

1 Title page

2 **Effect of colloidal particle size on physicochemical properties**
3 **and aggregation behaviors of two alkaline soils**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Colloidal particles are the most active soil components, and they vary in elemental
22 composition and environmental behaviors with the particle size due to the heterogenous
23 nature of natural soils. The purposes of the present study are to clarify how particle size
24 affects the physiochemical properties and aggregation kinetics of soil colloids, and to
25 further reveal the underlying mechanisms. Soil colloidal fractions, from two alkaline
26 soils—Anthrosol and Calcisol were subdivided into three ranges: $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$
27 and $d < 100 \text{ nm}$. The organic and inorganic carbon contents, clay mineralogy, surface
28 electrochemical properties, including surface functional groups and zeta potentials,
29 were characterized. Through time-resolved light scattering technique, the aggregation
30 kinetics of soil colloidal fractions were investigated, and their critical coagulation
31 concentrations (CCCs) were determined. With decreasing colloidal particle diameter,
32 the total carbon content, organic carbon, organic functional groups content and illite
33 content all increased. The zeta potential became less negative and the charge variability
34 decreased with decreasing particle diameter. The CCC values of Anthrosol and Calcisol
35 colloids followed the descending order of $d < 100 \text{ nm}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$. Compared
36 with the coarse fractions ($d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$), soil nanoparticles were more abundant
37 in organic carbon and more stable clay minerals ($d < 100 \text{ nm}$), thus they exhibited
38 strongest colloidal suspension stability. The differences in organic matter contents and
39 clay mineralogy are the fundamental reasons for the differences in colloidal suspension
40 stability behind the size effects of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids. The present study
41 revealed the size effects of two alkaline soil colloids on carbon content, clay minerals,

42 surface properties and suspension stability, emphasizing that soil nanoparticles are
43 prone to be more stably dispersed instead of being aggregated. These findings can
44 provide references for in-depth understanding of the environmental behaviors of the
45 heterogeneous soil organic-mineral complexes.

46 **Keywords:** Nanoparticles; Clay mineral composition; zeta potential; Critical
47 coagulation concentration

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Soils contain a series of solid particles in continuous sizes, ranging over six orders of
50 magnitude from nanometers to millimeters (Lead and Wilkinson, 2006; Li et al., 2011),
51 among which soil colloids are the most reactive fractions. Soil colloids are
52 characterized by high surface area and abundant surface charges, exhibiting high
53 potential for carbon sequestration and strong adsorption capacity, which can largely
54 determine the fate and transport of pathogens, nutrients, heavy metals and organic
55 pollutants, and might cause environmental problems to adjacent water bodies or
56 groundwater (Baalousha et al., 2009; Calabi-Floody et al., 2011). Due to their high
57 reactivity and fluidity in aqueous environment, soil colloids play an important role in
58 physical, chemical and biogeochemical processes in natural environment (Schäfer et al.,
59 2012; Mayordomo et al., 2016). The capacity of soil colloids in mobilizing bound
60 nutrients and pollutants is closely related to their dispersion stability under various
61 environmental conditions (Won and Burns, 2018). Therefore, studies on the dispersion
62 stability of soil colloids have attracted extensive attention.

63 Currently, the definition of soil and environmental colloidal fractions is ambiguous.
64 Soil colloidal fractions are defined as soil particles in diameter of $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ (Lead and
65 Wilkinson, 2006; Weil and Brady, 2016), and also being of $< 2 \mu\text{m}$ (Zhang et al., 2021);
66 while in some extreme cases, they can refer to the particles in diameter of 5–10 μm (Yin
67 et al., 2010). Such discrepancies are seen among publications due to the fact that
68 colloids are defined based on the particle diameter range within which they can display
69 colloidal properties. Since for different materials, e.g., metal (Fe/Al/Ti) oxides, silica

70 gel, phyllosilicates, the specific colloidal range differs greatly.

71 Compared with engineered nanoparticles with known mineralogical organization,
72 natural soils are much more heterogeneous (Cárdenas et al., 2010); their elemental
73 composition and clay mineralogy of soil colloids change with particle size. Tsao et al.,
74 (2013) found that quartz and feldspar were mainly dominant in colloidal particles of <
75 2 μm and 450–2000 nm in red soil (Ferralsols, WRB, IUSS Working Group WRB.
76 2022), while illite and montmorillonite were the main clay minerals in nanoparticles
77 (1–100 nm). In addition, the mineral structure at nanometer scale also changes.
78 Compared with colloidal particles of < 2 μm , the Si/Al ratio in nanoparticles increased,
79 and the surface area, morphology, crystallinity, surface atomic structure and frame
80 structure were significantly different (Tsao et al., 2011). Furthermore, particle size also
81 affects the surface potential of soil colloids. Tang et al., (2015) investigated the surface
82 potential variations with particle size (1–10 μm , 0.5–1 μm , 0.2–0.5 μm , < 0.2 μm) for
83 variably-charged yellow soil (Lixisols) and permanently-charged purple soil
84 (Leptosols); among the colloidal fractions, the absolute surface potential of the finest
85 particles of purple soil (Leptosols) was lowest while that of the yellow soil (Lixisols)
86 was the largest, caused by the differences in surface charge density. Thus, the influences
87 of particle size on elemental composition and surface properties of soils should be
88 further studied.

89 In recent years, great progress has been made in the study of dispersion stability
90 of soil clay minerals, such as montmorillonite, kaolinite, illite or hematite, and soil
91 nanoparticles (Xu et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2014). He

92 et al., (2008) demonstrated that hematite nanoparticles with various particle diameters
93 showed different surface properties and aggregation behaviors under the same pH
94 conditions; moreover, the critical coagulation concentrations (CCCs) of hematite
95 decreased with the decrease of particle diameter. Zhou et al., (2013) compared the
96 CCCs of ten different TiO₂ nanoparticles with varying sizes and indicated that crystal
97 structure and particle diameter both affected the aggregation behaviors of TiO₂. Zhang
98 et al. (2016) confirmed that the types of clay minerals for two Alfisols changed from
99 smectite and vermiculite to kaolinite and illite when the particle size varied from
100 colloids to nanoparticles. Therefore, the dependence of physiochemical properties,
101 surface properties and environmental behaviors on particle size for heterogeneous soil
102 colloidal particles needs systematic investigation.

103 In the present study, soil colloidal particles of two alkaline soils—Anthrosol sand
104 Calcisols were subdivided into three ranges: $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 100 \text{ nm}$. Their
105 organic fraction and clay mineralogy, surface electrochemical properties and colloidal
106 stability were studied. This study selected two representative calcareous soils to verify
107 the following scientific hypothesis: soil colloids are organic-inorganic composites. As
108 particle diameter decreases (from colloid particles to nanoparticles), the number of
109 organic functional groups on the surface of soil colloids increases, and the type of clay
110 minerals shifts towards finer clay particles, e.g. illite, resulting in increased specific
111 surface area and decreased charge density, and thus enhanced suspension stability,
112 meaning particle diameter influences the composition of soil colloidal fractions,
113 thereby changing surface properties and suspension stability. The findings can have

114 important implications for predicting the environmental performances of colloids and
115 colloid-facilitated nutrients, pollutants and pathogens in natural soil and water
116 environment.

117 **2. Materials and methods**

118 **2.1 Soil sampling**

119 The study collected two surface soil samples (0–20 cm), Lou soil and Cinnamon
120 soil, being the most common and characteristic calcareous soils, by mixing soils from
121 5–10 sampling points using a stainless-steel auger at Yangling District (38°18'14" N
122 and 108°2'30" E), and Zhouzhi Country (34°8'8" N and 108°3'10" E), on the
123 Guanzhong Plain, Shaanxi province, northwest China, respectively. Among these, Lou
124 soil, as a unique calcareous soil, have formed on the basis of cinnamon soil through
125 long-term anthropogenic maturation. According to World Reference Base for Soil
126 Resources (WRB, IUSS Working Group WRB. 2022), the Lou soil and Cinnamon soil
127 are classified as Hortic Endoanthric Anthrosols (Loamic, Luvic, Eutric, Calcic) and
128 Calcic Protocalcic Calcisols (Loamic, Lixic, Humic), respectively. Both types of soil
129 developed from loess parent material. The typical soil profile configuration for the
130 tested Anthrosols is Ap1-Ap2-Bt-Bk-C, while for the Calcisols, it is Ah-Bt-Bk-C.

131 Soils samples were taken back to the laboratory for air-drying and sieving. The
132 basic soil properties were determined based on standard methods. Soil pH was
133 measured with a pH electrode, employing a solution-to-soil ratio of 2.5:1. Soil organic
134 carbon (SOC) was determined using the $K_2Cr_2O_7$ oxidation method. The cation
135 exchange capacity (CEC) of soil was measured with exchange method. The $CaCO_3$

136 content was determined by gasometric method. The free Fe/Al oxides were extracted
137 by dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate (DCB) solution. The particle size distribution was
138 measured using the laser diffractometer of Malvern Mastersizer 2000 (Malvern
139 Instruments Ltd., UK). The pH of Anthrosols was 8.34 while it was 8.32 for Calcisols.
140 The SOC of Anthrosols and Calcisols were $7.25 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $9.22 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, respectively.
141 The CEC of Anthrosols and Calcisols were $25.9 \text{ cmol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $22.2 \text{ cmol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$. The
142 contents of CaCO_3 in Anthrosols and Calcisols were $51.7 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $82.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$. The
143 Free Fe/Al oxides content of Anthrosols and Calcisols were $22.8 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $23.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$.
144 The proportions of Sand (2–0.02 mm), Silt (0.02–0.002 mm) and Clay (<0.002 mm) in
145 Anthrosols were 34.0%, 40.6% and 25.4% while those were 28.0%, 44.8% and 27.2%
146 for the Calcisols.

147 **2.2 Extraction of soil colloidal fractions in different size ranges**

148 The soil colloidal particles were extracted based on the Stokes' law, and detailed
149 procedures can be found in our previous publication (Hu et al., 2022). Briefly, 50 g of
150 dry soil was weighed into a beaker containing 500 mL of distilled water, and put the
151 suspension under sonication for an hour using the ultrasonic cell disrupter (XO-900D,
152 Nanjing Xianou Instruments Corporation, China) while maintaining the temperature
153 below 30°C . Afterwards, the suspension was transferred to a larger beaker and distilled
154 water was added to make up the total volume of 5 L. The suspension was further
155 dispersed using an electronic blade stirrer (JB-200, Shanghai Nanhui Huiming
156 Apparatus, China) for one hour, before being sieved through sieve with a pore size of
157 $53 \mu\text{m}$, and the upper suspensions containing soil colloidal particles in different

158 diameters were collected by centrifugation. Based on the equation (1), centrifugation
159 speed and time for colloidal particles of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ were calculated
160 and shown in Table S1.

$$t = \frac{\eta \lg \frac{R_2}{R_1}}{3.81N^2 r^2 \Delta d} \quad (1)$$

162 in which, t is time for centrifugation (s); R_1 is the distance from the surface of the liquid
163 to the center of the axis of the centrifuge, here is 5.7 cm; R_2 is distance from the particles
164 to the center of the axis of the centrifuge, here is 10.5 cm; N ($\text{rev} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) is the centrifuge
165 speed; r (cm) is the desired colloidal particle radius; Δd is the difference in density
166 between the soil particles ($2.65 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$) and water ($1 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$), while Δd is $1.65 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$;
167 η is the water viscosity coefficient, here is $0.00839 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ at $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.

168 **2.3 Characterization of soil colloidal fractions in different size ranges**

169 The initial particle diameters of soil colloids were determined by a time-resolved
170 dynamic light scattering (DLS) apparatus (Nanobrook Omni, Brookhaven, USA), each
171 sample was measured 15 times to get the initial particle diameters. The organic carbon
172 contents in soil colloids were determined by potassium dichromate external heating
173 method and total carbon content was determined by elemental analyzer (Elementar
174 Vario EL III, Germany). Total carbon and organic carbon are the averaged results of 3
175 measurements each. The inorganic carbon content was calculated by subtraction
176 method (Wang et al., 2011). The clay mineralogy of soil colloids was determined by the
177 XRD (Ultima-IV, Rigaku, Japan), and by comparing the intensity of the dominant X-
178 ray diffraction peak of the soil mineral colloid to a standard mineral reference (Database

179 ICDD 2004), the relative percentage content of the minerals was determined. The
180 specific surface areas of the soil colloids were measured by BET-N₂ method (ASAP
181 2460, Micromeritics instrument, USA). High-resolution spectra of C1s and O1s of soil
182 colloids were acquired by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Thermo Scientific
183 K-Alpha, USA) (Luo et al., 2019), and the Gaussian–Lorentzian curve-fitting program
184 (XPSPEAK 4.1) was used to analyze the XPS spectra. The zeta potentials of soil
185 colloids were measured by Zeta PALS equipped with a BI-ZTU Autotitrator (ZetaPALS,
186 Brookhaven, USA) with 1 mmol·L⁻¹ NaCl solution as the background electrolyte, and
187 the pH range of colloidal suspension was set to 3–10 adjusted with 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ HCl
188 and NaOH. Each sample was measured six times to get the average zeta potential values.
189 The concentrations of K⁺, Na⁺, Ca²⁺, and Mg²⁺ in soil colloidal suspensions were
190 measured by flame atomic absorption spectrophotometry (PinAAciii 900F, USA).

191 **2.4 Aggregation kinetics of soil colloidal fractions**

192 The aggregation kinetic curves of soil colloidal particles in different electrolytes
193 were determined by time-resolved DLS measurements. The incident wavelength was
194 635 nm and the scattering angle was 90°. The stock colloidal suspensions with particle
195 concentration of 200 mg·L⁻¹ were mixed with electrolyte solutions with equal volume.
196 The suspension pH was adjusted to 8.0, which was close to the pH value of natural soil
197 with addition of 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ HCl or NaOH before measurement. The chosen electrolyte
198 concentrations for NaCl and CaCl₂ were 200–2000 and 2–20 mmol·L⁻¹. The effective
199 diameter (D_h) of the mixed sample was automatically recorded every 2 min, and an
200 aggregation kinetic curve was obtained in 30 min monitoring. According to generally

201 adopted by most research, the aggregation curve was determined only for one time
 202 without repetition (Chen and Elimelech, 2006; Mashayekhi et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2014;
 203 Liu et al., 2018).

204 **2.5 Calculation of critical coagulation concentration**

205 According to the particle interaction theory, the aggregation kinetic curves under
 206 electrolyte conditions can be divided into reaction-limited aggregation (RLA) stage
 207 under low concentration which was affected by electrolyte conditions and diffusion-
 208 limited aggregation (DLA) stage under high concentration which was not affected by
 209 electrolyte concentration. The CCC is the critical electrolyte concentration when the
 210 aggregation process changes from the RLA state ($\alpha < 1$) to the DLA state ($\alpha = 1$).
 211 Attachment efficiency (α) represents the bonding probability of particle collisions and
 212 can be calculated for each electrolyte concentration by using equation 2, which allowed
 213 the curve of α as a function of electrolyte concentration to be plotted (Xu et al., 2020a;
 214 Hu et al., 2022).

$$215 \quad \alpha_{\text{exp}} = \frac{1}{W} = \frac{k_{11}}{(k_{11})_{\text{fast}}} = \frac{\frac{1}{N_0} \left(\frac{da_h(t)}{dt} \right)_{t \rightarrow 0}}{\frac{1}{(N_0)_{\text{fast}}} \left(\frac{da_h(t)}{dt} \right)_{t \rightarrow 0, \text{fast}}} \quad (2)$$

216 where D_h is the effective diameter of particles, t is the time (min); N_0 is the density of
 217 particles; K_{11} is the aggregation rate of RLA; $(K_{11})_{\text{fast}}$ is the aggregation rate of DLA.
 218 The intersection of RLA regime and DLA regime is the CCC.

219 The aggregation rates were calculated by the average of the last 5 effective
 220 diameters divided by the aggregation time at specific electrolyte concentration. The

221 fractal dimension in the DLA regime was obtained based on the method proposed by
222 Wang et al. (2013).

$$223 \quad D(t) = b * t^n + D_0 \quad (3)$$

224 in which, $D(t)$ is the colloidal effective diameter at time t (min), D_0 is the initial effective
225 diameter of colloids, and b and n are constants determined by the aggregation curves.

226 The fractal dimension is $d_f = 1/n$ in the DLA regime.

227 **3. Results and discussion**

228 **3.1 Particle size and distribution characteristics of Anthrosol and Calcisol** 229 **colloidal fractions**

230 The average diameters of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids were measured by time-
231 resolved DLS, and the results were shown in Table 1. The number-weighted diameters
232 for Anthrosol colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$ were about 1.04 times of $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, and about 1.84
233 times of $d < 100 \text{ nm}$, respectively. The intensity-weighted diameters for Anthrosol
234 colloids were 294.10~396.81 nm. For Calcisol colloidal fractions, the number-weighted
235 diameters for colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$ were about 1.07 times of $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, and about 1.65
236 times of $d < 100 \text{ nm}$, and the intensity-weighted diameters were 312.25~439.20 nm.
237 The intensity-weighted diameters were generally higher than the number-weighted
238 diameters, especially in polydisperse system (Xu et al., 2020b). The colloidal particles
239 in the soil solution were in constant Brownian motion, upon illumination by light, these
240 colloidal particles scatter light, causing variations in light intensity. This phenomenon
241 allowed for the calculation of the effective diameter of the particles, which was the
242 intensity-weighted diameter (Filella et al., 1997). Given that particle diameter is

243 proportional to the sixth power of light intensity. Consequently, in polydisperse systems
244 where larger particles were present, the number-weighted diameter provided typically
245 a more accurate representation of the true diameter of colloidal particles (Xu et al.,
246 2015).

247 *(Insert Table 1 near here)*

248 From table 1, it can be seen that the average colloidal diameters of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$ were
249 close to that of $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, and they were both significantly higher than that of the nano-
250 sized fraction. From the particle size distribution characteristics, it is clear that the size
251 range indicated by the differences of D_{90} and D_{10} increased with intended particle
252 diameter. For Anthrosol and Calcisol, 74.69% and 63.55% of all particles contained in
253 the colloidal suspensions of $d < 100 \text{ nm}$ were actually less than 100 nm, respectively,
254 indicating the complexity of soil colloidal particle irregularity.

255 **3.2 Physiochemical properties and clay mineralogy of Anthrosol and Calcisol** 256 **colloids**

257 Table 2 shows the physiochemical properties of soil colloidal fractions. The yields
258 of each colloidal fraction of Anthrosol were slightly larger than that of Calcisol,
259 respectively. The yields of colloidal particles of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$ were about 1.3~1.4 times of
260 $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, and about 4.0~4.9 times of $d < 100 \text{ nm}$, respectively. With the decreasing
261 colloidal particle diameter, the total carbon content, organic carbon and inorganic
262 carbon content all increased, suggesting the finer particles were richer in carbon. This
263 tendency is in agreement with other publications (Zhang et al., 2021; Said-Pullicino et
264 al., 2021; Hu et al., 2022). The specific surface areas for colloidal fractions of $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$

265 were largest of all, which may be related to the structures of formed clusters while
266 drying the samples for observation under microscopy (Yu et al., 2017; Weissenberger
267 et al., 2021). Furthermore, Anthrosol and Calcisol nanoparticles exhibited the lowest
268 specific surface area. This phenomenon raised from Organic substances adsorb
269 relatively little inorganic nitrogen (Li et al., 2013; Wilson et al., 2008). Therefore,
270 However, to our knowledge, no other better method has been reported for measuring
271 the specific surface area of natural nanoparticles.

272 *(Insert Table 2 near here)*

273 The clay mineralogy of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloidal fractions is shown in
274 Table 3. Calcisol colloidal fractions were dominant by illite, kaolinite and chlorite while
275 there was less chlorite in Anthrosol colloidal fractions. With the decrease of particle
276 size, the content of illite increased and kaolinite content decreased. This tendency is in
277 agreement with other publications (Chenu and Plante, 2006; Zhang et al., 2016). Among
278 the dominant clay types, the size of illite is finer than kaolinite and chlorite (Weil and
279 Brady, 2016), so its mass percentage was higher in the nano-sized fraction.

280 *(Insert Table 3 near here)*

281 **3.3 Surface properties of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids**

282 The XPS spectra of soil colloidal fractions are shown in Fig. 1. From Fig. 1, it can
283 be seen that the main C-containing functional groups were C–C/C–H/C=C, C–O, C=O,
284 and COO- groups at 284.6, 286.2, 288.0 and 289.4 eV, respectively (Liang et al., 2020;
285 Ding et al., 2023). The functional groups for colloidal particles of $d < 100$ nm were
286 more abundant than those for colloids of $d < 2$ μm and $d < 1$ μm , while there were no

287 significant differences between colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$. With the decrease
288 of colloidal particle diameter, the relative contents of oxygen-containing functional
289 groups (C–O, C=O, COO-) gradually decreased. Specifically, the content decreased
290 gradually from 32.01% in Lou colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$ to 20.93% in Lou colloids of $d <$
291 100 nm (Table S2). The functional groups of C–O and COO- gradually decreased until
292 they eventually disappeared, more C=O groups were exposed to the surrounding air.

293 For Calcisol colloids (Fig. 1d, e, f), the relative contents of organic oxygen-
294 containing functional groups for colloidal particles of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 100$
295 nm showed a different trend, compared with that in Anthrosol colloids. The relative
296 contents of organic oxygen-containing functional groups gradually increased with the
297 decrease of diameter. This trend was particularly pronounced in fraction of $d < 100 \text{ nm}$,
298 and contents of C–O and COO- were highly increased (Table S2).

299 *(Insert Figure 1 near here)*

300 Oxygen-containing functional groups of C–O, C=O and COO- are electronegative
301 functional groups, hydroxyl and carboxyl groups can lose protons and make the surface
302 of soil colloidal particles carry negative charges (Audette et al., 2021). Functional
303 groups of C–O, C=O and COO- can affect the negative charges carried on the colloidal
304 surface by forming hydrogen bonds, and their polarity can also affect the negative
305 charges on the surface when O atom combines with C and H. The electrons will lean
306 towards the O atom with stronger electronegativity, which also makes the colloidal
307 surface carry negative charges (Tan et al., 2019). The contents and types of oxygen-
308 containing functional groups are one of the main factors affecting colloid charge and
309 aggregation.

310 The zeta potential values of different colloidal fractions at the pH range of 3–10

311 are shown in Fig. 2. Zeta potentials of the colloidal particles were negative, indicating
312 that they were negatively-charged. The zeta potentials of Anthrosol and Calcisol
313 colloidal particles were more negative with increasing solution pH, due to the
314 deprotonation of the surface (Moayedi and Kazemian, 2013; Dong et al., 2019).
315 Compared with the Calcisol colloids, the zeta potentials of Anthrosol colloidal particles
316 were more negative, due to Anthrosol possessed a higher surface charge density. For
317 Calcisol colloids, the differences among colloidal fractions were larger.

318 *(Insert Figure 2 near here)*

319 In general, zeta potential became more negative with increasing particle diameter.
320 When the pH changed from 3 to 10, for every pH unit increased, the zeta potential
321 values of Anthrosol colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ would be increased by
322 2.14 mV, 2.09 mV and 1.89 mV; and for Calcisol colloids, those variation rates were
323 2.15 mV, 1.45 mV and 1.37 mV, respectively. Those data demonstrate that the charge
324 variability decreasing with the decreasing particle diameter. Song et al., (2019)
325 compared the zeta potential of wheat straw biochar nanoparticles ($< 100 \text{ nm}$) and
326 colloidal particles ($< 1000 \text{ nm}$), and found that the absolute values of colloidal particles
327 were larger at same pH, which was explained by the differences in the number of
328 surface carboxyl and hydroxyl groups. The zeta potential of colloidal particles is
329 proportional to charge density, which means that it is related to both charge quantity
330 and specific surface area (Hou et al., 2009). Therefore, the size effect of zeta potential
331 of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloidal particles is mainly related to the reduction of charge
332 density caused by larger specific surface area of nanoparticles (Xu et al. 2020b).

333 **3.4 Aggregation kinetics curves of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids in NaCl and** 334 **CaCl₂ solutions**

335 The aggregation kinetics of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids in NaCl and CaCl₂
336 solutions are shown in Figs. S1 and S2. The aggregation process of soil colloids was
337 divided into RLA and DLA stages. The RLA stages for Anthrosol colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$,
338 $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 100 \text{ nm}$ in NaCl solution were 0–80, 0–80 and 0–100 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$,
339 respectively, during which repulsive forces existed between the particles and
340 attachment did not occur on every collision. As the electrolyte concentration continued
341 to increase, the solution entered into the DLA regime. At this point, attachment occurred
342 with every collision between particles, and the aggregation rates were not affected by
343 the electrolyte concentration. At last, the effective diameters of the formed clusters were
344 stable at around 1600 nm. Figure S1b, d and f showed that the aggregation behaviors
345 of Anthrosol colloids in CaCl₂ solution were similar to that in NaCl solution, and the
346 corresponding CaCl₂ concentrations for Anthrosol colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and
347 $d < 100 \text{ nm}$ in RLA stage were about 0–1.5, 0–1.5 and 0–2 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, respectively.

348 The aggregation kinetics of Calcisol colloids in NaCl and CaCl₂ solutions were
349 similar to Anthrosol colloids (Fig. S2). The RLA stages for Calcisol colloids of $d < 2$
350 μm , $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 100 \text{ nm}$ in NaCl solution were 0–100, 0–120 and 0–250 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$,
351 and were about 0–1.8, 0–1.7 and 0–2 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ in CaCl₂ solution, respectively. The
352 effective diameters of the clusters for Calcisol colloids were stabilized at about 1600
353 nm and 1800 nm in NaCl and CaCl₂ solutions, respectively.

354 Aggregation rates of soil colloids varied with particle diameters at the same

355 electrolyte concentration, which was particularly evident in RLA stage (Table 4). With
356 decreasing particle diameter, the aggregation rates of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids
357 in 50 mmol·L⁻¹ NaCl and 1 mmol·L⁻¹ CaCl₂ solutions exhibited a corresponding
358 decline. In addition, in 50 mmol·L⁻¹ NaCl solution, the aggregation rates for Anthrosol
359 colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 100 \text{ nm}$ were about 2.17, 2.09 and 1.95 times
360 those of Calcisol colloids, while the aggregation rates were about 1.46, 1.57 and 1.91
361 times those of Calcisol colloids in 1 mmol·L⁻¹ CaCl₂ solution, respectively. Therefore,
362 from table 4, the aggregation rates of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids showed the size
363 effect. From table 4, it could be observed that the fractal dimensions in NaCl solutions
364 were largely higher than those in CaCl₂ solutions, suggesting a much denser structure
365 (Meng et al., 2013). In other words, the formed structures in divalent solutions were
366 more open.

367 *(Insert Table 4 near here)*

368 **3.5 Suspension stability of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids in NaCl and CaCl₂** 369 **solutions**

370 The CCCs for Anthrosol colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 100 \text{ nm}$ in NaCl
371 solution were 80.40, 91.78 and 134.96 mmol·L⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 3a), and those for
372 Calcisol colloids were 121.10, 126.50 and 292.86 mmol·L⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 3b). The
373 CCCs increased with the decreasing particle diameter, indicating that the suspension
374 stability of soil nanoparticles was stronger than those of colloidal particles.

375 *(Insert Figure 3 near here)*

376 In CaCl₂ solutions, the CCCs for Anthrosol colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and d

377 < 100 nm were 1.61, 1.68 and 1.77 mmol·L⁻¹, respectively, and for Calcisol colloids,
378 those corresponding values were 1.90, 1.91 and 2.13 mmol·L⁻¹ (Fig. 4). The CCCs in
379 CaCl₂ solutions also increased with the decreasing particle size. The contents of K⁺,
380 Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ in Anthrosol and Calcisol colloidal suspensions decreased with the
381 decreasing colloidal particle diameter (Table S3), which was mainly due to the dilution
382 effect during the extraction process. Furthermore, Table S3 showed that the soluble
383 cation contents were rather low, and their effects on the CCCs of soil colloids could be
384 neglected.

385 *(Insert Figure 4 near here)*

386 Based on Figs. 3 and 4, 3 mmol·L⁻¹ CaCl₂ solution could cause fast aggregation
387 of soil colloidal particles, while it required at least 80 mmol·L⁻¹ NaCl solution for
388 comparable aggregation rate, indicating that the shielding effect of divalent cations on
389 negative charges of colloids was stronger than that of monovalent cations. The
390 quantitative calculation results showed that the CCC ratios of monovalent ion and
391 divalent ion system were between 25.64 and 27.09, which conformed to the Schulze-
392 Hardy rule (Baalousha, 2017).

393 For each type of the soil colloids, the higher the absolute zeta potential values of
394 colloidal particles, the more negative charges carried on the surface, and the higher the
395 stability (CCCs) of suspension. For the same particle diameter, e.g. $d < 100$ nm, the
396 absolute zeta potentials of Anthrosol colloids were larger (Fig. 2) while the
397 corresponding CCC was lower (Figs. 3 and 4). Study on the stability of biochar
398 nanoparticles showed that the absolute values of zeta potentials could not be used to

399 directly explain the stability difference among biochar nanoparticles from different
400 feedstock materials but could explain the influences of solution conditions on the
401 stability of biochar nanoparticles derived from the same feedstock material (Xu et al.,
402 2020a).

403 The CCCs of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids increased with decreasing diameter;
404 that is, the CCCs of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids both showed the size effects. Hsu
405 and Kuo (1995) demonstrated that the CCCs would generally decrease with the
406 increasing particle diameter because smaller particles possess thicker double electric
407 layers and higher electrolyte concentration is needed to neutralize charges on the
408 surface, which were consistent with the results of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids. The
409 above explanation by Hsu and Kuo (1995) was derived from homogenous particles
410 whose composition does not change with particle diameter. The results of this paper
411 show that, for those two alkaline soils being such heterogeneous materials, when the
412 organic matter contents and mineral types changed with colloidal particle diameter, the
413 CCCs in monovalent and divalent solutions also decreased with increasing particle
414 diameter.

415 In this paper, the organic matter contents of soil nanoparticles were the highest, so
416 the CCCs were the largest, which were 1.7 and 2.4 times of the corresponding colloidal
417 particles of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$. The suspension stability of different clay minerals has been
418 reported to vary with the mineralogical structure. The CCC of illite ($\approx 100 \text{ mM}$) in
419 NaCl solution was significantly higher than that of kaolinite ($\approx 20 \text{ mM}$) (Jiang et al.,
420 2012; Xu et al., 2017), indicating that the stability of illite suspensions is significantly

421 higher than that of kaolinite. So another possible reason for the higher stability of soil
422 nanoparticles is the increase of illite content and the decrease of kaolinite content.
423 Therefore, the differences in organic matter contents and clay mineralogy are the
424 fundamental reasons for the differences in colloidal suspension stability behind the size
425 effects of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids.

426 **4. Conclusion**

427 This study obtained soil colloidal fractions with three different particle sizes from
428 Anthrosol and Calcisol using high-speed centrifugation and revealed the particle size
429 effects on the soil constitutes, surface properties, and aggregation behavior of
430 heterogeneous soil colloids. The results showed that, compared to coarse colloids ($d <$
431 $2 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$), the organic carbon contents of Anthrosol and Calcisol
432 nanoparticles were higher, at $27.38 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $28.31 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, respectively,
433 approximately twice and three times that of the coarse colloids and the bulk soils,
434 indicating that nanoparticles exhibit a strong potential for carbon sequestration. The
435 absolute zeta potential values of soil nanoparticles decreased with decreasing average
436 particle diameter, indicating a reduction in charge density. Anthrosol and Calcisol
437 nanoparticles exhibited greater suspension stability in NaCl and CaCl₂ solutions. On
438 one hand, this was due to the increased thickness of the double electric layer on the
439 surface of soil nanoparticles, resulting in stronger repulsive forces between particles;
440 on the other hand, it was due to the presence of more illite, which has higher CCC
441 compared to other clay minerals. In conclusion, for such a highly heterogeneous system
442 as soil, the size effects on soil colloidal suspension stability are strongly influenced by

443 variations driven by essentially mineral composition. Future studies should further
444 explore the mechanisms underlying the size effects of the typical soils on particle
445 interactions, coagulation, and transport behaviors under environmentally relevant
446 conditions.

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451

452 **Author Contributions**

453 Conceptualization, Xu, C.Y., Geng, Z.C., and Hu, F.N.; methodology, Xu, C.Y.;
454 software, Yan, Y.Y.; formal analysis, Liu, J.J.; investigation, Zhang, X.R.; resources,
455 Yan, Y.Y.; writing—original draft, Yan, Y.Y.; writing—review and editing, Xu, C.Y.,
456 and Hu, F.N.; visualization, Xu, C.Y., and Yan, Y.Y.; funding acquisition, Xu, C.Y.,
457 Geng, Z.C. and Hu, F.N.. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of
458 the manuscript.

459

460 **Declaration of Interest Statement**

461 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
462 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

463

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610

611 **Table captions**

612 **Table 1** The average diameters and distribution patterns of soil colloids.

613 **Table 2** The physiochemical properties of soil colloids.

614 **Table 3** The dominant clay minerals of soil colloidal fractions (shown in mass
615 fraction, %).

616 **Table 4** The aggregation rates of soil colloids.

617

Table 1 The average diameters and distribution patterns of soil colloids

Soil type	Colloidal fractions	Number-weighted diameter (nm)	Intensity-weighted diameter (nm)	D ₁₀ (nm)	D ₉₀ (nm)
Anthrosol	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	133.16 ± 24.28	396.81 ± 12.34	71.53	232.49
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	127.84 ± 20.29	371.45 ± 11.88	67.64	219.87
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	72.47 ± 7.04	294.10 ± 15.80	38.74	136.72
Calcisol	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	141.23 ± 24.33	439.20 ± 12.72	78.29	244.97
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	131.67 ± 15.77	372.07 ± 8.23	75.84	231.64
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	85.48 ± 16.93	312.25 ± 33.58	47.84	158.99

619 Note: D₁₀, D₅₀ and D₉₀ represent diameter of particles with a cumulative distribution of 10%, 50% and
620 90%, respectively.

621

Table 2 The physiochemical properties of soil colloids

Soil type	Colloidal fractions	Yield (%)	Total carbon content (g·kg ⁻¹)	Organic carbon content (g·kg ⁻¹)	CaCO ₃ content (g·kg ⁻¹)	Specific surface area (m ² ·g ⁻¹)
Anthrosol	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	25.12	20.90 ± 0.30	10.90 ± 1.29	10.00	65.37
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	18.76	20.65 ± 0.15	10.91 ± 0.43	9.74	72.99
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	6.32	58.25 ± 0.35	27.38 ± 0.21	30.87	45.28
Calcisol	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	23.17	24.00 ± 0.30	11.66 ± 0.60	12.34	49.99
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	16.20	22.30 ± 0.20	12.76 ± 0.11	9.54	61.88
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	4.70	76.30 ± 0.40	28.31 ± 0.15	47.99	34.53

Table 3 The dominant clay minerals of soil colloidal fractions (shown in mass fraction, %)

Soil type	Colloidal fractions	Illite	Kaolinite	Chlorite	Vermiculite
Anthrosol	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	34	23	4	9
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	30	22	7	11
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	37	14	16	3
Calcisol	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	24	22	29	16
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	31	19	25	12
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	37	16	17	5

Table 4 The aggregation rates of soil colloids

Soil type	Colloidal fractions	Aggregation rate		Fractal dimension	
		In 50 mmol·L ⁻¹ NaCl (nm·min ⁻¹)	In 1 mmol·L ⁻¹ CaCl ₂ (nm·min ⁻¹)	Na	Ca
Anthrosol	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	19.46	12.01	1.69 ± 0.19	1.33 ± 0.26
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	14.91	11.48	1.75 ± 0.06	1.52 ± 0.19
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	7.72	9.97	1.71 ± 0.26	1.68 ± 0.13
Calcisol	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	8.98	8.22	1.30 ± 0.17	1.36 ± 0.17
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	7.15	7.33	1.71 ± 0.24	1.30 ± 0.31
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	3.95	5.22	1.52 ± 0.22	1.58 ± 0.19

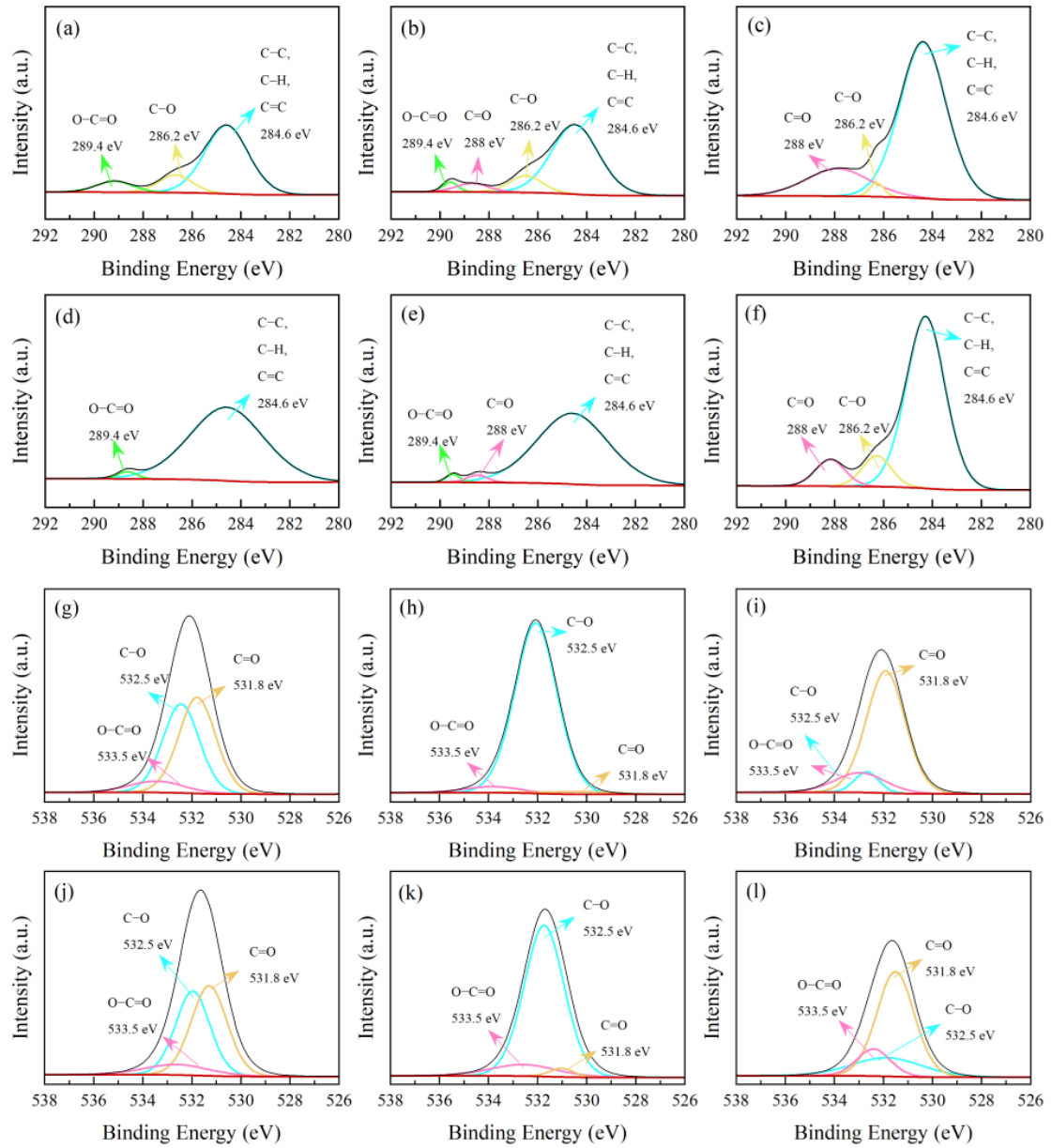
628 **Figure captions**

629 **Fig. 1.** The photoelectron spectrum C1s and O1s peak diagram of Anthrosol and
630 Calcisol colloids. C1s of Anthrosol colloids, a. $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, b. $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, c. $d < 100 \text{ nm}$;
631 C1s of Calcisol colloids, d. $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, e. $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, f. $d < 100 \text{ nm}$; O1s of Anthrosol
632 colloids, g. $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, h. $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, i. $d < 100 \text{ nm}$; O1s of Calcisol colloids, j. $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$,
633 k. $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, l. $d < 100 \text{ nm}$.

634 **Fig. 2.** The zeta potential of Anthrosol (a) and Calcisol (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$,
635 and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ at different pH

636 **Fig. 3.** The CCCs of Anthrosol (a) and Calcisol (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $<$
637 100 nm in NaCl solution

638 **Fig. 4.** The CCC of Anthrosol (a) and Calcisol (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $<$
639 100 nm in CaCl_2 solution



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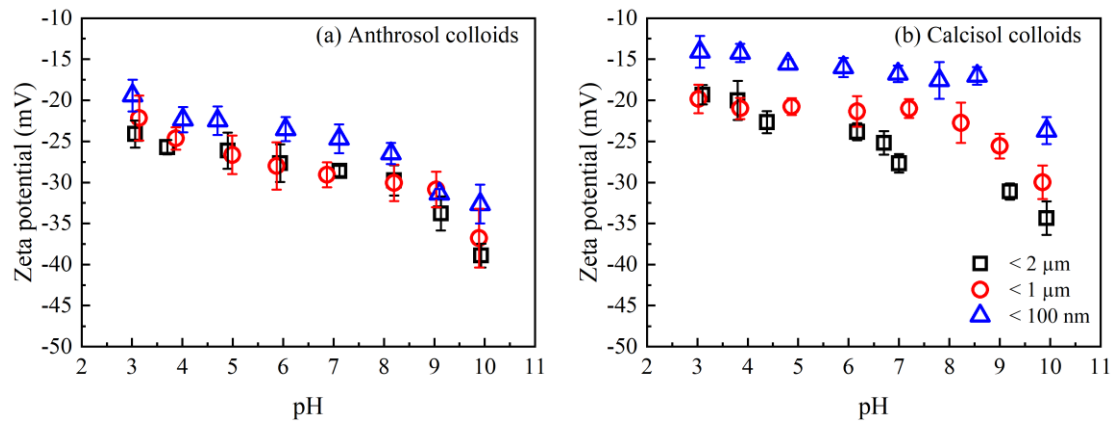
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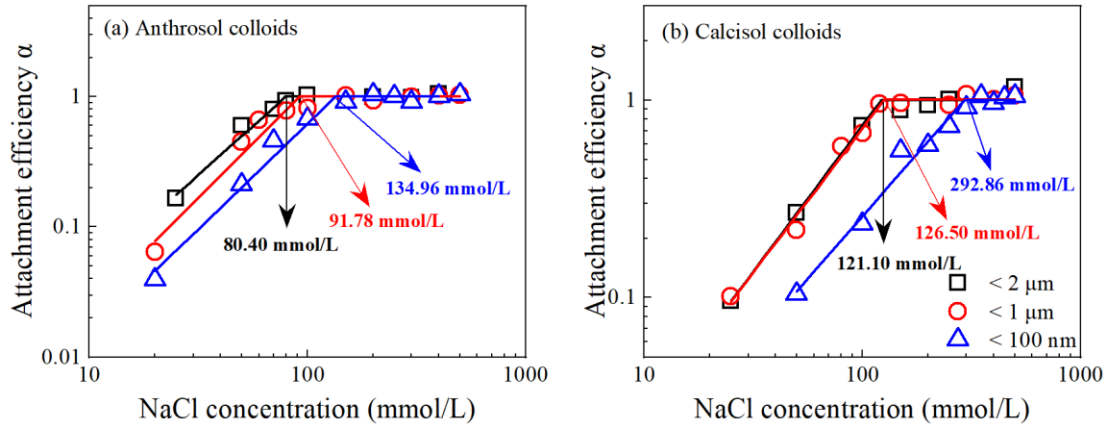
Fig. 1 The photoelectron spectrum C1s and O1s peak diagram of Anthrosol and Calcisol colloids. C1s of Anthrosol colloids, (a). $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, (b). $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, (c). $d < 100 \text{ nm}$; C1s of Calcisol colloids, (d). $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, (e). $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, (f). $d < 100 \text{ nm}$; O1s of Anthrosol colloids, (g). $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, (h). $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, (i). $d < 100 \text{ nm}$; O1s of Calcisol colloids, (j). $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, (k). $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, (l). $d < 100 \text{ nm}$.



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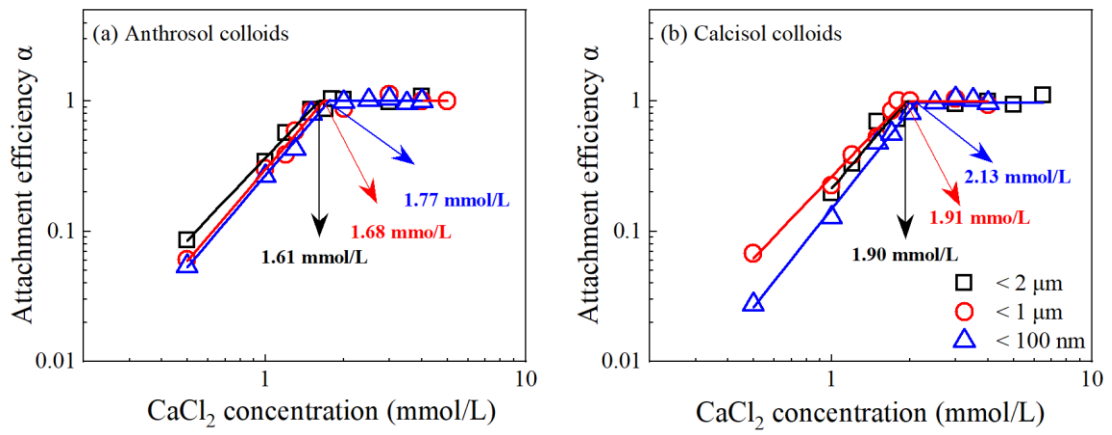
648 **Fig. 2** The zeta potential of Anthrosol (a) and Calcisol (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $<$
 649 100 nm at different pH

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Fig. 3 The CCCs of Anthrosol (a) and Calcisol (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ in NaCl solution



656

657 **Fig. 4** The CCC of Anthrosol (a) and Calcisol (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $< 100 \text{ nm}$

658

in CaCl₂ solution.