



Ultimate structures in catalysis: Single atoms, subnano-clusters, and electrons

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ABSTRACT When reduced to the atomic level, catalysts exhibit greatly improved performance, i.e., improved atomic utilization, heightened coordination unsaturation, and increased specific surface area. Meticulous design concerning atomic distribution and electron behavior is vital for improving catalytic efficiency, introducing the concept of “ultimate structure” in catalysis. These structures span a broad range from single atoms (SAs) to dual atoms, single-atom chains/layers, and subnano-clusters (SNCs). By examining catalysts at the atomic and electronic levels using these ultimate structures, we can gain a deep understanding of their inherent properties and new directions for future catalytic design. This review delves into the recent progress and research directions of ultimate structures in catalysis, focusing on SAs, SNCs, and electron-level dynamics. In particular, we focus on advanced strategies such as metal-support bond enhancement, defect manipulation, and electron configuration control to optimize these ultimate structures. We also explore the interrelationships between various ultimate structures, underlining their unique attributes. This review outlines potential trajectories for the evolution of these catalysts with ultimate structures.

Keywords: ultimate structures, catalysts, single atoms, subnanoclusters

INTRODUCTION

The downsizing of catalysts has yielded remarkable improvements in catalysis [1,2]. As material size decreases, specific surface area, electronic structures, and quantum size effects significantly increase, prompting extensive exploration and manipulation of catalysts from a microscopic perspective [3–5]. Amid the pursuit of minimizing material dimensions, new catalysts transcending the conventional classification have proliferated in various reactions. The concept of single-atom catalysts (SACs) was initially introduced in 2011 to delineate catalysts with single atoms (SAs) anchored to support materials [6]. The first practically prepared SAC with Pt SAs on iron oxide nanocrystallites has a distinctive electronic structure capable of fine-tuning reaction pathways, demonstrating exceptional activity and selectivity. Since then, research on SACs considerably increased, inspiring enthusiasm toward diverse and well-designed microstructures in catalysis. Notable paradigms in the microstructures of catalysts include single-metal-atom

chains (SMACs) and single-atom layers (SALs); these have exhibited considerable promise in catalysis [7–9]. Increasing studies of SAs lead to the further development of subnano-clusters (SNCs), comprising dual atoms to dozens of atoms with the size less than 2 nm [10]. Previous reports have revealed their compelling merits derived from size reduction and synergistic effects [11,12]. Moreover, the role of electrons as the smallest “structure” to modulate catalytic performance has attracted considerable attention [13,14]. Given the multifaceted improvements accomplished through dimension reduction, a comprehensive understanding of these structures in catalysis is required.

This review introduces “ultimate structure” as a paradigm of basic components to modulate catalytic performance, providing new insights into the evolving trend of size reduction in catalysis. The ultimate structures in catalysis are microstructures downsized to atomic and electronic levels, which are fundamental constituents of materials. Specifically, ultimate structures in catalysis are expounded upon the scale of SAs, SNCs, and electrons (Fig. 1). Studies of these dimensions manifest the trend of decreasing mass and increasing active sites for catalysts with ultimate structures, as well as reveal cross-dimensional interactions. Recent advancements and prevailing research trends on ultimate structures in catalysis are comprehensively analyzed in each category. Their catalytic performance in oxygen evolution reaction (OER), hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), carbon dioxide reduction reaction (CO₂RR), oxygen reduction reaction (ORR), nitrogen reduction reaction (N₂RR), and other electrochemical reactions, as well as the modulating strategies in metal-support interaction (MSI), defect engineering, and electronic structure, are discussed in detail. Finally, several perspective directions for the future development of ultimate structures in catalysis are proposed.

ULTIMATE STRUCTURE I: SAs

In recent research on catalysts, the significance of SAs has been increasingly recognized. The SACs are renowned for their maximized atomic utilization efficiency, which is attributed to the individually dispersed atoms on supports [3]. Beyond SACs, the significance of SAs in SMACs and SALs, which represents extensions of SACs with precisely arranged SAs, is also determined [8,15]. The common thread linking these kinds of catalysts is the composition of their active sites by one or several SAs, indicating that strategies aimed at modulating their catalytic performance should focus on the behavior of SAs. The

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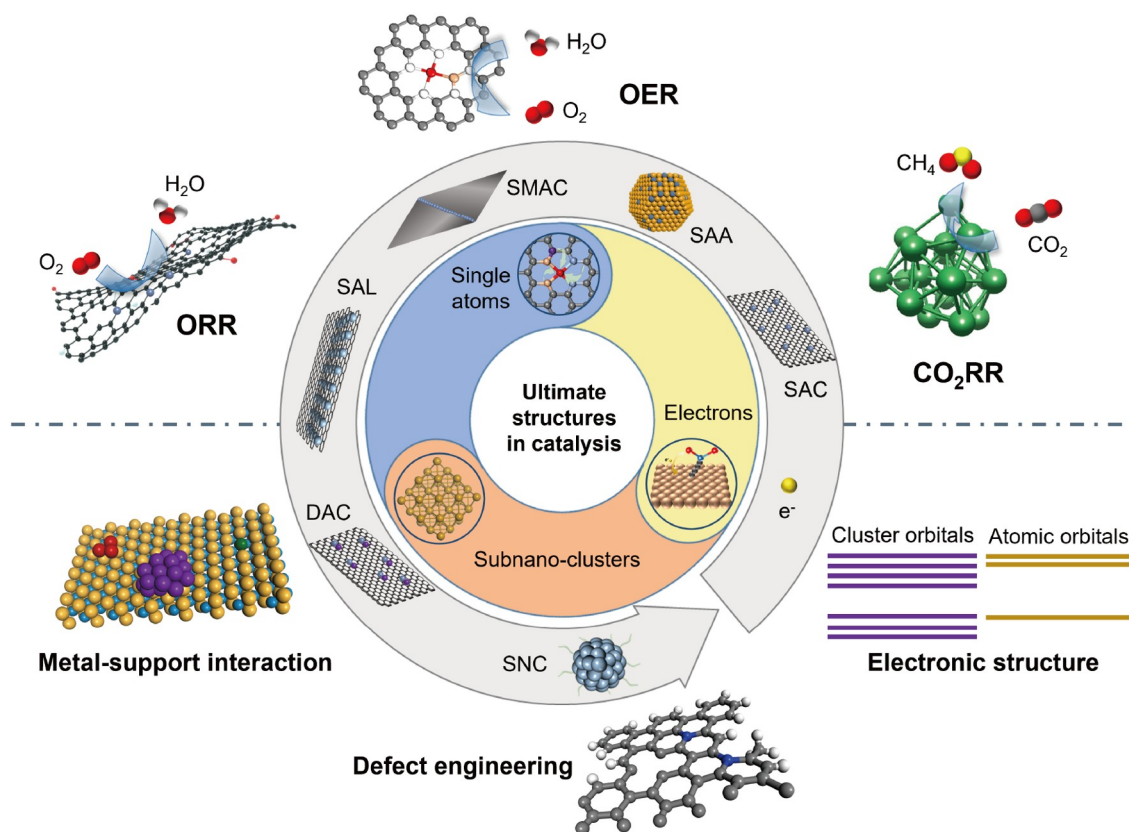


Figure 1 Ultimate structures in catalysis and modulating strategies.

ultimate structures of SACs, SMACs, and SALs characterized by SAs are depicted in Fig. 2.

Driven by the pursuit of increasing the number of active sites, SACs have received considerable attention. The strategies to enhance the properties of SACs, particularly the regulation of support species and defect engineering and the optimization of the coordination environment, serve as valuable guides for other kinds of catalysts with ultimate structures [16–18]. Studies of SMACs and SALs further highlight their exceptional advantages in increasing metal loading and harnessing synergistic effects between metal atoms compared with SACs [9,15]. In the subsequent sections, the distinctive features and recent efforts on SACs, SMACs, and SALs are summarized.

SACs

Since being proposed in 2011, SACs involving individually dispersed atoms on substrates have garnered remarkable attention [6]. By contrast to traditional catalysts in which only a fraction of metal atoms contribute to catalytic activity, the atomic dispersion of SACs is theoretically up to 100%, endowing SACs with maximized atomic usage efficiency and specific surface area [19–21]. Moreover, the distinctive electronic structure and controllable coordination environment are beneficial for enhancing the catalytic performance of SACs [22–25]. Notably, Pt SAs anchored on nitrogen-doped carbon nanosheets (Pt₁/NCNS) showed remarkable HER activity [26]. Compared with the counterparts with Pt SAs and nanoparticles, Pt₁/NCNS exhibits a similar HER activity while using significantly less Pt content. This notable performance of Pt₁/NCNS is attributed to its unique electronic structure, which features a higher unoc-

cupied density of 5d orbital states than that of Pt nanoparticles. Zeolite-templated carbon with a substantial number of individually isolated Pt atoms undergoes a unique two-electron ORR pathway to produce H₂O₂, which could maintain high activity for 2 h [27]. Furthermore, Pt SAs on nitrogen-doped carbon (NC) effectively reduces the activation barrier of CO₂RR to 1.16 eV, facilitating the reduction of CO₂ to CH₄ [28].

Although extensive investigations of SACs have indicated their remarkable catalytic activity and scalability for large-scale preparation, further enhancements in metal loading and stability are required [29,30]. Constrained by the limited surface area of the supports and the high free energy of SAs, achieving metal loading exceeding 1 wt% is challenging for SACs [24,31–33]. As a result, although the catalytic activity of SAs can surpass that of nanoparticles by several folds, nanoparticles often exhibit a higher space-time yield than SACs [34,35]. Moreover, the high free energy contributes to the tendency of SAs to aggregate during the reaction and preparation processes [36]. Therefore, to enhance the catalytic performance, the metal loading and stability of SACs require to be increased compared with conventional catalysts. In particular, this enhancement can be achieved by the manipulation of support species and defect engineering and the optimization of the coordination environment.

Support species

Although SAs constitute the active sites in SACs, supports play an indispensable role during the reaction process [18,37]. Suitable supports help anchor and stabilize SAs while optimizing their catalytic performance through the MSI [38–40]. First, the surface properties of supports could control the catalytic beha-

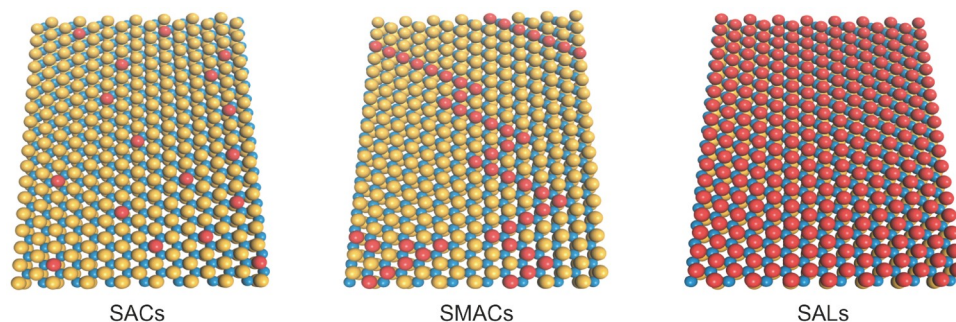


Figure 2 Schematic of SACs, SMACs, and SALs.

behavior of SACs. Elements with strong electronegativity on the support surface, such as O, N, and S, are conducive to stabilizing SAs [41,42]. Unsaturated coordination environments of atoms on the support surface also provide strong interaction with SAs [43]. The oxidation–reduction property of the support surface is also related to the catalytic performance of SACs [44,45]. A study of Pt SAs on highly reducible Fe_2O_3 , reducible ZnO, and irreducible $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, verifies that their catalytic performance is determined by the surface properties [45]. Pt SACs on supports with higher reducibility show a large turnover frequency (TOF) value for CO oxidation in the temperature range of 140–180°C. The modification of the surface properties of supports, such as doping, oxidation, and physisorption, has also been used in SACs [44,46,47]. Second, the functionalization of the support surface significantly influences the catalytic performance [48]. Functionalized support surfaces with attached groups have been observed to improve catalytic activity, stability, and selectivity. –OH functional groups on the aforementioned Fe_2O_3 , ZnO, and $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ surfaces are significantly reduced during CO oxidation, increasing the CO oxidation rate of Pt SAs, particularly on the Fe_2O_3 surface [45]. Therefore, the influence exerted by the supports on SACs, particularly by the support species, requires to be thoroughly assessed.

Carbon-based supports impart diverse morphologies, porosity, and robust interfacial interactions to anchor SAs, rendering them the main representative category of SACs [49]. The large specific surface area inherent in porous carbon enables effective interactions with precursors, facilitating the capture of abundant SAs by doped atoms or geometric imperfections. Previous research shows that Fe SAs coordinated with N atoms in porous graphitized carbon (Fe-SA-NSFC) can attain a high metal loading of up to ~16 wt% (Fig. 3a) [50]. Conversely, the majority of the reported SACs exhibit metal loadings below 1 wt% [12]. The substantial loading of SAs on the porous support results in the exceptional ORR performance of Fe-SA-NSFC, outperforming commercial Pt/C catalysts. This approach also provides a general methodology to fabricate high-loading SACs with various SAs. Moreover, porous carbon supports offer various coordination structures, indicating their potential to enhance catalytic properties [51–53]. Pt precursors could be efficiently adsorbed by C and N atoms in nitrogen-doped porous carbon nanofibers (Pt-SA/pCNFs) [54]. The Pt– C_2N_2 coordination structure of Pt-SA/pCNFs exhibits a small negative binding energy, and Gibbs adsorbed free energy close to zero, indicating impressive HER activity and stability. Apart from ORR and HER, porous-carbon-based SACs have also been applied in other reactions, such as CO_2RR and N_2RR [55–57]. Porous carbon

nanospheres are exploited to anchor single Fe atoms by electrostatic interaction [55]. The metal loading of the as-prepared Fe SACs is as high as 3.9 wt%, resulting in remarkable Faradic efficiency of up to 90%. Porous carbons also act as suitable substrates for stabilizing Mo SAs of Mo SACs [57]. Porous features and the large number of active sites endow this SAC with a superior NH_3 yield rate and enhanced durability. In studies of SACs for photocatalysis and thermocatalysis, the use of porous carbon is also indispensable. Ir SAs isolated by porous carbon nitride benefit from the synergism of interfacial carrier transfer [58]. Bonding between these Ir SAs and the support surface enable accelerated electron transfer and, in turn, decrease photocarrier transfer barrier. As a result, a remarkable conversion yield of CO_2 to methanol is achieved, even with a relatively low loading of Ir SAs (0.4 wt%). Mesoporous carbon foam nanospheres are used to anchor Pd SAs with large specific surface areas, resulting in higher thermocatalytic ethylene selectivity than Pd nanoparticles [59].

As a two-dimensional (2D) carbon material with distinctive geometry and electronic characteristics, graphene has been proven to be highly suitable for the deposition of SACs [63]. Similar to porous-carbon-based SACs, graphene-based SACs exhibit remarkable surface area. Moreover, the unique MSI and electronic characteristics lead to the distinctive advantages of graphene-based SACs [64,65]. The conjugated structure of graphene contributes to its elevated conductivity, thereby facilitating the rapid transport of electrons during chemical reactions [66–68]. Consequently, graphene-based SACs exhibit particular applicability in electrocatalysis, where the prompt transport of electrons is essential [69]. The location of coordination between graphene and adatoms also varies according to their species, ensuring precisely controllable catalytic performance of graphene-based SACs [64,70]. An example of graphene-based SAC with Co active centers (i.e., Co-N-C SAC) exhibits remarkable HER activity, as shown in Fig. 3b [60]. Co-N-C SAC exhibits enhanced intrinsic activity attributed to the preferential presence of low-coordinated Co– N_3 sites in the in-plane holes of graphene. This configuration results in a remarkably low Tafel slope (59 mV dec^{-1}) and overpotential ($82\text{ mV at } 10\text{ mA cm}^{-2}$), representing the smallest values reported to date. Because of the special bonding and electronic structure of isolated single Cu atoms on defective nanodiamond–graphene, effective activation of acetylene and easy desorption of ethylene are observed [71]. Thus, these graphene-based Cu SACs exhibit exceptional thermocatalytic selectivity (~98%) and activity for acetylene hydrogenation.

In addition to carbon-based SACs, research endeavors have

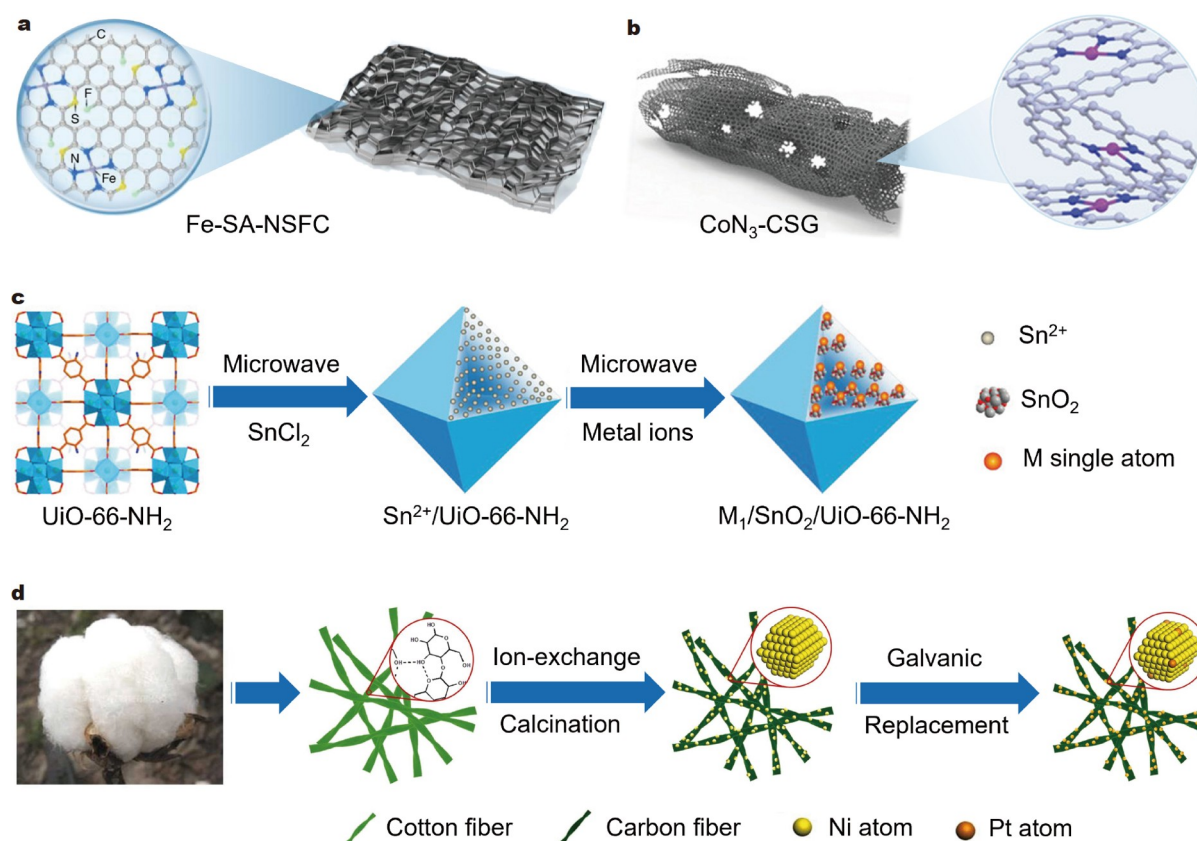


Figure 3 (a) Schematic of Fe-SA-NSFC. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [50]. Copyright 2020, Springer Nature. (b) Schematic of CoN₃-CSG. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [60]. Copyright 2022, Wiley-VCH. (c) Schematic of the microwave-assisted synthesis process for M₁/SnO₂/UiO-66-NH₂. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [61]. Copyright 2021, Wiley-VCH. (d) Schematic of the synthesis process for the fibrous PtNi/C catalyst derived from cotton. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [62]. Copyright 2022, Elsevier.

been significantly focused on the usage of metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) as support materials. As an emerging porous material with organic ligands and metal centers, MOFs exhibit a notable combination of characteristics, including large specific surface area, unsaturated metal sites, and abundant functional groups [72,73]. A general strategy is applied to deposit various SAs on SnO₂ trapped by MOFs (denoted as M₁/SnO₂/MOF, M = Pt, Cu, and Ni) *via* microwave-assisted impregnation and hydrolysis (Fig. 3c) [61]. Here, MOFs serve as ideal support with pore space and tailored microenvironment to increase SA loading, which decreases the proton activation barrier during the reaction. Consequently, the obtained Pt₁/SnO₂/MOF exhibits noteworthy photocatalytic hydrogen production compared with that reported in previous studies. Moreover, the well-organized pore structure of MOFs contributes to heightened efficiency in electron transfer within SACs, thereby preventing the recombination of electrons and holes during reactions [74]. Zuo *et al.* [75] assembled Pt SAs coordinated with porphyrin precursors into MOF nanosheets by preparing 2D MOF-based SACs (PtSA-MNSs) for the first time. The as-prepared PtSA-MNSs exhibit the highest electron transfer efficiency relative to their counterparts, which contributes to their excellent hydrogen revolution rate reaching up to 11,320 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹. Furthermore, MOFs exhibit a high degree of controllability in terms of diverse aspects, including pore size, coordination sites, and the constituents of precursors [76,77]. For instance, 3D hybrid MOFs enable Co SAs to find a suitable coordination environment for

reducing the free energy of ORR, thereby enhancing the catalytic activity [78]. The SACs based on MOFs have also exhibited exceptional performance in photocatalysis, such as photocatalytic CO₂RR. Gas-permeable MOF membranes are effective substrates to facilitate gas diffusion, thereby improving the performance of Ir SAs in photocatalytic CO₂RR [79–81].

Recently, biomass materials have gained prominence as sustainable and cost-effective supports for SACs [82–84]. A substantial portion of biomass precursors exhibit hierarchical and porous structures to anchor abundant SAs, obviating the need for energy-consuming synthesis processes [85,86]. A green method uses cotton as an *in situ* support for facilitating the anchoring of atomically dispersed Pt (Fig. 3d) [62]. The catalytic activity of the obtained SAC was determined to surpass that of the primary Ni/C catalyst by approximately 25 times. The cost efficiency of cotton enables the industrial application of Pt SAC. Moreover, the use of abundant biomass substrates from the earth leads to eco-friendly methodologies for large-scale SAC preparation [87,88]. Zhong *et al.* [89] synthesized Fe-N-C catalysts on wood-based porous carbon by using a scalable method for SAC preparation. The hierarchical structure of the cell wall in wood after pretreatment increases their ORR/OER activity and durability.

Apart from carbon-based SACs, metal-based SACs also have promising potential in various catalytic reactions. Single-atom alloys (SAAs) with atomically dispersed SAs on the surface of metallic supports have unique properties [90]. This structure not

only presents the merits of SAs but also inherits the synergistic effect characteristics of alloys [17,91]. Different from that in traditional alloys, previous studies reported that the electronic structure of the dopant element in SAAs is similar to that of free atoms. The density of state (DOS) was measured to explore the electronic structure of the dopant element Cu in AgCu SAA [92]. The results indicate that the d-band of Cu exhibits atomic-level narrowness, similar to that of a free atom. Analogous d-orbital projected DOS profiles were observed in diverse dopant elements on Au host metal, verifying the presence of free-atom-like electronic states in SAAs [93,94]. This distinctive electronic structure endows SAAs with the capability to modulate the reaction mechanisms, particularly the adsorbate bonding [94,95]. The diminished density of d-electrons in Pt SAAs weakens the Pt-CO interaction, subsequently reducing the adsorption energy of CO on the surface [93]. Consequently, this reduction in adsorption energy hinders the self-poisoning of Pt SAAs. The high atomic usage and catalytic activity of SAs in SAAs can also contribute to the reduction in noble metal expenditures during catalyst preparation, resulting in an effective approach for the efficient utilization of noble metals. A Cu-based Au SAA with surface Cu vacancies ($V_{\text{Cu}}\text{-Au}_1\text{Cu}$ SAAs) was synthesized by galvanic replacement [96]. In $V_{\text{Cu}}\text{-Au}_1\text{Cu}$ SAAs, the generation of electron-deficient Cu sites is facilitated through the migration of electrons from Cu to Au. Despite the limited quantity of Au SAs on the Cu surface, $V_{\text{Cu}}\text{-Au}_1\text{Cu}$ SAAs exhibits desirable activity for the electroreduction of NO_3^- to NH_3 . Recently, SAA with Ru SAs on a Co substrate ($\text{Ru}_1\text{Co-SAA}$) has been found to photohydrogenate CO into liquid fuels with outstanding conversion and selectivity, surpassing the performance of Co nanoparticles [97].

The SACs on metal oxides have also been widely investigated [98,99]. TiO_2 , a metal oxide semiconductor, is a representative example of this field. For Ir SAs on defective TiO_2 ($\text{Ir}_1/\text{def-TiO}_2$), the interaction between SAs and metal supports was verified to optimize their electronic and geometric structures [100]. As a result, $\text{Ir}_1/\text{def-TiO}_2$ shows remarkable performance in the thermocatalytic hydrogenation of furfural to furfuryl alcohol, surpassing that of Ir SAs on graphitic carbon nitride substrates. The photocatalytic HER performance of SAs on different TiO_2 surfaces indicates that the (001) surface exhibits enhancement in capturing SAs by strengthening the MSI, which results in improved proton adsorption and reduction [101]. Researchers found that improving the catalytic performance of SACs by anchoring SAs to favorable metal facets is a practical approach, which is difficult to conduct in carbon supports. Furthermore, CeO_2 supports have been analyzed in depth to explore the influence of structural and electronic dynamics on SACs, which are essential for increasing catalytic activity and stability [102,103].

In summary, appropriate supports render stable SAs with high metal loading and strong MSI, which are conducive to optimizing catalytic performance. As the largest category of SACs, carbon-based SACs have enabled numerous developments in catalysis, in which porous carbon, graphene, MOF, and biomass materials play impressive roles. Moreover, SAAs with metal supports have unique catalytic properties, particularly the synergistic effect.

Defective structures

As extensively existing structures in catalysts, defects have a

significant influence on the preparation process and reaction mechanism of SACs. During the preparation process of SACs, various defects emerge as essential factors in stabilizing high-loading SAs by anchoring active sites and strengthening the MSI [46,104]. Vacancies, dopants, and edge defects represent prevalent defect types commonly harnessed in SAC preparation. Vacancies could capture SAs through their affinity with their neighboring atoms. Liu *et al.* [105] introduced carbon vacancies to NC nanosheets by thermal etching and, in turn, confined Pd SAs using these carbon vacancies. The formation of Pd-N_3 sites is pivotal for ensuring the stability of individual Pd atoms. Similarly, vacancies in graphene have been harnessed to trap diverse SAs [47,106]. Through pyrolysis, carbon vacancies are intentionally induced in graphene, showing remarkable capability to capture isolated Pt atoms (Fig. 4a) [106]. Pt SAs trapped by carbon vacancies further form Pt-C_3 active sites, exhibiting robust electron capture capability and reduced Gibbs free energy difference. Consequently, Pt-C_3 sites show exceptional HER activity, with a TOF value of 1584.6 h^{-1} and a mass activity of 26.05 A g^{-1} .

Doping provides an alternative approach for preparing SACs by defect engineering [109]. Extensive researches on nonmetallic dopants with lone-pair electrons, such as N, O, and S atoms, have yielded insights into their capacity to capture individual metal atoms through chemical bonding. A notable example of doping is preparing a durable Ni-N-C SAC to address the inherent vulnerability of Ni catalysts under acidic conditions [110]. The chemical bonding between Ni and neighboring N atoms leads to its exceptional stability, even in the presence of hot water and tungstic acid. Furthermore, the strong electronegativity of O atoms enables them to anchor single Ni atoms onto graphene, thereby forming Ni-O_6 coordination sites (Fig. 4b) [41]. Because of the remarkable activity of Ni SAs and the weak Ni-O bonds, this Ni SAC exhibits excellent HER performance in an alkaline environment. Moreover, the metal loading of Ni SAs correlates with the number of O defects, providing a facile strategy to modulate their OER performance by controlling the applied voltage or electrolytes. Doping can also induce other types of defects, such as vacancies, to construct SAs. The introduction of abundant Mg^{2+} vacancies through Al^{3+} doping plays a significant role in isolating single Cu atoms, achieving loadings of Cu atoms of up to 6.3 wt% [111]. By contrast, without Al^{3+} dopants, Cu atoms tend to aggregate into nanoparticles.

Another commonly existing defect type, i.e., edge defects, has promising potential for SAC preparation. Serving as an intrinsic defect component, edge defects provide distinctive structural and electronic environments conducive to anchoring SAs [112,113]. Experimental findings have confirmed the capability of the monoatomic step edges in CeO_2 to capture, stabilize, and manipulate Pt^{2+} SAs [114]. The manipulation of step density maximizes the Pt^{2+} coverage of step-edge sites to 80%. Analogous outcomes were obtained in studies of carbon-based SACs [115,116]. Exploiting the edge defects of mesopores in graphene enables the capture of Mo SAs, which is crucial for fabricating oxygen- and sulfur-doped graphene (OSG) hosting Mo SAs (Mo_1/OSG) [116]. Because of the capability of the defective edges to stabilize SAs, the metal loading of Mo_1/OSG is as high as 10 wt%.

Defects exert a profound influence not only on SAC preparation but also on the underlying chemical reaction

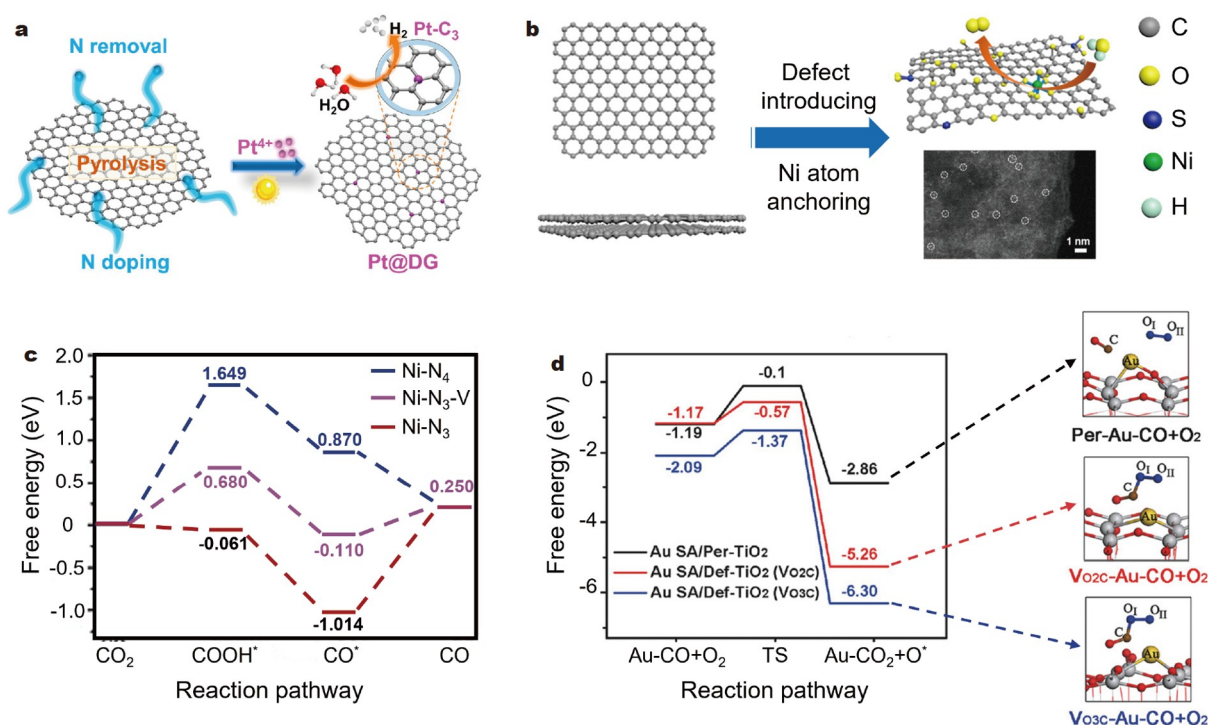


Figure 4 (a) Schematic of Pt SAs captured on carbon vacancies by pyrolysis. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [106]. Copyright 2022, American Chemical Society. (b) Schematic of the process of inducing defects and anchoring Ni atoms to generate Ni SAC. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [41]. Copyright 2020, American Chemical Society. (c) Calculated free energy diagram illustrating the conversion of CO₂ into CO on Ni-N₄, Ni-N₃-V, and Ni-N₃. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [107]. Copyright 2020, Wiley-VCH. (d) Schematic models depicting the CO oxidation process of Au SAs on perfect, O₂C, and O₃C defective TiO₂ (001) surfaces. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [108]. Copyright 2018, Wiley-VCH.

mechanisms. The active sites formed by defects could influence the energy path during catalytic reactions because of their structural alterations [117,118]. Rong *et al.* [107] conducted a seminal study of Ni SACs with vacancy defects (Ni-N₃-V SAC) and perfect supports (including Ni-N₃ and Ni-N₄ SACs) with diverse configurations by performing density functional theory (DFT) calculations on these structures. The DFT result of CO₂ reduction to COOH*, the rate-determining step of CO₂ reduction, indicates that vacancy defects substantially diminishes the energy barriers for COOH* and desorbing CO compared with Ni-N₄ sites (Fig. 4c). Although Ni-N₃ sites show favorable Gibbs energy difference at the initial steps, the pronounced discrepancy of their Gibbs energy at the fourth step impedes efficient CO₂RR. Consequently, the Ni-N₃-V SAC exhibits superior catalytic performance in CO₂RR than in Ni SAC without defects. The DFT calculations of Ni SACs on NC supports (Ni-SAC@NCs) present similar results [119]. Ni-SAC@NCs exhibits an extraordinarily low free energy barrier (0.62 eV) for COOH* generation from CO*, which is the pivotal step for CO₂RR. This remarkable CO₂RR efficiency is attributed to the favorable defect-enriched configuration. Moreover, defective structures induce changes in adsorption processes arising from steric hindrance effects, electrostatic influences, and perturbations in electronic structures [120]. Notably, single Au atoms anchored on TiO₂ nanosheets with oxygen vacancies (Au-SA/Def-TiO₂) exhibit distinct behavior [108]. In this SAC, Au SAs are stabilized by the three-center Ti-Au-O-Ti structure. Because of the large interfacial steric hindrance effect and the electrostatic repulsion caused by the surface oxygen atoms, CO adsorption on Ti atoms is weaker than that of Au SAs on perfect TiO₂

nanosheets (Au-SA/Per-TiO₂) (Fig. 4d). By contrast, Au-SA/Def-TiO₂ with oxygen vacancies exhibits heightened CO adsorption at Ti sites, alleviating the competitive adsorption between O₂ and CO. Furthermore, the energy barrier of Au-SA/Def-TiO₂ is reduced. This dual advantage attributed to oxygen vacancies collectively improves the catalytic CO oxidation process in Au-SA/Def-TiO₂. Thus, the influences of defects on the preparation process and reaction mechanism significantly enhance the catalytic performance of SACs, including stability, selectivity, and activity [121,122].

In summary, defects have been considered an indispensable factor in capturing, stabilizing, and manipulating SAs. The precisely tuned microenvironment of SACs by defective structures has promising potential in tailoring catalysts. To realize the large-scale preparation of defective SACs, energy-efficient methods to create defects are crucial and need to be further investigated.

Coordination environments

The coordination environment has a profound influence on the electronic structure of SAs, serving as an indispensable factor affecting the stability, selectivity, and activity of SACs [123–125]. The coordination environment is divided into geometric and chemical aspects, with the latter including local composition and coordination numbers (CN). The local composition influences the catalytic performance of SACs by tuning the adsorption configuration during reactions. Ru SACs captured on different cation vacancies of NiFe-layered double hydroxides (Ru₁/LDH-V_{II} or Ru₁/LDH-V_{III}) were synthesized to reveal the influences of diverse coordination environments (Fig. 5a) [126]. The obtained

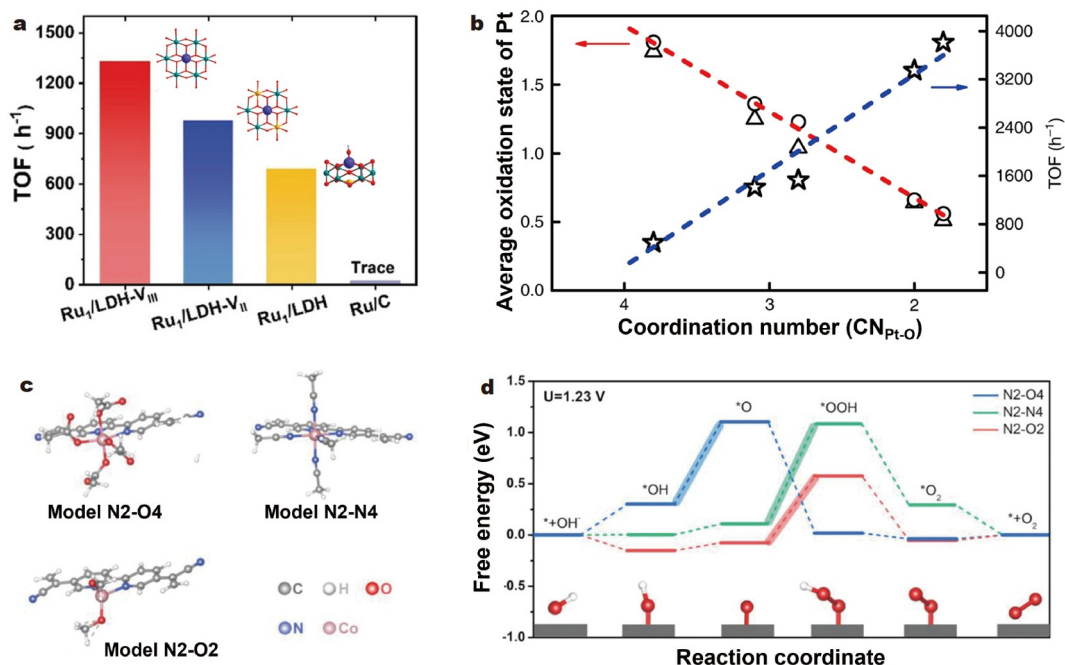


Figure 5 (a) Schematic of $\text{Ru}_1/\text{LDH-V}_{\text{III}}$, $\text{Ru}_1/\text{LDH-V}_{\text{II}}$, and Ru_1/LDH with different coordination environments and corresponding TOF values. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [129]. Copyright 2021, Wiley-VCH. (b) Linear correlations between the CN of Pt-O and the average oxidation state (red line) and between the CN of Pt-O and the hydrogenation activity (blue line) of $\text{Pt}_1/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [128]. Copyright 2019, Nature Publishing Group. (c) Potential models for three out-of-plane configurations of Co SACs. (d) Schematic of free energy over three models at 1.23 V for OER. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [130]. Copyright 2022, Wiley-VCH.

Ru SAs on cation vacancies and surface sites were generally classified as +4 and 0–+3 states, respectively. Differential coordination environments were also observed for Ru SAs anchored by LDH- M_{II} or LDH- M_{III} . Notably, Ru atoms anchored by LDH- M_{III} exhibit a higher oxidation state and fewer d-state electrons than Ru atoms anchored by LDH- M_{II} , leading to benzaldehyde desorption. As a result, differences in the coordination environments lead to diverse catalytic performance, with the Ru SAs captured by LDH- M_{II} vacancies exhibiting the highest efficiency of benzyl alcohol oxidation (TOF value of 1331 h^{-1}) among these samples.

The influence of CN on catalytic performance was exemplified in single Pt atoms on N-doped carbon with different CNs ($\text{Pt}_1\text{-N}_x\text{C}_y$) [127]. Four-coordinated single Pt atoms exhibit lower formation energy than three-coordinated single Pt atoms, indicating a preference for dispersion over aggregation. Compared with $\text{Pt}_1\text{-N}_1\text{C}_2$ with 3CN, 4CN $\text{Pt}_1\text{-N}_1\text{C}_3$ has a weaker Pt–N hybridization, corresponding to a higher Pt-5d center. The elevated 5d center optimizes the hydrogen dissociation energies, enabling 4CN $\text{Pt}_1\text{-N}_1\text{C}_3$ to increase hydrogenation activity. When the CN of Pt–O decreases, the oxidation state for Pt SAs on Fe_2O_3 ($\text{Pt}_1/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$) exhibits a proportional decrease (Fig. 5b) [128]. This shift in the Pt oxidation state further boosts the hydrogenation activity of $\text{Pt}_1/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (TOF value of up to $21,099 \text{ h}^{-1}$) while preserving its selectivity (95%–98%). These studies reveal the potential for enhancing catalytic performance by manipulating the CN of SAs.

Tuning the geometric structure of the coordination environment has emerged as a viable strategy to improve the catalytic performance of SACs. For instance, the OER performance of three out-of-plane configurations (with potential models of N2-O4, N2-N4, and N2-O2) was investigated on Co SACs,

extending the scope of geometric exploration to the coordination environment (Fig. 5c) [130]. The evaluation of these configurations reveals variations in the energy barriers for *OOH formation from *O, the rate-determining step (Fig. 5d). Consequently, diverse OER performance is achieved in different configurations. Specifically, the N2-O2 model shows the lowest energy barrier for the rate-determining step, resulting in exceptional mass activities and TOF values for this specific configuration.

In summary, the nature of support species, the presence of defect structures, and the coordination environments collectively exert pivotal influences on the catalytic properties of SACs. The feasibility of designing SACs by modulating these factors is worth investigating. Furthermore, the influences of these parameters highlight the significance of the ultimate structures in catalysis. The ultimate structure of SACs exhibits not only the indispensable role of SAs but also the profound differences in catalytic performance yielded by even slight alterations at the atomic scale.

SMACs

To improve the metal loading and modulate the electronic structure of catalysts with ultimate structures at an advanced level, the exploration of incorporating several atoms in an active center while preserving a low-dimensional structure represents a promising avenue [131]. 1D catalysts have emerged as a favored platform for catalytic applications because of their distinctive high aspect ratio and confined carrier transport pathways [132,133]. A notable example of such materials is the Fe–N-doped carbon nanofibers (Fe-NHCFs) synthesized as a typical kind of 1D carbon catalysts for ORR [134]. The pronounced specific area arising from the inherent 1D configuration equips

Fe-NHCFs with numerous active sites; meanwhile, electron transfer is facilitated using the 1D honeycomb-like conductive networks. As a result, Fe-NHCFs exhibit a current density of 5.2 mA cm^{-2} at 0.70 V (*vs.* reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE)), a notable advancement compared with 5 mA cm^{-2} for the conventional 20 wt% commercial Pt/C catalyst. Similar circumstances were observed in Fe-N-doped 1D porous carbon nanotubes [135]. These nanotubes exhibit an impressive surface area of $1380 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and electron transport expedited by the 1D structure. Subsequently, these nanotubes show remarkable ORR activity throughout a long-time test, surpassing the performance of the commercial Pt/C catalyst. However, the conventional 1D catalysts have not comprehensively emphasized or modulated the critical role of SAs, thereby rendering the regulation of catalytic performance from an ultimate structure perspective a challenge.

As a special kind of catalyst with ultimate 1D structure in the scale of SAs, SMACs not only inherit the advantages of 1D catalysts but also can harness the unique benefits of SAs. Being the smallest 1D structures formed by atoms arranged along a single direction, SMACs offer a promising avenue for generating a large number of active sites by increasing the specific surface area. Previous research has reported that the average bond strength of SMACs is twice that of bulk materials, indicating the stability of SMACs in chemical reactions [136]. The 1D structure of SMACs facilitates rapid electron transport through the oriented pathway, thereby enhancing their catalytic activity [137,138]. Furthermore, the electron transport properties of SMACs are different from those of other catalysts with ultimate structures because of the phenomenon of quantized conductance, indicating the potential for novel catalytic mechanisms

to emerge [139,140].

The introduction of Ag atoms to the tunnels of Hollandite-type manganese oxide (HMO) to form Ag SMACs exemplifies the use of the concept of SMACs [7]. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images confirm the structure of Ag-HMO nanorods and Ag SMACs, respectively (Fig. 6a, b). Theoretical models depict Ag chains and terminal Ag SAs from two distinct perspectives (Fig. 6c, d). The terminal Ag SAs exposed at the top facets of HMO become active sites for HCHO oxidation, exhibiting superior capability to activate oxygen species even at low temperatures. Although studies of SMACs in catalysis are relatively limited to date, their catalytic potential remains appealing because of the advancements in their synthesis methods [15,141]. Pt SMACs with a high density, *i.e.*, exceeding 10 wt%, were synthesized by the vapor co-deposition method [15]. Fig. 6e shows the annular dark-field scanning TEM (ADF-STEM) image of one obtained Pt SMAC. The magnified ADF-STEM image of a rectangular region in this Pt SMAC indicates that an atomically coherent 1D channel is formed (Fig. 6f). These observations reveal the well-ordered nature of Pt SMACs, as detailed in the model shown in Fig. 6g. During the deposition process, the grain boundaries of MoS_2 provide anchor sites for stabilizing Pt SMACs, resulting in an average length of up to 17 nm for high-density Pt SMACs. This synthesis strategy provides a general approach to fabricating high-density SMACs, with the potential to incorporate a multitude of active centers in catalysts with ultimate structures. Furthermore, Pt SMACs exhibit exceptional stability in ambient air, which is beneficial for prolonging the lifetime of catalysts.

Although previous studies have highlighted the promising potential of SMACs in catalysis, several challenges persist, par-

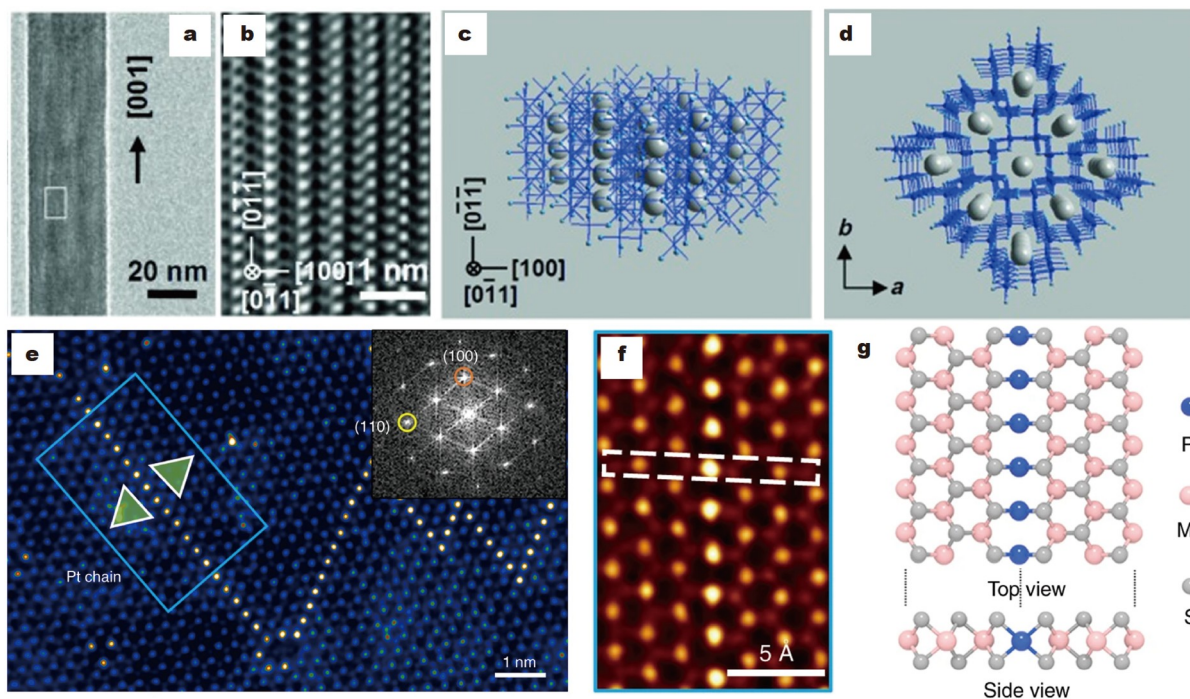


Figure 6 (a) TEM image of Ag-HMO nanorod along the growth direction of $[001]$. (b) HRTEM image revealing the Ag SMACs. (c) Schematic of Ag SMACs inside the tunnels of HMO in the direction of $[0\bar{1}1]$. (d) Schematic of Ag SMACs inside the tunnels of HMO viewed from $[001]$, indicating the terminal SAs. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [7]. Copyright 2022, Wiley-VCH. (e) False-colored ADF-STEM image of a Pt SMAC. Inset: a fast Fourier transformation of the blue rectangular area. (f) Magnified ADF-STEM image of a Pt SMAC. (g) Schematic of the detailed atomic structure of Pt SMAC. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [15]. Copyright 2022, Springer Nature.

ticularly in achieving controllable preparation methods for SMACs and enhancing their density. Notably, the exposed atoms in SMACs, which could facilitate the engagement of a larger number of active sites in catalytic reactions, need to be increased, thereby further optimizing their performance.

SALs

With the tendency to increase the metal loading for ultimate structures in the scale of SAs, current research endeavors are directed toward developing SALs, which is the smallest 2D ultimate structure [142–144]. SALs are composed of metal atoms arranged in monolayer, with thicknesses limited to approximately 1 nm [9]. The fundamental characteristic of SALs is the complete exposure and activation of atoms, leading to an ultrahigh density of active sites. This feature ensures that SALs achieve satisfactory catalytic performance. He *et al.* [8] used ion etching under low-density plasma at -30°C to remove Se atoms from predeposited 2D PtSe_2 , synthesizing Pt SAL with an amorphous structure (Fig. 7a). After the synthesis process, an assessment of the catalytic efficacy of the obtained Pt SAL was conducted. With the increase in Se vacancies during etching, an enhancement in the current density of HER in Pt SAL was observed (Fig. 7b). Initially, the basal plane of the perfect single crystal is HER inert. After plasma etching for a short time, defective PtSe_x exhibits moderate HER performance, with an onset potential of $\sim 0.1\text{ V}$ (*vs.* RHE) and a Tafel slope of $\sim 100\text{ mV dec}^{-1}$. Finally, a notable increase in the current density to 25 mA cm^{-2} at 50 mV (*vs.* RHE) in Pt SAL, accompanied by a

reduction in the Tafel slope to 39 mV dec^{-1} , is achieved. The scope of SAL extends to studies of alloys. As an illustration, an atomically thick Pt–Cu nanosheet was fabricated in a sandwich structure configuration [145]. This nanosheet exhibits remarkable activity in formic acid oxidation.

An appealing approach to advancing the field of SALs is the preparation of freestanding SALs. Theoretically, atoms in freestanding SALs have dangling bonds in one dimension while maintaining coordination bonds in other dimensions [146]. Thus, freestanding SALs exhibit a higher energy band in one dimension because of the split of its empty valence band in this 2D coordination environment. This unique structure empowers freestanding SALs to achieve unusually remarkable activity in catalysis. Conversely, within the plane formed by the two other dimensions, atoms are stabilized through coordination bonds, indicating the inherent stability of freestanding SALs. For instance, although orbital splitting is challenging to discern in Pd SAL because of the weak Pd–Pd interaction, it becomes distinctly evident in the case of PdCo SAL because of the robust Pd–Co interaction (Fig. 7c) [146]. For PdCo nanoparticles and Pd few-atom layers, the electronic interference lacks directional preference, leading to the presence of conventional orbitals. As a result, in an accelerated durability assessment spanning the range of $0.6\text{--}1.1\text{ V}$ (*vs.* RHE), PdCo SAL only shows reductions in the electrochemically active surface areas by 8.8%, whereas the 3D Pd catalyst exhibits a substantial decline as high as 67.9%. Moreover, PdCo SAL exhibits a mass activity six times higher than that of commercial Pt NP catalysts. The exceptional activity

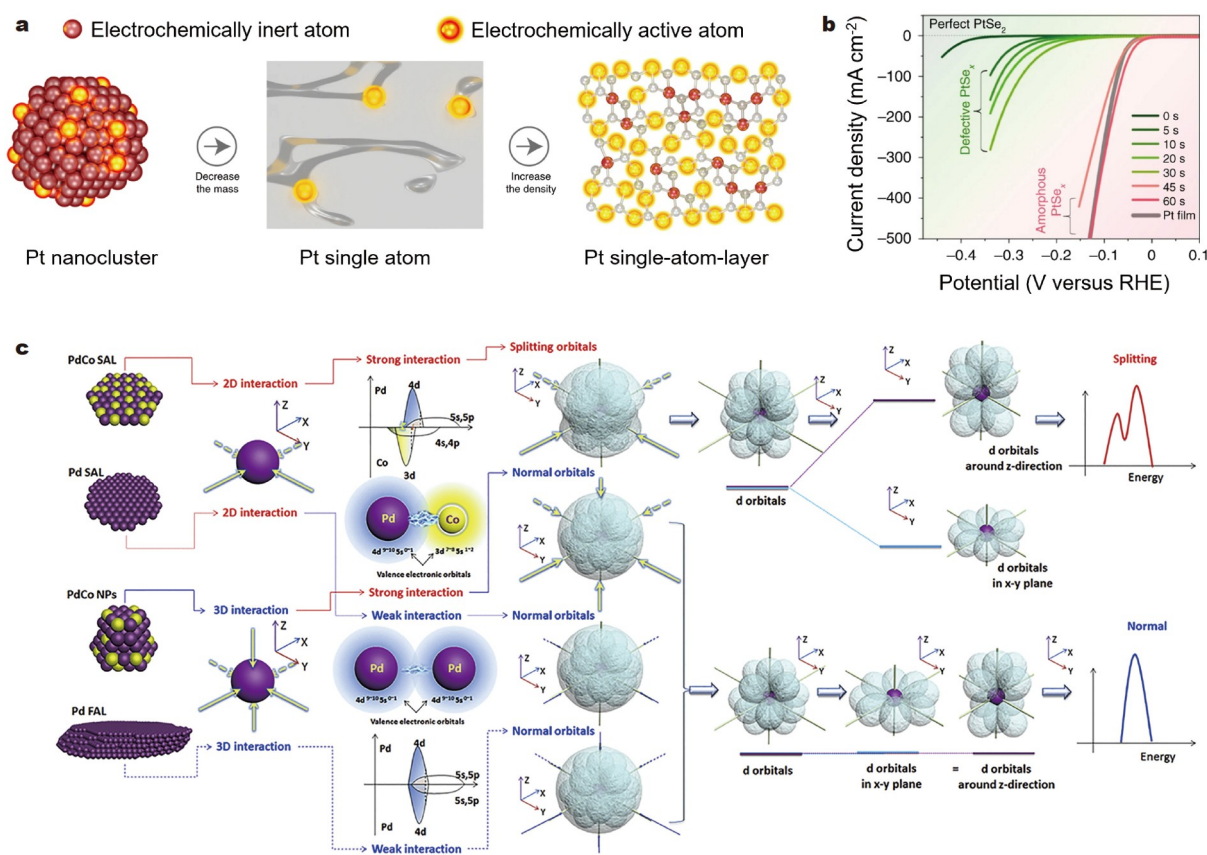


Figure 7 (a) Schematic of the structural evolution of Pt catalysts from SNCs to SAs and SALs. (b) Polarization curves of PtSe_x as the treatment duration spans from 0 to 60 s, corresponding to varying x values from 2.0 to 1.1. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [8]. Copyright 2022, Springer Nature. (c) Schematic of the 2D-oriented coordination in the SAL. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [146]. Copyright 2019, Elsevier.

and durability of PdCo SAL indicate the significance of the distinctive electronic structure inherent to SAL.

Although SALs exhibit remarkable strength in catalysis, increasing the proportion of activated atoms is a challenge in preparing SALs. For most 2D catalysts, only atoms at the edge are activated, leaving other areas of the monolayer uninvolved in the reaction. Moreover, parameters that regulate active sites, including defects, substrate species, and coordination environments, play a pivotal role in advancing SALs [146–148]. Notably, the confinement effect of the oxygen vacancies was used to prevent Pt atoms from aggregating, which is beneficial for anchoring Pt SAL [147]. This Pt SAL exhibits an outstanding hydrogen evolution rate of $25.5 \mu\text{mol cm}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ and stability for up to one week.

ULTIMATE STRUCTURE II: SNCs

Ultimate structures in the scale of SAs have remarkable advantages, such as maximized atomic utilization efficiency, large specific surface area, and unsaturated coordination environments. However, their progress in catalysis is inherently constrained by the structure of single active centers. For SACs, the restrictions in metal loading, linear relationship, and electronic structure are inevitable. Metal loading lower than 1 wt% has impeded catalytic application for a large proportion of SACs

[24,31–33], as discussed in SACs. Overcoming this challenge within SACs remains a complex task because of the ultrahigh free energy of SAs. Moreover, all intermediates of SAC are bound in the same active site during the reaction. Previous studies have indicated that this situation will lead to a linear relationship between intermediate and adsorption energy [149]. However, a tradeoff arises between activation and desorption, which means that the linearly varying adsorption energy makes it difficult for SACs to modulate the reaction pathway [150]. Moreover, although the electronic structure of active sites in SACs could be modulated by supports and defects, the inherent simplicity of the SAC structure limits the efficacy of such modulation, particularly in sophisticated reactions [151]. For SMACs and SALs, the research is still in the initial stages. The development of refined synthesis and activation methodologies for SMACs and SALs requires further exploration [7,9].

To solve the aforementioned challenge of SACs, a range of strategies involving synergistic effects and dynamics have been pursued [152]. As a cross-dimensional extension of ultimate structures in the scale of SAs, SNCs have emerged as a promising avenue for addressing these issues. SNCs (smaller than their threshold sizes of quantum size effect, generally <2 nm in size) are composed of dual atoms to dozens of atoms (Fig. 8a), constituting a distinctive category of ultimate structures in catalysis

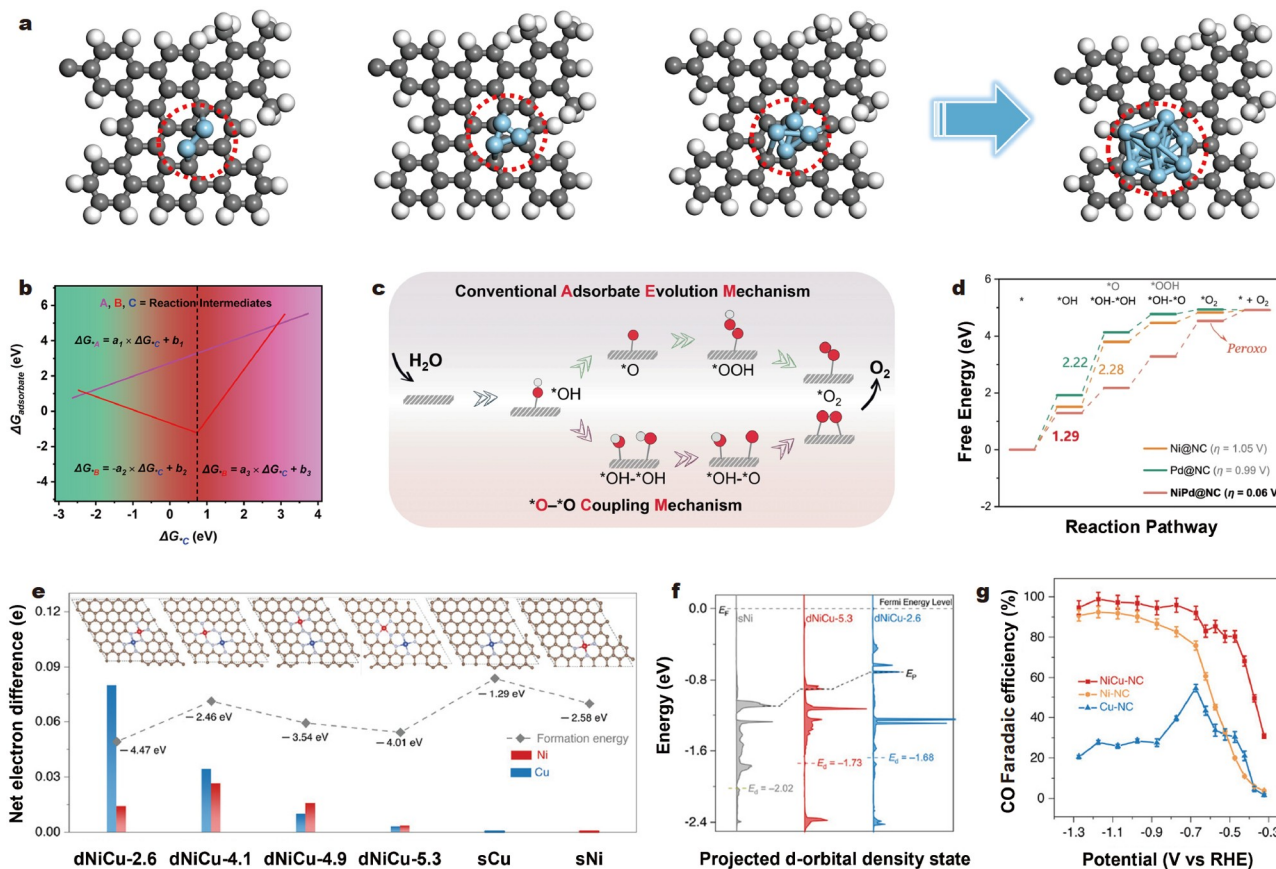


Figure 8 (a) Schematic of SNCs with different numbers of atoms. (b) Linear relationship of the free energy of adsorption of intermediates in SACs. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [157]. Copyright 2022, American Chemical Society. (c) Schematic of the conventional adsorption evolution and $^*\text{O}-^*\text{O}$ coupling mechanisms. (d) Gibbs free energy diagram of NiPd@NC and the corresponding SACs for OER. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [158]. Copyright 2023, Springer Nature. (e) Net electron difference of Ni and Cu sites in different dNiCu models using Ni SAC (sNi) and Cu SAC (sCu) models as the baseline, respectively. (f) Comparison of the free energy diagrams of Ni sites for the dNiCu-5.3, dNiCu-2.6, and sNi models under HER. (g) Potential-dependent Faradaic efficiencies of CO for NiCu-NC, Ni-NC, and Cu-NC. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [159]. Copyright 2023, Wiley-VCH.

[10]. The significant feature of SNCs is the quantization of the conduction band, which enables them to exhibit different electronic properties in comparison with nanoparticles (>2 nm) with a relatively continuous valence band [153]. Au SNCs have been investigated as a typical example of SNCs for decades, exhibiting considerable electronic relaxation when changing from Au nanoparticle (15 nm) to Au₅₅ SNC (1.4 nm) [154]. The decrease in electronic relaxation continues as the size reduces to 0.7 nm in Au₁₃ SNC, which further highlights the difference between SNCs and nanoparticles. Furthermore, significant advancements in terms of increasing metal loading, breaking linear relationships, and modulating electronic structure have been observed in SNCs [4,151,155]. Consequently, SNCs have exhibited exceptional catalytic performance compared with ultimate structures with SAs [10,156]. The origins and current developments of these strengths of SNCs will be subsequently discussed.

Why SNCs?

Compared with SACs, SNCs exhibit distinctive properties, such as increased metal loading, the disruption of linear scaling relationships, and enhanced electronic structures, as previously discussed [156,160]. In SNCs, each active site comprises multiple metal atoms, leading to higher metal loadings compared with SACs, even with an equivalent number of active sites. Furthermore, because of the interactions between adjacent atoms, the formation energy of multiatom sites generally tends to be lower than that of SACs, indicating that the multi-atom configurations in SNCs are inherently considerably stable [11,161]. Moreover, compared with SMACs and SALs that need to be precisely prepared, SNCs have advantages in simplifying the synthesis process [162,163]. These inherent features collectively contribute to the facilitated increase in metal loading for SNCs. For instance, Wei *et al.* [164] prepared Fe dual atoms on graphitized N-doped carbon layers. Theoretical calculations validate that the formation energy of dual Fe configurations is lower than that of Fe SAs, indicating a propensity for higher metal loading with Fe.

The optimized adsorption configuration and reaction pathway lead to the breakage of the linear relationship in SNCs. A representative linear relationship of the free energies of adsorption between intermediate C and other intermediates of SACs is shown in Fig. 8b, where the simple structure of active sites makes it difficult to modulate the free energy of adsorption [157]. By contrast, active centers in SNCs are composed of multiple adjacent atoms, enabling reactants to not only bond with diverse elements but also simultaneously engage with multiple atoms during reactions [165,166]. This structure allows SNCs to surpass the constraints of bonding with only the same atom in SACs for reactants, particularly during complex reactions. Therefore, SNCs can provide a broad range of adsorption configurations, thus enhancing their potential to improve catalytic performance. Fang *et al.* [158] investigated a series of dual-atom catalysts (DACs, referred to as M'M@NC) to unravel their reaction pathways. In the conventional adsorption evolution mechanism (AEM), the binding energies of intermediates exhibit strong correlations. However, the *O-*O coupling mechanism (OCM) with a second active center breaks this structural constraint in AEM. In OCM, the pathway of O₂ production circumvents the *OOH, thereby enabling M'M@NC to avoid the linear relationship (Fig. 8c). As a result, all M'M@NC samples exhibit superior OER activity compared with the corresponding SACs. A notable illustration is provided by NiPd@NC, where the

Gibbs free energy barrier for OER is significantly reduced compared with those of Ni@NC and Pd@NC (Fig. 8d).

Because of the presence of additional metal atoms within the active centers, SNCs provide a broad range of avenues for enhancing catalytic performance compared with SACs, particularly the modulations to optimize electronic structures [167–169]. The interactions between multiple atoms within SNCs lead to a coupling effect on electronic structures, thereby modulating d-band structures and charge densities accordingly [170]. Moreover, the unique microenvironment of SNCs renders them sensitive and adaptable to tailoring electronic structures in response to different intermediates [171,172]. The distinctive electronic structures of SNCs could be revealed through investigations on NiCu dual atoms on NC (NiCu-NC) [159]. When the inter-metal distance falls below a critical threshold (5.3 Å), the decrease in the inter-metal distance leads to a strongly altered electronic structure for metal centers (Fig. 8e). Simultaneously, the DOS for NiCu-NC shows a marked upshift of the d-band center with the decrease in the inter-metal distance (Fig. 8f). This controlled electronic structure in the threshold-distributed NiCu-NC enhances the adsorption of CO₂ during electroreduction, resulting in a lower onset potential (300 mV) and a broader potential window (~800 mV) than the counterparts (Fig. 8g). In summary, the superiorities of SNCs on increasing metal loading, breaking linear scaling relationships, and enhancing electronic structures enable them to exhibit exceptional performance in catalysis.

DACs

The DACs have been extensively investigated as a basic and prominent category of various SNCs, combining the advantages of SACs and SNCs [173–175]. Remarkable breakthroughs have been achieved in synthesizing DACs with high metal loadings. For instance, carbon nanofibers treated with nitrogen plasma yield active sites capable of hosting Fe and Co dual atoms (Fe, Co SAs-PNCF) with a metal loading of up to 9.8 wt% (Fig. 9a) [176]. The metal loading of Fe, Co SAs-PNCF exhibits a linear correlation with the degree of defects, verifying that a higher defect density leads to a higher metal loading (Fig. 9b). Theoretically designed DACs have achieved metal loading exceeding 40 wt% by reducing the number of carbon atoms surrounding the dual-metal active sites, validating the feasibility of creating DACs with exceptionally high metal loading [177]. The significance of unique electronic structures remains pivotal in investigations concerning DACs. An example is FeCo dual atoms dispersed on an N-doped graphitic carbon (FeCo-DACs/NC), providing an avenue for designing DACs with tailored electronic structures [178]. The balance between the rate-determining steps of the oxygen electrocatalysis processes is achieved by the electron cooperation between Fe and Co atoms because the adsorption energy of intermediates is optimized by the change of the d-band. As a result, FeCo-DACs/NC exhibits superior catalytic performance in ORR, attaining a kinetic current density of up to 11.05 mA cm⁻².

The synergistic effect is considered a crucial feature in optimizing the catalytic performance of DACs. For instance, IrMo dual atoms on TiO₂ (Ir₁Mo₁/TiO₂ DAC) exhibit exceptional catalytic selectivity (>96% at 100% conversion) for the hydrogenation of 4-nitrostyrene (4-NS) to 4-vinylaniline [179]. This remarkable performance can be attributed to the cooperative interaction between Ir and Mo atoms in hydrogen activation and

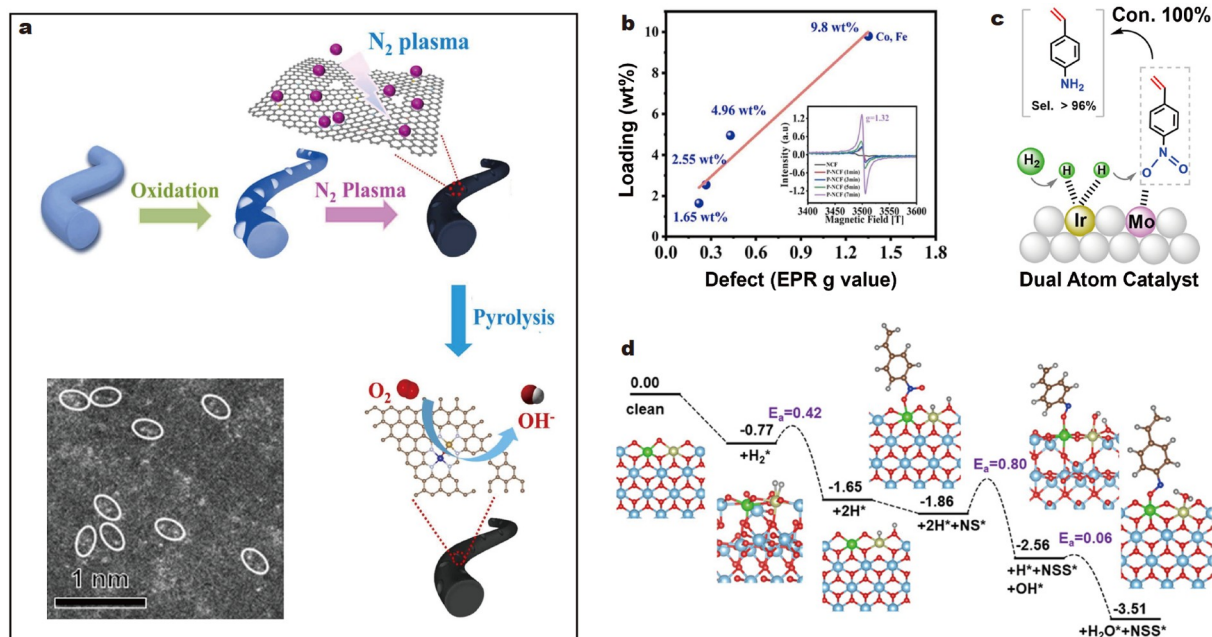


Figure 9 (a) Schematic of the preparation process of Fe, Co SAs-PNCF, and its high-angle ADF (HAADF)-STEM image. (b) Relation among the nitrogen content of Fe, Co SAs-PNCF, and the plasma treatment time. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [176]. Copyright 2022, Elsevier. (c) Schematic of the reaction pathway for Ir₁Mo₁/TiO₂ DAC, showing the cooperation between Ir and Mo atoms. (d) Energy profiles of the deoxygenation of 4-NS to 4-vinylaniline on Ir₁Mo₁/TiO₂ DAC. Unit: eV. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [179]. Copyright 2021, American Chemical Society.

4-NS adsorption (Fig. 9c). During the reaction, the total energy of the system is first decreased to -1.65 eV as Ir sites facilitate the activation of hydrogen, followed by a further reduction to -1.86 eV through the subsequent adsorption of 4-NS on Mo sites (Fig. 9d). By contrast, Ir₁/TiO₂ exhibits 38% activity at 87% conversion, and its Mo₁/TiO₂ counterpart shows no activity. A previous report explores the synergistic effect of Ag and Cu in methane oxidation [180]. The ZSM-5 supported Ag and Cu dual atoms (Ag₁-Cu₁/ZSM-5) activate the C-H bond of CH₄ and the O-O bond of H₂O₂ during the reaction. This cooperative effect leads to a selectivity of 81% while outperforming several noble metal catalysts in terms of productivity. Notably, this synergistic phenomenon is absent in Cu and Ag nanoparticles, and Ag SAC exhibits only half the productivity of Ag₁-Cu₁/ZSM-5. For homonuclear DACs, the synergistic effect is also essential. Fe dual atoms captured by carbon defects (Fe₂DAC) on the covalent organic framework (COF) were synthesized by one-step carbonization [181]. The synergistic effect of dual atoms in Fe₂DAC engenders heightened adsorption of crucial intermediates, thereby outperforming the Fe SAC counterparts in ORR activity. Furthermore, DFT calculations reveal improved charge distribution near FeCu active sites in FeCu DACs, thereby enhancing the adsorption of peroxydisulfate [182].

In summary, DACs have remarkable advantages in increasing metal loading, optimizing adsorption configurations, and modulating electronic structures. Moreover, studies of DACs provide a valuable perspective for the future development of other SNCs because DACs perform as the simplest SNCs. To further enhance the catalytic performance of DACs, efforts to broaden the range of support species are necessary. Moreover, in-depth investigations on the reaction mechanism of DACs, particularly the role of each atom in an active site during a reaction, need to

be conducted.

Other SNC catalysts

In addition to DACs, SNCs comprising numerous atoms have yielded exceptional catalytic performance, meriting further exploration [4,160,183]. The synergistic effects of Cu-Pt-Au SNCs (~ 1 nm) result in unprecedented catalytic activity for the aerobic oxidation of hydrocarbons (i.e., 1433 metal atom⁻¹ h⁻¹ TOF value, which is 24 times greater than that of commercial Pt catalyst) [184]. Because of their favorable structure for C-H bond activation and butene desorption, Pt₃ SNCs exhibit remarkable selectivity (99%) and excellent conversion (35%) toward *n*-butane direct dehydrogenation [185]. This conversion is the highest compared with that of Pt nanoparticles and Pt SACs, indicating the promising perspective of SNCs in catalysis.

Similar to DACs, the electronic structure of SNCs is vastly changed by the orbital overlap between metal atoms [186]. Moreover, the electron state of SNCs is influenced by several factors, including ligands, dopants, and nuclearity [10,187,188]. Ligand-stabilized Au SNCs exhibit distinct electronic structures in comparison with their bulk Au counterparts [189]. This discrepancy includes shifts in the d-band center, reduction in spin-orbit splitting, and narrowing of the d-band. A similar phenomenon is observed in NiFeMo SNCs, wherein introducing Mo and Fe atoms through doping leads to a shift in the d-band center. Furthermore, the effect of the evolution of the electronic structure on SNC size has been systematically explored [4,188]. Researchers have conducted comprehensive investigations into the electronic structure of Pt clusters, ranging from 12 to 1415 atoms (0.7–3.5 nm in diameter) [188]. Notably, Pt SNCs composed of 13 and 55 atoms exhibit significant gaps in DOS that exert a significant influence on binding strength, which is less

pronounced in Pt clusters with more atoms. As the SNC size increases, the influence of adsorbates on charge density by adsorbates becomes more localized and finally converged to the bulk limit at 1.6 nm when the electronic finite-size effects vanish. Accordingly, Pt clusters comprising more than 147 atoms (1.7 nm) exhibit a charge density resembling that of a surface slab. This tunable electronic structure endows SNCs with catalytic performance connected with their microenvironment, particularly their constituent atom count.

Given that the catalytic performance of SNCs varies with nuclearity, a comparative investigation of the influence of nuclearity and the identification of the optimal atom count is crucial for SNC studies [190,191]. Li *et al.* [191] investigated the catalytic performance of Mo_x ($x = 1-4$) anchored on graphdiyne ($\text{Mo}_x@\text{GDY}$) for N_2RR . $\text{Mo}_3@\text{GDY}$ with triple Mo atoms in one active site shows the best activity and selectivity for N_2RR among various samples, indicating a substantial opportunity for catalysts with triple atoms. Triple-atom catalysts also exhibit exceptional performance in other catalytic reactions. In the context of the hydrogenation of functionalized alkynes, Pd SAs, dimers, and trimers show distinct behaviors [192]. Pd trimers exhibit heightened activity because of the reduction in the hydrogen activation barrier, whereas Pd SAs exhibit enhanced selectivity and durability. Ru_3 SNCs stabilized by nitrogen species (abbreviated as Ru_3/CN) exhibit a higher TOF (4320 h^{-1}) and conversion (100%) than Ru_1/CN SAC (TOF value of 416 h^{-1} and conversion of 21%), achieving impressive activity in the selective oxidation of primary alcohols to aldehydes [193]. The excellent catalytic performance of Ru_3/CN can be attributed to its unique adsorption configuration, wherein one Ru atom is bonded with hydroxyl and amino groups. For SNCs with more atoms, the influences of nuclearity are also inevitable. Notably, SNC with 12 Pt atoms (Pt_{12} SNC) formed by the removal of an SA from the 13-atom counterpart (Pt_{13} SNC) yields a substantial enhancement of ORR activity [194]. This profound transformation is caused by the correspondence between the nuclearity of SNCs and their coordination. Specifically, Pt_{12} SNC exhibits distorted coordination, whereas Pt_{13} SNC maintains a stable icosahedral atomic arrangement.

Given the remarkable catalytic performance attained by SNCs with a specific nuclearity, the atomically precise control of the nuclearity and composition of SNCs is essential. The electronic band structure, activity, and selectivity of SNCs would be significantly changed by removing or adding an atom, enabling the effective control of the nuclearity of SNCs [195,196]. Strengthened MSI and facilitated synergistic effect could be achieved using appropriate atomic species and proportions, which enable the fine modulation of SNC composition [197-199]. For instance, different numbers of Pd atoms lead to distinct stability of the valence shell, thereby influencing the CO oxidation activity of Pd SNCs [200]. A crucial requirement for tailoring the nuclearity of SNCs is identified in Ag catalysts, where the constraints imposed by the low d-band center on their ORR performance are avoided by rationally modulated size [169]. Specifically, adatoms in Ag SNCs with 1.7 nm in size effectively induce alterations in the electronic structure, consequently enhancing the d-band center. As a result, this Ag SNC exhibits a superior 148-fold surge in mass activity of ORR compared with that of Ag nanoparticles. Based on this circumstance, the ORR performance of Ag SNCs can be optimized by atomically precise control of nuclearity. A previous study of SNCs with diverse Pd-

Ru proportions reported that the naphthalene hydrogenation selectivity of Cu_6Ru_6 is higher than that of $\text{Cu}_4\text{Ru}_{12}$, which highlights the importance of atomically precise SNC composition [201]. To realize the atomically precise regulation of the nuclearity and composition of SNCs, considerable efforts have been made to improve their preparation methods, such as sequential self-limiting growth, deposition of defined precursors, and gas phase redispersion [202,203]. Computational research further bridges the gap between the structure and catalytic performance of SNCs [204,205]. The atomically precise modulation of the nuclearity and composition of SNCs is expected to have more exceptional outcomes in the future.

Apart from nuclearity and composition, supports also have considerable influence on the catalytic performance of SNCs, similar to that of SACs. The surface properties of supports influence not only the adsorption and dispersion of precursors but also the stability of SNCs [206,207]. The functionalization of supports further enhances their effects on SNCs. For instance, the tannic acid monolayer facilitates the adsorption of Pt precursor on carbon supports, thus enabling Pt SNCs (average diameter: $\sim 0.4 \text{ nm}$) to disperse on the tannic acid monolayer-functionalized carbon surface with high density [208]. These as-prepared Pt SNCs exhibit remarkable mass activity/TOF value, surpassing that of commercial Pt/C catalysts.

As a cross-dimensional extension of ultimate structures in the scale of SAs, SNCs exhibit a satisfactory perspective for improving catalytic performance from different perspectives. The presence of additional atoms in active sites triggers a synergistic effect among metal atoms, with substantial potential for increasing metal loading, breaking linear relationships, and optimizing electronic structures. The correlation between the number of constituent atoms in SNCs and their catalytic properties provides novel insights into tailoring catalysts to meet specific demands. Moreover, the variable catalytic performance of SNCs verifies the advantages of ultimate structures in catalysis. Ultimate structures in SAs and SNCs for different reactions are summarized in Table 1 according to previous discussions, providing a comprehensive understanding of these catalysts.

ULTIMATE STRUCTURE III: ELECTRONS

Although electrons are an interior constituent of atoms, their indispensable role in modulating catalytic performance, particularly in catalysis from a microscopic perspective, has been recognized. The capacity of electrons to initiate catalytic cycles, modulate the energy barriers, and fine-tune optimized catalytic configurations enables their exploration as a unique component in catalysis. Therefore, electrons need to be considered a special category of ultimate structures in catalysis.

Among various ultimate structures that effectively modulate performance in catalysis, the smallest is an electron. The size of an electron (0.55 mg mol^{-1}) is even smaller than that of a proton (1.0 mg mol^{-1}), not to mention other atoms or SNCs [14,209]. Despite its minuscule size, the influence of electrons on catalysis is undeniable. The electron has been recognized as an effective unit in catalysis as it initiates the catalytic cycle of redox reactions [210]. A typical electron-catalyzed Diels-Alder reaction is shown in Fig. 10a, in which the electron commences the catalytic cycle [14]. A complete catalytic cycle can be achieved through the injection of electrons into substrates, the formation of intermediates, the conversion into products, and the subsequent return of electrons [14]. In-depth investigations into the role of

Table 1 Diverse ultimate structures for different reactions

Ultimate structure	Support	Reaction type	Ref.	
SAC	Fe	NSFC	ORR	[50]
	Ir	Carbon nitride	CO ₂ RR	[58]
	Co	Graphene	HER	[60]
	Co	3D hybrid MOF	ORR	[78]
	Fe	Porous carbon	ORR/OER	[89]
SMAC	Cu	Au	Nitrate reduction reaction	[96]
	Pd	CeO ₂	CO oxidation	[102]
	Ag	HMO	HCHO oxidation	[7]
SAL	Pt	SiO ₂	HER	[8]
SNC	Fe, Co	PNCF	ORR	[176]
	Fe ₂	COF	ORR	[181]
	Mo _x (x = 1–4)	GDY	N ₂ RR	[191]
	Pt ₁₂	Without support	ORR	[194]

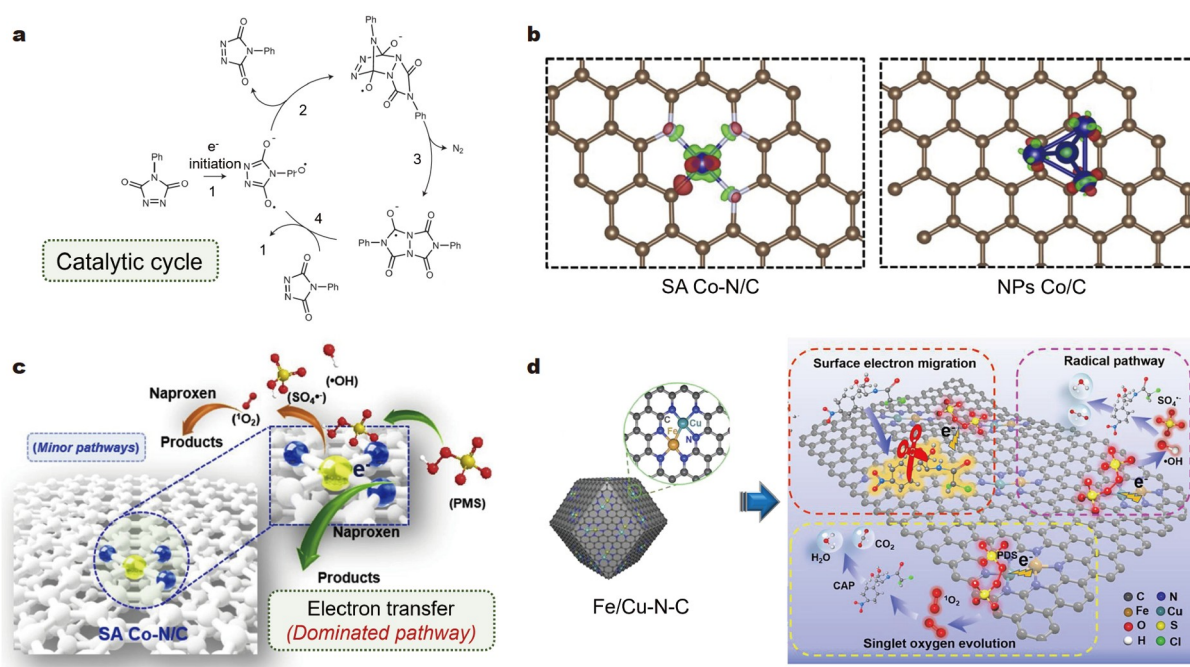


Figure 10 (a) Electron-catalyzed Diels–Alder reaction. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [14]. Copyright 2014, Springer Nature. (b) Top view of different charge densities in SA Co-N/C and NPs Co/C. (c) Catalytic mechanism of SA Co-N/C for PMS activation. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [213]. Copyright 2021, Elsevier. (d) Mechanism diagram of chloramphenicol decomposition by Fe/Cu-N-C. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [214]. Copyright 2021, Elsevier.

electrons in catalysis are frequently conducted in fields of synthetic covalent and noncovalent chemistry. For instance, introducing a chemical electron source was observed to expedite molecular recognition during the formation of a tri-radical complex, which was a kinetically prohibited process under standard conditions [211]. By applying catalytic amounts of charge, the Newman–Kwart rearrangement was observed to occur at ambient temperature, avoiding the requirement of conducting this rearrangement between 200 and 300°C [212].

More importantly, electrons represent a fundamental element that profoundly influences the catalytic performance of various catalysts, particularly those with ultimate structures. Although

extensive research has focused on atoms as the fundamental components driving the improvement of catalysts with ultimate structures, the behavior of electrons determines the mechanisms of these catalysts. For instance, single Co atoms anchored on NC (denoted as SA Co-N/C) trigger the migration of electrons from peroxydisulfate (PMS) to Co sites, resulting in the creation of electron-rich active sites surrounding the Co atoms (Fig. 10b) [213]. Conversely, in the case of nanoparticle-based Co catalyst (NPs Co/C), electron transfer occurs from Co atoms to the adjacent carbon atoms because of the interactions between the NPs Co and carbon network. In the degradation of naproxen (NPX) through PMS activation, PMS is initially adsorbed

around Co active sites. The electron-rich environment in SA Co-N/C facilitates the transfer of electrons from PMS to Co, thereby expediting NPX degradation through this electron transfer process (Fig. 10c). This electron-driven mechanism predominantly governs NPX degradation and consequently contributes to the remarkable catalytic activity (0.241 min^{-1}) of SA Co-N/C. Moreover, Cu and Ni dual atoms dispersed on N-doped carbon (abbreviated as Cu/Ni-NC) exhibit an NH_3 Faradaic efficiency of up to 97.28% during NH_3 synthesis from NO_3^- [215]. The accelerated electron transfer from Cu and Ni dual atoms to NO_3^- is a pivotal factor in enhancing the catalytic performance of Cu/Ni-NC, which is caused by the robust covalent character of Cu-Ni sites. In the case of FeCu dual atoms on nitrogen-carbon (Fe/Cu-N-C), electron transfer from Cu atoms to Fe atoms optimizes the bonding orbital distribution of Fe 3d orbitals, providing Fe atoms with a low valence state [214]. This electron-rich environment leads to the reduced adsorption energy of peroxydisulfate, enhancing its adsorption and catalytic activity in chloramphenicol decomposition. Furthermore, the electron transfer from the Fe/Cu-N-C center to peroxydisulfate facilitates the cleavage of $-\text{O}-\text{O}-$ bonds, a critical step in the catalytic mechanism of chloramphenicol decomposition (Fig. 10d). Consequently, the removal rate of chloramphenicol increases from 0.073 to 0.093 min^{-1} compared with that of Fe SAC. Notably, the exceptional catalytic activity of colloidal Ag SNCs in the reduction of phenosafranin is attributed to their size (20–30 nm), which is suitable for efficient electron transfer [216]. The cluster potential associated with the SNC size in these Ag SNCs resides between that of the donor and acceptor, enabling Ag SNCs to function as electron relay points. The unique electron transfer pathway through Ag SNCs provides a reduced activation energy, accelerating the redox reaction. Although studies on SALs and SMACs are limited, electrons still play a significant role in research [147,217].

In summary, electrons play a modulatory role in catalysis by establishing active sites, optimizing adsorption configurations, and reducing energy barriers. These diverse influences are conducive to tailoring catalysts toward the attainment of exceptional performance. The electronic structures discussed in previous chapters also originate from the intricate behavior of electrons, further establishing electrons as a pivotal component for modulating catalysts. Furthermore, electrons function as the connective thread connect diverse ultimate structures in catalysis, thereby furnishing an invaluable avenue for the prospective advancement of catalysts.

CONCLUSION AND PERSPECTIVES

Ultimate structures, including SAs, SNCs, and electrons, have shown outstanding catalytic performance. The SAs have presented enhanced atomic use efficiency, increased specific surface area, and unsaturated coordination environments. For SNCs, the synergistic interaction between metal atoms becomes evident, enabling them to increase metal loading, disrupt linear relationships, and adjust electron configurations. The significance of electrons as the smallest category of ultimate structures has gained considerable attention, with a promising potential to provide novel insights into catalysis. However, current studies of ultimate structures in catalysis are incomprehensive. The following crucial aspects require to be explored to completely harness the potential of ultimate structures in catalysis.

(1) The integration of diverse ultimate structures in catalysts

can generate further advancements in catalysis. The interactions between various ultimate structures with distinctive advantages have exhibited the potential to improve catalytic performance. For instance, the manipulation of the electronic structure of individual Fe atoms through neighboring Fe SNCs yields heightened ORR activity and improved antioxidation stability [218]. Hence, the rational combination of ultimate structures at different scales emerges as a viable strategy to improve catalytic performance.

(2) Emphasizing the stability of catalysts with ultimate structures is imperative for enhancing catalytic performance. The tendency for aggregation inherent in ultimate structures exhibits the necessity for robust stability during chemical reactions. Numerous investigations have made efforts to improve the stability of ultimate structures in catalysis, in which the pivotal points are exploiting adjacent atoms or defects and promoting the interactions between ultimate structures and supports. [35,219,220]. Dopants, vacancies, and edges on support surfaces are frequently exploited to regulate the microenvironment of ultimate structures precisely, thus enhancing their catalytic stability. Supports with highly electronegative atoms could also anchor and stabilize ultimate structures by strengthening their bond. Notably, strong MSI enables Pt SAs to disperse on $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ stably, even without surface defects. Encapsulation and appropriate preparation methods, including coprecipitation and pyrolysis, for stable ultimate structures have also been evaluated in previous studies [30,221,222]. Moreover, ultimate structures with well-designed geometric features to separate SAs or SNCs can effectively enhance their stability. An example is Pt SAs that are confined by oxide SNCs and unable to move across clusters [219]. These obtained Pt SAs maintain atomic dispersion under oxidizing and reducing environments, which is beneficial for practical applications. In the future, in-depth research on stabilizing catalysts with ultimate structures in diverse environments will further exert substantial influence on catalysis.

(3) Controllable synthesis is important for the industrial usage of catalysts with ultimate structures. The catalytic performance of catalysts is substantially dependent on their structural features, including factors such as metal loading, atomic distribution, and electronic structure. However, maintaining precise ultimate structures, particularly the well-designed distribution of SAs, is a challenge during the preparation of catalysts. Several strategies have been exploited to address this issue. Strengthened MSI not only contributes to the formation and stability of ultimate structures but also enables them to retain their features during preparation. Methods involving the functionalization of supports or precursors and defect engineering have been verified to be effective [128,223,224]. The appropriate selection of preparation methods helps maintain ultimate structures. Rapid thermal treatment has a remarkable effect on maintaining the dispersion of SAs, which is difficult for conventional preparation methods to achieve [128]. Recently, the unique arrangement of atoms by spatial confinements has emerged as a powerful approach to stabilizing ultimate structures because it could prevent the disassembly and aggregation of ultimate structures. An example of this strategy is Pt SAs and SNCs prepared by the confinement of cups and cages in zeolites [225]. Comprehensive research on the controllable synthesis of ultimate structures is required, considering that the tradeoff between controllable synthesis and cost efficiency persists even for extensively investigated SACs. Therefore, attaining breakthroughs in syn-

thesizing catalysts with controllable ultimate structures will contribute to their large-scale applications.

(4) The manipulation of electron transfer is crucial for investigating ultimate structures in catalysis. Electrons play a significant role in optimizing adsorption configurations and rationalizing reaction pathways, which makes it imperative to improve catalytic performance through well-tuned electron transfer within reactions. Therefore, for ultimate structures in future catalysis, efforts to achieve well-designed control of electron transfer mechanisms become indispensable. Representative strategies to address this issue involve surface modification, heterojunction constructions, and configuration modification. The introduction of dopants, vacancies, and ligands to supports has been extensively used to tune the charge transfer in ultimate structures. Recently, heterojunctions expediting the efficient separation and fast transportation of charge carriers have received increasing attention and serve as a powerful approach to enhancing catalytic performance by designing electron transfer mechanisms [226–228]. Moreover, the asymmetry of atomic configurations could be used to regulate charge distribution, particularly for that in SNCs [159,229]. For future developments of ultimate structures in catalysis, strategies to realize controllable and well-designed electron transfer mechanisms would be valued.

(5) The development of techniques for precise characterization and identification could provide effective information on the structure and evolution of SAs. Techniques to characterize SAs, such as X-ray absorption spectroscopy, scanning tunneling microscopy, and TEM, have also received increasing attention. With improvements in synthesizing SAs with ultimate structures for catalysis, further studies should be directed to dynamic and *in situ* characterization techniques, which could reveal the behavior of SAs under reactions. Considering the limitation of extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) to distinguish SAs and clusters, precise and comprehensive identification techniques of diverse ultimate structures are also merited [230].

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催化中的极限结构: 单原子, 亚纳米团簇和电子

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摘要 催化剂的尺寸在降低到原子尺度时表现出显著的性能提升, 如原子利用率提高、配位不饱和度增强和比表面积增加。为了实现高效催化, 针对原子分布和电子行为的精细设计与调控至关重要, 由此引入了“极限结构”这一概念。极限结构涵盖了单个原子、双原子, 单个原子链/层和亚纳米团簇等结构。围绕这些极限结构在原子和电子尺度上研究催化剂, 可以更深入地理解其本征性质并为未来的催化剂设计提供新的方向。本文总结了极限结构在催化应用中的最新进展和研究方向, 重点讨论单原子、亚纳米团簇和电子尺度的反应动力学。特别关注极限结构的优化策略, 如金属-支撑作用增强、缺陷和电子结构调控。探讨了各种极限结构之间的相互关系, 强调了每个结构的特性。最后, 展望了极限结构在催化领域的未来发展趋势。