

1 Adsorption, Structure, and Dynamics of Short- and
2 Long-Chain PFAS Molecules in Kaolinite:
3 Molecular Level Insights

4 *Narasimhan Loganathan* and Angela K. Wilson**

5 Department of Chemistry, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824, United
6 States

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19 *) Corresponding author's e-mail: akwilson@msu.edu
20 naresh20@msu.edu
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Abstract

The ubiquitous presence of poly- and perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) in different natural settings pose a serious threat to environmental and human health. Soils and sediments represent one of the important exposure pathways of PFAS for humans and animals. With increasing bioaccumulation and mobility, it is extremely important to understand the interactions of PFAS molecules with the dominant constituents of soils such as clay minerals. This study reports for the first time the fundamental molecular level insights into the adsorption, interfacial structure, and dynamics of short- and long-chain PFAS molecules at the water saturated mesopores of kaolinite clay using classical molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. At environmental conditions, all the PFAS molecules are exclusively adsorbed near the hydroxyl surface of the kaolinite, irrespective of the terminal functional groups and metal cations. The interfacial adsorption structures and coordination environments of PFAS is strongly dependent on the nature of the functional groups and their hydrophobic chain length. The formation of large, aggregated clusters of long-chain PFAS at the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite is responsible for their restricted dynamics in comparison to short-chain PFAS molecules. Such comprehensive knowledge of PFAS at the clay mineral interface is critical to developing novel site-specific degradation and mitigation strategies.

Synopsis

This study provides critical insight about the fate and transport of PFAS contaminants in soils and sediments.

Keywords

Kaolinite, PFOA, PFOS, Diffusion, PFAS distribution, Soils.

Introduction

Poly- and perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) often known as “forever chemicals” have been classified as critical emerging contaminants due to reported detrimental effects of certain PFAS molecules on the environment and human health.^{1–8} PFAS represents a class of >9000 molecules that exhibits unique hydrophobic and lipophobic properties, thus enabling them to be widely incorporated in a myriad of industrial, commercial, and domestic applications for well over five decades. Uses of PFAS include non-stick cookware, firefighting foams, food packaging, paints, cosmetics, pesticides, water resistant cloth, and carpets. The ubiquitous presence of PFAS in various natural settings originates from their strong C-F bonds which provides them extreme stability and hence enables them to be resistant to photolytic, biological and chemical degradation.^{9,10} Consequently, human exposure to PFAS is inevitable and has been linked to adverse health impacts such as carcinogenesis, neurotoxicity, cardiovascular diseases, developmental and reproductive disorders.^{8,11–16} In recent studies, we demonstrated the binding of short- and long-chain PFAS molecules to two important nuclear receptors which are responsible for regulating drug interactions and glucose metabolism.^{17,18}

Studies by Ahrens et al.^{19,20} clearly highlighted that soils and sediments represent important pathways for direct and indirect exposure of PFAS to ecosystems. In fact, a number of studies have assessed the sorption behavior of PFAS in field soil samples.^{21–29} These studies clearly highlight that the sorption of PFAS is greatly influenced by soil composition. Consequently, huge efforts towards the development of novel adsorbent materials have been pursued, which show varying levels of success for the effective treatment and removal of PFAS from soil matrices.^{10,30–35} However, complete elimination of PFAS from soils and sediments is still not possible which could be attributed to poor understanding of the critical roles exerted by the different components of

soils. For instance, the influence of clay minerals, the prominent components of soils, and the prevalent metal cations on the fate and transport of PFAS in near- and sub-surface regions is poorly understood. Such fundamental insights are extremely important as both clay minerals and metal cations have been shown to greatly alter the distribution of other organic and inorganic species in natural settings.^{36–42} Therefore, a systematic investigation of the adsorption and mobility of PFAS with different clay minerals varying in structural composition is of high importance. Furthermore, the accurate evaluation of the sorption characteristics of PFAS by constituents in soils will provide a route to make further progress in the mitigation strategies.

To date, there is only a limited number of batch adsorption experimental studies on PFAS in clays.^{43–50} For instance, Xiao et al.⁴³ reported that the adsorption of perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS) is much higher than for perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) in kaolinite clay mineral. More importantly, recent studies demonstrated that the adsorption of PFAS molecules with sulfonate and carboxylate functional groups is ten times higher in kaolinite than in smectite mineral, montmorillonite.^{45,46} In addition, Zhang et al.⁴⁶ reported that PFAS adsorption is strongly influenced by metal cations in clay minerals. On the other hand, Zhao et al.⁴⁷ showed that the adsorption of short-chain PFAS molecules is more limited than that of long-chain PFAS in both kaolinite and montmorillonite. Studies based on conceptual and transport models have indicated that short-chain PFAS molecules are highly mobile and exhibit long-range transport when compared to long-chain molecules.^{51,52} Despite progress in the macroscopic understanding of the adsorption process, a molecular level understanding is completely unexplored in areas including the role of clay composition in dictating the specific adsorption and structural environments of PFAS at the interface, the variance of the surface coordination characteristics of PFAS with respect to clay substrates, and the pivotal fundamental interactions that govern the adsorption and

dynamics of PFAS in clay minerals. To our knowledge, there is only one computational study that focused on the adsorption of PFAS in nanoconfined pores of montmorillonite – this study showed that the adsorption is influenced by both the surface charge of the clay minerals and the length of the PFAS molecules.⁵³

The current study is focused to unravel the underlying factors that instigate the adsorption and dynamics of PFAS in a clay mineral that is abundantly present in soils and sediments, namely kaolinite for the first time. It represents a 1:1 layered silicate mineral and is composed of a layer of Si tetrahedra connected to one Al octahedral layer. Importantly, the presence of three hydroxyl groups at the basal surface of the octahedral layer in kaolinite results in a hydrophilic character while the basal surface of Si tetrahedra exhibits a hydrophobic behavior. These unique hydrophobic and hydrophilic surface characteristics of kaolinite could play a critical role during the adsorption and transport of PFAS molecules, which also have a hydrophobic backbone and a polar group with different functionalities. Prior work on kaolinite has considered the adsorption of highly polar organic molecules including citric acid, decahydro-2-naphthoic acid and methanol at the basal surfaces using molecular dynamics (MD) simulations.^{54,55}

The main objective of this investigation is to gain a detailed molecular level understanding of the adsorption, structure and dynamics of four different PFAS molecules at the H₂O saturated mesopores of kaolinite at ambient thermodynamic conditions using MD simulations. Importantly, this study provides mechanistic insight about the interfacial properties of PFAS in kaolinite under three different scenarios: (i) molecules with similar length but with different terminal functional groups (carboxylic and sulfonic acids); (ii) short- and long-chain PFAS molecules having same functional groups; (iii) presence of naturally prevalent metal cations (K⁺, Na⁺, Ca²⁺).

Simulation Details

The structure of kaolinite used in this study is based on the optimized structure from Cygan et al.⁵⁶ and has a structural formula of $\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$. The hydrogen bonding interactions between the hydroxyl groups associated with Al octahedra and the basal surface oxygen atoms of the adjacent Si tetrahedra (siloxane) are responsible for the formation of kaolinite particles. The external kaolinite surface was constructed by cleaving the structure along the (001) plane which results in both the siloxane surface and the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite exposed to interact with the bulk solution phase. The simulation cell consisted of two kaolinite layers and a nanopore region of ~ 136 Å bound by the cleaved surfaces (Figure 1). The lateral (x and y) dimensions of the simulation cell correspond to ~ 62 Å and ~ 72 Å while the total initial length along z direction was ~ 150 Å with a total of 192 unit cells. The large nanopore thickness normal to the kaolinite (001) surface effectively eliminated any interactions of hydroxyl surface over adjacent siloxane surface when the periodic boundary conditions were applied and hence generated two statistically independent interparticle interfaces. In addition, the large surface area along with the nanopore region provided sufficient space for the PFAS molecules to move and interact with the cleaved surfaces and among themselves. The external (001) surface was initially saturated with $\sim 20,000$ water molecules at ambient conditions and 16 PFAS molecules. Four different PFAS molecules, namely perfluorobutanoic acid (PFBA), perfluorobutane sulfonic acid (PFBS), perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS) were examined that vary both in terminal functional groups and length of the hydrophobic carbon backbone. Importantly, the PFAS molecules examined represent both short- (PFBA and PFBS) and long-chain (PFOA and PFOS) entities that exhibit completely different adsorption and transport properties in experiments.^{43,46,52} In a given simulated model, a total of 16 PFAS molecules (representing one of the four PFAS types) were initially placed at four distinct regions with a separation of 20 Å between the regions

(Figure 1). Moreover, in any given region the four PFAS molecules were placed with $\sim 15\text{-}20$ Å separation between each other. To simulate near-neutral pH conditions, the terminal functional groups (carboxylic/sulfonic acids) of PFAS molecules were deprotonated. Consequently, metal cations were included in the nanopore region to charge compensate the anionic PFAS. The influence of metal cations on the adsorption and dynamics of PFAS was examined with K^+ , Na^+ and Ca^{2+} ions that exhibits completely different size/charge ratio and hydration properties and are commonly identified in surface waters and clay minerals. Similar to the approach for the PFAS molecules, the metal cations were placed throughout the nanopore region and away from both PFAS and one another, thus allowing the preferred adsorption environments to be determined during the course of the simulation. Thus, a total of 12 simulation models were investigated in this study. Importantly, it should be noted that the concentrations of PFAS used in this study are in the ppm range and are representative of contaminated sites around air force base and military installations across United States as shown in studies by Brusseau et al.²⁷

All classical molecular dynamics simulations were performed using the LAMMPS simulation package.⁵⁷ All kaolinite models were simulated initially in the *NPT* ensemble (constant number of atoms N , constant pressure P , and constant temperature T) and subsequently in the *NVT* ensemble (constant number of atoms N , constant volume, V , and constant temperature T) at ambient thermodynamic conditions ($T=300$ K, $P=1$ bar). A Nose-Hoover thermostat and barostat were used to control the temperature and pressure separately in all three dimensions.^{58,59} Three dimensional periodic boundary conditions were employed with a cutoff distance of 9.0 Å for the calculation of short-range non-electrostatic interactions, and the long-range electrostatics were computed using the particle-particle-particle-mesh (PPPM) summation algorithm with an accuracy of 10^{-6} .⁶⁰ The interatomic interactions for the kaolinite and metal cations were obtained from the ClayFF force

field in combination with newly developed metal-O-H bending potentials that are consistent with ClayFF.^{56,61,62} The interactions of the H₂O and PFAS molecules were modeled with the flexible SPC⁶³ interaction potential and AMBER force field,^{64,65} respectively. These interaction potentials are extensively used in clay interfacial simulations,^{66–69} organic-mineral complexation^{70–72} and material sciences studies that corroborate well with experiments.^{73–76} The partial charges for the atoms in all four different PFAS molecules were computed using the AM1-BCC charge generation scheme with the Antechamber module.^{65,77,78} A time step of 1 fs was used to integrate the equations of motion. For each modeled system, NPT simulations were performed for 15 ns entailing 10 ns of equilibration and 5 ns of data production, with data recorded every 10 fs. The equilibrium cell dimensions were calculated using the last 3 ns of the production run with 10 equal time blocks (300 ps each), yielding small errors for the reported mean values (Table S1). NVT simulations were performed subsequently for another 15 ns for equilibration followed by 20 ns of data production. The data were collected at every 10 fs from the last 5 ns of the NVT simulation which were then used to determine the structural and dynamic properties of the simulated kaolinite-PFAS model. Further details about the simulation methods and data analysis can be found in supporting information and in previous papers.^{66,79,80}

Results and Discussion

Atomic Density Profiles

The atomic density profiles (ADPs) of PFAS, H₂O and metal cations as functions of the distance normal to the external (001) surface of kaolinite are shown in Figures 2a-2d, Figures S1a-S1d, Figures S2a-S2d and Figures S3a-S3d. The ADPs clearly indicate that irrespective of the cationic kaolinite models, all PFAS molecules are exclusively adsorbed on the hydroxyl surface while the cations are adsorbed near the siloxane surface which is in excellent agreement with

previous simulation studies on hydrated surfaces with polar molecules, namely citric acid.⁵⁴ Importantly, the presence of deprotonated carboxylate and sulfonate functional groups closer to the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite evidently demonstrates that the interaction of PFAS with the surface is dictated by the direct coordination of the terminal functional groups ($\text{COO}^-/\text{SO}_3^-$) with the hydroxyl surface and not through their hydrophobic carbon backbone. However, the ADPs clearly illustrate that the interfacial adsorption structure varies significantly between carboxylate and sulfonate PFAS molecules (Figure 2a-2d). For instance, the PFBA and PFOA molecules in the simulated Ca-kaolinite model exhibit coordination with the hydroxyl surface through both the 'O' atoms of COO^- groups which is evident by the presence of equal intensity peaks at ~ 2.6 Å from the surface (Figure 2a and 2c). In contrast, the coordination of PFBS and PFOS with the hydroxyl surface is predominantly driven by only one 'O' atom of the SO_3^- groups and is characterized by a distinct peak at ~ 2.0 Å (Figure 2b and 2d) while the other two 'O' atoms are primarily located at larger distances (~ 4.1 Å) from the hydroxyl surface along with very small peaks at ~ 2.0 Å. Such distributions clearly suggest that the probability of later two 'O' atoms of SO_3^- groups coordinating with the hydroxyl surface is highly unlikely. In addition, the ADPs clearly exhibit well-defined peaks for all the atoms of PFBS and PFOS in comparison to PFBA and PFOA. For instance, the ADPs of C_{COO^-} have two peaks centered at ~ 3.2 Å and ~ 4.9 Å along with a broad distribution that extends up to 8 Å in contrast to only one peak for $\text{S}_{\text{SO}_3^-}$ centered at ~ 3.3 Å in sulfonate PFAS molecules.

Most importantly, irrespective of the terminal functional groups, the interfacial adsorption structure is not influenced by the length of the PFAS molecules. The only difference observed is that the ADPs extend further into the nanopore region along the surface normal for both PFOA and PFOS (Figure 2c and 2d). This implies that the surface adsorbed PFAS molecules likely

protrude from the hydroxyl surface and do not prefer the hydrophobic part being parallel to the surface (Figure 2a-2d). Furthermore, the metal cations do not show any influence on the interfacial structure of any given PFAS molecules as the cations are exclusively adsorbed near the siloxane surface (Figure S4 and S5). The ADPs of $\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ at the hydroxyl surface exhibit three peaks at distances ~ 2.6 , 4.3 , and 6.4 Å along with a broad distribution between ~ 8 - 10 Å and are in excellent agreement with the ADPs of previous simulation studies of hydrated nanopores of kaolinite and similar mineral, namely gibbsite.^{80,81} Such agreements with kaolinite- H_2O simulations clearly illustrate that the H_2O adsorption behavior is not influenced by the presence of short- and long-chain PFAS molecules and their functionalities in the interfacial region. It is important to highlight that the use of the M-O-H bending potential⁶¹ allows the hydroxyl groups in kaolinite to probe non-perpendicular orientation along the z dimension, thus enabling a prominent peak for $\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ (~ 1.7 Å) which potentially exhibits H-bonding interactions with the surface.

The ADPs of metal cations at the siloxane surface vary significantly depending upon their charge densities and are not influenced by the presence of PFAS molecules at the hydroxyl surface as shown in Figure S6a-S6f. The figures clearly indicate that both Ca^{2+} and Na^+ ions are predominantly adsorbed at distances 4.5 and 4.2 Å from the siloxane surface which represent outer sphere coordination with respect to the surface. In contrast, K^+ ions exhibit both inner- and outer-sphere coordination with peaks at 2.9 and 4.9 Å from the siloxane surface, respectively. Importantly, the ADPs of H_2O at the siloxane surface are almost identical irrespective of the metal cations for all kaolinite models. The ADPs of $\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ exhibit two distinct peaks centered at 2.7 and 6.2 Å along with a broad flat distribution between 3.3 - 4.8 Å from the siloxane surface, in excellent agreement with previous studies on hydrated kaolinite models.^{54,80} In addition, the well-defined peaks for both $\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ and $\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ near the hydroxyl surface compared to those of the siloxane surface

are mostly likely due to the presence of strong H-bonding interactions (both donating and accepting H-bonds) with the hydroxyl surface and is in good agreement with the previous *ab initio* MD studies of hydrated kaolinite.⁸²

Orientation of Surface-Adsorbed PFAS and H₂O

It is imperative to calculate the orientation of PFAS molecules adsorbed on the hydroxyl surface as the ADPs illustrate substantial differences between the terminal functional groups. The orientations of surface adsorbed carboxylate and sulfonate PFAS with respect to the surface normal were determined only for the molecules that represent the first peak for C_{COO}⁻ ($z < 4.0$ Å) and S_{SO₃}⁻ ($z < 4.1$ Å) in the ADPs for all kaolinite models. It is evident from Figure 3a that the surface adsorbed PFBA and PFOA molecules in Ca-kaolinite have their COO⁻ groups oriented towards the hydroxyl surface with an angle (θ_1) of $\sim 125^\circ$ and $\sim 129^\circ$, respectively. In addition, the presence of a second peak at high angles ($\theta_1 - \sim 160^\circ$) for PFOA denotes that the long-chain PFAS molecules favor near-perpendicular orientation with respect to the hydroxyl surface compared to short-chain PFAS. Importantly, the broad angular distribution in Figure 3a demonstrates that the surface-adsorbed COO⁻ groups experience a rocking motion towards and away from the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite (Figure S7). As for the ADPs, the orientational characteristics of PFBA and PFOA are very similar between different cationic models with a slight variation of $\pm 4^\circ$ in the peak maxima for θ_1 (Figures S8 and S9).

In contrast, the SO₃⁻ groups in PFBS and PFOS are predominantly oriented at an angle (θ_2) of $\sim 105^\circ$ and $\sim 100^\circ$, respectively with respect to the surface normal (Figure 3b). Although, the vector is oriented marginally towards the hydroxyl surface, these θ_2 values indicate that the SO₃⁻ groups in PFBS and PFOS molecules are oriented almost parallel to the hydroxyl surface. Such orientation of SO₃⁻ groups shows that not all of the 'O' atoms are oriented perpendicular to the surface and is

in good correlation with only one ‘O’ peak of SO_3^- group being closer to the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite in the ADPs. Meanwhile, the presence of additional peaks at high angles ($\theta_2 > 130^\circ$) implies that the SO_3^- groups also exhibit a rocking motion towards and away from the hydroxyl surface (Figure 3b). However, the small peak intensities suggest that such reorientation of SO_3^- groups is substantially restricted in sulfonate molecules when compared to carboxylate PFAS molecules. Importantly, the overall orientational characteristics of PFBS and PFOS are not perturbed between kaolinite models with different metal cations except for a small redistribution of peaks for θ_2 angles that are greater than 130° , similar as for carboxylate PFAS molecules (Figure S8 and S9). In order to further confirm the interfacial structure of the SO_3^- group for surface adsorbed sulfonate PFAS molecules, the orientations of each S-O bond vector with respect to the surface normal for PFOS in different cationic kaolinite models were computed and are shown in Figure S10a-S10c. The distinct high angle peaks ($\theta_{\text{SO}_1} \sim 170^\circ$) for only one S-O₁ bond vector clearly validate that only the ‘O’ atoms of the SO_3^- groups are responsible for their coordination with the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite and agrees well with the ADP results.

Similar as for PFAS molecules, the orientations of the dipole vectors of adsorbed H_2O molecules with respect to the surface normal in Ca-kaolinite were calculated by considering only the molecules that belong to the first peak of $\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ in ADPs for both the hydroxyl ($z < 3.3 \text{ \AA}$) and siloxane ($z > 133.1 \text{ \AA}$) surfaces. Figure 3c and Figure 3d clearly illustrate that the orientations of H_2O molecules are not influenced by the presence of PFAS molecules at the hydroxyl surface. Importantly, a distinct difference in the orientation of the H_2O dipole is observed between the hydrophilic hydroxyl surface and hydrophobic siloxane surface. For instance, irrespective of the PFAS molecules, the dipole vectors of H_2O exhibit two different orientations with respect to the surface normal (Figure 3c). The θ_D value of $\sim 20^\circ$ represents H_2O dipoles that are oriented away

from the surface accepting H-bonds from the hydroxyl surface. The θ_D peak centered at $\sim 127^\circ$ represents H₂O dipoles oriented towards the hydroxyl surface and those H₂O molecules donate H-bonds to the surface. On the other hand, Figure 3d clearly indicates that the H₂O dipoles near the siloxane surface are oriented, on average, marginally towards the surface ($\theta_D - \sim 56^\circ$) which could be attributed to the hydrophobic character of the siloxane surface. The H₂O orientation near siloxane surface is in good agreement with recently reported contact angle (70°) studies of H₂O on similar hydrophobic siloxane surfaces of pyrophyllite.⁸³ In addition, it is evident from Figures 3, S8, and S9 that the H₂O orientations at both the hydroxyl and siloxane surfaces are almost identical between the different cationic kaolinite-PFAS models.

Adsorption Environment and Aggregation of PFAS

The adsorption environments of PFAS molecules at the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite are strongly influenced by the nature of the terminal functional groups and the length of the hydrophobic carbon backbone as demonstrated in Figures 4a-4d. It is highly evident from Figure 4a and 4c that both PFBA and PFOA exhibit direct coordination with the surface with only ~ 4 -5 molecules, though all 16 of them are adsorbed at the interfacial region of the hydroxyl surface at any given time of the simulation. Importantly, the interfacial structure of PFBA and PFOA is completely contradictory to the complexation behavior of PFBS and PFOS where almost all molecules exhibit direct coordination with the hydroxyl surface (Figures 4b and 4d). Importantly, the presence of large number of surface coordinated sulfonate PFAS molecules when compared to carboxylate PFAS molecules is in excellent agreement with available experimental sorption isotherms, which report a higher adsorption of surface bound PFOS than of PFOA molecules in kaolinite at similar thermodynamic conditions.^{43,46} Furthermore, Figures 4a-4d clearly illustrate that the surface adsorbed (~ 4 -5) PFBA and PFOA molecules exhibit coordination with both of the

‘O’ atoms of the COO^- group, while almost all PFBS and PFOS molecules explicitly demonstrate that only one of the ‘O’ atoms of the SO_3^- group is coordinated to the hydroxyl surface. Such adsorption environments for PFAS molecules with SO_3^- functional groups at the external (001) surface of kaolinite are primarily responsible for the well-defined peaks in ADPs for PFBS and PFOS rather than the carboxylate PFAS molecules (Figures 1a-1d). Similarly, the protrusion of the surface adsorbed PFBS and PFOS from the hydroxyl surface is more prominent than with PFBA and PFOA (Figure 4).

Most importantly, the simulations demonstrate that the aggregation behavior of PFAS varies drastically between short- and long-chain molecules and significantly between different functional groups having similar chain length (Figures 5a-5d). For instance, the PFBA and PFBS molecules predominantly exist as monomers along with small, aggregated clusters which is completely contradictory to the adsorption environment of PFOA and PFOS molecules that promote formation of large, aggregated clusters varying in size and shape at the hydroxyl surfaces of kaolinite. For instance, at the end of ~ 50 ns, four different cluster formation were observed for both PFOA and PFOS molecules at the hydroxyl surface. Although the size of the aggregated clusters is very similar between PFOA and PFOS, Figures 5c and 5d exhibit distinct differences in their aggregation patterns. The PFOA aggregated cluster is comprised of a heptamer (4), a pentamer (3), a trimer (1) and a monomer, where the values in the brackets represent the number of molecules from each cluster exhibiting direct coordination with the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite. The monomer, though near the surface, did not show any surface coordination. In contrast, the aggregated cluster of PFOS consists of a hexamer (5), a pentamer (5), a trimer (3) along with two surface bound monomers (Figures 4d and 5d). Thus, it is highly evident that almost all of the PFOS molecules in the aggregated clusters exhibit direct coordination with the hydroxyl surface of

kaolinite in comparison to PFOA where only few molecules from each cluster establish surface coordination. Importantly, the unique adsorption characteristics of PFOS could be one of the critical factors responsible for showing high adsorption efficiency in kaolinite than PFOA in batch sorption experiments.^{45,46} Nevertheless, it should be highlighted that these aggregated clusters for the long-chain PFAS molecules are formed as early as ~25 ns in the simulation and persist for the remainder of the simulation run.

In contrast, when comparing the short-chain PFAS molecules, upon analyzing the trajectories, the PFBA exist largely as monomers though a small number of dimers also form (Figure 5a). In contrast, PFBS is dominantly present in dimer and trimer cluster configurations along with a few monomers (Figure 5b). This indicates that the presence of the additional -CF₂- unit in PFBS significantly favors the aggregation behavior. However, unlike the long-chain PFAS molecules, the clusters in PFBA and PFBS are short-lived and constantly show association and dissociation at random times which clearly suggests that the formation of thermodynamically stable aggregated structures is highly improbable due to the short length of their hydrophobic backbones. Most importantly, the simulations clearly portray that the non-bonded interactions between hydroxyl surface atoms and the 'O' atoms of the PFAS (short- and long-chain) molecules plays a critical role in determining the binding efficiency of PFAS in kaolinite at near neutral pH conditions. In addition, the hydrophobic interactions between the PFAS molecules are pivotal for the formation of large, aggregated clusters. This clearly underlines the importance of having a quantitative evaluation of the individual energetic contributions to the surface complexation and aggregation in future studies. The adsorption characteristics and aggregation behavior of all PFAS are very similar between different cationic models and hence are presented in the supporting information (Figure S11-S14).

The adsorption environments of PFAS, cations and H₂O were further validated by computing the radial distribution functions (RDF) and running coordination numbers (RCN) at both surfaces of Ca-kaolinite. It is evident from Figures 6a-6d, that the nearest neighbor coordination varies substantially between carboxylate and sulfonate PFAS molecules but is very similar for short- and long-chain PFAS that have the same functional groups. Irrespective of the length of the PFAS molecules, the mean interatomic distances for O_{COO}⁻ - H_{kaol} corresponds to 1.8 Å while for O_{SO₃}⁻ - H_{kaol} the interatomic distance were centered at 1.7 Å. Although these values are similar between carboxylate and sulfonate PFAS molecules with 'H' atoms of the surface hydroxyls (H_{kaol}) in kaolinite, their RCN varies substantially. For instance, the nearest neighbor coordination of PFBA and PFOA is 0.5 suggesting that both of the 'O'_{COO}⁻ atoms of the carboxylate group exhibit coordination with H_{kaol}. In contrast, the RCN of PFBS and PFOS with H_{kaol} atoms is 0.9 clearly demonstrates that only one 'O'_{SO₃}⁻ atom of sulfonate is responsible for their coordination with the kaolinite hydroxyl surface which corroborates well with our structural interpretations. The mean 'O'_{COO}⁻ - O_{H₂O} and 'O'_{SO₃}⁻ - O_{H₂O} interatomic distances are both centered at ~2.8 Å, similar to the values in bulk aqueous solution.^{84,85} In addition, the comparable RCN values (2.9) for the 'O'_{COO}⁻ - O_{H₂O} pair in studies on bulk solution further emphasize that not all carboxylate PFAS molecules are coordinated to the hydroxyl surface.⁸⁴ Importantly, due to the strong association of one 'O'_{SO₃}⁻ atom with the hydroxyl surface, the RCN (1.3) with O_{H₂O} is significantly lower compared to the value in previous studies of sulfonate ions in bulk solution.⁸⁵ Meanwhile, the analogous interatomic distances and RCN for the 'H'_{kaol} - O_{H₂O} pair with all PFAS molecules evidently confirms our interpretation that the coordination of H₂O with the hydroxyl surface is not influenced by the presence of small and large aggregated PFAS molecules. Since the metal cations were

adsorbed at the siloxane surface, the coordination environments of PFAS with the hydroxyl surface were similar for K- and Na-kaolinite models and hence not presented here.

The RDF and RCN of metal cations at the siloxane surface of kaolinite show that the coordination environment is strongly correlated to the hydration properties of cations, irrespective of type of PFAS molecule. For instance, Figure S15 illustrates that both Ca^{2+} and Na^{+} ions are exclusively coordinated with eight and six H_2O molecules, and 0 O_b ('O' atoms at the tetrahedral siloxane surface), representing outer sphere complexation. The reported RCN values of the metal cations are in excellent agreement with those reported in previous studies both in bulk solutions and in the mesopores of silicate minerals.^{67,70} In contrast, K^{+} is coordinated by 6.7 H_2O molecules and 0.5 O_b with a total RCN of 7.2, which is in excellent agreement with previous studies on bulk solutions.⁸⁶ The low RCN with O_b implies the formation of weak inner sphere complexation of K^{+} with the siloxane surface. As with the hydroxyl surface, the coordination structure of H_2O with O_b is not influenced by the metal cations as evidenced by almost similar RCN values (0.5) for all kaolinite models. It should be noted that the coordination environment is presented only for PFOS-kaolinite models as the RDF and RCN of metal ions are highly identical with all PFAS models.

Dynamics of PFAS

The diffusion coefficients for all PFAS and H_2O molecules at the external (001) surface of kaolinite were calculated using mean square displacements. It is evident from Table 1 that the diffusion coefficients of all PFAS molecules (irrespective of length and functional groups) are orders of magnitude smaller than the diffusion coefficient of H_2O . This restrictive dynamics of all PFAS in different cationic kaolinite models stems from their adsorption at the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite. Most importantly, the diffusion behavior of PFAS is strongly influenced both by the nature of terminal functional group and the length of the hydrophobic component. For instance,

the diffusion coefficients of PFOA and PFOS are significantly lower than PFBA and PFBS molecules, which could be attributed to the presence of surface adsorbed large, aggregated clusters with long-chain PFAS. These decreasing diffusion characteristics with increasing molecular chain length corroborates well with recently reported values using column experiments and diffusion models on soils.⁵² On the other hand, Table 1 clearly demonstrates that the diffusion coefficients of sulfonate PFAS molecules are an order of magnitude smaller than the those of carboxylate, which could be primarily attributed to the direct surface coordinated environments of PFBS and PFOS. In contrast, since only few molecules of PFBA and PFOA exhibit direct coordination with hydroxyl surface, their diffusion is relatively less restricted. Nevertheless, it should be emphasized that the surface adsorbed PFAS molecules will exhibit restricted diffusion as compared to molecules in the near surface region which will be examined in future studies.

It should be noted that the reported H₂O diffusion coefficient on the external surface of kaolinite is not influenced by the presence of PFAS molecules and different cations. These values are in excellent agreement with the computed self-diffusion coefficients of bulk SPC water.^{63,66,69} Since all of the values are similar for all models, Table 1 reports only on the kaolinite model with PFOS molecules. However, it should be noted that the diffusion of H₂O molecules at the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite will be substantially more restricted (due to H-bonding network) than at the siloxane surface, as reported by earlier simulation studies on kaolinite.⁶⁶

Environmental Implications

An in-depth understanding of the adsorption behavior of PFAS molecules in different clay minerals is central to determining the fate and transport of PFAS in soils and sediments. The current study is one of the first mechanistic study that provides a clear description about the critical role of the hydroxyl surface in kaolinite in regulating the adsorption, interfacial structure and

dynamics of PFAS at natural conditions. Irrespective of the functional groups, the long-chain PFAS molecules were strongly adsorbed at the hydroxyl surface forming highly localized large aggregated admicellar type clusters. In contrast, the direct coordination PFBS with hydroxyl surface suggest that the short-chain sulfonate PFAS molecules experiences more restrictive transport in soils with high fraction of kaolinite when compared to carboxylate ones. Importantly, the exclusive adsorption of short- and long-chain PFAS to the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite clearly emphasizes the fact that most PFAS molecules in a contaminated soils could be associated at the interparticle pore spaces of kaolinite particles and potentially other minerals with basal hydroxyl groups, such as gibbsite. The absence of structural charge and surface charge compensating cations in these minerals allows the complete basal hydroxyl surface accessible for all types of PFAS thus resulting in high adsorption capacity in experiments.^{43,45-47} In addition, although the current study was performed with high concentration of PFAS that are representative of samples near U.S. military installation sites, the results indicate that the interfacial adsorption structure and dynamics would be very similar for contaminated samples with low concentration of PFAS. The only difference could be on the size of the aggregated PFAS clusters which would vary depending on the PFAS concentration.

Based on the excellent sorption and restrictive behavior of PFAS in kaolinite, it is important to emphasize that kaolinite could be considered as a potential candidate for soil enrichment in the context of immobilizing the long-chain PFAS and substantially hinder the transport of short-chain PFAS molecules in near- and sub-surface regions, and, in groundwater regions. Furthermore, the possibility of developing kaolinite based adsorbents should be further evaluated for eliminating the PFAS molecules in surface and groundwaters. Importantly, this study will serve as basis for evaluating the competitive interactions between PFAS molecules, and, with other organic matter

for adsorption at the interparticle pores of kaolinite surface. Such studies are highly warranted as the contaminated samples contains a heterogeneous mixture of PFAS and soil organics.

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ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information: Atomic density profiles, orientational and aggregation behavior of all 4 examined PFAS molecules with K- and Na-kaolinite systems. Rocking motion of PFOA at the hydroxyl surface of Ca-kaolinite, coordination environments of metal cations with H₂O and basal siloxane surface. Average cell dimensions of kaolinite at the end of NPT simulations. Additional details about simulation techniques and analysis.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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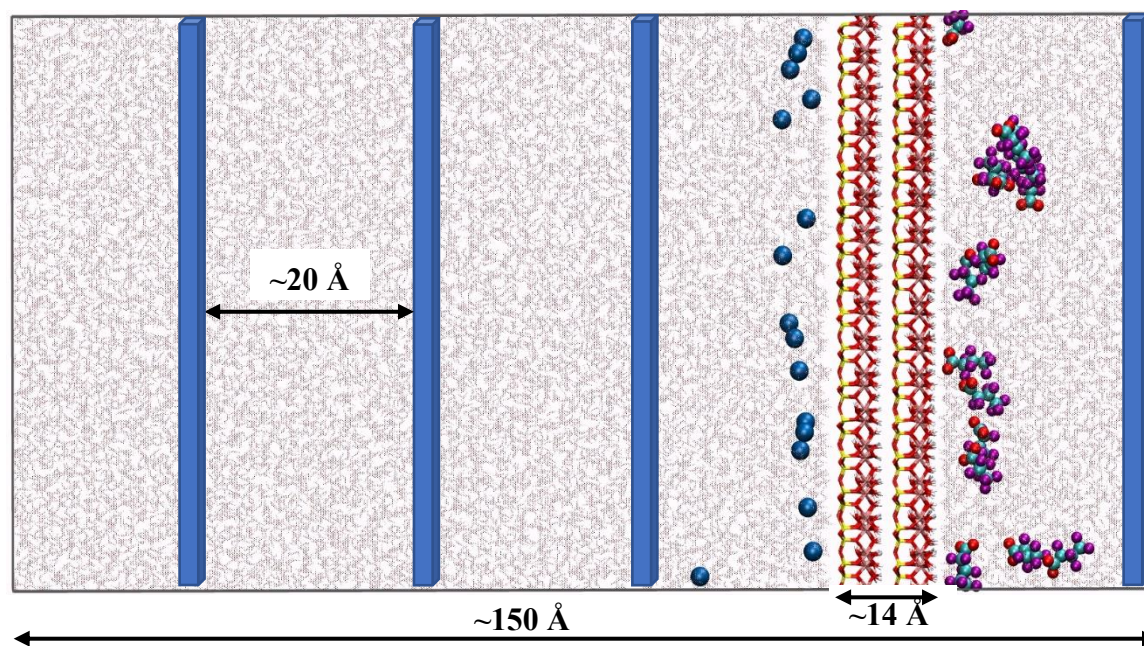


Figure 1: Pictorial representation of the simulated PFAS – kaolinite models. The rectangular blocks represent the initial position of the PFAS molecules at $t=0$ ns. Color codes: yellow sticks - Si tetrahedra; pink sticks – Al octahedral; red sticks – surface O; white sticks – hydroxyl H; blue spheres – cations; cyan spheres – C; purple spheres – F; red sphere – O (PFAS). H₂O molecules are shown as grayed stick representation.

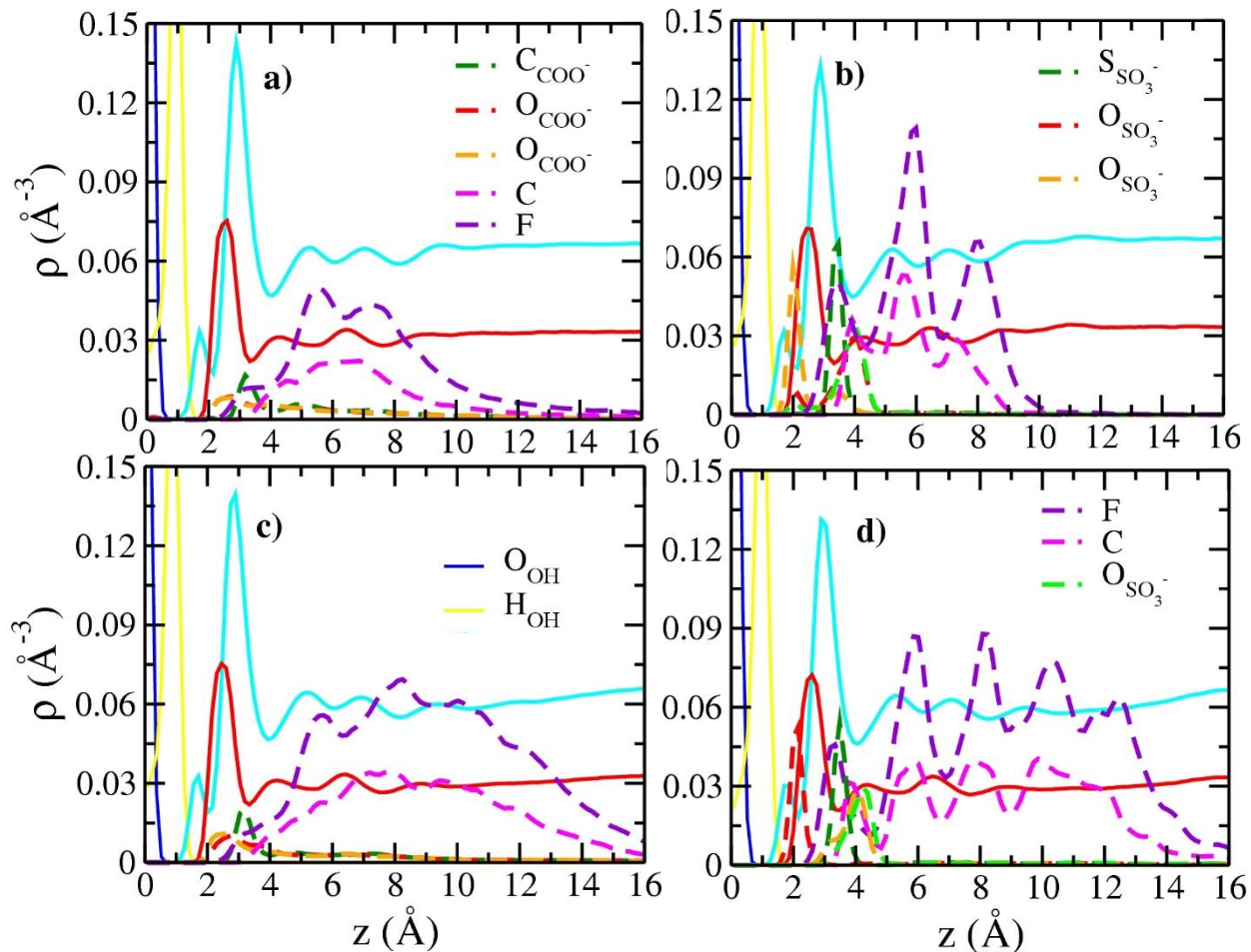
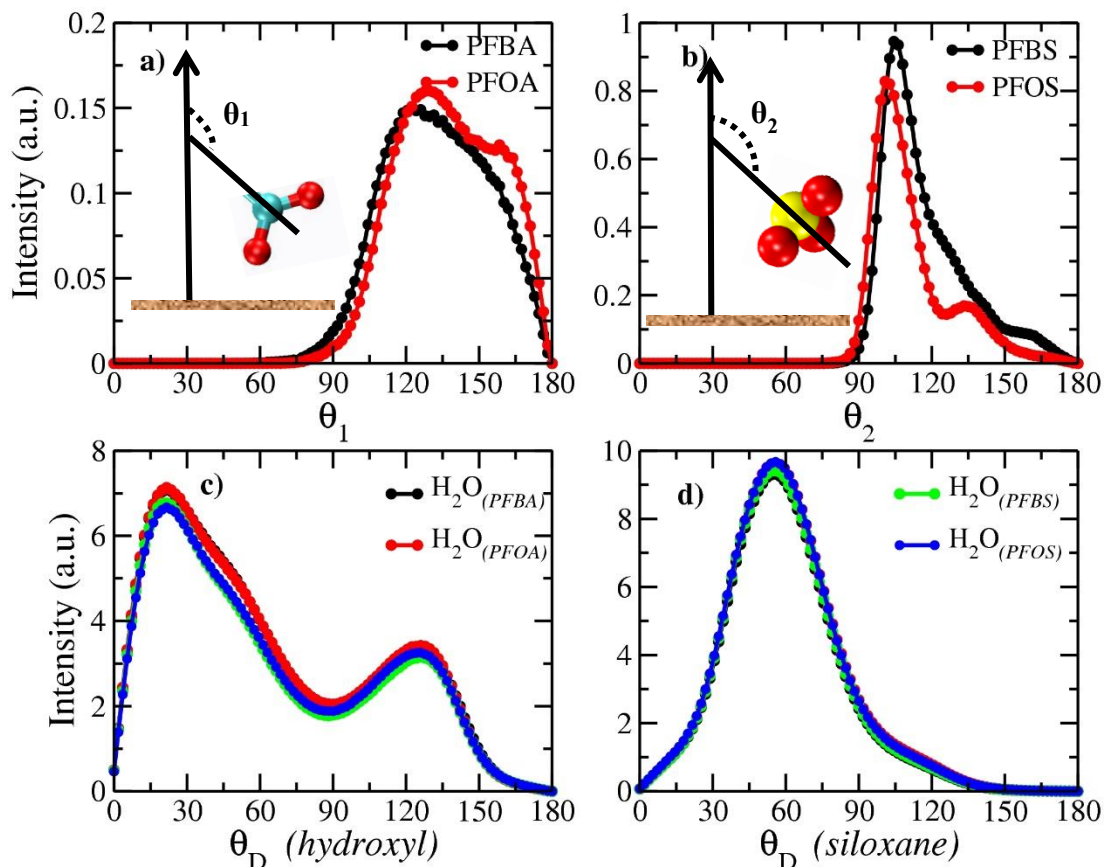


Figure 2: Computed atomic density profiles (ADPs) of PFAS and H₂O molecules in Ca-kaolinite as functions of distance from the external (001) hydroxyl surface for a) PFBA, b) PFBS, c) PFOA and d) PFOS. H_{OH} (solid yellow) and O_{OH} (solid blue) represents the hydrogens and oxygens of the hydroxyl groups in kaolinite, respectively. The O_{H2O} and H_{H2O} are shown as solid red and cyan. Dashed lines represent the atoms of PFAS molecule. $z = 0$ is the mean position of the basal O atoms at the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite.

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792 **Figure 3:** Computed orientation distributions of surface adsorbed PFAS molecules and H₂O

793 dipoles at the external (001) surfaces of Ca-kaolinite. a) and b) represents orientation

794 of PFAS molecules with respect to the hydroxyl surface; c) and d) represents

795 orientations of dipole vector of H₂O (1st ADP peak) at the hydroxyl and siloxane

796 surface. θ_1 is the angle between the vector bisecting the COO⁻ groups and the normal

797 to the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite. θ_2 is the angle between the vector bisecting the

798 SO₃⁻ groups and the normal to the hydroxyl surface of kaolinite. θ_D is the angle between

799 the dipole vector of H₂O molecules and the normal to the hydroxyl/siloxane surface of

800 kaolinite.

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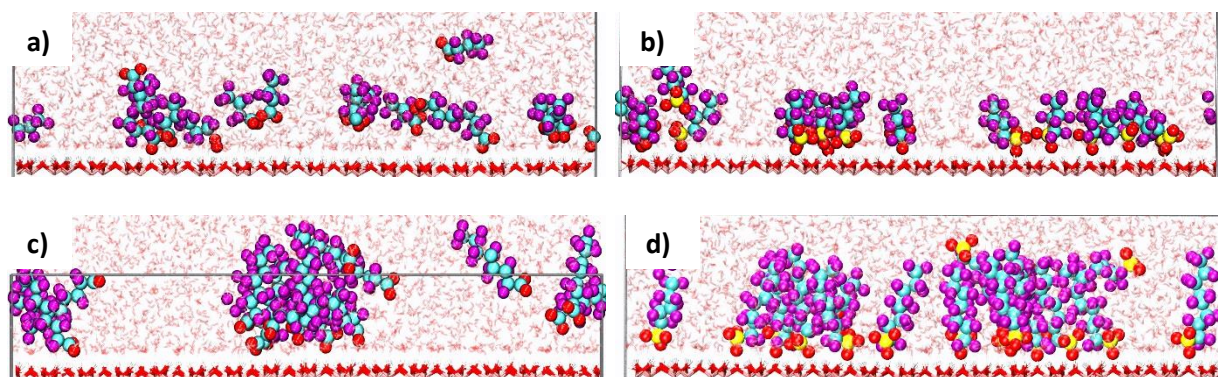
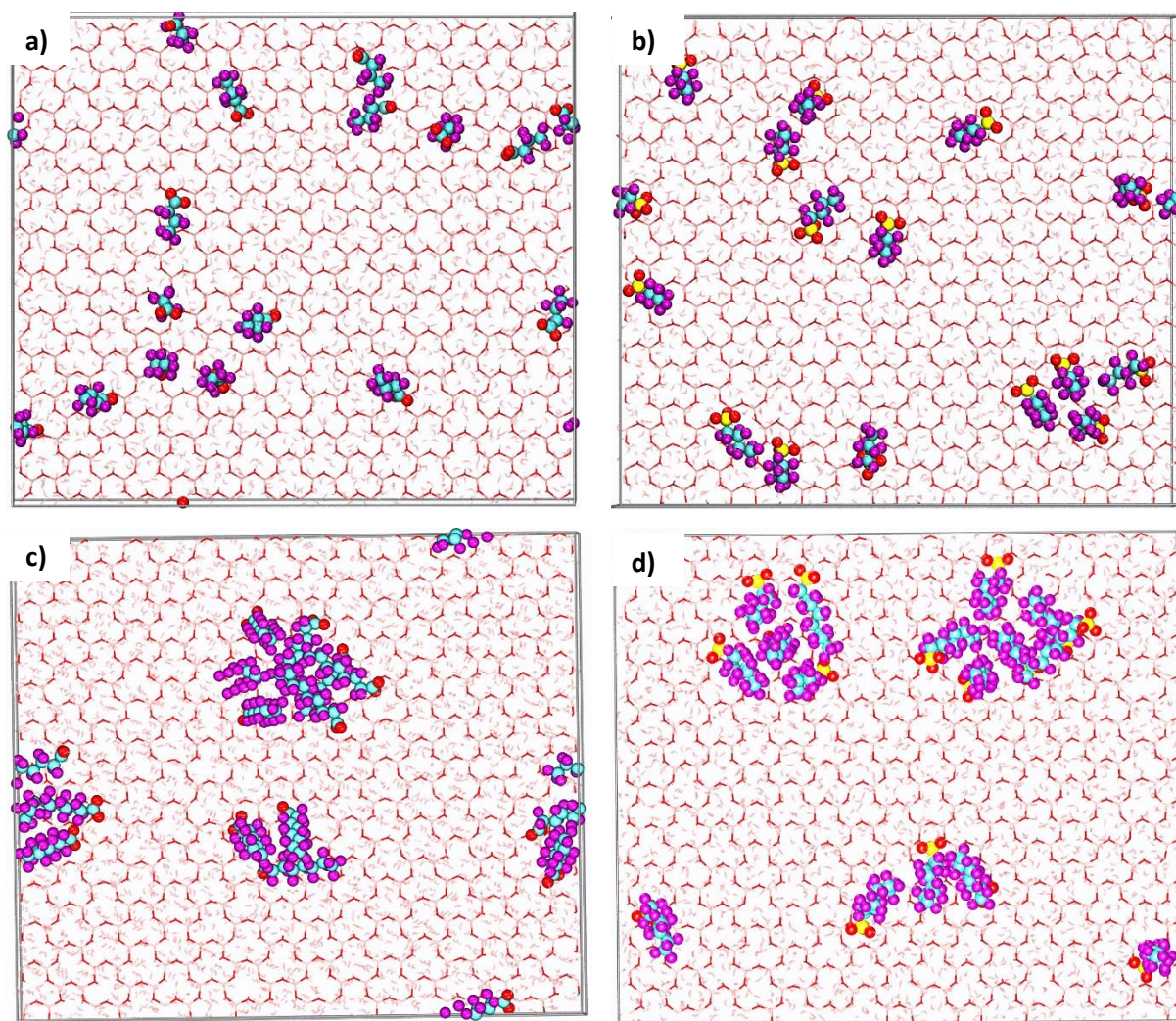


Figure 4: Pictorial representation of PFAS molecules at the interfacial region of external (001) hydroxyl surface of Ca-kaolinite. a) PFBA, b) PFBS, c) PFOA, d) PFOS. Color codes: pink sticks – Al octahedra; red sticks – hydroxyl O; white sticks – hydroxyl H; cyan spheres – C; purple spheres – F; red sphere – O (PFAS); yellow sphere – S. H₂O molecules are shown as grayed stick representation.

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820 **Figure 5:** Pictorial representation of PFAS molecules at the external (001) hydroxyl surface of

821 Ca-kaolinite. a) PFBA, b) PFBS, c) PFOA, d) PFOS. Color codes: pink sticks – Al

822 octahedra; red sticks – hydroxyl O; white sticks – hydroxyl H; cyan spheres – C; purple

823 spheres – F; red sphere – O (PFAS); yellow sphere – S. H₂O molecules are shown as

824 grayed stick representation.

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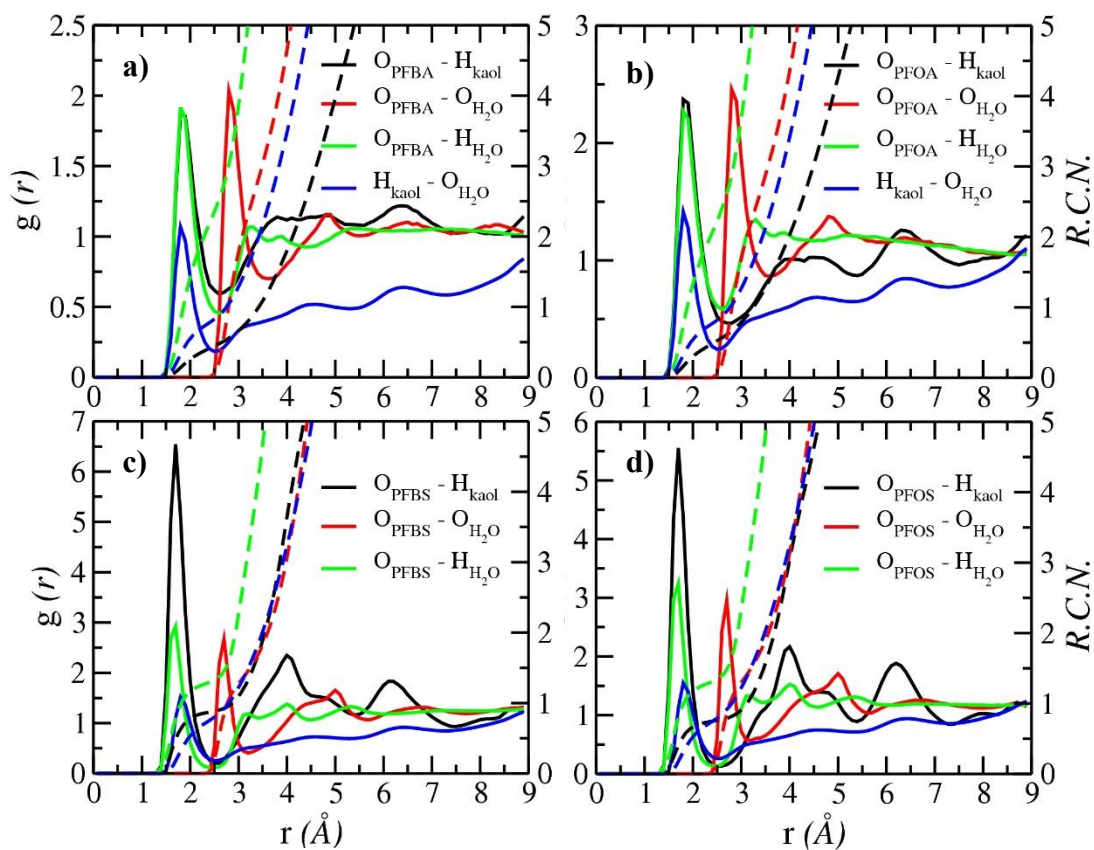
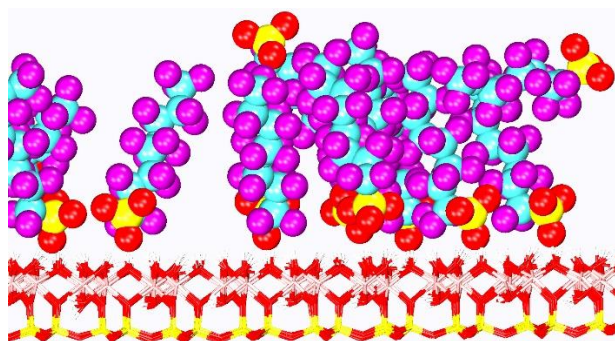


Figure 6: RDFs (solid lines) and corresponding RCNs (dashed lines) for the indicated atomic pairs at the external hydroxyl surface of Ca- kaolinite. a) PFBA, b) PFOA, c) PFBS, d) PFOS.

Table 1: Diffusion coefficients (10^{-10} m²/s) of all PFAS and H₂O molecules at the external (001) surface of different cationic kaolinite models.

Species	K- kaolinite	Ca- kaolinite	Na- kaolinite
PFBA	3.52 (3)	3.50 (1)	3.45 (2)
PFBS	0.60 (2)	0.54 (3)	0.58 (1)
PFOA	1.21 (2)	1.09 (5)	1.17 (2)
PFOS	0.32 (4)	0.29 (2)	0.33 (1)
H ₂ O _{PFOS}	32.01 (5)	31.92 (2)	31.75 (5)

853 **Title Graphic**



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