

# **Review** Article **Review on the Synthesis and Applications of Fe**<sub>3</sub>**O**<sub>4</sub> **Nanomaterials**

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Received 17 January 2013; Accepted 16 February 2013

Academic Editor: Jianmin Ma

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Recently,  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials have attracted tremendous attention because of their favorable electric and magnetic properties.  $Fe_3O_4$  nanostructures with various morphologies have been successfully synthesized and have been used in many fields such as lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), wastewater treatment, and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) contrast agents. In this paper, we provide an in-depth discussion of recent development of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials, including their effective synthetic methods and potential applications.

## 1. Introduction

Nanomaterials have been attracting great attention owing to their excellent electrical, optical, magnetic, and catalytic properties. It is well known that the phases, sizes, and morphologies of nanomaterials have great influence on their properties and potential applications; thereby, the controlled synthesis of nanostructured materials with novel morphologies has recently received much attention [1–3]. As a kind of conventional magnetic material, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials have been used in many fields because of their unique electric and magnetic properties [4, 5]. Several novel and effective methods have been developed to synthesize Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials with various shapes, such as nanorods, nanotubes, and hierarchical superstructures [6-10]. Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials have superior properties and great potential applications in the fields of lithium-ion batteries, wastewater treatment, and drug delivery [11-15].

Until now, several overviews of the literature on the  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials have been reported to keep the readers abreast of the rapid development. For example, a review by Yang's group has focused on the synthesis, growth mechanism, and applications of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials [16]. Nevertheless, many successes on the synthesis, properties, and applications

of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials have been continually reported in the last few years; thereby, it seems timely to review the development of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanostructures.

Herein, we provide an update on currently available methods for the synthesis of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials with various morphologies; in spite of that, some important and original findings reported earlier are also included. The unique properties, potential applications, and future prospects of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanostructures have also been discussed.

## 2. Synthesis of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> Nanomaterials

Generally, the intrinsic shape of nanocrystal is dominated by the crystalline structure of initial seed, and the final shape is governed by the subsequent growth stage through delicate control of external factors (e.g., kinetic energy barrier and templates) [17]. Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> has a cubic inverse spinel structure based on *Fd-3m* space group [18]. The lattice constant is a =0.839. In the unit cell, as shown in Figure 1, the oxygen ions form an fcc closed packing, and the iron ions occupy interstitial tetrahedral sites and octahedral sites, symbolized as  $[Fe^{3+}]_A$ - $[Fe^{2+}Fe^{3+}]_BO_4$ , in which *A* (tetrahedral positions) is occupied by Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions and *B* (octahedral sites) is occupied by eight Fe<sup>2+</sup> ions and eight Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions.



FIGURE 1: Crystal structure of cubic inverse spinel  $Fe_3O_4$  ((green ball)  $Fe^{3+}$  (blue ball)  $Fe^{2+}$  (red ball) O).

2.1.  $0D \ Fe_3O_4$  Nanomaterials.  $0D \ Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials have been widely studied due to their current and promising applications. It is known that the physicochemical properties and potential applications of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials are strongly influenced by their sizes; moreover,  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials tend to aggregate because of the strong magnetic dipole-dipole attractions between the crystals and the large surface energy [24]. Thus, many efforts have been devoted to prepare  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials with controlled size and welldefined surface property [25].

After the Sugimoto group have fabricated monodisperse Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles in 1980, various methods have been developed for the synthesis of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles with narrow size distribution and good dispersity. Sun and Zeng have synthesized  $4 \text{ nm Fe}_3O_4$  nanoparticles via the hightemperature reaction of  $Fe(acac)_3$  in the phenyl ether with 1,2hexadecanediol, oleic acid, and oleylamine. "Seed-mediated" growth method is used to make larger nanoparticles, and  $Fe_3O_4$  nanoparticles (3–20 nm) can be obtained by changing the quantity of seeds [26]. The Gao's group have used a solvothermal method to synthesize Fe3O4 nanoparticles with a mean diameter of 25 nm [27]. In the synthesis,  $[Zn(CO_3)_2(OH)_6]$ , accepting Fe<sup>2+</sup> precipitates through –OH, can prevent the agglomeration of Fe<sup>2+</sup> precipitates, and superparamagnetic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles can be sequentially obtained. Compared to other successes [11, 28], the assynthesized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles with good dispersity have not been coated by other substances (e.g., silica and polymer) and can keep their naturally properties. Other routes, including coprecipitation method, reverse micelle method, and high temperature liquid phase method, have also been explored to fabricate Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles with different diameters [29-32].

Besides spherical nanoparticles, 0D Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials with other morphologies have been prepared, such as octahedron [19, 33, 34], dodecahedron [6], and cube [35–37]. Based on the literature [38], the shape of the particle is closely related to the crystallographic surfaces that enclose the particle. As to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, the relative surface energies are in the order of  $\gamma_{111} < \gamma_{100} < \gamma_{110}$  owing to the distances between these three faces and coordination number with neighboring atoms [39, 40]. Therefore, the growth rate of (111) plane is quicker than that of other planes, and the octahedral shapes would

be the thermodynamically favored morphology according to the Wulff theorem. For example, Zhang et al. have presented a simple method for octahedral Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, in which tetracosane is the reaction media, oleylamine is the surfactant and the reducing agent, and  $Fe(OA)_3$  is the precursor [19]. As shown in Figure 2(a), the octahedrons have a size of  $21 \pm$ 2 nm. The octahedrons can also self-assemble into oriented superstructures due to their anisotropic shapes (Figure 2(b)). As discussed above, the (110) facet has the highest surface energy, so there is much difficulty to fabricate magnetite nanocrystals enclosed by (110) plane. Nevertheless, Li and coworkers have prepared rhombic dodecahedral (RD) Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals via a microwave-assisted route in the presence of ionic liquid (IL)  $[C_{12}Py]^+[ClO_4]^-$  [6]. In the synthesis, ILs change the surface condition of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals, and HMT/phenol adsorbed on (110) planes is benefitcial for the crystal growth along [100] direction; thus, RD Fe $_3O_4$ nanocrystals enclosed by twelve (110) flakes can be obtained. Moreover, if the nuclei are bounded by (100) planes, cubic  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials can be formed [36].

2.2. 1D and 2D Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> Nanomaterials. Although it is difficult to prepare anisotropic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystal because of its cubic spinel structure, anisotropic nanocrystals can be obtained by using templates or surfactants to control the growth rate on different crystal planes. More recently, 1D magnetic nanomaterials, such as nanotubes, nanorods, and nanowires, have become a pressing need for their potential applications in lithium-ion batteries and field emission displays [41]. Particularly, tubular Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanostructures have stimulated extensive efforts owing to their well-defined magnetic states. It was reported that some conventional methods (i.e., templateassisted method) are not benefitcial for the formation of single-crystalline nanotubes; thereby, some novel methods have been explored [9, 42-44]. Geng et al. have applied proteins from egg albumin as nanoreactors for the fabrication of single-crystalline Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanotubes. A flake structure is prepared with the assistance of egg albumin, and then Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanotubes are prepared from the flake-like precursors based on a "rolling-up" mechanism. Additionally, nanorods and nanowires have been successfully synthesized [43, 45-48]. For example, Zhang and coworkers have prepared singlecrystalline Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanowires with large aspect ratio by a one-step sol-gel process; Wang et al. have reduced  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanowires to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanowires under H<sub>2</sub> and Ar<sub>2</sub> at 400-900°C via a V-S process; chemical vapor deposition (CVD) method has also been used to synthesize 1D Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials.

2D Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials, such as nanorings and nanoflakes, have also attracted much attention to their special properties. Jia et al. have synthesized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanorings by the reduction of hematite in the presence of phosphate and sulfate [49]. In the synthesis, compared with (001) plane, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> have stronger adhesion to the (110) and (100) planes; therefore, the capsule crystals have a tendency to grow along the [001] direction and the following dissolution process also takes place along the [001] direction. Finally, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanorings can be formed. Zhu group have prepared Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanosheets



FIGURE 2: (a) TEM image of self-assembled monolayer  $Fe_3O_4$  nanocrystals; (b) SEM image of assembled multilayer  $Fe_3O_4$  nanocrystals; (c) SEM image of RD  $Fe_3O_4$  nanocrystals; the inset is model of RD enclosed by twelve (110) planes [6, 19].

by oxidizing Fe substrates in acidic solution in a hot plate at 70°C [50]. Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoplates have been synthesized by reducing  $\gamma$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoplates in the presence of PVP. In the experiment, PVP can selectively coordinate with (111) facet of  $\gamma$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which reduces the growth rate along the [111] direction, resulting in nanoplates bounded by the (111) planes. Finally,  $\gamma$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoplates could be transformed to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with the shape and size being unchanged. Other strategies (i.e., hydrothermal and solvothermal methods) have been developed to fabricate Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoprisms [15, 51, 52].

2.3.  $Fe_3O_4$  Hierarchical Superstructures. Recently, many research efforts in nanoscience have been devoted to the self-assembly of nanoscale building blocks into 2D and 3D hierarchical superstructures, which could prevent the agglomeration of nanomaterials and supply more tunable and unique properties [53]. In addition, the "superparamagnetic limit," that is, the conflict between reducing the magnetic energy barrier and decreasing the size, restrains the development of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials [9]. To some extent,  $Fe_3O_4$  hierarchical superstructures could overcome this limit, and some researchers concerned about the synthesis of self-assembled  $Fe_3O_4$  superstructures.

As shown in Figure 3(a), 1D chainlike arrays of hollow  $Fe_3O_4$  nanospheres have been prepared by aging preassembled Fe nanoparticles in aqueous solution [20]. The formation mechanism is proposed based on the nanoscale Kirkendall effect: Fe nanoparticles are firstly self-assembled into chainlike structure and solid Fe spheres are then gradually oxidized into  $Fe_3O_4$  hollow nanospheres. Other self-assembled  $Fe_3O_4$  chains have also been synthesized [10, 54].

The Wang group have successfully synthesized a hierarchical and porous structure of  $Fe_3O_4$  hollow submicrospheres with  $Fe_3O_4$  nanoparticles *via* a solvothermal method [21]. As displayed in Figure 3(b),  $Fe_3O_4$  submicrospheres are built from  $Fe_3O_4$  nanoparticles with diameters of 20–30 nm. The formation mechanism can be attributed to reduction and Ostwald ripening:  $Fe_2O_3$  submicrospheres are firstly synthesized; hematite is then reduced to magnetite and an incomplete layer consisted of  $Fe_3O_4$  nuclei is formed on the solid  $Fe_2O_3$  surfaces; a  $Fe_2O_3$ -Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> core-cell structure is

formed in the presence of 1,6-hexanediol; finally,  $Fe_3O_4$  hollow submicrospheres are obtained through Ostwald ripening process.

Hierarchical flower-like  $Fe_3O_4$  superstructures have been wildly researched [22, 55–57]. Zhong et al. have reported the synthesis of flower-like  $Fe_3O_4$  superstructures by an ethylene-glycol-(EG-)mediated self-assembly process. Han and coworkers have prepared flower-like  $Fe_3O_4$  under  $80^{\circ}$ C in the absent of any surfactant or organic solvent (Figure 3(c)). Ultrasound-assisted hydrothermal route has also been used to fabricate  $Fe_3O_4$  hierarchical flower-like microspheres.

Many other  $Fe_3O_4$  hierarchical superstructures with special morphologies have been synthesized. For example,  $Fe_3O_4$  microspheres assembled by tetrahedral nanocrystals [58], porous hollow  $Fe_3O_4$  beads constructed with rodlike nanoparticles [59], and nanoparticles-assembled  $Fe_3O_4$ dendritic patterns [60].

# 3. Potential Applications of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> Nanomaterials

3.1. Lithium-Ion Batteries (LIBs). Lithium-ion batteries are regarded as the most promising rechargeable energy storage technology due to the increasing applications of portable electronic devices and transportations. In order to obtain high power and energy density, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials have been extensively explored as LIB anode materials for their high theoretical capacity  $(900-1000 \text{ mA}\cdot\text{h}\cdot\text{g}^{-1})$ , low cost, environmental benignity, and special properties [59, 61]. For example, single-crystalline mesoporous Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanorod exhibits a high reversible capacity of  $843.5 \text{ mA} \cdot \text{h} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$  after 50th cycle at 0.1 C; furthermore, the nanorods have superior electron transport ability, which makes them highly attractive for the potential application as LIB anode materials [46]. However, the high surface area of nanomaterials may cause secondary reactions such as electrolyte decomposition between electrode and electrolyte and form thick solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) films on the electrode surface [62]. Fortunately, it was found that surface modifications could partly solve these problems [23]. Carbon-coated Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>



FIGURE 3: (a) TEM images of the chainlike arrays of  $Fe_3O_4$  hollow nanospheres; (b) SEM image of the hierarchial porous  $Fe_3O_4$  hollow submicrospheres; (c) SEM and TEM images of the flower-like  $Fe_3O_4$  superstructures [20–22].



FIGURE 4: Schematic illustration of the synthesis of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/C core-shell spheres, chains, and rings [23].

nanospindles can increase the electronic conductivity of electrodes leading to thin and uniform SEI films, but also stabilize the obtained SEI films; thereafter, the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-C composites are excellent anode materials for highly efficient LIBs with high reversible capacity, high rate capability, and enhanced cycling performance. Li group have reported monodisperse Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/C core-shell spheres, chains, and rings with tunable magnetic properties based on structural evolution from eccentric Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/poly(acrylic acid) core-shell nanoparticles [63]. The possible formation mechanism is shown in Figure 4. Compared with the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/C core-shell spheres, the chains and rings exhibit higher reversible capacity and better cycling stability. Several other ways have been used to form Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-C composites [30, 64, 65]. For instance, porous carbons or mixing graphene layers are impregnated with Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> precursor; Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs and carbon are simultaneously formed from a precursor with high surface area and porosity.

3.2. Wastewater Treatment. In recent years, wastewater treatment has attracted considerable attention because clean water is vital to the human and because of a variety of key industries [66]. The development of nanoscience opens a novel and effective way for the wastewater treatment. Many groups have used Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials to treat heavy metal ions and organic pollution. Nanostructured Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microspheres (NFMSs) with a large specific surface area (135.9 m<sup>2</sup>·g<sup>-1</sup>) can remove toxic Cr<sup>6+</sup> from polluted water, and it is found that 1 g NFMSs remove 43.48 mg Cr<sup>6+</sup> ions at room temperature [67]. Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials have also been successfully used as catalysts to remove organic pollutions, such as xylenol orange, phenol, and aniline, from wastewater [68–70].

3.3. Other Applications.  $Fe_3O_4$  nanomaterials have been applied in many other fields, including metal chemosensor [71], magnetorheological elastomer [72], SERS spectroscopy

[57], magnetic resonance contrast agent [73], catalyst [74, 75], drug delivery [76], and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) contrast agents [77].

# 4. Conclusions

In conclusions, recent synthetic efforts have led to the formation of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanomaterials with various morphologies. In spite of the exciting new development, the application of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanomaterials in industry is still in its infancy. However, with the progress in the fundamental understanding of the physics and chemistry in the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanomaterials, we foresee that novel properties and applications will be demonstrated in the not-so-distant future.

#### Acknowledgments

This work is financially supported by the Natural Science Foundation of Henan Department of Science & Technology (no. 112300410224 and no. 13A150813) and the Natural Science Foundation of Nanyang Normal University (no. 2X2010014).

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