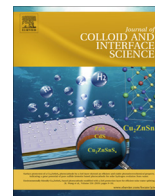




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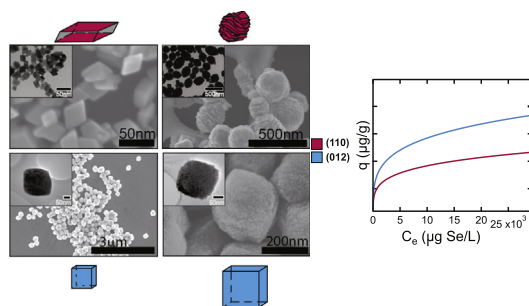
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Preferential adsorption of selenium oxyanions onto {1 1 0} and {0 1 2} nano-hematite facets

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

As the commercial use of nano metal oxides, including iron oxides, becomes more prevalent, there is a need to understand functionality as it relates to the inherent properties of the nanomaterial. Many applications of nanomaterials rely on adsorption, ranging from catalysis to aqueous remediation. In this paper, adsorption of selenium (Se), an aqueous contaminant, is used as a model sorbate to elucidate the relationships of structure, property, and (adsorptive) function of nano-hematite ($\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$). As such, six $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ particles were synthesized controlling for size, shape and surface area without capping agents. Sorbent characteristics of the six particles were then assessed for their impact on selenite (HSeO_3^-) and selenate (SeO_4^{2-}) adsorption capacity and mechanism. Mechanism was assessed using *in-situ* attenuated total reflectance-Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy and extended X-ray absorption fine edge spectroscopy (EXAFS). Regression analyses were then performed to determine which characteristics best describe adsorption capacity and binding mechanisms of Se on $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$. The results demonstrate that crystal surface structure, specifically presence of the {0 1 2} facet promotes adsorption of Se and the presence of {0 1 2} facets promotes SeO_4^{2-} sorption to a greater extent than HSeO_3^- . The data further indicates that {1 1 0} facets bind HSeO_3^- with binuclear complexes while {0 1 2} facets bind HSeO_3^- via mononuclear inner-sphere complexes. Specific $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ facets also likely direct the ratio of inner to outer-sphere complexes in SeO_4^{2-} adsorption.

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1. Introduction

Nanomaterials in technological applications is an emerging global market, projected to reach \$3 trillion by 2020 [1]. Like all technologies, to achieve greatest market value, nanotechnologies should be designed to maximally attain their defined functional role [2] and simultaneously minimize unintended hazards [3]. Currently, improving desired behavior for application and reducing undesirable behavior for implications remains an expensive and intensive empirical exercise [4–6]. The Structure-Property-Function and Structure-Property-Hazard framework (SPF-SPH) [3] allows for a fundamental understanding of the components that drive behavior such that nanotechnology can be efficaciously designed to optimize function and minimize hazard.

Adsorption is an essential function, necessary for applications in analytical chemistry [7], catalysis [8,9], gas-sensing [10,11], biomedical applications [12], and environmental remediation [13]. Capacity and mechanism comprise the what and how of adsorption behavior, and are each important for improved design under the SPF-SPH framework. Of the available adsorbent technologies, nano-adsorbents, and specifically nano-metal oxides (NMO), including iron oxides, present an opportunity for enhanced performance over their bulk counterparts due to the relative increase in surface area to mass ratio of the nanomaterials [14,15].

In the nano-regime, an increase in surface area (and thus smaller particle sizes) is also conventionally thought to enhance adsorption capacity [16], yet, evidence suggests, this is not necessarily the case [17–20]. Differences in adsorption of selenite between goethite particles of similar surface area have been reported [21,22]. Torrent et al. also found different phosphate adsorption capacities onto goethite crystals [17]. While, the former attributed the variation in adsorption to differences in point of zero charge (pzc) of the particles, Torrent et al. suggests crystal facet and defects formed by polydomaine surfaces are responsible. Similarly, Lounsbury et al. hypothesizes that surface functional groups are responsible for enhanced adsorption capacity of selenium oxyanions onto nanohematite (α -Fe₂O₃) rather than increased α -Fe₂O₃ surface area [19]. Madden et al. attributes increased Cu²⁺ adsorption onto smaller (7 nm) α -Fe₂O₃ than larger (25 nm and 80 nm) particles to the increased proportion of distorted binding sites on the smaller particles [23]. Recently, Huang et al. examined the adsorption capacity and mechanism of Cr(VI) onto two α -Fe₂O₃ particles with two different frontier facets [24]. The authors report that Cr(VI) adsorption capacity is higher on {1 1 0} facets with bidentate binuclear complexes than on the {0 0 1} facet with monodentate mononuclear complexes [24]. This suggests that similarly to bulk adsorbents, both adsorption capacity and complexation mechanism are facet dependent for nano-adsorbents; however, size and surface area were not controlled or evaluated [24]. Therefore, towards development of an SPF relationship for adsorption, the specific nano-properties and characteristics responsible for adsorption capacity and mechanism are limited. The need for more information is exacerbated by nano-properties and characteristics effecting adsorption differently based on differing system conditions.

Nano-adsorption performance has recently been related to the presence of specific crystal facets, namely high energy facets [9,25–31]. High energy facets are the termination faces of a well-defined crystal with higher surface energy and more dangling bonds, typically facets with Miller indices greater than one [31–33]. The best-studied examples of facet-dependent adsorption is the controlled synthesis of nanomaterials using preferentially adsorbed shape controllers to yield particles enriched for certain crystal facets [4,6,8,34,35]. For bulk scale adsorption behavior, theoretical and experimental evidence supports the importance of surface structure [5,17,28,29,31,36–39]. The CD-Music model, set

forth by Heimstra et al., shows that only singly and triply coordinated surface oxygen groups of metal (hydr)oxides are reactive [40,41]. Congruently, Catalano et al., shows that selenite creates inner-sphere bidentate complexes with singly coordinated oxygen groups on the (1 0 0) of α -Fe₂O₃, while the doubly-coordinate oxygen groups are unreactive [42]. The density of reactive oxygen groups is believed to depend on surface geometries and surface sites, accounting for changes in adsorption capacities and mechanisms of adsorbates onto different hematite surfaces as well as onto the same surface of different adsorbents of similar structure such as α -Fe₂O₃ and Al₂O₃ [36,37].

(Hydr)oxide hydration studies further support the dependence of reactivity on the presence of singly and triply coordinated oxygen groups [37,43,44]. Since many adsorption reactions occur in aqueous systems, thermodynamically, the surface reactivity of hydrated metal (hydr)oxides more closely resembles actual surfaces than those of the pristine terminations. DFT modeling and experimental results show that the hydroxylated surfaces are more stable than dehydroxylated surfaces for adsorption [43,44]. Furthermore, it has been shown that different surface geometries and termination planes result in different densities of hydroxylated versus oxygen or iron terminated surfaces [37,43,44]. The influence of hydration may play an even larger role in dictating surface structure on the nano-scale than what is observed in the bulk studies [44].

For environmental purposes, elucidation of an SPF relationship for adsorption capacity and mechanism onto nanomaterials is paramount in designing improved remediation technologies. This study aims to elucidate relevant SPF relationships for the adsorption of selenium (Se) onto α -Fe₂O₃. α -Fe₂O₃ is an appropriate and relevant adsorbent due to the wide range of applications that can exploit its magnetic and electronic properties, as well as its reactive surface sites for adsorption and catalysis [45,46]. Furthermore, α -Fe₂O₃ is well studied for inexpensive, diverse, controlled, and facile synthesis, and behaves similarly to other nano-metal oxides [31,33,34,47]. Finally, nano α -Fe₂O₃ is as an effective adsorbent for Se, and other similar oxyanions, in biomedical and environmental remediation scenarios [19].

Se is a model for other inorganic oxyanions with multiple oxidation states, that are more easily removed in the reduced state. It exists as an oxyanion with multiple forms, most notably, selenite (SeO₃²⁻), and selenate (SeO₄²⁻), which is more mobile, bioavailable and toxic than the reduced SeO₃²⁻ [48]. While Se is an essential micronutrient required at low concentrations [48], concentrations above 5 mg/kg-day are toxic to humans and 1.5 µg/L Se concentrations is of concern from an ecotoxicity perspective [49]. The US EPA has just lowered the aquatic life criteria for Se [49], yet no full scale technology exists that can remove Se to the desired concentrations in a cost effective and widely applicable manner [50].

The objective of this study is to evaluate the role of particle morphology on adsorption capacity and mechanism. Towards this goal, six different hematite nanoparticles were synthesized controlling for shape, size, and surface area without the use of capping agents. Adsorption capacity and binding environment of Se onto each of the particles was examined using *in situ* attenuated total reflectance-Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy and extended x-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy. Regression analysis was performed to determine the relevance and contribution of the different adsorbent properties on Se adsorption, a process that has previously been conducted for different organic adsorbates [51]. While this effort focuses on the extent to which different adsorbent properties enhance adsorption capacity for the specific system of α -Fe₂O₃ and Se, future efforts can leverage this deep molecular understanding to ultimately inform design of more efficient and environmentally friendly nano-technology more broadly.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Nanoparticle synthesis

All α -Fe₂O₃ were synthesized using previously reported methods by: Schwertmann and Cornell method 1 (Particle B) [52], method 2 (Particle D) [52], method 3 (Particle C) [52], method 4 (Particle A) [52], and Sugimoto et al. (Particles E & F) [53] with ACS grade reagents. All nanoparticle suspensions were washed with DI water and centrifuged three times before dialysis (6000–8000 Dalton molecular weight cut off, Fisher Scientific) until conductance was below 5 μ S. Final concentrations of nanoparticle suspensions were determined from inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; Perkin Elmer ICP-MS Elan DRC-e) analysis of suspensions dissolved in 10% trace metal grade HNO₃.

2.2. Nanoparticle characterization

Phase identification and crystal structure. Specific surface area (SSA) was determined using a 3-point N₂-physisorption Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) isotherm after degassing for two hours at 200 °C (Particle Technology Laboratory). Synchrotron powder X-ray diffraction (SP-XRD) measurements were collected at the Canadian Light Source (CLS) Inc. CMCF-BM (08B1-1) beamline at an energy of 18 keV and a wavelength of 0.68888 Å. Data reduction and processing was performed as in Hamilton et al. [54]. All diffraction patterns were consistent with hematite phase iron-oxide (Fig. S1). **Size and Morphology.** Transmission electron micrographs (TEM) were obtained using a FEI Tecnai Osiris 200 kV transition electron microscope. Nanoparticle suspensions were placed on a lacy carbon grid supported with a 200 mesh copper holder (Ted Pella, Inc.) for TEM imaging. Crystal facet was determined with high resolution (HR) TEM (FEI TITAN 80–300). Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) was conducted on dilute suspensions of α -Fe₂O₃ drop-coated onto silicon chips and imaged with a Hitachi SU8230 UHR Cold Field Emission (CFE) SEM. Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) was completed using a ALV-GmbH instrument at an angle of 90°. The raw correlation functions were analyzed in MATLAB and Fortran, using the CONTIN Algorithm [19,55]. **Surface Properties.** Zeta potential and point of zero charge (PZC) of the nanoparticles were calculated from measured electrophoretic mobility measurements (Brookhaven Instruments ZetaPALS Zeta Potential Analyzer) after manually adjusting the pH of each nanoparticle slurry with HCl and NaOH.

2.3. Adsorption experiments

Adsorption experiments were completed with autoclaved DI in oxygen and carbon dioxide-free nitrogen environments in an InVivo 400 glovebox. Each of the starting Se solutions were adjusted to the desired pH $\sim 3.5 \pm 0.15$ with 0.01 M HCl or NaOH and separated into 50-mL CORNING sterile polypropylene tube batch reactors. Adsorption experiments were completed at this low pH to ensure maximum adsorption of Se, limited variation in the protonation of Se oxyanions, and to minimize bound CO₂-species. Nano α -Fe₂O₃ particles were added to the suspensions such that the sorbate-sorbent ratio ranged from 0.21 at the start of the isotherm to 96 at the end of the isotherm. pH of the samples was monitored and adjusted after 12 h if necessary. Samples were reacted for 24 h (>17 h reported for system equilibrium) [19] to ensure steady-state was reached. Aliquots of each reactor were filtered through a 0.2 μ m syringe-driven filter unit (PVDF Millipore) and acidified for ICP-MS analysis (Perkin Elmer ICP-MS Elan DRC-e). Experiments were completed in triplicate. Error is reported as standard propagated error.

2.4. EXAFS spectroscopy

Following adsorption experiments, reaction vessels were centrifuged, and decanted. The resulting paste was spread between Kapton tape, sealed, and frozen to preserve oxidation state and minimize contamination from CO₂. Se K-edge EXAFS spectroscopy was performed at the Hard X-ray Micro Analysis (HXMA) beamline 06ID-1 of the CLS in Saskatoon, Canada for Se(IV), whereas EXAFS for Se(VI) samples were measured at Beamline 20-BM (PNC-CAT) at the Advanced Light Source at Argonne National Labs. All samples were maintained at 20 K during measurements using a liquid helium flow cryostat. Athena and WinXAS3.2 were used for all data processing and analysis.

2.5. ATR-FTIR spectroscopy

ATR-FTIR spectroscopy was performed with a Burkert Optics Equinox 55 FTIR spectrometer with N₂(l)-cooled MCT detector. Each α -Fe₂O₃ suspension was coated onto a horizontal ZnSe crystal and Se solutions of increasing concentration and pH 3.5 ± 0.1 were added to the film for analysis. The Se solutions had a 0.01 M KCl background, to maintain constant ionic strength. Data were collected over 4000–400 cm^{−1} with 256 total scans at 8 cm^{−1} resolution. The background for each sample was the associated coated crystal and a 0.01 M KCl solution of pH 3.5 was used for water subtraction. The ATR-FTIR data were collected and processed using OPUS 5.5 (Bruker Optics Ltd., Ontario). The ATR-FTIR data was processed using a multivariate curve regression analysis on UNSCRAMBLER®-X (Camo software), to determine relevant bonding components.

2.6. Regression analysis

The effects of α -Fe₂O₃ size, surface area and morphology on the adsorption capacity of HSeO₃[−] and SeO₄^{2−} were tested using multiple regression analysis, Eq. (1), in Stata [StataCorp LP, Stata/MP 14.2 for Windows]. Only particles for which frontier facet could be determined were included in the statistical analysis. All models that demonstrated collinearity were excluded and are discussed further in the supporting information (SI).

$$y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

The dependent variable is the mass normalized adsorption capacity, $q_i(\frac{\mu\text{g}}{\text{g}})$, for HSeO₃[−] or SeO₄^{2−}. $q_i(\frac{\mu\text{g}}{\text{g}})$ was calculated from Eq. (2) (discussed below) with parameters in Table 1 and Tables S4 for a given $C_e(\frac{\mu\text{g}}{\text{L}})$ value, randomly selected from a range of 10–10,000 $\frac{\mu\text{g}}{\text{L}}$. $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ are the n explanatory variables, including SSA, smallest dimension (SD), and frontier facet. The coefficients, β , describe the adsorption effects. α is the modeled constant and ε is the error term. All variables that demonstrated collinearity were excluded from the primary discussion but are described in the SI. Adjusted R² values were used to test the relative explanatory powers of different variables given the sample size.

3. Results

3.1. Characterization

Nano-hematite were synthesized in different sizes, shapes, and morphologies to determine how the different nano-properties influence Se adsorption. The sizes of the individual particles, characterized by the SD, range from 20 nm to just under 200 nm based on the SEM measurements (Fig. 1; Table 1). The most common aggregate size, as determined from DLS measurements, range from ~ 48 nm to 185 nm (Table 1; Fig. S6). The SSA measurements

Table 1

Characterization details for each of the synthesized particles.

Iron particle	SSA ^a (m ² /g)	Smallest dimension ^b (nm)	DLS mean (nm)	Frontier facet ^c	Crystallinity ^d
A	98.9 ± 0.1	18 ± 7	48	Unknown	Single
B	37.1 ± 0.8	23 ± 5	68	{1 1 0}	Single
C	25.13 ± 0.03	66 ± 8	50	Unknown	Poly
D	55.4 ± 0.2	150 ± 50	185	{1 1 0}	Poly
E	42.7 ± 0.4	160 ± 30	118	{0 1 2}	Poly
F	43.5 ± 0.2	190 ± 40	180	{0 1 2}	Poly

^a Specific surface area (SSA) was determined by 3-point N₂ physisorption BET.^b Smallest dimension (SD), defined as the average of the smallest measured dimension, was determined from SEM.^c Frontier Facet is defined as the most prevalent external facet of the particle.^d Each particle was defined as single or polycrystalline based on TEM. More information provided in the SI.

range from 25 m²/g to 98 m²/g. While the upper bound of the SSA is 98.9 m²/g for the smallest sized particle (A, SD = 18 nm), the lower bound of the SSA, 25.1 m²/g, is for the third smallest sized particle (C, SD = 66 nm). The higher SSA for the larger particles could be attributed to increased surface roughness and polycrystallinity, as seen in Fig. 1.

Additional analyses were performed to determine particle crystal structure (Table 1). Particles A & B are single-crystalline (Fig. 1), while particles C–F are polycrystalline (Figs. S2 and S4C, D). Frontier facets, {0 1 2}, of Particles E & F were obtained from previously published reports by Sugimoto et al. (Table 1) [53]. Particles B and D were indexed as {1 1 0} via SAED and HR-TEM images (Table 1; Figs. S3 and S4). Although, Particle D is polycrystalline, it consists of highly oriented sub-crystals with epitaxial growth on each substrate crystal (Fig. S4) allowing for frontier plane analysis. Unfortunately, despite being single-crystalline, the irregular shape of Particle A prohibits identification of the frontier plane.

3.2. Adsorption of selenite and selenate onto α -Fe₂O₃

To test the influence of particle morphology on adsorption capacity, adsorption capacity must first be defined. Freundlich isotherms were used to quantify adsorption capacity for all the particles in a consistent manner due to the empirical nature and appropriateness of the heterogeneity assumptions associated with the model. The linear form of the Freundlich adsorption isotherms (Eq. (2)) for selenite (hydroselenite, HSeO₃⁻, dominates at pH 3.5) and sele-

nate (SeO₄²⁻) for each of the synthesized particles (A–F) are shown in Fig. 2 with parameters in Table 2 and further presented in the SI.

$$q = K_f C_e^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (2)$$

Here, q is the sorption capacity and C_e is the equilibrium selenium concentration as discussed above. K_f is the Freundlich capacity parameter in units of $[(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{g}})(\frac{\text{L}}{\text{mg}})^{\frac{1}{n}}]$ for mass normalized sorptivities ($K_{f(M)}$) and units of $[(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{m}^2})(\frac{\text{L}}{\text{mg}})^{\frac{1}{n}}]$ for surface area normalized sorptivities ($K_{f(SA)}$), and n (dimensionless) is the intensity parameter. [48,49]

Therefore, in addition to adsorption capacities themselves, the isotherms provide insight to what influences those capacities. If surface area (SA), for which SSA is a proxy, and size are the only determinants for sorption capacity, then, one would expect the relative ranking of $K_{f(M)}$ for particle sets A through F to be the same for both HSeO₃⁻ and SeO₄²⁻. This is not observed (Fig. 2A and B). Instead, Fig. 2A and B demonstrate that the different sorbents have different adsorption capacities for HSeO₃⁻ versus SeO₄²⁻. Furthermore, if the surfaces of the synthesized nanoparticles of the same material (e.g., α -Fe₂O₃) have similar adsorption affinities/adsorption sites, $K_{f(SA)}$ for all particles would be equal for each adsorbate. However, $K_{f(SA)}$ values are not equivalent for the different particles, nor is the $K_{f(SA)}$ magnitude consistent between Se complexes (Fig. 2C and D; Table 2). Therefore, SSA is not the primary determinant of Se sorption on α -Fe₂O₃, as is largely held in sorption literature [16] and some other sorbent descriptor is influencing the sorption

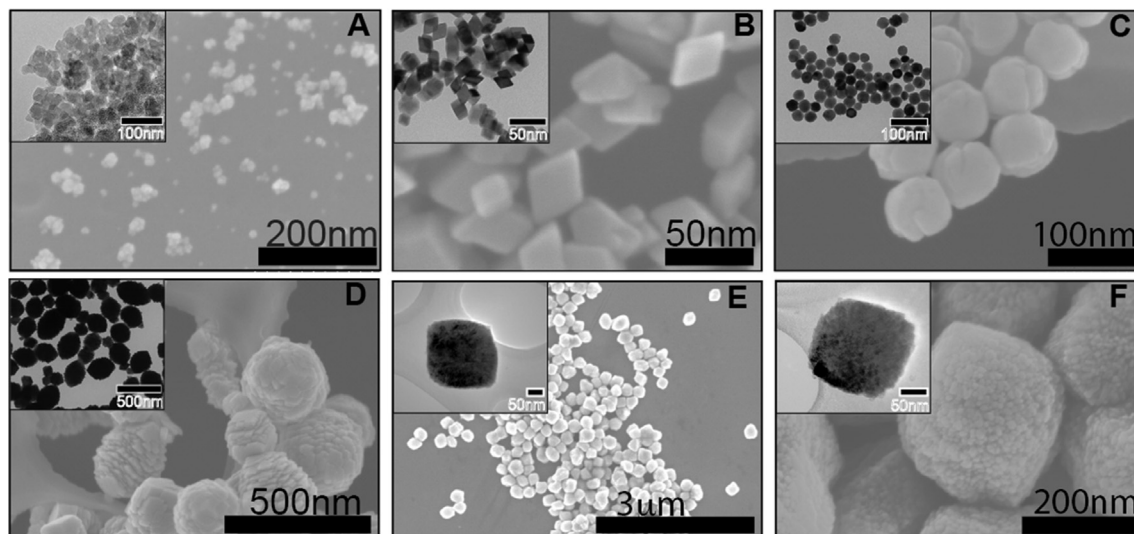


Fig. 1. SEM and TEM images. The particles are labeled A through F, smallest to largest respectively based on smallest measured dimension.

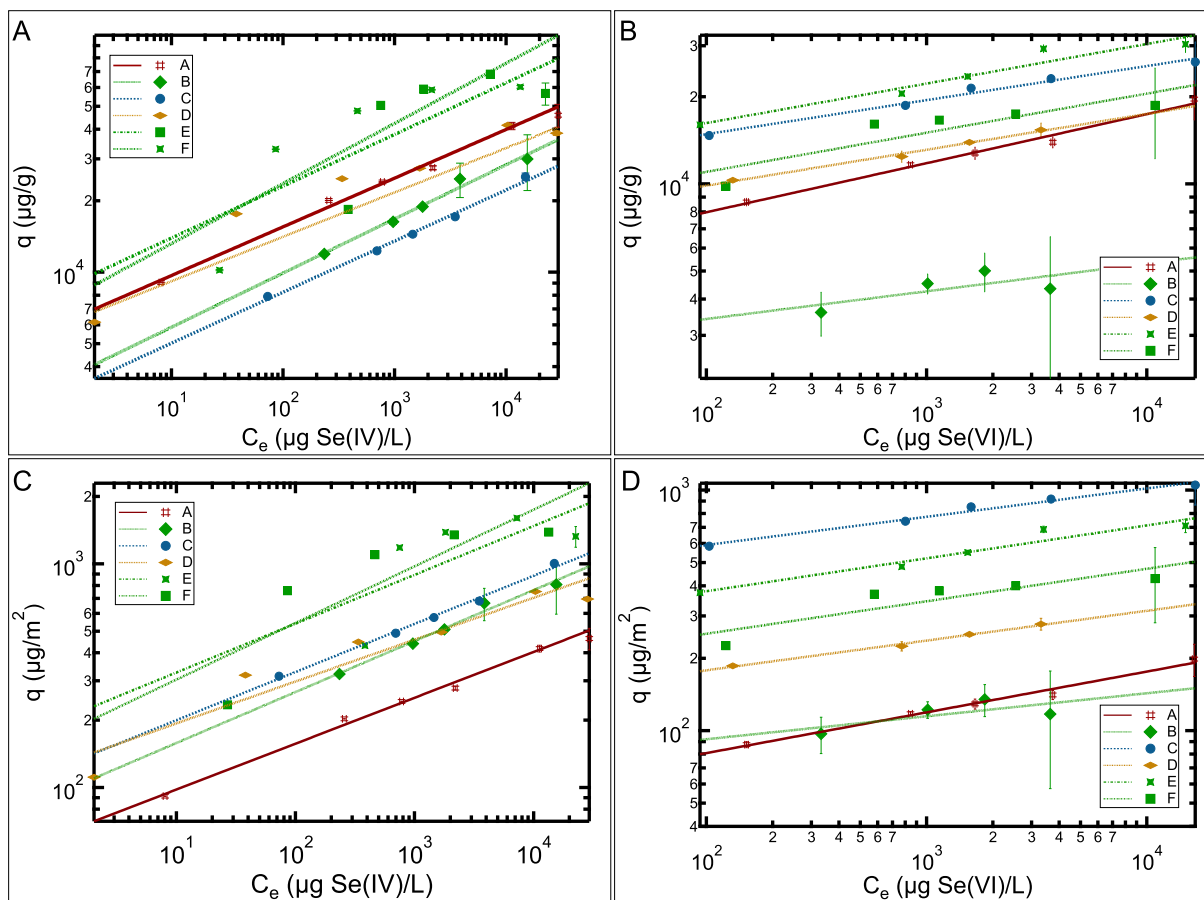


Fig. 2. Freundlich Isotherms. Freundlich isotherms represented on a log-log scale for adsorption of HSeO_3^- (A) and SeO_4^{2-} (B) mass normalized and HSeO_3^- (C) and SeO_4^{2-} (D) surface area normalized. All isotherms were conducted at $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $\text{pH} 3.5 \pm 0.1$, and $I = 0.01\text{ M KCl}$ for 24hrs. pH was adjusted after 12 h. Error is presented as standard error. Particles are listed in order of smallest to largest. Freundlich parameters are provided in Table 2. The colors are based on relative surface area with red as the largest and blue as the smallest. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 2
Freundlich isotherm fit parameters for Se(IV) and Se(VI) .

Iron particle	$K_{f(M)}$						$K_{f(SA)}$					
	HSeO_3^-			SeO_4^{2-}			HSeO_3^-			SeO_4^{2-}		
	K	1/n	r^2	K	1/n	r^2	K	1/n	r^2	K	1/n	r^2
A	6000 ± 1	0.20 ± 0.01	0.99	3700 ± 1	0.17 ± 0.01	0.99	61 ± 1	0.19 ± 0.01	0.99	37 ± 1	0.17 ± 0.01	0.986
B	3500 ± 1	0.23 ± 0.02	0.98	2200 ± 2	0.10 ± 0.07	0.5	94 ± 1	0.22 ± 0.02	0.98	59 ± 34	0.08 ± 0.07	0.495
C	3100 ± 1	0.22 ± 0.01	0.99	8600 ± 1	0.12 ± 0.01	0.98	120 ± 1	0.22 ± 0.01	0.99	340 ± 1	0.12 ± 0.01	0.984
D	7000 ± 1	0.19 ± 0.03	0.92	5600 ± 1	0.12 ± 0.01	0.99	130 ± 1	0.19 ± 0.03	0.92	100 ± 1	0.12 ± 0.01	0.992
E	8400 ± 3	0.22 ± 0.10	0.47	8600 ± 1	0.14 ± 0.02	0.94	200 ± 3	0.22 ± 0.10	0.47	200 ± 1	0.14 ± 0.02	0.938
F	7400 ± 2	0.25 ± 0.09	0.72	5900 ± 1	0.13 ± 0.04	0.78	170 ± 2	0.25 ± 0.09	0.72	140 ± 1	0.13 ± 0.04	0.777

K describes adsorption capacity of the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, 1/n is directly related to the mean site energy and the energy of adsorption, r^2 is the statistical goodness of fit parameter of the log-log linearized Freundlich isotherm and the corresponding data. A description of the Freundlich modeling is provided in the SI.

capacity of the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$. Specifically, the surfaces of the different particles must contain different number of available adsorption sites and/or binding energies to manifest variable $K_{f(SA)}$ between particles of the same underlying chemical composition.

3.3. Mechanisms of Se adsorption onto $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ from EXAFS and in-situ ATR-FTIR

Adsorption behavior is defined by both the adsorption capacities as well as by the mechanism through which adsorption occurs. EXAFS and in-situ ATR-FTIR spectroscopy were used to probe the surfaces of the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ with adsorbed HSeO_3^- and SeO_4^{2-} (Figs. 3

and 4) to inform how the different particles impacted Se adsorption mechanisms. While there have been several spectroscopic studies of selenite oxyanion onto iron and aluminum (hydr)oxides, this is the first to assess how different morphologies impact the binding environment [42,56–58]. The Fourier transformed EXAFS spectra demonstrate an Se–O scattering path with a coordination number of three and radial distance around 1.69 Å and a second shell for the Se–Fe scattering with a coordination number of two and a radial distance around 3.04 Å. These fit parameters (Fig. 3a, Table S3) indicate that HSeO_3^- forms inner-sphere bidentate binuclear corner sharing complexes with $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, in agreement with previous findings for selenite complexes on iron oxides [58–60].

The Fourier transformed data exhibits a shoulder in the second shell at a radial distance (R) of ~ 2.57 Å; Manceau et al. attributed a similar shoulder in their Fourier transformed spectra for selenite adsorbed onto the amorphous hydrous ferric oxide (HFO) at $R \cong 2.60$ Å (without phase correction) to a percentage of edge sharing bidentate mononuclear complexes [58]. The variance in the radial distances between this work and that of Manceau et al., may be attributed to the different crystal structure packing of α -Fe₂O₃ compared to HFO [58]. The relative size of this shoulder is dependent on the proportion of available edge versus corner sharing sites on the iron oxide surface. This proportion is directly related to the surface structure of the particle and the associated bonding sites [58]. Therefore, the variation in the shoulder formation in our EXAFS data between the particles can be attributed to a difference in the relative number of the two unique bonding sites (edge vs corner) on the surface of the different particles (A–F).

Conversely, SeO₄^{2−} sorption onto α -Fe₂O₃ appears to be dominated by *outer-sphere* complexes (Fig. 3b) with a minor contribution from inner-sphere complexation. Se–O scattering fit with a coordination of four oxygens with $R = 1.65$ Å and the appearance of a small second shell fit with a coordination of two near $R = 3.37$ – 3.39 Å for the Se–Fe scattering path. (The only exception is for particle A, which shows no evidence of a second shell). With these distances, one can assume an inner-sphere bidentate complex [22]. The slight variation in R as compared to other literature reports can be attributed to the use of nanomaterials rather than bulk material, or to the shift from goethite to hematite [59]. The EXAFS results are consistent with previous reports of combined inner-sphere and outer-sphere complexes associated with selenate adsorption on iron oxides [19,56,61]. There is, however, a slight discrepancy between this data and that previously reported for SeO₄^{2−} oxyanion adsorption onto α -Fe₂O₃ and other iron oxy (hydr-) oxides, by others [58,59,61]. For example, Peak and Sparks

reported primarily inner-sphere complexation on α -Fe₂O₃ by SeO₄^{2−} at pH 3.5 [59]; however, this is attributed to their use of a higher background ionic strength, since the relative percentage of inner-sphere complexes increases with ionic strength. As is seen below, this discrepancy may also be associated with the structures of the α -Fe₂O₃ studied.

ATR-FTIR was used to more effectively explore the relationship between inner and outer-sphere complexes of SeO₄^{2−}. The ATR-FTIR sorption data for each of the particles is presented in the SI (Fig. S7). Free SeO₄^{2−} has tetrahedral symmetry (T_d) with a single peak at 872 cm^{-1} with a triply degenerate stretch at Se–O (ν_3) [19]. When SeO₄^{2−} complexes, it results in the splitting of this asymmetric ν_3 stretch into two or three peaks for non-protonated mono- or bidentate complexes respectively [19]. For a mono-dentate complex, T_d becomes C_{3v} with ν_3 splitting into two peaks located at ca. 880 cm^{-1} and 850 cm^{-1} and a ν_1 stretch at 820 cm^{-1} [59]. This data demonstrated peak splits at $\sim 879\text{ cm}^{-1}$, 844 cm^{-1} and 825 cm^{-1} . Additionally, there is evidence of the outer-sphere stretch at 872 cm^{-1} . This is in agreement with what has been previously published and suggestive of a combination of inner- and outer-sphere complexes [19,59]. Johnston et al. demonstrates data similar to the ATR-FTIR results presented here (Figs. S7 and S8) [61]; however, it appears that Johnston's [62] fourth peak at 910 cm^{-1} starts to dissipate with decreasing pH suggesting a protonated or strongly coordinated H-bonded monodentate system [61,63]. Therefore, based upon their peak assignment, it is expected that the 910 cm^{-1} Se–O vibration would be absent at the pH of our measurements.

A multivariate curve regression (MCR) analysis was completed and is presented here to better describe the inner and outer-sphere relationships. According to the MCR analysis (Fig. 4), all of the α -Fe₂O₃ particles demonstrate two components, indicating the presence of both inner-sphere and outer-sphere complexes as identified by the location and shape of the primary spectra (Fig. S7). Particles A, B, C, E, & F (Fig. 4A, B, C, E, & F) are primarily

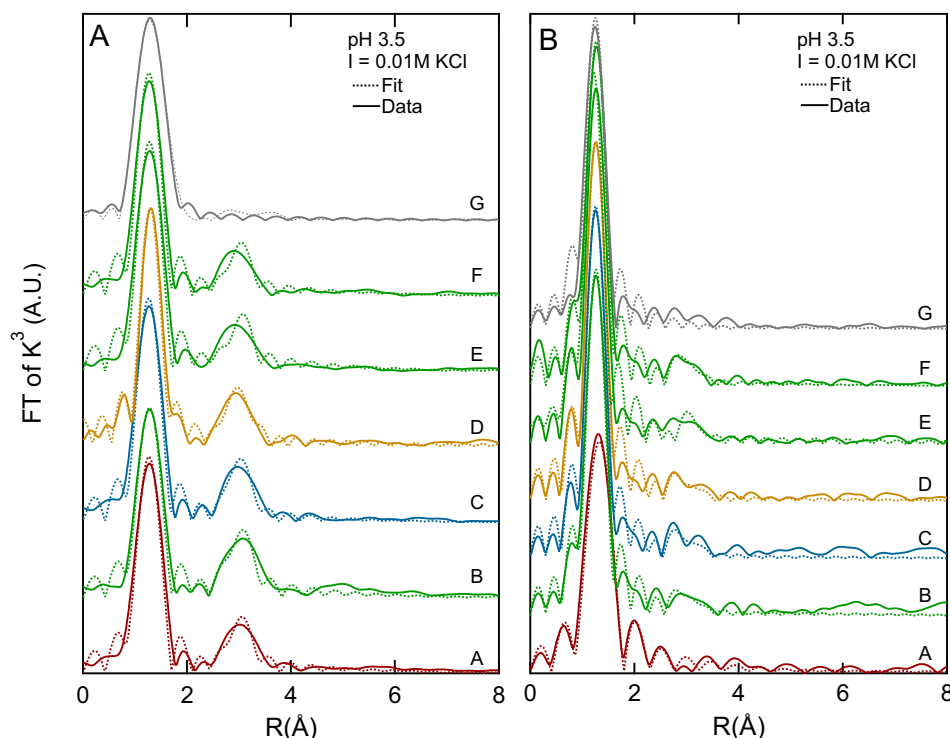


Fig. 3. Se K-edge EXAFS. Se edge EXAFS of HSeO₃[−] (A) and SeO₄^{2−} (B) bound onto the different synthesized hematite nanoparticles. HSeO₃[−] is bound primarily via inner-sphere bidentate binuclear complexes, whereas SeO₄^{2−} forms primarily outer-sphere complexes with some evidence of inner-sphere complexation. The modeled data is represented by the dotted line whereas the processed EXAFS data. Colors indicate relative surface area with red as the largest and blue as the smallest. Grey spectra are the corresponding reference spectra. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

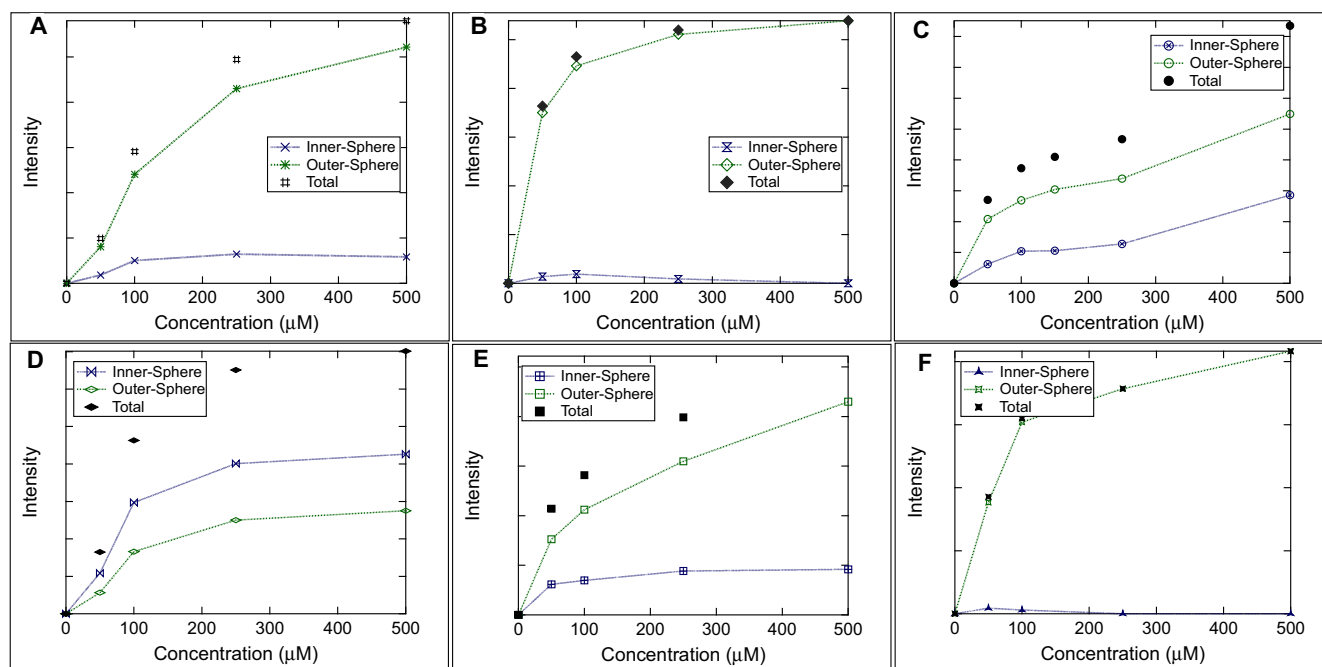


Fig. 4. Multicomponent regression (MCR) analysis of *in-situ* ATR-FTIR from SeO_4^{2-} bound to nano-hematite. The MCR analysis suggests that the percentage of inner-sphere complex of SeO_4^{2-} with hematite nano-particles changes with Se concentration and with the different particle types.

outer-sphere complexes with a smaller percentage of inner-sphere formation across the concentration range. Particle D (Fig. 4D) has more inner-sphere complexes than outer-sphere across the concentration range. While this is not associated with higher K_f (regardless of normalization), it has implications for sorption mechanism. More generally, a combination of inner and outer-sphere complexes appears to offer the highest K_f values for SeO_4^{2-} . This relationship implies that some intrinsic property of HSeO_3^- and the SeO_4^{2-} in relation to $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ creates preferences for not only inner-sphere and outer-sphere complexes, respectively, but also the type of inner-sphere complexes that are formed.

In general, the proportion of outer-sphere complexes increases with increasing SeO_4^{2-} concentration, suggesting that sites available for the energetically more favorable inner-sphere complexes reach a saturation point after which, only outer-sphere complex sites are available. As mentioned previously, while other reports have found that SeO_4^{2-} forms a combination of inner- and outer-sphere complexes with iron oxides [19,56,61], the proportion of complex type was attributed to system pH, background salt concentrations [56],

and iron structure [19,61]. In fact, while Peak and Sparks observed an effect on adsorption mechanism with SO_4^{2-} onto goethite [64], they found no evidence of Se loading impacting adsorption mechanism onto goethite [59]. Therefore, this is the first evidence that Se loading also impacts the bonding environment.

4. Discussion

The data suggests that SSA and size alone do not determine $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ sorption capacity of Se oxyanions; therefore, multivariate regression analyses were conducted to elucidate which $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ characteristics are significant determinants of Se oxyanion sorption capacity. This approach is similar to that used for small organic sorbents, but in this instance, sorbent descriptors are utilized rather than the molecular sorbate descriptors previously reported [51]. Additionally, data is tabulated to explicate relationships between bonding environment and facet.

The statistical findings (Table 3) demonstrate the importance of crystal surface structure in adsorption of Se onto $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ in

Table 3
Multilinear Regression analysis relating $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ characteristics to Se adsorption.

Variable ^a	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	SE ^b	B	SE ^b	B	SE ^b	B	SE ^b
<i>HSeO₃</i>								
SSA	−0.661***	0.100***	−1.55***	0.078***	–	–	0.793***	0.085***
SD	–	–	0.483***	0.020***	–	–	–	–
Facet	–	–	–	–	−0.526***	0.021***	−0.678***	0.318***
Constant	13.1***	0.388***	14.1***	0.269***	10.8***	0.016***	7.87***	0.318***
R ^{2c}	0.0762		0.5667		0.5477		0.6129	
<i>SeO₄^{2−}</i>								
SSA	0.253	0.146	−1.29***	0.077***	–	–	2.86***	0.0647***
SD	–	–	0.852***	0.020***	–	–	–	–
Facet	–	–	–	–	−0.666***	0.032***	−1.22***	0.019***
Constant	8.77***	0.565***	10.6***	0.268***	10.1***	0.024***	−0.620*	0.243*
R ^{2c}	0.0039		0.7822		0.4476		0.8804	

^a $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ characteristics were treated as either continuous variables that are natural log transformed or as categorical variables and are further discussion in the SI.

^b B and SE comprise the β values in Eq. (1).

^c Adjusted R²-value is presented *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.

general and also for each Se species individually. When describing adsorption of either HSeO_3^- and SeO_4^{2-} , the explanation of the variance (R^2) increases when facet is included in the analysis over inclusion of only size or SSA (Table 3). The analysis shows HSeO_3^- adsorption capacity is higher when there is less {1 1 0} over {0 1 2} frontier surface. Additionally, based on the facet β coefficient, for the same increase in amount of {1 1 0} surface there is a greater decrease in SeO_4^{2-} adsorption capacity than in HSeO_3^- sorption capacity. These results agree with previous findings from studies on oxyanion adsorption onto $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ [24,65]. Sugimoto and Wang [65] attribute increased adsorption of SO_4^{2-} (similar in structure to SeO_4^{2-}) onto $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ to the presence of the more reactive {0 1 2} facets [65]. Further, Huang et al. [24] conclude that the formation of bidentate binuclear complexes of HCrO_4^- onto the {1 1 0} facet of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, the same complexation type indicated by the above spectroscopy for HSeO_3^- , led to preferential adsorption over the {0 0 1} facet. The regression analysis results support the hypothesis that crystal surface structure of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ is a more significant contributor to adsorption capacity than particle size or surface area. This further confirms Torrent et al.'s [17] conclusions where the authors attribute enhanced adsorption capacity of phosphate onto goethite surfaces, to the different exposed facets [17]. Although the preferred facets are different between this study and that one differ, this is likely due to the different sorbate/sorbent systems examined in each study.

The presence of an edge sharing complex over a corner sharing complex presents itself in the raw EXAFS data (Fig. 3) as a shorter radial distance of the second shell. As mentioned previously, the relative size of this shoulder depends on the proportion of one complex over the other. Therefore, the intensity of each radial distance of the second shell was used to compare frontier facet with HSeO_3^- inner-sphere complexation type (Table 4). The resulting data strongly indicates more corner sharing (binuclear) complexes (longer bond distances) on the {1 1 0} facet and more edge sharing (mononuclear) complexes (shorter bond distances) on the {0 1 2} facet (Fig. 5), in agreement with Huang et al. and Catalano et al. [24,42]. These findings also support Catalano et al.'s [42] thesis that HSeO_3^- binds with the singly coordinated oxygen groups since the {0 1 2} and {1 1 0} facets of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ has a greater density of singly and triply coordinated surface sites as compared to other facets, in agreement with Hiemstra et al. [40,41]. The results also suggest increased adsorption of inner-sphere complexing oxyanions on facets where there is the formation of monodentate binuclear complexes. The results further suggest, based on Huang et al.'s [24] findings, that binuclear complexes may results in greater adsorption capacity than mononuclear complexes. This analysis demonstrates how the presence of different proportions of surface sites can impact adsorption behavior despite similarities in surface area [19], since different facets have different proportions of available surface sites, as was suggested by Lounsbury et al. previously

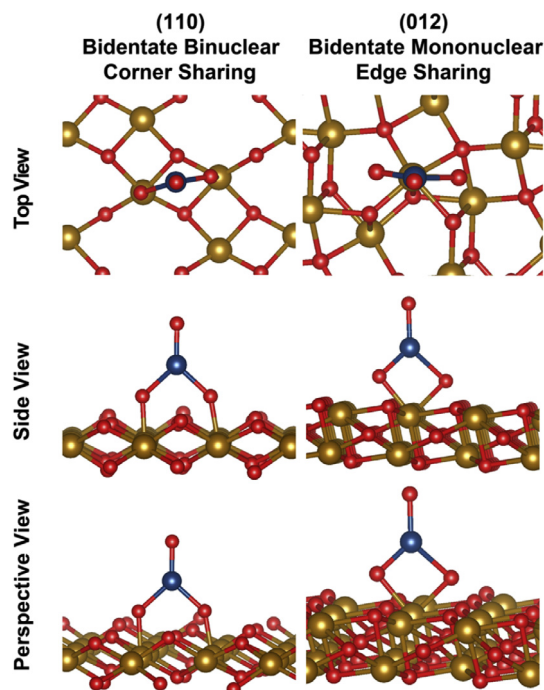


Fig. 5. Inner-sphere Bonding of Selenium on Hematite Facets Schematic. HSeO_3^- forms bidentate binuclear corner sharing complexes on the {1 1 0} facet of nano-hematite and bidentate mononuclear edge sharing complexes with the {0 1 2} facet of nano-hematite (B).

[19,33]. The presence of these surface sites thus dictate bonding behavior. Overall, these results further support the premise that adsorption mechanism is dependent on nanomaterial surface structure in addition to surface area or size.

5. Conclusion

This is the first study to assess how $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ morphology effects adsorption behavior of Se, and the first that examines morphology in combination with size and surface area for nano-adsorbents. Comprehensive analysis of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ particles and Se adsorption behavior onto the particles demonstrates the importance of crystal morphology on adsorption capacity and adsorption mechanism. Specifically, the data indicates that {0 1 2} facets promote adsorption of SeO_4^{2-} and HSeO_3^- over {1 1 0} facets with absence of the {1 1 0} facet having a greater effect on SeO_4^{2-} adsorption than that of HSeO_3^- . {1 1 0} and {0 1 2} facets bind HSeO_3^- via inner-sphere complexes, albeit {1 1 0} binds bidentate binuclear complexes, while {0 1 2} binds via bidentate mononuclear complexes. SeO_4^{2-} binds to nano-hematite primarily

Table 4
Tabulated data comparing $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ facets to bonding behavior of HSeO_3^- .

Facet	Radial distance relative intensity							
	Corner sharing				edge sharing			
	Less		More		Less		More	
	1 ^a	2 ^a	3 ^a	4 ^a	1 ^a	2 ^a	3 ^a	4 ^a
{0 1 2}	X ^b	X ^b	0	0	0	0	X ^b	X ^b
{1 1 0}	0	0	X ^b	X ^b	X ^b	X ^b	0	0

^a Place holders for the radial distance value from the EXAFS data, 1 corresponds to the shortest radial distance and corner sharing complexes whereas 4 corresponds to the longest radial distance and edge sharing complexes.

^b X is used to show that the {0 1 2} facet has shorter radial distances that correspond to corner sharing complexes whereas the {1 1 0} facet has longer radial distances that correspond to edge sharing complexes.

through outer-sphere complexes with some proportion of inner-sphere complex dependent on the specific facet. The findings of this study support the hypothesis that adsorption capacity and mechanism of α -Fe₂O₃, and likely nano-metal oxides more generally, are contingent upon and determined by the individual facets and further contingent on surface sites since different facets have different proportions of available surface sites [33]. These results are in agreement with literature examining similar adsorbate systems [17,24,42,65]. Overall, these results offer additional design targets, under the SPF-SPH framework, for future synthesis of more efficient and effective nano adsorbents, especially in environmentally relevant systems and further have implications in designing adsorbents tuned for specific environments, such as creation of a more selective adsorbents. These results encourage adsorption research to focus on surface crystallography, an understudied aspect of nanosorbent processes, which may help to explain reported disparities in adsorption behavior observed for the same combinations of sorbate-nanosorbent systems.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcis.2018.11.018>.

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