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Journal

Angewandte Chemie International Edition, 63(41)

ISSN

1433-7851

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Publication Date

2024-10-07

DOI

10.1002/anie.202406761

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Selective CO₂ hydrogenation to ethanol over Ru-In catalysts

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Abstract: Multicomponent catalysts can be designed to synergistically combine reaction intermediates at interfacial active sites, but restructuring makes systematic control and understanding of such dynamics challenging. We here unveil how reducibility and mobility of indium oxide species in Ru-based catalysts crucially control the direct, selective conversion of CO₂ to ethanol. When uncontrolled, reduced indium oxide species occupy the Ru surface, leading to deactivation. With the addition of steam as a mild oxidant and using porous polymer layers to control In mobility, Ru/In interface sites are stabilized, and ethanol can be produced with superior overall selectivity (70%, rest CO) and single-pass yield (6%). Our work highlights how engineering of bifunctional active ensembles enables cooperativity and synergy at tailored interfaces, which unlocks unprecedented performance in heterogeneous catalysts.

An intricate balance in binding energies of different adsorbates on active site ensembles in single-phase catalysts is required to selectively convert reactants into products of interest.¹ Bifunctional catalysts partially relieve these binding energy requirements when reaction intermediates synergistically combine at interfacial active sites,² but creating appropriate interactions to drive selective transformations is challenging. To further complicate this challenge, intimacy between active components is crucial to achieve improved performance,³⁻⁵ yet complexity arises from the dynamic nature of active sites,⁶⁻⁸ and catalyst reconstruction makes systematic control and understanding of such dynamics even harder to achieve.⁹⁻¹² Using colloidal particles, we here unveil how dynamics in Ru/In-based catalyst crucially control the direct, selective conversion of CO₂ into ethanol. We demonstrate that the Ru/In interface is highly dynamic and adaptive to the reaction environment due to the reducibility and mobility of indium oxide species. When uncontrolled, reduced indium oxide species occupy the Ru surface, leading to deactivation in C-C coupling and decrease in ethanol production. With the addition of steam as a mild oxidant and using porous polymer layers to control In mobility, the Ru/In interface sites are stabilized, and ethanol can be produced with superior overall selectivity (70%) and single-pass yield (6%). Our work highlights how engineering of bifunctional active ensembles enables cooperativity and synergy at tailored interfaces, which unlocks unprecedented performance in heterogeneous catalysts.

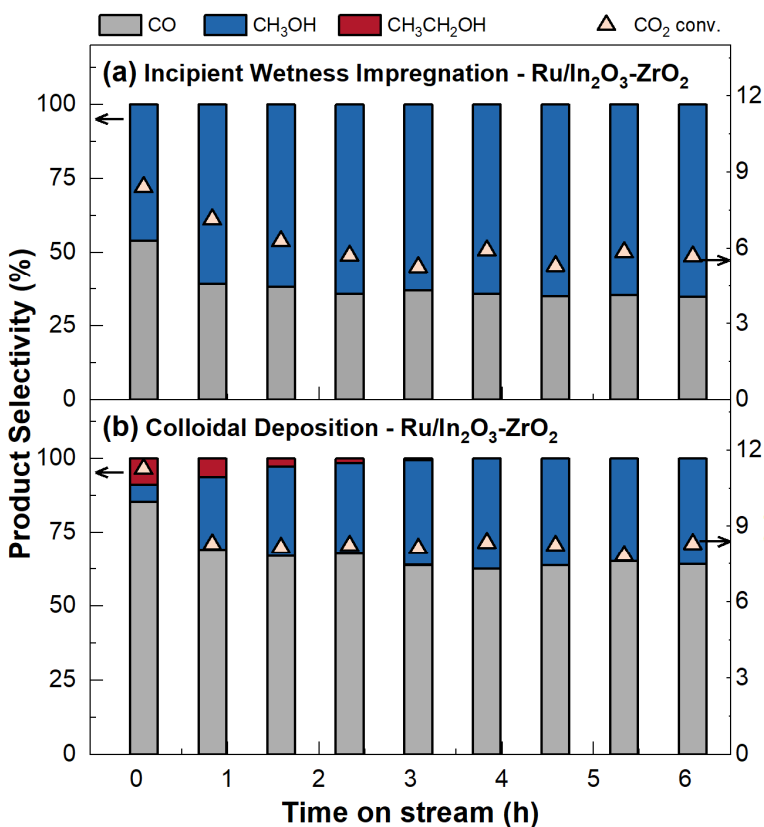
CO₂ hydrogenation to ethanol offers an economically competitive approach for producing a useful chemical building block and fuel which can complement the traditional feedstock-intensive fermentation processes.¹³ Additionally, it also has the potential to help relieve our dependence on fossil fuels and to mitigate CO₂ emissions. Ethanol formation on catalytic surfaces requires the intimate collocation of sites that can bind and couple reduced carbon fragments (like *CH₃, where * denotes a surface adsorbate), and oxidized ones (like *CO). Catalysts with sites that strongly favor one of these two common adsorbates produce mostly single-carbon products, such as methane, methanol and CO.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ Ways to improve C-C coupling between carbon adsorbates displaying different oxidation states would lead to the formation of ethanol and other compounds of greater importance and value for a sustainable future.

Multicomponent bifunctional catalysts composed of metals and oxides, such as combinations of Rh-, Ru-, Ni-, Co-based Fischer-Tropsch (FT) catalysts, and In₂O₃- or Cu-based CO₂-to-methanol (CTM) catalysts, have been reported to attempt to combine sites for producing ethanol.^{9,17–20} Although evidence suggests that intimacy between these components enhances synergy at interfaces and facilitates rapid transfer of intermediates,^{21,22} a correlation between structural intimacy and reactivity is difficult to establish. Direct deposition of FT-active metals on CTM catalysts does not enhance ethanol production,^{23–25} yet physical mixtures of similar components leads to enhanced ethanol selectivity.^{17,19} Using colloidal Ru particles on In₂O₃-ZrO₂ mixed oxide supports, we here emphasize that the dynamic nature of the catalyst interface is crucial to understand and control the catalytic performance of bifunctional catalysts.

The Dynamic Nature of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalyst

A series of Ru (0.5 wt.%)/In₂O₃ (2.5 wt.%)-ZrO₂ catalysts were prepared either by (i) incipient wetness impregnation (IWI) of a Ru (III) salt or by (ii) colloidal deposition (CD) of 6 nm Ru colloidal particles onto In₂O₃-ZrO₂ oxide support (Fig. S1,2). When tested for CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar and a H₂:CO₂ ratio of 3:1, the catalyst prepared by IWI method quickly reached steady state, with CO and methanol as the only products, in agreement with previous studies^{23,26} (Fig. 1a). The catalyst prepared by the CD method behaved notably differently, and ethanol was initially produced in 9% selectivity (and 6% for methanol, Fig. 1b). The ethanol production, however, decayed rapidly and exponentially with time on stream (Fig. 1b-c) and was replaced by methanol, whose selectivity steadily increased with time (Fig. 1b,d). The methanol production rate at steady state (240 μmol·g_{Ru}⁻¹·s⁻¹) was roughly 5 times that of the maximum ethanol production rate (46 μmol·g_{Ru}⁻¹·s⁻¹), likely as a result of three combined factors: (1) methanol could be formed on both Ru-In₂O₃ bifunctional sites and In₂O₃ sites, while ethanol likely could only be produced on the former; (2) ethanol production likely involved different rate limiting steps such as C-C coupling; (3) two moles of CO₂ are converted to produce one mole of ethanol, while only one is required to produce methanol. Simplified first-order rate models (see **Supplementary Information**) were used to evaluate the evolution of ethanol and methanol production (Fig. 1c-d). It was found that ethanol production (empirical first-order deactivation rate constant $k_{\text{EtOH}} = 0.96 \text{ h}^{-1}$) strongly and inversely correlated to methanol production ($k_{\text{MeOH}} = 1.24 \text{ h}^{-1}$). This observation suggests that active sites responsible for ethanol production were initially present in the CD catalyst, but converted on stream into active sites for methanol production. Besides the preparation method, we also studied the effect of other parameters (see Fig S3). It is worth highlighting that catalyst deactivation was strongly correlated with H₂ partial pressure but not CO₂ partial pressure, an indication that coke formation was likely not the cause for deactivation. Carbon balance analysis (Fig S4) further supported this hypothesis. Clearly, knowledge of the structure of the catalyst is

important to understand the cause



for the transformation.

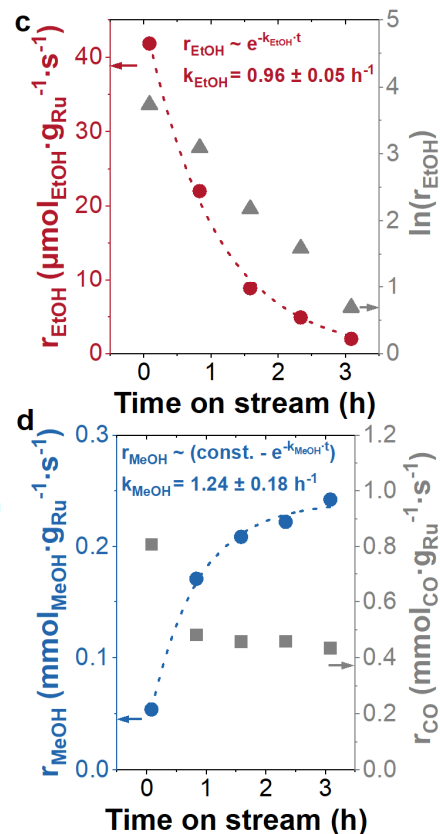


Fig. 1: Distinct catalytic behaviors of Ru-In catalysts. **a,b** CO₂ conversion and product selectivity of (a) incipient wetness impregnated (IWI) and (b) colloiddally deposited (CD) Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalysts as a function of time on stream at 523 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂. **c** Ethanol production rate of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst as a function of time (derived from b). Dotted line is the fit of ethanol production rate using first-order decay model and k_{EtOH} is the kinetic rate constant. **d** Methanol and CO production rate of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst as a function of time (derived from b). Dotted line is the fit of methanol production rate using self-limiting first-order growth model and k_{MeOH} is the kinetic rate constant.

The Mobility and Reducibility of Indium Species

The structure of the Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst was rigorously examined to understand the change in reactivity and deactivation of ethanol production. We chose to analyze the catalyst at time intervals before the reaction (0 minute), when it started to deactivate (5 minutes), and when it had completely deactivated (180 minutes). *Ex-situ* Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) analysis of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst at these different stages revealed that Ru colloidal particles ($5.8 \pm 0.7 \text{ nm}$) retained their size upon deposition onto In₂O₃-ZrO₂ support ($5.8 \pm 0.9 \text{ nm}$) but became less uniform ($5.9 \pm 1.9 \text{ nm}$) after 5 minutes of reaction on stream (Fig. S2). After 180 minutes of reaction, Ru particles were found to be notably larger and polydisperse ($9.1 \pm 4.2 \text{ nm}$) (Fig. S2). Indium species are difficult to differentiate against ZrO₂ supports with TEM due to

similar contrast and Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (STEM) and Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDS) was instead used to understand the distribution of indium species (see Fig S5 for representative EDS spectrum).

By combining *ex-situ* High Angle Annular Dark Field (HAADF)-STEM and EDS mapping characterization, we found that the 0 minute catalyst contained areas where Ru and In were either present individually, or mixed together on the surface of the ZrO₂ support (Fig. 2a-d and Fig. S6). Since Ru and In components were sequentially deposited, it is reasonable that Ru particles and In₂O₃ particles assumed a random distribution on the support. As expected from colloidal synthesis, supported individual Ru nanoparticles can be found with high-resolution (HR)-STEM (Fig. 2e), and the composition was further verified with Electron Energy Loss Spectroscopy (EELS) (Fig 2f). A different picture of the catalyst structure was however obtained for the samples after 5 and 180 minutes of reaction. Rearrangement of the surface species was clearly observed in the 5 minute sample (Fig 2 g-k) and, to a higher degree, after 180 minutes under reaction (Fig 2 m-l), with Ru particles that were found to be fully surrounded by indium species. Fig 2k and 2q are HR-STEM images of representative Ru particles that evidence the presence of a core-shell structure, where amorphous indium oxide species appear to cover the surface of Ru species in the core. Dashed lines were added to guide the eye at the boundaries between high and low contrast regions, whose composition was further verified by the presence of Ru-K and In-M features in the core and shell, respectively (Fig 2 l and r; see additional details on element identification in Fig S7). A prolonged reaction time of 180 minutes did not appear to alter the observed core-shell structure (Fig. 2k and 2q), but the core was observed to have notably grown from 7.6 nm to 12.3 nm (Fig S2). Taken all together, microscopic analysis unambiguously demonstrates that indium species are mobile during the reaction, and they quickly migrate from the ZrO₂ support towards the Ru particles, forming core-shell structures under reaction conditions that are reminiscent of strong metal-support interaction (SMSI) states.^{27,28}

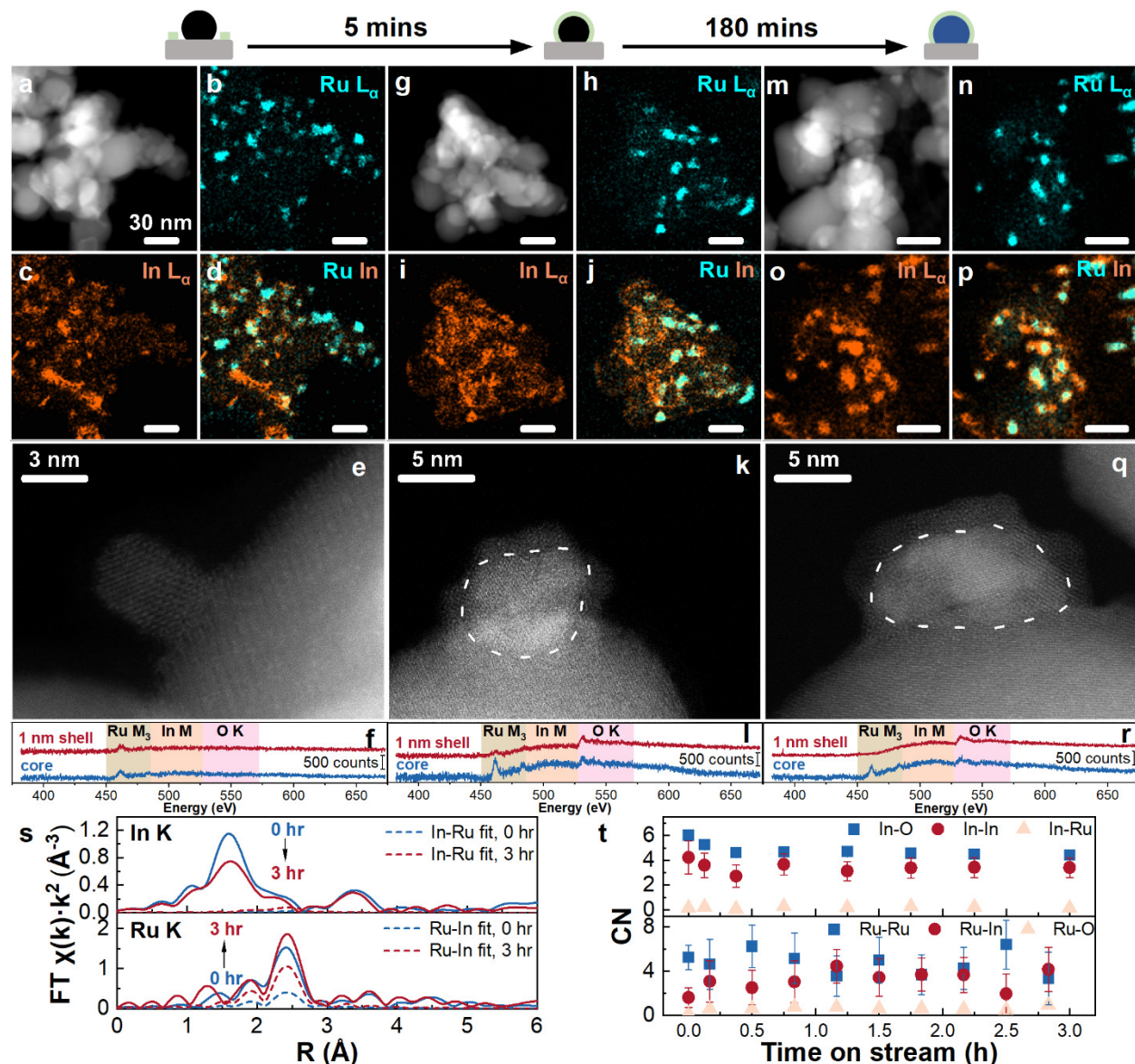


Fig. 2: Characterization of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst at different stages of reaction. **a,g,m** Representative STEM images, **b-d,h-j,n-p** Ru L_α and In L_α EDS maps of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst after (**a-d**) 0 minute, (**g-j**) 5 minutes and (**m-p**) 180 minutes of reaction at 523 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂. All scale bars are 30 nm unless noted otherwise **e,k,q** Representative HR-STEM images of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst after (**e**) 0 minute, (**k**) 5 minutes and (**q**) 180 minutes of reaction. **f,l,r** EELS spectra of the catalyst shown in (**e**), (**k**), (**q**) respectively. Dashed lines in (**k**) and (**q**) are intentionally added to highlight the boundary between portions that show different contrasts. Spectra in red were taken from areas that are within 1 nm in depth from the Ru-In₂O₃ ensemble surface, while spectra in blue were from areas that are in the core. Spectra offset for clarity. (**s**) Comparison of Ru-In scattering paths of operando In-K edge and Ru-K edge EXAFS during CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂. Solid traces are experimental data and dotted traces are fitted Ru-In scattering paths. (**t**) summary of fitted In-O,

In-In, In-Ru, Ru-Ru, Ru-In and Ru-O coordination numbers as a function of time on stream during CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂.

It is however worth noting that ex-situ microscopy analysis only revealed the distribution of Ru and In species, whose chemical states during CO₂ hydrogenation require *operando* techniques to be characterized. Thus, *operando* XAS was used to interrogate the chemical state of Ru and In species and unveil the driving force responsible for the structural transformation (Fig. 2s,t, Fig. S8-10 and Table S1-3). When examining the In K-edge, a decrease in intensity in the Fourier-transform at peaks centered at 2 Å and 3.2 Å was found as the reaction proceeded (Fig. 2s). This decrease can be attributed to the reduction of In (III), the formation of oxygen vacancies and the decrease in crystallinity of indium oxide particles.²⁹ The Ru K-edge showed instead an increase in amplitude, in line with the observed core-shell growth and particle enlargement process evidenced by HAADF-STEM (Fig. 2o). By fitting the Ru K-edge and using different potential scattering patterns (Ru-O, Ru-Ru and Ru-In), we were able to identify that the amplitude increase was mainly due to the formation of metallic Ru-In alloy species (~40% of Ru total coordination). See Fig S10 and table S3 for additional information on the identification of Ru-In scattering path.

The coordination numbers for hypothesized In and Ru species at different stages allowed us to evaluate the rate of In₂O₃ reduction and Ru-In alloy formation (Fig. 2t and Table S1,2). The decrease of In-O, In-In, Ru-Ru and the increase of Ru-In coordination numbers occurred rapidly within the first 30 mins, which qualitatively agreed with the rapid deactivation in ethanol production (Fig. 1), and the rapid increase in methanol production (Fig. S9e). We postulate that upon the initial contact of reactants on stream, Ru particles dissociate hydrogen and catalyze the reduction of indium oxide species, which quickly migrate towards Ru and eventually encapsulate it, forming the core-shell Ru@In₂O_{3-x} structure (*x* denotes the fraction of oxygen vacancies that result from indium oxide reduction). The structural change did not stop until interfacial indium was slowly and sequentially further reduced to a metallic state and alloyed to the Ru core, overall leading to the formation of Ru-In alloys surrounded by partially reduced indium oxide species (Ru-In@In₂O_{3-x}).

Catalysts based on metallic In alloys reported in the literature, including Ru-In²⁶, Pd-In³⁰ and Ni-In²⁵, have been described to produce only methanol and to not perform C-C coupling. Indium likely occupies the surface or subsurface sites in these alloy systems,³¹ which prohibits CO adsorption and dissociation and limits C-C coupling and therefore ethanol production. To correlate the observed structure evolution to the reactivity changes, we propose that the active phase for ethanol production is a Ru-In₂O₃ interface structure that is quickly formed *in-situ*, while the excessive reduction of indium and the formation of Ru-In alloys lead to methanol formation. It is worth mentioning that the reason that Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalyst prepared with IWI method did not, even transiently, produce ethanol is likely because Ru was highly dispersed and Ru-In ensembles were already formed during the synthesis of such catalyst (Fig. S1), which helps explain why there is no precedent in the literature of using these alloys for ethanol production.

Steam Stabilizes Ru-In₂O₃ Interfaces

We propose that regulating the degree of indium oxide reduction, while leaving Ru in its metallic state, is the key to stabilizing the intermediate Ru-In₂O_{3-x} interface structure and ethanol production. The challenge is that the highly reducing chemical potential under CO₂ hydrogenation conditions strongly promotes deep reduction of In species. Specifically, although CO₂ is a weak oxidizer, it alone could not efficiently regulate the chemical state of indium, as demonstrated by temperature-programmed oxidation experiments in Fig S11. We invoke that the introduction of H₂O (steam) allows for the regulation of indium reduction through Le Chatelier's principle, since the reverse reaction of In₂O₃ reduction, which is the oxidation of metallic indium by water, is kinetically feasible at the relevant conditions for ethanol production.³² It is also worth mentioning that the addition of steam is not expected to interfere with the thermodynamic distribution of products.³³ When 5% steam was used as a mild oxidant, hydrogen was generated from a deactivated Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst, but not from a Ru/ZrO₂ CD catalyst, indicating that In was selectively oxidized by steam (Fig. 3a). We further evaluated the effect of the concentration of added steam on the ethanol production (Fig. 3b). The introduction of steam readily decreased the deactivation rate of ethanol production and prolonged the half-life of the catalyst. 10% steam was the optimum concentration value under our conditions. It is likely that excess amounts of steam either compete with CO₂ hydrogenation or promote structural transformations that lead to In immobility.

The addition of 10% steam enabled us to investigate the structure of the catalyst that produced ethanol at a steady rate. *Ex-situ* STEM-EDS showed that aggregation of Ru and In species could still be discerned after 180 minutes of reaction (Fig. 3c-f), suggesting that the mobility of indium species was not completely avoided, a crucial aspect for the *in-situ* formation of Ru-In₂O_{3-x} active interfaces. HR-STEM revealed that 10% steam, however, dramatically changed the structure of these ensembles (Fig. 3g), demonstrating that the Ru particles remained mostly unchanged in size and morphology compared to the initial catalyst state (see also Fig. S2). Only a thin layer of indium oxide was found to partially decorate the Ru surface by EELS analysis (Fig. 3h). *Operando* XAS (Fig 3i,j, Fig S12,13 and Table S4,5) revealed that a minor decrease (10%) in the In-O shell contribution intensity was found through In K-edge analysis in the catalyst tested with 10% steam (Fig. 3i). Ru K-edge remained identical for 180 minutes of reaction (Fig. 3i). Besides a minor decrease in the In-O coordination number within the first hour (from 5.8 ± 0.2 to 5.4 ± 0.1), In-In and In-Ru coordination numbers remained stable around 5.1 ± 0.1 and 0.2 ± 0.1 , respectively, indicating no major changes in the In environment. At the same time, Ru-Ru coordination numbers remained constant at 8.1 ± 1.2 , while Ru-In interactions (0.1 ± 0.8), likely present at the Ru-In interface, only accounted for 1% contribution to the total Ru coordination numbers (Fig. 3j). Meanwhile, deactivation in ethanol production was not discerned during *operando* XAS experiments (Fig. S12e). All evidence suggests that In₂O₃ remained stable, Ru remained mostly metallic, and that Ru-In alloys were not formed. We conclude that Ru-In₂O_{3-x} interfaces with a controlled reduction are the active site ensemble necessary for ethanol production.

In-situ DRIFTS during CO₂ hydrogenation revealed the uniqueness of such spatial and compositional arrangements of Ru and In species. Under CO₂ hydrogenation conditions at 6 bar without steam, three main adsorption bands were detected. Extrapolating from relevant studies on Ru-Sn catalysts³⁴, we attributed the three bands to *CO adsorbed on oxidized Ru at the Ru-In₂O₃

interface (2051 cm^{-1}), $^*\text{CO}$ adsorbed on metallic Ru in Ru-In alloys (2007 cm^{-1}), and $^*(\text{CO})_2$ adsorbed on Ru-In alloy sites (1963 cm^{-1}) (Fig 3k). Although the exclusive presence of Ru-In sites reflected the intimacy between In and Ru species, ethanol was likely not produced from these sites, as it would be unlikely for intermediate $^*\text{CO}$ species to dissociate or couple, due to the lack of Ru-Ru neighboring sites.³⁴ C_1 oxygenates like CO and methanol would be the only products of such structures (Fig 1a). Instead, with 10% additional steam to preserve the Ru-In₂O₃ interface, one additional bridged $^*\text{CO}$ adsorbed on Ru-Ru sites ($1828 - 1921\text{ cm}^{-1}$), which is crucial for $^*\text{CO}$ dissociation and C-C coupling, was detected (Fig. 3k). Since the presence of Ru-Ru sites is inversely correlated to the fraction of Ru-In alloys formed, it is reasonable that they can only be found in Ru-In₂O₃ ensembles stabilized by steam. These observations further reinforce our hypothesis that the intimacy between In₂O₃ and Ru ensures a rapid transfer of intermediates, so that ethanol is produced from the coupling events on Ru-Ru sites at the Ru-In₂O₃ interface.

To summarize, synergistic effects from Ru and In₂O₃ that overcome linear scaling require stable and intimate Ru-In₂O₃ interfaces, whereas incorporation of metallic indium deactivates Ru for ethanol production. This reduction of indium could either occur unintentionally from the reductive pre-treatments usually conducted on IWI catalysts, or from *in-situ* reduction by the CO₂ hydrogenation reaction mixture, both leading to the formation of Ru-In alloy (Fig. 3l). The addition of steam regulates the In₂O₃ reducibility, preventing excessive reduction and maintaining the Ru-In₂O₃ interface, which is the active phase for ethanol production.

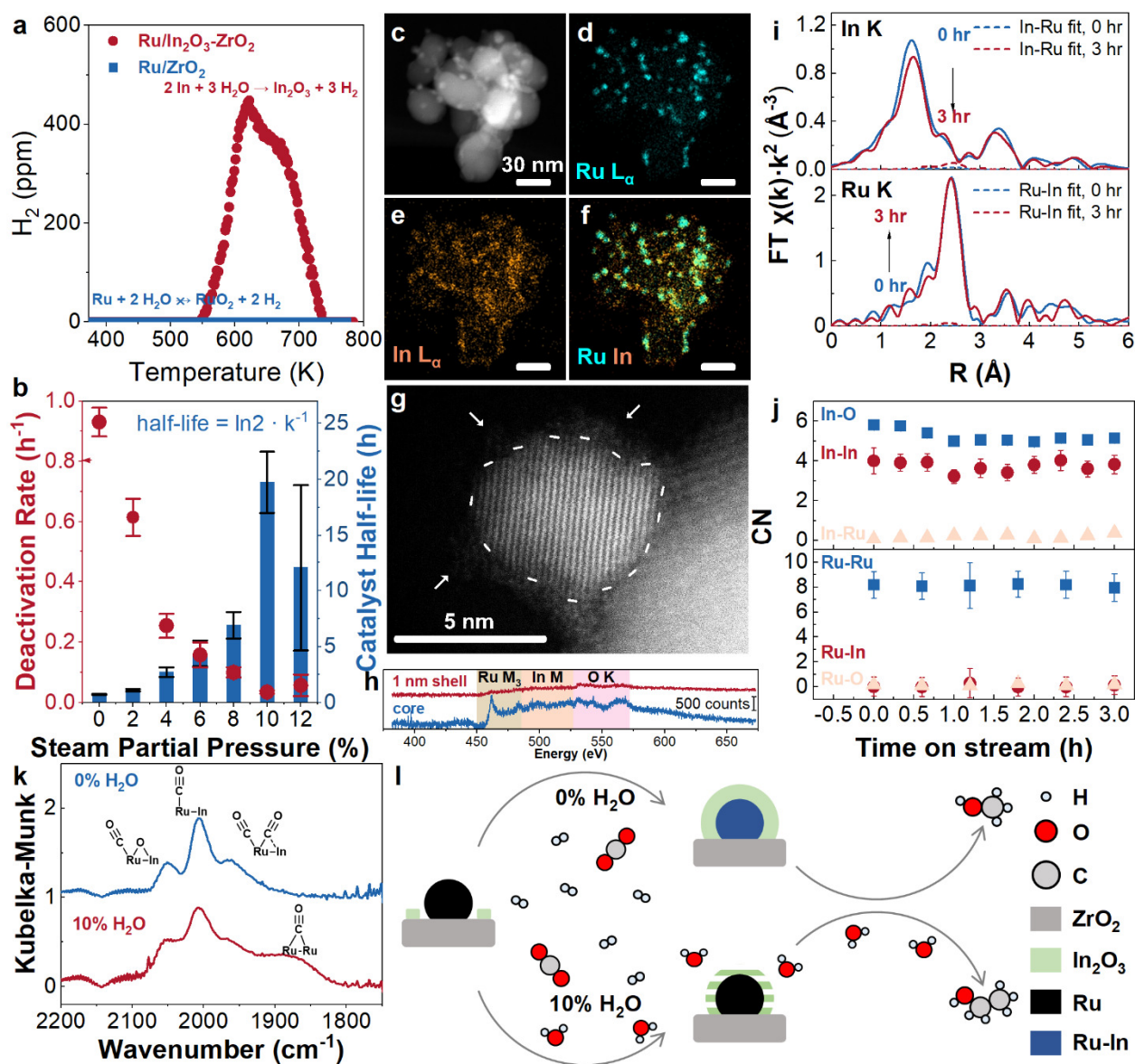


Fig. 3: The addition of steam stabilizes Ru-In₂O₃ interface for ethanol production. **a** Hydrogen evolution as the result of metal re-oxidation by 5% steam during temperature-programmed-oxidation (TPO) experiment. Catalysts were previously intentionally deactivated by H₂ reduction at 673 K **b** Effect of steam concentration on the deactivation rate and half-life of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst for CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and steam. **c** Representative STEM image, **d-f** Ru L_α and In L_α EDS maps, **g** representative HR-STEM image and **h** EELS spectra of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst after 180 minutes of reaction at 498 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% steam. EELS spectra in red were taken from areas that are within 1 nm depth from the Ru-In₂O₃ ensemble surface, while spectra in blue were from areas that are in the core. **i** Comparison of Ru-In scattering paths of *operando* In-K edge and Ru-K edge EXAFS at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% steam. Solid traces are experimental data and dotted traces are fitted Ru-In scattering paths. **j** summary of fitted In-O, In-In, In-Ru, Ru-

Ru, Ru-In and Ru-O coordination numbers as a function of time on stream. **k** CO-adsorption region of the *in-situ* DRIFTS spectra of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂, without (blue) or with (red) added 10% steam. **i** Schematic illustration of structural evolution of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst.

Stable and Selective Ethanol Production

In previous work, we demonstrated that encapsulation of supported metal catalysts within porous organic polymers leads to increased C-C coupling probability during CO₂ hydrogenation on Ru/TiO₂ catalysts.³⁵ We hypothesized that the polymer layers could have a similar function in the current system and further enhance the performance of the Ru-In₂O₃ interface.³⁵ Hence, we encapsulated the Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalyst within an imine-based porous organic polymer (IPOP) layer (Fig S14). Uniform polymer layers can be found encapsulating Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalyst, with Ru particles being still distinguishable (Fig 4a). The encapsulation indeed effectively enhanced ethanol selectivity and catalyst stability even without additional steam (Fig S15). The catalyst remained structurally intact when 10% steam was added, and neither morphological changes (Fig 4d) nor compositional changes (Fig. S14,16,17 and Table S6,7) could be discerned after 24 hours of reaction at 498 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% steam.

Reaction conditions including temperature, pressure, WHSV and reactant ratio were then studied and optimized (Fig S18). We report here that under optimized conditions, this catalyst system showed 70% ethanol selectivity (with 30% CO as the only by-product) at 8% conversion from steam-assisted CO₂ direct hydrogenation (Fig 4b). The performance of this IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ is superior to all reports in this field (see comparison in Table S8), and only slightly decreased after 24 hours on stream (Fig 4c). It is also worth noting that albeit slight deactivation, no by-products other than CO were detected.

Overall, for the first time, we report the discovery of near-exclusive ethanol production on Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalysts. The encapsulation of metallic ruthenium by In₂O₃ facilitates a rapid transfer of reaction intermediates, maximizing the synergy at the Ru-In₂O₃ interfacial sites, which lays a strong foundation for the systematic understanding of CO₂ direct hydrogenation into C₂₊ oxygenates. We also wish to highlight that the traditional impregnation-calcination-reduction approaches could overlook transient active sites formed during the synthesis steps. Colloidal approaches help uncover unexpected findings as they provide better control and precise understanding of the initial state of as-synthesized catalysts. This work provides a novel way to design multifunctional catalysts to circumvent linear scaling for chemical production with unprecedented activity and selectivity.

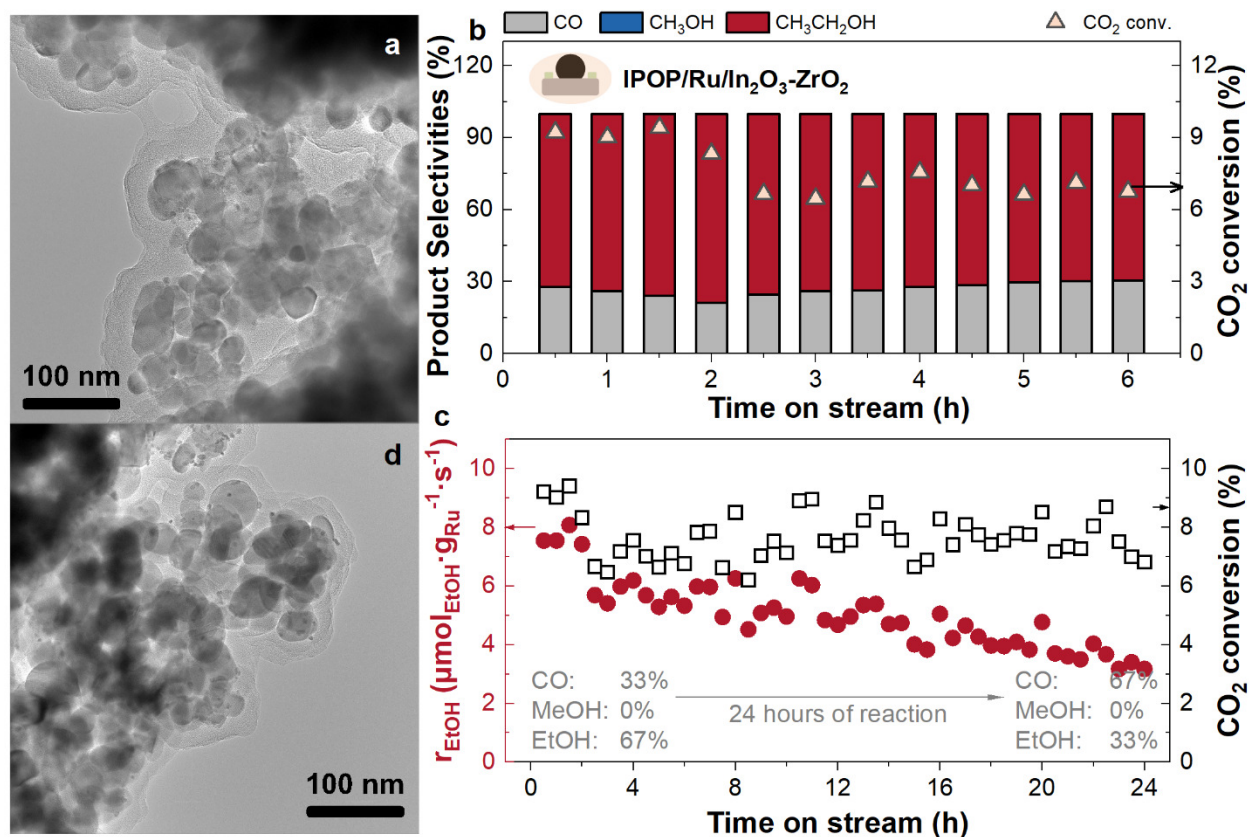


Fig. 4. Stable and selective ethanol production with IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst from steam-assisted CO₂ hydrogenation. **(a,d)** Representative TEM images of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalyst **(a)** as-synthesized and **(d)** after 24 hours of reaction at 498 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% steam. **(b)** CO₂ conversion and product selectivity of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalyst in the first 6 hours of catalysis test at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% steam. **(c)** CO₂ conversion and ethanol production rate of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalyst as a function of time during 24 hours of continuous test at 498 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% steam. Selectivity for all products at the 1st and 24th hour of reaction is also provided in **(c)**.

Methods

Catalyst preparation

Preparation of In₂O₃-ZrO₂ oxide

In₂O₃-ZrO₂ oxide supports were prepared using incipient wetness impregnation of In(NO₃)₃·xH₂O (Sigma, x was determined to be 5 from TGA analysis.) Note that this chemical is hygroscopic, and we recommend measuring the degree of hydration before use. Typically, In(NO₃)₃·xH₂O (65.5 mg on anhydrous basis) was dissolved in 1 mL of ethanol and added dropwise onto 1 g of ZrO₂ on a glass petri dish. A glass rod was used to break down aggregations of ZrO₂ and to gently mix the powder. The sample was then dried at 353 K overnight, transferred into an alumina crucible and calcined in static air at 873K for 2 hours using a ramp rate of 5 K·min⁻¹ to obtain 2.5 wt.% In₂O₃-ZrO₂.

Preparation of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ IWI catalyst

Ru was deposited on In₂O₃-ZrO₂ support via the incipient wetness impregnation of Ru(NO)(NO₃)₃ (Sigma) in an aqueous solution, targeting a 0.5 wt% Ru loading. Typically, 15.7 mg of Ru(NO)(NO₃)₃ was dissolved in 1 mL of water, and added dropwise onto 1 g of ZrO₂ on a glass petri dish. A glass rod was used to break down aggregations of ZrO₂ and to gently mix the powder. The sample was dried at 353 K overnight, transferred into an alumina crucible and calcined in static air at 583 K for 5 hours with a ramp rate of 5 K·min⁻¹. The sample was then reduced in a tube furnace under a flow of 30 ml·min⁻¹ 5% H₂ for 2 hours at 523 K with a ramp rate of 10 K·min⁻¹.

Preparation of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst

6 nm colloidal Ru nanoparticles were prepared by thermal decomposition of Ru₃(CO)₁₂ via colloidal synthesis using standard Schlenk techniques. Briefly, 32 mL of oleylamine (OLAM, 70%) was added to 160 mg of Ru₃(CO)₁₂ (99%, Sigma-Aldrich) in a three-neck flask. The reaction content was degassed (<2 Torr) for 30 min at room temperature. The flask was then flushed with nitrogen, heated to 543 K at a rate of ~20 K·min⁻¹ and kept at this temperature for 30 minutes before cooling down to RT. The particles were purified by precipitation with ethanol (total volume 30 ml) followed by centrifugation (8000 rpm, 3 min) and redissolution in hexanes for three times, and finally dispersed in hexanes. The concentration of Ru in this hexanes suspension was measured by TGA analysis.

Targeting at 0.5 wt% Ru, 5mg of Ru nanoparticles in hexanes were added dropwise into a suspension of 1 g In₂O₃-ZrO₂ in 100 ml hexanes under vigorous stirring. The mixture was allowed to stir for 30 minutes once all Ru was added. The catalysts were collected by centrifugation at 8000 rpm for 3 mins, dried at 353 K overnight, and thermally treated for 30 s at 973 K in an air furnace to remove organic ligands.

Preparation of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst

Polymer encapsulation was adapted from our previous work.³⁵ 450 mg of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ CD catalyst together with 88 mg of benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxaldehyde and 88 mg of p-

phenylenediamine were added into 24 mL of 1,4-dioxane and sonicated for 5 min until full dispersion/dissolution. The solution was further stirred for 30 min under room temperature to promote adsorption of organic monomers and oligomers onto inorganic substrates. 0.6 mL of acetic acid was then added as Brønsted acid catalyst for imine condensation. The polymerization was allowed to proceed for 90 min, after which products were collected by centrifugation and subsequently washed with methanol and filtered for 3 rounds. The samples were finally dried at 353K under dynamic vacuum conditions for 12 hours.

Catalyst characterization

TEM

Bright-field transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were collected using an FEI Titan ETEM instrument at 300 kV. The samples were suspended in isopropyl alcohol and drop casted onto ultrathin lacey carbon supported on a 400-mesh nickel grid for all measurements.

HAADF-STEM-EDS

High angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) images and energy dispersive spectroscopy maps (EDS mapping) were acquired using a FEI TitanX equipped with SuperEDS detector at 300 kV at the National Center for Electron Microscopy (NCEM) at the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory (LBNL). Map acquisition was typically ~ 5 min at a beam current of 330 pA. Samples were prepared for analysis by dispersing the powder on lacey C/Cu grids by shaking a small amount of powder sample with a TEM grid in a small scintillation vial. Bruker Esprit 1.9 software was used to process and quantify the EDS maps using the following approach. First, a fit of the Brems-strahlung background X-rays was subtracted from the hyperspectral images using pre-defined fitting regions where no characteristic X-ray peaks appeared. Corrections for escape peaks, pileup peaks, shelf, tail, and shift errors were applied. Since Ru and In atomic concentrations are far lower than ZrO₂, a peak deconvolution routine was used to remove any contribution from Zr L-edge to Ru and In L-edges. Figure S11 shows a typical spectrum from the summed pixels in a map.

STEM-EELS

HAADF-STEM-EELS data were collected at the Molecular Foundry on the TEAM I instrument, which is a double-corrected transmission electron microscope on the Thermo Fisher Titan platform with a Gatan Continuum GIF. HAADF-STEM images were collected at 300kV with a convergence semiangle of 17 mrad and a collection angle of 110-400 mrad and 15 microseconds per pixel dwell time. Electron energy loss spectra were recorded on a post-GIF K3 detector in electron counting mode with a dispersion of 0.18 eV per pixel. Spectrum images were acquired using an 80 pA probe current, a 50 ms dwell time and 2 nm pixels with 16 × 16 sub-scanning of each STEM pixel. The spectrometer was operated in dual-EELS mode to recorded both the elastic (zero-loss) and core-loss portion of the spectrum. ZLP-lock processing engaged during acquisition to dynamically correct shifts in the zero-loss energy before summation of individual electron-counted spectral. A power-law background was subtracted from summed spectra using a window of at least 50 eV below the Ru M-edge. EELS map data processing method can be found in Fig S7 for details.

Operando XAS

Operando X-ray absorption measurements at Ru K-edge (11.564 keV) and In K-edge (27.940 keV) were performed at beamline 9-3 of the Stanford Synchrotron Radiation Lightsource at the SLAC National Laboratory. Beamline 9-3 is a 16-pole, 2-tesla wiggler beamline with a vertically collimating mirror for harmonic rejection and a cylindrically bent mirror for focusing. Incident photon energy was selected by the liquid-nitrogen cooled, double-crystal Si(220) monochromator at crystal orientation of $\theta = 90^\circ$. The catalyst sample was pressed, crushed, and sized between 80 and 120 mesh sieves. Approximately 70 mg of the sieved sample was loaded to make a 9-mm bed in a 3-mm quartz tube, held in place by two plugs of quartz wool. The capillary was loaded into a custom-built flow-reactor reactor. The reactor was mounted on the sample stage at a 45° angle relative to the X-ray beam. Spectra were collected in fluorescence detection mode, with Ge detector orthogonal (90°) to the beam path with a 10-cm Soller slit for Ru-K edge and PIPS detector for In-K edge. The beam size of 1 mm [v] by 3 mm [h] was used. Ar-filled ion chambers were used to measure the incident X-ray intensity and the Ru foil and In foil reference, which was scanned simultaneously with the sample for energy calibration. Gas flow rates were controlled using mass flow controllers (Brooks) and temperature was controlled with a Eurotherm PID controller. To monitor the gas flows, a mass-spectrometer (Hiden QGA) was used throughout the experiment. During each experiment, catalysts were first heated to desired temperatures in a flow of 20 ml/min He, then pressurized to 6 bar. 4 EXAFS scans were collected and used to represent the initial (0 min) state of the catalyst. EXAFS scans were then continuously collected while gas flow was switched to 3:1 H₂:CO₂. For steam-assisted experiments, 10% steam was also introduced with a stainless-steel saturator, and gas components were also analyzed with Agilent 8890 GC system. Experiments were always performed with fresh catalysts for both Ru-K and In-K edge.

The XAS data was processed using the Athena software of the Demeter package. The EXAFS spectra were energy calibrated, merged, and normalized. In-K scans were merged in groups of 10, while Ru-K was not merged. The normalized EXAFS spectra were modeled using the Artemis software of the Demeter package.

S_0^2 was calculated to be 0.76 ± 0.06 by fitting Ru foil, and 0.98 ± 0.09 In foil. For modelling EXAFS of different states, scattering paths generated from Ru_mp-33.cif, RuO₂_mp825.cif, In₂O₃_mp-22598.cif and RuIn₃_mp-607450.cif from the materials project were used. EXAFS from different time-on-stream within same experiment were analyzed and fit together, sharing ΔE_0 , reduced χ^2 and R factors. Additionally, same paths from different spectra share identical R and σ^2 .

TPO

Temperature-programmed-oxidation (TPO) experiments were conducted under atmospheric pressure in a U-shaped quartz glass reactor with a 1-cm inner diameter using 150–200 mg of catalyst powder. The catalyst bed temperature was measured using a K-type thermocouple inserted into the middle of the reactor bed. Prior to the experiment, catalysts were reduced at 673 K with 40 ml·min⁻¹ 5% H₂ for 2 hours. Under 30 ml·min⁻¹ 5% H₂O balanced with Ar, the reactor was

heated at 6 K/min from 373 to 773 K. Gas composition was analyzed with a mass-spectrometer (Hiden QGA).

DRIFTS

Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS) was performed in a Praying Mantis DRIFTS system (Harrick). Samples were loaded into a high temperature and pressure reaction cell with ZnSe windows. Gas flow rates were controlled using EL-Flow series mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst). Background spectra was acquired at 498 K with KBr under N₂ flow. For in-situ CO₂ hydrogenation measurements without steam, feed gas consisted of 30 ml·min⁻¹ N₂ was introduced, and the sample cell was gradually pressurized and heated. Once at 6 bar and 498 K, the feed gas was then switched to 30 ml·min⁻¹ 3:1 H₂:CO₂. IR spectra were collected throughout the sample treatment process using a Bruker Vertex 70 spectrometer with a liquid nitrogen-cooled mercury-cadmium-telluride (MCT) detector. Each spectrum was measured by averaging 200 scans over the range 600-4400 cm⁻¹. For CO₂ hydrogenation measurements with steam while avoiding potential corrosion of ZnSe window by high-temperature steam, the catalyst was allowed to react ex-situ at 498 K under 6 bar and 30 ml·min⁻¹ 3:1 H₂:CO₂ with 10% steam for 1 hour, and transferred to IR instrument under the protection of Ar. IR spectra were collected immediately.

Reactivity Measurements

Catalytic experiments were conducted in a custom-made stainless-steel reactor with an internal diameter of 1 cm. Approximately 0.2 g – 1.0 g of catalysts were loaded into the reactor in between two layers of granular acid-washed quartz. The amount of catalyst was adjusted to make sure conversions were below 10% unless noted otherwise. No pretreatments were performed prior to reaction, and catalysts were carefully brought to reaction conditions while minimizing the exposure to any environments that might lead to compositional or structural changes. Specifically, the reactor was heated to reaction temperature (523 or 498 K) under 40 ml·min⁻¹ Ar. The feed gas was then switched to 40 ml·min⁻¹ 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and the reactor was gradually pressurized to 6 bar for ~10 minutes. Once at 6 bar, the flow rate of feed gas was reduced to 30 ml·min⁻¹. All products remained in the gaseous phase and thus continuously analyzed by a Gas Chromatography (GC) system (SRI MG5) equipped with a Hayesep D column. GC analysis was initiated 5 minutes after pressure reached 6 bar. CO, methanol and ethanol were quantified using flame ionization detector, while H₂ and CO₂ consumption was measured using thermal conductivity detector. Additional steam was introduced to the reactor with a stainless-steel H₂O-saturator for steam-assisted CO₂ hydrogenation experiments. Similarly, after catalyst loading, the reactor was heated to 498 K under 40 ml·min⁻¹ Ar. Reaction mixture (40 ml·min⁻¹ 3:1 H₂:CO₂) was mixed upstream of the saturator, introduced to the H₂O saturator heated to different temperatures, and eventually introduced to the reactor, carrying different partial pressures of steam. Steam pressure was calculated with Antoine formula. For 10 % steam at 6 bar, the saturator was heated to 359 K (saturation vapor pressure = 0.6 bar).

CO₂ conversion was calculated by the equation:

$$CO_2 \text{ conversion } (\%) = \frac{CO_{2in} - CO_{2out}}{CO_{2in}} \cdot 100\%$$

Where CO_2 (in) and CO_2 (out) denote moles of CO_2 at the inlet and outlet, respectively.

Selectivity distribution of individual products was calculated by equation:

$$C_xH_yO_z \text{ Selectivity } (\%) = \frac{x \cdot C_xH_yO_z \text{ out}}{CO_{2in} - CO_{2out}} \cdot 100\%$$

Where $C_xH_yO_z$ denote moles of possible products, such as CO, CH_3OH and C_2H_5OH in the outlet.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Packard Foundation. Additional support was provided by a seed grant from the Precourt Institute of Energy at Stanford University. M. C. acknowledges support from a Sloan Fellowship, as well as the Novo Nordisk Center for CO_2 Research. E.J.M. and M.C. acknowledge funding from the Villum foundation V-SUSTAIN Grant 9455. Part of this work was performed at the Stanford Nano Shared Facilities, supported by the NSF under award ECCS-1542152. Work at the Molecular Foundry was supported by the Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, of the US Department of Energy under contract DE-AC02-05CH11231. The synchrotron work was performed at Stanford Synchrotron Radiation Lightsource (SSRL) of SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory and use of the SSRL is supported by the US Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences under contract DE-AC02-76SF00515. Dr. Melissa Cendejas and Sarah Edwards are acknowledged for their help with XAS experiments.

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Selective CO₂ Hydrogenation to Ethanol over Ru-In Catalysts

Supplementary Information

1. The choice of first-order model for deactivation analysis

We invoke empirical first-order decay model (Fogler, H. S. (2016). *Catalyst Deactivation*. Elements of chemical reaction engineering.) to describe the catalytic behavior of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst.

$$r_{EtOH}(t) = e^{-k_{EtOH} \cdot t}$$

Where r_{EtOH} represents the catalytic activity of the catalyst (time-dependent) and k_{EtOH} represents the empirical deactivation rate constant.

We hypothesize that the ethanol producing sites were converted to methanol-producing sites. As a result, methanol production rate should be increasing with time, simultaneous to the decrease of ethanol production:

$$r_{MeOH}(t) = r_{MeOH}(\infty) - e^{-k_{MeOH} \cdot t}$$

Where r_{MeOH} represents the catalytic activity of the catalyst (time-dependent) and k_{MeOH} represents the empirical activation rate constant. $r_{MeOH}(\infty)$ represents the methanol production rate at steady state when all ethanol producing sites have converted.

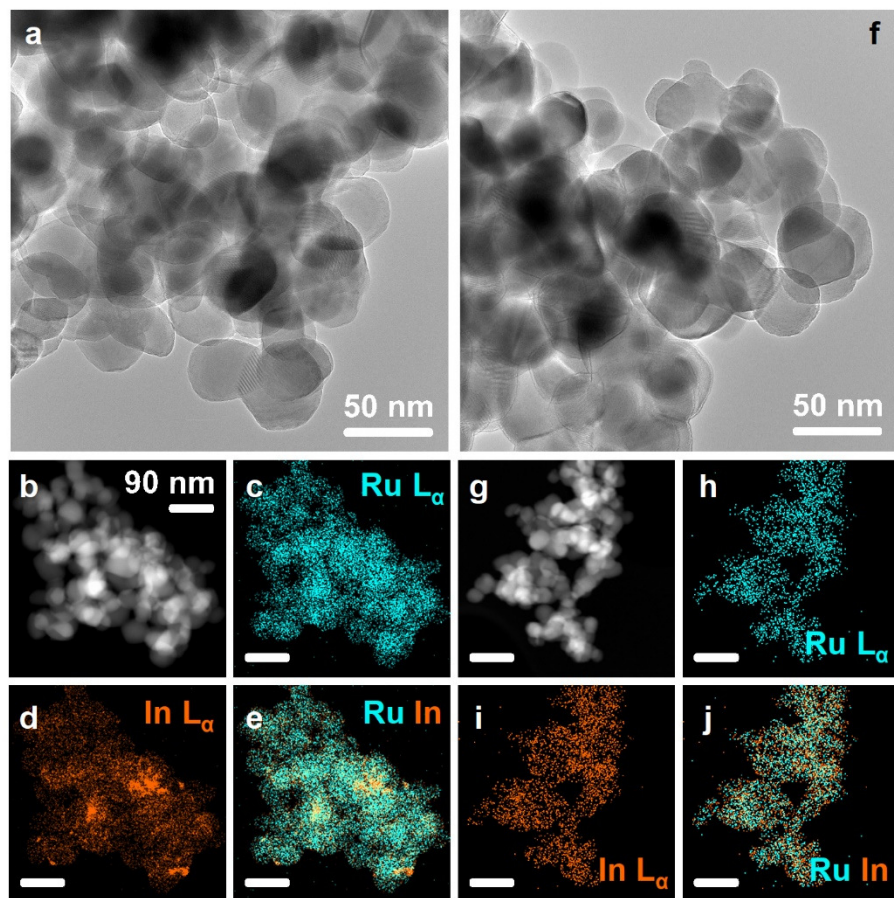


Fig. S1: TEM and STEM-EDS characterizations of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (IWI) catalyst at different stages of reaction. **a,f** Representative TEM images, **b-e,g-j** Ru L_α and In L_α EDS maps of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (IWI) catalyst after (**a-e**) 0 minute and (**f-j**) 180 minutes of reaction. All scale bars in **b-e,g-j** are 90 nm.

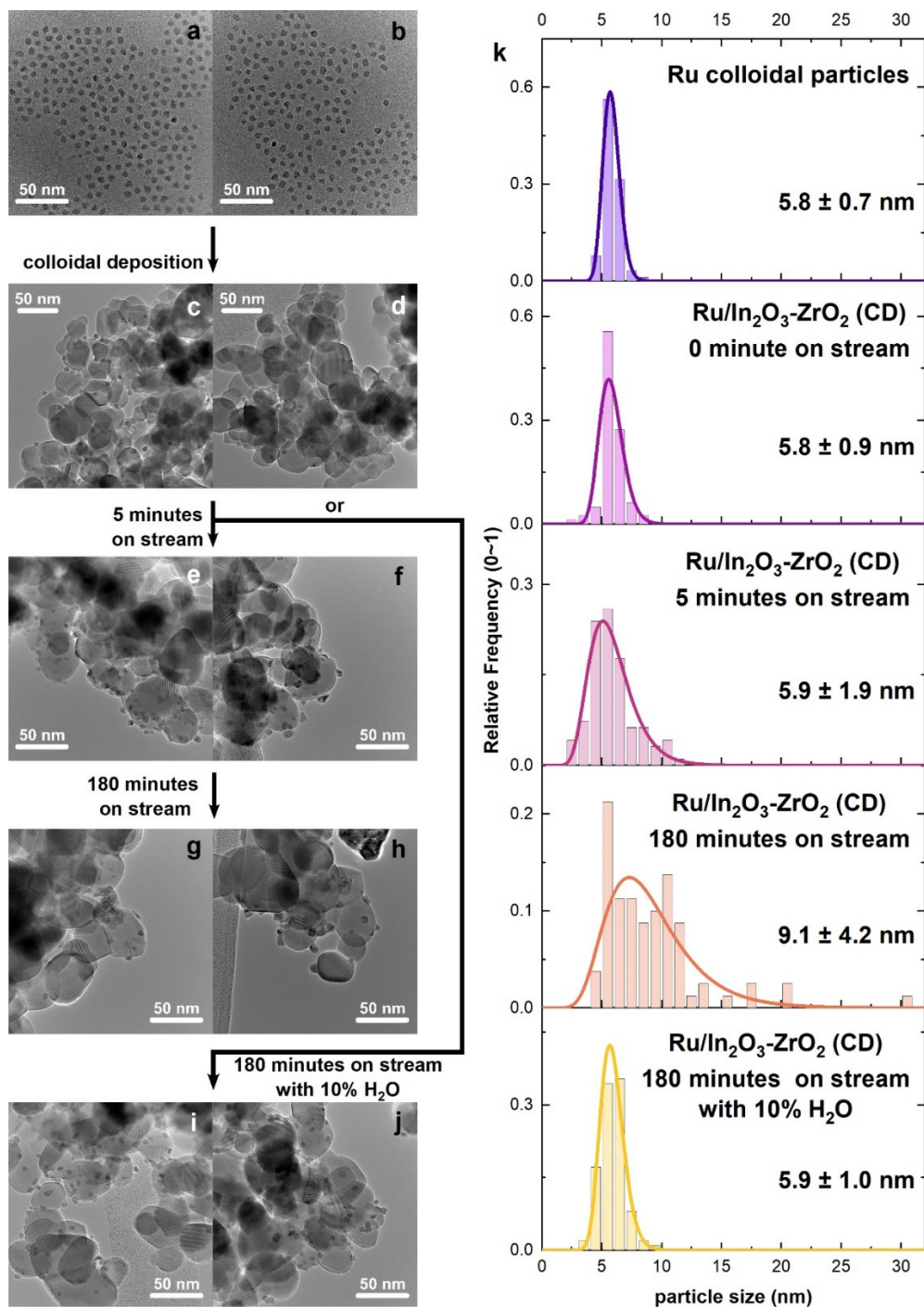


Fig. S2 TEM images of **a,b** Ru colloidal nanoparticles; **c,d** as-synthesized Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst; **e,f** Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst after 5 minutes on stream; **g,h** Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst after 180 minutes on stream; **i,j** Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst after 180 minutes on stream with 10% additional H₂O. **k** histograms of Ru particle size (~100 particles each sample) with log-normal distribution curves.

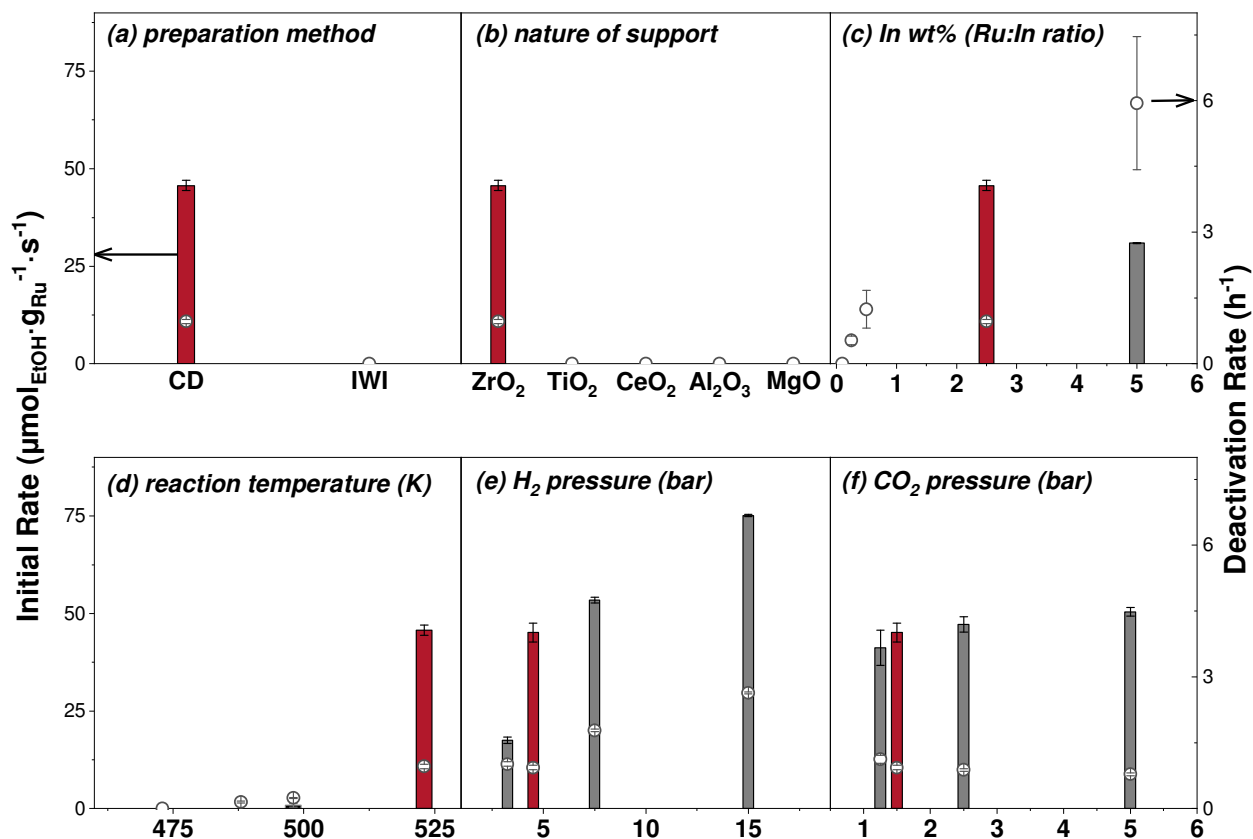


Fig. S3 The effect of **a** preparation method, **b** choice of support, **c** Ru:In ratio, **d** reaction temperature, **e** H₂ partial pressure and **f** CO₂ partial pressure on the initial ethanol production rate (columns, left axis) and catalyst deactivation rate (points, right axis). The catalyst was colloiddally prepared Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ unless noted otherwise. Ru weight loading was kept constant at 0.5 wt% while In remained as 2.5 wt% except in **c** where exact indium loading was given. Initial ethanol production rate and catalyst deactivation rate obtained at 523 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ was used as benchmarks which are highlighted in red.

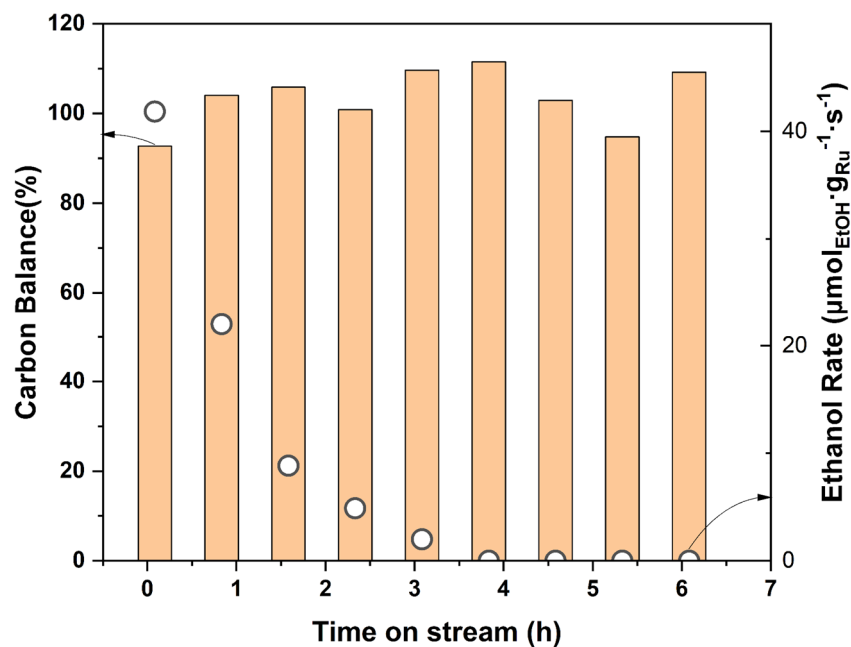


Fig. S4: Carbon balance and ethanol production rates as functions of time on stream. Carbon balance (columns, left axis) are defined as amount of product produced/amount of CO_2 consumed. Data shown in this figure corresponds to the experiment described in Fig 1a, which is colloiddally deposited (CD) $\text{Ru}/\text{In}_2\text{O}_3\text{-ZrO}_2$ catalysts tested at 523 K, 6 bar, $30 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ of 3:1 $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}_2$. Ethanol production rates were replotted from Fig 1b. It can be seen that no obvious correlation between carbon balance and ethanol deactivation rates are established.

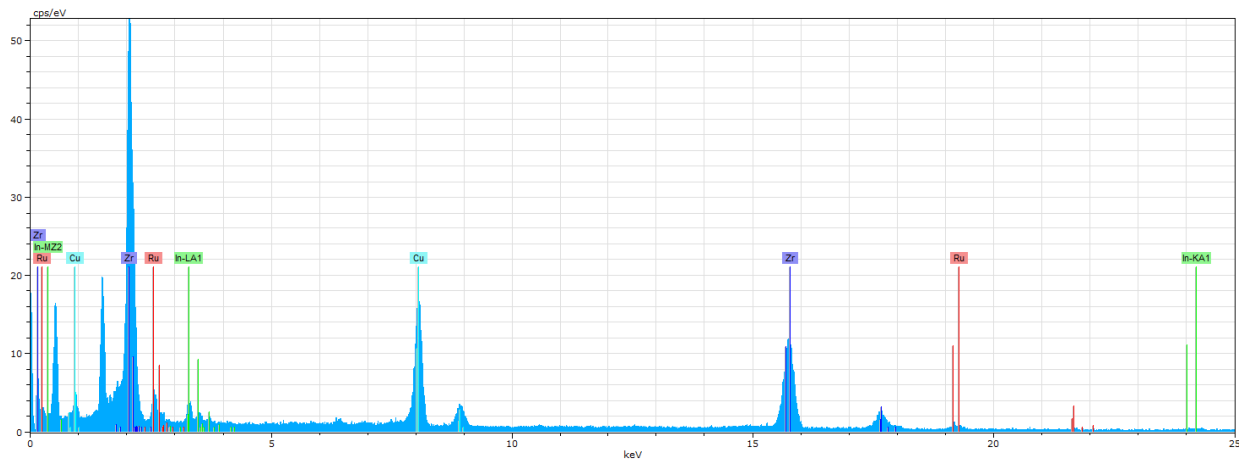


Fig. S5: Representative EDS spectrum of summed pixels in EDS maps. Specifically, this spectrum is from the EDS map shown in Fig 2n-p. Characteristic peaks for Ru, In, Zr and Cu (from TEM grid) are labeled.

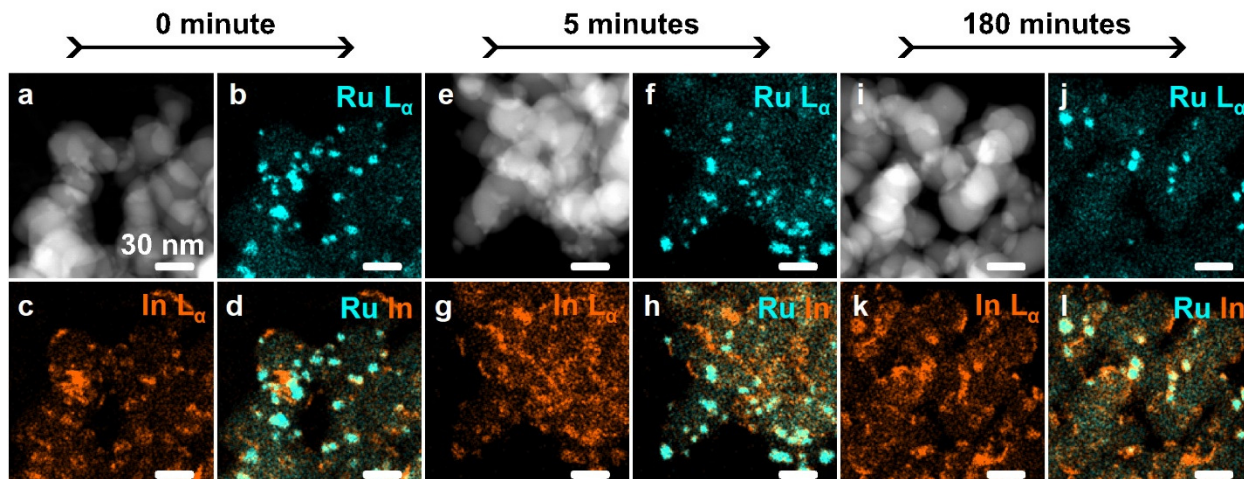


Fig. S6: Additional STEM-EDS characterizations of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst at different stages of reaction. **a,e,i** Representative STEM images, **b-d,f-h,j-l** Ru L_α and In L_α EDS maps of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst after (**a-d**) 0 minute, (**e-h**) 5 minutes and (**i-l**) 180 minutes of reaction.

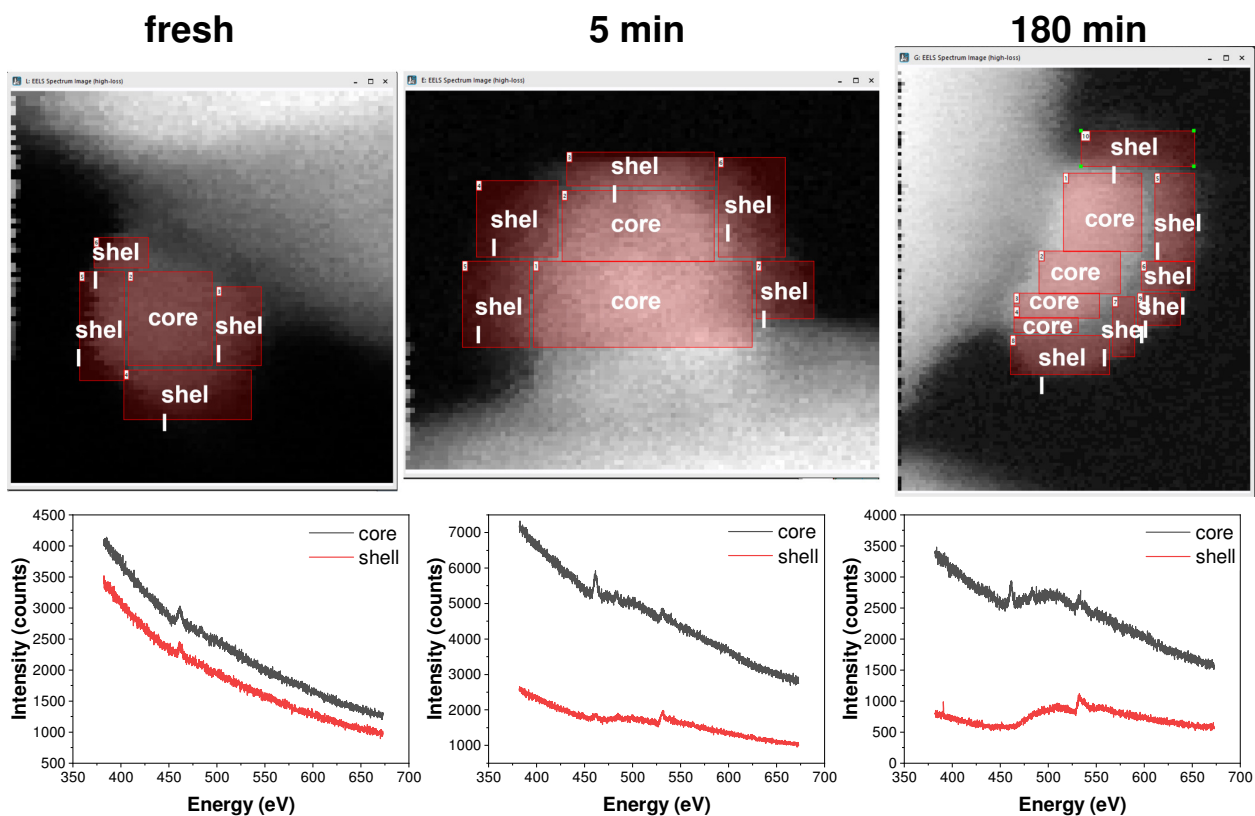


Fig. S7: Additional information on EELS analysis from Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst at different stages of reaction, corresponding to Fig 2f, l and r. Guided by the contrast differences, EELS maps were divided into many regions defined as shells (low contrast, usually within 1 nm depth from surface) and cores (high contrast). EELS signal from cores and shells were then summed and background removed, respectively. The raw spectra without background removal were also plotted here for clarity.

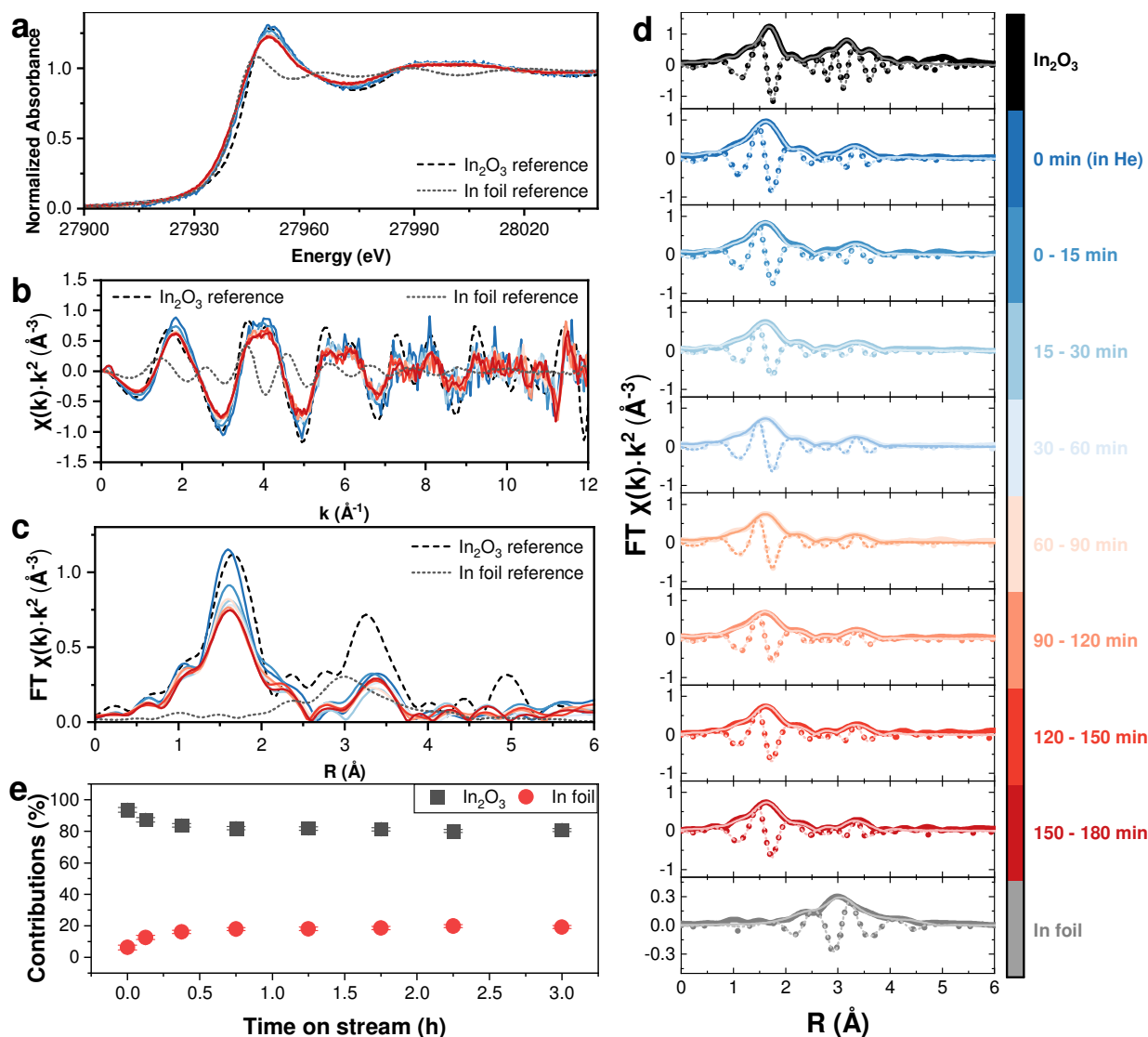


Fig. S8: *operando* In K-edge XAS of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ **a** In K-edge XANES spectra, **b** k²-weighted In K-edge EXAFS spectra and **c** In K-edge EXAFS spectra of In₂O₃ powder (dash, as reference), In foil (dot, as reference) and Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. XAS data was continuously collected and merged into different groups. Spectra in **d** are individual plots of the EXAFS spectra in **c** together with the fits. Thick light traces are experimental data; Dark thinner traces are fits; solid traces are magnitudes; dotted traces are imaginary components of the Fourier transform. **a-e** share same legends, which are shown as color scales on the right. **e** Linear combination fitting results of In K-edge XANES from Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. In foil and In₂O₃ powder are used as references.

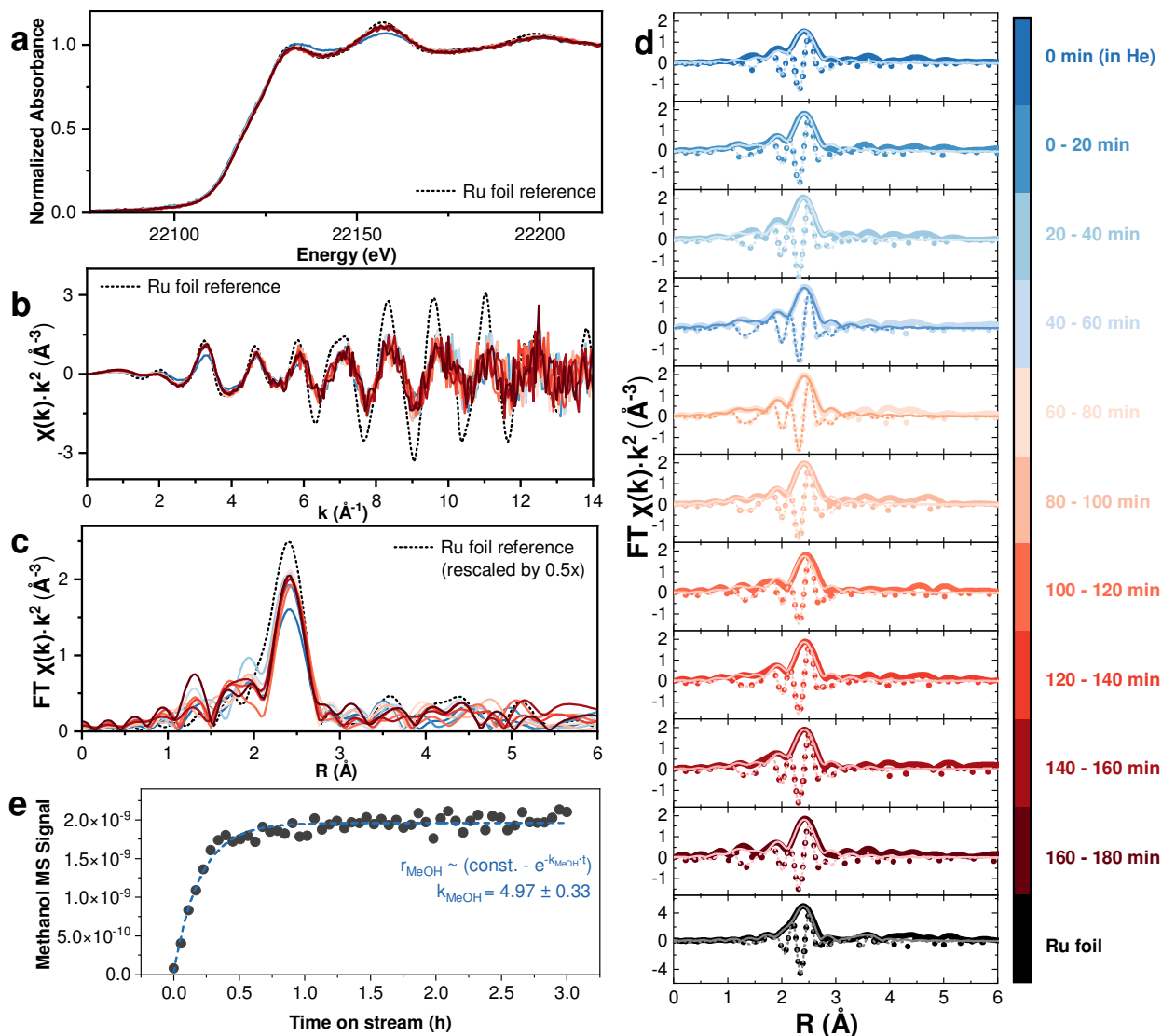


Fig. S9: *operando* Ru K-edge XAS of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ **a** Ru K-edge XANES spectra, **b** k²-weighted Ru K-edge EXAFS spectra and **c** Ru K-edge EXAFS spectra of Ru foil (dot, as reference) and Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. XAS data was continuously collected and merged into different groups. Spectra in **d** are individual plots of the EXAFS spectra in **c** together with the fits. Thick light traces are experimental data; Dark thinner traces are fits; solid traces are magnitudes; dotted traces are imaginary components of the Fourier transform. **a-d** share same legends, which are shown as color scales on the right. **e** Methanol (M/Z=31) signal from online mass-spectrometer analysis as a function of time. Dotted line is the fit of methanol signal using self-limiting first order growth model and k_{MeOH} is the kinetic rate constant. Note that ethanol (M/Z=45 or 46) was below detection limit due to overlap with CO₂ isotopes such as ¹³CO₂ and C¹⁶O¹⁷O.

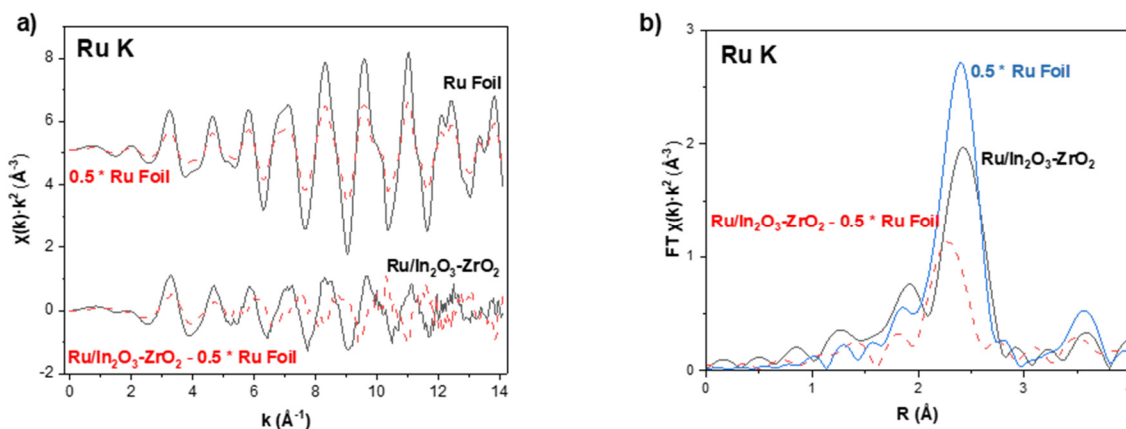


Fig. S10: Identification of Ru-In scattering paths. Given the similarities in atomic radius, Ru-Ru paths and Ru-In paths require caution to distinguish. We first examined whether there were notable differences between the Ru foil and Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ EXAFS. Shown in **a**, the two spectra (shown in black) indeed possessed very similar features, such as the frequency and amplitude of oscillations. However, small but non-trivial differences can be revealed when a difference spectrum (dashed red traces) is taken by subtracting the Ru foil spectrum from the Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ spectrum at a weight of 0.5. A similar “difference” spectrum of the Ru foil itself was also produced as a reference. It can be clearly seen that there existed a contribution to the Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ spectrum that was in a notably different phase. Upon fourier transformation (dashed red trace in panel **b**), it can be clearly seen that the difference between Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ and Ru foil can be ascribed to a shell that has similar but shorter distance than Ru-Ru, which we hypothesize to be Ru-In, given that it would have been too long for Ru-O but too short to be plausible for Ru-Zr.

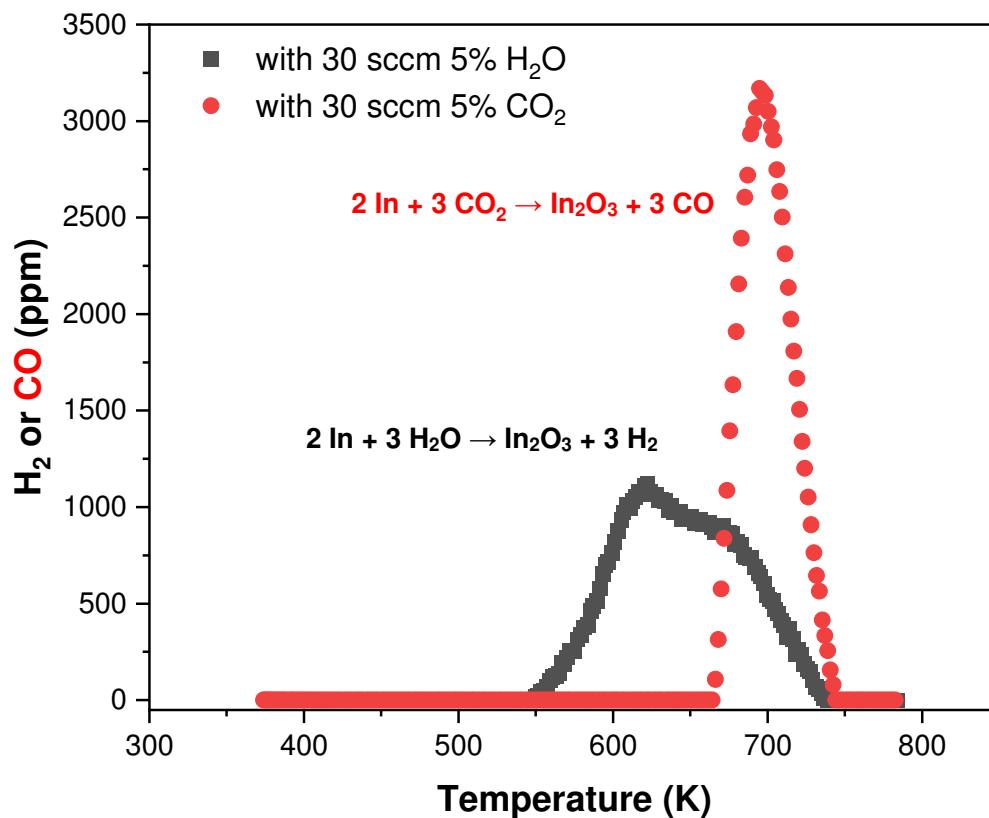


Fig. S11 Catalyst regeneration (temperature programmed oxidation) with steam or CO₂. Ru/In₂O₂-ZrO₂ catalysts were intentionally deactivated by H₂ reduction at 673 K for 1 hour before being exposed to oxidants. The production of hydrogen (from reduction of water) or CO (from reduction of CO₂) were lotted as the indicator of catalyst regeneration. Although CO₂ did also oxidize indium (as evidenced by the production of CO), the oxidation occurred at a much higher temperature (660 K) than with steam as the oxidant (550 K). Therefore, water is a stronger oxidizer than CO₂ (as is known from steam reforming catalysis).

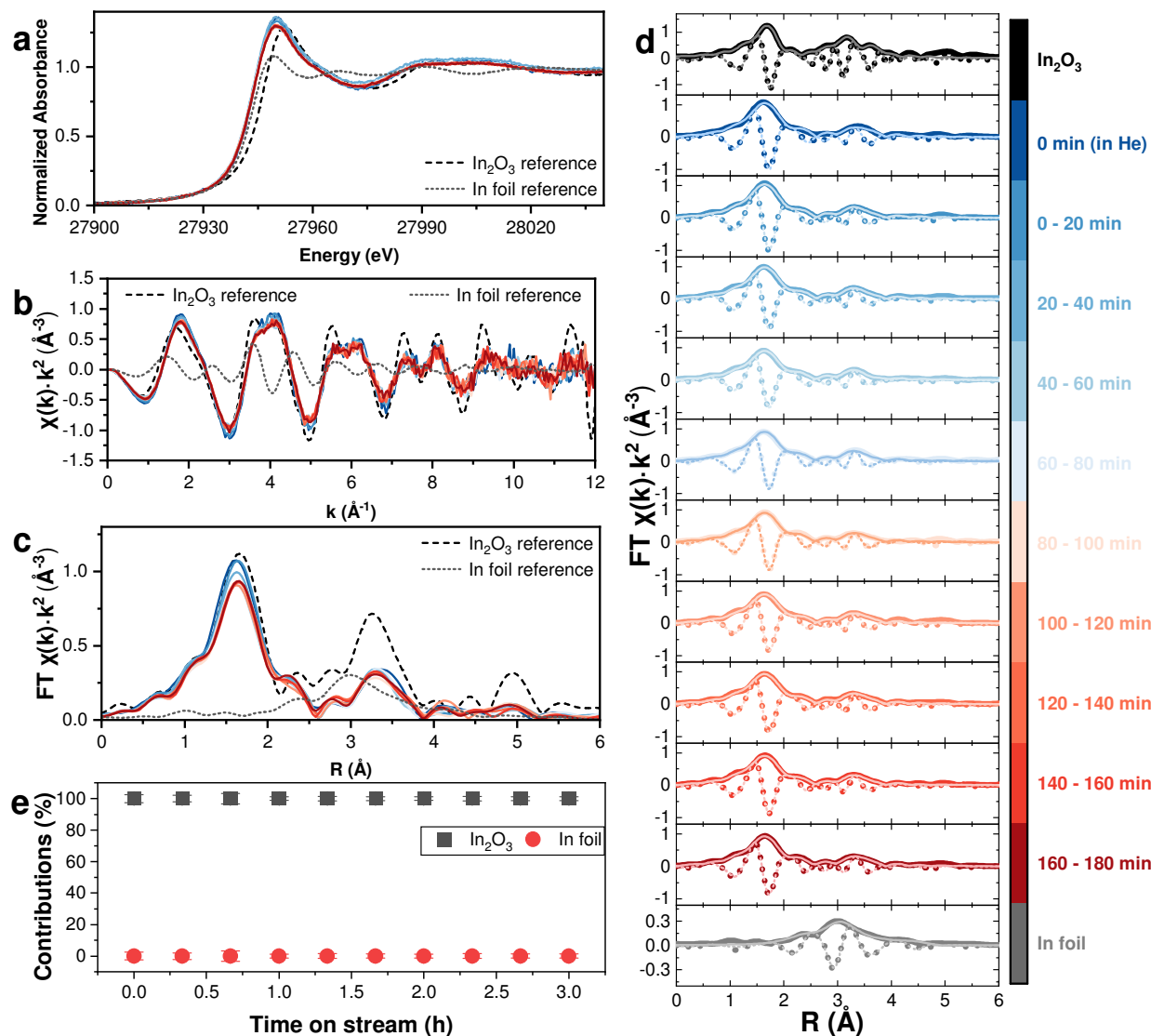


Fig. S12: *operando* In K-edge XAS of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam **a** In K-edge XANES spectra, **b** k²-weighted In K-edge EXAFS spectra and **c** In K-edge EXAFS spectra of In₂O₃ powder (dash, as reference), In foil (dot, as reference) and Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. XAS data was continuously collected and merged into different groups. Spectra in **d** are individual plots of the EXAFS spectra in **c** together with the fits. Thick light traces are experimental data; Dark thinner traces are fits; solid traces are magnitudes; dotted traces are imaginary components of the Fourier transform. **a-e** share same legends, which are shown as color scales on the right. **e** Linear combination fitting results of In K-edge XANES from Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. In foil and In₂O₃ powder are used as references.

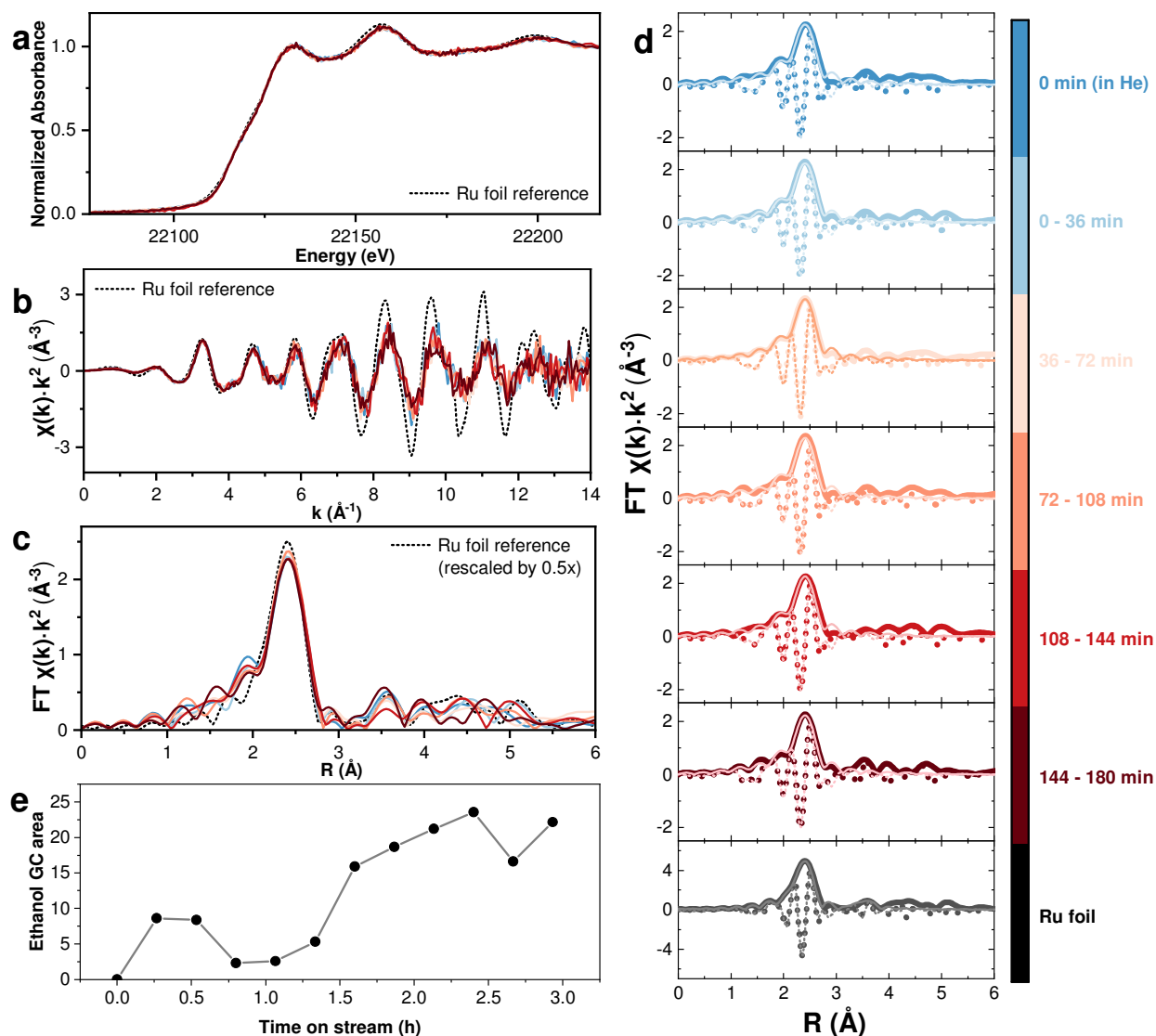


Fig. S13: *operando* Ru K-edge XAS of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam **a** Ru K-edge XANES spectra, **b** k²-weighted Ru K-edge EXAFS spectra and **c** Ru K-edge EXAFS spectra of Ru foil (dot, as reference) and Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. XAS data was continuously collected and merged into different groups. Spectra in **d** are individual plots of the EXAFS spectra in **c** together with the fits. Thick light traces are experimental data; Dark thinner traces are fits; solid traces are magnitudes; dotted traces are imaginary components of the Fourier transform. **a-d** share same legends, which are shown as color scales on the right. **e** Ethanol area from online gas chromatography analysis as a function of time.

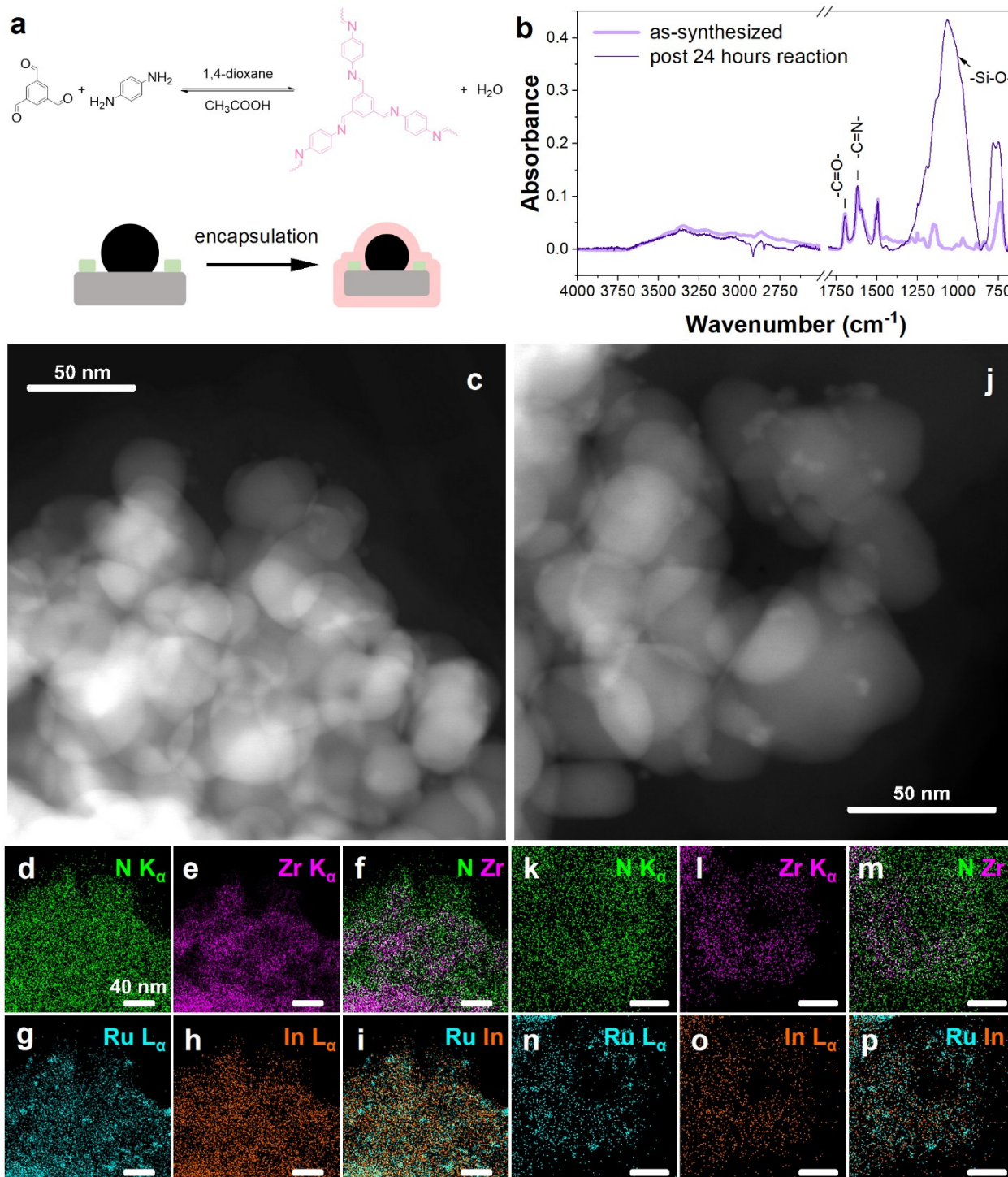


Fig. S14: Additional characterizations of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst at different stages of reaction. **a** Schematic of the encapsulation procedure. Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ is used as substrate, on which an imine-linked polymer is grown, from the condensation reaction between benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxaldehyde and p-phenylenediamine. **b** ATR-IR spectra of the IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst as synthesized (thick light trace) and after 24 hours of reaction at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam. IR vibrations related to Si-O species found in the post-test

sample are due to the presence of SiO₂ diluent mixed with the catalyst. **c,j** Representative STEM images, **d-i,k-p** N K_α, Zr K_α, Ru L_α and In L_α EDS maps of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ (CD) catalyst (**c-i**) as-synthesized and (**j-p**) after 24 hours of reaction at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam.

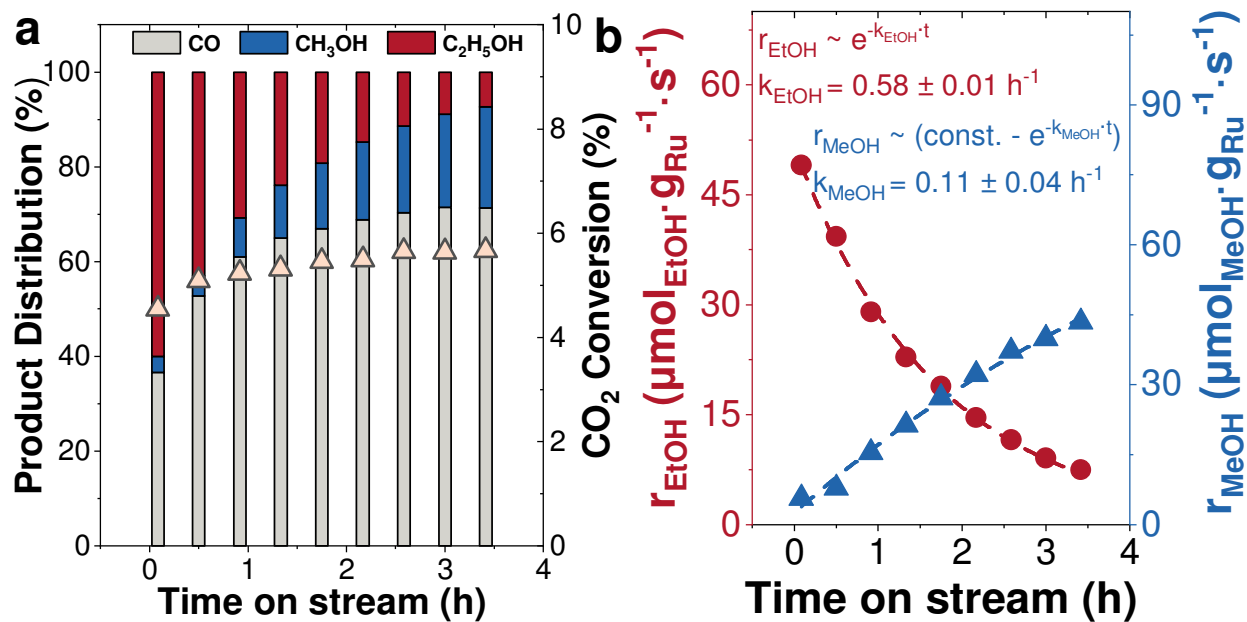


Fig. S15 The effect of polymer encapsulation. a CO₂ conversion and product selectivity and **b** Ethanol production rate of IPOPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ catalysts as a function of time on stream at 523 K, 6 bar, 30 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂. Note that the encapsulation by IPOPOP notably stabilized ethanol production and decreased catalyst deactivation rate from 0.96 h⁻¹ to 0.38 h⁻¹.

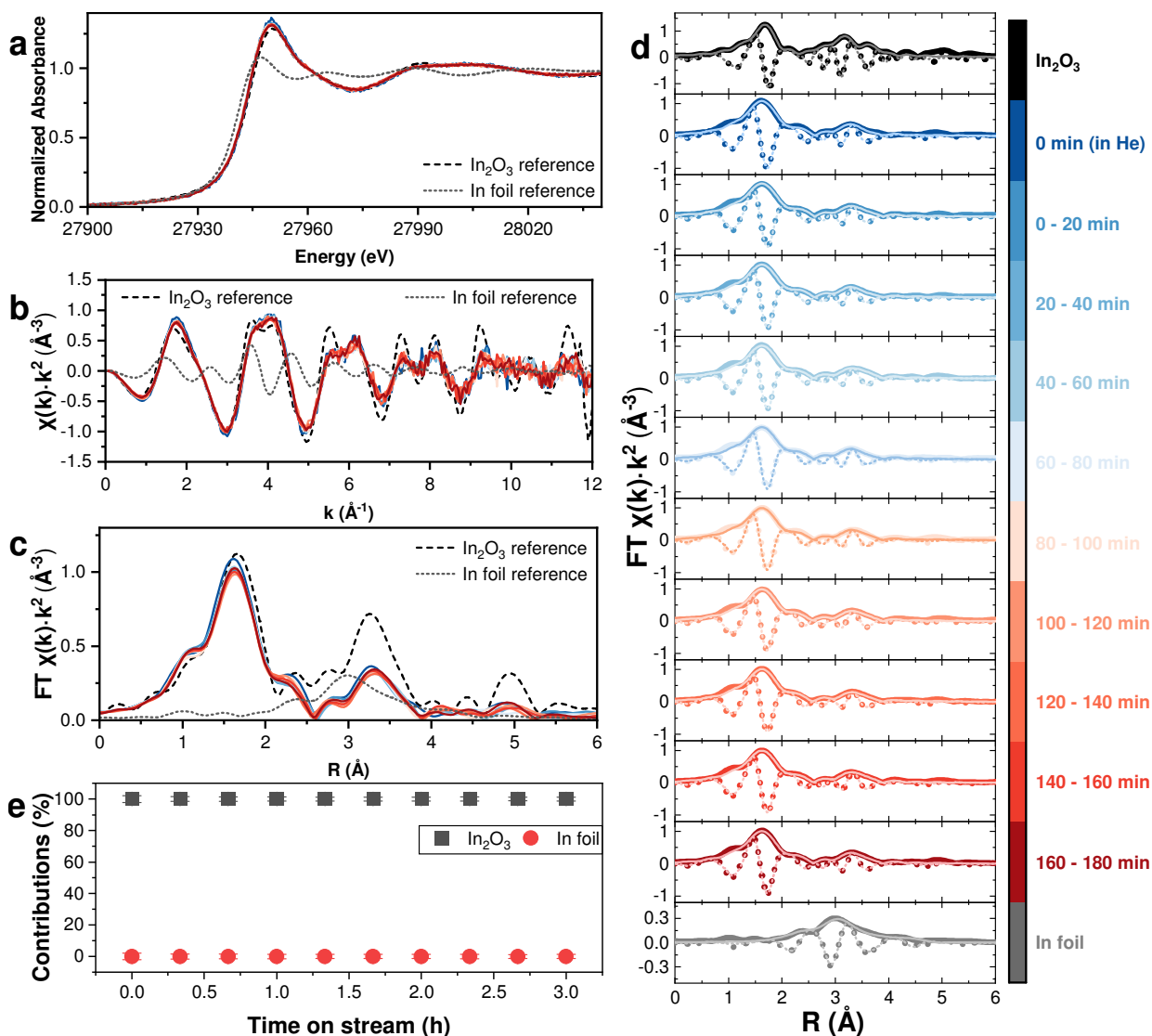


Fig. S16: *operando* In K-edge XAS of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam **a** In K-edge XANES spectra, **b** k²-weighted In K-edge EXAFS spectra and **c** In K-edge EXAFS spectra of In₂O₃ powder (dash, as reference), In foil (dot, as reference) and IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. XAS data was continuously collected and merged into different groups. Spectra in **d** are individual plots of the EXAFS spectra in **c** together with the fits. Thick light traces are experimental data; Dark thinner traces are fits; solid traces are magnitudes; dotted traces are imaginary components of the Fourier transform. **a-e** share same legends, which are shown as color scales on the right. **e** Linear combination fitting results of In K-edge XANES from IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. In foil and In₂O₃ powder are used as references.

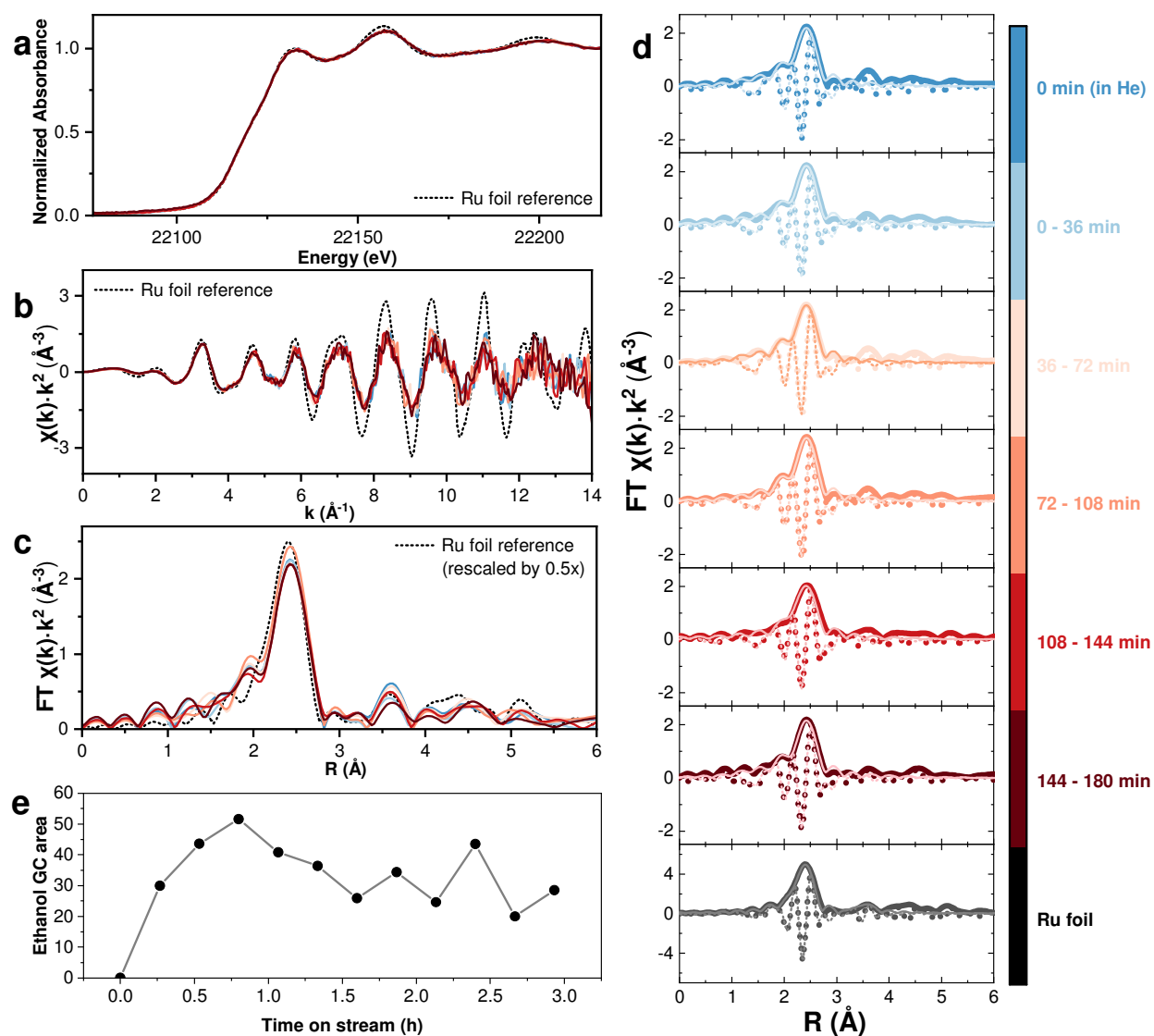


Fig. S17: *operando* Ru K-edge XAS of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam **a** Ru K-edge XANES spectra, **b** k²-weighted Ru K-edge EXAFS spectra and **c** Ru K-edge EXAFS spectra of Ru foil (dot, as reference) and IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ at different stages of reaction. XAS data was continuously collected and merged into different groups. Spectra in **d** are individual plots of the EXAFS spectra in **c** together with the fits. Thick light traces are experimental data; Dark thinner traces are fits; solid traces are magnitudes; dotted traces are imaginary components of the Fourier transform. **a-d** share same legends, which are shown as color scales on the right. **e** Ethanol area from online gas chromatography analysis as a function of time.

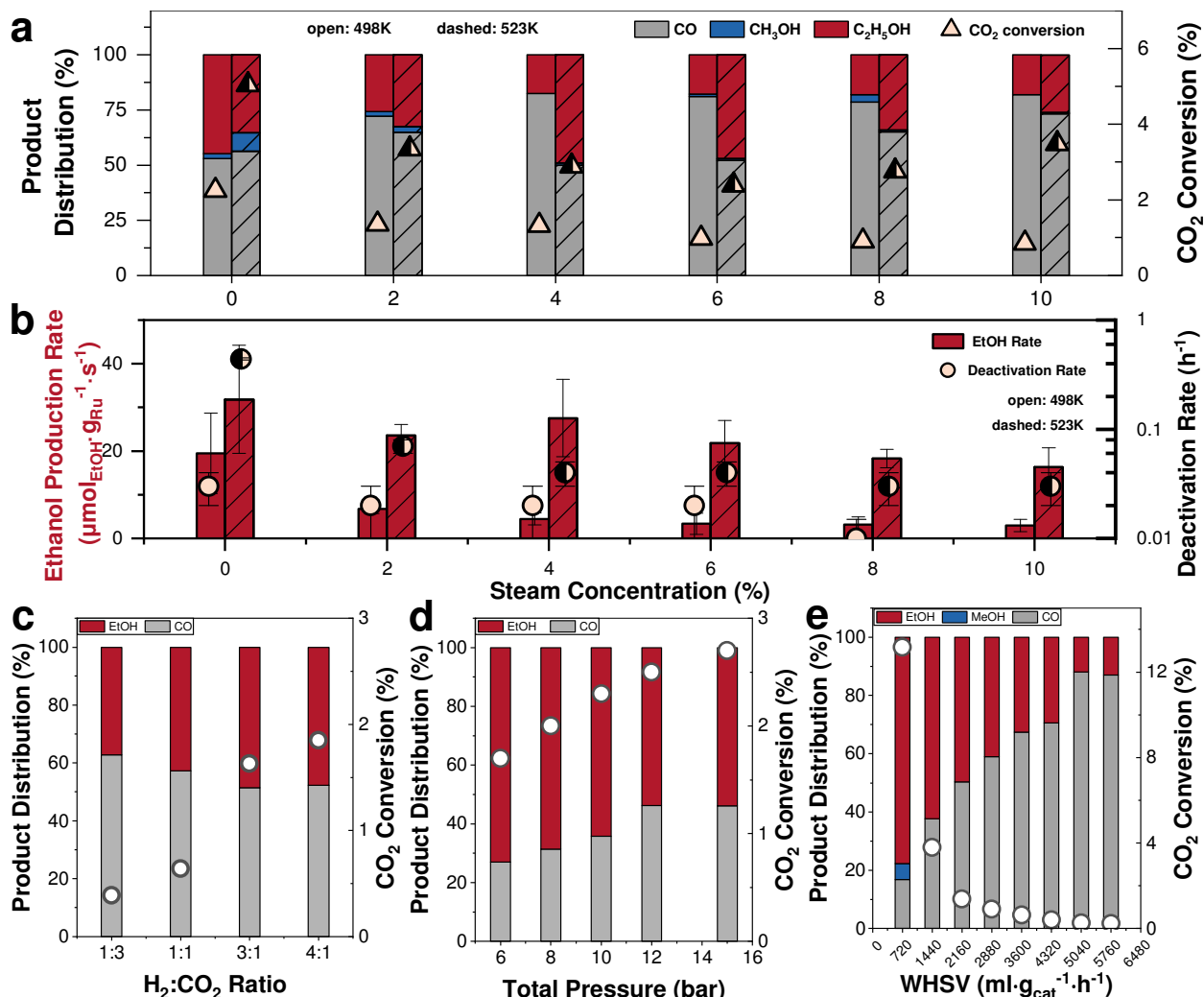


Fig. S18 The effect of temperature, steam concentration, total pressure, H₂:CO₂ ratio and WHSV on IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂. (a,b) Effect of reaction temperature and steam concentration on (a) product distribution and CO₂ conversion and (b) ethanol production rate and catalyst deactivation rate. WHSV = 5143 ml·g_{cat}⁻¹·h⁻¹ and total pressure = 6 bar. (c) Effect of reactant ratio. Reaction temperature = 498 K, WHSV = 3600 ml·g_{cat}⁻¹·h⁻¹ and total pressure = 6 bar. H₂:H₂O ratio was kept at 6.75:1. (d) Effect of total pressure. Reaction temperature = 498 K, WHSV = 3600 ml·g_{cat}⁻¹·h⁻¹. H₂, CO₂ and H₂O concentrations were 67.5%, 22.5% and 10%, respectively. (e) Effect of WHSV. Reaction temperature = 498 K, total pressure = 15 bar. H₂, CO₂ and H₂O concentrations were 67.5%, 22.5% and 10%, respectively.

TOS (min)	Path	R (Å)	σ^2 (Å)	CN	
0	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.011 ± 0.001	6.02 ± 0.32	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.001	3.03 ± 0.63	4.22 ± 1.32
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.00	0.004 ± 0.003	1.19 ± 0.69	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.13 ± 0.21	
0-15	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.011 ± 0.001	5.27 ± 0.26	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.001	2.87 ± 0.52	3.59 ± 1.00
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.00	0.004 ± 0.003	0.72 ± 0.48	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.23 ± 0.17	
15-30	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.011 ± 0.001	4.62 ± 0.23	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.001	2.00 ± 0.44	2.73 ± 0.90
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.00	0.004 ± 0.003	0.73 ± 0.46	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.08 ± 0.15	
30-60	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.011 ± 0.001	4.66 ± 0.18	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.001	2.58 ± 0.37	3.66 ± 0.86
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.00	0.004 ± 0.003	1.08 ± 0.49	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.28 ± 0.10	
60-90	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.011 ± 0.001	4.72 ± 0.20	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.001	2.46 ± 0.40	3.11 ± 0.77
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.00	0.004 ± 0.003	0.65 ± 0.37	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.18 ± 0.12	
90-120	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.011 ± 0.001	4.55 ± 0.19	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.001	2.49 ± 0.38	3.38 ± 0.82
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.00	0.004 ± 0.003	0.89 ± 0.44	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.26 ± 0.11	
120-150	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.011 ± 0.001	4.49 ± 0.19	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.001	2.54 ± 0.39	3.42 ± 0.82
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.00	0.004 ± 0.003	0.88 ± 0.43	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.23 ± 0.11	
150-180	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.011 ± 0.001	4.41 ± 0.18	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.001	2.57 ± 0.38	3.40 ± 0.79
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.00	0.004 ± 0.003	0.83 ± 0.41	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.15 ± 0.11	

Table S1: In K-edge EXAFS fitting results of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂. TOS represents time-on-stream, R is the interatomic distance, CN is coordination number, and σ^2 is the mean square deviation in half-path-length. To reduce the contribution from noises and to compare spectra systematically, all spectra were fitted together sharing $\Delta E_0 = 5.95 \pm 0.34$ eV, reduced $\chi^2 = 9.84$ and R factors = 2.20%. Additionally, same paths from different spectra share identical R and σ^2 .

TOS (min)	Path	R (Å)	CN	σ^2 (Å)
0	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.17	0.003 (set) for Ru-O 0.006 \pm 0.000 for Ru-metal
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	0.61 ± 0.90	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	6.25 ± 1.13	
0-20	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.60 ± 0.36	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	3.09 ± 1.87	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	4.64 ± 2.26	
20-40	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.60 ± 0.30	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	2.52 ± 1.57	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	6.26 ± 1.93	
40-60	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.77 ± 0.37	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	3.05 ± 1.90	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	5.17 ± 2.31	
60-80	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.76 ± 0.29	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	4.47 ± 1.52	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	3.56 ± 1.85	
80-100	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.60 ± 0.33	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	3.43 ± 1.70	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	5.01 ± 2.08	
100-120	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.63 ± 0.29	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	3.68 ± 1.50	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	3.69 ± 1.82	
120-140	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.57 ± 0.31	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	3.66 ± 1.59	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	4.26 ± 1.92	
140-160	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.48 ± 0.35	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	1.94 ± 1.82	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	6.41 ± 2.21	
160-180	Ru-O	1.79 ± 0.01	0.93 ± 0.38	
	Ru-In	2.62 ± 0.01	4.16 ± 1.98	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	3.33 ± 2.39	

Table S2: Ru K-edge EXAFS fitting results of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂. TOS represents time-on-stream, R is the interatomic distance, CN is coordination number, and σ^2 is the mean square deviation in half-path-length. To reduce the contribution from noises and to compare spectra systematically, all spectra were fitted together sharing $\Delta E_0 = 1.79 \pm 0.28$ eV, reduced $\chi^2 = 11.46$ and R factors = 3.21%. Additionally, same paths from different spectra share identical R and σ^2 .

Edge	condition	Ru-In length (if included)	χ^2	reduced χ^2
Ru K	dry	2.62 +/- 0.01	880.78	11.46
		not included	1240.69	14.12
	wet	2.56 +/- 0.27	708.11	16.05
		not included	718.59	14.06
In K	dry	2.62 +/- 0.01	1058.18	15.24
		not included	1219.57	17.75
	wet	2.63 +/- 0.01	955.01	9.31
		not included	1182.18	10.41
Ru K (encapsulated)	wet	2.62 +/- 0.02	1022.91	23.52
		not included	1095.69	21.70
In K (encapsulated)	wet	2.66 +/- 0.06	1495.87	11.02
		not included	1780.43	11.89

Table S3: Ru and In K-edge EXAFS fitting results of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 523 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ with or without the Ru-In scattering path. Fits that have the relatively smaller reduced χ^2 values were considered the optimal fit (highlighted in yellow in the table). It can be seen that including Ru-In paths were always statistically meaningful for XAS spectra collected under dry conditions for both Ru and In K edge, unambiguously confirming the presence of Ru-In alloy when catalyst deactivated under dry conditions. The reduced χ^2 values were however comparable if not smaller, when Ru-In paths were not included in the fit for spectra collected under 10% steam. This is strong evidence that the formation of Ru-In alloys was likely greatly, if not completely, suppressed when steam was used as a mild oxidant. However, for consistency and objectiveness, Ru-In paths were still included in the final fit which were reported in the manuscript.

TOS (min)	Path	R (Å)	$\sigma^2(\text{Å})$	CN	
0	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.81 ± 0.17	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.24 ± 0.36	4.00 ± 0.65
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.76 ± 0.29	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.07 ± 0.13	
0-20	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.76 ± 0.12	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.38 ± 0.24	3.92 ± 0.43
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.54 ± 0.19	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.15 ± 0.08	
20-40	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.42 ± 0.12	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.43 ± 0.25	3.94 ± 0.44
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.51 ± 0.19	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.15 ± 0.08	
40-60	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.00 ± 0.11	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	2.99 ± 0.22	3.23 ± 0.34
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.24 ± 0.12	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.26 ± 0.07	
60-80	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.06 ± 0.13	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.19 ± 0.28	3.63 ± 0.47
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.44 ± 0.19	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.26 ± 0.10	
80-100	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.05 ± 0.11	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	2.92 ± 0.23	3.42 ± 0.41
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.50 ± 0.18	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.29 ± 0.08	
100-120	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	4.96 ± 0.11	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.24 ± 0.23	3.81 ± 0.43
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.57 ± 0.20	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.11 ± 0.08	
120-140	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.15 ± 0.13	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.42 ± 0.28	4.03 ± 0.50
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.61 ± 0.22	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.14 ± 0.10	
140-160	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.06 ± 0.11	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.14 ± 0.24	3.59 ± 0.41
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.45 ± 0.17	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.25 ± 0.08	
160-180	In-O	2.15 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.15 ± 0.12	
	In-In (1)	3.38 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.21 ± 0.25	3.93 ± 0.46
	In-In (2)	3.87 ± 0.00	0.005 ± 0.002	0.63 ± 0.21	
	In-Ru	2.63 ± 0.01	0.006 (set)	0.39 ± 0.08	

Table S4: In K-edge EXAFS fitting results of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam. TOS represents time-on-stream, R is the

interatomic distance, CN is coordination number, and σ^2 is the mean square deviation in half-path-length. To reduce the contribution from noises and to compare spectra systematically, all spectra were fitted together sharing $\Delta E_0 = 7.07 \pm 0.16$ eV, reduced $\chi^2 = 7.71$ and R factors = 0.69%. Additionally, same paths from different spectra share identical R and σ^2 .

TOS (min)	Path	R (Å)	CN	σ^2 (Å)
0	Ru-O	1.78 ± 0.05	0.19 ± 0.28	0.003 (set) for Ru-O 0.006 \pm 0.000 for Ru-metal
	Ru-In	2.56 ± 0.27	0.02 ± 0.77	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	8.18 ± 1.07	
0-36	Ru-O	1.78 ± 0.05	0.11 ± 0.26	
	Ru-In	2.56 ± 0.27	0.00 ± 0.76	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	8.09 ± 1.07	
36-72	Ru-O	1.78 ± 0.05	0.10 ± 0.31	
	Ru-In	2.56 ± 0.27	0.30 ± 1.17	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	8.12 ± 1.84	
72-108	Ru-O	1.78 ± 0.05	0.27 ± 0.22	
	Ru-In	2.56 ± 0.27	0.00 ± 0.72	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	8.24 ± 1.03	
108-144	Ru-O	1.78 ± 0.05	0.12 ± 0.28	
	Ru-In	2.56 ± 0.27	0.00 ± 0.78	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	8.19 ± 1.10	
144-180	Ru-O	1.78 ± 0.05	0.21 ± 0.25	
	Ru-In	2.56 ± 0.27	0.14 ± 0.76	
	Ru-Ru	2.65 ± 0.00	7.95 ± 1.11	

Table S5: Ru K-edge EXAFS fitting results of Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam. TOS represents time-on-stream, R is the interatomic distance, CN is coordination number, and σ^2 is the mean square deviation in half-path-length. To reduce the contribution from noises and to compare spectra systematically, all spectra were fitted together sharing $\Delta E_0 = 1.00 \pm 0.36$ eV, reduced $\chi^2 = 16.40$ and R factors = 2.05%. Additionally, same paths from different spectra share identical R.

TOS (min)	Path	R (Å)	$\sigma^2(\text{Å})$	CN	
0	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	6.20 ± 0.23	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.77 ± 0.50	4.59 ± 1.00
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	0.82 ± 0.50	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.04 ± 0.17	
0-20	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.87 ± 0.16	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.43 ± 0.33	4.48 ± 0.71
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	1.05 ± 0.38	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.00 ± 0.10	
20-40	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.82 ± 0.14	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.31 ± 0.28	3.94 ± 0.44
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	0.83 ± 0.30	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.03 ± 0.08	
40-60	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.83 ± 0.14	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.56 ± 0.30	3.23 ± 0.34
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	1.34 ± 0.41	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.10 ± 0.09	
60-80	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.73 ± 0.14	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.35 ± 0.30	3.63 ± 0.47
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	0.84 ± 0.32	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.12 ± 0.09	
80-100	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.73 ± 0.18	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.30 ± 0.37	3.42 ± 0.41
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	1.14 ± 0.44	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.14 ± 0.13	
100-120	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.69 ± 0.15	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.30 ± 0.20	3.81 ± 0.43
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	1.14 ± 0.37	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.23 ± 0.09	
120-140	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.82 ± 0.17	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.06 ± 0.34	4.03 ± 0.50
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	1.00 ± 0.39	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.23 ± 0.11	
140-160	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.73 ± 0.18	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.46 ± 0.38	3.59 ± 0.41
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	1.18 ± 0.45	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.13 ± 0.13	
160-180	In-O	2.14 ± 0.00	0.010 ± 0.000	5.79 ± 0.16	
	In-In (1)	3.37 ± 0.00	0.008 ± 0.000	3.49 ± 0.34	3.93 ± 0.46
	In-In (2)	3.85 ± 0.01	0.005 ± 0.002	1.08 ± 0.39	
	In-Ru	2.62 ± 0.02	0.006 (set)	0.15 ± 0.10	

Table S6: In K-edge EXAFS fitting results of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam. TOS represents time-on-stream,

R is the interatomic distance, CN is coordination number, and σ^2 is the mean square deviation in half-path-length. To reduce the contribution from noises and to compare spectra systematically, all spectra were fitted together sharing $\Delta E_0 = 5.65 \pm 0.20$ eV, reduced $\chi^2 = 12.16$ and R factors = 0.81%. Additionally, same paths from different spectra share identical R and σ^2 .

TOS (min)	Path	R (Å)	CN	σ^2 (Å)	
0	Ru-O	1.83 ± 0.03	0.38 ± 0.31	0.003 (set) for Ru-O	
	Ru-In	2.66 ± 0.06	0.88 ± 1.06		
	Ru-Ru	2.66 ± 0.01	6.93 ± 1.35		
0-36	Ru-O	1.83 ± 0.03	0.36 ± 0.37		
	Ru-In	2.66 ± 0.06	1.17 ± 1.09		
	Ru-Ru	2.66 ± 0.01	6.71 ± 1.34		
36-72	Ru-O	1.83 ± 0.03	0.50 ± 0.28		
	Ru-In	2.66 ± 0.06	0.95 ± 0.96		
	Ru-Ru	2.66 ± 0.01	6.75 ± 1.23		
72-108	Ru-O	1.83 ± 0.03	0.20 ± 0.31		0.005 \pm 0.001 for Ru-metal
	Ru-In	2.66 ± 0.06	1.54 ± 0.97		
	Ru-Ru	2.66 ± 0.01	6.94 ± 1.26		
108-144	Ru-O	1.83 ± 0.03	0.17 ± 0.37		
	Ru-In	2.66 ± 0.06	0.82 ± 1.12		
	Ru-Ru	2.66 ± 0.01	6.70 ± 1.41		
144-180	Ru-O	1.83 ± 0.03	0.38 ± 0.25		
	Ru-In	2.66 ± 0.06	1.25 ± 0.82		
	Ru-Ru	2.66 ± 0.01	6.41 ± 1.07		

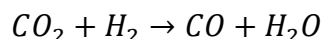
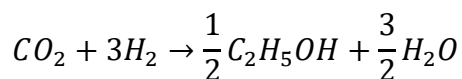
Table S7: Ru K-edge EXAFS fitting results of IPOP/Ru/In₂O₃-ZrO₂ during CO₂ hydrogenation at 498 K, 6 bar, 20 ml·min⁻¹ of 3:1 H₂:CO₂ and 10% added steam. TOS represents time-on-stream, R is the interatomic distance, CN is coordination number, and σ^2 is the mean square deviation in half-path-length. To reduce the contribution from noises and to compare spectra systematically, all spectra were fitted together sharing $\Delta E_0 = 2.35 \pm 0.48$ eV, reduced $\chi^2 = 23.52$ and R factors = 2.43%. Additionally, same paths from different spectra share identical R.

ref.	year	phase	catalyst	P (Mpa)	T (K)	Conv. (%)	Selectivity (%)			Ethanol Yield (%)	Space-Time Yield (mg/g/h)	H _{eff} (%)	
							hydrocarbons	oxygenates					
								CO	CH ₃ OH				C ₂ OH
1	2018	L	Co/AlO _x -600	4	413	N/A	0	0	8	92	N/A	20	92
2	2017	L	Pd ₂ Cu/P25	3.2	473	N/A	0	0	8	92	N/A	1912	92
this work	2023	G	Ru/In ₂ O ₃ -ZrO ₂	0.6	498	8	0	30	0	70	6	26	88
3	2020	G	Cu@Na-Beta	1.3	573	8	0	31	0	70	6	156	87
4	2022	G	In ₂ Fe ₂ O ₇ /K	2	573	37	48	7	3	42	15	N/A	41
5	2013	G	CuZnFe _{0.5} K _{0.15}	6	573	42	56	7	5	32	14	148	28
6	2016	L	Co/Mo ₂ C	4	473	N/A	17	10	46	25	N/A	N/A	26
7	2016	L	Pt/Co ₃ O ₄	8	493	N/A	67	0	4	29	N/A	0.3	24
8	2022	G	K-CuFeZn	5	593	34	68	12	0	20	7	51	21
9	2022	G	Cu-CoGaO _{0.4}	3	493	18	48	0	29	24	4	62	21
10	2021	G	CuZnAl + K-CuMgZnFe	5	593	42	68	14	1	17	7	107	19
11	2011	G	CoMoS	10.3	583	17	5	69	22	4	1	N/A	8

Table S8: Catalyst performances from relevant studies. Catalysis performed in liquid under discontinuous batch conditions were labeled in blue. Hydrogen efficiency (H_{eff}) is defined as *Hydrogen efficiency (%)*

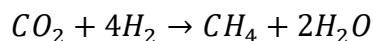
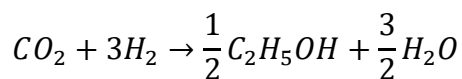
$$= \frac{\text{amount of hydrogen consumed to produce } C_2H_5OH}{\text{amount moles of hydrogen consumed by } CO_2} \times 100\%$$

For example, for our catalyst that produced 30% CO and 70% ethanol, the hydrogen efficiency (H_{eff}) is:



$$H_{eff} (\%) = \frac{70\% \times 3}{30\% \times 1 + 70\% \times 3} \times 100\% = 87.5\%$$

For a catalyst producing 50% ethanol and 50% methane (similar to ref 4), the hydrogen efficiency becomes:



$$H_{eff} (\%) = \frac{50\% \times 3}{50\% \times 4 + 50\% \times 3} \times 100\% = 42.9\%$$

Basically, the hydrogen atomic efficiency informs us about the overall selectivity of the reaction as normalized by conversion. Our work indeed represents the highest hydrogen efficiency for continuous gas-phase production of ethanol from CO₂ hydrogenation owing to the high selectivity towards ethanol and the absence of hydrocarbon side-products.

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