

Counteranions Control Local Specific Bonding Interactions and Nucleation Mechanisms in Concentrated Water-in-Salt Solutions

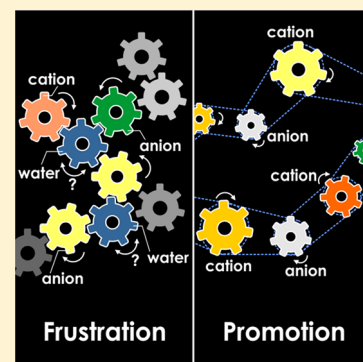
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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: One of the continuing challenges presented in salt solutions is understanding ion association reactions driving dynamic demixing from solvation, complexation, and solute clustering. The problems understanding this phenomenon are exacerbated in the highly concentrated water-in-salt solutions, where the deficiency of water leads to a dramatic retardation of water solvent and formation of extended solvent–solute clustering networks. By probing microscopic dynamics of water and prenucleation clusters using quasi-elastic neutron scattering and proton nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy, we observed contrasting mechanistic specifics of ion–water mobilities in highly concentrated Na⁺- versus K⁺-based aluminate solutions (diffusion coefficients of 0.2 vs 2.6 × 10⁻¹⁰ m² s⁻¹ at 293 K, respectively). The magnitude of the differences is far beyond counteranions acting as simple innocent charge-balancing species or water solvents functioning as a simple medium for ion diffusion. The distinct crystallization mechanisms observed further imply that different prenucleation cluster dynamics can either frustrate or promote crystallization, as described by nonclassical nucleation theory.



The structure and dynamics of aqueous salt solutions extended to regions of low water activity represent an increasingly important topic crossing a wide range of applications in chemical synthesis, energy storage, radioactive waste remediation, and industrially relevant processes. Introducing a few moles of water per mole of Li⁺TFSI⁻ electrolytes, for instance, can break apart aggregates of ions and facilitate Li⁺ migration, while maintaining the desirable voltage window in Li-ion batteries.¹ Rate-limiting reactions for nucleation of crystals from salt solutions have been linked to formation of ion-association complexes^{2–7} or from prenucleation clusters presented as highly charge ions through nonclassical nucleation mechanisms with underlying complex ion–water interactions.^{7–10} In the past decade, the existing textbook knowledge on solution-phase interactions and homogeneous nucleation mechanisms have been continuously challenged. For example, Widmer and Schwartz¹¹ demonstrate a concept of solvents partnering with a solute in solution to form stable chemically distinct molecular identities, which control the associated reactions beyond the typical view of solvents as a simple medium that allows the reactants to interact via diffusion. A parallel concept is also proposed for the role of counterions in solution chemistry, where the presence of multiple dissolved solutes sets up a competition for water molecules and can control solute molecular speciation beyond their innocent charge-balancing roles. In fact, many steps in chemical synthesis make use of counterions' properties to mediate rates of reactant encounters^{12,13} and control specific

solid-phase formation.³ Furthermore, arguments about the thermodynamics of solvated chemical species have triggered a growing body of literature arguing for nonclassical mechanisms of nucleation that include prenucleation cluster formation.^{6,8–10,14} In their most recent article, Gebauer and Wolf¹⁴ assess the current needs for fundamental understanding of highly dynamic oligomeric/polymeric solute entities to map out a new comprehensive picture for the design of chemical synthesis with targeted structures.

In addition to these recent emphases, the traditional view in dilute solutions that ions are differentiated as being kosmotropes or chaotropes based on their ability to increase or decrease water structuring or the viscosity of water^{15–18} is no longer valid in “water-in-salt” scenarios, simply because of the crowding of water and molecular ions at high salt concentrations. Geometric frustration, in which molecules have the potential to assume a packing that locally minimizes enthalpy but frustrates crystal nucleation is another important factor affecting nucleation in high salt solutions.⁴ Frustration (against crystallization) through formation of locally favored structures is believed to play a crucial role in glass formation processes in supercooled water and in some metallic glass formers.^{19–21} The disruption of water–water tetrahedral structuring by local ion–water and ion–ion complexations

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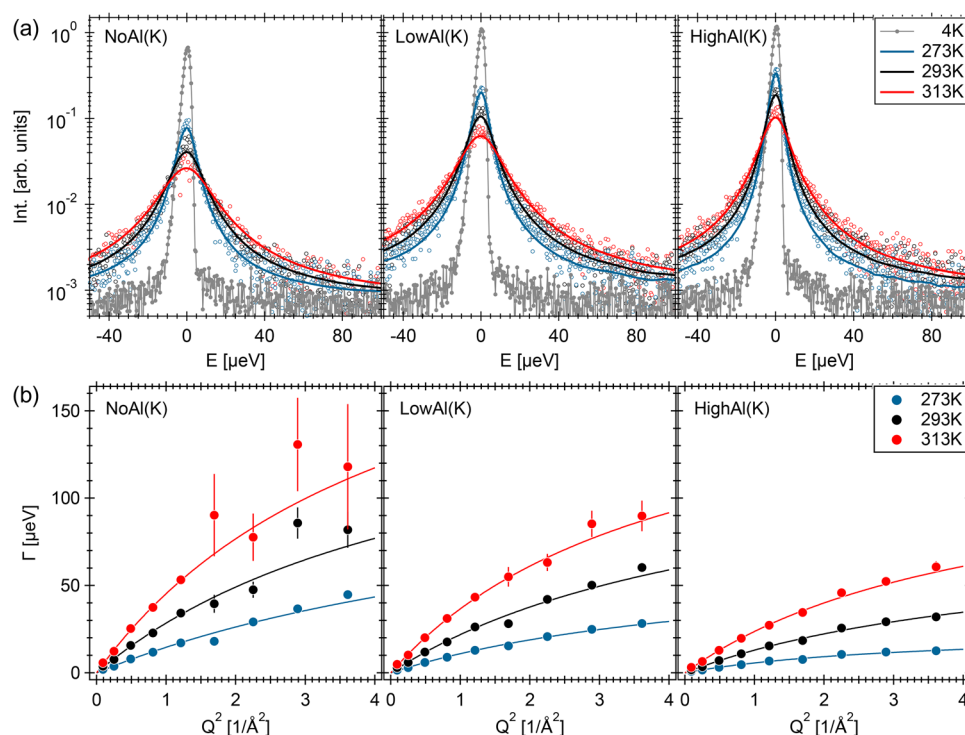


Figure 1. QENS spectra and analysis for concentrated KOH (NoAl) and potassium aluminate solutions (LowAl and HighAl) at different temperatures and at $Q = 0.5 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$. The spectra in gray correspond to the experimental resolution function. The color dots represent the experimental spectra, while the solid lines represent the fitting curve (*individual* Q -dependent fit) using one Lorentzian scattering function. See the [Supporting Information](#) for fitting details. (b) Q^2 -dependence of HWHM of the Lorentzian component $\Gamma(Q)$ (color circles) obtained from the QENS data fits. The solid lines are the fits of the HWHM with a jump diffusion model using eq 1.

75 results in dynamic and structural heterogeneities leading to the
76 behaviors of concentrated salt solutions reminiscent of
77 supercooled liquids approaching the glass transition.^{22,23}

78 Highly concentrated alkaline aluminate solutions are a
79 relevant example that can easily reach high levels of
80 supersaturation and remain metastable at room temperature
81 for weeks without crystallization.²⁴ Concentrated aluminate
82 solutions, particularly sodium aluminate, sodium hydroxide,
83 and other highly soluble salts, are the dominant chemical
84 components of high-level radioactive waste liquids at the
85 Hanford Site, Hanford, WA. Remediation of high-level nuclear
86 wastes resulting from Cold War activities at Hanford is one of
87 the greatest challenges for DOE's Office of Environmental
88 Management.^{25,26} The highly charged Al^{3+} cations easily
89 undergo hydrolysis under acidic or alkaline conditions, forming
90 various aqueous hydroxylated Al^{3+} species.²⁷ Multiple possible
91 Al (oxy)hydroxide phases can be precipitated depending on
92 the aluminum speciation in solution.^{28,29} In basic solutions,
93 where the aluminate anion ($\text{Al}(\text{OH})_4^-$) is the dominant
94 hydrolytic species, gibbsite ($\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$) or boehmite (AlOOH)
95 are the phases that typically precipitate through ion
96 aggregations, involving aluminate monomers or coalesced
97 polynuclear species together with alkali-metal cations.^{24,29–31}
98 The presence of counterions (e.g., Na^+ or K^+) is thought to
99 play an essential role in stabilizing a network of aluminate ion
100 pairs and controlling the consequent aggregation behavior.^{24,30–32} However, the direct influence of counterions
102 on speciation equilibria and stabilization of polynuclear
103 aluminate complexes is poorly understood. This is particularly
104 true at high alkalinity, where the excess caustic species (NaOH
105 or KOH) increase aluminate solubility and move the equilibria
106 from gibbsite (or boehmite)-controlled solubility

controlled by hydrous (or anhydrous) salts of alkaline
aluminates.^{24,25,33–38}

107
108
109 Herein we combine quasi-elastic neutron scattering (QENS)
110 and proton, pulsed field gradient, nuclear magnetic resonance
111 spectroscopy (^1H PFG-NMR, in short NMR) to characterize
112 the spatial and temporal dynamics of $\text{KOH-KAl}(\text{OH})_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$
113 compounds at very high ionic concentrations. To understand
114 the interactions between aluminate complexes and alkali-metal
115 cations presented in solution and how these interactions affect
116 nucleation behaviors at high concentrations, we specifically
117 investigate K^+ -based aluminate solutions at an ionic concen-
118 tration identical to that in our previous QENS/NMR work on
119 Na^+ -based aluminate solutions.³⁹ These two aluminate solution
120 systems differ only in counterion selection (Na^+ vs K^+ ;
121 [Table S1](#) in the Supporting Information). We find that the
122 choice of counterions influences aluminate polymerization
123 and the network morphology of aggregated ion clusters, which
124 affect ion–water mobility far beyond the kosmotropic (Na^+)
125 and chaotropic (K^+) effects typically observed at low ionic
126 concentrations. Furthermore, we show that the distinct
127 crystallization mechanisms observed in Na^+ versus K^+ -based
128 solutions are correlated with different cluster dynamics and
129 suggest that the concept of nonclassical mechanisms of
130 nucleation can be tailored with the control of solute molecular
131 reactions.

132 Given that the structural changes in aqueous solutions have
133 strong effects on dynamics, the motions of H-bearing species
134 (OH^- , H_2O , $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_4^-$, and Al-clusters) obtained in a broad
135 range of time scales (QENS and NMR) contain rich
136 information on the underlying local specific interactions
137 responsible for distinct solute–water clustering dynamics in
138 the concentrated/condensed aqueous system. Hereafter, and 139

139 throughout the rest of this Letter, we follow our previous
 140 notation³⁹ and refer to three K⁺-based solutions as NoAl(K)
 141 for the 20 m aluminum-free KOH solution and LowAl(K) and
 142 HighAl(K) for the two potassium aluminate solutions with 5.9
 143 and 9.5 m total aluminum, respectively (Table S1). Note that
 144 the mole ratio of K⁺/Al(OH)₄⁻ = 3 in LowAl(K) and
 145 HighAl(K) solutions is equivalent, and they differ only by the
 146 degree of dilution. At the same ionic concentration, Na⁺-based
 147 solutions are always more viscous than solutions containing K⁺,
 148 and the viscosities are increasingly enhanced with the presence
 149 of aluminate in Na⁺-based solutions,^{40–42} reflecting a greater
 150 solution structure-making ability in the presence of Na⁺.

151 The temperature-dependent QENS spectra (at Q = 0.5 Å⁻¹)
 152 of the three solutions are shown in Figure 1a. They feature a
 153 systematic line width broadening with increasing temperatures
 154 or decreasing concentrations, indicating that species are more
 155 mobile under these conditions. In contrast to our previous
 156 QENS study of Na⁺-based solutions, the observed QENS
 157 broadening is adequately described with using only one
 158 Lorentzian scattering function to fit the data independently at
 159 each Q value (as individual Q-dependent fit; Supporting
 160 Information 2). The Q-dependence of Lorentzian fit
 161 component broadening Γ(Q) (half-width at half-maximum,
 162 HWHM) presented in Figure S1 follows the power law
 163 relationship, Γ(Q) = Γ°Q^λ, with the slope λ slightly below 2 (λ
 164 = 2 represents standard Brownian diffusion). Alternatively, the
 165 well-known jump diffusion model is adopted to illustrate the
 166 Q-dependence of the diffusion processes involved (Figure 1b).
 167 The expression for the Singwi–Sjölander jump diffusion model
 168 (eq 1) is⁴³

$$\Gamma(Q) = \frac{\hbar}{\tau_{jd}} \left[1 - \frac{1}{1 + DQ^2\tau_{jd}} \right] \quad (1)$$

169 Here, \hbar is the reduced Planck's constant and τ_{jd} is the
 170 residence time between the jumps of a diffusing molecule
 171 (center of mass) with a long-range translational diffusion
 172 coefficient $D = \langle l^2 \rangle / 6\tau_{jd}$, where $\langle l^2 \rangle^{1/2}$ is the apparent mean-
 173 square jump length. The error bars on data for the NoAl(K)
 174 solution (pure 20 m KOH) at 313 K are sizable at high Q
 175 values, because the line width becomes comparable to the
 176 dynamic range of the instrument (Figure 1b). Overall, all K⁺-
 177 based solutions show an initial linear region following $\Gamma(Q \rightarrow$
 178 0) = $\hbar D Q^2$ and then a gradual flattening out to an
 179 approximately constant value given by $\Gamma(Q \rightarrow \infty) = \hbar / \tau_{jd}$,
 180 which are characteristic of jump diffusion processes. We also
 181 applied a global Q-dependent fit with jump diffusion expression
 182 directly (Supporting Information 2), in which τ_{jd} and D are the
 183 fit parameters that characterize the line width for all Q values
 184 (as a global feature) at each measured temperature. The QENS
 185 spectra obtained in our analyses thus represent motions of H-
 186 bearing species in the accessible time window of the
 187 spectrometer (~6–400 ps, determined by its energy
 188 resolution) and reflect the averaged diffusion of these species.

190 Figure 2 displays the derived diffusion coefficients (D) of the
 191 three studied K⁺-based solutions compared with (i) pure
 192 water^{19,44,45} and (ii) Na⁺-based solutions.³⁹ The D value for
 193 bulk water is ~20.3–22.2 × 10⁻¹⁰ m²/s at 293 K.^{19,44,45} Within
 194 a temperature range of 273–353 K, the QENS-derived D
 195 values for the concentrated K⁺-based solutions are approx-
 196 imately consistent with NMR results (Figure 2; see Supporting
 197 Information 3 for NMR analysis). The diffusivity decreased by

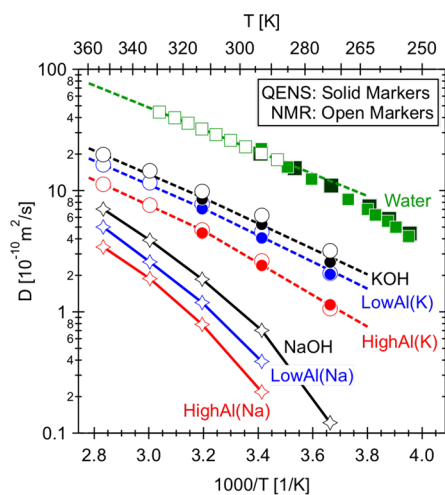


Figure 2. Temperature dependence of the diffusion coefficients in concentrated KOH and potassium aluminate solutions measured using QENS and NMR. Diffusion coefficients for solutions containing Na⁺ are from Graham et al.³⁹ Data for bulk water^{19,44,45} is also shown for comparison. The Arrhenius fits (dashed lines) yield activation energies, which are summarized in Tables S2 and S3. Error bars are smaller than the symbols for all data points.

a factor of ~3, 5, and 8 in NoAl(K), LowAl(K), and
 HighAl(K) solutions, respectively, compared to bulk water
 diffusion at 293 K (see Tables S2 and S3 for the exact D
 values). In contrast, the decrease in diffusivity for Na⁺-based
 solutions was much greater, with D values (from NMR³⁹)
 reduced by a factor ~29, 52, and 92 in NoAl(Na), LowAl(Na),
 and HighAl(Na) solutions, respectively, when compared to
 bulk water at 293 K. Such an order-of-magnitude differences in
 diffusion constants between K⁺- and Na⁺-based solutions also
 manifests in their temperature-dependent behavior (Figure 2).
 The temperature dependence of the NMR-derived D value in
 bulk water (>293 K) can be described by fitting the data using
 the Arrhenius equation to give an activation energy (E_a) of
 17.4(1) kJ/mol, whereas low-temperature supercooled water is
 noticeably known to be super-Arrhenius.^{19,44} The three K⁺-
 based solutions show behavior close to that described by the
 Arrhenius equation, whereas Na⁺-based solutions clearly show
 super-Arrhenius behaviors over the same temperature range
 (Figure 2). To facilitate comparison of the activation energies
 (which depend weakly on the temperatures in K⁺-based
 solutions), E_a values are determined using the Arrhenius
 equation with segmented data points. E_a values of 18.6(2),
 18.9(2), and 19.9(2) kJ/mol for NoAl(K), LowAl(K), and
 HighAl(K) solutions, respectively, are obtained at temper-
 atures above 313 K (Table S3), and they increase to 21.4(2),
 22.1(2), and 24.3(3) kJ/mol at temperatures below 313 K
 (Table S2). In contrast, E_a values are 31(1), 33(1), and 34(3)
 kJ/mol for NoAl(Na), LowAl(Na), and HighAl(Na) solutions,
 respectively, based on data points at/above 313 K (Table S3).
 226

QENS studies of nonglass- and glass-forming liquids, Ga and
 Se, respectively, have shown a single jump-diffusion process in
 Ga, whereas in Se there is a spatially localized (faster) process
 which requires a two-Lorentzian model fit.⁴⁶ Here we observed
 a similar trend in high salt solution systems. The two-
 Lorentzian model that is required to fit data for highly viscous
 Na⁺-based solutions yields a spatially localized (faster)
 dynamic process (with almost no Q-dependence) for the
 broad component and a slow collective diffusion for the

236 narrow components.³⁹ Microscopically, we relate this obser-
237 vation to the presence of an extended solvent-shared-solute
238 clustering network or “caging” effects influencing local
239 structure in Na⁺-based solutions. This prolongs the residence
240 time between successive diffusion jumps and significantly
241 hampers the translational diffusion processes, as evidenced by
242 the temperature dependence of the diffusion coefficients and
243 activation energies discussed above. In contrast, the one-
244 Lorentzian model appropriate for less viscous K⁺-based
245 solutions, its broadening *Q*-dependence (approached zero in
246 the low *Q*-limit as shown in Figure 1b), and the derived
247 diffusion coefficients (Figure 2), all suggest a much weaker
248 caging capability (or a stronger network-breaking effect) and a
249 consequent faster diffusive motion from the solutions
250 containing K⁺.

251 Although QENS is limited in resolving the dynamic details
252 of individual H-bearing species in the studied solution system,
253 there must be a microscopic mechanism beyond the dictum
254 that Na⁺ is a kosmotrope and K⁺ is a chaotrope. At low salt
255 concentrations (salt-in-water), QENS studies of NaCl and KCl
256 salt solutions (at 295K) revealed a slowing down of the
257 diffusive motion of water molecules surrounding Na⁺ ($D =$
258 $\sim 19.5 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ for 1 M NaCl) but a slight speeding up of
259 this diffusive motion for water around K⁺ ($D = \sim 21.3 \times 10^{-10}$
260 m^2/s for 1 M KCl).⁴⁷ NMR measurements of 3 M NaOH and
261 KOH solutions (at 295 K, in the presence of 0.1 M Al(OH)₄⁻)
262 indicate much reduced proton motions in NaOH solution (D
263 $= \sim 12.5 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$) as compared to KOH solution ($D =$
264 $\sim 18.4 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$) at the same ionic concentration.⁴⁸ These
265 observed differences in diffusivity are in general correlated to
266 the altered water hydrogen-bonding network influenced by the
267 cations, where K⁺ significantly disrupts the water network
268 geometry and leaves a larger free volume for the faster diffusion
269 in their vicinity. As the salt concentration increases, the degree
270 of ion association in aqueous solution has significant effects on
271 both the equilibrium (e.g., activity coefficients, solubility, and
272 structure of precipitated phases) and transport properties (e.g.,
273 viscosity, diffusion coefficients, and conductivities). The law of
274 matching water affinities, proposed by Collins et al.,^{15,16}
275 qualitatively rationalizes specific-ion pairing behaviors and
276 illustrates that ion hydration–dehydration (solvation–desol-
277 vation) should be the dominate force impacting on the type of
278 ion pairs (contact or solvent-shared/separated ion pairs) that
279 forms in the salt solution. However, examples^{3,49} have shown
280 that this simple law cannot describe ion interactions in
281 complex salt solutions, such as solutions containing multiple
282 solutes and complex ions like oxyanions or carboxylate ions. In
283 highly concentrated potassium- and sodium-aluminate-hydrox-
284 ide solutions (water-in-salt), the deficiency of water molecules
285 leads to the extended connectivity of ion–ion and ion–water
286 networks simply based on geometric (packing) effects alone.
287 This incurs a scenario that packing of molecular ions and
288 network morphologies, as a result of coordinating ionic radii,
289 charges, geometry, and hydrogen bonding, should be another
290 factor (in addition to ion hydration–dehydration) for the
291 distinct diffusive properties observed in QENS and NMR
292 spectroscopy data. Additionally, ion aggregation behaviors in
293 high salt solutions also directly relate to the conformational
294 stability and the mechanisms underlying how these solutions
295 can exist at supersaturated conditions for extended periods of
296 time.

297 We hypothesize that the identities of counteractions (K⁺ vs
298 Na⁺) in the studied solutions control the local specific

interactions responsible for distinct solute–water clustering 299
dynamics and lead to a contrast nucleation behavior in these 300
highly concentrated solution systems. Evidences to support 301
this statement is discussed below. First, the existing Car– 302
Parrinello molecular dynamics (CPMD) calculations for ~ 19 303
m NaOH and KOH solutions imply cation-dependent 304
hydroxide–water complex formation, with the occurrence of 305
OH⁻(H₂O)₃ complexes increased by the direct contact of 306
OH⁻ with K⁺, and Na⁺ stabilizing the OH⁻(H₂O)₅ complex by 307
forming solvent-shared ion pairs.⁵⁰ The size of Na⁺ and its 308
octahedral coordination with water are particularly compatible 309
with the size/geometry of the OH⁻(H₂O)₅ complex, as 310
demonstrated in these CPMD simulations.⁵⁰ The formation 311
of solvent-shared ion pairs between Na⁺ and OH⁻ at high 312
concentrations is further supported by the recent experimental 313
radial distribution function analyses⁵¹ and their agreement with 314
various classical MD models, particularly with density 315
functional theory (DFT)-based reactive high-dimensional 316
neural network (HDNN) potentials.⁵² The preferential 317
stabilization of specific hydroxide–water complexes by 318
countercations does not appear to be limited to the simple 319
hydroxide solutions (see examples in ref 3). As the solution 320
concentration of aluminum increases in high alkalinity, dimeric 321
species (e.g., [Al₂(OH)₈]²⁻ or [Al₂O(OH)₆]²⁻) form in 322
competition with aluminate Al(OH)₄⁻ monomers. The 323
molecular constituent, structure, and stability of these 324
polynuclear complexes are highly influenced by the nature of 325
countercation because of cation–anion interactions. For 326
instance, early DFT studies predicted that the solvent-shared 327
ion pairing between Na⁺ and Al(OH)₄⁻ is energetically more 328
favorable than the formation of contact ion pairs, because the 329
shared water molecule renders its properties so that they are 330
similar to the isolated ions.⁵³ Other ab initio molecular 331
dynamic (AIMD) simulations of the dimeric aluminate species 332
reveal that, in the absence ion pair formation, the hydrated 333
[Al₂(OH)₈]²⁻ dimer is energetically more stable than the 334
[Al₂O(OH)₆]²⁻ dimer, but the stabilities of these two dimers 335
are reversed when Na⁺ is ion-paired with [Al₂O(OH)₆]²⁻ 336
species.^{54,55} 337

As a gauge of the countercation’s role in directing the 338
aluminate oligomerization processes, our corresponding 339
Raman spectra (Figure 3) indicate that the intensity of the 340
two sidebands (at ~ 540 and 710 cm^{-1}), formed at the expense 341
of Al(OH)₄⁻ monomer (Raman signal at $\sim 624 \text{ cm}^{-1}$), provide 342
strong evidence for different aluminate speciation in the 343
presence of Na⁺ versus K⁺. The intensity of the two sidebands 344
is much more pronounced relative to Al(OH)₄⁻ monomer 345
from the aluminate solutions containing Na⁺. Although the 346
origin of these Raman sidebands is still a controversial topic, 347
they have been arguably assigned to oxygen-bridged [Al₂O- 348
(OH)₆]²⁻ dimer or associated with larger polynuclear 349
species.^{24,55} Raman spectra in Figure 3 do indicate that, in 350
the presence of K⁺, the formation of aluminate polymeric 351
species in equilibrium with the monomers is suppressed. These 352
results suggest that the weaker potassium–water hydration 353
reactions allow K⁺ to be engaged in more direct ionic 354
interactions with OH⁻(H₂O)₃ trihydrates than do the smaller 355
Na⁺ cation, which prefers to retain its (partial) hydration shell. 356
The cation–anion association between K⁺/OH⁻/Al(OH)₄⁻ 357
species necessitates liquid–liquid phase separation (i.e., 358
formation of a dense solute-rich phase and a lean region of 359
dilute ionic solution phase) and dynamic demixing fluctua- 360
tions, which are consistent with the fast diffusivity (low 361

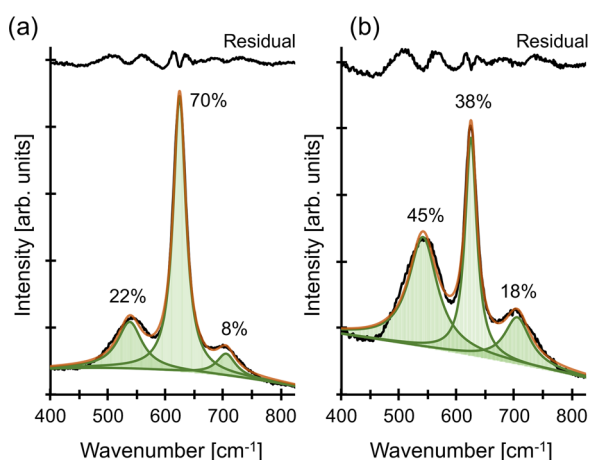


Figure 3. Room-temperature Raman spectra of LowAl solutions in the presence of (a) K^+ versus (b) Na^+ counterions. A linear background correction was applied. Al–O stretching bands at ~ 540 and 710 cm^{-1} , are attributed to of higher order aluminate clusters, such as dimers. The Al–O stretching band of aluminate monomers is assigned to the band at 624 cm^{-1} . The data curve is shown in black. The fitted curve and its deconvolution components are shown in brown and green. The residual plots are given in the upper panel within each plot. See [Supporting Information 4](#) for details on Raman measurements.

362 viscosity) observed in QENS and NMR data. A similar
363 heterogeneous fluid structuring with the formation of nonionic
364 and ionic domains was also proposed to explain rapid CO_2
365 diffusivity in viscous organic solvents.⁵⁶ The tendency for water
366 solvent to be shared between Na^+/OH^- ions and the higher
367 degree of aluminate polymerization in the sodium-aluminate-

hydroxide solutions, in contrast, enhance the formation of 368
extended solvent–solute clustering network. This network 369
causes a stronger structural trapping effect for water molecules 370
(e.g., H_2O bridged between Na^+ and OH^- ions) and restricts 371
the motion of large oligomeric aluminate species (e.g., H_2O or 372
 OH^- species bridged between two distinct dimeric species and 373
their complex interversions). 374

Additional evidence to support the important role that 375
counterions play in these highly concentrated solutions is 376
provided by the distinct nucleation and solid-phase precipi- 377
tation behavior of LowAl and HighAl aluminate solutions, 378
which are both supersaturated with respect to their 379
corresponding crystalline phases (details are presented 380
below). The framework of classical nucleation theory is that 381
ion pairs and complexes in supersaturated solutions aggregate 382
to form initially unstable nuclei until a critical size is reached. 383
Recent work on supersaturated $CaCO_3$ solutions by Gebauer 384
and others^{8–10,14,57,58} has shown that the presence of stable 385
prenucleation clusters, which are highly dynamics chains of 386
alternating cations and anions (termed DOLLOP: dynamically 387
ordered liquid-like oxyanion polymers), is well-related to the 388
liquid–liquid separation event and the distinct dynamic 389
changes in the water hydrogen-bonding network upon 390
formation of dense solute droplets (as prenucleation clusters). 391
Together, this establishes a nonclassical nucleation pathway 392
from aggregation and solidification of precursor droplets to 393
crystallization. We observed that, given the same ionic 394
concentration, the nature of counteractions (K^+ or Na^+) 395
leads to a dramatically different nucleation behavior. A white 396
crystalline precipitate of $K_2[Al_2O(OH)_6](s)$ ⁵⁹ forms directly 397
from supersaturated potassium aluminate solutions within a 398 f4
few hours to days at room temperature ([Figure 4a,c](#)). Sodium 399 f4

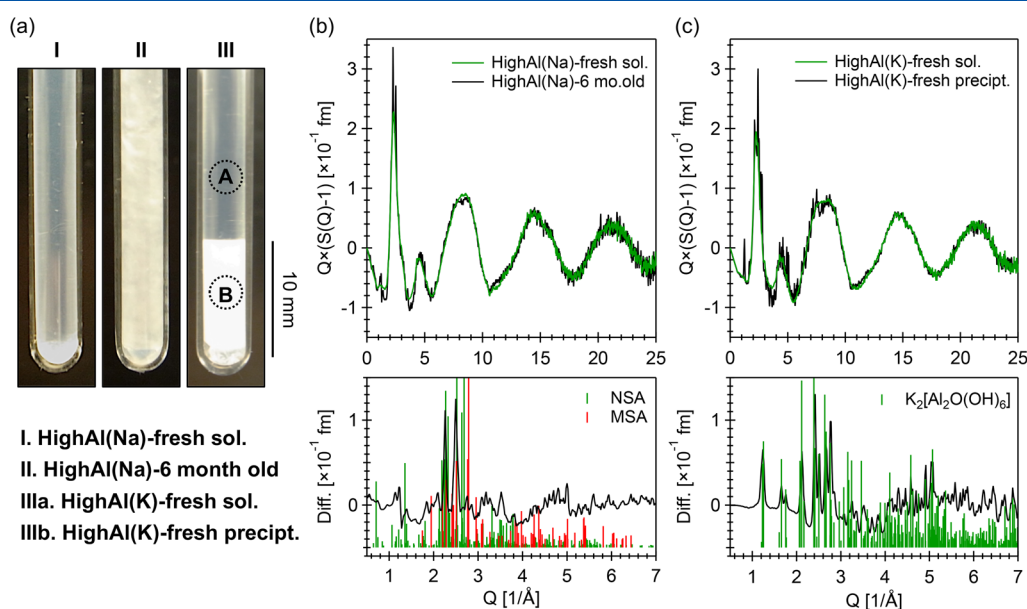


Figure 4. (a) Photographs of the deuterated HighAl(Na) (I and II) and HighAl(K) (III) solution samples taken at different times since the preparation. Show in panels b and c are the corresponding normalized neutron structure factor $S(Q)$ of the (b) HighAl(Na) and (c) HighAl(K) solutions. In panel b, measurements were performed approximately 6 months apart, and the sample photos (panel a) indicate the gelling crystallization. This data set shows the occurrence of Bragg reflections associated with NSA/MSA precipitation, and the difference of these two $S(Q)$ given in the bottom of panel a roughly matches to the calculated neutron (hkl) reflections of NSA and MSA phases. In panel c, the data set was collected on the same day, but with the precipitates forming at the bottom of the solution (see photo in panel a). The two $S(Q)$ patterns were collected with the center of neutron beam offset by ~ 10 mm, as illustrated in panel a image (positions A and B). The corresponding difference pattern and the (hkl) reflections given at the bottom of panel c indicate the formation of the $K_2[Al_2O(OH)_6]$ phase. See [Supporting Information 5](#) for details on neutron diffraction measurements and deuterated sample preparations.

400 aluminate solutions, in contrast, showed a surprising (meta)-
401 stability and maintain a supersaturated state up to 3–6 months
402 at room temperature. Over these long induction times, sodium
403 aluminate solutions progressively lose fluidity and gelate into a
404 semitransparent clot with a mixture of crystalline phases that
405 coprecipitated during the gelling of the solutions (Figure 4a).
406 The identifiable crystalline phases (Figure 4b) are consistent
407 with nonasodium aluminate hydrate (NSA; also called
408 trisodium aluminate, TSA;³⁴ $\text{Na}_9[\text{Al}(\text{OH})_6]_2(\text{OH})_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{s})$
409 = $2[\text{Na}_3\text{Al}(\text{OH})_6] \cdot 3\text{NaOH} \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{s}) = 4.5\text{Na}_2\text{O} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot$
410 $13.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$), together with a small fraction of monosodium
411 aluminate hydrate (MSA;^{33,38} $\text{Na}_2[\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3(\text{OH})_2] \cdot 1.5\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{s}) =$
412 $\text{Na}_2\text{O} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$). In light of formulating advanced
413 nucleation theories, the observed precipitation behavior of
414 these potassium and sodium aluminate solutions underpins the
415 important role that prenucleation clusters play in the
416 nonclassical nucleation theory. Depending on the local packing
417 of molecular ions and the network morphology of ion–ion
418 clusters, it appears that the prenucleation clusters can either
419 (a) manifest themselves in densely packed arrangements that
420 locally minimize the hydration enthalpy but frustrate the
421 formation of the thermodynamically stable crystalline phases or
422 (b) promote nucleation through onset of dynamic liquid–
423 liquid separation, in which the nucleation probability would be
424 greatly enhanced. The frustration (packing arrangement)
425 mechanism is similar to that established for glass-forming
426 liquids and explains the surprising metastability, high viscosity,
427 dynamically slow ion–water motion, and gelatinous crystal-
428 lization behavior in the sodium aluminate solution system. The
429 promotion mechanism (liquid–liquid separation) follows the
430 established view on nonclassical nucleation in supersaturated
431 CaCO_3 solutions,^{8–10,14,57,58} where the spatial concentration
432 fluctuation upon liquid–liquid separation is proposed as the
433 microscopic mechanism for the fast ion–water diffusion
434 dynamics and precipitation kinetics observed in the potassium
435 aluminate solution systems.

436 In summary, using QENS and ^1H PFG-NMR spectroscopy,
437 the temperature dependence of the diffusion coefficients of H-
438 bearing species in highly concentrated, alkaline aluminate
439 solutions is quantified. This analysis reveals that Na^+ and K^+
440 metal cations partnering with water solvents introduce
441 significantly distinct dynamics far beyond their charge-
442 balancing roles and kosmotropic–chaotropic characters. At
443 the studied concentrations, Na^+ preferentially enhances the
444 formation of oligomeric aluminate species and an extended
445 solvent-shared-solute clustering network, whereas K^+ shows
446 stronger ion pairing effects with monomeric aluminate and
447 hydroxide species (likely because of a smaller desolvation
448 penalty). The nature of the alkali metal imposes distinct
449 microscopic ion association behavior during the prenucleation
450 stage, which subsequently dictates macroscopic precipitation.
451 The presence of frustrated clusters and the local enthalpy
452 minimization explains the unusual (meta)stability, slow
453 dynamics, and gelatinous crystallization behaviors of super-
454 saturated sodium aluminate solution. On the other hand, the
455 emergence of cation–anion prenucleation clusters in potas-
456 sium aluminate solutions promotes liquid–liquid separation
457 events, which are responsible for fast diffusion dynamics and
458 the rapid onset of nucleation. More generally, the intimate
459 roles that counterions and water solvents play in determining
460 the bonding dynamics and potential effects on the preferential
461 stabilization of specific molecular complexes or polymeric
462 species, while most evident at high salt concentrations, are

likely ubiquitous throughout solution chemistry. This concept
463 can be further tested by the molecular simulations and
464 transition state theory to quantify the local coordination state
465 of molecular species that are stable and perhaps dominating
466 the overall reaction dynamics in solution. We close by
467 reiterating that the identity of counterions controls the
468 local specific interactions responsible for distinct solvent–
469 solute clustering dynamics in concentrated solutions and
470 demonstrates the potential to use ion-specific effects to
471 promote greener, more energy-efficient aluminum processing
472 technologies as well as chemical strategies for the control of
473 crystallization processes beyond the classical settings. 474

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the
477 ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.jp-
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- (1) Experimental details of the alkaline aluminate
480 solution preparation and solution composition summar-
481 ized in Table S1, (2) QENS experimental methods and
482 data fitting analyses, (3) ^1H PFG-NMR and ^{27}Al NMR
483 experimental details and results, (4) details on Raman
484 spectroscopy measurements, and (5) descriptions on the
485 complementary neutron diffraction analyses for the
486 deuterated-equivalent aluminate solutions (PDF) 487

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Notes

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