sub>5</sub>S with its smaller band gap (0.2 eV) and more electrons near *E<sub>F</sub>*, exhibits better electronic conductivity, beneficial for rapid electron transfer processes, thereby facilitating enhanced catalytic activity. As shown in *Fig. 1I*, the work function of InS<sub>6</sub> is 5.25 eV, which is significantly lower than the 5.93 eV of InO<sub>6</sub>, suggesting the tendency for electron transfer from the S–In side to the In–O side in InO<sub>5</sub>S (*SI Appendix, Fig. S23*). Charge density difference calculations further verify a transfer of 2.15 electrons from the S–In side to the In–O side of InO<sub>5</sub>S (*Fig. 1J*), leading to electron dissipation on the S–In side and electron accumulation on the In–O side (*SI Appendix, Fig. S24*), thereby forming an internal electric field. Moreover, calculations of the electron localization function (ELF, *Fig. 1K*) indicate that the internal electric field is induced via formation of symmetry-breaking structure. The relationship between the internal electric field and the d-band center was also examined, showing that as the electric field increased from 0.01 V Å<sup>−1</sup> to 0.07 V Å<sup>−1</sup>, a gradient increase in the d-band center values was observed (*Fig. 1L*), indicating that an appropriate electric field can elevate the d-band center, which can enhance catalytic performance.

**Electrocatalytic NORR Performance and Mechanism.** The electrochemical NORR performance of asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S was evaluated in a 0.1 M NO-saturated Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte (without *iR*-compensation). The linear sweep voltammetry (LSV, *Fig. 2A*) curves demonstrate a substantially higher current density for InO<sub>5</sub>S under NO-saturated conditions compared to Ar-saturated conditions, indicating an effective activation of NO by InO<sub>5</sub>S. Quantitative studies on the NORR of InO<sub>5</sub>S were conducted, revealing a gradual increase in NH<sub>3</sub> yield rates with a negative shift of potential, reaching a



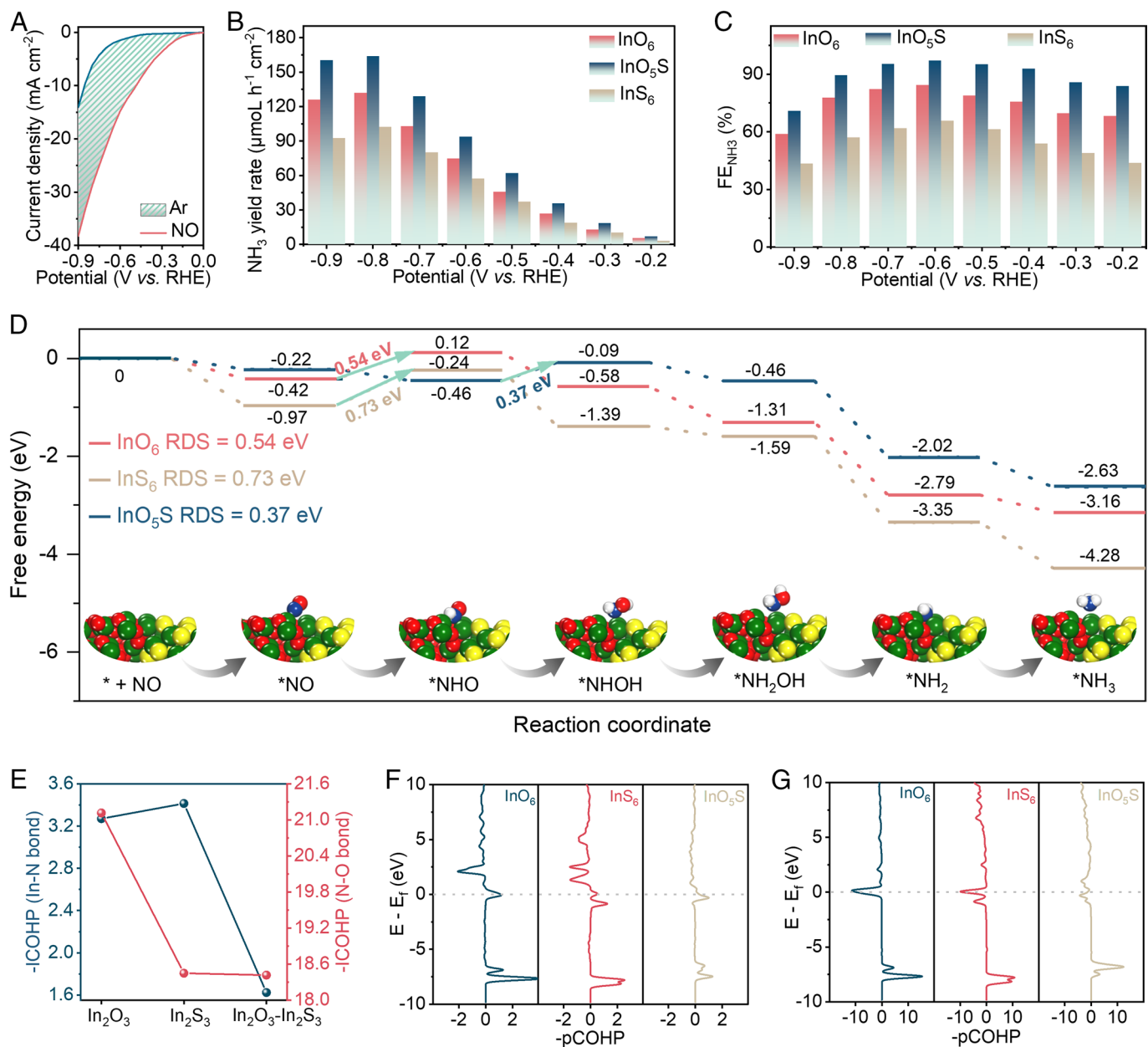


**Fig. 1.** Atomic-scale crystal and electronic structural characterizations of the asymmetrically stretched  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$ . (A) HAADF-TEM image (Scale bar, 1 nm); the inset of (A) displays the corresponding structural model, showing only In atoms. (B) Strain field map from GPA for axial strain ( $\epsilon_{xx}$ ). (C) In K-edge XANES spectra of  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$ ,  $\text{InO}_6$ ,  $\text{InS}_6$ , and In foil; the inset of (C) shows the enlarged near-edge pattern. (D) Fourier transform of the EXAFS spectra for  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$ ,  $\text{InO}_6$ ,  $\text{InS}_6$ , and In foil. (E) Relationship between In K-edge threshold value ( $E_0$ ) and oxidation state. DOS profiles of (F)  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$ , (G)  $\text{InO}_6$ , and (H)  $\text{InS}_6$ . (I) Calculated work function for  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$ ,  $\text{InO}_6$ , and  $\text{InS}_6$ . (J) The charge density difference and (K) the ELF of the  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$ . (L) Relationship between the d-band center and the electric field.

maximum  $\text{NH}_3$  yield rate of  $163.76 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$  at  $-0.8 \text{ V}$  (vs. RHE, Fig. 2B). Moreover,  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  maintains an exceptionally high FE of over 90% across a wide potential range of 0.5 V, particularly achieving a maximum FE of 96.94% at  $-0.6 \text{ V}$  (vs. RHE, Fig. 2C). This indicates that  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  possesses excellent  $\text{NH}_3$  production capability and selectivity, comparable to the NORR activity of previously reported catalysts (SI Appendix, Table S7). This result was further confirmed via a series of control experiments (SI Appendix, Fig. S25), including  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  in 0.1 M Ar saturated  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  electrolyte at  $-0.8 \text{ V}$  (vs. RHE,  $2.31 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ ), blank CC at  $-0.8 \text{ V}$  (vs. RHE,  $6.75 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ ), and  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  under open circuit potential (OCP,  $0.76 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ ), confirming that the  $\text{NH}_3$  production originated from NO rather than external contamination. Notably, the activity of  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  ( $163.76 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$  and 96.94%, SI Appendix, Fig. S25) was far superior compared to  $\text{InO}_6$  ( $131.69 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$  and 84.29%) and  $\text{InS}_6$  ( $102.25 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$  and 65.64%). Although all samples exhibited similar steady-state current densities (SI Appendix, Fig. S26),  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  has the highest partial current density for  $\text{NH}_3$  production throughout the entire test range (SI Appendix, Fig. S27), indicating that asymmetrically stretched  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  can most effectively inhibit HER side reactions, leading to its superior NORR activity.

To probe insight into the origin of the remarkable NORR activity of  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$ , DFT calculations were performed. For symmetrical In sites present in  $\text{InO}_6$  and  $\text{InS}_6$  (SI Appendix, Figs. S28 and S29), the conversion from  $^*\text{NO}$  to  $^*\text{NHO}$  (initial hydrogenation) was found to be the rate-determining step (RDS), with corresponding energy barriers of 0.54 eV and 0.73 eV (Fig. 2D), respectively. Conversely, the symmetry-breaking In sites in  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  successfully transform the uphill barrier of the initial hydrogenation into a spontaneous process, thereby changing the RDS to  $^*\text{NHO} \rightarrow ^*\text{NHOH}$  (Fig. 2D), with a corresponding barrier of only 0.37 eV. This indicates that symmetry-breaking In sites favor NORR activity by altering the RDS. Based on the integrated crystal orbital Hamilton population (ICOHP, Fig. 2E) results, the In–N bond in  $^*\text{ON-InO}_5\text{S}$  exhibits an optimal bond strength (1.62 eV), which is significantly lower than  $\text{InO}_6$  and  $\text{InS}_6$ , indicating appropriate adsorption of NO on the catalyst surface. Additionally, the smallest N–O bond strength of NO on  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  is 18.42 eV, suggesting that NO is more easily polarized on  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$ . This is corroborated by the smaller overlap of projected density of states (SI Appendix, Fig. S30) for N and O orbitals on  $\text{InO}_5\text{S}$  compared to  $\text{InS}_6$  and  $\text{InO}_6$ . Furthermore, a crystal orbital Hamilton population (COHP, Fig. 2F and G) study on the bonding-antibonding characteristics of the In–N and N–O bonds at the In site reveals





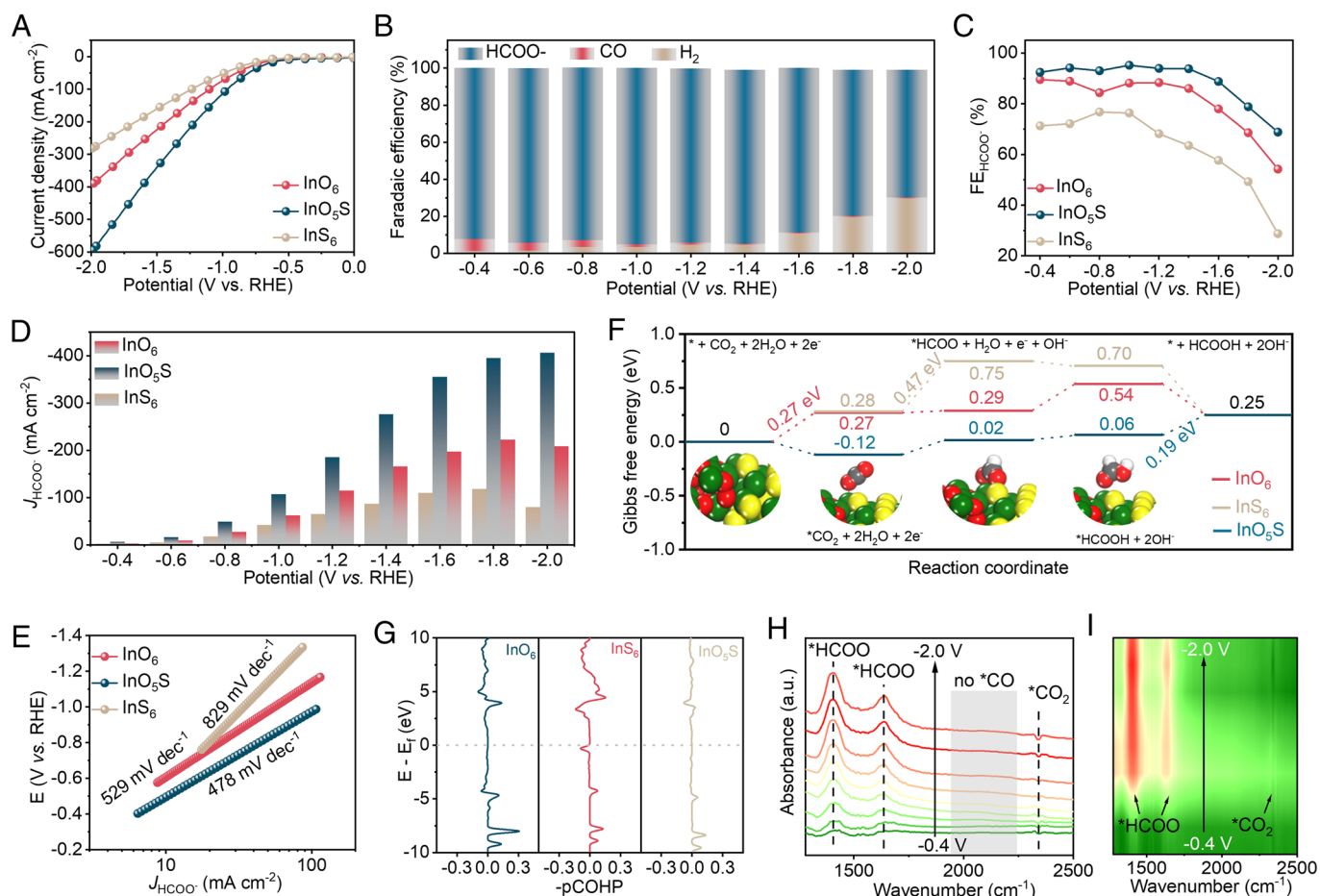
**Fig. 2.** Electrochemical NORR performance of asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S. (A) LSV curves in NO- and Ar-saturated 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solutions. (B and C) NH<sub>3</sub> yield rates and FEs at different applied potentials. (D) Calculated free energy diagrams for NORR on InO<sub>5</sub>S, InO<sub>6</sub>, and InS<sub>6</sub> with the schematic of the NORR reaction pathway on InO<sub>5</sub>S. (E) Strength of the In-N and N-O bond as elucidated by the integrated-COHP (-ICOHP). COHP for (F) In-N and (G) N-O.

that fewer bonding orbitals occupied on InO<sub>5</sub>S contribute to the formation of an appropriate In-N bond and weakening of the N-O bond compared to InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub>. The weakening of the N-O bond serves crucial in facilitating subsequent hydrogenation steps, lowering the barrier and thus enhancing the reaction kinetics of NORR. Therefore, the symmetry-breaking In sites on asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S can moderately adsorb NO and significantly polarize the N-O bond, promoting subsequent hydrogenation steps for NH<sub>3</sub> production.

**Electrocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub>RR Performance and Mechanism.** The electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S was evaluated. As evident from the LSV curves, InO<sub>5</sub>S exhibits significantly higher current densities under CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated electrolyte compared to Ar-saturated electrolyte, indicating superior CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity and selectivity of InO<sub>5</sub>S over InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub> (Fig. 3A and SI Appendix, Fig. S31). Moreover, InO<sub>5</sub>S

(Fig. 3B) displayed exceptional HCOO<sup>-</sup> production FE (FE<sub>formate</sub>) exceeding 90% over a wide potential range of 1.0 V, with a maximum FE<sub>formate</sub> of 95.18% achieved at -1.0 V (vs. RHE), surpassing the FE<sub>formate</sub> of InO<sub>6</sub> (89.53% at -0.4 V vs. RHE, SI Appendix, Fig. S32) and InS<sub>6</sub> (76.73% at -0.8 V vs. RHE, SI Appendix, Fig. S33). The HCOO<sup>-</sup> production rate increases gradually with potential, reaching a maximum of 7.58 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup> at -2.0 V (vs. RHE), significantly higher than that of InO<sub>6</sub> (4.15 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>) and InS<sub>6</sub> (2.20 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>, SI Appendix, Fig. S34).

Notably, InO<sub>5</sub>S consistently demonstrates higher FE<sub>formate</sub> (Fig. 3C) and lower FE<sub>CO</sub> and FE<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> (SI Appendix, Fig. S35) compared to InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub> throughout the entire potential range. Specifically, at -1.0 V (vs. RHE), the formate partial current density (*j*<sub>formate</sub>) on InO<sub>5</sub>S (Fig. 3D) reached as high as 107.22 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, outperforming that of InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub> by 1.72 and 2.56 folds, respectively. In addition, InO<sub>5</sub>S achieved the highest *j*<sub>formate</sub> of



**Fig. 3.** Electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub>RR performance of asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S. (A) LSV curves in CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solutions. (B) FEs of HCOO<sup>−</sup>, CO, and H<sub>2</sub> at different applied potentials. Comparison of FEs<sub>HCOO<sup>−</sup></sub>. (C), *j*<sub>HCOO<sup>−</sup></sub>. (D), and Tafel plots (E) for InO<sub>5</sub>S, InO<sub>6</sub>, and InS<sub>6</sub>. (F) Calculated free energy diagrams for CO<sub>2</sub>RR on InO<sub>5</sub>S, InO<sub>6</sub>, and InS<sub>6</sub> with the schematic of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR reaction pathway on InO<sub>5</sub>S. (G) COHP for In–O. Electrochemical in situ FT-IR spectra (H) and corresponding contour plots (I) for InO<sub>5</sub>S.

406.42 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>, surpassing the values obtained for InO<sub>6</sub> (222.53 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>) and InS<sub>6</sub> (117.92 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>). This superior performance was further validated by partial Tafel slope (Fig. 3E) and cathodic energy efficiency (CEE) analysis for formate production (SI Appendix, Figs. S36 and S37). Additionally, InO<sub>5</sub>S exhibits enhanced CO<sub>2</sub>RR activity and selectivity by effectively suppressing undesired H<sub>2</sub> and CO evolution, as shown by its consistently lower partial current densities for CO and H<sub>2</sub> production than InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub> (SI Appendix, Figs. S38 and S39). The excellent activity and selectivity of InO<sub>5</sub>S contribute to it being among the best catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR to formate reported thus far (SI Appendix, Fig. S40 and Table S8).

DFT calculations were performed to elucidate the mechanism of efficient CO<sub>2</sub>RR on InO<sub>5</sub>S. As shown in Fig. 3F, the RDS for formate production during CO<sub>2</sub>RR on InO<sub>5</sub>S was found to be only 0.19 eV, which is significantly lower than both InO<sub>6</sub> (0.27 eV, SI Appendix, Fig. S41) and InS<sub>6</sub> (0.47 eV, SI Appendix, Fig. S42). This remarkable difference promotes a seamless formate production process with improved reaction kinetics. Furthermore, COHP calculations were performed to analyze the chemical bonding and antibonding interactions of CO<sub>2</sub> at the In sites (Fig. 3G). The COHP results of InO<sub>5</sub>S revealed that bonding interactions between In–O exist in the valence states (below *E<sub>F</sub>*), while In–O antibonding states were predominant in the conduction band (above *E<sub>F</sub>*), indicating the stability in bonding configuration. Conversely, antibonding

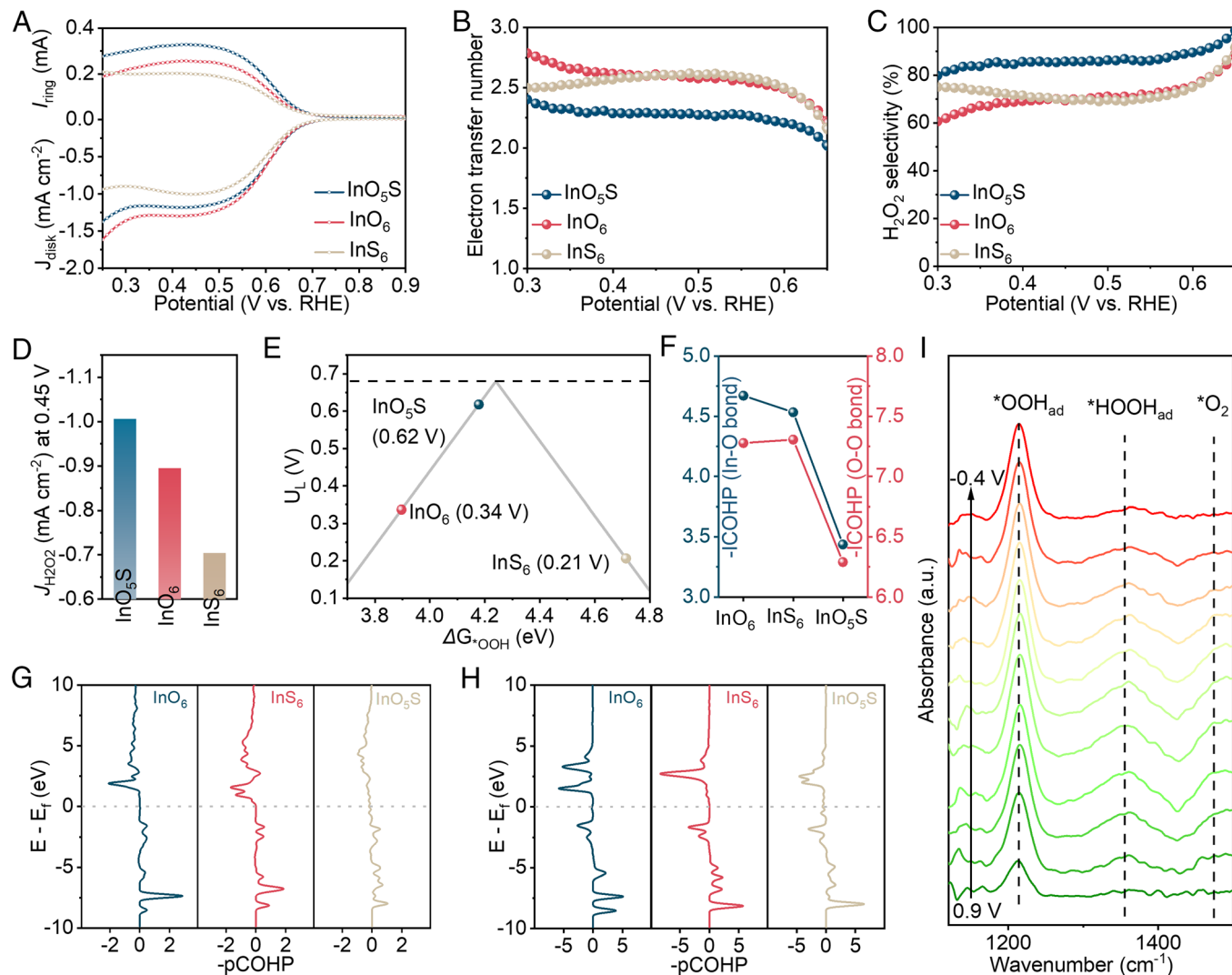
states were observed in valence states of both InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub> (Fig. 3G), leading to a weakened bond strength between In and O, consistent with CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption calculations (Fig. 3F). Besides, PDOS calculations demonstrated higher concentrations of O orbitals and increased overlap between O and In orbitals for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed on InO<sub>5</sub>S, further validating the enhanced adsorption capabilities of CO<sub>2</sub> on symmetry-breaking In sites (SI Appendix, Fig. S43).

In situ attenuated total reflection Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR) revealed a distinct chemical adsorption peak for CO<sub>2</sub> at ~2,340 cm<sup>−1</sup> on InO<sub>5</sub>S at all applied potentials (Fig. 3H and I), indicating the pronounced adsorption affinity of CO<sub>2</sub> on InO<sub>5</sub>S. The vibrational bands located at ~1,400 and 1,636 cm<sup>−1</sup>, which can be attributed to the stretching vibrations of adsorbed HCOO\* intermediates (Fig. 3H and I), exhibit a significant increase in peak area with negative shifts in potential, thereby affirming the dominant presence of HCOO\* intermediates on the InO<sub>5</sub>S surface. Moreover, no stretching vibrations of COOH\* were detected at 1,573 cm<sup>−1</sup>, suggesting that formate is produced predominantly from HCOO\* rather than COOH\*. Also, no significant adsorption of \*CO by-products was observed on the InO<sub>5</sub>S surface within the range from ~2,000 to ~2,160 cm<sup>−1</sup> (Fig. 3H and I). Taken collectively, these findings affirm the outstanding activity and selectivity of InO<sub>5</sub>S for CO<sub>2</sub>RR toward formate production, in agreement with both the experimental findings and DFT calculations.

**Electrocatalytic ORR Performance and Mechanism.** Finally, the electrochemical 2e ORR performance of InO<sub>5</sub>S was evaluated in an O<sub>2</sub>-saturated 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte using the rotating ring-disk electrode (RRDE) at 1,600 rpm. The polarization curves and corresponding ring current LSV curves shown in Fig. 4A exhibited significantly higher 2e ORR activity for InO<sub>5</sub>S compared to InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub>. Within the broad potential window ranging from 0.35 V to 0.65 V (vs. RHE, Fig. 4B and C), InO<sub>5</sub>S displayed electron transfer numbers (*n*) below 2.30, with a minimum of 2.04 attained at 0.5 V (vs. RHE). Moreover, InO<sub>5</sub>S exhibited a H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> selectivity exceeding 85.06%, reaching a maximum of 98.00%, which is significantly higher in comparison to InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub>. This observation is further confirmed by the FE (SI Appendix, Fig. S44). Notably, InO<sub>5</sub>S demonstrated the highest partial current density for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production (*j*<sub>H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub>) at 0.45 V, reaching −1.01 mA cm<sup>−2</sup> (Fig. 4D and SI Appendix, Fig. S45), which was 1.12 and 1.43 times higher than that of InO<sub>6</sub> (−0.89 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>) and InS<sub>6</sub> (0.70 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>), respectively. Additionally, the kinetic current density (*j*<sub>k</sub>, SI Appendix, Fig. S46) and Tafel slope (SI Appendix, Fig. S47) reveal the higher reaction kinetics of InO<sub>5</sub>S compared to InO<sub>6</sub> and InS<sub>6</sub>.

DFT calculations were performed to shed light onto the mechanism underlying the enhanced 2e ORR demonstrated by InO<sub>5</sub>S.

The adsorption energy of O<sub>2</sub> was found to be −0.89 eV (SI Appendix, Fig. S48) on InO<sub>5</sub>S, significantly more favorable than that of InO<sub>6</sub> (−0.39 eV) and InS<sub>6</sub> (−0.08 eV), indicative of an increased O<sub>2</sub> affinity. The two-electron and four-electron pathways were then explored to unveil the propensity for O–O bond dissociation during the ORR process (SI Appendix, Figs. S49–S52). Interestingly, the two-electron pathways render negative reaction barriers (−0.34 eV for InO<sub>6</sub>, −0.21 eV for InS<sub>6</sub> and −0.62 eV for InO<sub>5</sub>S) and thus favorable, in stark contrast to four-electron pathways with positive reaction barriers (0.32 eV for InO<sub>6</sub>, 0.40 eV for InS<sub>6</sub> and 0.31 eV for InO<sub>5</sub>S, SI Appendix, Fig. S52). Moreover, the thermodynamic limiting potential (*U*<sub>L</sub>) for the two-electron pathways was plotted as a function of  $\Delta G_{\text{OOH}}$ , whereby InO<sub>5</sub>S exhibited a moderate  $\Delta G_{\text{OOH}}$  of 4.18 eV, corresponding to an *U*<sub>L</sub> of 0.62 V for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> formation (Fig. 4E). This value is closer to the theoretical *U*<sub>L</sub> compared to InO<sub>6</sub> (0.34 eV) and InS<sub>6</sub> (0.21 eV), implying the superior 2e ORR selectivity of InO<sub>5</sub>S. Additionally, the ICOHP results in Fig. 4F show that the strength of the In–O bond in InO<sub>5</sub>S has an intermediate value of 3.43 eV, which is distinct from the stronger yet more undesirable In–O bonds in both InS<sub>6</sub> (4.53 eV) and InO<sub>6</sub> (4.67 eV). The COHP results (Fig. 4G and H) further revealed that the higher occupancy of antibonding



**Fig. 4.** Electrochemical 2e ORR performances of asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S. (A) Disk polarization curves and corresponding ring currents at different electrode rotation speeds. Electron transfer numbers (B) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> selectivity (C) at different applied potentials. (D) *j*<sub>H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> at 0.45 V (vs. RHE). (E) Limiting potentials (*U*<sub>L</sub>) as a function of  $\Delta G_{\text{OOH}}$  for InO<sub>5</sub>S, InO<sub>6</sub>, and InS<sub>6</sub>. (F) Strength of the In–O and O–O bond as elucidated by –ICOHP. COHP for In–O (G) and O–O (H). (I) Electrochemical in situ FT-IR spectra for InO<sub>5</sub>S.



orbitals in InS<sub>6</sub> and InO<sub>6</sub> resulted in stronger In–O and O–O bonds, which hindered subsequent hydrogenation and desorption of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. In agreement, limited overlap of In and O orbitals was evidenced in the PDOS plot of InS<sub>6</sub> and InO<sub>6</sub> (*SI Appendix, Fig. S53*). Simultaneously, the strength of the O–O bond was found to be the weakest in InO<sub>5</sub>S (6.29 eV), indicating the ease of further hydrogenation of the O–O bond and subsequent release of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in InO<sub>5</sub>S.

In situ ATR-FTIR spectroscopy revealed the adsorption of the \*OOH intermediate on InO<sub>5</sub>S, as evidenced by the O–O stretching vibration at ~1,220 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4I), which progressively intensified with negative shifts in potential. Additionally, an absorption band attributed to adsorbed \*H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was detected around 1,350 cm<sup>-1</sup>, further confirming the \*OOH-mediated two-electron ORR pathway, for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production on InO<sub>5</sub>S.

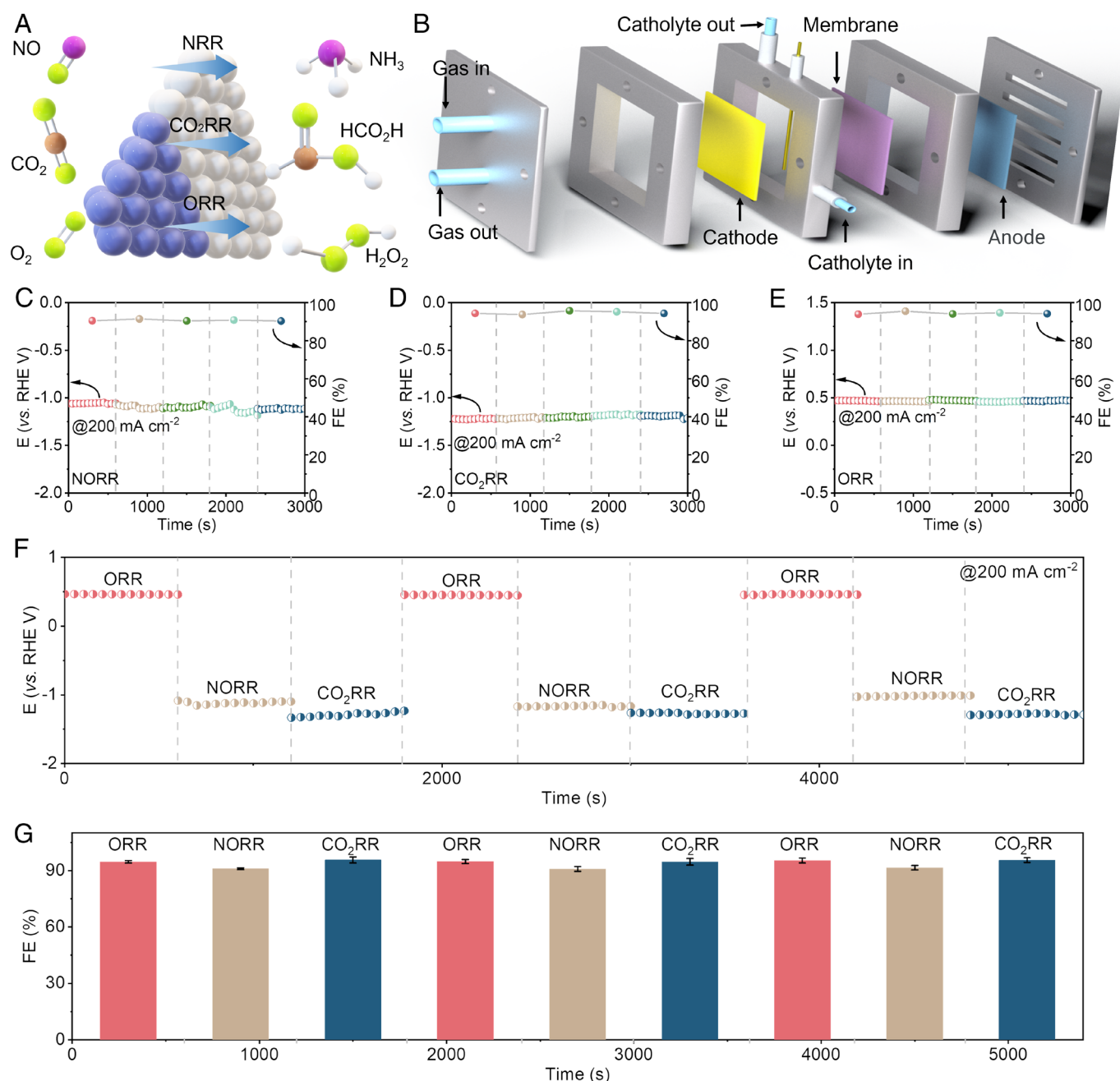
**Electrocatalytic Performance of Trifunctional Electrosynthesis Systems for Small Molecules.** Given that the asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S catalyst yields excellent trifunctional activities for NORR, CO<sub>2</sub>RR, and 2e ORR (Fig. 5A), the catalyst was coupled to the cathodic side in a flow-cell system to assess its multifaceted capabilities in producing small molecules, such as NH<sub>3</sub>, formate, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Traditional electrolysis systems are limited by their single-reactive-site nature, which constrains them to specific catalytic reactions (28–30), which hinders scalability and ability to adapt to the production of diverse small molecules, crucial for industrial applications and for generating primary and downstream chemical products. It is thus imperative to design an electrolysis system which supports diverse reactive sites. To meet this need, this study reports a flow-cell electrolysis system with InO<sub>5</sub>S catalysts coated on a gas diffusion layer serving as the cathode (indicated in yellow), enabling the switching of catalytic reactions by merely changing the type of feed gas with multiple reactive sites (Fig. 5B). This approach eliminates the need to replace catalysts or dismantle the setup to swap to a different catalytic reaction, significantly lowering production costs and enhancing operational flexibility.

As shown in Fig. 5C, the electrolysis systems maintained stable and efficient NH<sub>3</sub> production in NORR with an average FE of 90.68% and NH<sub>3</sub> yield rate of 1353.36 μmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup> at a current density of 200 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> over five continuous cycles (*SI Appendix, Fig. S54*). Afterward, by only replacing NO with CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> as feed gases, the CO<sub>2</sub>RR and 2e ORR performances were tested (in Fig. 5D and E and *SI Appendix, Figs. S55, S56*). The CO<sub>2</sub>RR and 2e ORR processes displayed a steady FE of 94.68% and 94.46% with a yield rate of 3.53 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup> for HCOO<sup>-</sup> and 3.52 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup> for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at a current density of 200 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. Compared to the best-reported catalysts, InO<sub>5</sub>S also exhibits commendable H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production activity (*SI Appendix, Table S9*). The consistency across all applied potentials indicates that InO<sub>5</sub>S can act as an effective trifunctional cathode catalyst for the continuous electrosynthesis of various small molecules (NH<sub>3</sub>, formate, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>). Furthermore, upon alternating the production of small molecules through 2e ORR, NORR, and CO<sub>2</sub>RR at a current density of 200 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, the voltage of catalysts quickly recovered and stabilized after each consecutive reaction test (Fig. 5F). The FEs (yield rate) (Fig. 5G and *SI Appendix, Fig. S57, Table S10*) observed in the three alternate tests for 2e ORR were 94.70 ± 0.63% (3.53 ± 0.02 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>), 94.83 ± 1.07% (3.54 ± 0.04 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>), and 95.40 ± 1.35% (3.53 ± 0.07 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>); for NORR were 91.00 ± 0.46% (1.36 ± 0.01 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>), 90.89 ± 1.28% (1.36 ± 0.02 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>), and 91.53 ± 1.17% (1.37 ± 0.02 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>); and for

CO<sub>2</sub>RR were 95.70 ± 1.63% (3.57 ± 0.06 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>), 94.67 ± 1.79% (3.53 ± 0.07 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>), and 95.59 ± 1.21% (3.57 ± 0.05 mmol h<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>), respectively. The collective results prove the stable and adaptable trifunctional small molecule electrosynthesis capabilities of our asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S catalyst at high current densities, establishing it as a promising candidate for flexible and demand-driven electrosynthesis of small molecules.

**Direct synthesis of Downstream Chemical Products using CO<sub>2</sub> and NO in Pure Water.** Given the exceptional trifunctional activity (NORR, CO<sub>2</sub>RR, and ORR) exhibited by the asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S in cathodic reactions, it is well prepared for producing downstream chemical products. Compared to traditional liquid electrolytes like aqueous Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, solid electrolytes containing solid ion conductors facilitate the rapid transport of cations or anions. When combined with a highly selective InO<sub>5</sub>S trifunctional catalyst, this setup can continuously produce high-purity downstream chemical products, avoiding the need for further separation from metal salts in the solvent (7, 31–33). Therefore, the asymmetrically stretched InO<sub>5</sub>S catalyst was integrated into a full-cell device equipped with a solid electrolyte to produce pure solutions of downstream chemical products. In the full-cell system (Fig. 6A), cation exchange membranes (CEM) and anion exchange membranes (AEM) were strategically positioned at the anode and cathode sides of the solid electrolyte, respectively (7, 32). Their primary function was to act as barriers, isolating the anodic and cathodic electrolytes, while concurrently ensuring the efficient transfer of protons (H<sup>+</sup>). On the cathodic side, the process involved the reduction of gases into negatively charged intermediates, which then combined with H<sup>+</sup> generated by the oxidation of H<sub>2</sub>O at the anode, to form the primary products (such as NH<sub>3</sub>, HCOOH, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>). These products are collected as the sole liquid phase products of the corresponding reactions in deionized water, effectively avoiding the typically complex separation processes associated with multiple products and salt-containing electrolytes. As demonstrated in Fig. 6A, a series of parallel full-cell devices enabled the real-time mixing of NH<sub>3</sub> and HCOOH, products of NORR and CO<sub>2</sub>RR, in deionized water to create an ammonium formate (NH<sub>4</sub>COOH) solution (NH<sub>3</sub> + HCOOH → NH<sub>4</sub>COOH) (34). This solution was then dried to produce solid NH<sub>4</sub>COOH, a key downstream chemical product widely used in fuel cells and the chemical engineering industry (35–37). Additionally, the full-cell apparatus was capable of generating pure HCOOH and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> via CO<sub>2</sub>RR and ORR, respectively (Fig. 6B). In the presence of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, these compounds underwent a chemical reaction (HCOOH + H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> → HCOOOH + H<sub>2</sub>O), producing pure peroxyformic acid (HCOOOH) solution, which is a disinfectant suitable for on-demand production in the medical and food industries (38–40).

As a validation of this concept, shown in Fig. 6C and D, in the parallel full-cell configuration (catalyst exposure area of 2 × 2 cm<sup>2</sup>), NORR and CO<sub>2</sub>RR were simultaneously executed at approximately 50 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and 20 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively, for a duration of 10 h. The selection of these current densities was based on the theoretical matching of NH<sub>3</sub> and HCOOH production, which subsequently guided the adjustment of input voltages. After experimentation, the product was freeze-dried with deionized water, which formed a white powder product (1,167 mg, inset of Fig. 6E). XRD analysis confirmed that the crystal phase of this product, synthesized through the parallel full-cell system, matched that of standard NH<sub>4</sub>COOH, with no additional peaks detected



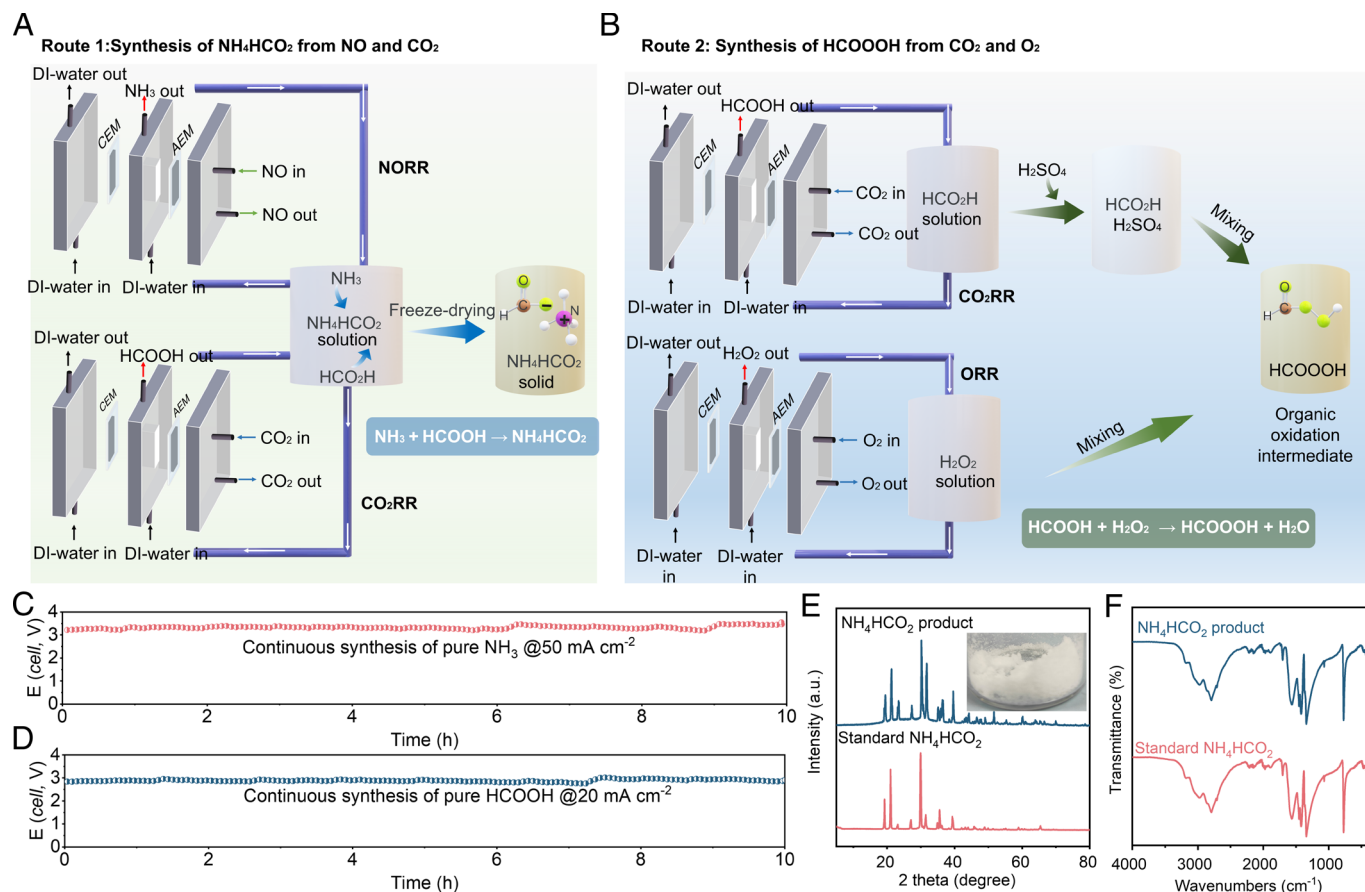
**Fig. 5.** Electrocatalytic performance of electrosynthesis systems for small molecules using asymmetrically stretched  $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$  as a trifunctional electrocatalyst. (A) Schematic diagram of the asymmetrically stretched  $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$  as a trifunctional electrocatalyst. (B) Schematic diagram of electrosynthesis system in flow-type cell configuration. Chronoamperometry curves and FEs of (C) NORR, (D)  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ , and (E) 2e ORR for five cycles at  $200 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ . (F) Chronoamperometry curves of NORR,  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ , and 2e ORR by alternating tests at  $200 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ . (G) Corresponding FEs of NORR,  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$ , and 2e ORR (experimental samples  $n = 3$ ; Significance:  $P < 0.05$ , calculated using one-way ANOVA across different cycles).

(Fig. 6E). This finding was further substantiated by FT-IR spectra (Fig. 6F). These results unequivocally confirm the potential of using asymmetrically stretched  $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$  catalysts to produce pure  $\text{NH}_4\text{COOH}$  solid, utilizing  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}$ , and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as sustainable raw materials.

## Discussion

In summary, we have developed a parallel electrolysis device designed to transform greenhouse gases, including  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}$ , and other gases, into valuable downstream chemical products. The device features asymmetrically stretched  $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$ , crafted with symmetry-breaking In sites. Electrochemical results reveal that the

symmetry-breaking In sites possess extraordinary multifunctional catalytic capabilities. Mechanistic studies revealed that the symmetry-breaking and redistribution of electronic structures result in a strong internal electric field, which significantly enhances the d-band center and adsorption of reaction intermediates, thereby promoting trifunctional catalytic activity. Consequently, when the catalyst was integrated into a flow electrolysis system, a sustained production of  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{HCOO}^-$ , and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  was observed, maintaining an FE above 90% at an industrial scale. The ability to switch catalytic reactions by solely changing the feed gas type and efficiently generating high-value chemicals like  $\text{NH}_4\text{COOH}$  demonstrates the versatility and efficiency of our system. This finding is pivotal as it addresses the challenges associated with the selective



**Fig. 6.** Electrochemical direct synthesis of downstream chemical products using  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}$ , and  $\text{O}_2$  in pure water by asymmetrically stretched  $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3$ . (A) Schematic diagram of  $\text{NH}_4\text{HCO}_2$  synthesized from  $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$ . (B) Schematic diagram of  $\text{HCOOOH}$  synthesized from  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$ . Chronoamperometry curves of (C) NORR at  $50 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  for 10 h and (D)  $\text{CO}_2\text{RR}$  at  $20 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  for 10 h. (E) XRD pattern and (F) FT-IR spectrum of the  $\text{NH}_4\text{HCO}_2$  product; the inset of (E) shows a digital image of the  $\text{NH}_4\text{HCO}_2$  product.

conversion of multiple substrates within a single system, a significant improvement over traditional systems that typically require separate setups for each reaction type.

Although the results are promising, our study has several limitations: 1) While the device demonstrated high efficiency on a laboratory scale, scaling up the system for industrial applications presents challenges. 2) The potential for converting a wider range of gases remains significant but uncertain, necessitating further exploration. To address these limitations, future research should focus on the following key areas: 1) Utilizing advanced synthesis techniques and integrating machine learning algorithms to predict optimal catalyst compositions and structures at the atomic level. This approach can develop different catalysts with enhanced stability, activity, and selectivity. 2) Experimenting with different system designs and operating parameters can maximize efficiency, scalability, and long-term stability, which is crucial for transitioning from laboratory scale to pilot scale and eventually to industrial-scale operations. 3) Exploring the potential of other gas feedstocks, such as other greenhouse gases (e.g., methane and nitrous oxide), as raw materials for electrocatalytic conversion can expand the range of high-value products and further reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

## Materials and Methods

**Catalyst Preparation.** Synthesis of indium metal-organic framework (In-MOF): A solution of 2-thiophenecarboxylic acid ( $\text{C}_5\text{H}_4\text{O}_2\text{S}$ , 2-TDC) was prepared by dissolving 100 mg of the compound in 10 mL of ethanol. This solution was then combined with a separate 20 mL ethanol solution containing 50 mg of  $\text{InCl}_3 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$

and 50 mg of  $\text{Zn}(\text{Ac})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . The resulting mixture was heated at  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for a duration of 12 h. The product was then collected and thoroughly washed with ethanol and water, respectively (average yield: 30.62 mg, [SI Appendix, Table S1](#)).

**Synthesis of asymmetrically stretched  $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3$ :** The preobtained In-MOF powder (100 mg) was heated to  $600^\circ\text{C}$  for 2 h at the heating rate of  $5^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$  under Ar atmosphere in a tube furnace and then naturally cooled to room temperature. The as-obtained products were then collected and washed with deionized water and dried in an oven at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  (average yield: 58.68 mg, [SI Appendix, Table S2](#)).

**Physical Characterization.** Morphology was observed on a field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, JEOL 7800F), transmission electron microscope (TEM), and high-resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM, Titan G2 60-300, a spherical and chromatic aberration imaging corrector). Chemical composition was determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Thermo XSERIES 2), energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS), and element mapping (150 to 230 Mx 200 kV on STEM). Crystal structure was examined by an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 Advance, Bruker, Karlsruhe, Germany 9 kw, 40 kV, 40 mA,  $\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$ ) with  $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$  radiation. Chemical state was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS, Thermo ESCALAB 250XI between 0 and 1,400 eV). The passing energy used for XPS was 100 eV for survey scans, 20 eV for region scans, and 2 eV for UPS. Organic functional groups were recorded by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR spectra, Thermofisher NICOLETIS 10 FTIR spectrometer). Ultraviolet-visible (UV-vis) absorption spectra were recorded on Agilent Cary 60.  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra were collected on a superconducting-magnet NMR spectrometer (Bruker AVANCE III HD 500 MHz).

**In Situ Attenuated Total Reflectance–Fourier Transform Infrared (ATR-FTIR) Characterization.** In situ ATR-FTIR spectra were performed using a Nicolet™ iS50 FT-IR spectrometer, equipped with a specialized reaction cell and a liquid nitrogen-cooled mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) detector. A 20 mm



diameter Au-coated Si hemispherical prism, sourced from MTI Corporation, served both as the conductive substrate for catalyst deposition and the IR reflection element. The electrochemical cell incorporated a Pt foil counter electrode, an Ag/AgCl (4 M KCl) reference electrode, and 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> as the electrolyte. Catalyst ink, with a loading density of 1 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>, was formulated according to the same procedures used in prior electrochemical analyses. In situ ATR-FTIR spectra were acquired while sweeping the working electrode potential from OCP to the entire test range at a scan rate of 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. The reaction chamber was continually flushed with ultrapure CO<sub>2</sub>/NO/O<sub>2</sub> (99.999%), and spectral alterations were monitored. The spectral acquisition range spanned 4,000 to 1,000 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

### Electrochemical Characterizations.

**Electrochemical NORR testing.** A mixture of 5 mg of testing samples and 30 μL of 5 wt% Nafion solution was dispersed in 1 mL of isopropanol/DI-water (v/v = 4: 1) mixed solutions, which were ultrasonicated for 30 min to form a uniform catalyst ink. Next, 600 μL of the above catalyst ink was transferred to a 1.0 × 3.0 cm<sup>2</sup> gas diffusion layer (GDL), where the effective catalytic area is 0.5 × 2.0 cm<sup>2</sup> and mass loading is 1 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>. Cathodic NORR was studied in a three-electrode H-type electrolytic cell under Ar- or NO-saturated conditions connected to a CHI 760E electrochemical workstation using the as-formed electrode as the working electrode, GDL as the counter electrode, Ag/AgCl/KCl (saturated) as the reference electrode, Nafion 115 membrane as the separator, 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> as electrolyte and 0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution as exhaust gas absorption chamber. The Ar or NO flow rate was kept at 20 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. All the potentials measured in this study were referenced against reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) according to the formula:

$$E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.0592 \times \text{pH} + 0.197.$$

To analyze NORR activities, linear sweep voltammograms (LSVs) were performed at a scan rate of 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup> in the potential range of -0.9 ~ 0 V (vs. RHE), and chronoamperometric test was carried out at different potentials for 1 h with continuous saturation Ar or NO flow in the electrochemical system. The electrolyte (extracted from the reaction cell and suitably diluted to bring the concentration within the range of the standard curve for ammonia) was sampled and analyzed when the reaction stabilized.

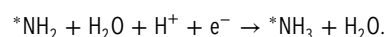
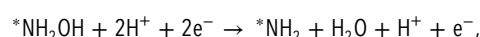
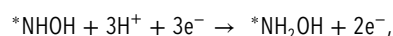
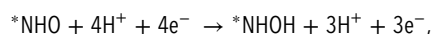
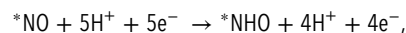
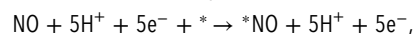
The testing of electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub>RR and ORR performance is similar to that of NORR. For details, please refer to Supporting Information section.

**Trifunctional electrocatalytic performance characterizations.** Cathodic trifunctional electrocatalytic performance of the InO<sub>3</sub>S electrode was tested in a three-electrode flow-type electrolytic cell under feed gas-saturated conditions connected to a CHI 760E electrochemical workstation. Other preparation methods are similar to the CO<sub>2</sub>RR test methods. The cyclic stability of the electrocatalytic system was evaluated by sequentially conducting NORR, CO<sub>2</sub>RR, and 2e ORR reactions five times at a current density of 200 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. After each test cycle, the electrolyte was analyzed for corresponding products, following specific analytical methods for each reaction. The flexibility of the electrocatalytic system was also assessed by alternately conducting NORR, CO<sub>2</sub>RR, and 2e ORR reactions at a current density of 200 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. This method allowed us to rigorously evaluate the system's adaptability and stability under varying electrochemical conditions, demonstrating its capability to efficiently switch between different reactions while maintaining consistent performance.

**DFT calculation details.** Theoretical calculations were performed using the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package code (41) based on the density functional theory. The Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof functional (42) was employed for the exchange-correlation potential. Valence electron configurations of the

pseudopotentials were adopted as 5 s<sup>2</sup>5p<sup>1</sup> for In, 2 s<sup>2</sup>2p<sup>4</sup> for O, 3 s<sup>2</sup>3p<sup>4</sup> for S, 2 s<sup>2</sup>2p<sup>2</sup> for C, and 1 s<sup>1</sup> for H. The vacuum thickness was set as 15 Å for InO<sub>6</sub>, InS<sub>6</sub>, and InO<sub>3</sub>S models. The cutoff energy for plane wave was 500 eV and the energy convergence was 10<sup>-4</sup> eV in both structural relaxation and self-consistent calculations. The Monkhorst-Pack K-point grids were 2 × 2 × 1, 2 × 2 × 1 and 2 × 1 × 1 for InO<sub>6</sub>, InS<sub>6</sub>, and InO<sub>3</sub>S calculations, respectively. The entropy contribution and zero-point energy correction were taken into consideration to obtain the Gibbs free energy in all catalytic reaction calculations. The reaction species with the lowest Gibbs free energy was adopted for energy barrier and electronic structure calculations. Crystal orbital Hamilton population (43) was employed to investigate the chemical bonding and antibonding contributions to the band-structure energy. The charge density difference method was used for the revelation of electron transfer with visualization for electronic and structural analysis software (44).

The reaction pathway for NORR to NH<sub>3</sub> as follows:



The reaction energy (ΔG) of each step was calculated by the free energy difference between the reactants and products after correction:

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta \text{ZPE} - T\Delta S,$$

where ΔE, ΔZPE, and TΔS stand for the adsorption energy, the zero-point energy correction, and the entropy contribution, respectively. The free energy of species H<sup>+</sup> was calculated as that of 1/2 H<sub>2</sub>.

**Data, Materials, and Software Availability.** All study data are included in the article and/or [SI Appendix](#).

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