

# Enhanced magnetic coercivity of $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> obtained from carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite

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**Abstract** We report the physical properties of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (hematite), synthesized by dry-heating (350–1,000 °C) of a new, poorly ordered iron oxyhydroxide precursor compound that we name carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite. This precursor was characterized by powder X-ray diffraction, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, electron microscopy, and thermogravimetric analysis, whereas the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was studied with X-ray diffraction, scanning and transmission electron microscopy, and magnetic techniques.  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

synthesized at 350 °C consisted of single-nanocrystal particles (length  $\times$  width  $20 \pm 6$  nm (L)  $\times$   $15 \pm 4$  nm (W)), which at room temperature exhibited very narrow hysteresis loops of low coercivities ( $<300$  Oe). However,  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> synthesized at higher temperatures (1,000 °C) was composed of larger nanocrystalline particle aggregates ( $352 \pm 109$  nm (L)  $\times$   $277 \pm 103$  nm (W)) that also showed wide-open hysteresis loops of high magnetic coercivities ( $\sim 5$  kOe). We suggest that these synthesis-temperature-dependent coercivity values are a consequence of the subparticle structure induced by the different particle and crystallite size growth rates at increasing annealing temperature.

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## Introduction

Iron oxides are very widespread in nature and they have attracted considerable attention in various scientific disciplines particularly due to the unique combination of electronic, chemical, optical, and thermal properties (Cornell and Schwertmann 2003). Among the sixteen known iron oxy(hydro)xides (Cornell and Schwertmann 2003),  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (hematite) is considered the ideal candidate for many technological applications due to its low cost, biodegradability, high resistance to corrosion, and high stability (e.g., Gubin et al. 2005; Zhu et al. 2011; Jacob and Khadar 2010).

Over the last decade, research efforts were focused on the development of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-bearing materials with potential technological applications in catalysis (Fang et al. 2009), hydrocarbon and carbon monoxide gas sensors (e.g., Cornell and Schwertmann 2003), pigments (e.g., Ni et al. 2009), water treatment (e.g., Guo et al. 2011), rechargeable batteries (Pan et al. 2009), adsorbents (Muruganandham et al. 2011), biomedicine (e.g., Liu et al. 2011), semiconductors (e.g., Bahgat et al. 2006), or optical and electromagnetic devices (e.g., Tsuzuki et al. 2011). Despite this plethora of research, some of the magnetic properties of synthetic  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> are still not fully understood (Lovesey et al. 2011; Tadic et al. 2012).

$\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is weakly ferromagnetic at ambient temperature with a Neel temperature of  $\sim 953$  K (Xu et al. 2009). However,  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> changes from weakly ferromagnetic to antiferromagnetic below room temperature, a magnetic phase transition known as the Morin transition (Cornell and Schwertmann 2003). This Morin transition temperature decreases with particle size, and it is completely suppressed when the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> particles become smaller than  $\sim 20$  nm (Tadic et al. 2011, 2012; Bercoff and Bertorello 2010). Similarly to the Morin transition temperature, other magnetic properties of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> can dramatically change with particle or Scherrer crystallite size, particle morphology, interparticle interactions, synthesis pressure, or with doping (Jacob and Khadar 2010; Sahu et al. 1997; Suber et al. 2010; Chang et al. 2010). For example, depending on the preparation method (e.g., hydrothermal synthesis vs. mechanical grinding), particle morphology, or particle microstructure can lead to magnetic coercivities for  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> as high as a few kOe (e.g., Rath et al. 1999; Yang et al. 2011). Most studies suggest that the presence of a subparticle structure in the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals may explain such high coercivities. However, this is still a matter of debate, as the correlation between morphology, microstructure, particle interactions, and magnetic properties of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> are still ambiguous and the exact reasons for this behavior are not fully understood.

The next needed development is the design and testing of novel methods for controlled synthesis of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals with specific chemical, physical, and magnetic properties that can be exploited for potential technological applications. Most studies that addressed the synthesis of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> employed a solvothermal approach (An et al. 2012; Mitra et al.

2007; Xu and Zhu 2012; Wang et al. 2011; Zhang and Chen 2009) or hydrothermal methods (e.g., Tadi et al. 2011; Song et al. 2009, 2011; Li et al. 2007, 2009; Ni et al. 2012; Peng et al. 2010; Davidson et al. 2008; Vu et al. 2010; Zhu et al. 2006; Zhong et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 2008; Jia and Song 2012, 2011; Lu et al. 2008; Islam et al. 2012; Suresh et al. 2013 and references therein). In recent years, producing  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> via dry thermal treatments of iron-bearing precursor phases has become a common synthesis method. An iron oxyhydroxide precursor phase that is very common in both natural environments and laboratory synthesis studies is the poorly ordered phase ferrihydrite. Its precise chemical formula and structure are the subject of much recent debate (Cornell and Schwertmann 2003; Yu et al. 2002; Berquó et al. 2007; Liu et al. 2009; Michel et al. 2010) in part because ferrihydrite is the crucial precursor for  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>—the mineral hematite. This poorly crystalline phase is usually termed as 2- or 6-line ferrihydrite according to the number of broad Bragg peaks observed in its powder X-ray diffraction pattern (Cornell and Schwertmann 2003). To synthesize ferrihydrite in the laboratory, three different methods are usually employed: (a) neutralizing a ferric salt solution (e.g., Stanjek and Weidler 1992; Zhao et al. 1994; Carta et al. 2009; Xu et al. 2011), (b) dialyzing a ferric nitrate solution (e.g., Cornell and Schwertmann 2003), or (c) oxidizing a ferrous salt solution (Schwertmann and Taylor 1972). Once 2- or 6-line ferrihydrite is synthesized, it is crystallized to  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> by dry heating (Stanjek and Weidler 1992; Schneeweiss et al. 2008) either through hydrothermal routes (e.g., Vu et al. 2010; Xu et al. 2011) or through slow aging in solution (Raiswell et al. 2010). However, most of these studies had the primary goal to only characterize the ferrihydrite structure or stability and not the properties of the final product,  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

In this current study, we took a two-step approach. We designed and tested a novel method that allowed us to produce  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with high magnetic coercivities from a precursor 2-line ferrihydrite, yet this precursor was itself produced via a novel green-chemical method in the presence of carbonate. This carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite precursor was formed following an equivalent methodology to an often employed approach used for the production of amorphous carbonate or phosphate precursors (Rodriguez-Blanco et al. 2008; Vallina et al. 2013; Roncal-Herrero et al.

2009). After synthesis, the resulting solids were dry-heated from 350 to 1,000 °C, and the crystalline product,  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, was characterized with X-ray diffraction, high-resolution microscopy, and magnetometry. A correlation between the magnetic properties of this novel  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and its structure at the nanoscale is reported and discussed.

## Experimental

The synthesis of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was performed in two steps: first, an aqueous solution containing 50 mM of Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·9H<sub>2</sub>O (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.9 % purity) was added to an aqueous solution containing 50 mM of Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (Fisher Scientific, 99.9 % purity) at ambient temperature. The mixed solutions were rapidly filtered under vacuum through 0.2  $\mu$ m polycarbonate membranes, obtaining a dark reddish precipitate. This solid was immediately washed with Milli-Q water and isopropanol and dried at room temperature, following Rodriguez-Blanco et al. (2008). The so-obtained dry solids were dry-heated to specific temperatures (350, 600, 800, and 1,000 °C) following a 3 h thermal equilibration and then allowed to cool down to room temperature.

The initial precipitate and the temperature-dependent crystalline end products were identified by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Panalytical X'Pert Pro diffractometer (CuK $\alpha$ <sub>1,2</sub>; 2 $\theta$  range 20–70; 0.01°/step and 0.3 s/step). In order to also follow the crystallization of the initial precursor phase to  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and to identify any potential intermediate phase transformations during the heating process, we also employed the same diffractometer with an additional Anton Paar HTK 1200 N High-Temperature Oven-Chamber and carried out powder X-ray thermodiffraction. Thermodiffraction patterns were collected from 25 to 1,000 °C (at a constant heating ramp of 1 °C/min; 2 $\theta$  range 20–50 at 0.01°/step and 0.16 s/step) while running the system at atmospheric conditions. Pattern-matching refinement of the crystalline phases was carried out using the Rietveld refinement software TOPAS (Coelho 2003). Crystallite sizes were estimated from the diffraction patterns using the Scherrer equation (Scherrer 1918), with the assumption that the particles were stress-free and taking into account the X-ray pattern of a LaB<sub>6</sub> standard (ICDD PDF 34-0427; 2 $\theta$ <sub>110</sub> = 30.36° and FWHM = 0.06°).

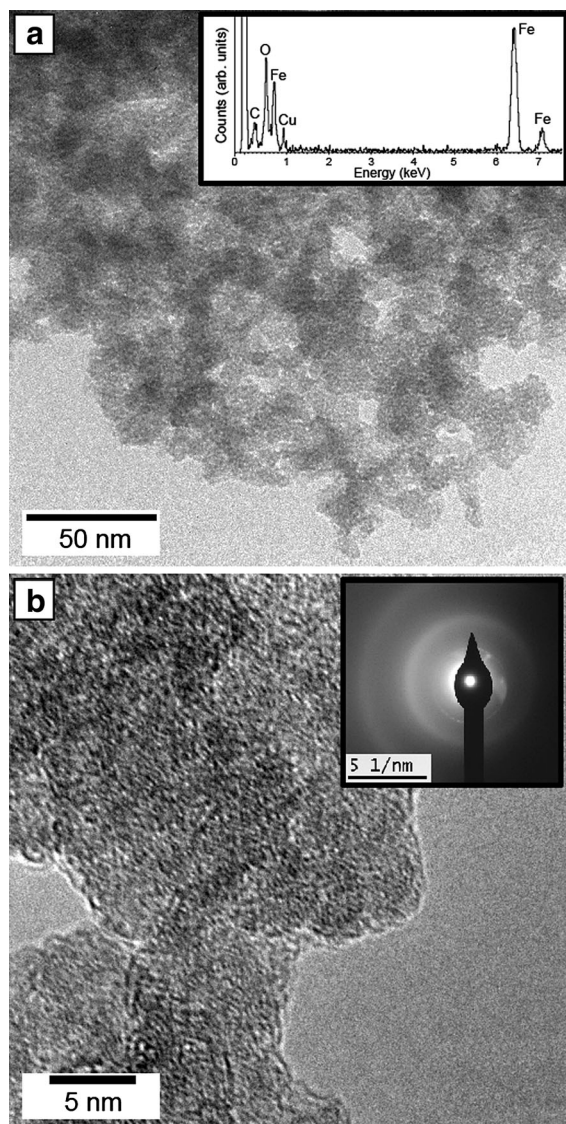
The precursor phase was also analyzed with Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, thermogravimetric analyses (TGA), and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). FTIR spectra were acquired on an A2-Technology Microlab Portable mid-IR spectrometer with a Diamond internal reflection cell (DATR). FTIR spectra were collected by co-adding 1,024 scans in the 650–4,000 cm<sup>-1</sup> range at a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The Thermo Nicolet OMNIC ESP 5.1 software package was used to manipulate the spectra, including baseline subtraction. Thermogravimetric analyses were carried out with a Mettler TA 4,000 instrument, while heating the samples from 25 to 1,000 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min in nitrogen atmosphere. Finally, using a field emission gun transmission electron microscope (FEG-TEM; FEI CM200; operated at 197 kV and equipped with Oxford Instruments energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis system (Isis) and a Gatan Imaging Filter (GIF-200)), the precursor phase was imaged and spectrally analyzed.

Complementing the data set of the precursor phase, we also imaged and analyzed the morphology and structural characteristics of the crystalline end product phases using an FEG scanning electron microscope (FEG-SEM, LEO 1530 Gemini, operated at 3 kV and with an in-lens detector, equipped with an energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis system; Isis) and a high-resolution TEM (HR-TEM; MET JEOL-JEM 2100F, with an in-lens detector, equipped with an energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis system). Finally, the temperature-dependent crystalline end products were fully characterized for their magnetic properties at room temperature using a vibrating sample magnetometer (EV9 VSM) with a maximum magnetic field of 20 kOe. Magnetic hysteresis measurements were conducted in an applied magnetic field sweeping from –20 to 20 kOe.

## Results and discussion

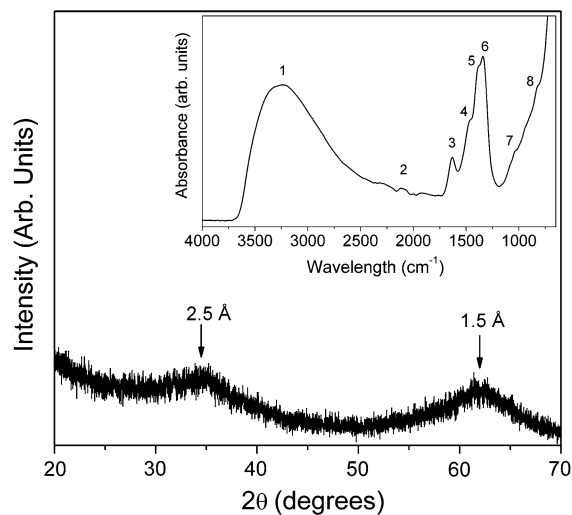
### Characterization of carbonate bearing-ferrihydrite

High-resolution TEM images of the dark reddish precipitate that formed immediately upon mixing of the starting solutions revealed that it consisted of agglomerates of nanoparticles (<20 nm in size) of amorphous to nanocrystalline character (Fig. 1). Standarless quantification of EDX spectra indicated



**Fig. 1** TEM images of carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite. The *top* and *bottom insets* show the EDX spectrum (Cu signal comes from the Cu support grid) and SAED pattern obtained from the sample

a  $\sim 24\%$  C,  $\sim 34\%$  O, and  $\sim 38\%$  Fe content (Fig. 1a, inset) and Electron Energy Loss Spectroscopy (EELS) suggested some carbonate (from the sharp peak at  $\sim 290$  eV at the C K-edge) plus a ferrihydrite structure (O K-edge) that was predominately ferric (Fe L-edge), with amorphous or disordered carbon adsorbed or co-precipitated (Fig. SI-1). Selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns showed two broad diffuse rings at  $\sim 1.5$  and  $2.5$  Å consistent with a 2-line ferrihydrite pattern (Cornell



**Fig. 2** Powder X-ray diffraction pattern of the carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite. Inset: FTIR spectrum of carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite precursor. The band assignments are detailed in Table 1

and Schwertmann 2003). High magnification images also revealed small particles with diffuse lattice fringes (Fig. 1b).

Powder X-ray diffraction of this initial amorphous material (Fig. 2) showed two broad humps centered at approximately  $35^\circ$  and  $63^\circ$   $2\theta$ , consistent with the amorphous to nanocrystalline nature of the carbon containing 2-line ferrihydrite identified by TEM. The FTIR spectrum of this 2-line ferrihydrite (Table 1; Fig. 2, inset) was characterized by the broad and prominent band in the range  $\sim 3,700$  and  $2,300$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and the band at  $\sim 1,633$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which were ascribed to the stretching and bending of OH groups, respectively. These bands were attributed to adsorbed or structural water (Liu et al. 2009; Farmer 1974). The bands at  $\sim 1,385$  and  $1,338$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  were assigned to Fe–OH vibrations. The spectrum also showed a weak band at  $824$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which was attributed to the bending vibration of hydroxyl groups of iron hydroxides (Fe–OH) (Rout et al. 2012). Interestingly, the FTIR spectra revealed the presence of carbonate bonds in association with the 2-line ferrihydrite precursor. This is evidenced in the weak bands at  $\sim 1,455$  and  $1,042$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which are typical of the stretching vibrations of the carbonate ion (Farmer 1974). Such carbonate bands are often observed in ferrihydrite FTIR spectra because of its susceptibility to  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption from air (Liu et al. 2009). However, in our

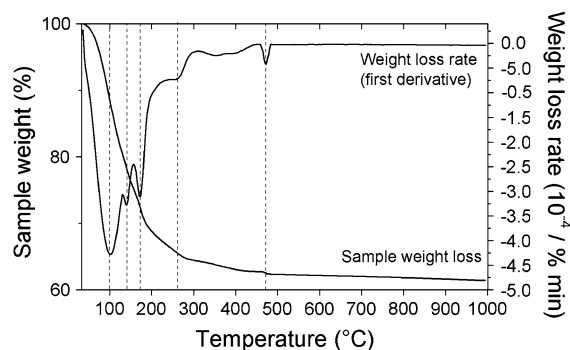


**Table 1** FTIR stretching ( $\nu$ ) and bending ( $\delta$ ) vibrational bands for carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite

Band number	Wavelength ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	Mode of vibration	Bibliography
1	3,700–2,300	$\nu$ (O–H)	Liu et al. (2009); Farmer (1974)
2	2,463–2,332	$\nu$ $\text{CO}_2$	Yadav (2005)
3	1,633	$\delta$ (O–H)	Farmer (1974)
4	1,455	$\nu_3$ asym. $\text{CO}_3$	Liu et al. (2009); Andersen and Brečević (1991)
5	1,385	Fe–OH	Rout et al. (2012)
6	1,338	Fe–OH	Rout et al. (2012)
7	1,042	$\nu_1$ $\text{CO}_3$	Andersen and Brečević (1991)
8	824	$\delta$ (Fe–OH)	Rout et al. (2012)

case, the high percentage of C detected by TEM—EELS (Fig. SI-1) suggests that the carbonate adsorbed or co-precipitated with our 2-line ferrihydrite. Thus, our FTIR spectra did not just reveal atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption, but indicates carbonate that is closely associated with the 2-line ferrihydrite and thus we suppose the carbonate seen in the spectra must have been derived from the  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  reagent used in our synthesis.

The TGA data of the 2-line ferrihydrite (Fig. 3) showed that upon heating a total weight loss of approximately  $\sim 35\%$  occurred of which  $\sim 10\%$  was lost below  $100^\circ\text{C}$  and the other  $\sim 25\%$  was lost between  $100$  and  $480^\circ\text{C}$ , after which no more changes were observed. Although little is known about the dehydration of 2-line ferrihydrite, the weight loss of our solid during the TGA analyses was slightly higher than values ( $23$ – $25\%$ ) reported by other authors (Carta et al. 2009; Xu et al. 2011; Eggleton and Fitzpatrick 1988). The high water content in our 2-line ferrihydrite that was confirmed by our FTIR data (Fig. 2, inset) indicates a weight loss with increasing temperature consistent with dehydration (Cornell and Schwertmann 2003; Carta et al. 2009; Eggleton and Fitzpatrick 1988). However, both HR-TEM and FTIR data clearly indicated a carbonate association with the 2-line ferrihydrite (Figs. 1, 2 inset and Fig. S1). Thus, we hypothesize that part of the weight loss must be a consequence of the decomposition of  $\text{CO}_3$  to  $\text{CO}_2$ . This carbonate loss is predicted to occur above  $300^\circ\text{C}$

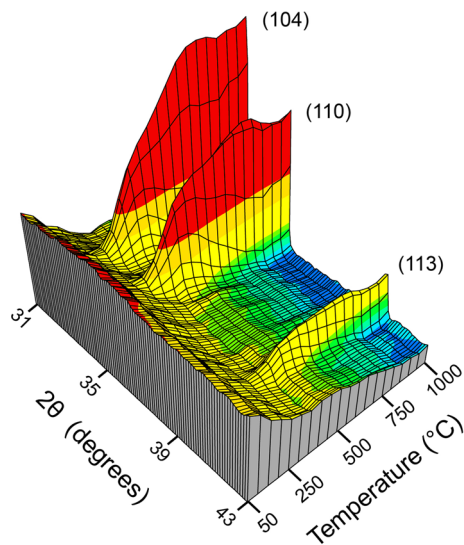
**Fig. 3** TGA (sample weight loss and weight loss rate curves) of carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite

(Galwey and Brown 1999) and can be seen to happen in our samples at  $\sim 480^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 3 the first derivative curve).

Taken as a whole, the XRD, HR-TEM, FTIR, and TGA data point toward a new compound that we label, carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite, consistent with a previous report (Liu et al. 2008). It has to be noted that the structure and precise composition of our carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite are unknown. Indeed, the structures and formulas of all ferrihydrites are still the subject of intense debate (Cornell and Schwertmann 2003; Yu et al. 2002; Berquó et al. 2007; Liu et al. 2009; Michel et al. 2010) and so far no definitive consensus has been reached. Obtaining the exact formula or structural characteristics of our new, carbonate-rich 2-line ferrihydrite is outside the scope of this study.

#### Hematite properties synthesized from carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite

Our carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite was dry-heated from  $25$  to  $1,000^\circ\text{C}$ , with simultaneous recording of thermogravimetric patterns (Fig. 4). Initially, the XRD patterns exhibited only a large background hump (at  $\sim 35^\circ 2\theta$ ) with no distinct diffraction peaks and no detectable change upon heating up to  $250^\circ\text{C}$ . Only at higher temperatures did small Bragg peaks at  $33.15^\circ$  and  $35.61^\circ 2\theta$  start to develop concomitantly with a decrease in the background intensity. These new peaks correspond to the most intense Bragg peaks of  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  (hematite; ICDD PDF 33-0664,  $a = 5.03 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $c = 13.74 \text{ \AA}$ ). Once the crystallization of  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  was initiated, the only observed changes with temperature were a reduction in width and an increase in intensity of the  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  peaks up to  $\sim 500^\circ\text{C}$ . From  $500$  to  $1,000^\circ\text{C}$ , the intensity of the



**Fig. 4** 3D X-ray diffraction plot showing the transformation of carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite to  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with increasing annealing temperature

Bragg peaks remained constant, but they became narrower as the temperature increased. No other crystalline solids were observed during the reaction. The refinement of the X-ray diffraction patterns of samples obtained at 350, 600, 800, and 1,000 °C (Fig. 5) confirmed that they are all consistent with only  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. An evaluation of the Scherrer crystallite size showed a linear increase of the crystallite size with temperature from 20 nm at 350 °C to 131 nm at 1,000 °C (Table 2; Fig. SI-2). High-resolution microscopy revealed the morphologies of the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> samples, as well as the particle sizes and internal structures (Figs. 6, 7). At 350 °C (Figs. 6a, 7a) and 600 °C (Figs. 6b, 7c), the particles have a pseudospheric morphology, but at 800 °C (Fig. 6c) and 1,000 °C (Fig. 6d) they are prismatic. The average particle dimensions were

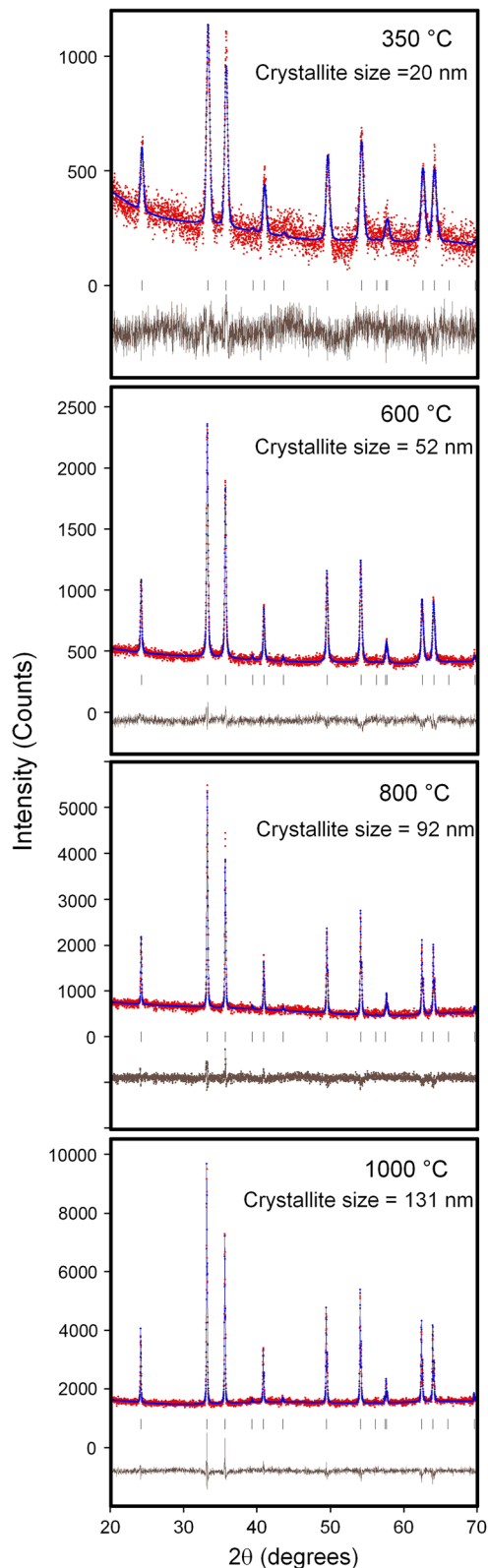
evaluated by measuring the width (W) and length (L) of 100 particles in each sample (Fig. SI-3). The particle sizes increased from  $20 \pm 6$  (L)  $\times$   $15 \pm 4$  (W) nm at 350 °C to  $352 \pm 119$  (L)  $\times$   $277 \pm 103$  (W) nm at 1,000 °C (Table 2). HR-TEM images of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> confirmed that the particles were crystalline with interplanar spacings of  $\sim 3.7$ , 2.7, 2.2, and 1.7 Å visible (Fig. 7), which correspond to the (012), (104), (113), and (116) d-spacings of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The SAED patterns (insets in Fig. 7) corroborate the temperature-dependent increase in Scherrer crystallite size (Figs. 4, 5; Table 2). The SAED pattern of the sample produced at 350 °C (Fig. 7b, inset) showed diffuse diffraction rings with poorly developed spots, evidencing the presence of very small, nanocrystalline particles. In contrast, only discrete spots were observed in samples produced at higher temperatures (e.g., Fig. 7h, inset). The HR-TEM images also revealed temperature-dependent structural differences at the nanoscale: at 350 °C the average particle size was of  $20 \times 15$  nm (Fig. 7a, b), matching the Scherrer crystallite sizes. At 600 °C, the average particle size was  $\sim 71 \times 52$  nm (Fig. 7c, d), which is slightly larger than the Scherrer crystallite size ( $\sim 55$  nm). However, the sizes of the prismatic particles obtained at 800 and 1,000 °C (Figs. 6c, d, 7e, g) were much larger ( $202 \times 136$  and  $352 \times 277$  nm, respectively) than their Scherrer crystallite sizes (92 and 131 nm, respectively). This revealed that a significant number of the prismatic particles were made of nanocrystalline subparticles of various sizes down to  $\sim 20$  nm (e.g., Fig. 7i, j). These data indicate that  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> synthesized from carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite at lower temperatures (350–600 °C) grows as single nanocrystals. In contrast, at higher temperatures (800–1,000 °C) the formed  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> particles consist of aggregates of nanocrystalline subparticles (Rath et al. 1999).

**Table 2** Microstructural-dependent magnetic properties of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles obtained from carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite. Hc is the magnetic coercive field, while Mr is the remanent magnetization

Temp. (°C)	Heating time (h)	Morphology	Size (nm) <sup>a</sup> L (length), W (width)	Scherrer crystallite size (nm)	Hc (Oe) <sup>b</sup>	Mr (emu/g)
350	8	Pseudospheric	$L = 20 \pm 6$ , $W = 15 \pm 4$	20 (1)	$289 \pm 29$	0.007 (1)
600	13	Pseudospheric	$L = 71 \pm 19$ , $W = 52 \pm 16$	55 (3)	$1,720 \pm 207$	0.033 (5)
800	16	Prismatic	$L = 202 \pm 101$ , $W = 136 \pm 46$	92 (4)	$3,837 \pm 123$	0.011 (4)
1,000	20	Prismatic	$L = 352 \pm 109$ , $W = 277 \pm 103$	131 (6)	$5,027 \pm 46$	0.025 (5)

<sup>a</sup> Values correspond to the average and standard deviation of 100 nanoparticles

<sup>b</sup> Values correspond to the average and standard deviation of 4 magnetic coercivity measurements

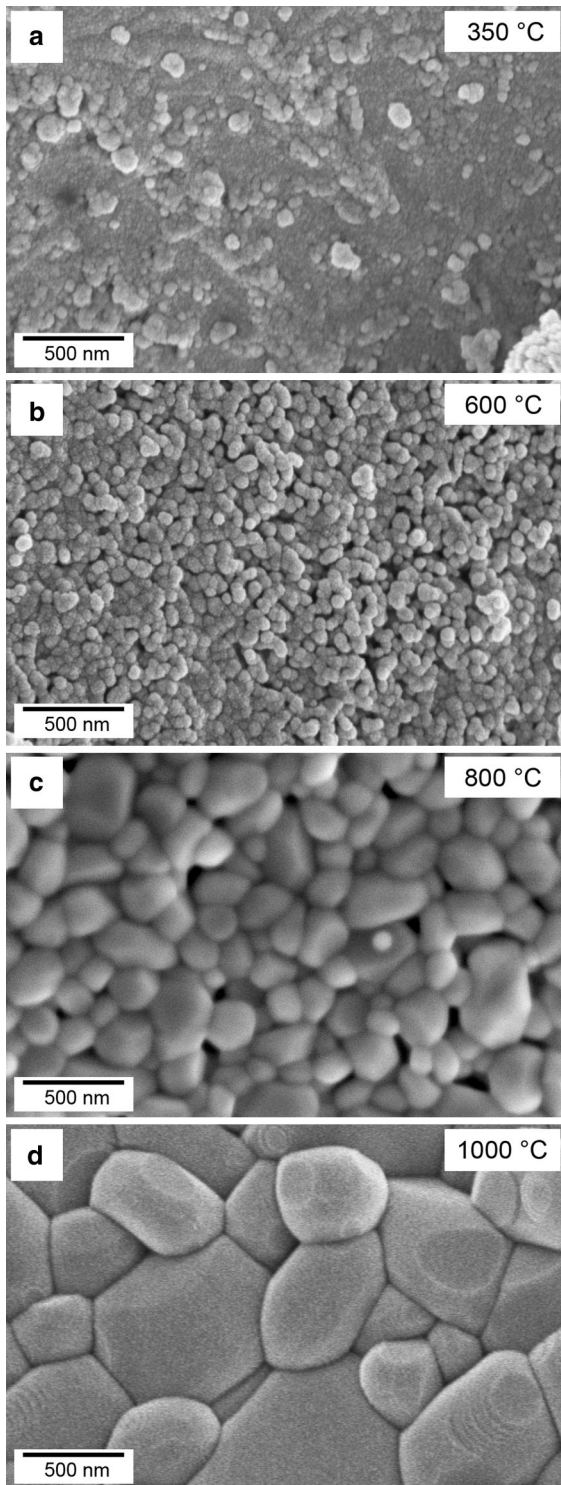


**Fig. 5** Pattern-matching refinements of the powder X-ray diffraction patterns of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> after the dry heat treatment at 350, 600, 800, and 1,000 °C. Points correspond to the experimental data; the *solid lines* are the calculated profiles. *Tick marks* below the patterns represent the positions of allowed reflections. The difference *curves* are plotted at the *bottom* of the patterns showing the difference between the experimental and calculated profiles

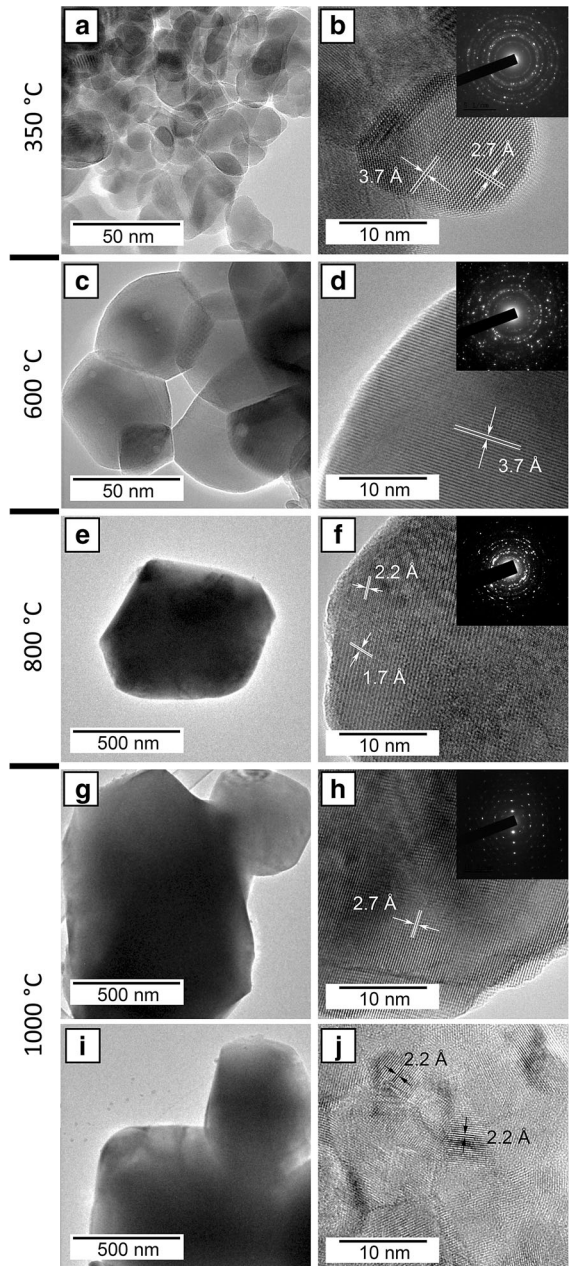
The magnetic measurements of crystalline end product  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> also revealed a synthesis-temperature-dependent behavior (Fig. 8, Table 2). The  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> sample obtained at 350 °C exhibited a very small hysteresis loop with a remanent magnetization (Mr) of 0.007(1) emu/g and coercivity (Hc) of only ~289 Oe. Conversely, the hysteresis loop of the sample crystallized at 600 °C showed a weak ferromagnetic behavior with a remanent magnetization of 0.032(5) emu/g, but a higher magnetic coercivity of ~1,720 Oe while at 800 and 1,000 °C very wide-open hysteresis loops, indicating a stronger ferromagnetic behavior with remanent magnetization and coercivity values of 0.011(4) emu/g and ~3,837 Oe (800 °C) and 0.025(5) emu/g and ~5,027 Oe (1,000 °C), respectively, were observed. Note, however, that the hysteresis loops did not reach magnetization saturation, even at the maximum applied magnetic field. Nonetheless these data clearly indicate a drastic change in magnetic properties with increasing crystallization temperature.

The understanding of this temperature-dependent magnetic behavior requires comparison with the nanoscale structural characteristics of the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Figure 9 shows the variation of magnetic coercivity with particle size, Scherrer crystallite size, and temperature. There is a linear proportionality between coercivity and Scherrer crystallite size and between coercivity, magnetization energy density and temperature, but the relationship between the coercivity and particle size follows a logarithmic trend. Although our results regarding these trends are in agreement with several studies (Rath et al. 1999; Bercoff and Bertorello 2010; Sahu et al. 1997; Bao et al. 2011), the dependence between magnetic coercivity, temperature, and particle size is still a matter of debate. Using different synthesis methods various other authors have reported decreasing coercivity values with increasing particle sizes (Jacob and Khadar 2010; Kletetschka and Wasilewski 2002; Li et al. 2002; Yao and Cao 2012). This has also been observed in natural  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>,





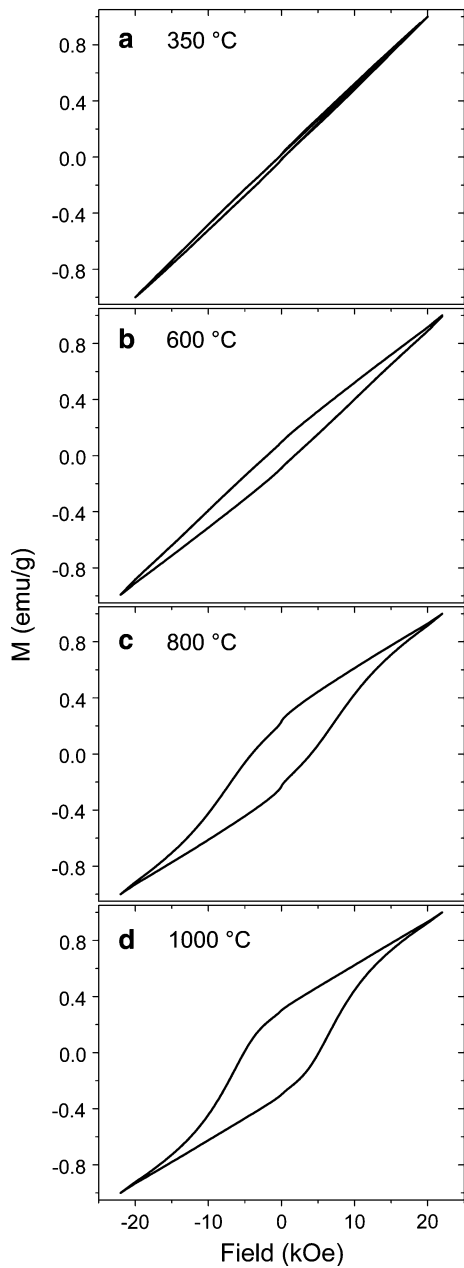
**Fig. 6** Secondary electron FEG-SEM images of the  $\alpha$ - $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  samples produced at 350 (a), 600 (b), 800 (c), and 1000 °C (d)



**Fig. 7** HR-TEM microphotographs and corresponding SAED patterns of  $\alpha$ - $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  samples produced at 350 (a, b), 600 (c, d), 800 (e, f), and 1000 °C (g, h).  $\alpha$ - $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles with a subparticle structure with sizes down to  $\sim 20$  nm (i, j)

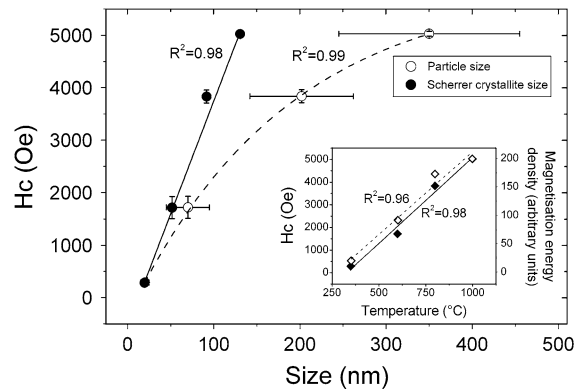
with a very gradual decrease in coercivity at sizes above  $100 \mu\text{m}$  (Kletetschka and Wasilewski 2002). Interestingly, the effect of thermally induced growth on the coercivity field and magnetization energy





**Fig. 8** Hysteresis loops of the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles obtained at 350 (a), 600 (b), 800 (c), and 1,000 °C (d)

density has been addressed for Ni thin films. Kumar et al. (2009) and Kumar (2010) reported that the magnetic behavior of Ni thin films was dependent on grain size, in particular on the width of the grain boundary walls. By using atomic force microscopy, they revealed that the thermally induced increase of the grain size produced a densification of the solid



**Fig. 9** Variation of coercivity with particle size and Scherrer crystallite size. Horizontal error bars in particle size data correspond to the standard deviation of 100 measurements. Vertical error bars correspond to the standard deviation of four coercivity measurements. Inset shows the variation of the coercivity and magnetization energy density with temperature

which was translated into a decrease of the width of the grain boundaries. This transition from a nanocrystalline to crystalline structure caused a maximum in the coercive field, which then decreased with increase of particle size, similarly to other Fe- or Co-bearing alloys and compounds (Cullity and Graham 2008). Our high-resolution microscopy images of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Figs. 6, 7) revealed a progressive decrease of the width of the grain boundary sizes with temperature. Also the dependence of the magnetic coercivity on the particle size of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> followed a logarithmic trend (Fig. 9), so we hypothesize that the maximum of the coercivity field in our system was not reached. This maximum and a subsequent decrease of the magnetic coercivity may occur at temperatures above 1,000 °C and after longer annealing times.

However, compared to our dry-heating experiments, many researches for  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> have been carried out on synthetic hematite obtained under hydrothermal conditions. For example, hematite nanodiscs ( $\phi = 78\text{--}150$  nm) obtained hydrothermally from FeCl<sub>3</sub>, NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, and ethanol glycol at 200 °C reached coercivity values between 22 and 214 Oe. Hydrothermal synthesis (70–180 °C) of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> using ferrihydrite as a precursor resulted in coercivity values between 670 and 2,600 Oe after reaction times between 2 h and 44 days (Liu et al. 2010). Some researchers explain these magnetic properties as a consequence of magnetocrystalline and/or magnetoelastic anisotropies. However, in the literature there is

plethora of research about the synthesis of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with many different morphologies whose coercivity values are explained by shape anisotropy (e.g., An et al. 2012; Pan et al. 2009; Muruganandham et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2011; Rath et al. 1999; Tsuzuki et al. 2011; Tadic et al. 2012; Xu et al. 2009; Bercoff and Bertorello 2010; Suber et al. 2010; Chang et al. 2010; Xu et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2013). Anisotropic particle morphologies induce high magnetic coercivities because the magnetic spins are preferentially aligned along the easy magnetic axes and their reversals to other directions require more energy in comparison with spherical or pseudospherical particles (An et al. 2012; Pan et al. 2009; Tadic et al. 2012; Mitra et al. 2007; Zeng et al. 2007). In our experiments, the morphology of the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> changed from pseudospherical to prismatic with increasing temperature. However, the length/width ratio of our particles was very similar ( $\sim 1.3$ ) throughout, showing no significant variations across the whole temperature range between 350 and 1,000 °C. We cannot discard a contribution of shape anisotropy to the coercivity of our  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>; however, we consider that in our experiments the effect of temperature on the shape anisotropy is very small or negligible.

Nevertheless, in our experiments, temperature played an important role on controlling the particle and Scherrer crystallite size growth (Fig. SI-2). Considering that the crystallization of  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> started at  $\sim 250$  °C (Fig. 4) and the rate of heating for all the samples were the same (1 °C/min), our data (Table 2; Fig. SI-2) indicate that the growth of the Scherrer crystallite sizes with temperature took place at a slower rate ( $\sim 0.17$  nm/°C) than the growth of the particle sizes ( $\sim 0.43$  nm/°C). These different growth rates are translated into a progressive, temperature-dependent, development of a subparticle structure, i.e., from single nanocrystals at 350 °C to aggregates of nanocrystalline subparticles at 1,000 °C (Fig. 7). Our HR-TEM images also suggest that the subparticles observed at 800–1,000 °C (Fig. 7i, j) were relicts of the single nanocrystals observed at 350 °C (Fig. 7a, b), and this is a result of the intergrowth and aggregation of these single nanocrystals during the dry-heating process. It is thus also not surprising that the growth of these aggregates with a subparticle structure permits stronger magnetic interactions: the unusual high coercivity reached at 800–1,000 °C is most likely a consequence of the contribution of the

individual subparticles as well as the contribution from the interactions between these particles (Rath et al. 1999; Tadic et al. 2012). At lower temperature, this subparticle structure is completely absent and therefore the low coercivity values are only a consequence of the contribution of the single nanocrystals.

## Conclusions

This study demonstrates that enhanced magnetic coercivities for  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> can be achieved using a facile method, consisting of dry-heating a carbonated 2-line ferrihydrite precursor prepared from solution.  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> exhibited temperature-dependent magnetic coercivity values ranging from 289 to 5,027 Oe. The origin of these high coercivity values is interpreted as being a consequence of the slower growth rate of the Scherrer crystallite size with respect to the particle size during the heating process. These differences in the growth rates are also translated into a progressive development of a subparticle structure at the nano-scale. At lower temperatures (350–600 °C), single particles crystallize however; at higher temperatures ( $>600$  °C), the growth of crystalline aggregates with a subparticle structure is favoured.

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