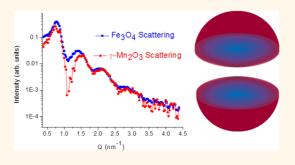


Resolving Material-Specific Structures within $Fe_3O_4|\gamma-Mn_2O_3$ Core|Shell **Nanoparticles Using Anomalous Small-Angle X-ray Scattering**

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ABSTRACT Here it is demonstrated that multiple-energy, anomalous smallangle X-ray scattering (ASAXS) provides significant enhancement in sensitivity to internal material boundaries of layered nanoparticles compared with the traditional modeling of a single scattering energy, even for cases in which high scattering contrast naturally exists. Specifically, the material-specific structure of monodispersed $Fe_3O_4|\gamma$ -Mn₂O₃ core|shell nanoparticles is determined, and the contribution of each component to the total scattering profile is identified with unprecedented clarity. We show that $Fe_3O_4|\gamma-Mn_2O_3$ core|shell nanoparticles with a diameter of 8.2 \pm 0.2 nm consist of a core with a composition near Fe $_30_4$



surrounded by a $(Mn_xFe_{1-x})_3O_4$ shell with a graded composition, ranging from $x \approx 0.40$ at the inner shell toward $x \approx 0.46$ at the surface. Evaluation of the scattering contribution arising from the interference between material-specific layers additionally reveals the presence of Fe₃O₄ cores without a coating shell. Finally, it is found that the material-specific scattering profile shapes and chemical compositions extracted by this method are independent of the original input chemical compositions used in the analysis, revealing multiple-energy ASAXS as a powerful tool for determining internal nanostructured morphology even if the exact composition of the individual layers is not known a priori.

KEYWORDS: core/shell nanoparticles · Fe₃O₄ · γ - Mn₂O₃ · neutron scattering · anomalous X-ray scattering · SAXS

he exceptional impact of nanoparticles in industry and research during the past decade is undeniable, spreading in fields with everyday applications such as cosmetics to high-end biotechnology.^{1–5} Interestingly, advances in synthetic chemistry have allowed reaching beyond conventional nanoparticles into more complex hybrid structures comprising two (or more) materials such as core|shell particles.^{6–8} These systems can combine in a synergetic way the diverse properties (e.g., catalytical, optical, magnetic, or biomedical) of the different constituents leading to multifunctional materials with

novel and improved characteristics, paving the way for an even broader applicability of nanoparticles. Given the unprecedented ability to control growth parameters during the synthesis (i.e., core diameter, shell thickness, and material composition), the overall properties of the particles can be accurately tailored to match specific applications. In fact, core|shell nanoparticles have an extra degree of freedom since the properties can often be tuned not only by the core and shell characteristics but also through their interactions.^{9–18} Typically, the properties of core shell nanoparticles depend critically on the

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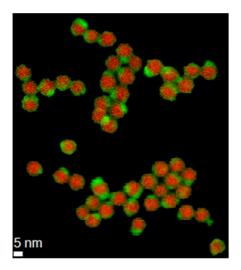


Figure 1. STEM with EELS Fe (red) and Mn (green) elemental mapping for $Fe_3O_4|\gamma$ -Mn₂O₃ core|shell nanoparticles.

structural morphology such as the thickness (and variability) of the constituent layers, their composition, and the sharpness of interfaces. Consequently, the precise determination of these parameters is vital to understanding and fine-tuning the functionalities of the core|shell systems.

While many techniques exist for non-location-specific chemical analysis, such as Mössbauer spectroscopy^{19,20} and X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS), characterizing the internal structure of such core|shell nanoparticles continues to be a challenging endeavor. Even scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) imaging with electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) analysis,²¹⁻²⁷ which can often give an accurate account of the morphology of the particles (as shown in Figure 1 applied to a subset of our 8.2 nm $Fe_3O_4|\gamma$ -Mn₂O₃ core|shell nanoparticles), remains insufficient since only a small number of particles can be analyzed. For this reason, complementary techniques such as neutron and X-ray diffractive methods are desirable since they measure macroscopic amounts of sample (i.e., millions of nanoparticles), giving a better picture of the overall morphology and dispersion. Yet, small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS), which is very useful in evaluating particle size and polydispersity for homogeneous nanoparticles,^{28,29} suffers from an inability to definitively pinpoint chemical boundaries within core|shell nanoparticles, even in cases for which high material contrast exists. To this end, the multiple-energy, anomalous SAXS (ASAXS) approach^{30–33} offers renewed potential for the analysis of core|shell nanoparticles.^{34,35} Here we demonstrate the full utility of the ASAXS technique to unambiguously elucidate the fine structural details for a tightly packed powder of 8.2 \pm 0.2 nm diameter core shell nanoparticles nominally composed of Fe₃O₄ cores and γ -Mn₂O₃ shells.³⁶ The resonant X-ray results indicate not only the presence of a clear core|shell structure but also the existence of an intermediate shell of mixed composition, in agreement with TEM and EELS analysis. Moreover, the study directly reveals differences in the degree of coating, which are largely undetectable by any other techniques.

SAXS and small-angle neutron scattering, SANS, provide structural information on the micrometer to subnanometer length scale (Figure 2a). The measured intensity, *I*, which is plotted as a function of scattering wavevector, *Q*, in Figure 2b for SANS and Figure 2c for SAXS, is proportional to the material-specific scattering length density squared, $|\rho|^2$. For all variables, 'and " denote the real (scattering) and imaginary (absorbing) components. Information regarding the spatial distribution of the *J* scattering centers, located at the relative positions, *R_J*, is contained within the Fourier transform, \mathcal{F} as

$$I(Q) \propto \left| \sum_{\text{J scatterers}} (\rho'_{j} + i\rho''_{j}) e^{i\vec{Q} \cdot \vec{R}_{j}} \right|^{2}$$
$$= \left| \sum_{\text{K materials}} \rho_{K} \mathcal{F}_{K} \right|^{2}$$
(1)

From a modeling standpoint, $|\mathscr{F}|^2$ is viewed as the convolution of the structure factor (nanoparticle packing), $|S|^2$, with the form factor (internal nanoparticle structure), $|F|^2$.

Although diffraction methods can be extremely sensitive to external nanoparticle diameter, they are relatively insensitive to internal structures. As the room temperature SANS data underscore (see Figure 2b and Supporting Information), even a high ρ contrast ratio >4 (refer to Table 1) is not sufficient to distinguish through modeling³⁷ whether the nanoparticles' $|F|^2$ is closer to homogeneous Fe–Mn oxide spheres or arises from distinctive Fe₃O₄| γ -Mn₂O₃ core|shell nanoparticles.

Importantly, material sensitivity (and, thus, sensitivity to internal layering) may be enhanced by collecting multiple, energy-dependent scattering patterns of varied ρ values. For neutrons, this can be achieved in many organic systems through hydrogen-deuterium substitution,^{38,39} while for X-rays, ρ changes dramatically as a function of energy about atomic absorption edges, coined anomalous or resonant scattering.⁴⁰ Thus, as shown in Figure 2c, anomalous scattering patterns were acquired at the Mn and Fe K-edges,⁴¹ 6535 and 7112 eV, respectively, and off-resonance at 6000 eV (Table 1). Yet, aside from changes in total intensity and a slight low-Q oscillation shift, the profiles appear to be strikingly similar. The reason for this is that the scattering is heavily influenced by scattering interference between the Fe and Mn oxides (also referred to as a cross-term, which will be explicitly evaluated later).

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To illustrate this, consider a two-layer system labeled as α and β (α = Fe₃O₄ and β = γ -Mn₂O₃)

$$I(Q) \propto \underbrace{|\rho_{\alpha}|^{2} |\mathfrak{F}_{\alpha}|^{2}}_{I_{\alpha}} + \underbrace{|\rho_{\beta}|^{2} |\mathfrak{F}_{\beta}|^{2}}_{\mathfrak{F}_{\beta}} + \underbrace{2(\rho_{\alpha}'\rho_{\beta}'' - \rho_{\alpha}''\rho_{\beta}'')}_{\mathfrak{F}_{m1}} + \underbrace{2(\rho_{\alpha}'\rho_{\beta}'' - \rho_{\alpha}''\rho_{\beta}')}_{I_{m2}} \underbrace{\mathfrak{F}_{m2}}_{\mathfrak{F}_{m1}},$$

$$(2)$$

where cross-terms, l_{int1} and l_{int2} , each depend on both ρ_{α} and ρ_{β} . It is clear that material-specific scattering cannot simply be extracted from the subtraction of scattering profiles obtained at energies just below and on a relevant absorption edge, as is commonly assumed.

However, the simultaneous analysis of multipleenergy ASAXS profiles^{34,35} does provide the means to uniquely separate material-specific $|\mathcal{F}|^2$ values. The number of input scattering scans with different energies must be equivalent to the total number of material-specific scattering terms and interference terms of interest. First, we note that I_{int2} of eq 2 is negligibly small (Table 1) and can be disregarded. Thus, the remaining scattering terms can be uniquely isolated using only three scattering inputs taken at three different energies, $E_1 - E_3$ (Figure 2c). At each point in Q-space, the material-specific scattering contributions are determined by inverting the matrix in eq 3.

Application of eq 3 to the data of Figure 2c results in the separation of Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃ material-specific scattering $(|\mathcal{F}_{\alpha}|^2 \text{ and } |\mathcal{F}_{\beta}|^2)$ plus the γ -Mn₂O₃-Fe₃O₄ cross-term (\mathcal{F}_{Int1}), as plotted in Figure 3a. It is worth noting that this separation approach yields scattering profiles that are directly correlated to the number of chemical formula units per volume squared rather than the traditional scattering length density squared which varies as a function of incident X-ray energy. Considering that the cross-term contributes twice as much as $|\mathcal{F}_{\alpha}|^2$ or $|\mathcal{F}_{\beta}|^2$ (eq 2) to the overall scattering intensity, this explains the similarity in scattering shape at all energies, as shown in Figure 2c. Although the interference term can be positively or negatively valued, simulation suggests that for core|shell morphology the cross-term will contribute negatively over the first oscillation, as experimentally observed. Moreover, the existence of a non-zero cross-term implies that there must be a correlation between the Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃ layers; that is, a significant proportion of them must coexist within the same nanoparticles with a repeating morphology particleto-particle.

The difference in the material-specific scattering profiles is especially striking at 1.1 nm⁻¹ where the γ -Mn₂O₃ scattering contains a noticeably sharper dip than the Fe_3O_4 scattering (Figure 3b). Above Q =1.5 nm⁻¹, the profiles look similar. Extensive simulation suggests that if the relative intensity of each energydependent experimental profile is not preserved to within a few percent, then the extracted materialspecific profiles will typically assume a common scattering shape similar to that of the composite nanoparticle. Thus, the low-intensity region of $Q \ge 1.5$ nm⁻¹ is especially susceptible to any background subtraction issues during the material-specific scattering reconstruction. Even so, there are periodic differences, indicated by green arrows (Figure 3b). Division of the extracted Fe_3O_4 profile by the γ -Mn₂O₃ profile, $|\mathcal{F}|_{Fe_3O_4}/|\mathcal{F}|_{\gamma-Mn_2O_3}$, further highlights these periodic differences (Figure 3c). These differences indicate that the Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃ components must be present in different morphological distributions as a function of radius within the nanoparticles, which for spherical nanoparticles would correspond to a radially graded (i.e., core|shell or core|shell|shell) structure.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Modeling of the material-specific X-ray scattering provides ensemble-averaged information regarding nanoparticle core and shell dimensions, compositional uniformity, size polydispersity, nanoparticle packing, and the relative ratio of Mn to Fe present. As discussed previously in regard to modeling of the SANS data, $|\mathcal{F}|^2 = |F|^2 |S|^2$, where $|F|^2$ and $|S|^2$ are the form and structure factors, respectively.

Outermost Diameter. The γ -Mn₂O₃ (Figure 3a,b) distribution extends out to the edge of the nanoparticle with scattering that is consistent with a spherical model of exterior diameter 8.2 \pm 0.1 nm. The corresponding interior can vary from a sphere of uniform density to a sphere centrally devoid of Mn up to the first 1.8 nm in diameter. (Even element-specific diffraction is most sensitive to the outermost dimensions of that layer since more material resides there.) In contrast, the Fe₃O₄ oscillations and slope (Figure 3a,b) cannot be fit by a sphere of uniform density. Instead, a graded model where the amount of Fe₃O₄ decreases radially toward the surface is required. Depending on the steepness of gradient chosen, the outer diameter can range from 8.2 nm (less gradient) to 8.4 nm (more gradient). However, since we know that the Fe₃O₄ should be concentrated toward the interior of the core|shell particles based on knowledge about their

$$\begin{bmatrix} |\rho_{\alpha}(E_{1})|^{2} & |\rho_{\beta}(E_{1})|^{2} & 2(\rho_{\alpha}'(E_{1})\rho_{\beta}'(E_{1}) + \rho_{\alpha}''(E_{1})\rho_{\beta}''(E_{1})) \\ |\rho_{\alpha}(E_{2})|^{2} & |\rho_{\beta}(E_{2})|^{2} & 2(\rho_{\alpha}'(E_{2})\rho_{\beta}'(E_{2}) + \rho_{\alpha}''(E_{2})\rho_{\beta}''(E_{2})) \\ |\rho_{\alpha}(E_{3})|^{2} & |\rho_{\beta}(E_{3})|^{2} & 2(\rho_{\alpha}'(E_{3})\rho_{\beta}'(E_{3}) + \rho_{\alpha}''(E_{3})\rho_{\beta}''(E_{3})) \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} |\mathfrak{F}_{\alpha}|^{2} \\ |\mathfrak{F}_{\beta}|^{2} \\ \mathfrak{F}_{Int1} \end{bmatrix}}_{Variables To Solve} \propto \underbrace{I(E_{1}) \\ I(E_{3}) \\ I(E_{3}) \end{bmatrix}$$
(3)

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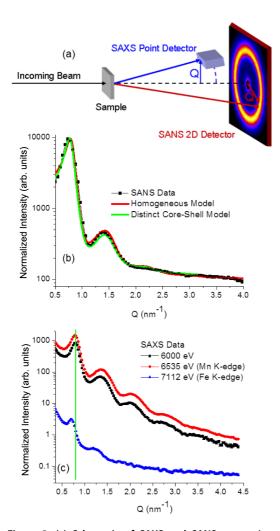


Figure 2. (a) Schematic of SAXS and SANS setups (not drawn to scale). Note that the experiments are carried out separately in different user facilities. (b) SANS data fitted using models based on homogeneous Fe–Mn oxide nanoparticles (red curve) or distinct Fe₃O₄ core and γ -Mn₂O₃ shell structure (green curve). (c) SAXS data taken away from resonance (6000 eV) and on the Mn and Fe K-edges (6535 and 7112 eV, respectively). The vertical green line emphasizes low-Q oscillation shift observed at the Fe K-edge. The statistical counting error bars for SANS and SAXS data are included but are too small to be seen.

TABLE 1. Scattering Length Densities ($\rho = \rho' + i\rho''$, in 10⁻⁴ nm⁻²) for Various Crystallographic Phases at Different Energies^{*a*}

pPhase	6000 eV ^b	6535 eV ^b	7112 eV ^b	$\lambda_n = 0.5 \text{ nm}^c$
γ -Fe ₂ O ₃	40.62	39.95	29.90	7.17
Fe_3O_4	40.00	39.32	29.05	6.95
γ -Mn ₂ O ₃	33.74	25.03	34.30	1.71
Mn_3O_4	48.65	35.59	49.50	1.54
γ -Fe ₂ O ₃	0.8259	0.7083	4.561	
Fe_3O_4	0.8328	0.7144	2.536	
γ -Mn ₂ O ₃	0.6279	2.184	3.380	
Mn_30_4	0.9267	3.263	5.059	
	γ -Fe ₂ O ₃ Fe ₃ O ₄ γ -Mn ₂ O ₃ Mn ₃ O ₄ γ -Fe ₂ O ₃ Fe ₃ O ₄ γ -Mn ₂ O ₃	$\begin{array}{ccc} \gamma \mbox{-} Fe_2 0_3 & 40.62 \\ Fe_3 0_4 & 40.00 \\ \gamma \mbox{-} Mn_2 0_3 & 33.74 \\ Mn_3 0_4 & 48.65 \\ \gamma \mbox{-} Fe_2 0_3 & 0.8259 \\ Fe_3 0_4 & 0.8328 \\ \gamma \mbox{-} Mn_2 0_3 & 0.6279 \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c ccccc} \gamma \mbox{-} Fe_2 O_3 & 40.62 & 39.95 \\ Fe_3 O_4 & 40.00 & 39.32 \\ \gamma \mbox{-} Mn_2 O_3 & 33.74 & 25.03 \\ Mn_3 O_4 & 48.65 & 35.59 \\ \gamma \mbox{-} Fe_2 O_3 & 0.8259 & 0.7083 \\ Fe_3 O_4 & 0.8328 & 0.7144 \\ \gamma \mbox{-} Mn_2 O_3 & 0.6279 & 2.184 \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c cccccc} \gamma - {\rm Fe}_2 {\rm 0}_3 & 40.62 & 39.95 & 29.90 \\ {\rm Fe}_3 {\rm 0}_4 & 40.00 & 39.32 & 29.05 \\ \gamma - {\rm Mn}_2 {\rm 0}_3 & 33.74 & 25.03 & 34.30 \\ {\rm Mn}_3 {\rm 0}_4 & 48.65 & 35.59 & 49.50 \\ \gamma - {\rm Fe}_2 {\rm 0}_3 & 0.8259 & 0.7083 & 4.561 \\ {\rm Fe}_3 {\rm 0}_4 & 0.8328 & 0.7144 & 2.536 \\ \gamma - {\rm Mn}_2 {\rm 0}_3 & 0.6279 & 2.184 & 3.380 \\ \end{array}$

^{*a*} From ref 41. Scattering length densities were calculated using mass densities of 4.90, 5.18, 4.50, and 4.86 g/cm³ for γ -Fe₂O₃, Fe₃O₄, γ -Mn₂O₃, and Mn₃O₄, respectively. ^{*b*} X-ray. ^{*c*} Neutrons.

chemical synthesis,³⁶ we impose the constraint that the Fe₃O₄ outer diameter should not exceed that of the γ -Mn₂O₃. This constrains the average particle diameter to be 8.2 \pm 0.2 nm.

Bimodal Distribution. The sharp γ -Mn₂O₃ dip at Q =1.1 nm⁻¹ (Figure 4a) is indicative of very low polydispersity,³⁷ on the order of 2%. In light of the monodispersity of the γ -Mn₂O₃ shells, the associated Fe₃O₄ portion of the core|shell particles should also be monodisperse, yet the observed scattering (Figure 4b) does not display such sharp features. To reconcile this, a bimodal model comprising two different types of nanoparticles containing Fe₃O₄ is necessary. The model consists of (i) monodisperse Fe₃O₄ core with reduced Fe density shell nanoparticles (whose outer shell diameter primarily dictates the dip locations observed) which are correlated with the γ -Mn₂O₃ shells, and (ii) uncoated seeds (whose contributions smooth out the dips) which are uncorrelated with the γ -Mn₂O₃ shells. This simple model can explain the diffusive Fe₃O₄ features without resorting to an unphysically large polydispersity for the Fe₃O₄ distribution. The reciprocal space (Q) region surveyed was optimized for larger particles, and thus, it does not cover a full oscillatory pattern of the seeds necessary for a rigorous determination of their sizes. The modeled seed diameters ranged from \approx 2.2 to 3.4 nm. The best Fe-based structure factor fit encompassing both the Fe₃O₄ component of the core shell nanoparticles and of the Fe₃O₄ uncoated seeds consists of a hard-sphere radius³⁷ of 4.2 nm and volume fraction of 0.44. The γ -Mn₂O₃ hardsphere structure factor diverges slightly from this with a volume fraction of 0.50 and hard-sphere radius of 4.0 nm required to capture the higher Q shift of the first peak (Figure 3a,b).

Layer Densities. Given these experimental constraints, the representative model (Figure 4a,b insets) consists of a core|shell|shell nanoparticle of variable density. The inner core radius is set at 0.4 \pm 0.1 nm (to accommodate polydispersity), the inner shell thickness is 2 nm, and the remaining outer shell thickness is 1.7 nm (adding up to a total diameter of 8.2 \pm 0.2 nm). Since we do not observe large changes in the relative densities of Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃ between the inner and outer shells, we feel this level of shell delineation provides sufficient grading without over determining the system. However, it should be noted that the choice of interior shell radii is somewhat arbitrary and other shell radii choices yield similar results. Within this model, the Fe₃O₄ density (number of formula units per volume multiplied by a scalar) is best fit from the interior to exterior regions with values of 5.31, 2.65, and 2.32 units/volume, respectively (Figure 4b). The γ -Mn₂O₃ component of our core|shell|shell model returns densities (also in formula units per volume that are consistently scaled with and directly comparable to the Fe₃O₄ densities) of 0, 2.70, and 3.00 units/volume

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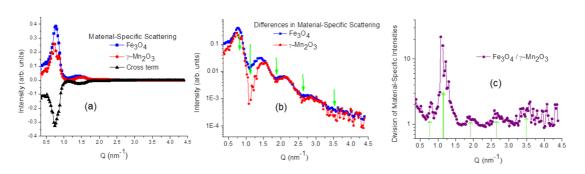


Figure 3. (a) Extracted, material-specific scattering profiles and cross-term. (b) Arrows pinpoint the periodic differences between Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃. (c) Division of the material-specific profiles, $|\mathscr{F}_{Fe_3O_4}|^2/|\mathscr{F}_{\gamma-Mn_2O_3}|^2$, highlight the variation between Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃ scattering and indicate a difference in their nanoparticle morphologies.

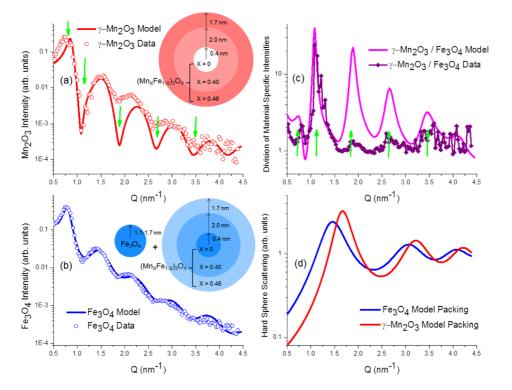


Figure 4. (a) γ -Mn₂O₃ scattering profile and fit where dips highlighted with arrows correspond to those of Figure 3a. (b) Fe₃O₄ scattering profile and fit. Although the insets in (a) and (b) which depict the γ -Mn₂O₃ and Fe₃O₄ portions of the model are not drawn to scale, their fit dimensions are listed exactly as modeled. (c) Division of Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃ modeled scattering profiles reproduces the experimental features of Figure 3c. (d) Hard-sphere model |S|² values of core|shell nanoparticles and uncoated seed nanoparticles.

from interior to exterior, respectively (Figure 4a). The γ -Mn₂O₃ fit is fairly insensitive to the core region. Yet, it is reasonable to expect that the combined γ -Mn₂O₃ plus Fe₃O₄ density should not vary significantly throughout the particle and, thus, the sum should be close to 5.3 units/volume for all layers. The Fe₃O₄ core region fit value of 5.31 units/volume hence drives the resulting γ -Mn₂O₃ density toward zero, though we cannot completely exclude the possibility that some Mn might reside within the core region. It is worthwhile to note that the division of the γ -Mn₂O₃ and Fe₃O₄ models (Figure 4c) reproduces all of the primary experimental features observed in Figure 3c and strongly reinforces the core|graded shell model.

Seed Fraction Estimate. As modeled, the uncoated Fe₃O₄ seeds can vary between 2.2 and 3.4 nm in diameter. When these seeds are modeled with pure Fe₃O₄ spheres with a diameter of 2.2 nm and a polydispersity of 30% (Figure 4b), their scattering profile must be scaled by a factor of 0.15 compared with the core|shell particles, indicating that the number of uncoated seeds are \approx 15% that of the core|shell particles. This sets an upper limit for the amount of uncoated seeds. If we employ a larger seed model closer to 3.4 nm in diameter, this seed/core|shell ratio drops as the seed volume squared (*i.e.*, \approx 4%).

Structure Factor Variation. The difference in modeled packing structure $|S|^2$ for the $\gamma\text{-}Mn_2O_3$ and Fe_3O_4

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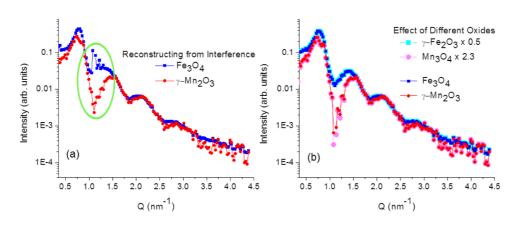


Figure 5. (a) Material-specific scattering reconstruction obtained using eq 4. (b) Effect of oxide variation in material-specific profile reconstruction using eq 3.

scattering contributions, depicted in Figure 4d, can arise only if a portion of the Mn and Fe atoms are not all contained within the same set of nanoparticles, consistent with Fe₃O₄-only seeds. (Note that this is by no means inconsistent with the presence of a cross-term, Figure 3a, which arises from Mn and Fe atoms contained within the set of nanoparticles and which can be attributed to the core-shell nanoparticles.) The shift to slightly larger average spacing between particles and a slightly lower packing density (embodied by $|S|^2$ of the Fe₃O₄ compared with γ -Mn₂O₃, Figure 4d) is also consistent with the presence of randomly dispersed, uncoated Fe₃O₄ seeds. Moreover, the experimentally observed shift of the lowest Q peak in the raw ASAXS scattering (Figure 2c) to a lower Q value at the Fe K-edge would be unexplained in the absence of a bimodal distribution. Although it may seem counterintuitive that the peak should shift toward lower Q with decreased Fe scattering contribution at 7112 eV when the Fe₃O₄ $|S|^2$ peaks at lower Q than the γ -Mn₂O₃ $|S|^2$ (Figure 4d), we note that the large, negatively valued cross-term (whose peak placement is determined by both the γ -Mn₂O₃ and the Fe₃O₄) also diminishes at the Fe K-edge.

Cross-Term. As a self-consistency check, we note that the third solved term from eq 3, \mathcal{F}_{Int1} (*i.e.*, the cross-term), contains additional information about the material-specific $|S|^2$ values. Division of the extracted terms, $|\mathcal{F}_{Int1}|^2$ and $|\mathcal{F}_{\alpha,\beta}|^2$, yields

$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{Int1}}/(|\mathcal{F}_{\alpha,\beta}|^2) = |F_{\beta,\alpha}|^2 (S_{\alpha}'^2 S_{\beta}'^2 + S_{\alpha}''^2 S_{\beta}''^2 + 2S_{\alpha}' S_{\beta}' S_{\alpha}'' S_{\alpha}'')/|S_{\alpha,\beta}|^2$$
(4)

where *F* for a spherically symmetric object is always real. If $S_{\alpha} = S_{\beta} (S_{Fe_3O_4} = S_{\gamma-Mn_2O_3})$, we should be able to re-extract $|\vec{\mathcal{F}}_{Fe_3O_4}|^2$ and $|\vec{\mathcal{F}}_{\gamma-Mn_2O_3}|^2$ using

$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{Int1}}/(|\mathcal{F}_{\alpha,\beta}|^2) = |S_{\beta,\alpha}|^2 |F_{\beta,\alpha}|^2 = |\ddot{\mathcal{F}}_{\beta,\alpha}|^2 \quad (5)$$

where the double dot in $|\ddot{\mathcal{F}}_{\alpha,\beta}|$ indicates that the previously extracted \mathcal{F}_{Int1} and $|\mathcal{F}_{\alpha,\beta}|^2$ (eqs 2 and 3) were utilized in this second-order reconstruction. The result of this procedure is shown in Figure 5a. Although

features similar to Figure 3b are reproduced, the reconstruction using eq 4 differs noticeably in the circled region (specifically where the derived $|S_{Fe_3O_4}|^2$ and $|S_{\gamma-Mn_2O_3}|^2$ most strongly diverge in Figure 4d). This deviation confirms that $S_{Fe_3O_4}$ and $S_{\gamma-Mn_2O_3}$, though similar, are not identical. The result is again in full agreement with our differing $|S|^2$ fits (Figure 4d) and the experimental, first oscillation shift to lower *Q* at the Fe K-edge (Figure 2c), and it reinforces the model consisting of core|graded shell nanoparticles residing alongside uncoated Fe₃O₄ seeds.

Mn to Fe Ratio. The combined γ -Mn₂O₃ and Fe₃O₄ core|graded shell fits produce a composite nanoparticle tending toward Fe₃O₄ in the center surrounded by a graded shell composed of both Fe and Mn oxide (Figure 4). Using the fits described above, the net chemical compositions are 5.31 Fe₃O₄/volume|2.65 Fe_3O_4 /volume + 2.70 γ -Mn₂O₃/volume|2.32 Fe₃O₄/ volume + 3.00 γ -Mn₂O₃/volume. If we were to assume that the shells are homogeneously mixed, then we can rewrite the compositions in terms of Mn-ferrite as $(Mn_xFe_{1-x})_3O_{4.2}$, where x ranges from 0.40 to 0.46 for the average inner and outer shell regions, respectively. Since the ASAXS technique is optimized to be highly sensitive to the Fe and Mn content, yet less sensitive to the oxygen content, it is likely that the oxygen stoichiometric number is in fact closer to 4.0.

Chemical Sensitivity. To determine the sensitivity of this technique to oxide type, we substitute the ρ values (Table 1) of γ -Fe₂O₃ and Mn₃O₄ for Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃, respectively, into eq 3. As shown in Figure 5b, the basic scattering shapes remain unaltered, while the difference between Fe and Mn oxide scattering profiles changes by a relative factor of 4.6. Taking into account the scaling of Fe oxide core|shell and Mn oxide shell scattering contributions with the fact that the measured intensity is proportional to density *squared*, we extract a mixed-shell composition of 7.50 γ -Fe₂O₃/volume + 1.78 Mn₃O₄/volume| 3.18 γ -Fe₂O₃/volume + 1.98 Mn₃O₄/volume. Recast in terms of a composite ferrite structure, this becomes (Mn_xFe_{1-x})₃O_{4.3}, where *x* ranges from 0.42 to 0.47 for

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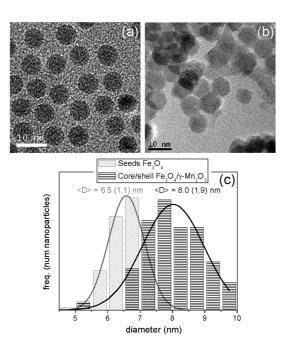


Figure 6. TEM image of (a) Fe₃O₄ seeds and (b) Fe₃O₄ γ -Mn₂O₃ core|shell nanoparticles. (c) Particle size distribution comparing the particles in (a) and (b). The lines show the fit of the experimental data to a log-normal distribution. The values given in the figure correspond to the mean value and the log-normal standard deviation.

inner and outer shell regions, respectively. This is surprisingly close to the previously extracted x of 0.40 to 0.46 using Fe₃O₄ and γ -Mn₂O₃ as inputs. Our conclusion is that the extracted scattering profile shapes and corresponding chemical compositions are largely independent of oxide inputs used.

Size Distribution via TEM. The overall diameter of the core|shell nanoparticles obtained from TEM (Figure 6a-c) of 8.0 \pm 1.9 nm corresponds satisfactorily with ASAXS analysis at 8.2 \pm 0.2 nm. On the other hand, the size of the core|shell Fe₃O₄ cores obtained from ASAXS (\approx 0.8 nm) is remarkably small since the original Fe₃O₄ seeds used are 6.5 ± 1.1 nm (see Figure 6a,c). The reduction in diameter of the pure Fe₃O₄ core regions within the core|shell particles from that of the uncoated Fe₃O₄ seeds indicates that some of the Fe_3O_4 reacts with the γ -Mn₂O₃ and is incorporated in a mixed-metal outer shell, as has been observed for similar particles.^{27,36} In fact, the degree of interdiffusion between Mn and Fe and the exact Mn oxide phase in this type of nanoparticles depends critically on the temperature at which the nanoparticles are exposed to air and on the size of the nanoparticles.^{27,36,42,43} The presence of uncoated Fe₃O₄ seeds evidenced by the bimodal distribution of Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles in the ASAXS analysis is not obvious from the TEM analysis. However, it may explain the unusually large increase in log-normal standard deviation in the core shell nanoparticles with respect to the original seeds (see Figure 6c). In fact, closer inspection of the particle size distribution of the core|shell nanoparticles reveals an asymmetric tail of the distribution toward smaller sizes.

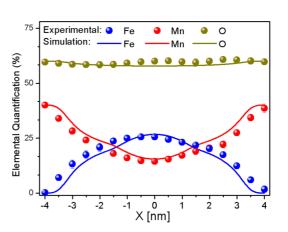


Figure 7. Averaged Fe, Mn, and O elemental quantification from nanoparticles shown in Figure 1 and a simulation considering a 2.5 nm (radius) Fe₃O₄ core|1 nm MnFe₂O₄|0.5 nm γ -Mn₂O₃.

This part of the distribution might be associated with the uncoated Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles, which according to ASAXS, are much smaller (\approx 2.2 to 3.4 nm) than the mean size of the seeds (6.5 nm). Accordingly, Ostwald ripening is likely the mechanism by which the relatively larger core|shell nanoparticles grow at the expense of the smaller ones, thereby redissolving the manganese oxide shell from the small seeds,⁴⁴ although traces of Mn on the uncoated seeds cannot be ruled out.

Core|Shell Evidence via EELS. The imaging of the local composition of the core|shell nanoparticles using STEM EELS mapping clearly reveals a multilayered structure with an Fe-based core and a Mn-rich shell (Figure 1). Quantitatively, EELS yields a 2.5 nm (core radius) Fe₃O₄ |1 nm (inner shell) MnFe₂O₄|0.5 nm (outer shell) γ -Mn₂O₃ (Figure 7). This is in gualitative agreement with the ASAXS core|graded shell structure, where both approaches clearly show the presence of an intermixed shell structure and a reduced core size (with respect to the seeds). Nevertheless, the ASAXS analysis indicates a more delocalized distribution of the Fe compared with the EELS results. However, it is important to emphasize that the EELS results are based on a handful of nanoparticles, while ASAXS measures the ensemble-average. Importantly, EEL spectra at different magnifications (see Figure S1 in the Supporting Information) demonstrate that the Mn|Fe intensity ratio remains constant, indicating that the overall composition of the sample is approximately the same independent of the number of particles investigated.

Structural Characterization. High-resolution scanning transmission electron microscopy (HR-STEM) and its corresponding fast Fourier transform (FFT) (Figure 8a, b) indicate that two distinctive spinel crystalline phases coexist within the same nanoparticle, one cubic and one tetragonal. Longer-ranged X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Figure 8c) confirms the existence of cubic and tetragonal spinel phases. Given that Fe-rich regions in the Fe–Mn oxide phase diagram (MnFe₂O₄–Fe₃O₄) form a

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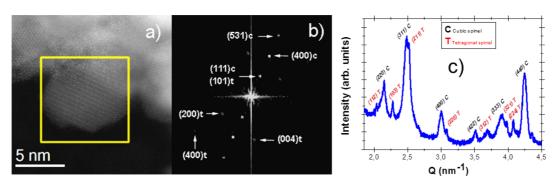


Figure 8. (a) HR-STEM image for the core/shell nanoparticle and (b) FFT of the highlighted in (a). (c) X-ray diffraction. Cubic and tetragonal spinel structures are labeled as c and t, respectively.

cubic spinel, while Mn-rich regions (FeMn₂O₄-Mn₃O₄) form a tetragonal spinel,⁴⁵ we identify the cubic structure as arising from the core and the tetragonal one from the shell. In fact, the ratio of intensities between the tetragonal and cubic phases from XRD is in concordance with a core|shell structure with a cubic spinel core and a thin tetragonal spinel shell.

Spectroscopic Techniques. Apart from two weak resonances (α and δ),^{46–49} electron spin resonance (ESR) produces distinctive resonances, β and ξ , as a function of temperature (see details in the Supporting Information, Figure S2). The more intense β line broadens and shifts toward a lower field⁵⁰ as the temperature decreases (Figure S3) and is qualitatively similar to the spectra reported for Fe₃O₄ nanoparticle systems,^{51–53} while the ξ line width remains almost unchanged down to 50 K and broadens⁵⁴ below this (Figure S3), consistent with either Mn₃O₄^{42,55–57} or a Mn_xFe_{3–x}O₄ spinel.⁵⁸

On the basis of previous studies on Fe, Mn, and FeMn oxides, ^{59–64} XAS and X-ray magnetic circular dichroism (XMCD) indicate that the Fe exists in a near single phase, whereas the Mn clearly exists in mixed oxidation states corresponding to multiple crystalline phases (see detailed description in the Supporting Information, Figure S4). Thus, the complementary spectroscopic measurements indicate the presence of multiple phases, consistent with the ASAXS modeling results of a $(Mn_xFe_{1-x})_3O_4$ core|shell|shell morphology with increasing Mn content toward the surface.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have demonstrated that multipleenergy ASAXS provides significant enhancement in sensitivity to internal material boundaries of layered nanoparticles compared with the traditional modeling of a single scattering energy, even for cases in which high scattering length density (ρ) contrast between the constituent materials exists. Applied to a system of nominal core shell Fe₃O₄ γ -Mn₂O₃ nanoparticles, this technique revealed that the coreshell nanoparticles comprise a graded nanoparticle tending toward Fe₃O₄ at the center, yet retaining a significant portion of Fe out to the exterior. The average Fe-Mn oxide shell composition can be recast in terms of a ferrite structure as $(Mn_xFe_{1-x})_3O_{\approx 4}$ with x ranging from 0.40 (interior shell of diameter 0.8 to 4.8 nm) to 0.46 (exterior shell of diameter 4.8 to 8.2 nm). The presence of a small fraction of uncoated Fe₃O₄ seeds explains the smearing of the Fe₃O₄ scattering contribution without assigning undue polydispersity. The model-derived concept of a dual distribution of core|shell nanoparticles plus uncoated seeds is further corroborated by both a shift in low-Q peak placement at the Fe K-edge and a measurable difference between structure factors $S_{Fe_3O_4}$ and $S_{\gamma-Mn_2O_3}$ obtained from analysis of the derived interference term, \mathcal{F}_{Int1} . These fine details revealed through the direct contrast of the material-specific scattering profiles simply could not have been obtained from simultaneous fitting of the resonant data as is generally practiced. The results, although they are in concordance with TEM, EELS, HR-STEM, XRD, ESR, XAS, and XMCD analysis, evidence ensemble-averaged structural details which would have been difficult to access using solely these studies. Given how dependent core shell nanoparticle behavior and functionality often are on internal structure, multiple-energy ASAXS shows great promise in the rapidly developing field of nanoparticle research.

METHODS

Synthesis. The synthesis of core|shell particles was carried out following a multistep procedure where preformed iron oxide nanoparticles were used as seeds for the subsequent growth of manganese(II) oxide and its passivation to form γ -Mn₂O₃.³⁶ Briefly, an iron(III) oleate precursor was prepared following a similar procedure reported earlier.⁶⁵ First, 14 mmol of iron(III) chloride (FeCl₃·6H₂O, 97%, Aldrich) and 42 mmol of

sodium oleate (NaOl, Riedel-de Haën) were dissolved in 21 mL of ethanol (99.5%, Panreac), 28 mL of deionized water, and 50 mL of hexane (Fluka) and refluxed under magnetic stirring for 3 h. During this time, it is possible to see that the precursor changes from a light red color to a burgundy red, indicating the formation of the precursor. The organic phase was washed with 5 mL of deionized water three times and dried under vacuum. In a typical synthesis, spheroidal particles with a particle diameter

 $D = 6.5 \pm 1.1$ nm were prepared by dissolving 3 mmol of the precursor and 3 mmol of oleic acid (OIOH, Aldrich) in 36 mL of 1-octadecene (ODE 90%, Aldrich) at 70 °C. The mixture was heated to 320 °C (at 5 °C/min) under stirring at 130 rpm and kept for 30 min. The reaction vessel was allowed to cool to room temperature before exposure to air. The particles were retrieved by several cycles of centrifugation at 2000*g*, disposal of supernatant, redispersion in hexane, and coagulation with ethanol.

The manganese oxide layers were laid on the iron-oxidebased nanoparticles, modifying an earlier reported procedure used for the synthesis of MnO| γ -Mn₂O₃ nanoparticles.^{42,66} The procedure is as follows: 30 mg of iron oxide seeds, 2.3 mmol of 1,2-hexadecanediol (HDD, Aldrich), and 1.9 mmol of manganese(II) acetylacetonate (Mn(acac)₂, Aldrich) were added to 150 mL of benzylether (Bz₂O, Fluka) together with 5 mL (16 mmol) of oleic acid (OIOH, Aldrich) and 50 mL of oleylamine (OINH₂, Fluka). The slurry was deaerated with Ar for 15 min. The slurry was then heated at ~7 °C/min to 200 °C, allowed to proceed under reflux with a residence time, $t \sim 60$ min, and then removed from the heating source and allowed to cool to room temperature. The particles were washed from the reaction media by subsequent steps of precipitation under ethanol, centrifugation, and redispersion in hexane.

Small-Angle Neutron Scattering (SANS). SANS patterns were collected at room temperature at the NIST Center for Neutron Research beamline NG3. The incident wavelength was 0.5 nm with 11% wavelength spread.

Anomalous Small-Angle X-ray Scattering (ASAXS). SAXS patterns were measured at room temperature at the Mn and Fe K-edges (6535 and 7112 eV, respectively)⁴¹ and off-resonance (6000 eV) at the Advanced Photon Source beamline 6-ID-B. The scattering data were collected using a SII Nano Technology Vortex detector.⁶⁷ This type of detector was selected because it has an energy discrimination of 134 eV, which was used to separate the desired elastic X-ray scattering from the background fluorescence (which can be non-negligible near absorption edges).

The incident beam intensity was monitored using a highvoltage ion chamber. The detector/monitor response was calibrated as a function of incident X-ray energy by measuring the fluorescence produced by a vanadium thin film (with its own well-known energy response curve⁴¹) over the range of 6.0 to 9.0 keV. The detector/monitor response was fit and well described by a linear function over this energy range. The absorption of the nanoparticles as a function of energy was measured *via* transmission through the nanoparticle sample at 6000, 6535, and 7112 eV. Finally, the elastic, small-angle scattering patterns obtained at the same set of incident X-ray energies were measured with the SII Nano Technology Vortex detector⁶⁷ and were normalized by (i) the ion chamber (measure of incident intensity), (ii) the detector/monitor energy response, and (iii) the sample transmission values at the corresponding energies, respectively.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) and Electron Energy Loss Spectroscopy (EELS). TEM images were obtained using a JEM- 2100^{67} with a LaB₆ filament and a JEM- $2010F^{67}$ with a fieldemission gun operating at 200 kV, the latter equipped with a postcolumn Gatan image filter (GIF) energy spectrometer. Global EEL spectra were taken at different TEM magnifications at an energy range containing the O K-, Mn L_{2,3}-, and Fe L_{2,3}edges. Moreover, local EEL spectra were acquired at different positions along the diameter of the nanoparticles on the L-edge of Mn and Fe with an energy resolution of 0.8 eV. The quantitative analysis of the EELS spectra was performed using the homemade software package MANGANITAS.^{67–69}

High-Resolution Scanning Tunneling Electron Microscopy (HR-STEM) and EELS Mapping. HR-STEM and EELS have been obtained in a FEI Titan low-base⁶⁷ operating at 300 kV (HR-STEM). The indexing of the FFT of HR-STEM image (Figure 8) reveals the presence of two different crystallographic phases, related to iron oxide cubic spinel phase (JCPDS Card No. 82-1533) in the core and manganese oxide tetragonal spinel (JCPDS Card No. 24-0734) in the shell.

X-ray Diffraction (XRD). XRD patterns were collected using a Panalytical X'Pert Pro diffractometer⁶⁷ with Cu K α radiation.

Electron Spin Resonance (ESR). ESR measurements were performed in an ESP-300 Bruker spectrometer,⁶⁷ operating at a frequency $\nu \sim 9.5$ GHz (X-band), and in the 3–300 K temperature

range. In order to avoid spurious signals, care was taken to not saturate the cavity due to the giant ESR sample signal. For this purpose, and to ensure good penetration of the microwaves into the sample, the Fe₃O₄| γ -Mn₂O₃ nanoparticles were diluted in a nonabsorbing KCI salt. No noticeable changes of the cavity coupling were registered in the whole set of experiments. From the ESR spectra, we derived the resonance field H_r , the peak-to-peak line width ΔH , and the ESR intensity. From the resonance condition, $h\nu = g\mu_B H_r$ (where *h* and μ_B are the Plank constant and the Bohr magneton, respectively), the gyromagnetic *g*-factor was obtained, and the spectrum intensity is the area under the absorption curve. As the materials studied in this work are powder samples, the observed spectra present inhomogeneous broadening due to the angular, size, and shape distribution.

X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy (XAS) and X-ray Magnetic Circular Dichroism (XMCD). XAS and XMCD measurements were performed on dried core|shell nanoparticles spread onto carbon tape at the SIM beamline of the Swiss Light Source (SLS) of the Paul Scherrer Institute. Both XAS and XMCD spectra were recorded at the Fe and Mn L_{3,2}-edges using total electron yield (TEY) mode at 10 K in a magnetic field of 5 T after field cooling (FC) from 300 K under an applied field of 5 T. The XMCD signal was normalized by the area of the XAS spectra after correcting for the background.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Supporting Information Available: Additional experimental details and figures. This material is available free of charge *via* the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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