

# A First-Principles Approach for Treating Dye Wastewater

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## Abstract

Numerous materials are employed for treating wastewaters, e.g., for the removal of dyes from wastewater in the textile industry. However, the regeneration/reuse of these materials is still seldom practiced. Quantitative insights into intermolecular forces between the contaminants and the functional surfaces might aid the rational design of reusable materials. Here, we compare the efficacies of aliphatic ( $C_8H_{18}$ ), aromatic ( $C_6H_6$ ), and aromatic perfluorinated ( $C_6F_6$ ) moieties at removing methylene blue ( $MB^+$ ), as a surrogate dye, from water. We employed DFT with an implicit polarizable continuum model (PCM) for water to accurately determine the contributions of the solvent's electrostatics in the adsorption process. Our calculations pinpointed the relative contributions of  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking, van der Waals complexation, hydrogen bonding, and cation- $\pi$  interactions, predicting that  $MB^+$  would bind the strongest with  $C_6F_6$  due to hydrogen bonding and the weakest with  $C_8H_{18}$ . Complementary laboratory experiments revealed that despite the similar hydrophobicity of silica beads functionalized with Si- $C_8H_{17}$ , Si- $C_6H_5$ , and Si- $C_6F_5$ , as characterized by their water contact angles, the relative uptake of aqueous  $MB^+$  varied as Si- $C_6F_5$  (95%) > Si- $C_6H_5$  (35%) > Si- $C_8H_{17}$  (3%). This first-principles-led experimental approach can be easily extended to other classes of dyes, thereby advancing the rational design of adsorbents.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Domestic and industrial consumption of water has been increasing to meet the needs of growing populations and industries around the world<sup>1</sup>. Water resources are therefore under tremendous stress to cope with the demand for irrigated and livestock agriculture, as well as the industrial needs and the impact of climate change and widespread contamination of land and water bodies<sup>2-4</sup>. In this context, wastewater treatment serves the crucial purpose of water reuse and sustainable discharge into the environment<sup>5</sup>. The recovery of materials and resources during wastewater treatment is also emerging as a promising approach towards a circular-economy<sup>6-9</sup>. Treatment methods for wastewaters depend on their source and contaminants, such as the removal of oil from produced water<sup>10</sup>, the remediation of municipal waste with microorganisms<sup>11</sup>, or the treatment of textile effluents with macromolecular dyes<sup>12</sup>. Of these, we are interested in the removal of dyes from wastewaters generated in industries, such as textile, cosmetics, pulp and paper, food and beverages, packaging, paints, and pharmaceuticals<sup>12</sup>. Over 100,000 commercial dyes are known presently<sup>13</sup>, with an annual consumption of  $> 7 \times 10^8$  kg/yr<sup>14</sup>. About 5-10% of these dyes appear in the effluent streams of industrial wastewater and are discharged into oceans, rivers, and soils<sup>12, 15</sup>. Many of these dyes are potentially toxic and could pose a threat to the environment<sup>12, 13</sup>. In response, traditional methods to remove dyes from wastewater include adsorption, ion-exchange, oxidation, and coagulation/flocculation<sup>16</sup>. Adsorption is the most common strategy due to its low cost, efficiency, and ease of operation<sup>12</sup>. Common “broad-spectrum” adsorbents for dyes include activated carbon, silica gels, fly ash, bentonite, and perlite<sup>12</sup>. However, these adsorbents are not regenerated after usage and are subsequently disposed of as waste<sup>13</sup>. The design of materials for adsorption has largely been empirical and without consideration into intermolecular forces. Thus, there is a need for rationally designed reusable adsorbents for the removal of macromolecular dyes from wastewaters.

The rational design of reusable adsorbent requires a quantitative understanding of the intermolecular and surface forces between the target contaminants and the functional material used for removal of the contaminants, such as ion- $\pi$  interactions<sup>17</sup>,  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking<sup>18</sup>, hydrogen bonding<sup>19</sup>, and van der Waals interactions<sup>20</sup>, etc.<sup>21</sup> Reusable adsorbents should bind/physisorb to contaminants with energies in the range of 5-10  $k_B T$ /mol (3-6 kcal-mol<sup>-1</sup>), which is not only strong enough to bind but also weak enough to facilitate regeneration<sup>21-24</sup>. We chose methylene blue (MB) as a surrogate dye in our model system because it is employed as a colorant in the paper and pulp industry<sup>25</sup> and its low-cost and easy availability (Figure 1A). As an adsorbate, MB is quite “versatile”: it can form hydrogen bonds (H-bond) with electronegative atoms such as O, N, and F, it can accept electrons in

$\pi$ - $\pi$  stacks, it can participate in cation- $\pi$  interactions<sup>17, 26</sup> due to its cationic nature (Figure 1B), and it can also interact through van der Waals interactions<sup>27</sup>. MB has been produced at mass-scale since the late 19<sup>th</sup> century and it also serves a starting material for numerous azine dyes<sup>25</sup>. Its molecular versatility is further evidenced by its medical use to treat depression<sup>28</sup>, breast cancer<sup>29</sup>, malaria<sup>30</sup>, Alzheimer's<sup>31</sup>, and aging of the skin<sup>32</sup>. Yet, quantitative insights into the factors and mechanisms governing the adsorption of MB even onto simple surfaces remain unclear. For example, it has been suggested that dispersion interactions and hydrophobic interactions are important in the adsorption of MB onto metals<sup>27, 33</sup> and silver iodide (AgI) suspensions<sup>33</sup>, respectively, but a direct comparison of those interactions remains unavailable. Here, we take an alternative approach towards rational materials design – we utilize quantum mechanical calculations to gain insights into the nature of binding and binding energies of a hydrated methylene blue cation (MB<sup>+</sup>) with a broad range of aliphatic, aromatic and perfluorinated aromatics as surrogates for adsorbents (Figure 2). Subsequently, we test these predictions through laboratory experiments using silica microspheres terminated with the same aliphatic, aromatic, and perfluorinated aromatic groups. If successful, this approach can be applied in principle to other dyes – anionic, cationic, zwitterionic, etc.

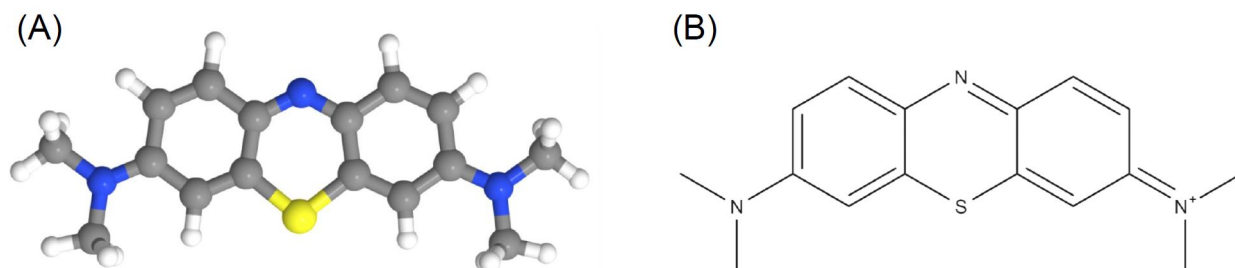


Figure 1: (A) A two-dimensional diagram of a methylene blue (MB) molecule. Color scheme: Sulfur in yellow, nitrogen in dark blue, hydrogen in white, and carbon in grey. (B) The Lewis structure of a methylene blue cation with the positive charge on a quaternary ammonium.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1. Quantum Mechanical Calculations

DFT is a first-principles approach for predicting the electron density of a molecular/ionic system, which employs a self-consistent field approach (SCF) for solving the Schrödinger equation<sup>34, 35</sup>. It has been used extensively to perform electronic structure calculations in solid-state physics and materials science<sup>24, 36-39</sup>. The accuracy of DFT in studying the electronic and physical properties of materials is largely dependent on the choice of the exchange-correlation function. For

example, the local density approximation (LDA) and the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) exchange-correlation functionals overestimate the dissociation energies and the hydrogen bonds, respectively<sup>38</sup>, and they require a dispersion energy correction when modeling van der Waals interactions or studying water clusters<sup>39</sup>. Hybrid functionals such as B3LYP<sup>40</sup> provide a good example of hydrogen bonding<sup>41, 42</sup>, the structure of water clusters<sup>43, 44</sup>, chemistries at the air-water interface<sup>45-48</sup>, graphene-based systems<sup>49</sup>, guest-host binding of p-xylylenediamine to CB7<sup>50</sup>, vibrational spectra of hexafluorobenzene<sup>51</sup>, and  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions in dimers of benzene and naphthalene<sup>18</sup>. Thus, we considered B3LYP-level DFT to be suitable to investigate the molecular interactions of MB<sup>+</sup> with hexafluorobenzene (C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub>), benzene (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>), and n-octane (C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub>) groups (Figure 2). We account for the aqueous environment using the polarizable continuum model (PCM)<sup>52</sup>. We chose these groups as surrogates for functional surfaces to gain insights into the vast array of molecular interactions of MB<sup>+</sup> in an aqueous environment. We optimized numerous dimer conformations using DFT implemented in the Gaussian software<sup>53</sup> at the B3LYP/6-311+G\* level<sup>40</sup>. For the most difficult convergence cases due to the encounter of a shallow minima around the stationary point, we employed the option *MaxStep* = 1 that led to full convergence. We subsequently confirmed the stability of the optimized structures through frequency calculations at each stationary point.

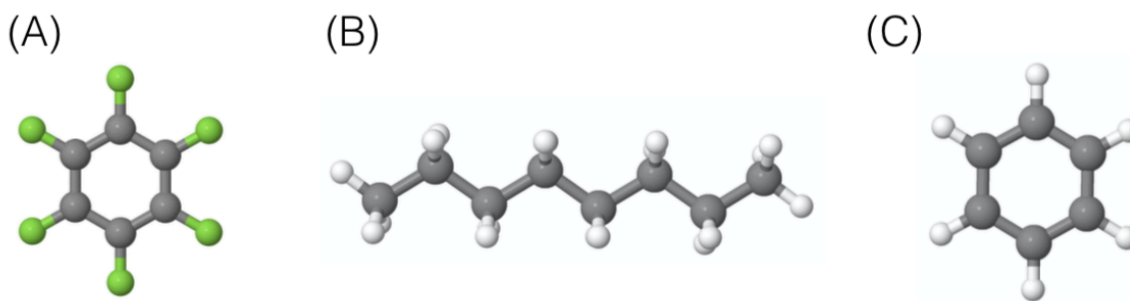


Figure 2: Ball and stick diagrams of (A) hexafluorobenzene (C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub>), (B) octane (C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub>), and (C) benzene (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>). Color scheme: carbon atoms (grey), fluorine (green) and hydrogen (white).

## 2.2. Experimental: Synthesis of hollow silica microspheres.

To test our computational predictions in the laboratory, we chose commercial silica microspheres, 3M<sup>TM</sup> Glass Bubbles<sup>54</sup>, composed of soda-lime borosilicate glass with an average diameter ranging 16-65  $\mu$ m (Figure S1A). We modified their surface chemistries through a two-step reaction of hydroxylation, followed by silanation (Figure S1B).<sup>55</sup> To hydroxylate the silica surface, we

exposed the microspheres to an aqueous solution of hydrochloric acid (pH = 2) at 90 °C for one hour (Section S1). Next, the surfaces were functionalized through silanation reactions with triethoxy(octyl)silane, trimethoxyphenylsilane, and (pentafluorophenyl)triethoxysilane obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (CAS: 2943-75-1, 2996-92-1, and 20083-34-5, respectively). Silanation reactions were carried out in three batches, producing Si-C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>17</sub>, Si-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>, and Si-C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub> (Section S1)<sup>56</sup>. Obviously, we chose those silanes in accordance with our DFT calculations. MB was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (CAS: 122965-43-9) in the quaternary ammonium salt form (C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>18</sub>ClN<sub>3</sub>S·xH<sub>2</sub>O, molecular 319.85 g/mol (anhydrous basis)). We incubated different amounts of functionalized SiO<sub>2</sub> microspheres (0-100 mg) in aqueous solutions containing 100 ppm MB<sup>+</sup>, and repeated the experiment in quadruplicates (or higher). We mixed the solutions by gentle tumbling for five minutes only, and a general scheme corresponding to the adsorption is shown in Figure 3. Next, the SiO<sub>2</sub> microspheres floated up to the air-water interface due to their lower density than water. We took aliquots of these solutions, diluted them with deionized water, and characterized the concentrations of the remaining dye spectrophotometrically, using its extinction coefficient at 663 nm (Section S2).

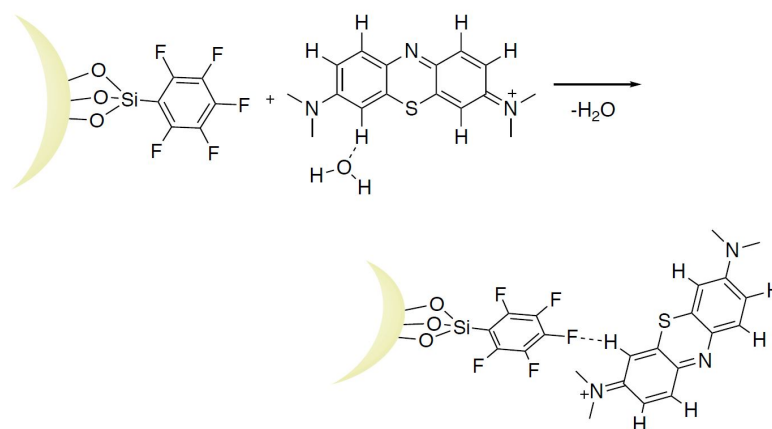


Figure 3: A general scheme to show the adsorption of MB<sup>+</sup> onto functionalized silica beads: The functionalized silica bead interacts with methylene blue in solution with one coordination water molecule. Upon adsorption, the coordination water is released into the bulk and methylene blue molecule interacts with the adsorbent.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1. Methylene blue in solution

Here we describe the state of the MB<sup>+</sup> cation in water. To begin, we calculate the molecular electrostatic potential (ESP) which is defined as the amount of work required to bring a positive unit charge from infinity to a distance  $r$  from the molecule<sup>57, 58</sup>. Thus, ESP comprises the contributions of the nuclear and the electronic charges, the latter calculated by methods such as Mulliken population analysis and Löwdin population analysis<sup>59</sup>. We obtained the ESP of MB<sup>+</sup> in water by mapping the electron density (chosen with a value of  $\rho = 0.02$ ) onto the electrostatic potential<sup>59</sup>. The electron density was obtained from a Mulliken population analysis<sup>57</sup> of the optimized DFT structure of MB<sup>+</sup> in an aqueous environment, using the GaussView software (v. 5.0)<sup>60</sup> (Figure 4A). We found that hydrated MB<sup>+</sup> has a positive ESP due to the overall electron charge deficiency of the ion, with the hydrogen atoms being the most positive (blue color) due to their low electronegativity. Thus, MB<sup>+</sup> can potentially participate in hydrogen bonding through these H atoms by accepting electrons in  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking, such as from benzene. The N and S atoms in the central ring (yellow color) behave neutrally towards electrophile/nucleophile molecules. The region between the C=C double bonds and the two tertiary nitrogen atoms also shows low electron densities (light blue color), albeit more than for the H atoms. We qualitatively infer from the ESP plot that MB<sup>+</sup> potentially participates in hydrogen bonding as well as  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking and cation- $\pi$  interactions.

#### 3.2. Prediction of adsorption of MB<sup>+</sup>

Here, we detail our semi-quantitative approach to predict the relative adsorption energies and rates of adsorption between MB<sup>+</sup> and our surrogate adsorbents. In order to make our model realistic, we added a water molecule in the coordination shell of MB<sup>+</sup> such that they had a binding energy of  $E_{\text{MB}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ . We chose that particular position of the water molecule, (Figure 3), because therein we obtained the strongest binding energy between the functional groups and MB<sup>+</sup>. We assumed that this hydrogen bonded water needs to be removed from the coordination shell of MB<sup>+</sup>, before it can adsorb onto silica beads and be removed from water. Figure 3 depicts this scheme with silica beads functionalized with C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub>. The released water molecule simply becomes a part of the bulk water, releasing a fixed amount of energy,  $E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ , which is the equivalent of half of a water dimer. Next, we define the adsorption energy between MB<sup>+</sup> and the adsorbent as,

$$E_b = E_{\text{dimer}} - (E_{\text{MB}^+} + E_{\text{adsb}}) \dots \dots \dots [1]$$

160 and

161 
$$E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{b}} + E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} - E_{\text{MB}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}} \dots \dots \dots [2]$$

162 where  $E_{\text{b}}$  is the binding energy of  $\text{MB}^+$  and the adsorbent (after removing the explicit water  
163 molecule),  $E_{\text{dimer}}$  is the electronic energy of the molecular complex ( $\text{MB}^+$ /adsorbent),  $E_{\text{MB}^+}$  is the  
164 energy of a hydrated  $\text{MB}^+$  cation,  $E_{\text{adsb}}$  is the energy of the adsorbent (one of the three stand-alone  
165 surrogates),  $E_{\text{ads}}$  is the adsorption energy that we use to calculate binding constants,  $E_{\text{MB}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  is the  
166 energy of an  $\text{MB}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$  dimer in water. It should be noted that  $E_{\text{b}}$  refers to the energy holding  $\text{MB}^+$ -  
167 adsorbent together whereas  $E_{\text{ads}}$  refers to the energy needed/released when displacing water from  
168 the MB coordination shell to form the  $\text{MB}^+$ -adsorbent complex. We obtained a DFT binding energy  
169 for a water dimer using the PCM model at 0 K of  $-5.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ . This is in good agreement with  
170 the experimental value for the strength of the H-bond in a water dimer in a vacuum<sup>61</sup> of  $-5.58$   
171  $\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ , and also with previous theoretical calculations with the PCM model on the electron  
172 energy of the water dimer<sup>62</sup> of  $-5.0 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ . Therefore, from our DFT-PCM calculations a  
173 good estimate for  $E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  is  $-2.7 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ,<sup>62</sup> and with the same method we obtained a binding  
174 energy for  $E_{\text{MB}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}} = -1.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  (Figure S4, Section S3). With these predicted adsorption  
175 energies and assuming that in our dilute solutions only a single layer of  $\text{MB}^+$  adsorbs onto the  
176 functionalized surface, we used the Arrhenius equation to calculate the relative reaction rate  
177 constants ( $k$ ) by taking as a reference the reaction rate constant for the  $\text{C}_8$  aliphatic,  $k_{\text{ref}}$ . We  
178 assume that the pre-exponential factor,  $A$ , in the Arrhenius equation is the same in all three cases  
179 and that the transition state barrier(s) that  $\text{MB}^+$  has to overcome to bind to the surface are similar  
180 in magnitude in all the cases. This assumption is reasonable because the molecular interactions  
181 during the physisorption processes do not involve proton or electron transfers that would require  
182 covalent bond breaking/forming and significant electrostatic preorganization.<sup>63</sup> Further, we  
183 assume that thermal fluctuations ( $0.6 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) facilitate  $\text{MB}^+$ , the solvent, and the surface to  
184 sample through the configurational space to find the global minima. Thus, we can estimate the  
185 relative binding rates as follows,

186 
$$\frac{k}{k_{\text{ref}}} = e^{-\frac{(\Delta E_{\text{ads}})}{k_{\text{b}}T}} \dots \dots \dots [3]$$

187 where  $\Delta E_{\text{ads}}$  is the adsorption energy as defined in equation 1 and relative to the adsorption energy  
188 of the  $\text{C}_8$  aliphatic. A simple rearrangement of equation 3 gives us the percentages of the relative  
189 rates of adsorption as,

190 
$$\frac{k-k_{\text{ref}}}{k_{\text{ref}}} \times 100 = (e^{-\frac{(\Delta E_{\text{ads}})}{k_{\text{b}}T}} - 1) \times 100 \dots \dots \dots [4].$$



Next, we present the results of our DFT predictions for a variety of geometric confirmations between MB<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub>, C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, and C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub> groups, with the aim of identifying the relative contributions of  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking, hydrogen bonding (H-bonding), cation- $\pi$  interactions, and van der Waals forces to the adsorption process (Table 1).

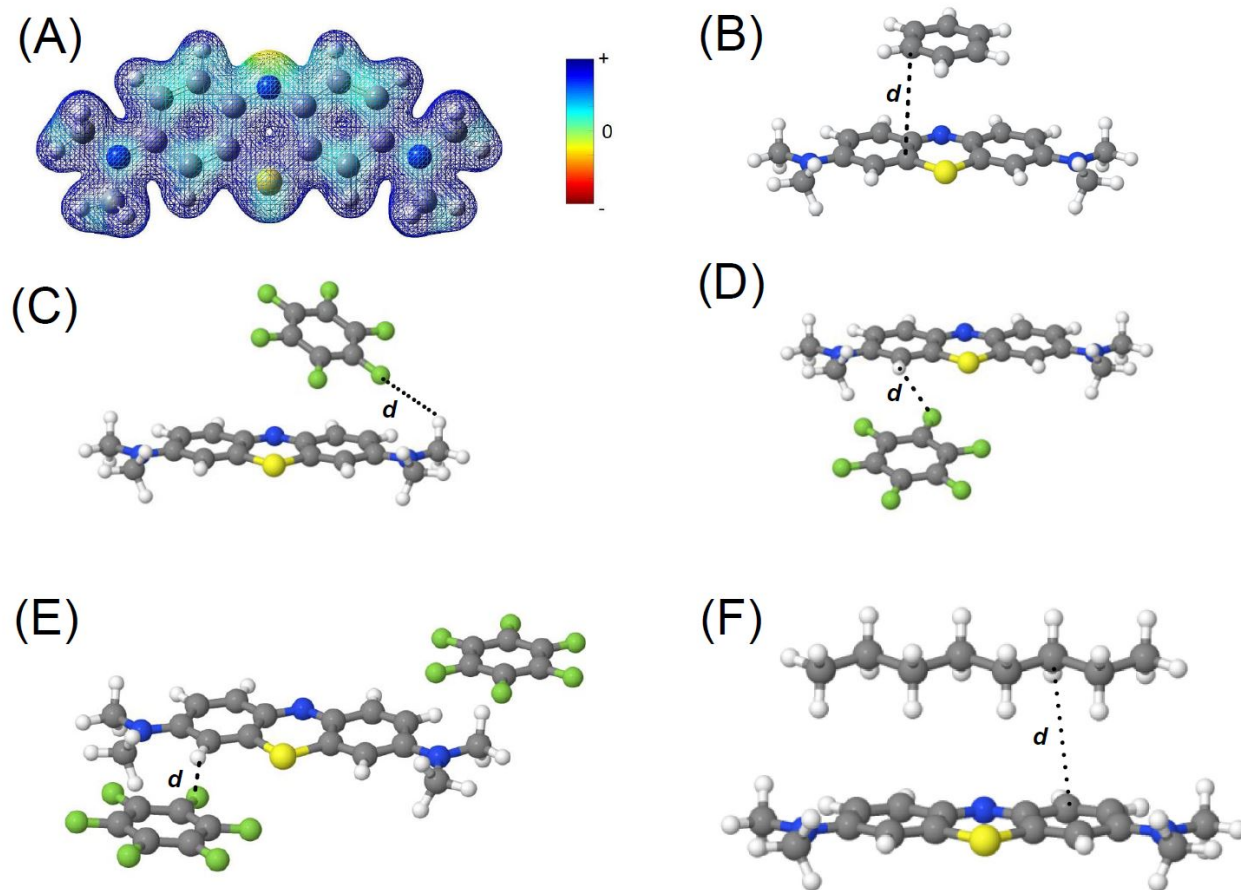


Figure 4: (A) The electron density mapped with the electrostatic potential for a hydrated MB<sup>+</sup> cation. For the plotted density,  $\rho = 0.02$ , the units range from (-0.27, 0.27) atomic units (a.u.). Regions with positive ESP (blue) have lower electron density than the regions with negative ESP (red). The most positive value in the ESP corresponds to the two hydrogen atoms next to the sulfur atom (yellow color). The hydrated MB<sup>+</sup> cation is electron deficient, with the hydrogen atoms and the aromatic rings having the lowest electron density. Snapshots from DFT calculations of (B) a MB<sup>+</sup>-benzene dimer in  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking; (C), (D), (E) dimers between MB<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> featuring H-bonds; (F) MB<sup>+</sup>-C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub> dimer held by van der Waals interactions. Color scheme: fluorine green, hydrogen white, carbon dark grey, sulfur yellow, and nitrogen dark blue.

### 3.3. $\pi$ - $\pi$ stacking between MB<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub> and C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> groups

Benzene can donate electrons through its p<sub>z</sub> orbital to MB<sup>+</sup> in water. In fact, we found that the dimer MB<sup>+</sup>-C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub> has a stable configuration in the  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking conformation (Figure 4B). The optimized structure has an average intermolecular distance,  $d = 4.8$  Å, between (C--C) indicating a weakly bound dimer. This result is in overall agreement with higher-level electronic structure methods such as MP2 and CCSD(T) for  $\pi$ - $\pi$  sandwich benzene dimer which show an average intermolecular distance,  $d=3.8$ - $4.1$  Å<sup>64</sup>. We found that the adsorption energy was  $E_{\text{ads}} = -2.9$  kcal·mol<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1). Next, we substituted hydrogen atoms of benzene with fluorine atoms to simulate interactions of MB<sup>+</sup> with C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub>. Fluorine has a deactivating effect on cation- $\pi$  interactions<sup>17, 65</sup> because electrons in C-F bonds are polarized towards fluorine atoms due to the latter's higher electronegativity<sup>66</sup>. Thus, C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> is unlikely to interact with MB<sup>+</sup> through its  $\pi$  orbitals<sup>26</sup>. Thus, we expected  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking for the MB<sup>+</sup>-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> complex to be weaker than for the MB<sup>+</sup>-C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub> complex. Indeed, we verified this to be true – while we arranged C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> to interact with MB<sup>+</sup> through  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking, (Figure 4B) the C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> molecule tilted over the MB<sup>+</sup> during geometry optimization and underwent a significant displacement. The final structure comprised an MB<sup>+</sup>-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> complex with hydrogen bonding between a fluorine atom and a hydrogen atom of MB<sup>+</sup> (Figure 4C). The shortest distance between those atoms was,  $d = 3.1$  Å and the adsorption energy was  $E_{\text{ads}} = -2.9$  kcal·mol<sup>-1</sup>.

Table 1: Predictions of adsorption energies,  $E_{ads}$ , for  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking, H-bonding, and van der Waals interactions between  $MB^+$  and  $C_6F_6$ ,  $C_6H_6$ , and  $C_8H_{18}$  groups and the relative uptakes of  $MB^+$  with the performance of n-octane taken as the reference.

(Figure) Dimer	Key molecular interactions	Adsorption energy, $E_{ads}$ (kcal-mol <sup>-1</sup> )	Predicted, relative uptake of $MB^+$ (%) using equation [4]
(Fig. 4B) $MB^+-C_6H_6$	$\pi$ - $\pi$ stacking	-2.9	39%
(Fig. 4C) $MB^+-C_6F_6$	H-bond: F-H(methyl), sided	-2.9	39%
(Fig. 4D) $MB^+-C_6F_6$	H-bond: F-H(methyl)	-3.0	95%
(Fig. 4E) $C_6F_6-MB^+-C_6F_6$	H-bond: F-H(methyl)	-3.1	95%
(Fig. 4F) $MB^+-C_8H_{18}$	van der Waals	-2.7	0 (reference)

### 3.4. Hydrogen bonding

Since  $MB^+$  and  $C_6F_6$  interacted through H-bonding instead of  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking, we investigated another configuration whereby  $MB^+$  and  $C_6F_6$  were orientated facing each other. The final optimized structure had two H-bonds – one between a fluorine atom and a hydrogen atom of a methyl group of  $MB^+$  and another between a fluorine atom and a hydrogen atom bound to an  $sp^2$  carbon (Figure 4D). The shortest F-H distance was  $d = 3.1$  Å with the dimer adsorption energy,  $E_{ads} = -3.0$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. Surprisingly, although  $C_6F_6$  can interact with  $MB^+$  through  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking, the overall low electron density of  $MB^+$  and the presence of fluorine favored the formation of H-bonds. It is noteworthy that the adsorption energy also varied depending on the hybridization of the carbon atom; C( $sp^3$ )-F yielded a stronger hydrogen bond than C( $sp^2$ )-F<sup>67</sup>. Interestingly, even a  $\pi$ -electron donor like benzene yielded a lower  $E_{ads} = -2.9$  kcal-mol<sup>-1</sup> in comparison to H-bonded  $C_6H_6-MB^+$  dimer with  $E_{ads} = -3.0$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. To further confirm the importance of the H-bonding, we optimized two  $C_6F_6$  molecules with an  $MB^+$  monomer. We found that, similar to the previous case,  $C_6F_6$  made H-bonds with  $MB^+$  (Figure 4E). Fluorine atoms in  $C_6F_6$  groups formed H-bonds with the methyl groups in  $MB^+$  but the shortest H-bond distance was to the hydrogen next to the sulfur atom,  $d = 2.8$  Å and  $E_{ads} = -3.1$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 4E). The adsorption energy was slightly more than that of  $MB^+-C_6F_6$ , (Figure 4D), indicating that increasing the number of  $C_6F_6$  species near  $MB^+$  enhances stabilization. However, when we studied the  $E_{ads}$  of  $MB^+.2(C_6H_6)$  in  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking conformation

we did not find any increment in the adsorption energy. (Figure S5, Section S3). Thus, only in the fluorinated case we found that the most stable configuration was that with ratio 2:1. The study of 3:1 or higher configurations were computationally unfeasible or unable to converge.

### 3.5. Cation- $\pi$ interactions

MB<sup>+</sup> is a large cation that could potentially interact with a  $\pi$ -system. In the gas-phase, fluoroaromatic compounds are known to exhibit high binding energy with cations, e.g., the ab-initio binding energy fluorobenzene with a lithium ion is,  $E_b = -31 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$ .<sup>68</sup> However, for MB<sup>+</sup> interacting with C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> in an aqueous environment, we did not find dimer configurations stabilized by cation- $\pi$  interactions (Figure S6, Section S3). The final optimized structures between MB<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> comprised H-bonds between F and H atoms similar to (Figure 4B), with similar binding energy and H-bond distances. Thus, C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub>-MB<sup>+</sup> dimers optimized from the initial configurations of  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking or cation- $\pi$  stacking were not stable, and the optimized structures always led to dimers interacting by H-bonding. Furthermore, C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>-MB<sup>+</sup> did not demonstrate configurations stabilized by cation- $\pi$  interactions or hydrogen bonding (only  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking).

### 3.6. Van der Waals interactions

Finally, we investigated the interactions between the aliphatic chain C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub> and MB<sup>+</sup> in an aqueous solution. We found that  $E_{ads} = -2.7 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , and the interaction was driven by van der Waals dispersion forces<sup>27</sup>. The average intermolecular distance,  $d = 3.2 \text{ \AA}$  (Figure 4F).

### 3.7. A comparison of various intermolecular forces

Based on the predictions from QM, we listed the  $E_{ads}$  values due to different molecular interactions in Table 1. We used equation [4] to predict the trend in the binding constants of the three functional groups, C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> (H-bonding) > C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub> ( $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking and H-bonding) > C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub> (vdW dispersion). To gain quantitative insights, we benchmarked the binding constants against the aliphatic group (C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub>) and found the relative adsorption to vary such that C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> (95%) > C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub> (39%) > C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub> (0), which was an unexpected result. Next, we tested our predictions through laboratory experiments.

### 3.8. Experimental adsorption of MB<sup>+</sup> on an organic substrate

We tested our theoretical prediction that H-bonding between MB<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> leads to a dramatically higher adsorption than MB<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub> due to  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking or MB<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>8</sub>F<sub>18</sub> due to van der Waals dispersion. To this end, we measured the adsorption of MB<sup>+</sup> onto hollow silica microspheres functionalized with -C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>17</sub>, -C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub> and -C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub> moieties (Methods Section 2.2). We employed Attenuated total reflectance-Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy to characterize the silica before and after functionalization (Figure S2). We found functional groups Si-C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>17</sub>: asymmetric and symmetric CH<sub>2</sub> vibrations around 2922 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 2852 cm<sup>-1</sup> respectively; Si-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>: C=C and C-F aromatic stretching bands at 1424 cm<sup>-1</sup>; Si-C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>: C-H stretch bands at 3074 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 3052 cm<sup>-1</sup> and C-C stretch (in-ring) at 1624 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1434 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Section S1.2). We note that the contact angles of water drops on glass slides functionalized with -C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>, -C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>, and -C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>17</sub> groups were similar after silanation, which led us to expect that their uptake of MB<sup>+</sup> might be similar in magnitude (Section S1.3, Figure S3, and Table S1). This expectation was based on the extant literature on the adsorption of simple and complex organics onto hydrophobic surfaces in water - organic fouling – a leading cause for the failure of membrane-based separation technologies<sup>55, 69-72</sup>. We also note that  $\xi$ -potentials of hydrocarbon and perfluorocarbon surfaces, which have been investigated extensively in the past and intensely debated on regarding their correlation with interfacial charges, could have a bearing on physisorption.<sup>44, 73-75</sup> However, due to the hollowness of the beads, it was not possible to measure  $\xi$ -potentials of our specific samples because they would not stay inside a water-filled cuvette. To measure the uptakes of MB<sup>+</sup> by silica beads with different surface functionalization, the UV-VIS absorbance spectra of 100 ppm aqueous solutions of MB<sup>+</sup>, which follows the Lambert-Beer law, was measured. We found that the uptake of MB<sup>+</sup> by our functionalized silica microspheres varied as: Si-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub> (95%  $\pm$  1.8%) > Si-C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub> (35%  $\pm$  1.9%) > Si-C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>17</sub> (3%  $\pm$  2.5%) (Figure 5). Thus, the alkyl derivative Si-C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>17</sub> barely adsorbed any MB<sup>+</sup>, the perfluorinated benzene performed the best, and the benzene-terminated microspheres performed intermediately, according to the predictions.

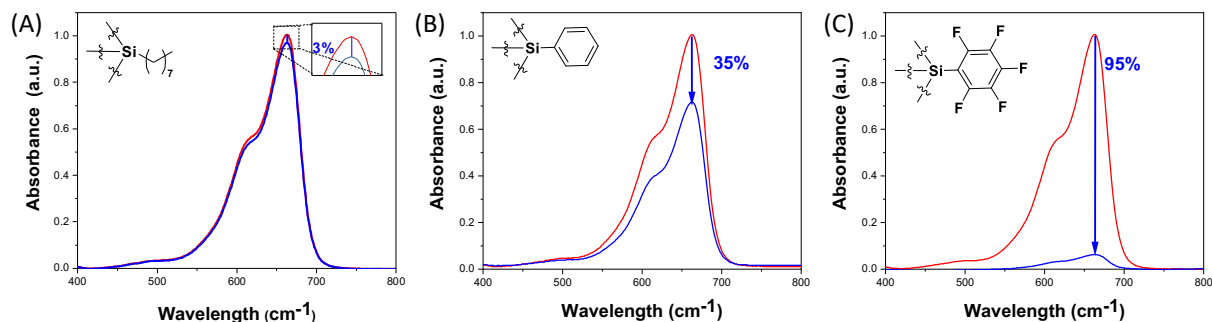


Figure 5: Absorbance spectra obtained after treating 20 mL  $\text{MB}^+$  solutions (initial concentration: 100 ppm) with 100 mg of **A)**  $\text{Si-C}_8\text{H}_{17}$ , **B)**  $\text{Si-C}_6\text{H}_5$ , and **C)**  $\text{Si-C}_6\text{F}_5$  adsorbent materials.  $\text{MB}^+$  absorbance in the solution after mixing with functionalized silica beads decreased in the order  $\text{Si-C}_6\text{F}_5$  ( $95\% \pm 1.8\%$ ) >  $\text{Si-C}_6\text{H}_5$  ( $35\% \pm 1.9\%$ ) >  $\text{Si-C}_8\text{H}_{17}$  ( $3\% \pm 2.5\%$ ). In all three cases the operational pH was 6.8.

We also performed the elemental analysis of the relative carbon contents of the functionalized silica beads, from the functional groups on the surfaces, and found no correlation between the amount of carbon and the extent of adsorption (see Section S1.4, Table S2). Thus, the dramatically different adsorption levels of  $\text{MB}^+$  onto the functional groups were due to different intermolecular forces at play. After these experiments, the beads could be easily removed from the air-water interface as they floated up. We are currently developing greener methodologies for regenerating them that will be reported soon. Figure 6 summarizes this work.

The advantage of this approach relies on the calculation of relative electronic energies to study adsorption at solid-liquid interfaces. We have simplified the complex molecular representation of the functionalized (solid) surfaces by individual (functional) molecules. Of course, this approach has limitations, for instance, the use of free energies (thermal correction) instead of electronic energies at 0 K might be more accurate. However, since the adsorption energy is relatively proportional to the total electronic energy, the addition of the free energy contribution should not alter the predicted trends. Furthermore, the incorporation of vibrational frequencies into our energy calculations would be misleading because the individual (functional) molecules would behave more like a liquid, which in comparison to the solid phase, possesses extra rotational degrees of freedom. Despite these limitations, the model predictions are in

excellent agreement with experimental observations and should be extensible towards the development of rational treatment protocols for other wastewaters.

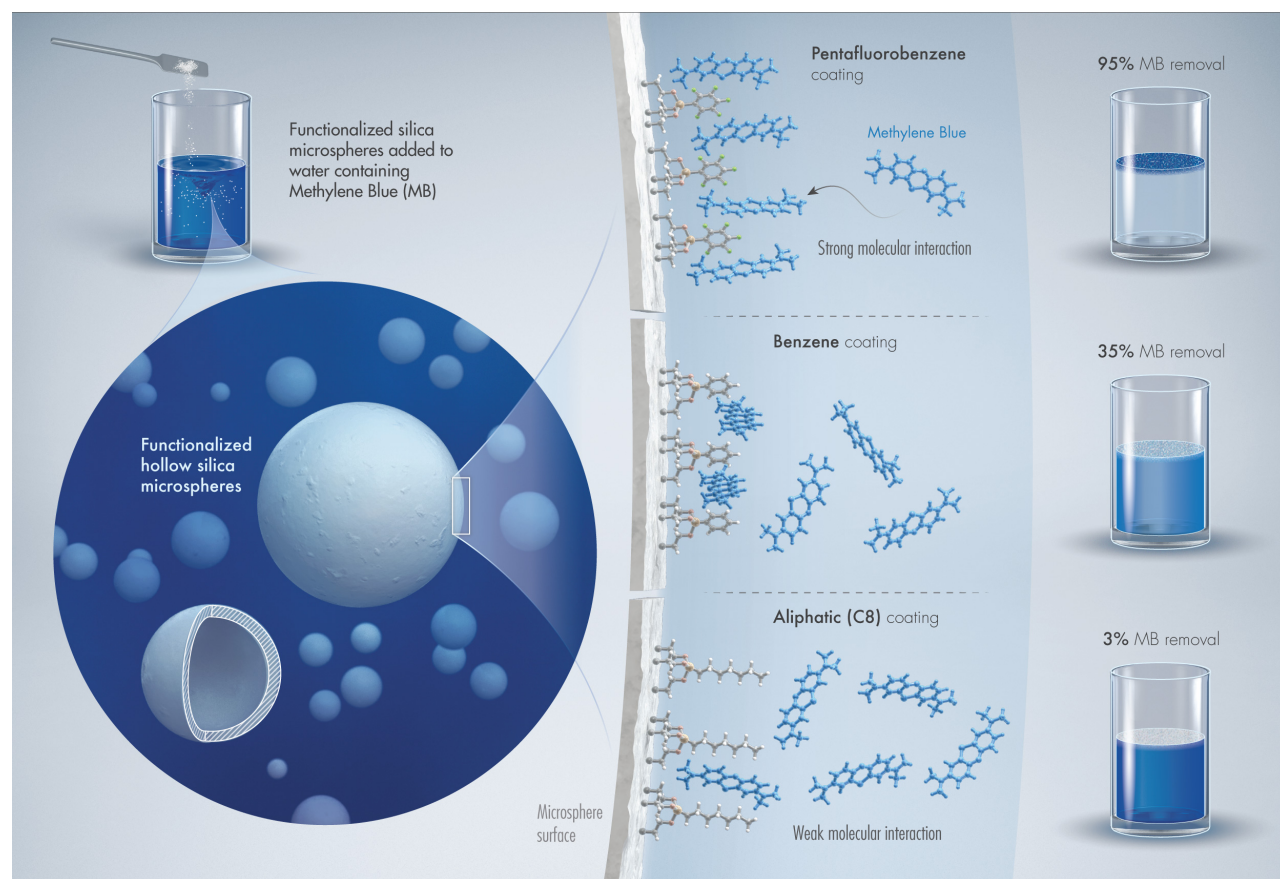


Figure 6: Schematics for our experimental work: (Left panel) hollow silica microspheres functionalized with  $-\text{C}_6\text{F}_5$ ,  $-\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ,  $-\text{C}_8\text{H}_{17}$  were added to water with 100 ppm  $\text{MB}^+$ . (Middle panel) Intermolecular interactions between the silanized silica surfaces and  $\text{MB}^+$  ions in water. (Right panel) The final outcome of our simulated water treatment experiments: pentafluorobenzene performed the best, followed by benzene, and the aliphatic group as,  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5$  ( $95\% \pm 1.8\%$ )  $>$   $\text{Si}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$  ( $35\% \pm 1.9\%$ )  $>$   $\text{Si}-\text{C}_8\text{H}_{17}$ .

#### 4. Conclusion

Towards rationally designing reusable adsorbents for chemically “versatile” dyes in wastewater streams from textile, cosmetics, pulp and paper, food and beverages, packaging, paints, and pharmaceutical industries, we investigated molecular interactions of  $\text{MB}^+$ , as a surrogate contaminant, with  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_6$ ,  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_6$ , and  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{18}$  groups as representative of functional surfaces. DFT was employed with an implicit water model (PCM) to accurately determine the contributions of the

solvent's electrostatics in the adsorption process. Model calculations predicted that the primary intermolecular interactions of MB<sup>+</sup> with these functional groups are: hydrogen bonding between MB<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub>;  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking between C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub> and MB<sup>+</sup> and van der Waals dispersion interactions between C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub>-MB<sup>+</sup>, such that the relative magnitudes of the binding constants varied as: C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub> (95%) > C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub> (39%) > C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>18</sub> (0). Thus, the model predicted that fluorinated aromatics are more suitable for removing MB<sup>+</sup> from water than ordinary aromatics and hydrocarbons. Gaining these molecular insights from an exclusively experimental approach would be very difficult. For instance, one cannot predict the observed behaviors based on water contact angles, which are often used to assess surfaces' ability to aggregate organics in water by hydrophobic interactions<sup>76</sup>. Thus, this report illustrates that specific understanding of intermolecular forces is crucial in the case of complex dyes, such as MB<sup>+</sup>. Our laboratory experiments attest to the predicted trends for the relative uptakes of MB<sup>+</sup> as: Si-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub> (95%  $\pm$  1.8%) > Si-C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub> (35%  $\pm$  1.9%) > Si-C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>17</sub> (3%  $\pm$  2.5%). Here, we also point out that the scope of this work is limited to presenting a first-principles computational approach to the rational development of reusable adsorbents for treating dye wastewater. We chose methylene blue – a cationic dye – simply to demonstrate the power of our quantum mechanical approach. Obviously, the same approach can be extended to anionic, zwitterionic, or uncharged dyes to extend the work to a broader and industrially relevant context, and also for finding greener and fouling-resistant materials/approaches.<sup>72, 77-80</sup> We are currently investigating the specificity during the adsorption process in the presence of multiple contaminants, and scenarios where the contaminants in wastewater streams are concentrated, leading to the adsorption of multilayers. Taken together, our findings suggest that this first-principles approach, supported by laboratory experiments, for the rational design of functional materials in the treatment of wastewater can contribute to the sustainable use of water.



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## Acknowledgements

HM acknowledges KAUST for funding. This research used the resources of the Supercomputing Laboratory at King Abdullah University of Science & Technology (KAUST) in Thuwal, Saudi Arabia. The authors thank Mr. Xavier Pita, Scientific Illustrator at KAUST, for preparing Figure 6, and Dr. Michael Cusack (KAUST) for scientific editing. The authors gratefully acknowledge discussions with Dr. Riccarda Caputto (ETH, Zurich) at the infancy of this project.

573 **Notes**

574 HM and ASSF have filed a US Patent application#US20180250656A1

575

576 **Funding Information**

577 HM acknowledges KAUST for funding (Grant #BAS/1/1070-01-01)

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