



Strain-induced phase-structure of Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles

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ABSTRACT

Selective synthesis of Fe₂O₃ nanomaterials with desired phase-structure is of great importance for broadening and improving their industrial applications. In this paper, the structure-phase transformation in the as-prepared samples with different annealing process is studied, trying to find a facile route to fabricate α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles by inducing external strain in a well control mode, which is of great importance for the design and applications of the iron oxide. The high-resolution transmission electron microscope, X-ray photoelectron spectra and Raman spectra analysis clearly demonstrate that the long-term thermal annealing and rapid thermal annealing can result in the formation of α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ confined in Al₂O₃ matrix, respectively. The magnetic properties display that the residual magnetization and coercive force values for the γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles are much higher than those for the α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles, which supplies an enhanced magnetic route by selective synthesis of confined Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles with desired strain-induced phase-structure and paves the ways for the applications of Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles in magnetic nano-devices.

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1. Introduction

In recent years, there has been great interest in nanostructured Fe₂O₃ materials for both fundamental and practical reasons. To date, four crystalline polymorphs of ferric oxides have been thoroughly described: α -, β -, γ -, and ϵ -Fe₂O₃ [1]. On the basis of their different crystalline structures, each of the Fe₂O₃ polymorphs has unique biochemical, magnetic, and catalytic properties, especially at the nanometer level [1,2]. β -Fe₂O₃, possessing attractive catalytic and optical properties, is the only one in the Fe(III)–O system presenting a paramagnetic behavior at room temperature [3]. ϵ -Fe₂O₃ exhibits giant room-temperature coercivity and is therefore useful in advanced magnetic applications [4]. However, among the various Fe₂O₃ polymorphs, β - and ϵ -Fe₂O₃ are the rarest phases with a scarce natural abundance. The highly crystalline α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ that occur in nature are the most interesting and potentially useful phases. α -Fe₂O₃ has a rhombohedrally centered hexagonal structure of the corundum type with a close-packed oxygen lattice in which two-thirds of the octahedral sites are occupied by Fe(III) ions [5]. γ -Fe₂O₃ possesses a cubic crystal structure of an inverse

spinel type. It contains cations in two nonequivalent crystallographic sites, i.e., the tetrahedral (A) and octahedral (B) positions [5]. In addition to its widespread use in the magnetic recording industry [6], α -Fe₂O₃ has also been used as heterogeneous catalysts [7] and solar cells [8], whereas γ -Fe₂O₃ nanostructures have been extensively examined for medical applications [9]. Recently, α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles in an amorphous alumina and silica matrix have been prepared by the sol-gel combustion method [10,11]. The preparation of γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles is usually realized by the calcination of iron hydroxide [12,13], by the oxidation of preformed Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles, iron or organometallic iron [14–16], or using precipitation from an aqueous solution [17]. These magnetic features of α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles are quite different than in bulk and are a product of the smallness of particles and their structure and morphology. However, these syntheses of α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles is very complicated due to the need of subtle manipulation of different precursors, which, in turn, can influence the properties of α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles and extremely limit the applications of α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles in magnetic nano-devices. Therefore, it will be desirable to fabricate high performance α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles via self-assembled approach.

Moreover, since the advantage for the magnetism of γ -Fe₂O₃ is much better than α -Fe₂O₃, currently, it is still a hot topic in this field for the research of γ -Fe₂O₃ magnetic nanoparticles. The production of γ -Fe₂O₃ is particularly significant because the thermodynamically

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metastable γ -Fe₂O₃ is the most difficult to synthesize among the iron oxides. γ -Fe₂O₃ is thermodynamically unstable and is converted either directly or indirectly (with ϵ -Fe₂O₃ as an intermediate product) to α -Fe₂O₃ when the temperature exceeds a threshold value [5]. Therefore, new approaches for the synthesis of stabilized γ -Fe₂O₃ phase nanoparticles as well as the investigation on their properties are of fundamental importance for the development of science and technology.

Confining the magnetic nanocrystals into a solid state matrix to form nanocomposite materials is an important mean to design magnetic nano-devices. In the case of nanocomposites consisting of γ -Fe₂O₃ nanocrystals dispersed in a solid state matrix, the matrix can stabilize the nanoparticles phase, delaying their thermal transformation into α -Fe₂O₃ [18]. The external strain can be induced during the growth process of nanoparticles confined in a solid state matrix [19,20], which has been demonstrated to be able to modify microstructures and to induce structural phase transitions in the confined nanoparticles [21,22]. By utilizing the advantages of the external strain, the crystal structure of confined nanoparticles can be well controlled by inducing an appropriate strain during the nanoparticles growth. For this purpose, we studied the structure-phase transformation in the as-prepared samples with different annealing process, trying to find a facile route to fabricate α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles by inducing external strain in a well control mode, which is of great importance for the design and applications of the iron oxide.

2. Experimental

Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles confined in an amorphous Al₂O₃ matrix were synthesized using pulsed laser deposition (PLD) method and thermal annealing technique. Briefly, a KrF pulsed laser beam of 248 nm wavelength with frequency of 10 Hz was used to ablate the target in an ultrahigh vacuum chamber. The targets to be laser ablated consisting of one piece of high-purity (99.99%) Al₂O₃ round target (of about 40 mm in diameter) and a square piece of high-purity (99.99%) single crystal α -Fe₂O₃ target (of about 8 mm in length) were prepared. The deposition and growth of the film on the Si substrate was carried out in a high vacuum system with a background pressure of about 1×10^{-8} Torr, with the substrate at room temperature. After deposition, the thin films were subjected to a long-term thermal annealing (LTA) process for 4 h and rapid thermal annealing (RTA) process for 60 s at 600 °C in nitrogen ambient, respectively. The deposited films structures were examined using high-resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM) with a JEOL 2010 microscope. The TEM electron diffraction pattern was matched against a simulated diffraction pattern for α - and γ -Fe₂O₃ generated using a TEM simulator Java electron microscopy simulation (JEMS) software, respectively [19,21,22]. X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) measurements were carried out with a Kratos XSAM800 spectrometer employing Al K α radiation. The binding energies were corrected for specimen charging by referencing to the C1s peak. Raman spectra measurements are carried out with a HORIBA Jobin-Yvon Labram HR, using an excitation wavelength 514 nm. The quantum design physical properties measurement system (PPMS) with a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) option was used to investigate the magnetic field and temperature dependence of the magnetic moment of the deposited sample. Magnetization measurements as a function of temperature of the deposited sample were carried out, combining zero-field cooling (ZFC) and field cooling (FC) routines with an applied magnetic field of 5000 Oe in the temperature range from 5 K to 300 K. The hysteresis loops, M (H), were measured at different temperatures to determine the temperature dependence of the magnetic properties of the deposited sample.

3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1 (a) is the planar HRTEM image of the as-deposited films with its corresponding electron diffraction pattern as shown in Fig. 1 (b). Obviously, it shows void of nanoparticles and confirms that the Al₂O₃ thin film remains amorphous.

Usually, the nanoparticles formation mechanism can be explained as following: for the as-deposited film, Fe₂O₃ are dispersed in an atomic state in the Al₂O₃ matrix and all of atoms are not consumed or nucleated at room temperature. At high annealing temperatures, the Fe₂O₃ atoms have sufficient thermal energy to diffuse, find nucleation sites, and grow into nanoparticles [20,21]. Because of the thermal expansion mismatch between Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles and Al₂O₃, the Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles will suffer substantial compressive strain due to the volume expansion of confined Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles with respect to Al₂O₃ matrix [19–22]. During the LTA process, the strain may be relaxed during the formation and growth of Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles in Al₂O₃ matrix. In contrast, during the RTA process, this volumetric difference may arise from the matrix atoms not being able to move rapidly enough to accommodate the growing nanoparticle, which results in compressive strain on the nanoparticle. The strain distribution in Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles confined in Al₂O₃ matrix by RTA process is qualitatively simulated with finite element (FE) calculations, which are undertaken by using commercial software package ANSYS [19,21,22]. The Young's modulus is taken to be 219 and 360 GPa for Fe₂O₃ and Al₂O₃, respectively, while the Poisson's ratio is taken to be 0.19 and 0.24 for Fe₂O₃ and Al₂O₃, respectively. Fig. 2 (a) shows the cross-sectional strain distribution for RTA Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle grown in Al₂O₃ matrix. Correspondingly, Fig. 2 (b) shows the X-Y plane strain profile of RTA Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle grown in Al₂O₃ matrix. Obviously, the growth of Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle by RTA process suffers compressive strain from the Al₂O₃ matrix. It should also be noted that the compressive strain existing at the surface of the Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle is weaker than that in the center of the Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle. This net deviatoric strain distribution may have a significant influence on the microstructure of the confined growth of Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle by RTA process.

Fig. 3 (a) shows the low magnification TEM image of the LTA Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles confined in Al₂O₃ matrix. It can be seen that a large number of Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles are formed and confined in Al₂O₃ matrix. Fig. 3 (b) presents the electron diffraction pattern of LTA Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles. The diffraction pattern is matched against a simulated diffraction pattern generated by JEMS software. By comparing the experimental diffraction pattern with the simulated one, it can be deduced that the LTA Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles presents trigonal/rhombohedral crystal structure (space group R-3cH), corresponding to the α -Fe₂O₃ phase [23]. Fig. 3 (c) displays the HRTEM image of a single α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle confined in Al₂O₃ matrix. Obviously, the Al₂O₃ matrix still remains amorphous after LTA process in nitrogen ambient, while a single crystalline α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle with spherical shape forms in Al₂O₃ matrix. The average size of the α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles is about 10 nm. Fig. 3 (d) shows the low magnification TEM image of the RTA Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles confined in Al₂O₃ matrix. Similarly, a large number of Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles are formed and confined in Al₂O₃ matrix and the Al₂O₃ matrix remains amorphous after RTA in nitrogen ambient. Fig. 3 (e) presents the electron diffraction pattern of RTA Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles. By comparing the experimental diffraction pattern with the simulated one, it can be deduced that the RTA Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles presents tetragonal crystal structure (space group P43212), corresponding to the γ -Fe₂O₃ phase [24]. Fig. 3 (f) presents the HRTEM image of a single γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle confined in Al₂O₃ matrix. The average size of the γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles is also around 10 nm. Obviously, the annealing conditions

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