

Dynamically confined single-atom catalytic sites within a porous heterobilayer for CO oxidation via electronic antenna effects

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Suppression of clustering of single-atom catalysts during chemical reaction is a long-standing challenge in heterogeneous catalysis, largely due to the prevailing design scheme that the catalytic atoms are anchored onto the supporting surfaces. Here we use first-principles approaches to establish a different design principle, where the single-atom catalytic centers are dynamically sandwiched between a porous g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ heterobilayer as a prototypical system. We show that many of the transition metals can be well stabilized as dispersive single atoms within the porous centers. Moreover, the single atoms migrate out of their sandwiched homes in O₂ activation and CO oxidation, and successfully return home after the reaction is completed. In such a dynamical process the single atoms function as electronic antennas, facilitating the charge donation to or acceptance from the reactants, while effectively lowering the reaction barriers. These findings are instructive in establishing high-performance single-atom catalysts upon two-dimensional porous materials.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, two important enabling concepts, i.e., single atom catalysis (SAC) [1–12] and confined catalysis [13–22], have been intensively exploited in the broad field of chemical catalysis. SAC, referring to the enhanced catalysis by single-atom catalysts with atomically deposited catalytic monomers stabilized on proper substrates, has surged to the forefront of heterogeneous catalysis due to the maximal atom utilization and abundant active sites [23–27]. In contrast to traditional nanocluster catalysts with different types of active sites [28–32] that otherwise may also promote undesirable side reactions, the systems in SAC could possess dramatically enhanced reaction selectivity owing to their specific coordination numbers and electronic structures [33–35]. As a pioneering example, Pt₁/FeO_x has been synthesized as a SAC system, with the single Pt atoms stabilized on the oxygen vacancy sites of FeO_x and exhibiting high stability and activity in CO oxidation [1]. Subsequently, various approaches have been applied to fabricate SAC systems, with the single-atom catalytic centers stabilized on defective surfaces [36,37], step edges [38,39], and alloys [40,41], which are essentially based on the concept of strong metal-support interactions established in 1978 [42] and developed as electronic metal-support interactions [43] coined by Campbell [44]. Such single-atomic catalytic systems were usually demonstrated to exhibit excellent catalysis for hydrogen evolution reaction [37,45,46],

N₂ reduction [47,48], CO₂ reduction [49–51], or CO oxidation [1,5,9]. Yet to date, suppressing the aggregation of the single atoms during chemical reaction is a universal standing challenge [25,52], largely due to the prevailing design scheme that the catalytic atoms are anchored onto the surfaces of the supporting substrates.

Note that, confined catalysis has also been advocated as a complementary concept, referring to the enhanced catalysis enabled by the confined microenvironments of the heterogeneous catalysts within heterobilayers [13–22]. Essentially, the concept of confined catalysis is originated from the electronic quantum confinement effect in low dimensional nanostructures, which has endowed enormous exotic phenomena and applications in modern condensed matter physics, chemistry, and material science. For confined catalysis, the catalytic transitional metal structures are usually confined inside or underneath one- or two-dimensional protective materials such as nanotubes [18,53] or graphene [16,19,54], and exhibit inimitable advantages toward a variety of catalytic reactions, especially under harsh conditions, such as strong acidic or alkaline medium, high overpotential, and high temperature [17,54,55]. Crucially, when the sizes of the confined catalytic nanostructures are reduced to the single atom regime, the two concepts of SAC and confined catalysis converge, potentially allowing coherent integration of their merits for maximal catalytic performance [55–59]. However, in many cases, a dynamically flexible geometric structure and electronic configuration of a given catalytic site may be more desirable for high performance catalytic reactions [60,61].

Here we use first-principles approaches to establish a conceptually new design principle of SAC, termed dynamically

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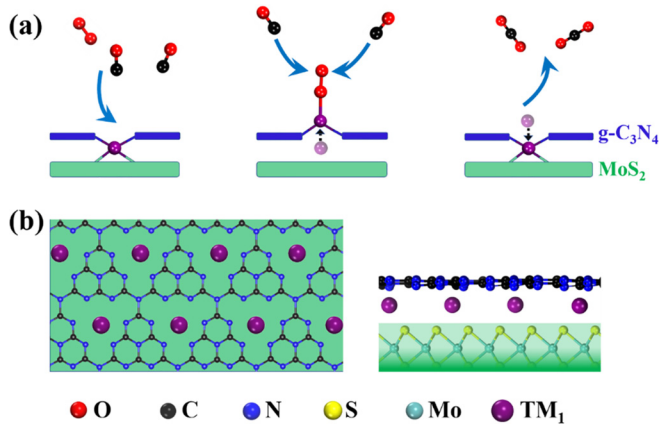


FIG. 1. Schematics of CO oxidation pathways on single-atom catalysts confined within a $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterobilayer. (a) Proposed CO oxidation processes on the $\text{TM}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterobilayer wherein the transition metal single atom TM_1 is dynamically confined. (b) Top and side views of the single atoms confined in the interface of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$, with the MoS_2 represented by the green background.

confined SAC (DCSAC), by coherently integrating SAC and confined catalysis into a single heterogeneous catalytic platform. The principle is demonstrated using CO oxidation on single atoms sandwiched between a porous two-dimensional heterobilayer as a prototypical example. We first show that many transition metal atoms can be energetically well confined within the interface of an archetype heterobilayer of porous $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ which has already been experimentally fabricated [62]. Due to the confinement effect, the transition metal atoms prefer to be atomically dispersed rather than clustered, forming stable single-atom catalytic centers, upon which oxygen molecule adsorption and activation are found to preferentially proceed followed by efficient CO oxidation. Intriguingly, as schematically illustrated in Fig. 1(a), the single-atom catalytic centers adjust their vertical locations and coordination numbers dynamically during the reaction cycle, and returning to their stable interfacial homes after the reaction process is completed. Also importantly, the single atoms flexibly adapt their charge states in such a dynamic process, functioning as electronic “antennas” in the charge transfer process, which effectively lowers the energy barriers involved in CO oxidation. These findings are transformative in both condensed matter physics and environmental chemistry and beyond, with broad applications such as in integration and reutilization of toxic and noble elements.

The paper is organized as follows. The method and simulation details are presented in Sec. II. The results of our state-of-the-art simulations and discussion of the unique behaviors of the DCSAC serving as electronic antenna for CO oxidation are presented in Sec. III. We finally draw our conclusions and perspectives in Sec IV.

II. METHODS

Our calculations were carried out by spin-polarized first-principles calculations [63] based on density functional theory (DFT) as implemented in the Vienna *ab initio*

simulation package (VASP) [64], with a projector augmented wave [65] method and Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) [66] for the exchange-correlation functional. Moreover, revised PBE functionals (RPBE) [67] was also compared and found to produce the same central findings. In our calculations, the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterojunction was simulated by covering a 3×3 single-layer $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ on a 7×7 single-layer MoS_2 . For such a large supercell in simulation of the semiconducting heterojunction, we adopted a $1 \times 1 \times 1$ Monkhorst Pack k -point mesh and an energy cutoff of 500 eV, which was found to lead good convergence within 0.02 meV/per atom. A vacuum layer of 15 Å in the z direction was used to ensure the decoupling between the neighboring images. The atomic positions were optimized by a conjugate gradient algorithm until the forces in all directions were less than 0.01 eV/Å and the convergence criterion for electronic step is within 10^{-4} eV. The optimized lattice constant of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is $a = b = 6.96$ Å, in good agreement with previous experimental value [68]. The zero damping DFT-D3 method is adopted in describing van der Waals interactions [69,70]. Bader charge analysis is adopted to analyze charge transfer. To investigate the kinetic processes of the atom diffusion and CO oxidation, the climbing image nudged elastic band [71,72] method was used to identify the transition states and minimum energy paths. The thermodynamic stability of some typical $\text{TM}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ complexes were also examined by *ab initio* molecular dynamic simulations performed at 500 K within a canonical ensemble using the algorithm of Nose.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As a starting point, we briefly introduce the optimized geometric structure of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterobilayer as illustrated in Fig. 1(b) and detailed (see Sec. I of the Supplemental Material [73]). The optimized lattice constants of the buckled (flat) hexagonal $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and MoS_2 monolayers are 6.960 (7.130) and 3.167 Å, respectively [68,74]. It is found that the buckled $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is about 0.5 eV more stable than its flat counterpart per unit cell, however, when it is deposited on the MoS_2 in formation of a $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterobilayer, the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ overlayer prefers to stay flat. In our simulations, considering the relatively flexible structure of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, we construct the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterobilayer by placing hexagonal 3×3 - $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ onto 7×7 - MoS_2 with the optimized lattice constant of MoS_2 , to minimize the lattice mismatch to about 3.6%. As shown in Fig. S1, five high-symmetry adsorption sites, i.e., the large hollow (H_1), small hollow (H_2), C top (T_C), N top (T_N), and bridge (B) between C and N are considered for the TM atom deposition onto the heterobilayer (see Sec. I of the Supplemental Material [73]).

To examine whether TM atoms prefer single-atomic dispersion or clustering in the heterobilayer, we have performed effective tests on the optimized configurations of three TM atoms introduced in the supercell. To also demonstrate the general validity of the present work, almost all the $3d$ -, $4d$ -, and $5d$ -TMs have been screened. As illustrated (see Sec. II of the Supplemental Material, Figs. S2 and S3 [73]), depending on the precise species of the TMs, five typical optimized configurations can be obtained for the three atoms, with the formations of (i) sevenfold-coordinated isolated single atoms

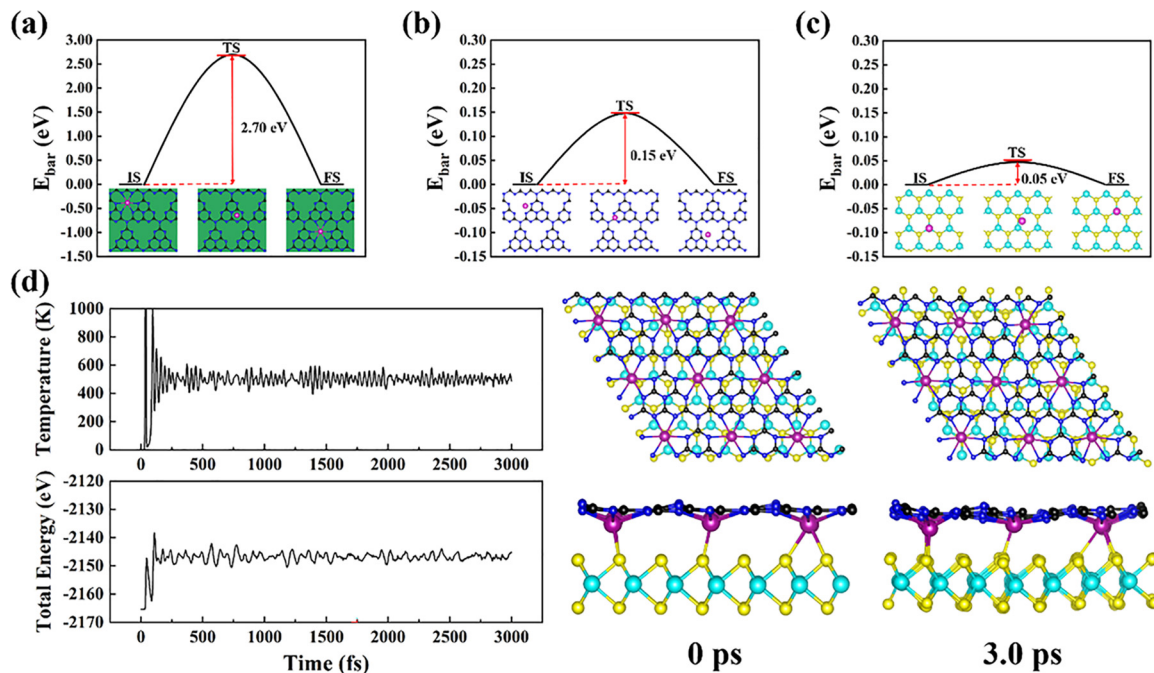


FIG. 2. Cd single atom diffusion when (a) it is confined in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterobilayer; (b) on the surface of pristine MoS_2 ; (c) on the surface of pristine 2D $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. (d) Thermodynamic stability of the $\text{Cd}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ complex examined by *ab initio* molecule dynamic simulations performed at 500 K. The representative snapshots of the geometric structures in both top and side views are presented for simulation time of 0 and 3.0 ps, respectively.

confined in the vicinity of one H_1 site, $\text{TM} = \text{Ag, Cr, and Cd}$; (ii) seven-coordinated isolated single atoms stabilized around the B site via breaking the C-N bonds and serving as TM “glue” to link the neighboring C-N hexagonal rings, $\text{TM} = \text{Ni, Sc, Ti, V, Fe, Zr, Nb, Rh, Pd, Hf, Ir, and Pt}$; (iii) dimers nucleated around the B site, with $\text{TM} = \text{Ru, Mo, Co, Mn, W, and Os}$; (iv) trimers nucleated around the H_1 site, $\text{TM} = \text{Au}$; (v) trimers nucleated around the B site ($\text{TM} = \text{Cu, Re, Tc, and Ta}$).

Here we emphasize that, for most of the above TMs that prefer dispersion as single atoms, their positions are confined under the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ overlayer. First, our calculations demonstrate that, energetically, the TM atoms prefer the interfacial sites around the pores, rather than on the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ surface; second, it is found that there are negligible diffusion barriers for these studied TM atoms diffuse from the surface site, through the pores of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, to the interfacial sites. Therefore, the metal atoms would not coalesce outside the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterojunction. Taking the bond length cutoff of 3.0 \AA as a criterion, it is found that in the cases of (i)((ii)), the confined TM single atoms are bonded with one (two) substrate S atoms, six (three) N, and zero (two) C atoms, respectively, as detailed (see Sec. II of the Supplemental Material [73]). Energetically, for most cases, these three confined single TM atoms ($\text{TM} = \text{Ag, Cr, Cd, Ni, Sc, Ti, V, Fe, Zr, Nb, Rh, Pd, Hf, Ir, and Pt}$) in (i) and (ii) (see Sec. II of the Supplemental Material, Fig. S3 [73]) are found to be lower in energy by at least 0.5 eV than the formation of dimers or trimers. Moreover, taking $\text{TM} = \text{Cd}$ as a typical example, we have confirmed that these confined single atoms are prohibited from lateral diffusion between neighboring sites, as manifested by the large (about 2.7 eV) diffusion barrier as shown in Fig. 2(a).

In contrast, Cd atoms seem to prefer clustering on pristine MoS_2 , as supported by the two following aspects. First, energetically, the nucleation of the two Cd atoms is lower in energy than that of a total separation of the two Cd atoms (Cd-Cd distance is about 10 \AA), by about 0.14 eV . Second, kinetically, a Cd atom may smoothly diffuse on pristine 2D MoS_2 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and nucleate, due to the small diffusion barrier (E_{bar}), see Figs. 2(b)–2(c), implying high possibility of clustering as well. Moreover, the thermodynamic stability of $\text{Cd}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ complex is further confirmed by *ab initio* molecular dynamic simulations at 500 K [see Fig. 2(d)]. Collectively, these results demonstrate crucial importance of the present heterobilayer in stabilizing the single atoms from clustering.

In the following sections, we focus on the catalytic activities for the cases of $15 \text{ TM}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ wherein the TM atoms ($\text{TM} = \text{Ag, Cr, Cd, Ni, Sc, Ti, V, Fe, Zr, Nb, Rh, Pd, Hf, Ir, and Pt}$) are stably confined in the interface in formation of single-atom catalytic centers, though single-cluster catalysts [75], such as dimers [76,77] and trimers [78,79] could also exhibit exotic catalysis. Particularly, we examine the possible dynamic behaviors of these confined active centers for O_2 activation and CO oxidation, as proposed in Fig. 1(a). In doing so, based on our extensive calculations, we first systematically screen the adsorptions of O_2 and CO molecules on the confined TM_1 active sites. Note that $\text{Ag}_1, \text{Ni}_1,$ and $\text{Pd}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ are highly inert towards both O_2 activation and CO adsorption with negligible E_{ads} (around 50 meV , not shown here). Moreover, as summarized in Fig. 3, except for Fe, Rh, Ir, and Pt, all other eight TM_1 atoms exhibit larger adsorption energy (E_{ads}) for O_2 than that of CO, which are our main interest of the present study.

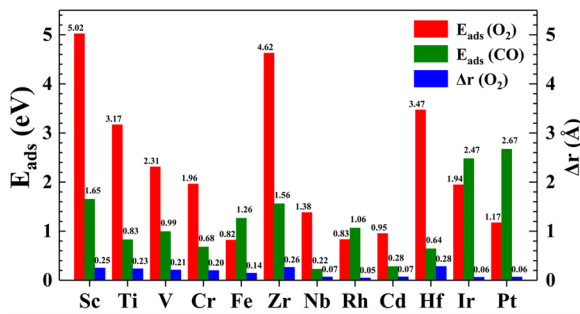


FIG. 3. Adsorption of O_2 and CO on a confined transition metal atom. Calculated adsorption energy (E_{ads}) and O-O bond length enlargement (Δr) for O_2 or CO molecular adsorption on the $\text{TM}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ complexes. The bond length changes for CO are not shown, due to their negligible variations.

Now, taking the $\text{Nb}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ system consisting of three isolated Nb single atoms confined within the present supercell of heterobilayer (termed $\text{Nb}_1\text{-SAC}$) as a typical example, we examine the detailed thermodynamic and kinetic processes of CO oxidation, as schematically shown in Fig. 4. Because CO can hardly coadsorb on the confined Nb_1 reactive site upon the preadsorption of the O_2 molecule due to the significantly low E_{ads} (CO) (see Fig. 3), the Langmuir-Hinshelwood (L-H) process is excluded and only the Eley-Rideal (E-R) mechanism is considered in the following calculations. Taking the optimized $\text{Nb}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ as the starting point (i), we find that an incoming O_2 can readily adsorb on the Nb_1 active site, with an E_{ads} of 1.38 eV and enlarged O-O bond length as compared to that in the gas phase, by 0.07 Å [see Fig. 3 and step (ii) in Fig. 4], indicating that the O_2 molecule is significantly activated, which is usually the key step for CO oxidation.

Then, a successively incoming or nearby CO can only very weakly adsorb around the $\text{O}_2\text{-Nb}_1$ local structure (see step (iii)). However, in further attacking the activated O_2 , a low E_{bar} of 0.38 eV is encountered in the transition state (TS_1) with a CO- O_2 distance of 1.86 Å. Afterwards, a CO_2 molecule can be readily released with an exothermic energy of about

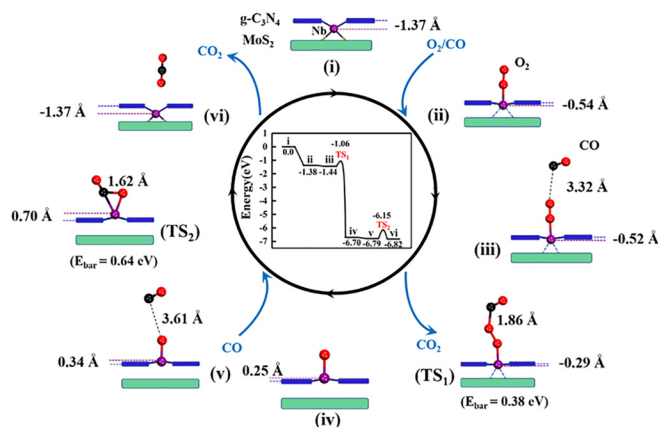


FIG. 4. Schematics of the dynamic behaviors of the $\text{Nb}_1\text{-SAC}$ confined in the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterobilayer for O_2 activation and CO oxidation via the E-R mechanism.

5.26 eV, leaving a dissociated O atom adsorbed on the Nb_1 active site, see step iv in Fig. 4. Such an atomic O can also be readily attacked by another incoming CO molecule upon overcoming a modest E_{bar} of 0.64 eV in TS_2 with a CO-O distance of 1.62 Å, followed by the release of another CO_2 molecule with an energy gain of about 30 meV, thereby completing the catalytic cycle. Note that in TS_2 , the desorption energy of the $\text{Nb}_1\text{-CO}_2$ species with the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ substrate is at least 3.74 eV (see Sec. III of the Supplemental Material, Fig. S4 [73]), demonstrating the stability of the present single atom catalytic centers.

Importantly, the above catalytic cycle for O_2 activation and CO oxidation presented in Fig. 4 vividly confirms the dynamic behaviors of these confined TM_1 active centers as conjectured in Fig. 1(a). Specifically, in structure (i), the Nb_1 single atom ($\text{Nb}_1\text{-SA}$) active site is confined about 1.37 Å beneath the mass-center of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ overlayer, which is selected as the horizon reference, i.e., $\Delta d = -1.37$ Å. Upon O_2 adsorption, the $\text{Nb}_1\text{-SA}$ is attracted upwards to the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, by about 0.83 Å. Moreover, in TS_1 for the first round of CO oxidation, the $\text{Nb}_1\text{-SA}$ further shifts its vertical position to $\Delta d = -0.29$ Å, which is only coordinated with five atoms of the heterobilayer complex. Particularly, in TS_2 , the $\text{Nb}_1\text{-SA}$ active site even migrates outwards to the location above the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ heterobilayer by about 0.70 Å, becoming fivefold-coordinated with the substrate to facilitate the reaction. Crucially, after completing the CO oxidation cycle, the $\text{Nb}_1\text{-SA}$ reintegrates back into its stable sandwiched home of the heterobilayer, as schematically presented in step vi of Fig. 4 (and detailed in Sec. IV of the Supplemental Material, Fig. S5 [73]). Similar dynamic processes are also identified for the other $\text{TM}_1\text{-SAs}$ as established here, such as $\text{TM}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ ($\text{TM} = \text{Cr}, \text{Hf}, \text{Fe}, \text{and Cd}$), which are representatively detailed for $\text{Cr}_1@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ (see Sec. IV of the Supplemental Material, Fig. S6 [73]). Therefore, these findings convincingly demonstrate the validity of the proposed concept of DCSAC in enhancing both the stability and catalytic efficiency.

Here, we identify that during the O_2 activation and CO oxidation processes, the single-atom active centers serve as dynamic electronic “antennas” to donate electrons to, or accept electrons from the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{MoS}_2$ home as an electron bath, which effectively reduce the reaction barriers. Taking $\text{Nb}_1\text{-SA}$ again as the prototypical example, our Bader charge analysis shows that each of the three confined Nb atoms donates about 1.7 |e| to the heterobilayer [see Fig. 5(a)], and the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ overlayer and MoS_2 substrate respectively accommodate about 1.1 and 4.0 |e| from the three deposited Nb atoms. Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 5(b), when O_2 is adsorbed on the Nb_1 reactive site, the O_2 species is extra charged by about 0.676 |e| based on Bader charge analysis; however, the reactive Nb_1 atom only donates about 0.262 |e|, while the other two Nb atoms contribute very minor electron charge. Importantly, the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ overlayer and MoS_2 substrate contribute 0.177 and 0.265 |e| to the adsorbed O_2 , respectively. For CO oxidation, in the TS_1 wherein the Nb_1 atom is shifted out of the interface of the heterobilayer, the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ overlayer (MoS_2 substrate) donates more electrons, 0.230 (0.398) |e|, to the CO- O_2 complex via the electronic “antenna” of the $\text{Nb}_1\text{-SA}$, see Fig. 5(c). In step (iv), the

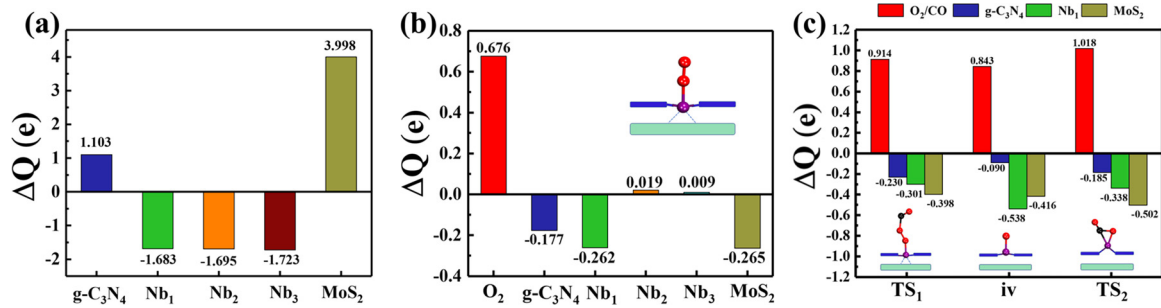


FIG. 5. Dynamic charge transfer for O₂ activation and CO oxidation on Nb₁@g-C₃N₄/MoS₂. Charge transfer analysis for (a) the three deposited Nb single atoms and g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ heterobilayer. (b) O₂ adsorption on the Nb₁ reactive site. (c) the key steps (TS₁, iv, and TS₂) presented in the E-R process of CO oxidation shown in Fig. 4.

g-C₃N₄ donates relatively less electron charge (0.090), whereas Nb₁-SA and the MoS₂ substrate provide significantly more electron charge, 0.538 and 0.416 |e|, respectively; For TS₂, g-C₃N₄ (MoS₂) again contribute 0.185 (0.502) |e|, nevertheless the Nb₁ reactive site donates 0.338 |e|, see Fig. 5(c). That is, the Nb₁-SA reactive site functions as a dynamic electronic “antenna” in donating or accommodating electrons from the adsorbed molecules via tuning its coordination number and the electronic density of state by the Fermi level (see Sec. V of the Supplemental Material, Fig. S7 [73]) by joining force with the g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ heterobilayer. Such an intuitive charge transfer mechanism dominated by the dynamic Nb₁-SA is also observed for other single TM atoms, such as Cr (see Sec. VI of the Supplemental Material, Fig. S8 [73]). Moreover, these results can be conceptually rationalized by recent findings that the catalytic performance of a given active site can be dominated by the dynamic switching of the local coordination environment [34,80,81] and valance state [60,82,83].

We further highlight the importance of the dynamic behaviors of the TM₁-SA reactive sites confined in g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ by comparing the rate-limiting E_{bar} along the optimized minimum energy pathway with that of two other intermediate states with much reduced dynamic shifts of the TM₁ reactive sites, as schematically shown in Figs. 6(a)–6(c). Once again, taking TM = Nb as a typical example, we explore the correlation between the E_{bar} and dynamic shift of the confined TM₁-SA reactive center. In doing so, we consider three representative states: (a) S₀, wherein the reactive Nb₁-SA is constrained in the local structure of the optimized state (OS) of the Nb₁@g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ without any adsorbate, with Δd_{OS} = -1.37 Å; (b) S₁, wherein Δd is fixed to -0.29 Å; (c) S₂, with the same position as that in the TS₂ shown in Fig. 4, with Δd_{TS} = 0.70 Å. Clearly, from Fig. 6(d), one can see that the calculated E_{bar} is monotonously reduced from 2.40, through 1.51, to 0.64 eV, when Δd is raised from -1.37, through -0.29, to 0.70 Å, respectively. Therefore, such findings soundly demonstrate the crucial importance of the dynamic behaviors of the TM₁-SA reactive sites in reducing the E_{bar} for CO oxidation.

Close to the end, to further demonstrate the general dynamic features of the TM₁-SA confined in g-C₃N₄/MoS₂, we also examine the calculated Δd in the optimized states (OS) of TM₁@g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ and that in the rate-limiting TS for CO oxidation, with TM = Cr, Nb, Cd, Fe, and Hf. As summarized

in Fig. 6(e), in the OS, except for Fe, all other TM₁-SA are confined beneath the mass center of the g-C₃N₄ overlayer. Nevertheless, during the process of CO oxidation, particularly in the TS, the TM₁-SA centers are unexceptionally attracted higher than the mass center of g-C₃N₄. Also for the case of Fe, from OS to TS state, the Δd is also upward shifted from 0.28 to 0.91 Å. More importantly, as shown in Fig. 6(f), we identify that the rate-limiting E_{bar} of these cases are strongly correlated with a descriptor of the relative dynamic shift (RDS) (RDS = Δd_{TS}/(|Δd_{OS} - Δd_{TS}|) of the TM₁-SA, here Δd_{OS} and Δd_{TS} correspond to the position of the TM₁-SA relative to the mass center of the g-C₃N₄ overlayer in the OS and TS states, respectively. It is very clear that, the larger the descriptor of RDS is, the more the electron charge can be transferred from the single-atom catalyst complex to the CO₂ precursor in the transition state (see Sec. VII of the Supplemental Material, Fig. S9 [73]), and the smaller the rate-limiting E_{bar}, demonstrating the general importance of the dynamic confinement of the reactive sites in enhancing the catalytic performance of the SA catalysts. In addition, we have also examined such dynamical behaviors of the present SAC systems by using the RPBE functional [67] (see Sec. VIII of the Supplemental Material, Fig. S10 [73]). The central findings are valid within either computational scheme. Therefore, the present study on the dynamical behaviors of the sandwiched single-atom active sites is characterized by distinctly new and intriguing properties beyond most existing studies of SACs.

To the end, we note that, almost all these DCSAC systems possess net magnetic moments, contributed either by the confined TM single atoms or by the nearby spin-polarized atoms of the g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ heterobilayer (as summarized in Table S1 of Supplemental Material [73]), which ensures that the activation of the spin-triplet (S = 1) ground state O₂ molecule to spin-singlet (S = 0) excited state proceeds via spin-allowed reaction. Specifically, the Wigner spin selection rule [9,84–89] restricted that the total electron-spin angular momentum of the O₂ molecule and the catalyst system should be conserved in the reaction process. Accordingly, a given catalyst with low spin state (such as S = 0) usually exhibit highly inert characteristics toward O₂ activation from S = 1 to S = 0, otherwise, it would be a spin-forbidden reaction. Therefore, these confined magnetic single-atom catalyst systems also hold great promise in “spin-catalysis” where spin-selection matters [9,89], which are of our great interest in future work.

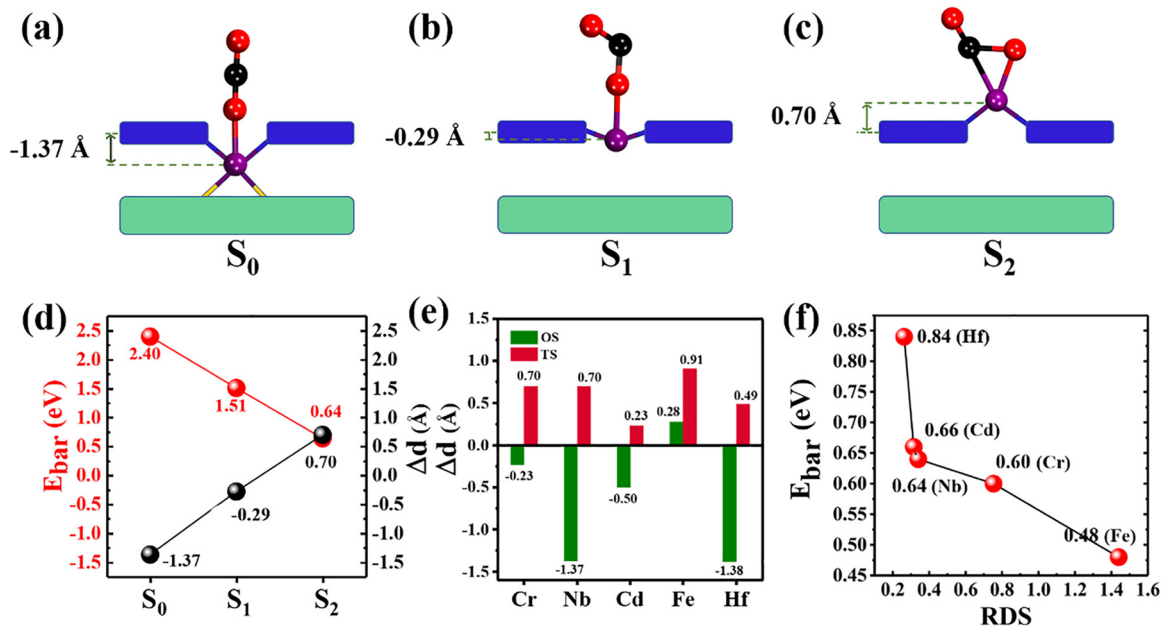


FIG. 6. Illustrations of the dynamic behavior of TM₁-SAC for CO oxidation. Configurations of the rate-limiting steps for CO oxidation with the reactive single atom Nb constrained in (a) with $\Delta d = -1.37$ Å, which is termed the S_0 state, (b) with $\Delta d = -0.29$ Å, S_1 , (c) $\Delta d = 0.70$ Å, S_2 . (d) Correlation between E_{bar} and Δd for S_0 , S_1 , and S_2 . (e) Δd of the TM atom in the optimized state (OS) of TM₁@g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ and that in the rate-limiting TS of CO oxidation. (f) Correlation between the rate-limiting E_{bar} and relative dynamic shift (RDS) of representative single TM atoms, i.e., $\text{RDS} = \Delta d_{\text{TS}} / (|\Delta d_{\text{TS}} - \Delta d_{\text{OS}}|)$.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, using state-of-the-art first-principles calculations, we have proposed a different design principle in stabilizing various low-cost and heavy toxic TMs by dynamically encapsulating such entities within the porous and inherently reactive g-C₃N₄/MoS₂ heterobilayer, and have further demonstrated their ability to act as highly efficient SACs for CO oxidation via a dynamic antenna mechanism. The novelty of the present work on DCSAC lies in: (i) the catalytic single-atom reactive centers are well confined within the interface region of the porous heterobilayer, rather than directly exposed on the surface of the underlying supporting substrates; (ii) the single-atom reactive sites migrate out of the interfacial homes in catalytic reactions, and return to the homes after the reaction is completed; (iii) the single atoms

dynamically change their charge states, serving as electronic antennas in donating electrons to or accepting electrons from the reactants, while effectively lowering the reaction barriers. These findings are expected to offer new avenues towards fabrication of highly efficient SAC systems.

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