



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



42 and suspension stability, emphasizing that soil nanoparticles are prone to be more stably
43 dispersed instead of being aggregated. These findings can provide references for in-
44 depth understanding of the environmental behaviors of the heterogeneous soil organic-
45 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 active parts. Soil colloids are characterized by
52 high surface area and strong adsorption capacity, which can largely determine the fate
53 and transport of pathogens, nutrients, heavy metals and organic pollutants, and might
54 cause environmental problems to adjacent water bodies or groundwater (Baalousha et
55 al., 2009). Due to their high reactivity and fluidity in aqueous environment, soil colloids
56 play an important role in physical, chemical and biogeochemical processes of natural
57 environment (Schäfer et al., 2012; Mayordomo et al., 2016). The capacity of soil
58 colloids in driving attached nutrients and pollutants is closely related to their dispersion
59 stability under various environmental conditions (Won and Burns, 2018). Therefore,
60 studies on the dispersion stability of soil colloids have attracted extensive attention.

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

69 Compared with engineered nanoparticles with known mineralogical organization,



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

85 In recent years, great progress has been made in the study of dispersion stability
86 of soil clay minerals, such as montmorillonite, kaolinite, illite or hematite, and soil
87 nanoparticles (Xu et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2014). He
88 et al., (2008) demonstrated that hematite nanoparticles with various particle diameters
89 showed different surface properties and aggregation behaviors under the same pH
90 conditions; moreover, the critical coagulation concentrations (CCCs) of hematite
91 decreased with the decrease of particle diameter. Zhou et al., (2013) compared the



92 CCCs of ten different TiO₂ nanoparticles with varying sizes and indicated that crystal
93 structure and particle diameter both affected the aggregation behaviors of TiO₂. Zhang
94 et al. (2016) confirmed that the types of clay minerals for two Alfisols changed from
95 smectite and vermiculite to kaolinite and illite when the particle size varied from
96 colloids to nanoparticles. Therefore, the dependence of physiochemical properties,
97 surface properties and environmental behaviors on particle size for heterogeneous soil
98 colloidal particles needs systematic investigation.

99 In the present study, soil colloidal particles of two alkaline soils—Lou soil and
100 cinnamon soil were subdivided into three ranges: $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 100 \text{ nm}$.
101 Their organic fraction and clay mineralogy, surface electrochemical properties and
102 colloidal stability were studied. The objectives of the present study are to clarify how
103 particle size affects the surface properties and aggregation behaviors of soil colloids,
104 and to analyze the underlying mechanisms. The findings are of important significances
105 for predicting the environmental performances of colloids and colloid-facilitated
106 nutrients, pollutants and pathogens in natural soil and water environment.

107 **2. Materials and methods**

108 **2.1 Soil sampling**

109 Two representative surface soils (0–20 cm) were collected from the Guanzhong
110 Plain, China, namely Lou soil (agricultural soil) and cinnamon soil (natural soil). Lou
111 soil was collected from Yangling District, Shaanxi Province. Cinnamon soil was
112 collected from Zhouzhi County, Shaanxi Province. Lou soil and cinnamon soil are
113 classified as Anthrosols and Calcisols, respectively, according to the FAO soil



114 classification. Soils were taken back to laboratory for air-drying and sieving. The basic
115 soil properties are determined based on standard methods. The pH of Lou soil was 8.34
116 while it was 8.32 for the cinnamon soil. The organic carbon contents of Lou soil and
117 cinnamon soil were $7.25 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $9.22 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, respectively. The contents of CaCO_3
118 in Lou soil and cinnamon soil were $51.7 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $82.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$. The Free Fe/Al oxides
119 content of Lou soil and cinnamon soil were $22.8 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $23.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$.

120 **2.2 Extraction of soil colloidal fractions in different size ranges**

121 The soil colloidal particles were extracted based on the Stokes' law, and the
122 detailed procedures can be found in our previous publication (Hu et al., 2022). Briefly,
123 weigh 50 g soil into a beaker containing 500 mL distilled water, and put the suspension
124 under sonication for an hour using the ultrasonic cell disrupter (XO-900D, Nanjing
125 Xianou Instruments Corporation, China) while maintaining the temperature below
126 30°C . Afterwards, the suspension was transferred to a larger beaker and distilled water
127 was added to make up the total volume of 5 L. The suspension was further dispersed
128 using an electronic blade stirrer (JB-200, Shanghai Nanhui Huiming Apparatus, China)
129 for one hour, before being sifted through a 300-mesh sieve, and the upper suspensions
130 containing soil colloidal particles in different diameters were collected by
131 centrifugation. Based on the equation (1), centrifugation speed and time for colloidal
132 particles of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ are calculated and shown in Table S1.

$$133 \quad t = \frac{\eta \lg \frac{R_2}{R_1}}{3.81N^2 r^2 \Delta d} \quad (1)$$

134 in which, t is time for centrifugation (s); R_1 is the distance from the surface of the liquid



135 to the center of the axis of the centrifuge, here is 5.7 cm; R_2 is distance from the particles
136 to the center of the axis of the centrifuge, here is 10.5 cm; N ($\text{rev}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) is the centrifuge
137 speed; r (cm) is the desired colloidal particle radius; Δd is the difference in density
138 between the soil particles and water, while Δd is $1.65 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$; η is the water viscosity
139 coefficient, here is $0.00839 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ at $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.

140 **2.3 Characterization of soil colloidal fractions in different size ranges**

141 The initial particle diameters of soil colloids were determined by a time-resolved
142 dynamic light scattering (DLS) apparatus (Nanobrook Omni, Brookhaven, USA). The
143 organic carbon contents in soil colloids were determined by potassium dichromate
144 external heating method and total carbon content was determined by elemental analyzer
145 (Elementar Vario EL III, Germany). The inorganic carbon content was calculated by
146 subtraction method (Wang et al., 2011). The clay mineralogy of soil colloids was
147 determined by the XRD (Ultima-IV, Rigaku, Japan). The specific surface areas of the
148 soil colloids were measured by BET- N_2 method (ASAP 2460, Micromeritics
149 instrument, USA). High-resolution spectra of C1s and O1s of soil colloids were
150 acquired by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Thermo Scientific K-Alpha,
151 USA) (Luo et al., 2019). The zeta potentials of soil colloids were measured by Zeta
152 PALS equipped with a BI-ZTU Autotitrator (ZetaPALS, Brookhaven, USA) with 1
153 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ NaCl solution as the background electrolyte; and the pH range of colloidal
154 suspension was set to 3–10 adjusted with $0.1 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ HCl and NaOH. The
155 concentrations of K^+ , Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , and Mg^{2+} in soil colloidal suspensions were measured
156 by flame atomic absorption spectrophotometry (PinAAciii 900F, USA).



157 **2.4 Aggregation kinetics of soil colloidal fractions**

158 The aggregation kinetic curves of soil colloidal particles in different electrolytes
159 were determined by time-resolved DLS measurements. The incident wavelength was
160 635 nm and the scattering angle was 90°. While using the DLS instrument, it is
161 necessary to clean up the surrounding dust, especially the sample pool. The stock
162 colloidal suspensions with particle concentration of 200 mg·L⁻¹ were mixed with
163 electrolyte solutions with equal volume. The suspension pH was adjusted to 8.0, which
164 was close to the pH value of natural soil with addition of 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ HCl or NaOH
165 before measurement. The chosen electrolyte concentrations for NaCl and CaCl₂ were
166 200–2000 and 2–20 mmol·L⁻¹. The effective diameter (D_h) of the mixed sample was
167 automatically recorded every 2 min, and an aggregation kinetic curve was obtained in
168 30 min monitoring.

169 **2.5 Calculation of critical coagulation concentration**

170 According to the particle interaction theory, the aggregation kinetic curves under
171 electrolyte conditions can be divided into reaction-limited aggregation (RLA) stage
172 under low concentration which was affected by electrolyte conditions and diffusion-
173 limited aggregation (DLA) stage under high concentration which was not affected by
174 electrolyte concentration. The CCC is the critical electrolyte concentration when the
175 aggregation process changes from the RLA state ($\alpha < 1$) to the DLA state ($\alpha = 1$).
176 Attachment efficiency (α) represents the bonding probability of particle collisions and
177 can be calculated for each electrolyte concentration by using equation 2, which allowed
178 the curve of α as a function of electrolyte concentration to be plotted (Xu et al., 2020a;



179 Hu et al., 2022).

$$180 \quad \alpha_{\text{exp}} = \frac{1}{W} = \frac{k_{11}}{(k_{11})_{\text{fast}}} = \frac{\frac{1}{N_0} \left(\frac{da_h(t)}{dt} \right)_{t \rightarrow 0}}{\frac{1}{(N_0)_{\text{fast}}} \left(\frac{da_h(t)}{d_t} \right)_{t \rightarrow 0, \text{fast}}} \quad (2)$$

181 where D_h is the effective diameter of particles, t is the time (min); N_0 is the density of
182 particles; K_{11} is the aggregation rate of RLA; $(K_{11})_{\text{fast}}$ is the aggregation rate of DLA.

183 The intersection of RLA regime and DLA regime is the CCC.

184 The aggregation rates were calculated by the average of the last 5 effective
185 diameters divided by the aggregation time at specific electrolyte concentration. The
186 fractal dimension in the DLA regime was obtained based on the method proposed by
187 Wang et al. (2013).

$$188 \quad D(t) = b * t^n + D_0 \quad (3)$$

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

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

192 3. Results and discussion

193 3.1 Particle size and distribution characteristics of Lou soil and cinnamon soil 194 colloidal fractions

195 The average diameters of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids were measured by
196 time-resolved DLS, and the results were shown in Table 1. The number-weighted
197 diameters for Lou soil colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ were 133.16, 127.84
198 nm and 72.47 nm, respectively. The intensity-weighted diameters were 396.81 nm,



199 371.45 nm and 294.10 nm. For cinnamon soil colloidal fractions, the number-weighted
200 diameters for colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ were 141.23 nm, 131.67nm
201 and 85.48 nm, and their intensity-weighted diameters were 439.20 nm, 372.07nm and
202 312.25 nm, respectively. The intensity-weighted diameters were generally higher than
203 the number-weighted diameters, especially in polydisperse system (Xu et al., 2020b).
204 The particles in the soil solution are in constant Brownian motion, and when light passes
205 through the colloids, the particles will undergo light scattering, resulting in fluctuations
206 in light intensity, and thus the effective diameter (intensity-weighted diameter) of the
207 particles is calculated (Filella et al., 1997). Since the particle diameter is proportional
208 to the sixth power of the light intensity, that is, if there are larger particles in the solution
209 in such polydisperse systems, the number-weighted diameter is generally more
210 representative of the true diameter of colloidal particles (Xu et al., 2015).

211 *(Insert Table 1 near here)*

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



219 **3.2 Physiochemical properties and clay mineralogy of Lou soil and cinnamon soil**
220 **colloids**

221 Table 2 shows the physiochemical properties of soil colloidal fractions. The yields
222 of each colloidal fraction of Lou soil were slightly larger than that of cinnamon soil,
223 respectively. The yields of colloidal particles of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$ were about 1.3~1.4 times of
224 $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, and about 4.0~4.9 times of $d < 100 \text{ nm}$, respectively. With the decreasing
225 colloidal particle diameter, the total carbon content, organic carbon and inorganic
226 carbon content all increased, suggesting the finer particles were richer in carbon. This
227 tendency is in agreement with other publications (Zhang et al., 2021; Said-Pullicino et
228 al., 2021; Hu et al., 2022). The specific surface areas for colloidal fractions of $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$
229 were largest of all, which may be related to the structures of formed clusters while
230 drying the samples for observation under microscopy (Yu et al., 2017; Weissenberger
231 et al., 2021).

232 *(Insert Table 2 near here)*

233 The clay mineralogy of Lou soil and cinnamon colloidal fractions is shown in
234 Table 3. Cinnamon soil colloidal fractions were dominant by illite, kaolinite and
235 chlorite while there was less chlorite in Lou soil colloidal fractions. With the decrease
236 of particle size, the content of illite increased and kaolinite content decreased. This
237 tendency is in agreement with other publications (Chenu and Plante, 2006; Zhang et al.,
238 2016). Among the dominant clay types, the size of illite is finer than kaolinite and
239 chlorite (Weil and Brady, 2016), so its mass percentage was higher in the nano-sized
240 fraction.



241 *(Insert Table 3 near here)*

242 **3.3 Surface properties of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids**

243 The XPS spectra of soil colloidal fractions are shown in Fig. 1. From Fig. 1, it can
244 be seen that the main C-containing functional groups were C–C/C–H/C=C, C–O, C=O,
245 and COO– groups at 284.6, 286.2, 288.0 and 289.4 eV, respectively (Liang et al., 2020;
246 Ding et al., 2023). The functional groups for colloidal particles of $d < 100$ nm were
247 more abundant than those for colloids of $d < 2$ μm and $d < 1$ μm , while there were no
248 significant differences between colloids of $d < 2$ μm and $d < 1$ μm . With the decrease
249 of colloidal particle diameter, the relative contents of oxygen-containing functional
250 groups (C–O, C=O, COO–) gradually decreased. Specifically, the content decreased
251 gradually from 32.01% in Lou colloids of $d < 2$ μm to 20.93% in Lou colloids of $d <$
252 100 nm (Table S2). The functional groups of C–O and COO– gradually decreased until
253 they eventually disappeared, more C=O groups were exposed to the surrounding air.

254 For cinnamon soil colloids (Fig. 1d, e, f), the relative contents of organic oxygen-
255 containing functional groups for colloidal particles of $d < 2$ μm , $d < 1$ μm and $d < 100$
256 nm showed a different trend, compared with that in Lou soil colloids. The relative
257 contents of organic oxygen-containing functional groups gradually increased with the
258 decrease of diameter. This trend was particularly pronounced in fraction of $d < 100$ nm,
259 and contents of C–O and COO– were highly increased (Table S2).

260 *(Insert Figure 1 near here)*

261 Oxygen-containing functional groups of C–O, C=O and COO– are electronegative
262 functional groups, hydroxyl and carboxyl groups can lose protons and make the surface
263 of soil colloidal particles carry negative charges (Audette et al., 2021). Functional
264 groups of C–O, C=O and COO– can affect the negative charges carried on the colloidal



265 surface by forming hydrogen bonds, and their polarity can also affect the negative
266 charges on the surface when O atom combines with C and H. The electrons will lean
267 towards the O atom with stronger electronegativity, which also makes the colloidal
268 surface carry negative charges (Tan et al., 2019). The contents and types of oxygen-
269 containing functional groups are one of the main factors affecting colloid charge and
270 aggregation.

271 The zeta potential values of different colloidal fractions at the pH range of 3–10
272 are shown in Fig. 2. Zeta potentials of the colloidal particles were negative, indicating
273 that they were negatively-charged. The absolute values of zeta potentials for of Lou soil
274 and cinnamon soil colloidal particles increased with increasing solution pH, due to the
275 deprotonation of the surface (Moayedi and Kazemian, 2013; Dong et al., 2019).
276 Compared with the cinnamon soil colloids, the zeta potentials of Lou soil colloidal
277 particles were more negative. For cinnamon soil colloids, the differences among
278 colloidal fractions were larger.

279 *(Insert Figure 2 near here)*

280 In general, the absolute zeta potential values increased with increasing particle
281 diameter. When the pH changed from 3 to 10, for every pH unit increased, the zeta
282 potential values of Lou soil colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ would be
283 increased by 2.14 mV, 2.09 mV and 1.89 mV; and for cinnamon soil colloids, those
284 variation rates were 2.15 mV, 1.45 mV and 1.37 mV, respectively. Those data
285 demonstrate that the charge variability decreasing with the decreasing particle diameter.
286 Song et al., (2019) compared the zeta potential of wheat straw biochar nanoparticles (<



287 100 nm) and colloidal particles (< 1000 nm), and found that the absolute values of
288 colloidal particles were larger at same pH, which was explained by the differences in
289 the number of surface carboxyl and hydroxyl groups. The zeta potential of colloidal
290 particles is proportional to charge density, which means that it is related to both charge
291 quantity and specific surface area (Hou et al., 2009). Therefore, the size effect of zeta
292 potential of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloidal particles is mainly related to the
293 reduction of charge density caused by larger specific surface area of nanoparticles (Xu
294 et al. 2020b).

295 **3.4 Aggregation kinetics curves of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids in NaCl and** 296 **CaCl₂ solutions**

297 The aggregation kinetics of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids in NaCl and CaCl₂
298 solutions are shown in Figs. S1 and S2. The aggregation process of soil colloids was
299 divided into RLA and DLA stages. The RLA stages for Lou soil colloids of $d < 2$ μm ,
300 $d < 1$ μm and $d < 100$ nm in NaCl solution were 0–80, 0–80 and 0–100 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$,
301 respectively, during which repulsive forces existed between the particles and
302 attachment did not occur on every collision. As the electrolyte concentration continued
303 to increase, the solution entered into the DLA regime. At this point, attachment occurred
304 with every collision between particles, and the aggregation rates were not affected by
305 the electrolyte concentration. At last, the effective diameters of the formed clusters were
306 stable at around 1600 nm. Figure S1b, d and f showed that the aggregation behaviors
307 of Lou soil colloids in CaCl₂ solution were similar to that in NaCl solution, and the
308 corresponding CaCl₂ concentrations for Lou soil colloids of $d < 2$ μm , $d < 1$ μm and d



309 < 100 nm in RLA stage were about 0–1.5, 0–1.5 and 0–2 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, respectively.

310 The aggregation kinetics of cinnamon soil colloids in NaCl and CaCl_2 solutions
311 were similar to Lou soil colloids (Fig. S2). The RLA stages for cinnamon soil colloids
312 of $d < 2$ μm , $d < 1$ μm and $d < 100$ nm in NaCl solution were 0–100, 0–120 and 0–250
313 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, and were about 0–1.8, 0–1.7 and 0–2 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ in CaCl_2 solution,
314 respectively. The effective diameters of the clusters for cinnamon soil colloids were
315 stabilized at about 1600 nm and 1800 nm in NaCl and CaCl_2 solutions, respectively.

316 Aggregation rates of soil colloids varied with particle diameters at the same
317 electrolyte concentration, which was particularly evident in RLA stage (Table 4). For
318 Lou soil colloids of $d < 2$ μm , $d < 1$ μm and $d < 100$ nm with addition of 50 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$
319 NaCl, aggregation rates were 19.46, 14.91 and 7.22 $\text{nm}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, respectively, while those
320 of cinnamon soil colloids were 8.98, 7.15 and 3.95 $\text{nm}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ with decreasing particle
321 diameter. In 1 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ CaCl_2 solution, the aggregation rates of cinnamon soil colloids
322 of $d < 2$ μm , $d < 1$ μm and $d < 100$ nm were 8.22, 7.33 and 5.22 $\text{nm}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, respectively.
323 Therefore, from table 4, the aggregation rates of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids
324 showed the size effect. From table 4, it could be observed that the fractal dimensions in
325 NaCl solutions were largely higher than those in CaCl_2 solutions, suggesting a much
326 denser structure (Meng et al., 2013). In other words, the formed structures in divalent
327 solutions were more open.

328 *(Insert Table 4 near here)*



329 **3.5 Suspension stability of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids in NaCl and CaCl₂**
330 **solutions**

331 The CCCs for Lou soil colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d < 100 \text{ nm}$ in NaCl
332 solution were 80.40, 91.78 and 134.96 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig. 3a), and those for
333 cinnamon soil colloids were 121.10, 126.50 and 292.86 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig.
334 3b). The CCCs increased with the decreasing particle diameter, indicating that the
335 suspension stability of soil nanoparticles was stronger than those of colloidal particles.

336 *(Insert Figure 3 near here)*

337 In CaCl₂ solutions, the CCCs for Lou soil colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $d <$
338 100 nm were 1.61, 1.68 and 1.77 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, respectively, and for cinnamon soil colloids,
339 those corresponding values were 1.90, 1.91 and 2.13 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4). The CCCs in
340 CaCl₂ solutions also increased with the decreasing particle size. The contents of K⁺,
341 Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ in Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloidal suspensions decreased with
342 the decreasing colloidal particle diameter (Table S3), which was mainly due to the
343 dilution effect during the extraction process. Furthermore, Table S3 showed that the
344 soluble cation contents were rather low, and their effects on the CCCs of soil colloids
345 could be neglected.

346 *(Insert Figure 4 near here)*

347 Based on Figs. 3 and 4, 3 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ CaCl₂ solution could cause fast aggregation
348 of soil colloidal particles, while it required at least 80 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ NaCl solution for
349 comparable aggregation rate, indicating that the shielding effect of divalent cations on
350 negative charges of colloids was stronger than that of monovalent cations. The



351 quantitative calculation results showed that the CCC ratios of monovalent ion and
352 divalent ion system were between 25.64 and 27.09, which conformed to the Schulze-
353 Hardy rule (Baalousha, 2017).

354 For each type of the soil colloids, the higher the absolute zeta potential values of
355 colloidal particles, the more negative charges carried on the surface, and the higher the
356 stability (CCCs) of suspension. For the same particle diameter, e.g. $d < 100$ nm, the
357 absolute zeta potentials of Lou soil colloids were larger (Fig. 2) while the corresponding
358 CCC was lower (Figs. 3 and 4). Study on the stability of biochar nanoparticles showed
359 that the absolute values of zeta potentials could not be used to directly explain the
360 stability difference among biochar nanoparticles from different feedstock materials but
361 could explain the influences of solution conditions on the stability of biochar
362 nanoparticles derived from the same feedstock material (Xu et al., 2020a).

363 The CCCs of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids increased with decreasing
364 diameter; that is, the CCCs of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids both showed the size
365 effects. Hsu and Kuo (1995) demonstrated that the CCCs would generally decrease with
366 the increasing particle diameter because smaller particles possess thicker double
367 electric layers and higher electrolyte concentration is needed to neutralize charges on
368 the surface, which were consistent with the results of Lou soil and cinnamon soil
369 colloids. The above explanation by Hsu and Kuo (1995) was derived from homogenous
370 particles whose composition does not change with particle diameter. The results of this
371 paper show that, for those two alkaline soils being such heterogeneous materials, when
372 the organic matter contents and mineral types changed with colloidal particle diameter,



373 the CCCs in monovalent and divalent solutions also decreased with increasing particle
374 diameter.

375 In this paper, the organic matter contents of soil nanoparticles were the highest, so
376 the CCCs were the largest, which were 1.7 and 2.4 times of the corresponding colloidal
377 particles of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$. The suspension stability of different clay minerals has been
378 reported to vary with the mineralogical structure. The CCC of illite ($\approx 100 \text{ mM}$) in
379 NaCl solution was significantly higher than that of kaolinite ($\approx 20 \text{ mM}$) (Jiang et al.,
380 2012; Xu et al., 2017). Another possible reason for the higher stability of soil
381 nanoparticles is the increase of illite content and the decrease of kaolinite content.
382 Therefore, the differences in organic matter contents and clay mineralogy are the
383 fundamental reasons for the differences in colloidal suspension stability behind the size
384 effects of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids.

385 **4. Conclusion**

386 The size effect of heterogeneous soil colloidal particles was demonstrated. The
387 number-weighted diameters for Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids of $d < 100 \text{ nm}$ were
388 72.47 nm and 85.48 nm, respectively. With the decreasing colloidal particle diameter,
389 the total carbon content, organic carbon, organic functional groups content and illite all
390 increased, indicating the finer particle size of the organic fraction and illite. The absolute
391 zeta potential values and the charge variability decreased with the decreasing particle
392 diameter. Aggregation rates of soil colloids decreased with the decreasing of particle
393 diameter at the same electrolyte concentration, which was particularly evident in RLA
394 stage. In NaCl or CaCl_2 solution, the CCCs increased with the decreasing Lou soil and



395 cinnamon soil colloidal particle diameter, indicating that the suspension stability was
396 enhanced. These findings have important implications for predicting the environmental
397 behaviors of soil colloids and related colloid-facilitated nutrient/contaminant transport.

398

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403

404 **Author Contributions**

405 Conceptualization, Xu, C.Y., Geng, Z.C., and Hu, F.N.; methodology, Xu, C.Y.;
406 software, Yan, Y.Y.; formal analysis, Liu, J.J.; investigation, Zhang, X.R.; resources,
407 Yan, Y.Y.; writing—original draft, Yan, Y.Y.; writing—review and editing, Xu, C.Y.,
408 and Hu, F.N.; visualization, Xu, C.Y., and Yan, Y.Y.; funding acquisition, Xu, C.Y.,
409 Geng, Z.C. and Hu, F.N.. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of
410 the manuscript.

411

412 **Declaration of Interest Statement**

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



415

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546



547 **Table captions**

548 **Table 1** The average diameters and distribution patterns of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids.

549 **Table 2** The physiochemical properties of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids.

550 **Table 3** The dominant clay minerals of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloidal fractions (shown

551 in mass fraction, %).

552 **Table 4** The aggregation rates of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids.

553



554 **Table 1** The average diameters and distribution patterns of Lou soil and cinnamon soil
555 colloids

Soil colloids	Colloidal fractions	Number-weighted diameter (nm)	Intensity-weighted diameter (nm)	D ₁₀ (nm)	D ₉₀ (nm)
Lou soil colloids	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	133.16	396.81	71.53	232.49
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	127.84	371.45	67.64	219.87
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	72.47	294.10	38.74	136.72
cinnamon soil colloids	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	141.23	439.20	78.29	244.97
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	131.67	372.07	75.84	231.64
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	85.48	312.25	47.84	158.99

556 Note: D₁₀, D₅₀ and D₉₀ represent diameter of particles with a cumulative distribution of 10%, 50% and
557 90%, respectively.

558



559

Table 2 The physiochemical properties of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids

Soil colloids	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)
Lou soil colloids	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	25.12	20.9	10.9	10.0	65.37
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	18.76	20.7	10.9	9.8	72.99
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	6.32	58.2	27.4	30.8	45.28
cinnamon soil colloids	$d < 2 \mu\text{m}$	23.17	24.0	11.7	12.3	49.99
	$d < 1 \mu\text{m}$	16.20	22.3	12.8	9.5	61.88
	$d < 100 \text{ nm}$	4.70	76.3	28.3	48.0	34.53

560



561 **Table 3** The dominant clay minerals of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloidal fractions (shown
562 in mass fraction, %)

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

563



564

Table 4 The aggregation rates of Lou soil and cinnamon soil colloids

Soil colloids	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
Lou soil colloids	<i>d</i> < 2 μm	19.46	12.01	1.69 ± 0.19	1.33 ± 0.26
	<i>d</i> < 1 μm	14.91	11.48	1.75 ± 0.06	1.52 ± 0.19
	<i>d</i> < 100 nm	7.72	9.97	1.71 ± 0.26	1.68 ± 0.13
Cinnamon soil colloids	<i>d</i> < 2 μm	8.98	8.22	1.30 ± 0.17	1.36 ± 0.17
	<i>d</i> < 1 μm	7.15	7.33	1.71 ± 0.24	1.30 ± 0.31
	<i>d</i> < 100 nm	3.95	5.22	1.52 ± 0.22	1.58 ± 0.19

565



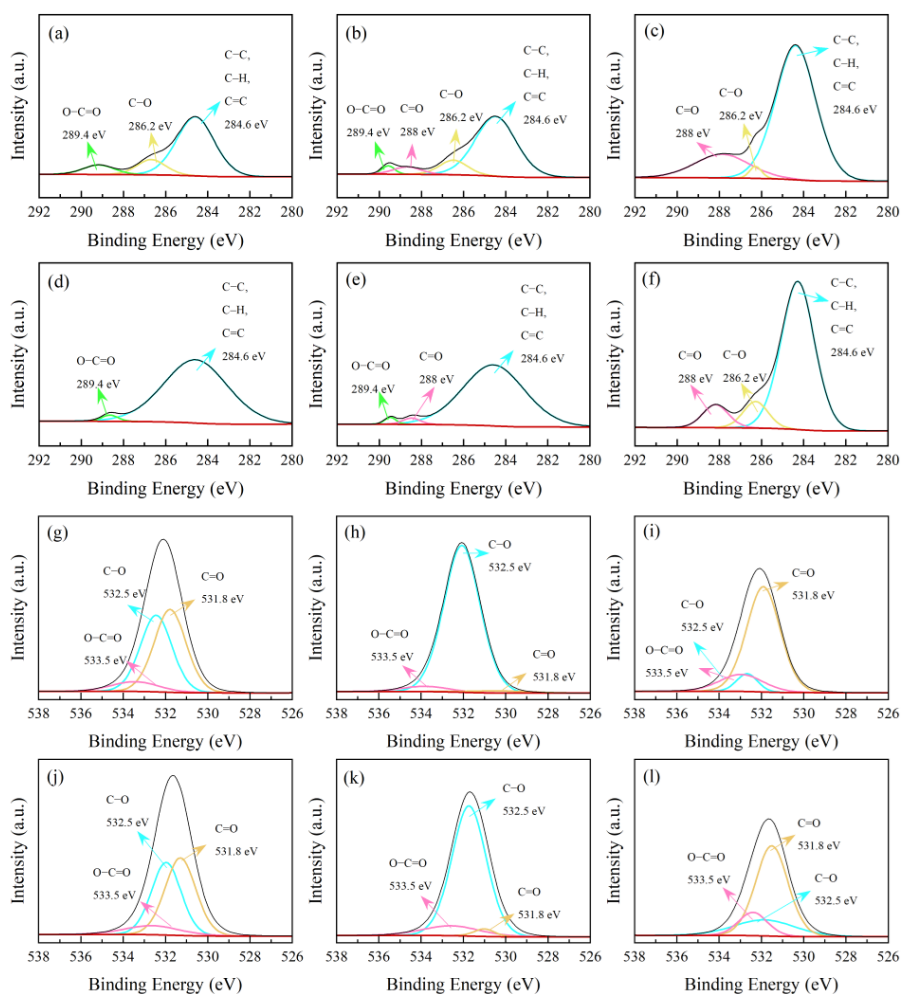
566 **Figure captions**

567 **Fig. 1.** The photoelectron spectrum C1s and O1s peak diagram of Lou soil and
568 cinnamon soil colloids. C1s of Lou soil colloids, a. $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, b. $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, c. $d < 100$
569 nm; C1s of cinnamon soil colloids, d. $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, e. $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, f. $d < 100$ nm; O1s of Lou
570 soil colloids, g. $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, h. $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, i. $d < 100$ nm; O1s of cinnamon soil colloids, j.
571 $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, k. $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, l. $d < 100$ nm.

572 **Fig. 2.** The zeta potential of Lou soil (a) and cinnamon soil (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, <
573 $1 \mu\text{m}$, and < 100 nm at different pH

574 **Fig. 3.** The CCCs of Lou soil (a) and cinnamon soil (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$,
575 and < 100 nm in NaCl solution

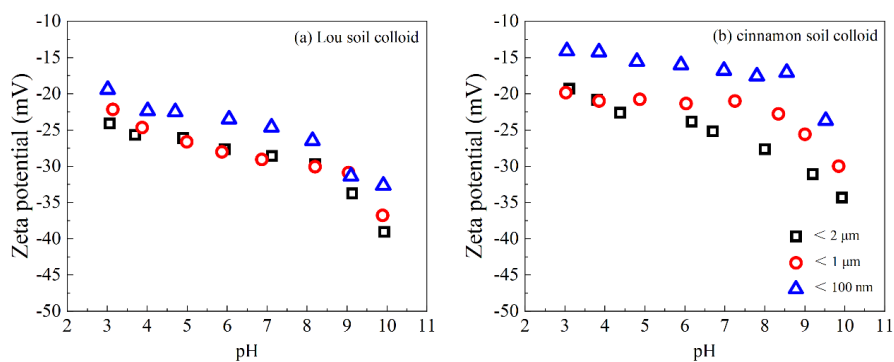
576 **Fig. 4.** The CCC of Lou soil (a) and cinnamon soil (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$,
577 and < 100 nm in CaCl₂ solution



578

579 **Fig. 1** The photoelectron spectrum C1s and O1s peak diagram of Lou soil and cinnamon soil
 580 colloids. C1s of Lou soil colloids, (a). $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, (b). $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, (c). $d < 100 \text{ nm}$; C1s of
 581 cinnamon soil colloids, (d). $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, (e). $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, (f). $d < 100 \text{ nm}$; O1s of Lou soil colloids,
 582 (g). $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, (h). $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, (i). $d < 100 \text{ nm}$; O1s of cinnamon soil colloids, (j). $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, (k).
 583 $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, (l). $d < 100 \text{ nm}$.

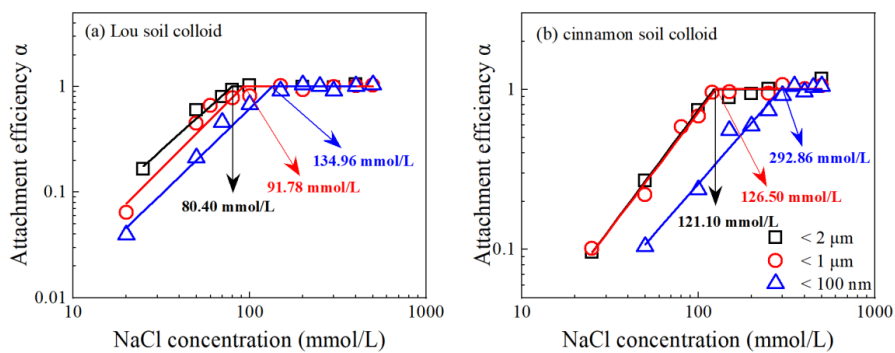
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586 **Fig. 2** The zeta potential of Lou soil (a) and cinnamon soil (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$,
587 and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ at different pH

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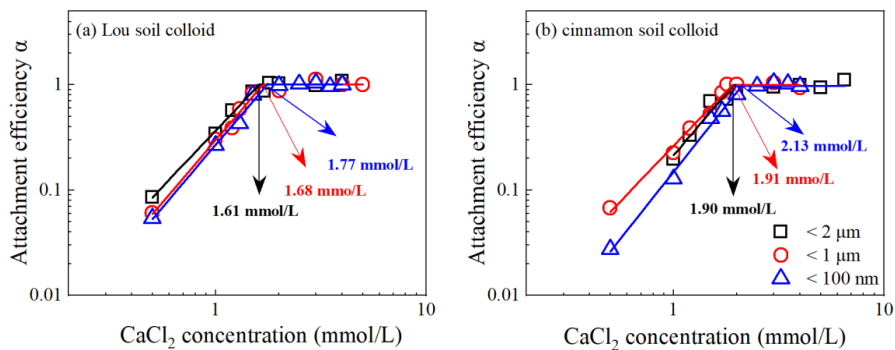
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Fig. 3 The CCCs of Lou soil (a) and cinnamon soil (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $< 100 \text{ nm}$ in NaCl solution



593

594 **Fig. 4** The CCC of Lou soil (a) and cinnamon soil (b) colloids of $d < 2 \mu\text{m}$, $< 1 \mu\text{m}$, and < 100

595

nm in CaCl₂ solution.