

Engineering Shape Anisotropy of Fe_3O_4 - γ - Fe_2O_3 Hollow Nanoparticles for Magnetic Hyperthermia

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Cite This: *ACS Appl. Nano Mater.* 2021, 4, 3148–3158

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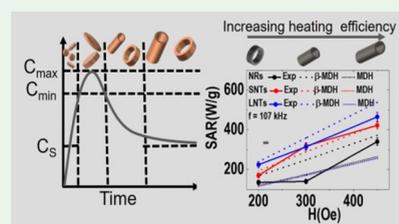
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ABSTRACT: The use of microwave-assisted synthesis (in water) of α - Fe_2O_3 nanomaterials followed by their transformation onto iron oxide Fe_3O_4 - γ - Fe_2O_3 hollow nanoparticles encoding well-defined sizes and shapes [nanorings (NRs) and nanotubes (NTs)] is henceforth described. The impact of experimental variables such as concentration of reactants, volume of solvent employed, and reaction times/temperatures during the shape-controlled synthesis revealed that the key factor that gated generation of morphologically diverse nanoparticles was associated to the initial concentration of phosphate anions employed in the reactant mixture. All the nanomaterials presented were fully characterized by powder X-ray diffraction, field emission scanning electron microscopy, Fourier transform infrared, Mössbauer spectroscopy, and superconducting quantum interference device (SQUID). The hollow nanoparticles that expressed the most promising magnetic responses, NTs and NRs, were further tested in terms of efficiencies in controlling the magnetic hyperthermia, in view of their possible use for biomedical applications, supported by their excellent viability as screened by *in vitro* cytotoxicity tests. These systems NTs and NRs expressed very good magneto-hyperthermia properties, results that were further validated by micromagnetic simulations. The observed specific absorption rate (SAR) and intrinsic loss power of the NRs and NTs peaked the values of 340 W/g and 2.45 nH m² kg⁻¹ (NRs) and 465 W/g and 3.3 nH m² kg⁻¹ (NTs), respectively, at the maximum clinical field 450 Oe and under a frequency of 107 kHz and are the highest values among those reported so far in the hollow iron-oxide family. The higher SAR in NTs accounts the importance of magnetic shape anisotropy, which is well-predicted by the modified dynamic hysteresis (β -MDH) theoretical model.

KEYWORDS: Fe_3O_4 - γ - Fe_2O_3 hollow nanoparticles, shape anisotropy, magnetic hyperthermia, micromagnetic simulation, modified dynamic hysteresis model

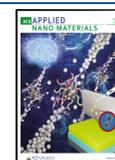


1. INTRODUCTION

The application of magnetic nanoparticles based on various metal-oxides has been studied extensively in the last three decades within the research contexts of medical therapy and diagnostics.^{1–6} Ferro/ferrimagnetic magnetite nanoparticles (Fe_3O_4) exhibit low toxicity levels *in vitro* compared to other mixed-metal-oxide systems (e.g. Co/Fe, Mn/Fe, and Ni/Fe),^{7–10} but they all suffer from limited chemical stability in physiological solutions (pH values 6.5–7.5 and 9 g/L NaCl), being accompanied with the proclivity to aggregate; these factors limit severely the range of safe concentrations in which these magnetic nanoparticles can be used in clinical application/treatments. Such limitations can be circumvented, on the one hand, by functionalization of the particle surface, using, for example, organic/inorganic and biocompatible canopies, in order to protect the magnetic core from fast degradation (e.g. polyethylene glycol, polyvinylpyrrolidone, chitosan, and SiO_2).^{11–14} On the other hand, the surface modification of the magnetic nanoparticle with the organic/inorganic material often results in the decrement of the system magnetic properties expressed in terms of a reduced value of

saturation magnetization (M_s); that is, the nonmagnetic part strongly reduces the overall magnetic property of the composite. The partial loss of the magnetic moment is expected to diminish the heating efficiency in magnetic fluid hyperthermia (MFH) application, limiting their potential use in hyperthermia treatments. To address such aggregation, on ferro/ferrimagnetic nanoparticles, the synthesis of hollow particles with magnetic flux-closure-configuration is a unique idea which avoids or at least reduces the dipole–dipole interaction.^{15,16} Although magnetism and crystal structures of magnetite (Fe_3O_4) and maghemite (α - Fe_2O_3) are quite similar, the latter form is fully oxidized with all iron in the 3+ state and thus it is more biocompatible and stable against oxidation than

Received: February 5, 2021
Accepted: February 12, 2021
Published: February 24, 2021



Fe_3O_4 . Also, the presence of the Fe^{2+} content of magnetite has deleterious effects *in vitro* due to the generation of reactive oxide species related to Fenton reaction during the cell cycle;¹⁷ thus, it is significant for advancements in the theranostic fields to explore the potentiality of combining shape and phase controlled synthesis of Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles interfaced with $\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$. Such organization not only should translate into a better heating efficiency of the system but should also be fully stable and biocompatible in the suspension during the MFH process. In the MFH phenomenon, the heating efficiency of the magnetic nanosystem can be enhanced upon altering the effective system anisotropy (K_{eff}), the property that is related to the coercive field (H_C).¹⁸ Effective anisotropy can be interpreted in terms of directional dependence of the magnetic moment (μ), with anisotropic contributions that reflect the material's magneto-crystallinity, shape, nanoparticle's surface disorder, and/or surface corrugation.¹⁹ Structural organization encoding well-defined anisotropy components, such as nanoparticles that adopt a morphology of hollow nanoparticles (HNPs), is seen by many as particularly attractive for achieving better control of the MFH effect.^{13,20,21} Therefore, upon altering the phase composition and the form factor (shape and morphology), one can, in principle, fully manipulate the effective anisotropy barrier in the system, which is one direct way to increase the overall heating efficiency during hyperthermia treatments. In the present work, we report results from our studies on the size, that is, from microscale to the nanoscale, and shape-controlled synthesis of hollow $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ nanorings (NRs) and nanotubes (NTs) using the microwave-assisted hydrothermal route since it is faster, simpler, and energy-efficient due to the very high rate of microwave heating. We tested several experimental variables such as the reactant concentration, solvent (type and volume), and reaction conditions (time and temperature). After assessing the best synthetic conditions leading to hollow systems, we assembled $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ NRs and NTs that were further transformed into $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4\text{-}\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ materials by reduction–oxidation processes that retained the nanoparticle initial hollow morphology. The presented $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4\text{-}\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ NT and NR systems were characterized by X-ray diffraction, scanning electron microscopy, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), Mössbauer spectroscopy, and SQUID magnetometry. The heating efficiency of these systems has been thoroughly analyzed, both experimentally and theoretically, by micromagnetic simulations and the modified dynamic hysteresis model (β -MDH), which is a model applicable in the case of multidomain ferrimagnetic nanoparticles. Taking together all the system properties, we believe that for further advancement in the biomedical-nanotechnology field, and, in particular, in the case of iron oxide systems tailored for hyperthermia treatments, it is key to develop synthetic protocols where the phase composition and anisotropic shape factor become the research key.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Synthesis of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4\text{-}\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ NRs and NTs.

The $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ NRs and NTs were prepared by a microwave-assisted hydrothermal reaction of iron trichloride (FeCl_3) with the addition of sodium dihydrogen phosphate [NaH_2PO_4] and sodium sulphate decahydrate [$\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4\cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$] as additives to control the shape and morphology. The additives, [NaH_2PO_4] and [$\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4\cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$], were mixed with 3 mL of distilled water separately and solution of [FeCl_3] (73 mL) to obtain a mixture of final volume 76 mL which was then stirred for 15–20 min; the reactant concentrations used for the

nanomaterial assembly were [FeCl_3] (0.06 mol L^{-1}), [NaH_2PO_4] (1.8×10^{-4} , 3.6×10^{-4} , and $7.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$), and [$\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4\cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$] ($1.65 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$). After vigorous stirring for 10 min, the mixtures were transferred into a reaction vessel in a Synth's microwave reactor with an output power of 1000 W. The working cycle of the microwave reactor was set to (i) first step: $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ rapid heating until two different temperatures were reached, 220 and $240 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ starting from room temperature (RT), and second step (ii): kept for different time (30 and 60 min) at those temperatures. The systems were then allowed to cool down to RT, and the final materials were obtained by centrifugation and were washed with an excess of distilled water and absolute ethanol. Finally, the solids were dried in a vacuum oven at $50 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. These as-obtained, dried $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ NRs and NTs were subsequently reduced by annealing in a furnace at $420 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 5 h under a continuous hydrogen/argon gas flow [$\text{H}_2/(\text{H}_2 + \text{Ar}) = 4/100$]. Then, the system was cooled down to RT under a continuous gas flow to obtain the Fe_3O_4 phase. Finally, the Fe_3O_4 phase was transformed into $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4\text{-}\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ by oxidation under oxygen flow at $240 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 1 h, keeping the desired $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4\text{-}\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ phase composition while preserving their initial NR and NT morphology. The sulphate and phosphate anions mentioned throughout the manuscript are designated as [SO_4^{2-}] and [PO_4^{3-}], respectively.

2.2. Spectroscopic and Magnetic Characterizations. **2.2.1. X-ray Powder Diffraction.** X-ray powder diffraction of the as-prepared materials was obtained from a Bruker diffractometer (Bruker D8 ADVANCE) using $\text{Cu K}\alpha_1$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) and a LynxEye linear detector. Data were obtained in the $15^\circ \leq 2\theta \leq 85^\circ$ range with 0.02° step size. The XRD patterns were refined using the Rietveld refinement method through TOPAS [Bruker AXS (2008): TOPAS V4: General profile and structure analysis software for powder diffraction data. User's Manual, Bruker AXS, Karlsruhe, Germany] software.

2.2.2. Electron Microscopy. The morphology of the samples was investigated by using JEOL 7100FT field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, 1.2 nm resolution, operated at 10–30 kV). High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) was performed on a JEOL 2100F instrument using an accelerating voltage of 200 kV.

2.2.3. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy. A FTIR spectrometer (Bruker, model Tensor 27), equipped with an attenuated total reflectance accessory, was used to identify the functional groups present in the nanoparticles.

2.2.4. Mössbauer Spectroscopy. RT ^{57}Fe Mössbauer spectra were taken in transmission geometry using a constant acceleration-type spectrometer with ^{57}Co in the Rh source also kept at RT. Calibration of the spectra were performed by using an iron foil. The spectra were fitted using NORMOS software.

2.2.5. Magnetometry. Magnetization measurements were carried out on a vibrating sample magnetometer Superconducting Quantum Interference Device (VSM-SQUID) (MPMS Quantum Design) under magnetic fields up to $\pm 70 \text{ kOe}$, at temperatures from 5 to 300 K. Zero-field-cooled (ZFC)/field-cooled (FC) curves were obtained in the temperature range 5–350 K. Both ZFC and FC data were collected while heating the samples, under a cooling field $H_{\text{FC}} = 50 \text{ Oe}$.

2.2.6. Micromagnetic Simulations. The micromagnetic simulations were performed using the Mumax 3.9 package. In this package, the time evolution of magnetization distribution is obtained by solving the Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert–Langevin equation (Supporting Information, E1). The magnetic parameters of Fe_3O_4 used in the micromagnetic simulation were as follows: (1) For Fe_3O_4 : saturation magnetization $M_S = 480 \text{ emu/cc}$, exchange stiffness constant $A = 1.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ erg/cm}$, magneto crystalline anisotropy constant $K_1 = -1.35 \times 10^5 \text{ erg/cc}$, $K_2 = -0.44 \times 10^5 \text{ erg/cc}$, and (2) For $\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$: $M_S = 400 \text{ emu/cc}$, exchange stiffness constant $A = 1.1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ erg/cm}$, magneto crystalline anisotropy constant $K = 2.3 \times 10^5 \text{ erg/cc}$.²² The cell size was assumed 5 nm, and the Gilbert damping coefficient was set to $\alpha = 0.5$.^{23,24}

2.2.7. Specific Absorption Rate Measurements. Power absorption measurements were performed using a commercial device (magneT-

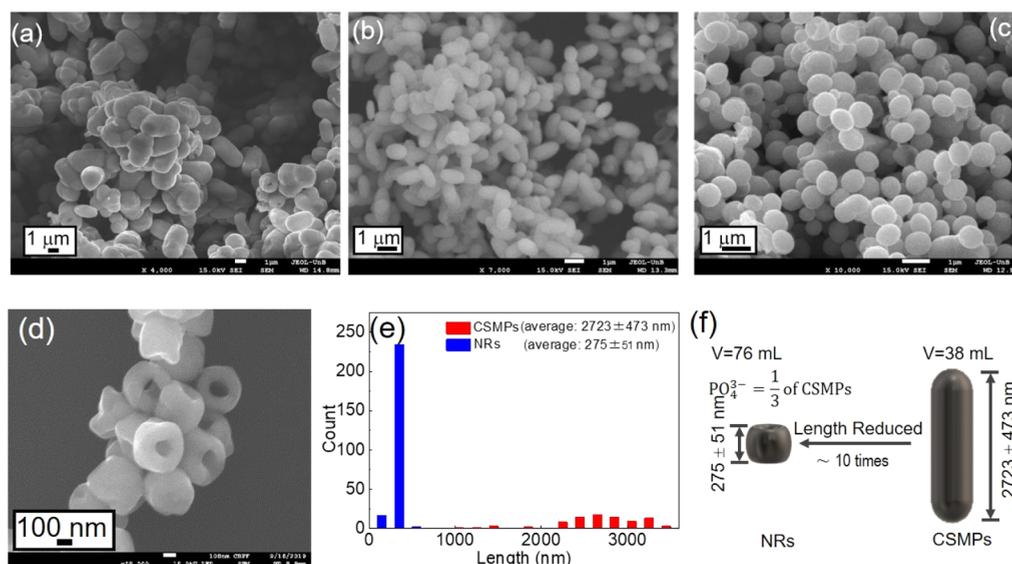


Figure 1. SEM images of α -Fe₂O₃ products prepared with different concentrations of phosphate anions. Figure 1 (a–d) represents α -Fe₂O₃ samples including capsule, ellipsoidal, nanodiscs, and nanorings, respectively: (a) [NaH₂PO₄] = 2.70×10^{-4} mol L⁻¹, (b) [NaH₂PO₄] = 5.40×10^{-4} mol L⁻¹, (c) [NaH₂PO₄] = 4.32×10^{-3} mol L⁻¹, (d) NaH₂PO₄: 1.8×10^{-4} mol L⁻¹ ($t = 30$ min and volume of solvent $V = 76$ mL), (e) comparative distribution of CSMPs (a) and NRs, (d,f) schematic illustration showing the effect of the solvent volume and phosphate anions impacting the morphological parameters (length). For each case (a–d), [FeCl₃] = 0.06 M, [Na₂SO₄·10H₂O] = 1.65×10^{-3} mol L⁻¹. The temperature employed in the synthesis ($T = 220$ °C, time ($t = 60$ min, and the volume of solvent of 38 mL for (a–c) while the time and volume solvent are different for (d) as per defined.

herm system, nanoTherics, UK). The heating efficiency of the nanoparticles was measured by a standard calorimetric experimental setup. In these experiments, a vial with the sample is placed into a coil connected to a power generator that controls the amplitude of the AC field inside the coil. An optic fiber temperature sensor was inserted into the vial with the solution to record the temperature. From the initial slope of these temperature versus time curves, the specific absorption rate (SAR) and intrinsic loss power (ILP) can be obtained:

$$\text{SAR} = C \frac{M}{m_{\text{MNP}}} \frac{dT}{dt}; \text{ and } \text{ILP} = \frac{\text{SAR}}{f^2 H}$$

where C is the specific heat capacity of the medium, M is the mass of the fluid, m_{MNP} is the mass of the nanoparticles, " H " is the application of field, and f is its frequency.

2.2.8. Cell Culture Procedures. The murine mammary adenocarcinoma cell line (4T1), murine colorectal carcinoma (CT26), and murine monocyte/macrophage (J774A.1) used in this work were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (USA) and cultured in RPMI supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS), 100 units penicillin/mL, and 100 mg streptomycin/mL (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA).

Cells were maintained in an incubator under a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂ at 37 °C. The *in vitro* tests were performed using 96-well microplates, with an initial cell density of 10^4 cell per well. We tested the cytotoxic potential of the two nanoparticle samples, NR and LNT, against three different cell lines: (i) J774A.1; (ii) CT26, and (iii) 4T1. Briefly, cells were seeded in a cell density of 10^4 cells/well in 96-well culture microplates and after 24 h to cell attachment; culture media was replaced by new media containing the nanoparticles (NR and LNT) in different concentrations (0–100 μ g/mL). Cells were exposed to nanoparticles for 24 h, and after that, media was removed, the cells were washed with PBS, and the cell viability was then assessed by the MTT assay.

2.2.9. Cell Viability Assay. Cell viability was evaluated by the colorimetric assay method of 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl-tetrazolium bromide (MTT, ThermoFisher).²⁵ After the treatments, the culture medium was replaced by a culture medium with 10% (w/v) MTT. Next, cells were kept in standard culture conditions

for 2.5 h to allow the MTT reaction with the mitochondrial enzymes. Next, the MTT solution was replaced by 100 μ L of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO 99.5%, Sigma-Aldrich) to dissolve cell membranes and extract the formazan crystals produced by the MTT reaction. The optical density formed by solution was measured with a spectrophotometer ($\lambda = 595$ nm) and used as an index of cell viability.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Synthesis of α -Fe₂O₃ and Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs and NTs. In this work, we investigate comprehensively the role of phosphate anions in the formation of HNPs and show how their size, shape, and morphology can be obtained by fine tuning the concentration of reactant, volume of solvent employed, time, and reaction temperatures. The experimental variables needed to obtain such shape/morphology defined systems are collected in the Supporting Information (Table S1) with their average sizes. Figure 1a–c shows the so-obtained morphology-based nanoparticles, from microscale to nanoscale, resulting from the analysis of the synthetic variables given in the Supporting Information (Table S1). The morphological evolution from capsule-shape microparticles (CSMPs) and ellipsoidal microrods (EMRs) to a mixture of circular/spherical nanodiscs (NDs/NSs), depended directly on the increasing concentration of phosphate anions present in the reactant mixture; the respective concentrations of phosphate anions used for obtaining CSMPs, EMRs, and NDs/NSs were 2.70×10^{-4} , 5.40×10^{-4} , and 4.32×10^{-3} mol L⁻¹, respectively. When the concentration of phosphate anions was decreased by one-third (i.e., from 2.7×10^{-4} mol L⁻¹ for CSPMs to 1.8×10^{-4} mol L⁻¹ for NRs) and the volume of solvent was increased two-fold (~ 76 mL from the initial ~ 38 mL at $T = 220$ °C), a set of NRs reduced in length by almost 1 order of magnitude as observed in the FESEM images (Figure 1d). The size distributions (Figure 1e,f) showed that the length distribution of CSMPs and NRs is easily distinguishable with average lengths of 2723 ± 473 and 275 ± 51 nm, respectively

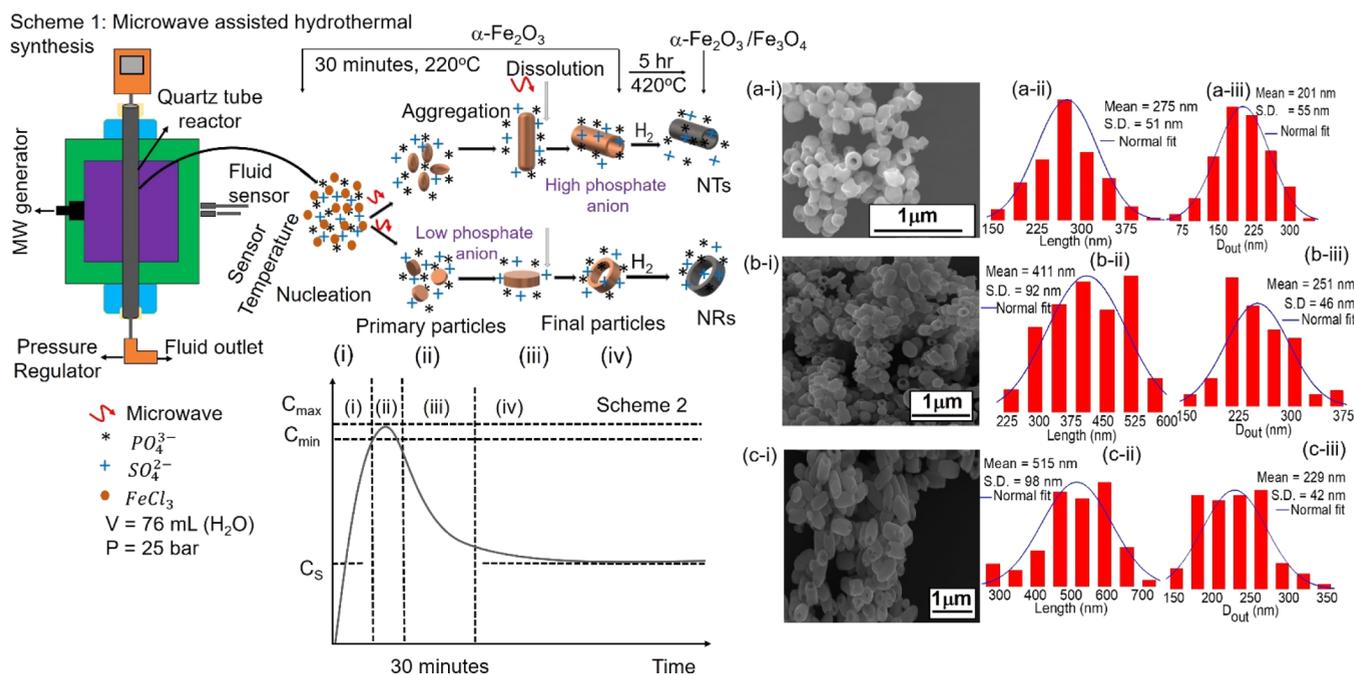


Figure 2. Scheme 1 illustrates the growth process of the diverse iron oxide nanoparticles adopting NTs and NRs morphologies. Scheme 2 is the LaMer's configuration of NPs growth vs time. Panels (a–c) give the SEM images of NRs (Panel a–i), SNTs (Panel b–i), LNTs (Panel c–i), and their respective size distribution analysis. NRs [NaH_2PO_4]: $1.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$, SNTs [NaH_2PO_4]: $3.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ and LNTs [NaH_2PO_4]: $7.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$, [FeCl_3]: 0.06 mol L^{-1} , and [$\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$]: $1.65 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$, synthesis temperature (T) = $220 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, time (t) = 30 min , and volume of solvent $V = 76 \text{ mL}$.

(see also Figure S1 for width distribution in the Supporting Information). The XRD patterns of CSMPs, EMRs, NDs/NSs, and NRs (see Figure S2 and Table S2 in Supporting Information) were refined using the Rietveld method to obtain their structural parameters. These results were consistent with the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ phase which consists of two different components, that is, grain and crystallite, in a two-crystallite size distribution, and are given in Table S2, with the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ phase with bigger crystallite size being $\sim 75\text{--}95\%$ and the smaller crystallites ranging from ~ 5 to 25% . It is further noticed that the amount of minority phase is similar (i.e. $\sim 26\text{--}29\%$) for CMPs, EMRs, and NDs/NSs, whereas for NRs, it is only 5% .

Interestingly, the NR structures grew into short NTs (SNTs) and long NTs (LNTs) upon further increase of the concentration of phosphate anions. The FESEM pictures and size distribution analysis of NRs, SNTs, and LNTs are shown in Figure 2a–c. Figure 2 and Scheme 1 illustrate the synthetic steps (nucleation, aggregation, dissolutions, and reductions) involved in the formation of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ NRs and NTs (SNTs and LNTs) and their reduction into Fe_3O_4 NRs ($l = 275 \pm 51 \text{ nm}$; $d_{\text{out}} = 201 \pm 55 \text{ nm}$), SNTs ($l = 411 \pm 92 \text{ nm}$; $d_{\text{out}} = 251 \pm 45 \text{ nm}$), and LNTs ($l = 515 \pm 98 \text{ nm}$; $d_{\text{out}} = 229 \pm 42 \text{ nm}$). The role of phosphate and sulphate anions in the formation of NRs to NTs is relatively different. It is reported that the sulphate anions are considered as a growth controller and dissolute agent and has practically no role in shape modification at any concentration;²⁶ thus, for whole synthesis conditions, the concentration of sulphate anions was fixed. The $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ hollow NRs were obtained using low concentration of phosphate anions; a further increase in the concentration of phosphate anions leads to the growth of SNTs and then LNTs. The schematic growth of NRs toward SNTs and LNTs with increasing concentration of phosphate anions is shown in

Supporting Information Figure S4. The suggested growth mechanism of HNPs (Figure 2 and Scheme 1) was based on local superheating of the aqueous solution that produces numerous “hot spots”, boosting the nucleation process.^{27,28} Simply, superheating is the metastable state, induced by external or internal effects, in which a liquid is heated to a temperature higher than its boiling point ($>100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) but without boiling. It can be achieved by heating a homogeneous particle in a clean container and free of nucleation sites in a microwave. Further, “hot spot” formation is due to the localized excessive heat flux on the surface of the nanoparticle during microwave irradiation. The localized overheating and resultant growth of the nonprotective $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ scale considered the primary factors in the initiation of “hot spots”. During irradiation, these “hot spot” starts to etch due to localized ionic current generated by high conductivity and polarization of phosphate anions.^{29–32} The formation of such “hot spots” on the surface of nanoparticles drives the assembly process of HNPs in a very short span of time. This effect would induce the formation of larger seeds throughout the solution, with rates that depend on the mutual reactant concentrations. The rapid formation of these “hot spots” on the surface of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ disc/spindle-shaped NPs via irradiation is therefore a unique advantage brought by the microwave synthesis route, which cannot be achieved from any conventional heating methods.

Localized ionic current is generated on these “hot surfaces” of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ disc/spindle-shaped NPs, due to high conductivity and polarization of phosphate anions during the continuous irradiation process. This localized current in the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ disc/spindle-shaped NPs drives the preferential dissolution along the crystallographic c -axis (i.e. $[001]$ direction) and favors the formation of a hollow structure in $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ NRs/NTs.^{33,34} Finally, the obtained hollow NPs underwent Ostwald ripening, which leads to the final growth of NRs, SNTs, and LNTs upon

increasing the concentration of phosphate anions.^{35,36} In the whole synthetic process, sulfate anions thus acted in two steps, (i) during the dissolution process and (ii) during the Ostwald ripening process, while the phosphate anions acted as a shape controller only. The sulphate anions in fact are responsible for the fast dissolution process in the initial seed growth, and then, they control the further growth of the system by modulating Ostwald ripening.^{26,33} Overall, the results reveal clearly that the phosphate anions act as a shape controller to induce anisotropic growth and play a crucial role in the formation of HNPs. During the anisotropic growth, the phosphate anions are attributed to the selective adsorption on surfaces parallel to the *c*-axis, while sulphate anions favor only the dissolution effect due to their coordination with Fe³⁺ cations. The suggested NP formation and their sequential growth mechanism through steps (i–iv) can be visualized with the model pathway proposed by the Extended LaMer's Mechanism (ELM),³⁷ shown in Scheme 2, which analyzes the growth of nanoparticles with time. Here, C_s is the supersaturation concentration, where monomers are produced and accumulated in solution, but without any formation of nanoparticles; C_{min} and C_{max} are minimum and maximum levels of supersaturation (also called as the critical level of supersaturation) between which the nucleation is energetically favorable. To understand the time dependent growth mechanism of our hollow nanosystem, we have synthesized LNTs at different times, shown in Figure S5, which is analogous to the proposed mechanism Figure 2 Schemes 1 and Scheme 2 collectively. We believe that NRs and SNTs follow a similar mechanism w.r.t. to time. The XRD of α -Fe₂O₃ NRs, SNTs, and LNTs is given in Figure S6. Then, the Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles were finally obtained by direct thermal reduction of these α -Fe₂O₃ NRs, SNTs, and LNTs (see Materials & Method) by preserving their novel morphology. We found that the phosphate anion concentration during the reduction process was the key factor for gated conversion of α -Fe₂O₃ into Fe₃O₄. The crystallographic orientation [001] of α -Fe₂O₃ NRs/NTs transforms into [111] orientation in Fe₃O₄ NRs/NTs during the thermal reduction process, and this effect is a well-established topotactic transformation.³⁸ In addition to the topotactic transformation, Becker et al.³⁹ proposed another scenario potentially responsible for transforming the crystallographic orientation of α -Fe₂O₃ NTs-[001] into Fe₃O₄ NTs-[112] and Fe₃O₄-[113], which is the one driven by formation of twinning dislocation.⁴⁰ Once Fe₃O₄ NRs and NTs are obtained, they are partially oxidized in a furnace in the presence of oxygen. Although the reduction process of α -Fe₂O₃ to Fe₃O₄ has been well investigated in the literature,⁴¹ the proposed reduction–oxidation pathway, driven by phosphate anions as a key factor, represents a novelty (see Supporting Information for further details).

3.2. Structural Analysis. After the thermal reduction and oxidation process, we found that the NRs, SNTs, and LNTs consisted of a mixture of the Fe₃O₄ phase along with γ -Fe₂O₃ and α -Fe₂O₃. Figure 3a presents the XRD patterns and their Rietveld refinements for NRs, SNTs, and LNTs. The lattice parameters and phase analysis are given in Table S3. The % of α -Fe₂O₃ was found to be increased with the concentration of phosphate anions, that is, 3 ± 1% (NRs), 6 ± 1% (SNTs), and 8 ± 1% (LNTs) along with a majority phase of Fe₃O₄ with a minority of γ -Fe₂O₃ (~22 ± 1% of γ -Fe₂O₃ is present in all samples, i.e., NRs, SNTs, and LNTs, see Table S3). The intense peaks at $2\theta = 24$ and 33° (marked with * in Figure 3a)

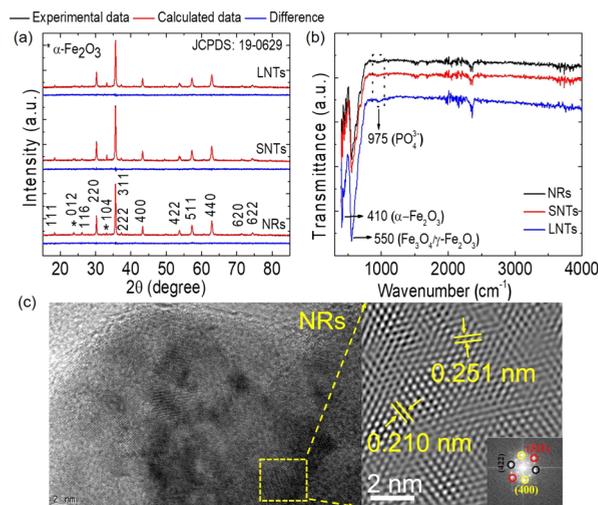


Figure 3. (a) Rietveld refining analysis of XRD data and (b) FTIR spectra of α -Fe₂O₃/Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs, SNTs, and LNTs, (c) HRTEM image of Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs showing the lattice spacing from indexation. Lower inset of (c) is the fast Fourier transform image.

matched those tabulated for the standard spectra of α -Fe₂O₃ (JCPDS no. 72-00469), and the broad ones at $2\theta = 27.3^\circ$ corresponded to the diffraction peak (116) of γ -Fe₂O₃.

The experimental FTIR spectra of α -Fe₂O₃/Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs, SNTs, and LNTs (Figure 3b) obtained in the range of 400–4000 cm⁻¹ showed the characteristic vibrational bands from iron oxide (α -Fe₂O₃/Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃) NPs between 600 and 400 cm⁻¹. The absorption band at 550 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the vibrations of the Fe–O functional group. This band is associated to the stretching and torsional vibration modes of Fe₃O₄/ γ -Fe₂O₃, whereas the absorption band at 410 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the α -Fe₂O₃ system.⁴² The characteristic peak of phosphate/sulphate anions is also detected at 975 cm⁻¹, the value that agrees with the fingerprint known for these functional groups that usually appear in the wavenumber range 950–1200 cm⁻¹.⁴³ The HRTEM image reveals a lattice spacing of 0.251 and 0.210 nm at the surface Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs which agrees well with (311) and (400) planes of the inverse cubic spinel structure⁴⁴ as shown in Figure 3c.

3.3. Mössbauer Spectroscopy Analysis. To better identify the phase composition of the *as-prepared* iron oxide NPs, RT Mössbauer spectroscopy was performed on α -Fe₂O₃/Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NR, SNT, and LNT samples. The obtained spectra (Figure 4a–c) could be fitted with five magnetic sites except in the case of NRs, which required only four sextets (see the hyperfine parameters in Table S4 of Supporting Information). The magnetic sextet having hyperfine field $B_{hf} = 51.40$ and 51.70 T observed in SNTs and LNTs corresponds to the α -Fe₂O₃ phase (violet solid line in Figure 4b,c), with an estimated population of 7 (±2)% (SNTs) and 8 (±2)% (LNTs), consistent with the XRD analysis. However, this signal was not detected in NRs (Figure 4a), suggesting that the amount of α -Fe₂O₃ in NRs is below the detection limit of our experimental set up (i.e., less than ~2 wt %). The spectrum analysis, indicated by navy and purple lines, shows the A (tetrahedral) and B (octahedral) sites of Fe³⁺ cations in γ -Fe₂O₃. After several fitting attempts with the use of standard parameters⁴⁵ of γ -Fe₂O₃, we found that ~22% of γ -Fe₂O₃ is present in all preparations, NRs, SNTs, and LNTs in

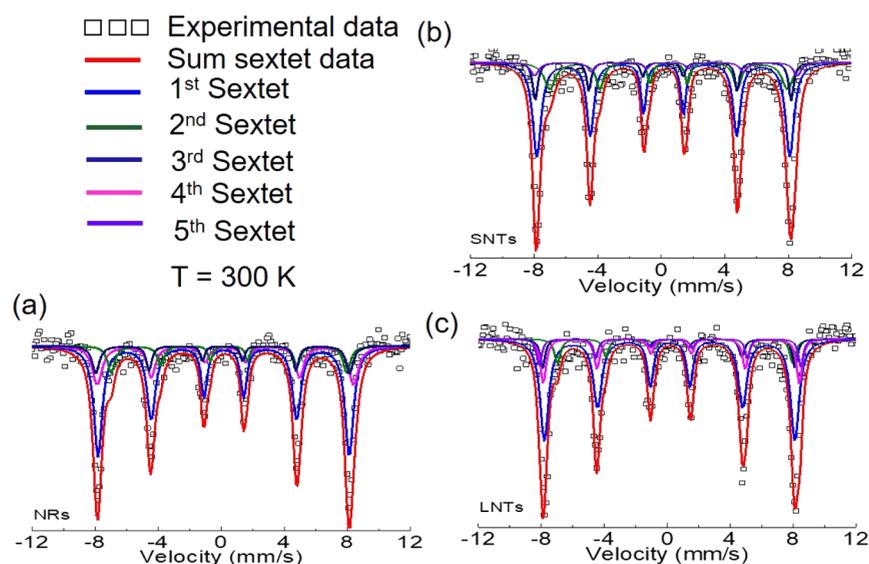


Figure 4. (a–c) Mössbauer spectra of α -Fe₂O₃/Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs, SNTs, and LNTs at 300 K.

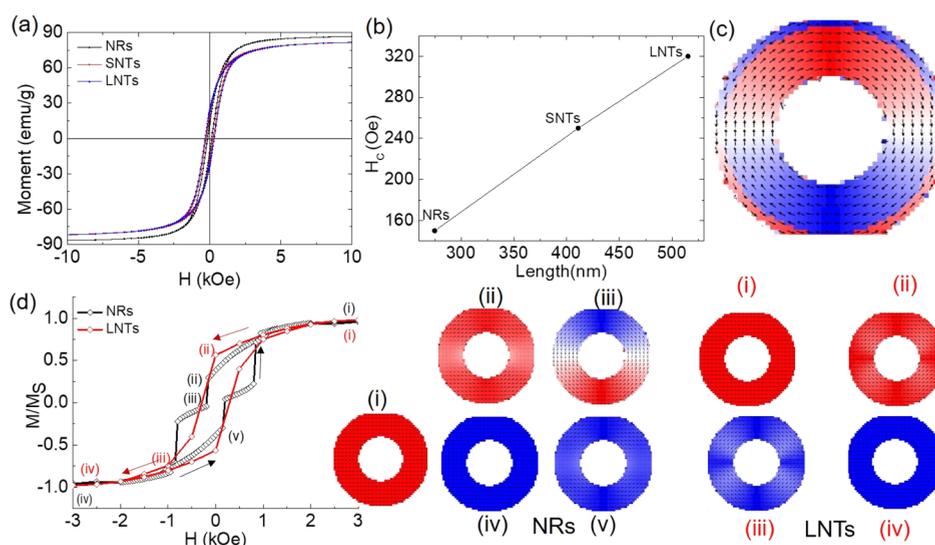


Figure 5. (a) Represents the hysteresis loop at 300 K, (b) coercive field (H_c) dependences on the length of α -Fe₂O₃/Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs, SNTs, and LNTs at 300 K, (c) simulated magnetic ground state of NRs/NTs (upper view), and (d) simulated hysteresis loop of α -Fe₂O₃/Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs and LNTs and their magnetic moment evolution with an applied field.

agreement with XRD data, and the population ratio of A/B equals to 1:1.67 which well agreed with bulk γ -Fe₂O₃. The result translates into the estimated chemical composition (Fe³⁺)_A[Fe_{1.67}³⁺□_{0.33}]_BO₄.⁴⁵ A similar percentage (~22%) of γ -Fe₂O₃ in all samples was expected after oxidation of Fe₃O₄ of 1 h at 240 °C. The fitting analysis, indicated by blue and olive lines in Figure 4a–c, represents the tetrahedral (A-) and octahedral (B-) sites of Fe₃O₄, respectively. The total population of the Fe₃O₄ phase contained in A- and B- sites of NRs, SNTs, and LNTs was found to be ~78 (\pm 2), ~72 (\pm 2), and ~70 (\pm 2)%, respectively. The observed population of Fe³⁺ cations residing on A-sites is about 3–4 times larger than those occupying the B-site (Table S4) and, as such, indicates the presence of a large number of cation vacancies (expressed by the symbol) and the defective region on the B-site. The result is a clear signature for formation of nonstoichiometric Fe₃O₄, which can be represented by the chemical formula Fe_{3- δ} O₄, where the factor δ varies

continuously from zero in the case of stoichiometric Fe₃O₄ up to one-third, for stoichiometric γ -Fe₂O₃.⁴⁵ The higher fraction of Fe³⁺ in the A-site arises from oxidation of Fe²⁺ cations, a process that is enhanced upon increasing the concentration of the phosphate anion, from NRs to LNTs, used during the shape-controlled synthesis. Furthermore, the oxidation process favors the creation of cation vacancies in the B-site and thus drives the Fe₃O₄ NPs toward the adoption of nonstoichiometric composition. The observed relative composition of Fe₃O₄ and γ -Fe₂O₃ from Mössbauer spectroscopy analysis allows us to calculate the approximate value of magnetic saturation, which is ~92 emu/g for NRs, ~88 emu/g for SNTs, and ~87 emu/g for LNTs. Based upon the phase composition analysis, the speculated diameters of Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs, SNTs, and LNTs are estimated as 156–45, 196–55, and 179–50 nm, respectively. The calculated magnetization values in the so-prepared nanoparticles have been then assessed by bulk dc magnetization experiments.

3.4. Bulk Magnetic Properties of NRs, SNTs, and LNTs. The dc magnetic data of all samples reflected their ferromagnetic behavior, with saturation magnetization (M_S) of ~ 88 emu/g for NRs, ~ 84 emu/g for SNTs, and ~ 84 emu/g for LNTs. The magnetization trends shown in Figure 5a evidenced that the values from magnetic saturation were slightly lower (about 3–5%) than those predicted by Mössbauer analysis. The observed discrepancy of M_S is due to the presence of the nonstoichiometric Fe_3O_4 phase, which should be slightly larger than those estimated from Mössbauer analysis. We note that M_S decreases from NRs to LNTs, due to an increased % of oxidized Fe_3O_4 (i.e., increase in % of $\text{Fe}_{3-\delta}\text{O}_4$) owing to higher concentration of phosphate anions. Therefore, the obtained M_S values were greater than those found in the literature of Fe_3O_4 NRs,^{16,26} ellipsoidal magnetic particles (EMPs),⁵ and NTs.⁶

Figure 5b shows the coercive field H_C that increases with the increasing thickness (or length) of NRs (or NTs), factor that is ascribed to the shape anisotropy contribution of NTs. The shape anisotropy contribution of these NPs can be calculated by using the following eq 1,⁴⁴

$$K_{\text{eff}} = K_u + K_s \quad (1)$$

where K_{eff} represents the effective anisotropy constant and K_u and K_s are the magnetocrystalline and shape anisotropy, respectively. Equation 2 gives the anisotropy constant estimation

$$K_s = \left(\pi - \frac{3}{4} N_C \right) M_S^2 \quad (2)$$

with

$$\left[\frac{\rho}{\sqrt{\rho^2 - 1}} \ln(\rho + \sqrt{\rho^2 - 1}) - 1 \right] \quad (3)$$

where $\rho = c/a$, being a and c the lengths of the shorter and longer axes of the NPs, respectively. From these expressions, we calculated $K_s = 2.3 \times 10^5$, 3.9×10^3 and 6.0×10^3 erg/cm³ for NRs, SNTs, and LNTs, respectively, consistent with the micromagnetic simulations (see below). The simulated H_C values give ~ 190 Oe in NRs and ~ 295 Oe in NTs. Moreover, Figure 5c depicts the spin configuration, upper view, at the ground state (i.e. $H = 0$) simulated by adjusting the standard parameter of Fe_3O_4 and $\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (as given in Section 2.2.6 micromagnetic simulation). The opposite spin direction (only to identify the core and shell region since has no physical significance here) on the surface indicates the presence of $\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ in the surface region. The magnetization reversal process involved in NRs and LNTs is shown in Figure 5d, with the coded red and blue color that indicate M_S in the positive and negative directions, respectively. The drop of H_C from LNTs to NRs and the presence of vortex states (Figure 5d(iii)) in NRs are found in a good agreement with results on similar systems reported by Yang Y. and co-authors in Fe_3O_4 nanodisks²¹ and Liu et al.¹⁶ whereas it is completely absent in LNTs, probably due to its tubular morphology.³⁸ The ZFC and FC (ZFC–FC) curves showing the magnetization versus temperature in the presence/absence of an external magnetic field and are given in the Supporting Information (Figure S7). It was found that no signature of Verwey transition is detected close to 120 K, an effect that indicates the absence of phase transition, from monoclinic to cubic.^{46,47} Owing to their higher

effective (shape) anisotropy, the LNTs are expected to express larger SAR values once compared to the NR system. However, the presence of a vortex configuration in NRs should translate into a better heating efficiency, as highlighted in one literature work.¹⁶ Therefore, magnetic hyperthermia experiments were performed in these nanoparticles (NRs, SNTs, and LNTs), and the results are presented and discussed in the following Section 3.5.

3.5. Power Absorption and Heating of NRs and LNTs.

Since HNP with well-defined shapes such as the NRs, SNTs, and LNTs studied here are appealing for biomedical applications due to their flux-closure vortex (e.g. in NRs) and curling (LNTs) configurations that minimize aggregation by dipole–dipole interactions, we studied their heating efficiency for potential MFH applications. Moreover, we added further functional flexibility for MFH applications by coating these HNPs with citric acid as a stabilizing agent (Figure S8), as described elsewhere.⁴⁸ We observed that all the coated samples were stable in water for 5 min but then start precipitating/sedimentation. We believe that such stabilization of all the samples was possible due to citrate molecules on the surface in addition to its intrinsic magnetic properties, that is, flux-closure vortex configuration (NRs–Figure 5d) and curling configuration (LNTs–Figure 5d). The SAR measurements were carried out on the water-based colloids with a standard concentration of 1 mg/mL. The applied magnetic field parameters were fixed frequency $f = 107$ kHz and amplitudes up to $H = 35.9$ kA/m (450 Gauss), that is, with a product $H \times f \leq 3.8 \times 10^9$ A m⁻¹ s⁻¹ in such a way to operate below the limit $H \times f \leq 5.1 \times 10^9$ A m⁻¹ s⁻¹ proposed by Dutz.⁴⁹ The SAR values of NRs, SNTs, and LNTs, extracted from the T versus t curves (see Figure S9 in Supporting Information) were measured at increasing field amplitudes H (Figure 6a). The data showed the expected increase of SAR with increasing H but no obvious functional dependence of H .

The highest SAR and ILP values obtained in our samples corresponded to the LNTs, with SAR = 465 W/g and ILP = 3.3 nH m² kg⁻¹; these values are among the largest reported for the iron-oxide phases in any nanostructured form under similar f and H_0 conditions. On the other hand, the lowest SPA and ILP values were those from the NR system (SAR = 340 W/g and ILP = 2.45 nH m² kg⁻¹). Although the magnetic saturation M_S of NRs was larger than that of LNTs, the heating efficiency appears to be clearly dominated by the shape anisotropy factor. We therefore unveiled, in more details, the role of shape anisotropy on the heating efficiency of hollow NTs in comparison to NRs. For the purpose, we have synthesized a specific sample consisting of size distribution ($l = 300$ nm; $d_{\text{out}} = 207$ nm; $d_{\text{in}} = 125$ nm) labeled sample “S”, having a $H_C \sim 155$ Oe value very close to $H_C \sim 150$ Oe of the NRs. The XRD, size distribution, magnetic properties, and heating profile for sample “S” are given in the Supporting Information (Figure S10). The SAR values for “S” sample (Figure 6b) reached 409 W/g at a maximum field amplitude of 35.9 kA/m (450 Oe), which is higher than NRs (SAR = 340 W/g). Although sample “S” has lower M_S and similar H_C , the SAR value of sample “S” is higher than that expressed by NRs, a clear indication that the better anisotropic properties of “S” ($K_s = 2.4 \times 10^3$ erg/cm³) are translated into a better heating profile. The observed results suggest that the contribution of the shape anisotropy is a key factor to enhance the heating efficiency of HNPs. Interestingly, Figure 6c shows that the heating efficiency is enhanced exponentially as a function of

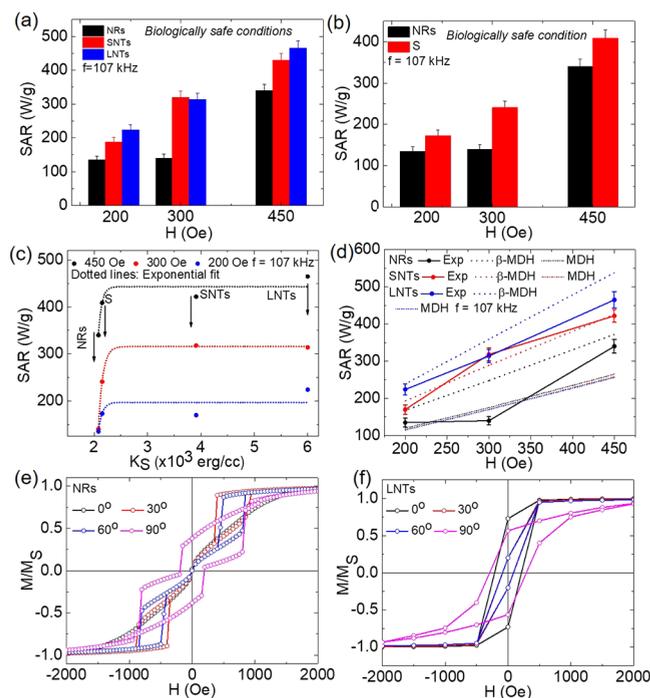


Figure 6. (a) SAR values for α -Fe₂O₃/Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs, SNTs, and LNTs; (b) SAR values for NRs and sample “S”; (c) SAR values for increasing values of shape anisotropies K_S , (d) Comparison of the experimental value of SAR with theoretical prediction based on the β -MDH model, and (e–f) simulated direction dependent hysteresis loop of Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ NRs and LNTs.

shape anisotropy, from NRs to LNTs at each field. The exponential fit (dotted lines in Figure 6c) well agreed with the experimental trend. Recently, Tong et al.⁵⁰ proposed the use of a modified dynamic hysteresis model (MDH) to obtain SAR values of ferromagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles at the clinically relevant condition (eq 4); the area of hysteresis loss, A , is given by

$$A = 3.53\mu_0 M_S H_{\max} (1 - 0.7\kappa) \quad (4)$$

where μ_0 is the magnetic permeability of vacuum, κ is a nondimensional constant and is negligible for ferrimagnetic materials, M_S is the saturation magnetization, and H_{\max} is the maximum applied field. However, we observed that the theoretical SAR values obtained through the proposed MDH model do not satisfactorily reproduce the observed trend for the nanoparticles reported in the present study (see MDH SAR in the Figure 6d). Tong et al.⁵⁰ has in fact neglected to include the shape anisotropy factors in their work; thus, we have modified the MDH model by considering the nanoparticle's aspect ratio (β = major axis/minor axis), termed here as the β -MDH model, with mathematical expression given by eq 5

$$A = 3.53\mu_0 M_S H_{\max} (1 - 0.7\kappa)\beta \quad (5)$$

where, β = 1.37, 1.67, 2.23, and 1.44 for NRs, SNTs, LNTs, and sample “S”, respectively. Theoretically, the value of “ A ” (M/M_S , H) obtained using eq 5 allows to calculate the SAR value from eq 6^{51,52} as

$$\text{SAR} = \frac{M_S f A}{\rho} \times 10^{-7} \text{ W/g} \quad (6)$$

where ρ is the density of the nanoparticles and f is experimental frequency of the applied field. The calculated SAR values using the modified β -MDH model gives, overall, better adjustment to the trends seen in the experimental data of NRs, SNTs, and LNTs as clearly observed in Figure 6d. However, the β -MDH model still does not account for variables such as the nanoparticle size distribution,^{53,54} coercive field,⁵⁵ and alignment.^{21,51,56} Several studies have demonstrated that the magnetic field gradient usually present in the experimental coils of the magnetic field applicators can induce partial alignment of the free MNPs in the colloid, increasing the absorption power of the colloids up to 2–4 times with respect to the nonoriented nanoparticles.^{16,21,56} To assess the impact of this effect on our samples, we performed micromagnetic simulations for the hysteresis losses along different directions of the applied field (Figure 6e,f) for NRs and LNTs to show the possible anisotropic magnetization reversal behavior of NRs and LNTs along different directions.⁵ In agreement with previously reported data, a large hysteresis loss was found in the parallel alignment ($\theta = 90^\circ$) for NRs and LNTs, resulting in a higher SAR value.^{16,21,56} However, there is no significant difference in the hysteresis loss for both parallel and perpendicular directions of LNTs, as shown in Figure 6f.

Recently, Liu et al.¹⁶ reported the highest SAR (~ 3050 W/g Fe at 400 kHz and 740 Oe) for magnetic vortex iron oxide nanoparticles, which turned into a much lower value when analyzed at biological relevant conditions. In another work, in iron oxide NTs by Das et al.,⁶ the reported SAR values were found to fall at ~ 360 W/g at 800 Oe. Chen et al.¹³ reported a significant loss of SAR for γ -Fe₂O₃@SiO₂ NTs (65 W/g) when compared to neat γ -Fe₂O₃ NTs (~ 230 W/g) at $H = 840$ Oe and $f = 120$ kHz; in the present work, the SAR value of LNTs (465 W/g) shows excellent heating efficiency at low field $H = 450$ Oe and $f \sim 107$ kHz; thus, LNTs are the magnetic nanosystem with the highest promises for further studies in living organisms.

The *in vitro* cytotoxicity of two of our systems, namely NRs and LNTs, was assessed through standard MTT viability tests against three different cell lines: 4T1 cells, murine mammary adenocarcinoma cell line; CT26, murine colorectal carcinoma cell line; and J774A.1, a murine monocyte/macrophage cell line. It is important to highlight here that these tests provided evidence of the cytotoxicity of the nanoparticles in different cell lines, therefore providing a more ample basis for potential applications in biomedicine.

The results are presented in Figure 7a and b demonstrated that NR and LNT samples did not produce any significant ($p < 0.01$) cytotoxicity effects for 4T1 and J774A.1 cells in the range of concentration examined. However, the CT26 cells were found more sensitive than the earlier types when treated with both NR and LNT samples. Conversely, a significant cytotoxic factor was expressed above 2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ concentration. The viability reduction observed in CT26 cells followed a dose-dependent pattern, indicating the maximum concentration that should be used in this cell type during magneto-hyperthermia applications. Thus, taken together, *in vitro* cytotoxicity experiments reinforce the possibility to implement LNTs in thermal therapy-based applications.

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we have shown the microwave-assisted synthesis of hollow Fe₃O₄- γ -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles encoding well-defined sizes and shapes (NTs and NRs). The obtained iron-oxide

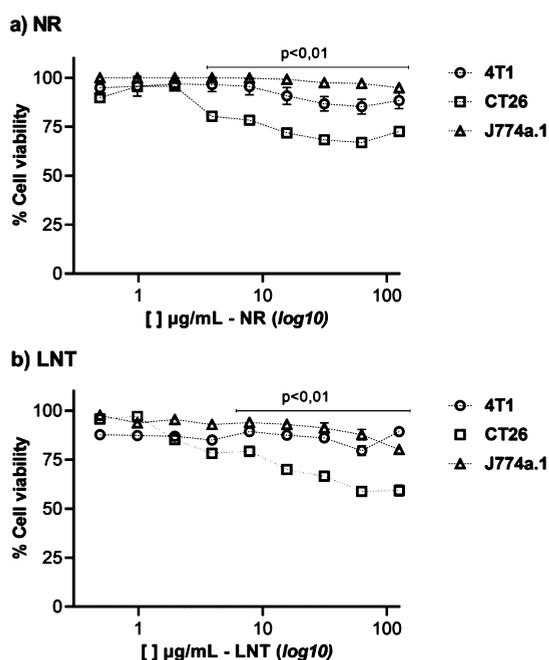


Figure 7. (a) Cell viability tests of NRs and LNTs on 4T1, CT26, and J774 cell lines as a function of increasing (a) NR concentration and (b) LNT concentration. Difference $p < 0.01$ between strains 4T1, J774a.1, and CT26. y -axis refers to untreated cell control and x -axis different sample concentrations in $\mu\text{g/mL}$. Data presented with standard error in quintuplicates.

samples showed different well-defined geometries (i.e., nanodiscs, NRs, or nanocylinders) depending on the synthesis conditions. The shape-controlled synthesis route was largely influenced by the synthesis parameters such as concentration of reactants, volume of solvent, or reaction time and temperature during the growth process that generated the hollow/capsule tubes, microrods, and nanodiscs, and this was associated to the initial concentration of phosphate anions in the reactants mixture. Indeed, by reducing the concentration of phosphate anions by one-third (and duplicating the solvent volume) in the reactant mixture, the length of the obtained capsule-shaped microparticles (CSMPs) decreased by about 1 order of magnitude (from ~ 2723 to ~ 275 nm). Conversely, when the concentration of phosphate anions was increased 4 times the length of NRs, their values were duplicated, leading to the formation of LNTs (length of ~ 511). The $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ NTs and NRs were then selected as the key nanoparticles to be transformed into HNPs, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4\text{-}\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, by using reduction–oxidation processes that preserved their initial morphologies. We have assessed the heating efficiency of these morphologically different HNPs for magnetic hyperthermia applications, finding that the LNTs were the best suited for heating, with SAR values up to ≈ 465 W/g for the largest applied fields. These HNPs were found biocompatible and chemically stable. These values are the highest among those reported so far in the hollow ferrimagnetic iron oxide family. Although the magnetic saturation M_s of NRs was found larger than that of LNTs, the heating efficiency appeared to be clearly dominated by the shape anisotropy factor, which was larger in LNTs. Therefore, our work emphasized the relevance of the nanosystem’s anisotropy factor, the importance to achieve its control during the bench-synthesis, in a way to optimize formation of nanomaterials for thermal therapy-based applications.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsnm.1c00311>.

XRD; SEM; distribution of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$; reduction–oxidation mechanism; phase composition analysis obtained from XRD and Mössbauer analysis; Mössbauer hyperfine parameters; $M_{\text{ZFC/FC}}$ versus T measurement; heating profile; and cell viability test (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

G.N. is thankful to Brazilian funding agency CAPES and PPGF-UFMA for providing doctorate fellowship and other financial support to visit UnB, Brasilia, UFG, Goiania, and CBPF, Rio de Janeiro to perform the experiment, respectively. S.K.S. is very thankful to FAPEMA for the financial support. J.A.H.C. thanks to CNPq and FAPDF for the financial support. G.Z. thanks the support of the project "Development of preapplied research in nanotechnology and biotechnology" (no. CZ.02.1.01/0.0/0.0/17_048/0007323).

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