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1	Modeling the acid-base properties of montmorillonite edge surfaces
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14 Abstract

15 The surface reactivity of clay minerals remains challenging to characterize because of a duality of 16 adsorption surfaces and mechanisms that does not exist in the case of simple oxide surfaces: clay 17 minerals edge surfaces have a variable proton surface charge arising from hydroxyl functional 18 groups, whereas basal surfaces have a permanent negative charge arising from isomorphic 19 substitutions. Hence, the relationship between surface charge and surface potential on edge 20 surfaces cannot be described using the Gouy-Chapman relation, because of a spillover of 21 negative electrostatic potential from the basal surface onto the edge surface. While surface 22 complexation models can be modified to account for these features, a predictive fit of 23 experimental data was not possible until recently, because of uncertainty regarding the densities and intrinsic pK_a values of edge functional groups. Here, we reexamine this problem in light of 24 new knowledge on intrinsic pKa values obtained over the last decade using ab initio molecular 25 26 dynamics simulations, and we propose a new formalism to describe edge functional groups. Our 27 simulation results yield good predictions of the best available experimental acid-base titration 28 data.

29 **1. Introduction**

Clay minerals are natural fine-grained particles, ubiquitous in terrestrial weathering environments, that strongly influence the permeability, mechanics, and pore water chemistry of soils, sediments, and rocks in which they are found ^{1,2}. In particular, these minerals control the performance of natural and engineered clay barriers used in the isolation of landfills and contaminated sites and proposed for use in the geological storage of high-level radioactive waste ^{3,4}. A widely examined feature of clay minerals that influences the performance of these barriers is their cation-exchange capacity, the result of isomorphic substitutions in the structure ⁵. In addition to this cation-exchange capacity, clay minerals, including montmorillonite (the most studied swelling clay mineral) carry oxide-type functional groups on their edge surfaces. These oxide-type functional groups, though present in much smaller quantity than the cation exchange sites, dominate the adsorption of trace metals, oxyanions, and organic molecules ^{6–9}, the dissolution and growth kinetics of clay minerals ^{10,11}, and the colloidal mechanics of clay particles ¹², at least in some conditions.

In the case of simple oxide minerals, surface reactivity is strongly influenced by their net proton surface charge, which varies with pH through reactions of the following type, where $>SOH_n$ is a generic surface site ¹³:

$$> \text{SOH}_n \rightleftharpoons > \text{SOH}_{n-1} + \text{H}^+$$
 (1)

The reaction described by Eq. (1) gives rise to a variable net proton surface charge density ($\sigma_{\rm H}$) 46 that depends on pH and ionic strength (I, dimensionless¹⁴). In the case of simple oxide minerals, 47 48 the last few decades have seen steady advances in the characterization of their proton surface chemistry through a combination of experiments (in particular, acid-base titration and 49 50 electrophoretic mobility measurements), surface complexation model (SCM) calculations, and bond-valence theory predictions of the intrinsic acidity constants of surface functional groups^{15–} 51 ¹⁹. In the case of the oxide-type functional groups on the montmorillonite edge surfaces, however, 52 $\sigma_{\rm H}$ remains poorly understood, as shown by the wide range of reported values of the point of zero 53 54 net proton charge (p.z.n.p.c., the pH value where $\sigma_{\rm H} = 0$) and by the variety of models that have been used to describe $\sigma_{\rm H}$ ^{9,20}. As described below, the difficulty in characterizing $\sigma_{\rm H}$ on 55 montmorillonite relates to the high permanent structural charge of the solid ($\sigma_0 \approx -1 \text{ mmol}_c \cdot g^{-1}$) 56

and to the presence of two different surfaces (edge and basal surfaces) with very different properties. These properties have no equivalent in simple oxide minerals, but are widespread features of lamellar structures including vernadite, a phyllomanganate that controls the fate of trace metals in certain oxidized soils and sediments ^{21,22}, green rust, a layered double hydroxide that influences the mobility of iron and anions in reduced soils ²³, and synthetic phases widely used in materials chemistry, such as synthetic layered double hydroxides ²⁴.

63 The challenges associated with characterizing the proton surface reactivity of montmorillonite were summarized a decade ago by Bourg et al.²⁰. A first challenge is that montmorillonite 64 65 particles undergo significant dissolution during acid-base titration measurements. This can be 66 rendered near-negligible in the pH range from about 4.5 to 9.5 through a careful choice of clay pretreatment, storage, and titration procedures^{25–29} (see below). Unfortunately, most 67 montmorillonite acid-base titration datasets do not fit the best practices established by Duc et al. 68 ^{25–28}. A second challenge is that acid-base titration measurements do not directly measure the net 69 proton surface charge density $\sigma_{\rm H}$ but rather $\delta\sigma_{\rm H}$, the *change* in net proton surface charge density 70 relative to its initial value $\sigma_{\rm H,init}$ ($\delta\sigma_{\rm H} = \sigma_{\rm H} - \sigma_{\rm H,init}$). Conversion of $\delta\sigma_{\rm H}$ to $\sigma_{\rm H}$ values requires 71 knowledge of $\sigma_{\text{H,init}}$ or of the p.z.n.p.c. at the conditions of interest ³⁰. For simple oxide surfaces, 72 73 this is achieved by measuring the sum of the adsorbed ion charge densities q_i of all species except H^+ and $OH^-(\Delta q)$ and applying the charge balance relation ³⁰: 74

$$\sigma_0 + \sigma_{\rm H} + \Delta q = 0 \tag{2}$$

For montmorillonite, experimental uncertainties make it impossible to accurately determine $\sigma_{\rm H}$ using Eq. (2), because $\sigma_{\rm H}$ is small compared to σ_0 and $\Delta q^{20,29}$. Alternatively, the p.z.n.p.c. of oxide surfaces is sometimes determined by assuming that it coincides with the point of zero salt

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78 effect (p.z.s.e., the pH value at which acid-base titration curves carried out at different ionic 79 strengths intersect) or with the isoelectric point (i.e.p., the pH value where the electrophoretic mobility equals zero)³¹. These alternative methods, however, are neither strictly rigorous^{20,30} nor 80 applicable to montmorillonite, for which a p.z.s.e. or i.e.p. are not observed ^{26,32–34}. Finally, the 81 82 p.z.n.p.c. of montmorillonite is sometimes assumed to correspond to the pH value obtained by adding incremental amounts of dry solid to a solution ³⁵, but this so-called "mass titration" 83 84 technique, just like a standard acid-base titration, is sensitive to the initial protonation state of the solid ³⁶. 85

A third challenge arises when attempting to develop a SCM for montmorillonite. An important assumption of SCMs is that the ratio of activity coefficients of different surface species is a function of the surface electrostatic potential ψ . For the reaction described by Eq. (1), the relationship is almost always expressed with a quasi-thermodynamic equilibrium equation of the form:

$$K_{a} = \frac{[> \text{SOH}_{n-1}](\text{H}^{+})}{[> \text{SOH}_{n}]} \exp\left(\frac{-F\psi}{RT}\right)$$
(3)

where K_a is an intrinsic equilibrium constant, (H⁺) is the thermodynamic activity of H⁺, square 91 92 brackets denote mole fractions, ψ is the surface electrostatic potential, F is the Faraday constant (96 485 C mol⁻¹), R is the ideal gas constant (8.314 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), and T is temperature (in K). 93 94 Closure of any SCM requires a model of ψ as a function of surface charge, ionic strength, and 95 other conditions. For this, most studies rely on the Gouy-Chapman relation, a mean-field theory 96 prediction based on the Poisson-Boltzmann equation (PBE) of the relationship between surface charge density and surface potential on an infinite planar surface in contact with an ideal 97 electrolyte solution ^{31,37}. Montmorillonite consists of flake-shaped, 1-nm-thick layers such that 98

the narrow edge surface cannot be *a priori* treated as an infinite planar surface ^{9,20}. Solutions to 99 100 the Poisson-Boltzmann equation for various possible arrangements of the montmorillonite layers indicate that the value of ψ at montmorillonite edges (ψ_{edge}) is influenced by the charge density 101 102 of both edge and basal surfaces in a manner that depends on ionic strength and on the stacking arrangement of montmorillonite layers ^{9,20,38}. Finally, a fourth challenge is that montmorillonite 103 104 edge surfaces carry a variety of functional groups associated with tetrahedral Si and octahedral Al 105 atoms (>SiOH, >AlOH, >Al₂OH, >AlSiOH) as well as additional groups that arise from isomorphic substitutions of Si by Al and of Al by Mg, Fe^{II}, or Fe^{III}. In the absence of independent 106 107 predictions of the densities and intrinsic acidity constants of each surface functional group, model fits to experimental acid-base titration data are necessarily non-unique 20 . 108

Bourg et al. ²⁰ showed that the first three challenges outlined above could be resolved using 109 110 information available a decade ago. The second challenge was resolved by using an SCM to predict both $\sigma_{H,init}$ (from reported conditions of clay pre-treatment) and σ_{H} . The first challenge 111 112 required identifying experimental datasets that followed that best practices established by Duc et al. ^{26–28} and that used montmorillonite samples pre-treated by repeated washing in a solution of 113 114 well-known pH and ionic strength (as required to predict $\sigma_{H,init}$); the available database included only two datasets, those of Baeyens and Bradbury³⁹ and Duc et al.²⁷. The third challenge was 115 116 resolved by solving a two-dimensional version of the PBE near the edge surface of an isolated 117 montmorillonite particle. The fourth challenge, however, could not be satisfactorily resolved, 118 because of large disagreements between different bond-valence model predictions of the intrinsic pK_a values of edge surface sites 40,41 and, also, because of insufficient knowledge of the densities 119 of different edge surface sites ⁴¹. Eventually, Bourg et al. ²⁰ concluded that experimental data on 120

the acid-base chemistry of montmorillonite edge surfaces could not be predicted from firstprinciples using existing knowledge.

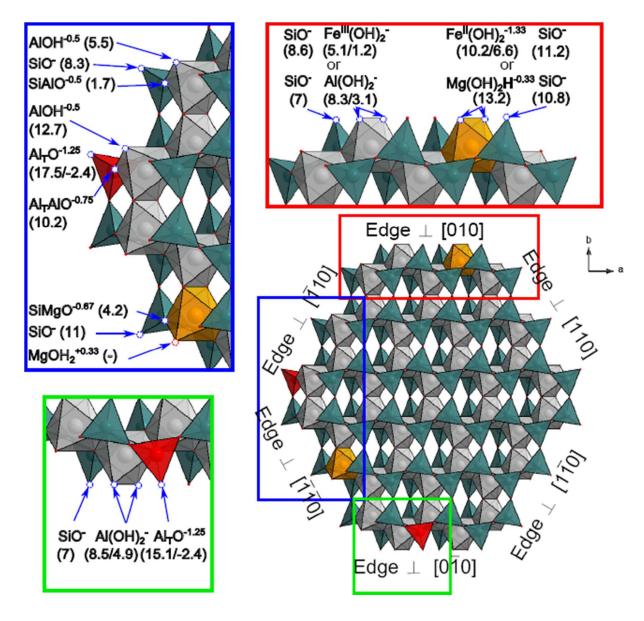
123 The last decade has seen a significant number of new studies of the acid-base surface chemistry of montmorillonite. Several new potentiometric titration studies have been carried out ⁴²⁻⁴⁷ as 124 125 well as one study that attempted to determine the i.e.p. of montmorillonite edge surfaces ⁴⁸. 126 Several studies have provided new estimates of the edge specific surface area of montmorillonite particles ^{10,49}. Models of ψ_{edge} have been refined using new Poisson-Boltzmann calculations ⁹ and 127 Grand Canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC) simulations ⁵⁰. Finally, *ab initio* MD simulations have 128 been used to predict the intrinsic pK_a values of montmorillonite edge surface sites ^{51–57}. Here, we 129 revisit the conclusions of Bourg et al.²⁰ in light of these advances. First, we show that new 130 131 knowledge obtained during the last decade provides a more coherent picture of the proton surface 132 chemistry of montmorillonite. Then, we develop a state-of-the-art SCM for montmorillonite edge 133 surfaces, and we note possibilities for future improvements. This new SCM is mainly based on a 134 combination of the existing 2D Poisson-Boltzmann calculations, which are representative of clay 135 edges geometry, with the development of a revised thermodynamic concept for the description of 136 the edge sites, and with the use of pK_a values that have been obtained from *ab initio* MD 137 simulations.

138 **2.** Constraints on the proton surface chemistry of montmorillonite edges

139 **2.1. Montmorillonite edge structure**

140 Current knowledge of the densities of different types of montmorillonite edge functional groups 141 remains limited by uncertainty regarding edge crystallographic orientations. Crystal growth 142 theory calculations, surface Coulomb energy considerations, atomistic simulations, and *in situ* observation of dissolution kinetics using atomic force microscopy suggest the that most stable edge surfaces are perpendicular to [010] and [110] (or, equivalently, $[\bar{1}10]$) ^{58–63}, where the Miller indices are assigned according to Churakov ⁶⁰ (Figure 1). The two edge surfaces are sometimes referred to as the B and AC edges, respectively, following the seminal study by White and Zelazny ⁶³. Recent molecular dynamics (MD) and *ab initio* MD simulations of hydrated clay edges suggest that the surface normal to [110] may be significantly more stable than the surface normal to [010] in the presence of liquid water ^{61,62,64}.

Montmorillonite edge surfaces are routinely assumed to have the same stoichiometry and structure as the bulk crystal, with minor bond-length relaxation to accommodate over- or undercoordinated surface O atoms ⁴⁰. Recent MD and *ab initio* MD simulation results reveal a more complex picture, the most well-established finding being that cations in the octahedral layer can adopt a five-fold coordination ^{55,61,65,66}.



155

Figure 1. Edge surface sites of a model montmorillonite particle. Inserts with red and green borders describe sites on the B edge. The insert with a blue border describes sites on the AC edge. The clay mineral structure was taken from Viani et al. 67 and is representative of the structures considered in bond valence calculations and *ab initio* MD simulations. Grey octahedra: Al or Fe(III); orange octahedra: Mg or Fe(II); green tetrahedra: Si; red tetrahedra: Al. Isomorphic substitutions are only shown if they occur at the edge surface. The stoichoimetries of the deprotonated sites are written on the figure along with numbers corresponding to the log *K* values

163 of the associated protonation reactions predicted by *ab initio* MD calculations (see Section 2.4; an

absence of value means that the site does not protonate/deprotonate in the pH range 1 to 14).

165

166 **2.2. Edge specific surface area**

167 An important parameter in studies of montmorillonite edge reactivity is the edge specific surface 168 area, $a_{s.edge}$. Unfortunately, the N₂ gas adsorption method with the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller 169 technique (N₂-BET) quantifies only the external surface area of crystals (stacks of montmorillonite layers) after drying, which provides no information on $a_{s,edge}$ ⁶⁸. The ethylene 170 171 glycol monoethyl ether (EGME) adsorption method quantifies the total specific surface area of montmorillonite layers, a_s , dominated by the basal surfaces ⁶⁹. In principle, $a_{s edge}$ equals the 172 difference between the measured a_s value and the theoretical basal specific surface area $a_{s,basal}$ [\approx 173 750 to 780 m² g⁻¹ ⁷⁰]. Unfortunately, EGME-derived a_s values show a significant dependence on 174 experimental conditions ⁶⁸ that precludes a precise calculation of $a_{s edge}$. 175

Direct measurements of $a_{s,edge}$ for montmorillonite have been achieved using two approaches. The first consists in evaluating edge specific surface area by statistical analysis of particle morphology from atomic force microscopy (AFM) or transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images ^{71–73}. Alternatively, the derivative isotherms summation (DIS) method distinguishes different clay surfaces in a single gas adsorption measurement based on differences in adsorption energy ⁶⁸. Comparison of microscopic imaging and DIS results yields satisfactory agreement (Table S-1), with a possible slight overestimation of edge surface area by the DIS method ⁷⁴.

183 **2.3. Edge surface electrostatic potential**

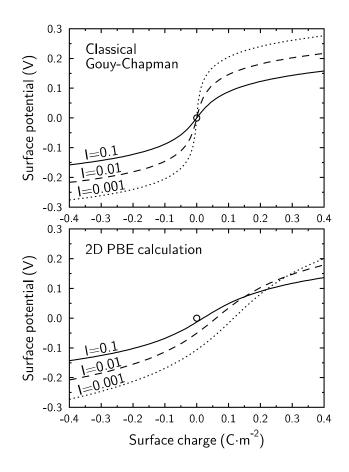
184 As noted above, SCMs of proton adsorption on montmorillonite require a model of the edge 185 surface electrostatic potential, ψ_{edge} . Most modeling studies have assumed that clay edges do not develop a significant electrostatic potential ($\psi_{edge} = 0$)^{41,75-79} or that ψ_{edge} follows the Gouy-186 Chapman relation for an infinite planar surface ^{33,35,43,80–91}. The few studies that solved the PBE 187 188 near clay edges for realistic geometries, however, showed that ψ_{edge} differs strongly from zero 189 and from the Gouy-Chapman model prediction and is sensitive to the stacking arrangement of the clay layers ^{38,92-94}. Bourg et al. ²⁰ solved a two-dimensional form of the PBE near the edge 190 191 surface of an isolated montmorillonite layer (consistent with exfoliated layers in Namontmorillonite suspensions at ionic strengths lower than $I\sim0.2$) and found that ψ_{edge} was 192 193 reasonably described by:

$$\frac{F\psi_{edge}}{RT} = A_1 \operatorname{asinh}\left(A_2(Q_{edge} + A_3)\right)$$
(4)

where Q_{edge} (C·m⁻²) is the charge at the edge and A_1 (unitless), A_2 (m⁻²·C) and A_3 (C·m⁻²) are parameters that were fitted with the ψ_{edge} values obtained from the full resolution of the 2D PB equation. For montmorillonite at 25 °C, Tournassat et al. ⁹ refined the values of these parameters to: $A_1 = 1.4$ -1.2 log *I*, $A_2 = 11 + \log I$, and $A_3 = -0.02 \times (-\log I)^{1.60}$. This equation can be compared with the classical Gouy-Chapman model for infinite planar surfaces ¹³:

$$\frac{F\psi}{RT} = 2 \operatorname{asinh}(B \cdot \sigma) \operatorname{with} B = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8\varepsilon\varepsilon_0 RT \cdot 1000 \cdot I}}$$
(5)

199 where σ is the surface charge density (in m⁻²). A key prediction of Eq. 4 is that ψ_{edge} is negative 200 when the edge surface charge is zero (Figure 2) because of a spillover of negative electrostatic 201 potential from the basal surfaces ^{92,94}.

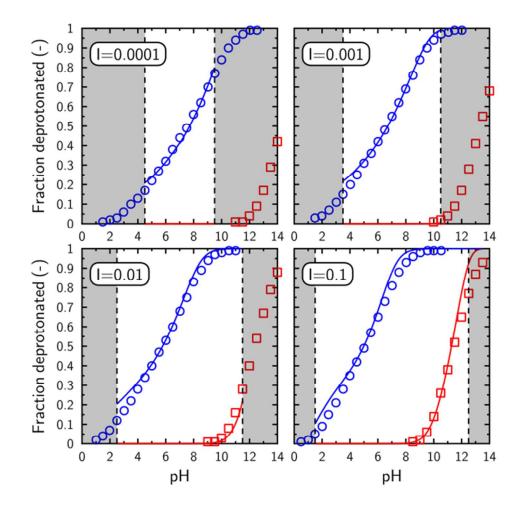


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Figure 2. Comparison of the relationships between surface charge (horizontal axis) and surface electrostatical potential (vertical axis) predicted by the classical Gouy-Chapman model for a flat oxide surface (top) and by the PBE calculations of Bourg et al. ²⁰ for the edge surface of an isolated montmorillonite layer (bottom) at three ionic strengths. The circles mark the condition of zero charge and zero potential on each graph.

A potential limitation to the accuracy of the PBE is that it uses the mean-field theory approximation, i.e., it neglects specific ion-ion and ion-surface site interactions. On infinite flat

surfaces, the PBE is nevertheless known to adequately predict the structure of the electrical 210 double layer except at high salinities or in the presence of multivalent counterions ^{37,95,96}. In the 211 212 case of montmorillonite, an opportunity to verify the validity of Eq. (4) is provided by GCMC 213 simulations of the acid-base chemistry of individual clay particles where water was treated as a uniform dielectric continuum ⁵⁰. To this end, we implemented Eq. (4) in PHREEQC ⁹⁷ (the 214 215 modification of the source code is made available in the supporting information file: a executable 216 file can be sent upon request) and predicted the protonation of surface sites using the same site densities and pK_a values as Delhorme et al.⁵⁰ (PHREEQC scripts and database are available in 217 218 the supporting information file). An excellent agreement was found between the two predictions 219 (Figure 3), suggesting that Eq. (4) is valid over the entire range of experimental conditions where 220 montmorillonite particles are made of single layers. This condition is met in experiments carried 221 out with montmorillonite particles dispersed in a NaCl or NaClO₄ background electrolyte at ionic strengths lower than $I \sim 0.2^{98-101}$. 222



223

Figure 3. Comparison of the GCMC simulations of Delhorme et al. ⁵⁰ (circles and squares) with 224 225 an SCM that used Eq. (4) (solid lines) at three different ionic strengths in NaCl salt background. 226 Both models used the same site densities and intrinsic pK_a values. Activity coefficients of solute species in the SCM were modeled using the extended Debye-Hückel formalism. Blue symbols 227 and lines refer to aluminol sites having a pK_a of 3.75 and a site density of 4.5 nm⁻²; red symbols 228 and lines refer to silanol sites having a pK_a of 8.0 and a site density of 5.2 nm⁻². Shaded areas 229 230 correspond to conditions that cannot exist, i.e., domains where the specified ionic strength is 231 exceeded because of high H^+ or OH^- concentrations.

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232 2.4. Intrinsic pK_a values of edge surface sites

Until recently, theoretical estimates of the intrinsic pK_a values of edge surface sites were based on 233 bond-valence theories. The resulting predicted pK_a values were highly sensitive to model 234 assumptions ^{40,41} and did not provide accurate predictions of experimental montmorillonite 235 titration data²⁰. In the last decade, *ab initio* MD simulations have proved capable of accurately 236 predicting the intrinsic p K_a values of simple oxide surface functional groups ¹⁰²⁻¹⁰⁴, including 237 oxide-type functional groups on montmorillonite edge surfaces ^{51–57}. In particular, a series of 238 papers by Liu et al. ^{51–55} explored the influence of edge crystallographic orientation and the 239 presence of octahedral and tetrahedral substitutions on the intrinsic pK_a values of edge surface 240 241 groups. Their predictions are summarized in Figure 1. It is noteworthy that similar sites on the 242 surfaces perpendicular to the [010] and [110] crystallographic directions have different reactivity according to the *ab initio* MD calculations. For example, silanol sites (>SiOH) have pK_a values of 243 7.0 on the [010] edge vs. 8.3 on the [110] edge when no octahedral substitution is present. These 244 values are significantly different from the values predicted by bond valence methods ^{40,41} and 245 used by Bourg et al. ²⁰ (Table S-2). 246

247 **2.5. Experimental data**

Duc et al. ^{26–28} carried out a comprehensive examination of montmorillonite acid-base titration methodologies and identified a series of best practices. These included careful montmorillonite pre-treatment and storage procedures (use of a series of acid washes at pH \approx 4, exchangeable cation homogenization at ionic strength $I \approx 1$, and rinsing steps; storage in liquid water at low temperature for relatively short durations, or storage of freeze-dried samples as an acceptable alternative). For the titration experiments themselves, they noted the importance of using an inert atmosphere and limiting the experiments to the pH range ≈ 4.5 -9.5. They found that a continuous 255 titration method was acceptable if equilibration times between additions of acid or base were 256 short (< 10 min) and if hysteresis was quantified; alternatively, a discontinuous batch titration method was acceptable if the atoms released by clay dissolution (Si, Al, Mg, Fe) were analyzed 257 258 (both in solution and on the clay cation-exchange sites) to account for pH buffering by side 259 reactions. In the alkaline domain, however, correction of the raw batch titration data for measured 260 side reactions failed to reproduce the continuous titration curves. The authors concluded on the 261 superiority of fast, continuous methods for quantifying the dissociable surface charge of clays. Among the many reported studies of montmorillonite titration ^{12,27–29,33–35,39,80,84,86,88–90,105}. Bourg 262 et al. ²⁰ determined that only three studies ^{27,28,39} followed this set of best practices. One of these 263 studies used the batch titration technique ³⁹, and its results at alkaline pH values are therefore of 264 unclear reliability. Of the acid-base titration studies published over the last decade ^{42–47}, none 265 266 followed the entire established set of best practices while also reporting the pH and ionic strength 267 of the solutions used during clay pre-treatment. The present study, therefore, focuses on the dataset from Duc et al.²⁷ as the best available set of montmorillonite acid-base titration results. 268

An interesting indirect quantification of edge surface charge was pursued by Pecini and Avena⁴⁸. 269 270 who measured the i.e.p. of montmorillonite loaded with cationic dyes with a strong affinity for 271 the basal surface. Under the assumption that the dyes completely screen the basal surface charge 272 but do not interact with the edge surfaces (such that the measured i.e.p. reflects edge surface 273 properties) and within the well-established theoretical limitations associated with relating an i.e.p. to a point of zero charge ³⁰, the results of Pecini and Avena ⁴⁸ suggest that the point of zero 274 charge of clay edge surfaces (the pH value where $\sigma_{0,edge} + \sigma_H = 0$, where $\sigma_{0,edge}$ corresponds to the 275 permanent structural charge density "expressed" on the edge surface) is in the pH range 3.8–5.5, 276 277 in qualitative agreement with a previous measurement of the i.e.p. of thermally treated Cu278 montmorillonite for which the structural layer charge was reduced to almost zero, whereby the 279 authors estimated that the edge surfaces are negatively charged at $pH > 3.5^{-106}$.

280 **3. Towards a predictive SCM for montmorillonite edge surfaces**

281 **3.1. Reactivity of edge surface functional groups**

282 To determine whether the new knowledge summarized above allows a predictive simulation of 283 the acid-base chemistry of montmorillonite, we developed a generic SCM for the [010] and [110] 284 edge surfaces in our modified version of PHREEQC that applies Eq. (4) for the calculation of ψ_{edge} . Edge surface functional groups were modeled as groups of one octahedral and two 285 tetrahedral cations together with their associated OH groups. The overall charge of a group was 286 287 calculated from bond valence principle applied to the terminal oxygen atoms of the edge sites. 288 For example, a fully-deprotonated functional group with no isomorphic substitution on the [010] 289 edge corresponds to the grouping of two Si-O⁻ sites and one Al-(OH)₂⁻ site and is denoted >Si-Al- SiO_4^{-3} (leaving the unreactive H out of the formula). It can be protonated four times with intrinsic 290 291 pK_a values of 8.3, 7, 7, and 3.1 as predicted by *ab initio* MD simulation (section 2.4 and Figure 292 1). This representation deviates from the classical description used in SCMs, where each surface hydroxyl is modeled as a distinct functional group with a single pK_a value ¹⁰⁷. The advantages of 293 294 the present representation are that the calculation of the number of sites affected by neighboring 295 substitutions is straightforward and that future implementation of metal adsorption through the 296 formation of multi-dentate surface complexes is made easier with regards to the calculation of surface site activities ^{9,108}. Simple cases were used to verify that the grouping of surface sites had 297 298 little effect on model predictions (Fig. SI-1 in supporting information; PHREEQC script files are 299 also available in order to test further the effect of grouping sites). The fractions of edge functional

300 groups that include octahedral or tetrahedral substitutions were calculated from the structural 301 formula of montmorillonite with the assumption that edge chemistry reflects that of the bulk 302 mineral. Because of the absence of *ab initio* MD simulation predictions of the reactivity of Fe-303 substituted sites on the [110] edge surface, sites with Fe(III) for Al substitutions on this surface 304 were assigned the same properties as sites without substitutions, while sites with Fe(II) for Al 305 substitutions were assigned the same properties as sites with Mg for Al substitutions. Surface site 306 densities were estimated from crystallographic considerations and from reported clay unit cell formulae: each site group, SiAlSi, AlAlSi, SiMgSi, SiFe^{III}Si, and SiFe^{II}Si had a density of $2.06 \times$ 307

308
$$x_i$$
 nm⁻², where $x_{>Si-Mg-Si} = \left(\frac{Mg}{Al+Mg+Fe^{II}+Fe^{III}}\right)_{oct}$, $x_{>Si-Fe^{III}-Si} = \left(\frac{Fe^{III}}{Al+Mg+Fe^{II}+Fe^{III}}\right)_{oct}$

309 ,
$$x_{>Si-Fe^{II}-Si} = \left(\frac{Fe^{II}}{Al+Mg+Fe^{II}+Fe^{III}}\right)_{oct}$$
, $x_{>Al-Al-Si} = 2 \times \left(\frac{Al}{Si+Al}\right)_{tet}$, and $x_{>Si-Al-Si} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} +$

310 $x_{>Si-Mg-Si} - x_{>Al-Al-Si} - x_{>Si-Fe^{III}-Si} - x_{>Si-Fe^{II}-Si}$. This calculation implicitly neglects the 311 possible existence of edge sites with both octahedral and tetrahedral substitutions or with two 312 tetrahedral substitutions, for which predicted p K_a values are not available.

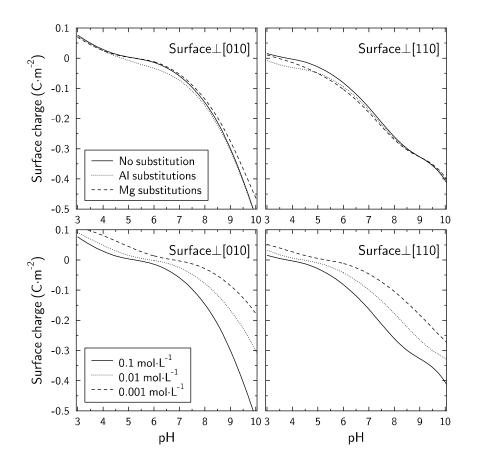
313 **3.2. Impact of clay permanent structural charge**

314 Proton adsorption by Na-H cation exchange on basal surfaces was taken into account by using a 315 constant selectivity coefficient of 3.2 (log K = 0.5) in near agreement with previously published values 41,109 . The permanent structural charge was set to 0.9 mol_c·kg⁻¹, yielding an overall charge 316 density of $\sigma_0 = -0.12 \text{ C} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ for the clay layers. As noted above, the edge surface charge equals 317 $\sigma_{0,edge} + \sigma_H = 0$, where $\sigma_{0,edge}$ is the edge surface charge density resulting from nearby isomorphic 318 substitutions. Bourg et al. ²⁰ assumed that $\sigma_{0,edge} = \sigma_0$ for simplicity. Here, we modeled edge 319 320 surface charge arising from near-edge isomorphic substitutions in an even simpler way: we added 321 -1 to the valence of edge functional groups that include an isomorphic substitution of Al for Si or of Mg or Fe(II) for Al. For example, a fully-deprotonated edge functional group with no isomorphic substitutions (>Si-Al-SiO₄⁻³), upon substitution of Mg for Al, becomes (>Si-Mg-SiO₄⁻³).

325 **3.3.** Predicted acid-base properties of edge surfaces

326 According to the predictive model described above, montmorillonite edge surface charge has 327 little dependence on the type and extent of layer structural substitutions, but it depends 328 significantly on crystallographic orientation between the [010] and [110] edge surfaces (Figure 4, top). In the presence of 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ NaCl, the [010] surface is positively charged at pH < 5, 329 330 whereas the [110] surface is positively charged only at pH < 3.5, consistent with the experimental findings of Thomas et al. ¹⁰⁶ and Pecini and Avena ⁴⁸. The relative proportion of [010] and [110] 331 332 edge surface orientations on montmorillonite is unfortunately unknown, which leaves one 333 unavoidable free parameter in the presently developed SCM.

Changes in ionic strength are predicted to have a marked effect on surface charge but not on the shape of the charge vs. pH curves, especially for the surface perpendicular to [110] (Figure 4, bottom). A decrease in ionic strength results primarily in a translation of the surface charge curve towards higher pH values, in agreement with experimental results.



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Figure 4. Top: Predicted edge surface charge as a function of pH for montmorillonite particles immersed in a 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ NaCl background electrolyte. "No", "Al" and "Mg" substitutions refer to simulations carried out with $(x_{>Si-Mg-Si} = 0; x_{>Al-Al-Si} = 0)$, $(x_{>Si-Mg-Si} = 0; x_{>Al-Al-Si} =$ 0.1) and $(x_{>Si-Mg-Si} = 0.2; x_{>Al-Al-Si} = 0)$ respectively. Bottom: Influence of NaCl concentration (0.001, 0.01, and 0.1 mol·L⁻¹) on the predictions obtained if x>Si-Al-Si = 1.

344 **3.4.** Comparison with potentiometric titration data

Model predictions were compared with the potentiometric titration results of Duc et al. ²⁷ for the SWy-2 and MX80 reference montmorillonites (the dataset for SWy-2 was made available in Delhorme et al. ⁵⁰). The structural formulae of SWy-2 and MX80 montmorillonites were reported as $(Si_{3.87}Al_{0.13})(Al_{1.52}Mg_{0.25}Fe^{III}_{0.224}Fe^{II}_{0.006})Na_{0.39}O_{10}(OH)_2$ and

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349 (Si₄)(Al_{1.57}Mg_{0.25}Fe^{III}_{0.09}Fe^{III}_{0.09})Na_{0.34}O₁₀(OH)₂, respectively ²⁷. Reported montmorillonite 350 structural formulae can vary as a function of sample preparation and calculation method ⁶⁵. This 351 variability adds a minor source of uncertainty to our model predictions according to Figure 4. The 352 $x_{>Si-Mg-Si}$, $x_{>Si-Fe^{II}-Si}$, $x_{>Si-Fe^{III}-Si}$ and $x_{>Al-Al-Si}$ values were set, respectively, to 0.125, 353 0.045, 0.045 and 0 for MX80 montmorillonite and to 0.125, 0.003, 0.112 and 0.13 for SWy-2 354 montmorillonite.

355 A good agreement was found between experimental and predicted potentiometric titration data for SWy-2 montmorillonite if the specific edge surface area was set to 14 $m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$ and the relative 356 357 abundance of [010] and [110] edges was set to 1:1 (Figure 5). The modeled edge specific surface area is in agreement with the value of 19.2 $m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$ measured on the sample used for the titration 358 experiment (Table S-1), because the DIS method tends to overestimate the surface area ⁷⁴. A 359 360 lesser agreement was found for the lowest ionic strength (I=0.001) at pH values greater than 8, but the significance of this discrepancy is tempered by the increased experimental uncertainty at 361 $pH > 9^{-20}$. For MX80 montmorillonite, the agreement between experimental and predicted 362 potentiometric titration curves was acceptable if the specific edge surface area was set to $12 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^2$ 363 ¹ and the relative abundance of [010] and [110] edges was set to 1:1 (Figure 5) (the effect of 364 365 varying the relative abundance of [010] and [110] edges can be seen on Figure 4, and it can be 366 quantified by using the PHREEQC script files provided in the supporting information). The 367 modeled edge specific surface area was larger than the measured value (Table S-1, from 6 to 9 $m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$, depending on the considered study). However, the values reported in Table S-1 were not 368 369 measured for the same samples used in the titration experiments. For both titration datasets, the pH values corresponding to $\delta \sigma_{\rm H} = 0$ were correctly predicted at all investigated ionic strengths. 370 371 A better agreement with the experimental data likely could have been achieved by adjusting the

 pK_a values of edge surface sites in the limit of the uncertainty reported in Liu et al. ^{51–55} (from ± 0.6 to ± 1.6 depending on the site under consideration), but such a refinement was not deemed justified in light of the uncertainties in the experimental data. Such exercise can be done using the files made available in the supporting information.

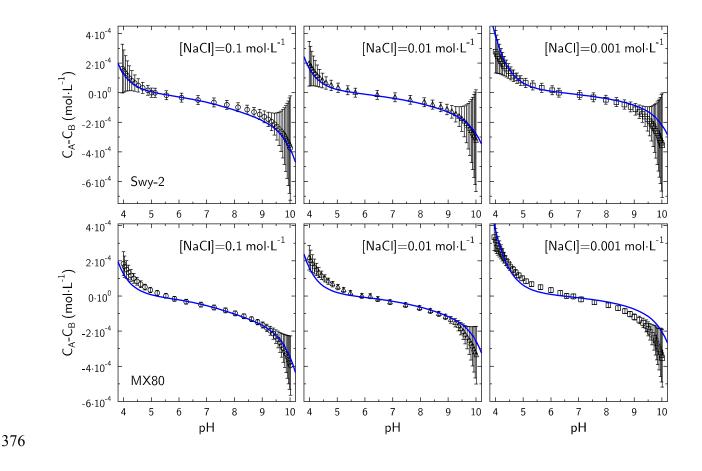


Figure 5. Comparison of model predictions (lines) and potentiometric titration data (symbols^{27,50}) for MX80 montmorillonite (bottom) and SWy-2 montmorillonite (top). The specific edge surface area was set to 12 m²·g⁻¹ and 14 m²·g⁻¹ for MX80 and Swy-2 montmorillonite respectively, and the relative abundance of [010] and [110] edges was set at 0.5/0.5. Error bands were estimated as in Bourg et al. ²⁰.

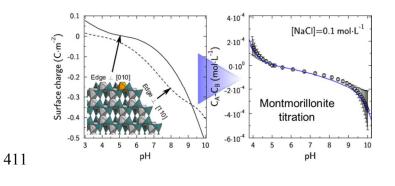
382 The present study relies on several simplifying assumptions or conditions that inherently limit the 383 range of applicability of the proposed model. First and foremost, the model was derived for the 384 case of simple indifferent 1:1 electrolytes such as NaCl at relatively dilute concentrations (≤ 0.1 385 M) where clay layer stacking is minimal and where the mean field approximation inherent in the 386 PBE is valid. Extension of the model to a broader set of conditions would require a new model of ψ_{edge} derived for the appropriate aggregation structure of montmorillonite layers and for 387 388 deviations from the mean-field approximation. A significant challenge to such an extension is 389 that the best-quality experimental titration data are limited to the conditions modeled in the 390 present study.

391 Another important condition for the applicability of our proposed model is that the model's 392 description of edge surface sites must be accurate. At the most fundamental level, this condition 393 can be challenged on the grounds that most, if not all, theoretical calculations of montmorillonite 394 edge site properties were carried out based on a pyrophillite-like model structure, which is *trans*-395 vacant, whereas available data suggest that most montmorillonites have a *cis*-vacant structure 396 ^{110,111}. Structural OH groups have different positions in *cis*- and *trans*-vacant structures. Additionally, *cis*-vacant structures are not centrosymmetric ¹¹¹, and the types of edge surface 397 398 configurations are thus more diverse than for trans-vacant structures. In particular, edge surface site configurations are different for the edges perpendicular to the [010] and $[0\overline{10}]$ 399 400 crystallographic directions in a *cis*-vacant structure, whereas they are the same in a *trans*-vacant 401 structure (see Figure S-1 in supporting information).

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410 **5. TOC**



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413 **6. References**

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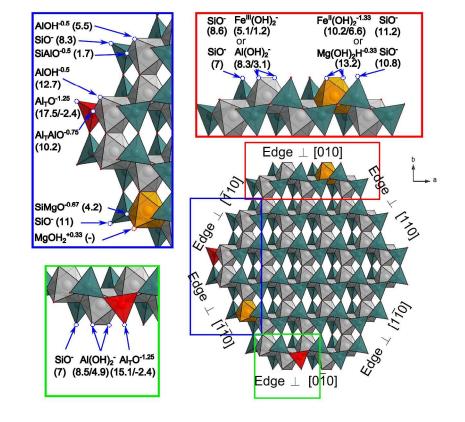


Figure 1

297x420mm (300 x 300 DPI)

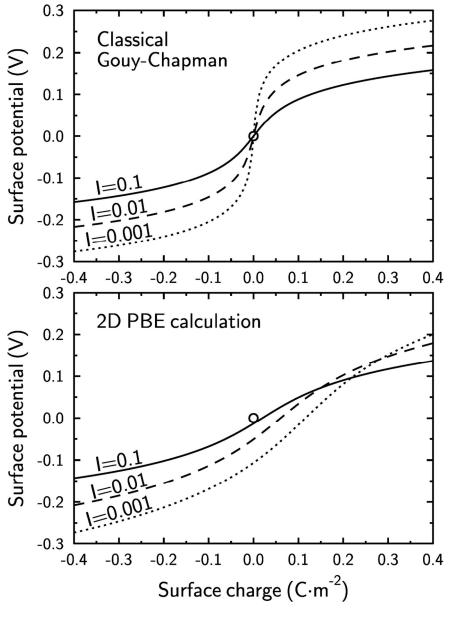


Figure 2 117x161mm (300 x 300 DPI)

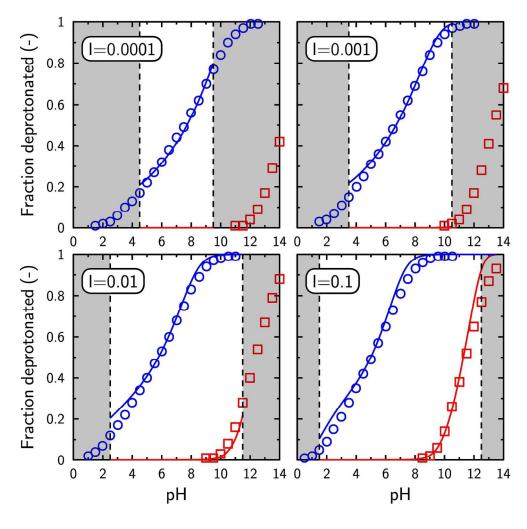
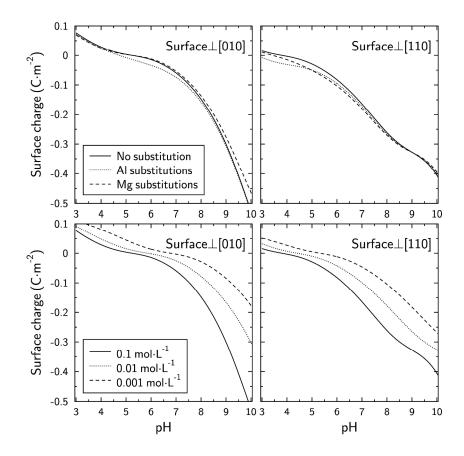
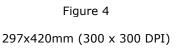
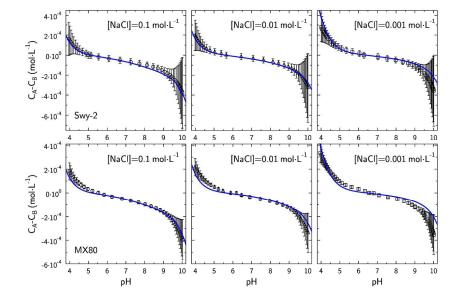


Figure 3 166x163mm (300 x 300 DPI)

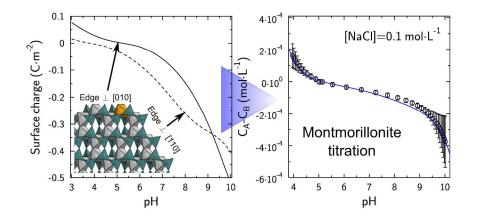








297x420mm (300 x 300 DPI)



TOC

297x420mm (300 x 300 DPI)