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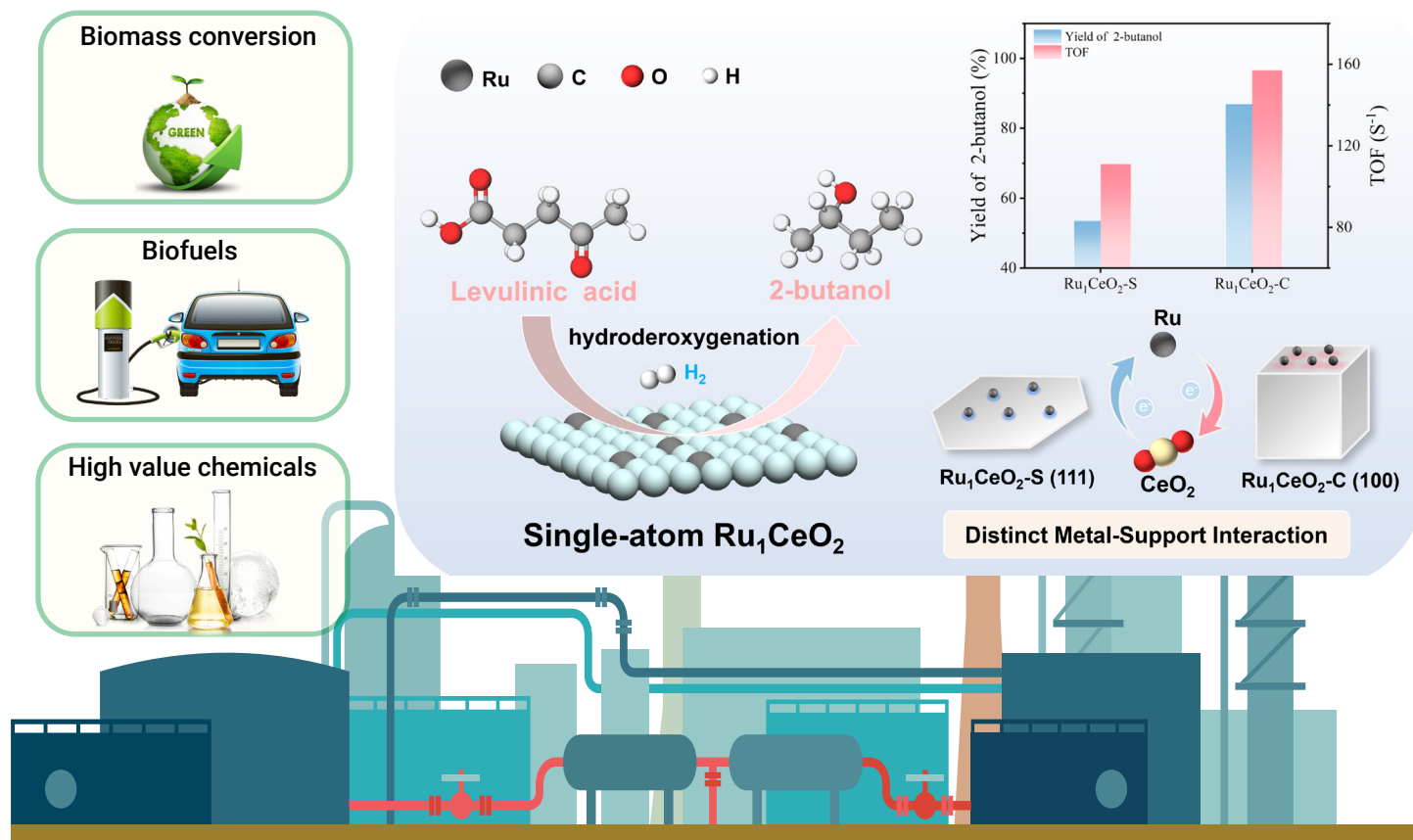
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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



PUBLIC SUMMARY

- Facet-engineered CeO₂ supports tune single-atom Ru catalysts for biomass conversion.
- Ru₁/CeO₂-C achieves 86.9% yield of 2-butanol with high catalytic activity.
- (100) facets create more oxygen vacancies and stronger metal–support interactions.
- Enhanced hydrogen transfer and C–C cleavage improve reaction efficiency.
- Provides a strategy to design high-performance catalysts for biomass upgrading.

CeO₂ facet-directed interfacial engineering in Ru₁/CeO₂ catalysts for efficient 2-butanol production from levulinic acid

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Optimizing the selectivity of biomass-derived platform chemicals requires precise control over the geometric and electronic structures of catalytic active sites. Herein, we report the structural engineering of single-atom ruthenium (Ru₁) supported on ceria (CeO₂) nanocrystals with distinct crystal facets to regulate the hydrodeoxygenation of levulinic acid to 2-butanol. Using a facile photodeposition method, Ru₁ species were anchored onto cubic (CeO₂-C, exposing (1 0 0) facets) and sheet-like (CeO₂-S, exposing (1 1 1) facets) supports. The Ru₁CeO₂-C catalyst exhibited superior catalytic performance, achieving an 86.9% yield of 2-butanol at 190 °C with a turnover frequency value of 157 s⁻¹, surpassing the Ru₁CeO₂-S catalyst (53.5% and 111 s⁻¹). Comprehensive characterization, including XPS, Raman spectroscopy, and EPR, revealed that the (1 0 0) facets of CeO₂-C facilitate a higher concentration of surface oxygen vacancies and foster the electronic metal-support interaction. This interaction stabilizes Ru species and promotes the formation of Lewis acid sites, which are critical for the ring-opening of the key intermediate, γ -valerolactone. Kinetic studies, *in situ* DRIFTS, and theoretical calculations further confirmed that the facet-dependent electronic structure of Ru₁CeO₂-C significantly enhances hydrogen transfer capabilities and C-C bond cleavage efficiency. This work elucidates the structure-activity relationship in single-atom catalysis and offers a facet-engineering strategy for designing efficient biomass conversion catalysts.

INTRODUCTION

The transition from fossil resources to renewable biomass for the production of fuels and chemicals is a pivotal step toward global energy security and carbon neutrality.^{1,2} Levulinic acid (LA), a primary platform molecule derived from cellulose degradation, has garnered significant attention due to its potential to be converted into high-value derivatives.³ Among these, 2-butanol (2-BuOH), produced via the hydrodeoxygenation (HDO) of LA, is particularly valuable as a fuel additive, solvent, and chemical intermediate.^{4,5} However, the selective synthesis of 2-BuOH is kinetically challenging; it requires a multifunctional catalyst capable of activating molecular hydrogen, suppressing side reactions, and facilitating sequential hydrogenation and C-C bond cleavage steps.^{6,7}

Recent advances have demonstrated the efficacy of metal-acid bifunctional catalysts for this transformation (Table S1). For instance, nickel-based systems utilizing Ni-Mn synergy have achieved yields up to 84.5%, while ruthenium-based catalysts, including nanoporous Ru and Ru-Mn systems, have shown promising activity by balancing hydrogenation and deoxygenation functions.⁷⁻¹⁰ Nanoporous Ru achieved a 63.6% 2-butanol yield by activating the lactone group of γ -valerolactone (GVL) and the C-C/C-O bond of 1,4-pentanediol (1,4-PDO),⁸ and the Ru/CeO₂ catalyst can achieve a yield of 85% for the hydrogenation deoxidation of LA in the aqueous phase.⁹ The addition of Mn in Ru_{3.75}Mn_{1.5}/Al₂O₃ achieves a metal-acid bifunctional synergy (Ru⁰ hydrogenation and Mn²⁺ deoxidation) and an oxygen vacancy effect.¹⁰ While high Ru loading or bimetallic alloying has been effective in modulating electronic structures, the role of the support's surface geometry—specifically the exposed crystal facets—in regulating single-atom active sites remains under-explored in the context of LA conversion.

Cerium oxide (CeO₂) is a widely used support due to its exceptional oxygen

storage capacity and redox properties.¹¹⁻¹³ The catalytic behavior of CeO₂ is inherently structure-sensitive; different morphologies (cubes, rods, sheets) expose distinct crystal planes with varying oxygen vacancy formation energies and surface coordinations.¹⁴ Previous studies on oxidation reactions have established that specific facets, such as the (1 0 0) planes in nanocubes or (1 1 0) in nanorods, can significantly alter metal-support interactions and oxygen vacancy concentrations.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ However, a systematic understanding of how these facet-dependent properties influence the complex hydrodeoxygenation pathway of LA over single-atom Ru catalysts is currently lacking.

In this study, we address this gap by synthesizing single-atom Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts with controlled morphologies—nanosheets (CeO₂-S) and nanocubes (CeO₂-C)—via a photodeposition method. We investigate the distinct physicochemical properties arising from the exposed (1 1 1) and (1 0 0) facets, respectively. Our results demonstrate that the Ru₁CeO₂-C catalyst, exposing (1 0 0) facets, achieves a superior 2-BuOH yield of 86.9% and turnover frequency (TOF) value of 157 s⁻¹. Through detailed kinetic analysis and *in situ* characterization, we reveal that the (1 0 0) facet promotes a high density of oxygen vacancies and stabilizes Ru species, thereby enhancing Lewis acidity and hydrogen transfer efficiency. These findings provide a rational strategy for optimizing single-atom catalysts through interfacial structural engineering for sustainable biomass valorization.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O (99%), NH₄HCO₃ (99.99%), RuCl₃·xH₂O, ethanol (EtOH, 99.7%), isopropanol (IPA, 99.5%), acetone (99.5%), 2-BuOH (99%), 2-pentanol (2-PeOH, 98%), 5-hydroxy-2-pentanone (HPO, 95%), 1,4-PDO (98%), GVL (98%), LA (99%), methyl levulinate (ML, 98%), ethyl levulinate (EL, 99%), propyl levulinate (PL, 98%), and butyl levulinate (BL, 98%) were purchased from Macklin Inc. All chemicals were used as received without further purification.

Synthesis of Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts

Synthesis of CeO₂-C (Cubic, (1 0 0) facet-dominant). CeO₂-C nanocubes, primarily exposing the (1 0 0) facets, were synthesized using a hydrothermal method.¹⁸ Typically, 1.37 g Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O and 11.82 g NaOH were dissolved in 32 ml and 24 mL deionized water, respectively. The NaOH solution was added dropwise to the Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O solution under continuous stirring for 30 min. The resulting suspension was transferred to a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and heated at 180 °C for 24 h. After cooling, the precipitate was collected by centrifugation, washed thoroughly with deionized water and absolute ethanol several times, and dried overnight at 80 °C. The resulting powder was then calcined in air at 500 °C for 4 h (heating rate: 2 °C/min) to obtain the CeO₂-C support.

Synthesis of CeO₂-S (Sheet-like, (1 1 1) facet-dominant). CeO₂-S nanosheets, predominantly exposing the (1 1 1) facets, were synthesized following a precipitation method.¹⁹ Typically, 1.39 g Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O and 0.75 g NH₄HCO₃ were successively dissolved in 200 mL deionized water under vigorous stirring for 30 min. The resulting mixed solution was transferred into sealed beakers and maintained at 25 °C for 24 h. The obtained precipitates were collected by centrifugation, thoroughly washed with distilled water, and dried at 50 °C for 12 h. Finally, the dried solid was calcined in a muffle furnace at 450 °C for 8 h to afford CeO₂-S.

Synthesis of Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts. The Ru₁CeO₂ catalyst was synthesized via a facile photodeposition method. Briefly, 0.6 g pre-synthesized CeO₂ was dispersed in 60 mL deionized water under continuous stirring. An aqueous solution of RuCl₃·H₂O was then slowly added to the suspension. After stirring for 10 min, the mixture was transferred to a 100 mL thick-walled reactor. Dissolved air was removed by purging with nitrogen, after which the suspension was irradiated with a 30 W UV lamp ($\lambda = 370$ nm) for 24 h under continuous stirring. The resulting solid was collected, thoroughly washed with deionized water and ethanol, and dried at 60 °C overnight. By varying the CeO₂ support, Ru₁CeO₂-C and Ru₁CeO₂-S catalysts with distinct morphologies were successfully obtained.

Catalyst characterizations

Details on X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis, N₂-sorption, Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM), Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), High-angle annular dark-field microscopy (HAADF), Ru K-edge XAFS analyses, Raman spectroscopy test, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements, Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR), UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-Vis DRS), Pyridine Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (Py-FTIR), thermal-gravimetric analysis (TGA), and *in situ* diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) tests are given in the supporting information.

Catalytic performance test

The catalytic performance of Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts with different exposed crystal facets was evaluated for the hydrodeoxygenation of LA in a 50 mL stainless-steel autoclave. In a typical reaction, 140 mg LA and 70 mg catalyst were dispersed in 8.65 mL IPA. The reactor was sealed, purged with H₂ five times, pressurized to 5 MPa, and heated to 190 °C. The reaction was conducted under magnetic stirring at 400 rpm for 8 h. After completion, the reactor was cooled to room temperature, and the reaction mixture was filtered to remove the catalyst. The liquid products were analyzed using a Shimadzu GC-2014C gas chromatograph equipped with an HP-INNOWAX capillary column (30 m × 0.25 mm × 0.25 μ m). The LA conversion, product yield, turnover number (TON), and TOF (substrate conversion < 30%) were calculated using the following equations:

$$\text{Conversion}(\%) = \frac{n_{\text{LA, initial}} - n_{\text{LA, final}}}{n_{\text{LA, initial}}} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Product yield}(\%) = \frac{n_{\text{product}}}{n_{\text{LA, initial}}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

$$\text{TON} = \frac{n_{2-\text{BuOH}}}{n_{\text{Ru}}} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

$$\text{TOF} = \frac{\text{Substrate conversion rate}}{n_{\text{Ru}}} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

Catalyst reusability was evaluated through three consecutive reaction cycles. GVL was used as the substrate instead of LA, as LA was rapidly and completely converted to GVL under the reaction conditions. Each cycle was performed with 140 mg GVL, 70 mg catalyst, and 8.65 mL IPA at 190 °C and 5 MPa H₂ for 8 h. After each run, the catalyst was recovered by centrifugation, washed six times with ethanol and deionized water, and dried at 60 °C overnight before reuse.

DFT calculations

Two simplified slab models were constructed: (i) Ru₁CeO₂-S(111), consisting of a four-layer slab (95 atoms; Ru₁Ce₃₁O₆₃) with a single Ru atom anchored on the CeO₂(1 1 1) surface and one adjacent oxygen vacancy; and (ii) Ru₁CeO₂-C(100), consisting of a three-layer slab (143 atoms; Ru₁Ce₄₇O₉₅) with a single Ru atom anchored on the CeO₂(1 0 0) surface and one adjacent oxygen vacancy. In all models, the bottom two layers were fixed, while the remaining atoms were fully relaxed. A vacuum layer of 20 Å was introduced along the z direction to minimize interactions between periodic images. Additional computational details are provided in the supporting information.

RESULTS

Catalyst characterizations

The synthesis of CeO₂ supports with controlled crystal facets was achieved via hydrothermal and precipitation methods, followed by the anchoring of single-atom ruthenium species using a facile photodeposition strategy (Figure 1A). XRD patterns (Figure 1B) for both the cubic (Ru₁CeO₂-C) and sheet-like (Ru₁CeO₂-S) catalysts exhibited diffraction peaks of the typical CeO₂ structure (PDF No. 34-0394).^{20,21} Notably, no diffraction peaks corresponding to metallic Ru or RuO_x species were detected, suggesting that the ruthenium species are highly dispersed on the support surfaces.

Textural properties, including specific surface area, pore volume, and pore size distribution, were examined. As shown in Figure 1C&D, both Ru₁CeO₂-C and Ru₁CeO₂-S exhibit type IV N₂-sorption isotherms with pronounced H3 hysteresis loops, characteristic of mesoporous structures.^{22,23} Although the two catalysts possess comparable specific surface areas (50.2 and 55.5 m² g⁻¹ for Ru₁CeO₂-C and Ru₁CeO₂-S, respectively; Table S2), their pore structures differ markedly. Ru₁CeO₂-C shows a much larger pore volume (0.32 cm³ g⁻¹) and average pore diameter (21.3 nm) than Ru₁CeO₂-S (0.051 cm³ g⁻¹ and 4.18 nm). The enlarged pore volume and pore size of the cubic catalyst are favorable for mass transfer of reactants and products, which is consistent with its superior catalytic performance.

The morphology and microstructure of the catalysts were further examined by SEM, TEM, AC-HAADF-STEM, and elemental mapping. As shown in Figure 1E-G, Ru₁CeO₂-C exhibits a well-defined cubic morphology with an average particle size of 20.78 ± 6.78 nm. The measured lattice spacing of 0.27 nm corresponds to the CeO₂(1 0 0) plane.²⁴ In contrast, Ru₁CeO₂-S displays a lamellar nanosheet morphology with a larger lateral size, and a lattice spacing of 0.31 nm characteristic of the CeO₂(1 1 1) plane (Figure 1H-J).²⁵ ICP-MS analysis (Table S2) confirmed success loading of Ru species. AC-HAADF-STEM image and elemental mappings (Figure 1K&L) suggested the uniform distribution of Ru species on both catalysts, consistent with highly dispersed, single-atom Ru sites.

To unequivocally verify the single-atom nature of Ru species, *in situ* CO-DRIFTS and synchrotron-based X-ray absorption characterization were performed.^{26,27} As shown in Figure 2A&B, distinct absorption bands at approximately 2055 and 2020 cm⁻¹ are observed for both Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts, which are characteristic of linearly adsorbed CO on isolated Ru atoms.^{28,29} Ru K-edge XANES spectra (Figure 2C) reveal that the absorption edges of Ru₁CeO₂-C and Ru₁CeO₂-S lie between those of Ru foil and RuO₂,³⁰ with near-edge features resembling RuO₂, indicating that the average oxidation state of Ru is between 0 and +4. EXAFS analysis (Figure 2D) shows a dominant scattering peak at ~1.46 Å for Ru₁CeO₂-C and ~1.48 Å for Ru₁CeO₂-S, corresponding to Ru-O coordination, while no Ru-Ru contribution is detected, in sharp contrast to the Ru foil reference.³¹ Quantitative fitting (Figures 2E&S1; Table S3) yields average Ru-O coordination numbers of 4.2 and 3.9 for Ru₁CeO₂-C and Ru₁CeO₂-S, respectively. WT-EXAFS analysis (Figures 2F-I & S2) further confirms that only Ru-O coordination exists in both catalysts.

The work function of Ru₁CeO₂ provides important insight into facet-dependent electronic metal-support interactions. CeO₂(1 1 1), possessing a relatively low work function, facilitates electron transfer from the support to Ru atoms, leading to a lower Ru oxidation state. In contrast, CeO₂(1 0 0) exhibits a higher work function, which suppresses electron transfer and stabilizes Ru in a more oxidized state (Figure 2H&I). This facet-dependent electronic modulation is fully consistent with the Ru 3p XPS results.

XPS, Raman spectroscopy, and EPR were comprehensively employed to investigate the surface structure and oxygen vacancy concentration of Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts, with particular emphasis on the influence of exposed CeO₂ crystal facets. The Ce 3d spectra (Figure 3A) can be deconvoluted into eight characteristic peaks, where the v' and u' components correspond to Ce³⁺ species, while the remaining peaks are assigned to Ce⁴⁺.³² The Ce³⁺ content (Table S4) follows the order Ru₁CeO₂-C (20%) > Ru₁CeO₂-S (17%), indicating a possible higher concentration of oxygen vacancies on the cubic catalyst.

The O 1s XPS spectra (Figure 3B) were deconvoluted to three peaks: lattice oxygen (O_l, 529.2 eV), oxygen species associated with oxygen vacancies (O_v, 530.2 eV), and weakly bound surface oxygen species (O_s, 532.1 eV).^{15,33,34} The concentration of oxygen vacancies (Table S4) exhibits the trend: Ru₁CeO₂-C (34%) > Ru₁CeO₂-S (28%). This consistency with the Ce³⁺ analysis confirms

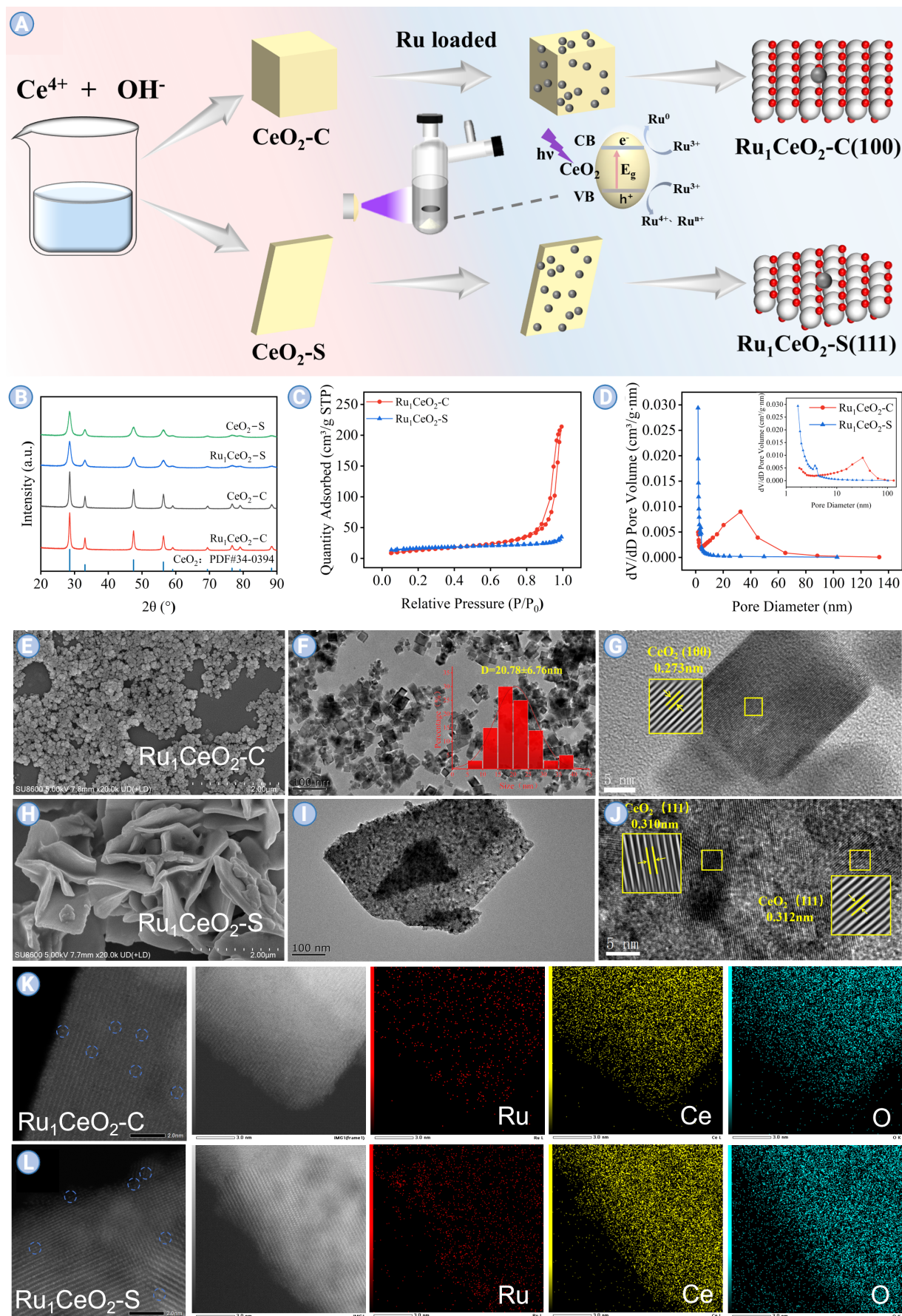


Figure 1. (A) Schematic illustration of the preparation process for Ru_1CeO_2 catalysts via facet engineering and photodeposition. (B) XRD patterns of CeO_2 supports and Ru_1CeO_2 catalysts. (C) N_2 -sorption isotherms and (D) pore size distribution curves of catalysts. (E) SEM images, (F&G) TEM images, and (K) AC-HAADF-STEM image and elemental mapping of $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$. (H) SEM images, (I&J) TEM images, and (L) AC-HAADF-STEM image and elemental mapping of $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$.

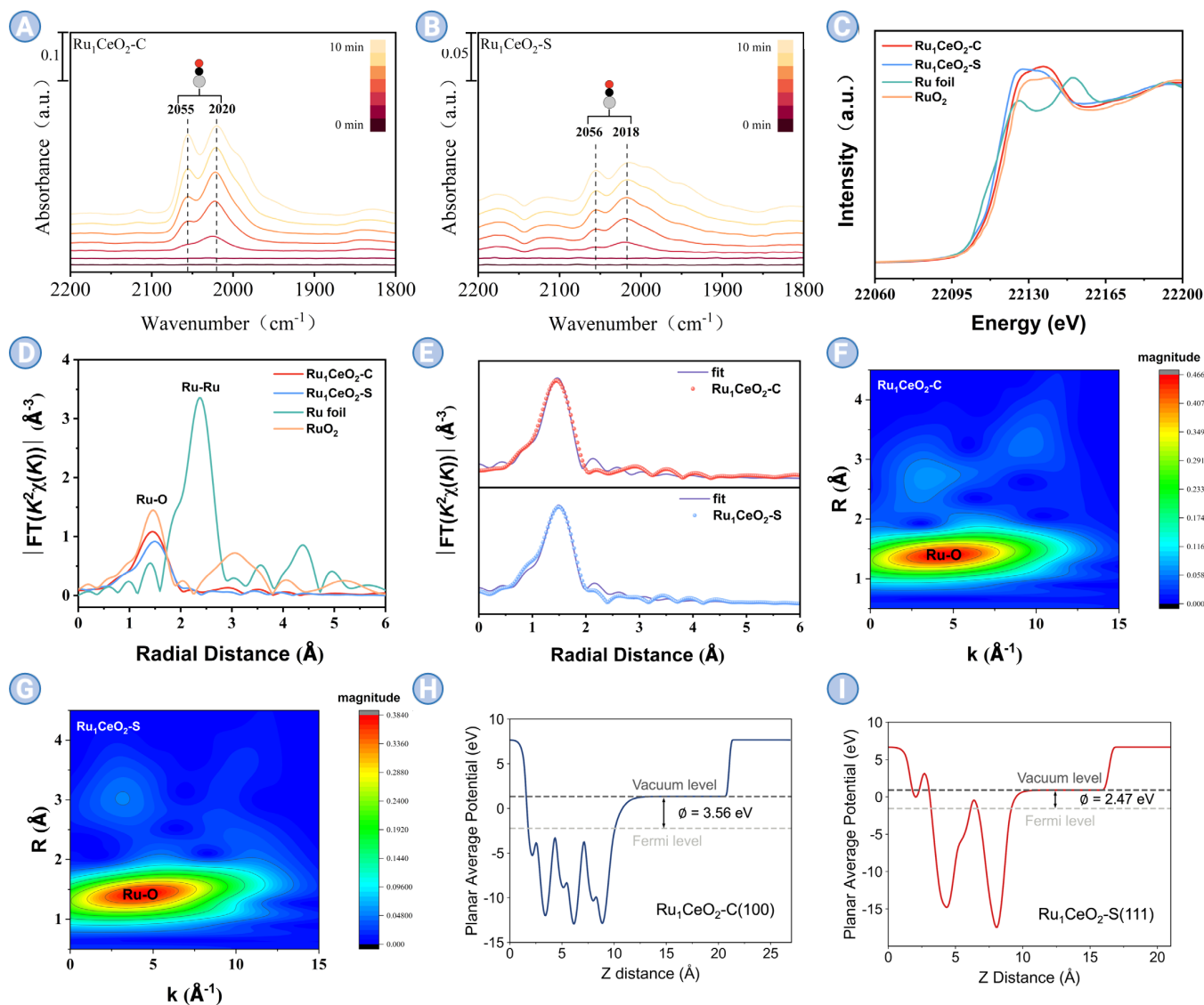


Figure 2. *In situ* CO-DRIFTS of (A) $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ and (B) $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$. (C) Ru K-edge XANES spectra and (D) FT-EXAFS spectra of $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ and $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$, with Ru foil and RuO_2 provided as references. (E) EXAFS fitting curves at the Ru K-edge for both catalysts. R-space fitting results of the EXAFS spectra for (F) $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ and (G) $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$. Calculated work functions of (H) $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ and (I) $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$.

that $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ possesses the highest oxygen vacancy density. The higher vacancy concentration is attributed to the preferential exposure of the $\text{CeO}_2(1\ 0\ 0)$ facet in $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$, which has a lower oxygen vacancy formation energy than the $\text{CeO}_2(1\ 1\ 1)$ facet predominantly exposed in $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$.^{35,36}

For comparison, the pure $\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ support exhibits significantly lower Ce^{3+} (17%) and O_β (18%) contents than $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$, demonstrating that Ru anchoring further promotes oxygen vacancy formation through electronic metal–support interaction (EMSI). The Ru 3p spectra (Figure 3C) consist of Ru 3p_{3/2} and 3p_{1/2}, which can be deconvoluted into Ru^0 , Ru^{4+} , and Ru^{n+} species, confirming that Ru predominantly exists in oxidation states. The precursor Ru^{3+} was reduced/oxidized by the photogenerated electrons/holes during the photodeposition process. Notably, the $\text{Ru}^{5+}/(\text{Ru}^{5+} + \text{Ru}^0)$ ($\text{Ru}^{5+}:\text{Ru}^{4+}$ and Ru^{n+}) ratio follows the order $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ (79%) > $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$ (70%), indicating a higher proportion of Ru–O–Ce coordination in $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$. Moreover, Based on the binding energy analysis results, the binding energy peaks of Ru^{n+} and Ru^{4+} in the $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$ catalyst (488.4 and 466.8 eV; 483.7 and 463.5 eV) exhibit a negative shift compared to those in the $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ catalyst (488.5 and 467.2 eV; 486 and 463.7 eV).³⁷ This indicates that $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$ facilitates electron transfer from the support to Ru, making Ru more electron-rich and reducing its oxidation state, whereas $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ inhibits this electron transfer process, maintaining Ru in a relatively higher oxidation state.^{38,39}

This variation in the electronic structure of Ru species reflects the distinct EMSI in the two catalysts.

Raman spectroscopy further corroborates the facet-dependent oxygen vacancy concentration. As shown in Figure 3D, characteristic bands at ~454, 587, and 1170 cm^{-1} correspond to the F_{2g} mode of fluorite CeO_2 , defect-induced (D) mode, and second-order longitudinal optical (2LO) mode, respectively.^{40,41} The intensity ratio $I_D/(I_{F_{2g}} + I_{2LO})$, commonly used to estimate oxygen vacancy concentration, is 5.2% for $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ and only 1.9% for $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$, confirming the significantly higher defect density in the cubic catalyst. Moreover, additional bands at ~692 and 984 cm^{-1} are assigned to Ru–O–Ce vibrational modes,^{42,43} providing direct evidence for the formation of strong Ru–O–Ce interfacial structures in $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$. These features are scarcely observed in $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$, indicating weaker metal–support interactions on the (1 1 1) facet.

EPR spectroscopy (Figure 3E) reveals a characteristic signal at $g = 2.003$, corresponding to paramagnetic oxygen vacancy defects. The signal intensity follows the order $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C} > \text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S} > \text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$, in excellent agreement with the trends observed by XPS and Raman spectroscopy, thereby providing independent confirmation that $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ possesses the highest oxygen vacancy concentration.

Py-FTIR spectroscopy was employed to probe the acidity of Ru_1CeO_2 catalysts (Figure 3F & Table S5). Bands at 1593 and 1447 cm^{-1} are assigned to

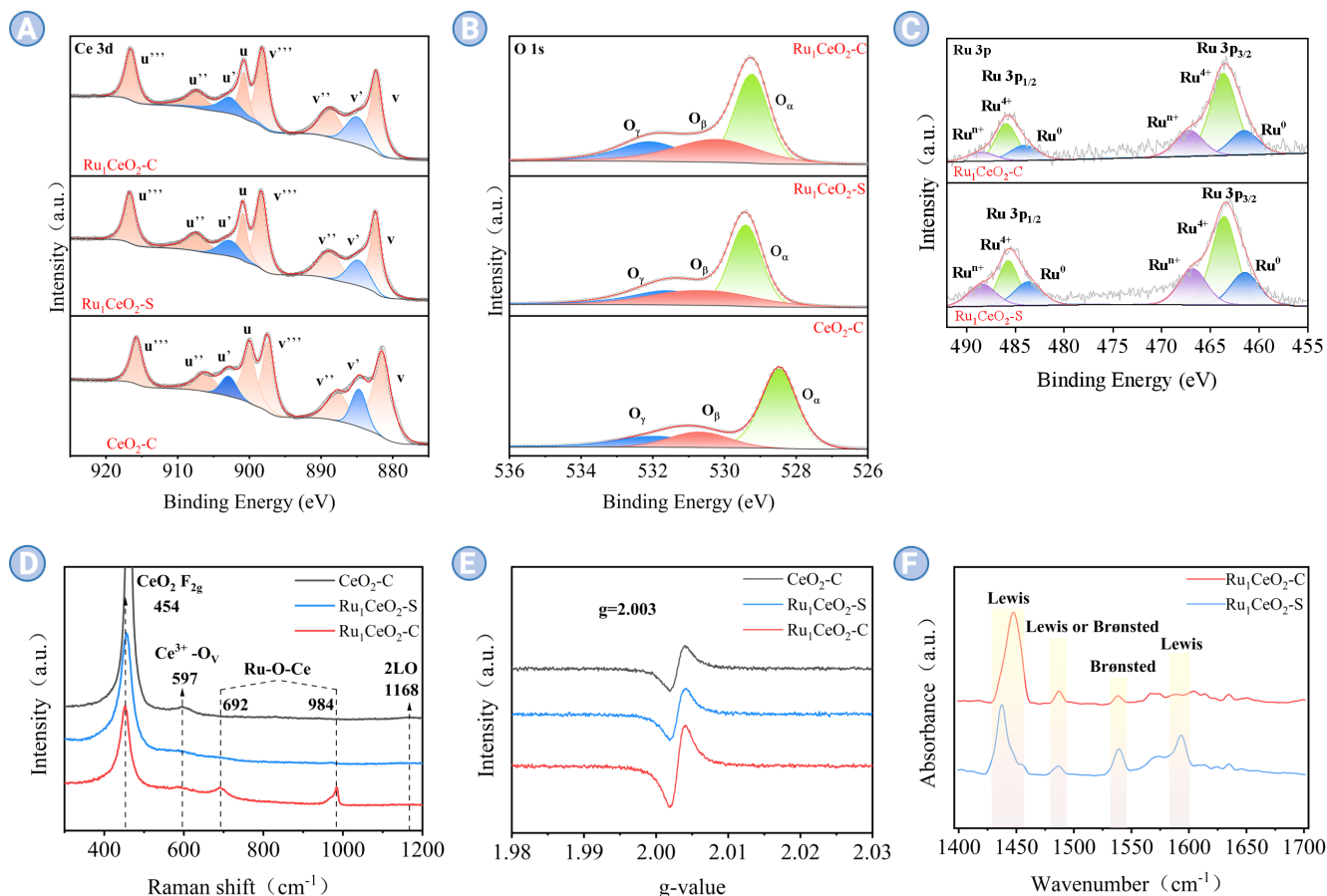


Figure 3. (A) Ce 3d XPS spectra, (B) O 1s XPS spectra, (C) Ru 3p XPS spectra, (D) Raman spectra, (E) EPR spectra, and (F) Py-FTIR spectra of samples.

Lewis acid sites, the band at 1539 cm⁻¹ corresponds to Brønsted acid sites, and the band at 1487 cm⁻¹ is associated with combined Lewis–Brønsted acidity⁴⁴. Quantitative analysis shows that Ru₁CeO₂-C possesses a substantially higher concentration of Lewis acid sites but fewer Brønsted acid sites than Ru₁CeO₂-S. The enrichment of Lewis acid sites is beneficial for the ring-opening of the key intermediate GVL, thereby enhancing the selectivity toward 2-butanol.

Lewis acid sites in CeO₂-based catalysts are closely correlated with oxygen vacancies.^{45,46} Combined XPS, Raman, and EPR results confirm that the high density of oxygen vacancies in Ru₁CeO₂-C provides the structural basis for its abundant Lewis acidity. In addition, Lewis acidity is influenced by the loading amount and oxidation state of Ru species.^{7,47} The Ru₁CeO₂-C exhibits the slightly higher actual Ru loading (0.87 wt%). The EMSI stabilizes a higher fraction of Ru^{δ+} species, which themselves act as Lewis acid sites. The synergistic interaction between Ru^{δ+} centers and adjacent oxygen vacancies generates highly active Lewis acid ensembles, ultimately accounting for the superior catalytic performance of Ru₁CeO₂-C in levulinic acid hydrodeoxygenation, as discussed in the following section.

Catalytic performance

The catalytic performance of Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts was evaluated using LA and its key intermediates as substrates under conditions of 190 °C, 5 MPa H₂, and 8 h (Figures 4 & S3). As shown in Figure 4B, both CeO₂-C and CeO₂-S supports without Ru loading exhibit negligible catalytic activity, producing mainly GVL with trace amounts of HPO and 1,4-PDO. After loading 1 wt% Ru, the catalytic activities of both materials increased dramatically, confirming the essential role of Ru species. Among the catalysts, Ru₁CeO₂-C displays the best performance, achieving complete LA conversion with a 2-butanol yield of 86.9%, whereas Ru₁CeO₂-S affords only a 53.5% yield under identical conditions. Other than these products, trace amounts of 2-pentanol were observed in high pressure of 5 MPa H₂. Time-dependent product distribu-

tions (Figure 4C&D) reveal that GVL is the dominant intermediate over both catalysts, indicating that the subsequent hydrogenolysis of GVL is the rate-determining step for 2-butanol formation.

To further elucidate the kinetic behavior, apparent reaction orders were determined for the hydrogenolysis of GVL. As shown in Figure 4E, the reaction orders with respect to GVL concentration are 1.28 for Ru₁CeO₂-C and 1.21 for Ru₁CeO₂-S. This strong dependence suggests that the reaction rate is highly sensitive to GVL surface coverage. In contrast, the apparent reaction orders with respect to H₂ during GVL hydrodeoxygenation are relatively low (0.23 for Ru₁CeO₂-C and 0.15 for Ru₁CeO₂-S; Figure 4F), indicating that hydrogen adsorption is nearly saturated under the reaction conditions. Notably, in the hydrogenolysis of 1,4-PDO (Figure 4G), the H₂ reaction orders increased markedly to 0.80 for Ru₁CeO₂-C and 0.59 for Ru₁CeO₂-S, approaching first-order kinetics. This result suggests that the C–C bond cleavage in 1,4-PDO is more strongly dependent on hydrogen availability, highlighting a mechanistic distinction between GVL hydrodeoxygenation and deeper hydrogenation steps toward 2-butanol.

Consistent with the kinetic analysis, Ru₁CeO₂-C exhibits excellent activity for the conversion of key intermediates, including GVL, HPO, and 1,4-PDO, achieving 2-butanol yields exceeding 80% and TONs above 240 in all cases (Figure 4H). In contrast, Ru₁CeO₂-S shows significantly inferior performance (2-butanol yields < 25% and TONs < 60). Furthermore, Ru₁CeO₂-C demonstrates broad applicability for the hydrodeoxygenation of levulinates, including methyl, ethyl, propyl, and butyl levulinates, all of which are efficiently converted to 2-butanol (Figure 4I). The effects of UV irradiation time during catalyst synthesis, reaction temperature, and solvent on catalytic performance were systematically investigated (Figure S3). The optimal conditions correspond to a UV irradiation time of 24 h and reaction temperature of 190 °C. Deviations from the optimal reaction temperature in either direction led to a decrease in 2-butanol yield, indicating the necessity of balancing hydrogenation and hydrogenolysis steps. Without the present of H₂, IPA

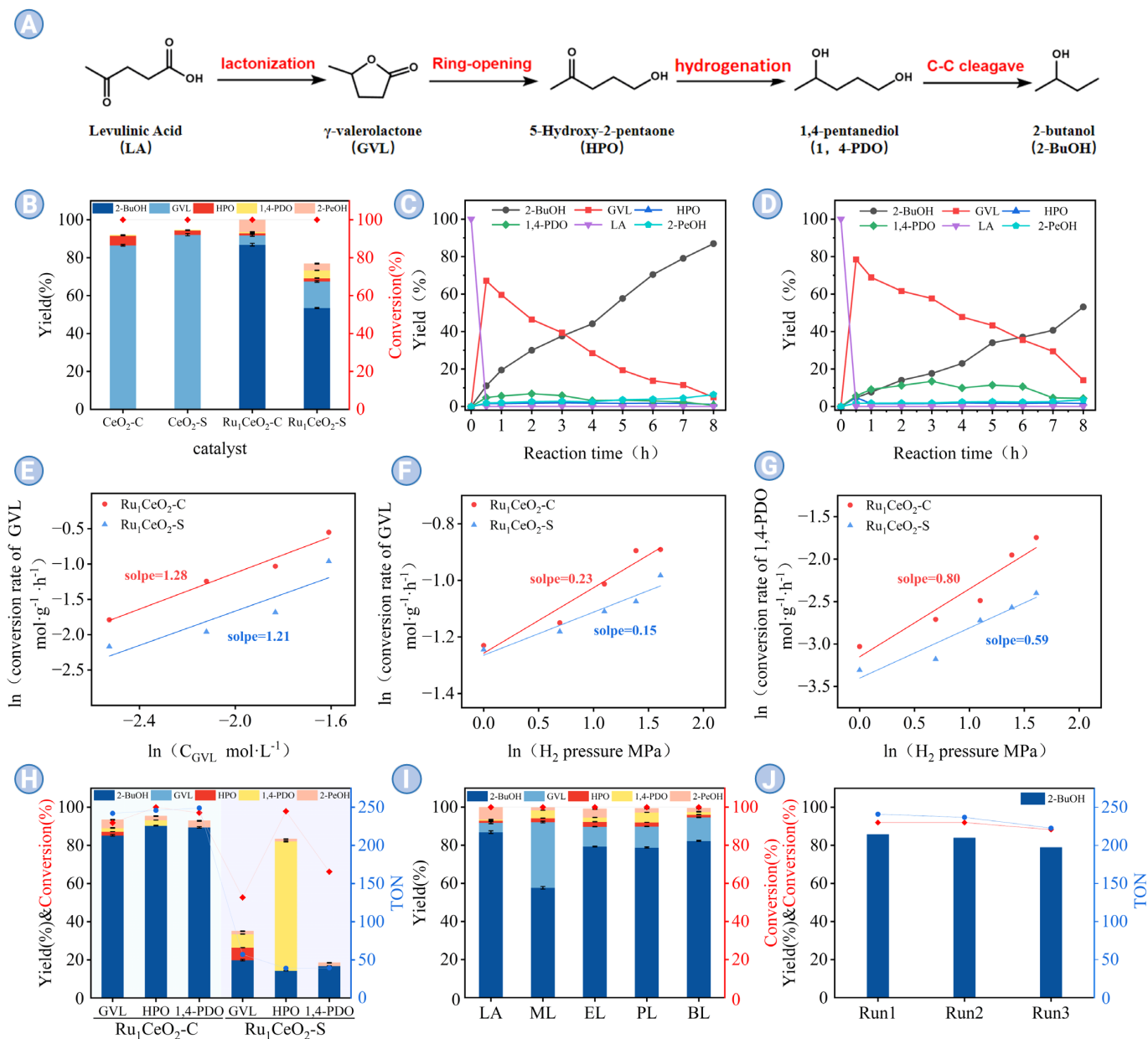


Figure 4. (A) Proposed reaction pathway for LA hydrodeoxygenation to 2-butanol. (B) Conversion of LA over different catalysts. Time evolution of product distributions in LA hydrodeoxygenation over (C) $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ and (D) $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$ catalysts. Determination of apparent reaction orders with respect to (E) GVL concentration and (F) H_2 pressure during GVL hydrodeoxygenation. (G) Apparent reaction orders with respect to H_2 pressure in 1,4-PDO hydrodeoxygenation. (H) Catalytic activity of $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ and $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$ for the conversion of key reaction intermediates. (I) Substrate scope evaluation: catalytic conversion of various levulinates over $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$. (J) Recycling tests of $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ in the catalytic GVL hydrodeoxygenation (Reaction conditions: 0.07 g catalyst, 0.14 g GVL, 8.65 mL IPA, 190 °C, 5 MPa H_2 , and 8 h).

shows a hydrogen donor with the product of acetone observed, enabling partial hydrogenation of LA to form GVL, while no further hydrogenolysis products were observed, suggesting IPA alone is not sufficient to drive the deep hydrodeoxygenation pathway (Figure S3). Nonetheless, the effect of solvents shows that IPA presents the best catalytic performance than other solvents (ethanol, methanol, and water).

To elucidate the deactivation mechanism of the catalyst during the key reaction step and evaluate its structural stability in this step, the recyclability of $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ was evaluated in the hydrogenolysis of GVL (Figure 4J). After three consecutive cycles, only a slight decline in activity was observed, with GVL conversion remaining above 88% and 2-butanol yield above 78%. To elucidate the causes of performance loss, the spent catalyst was characterized using XPS, TGA, SEM, and Raman spectroscopy (Figure S4 & Table S4). XPS analysis reveals a decrease in Ce^{3+} and O_β contents, accompanied by a decrease in the $\text{Ru}^{\delta+}/(\text{Ru}^{\delta+} + \text{Ru}^0)$ ratio. Raman spectra further show weakened Ru-O-Ce characteristic bands (~ 693 and ~ 978 cm^{-1}), indicating attenu-

ation of metal-support interactions. TGA analysis shows that the spent $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ catalyst exhibits approximately 5% greater weight loss compared to the fresh catalyst, probably due to the adsorbed acetone or coke formation⁷. Meanwhile, SEM images reveal that the spent catalyst is fragmented into smaller particles. These observations together contribute to the observed slight loss of catalytic activity. Overall, these results demonstrate that $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ combines high activity, selectivity, and reasonable stability for LA hydrodeoxygenation.

Reaction mechanism

During the conversion of LA to 2-butanol, LA is rapidly hydrogenated to GVL, and the subsequent hydrodeoxygenation of GVL is identified as the key rate-determining step. As shown in Figure 5A, $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ exhibits a significantly higher catalytic efficiency than $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$, with a TON of 208 and a TOF of 157 s^{-1} , compared with TON = 129 and TOF = 111 s^{-1} for $\text{Ru}_1\text{CeO}_2\text{-S}$. The kinetics of GVL hydrogenolysis study show yield apparent activation

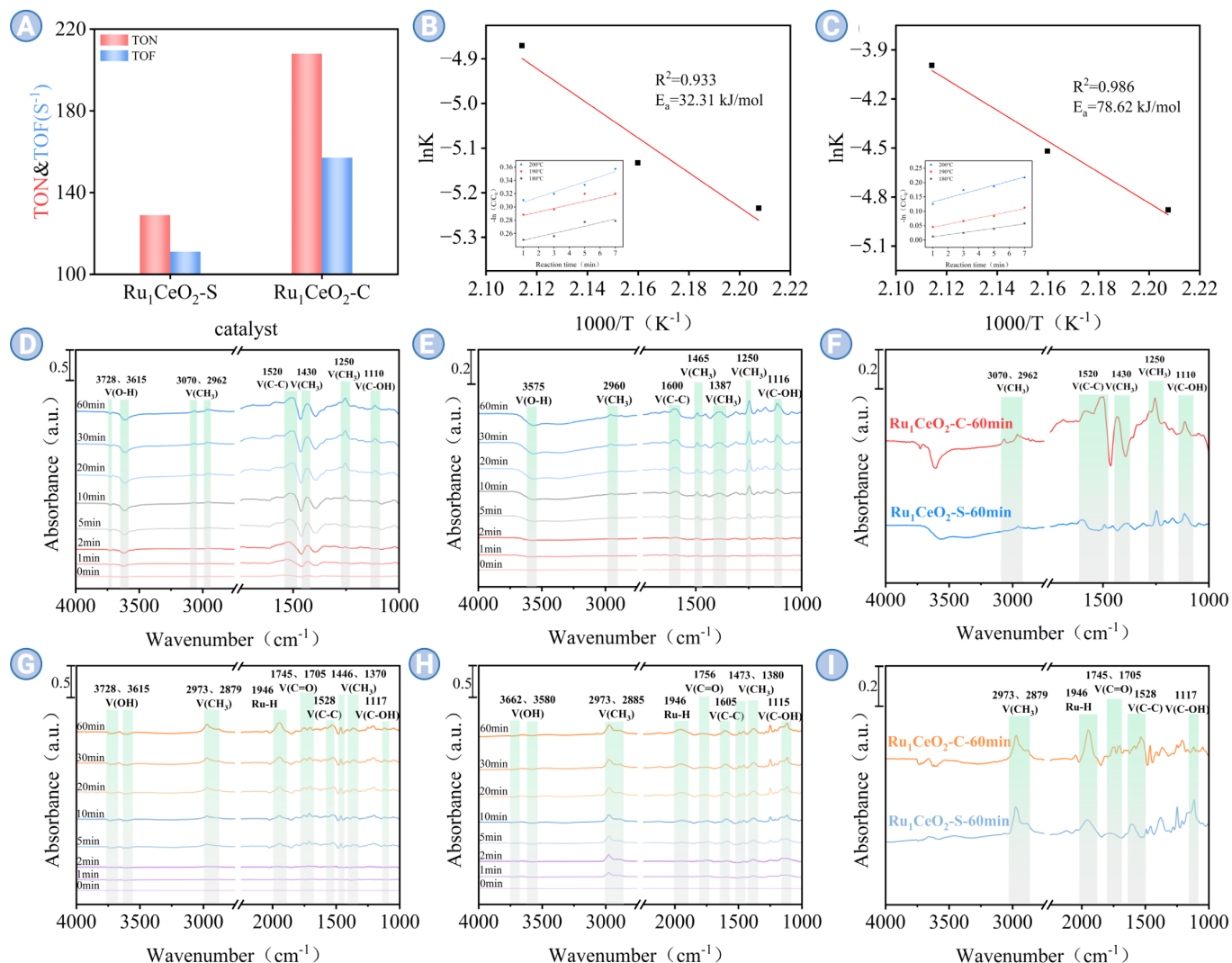


Figure 5. (A) Comparison of TON and TOF for Ru₁CeO₂-C and Ru₁CeO₂-S catalysts in LA hydrodeoxygenation. Apparent activation energy of (B) Ru₁CeO₂-C and (C) Ru₁CeO₂-S catalysts in GVL hydrodeoxygenation. *In situ* DRIFTS of the interaction/reaction (D) between Ru₁CeO₂-C and 1,4-PDO, (E) between Ru₁CeO₂-S and 1,4-PDO, (F) between catalysts and 1,4-PDO at 60 min, (Gg) between IPA and Ru₁CeO₂-C, (H) between IPA and Ru₁CeO₂-S, and (I) between catalysts and IPA at 60 min.

energies of 32.31 kJ mol⁻¹ for Ru₁CeO₂-C and 78.62 kJ mol⁻¹ for Ru₁CeO₂-S, demonstrating a substantially lower energy barrier on the cubic catalyst (Figure 5B&C). Moreover, the apparent activation energies for the conversion of key intermediates, including 1,4-PDO and HPO, are consistently lower on Ru₁CeO₂-C than on Ru₁CeO₂-S (Figure S4). These results indicate that Ru₁CeO₂-C more effectively activates GVL and its downstream intermediates, thereby enabling the highest 2-butanol yield. For both catalysts, GVL hydrogenolysis showed highest apparent activation energy than hydrogenolysis of other substrates, suggesting rate-determining step of GVL hydrogenolysis in the LA hydrodeoxygenation to 2-butanol in this system.

To further elucidate the facet-dependent reaction mechanism, *in situ* DRIFTS was employed to probe the interaction between Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts and 1,4-PDO (Figure 5D-F). As shown in Figure 5D, the DRIFTS spectra of the interaction between Ru₁CeO₂-C and 1,4-PDO adsorption exhibit progressively increasing intensities of $\nu(\text{CH}_3)$ bands at ~ 3079 , 2962, 1430, and 1250 cm⁻¹, as well as a $\nu(\text{C-C})$ band at ~ 1520 cm⁻¹, indicating strong adsorption and activation of carbon-carbon bonds on the Ru₁CeO₂-C surface.⁴⁸ Concurrently, the appearance of a $\nu(\text{C-OH})$ band at ~ 1100 cm⁻¹, characteristic of secondary alcohols,⁴⁹ confirms that this interaction promotes selective C-C bond cleavage in 1,4-PDO, leading to the formation of 2-butanol. In contrast, Ru₁CeO₂-S shows much weaker $\nu(\text{C-C})$ and $\nu(\text{C-H})$ signals during 1,4-PDO adsorption (Figure 5E), indicating limited activation of the C-C bond. On the bare CeO₂-C support, these characteristic features are almost undetectable (Figure S5), confirming the indispensable role of Ru single atoms. A direct

comparison of spectra collected after 60 min (Figure 5F) clearly demonstrates that the CeO₂(1 0 0) facet exposed in Ru₁CeO₂-C strongly promotes the C-C bond cleavage pathway of 1,4-PDO toward 2-butanol formation.

The hydrogen transfer ability of the catalyst was further verified by *in situ* DRIFTS experiments on the interaction between IPA and the catalyst (Figure 5G-I). With increasing interaction time, both Ru₁CeO₂-C and Ru₁CeO₂-S display prominent $\nu(\text{CH}_3)$ bands at ~ 2973 , 2879, 1466, and 1270 cm⁻¹ and a $\nu(\text{C-C})$ band at ~ 1520 cm⁻¹, confirming effective interaction/reaction of IPA on both surfaces.⁷ However, Ru₁CeO₂-C exhibits significantly stronger bands corresponding to Ru-H species (~ 1946 cm⁻¹) and carbonyl (C=O) stretching (~ 1720 cm⁻¹) compared with Ru₁CeO₂-S.⁵⁰ Meanwhile, the $\nu(\text{C-OH})$ band of secondary alcohols at ~ 1117 cm⁻¹ is markedly weaker on Ru₁CeO₂-C, indicating faster dehydrogenation of IPA to acetone. These observations demonstrate that Ru₁CeO₂-C possesses superior hydrogen-transfer activity, enabling more efficient generation of reactive hydrogen species. A direct comparison of DRIFTS spectra after 60 min (Figure 5I) further corroborates the enhanced hydrogen-transfer capability of Ru₁CeO₂-C. In contrast, only IPA adsorption features are observed on the CeO₂-C support, while Ru-H and C=O signals are entirely absent (Figure S5), underscoring the crucial role of Ru single atoms in IPA activation.

Collectively, these results demonstrate that the CeO₂(1 0 0) facet, enriched with oxygen vacancies and strong Ru-O-Ce interfacial structures, synergistically enhances both hydrogen transfer and C-C bond cleavage. This facet-dependent regulation of electronic structure and adsorption behavior

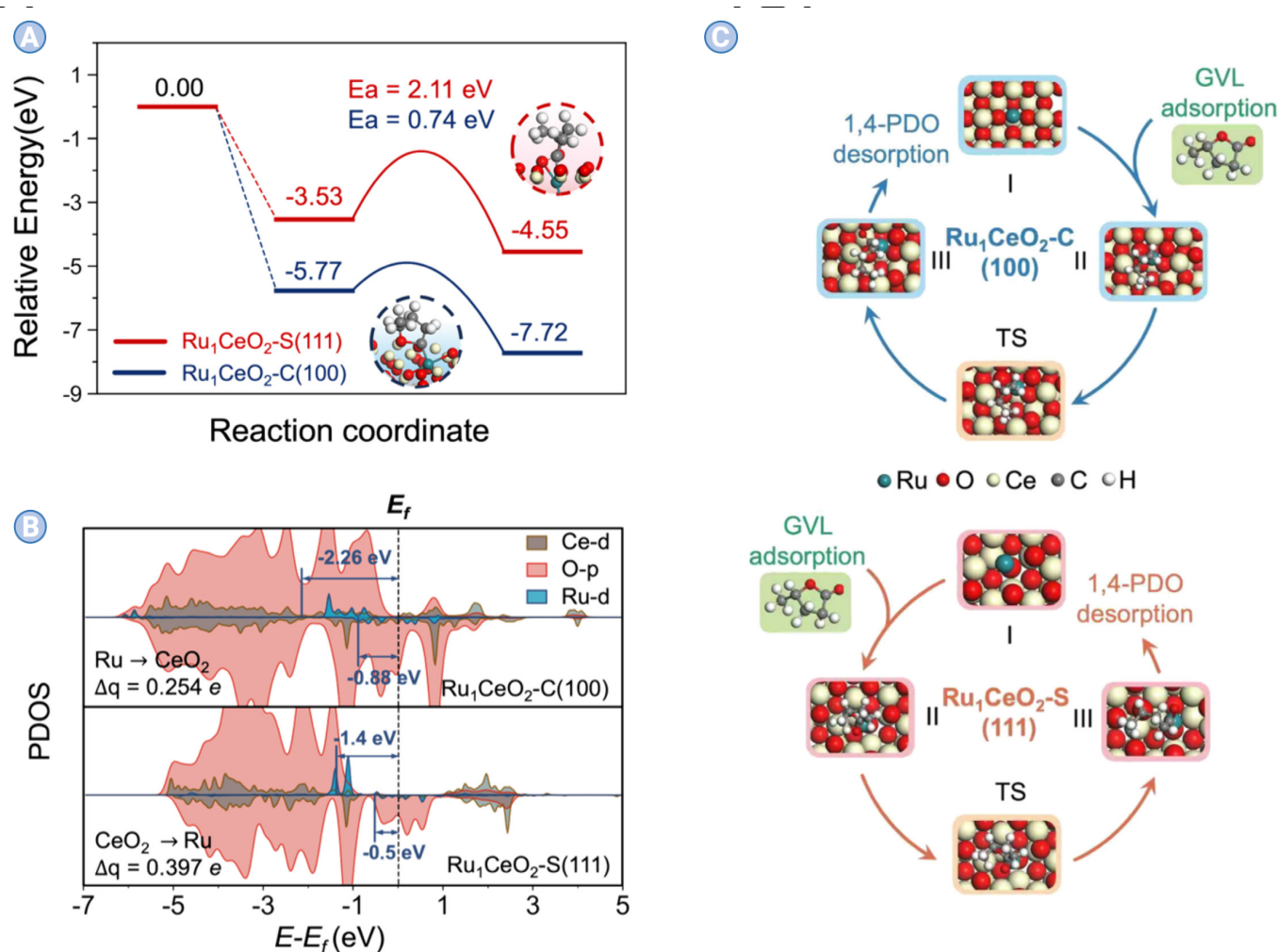


Figure 6. (A) Calculated energy profiles for GVL ring-opening reaction on Ru₁CeO₂-C (100) and Ru₁CeO₂-S (111) surfaces. (B) Projected density of state (PDOS) for Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts and electron transfer analysis. (C) Optimized geometric configurations for GVL-ring-opening reactions.

accounts for the superior activity and selectivity of Ru₁CeO₂-C toward 2-butanol formation from levulinic acid.

Structure-activity relationship

This study demonstrates that facet engineering of Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts via interfacial structure regulation provides an effective strategy to tune catalytic performance in the hydrogenation of LA to 2-butanol. Systematic characterization of the catalyst structure, physicochemical properties, and catalytic behavior reveals a strong correlation between exposed CeO₂ crystal facets and reaction performance.

XPS, EPR, and Py-FTIR analyses collectively show that Ru₁CeO₂-C, which predominantly exposes the CeO₂(1 0 0) facet, possesses a significantly higher concentration of surface oxygen vacancies than Ru₁CeO₂-S with exposed CeO₂(1 1 1) facets. Moreover, Ru single atoms preferentially form Ru-O-Ce interfacial structures on the CeO₂-C surface, leading to EMSI. This interfacial configuration stabilizes Ru predominantly in the oxidation state and generates synergistically enhanced Lewis acid sites near oxygen vacancies. The coexistence of abundant oxygen vacancies and Lewis acid sites effectively promote the rate-determining hydrocracking step of LA, the ring-opening of GVL, which is corroborated by the markedly different GVL conversion kinetics observed for Ru₁CeO₂-C and Ru₁CeO₂-S. In addition to enhanced Lewis acidity, *in situ* DRIFTS analyses reveal that Ru₁CeO₂-C exhibits superior hydrogen-transfer capability, enabling more efficient activation of hydrogen donor molecules and facilitating subsequent hydrogenolysis steps. This dual functionality—strong Lewis acidity for C-O/C-C bond activation and efficient hydrogen transfer for hydrogenation—accounts for the superior activity and selectivity of Ru₁CeO₂-C toward 2-butanol formation.

DFT calculations further substantiate the experimentally observed facet-dependent activity (Figure 6). As shown in Figure 6A, the ring-opening of GVL, identified as the rate-determining step in LA hydrodeoxygenation, proceeds with a substantially lower activation barrier on the Ru₁CeO₂-C(100) (E_a = 0.74 eV) than on the Ru₁CeO₂-S(111) (E_a = 2.11 eV), confirming the intrinsically higher reactivity of the (1 0 0) facet. In addition, GVL adsorption on Ru₁CeO₂-C(100) is significantly stronger than on Ru₁CeO₂-S(111), as reflected by the more negative adsorption energy (-5.77 vs -3.53 eV), indicating a higher affinity between the reactant and the catalytically active surface. Charge-density difference analysis (Figure 6B) reveals distinct facet-dependent electronic interactions. On Ru₁CeO₂-C(100), the Ru single atom donates 0.254 |e| to the CeO₂(1 0 0) support, whereas on Ru₁CeO₂-S(111), the CeO₂(1 1 1) surface transfers 0.397 |e| to the Ru atom. These opposite electron-transfer behaviors are consistent with the XPS-derived Ru oxidation states and confirm that facet-dependent electronic modulation governs the strength of Ru-O-Ce interactions.

CONCLUSION

In summary, this study demonstrates that the catalytic performance of single-atom Ru₁CeO₂ catalysts for the hydrodeoxygenation of levulinic acid to 2-butanol is profoundly influenced by the crystal facets of the ceria support. By anchoring Ru single atom species onto cubic CeO₂-C (1 0 0) and sheet-like CeO₂-S (1 1 1) supports via photodeposition, we identified that the (1 0 0) facets facilitate a higher concentration of surface oxygen vacancies and foster the electronic metal-support interaction. These structural features significantly enhance the abundance of Lewis acid sites and improve hydrogen transfer efficiency, leading to a superior 2-butanol yield of 86.9% and a

TOF of 157 s^{-1} over the $\text{Ru}_4\text{CeO}_2\text{-C}$ catalyst. These findings provide critical insights into facet-directed interfacial engineering for the design of high-performance single-atom catalysts in sustainable biomass valorization.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Zhang Shaohua: Investigation. Liu Fusen: Writing – original draft, Validation, Investigation, Data curation. Zhang Yuqi: Investigation. Zhou Wenguang: Resources, Formal Analysis. Chen Lungang: Visualization, Formal Analysis. Liu Yong: Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Software, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. All authors contributed to the manuscript and approved the final version.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

Data are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

It can be found online at: <https://doi.org/10.59717/j.xinn-energy.2026.100156>