

1 **Highly efficient removal and sequestration of Cr(VI) in**
2 **confined MoS₂ interlayer Nanochannels: Performance and**
3 **mechanism**

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25 **ABSTRACT**

26 Environmental contamination by Cr(VI) is of particular concern because of its severe toxicity and
27 high mobility. In this study, we employed two-dimensional MoS₂ nanosheets in the removal of
28 Cr(VI), with an emphasis on revealing the removal mechanisms, and how the compositional and
29 structural uniqueness of 2D MoS₂ nanomaterials intrinsically impact the Cr removal efficiency.
30 Through batch experiments with dispersed nanosheets, we found that MoS₂ nanosheets exhibited
31 a high Cr(VI) removal capacity at ~1100 mg/g via a phase-dependent mechanism. Particularly, the
32 1T polymorph in the MoS₂ nanosheets removed Cr(VI) through a redox-reaction mechanism,
33 which was different from the adsorptive removal of Cr(VI) by MoS₂ reported previously,
34 highlighting the compositional effects on the removal mechanism and performance. More
35 importantly, the reduced product Cr(III) was concurrently removed via precipitation and
36 adsorption onto the MoS₂ nanosheets, which could avoid the additional pH-elevation step that is
37 typically needed in the conventional treatment. The unique 2D flake-like structure of MoS₂
38 nanosheets enabled the formation of aligned and ion-accessible nanochannels, where Cr(VI)
39 species were accommodated, reduced and sequestered. The irreversible shrinking of the
40 nanochannels under drying modified the interior of the layer-stacked structure into confined
41 compartments preventing the release and re-oxidation of the immobilized Cr(III). The compiled
42 results highlight the effects of MoS₂ composition and structure on the Cr removal efficiency and
43 mechanism, which has substantial implications on future studies tailoring these unique features of
44 2D nanomaterials for various remediation scenarios.

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Introduction

Water contamination caused by natural resources and intensified human activities has become a global concern, and brings severe health threats to human society and ecosystem [1]. Hexavalent chromium [Cr (VI)] has been particularly concerning to the public and scientists due to its acute toxicity and carcinogenicity to living organisms [2]. In the natural environment, Cr(VI) can come from the oxidation of indigenous trivalent chromium [Cr(III)] minerals and from anthropogenic activities such as tanning, metallurgy, mining, and plating [3,4]. Due to its high solubility and mobility, Cr(VI) is readily released into soil and aquatic environments, which increases the reach and severity of its impacts. In contrast to Cr(VI), the lower oxidation counterpart Cr(III) is highly insoluble, less mobile, and 1000 times less toxic [5]. However, insoluble Cr(III) can be released into the water systems by a decrease in pH or through ligand complexation [6], and then re-oxidized feasibly to toxic Cr(VI) in redox reactions with environmental species (e.g. MnO₂ or O₂) that are common in ambient conditions [7-9]. Additionally, Cr(III)- containing corrosion scales in drinking water distribution pipelines can be oxidized by disinfectant chlorine and its derivatives during the water treatment processes [10]. Because of the interconvertible nature and severe toxicity of Cr species, the US Environmental Pollution Agency recommends the maximum contaminant limits (MCL) of total Cr in drinking water to be 0.1 mg/L, while the state of California sets the MCL for the toxic Cr(VI) at 0.01 mg/L.

The conventional technology for Cr(VI) remediation is initiated by the reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) at low pH conditions, followed by elevation of pH to neutral conditions to precipitate Cr(III) [11,12]. Such a process requires the addition of a vast amount of chemicals and costly treatment of the secondary sludge. In the past few decades, various nanomaterials (e.g. nanoscale zero-valent iron (nZVI), MXenes and metal organic frameworks) have been employed to synchronously reduce Cr(VI) and adsorb Cr(III) [13-21]. However, challenges associated with nanoparticle aggregation, surface passivation, and tedious separation need to be addressed before full-scale application. Thus it is desirable to employ novel nanomaterials that are not plagued by the problems traditional nanomaterials face, to effectively remove and immobilize Cr species.

Two-dimensional molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) is an emerging functional nanomaterial in environmental applications, such as membrane separation [22,23], disinfection [24], and heavy

metal remediation [25,26]. MoS₂ nanosheets have been widely studied as a potential adsorbent material exhibiting high selectivity and removal capacities for various toxic heavy metal cations because of the strong interaction between the S atom and heavy metal ions. (e.g. Pb²⁺, Hg²⁺) [26-33]. For oxyanion removal (e.g. CrO₄²⁻, AsO₃⁻), the reports employing exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets are rare except for a few that worked with MoS₂ composite materials (e.g. with layered double hydroxide [34], Fe₃O₄ [35,36], polymers [37-39], and carbon [40]). Consequently, a large variation of Cr removal capacities (~70 to 320 mg/g) [34-37,41] and multiple removal mechanisms on MoS₂-based composites including electrostatic attraction [34,38], ion exchange [36], surface complexation [34], and reduction [37] were reported in the literature. For instance, metallic 1T- and semiconducting 2H-MoS₂ exhibit octahedral and trigonal prismatic configurations (Fig. 1a), respectively, and these characteristics have been found to be closely related with heavy metal removal efficiency [42,43]. The intrinsic interactions of Cr(VI) anions with MoS₂ owning various structures and phase compositions have yet been completely understood, and this missing information is critically related to the removal mechanism, implementation approach, and the fate of remediation products.

Additionally, MoS₂ nanosheets with distinct phase composition and structure can be prepared through different synthetic routes. For instance, the flake-like MoS₂ nanosheets with high aspect ratio and specific surface area can be prepared by chemical exfoliation method [44]. Meanwhile, after chemical exfoliation, the 2H phase bulk MoS₂ would partially convert to 1T phase, which generated MoS₂ nanosheets that contained both 1T and 2H phase, allowing the study of compositional impacts on the removal and sequestration of Cr species [45]. In addition, MoS₂ can be assembled into layered-stacked structures by means of vacuum filtration. This aligned layer-stacked structure can form stable nanochannels between adjacent layers, which was beneficial to the sequestration of toxic species in the confined space. [46-48].

In this study, we systematically investigated the interactions and reaction mechanisms of Cr species with chemically-exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets. The removal performance and mechanisms were studied in batch experiments, while Cr species (hexavalent and trivalent) concentrations, together with morphological and compositional evolution of MoS₂ nanosheets, were carefully monitored via various characterization tools. To avoid the release of dispersed nanomaterials during remediation, MoS₂ nanosheets were assembled into stable layer-stacked structures

containing aligned and ion-accessible nanochannels, and the effects of these nanochannels on the removal efficiency and sequestration of toxic Cr species were studied.

Experimental Section

Preparation of 2D MoS₂ nanosheet suspension. Bulk MoS₂ powders (particle size ~ 2 μm) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Louis, MO). A chemical exfoliation method was used to prepare individual MoS₂ nanosheets according to the procedure reported previously.¹ Typically, 1 g of MoS₂ was added to 10 mL of n-butyllithium (1.6 M, Sigma-Aldrich) in hexane solution, and the formed suspension was stirred in N₂-filled glove box for 48 h. The resulting lithium-intercalated MoS₂ was separated by centrifuge and added with degassed deionized (DI) water for forced hydration to generate monolayer MoS₂ nanosheets dispersion, which was purified by dialysis in DI water using 3.5K MWCO Dialysis tubing (Thermo Scientific, Saint Louis, MO). The concentration of MoS₂ dispersion was determined by digestion in 500 mM H₂O₂, followed by measurements of soluble Mo concentration using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES, Agilent 720, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA).

Removal of Cr(VI) by dispersed MoS₂ nanosheets. MoS₂ nanosheet suspension was directly employed in the removal process of Cr(VI) without additional modification. A stock solution of 1000 mg/L Cr(VI) was prepared by dissolving K₂Cr₂O₇ in DI water. MoS₂ stock solution was spiked to 20 mL of aqueous Cr(VI) solution of various concentrations, and the suspension mixture was placed on a rotatory mixer at a speed of 50 rpm. At selected time points, the supernatants were filtered through 0.22 μm PES syringe filters and the remaining Cr(VI) concentration was determined with the 1, 5-diphenylcarbazide (DPC) method (the details provided in Supporting Information) using a UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Genesys 10S, Thermo Scientific, CA).² The total soluble Cr concentration was determined by ICP-OES, and the Cr(III) concentration was thus obtained by subtracting the concentration of Cr(VI). To study the influence of pH on the Cr(VI) removal, solutions with different pH values were prepared with HCl (pH 2), acetate buffer (pH 4), and MES buffer (pH 6), respectively. The reacting products of MoS₂ with Cr(VI) were collected with centrifugation or filtration, washed twice with the background electrolyte, and dried in N₂ for further analysis.

Sequestration and release of Cr(III) in MoS₂ nanochannels. Layer-stacked MoS₂ with aligned nanochannels was prepared by vacuum filtration of nanosheet suspension containing 4 mg MoS₂

on the top of a poly(ether sulfone) (PES) ultrafiltration substrate. The layer-stacked MoS₂ was either directly subjected to the reaction with Cr(VI) (5 mg/L, 40 mL) at pH 4 for 1 day, or a complete oven-drying before the same Cr(VI) treatment, and the samples obtained were referred to as stacked-wet and stacked-dry samples, respectively. As control tests, MoS₂ suspension containing 4 mg sample were firstly reacted with Cr(VI) solution at the same condition, and then subjected to filtration to collect the randomly-aggregated MoS₂-Cr samples on PES membranes. The samples were either maintained in solutions or subjected to complete oven-drying, and thus referred to as randomly-aggregated wet and dry samples, respectively. After Cr sequestration, all four types of MoS₂-Cr samples were immersed in the petri-dish containing 40 mL of pH 2 HCl solution, and sampling were taken at selected time to monitor the extent of Cr(III) release.

Characterization. The monolayer feature and lateral dimension of MoS₂ nanosheets were revealed using a transmission electron microscope (TEM; JEOL 2100F) at an acceleration voltage of 200 kV. The nanosheet thickness was obtained by atomic force microscopy (AFM) imaging recorded using Bruker Icon AFM (Bruker, Billerica, MA) in non-contact mode. The cross-sectional image of layer-stacked MoS₂ was recorded by a field emission scanning electron microscope (SEM; Zeiss Gemini Ultra-55, Jena, Germany). Before the SEM imaging, samples were coated with thin layer of gold to increase conductivity. The Grazing incident X-ray diffraction data were collected at Stanford Synchrotron Lightsource (SSRL) beamline 2-1 with CCD detector under reflection mode, with a grazing incident angle of 2 degree, the X-ray energy is 12.7 keV. The data reduction was performed with WxDiff software and calibrated with LaB₆ standard. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) surface survey and high-resolution scans were performed using a Thermo Scientific K-Alpha XPS. The zeta potential and hydrodynamic size measurement of exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets were performed using NanoBrook Omni (Brookhaven, U.S.A.)

Results and Discussion

3.1. MoS₂ characterization The MoS₂ nanosheets were obtained through lithium-intercalation and forced hydration of bulk MoS₂ powder (Fig. S1) as reported previously [49,51]. The flake-like structure of exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets was revealed in the AFM (Fig. 1b) and TEM images (Fig. 1c). The line profiles in Fig. 1b show that the average thickness of MoS₂ nanosheets was approximately 1.1 nm, consistent with the value of monolayer MoS₂ reported [49]. The lateral

dimension of individual nanosheets was in the range of 200 to 500 nm, as shown in Fig. 1c, in line with average hydrodynamic size of 250 nm (Supplementary Information Fig. S2). The zeta potential of exfoliated MoS₂ was found to be ~-20 to -50 mV over the pH range of 2 to 10 (Fig. S3), consistent with the high colloidal stability of MoS₂ suspension in a wide pH range. The MoS₂ nanosheets also had a high chemical stability, and the suspension underwent slight oxidation at pH 2 with less than 1% of Mo released as soluble species within 1 d (Fig. S4). The phase composition of as-prepared MoS₂ nanosheets was characterized using Raman spectra, XPS and UV-vis absorption, since the reactivity, stability, and interactions of MoS₂ with heavy metals have been associated with phase compositions [42,43,52,53]. The characterization on the phase of bulk MoS₂ was shown for comparison. In the UV-vis absorption spectra (Fig. S5), two typical absorption peaks located at 613 and 660 nm were characteristic to 2H phase and only observed for bulk MoS₂. The presence of 2H phase in the bulk MoS₂ was also confirmed by the Raman spectra (Fig. 1d), which displayed characteristic Raman shifts of the 2H phase at ~380 cm⁻¹ and 410 cm⁻¹ for the E_{2g} and A_{1g} modes, respectively. For as-exfoliated single layer MoS₂, characteristic peaks associated with the 1T phase (i.e. J₁, J₂, E_{2g}, J₃) were observed at ~146 cm⁻¹, 180 cm⁻¹, 280 cm⁻¹, 340 cm⁻¹, indicating the mixed phase of 1T and 2H in the MoS₂ nanosheets. The phase composition was semi-quantitatively measured by the XPS (Fig. 1e and Fig. S6). Relative to the bulk MoS₂, the Mo and S peaks of the as-exfoliated nanosheets shifted towards lower binding energy (~0.6 to 0.9 eV) due to the presence of 1T-MoS₂ in the exfoliated product. Based on the deconvolution results (Fig. 1e), the 2H and 1T components made up approximately 40% and 60%, respectively, in the as-exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets. It is important to note that the peaks of oxidized molybdenum (Mo⁵⁺ and Mo⁶⁺) or sulfur (S⁶⁺) were not present, which typically reside at ~235–236 eV and 168–172 eV in the XPS spectra, respectively [54]. The absence of these peaks indicates the high purity of exfoliated MoS₂ samples, and that oxidative evolution of MoS₂, if any, is solely caused by redox reactions during the Cr(VI) remediation process (*infra vide*).

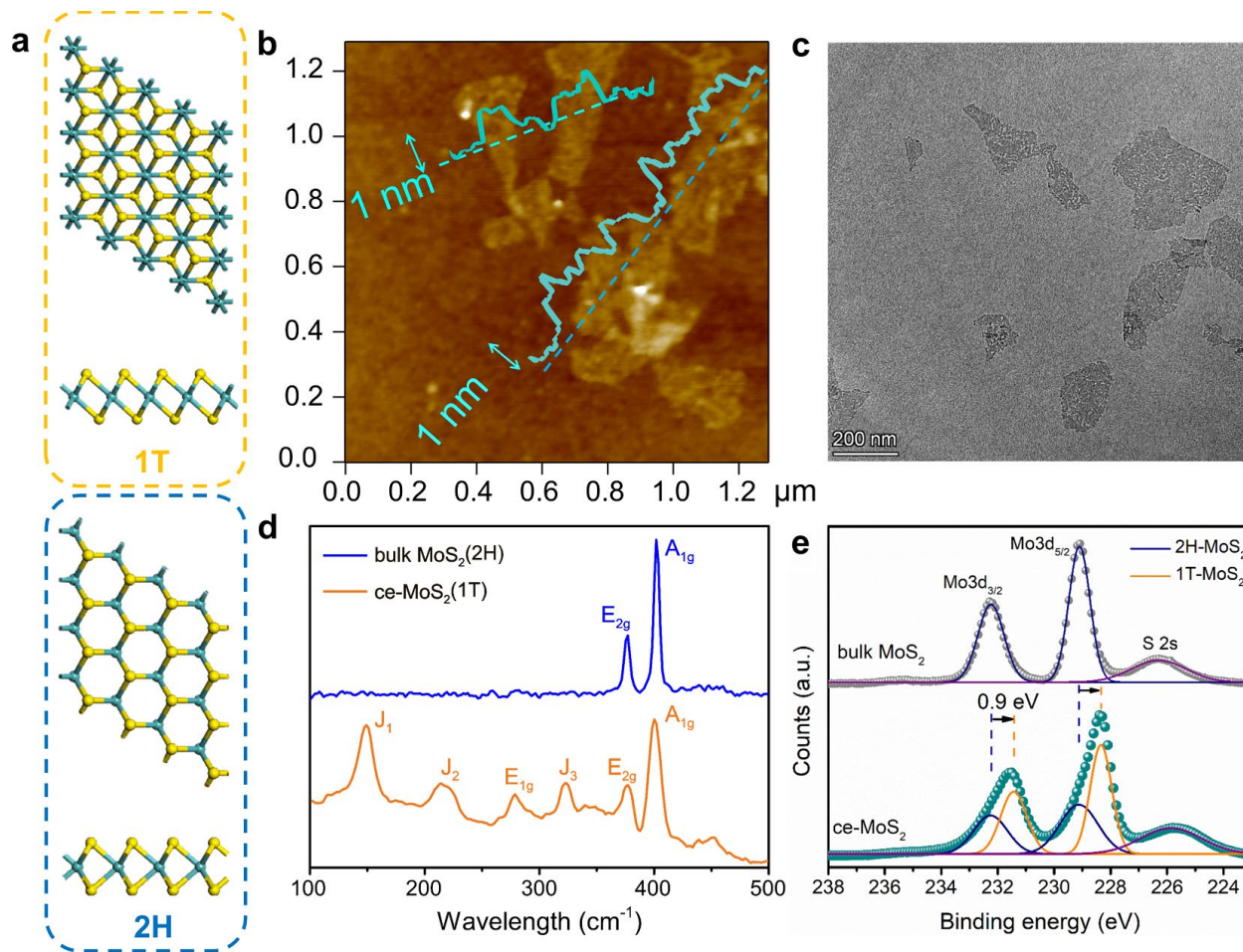


Fig. 1. Characterization of chemical exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets and bulk MoS₂. (a) Structure illustration of 1T- and 2H-MoS₂ (yellow ball for S atom and blue ball for Mo atom) (b) AFM image of ce-MoS₂ nanosheets, with inset line scans showing the thickness profiles; (c) HRTEM image of ce-MoS₂ nanosheets; (d) Raman spectra of bulk and ce-MoS₂; and (e) XPS spectra of Mo 3d core level peak regions of bulk (grey) and ce-MoS₂ (green).

3.2. Cr species removal by MoS₂ nanosheet suspension Batch experiments were conducted to investigate the removal efficiency of Cr(VI) by MoS₂ nanosheets. Fig. 2a shows that the overall Cr (VI) removal by MoS₂ nanosheets was enhanced with increasing equilibrium Cr(VI) concentration at pH 2, and approached a constant capacity of approximately 1100 mg/g, which is much higher than the typical values (~100 to 250 mg/g) for Cr(VI) removal by other nanomaterials reported previously (Table S1). The superb remediation performance of MoS₂ nanosheets found here and towards other heavy metals can be attributed to the excellent dispersity and abundant active sites of the exfoliated nanosheets. To investigate Cr(VI) removal kinetics, excess Cr(VI) was added into MoS₂ suspensions at various pH conditions. As shown in Fig. 2b, the concentration of Cr(VI) decreased rapidly at pH 2 and the removal was almost completed with remaining Cr(VI)

at ~35 mg/L after 1 d. At pH 4 and 6, MoS₂ nanosheets achieved comparable removal efficiency of Cr(VI) to that at pH 2, albeit with much slower reaction kinetics. The co-existing experiment (Fig. 2c) indicated that 50 mg/L Cr(VI) was removed completely after 24 h for each MoS₂ suspension, and different anions had nearly no influence on Cr(VI) removal. The excellent adaptability of Cr(VI) removal by MoS₂ to a wide pH range is of significant importance since the pH adjustments required by conventional methods consume a large amount of chemicals and need additional equipment [55]. To explore if Cr(III) is present, the concentrations of reductively generated Cr(III) species at different pH conditions were acquired by subtracting the amount of remaining Cr(VI) from the total Cr measured by ICP-OES. As shown in Fig. 3a, Cr(VI) removal was enhanced at acidic conditions and meanwhile Cr(III) was observed with higher concentrations at lower pH, which implies a redox reaction occurring between Cr(VI) and MoS₂ nanosheets. In particular, complete removal of Cr(VI) and concurrent generation of Cr(III) with the same concentration (~50 mg/L) was achieved at pH 2, which implies Cr(VI) reduction is the only removal mechanism of Cr(VI) by MoS₂ nanosheets at this condition. The potent Cr(VI) reduction favored at low pH conditions can be explained by the stronger oxidation strength of Cr(VI) at acidic solutions ($\phi_{\text{Cr(VI)/Cr(III)}} \approx 1.05 \text{ V}$ at pH 2 vs. 0.087 V at pH 8.9, according to Nernst equation). In contrast, at pH 8.9, Cr(VI) concentration didn't change considerably in the presence of MoS₂ nanosheets, implying Cr(VI) can neither be reductively removed, nor adsorbed by MoS₂ nanosheets at basic conditions. The weak Cr(VI) removal at pH 8.9 can be attributed to low oxidation power and anionic nature of CrO₄²⁻, making it difficult to react or adsorbed by negatively charged MoS₂ nanosheets. It is worth noting that certain loss of total Cr was found at pH 4 and 6. At these conditions, the main species of Cr(VI) was HCrO₄⁻ (Fig. S7), considering the repulsive force between anionic Cr(VI) and MoS₂ nanosheets, we believe this portion of Cr was the Cr(III) that were removed along with the reacted MoS₂ from the solution. The complete Cr removal via concurrent Cr(VI) reduction and Cr(III) sequestration has important implications, since this one-step removal circumvents the pH alleviation to precipitate Cr(III) required by conventional treatment approaches employing materials such as scrap iron [56], Fe(0) [57], and maghemite [50]. To confirm the concurrent removal of reductively generated Cr(III) from the aqueous solutions, we conducted additional tests and plotted the distributions of Cr species, that is remaining Cr(VI), soluble Cr(III), removed Cr(III), as functions of initial Cr(VI) concentrations at various pH conditions. As shown in Fig. 3b, the reduction of Cr(VI) by MoS₂ nanosheets was

more pronounced at pH 2, but the reduced Cr(III) predominantly existed as soluble species that were retained in the solution at this condition. At pH 4 and 6, with the increase of the initial Cr(VI) concentration, a decreasing order was obtained for both the percentages of removed and soluble Cr(III) among total Cr, and the portions of remaining Cr(VI) increased. Among the Cr(III) species, most of Cr(III) were removed from the solutions at higher pH conditions. Particularly, the reduced Cr(III) were completely sequestered at pH 6 despite the comparatively less pronounced reduction of Cr(VI) because of the weak redox activity. Additionally, a control test was conducted to demonstrate the pH effect observed above did not stem from the different anions used in various buffer solutions (Fig. S8). Overall, MoS₂ nanosheets exhibited excellent performance in both Cr(VI) reduction and Cr(III) sequestration at pH 4, which renders this condition as the best for removing the total Cr from solutions with a maximum capacity at ~540 mg/g.

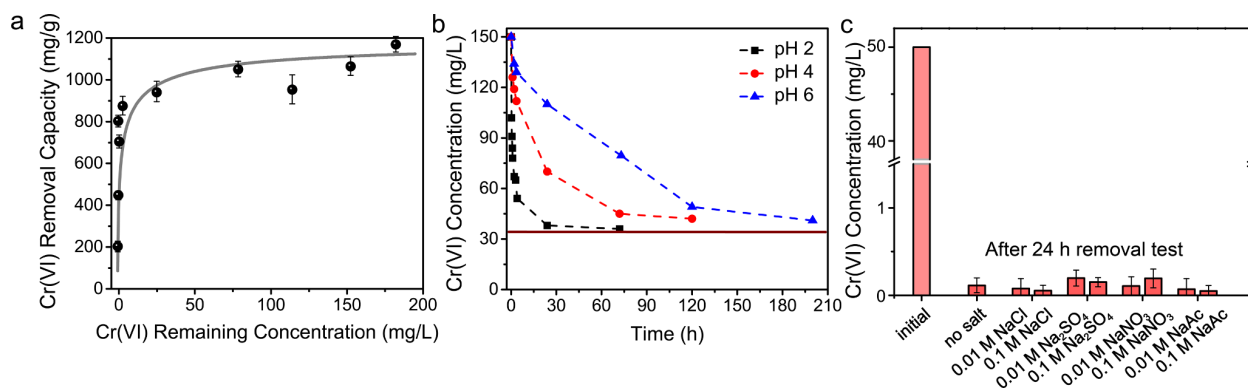


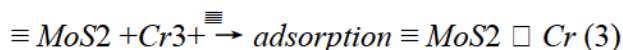
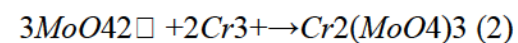
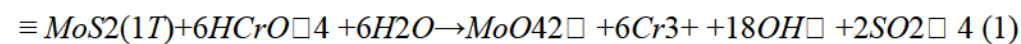
Fig. 2. Cr(VI) removal by MoS₂ nanosheet suspension. (a) Cr(VI) removal capacities at various equilibrium Cr(VI) concentrations at pH 2; (b) removal kinetics of Cr(VI) at pH 2, 4 and 6; the initial Cr(VI) and MoS₂ concentrations in (b) were 150 and 100 mg/L, respectively, and the red solid line in (b) represents the theoretical remaining Cr(VI) concentration according to the Eq. (1); (c) co-existing experiment of Cr(VI) removal at pH 2 in solution containing NaCl, Na₂SO₄, NaNO₃, NaAc with concentrations of 0.01 and 0.1 mol/L, initial Cr(VI) concentration was 50 mg/L.

3.3. Removal mechanism of Cr species by MoS₂ nanosheets A series of characterization and tests have been conducted to unravel the mechanism between MoS₂ and Cr(VI) species. To corroborate the detection of reduction product Cr(III), the concentrations of the possible oxidation products SO₄²⁻ and MoO₄²⁻ were monitored and shown in Fig. 4a and 4b, respectively. The oxidative release of SO₄²⁻ was enhanced with the increase of Cr(VI) concentration and the decrease of pH, in agreement with the results showing that Cr(VI) was favorably removed at lower pH conditions (Fig. 3a). The release profile of the other oxidation product MoO₄²⁻ exhibited an apparently

different behavior from that of SO_4^{2-} (Fig. 4b, S9). Despite of considerable amount of MoO_4^{2-} released at pH 2, the oxidized MoS₂ barely exhibited detectable amounts of MoO_4^{2-} if any into the solutions in contrast to the appreciable SO_4^{2-} generation at pH 4 and 6 (Fig. 4a and 4b). Considering the total Cr loss observed in Fig. 3a, the inhibited release of MoO_4^{2-} was likely caused by the concurrent Cr(III) adsorption onto oxidized MoS₂ and/or precipitation of Cr (III) with the generated MoO_4^{2-} . The precipitation could also effectively avoid the potential release of soluble Mo species, which may be concerned with as secondary contaminant [58]. To validate the precipitation of Cr(III) with MoO_4^{2-} , Na_2MoO_4 and $\text{Cr}(\text{NO}_3)_3$ solutions were mixed at different pH to observe the remaining Cr (III) and MoO_4^{2-} concentrations. After 24 h, the concentrations of MoO_4^{2-} and Cr(III) decreased sharply at pH 4 and 6 but remained constant at pH 2 (Fig. S10). Additionally, at pH 4 and 6 green precipitation was generated at the bottom of the vial and XPS spectra implied the formation of $\text{Cr}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ (Fig. S11). At pH 2, MoO_4^{2-} undergoes protonation to form H_2MoO_4 (a binary weak acid), which inhibits the precipitation with free Cr^{3+} [59]. To testify if Cr(III) could be removed by MoS₂ nanosheets, we also measured the removal isotherm of Cr(III) by MoS₂ nanosheet suspension, which shows moderate removal capacities of 40 and 180 mg/g at pH 4 and 6, respectively. Nearly no adsorption of Cr(III) by MoS₂ occurred at pH 2. (Fig. S12), which can be explained by the low zeta potential of MoS₂ nanosheets at pH 2 and thus weakened the electrostatic attractions between MoS₂ nanosheets and Cr(III). Collectively, the reductively generated Cr(III) could be readily removed via precipitation and adsorption onto MoS₂ nanosheets. To corroborate with ion release profiles, the MoS₂ samples after Cr (VI) remediation at various pH conditions were subjected to XPS characterization. XPS survey scan in Fig. S8 shows O and Cr peaks were barely observed in the reacted MoS₂ sample at pH 2, in line with the weak association of Cr(III) with the oxidized MoS₂. Cr 3p XPS core level spectra indicated that the adsorbed and precipitated Cr species at pH 4 and 6 were Cr(III) only (Fig. S13), and confirmed the adsorption of Cr (VI) was not a feasible way in the case of MoS₂ nanosheets used in this study. The time-resolved Cr XPS also indicated the Cr(III) generation process at pH 4 (Fig. S14). It is interesting to note that the Mo 3d XPS spectra exhibited a significant difference in MoS₂ samples formed at various pH conditions (Fig. 4c). The deconvolution analysis of these Mo 3d peaks revealed the portions of 1T-MoS₂, 2H-MoS₂, and oxidized Mo, highlighted in red, blue and orange, respectively. Compared to the 1T-phase-dominated pristine MoS₂ nanosheets (Fig. 1e), 2H-MoS₂ became the dominant Mo species after the reaction with Cr(VI) at pH 2 and

consequently the ratio of 1T/2H was decreased to ~0.28 (vs. ~2 in the pristine MoS₂ nanosheets). This 1T/2H ratio was varied much less pronouncedly at pH 4 and 6 and determined to be ~1.2 and 1.9, respectively. Collectively, the varied 1T/2H ratios indicate that 1T-MoS₂ reacted with Cr(VI) favorably over 2H-MoS₂. EDS mapping (Fig. S15, Table S2) also supports the association of Cr(III) with reacted MoS₂ samples at pH 4 and 6 since the Cr and O contents were apparently enhanced relative to those of the reacted MoS₂ formed at pH 2. To confirm the phase effect in the removal process, we carried out time-resolved XPS and monitored the evolution of each phase during the reaction with Cr(VI) (Fig. S16). Compared to the pristine nanosheets containing 60% 1T MoS₂, the percentage of 1T polymorph in the MoS₂ decreased to 34, 25, 18, 13 and nearly 0 %, after the reaction with Cr(VI) for 15 min, 30 min, 2 h, 4 h and 1 d, respectively (Table S3). The reacted 1T-MoS₂ was converted to oxidized Mo(VI) in the form of Cr₂(MoO₄)₃ or Mo oxide. On the other hand, the reaction rate between 2H-MoS₂ and Cr (VI) was much slower if any, maintaining the percentage of 2H phase at approximately 40% of the total Mo in the MoS₂ solids throughout the entire reaction. This is consistent with the higher chemical stability of the 2H-MoS₂ polymorph relative to the 1T-MoS₂ polymorph observed in previous studies [43,52]. We also tested the reaction between Cr(VI) with bulk MoS₂ containing only 2H phase, and the Cr(VI) concentration didn't decrease within 1 d (Fig. S17), which confirmed that the reaction rate of 2H-MoS₂ with Cr(VI) is very slow, if any. In the time-resolved evolution of S 2p XPS spectra (Fig. S19), the position shift towards higher binding energy confirms the preferential decomposition of 1T polymorph. Additionally, the absence of the oxidized S peak at ~168 eV corroborates the release of oxidative product SO₄²⁻ from MoS₂ surfaces as discussed above.

The efficient removal of Cr(VI) from solution observed in this study is thus attributed to Cr(VI) reduction by MoS₂ nanosheets (1T primarily), concurrent Cr(III) precipitation and adsorption on oxidized MoS₂ nanosheets (Fig. S18), which can be described by the following equations:



The concomitant precipitation and adsorption of Cr(III) after the reduction of Cr(VI) is important since the adsorptive removal of hydrated Cr(III) ions has been reported to be slow and difficult

due to the kinetic inertness of water exchange [60,61]. Based on Equation (1), the maximum Cr(VI) reductive removal capacity of MoS₂ nanosheets can be calculated to be 1170 mg/g (see details in SI Text), granted that only the 1T component is completely oxidized while 2H-MoS₂ remains intact. The calculated values are plotted in Fig. 2b for comparison, exhibiting strong consistency with the Cr(VI) removal capacity determined by batch experiments.

The as-exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets have a nearly 1100 mg/g redox capacity of Cr(VI). This value is much higher than those for MoS₂ synthesized through other methods and for MoS₂ composites, which reached the capacity of ~70 to 290 mg/g for 2H phase [34-36] and ~290 to 320 mg/g for 1T phase [37,41], highlighting the importance of MoS₂ phase and structure on the removal efficiency of Cr species. For exfoliated MoS₂ monolayers, the good dispersity and monolayer structure also renders the maximum exposure of active sites leading to high removal efficiency of total chromium by MoS₂ nanosheets. The extraordinary total Cr removal performance of MoS₂ nanosheets at near-neutral pH outperforms peer nanomaterials, in which a vast amount of chemical usage is needed to adjust pH.

3.4. Confined nanochannels in layer-stacked structure After demonstrating the Cr removal mechanism and efficiency with dispersed nanosheets, we assembled MoS₂ individual sheets into macrostructures to (1) circumvent the subsequent burden of nanomaterial separation potentially encountered in practical remediation, and (2) to reveal the structural uniqueness of 2D nanomaterials applicable to influencing the environmental fate of target contaminants. Herein, we prepared layer-stacked MoS₂ macrostructure (Fig. 5a) *via* vacuum filtration of MoS₂ suspension according to our previous study [62]. Well-aligned nanochannels were formed between neighboring layers held tightly *via* the van der Waals force. These nanochannels in solution exhibited a stable interlayer spacing at ~1.1 nm (equivalent to 0.8 nm free spacing [62], as demonstrated by the characteristic GIWAXS peak at 5° in Fig. 5b. Stability of the interlayer spacing was maintained in an equilibrium between attractive van der Waals force and repulsive hydration force [62]. Due to the smaller ionic radius of Cr(VI) (0.229 nm for CrO₄²⁻ [63]) compared with MoS₂ nanochannels, we found that layer-stacked MoS₂ structures could maintain highly effective removal of Cr (VI) and concurrent adsorption of Cr(III). Similar to dispersed nanosheets, layer-stacked MoS₂ macrostructure reductively removed Cr(VI) much faster at low pH (~2), but eventually reduced the Cr(VI) concentration from 50 mg/L to less than 0.1 mg/L at

all pH conditions tested. At pH 6, soluble Cr(III) was not detected throughout the entire Cr (VI) removal process. At pH 2 and 4, concentrations of Cr(III) increased overtime and reached constant values of ~48 and 12 mg/L, amounting to 98 % and 24 % of total Cr, respectively. The adsorbed Cr(III) can also be readily released by the incubation at pH 1 HCl solutions to regenerate the MoS₂ membrane (Fig. S20). In the consecutive cycles, Cr(VI) can be removed completely within a day and the remaining total Cr concentration was less than 0.1 mg/L, lower than the MCL of total Cr in drinking water guided by US EPA.

Sorbate desorption is usually desired for sorbent recyclability and resource recovery. However, sequestration is preferred when the concerned adsorbed species are highly reactive, acutely lethal, and/or radioactive. In the case of Cr, a decrease in pH or the presence of organic ligands can release the adsorbed Cr(III), which can be re-oxidized to toxic Cr(VI) by oxidative species (*e.g.* MnO₂, O₂) present in the natural environment [7]. Herein, we demonstrate a new toxic ion sequestration strategy by using the nanochannels in layer-stacked MoS₂. As shown in Fig. 5c, wet layer-stacked MoS₂ was ion-accessible and able to remove Cr (VI) *via* surface and interior active sites. Once dried in a vacuum oven at 80 °C overnight, these nanochannels underwent irreversible shrinking with interlayer spacing down to 0.65 nm (equivalent to ~0.3 nm free spacing, Fig. 5b), which prevented the penetration of any ionic species access inside or outside the layered-stacked structure. The narrowed spacing can't recover to > 1 nm even after the layer-stacked structure was immersed back in water solution because of the enhanced van der Waals force at sub-nanometer scale and the lacking hydration force (Fig. S21) [62].

To demonstrate the efficiency of ion-sequestration in the narrowed and confined nanochannels, we prepared layer-stacked MoS₂ to reduce Cr(VI) and concomitantly adsorbed Cr(III) within nanochannels at pH 4. The Cr-loaded stacked MoS₂ structures were either maintained in solution or dried in vacuum conditions overnight, followed by Cr(III) release tests at pH 1, a more favorable condition for Cr(III) release (Fig. 6a). To reveal the importance of aligned nanochannels, we also conducted control tests for comparison, in which Cr(VI) was directly added to MoS₂ nanosheet suspension for reduction and Cr(III) adsorption. Due to Cr(III) adsorption and thus neutralization of negatively charged MoS₂ layers, the MoS₂ nanosheets agglomerated, resulting in a randomly aggregated porous MoS₂ structure (Fig. S22). The aligned nanochannels were absent in the randomly assembled MoS₂ structure as implied by a comparison of the XRD patterns in Fig. S21.

Complete Cr(VI) reduction and adsorption was achieved in both layer-stacked and randomly-aggregated MoS₂ samples as no Cr was detected in the remaining reaction solution of pH 4. Under dry or wet conditions (Fig. 6a), the Mo and Cr release profiles at pH 1 are shown in Fig. 5b and 5c. Within the well-aligned nanochannels, the concentration of Cr released from the dry MoS₂ was ~0.8 mg/L, amounting to 16 % of the total Cr loaded. The amount released under dry conditions was significantly less than that from wet MoS₂ (56 %) because of the irreversibly narrowed nanochannels in dry MoS₂ inhibiting Cr(III) ions from diffusing out (Fig. 6c). The small amount of Cr released in the dry nanochannels may stem from the Cr adsorbed on the membrane surface, while the majority of the Cr(III) trapped in the completely restacked nanochannels was stable against release. However, in the poorly aligned porous structure, the release profiles in Fig. 6b show that Cr(III) was released from dry (44 % of the total Cr) and wet (50 % of the total Cr) samples rapidly as a consequence of favorable release at lower pH conditions. In this case where aligned nanochannels were lacking, the rate of the Cr release was quite comparable irrelevant to the physical state of the porous structure. It is worth noting that the release curves of Cr and Mo species follow a similar pattern in the acidic solution for the dry and wet samples in both structures, which confirms the association of Cr with Mo in the oxide forms. Despite that the material displayed good durability for recycling, the successful sequestration for Cr(III) by using irreversible restacking of 2D layer-stacked structure paved a way for removing and isolating other severely toxic (*e. g.* Hg²⁺) or radioactive metals, where sequestration is considered a priority over recycling.

4. Conclusions As an emerging environmental remediation material, 2D MoS₂ nanosheets exhibit excellent Cr(VI) removal capabilities and profound interaction routines. Thanks to their compositional and structural characteristics, 2D MoS₂ nanosheets can concomitantly reduce, precipitate and sequester toxic Cr species. Specifically, toxic Cr(VI) can be reduced by MoS₂ nanosheets (primarily 1T polymorph) at a wide range of pH conditions from acidic to near-neutral. The reductive removal capacity of Cr(VI) can reach ~1100 mg/g at all pH conditions tested. The reduced product Cr(III) species can be adsorbed and/or precipitated concomitantly onto the oxidized MoS₂ at pH 4, which can avoid the additional usage of chemicals to elevate pH and precipitate Cr(III) required by other methods. In addition, the adsorbed Cr(III) can be sequestered inside the nanochannels, and the narrowed interlayer spacing caused by feasible drying can inhibit Cr releasing even under environmental conditions that are favorable for Cr re-dissolution. During

the removal process, the generated MoO_4^{2-} would precipitate with Cr (III) and be eliminated, which could avoid the secondary pollution. The concentration of the other released byproduct SO_4^{2-} should be monitored in the practical applications, though it is a common anion in the environment with a much higher allowable concentration. This study reveals 2D MoS_2 as an excellent remediation material for Cr(VI) removal, and the irreversible restacking of 2D layer-stacked structure can be further explored in future work as an approach for removing and isolating other severely toxic (*e.g.* Hg^{2+}) or radioactive metals ions. Additionally, the impacts of the unique flake-like structure of 2D materials on their environmental applications, fate, transport and risks associated with 2D morphology should also be explored in future studies.

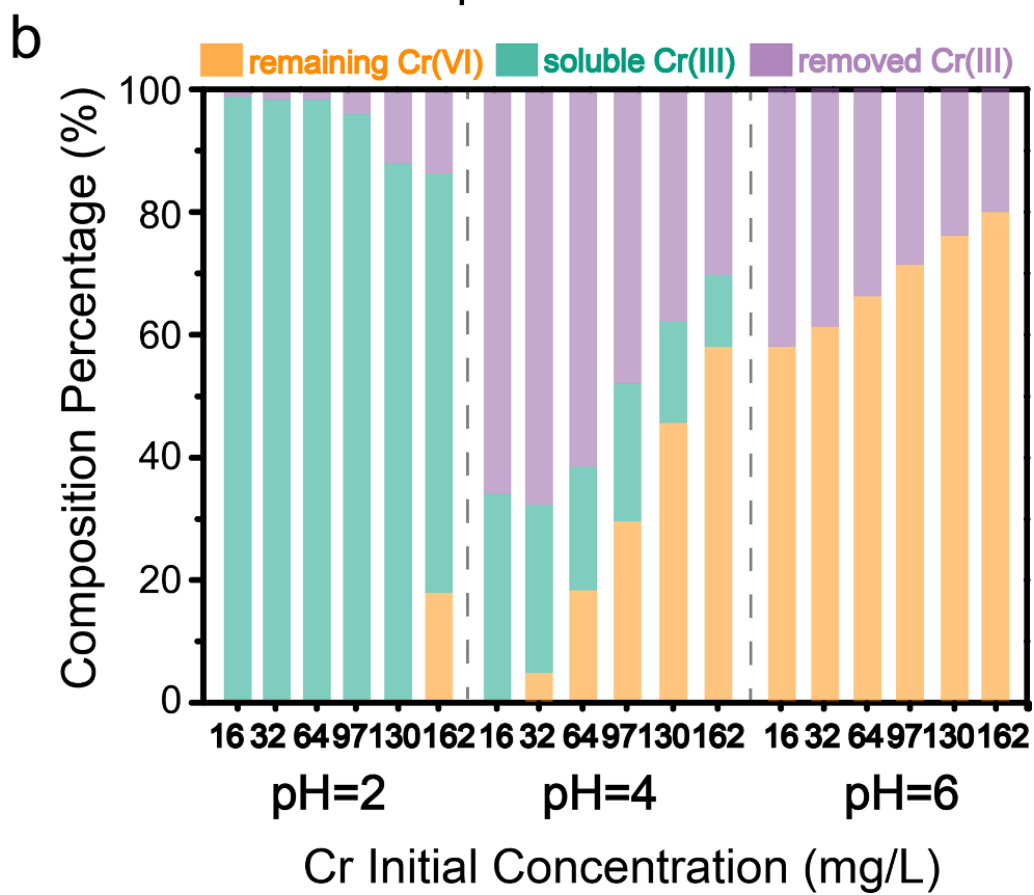
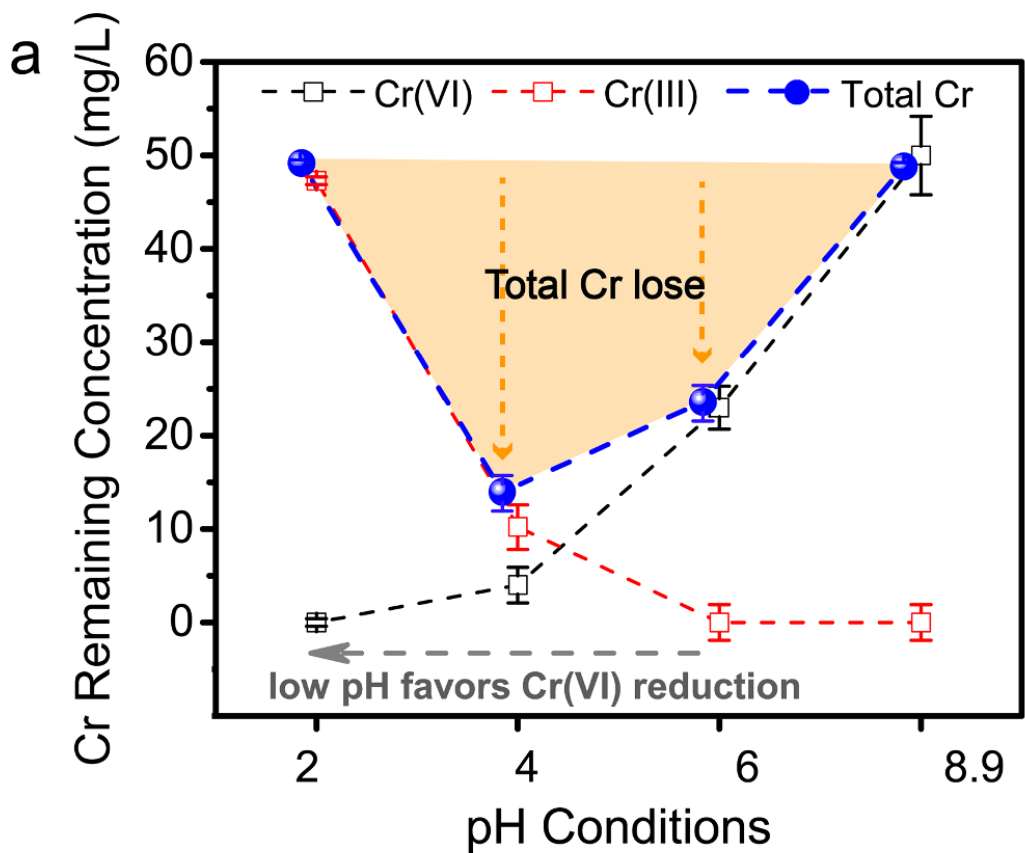


Fig. 3. Removal efficiency of the total Cr by MoS₂ nanosheet suspension. (a) The concentrations of total Cr, remaining Cr(VI) and reduction product Cr(III) in the reaction with MoS₂ suspension over the pH range of 2 to 8.9 after 1 d (the initial concentration of Cr(VI) is 50 mg/L); (b) Remaining Cr(VI), soluble Cr(III) and removed Cr(III) percentages at different initial Cr(VI) concentrations and different pH conditions. (The initial MoS₂ concentration is about 100 mg/L).

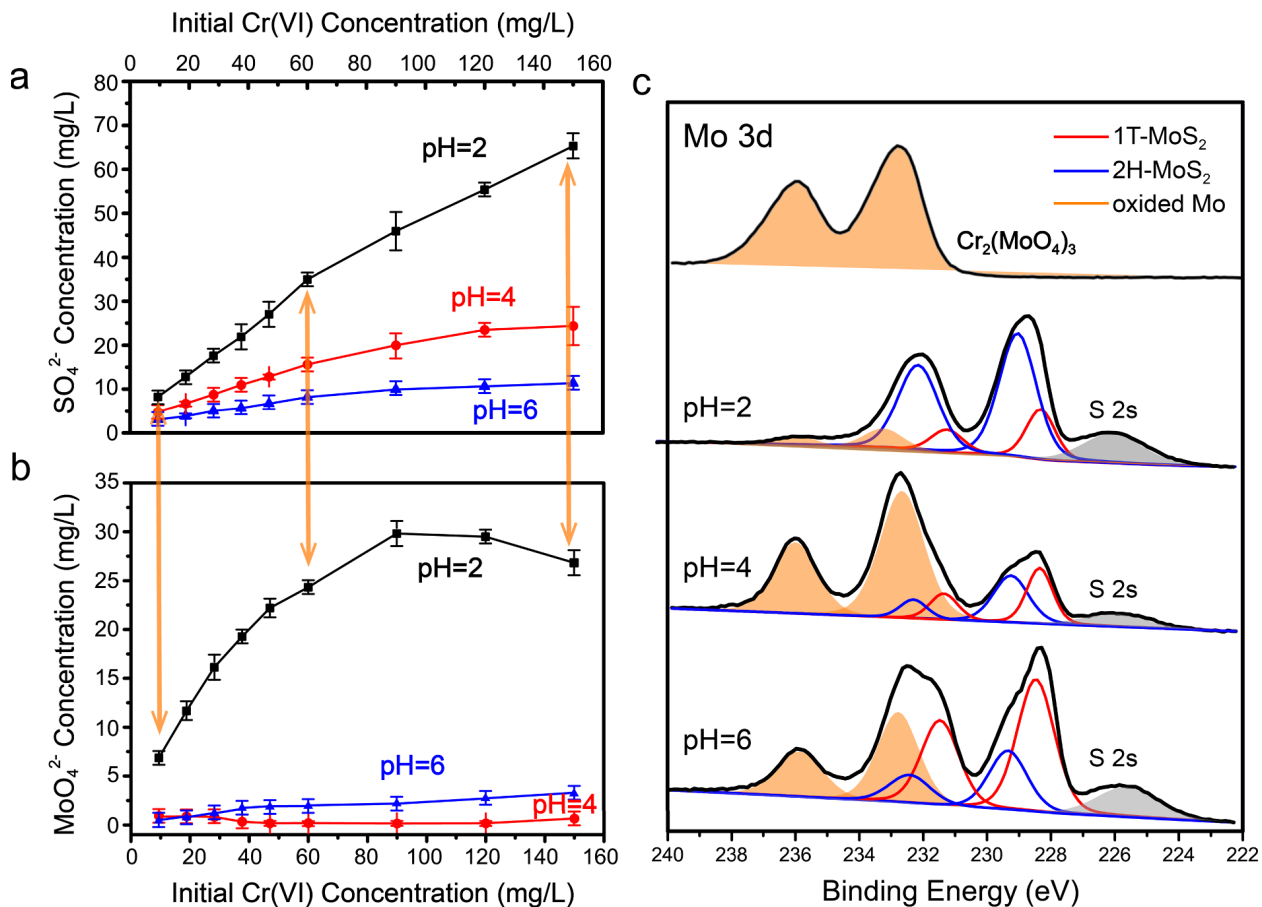


Fig. 4. Cr(VI) removal mechanism by MoS₂ nanosheet suspension. Released SO_4^{2-} (a) and MoO_4^{2-} (b) concentrations as functions of initial Cr(VI) concentrations after reactions for 1 d at different pH; (The initial MoS₂ concentration is for about 100 mg/L) (c) Mo 3d XPS spectra of $\text{Cr}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$ as a reference and MoS₂ samples in reactions with Cr(VI) at different pH.

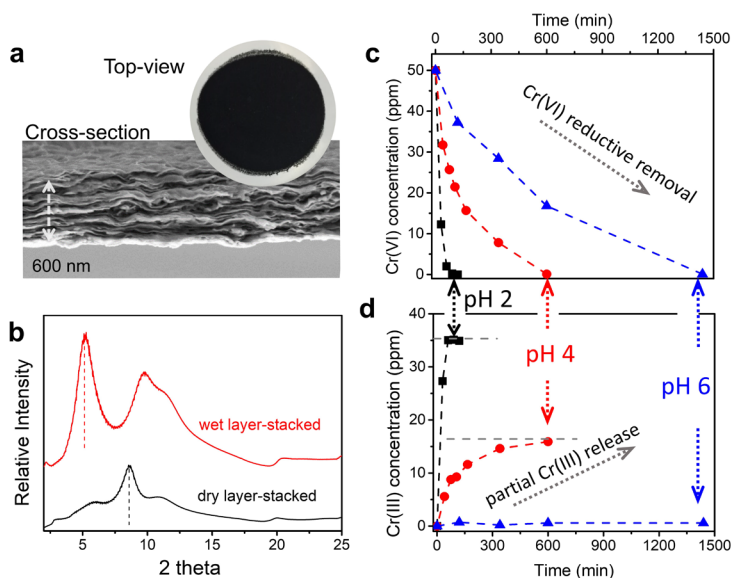


Fig. 5. Characterization and Cr(VI) removal performance of layer-stacked MoS₂. (a) Cross-sectional SEM image and optical image of layer-stacked MoS₂; (b) GIWAXS pattern of wet and dry layer-stacked MoS₂. The radiation X-ray wavelength is 0.9765 Å, and thus peaks at 5° and 8.6° in wet and dry MoS₂ samples correspond to spacing of 1.12 and 0.65 nm, respectively; (c) the remaining Cr(VI) and (d) Cr(III) concentrations of the solution containing 50 mg/L Cr(VI) and 4 mg wet layer-stacked MoS₂.

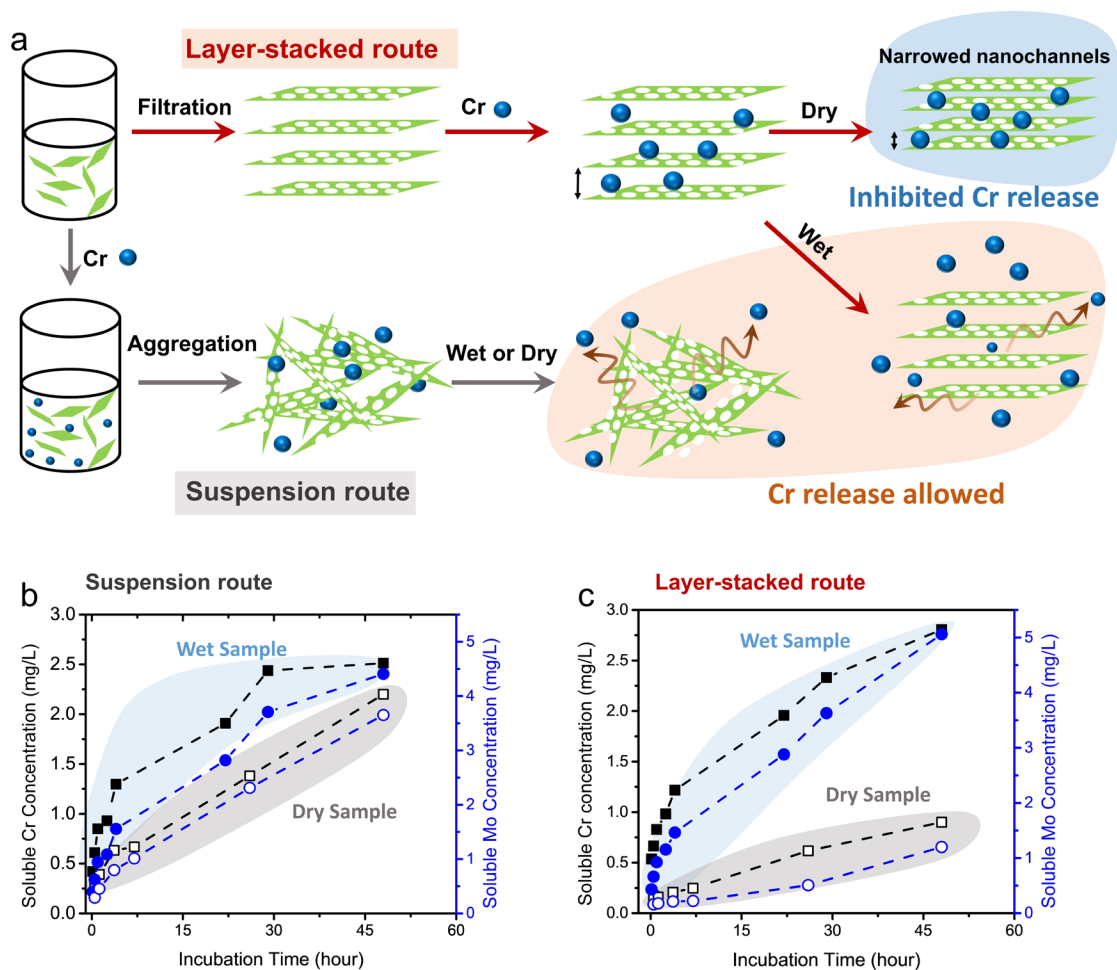


Fig.6. The sequestration effects of confined MoS₂ nanochannels against Cr(III) release. (a) Scheme of preparation and release process of well-aligned nanochannels and randomly-aggregated MoS₂; Cr and Mo species release profiles from layer-stacked MoS₂ (b) and randomly-aggregated porous MoS₂ (c). Cr(VI) species (5 mg/L) was reduced and adsorbed at pH 4, and release tests were conducted at pH 2. The “dry” samples were prepared by drying the samples in the vacuum condition overnight while “wet” samples were subjected to release test without any treatment.

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CRedit authorship contribution statement **Qi Han:** Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Investigation. **Julie Yu:** Writing – review & editing. **Sidney Poon:** Writing – review & editing. **Leeann Sun:** Writing – review & editing. **Minerva Teli:** Writing – review & editing. **Bei Liu:** Data curation. **Hong Chen:** Data curation. **Kunkun Wang:** Data curation. **Zhongying Wang:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Investigation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Baoxia Mi:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision.

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