# High-Yield Gas-Liquid Interfacial Synthesis of Highly Dispersed Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> Nanocrystals and Their Application in Lithium-Ion Batteries

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A beaker-in-autoclave setup is designed for interfacial synthesis of  $Fe_3O_4$  nanoparticles with precise size control. They exhibit superparamagnetic properties and can be homogeneously incorporated into a carbon matrix to form  $Fe_3O_4@C$  composite, in which  $Fe_3O_4$  remains highly dispersed in the solid state. The  $Fe_3O_4@C$  composites exhibit excellent cycling and rate performances as anode material for lithium-ion batteries.

### Introduction

Magnetite (Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) nanoparticles are very useful in bioanalysis, ferrofluids, magnetic resonance imaging, and Li<sup>+</sup>ion-battery applications.<sup>1–8</sup> Most of these applications require that the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles to be chemically stable, uniform in size, and well-dispersed in liquid media, preferably in water. Important progress has been made in the chemical synthesis of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles. Methods including coprecipitation, hydrothermal method, the reverse micelle method, laser pyrolysis techniques, thermal decomposition of iron oleate, etc. have been used to synthesize highly dispersed magnetite nanoparticles.<sup>9–13</sup> For example, Li et al. developed a thermal decomposition method to synthesize water-soluble Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals using FeCl<sub>3</sub> as the iron source and

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2-pyrrolidone as the solvent under reflux (245 °C).<sup>14,15</sup> However, in these methods, toxic and/or expensive precursors are often used, as well as high-boiling-point organic solvents, and the reactions are usually conducted at high temperature. The nanoparticles obtained are usually dispersible only in organic solvents. To be soluble in the aqueous phase, the nanoparticles must be capped with functional groups.<sup>16–18</sup>

Nanosized transition-metal oxides, including Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, have been demonstrated to be promising anode materials with high capacity for lithium-ion batteries.<sup>19–22</sup> However, the poor cycling performance of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is delaying its practical application. This problem can be partially solved by intentionally mixing Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with particular nanostructures, for example, by loading iron oxide onto carbon as an Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/C composite.<sup>23</sup> To further improve the performance of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> as anode materials in lithium-ion batteries, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/C composite with rationally designed nanostructure is necessary.<sup>8,24</sup>

In this paper, we designed a gas—liquid interfacial route to synthesize water-soluble, highly dispersed magnetic nanoparticles. In this "beaker-in-autoclave" method, relatively inexpensive and environmental benign chemicals such as iron nitrate and ethylene glycol (EG) and ammonia solution are used. The method is reliable and inexpensive, and the yield

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**Figure 1.** Schematic illustration for the reaction system and digital photograph for the as-synthesized product dispersed (7.0 mg/mL) in ethanol (vial a) and water (vial b). Panel c shows a photograph image of the concentrated ethanol solution (50 mg/mL) in the presence of a magnet.

against iron nitrate is almost 100%. The Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles are superparamagnetic and water-soluble. Furthermore, the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles can be incorporated into a carbon matrix through a simple hydrothermal method to form Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite. In the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles remain dispersed in a carbon matrix. This novel nanostructure allows Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composites to be excellent anode materials for high-performance Li<sup>+</sup>-ion batteries.

#### **Experimental Section**

**Materials and Reagents.** Ethylene glycol (EG), Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·9H<sub>2</sub>O, ethanol, glucose, tetraethylorthosilicate (TEOS), and ammonia solution (concentration of 25 wt %) were purchased from Beijing Chemical Reagent Co. All chemicals were used as received, without further purification.

Synthesis of Highly Dispersed Magnetite Nanocrystals. As shown in Figure 1, in a 15-mL beaker, 0.404 g of  $Fe(NO_3)_3 \cdot 9H_2O$ was dissolved in 5 mL of EG. The beaker was placed into a 30mL Teflon-lined autoclave that contained 6 mL of an ammonia solution. The autoclave then was sealed and placed in a programmable microwave oven (MDS-6, Shanghai Sino Microwave Chemistry Technology Co., Ltd.). The oven was heated to 170 °C by microwave irradiation in 1 min and then kept at that temperature for various times (10 min, 1 h, or 3 h). After cooling and centrifugation and washing with ethanol for several times, a dark powder was collected, which was redispersed in ethanol to form a 7.0 mg/mL solution for further tests.

**Encapsulation of the Highly Dispersed Nanoparticles.** In the silica encapsulation experiment, the Stöber method was applied, with minor modification.<sup>25</sup> A hydrothermal method was applied in the carbon incorporating process.<sup>26</sup> In a typical experiment, 1.5 g of glucose was dissolved in a mixture of 9.0 mL of deionized water and 6.0 mL of ethanol. Then, 120.0 mg of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles (which is the product after a reaction time of 1 h) was added, followed by ultrasonic irradiation for 30 min. The solution was sealed in a 50-mL Teflon-lined autoclave and heated at 190 °C for 15 h. The dark brown products were washed and separated by centrifugation—redispersion cycles with deionized water and dried under vacuum at 100 °C. For the Li<sup>+</sup>-ion battery tests, the dried products were calcined at 600 °C for 20 h under a nitrogen flow.

Characterization. The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern was recorded on a Rigaku model D/MAX-2500V system (Cu Ka radiation). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were obtained on a JEOL model 6701F electron microscope at 10.0 kV. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed on a JEOL model 1011F electron microscope that was operating at 100 kV, while high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) was performed using a JEOL model 2010F electron microscope that was operating at 200 kV. The magnetic properties were collected using vibrating sample magnetometry (VSM) at room temperature. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) was used to reveal the precise chemical composition of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite. TGA data were achieved on a Perkin-Elmer model Pyris 1 TGA system. ICP-OES tests were conducted on a Profile-ICP apparatus (Leeman).

Electrochemical properties of the products were measured using Swagelok-type Li<sup>+</sup>-ion battery cells. The working electrodes were prepared by casting a slurry that consisted of 80 wt % active material (Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite, or commercial Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>), 10 wt % poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF), and 10 wt % carbon black onto a copper foil. The mass of active powder in each cell is ca. 1.2 mg on a 10-mm-diameter copper foil. A Celgard 2400 microporous polypropylene membrane was used as a separator. The electrolyte consisted of a solution of 1 M LiPF<sub>6</sub> in an ethylene carbonate/dimethyl carbonate (EC/DMC) mixture (1:1 v/v). Lithium foils were used as counterelectrodes. These cells were assembled in an argon-filled glovebox and cycled at various rates between voltage limits of 0 V and 3 V.

#### **Results and Discussion**

As illustrated by Figure 1, the beaker-in-autoclave setup is designed to confine the synthesis at the liquid/gas interface inside a sealed space. Iron nitrate (Fe<sup>3+</sup> species) in EG solution was stored in the beaker, while aqueous ammonia solution (NH<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O) was placed in the autoclave liner outside the beaker. At room temperature, the beaker separates the two solutions. During the reaction, with the assistance of a programmable microwave oven, the system was heated to 170 °C quickly (normally within 1 min) and then kept at that temperature for various times. Such a temperature increase results in the evaporation of ammonia, which reacts with Fe<sup>3+</sup> at the liquid/gas interface. A black Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> colloidal suspension was formed in the beaker and was collected via centrifugation and ethanol wash cycles. The yield of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> against the iron nitrate is almost 100%.

Figure 2 shows TEM images of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles. The average diameter of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles is ~6.5 nm after 10 min of reaction time, while the average particle size increases to 9.4 and 11 nm after 1 and 3 h of reaction time, respectively. The size distributions depicted in the insets of Figure 2 also show that the particle size distributions are narrow. Figure 2d is an HRTEM image of a selected nanoparticle from Figure 2c. The shape and the size of the boundary around the parallel crystal lattice fringes suggest that each iron oxide nanoparticle is a single crystal. The lattice plane distance is 2.91 Å, corresponding to the [220] lattice plane of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles.

XRD patterns of the products produced with different reaction times show that the as-synthesized products were highly crystalline. The diffraction patterns and relative

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**Figure 2.** Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of the assynthesized  $Fe_3O_4$  nanocrystals with reaction times of (a) 10 min, (b) 1 h, and (c) 3 h. (Insets show the size distribution of the nanocrystals.) Panel d shows an HRTEM image of a selected particle from panel c.



**Figure 3.** X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the as-synthesized nanocrystals after various reaction times: 10 min (spectrum a), 1 h (spectrum b), and 3 h (spectrum c). The bottom of the image indicates the JCPDS data (JCPDS File Card No. 19-0629) for magnetite.

intensities of all diffraction peaks match well with those of magnetite (Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS) File Card No. 19-0629; see Figure 3). The XRD peak widths and intensities agree very well with the sizes of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, which increases as the reaction time increases.

It has been established that simultaneous nucleation at many sites and the subsequent local crystallization are two crucial factors in synthesizing monodispersed nanoparticles with a narrow size distribution.<sup>27,28</sup> These two factors are realized in the beaker-in-autoclave setup. At elevated temperature, ammonia is evaporated into the sealed space above the EG and Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub> solution. At the gas/liquid interface, NH<sub>3</sub> reacts with Fe<sup>3+</sup> to produce Fe(OH)<sub>3</sub>. Because both NH<sub>3</sub> and Fe<sup>3+</sup> are all homogeneously distributed at the gas/liquid interface, the formation of Fe(OH)<sub>3</sub> is uniform and simultaneous at the interface. Furthermore, the reaction is limited at the interface, so that the particle growth is localized. During the reaction, the convection inside the beaker will cause the particles to become immersed in the liquid and return back to the interface along the convection flow, which helps to maintain uniform particle sizes.

EG was chosen as the solvent because of its high boiling point and strong polarity, as well as its ability as a reducing agent and capping agent. Deng et al. reported that highly dispersed Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microspheres were synthesized in EG using polyethylene glycol as a surfactant.<sup>29</sup> In this study, at the reaction temperature (170 °C), Fe(OH)<sub>3</sub> is quickly dehydrolyzed to Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and then is reduced to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

In a controlled experiment using water as the solvent in the beaker, we observed red  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> aggregates with irregular morphology (shown in Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). This is because NH<sub>3</sub> will be dissolved in the water, causing the uncontrolled precipitation of Fe(OH)<sub>3</sub>. EG is not a good solvent for NH<sub>3</sub>; the reaction between NH<sub>3</sub> and Fe<sup>3+</sup> was limited at the gas/liquid interface. In addition, EG can bind to the magnetite as the capping agent, helping to preserve the dispersion of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles.

These samples have excellent solubility in water and ethanol. When it was redispersed in water or in ethanol, dark but transparent solutions are obtained. The concentration of the aqueous solution in Figure 1 is 7.0 mg/mL. The dark aqueous solution remains a transparent solution for more than a week before precipitation slowly occurs, while the ethanol solution has yet to show phase separation after four months. The ethanol solution with the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles can be enriched to a higher concentrated ethanol solution is placed between two poles of a magnet, two identical liquid hills are formed, which are indicative of their magnetic properties.

Gupta et al. reported that Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticle single crystals are superparamagnetic when their sizes are below a critical value.<sup>30</sup> To study the magnetic properties of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles in this work, the room-temperature magnetization hysteresis curves of the as-synthesized nanocrystals are measured using vibrating sample magnetometry (VSM). The magnetization curves, as shown in Figure 4, display the high saturation magnetizations of three magnetite nanoparticles. The saturation magnetization increases from 39  $em\mu/g$  to 55 em $\mu$ /g, then to 66 em $\mu$ /g with the growth of particle size and enhancement in crystallinity. Furthermore, the forward and backward magnetization curves of 6- and 9-nm Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> samples are almost the same; no hysteresis loops are observed. The inset of Figure 3 shows an expanded view of the curves near the H = 0 region, showing that both curves go through the same zero magnetization point at H = 0. These data established that both the 6- and 9-nm Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> samples obtained are superparamagnetic nanoparticles. A small hysteresis loop for the 11-nm samples can be observed in the inset shown in Figure 4. This probably indicates that a size of 11 nm is approaching the critical value for Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles to be superparamagnetic, or a small amount

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Figure 4. Room-temperature hysteresis curves of the as-synthesized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> products with diameters of 6 nm (dashed line), 9 nm (dotted line), and 11 nm (solid line). Inset shows an enlarged view around the H = 0 region.



**Figure 5.** (a) TEM images of (a) an Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C precursor and (b) an Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite. The XRD patterns shown at the bottom of the image (panel c) show XRD patterns for the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C precursor (spectrum c1) and the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite (spectrum c2). Peaks denoted with an open star ( $\Rightarrow$ ) belong to body-centered cubic iron (bcc Fe).

of large-sized  $Fe_3O_4$  crystals is present and causes the hysteresis loop.

Water-soluble and highly dispersed Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals can be readily encapsulated by carbon (see Figure 5a) and silica (see Figure S2 in the Supporting Information), through simple hydrothermal or sol-gel approaches. In a typical carbon encapsulation process, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals were first dispersed in the glucose–EtOH/H<sub>2</sub>O solution in an autoclave. The autoclave then was sealed and heated to 190 °C and kept at that temperature for 15 h. As the glucose was pyrolyzed to become a carbonaceous matrix,  $Fe_3O_4$  nanocrystals were wrapped into the matrix (Figure 5a). The obtained  $Fe_3O_4@C$  precursor was calcined at 600 °C under nitrogen protection for 20 h to form a  $Fe_3O_4@C$  composite.

One particular feature of these materials is that Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles remain dispersed inside the carbon matrix. As shown in Figure 5b, the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles are physically isolated by the carbon matrix, so that the composition is similar to a solid suspension. XRD patterns of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C precursor demonstrated that the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals inside the carbon precursor matrix did not change their crystal structure (see Figure 5c). However, metallic iron with bodycentered cubic (bcc) structures was detected in the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite, indicating that part of the surface of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals was reduced to elemental iron (Fe<sup>0</sup>) by the carbon matrix during the calcinations (see Figure 5c). From the TGA and ICP-OES data of the Fe $_3O_4@C$  composite (shown in Figure S4 of the Supporting Information), the amount of metallic iron species is determined to be  $\sim 14.2$ wt % of the composite. Such a Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@Fe@C structure may lead to promising applications for these composite materials.

We conducted a preliminary investigation into their electrochemical performance toward lithium uptake-release, and we compared its performance with that of bare Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals and commercial Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles (Alfa Aesar,  $\sim$ 300 nm in diameter). The results are shown in Figure 6a, in which a rate of C/10 (8 Li per Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in 10 h) has been used. In the first cycle, the charge capacity of the commercial Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles is  $\sim$ 800 mA h/g. However, its capacity continuously decreases and reaches 201 mA h/g after 30 cycles, indicating poor capacity retention. Bare Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals have even worse capacity-retention properties than the commercial Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. After 30 cycles, its capacity is only 70 mA h/g. The high surface area of bare Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles raises the risk of secondary reactions involving electrolyte decomposition between the electrode and the electrolyte, which should be the main reason for the poor cycling performance.<sup>31</sup> In sharp contrast, the reversible capacity of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite is constantly above 600 mA h/g, which is much higher than that of the conventional graphite anode (LiC<sub>6</sub>, 372 mA h/g), showing excellent retention of capacity on cycling. Note that the mass of carbon is included when calculating the specific reversible capacity of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite.

In addition to the much improved cycling performance, the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite also shows significantly enhanced rate performance, compared to that of the commercial Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles (Figure 6b). At a high rate of 5C (discharge/charge of all active materials within 12 min), the reversible capacity of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composites is 173 mA h/g, whereas the commercial Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles have no capacity under this condition. The results indicate that dispersing Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles into a carbon matrix is an effective way to improve both the

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**Figure 6.** (a) Variation in reversible capacity versus cycle number for the  $Fe_3O_4@C$  composite, commercial  $Fe_3O_4$  particles, and  $Fe_3O_4$  nanocrystals at a rate of C/10. Inset shows the 1st, 10th, and 30th discharge/charge voltage profiles of the  $Fe_3O_4@C$  composite at a rate of C/10. (b) Rate performances for the  $Fe_3O_4@C$  composite and commercial  $Fe_3O_4$  particles.

cycling performance and rate performance of  $Fe_3O_4$ -based anode materials.

The improvement is attributed to the following three factors. First, the surface of the nanosized  $Fe_3O_4$  particles was reduced to metallic iron, which does not contribute to charge capacity but may enhance the electron-conducting network, as well as the surface electrochemical reactivity.<sup>19</sup> Second, nanosized  $Fe_3O_4$  particles dispersed in a carbon matrix reduces the diffusion courses of the Li<sup>+</sup> ions. Both of these two factors are advantageous for the kinetics toward Li uptake—release. This is the key to the excellent rate (power) performance. Last, during Li uptake,  $Fe_3O_4$  is

converted to Fe<sup>0</sup> and Li<sub>2</sub>O, resulting in a volume expansion of  $\sim 180\%$ , which leads to gradual lattice destruction and deteriorating performance of normal Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. In the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite, however, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles are physically isolated by the carbon matrix; any physical change of one Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticle is restricted at its local region. The carbon matrix may also acts as an elastic buffer to relieve the strain associated with the volume variations during Li uptakerelease cycles, leading to excellent cycling performance. A similar result was reported by Scrosati et al. on the Sn@C system.<sup>32</sup> In addition, the XRD pattern and TEM image of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite used each show that the crystalline nature and morphology of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticle remain almost unchanged, in comparison to the original composite (see Figures S5 and S6 in the Supporting Information), again suggesting that such a composite structure indeed helps to maintain a stable structure of the anode materials.

## Conclusion

In summary, highly dispersed magnetite nanocrystals were produced by limiting the reaction at the gas/liquid interface. This is achieved through the use of a "beaker-in-autoclave" setup. The magnetite nanocrystals have uniform and controllable sizes and are soluble in water.  $Fe_3O_4$  nanocrystals can be easily encapsulated in carbon to form a  $Fe_3O_4@C$ composite, which is a promising anode material for highperformance lithium-ion batteries.

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**Supporting Information Available:** SEM image of the product from control experiment (Figure S1); SEM (A) and TEM (B) image of the highly disperse nanocrystal encapsulated in silica (Figure S2); TG trace of the as-synthesized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C precursor (Figure S3) and TG trace of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite (Figure S4); XRD image of the postused Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite in lithium batteries (Figure S5); and TEM image of the postused Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C composite in lithium batteries. (PDF) This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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