

1 Revision 1

2 Synthesis of Stoichiometric Nickel Aluminate Spinel Nanoparticles

3 Md. Hasan, John Drazin, Sanchita Dey, Ricardo H. R. Castro*

4 *Department of Chemical Engineering and Materials Science, University of California - Davis,*
5 *One Shields Avenue, Davis, CA 95616*

6 *Corresponding author: rhrcastro@ucdavis.edu

7 **Abstract**

8 Nickel aluminate is a transition metal oxide with spinel structure with potential applications as
9 catalysts and sensors. Both applications benefit from high specific surface areas as well as
10 chemical stoichiometry control. However, a systematic approach to understand synthetic
11 parameters affecting stoichiometry and agglomeration of nickel aluminate nanoparticles still
12 lacks. In this work, co-precipitation using direct and reverse strikes and polymeric precursor
13 techniques were comparatively studied to address this problem. While the polymeric method
14 could deliver stoichiometric spinel, the samples were highly agglomerated exhibiting low surface
15 area. Both co-precipitation procedures produced smaller sizes and less agglomerated
16 nanoparticles as compared to the polymeric precursor, but for the reverse-strike, Ni²⁺
17 preferentially formed a soluble complex with ammonia and led to nickel deficient nanoparticles.
18 Stoichiometric (1 mole NiO : 1 mole Al₂O₃) nanocrystalline nickel aluminate was only achieved
19 when using controlled excess Ni²⁺. The normal-strike lead to more stoichiometric compositions
20 without need for excess cations, but the obtained nanoparticles were less homogeneous and
21 showed smaller surface areas as compared to the reverse-strike method.

22 Keywords: Spinel, nickel aluminate, nanopowder, stoichiometry

23 **Introduction**

24 Aluminate spinels generally present high thermal stability and melting points, mechanical
25 stability, and resistance to alkalis and acids (Zawadzki and Wrzyszczyk, 2000). In particular, due to
26 its defect chemistry, nickel aluminate is being considered in catalytic applications and proposed
27 as a candidate material in high temperature fuel cells (Kou and Selman, 2000). NiAl_2O_4 is also a
28 potential candidate in metal-ceramic composite because of its excellent strength and wettability
29 with metal (Kim et al., 2000). In these applications, nano-sized particles are preferable as they
30 can provide higher surface areas. Moreover, highly stoichiometric compositions are also of
31 interest for those applications as are associated with higher melting points as compared to non-
32 stoichiometric ones. Stoichiometry has also been shown to be of important for studies of relative
33 stabilities of cations in octahedral and tetrahedral sites (Cooley and Reed, 1972); and studies of
34 applications in radiation environments, given that stoichiometric spinels are more resistance to
35 radiation damage than non-stoichiometric ones (Sickafus et al., 1996).

36 Several synthesis methods have been reported to obtain crystalline NiAl_2O_4 spinel with
37 nano-sized particles (Cesteros et al., 2000; Clause et al., 1992; Deraz, 2013; Kiminami et al.,
38 2005; Mohammadpour Amini and Torkian, 2002; Nazemi et al., 2012; Nogueira et al., 2007;
39 Platero et al., 1999; Suciú et al., 2006). Among them, sol-gel method, using alkoxides as the
40 precursor, was able to produce nanoparticle with particularly high surface area (Platero et al.,
41 1999). But the cost of alkoxides and the byproducts of this method limit its engineering
42 applications (Jeevanandam et al., 2002). Pechini method (Pechini, 1967), also known as
43 modified sol-gel method, or polymeric precursor method (Cushing et al., 2004), was also
44 successfully used to obtain highly homogeneous nickel aluminate spinel with small crystallite
45 sizes (Kiminami et al., 2005; Segal, 1997). However, it has been recently reported that Pechini

46 method may leave serious carbonate contaminations during synthesis of spinels (Rufner et al.,
47 2013). The contamination is typically located on the surface of the nanoparticles, which can lead
48 to non-stoichiometric spinel structures because the carbonate phase may present a different
49 cationic composition as the oxide. Coprecipitation method using direct strike has been reported
50 to show advantages over the Pechini method in the preparation of $MgAl_2O_4$ in respect of purity,
51 particle size distribution and agglomeration. This technique has also been studied to synthesize
52 nickel aluminate spinel (Cesteros et al., 2000; Mohammadpour Amini and Torkian, 2002), but
53 while particle size and surface area were reported previously, stoichiometry of the resultant
54 spinel was not checked thoroughly in those studies, leaving a number of open questions, being
55 the main one related to fact that nickel cations can easily form complexes in basic solution,
56 possibly causing non-stoichiometric compounds upon co-precipitation.

57 In this work, we present an in-depth study of the stoichiometry, size and agglomeration
58 states of nanoparticles prepared by three different methods: Pechini, reverse-strike co-
59 precipitation and normal-strike co-precipitation. The goal is to identify the more adequate
60 method to produce stoichiometric, size controlled and non-agglomerated particles by
61 understanding and tuning the physical-chemistry of those methods.

62 **Experimental Procedures**

63 *NiAl₂O₄ spinel Synthesis by Pechini Method*

64 In the Pechini method, polyesterification is provoked in the presence of the cations,
65 resulting in decorated resin since ions can form chelates with the non-reacted carboxyl groups
66 from the polyester. The method then relies on the calcination of this resin and on the expectation
67 that the nucleation of oxide particles upon calcination will take place at the same time as the

68 polymer degradation. This would allow nucleation sites to be sparse from each other while held
69 by the three-dimensional rigid polymer structure. Ideally, once the polymer is fully degraded, the
70 nanoparticles have all been nucleated. The method is very successful for the synthesis of single-
71 metal oxides, but for double-metals, like aluminates, the process of spinel formation may take
72 two steps. That is, it has been shown for MgAl_2O_4 , for instance, an amorphous alumina structure
73 is formed before formation of the aluminate, therefore, the final phase is only formed after the
74 polymer is degraded, leading to agglomeration. Moreover, it has been shown that the combustion
75 of the polymer can lead to increased temperatures, resulting in local high temperatures, also
76 causing agglomerations (Rufner et al., 2013).

77 In this particular work, stoichiometric amounts of nickel nitrate [$\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%]
78 and aluminum nitrate [$\text{Al}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%] (Sigma Aldrich Inc., USA) were dissolved at in
79 distilled water at room temperature. Citric acid [CA, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_7$, 99%] and ethylene glycol [EG,
80 $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}_2$, 99.8%] (Sigma Aldrich Inc., USA) were then dissolved introduced to the ionic solution
81 in amounts to reach the molar ratios of $\text{Ni}^{2+}:\text{Al}^{3+}:\text{CA}:\text{EG}$ of 1:2:12:48. Polyesterification reaction
82 is expected between CA and EG molecules due to the available carboxyl and hydroxyl groups.
83 The proposed ratio assures though an excess of both reagents allowing branched polyesters and a
84 diluted distribution of ions – allowing nucleation sites apart from each other. Polyesterification
85 started when the solution was brought up to 120 °C on a stirring hot plate. Due to the use of
86 nitrates as precursors, NO_x gas evolved during the process, resulting in a green viscous resin. The
87 resin was brought to a furnace at 450 °C for 12 h under air to combust the resin and initiate
88 nucleation. The product was crushed in a mortar and pestle and further calcined for different
89 times under air. The post calcined powders had an intense blue coloration.

90 *NiAl₂O₄ spinel Synthesis by Co-Precipitation Methods*

91 Two variations of the co-precipitation method exist, differing basically on how the pH of
92 the solution is changed to cause precipitation of the solubilized ions. In *reverse-strike co-*
93 *precipitation*, a reaction bath with high pH, usually a base such as NH_4OH , is used and the
94 cationic solution is added drop wise. This causes a precipitation shock: when the ionic solution
95 gets in contact with the concentrated basic solution, a super-saturation condition is provoked for
96 the formation of an hydroxide, allowing small sizes during nucleation (making use of traditional
97 homogeneous nucleation theory (Cao, 2004)). In *normal-strike co-precipitation*, the base is
98 added drop wise into the cationic solution to provoke precipitation of the hydroxide instead.
99 Therefore, reverse-strike procedure is suggested to obtain higher cationic homogeneity in the
100 precipitated hydroxide mixture, and smaller particle sizes (Vrolijk et al., 1990; Zhen et al., 2005).

101 However, co-precipitation procedures (either one) are not always chemically straight
102 forward, specifically when dealing with synthesis of transition metal containing systems. In the
103 presence of free NH_3 , a soluble and stable (at high pHs) complex of the metal ion with NH_3 can
104 be formed and, as a consequence, a portion of the transition metal ion is not precipitated. The
105 resultant compound of course will deviate from stoichiometry, and adjustments are required to
106 assure for compensation if highly stoichiometric materials are of interest.

107 In our experiments of co-precipitation, nickel nitrate [$\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%] and
108 aluminum nitrate [$\text{Al}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%] (Sigma Aldrich Inc., USA) were dissolved in
109 deionized water with the help of magnetic stirrer. 1M aqueous ammonia solution was prepared
110 from 25% ammonium hydroxide solution (Fisher Scientific, Inc.) to act as the precipitating
111 agent. In the reverse-strike method, the cation solution was dripped into the 1M NH_4OH solution
112 that was kept under vigorous stirring to assure homogenization of the solution once precipitation
113 takes place, avoiding local pH fluctuations. An excess of NH_4OH solution was used to guarantee

114 no significant fluctuation of pH throughout the whole process. As soon as the salt solution was
115 added to the precipitation solution, a greenish precipitate was observed throughout the mixed
116 solution and the color of the supernatant turned blue. The precipitate (metal hydroxide) was then
117 separated from the supernatant using centrifuge operated at 3000 rpm. The obtained powder was
118 washed using deionized water and ethanol followed by centrifugation under similar conditions.
119 The precipitate was dried over-night at 100 °C. The dried precipitate was ground using mortar
120 and pestle and calcined at 800-1100°C for 12 h. As some Ni ions were lost by forming complex,
121 to compensate this loss the Al-nitrate to Ni-nitrate molar ratios in the starting precursor was
122 increased and several experiments were performed using different ratios, that is Ni:Al ratios of
123 2:2, 1.75:2, 1.625:2, 1.58:2, 1.55:2, 1.54:2, 1.50:2, 1.375:2, 1.25:2, 1:2.

124 In the normal-strike co-precipitation, 1M NH₄OH solution was added drop wise into the
125 cationic solution. The initially green solution gradually turned into a turbid solution with white
126 supernatant and greenish precipitates. In this case, exact amount of NH₃ solution was used to
127 avoid the presence of excess of unreacted NH₃ that could complex with nickel ions and affect
128 final stoichiometry of the precipitates. No significant amount of complex was formed as
129 suggested by the color of the supernatant after the centrifugation.

130

131 *Characterization of Nanoparticles*

132 To find out the crystallization temperature of NiAl₂O₄, the co-precipitated hydroxide
133 mixtures (and the Pechini resin) were heated at 10 °C/min to 1300 °C in a 100 μL platinum
134 crucible under synthetic dry air flow of 20 ml/min using a Setaram SETSYS Evolution
135 Differential Scanning Calorimeter and Thermal Gravimetric Analyzer (DSC/TGA) (Setaram

136 Instrumentation, Caluire, France). Powder X-ray diffraction patterns were obtained using a
137 Bruker AXS D8 Advance powder diffractometer (Bruker AXS, Madison, WI) (Cu $K\alpha$ radiation,
138 $\lambda=1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) operated at 40 kV and 40 mA. JADE 6.1 (MDI) software was used to perform a
139 whole pattern profile fitting to determine crystal structure, phase purity, and crystallite size.
140 Nitrogen absorption-desorption was performed using a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 analyzer
141 (Micromeritics Instrument Corporation, Norcross, GA) equipped with a furnace and turbo pumps
142 for degassing. Specific surface area was calculated using BET method.

143 Electron micro-probe analyzer (Cameca SX-100 Electron Microprobe) was used on
144 sintered pellet to determine the chemical composition of the synthesized powders. At least ten
145 random spots on the sample surface were chosen to check the homogeneity of composition.
146 Sintering was done at 1350 °C for 4 h and before sintering, thermo gravimetric analysis of the
147 powders were done up to 1400 °C to ensure that at the sintering temperature there would be no
148 mass loss due to evaporation or reduction of the sample.

149 Particle size distributions and particle morphologies were determined through
150 transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using a JEOL JEM-2500SE transmission electron
151 microscope (Jeol Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) operated at 200 kV. Diffraction patterns were also taken
152 using TEM.

153 **Results**

154 *Reverse-strike Co-precipitation*

155 The adopted co-precipitation procedure results in an amorphous hydroxide powder that
156 should be further calcined to allow the transformation to crystalline oxides. As it is of interest to
157 maintain small particle sizes, it is important to determine the lowest temperature at which the

158 oxide is being crystallized. Figure 1 shows the DSC/TGA performed on the as-precipitated
159 hydroxide for the composition Ni:Al equal 1:2. The thermogravimetry curve shows a decrease in
160 mass during the heating procedure, with basically two distinct slopes followed by leveling above
161 800 °C. While the weight loss below 200 °C can be attributed to physisorbed water, the one in
162 between 200 and 400 °C is most likely related to the transformation into oxide, resulting in H₂O
163 released as a product. The DSC signal shows a more complex profile, what can be attributed to
164 the small competitive processes taking place during calcination. That is, while generally water
165 desorption and transformation to oxide are the main phenomena expected, but the fact this is a
166 bi-cation system may allow multiple crystallization, and more information is needed to interpret
167 the curve.

168 Figure 2 shows the XRD from reverse-strike co-precipitation powder with 1:2 Ni:Al ratio
169 calcined at 450 °C. From the DSC/TG curves, this temperature is supposedly after most reactions
170 take place. However, the pattern reveals no presence of a spinel yet, with only nickel oxide
171 (NiO) crystalline phase observed, with a broad band attributed to an amorphous behind. This
172 indicates that amorphous aluminum hydroxide persists at this temperature and is consistent with
173 results for magnesium aluminates synthesis using similar technique (Rufner et al., 2013), where
174 the MgO phase is formed before the spinel. The results suggests that the small bump observed
175 from 400 °C to 650°C at the DSC/TG curve is most likely related to the dissolution of NiO
176 inside the amorphous hydroxide and concomitant formation of the new spinel phase. Another
177 exothermic heat is observed from 800 to 1200 °C, which is possibly due to coarsening of the
178 sample. To confirm both attributions, the sample was calcined at 1100 °C and characterized by
179 using XRD. The spinel phase (with absence of NiO or hydroxides) is observed to be formed, as
180 shown in Figure 3. Note that with this method, the spinel phase was already observed at 800 °C

181 though (pattern not shown here), and only coarsening was detected by further calcining at 1100
182 °C.

183 It is important to note however that the XRD pattern for the sample with 1:2 Ni:Al
184 precursor ratio does not correspond to NiAl_2O_4 , but to a structure more similar to gamma-
185 alumina instead. This suggests non-stoichiometric samples as a result of Ni^{2+} complexation with
186 ammonium during precipitation. To assure stoichiometric samples are achieved, nickel to
187 aluminum ratio was varied from 2:2 to 1:2 by using the appropriate nitrate amounts. After
188 precipitation, the samples were calcined at 1100 °C. This relatively high temperature of
189 calcination was chosen to avoid the presence of too broad peaks of the aluminate that could
190 potentially hide the two characteristic XRD reflections of NiO and make structural analysis more
191 accurate.

192 Figure 4 shows the XRD patterns for each of the tested compositions. While all samples
193 resulted in spinel structures, increasing nickel content resulted in a shift of the parameters (Table
194 1) towards the stoichiometric NiAl_2O_4 spinel structure [PDF#78-1601]. Within the range 1.54:2
195 to 1.55:2 of molar ratio, the pattern perfectly matches expected stoichiometric NiAl_2O_4 lattice
196 parameters. Ratios above 1.55:2 showed a NiO second phase as evident from the peaks located at
197 43.3° and 62.8° in the XRD patterns. To confirm the chemical composition, Table 2 shows the
198 electron microprobe results for the samples produced with 1.55:2. The results indicate highly
199 stoichiometric powders, with virtually the theoretical atomic ratio. 10 different points were
200 studied in the sample to confirm homogeneity as noted in the experimental section.

201 While the samples showed stoichiometric, the grain sizes measured from XRD patterns
202 revealed coarsened samples (~51nm) as a result of the high calcination temperature. If the peak
203 found in the DSC curve going from 800 to 1200 °C is indeed solely related to coarsening, sample

204 calcination at 800 °C would enable the formation of the aluminate but with more limited grain
205 growth. Hydroxides with 1.55:2 were then calcined at 800, 900, 1000 and 1100 °C. The sample
206 calcined at 800 °C already revealed the formation of the nickel aluminate, and further treatment
207 allowed coarsening as evident from the peaks' sharpening. Table 3 shows the grain sizes
208 determined from the XRD patterns, revealing grains as small as 5nm for the sample calcined at
209 800 °C and systematic grain size increase with temperature.

210

211 *Normal-strike Co-precipitation*

212 Normal-strike co-precipitation is expected to show significantly less Ni²⁺ loss due to
213 complexation as no excess of ammonia is used in the process. Therefore, solely the 1:2 Ni:Al
214 ratio was used to manufacture nanoparticles. Figure 1 shows the DSC/TG of the obtained
215 hydroxide precipitate. The curves show communalities with the reverse-strike samples, with the
216 weight change being almost identical, while the DSC signal showed differences in the 250 to 400
217 °C range. Figure 2 shows the XRD pattern for a powder calcined at 450 °C. Similarly to the
218 reverse-strike method, a nickel oxide phase exists with absence of the spinel crystal structure and
219 the existence of a broad background band attributed to the amorphous aluminum hydroxide. The
220 sample was then further calcined at 1100 °C, a temperature where all reactions have taken place
221 according to the DSC curve. The XRD pattern for this sample is shown in Figure 3. Spinel phase
222 with peaks positioned consistent with the stoichiometric NiAl₂O₄ is observed and confirmed in
223 by electron microprobe data in Table 2. Microprobe showed 0.985:2 for Ni:Al ratio, which can
224 be considered stoichiometric as within experimental deviation, but the small difference as
225 compared to the reverse-strike method can be attributed still to a slight formation of Ni²⁺
226 complexes with ammonia. Similarly to the reverse-strike method, aluminate was already the only

227 present phase at about 800 °C, but calcination at 1100 °C was performed for better structural
228 analysis. In order to study the grain size of samples prepared by normal-strike precipitation, the
229 samples were calcined at different temperatures. The samples calcined at 800, 900, 1000 and
230 1100 °C showed consistently larger grain sizes as compared to the reverse-strike, though being
231 close to each other when considering the error bars.

232

233 *Polymeric Precursor Method (Pechini)*

234 The polymeric precursor method uses a significantly different method to achieve
235 nanoparticles as compared to co-precipitation procedures. The nucleation process takes place
236 while a polyester structure is still present, allowing diffusion limited nucleation and growth.
237 Figure 1 shows the DSC/TG for the carbon rich powder obtained after calcination of the resin
238 attained as described in the experimental section. The curve shows a significant mass loss
239 (>90%), confirming the high percentage of carbon based materials related to residues from the
240 polymer. Highly exothermic signals are observed, consistent with combustion and crystallization
241 of an oxide phase. Figure 2 shows the XRD pattern for the powder calcined at 450 °C. Similarly
242 to the co-precipitation samples, only nickel oxide was observed, with an amorphous band
243 attributed to aluminum hydroxide. Interestingly, the peaks are much sharper than those from the
244 co-precipitation powders, suggesting a larger grain size, what can be attributed to the combustion
245 reaction, which may lead to local high temperatures, allowing enhanced coarsening.

246 The powder was further calcined at 800, 900, 1000 and 1100 °C to compare grain sizes
247 and structures with the co-precipitation powders. Figure 3 shows the XRD for the 1100 °C,
248 evidencing the nickel aluminate spinel structure. Grain sizes from XRD patterns for the different

249 temperatures are compiled in Table 3. Note that the grains are significantly larger for this method
250 as compared to both co-precipitation procedures regardless of the calcination temperature. The
251 smallest achievable grain size of pure spinel being 11.4 nm at 900 °C. That is, while the co-
252 precipitated powders had a NiO free spinel at 800 °C, this sample still had traces of the phase,
253 requiring higher temperature for complete NiO elimination. Table 2 shows the electron
254 microprobe results for the sample calcined at 1100 °C, revealing though a very stoichiometric
255 sample, attributed to the inexistence of parasite reactions to enable loss of nickel ions along the
256 process.

257 **Discussion**

258 All three studied methods successfully produced nickel aluminate nanoparticles. In order
259 to produce stoichiometric particles, the reverse-strike co-precipitation method needed direct
260 intervention and adjustment of initial concentrations due to the complex formation of Ni²⁺ with
261 the required excess of ammonia. That is, ammonium hydroxide solution was used as a
262 precipitation agent. The excess ammonia needed to provoke the supersaturated condition acts as
263 a ligand for the transition metal ion, such that Ni²⁺ forms a complex which is soluble in basic
264 solution. A blue color in the solution confirmed the presence of Ni²⁺ in solution after co-
265 precipitation. Hence, extra nickel precursor was needed to allow precipitation of the
266 stoichiometric compound (NiAl₂O₄).

267 This was confirmed by the lattice parameter analysis and direct elemental microprobe
268 (Table 1). That is, the ideal lattice parameter for stoichiometric NiAl₂O₄ spinel should be around
269 8.05Å. For the sample containing low Ni²⁺ content, the lattice parameter shifts towards gamma
270 alumina (7.905 Å) (Han et al., 2004). For the high concentration of Ni²⁺, Ni²⁺ occupies not only

271 the typical tetrahedral coordination sites but also vacant octahedral ones. Because Ni^{2+} is larger
272 than Al^{3+} (in terms of ionic radius), lattice expansion is observed. The expansion is however
273 limited because of the oxygen vacancy formation induced by charge compensation mechanisms
274 that will shrink the lattice. Note that high temperatures can also cause Ni^{2+} to shift to octahedral
275 coordination, but at the temperature of processing here, this is not expected to take place (Han et
276 al., 2004). The lattice parameter only agreed well with the theoretical NiAl_2O_4 value when using
277 excess Ni^{2+} during synthesis, as confirmed by the elemental microprobe analysis, proving that
278 Ni^{2+} is indeed lost during the reverse co-precipitation procedure. Pechini and normal-strike co-
279 precipitation directly allowed highly stoichiometric samples.

280 On the other hand, as evidenced in Table 3, the grain sizes from the reverse-strike method
281 are consistently smaller as compared to the other methods. Interestingly, the Pechini sample did
282 not result in pure phase aluminate at 800 °C, and the sample showed a small amount of NiO.
283 This can be attributed to the microstructure of the Pechini powder, which is expected to show
284 more agglomerated particles (limiting the NiO reaction with the amorphous matrix to form the
285 aluminate). Table 3 shows the results of surface area for samples calcined at 900 °C and
286 measured by gas adsorption (BET). This temperature was selected as it is the lowest temperature
287 where only nickel aluminate is observed regardless of the method. Note that the reverse-strike
288 method showed the largest surface area (99 m^2/g), while the normal-strike was 19 m^2/g smaller,
289 and Pechini was 50 m^2/g smaller. While this is simply qualitatively consistent with the grain
290 sizes trend, a more detailed comparison between surface areas and grain sizes of each of the
291 samples can provide information on state of agglomeration. That is, if one assumes a spherical-
292 equivalent model, one can calculate the total interfacial area from the grain sizes. If all particles
293 were non-agglomerated or partially sintered, the calculated interfacial area must be equivalent to,

294 or close to the surface area determined by gas adsorption. Otherwise, one can argue that there are
295 significant amount of solid-solid interfaces that can be estimated by the difference between
296 surface areas and calculated interfacial areas. For all methods, the calculations suggest some
297 degree of agglomeration. This is expected as the samples were prepared at 900 °C, a temperature
298 high enough to activate sintering mechanisms. A rough calculation shows the smaller degree of
299 agglomeration for the reverse-strike, while the largest for the Pechini method. As previously
300 reported (Dearden et al., 2013), the relatively lower agglomeration achieved by co-precipitation
301 method as compared to Pechini can be attributed to the burn off stage of polymer that gives rise
302 to localized temperature and enhanced agglomeration of the particles still in the early stage.

303 Figure 5 shows a collection of TEM images for the samples prepared by reverse-strike
304 and Pechini. It is notorious that the co-precipitated samples are less agglomerated: while the
305 measured grain sizes are consistent with those from XRD pattern fitting, the images show
306 significant less neck formation and particle sizes for the co-precipitated samples. Interestingly,
307 both images also reveal that the nanoparticles are anisotropic. This is not expected when using
308 the adopted methods, but can be explained by the kinetics of particle nucleation and growth. That
309 is, in all three methods, during calcination there is a competition between the formation of the
310 spinel, NiO, and aluminum hydroxide. Because the aluminum hydroxide is a very stable phase
311 considering its enthalpy of formation, it does not readily decompose to form the spinel, and NiO
312 is formed as a transitional phase instead. Because nickel oxide is formed before the spinel phase,
313 and this is surrounded by the aluminum hydroxide phase given the chemical environment of the
314 nucleation, the process of formation of the spinel nanoparticles is, in all three cases, a solid state
315 reaction between these two compounds. This enables growth of more stable facets, creating

316 highly anisotropic shapes. The large and strong agglomerates observed in the Pechini samples
317 are thus believed to be responsible for the late reaction of NiO for the formation of the aluminate.

318 **Implications**

319 Several papers have reported on the synthesis of nickel aluminate nanoparticles, but
320 critical sample parameters, such as the state of agglomeration and stoichiometry, are not
321 commonly addressed. In this work we have demonstrated that the synthetic methods can easily
322 led to strongly agglomerated and non-stoichiometric sample. We have shown though that fairly
323 non-agglomerated and with small grain sizes ($\sim 5\text{nm}$, $\sim 100\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) NiAl_2O_4 particles can be
324 obtained by a reverse-strike co-precipitation method after calcination at $800\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. However, the
325 method needed adjustment of stoichiometry though due to the complexation of Ni^{2+} with excess
326 ammonia needed in the process. For the other two tested methods, Pechini and normal-strike co-
327 precipitation, we also observed small grain sizes ($\sim 9\text{ nm}$ and $\sim 6\text{ nm}$, respectively) for
328 calcinations at the same temperatures and fairly stoichiometric samples. However, the Pechini
329 sample showed strong agglomeration (low surface area $\sim 50\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) and still a second phase of
330 NiO for powders calcined at $800\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and the normal-strike co-precipitation showed smaller
331 surface area ($\sim 80\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) as compared to the reverse-strike procedure. The higher overall quality of
332 the particles obtained from the reverse-strike method can be explained by the overall concept
333 underlying the procedure, that provokes a supersaturation condition to enable small critical
334 nucleation sizes.

335 The possibility of fabricating NiAl_2O_4 nanoparticles with controlled stoichiometry opens
336 a great perspective not only for manufacturing of bulk ceramics for structural studies, given that
337 nanoparticles have high driving force for densification, but also for production of surface

338 controlled nanoparticles for catalytic applications. For instance, it has been shown that non-
339 stoichiometric nickel aluminate is active for steam reforming of methane (Alubaid and Wolf,
340 1988). The refined control of stoichiometry of the nickel aluminate nanoparticles described in
341 our work enables an unprecedented possibility for optimization of nanoparticles for such
342 application.

343

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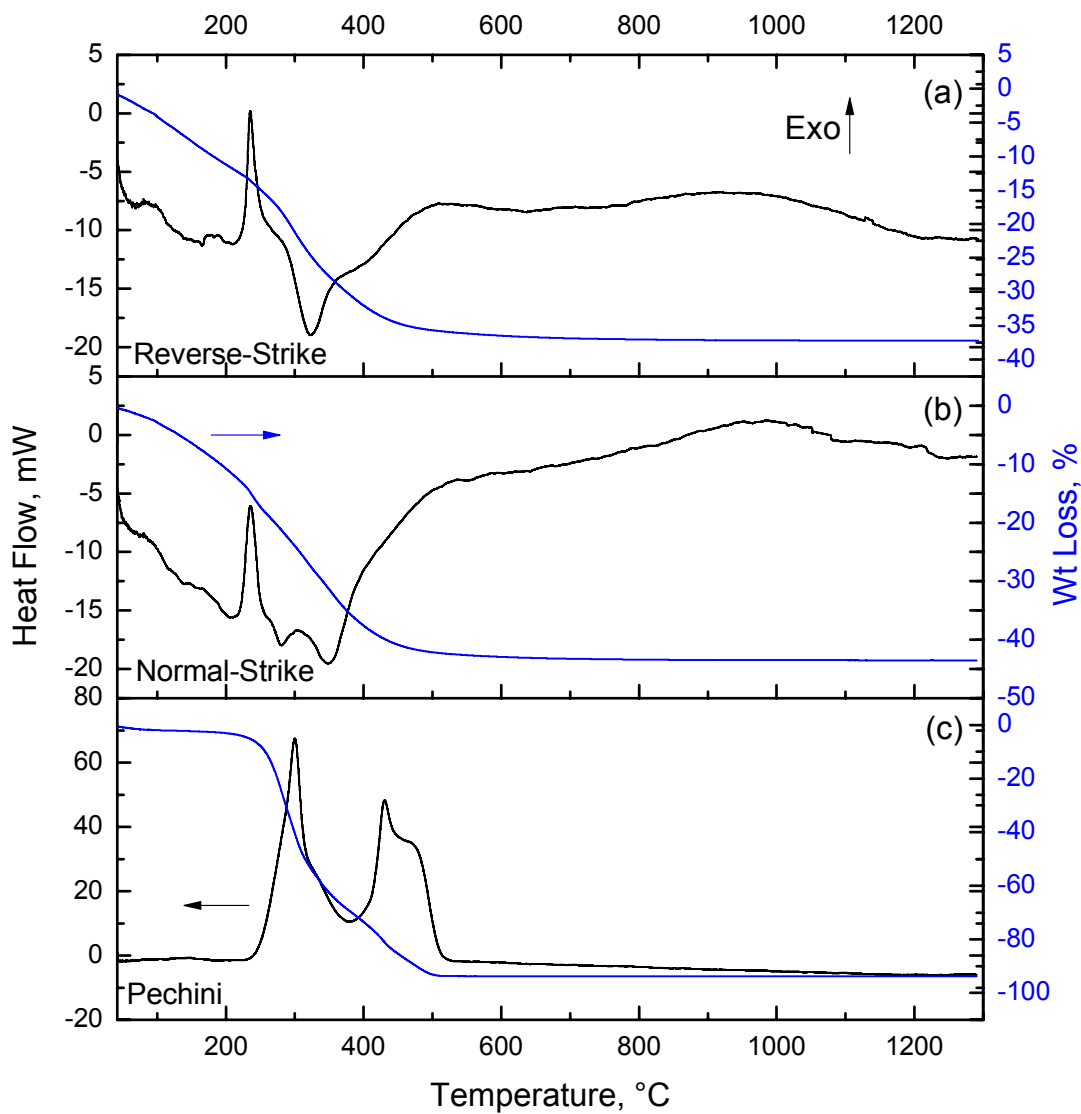
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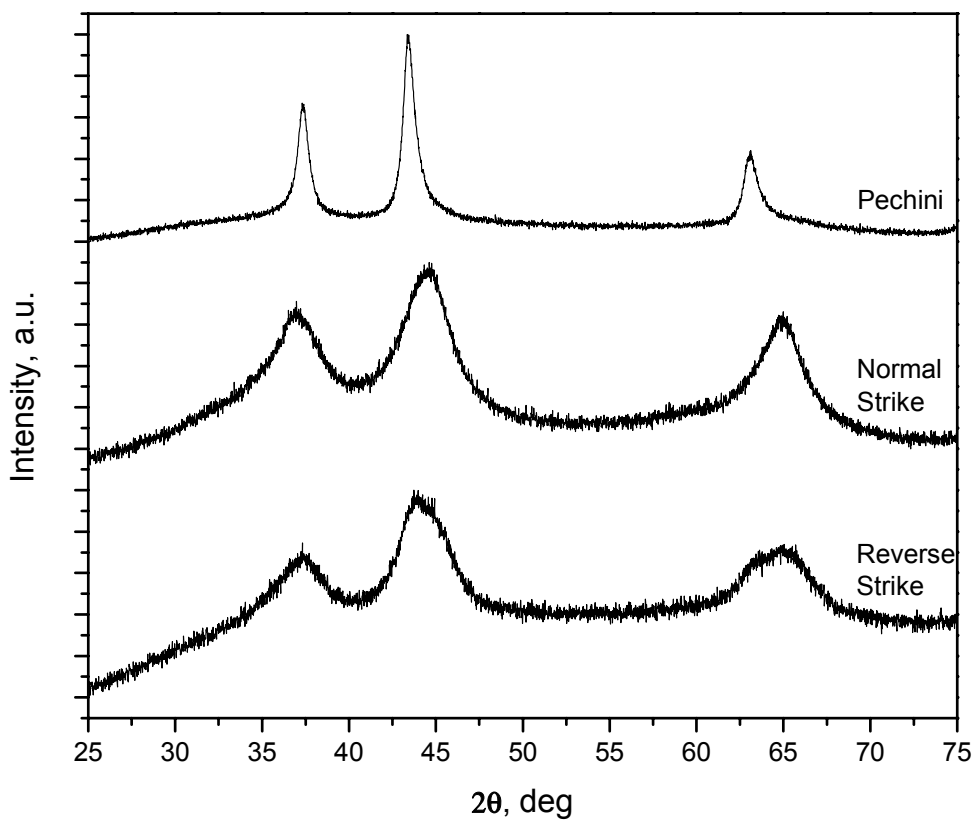


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412 Figure 1. Differential scanning calorimetry (black line) and thermal gravimetric analysis (grey

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line) of Pechini resin and co-precipitated hydroxides.

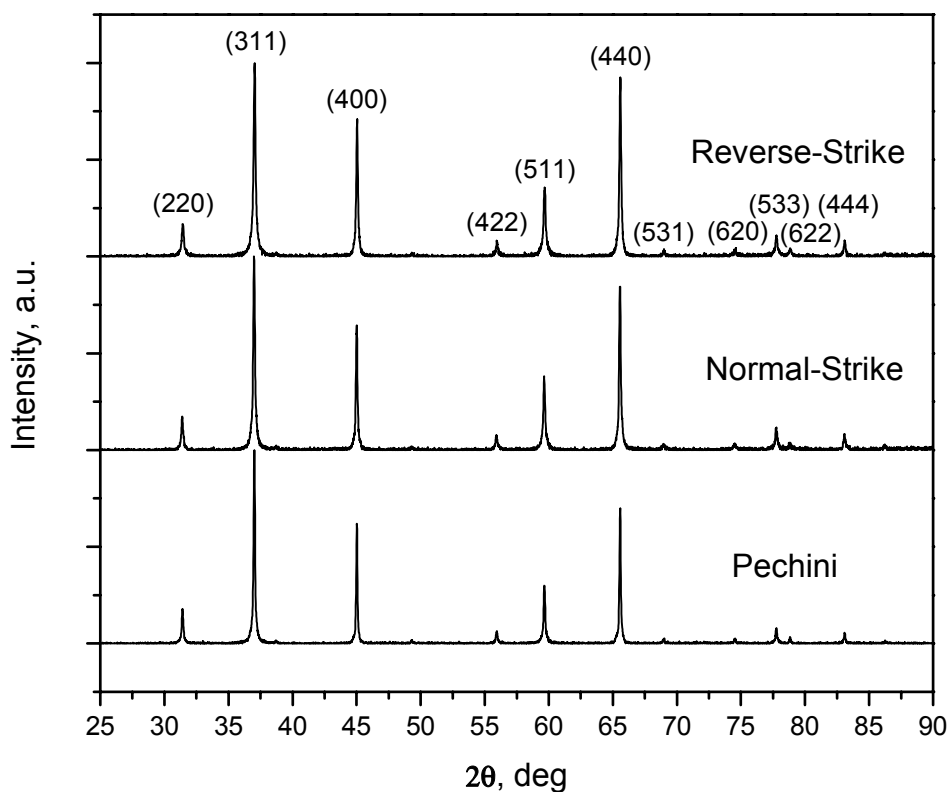


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415 Figure 2. XRD patterns of the Pechini resin and co-precipitated hydroxides heat treated at 450 °C for

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12 h showing the presence of NiO crystals

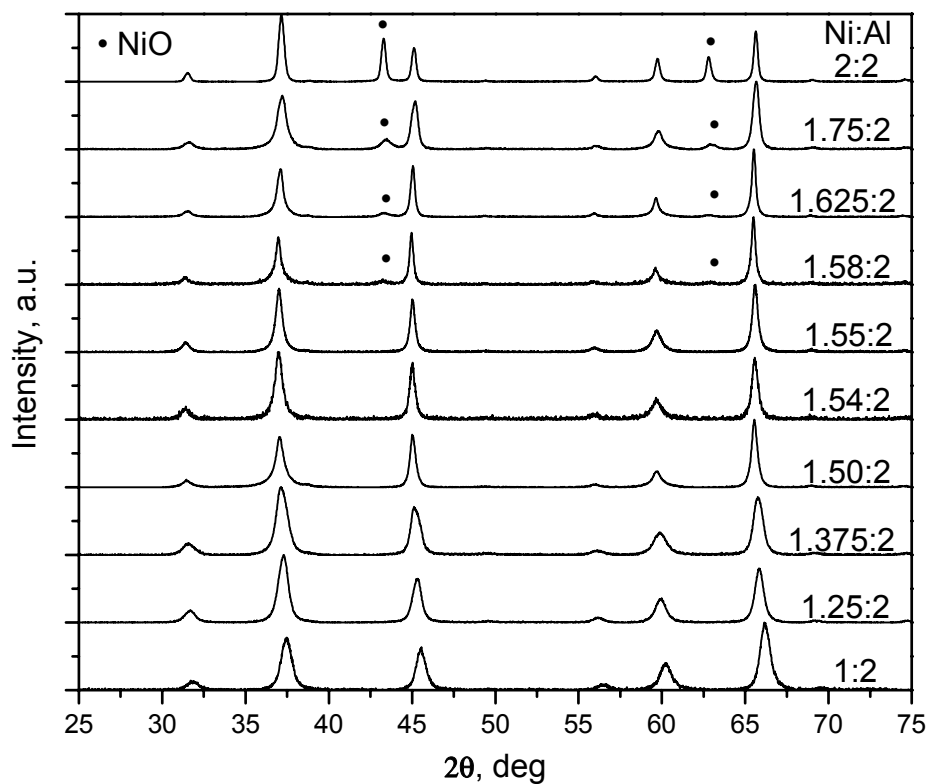


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418 Figure 3. XRD data of nanoparticles synthesized by three methods and calcined at 1100 °C for

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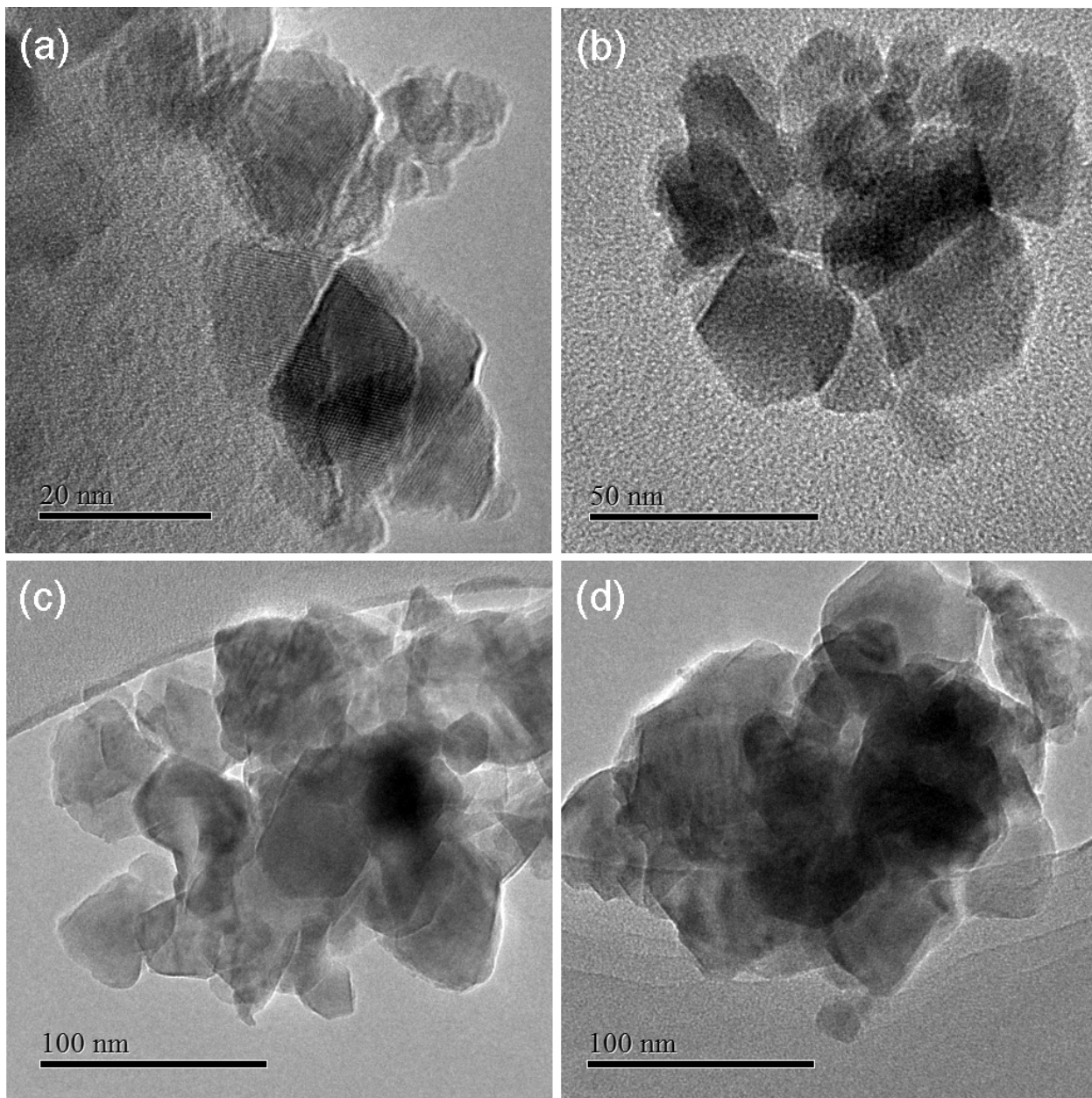
12 h.



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421 Figure 4. XRD patterns of the nanoparticles synthesized by reverse-strike co-precipitation with different
422 precursor molar ratios. Calcination was carried out at 1100°C for 2 hours.

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425 Figure 5. TEM micrographs of NiAl_2O_4 particles synthesized by reverse-strike co-precipitation

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(a and b) and Pechini method (c and d)

427

428 **Tables**

429

430 Table 1. Lattice parameters of the spinels synthesized by reverse-strike co-precipitation with
431 different precursor ratios. Deviation in lattice parameters is smaller than 0.0005Å.

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Ni:Al Precursor Ratio	Lattice Parameter(Å)
Ideal	8.0500
1:2	8.0045
1.55:2	8.0468
2:2	8.0560

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Table 2. Microprobe results showing the stoichiometry of the spinels obtained by the three methods.

	Stoichiometry		
	Al	Ni	O
Ideal	2	1	4
Pechini	2	1.0056±0.0258	4.0056±0.0258
Normal-Strike	2	0.9856±0.0196	3.9856±0.0196
Reverse-Strike	2	0.9997±0.0055	3.9997±0.0055

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Table 3. Crystal Size and surface areas of powders synthesized by different methods. Surface area measurements have deviations of $0.5\text{m}^2/\text{g}$.

	Reverse-Strike	Normal-Strike	Pechini
800 °C/12 h	4.9±0.8 nm	5.6±0.8 nm	8.9±1.3 nm (+NiO)
900 °C/12 h	8.3±1.1 nm	9.5±1.4 nm	11.4±1.4 nm
1000 °C/12 h	15.7±2.1 nm	19.7±2.4 nm	35.3±4.0 nm
1100 °C/12 h	51.5±4.9 nm	57.0±5.3 nm	73.3±5.1 nm
Surface area (m^2/g)	99 (900 °C)	80 (900 °C)	49 (900 °C)

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