

# Removal of water-soluble arsenicals with phosphorene oxide nanoadsorbents: A first-principles study

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**Abstract:** Novel layered materials for arsenic control have emerged as new alternatives to commercial adsorbents, featuring a large surface area, high adsorption capacity, and easy recovery. In this work, we present a picture of the phosphorene oxide (PhosO) sorption properties via first-principles calculations for the simultaneous adsorption of inorganic As(III) and As(V) contaminants from water. Adsorption energies, competitive adsorption with co-existing species, energy decomposition analyses (ALMO-EDA), implicitly/explicitly solvated structures, and adsorption free energies provide deep insights into the adsorption mechanism as well as the origin of the strong selectivity adsorption ability. The PhosO nanoadsorbents establish inner-sphere surface complexes with arsenicals even under water environments. These nanostructures also show a strong affinity with the highly mobile As(III), where energy saving is achieved by avoiding the pre-oxidation process to convert As(III) into As(V) as requested in related materials. Electrostatic driving forces govern the adsorption mechanism of neutral arsenicals, while the interplay between electrostatic and polarization phenomena drives the adsorption mechanism of anionic arsenicals. Moreover, the optimum adsorption efficiency is reached with a 25% in the content of oxidizing groups, where the strong repulsive surface charge at high pH turns the nanoadsorbents convenient to recycle via simple treatment with alkaline eluents. Finally, the adsorption ability remains thermodynamically allowed in a wide range of ambient temperatures (enthalpically governed reaction). Conceptually understanding the adsorption properties of phosphorene-oxide-based materials towards water-soluble arsenic pollutants provides a useful framework for new developments in future water treatment technologies.

**Keywords:** Phosphorene; nanotechnology; surface science; nanomaterials; environmental chemical engineering; water contaminants.

## 1. Introduction

Arsenicals are highly toxic compounds whose chronic exposure has been associated with carcinogenic, endocrine, cardiovascular diseases, skin and lung damage, diabetes, and metabolic syndrome[1–4]. The arsenic toxicity is related to its ability to replace phosphate groups in biomolecules, showing a strong affinity with –SH groups of cysteinyl residues[5,6]. Among the removal/remediation strategies, adsorption is eco-friendly, economical, efficient, and simple. The solid-phase adsorption reduces undesirable by-products, adsorbent materials separate by filtration and recovered for repetitive uses applying simple basic/acid treatment[7,8]. In this regard, novel layered materials for arsenic sorption have emerged as new alternatives to commercial adsorbents, featuring a large surface area, high adsorption capacity, straight synthesis, and easy recovery. Graphene oxide composites (with chitosan and metal oxides)[9–13] demonstrated efficient arsenic removal from different water sources, where adsorption performance enhances depending on the oxidation degree[14]. The arsenic adsorption capacity of graphene oxide also increases by inner-sphere complexation, especially using hydroxyl and carboxyl groups as oxidizing groups[15].

Phosphorene is a layered and puckered hexagonal nanostructure of phosphorous atoms linked by covalent bonds and weak interlayer dispersive interactions[16–18], which shows a lamellar structure, high carrier mobility, high chemical stability, and tunable bandgap ( $\sim 0.3$ -2.0 eV)[19–21]. Phosphorene-based nanoadsorbents have been proposed to uptake pollutants such as formaldehyde, nitrogen oxides, and carbon oxides[22,23]. Phosphorene has also been applied for simultaneous As(III)/As(V) removal from water at neutral conditions, showing higher adsorption efficiency than graphene (4.8-20.0 mg/g v. 1.33 mg/g)[24,25]. Thus, phosphorene-based materials appear as new promising candidates

for water treatment technologies by adsorption in the solid-phases, outstripping graphene(oxide)-based materials. Furthermore, surface oxidation is reported to increase the arsenic adsorption efficiency for layered materials such as graphene oxide[12,14]. In the phosphorene case, synthesis at partially oxidized forms results in highly stable phosphorene oxides[26], which does not alter its two-dimensional (2D) structure. Additionally, different O:P ratios play a key role in the phosphorene properties (chemical stability, band structure, work-function, transport properties, among others)[23,26–31]. First-principles calculations show that the increased oxygen content decreases the phosphorene bandgap in the range of 1.0–1.3 eV[29]. Otherwise, phosphorene oxides obtained from black phosphorene show a straightforward synthesis compared to those based on blue phosphorene, where time demanding methods as well as epitaxial growth are employed[26,32]. Therefore, the application of oxidized phosphorene nanoadsorbents based on black phosphorene could be a promising strategy for arsenic removal from polluted waters. However, minor efforts have been developed to characterize such applications to the best of our knowledge.

Herein, we proposed phosphorene-oxide-based nanoadsorbents for the simultaneous removal of highly toxic inorganic As(III) and As(V) species from water. Employing density functional theory (DFT) calculations, it is studied the adsorbent–adsorbate stability, interaction mechanisms, arsenic mobility, and sorbent regeneration. The proposed nanoadsorbents show unique advantages: i) adsorption mechanism *via* inner-sphere surface complexation; ii) strong adsorption efficiency with a medium oxidation degree (oxygen content); iii) high recovery ability by simple treatment methods with alkaline eluents. Then, phosphorene-oxides turn into remarkable candidates for further control and remediation technologies of arsenic contamination from water.

## 2. Computational Details

Phosphorene nanoadsorbents (**Phos**,  $\text{P}_{126}\text{H}_{30}$ ) were used for the adsorption studies with a surface area of  $1583 \text{ \AA}^2$  considering its electron density, which is relatively larger to obtain well-converged adsorption energies concerning the arsenic surface (up to  $\sim 166 \text{ \AA}^2$ ). Phosphorene oxide (**PhosO**) was studied in O:P ratios of 1:8, 1:4, 1:2, and 1:1, whose geometrical structures have been early reported[29]. According to the O:P ratio, the nanoadsorbent models were called **PhosO(1:8)**, **PhosO(1:4)**, **PhosO(1:2)**, and **PhosO(1:1)**. A model containing a single oxygen atom [**PhosO(1:∞)**] was included for comparative purposes. Inorganic arsenicals were considered in As(III) and As(V) oxidation states.

Calculations were performed with the PBE functional and all-electron def2-SVP basis sets in the ORCA 4.1 program[33–35]. Dispersion force corrections for self-consistent field energies were included with the DFT-D3 method (with the Becke-Johnson damping function)[36]. The SMD solvation model was used to include solvent effects in water ( $\epsilon=80.4$ ), which is based on the charge density of a solute molecule interacting with a continuum description of the solvent[37]. Molecular structures were optimized without geometrical constraints; convergence tolerance values of  $1 \times 10^{-8}$  and  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  Ha were used for SCF and geometry optimization steps, respectively. The adsorbent-adsorbate stability was characterized by the adsorption energy ( $E_{\text{ads}}$ ):

$$E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{na}} + E_{\text{ad}} - E_{\text{na-ad}} \quad (1)$$

where  $E_{\text{na}}$ ,  $E_{\text{ad}}$ , and  $E_{\text{na-ad}}$  are the total energies of the free nanoadsorbent, free adsorbate, and the adsorbent-adsorbate system, respectively. Accordingly, the more positive the  $E_{\text{ads}}$  values, the more stable the adsorbent-adsorbate complex is.  $E_{\text{ads}}$  values include the counterpoise

correction to avoid basis set superposition errors[38]. Moreover, adsorption energies were further decomposed into physical contributions by the energy decomposition analysis based on absolutely localized molecular orbitals (ALMO-EDA) in the Q-Chem program[39,40]. Accordingly, the adsorption energy for one AB complex is expressed as:

$$-E_{\text{ads}} = \Delta E_{\text{CT}} + \Delta E_{\text{POL}} + \Delta E_{\text{DISP}} + \Delta E_{\text{ELEC}} + \Delta E_{\text{PREP}} + \Delta E_{\text{PAULI}} \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta E_{\text{CT}}$ ,  $\Delta E_{\text{POL}}$ ,  $\Delta E_{\text{DISP}}$ , and  $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}}$  stand for the stabilizing energy due to charge transfer effects (inter and intramolecular charge flow between fragments), polarization effects (induced electrostatic), dispersion forces (van der Waals interactions), and Coulombic attractions (classical intermolecular electrostatic), respectively.  $\Delta E_{\text{PAULI}}$  is the energy destabilization due to steric Pauli repulsion.  $\Delta E_{\text{PREP}}$  is the destabilizing geometric/electronic preparation energy required by fragments to reach the complex geometry.

Global reactivity indexes [chemical potential ( $\mu$ ), molecular hardness ( $\eta$ ), and electrophilicity ( $\omega$ )] were calculated as  $\mu = 1/2 (E_{\text{L}} + E_{\text{H}})$ ;  $\eta = 1/2 (E_{\text{L}} - E_{\text{H}})$ ;  $\omega = \mu^2 / 2\eta$ , where  $E_{\text{L}}$  and  $E_{\text{H}}$  are the energies of frontier molecular orbitals LUMO and HOMO, respectively[41]. The chemical signature of intermolecular interactions was analyzed by the Atoms-in-Molecules (AIM) method[42]. In this way, it was obtained the electron density ( $\rho_{\text{i}}$ ) of the bond critical points (BCPs) connecting fragments through intermolecular bond paths and serves as a measure of the interaction strength. Under this framework, covalent bonds reach  $\rho_{\text{i}}$  values of  $\sim 0.1\text{--}0.5 \text{ e/Bohr}^3$  (and depending on the polar bond character), coordinate and hydrogen bonds (closed-shell interactions) takes values of  $\rho_{\text{i}} \approx 0.04\text{--}0.10 \text{ e/Bohr}^3$ , and weak electrostatic interactions are characterized by  $\rho_{\text{i}} \leq 0.01 \text{ e/Bohr}^3$ . AIM, Mulliken charges, and wavefunction analyses were obtained in the Multiwfn 3.6 code[43].

### 3. Results and Discussions

#### 3.1. PhosO nanoadsorbents

First, we analyzed some relevant electronic/chemical properties of the **PhosO** nanoadsorbents (Table 1). The HOMO-LUMO energy difference ( $\Delta_{HL}$ ) of intrinsic phosphorene is  $\sim 1.3$  eV, denoting its semiconducting character in agreement with those reported from cluster models of phosphorene ( $\sim 1.5$  eV)[44]. Phosphorene oxides show  $\Delta_{HL}$  values in the range of 1.1-1.3 eV, agreeing with those reported by Wang et al. (1.0–1.3 eV)[29]. Thus, the phosphorene oxidation (in O:P ratios from 1:8 to 1:1) almost does not affect the bandgap with respect to intrinsic phosphorene.

Regarding the chemical reactivity, the maximum hardness principle states stable systems are associated with a relatively higher molecular hardness[47]. The **PhosO** nanoadsorbents display a similar molecular hardness compared to intrinsic phosphorene ( $\eta=0.6\text{--}0.7$  eV), denoting that the oxidation almost does not affect the chemical stability of phosphorene. Also,  $\mu$  is related to the electronegativity  $\chi$  through  $\mu=-\chi$ ; while  $\omega$  is the gained stability when the molecular system gains electrons. Hence,  $\mu$  and  $\omega$  are related to the relative electrophilic character[41]. Due to the oxidizing groups, the **PhosO** electrophilic character is slightly increased compared to phosphorene ( $\mu=-4.4$  eV;  $\omega=15.2$  eV). Note that the

**Table 1.** Electronic properties of phosphorene (**Phos**) and phosphorene oxides (**PhosO**).  $\mu$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\omega$  and  $\Delta_{HL}$  are in eV.  $\mu_D$  is in Debye.

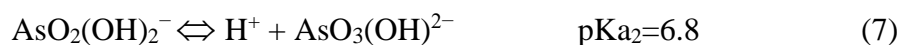
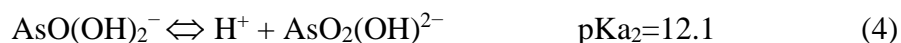
	$\Delta_{HL}$	$\eta$	$\mu$	$\omega$	$\mu_D$
<b>Phos</b>	1.3(1.0-1.6)[29,44,45]	0.6 (0.7)[46]	-4.4(-5.0)[46]	15.2(17.2)[46]	0.1
<b>PhosO(1:<math>\infty</math>)</b>	1.3	0.7	-4.4	14.7	5.9
<b>PhosO(1:8)</b>	1.3(1.3) [29]	0.7	-4.5	15.2	31.3
<b>PhosO(1:4)</b>	1.2(0.85-1.3) [29,30]	0.6	-4.6	18.2	60.1
<b>PhosO(1:2)</b>	1.1(1.0) [29]	0.6	-4.8	21.0	60.1
<b>PhosO(1:1)</b>	0.3(0.6) [29]	0.1	-5.5	107.4	48.4

molecular hardness considerably decreases in highly oxidated phosphorene [**PhosO(1:1)**], and the electron acceptor character increases drastically. Thus, highly oxidated phosphorene has high reactivity, turning it chemically unreliable for practical applications. In other words, highly oxidated phosphorenes will be easily converted to lesser O:P ratio systems through reduction reactions due to its strong acceptor character.

Otherwise, dipole moments ( $\mu_D$ ) of the **PhosO** structures increase compared to intrinsic phosphorene due to the electronegativity difference between phosphorus and oxygen atoms [P (2.1) and O (3.5), in the Allred-Rochow scale][48]. Consequently, oxygen atoms in **PhosO** are negatively charged ( $\sim -0.3|e|$ ), while phosphorous atoms show positive charges ( $\sim +0.2|e|$ ). In this way, surface oxygen atoms behave as adsorption sites, improving either the attack of electrophilic groups or increasing the adsorption efficiency *via* hydrogen bonding. However, a high O:P ratio in **PhosO(1:2)** and **PhosO(1:1)** is expected to cause a strong repulsive surface of negative charge due to the high oxygen content, reducing the adsorption efficiency of either anionic adsorbates or adsorbates with nucleophilic groups.

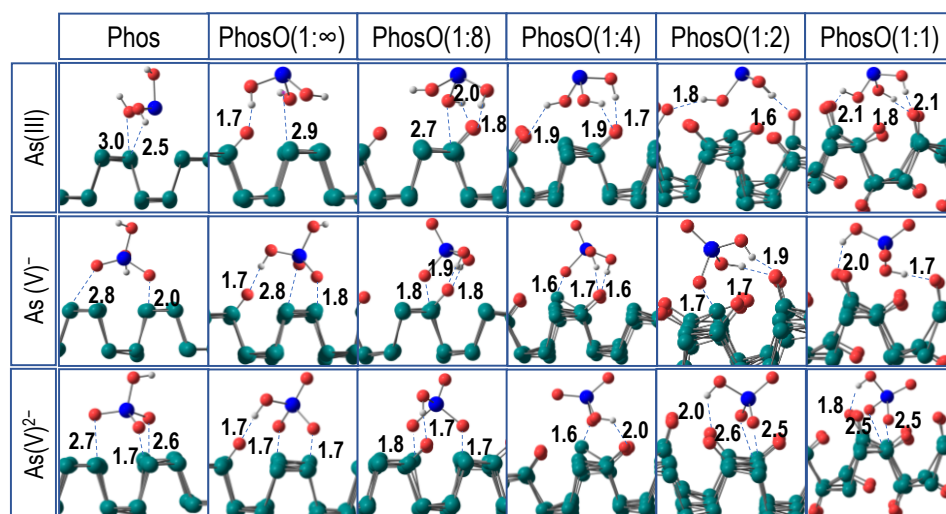
### 3.2. Arsenic–PhosO interaction

Inorganic arsenicals (arsenite and arsenate) behave as triprotic acids in solution and dissociate in water with different acid-base equilibrium depending on the pH[1,49]:



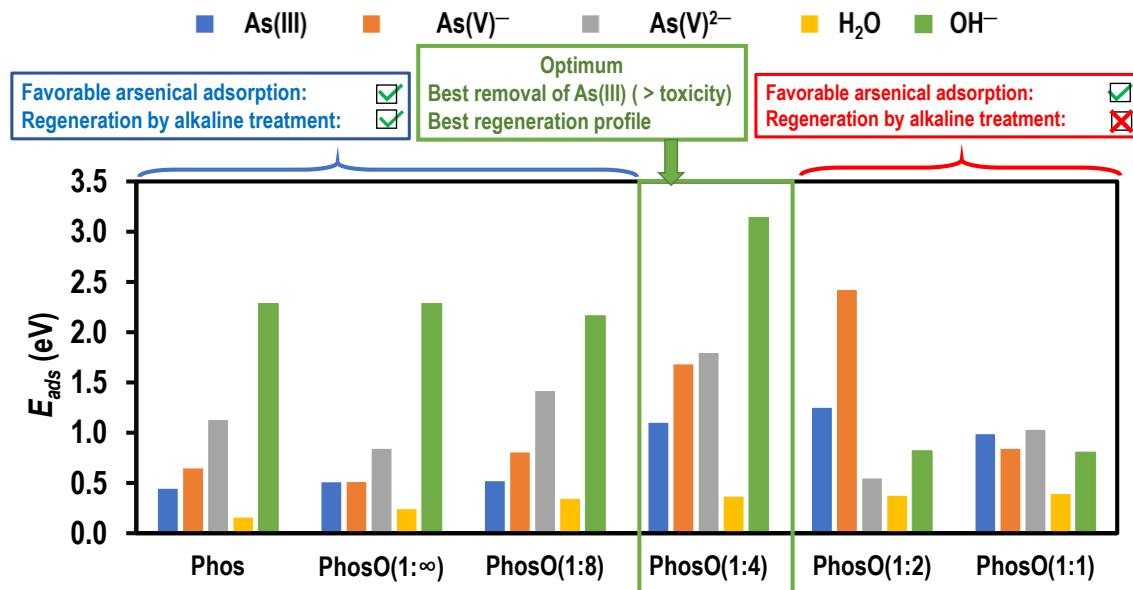
Considering removal applications are carried out at almost neutral conditions onto aqueous matrices ( $\text{pH} \approx 7$ ), As(III) is non-deprotonated at neutral pH; thus, neutral  $\text{As}(\text{OH})_3$  [henceforth, As(III)] was selected for sorption studies. Conversely, As(V) is neutral only at low pH, but it deprotonates when  $\text{pH} \geq 2.3$ ; thus,  $\text{AsO}_2(\text{OH})_2^-$  and  $\text{AsO}_3(\text{OH})^{2-}$  [henceforth,  $\text{As}(\text{V})^-$  and  $\text{As}(\text{V})^{2-}$ , respectively] are dominant in the range of removal applications, choosing these structures for sorption studies. Based on these considerations, we obtained the adsorbent-adsorbate systems (Fig. 1).

Arsenicals are adsorbed onto intrinsic phosphorene with intermolecular distances of up to 3.0 Å *via* non-covalent bonding, which agrees with previous results[50,51]. In the case of oxidized phosphorene, the arsenic uptake is dominated by intermolecular hydrogen bonding with  $\text{H} \cdots \text{O}(\text{PhosO})$  bond lengths in the range of 1.6–2.9 Å, including also long-range intermolecular  $\text{O} \cdots \text{P}(\text{PhosO})$  bonds of up to 2.6 Å. Therefore, arsenicals are adsorbed onto **PhosO** nanoadsorbents through inner-sphere surface complexation.



**Fig. 1.** Molecular structures of arsenicals and their complexes with phosphorene (**Phos**) and phosphorene oxides (**PhosO**). Distances are in Å. Color code: white (H), red (O), green (P), and blue (As).





**Fig. 2.** Adsorption energy ( $E_{\text{ads}}$ ) of arsenicals, water, and hydroxide onto intrinsic phosphorene (**Phos**) and phosphorene oxide (**PhosO**).

Fig. 2 displays the adsorption energies in an aqueous solution. For the most part, the adsorption stability increases as the negative charge of the contaminant increases, i.e.,  $E_{\text{ads}}[\text{As(III)}] < E_{\text{ads}}[\text{As(V)}^-] < E_{\text{ads}}[\text{As(V)}^{2-}]$ . As a reference, the arsenic adsorption onto intrinsic phosphorene is reached with positive adsorption energies (stable adsorption) of ~0.4, 0.6, and 1.1 eV for As(III), As(V)<sup>-</sup>, and As(V)<sup>2-</sup>, respectively. Then, intrinsic phosphorene adsorbs arsenicals from aqueous sources with remarkable stability, as noted from previous experimental and theoretical studies[50,51].

Otherwise, the arsenic uptake onto phosphorene oxide is examined according to the oxidation degree. For comparative purposes, the arsenic uptake onto a very low oxidized surface [**PhosO(1:∞)**] slightly increases the  $E_{\text{ads}}$  values (up to 15%) with respect to intrinsic phosphorene. Consequently, intrinsic phosphorene and reduced phosphorene oxides with a very low-oxidized character perform similarly in arsenic removal. Conversely, medium-

oxidized **PhosO** nanoadsorbents [**PhosO(1:8)**, **PhosO(1:4)**] considerably improve the adsorption performance *via* the formation of inner-sphere surface complexes, increasing the  $E_{\text{ads}}$  values up to 160% with respect to intrinsic phosphorene. As an illustration, As(III), As(V)<sup>-</sup>, and As(V)<sup>2-</sup> reach adsorption energies of ~1.1, 1.7, and 1.8 eV onto **PhosO(1:4)**, respectively. Interestingly, the As(III) adsorption strength increases up to ~38% compared to oxidized graphene ( $E_{\text{ads}} \approx 0.8$  eV)[52], which require chemical functionalization with minerals for an efficient arsenic adsorption in composite materials[10,12,13]. Remarkably, related mineral oxides have shown adsorption energies of ~1.1 eV for As(III) removal (e.g., gibbsite, iron oxides, and titanium dioxides), which have been widely described as efficient arsenic adsorbents[53–57]. Hence, medium-oxidized **PhosO** structures are excellent arsenic nanoadsorbents compared to mineral surfaces, allowing to reach adsorption energies above 1.1 eV without requiring additional chemical functionalization and reducing the costly and time-consuming methods for the synthesis of composites.

It is also important to highlight that because of the weak affinity towards As(III) by several adsorbents, the arsenic treatment technologies require the pre-oxidation of As(III) to As(V) to allow the efficient uptake. Pre-oxidation is used in technologies employing iron coagulants, nanofiltration by thin-films, and membrane-integrated hybrid systems[58–60]. These processes turn costly and time-consuming due to the operational complexity, using strong oxidants (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and KMnO<sub>4</sub>) or photocatalysts (TiO<sub>2</sub>) in the pre-oxidation process. Therefore, medium-oxidized **PhosO** structures could be implemented as excellent nanoadsorbents for simultaneously and directly removal of As(III) and As(V), where energy saving is achieved by avoiding the pre-oxidation process to convert As(III) into As(V).

In contrast, highly oxidized phosphorene [**PhosO(1:2)** and **PhosO(1:1)**] show a not ideal adsorption behavior as a result of the strong negatively charged surface, leading to a strong adsorbent–adsorbate electrostatic repulsion, and consequently, decreasing the adsorption performance (Fig. 2). For instance, the adsorption energy of  $\text{As(V)}^{2-}$  onto **PhosO(1:2)** is decreased with respect to the uptake onto medium-oxidized **PhosO** (0.5 v. 1.8 eV) . Then, a high/full phosphorene oxidation does not provide additional adsorption performance compared to medium-oxidized phosphorene.

### 3.3. Water competitiveness and recovery

We also analyzed the adsorption stability of water molecules ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) and hydroxide anions ( $\text{OH}^-$ ) onto phosphorene oxide (Fig. 2). First, the adsorption energy of the **H<sub>2</sub>O–Phos(PhosO)** complexes is always lower (at least 65 %) compared to those reached by complexation of arsenicals, indicating arsenicals are selectivity adsorbed in an aqueous solution. In other words, water molecules are non-competitive factors for arsenic removal with phosphorene oxide-based materials.

Another key feature for any water treatment technology is the use of sorbent materials by several adsorption-desorption cycles. For regeneration and reusability of nanostructured adsorbents, surface treatment with alkaline eluents (e.g., NaOH) allowed the sorbent regeneration by removing ~99% of arsenic from graphene-oxide composites with metal oxides such as  $\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$ ,  $\text{Gd}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ , and  $\text{CuO}$ ), Zn-Fe mixed metal oxides,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ /Halloysite nanocomposites, Fe/Cu-polyurethane nanoparticles, and Ti-oxides[13,55,61,62]. Therefore, the phosphorene oxide reusability as a function of the oxidation degree was investigated by considering hydroxide ( $\text{OH}^-$ ) anions as eluents.

Medium-oxidized nanoadsorbents [**PhosO(1:8)**, **PhosO(1:4)**] display a strong affinity with  $\text{OH}^-$  anions, reaching adsorption energies of up to 3.1 eV that are high enough to remove any other less-stable adsorbate from the adsorption sites, including As(III) and As(V) (Fig. 2). Thus, arsenicals will be desorbed from medium-oxidized phosphorene by treatment with NaOH eluents, restoring the sorption sites for repetitive adsorption-desorption cycles. Note that hydroxide anions can be further removed from nanoadsorbents by simple washing with deionized water until a neutral pH is achieved[13]. On the contrary, the recovery of highly oxidized phosphorene [**PhosO(1:2)**, **PhosO(1:1)**] with alkaline eluents does not appear like a feasible procedure, since the hydroxide uptake ( $E_{\text{ads}} < 0.8$  eV) do not overcome the sorption stability reached by arsenicals ( $E_{\text{ads}} > 1.0$  eV). This behavior emerges from the high oxygen content in **PhosO(1:2)** and **PhosO(1:1)**; this is negatively charged adsorption sites will repel hydroxide anions with a larger magnitude than arsenicals due to the localized negative charge of  $\text{OH}^-$ .

Based on these results, medium-oxidized **PhosO(1:4)** nanoadsorbents (25% in oxygen content) show the optimal oxidizing degree for arsenic removal due to three main properties: i) higher adsorption strength for simultaneous As(III)/As(V) uptake compared to intrinsic phosphorene; ii) higher selectivity by As(III)/As(V) compared to the affinity by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules in aqueous solution, ensuring for low-pollutant mobility; and iii) straightforward recovery and reusability by a simple regeneration procedure via alkaline treatment (due to its strong selectivity by hydroxide anions at high pH). Considering these results, we choose the **PhosO(1:4)** nanoadsorbent as the best adsorbent candidate for further analyses in this work.

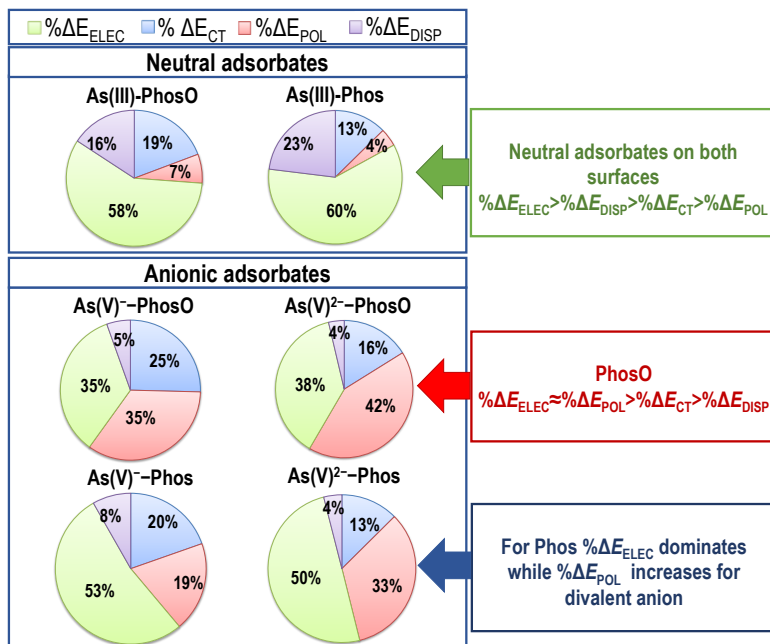
### 3.4. Adsorption mechanism

We attempt to provide a quantitative and readily physical interpretation of the adsorption mechanism by analyzing the specific role of physically intuitive meaningful terms with the ALMO-EDA method. EDA terms were organized as stabilizing ( $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}}$ ,  $\Delta E_{\text{DISP}}$ ,  $\Delta E_{\text{CT}}$ ,  $\Delta E_{\text{POL}}$ ), and destabilizing terms ( $\Delta E_{\text{PAULI}}$ ,  $\Delta E_{\text{PREP}}$ ). Table 2 shows the magnitude of EDA terms, and Fig. 3 displays the relative single percentage contributions ( $\Phi_i$ , in %) of stabilizing EDA terms for a quick interpretation.

In the case of **As(III)–PhosO** complexes, electrostatic interactions ( $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}}$ ) mainly govern the inner-sphere surface complexation, overcoming 58% of the total stabilizing energy. Then, permanent Coulombic electrostatic attraction is the main driving force determining the stability of **As(III)–PhosO** complexes in solution. In addition, we found stabilization gained by electrostatic interactions ( $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}}$ ) enhances in up to two orders of magnitude upon adsorption on phosphorene oxide compared to the unoxidized material. For instance, the **As(III)–Phos** and **As(III)–PhosO** complexes are stabilized in  $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}} \approx -1.7$  and  $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}} \approx -3.5$  eV by electrostatic interactions, respectively (Table 2), corresponding to single stabilizing contributions of 58 and 60%, respectively (Fig. 3). Note also that the relative

**Table 2.** EDA terms. Energies are in eV; positive and negative values stand for repulsive (destabilizing) and attractive (stabilizing) interactions, respectively.

system	stabilizing				Destabilizing	
	$\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}}$	$\Delta E_{\text{POL}}$	$\Delta E_{\text{CT}}$	$\Delta E_{\text{DISP}}$	$\Delta E_{\text{PAULI}}$	$\Delta E_{\text{PREP}}$
<b>As(III)–PhosO</b>	3.48	0.41	1.16	0.95	5.21	0.31
<b>As(V)<sup>−</sup>–PhosO</b>	6.50	6.48	4.77	1.03	13.07	2.32
<b>As(V)<sup>2−</sup>–PhosO</b>	10.33	11.53	4.40	1.00	14.53	3.49
<b>As(III)–Phos</b>	2.07	0.15	0.44	0.80	2.56	0.08
<b>As(V)<sup>−</sup>–Phos</b>	6.85	2.50	2.54	1.07	8.42	0.83
<b>As(V)<sup>2−</sup>–Phos</b>	15.27	10.27	3.85	1.22	15.20	2.52



**Fig. 3.** Relative single percentage contributions ( $\Phi_i$ , in %) of EDA terms.

single percentage contributions ( $\Phi_i$ ) are similar between pristine and oxidized adsorbents (Fig. 3), denoting that adsorption on both materials is governed by similar driving forces. Note that the strong electrostatic contribution was also documented in experimental studies of arsenic-phosphorene complexes due to the low adsorption heat in variable temperature experiments[25]. Electrostatic driving forces have also been described as the main stabilizing contribution for the covalent and non-covalent adsorption of formaldehyde and heavy metals [e.g., Pb(II), Hg(II), and Cd(II)] onto phosphorene[22,63].

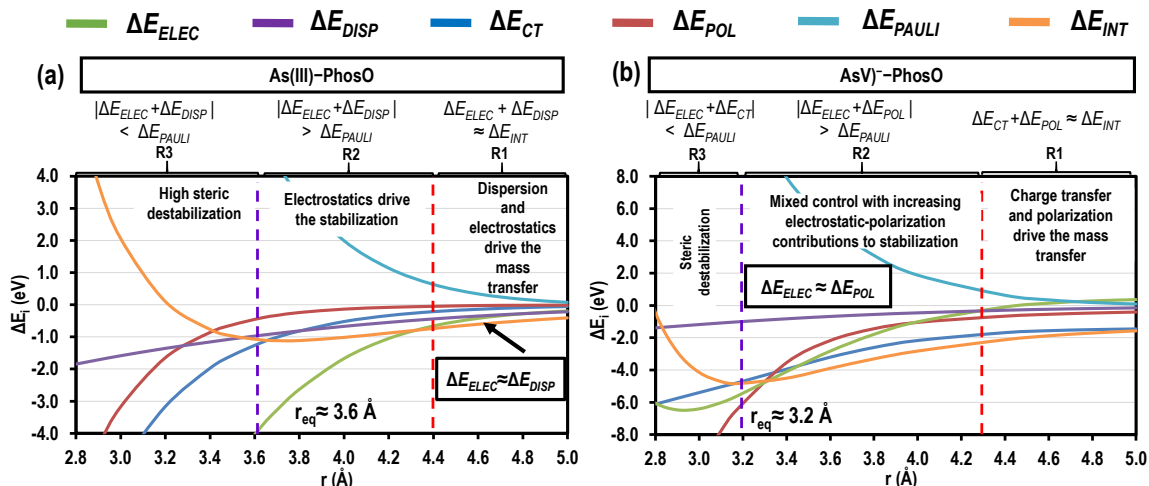
On the other hand, charge-transfer and dispersion driving forces ( $\Delta E_{CT} + \Delta E_{DISP}$ ) stand for up to 30% of the stability in the **As(III)-PhosO** complex, in agreement with a weak electron transfer ( $< \sim 0.1|e|$ ) in the **As(III)→PhosO** direction. In contrast, polarization stabilizing effects ( $\Delta E_{POL}$ ) are weak at the equilibrium distances, with contributions lower than 7% for neutral adsorbates because it is predominantly a short-range term.

EDA terms were also obtained for the **As(V)–PhosO** complexes to rationalize the differences between As(III) and As(V) adsorption. As(V) is mainly anionic in aqueous solution at pH=7; thus, electrostatics interactions will be directly proportional to the charge magnitude of anionic adsorbates and increasing as the As(V) negative charge increases. In fact, the  $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}}$  magnitude considerably increases for adsorbed As(V) species compared to the As(III) adsorption, denoting the key role of permanent electrostatic driving forces in the As(V) complexation as stated by Sharma and Sohn[49]. For instance, As(III), As(V)<sup>−</sup>, and As(V)<sup>2−</sup> species are stabilized by electrostatic forces in ~3.5, 6.5, and 10.3 eV, respectively. Otherwise, the stabilization gained by polarization effects ( $\Delta E_{\text{POL}}$ ) is almost equivalent to the stability gained through electrostatic forces ( $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}} \approx \Delta E_{\text{POL}}$ ), which are accounting together for up to 82% of the total stabilizing energy (Fig. 3). Therefore, the inner-sphere surface complexation of As(V) species on phosphorene oxide is driven by the interplay of electrostatic and polarization effects. In this regard, when adsorbent and adsorbate approach, negatively charged As(V) species cause an intense on-fragment relaxation of the **PhosO** nanoadsorbents due to As(V) nuclei/electrons and vice-versa; this relaxation occurs in the form of density rearrangements that create induced multipole moments favorably aligned (polarization), which increase the magnitude of electrostatic forces and, subsequently, the adsorption stability. Additionally, the charge-transfer stabilization ( $\Delta E_{\text{CT}}$ ) term shows a high contribution of up to 25% in the **As(V)–PhosO** complexes as a result of the high electron transfer ( $\sim 0.6|e|$ ) in the As(V)→**PhosO** direction, which is resulting of the polarizing phenomena as noted above. Additionally, dispersion effects play a minor role in the **As(V)–PhosO** complexes, standing for up to 5% of the total stabilizing energy and in agreement with an inner-sphere adsorption mechanism.

Finally, destabilizing effects emerge at least ~80% due to Pauli repulsion ( $\Delta E_{\text{PAULI}}$ ) in all the cases because the geometrical structure of As(III)/As(V) is weakly influenced upon non-covalent adsorption. A high  $\Delta E_{\text{PAULI}}$  term appears in the **As(V)–PhosO** complexes due to the strong negative charge excesses in both the adsorbent and adsorbate (up to  $\Delta E_{\text{PAULI}} \approx 14$  eV, Table 2). However, the magnitude of steric repulsion is lower than the main stabilizing forces ( $|\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}} + \Delta E_{\text{POL}} + \Delta E_{\text{CT}}| > \Delta E_{\text{PAULI}}$ ), leading to stable adsorption. Conversely, in the highly-oxidized phosphorene nanoadsorbents [**PhosO(1:2)**, **PhosO(1:1)**], the arsenic uptake comprises a large contribution of Pauli repulsion due to the high oxygen concentration on the adsorbent surface. Consequently, Pauli repulsion is overcompensating all the attractive forces ( $|\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}} + \Delta E_{\text{POL}} + \Delta E_{\text{CT}}| < \Delta E_{\text{PAULI}}$ ), leading to the increase of the electron density kinetic energy when negatively charged fragments are brought into close interaction[39,64]. The latter explains why highly oxidized phosphorene nanoadsorbents do not provide additional adsorption performance for arsenic removal than medium-oxidized phosphorene.

We also present an overview of the whole adsorption process along the dissociation path of the **As(III)–PhosO** and **As(V)<sup>–</sup>–PhosO** complexes as representative cases (Fig. 4). The dynamic adsorption process is determined in the first stages by the mass transport between the **PhosO** nanoadsorbents and dissolved arsenicals in water (mass transfer step), subsequently favored by the arsenic diffusion into the nanoadsorbent surface. In the **As(III)–PhosO** complex, electrostatic and dispersion driving forces ( $\Delta E_{\text{ELEC}} + \Delta E_{\text{DISP}} \approx \Delta E_{\text{INT}}$ , Fig. 4a) drive the mass transport at larger intermolecular distances ( $> 4.4$  Å). As a comparison, we determine dispersion forces only drive the mass transport on intrinsic phosphorene at larger intermolecular distances (see the supporting material for details). The latter indicates phosphorene oxidation favors the diffusion through the solvent media compared to intrinsic





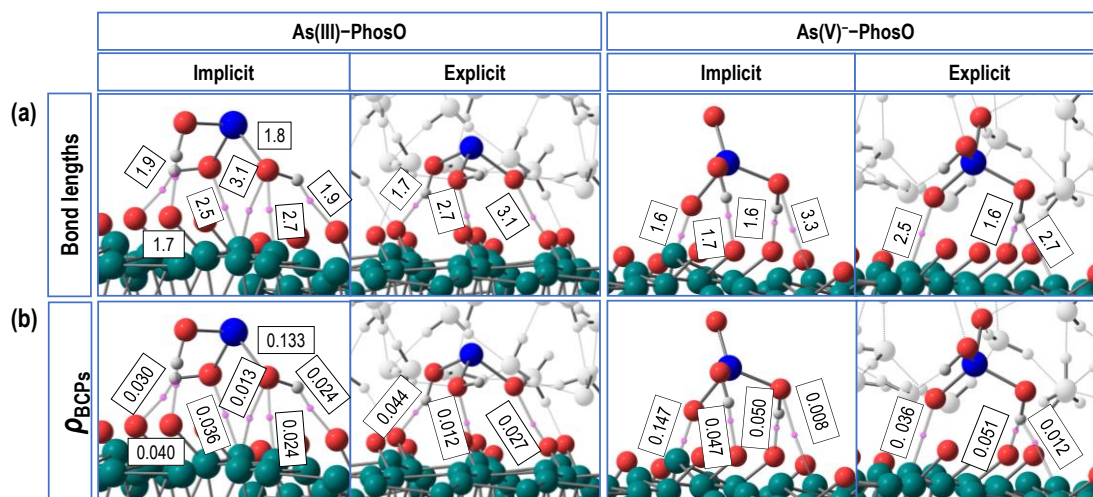
**Fig. 4.** EDA of As(III)–PhosO (a) and As(V)<sup>−</sup>–PhosO (b) complexes along its dissociation curve. The path is divided into three regions for analysis: R1, R2, and R3.

phosphorene because of long-range electrostatic effects at the early stages of the adsorption process, increasing the mass transfer and arsenic diffusion into the nanoadsorbent structure via charge-controlled interactions. Consequently, the time to reach the adsorption equilibrium is decreased. After the As(III) diffusion, until the intermolecular equilibrium distance is reached, the interplay between dispersion and electrostatic effects overcome the steric repulsion ( $|\Delta E_{ELEC} + \Delta E_{DISP}| > \Delta E_{PAULI}$ ), leading to stable adsorption. Otherwise, the dissociation curve of As(V)–PhosO complexes shows that the long-range charge-transfer and polarizing effects govern mass transport at larger intermolecular distances ( $>4.3$  Å) as a result of the As(V) anionic charge and electrophilic character of PhosO ( $\Delta E_{CT} + \Delta E_{POL} \approx \Delta E_{INT}$ , Fig. 4b). Therefore, the time to reach the adsorption equilibrium is expected to be lesser for pentavalent arsenicals compared to trivalent ones. Finally, and after the diffusion step, the As(V)–PhosO complexes are stabilized by a mixed and balanced contribution of electrostatics, charge-transfer, and polarization driving forces until the equilibrium distance is reached, where  $\Delta E_{POL}$  and  $\Delta E_{ELEC}$  are dominant stabilizing effects and depending on the As(V) speciation.

### 3.5. Mobility and water-assisted adsorption

The adsorption stability in a water environment was examined to ensure low pollutant mobility after adsorption. A hybrid explicit-implicit solvation model was employed, where explicit H<sub>2</sub>O molecules surround the adsorbate combined with the SMD solvation model to create the solvent reaction environment. In this way, the **As–PhosO** complexes were fully optimized to get insights into the adsorption stability under competition with explicit H<sub>2</sub>O molecules in the solvent reaction field. It is noteworthy that water molecules are reported to be weakly physisorbed onto intrinsic phosphorene [ $E_{\text{ads}}(\text{H}_2\text{O}) \approx 0.2$  eV], forming H<sub>2</sub>O clusters even at high pressures[28]. Therefore, the formation of water clusters around the adsorbed arsenicals could help the adsorption process, favoring the uptake stability.

We compare the **As–PhosO** complexes in an implicit and explicit solvation environment (Fig. 5). As can be seen, H<sub>2</sub>O molecules form hydrogen-bonded clusters around the **As–PhosO** complexes, without pollutant desorption or pollutant decomposition in other



**Fig. 5.** Comparison between implicit (**non-assisted**) and explicitly (**water-assisted**) solvated arsenicals adsorbed onto **PhosO**. **a)** Intermolecular bond lengths (in Å) and **b)** electron densities at the bond critical points ( $\rho$ , in  $e/\text{Bohr}^3$ ) are presented for comparison.

harmful compounds. These results indicate that **PhosO** nanoadsorbents allow avoiding the mobility phenomenon; even more, the formation of hydrogen-bonded water clusters could increase the stability of **As–PhosO** complexes. In other words, water molecules are not competitive factors for the simultaneous adsorption of As(III) and As(V) onto phosphorene oxide. Moreover, the water-assisted adsorption is dominated by hydrogen bonding formed by the acid hydrogens of arsenicals and the surface oxygen atoms of **PhosO**, showing bond lengths in the range of  $\sim 1.7\text{--}1.9$  Å (Fig. 5a). Intermolecular O(As) $\cdots$ P(**PhosO**) interactions are also retained, while some hydroxyl groups of arsenicals are reoriented to form hydrogen bonds with H<sub>2</sub>O molecules, but without desorption from the adsorbent surface.

Focusing on the nature of intermolecular interactions, we use the AIM analysis that quantifies the electron density ( $\rho_i$ ) at the intermolecular bond critical points [BCPs, points in space at which the first derivatives of the electron density vanish  $\nabla\rho(\mathbf{r})=0$ ], which is quantitatively related the bonding strength. We note the intermolecular **As–PhosO** hydrogen bonding becomes stronger in an explicit water environment, characterized by  $\rho_i$  values at the BCPs in the range of  $0.02\text{--}0.05$   $e/\text{Bohr}^3$  (highly polarized closed-shell electrostatic interactions) (Fig. 5b). In the case of **As(V)–PhosO** complexes, the intermolecular O $\cdots$ P interactions display  $\rho_i$  values of up to  $0.03$   $e/\text{Bohr}^3$ , indicating a weak coordinate and highly polarized covalent bonding between O and P atoms (orbital interaction). This result is in agreement with the high contribution of charge-transfer and polarization stabilizing effects ( $\Delta E_{\text{CT}} + \Delta E_{\text{POL}}$ ) into the stability of **As(V)<sup>–</sup>–PhosO** complexes, which appear in orbital interactions. Therefore, and from the chemical viewpoint, the strong inner-sphere surface complexation exactly emerges from the interplay between strong intermolecular electrostatic interactions (hydrogen bonding) and/or highly polarized/coordinate covalent bonding.

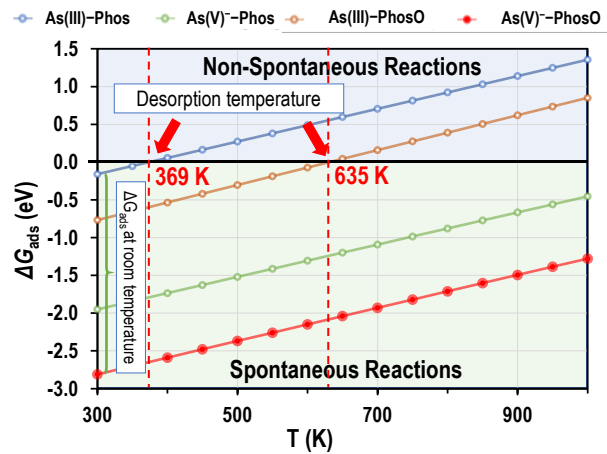
Similar behavior has been described for arsenic adsorption onto metal-doped phosphorene in the chemisorption regime[50,51].

In summary, the strong adsorption stability and low arsenic mobility from the **As–PhosO** complexes can be explained based on two main properties: (i) low arsenic mobility is reached because water molecules forms clusters surrounding the adsorbate (water-assisted adsorption), favoring the intermolecular **As–PhosO** hydrogen bonding; (ii) **As(V)<sup>–</sup>–PhosO** complexes are also stabilized by O···P weak coordinate bonding, which agrees with experimental results in phosphorene surfaces[24,25], increasing the charge-transfer and polarizing stabilizing effects as a result of orbital interactions. At this point, it is necessary to point out co-existing anionic species (such as Cl<sup>–</sup>, CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2–</sup>, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3–</sup>, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup>) can slightly suppress the arsenic adsorption capacity of oxidized layered materials[11,12,65]. Nevertheless, some co-existing species (e.g., citric acid) increases the arsenic adsorption efficiency of phosphorene, reaching a maximum adsorption capacity of 20 mg/g, respectively[25]. Suitable NaCl amount (~0.1M) also increases the arsenic adsorption from ~40 to 95% by using graphene-oxide, without a larger competition for the adsorption sites with other co-existing anions (PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3–</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup>)[13]. Then, a suitable magnitude of ionic strength could be beneficial to improve the arsenic removal efficiency in layered oxides. In this regard, surface complexation modeling and vibrational spectroscopy experiments have established that ionic strength does not change the arsenic adsorption if arsenicals form inner-sphere surface complexes[66]; in opposition, outer-sphere surface complexes destabilizes at higher ionic strength values, decreasing the adsorption capacity. Therefore, phosphorene oxides are expected to retain their adsorption capacity/efficiency in the presence of co-existing anions due to the adsorption mechanism *via* inner-sphere surface complexation.

### 3.6. Adsorption free energies

We explored the adsorption process spontaneity in a temperature range of 300–1000 K (Fig. 6). At room temperature (300 K), the adsorption free energy ( $\Delta G_{\text{ads}}$ ) of the **As–PhosO** and **As–Phos** complexes is negative, denoting a spontaneous adsorption process. The temperature-dependent  $\Delta G_{\text{ads}}$  profile shows the adsorption spontaneity decays as the temperature increases. In this regard, an exothermic reaction in water favors the spontaneous adsorption process ( $\Delta H_{\text{ads}} < 0$ ), but entropic effects must oppose the reaction spontaneity ( $\Delta S_{\text{ads}} < 0$ ), and it increases with the temperature until the reaction turns non-spontaneous, leading to desorption. Desorption temperatures of 369 and 635 K were found for **As(III)–Phos** and **As(III)–PhosO** complexes, ensuring efficient adsorption in a wide temperature range, while desorption temperatures are out of range for pentavalent arsenicals. With this in mind, the surface regeneration could be assisted by thermal treatment in the selective adsorption of As(III) species.

Note that arsenic adsorption on solid surfaces can follow three different thermodynamic profiles: (i) an enthalpically governed reaction, where the adsorption



**Fig. 6.**  $\Delta G_{\text{ads}}$  of arsenicals adsorption onto **Phos** and **PhosO** nanoadsorbents evaluated at temperatures  $T=300\text{--}1000$  K, 1 atm.

spontaneity decays as the temperature increases; (ii) an entropically governed reaction, where the adsorption spontaneity increases at higher temperatures; (iii) an enthalpic-entropically governed reaction, where the adsorption spontaneity is favored in a broad temperature range. In our case, the **As–Phos** and **As–PhosO** complexes show an enthalpic governed reaction, which has also been described for the  $\text{As}_2\text{O}_3$  adsorption onto carbonaceous surfaces[67]. Ferric oxide-chitosan composites also show enthalpic governed adsorption reactions with arsenicals, with desorption temperatures of 300–330 K[68]. Therefore, the feature of enthalpically governed adsorption reactions can be exploited to regenerate the material by thermal treatment and/or supporting other recovery treatments. In contrast, ferric hydroxide and zirconium-based metal-organic framework are adsorbents with entropically and enthalpic-entropically governed adsorption reactions, respectively[69,70].

#### 4. Conclusions

We have theoretically elucidated the sorption properties of phosphorene oxide nanoadsorbents for the simultaneous removal of inorganic As(III) and As(V) pollutants from water. It is found that phosphorene oxide forms stable inner-sphere surface complexes with arsenicals even under aqueous environments, and it shows a strong affinity with highly mobile As(III). Electrostatic driving forces govern the adsorption of neutral arsenicals, while the interplay between electrostatic and polarization phenomena drives the uptake of anionic arsenicals. Furthermore, the optimum adsorption efficiency is reached with a 25% in the content of oxidizing groups, which also turns the phosphorene oxide nanoadsorbents convenient to be recycled via simple alkaline treatment. Moreover, the adsorption process is allowed in a wide range of ambient temperatures.

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