

# Characterization and Properties of Metallic Iron Nanoparticles: Spectroscopy, Electrochemistry, and Kinetics

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There are reports that nano-sized zero-valent iron ( $\text{Fe}^0$ ) exhibits greater reactivity than micro-sized particles of  $\text{Fe}^0$ , and it has been suggested that the higher reactivity of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  may impart advantages for groundwater remediation or other environmental applications. However, most of these reports are preliminary in that they leave a host of potentially significant (and often challenging) material or process variables either uncontrolled or unresolved. In an effort to better understand the reactivity of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$ , we have used a variety of complementary techniques to characterize two widely studied nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  preparations: one synthesized by reduction of goethite with heat and  $\text{H}_2$  ( $\text{Fe}^{\text{H}_2}$ ) and the other by reductive precipitation with borohydride ( $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$ ).  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H}_2}$  is a two-phase material consisting of 40 nm  $\alpha$ - $\text{Fe}^0$  (made up of crystals approximately the size of the particles) and  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  particles of similar size or larger containing reduced sulfur; whereas  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$  is mostly 20–80 nm metallic Fe particles (aggregates of <1.5 nm grains) with an oxide shell/coating that is high in oxidized boron. The  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$  particles further aggregate into chains. Both materials exhibit corrosion potentials that are more negative than nano-sized  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ , micro-sized  $\text{Fe}^0$ , or a solid  $\text{Fe}^0$  disk, which is consistent with their rapid reduction of oxygen, benzoquinone, and carbon tetrachloride. Benzoquinone—which presumably probes inner-sphere surface reactions—reacts more rapidly with  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$  than  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H}_2}$ , whereas carbon tetrachloride reacts at similar rates with  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H}_2}$ , presumably by outer-sphere electron transfer. Both types of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  react more rapidly than micro-sized  $\text{Fe}^0$  based on mass-normalized rate constants, but surface area-normalized rate constants do not show a significant nano-size effect. The distribution of products from reduction of carbon tetrachloride is more favorable with

$\text{Fe}^{\text{H}_2}$ , which produces less chloroform than reaction with  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$ .

## Introduction

There are many variations on the use of granular zero-valent iron metal ( $\text{Fe}^0$ ) for removal of contaminants from soil and water (1). Among these, the use of nano-sized particles of  $\text{Fe}^0$  (or bimetallic combinations of  $\text{Fe}^0$  and catalytic metals such as Pd) is currently getting the most attention (2). Two potential advantages of nano-sized  $\text{Fe}^0$  over the construction-grade scrap  $\text{Fe}^0$  used in conventional permeable reactive barriers (PRBs) are that nanoparticles may be delivered to deep contamination zones by injection and that nano-sized  $\text{Fe}^0$  may be more effective at degrading some contaminants. The appeal of this technology has led to rapid adoption by the engineering community, and a number of field demonstrations have already been completed and described in the literature (3, 4).

There is, however, not yet consensus on a number of fundamental issues regarding the potential effectiveness of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  for environmental engineering applications. In particular, issues that are current subjects of research include the following: (i) the mobility of nanoparticles under subsurface conditions, (ii) the kinetics and products of contaminant degradation by nano- $\text{Fe}^0$ , and (iii) the persistence of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  as a reactive phase during the time period of treatment. The first issue is being addressed by others, such as those involved in the field sites noted above. With respect to the issue of reactivity, many studies have concluded that nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  degrades contaminants more rapidly than conventional forms of granular  $\text{Fe}^0$  (2, 5–13), although the basis for these comparisons has not always been clear. Another reactivity issue is that nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  might produce different distributions of products, but this possibility does not appear to have been thoroughly investigated. On the issue of longevity, it is clear that the reactivity of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  suspensions can persist for at least 6–8 weeks (14), but there does not appear to have been a detailed characterization of the “diagenesis” of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  or how diagenetic processes (e.g., alterations resulting from exposure to groundwater) affect reactivity with contaminants.

One reason that nano-sized  $\text{Fe}^0$  particles might exhibit greater rates of reaction with contaminants is simply that their large specific surface area provides more of the sites on which reaction occurs. For contaminants that are degraded by micro-sized  $\text{Fe}^0$ —such as trichloroethylene or carbon tetrachloride—there is a well-documented dependence of contaminant reduction rate with surface area of  $\text{Fe}^0$  (1, 15). However, increased surface area alone is not adequate to explain why nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  apparently reduces some compounds that exhibit negligible reactivity with micro- $\text{Fe}^0$  particles (such as polychlorinated biphenyls; 9, 10). Other possible reasons why nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  might exhibit enhanced reactivity include higher density of reactive surface sites and greater intrinsic reactivity of surface sites.

There are several reasons that smaller particle size might result in a greater density of reactive surface sites or surface sites of higher intrinsic reactivity (16, 17). Below about 10 nm, properties such as the free energy and work function change significantly with particle size, following classical equations such as the Gibbs–Thompson relation between particle size and energy (18). As particle size decreases, particle dimensions approach the size of certain physical length scales—such as the electron mean-free path and the

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**TABLE 1. Supplier Characteristics of Iron Particles**

name	source	method	particle size (dia.)	BET surface area	major phase	minor phase
Fe <sup>H2</sup>	Toda Kogyo Corp.	high temp. reduction of oxides with H <sub>2</sub>	70 nm	29 m <sup>2</sup> /g	α-Fe <sup>0</sup>	magnetite
Fe <sup>BH</sup>	W.-X. Zhang, Lehigh Univ.	precip w/ NaBH <sub>4</sub>	10–100 nm	33.5 m <sup>2</sup> /g	Fe <sup>0</sup>	goethite, wustite
Fe <sup>EL</sup>	Fisher Scientific	electrolytic	150 μm	0.1–1 m <sup>2</sup> /g	99% Fe <sup>0</sup>	
Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	PNNL	precip from FeSO <sub>4</sub> w/ KOH	30–100 nm	4–24 m <sup>2</sup> /g	Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Nanophase Technologies Corp.	physical vapor synthesis (PVS)	23 nm	50 m <sup>2</sup> /g	γ-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	

electron wavelength—and this results in quantum size effects that alter the electronic structure of the particle (19–21). For metal particles, quantum effects influence physical and chemical properties when the particle size is less than about 5 nm (18, 22–25). Similar effects will arise at larger particle sizes (10–150 nm) for materials with lower electron density, such as oxides and semiconductors (26, 27). These quantum effects cause changes in the Fermi level and band gap, which can lead to increases in reactivity with decreasing particle size (28).

Nanoparticles containing Fe<sup>0</sup> must be surrounded by some type of passivating layer—such as a shell of oxide—under environmental conditions. Although an Fe<sup>0</sup> core may exhibit some of the quantum effects that are characteristic of entirely metallic nanoparticles, the particle as a whole will exhibit properties of the core and the shell (17). Recent studies of core–shell Fe<sup>0</sup> nanoparticles have shown that the composition of the oxide shell—and therefore the nature of its surface sites—is influenced by particle size (29) and the particle's environment (30). In addition to the bulk composition of the shell, impurities (e.g., dopants) will affect the reactivity of particle surface (31). Furthermore, assuming that the reactivity of core–shell nanoparticles is driven by oxidation of the Fe<sup>0</sup> core, then charge and mass transport through the shell will be necessary for sustained reaction, and the kinetics of these transport processes may be important determinants of adsorbate (contaminant) reduction kinetics.

In addition to core–shell structure, another important characteristic of reactive nanoparticles is their strong tendency to aggregate in solution. Although there are ways to form stable suspensions of dispersed nanoparticles in laboratory or engineered media (e.g., refs 32–34), aggregation of nanoparticles is difficult to avoid under environmental conditions. One consequence of the aggregation of nanoparticles into larger clusters is ambiguity regarding whether a property of the material reflects the aggregates or their nano constituents. This issue is especially important with respect to the determination of surface area because the reactive surface area of highly aggregated nanoparticles suspended in solution is likely to be very different from the surface area measured on dry, dispersed nano-sized powders.

As part of an effort to determine which of the above size and structure effects control the reactivity of nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> under environmental conditions, we arranged to have subsamples of two types of nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> characterized by a comprehensive array of complementary methods. The two types of nanoparticles used in this study were selected because they represent distinct and prototypical methods of synthesis, and they have been used in both laboratory and field studies for contaminant degradation. The methods used to characterize these particles gave size, shape, surface area, composition and crystallinity of the bulk and surface material, corrosion potential, and reactivity with respect to two model contaminants (benzoquinone and carbon tetrachloride). The study demonstrates both similarities and fundamental differences in the physical structure and reaction pathways of the two types of nano-sized iron particles.

By necessity, this study also addresses some of the many methodological issues associated with the study of highly

reactive nano-sized materials that change over time, with handling, and during analysis. Because nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> is often stabilized for distribution in aqueous suspensions or pastes and these materials do not allow accurate and reproducible dispensation of quantities of particles for experimentation, we investigated a procedure we call “flash-drying” to remove water (and associated solutes) while minimizing other changes in the particle composition. Another major methodological issue that we address is the determination of the particle surface area that is relevant to quantifying their reactivity in solution. This issue proved to be a major obstacle in making quantitative comparisons of reactivity among nano- and micro-sized Fe<sup>0</sup> particles.

### Experimental Section

**Reagents.** All chemicals were obtained in high purity and were used as received, including boric acid (Fisher, Certified ACS), sodium borate (Fisher, Certified ACS), benzoquinone (Acros, 99+%), hydroquinone (Fisher, laboratory grade), *N*-[2-hydroxyethyl]piperazine-*N'*-[3-propanesulfonic acid] (Sigma, 99.5%), carbon tetrachloride (Sigma, HPLC grade), chloroform (Sigma, HPLC grade), and argon (Airgas, UHP). All stock solutions were prepared with N<sub>2</sub>-sparged deionized water and stored in an anaerobic chamber. Borate buffer (pH 8.4) was made from 0.15 M H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub> and 0.0375 M Na<sub>2</sub>B<sub>4</sub>O<sub>7</sub>. EPPS buffer was made from 0.01 M *N*-[2-hydroxyethyl]piperazine-*N'*-[3-propanesulfonic acid], by titrating with NaOH to pH 8.4.

**Iron Samples.** The iron and iron oxide powders characterized in this study were from five sources. Characteristics provided by the suppliers are summarized in Table 1. Nano-sized metallic iron was obtained from Toda Kogyo Corp. (Schaumburg, IL) and W.-X. Zhang (Lehigh University). The material from Toda (Fe<sup>H2</sup>) was the commercial product known as RNIP-10DS, which is produced by reduction of goethite and hematite particles with H<sub>2</sub> at high temperatures (200–600 °C) (35). Two samples of this material were received and proved to be similar, but all the data presented here are from the second lot. Fe<sup>H2</sup> is known to be a two-phase material consisting of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and α-Fe<sup>0</sup> (35); however, no effort was made to ensure “uniform” mixing of the two phases. This material has been used in previous laboratory studies (9, 36) and at least one field test (37). The material from Zhang (Fe<sup>BH</sup>) was synthesized by reductive precipitation of FeCl<sub>3</sub> with NaBH<sub>4</sub> (5). Three different batches of this material were provided, and they proved to be substantially similar. This material should be similar to the nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> used by Zhang in previous laboratory studies (5, 6, 8) and at least one field test (3, 38). Other recent studies that have used nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> prepared by reductive precipitation with NaBH<sub>4</sub> include refs 9, 12, 34, and 39–41.

Nano-sized magnetite (Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) was synthesized by rapid thermal decomposition of solutes (RTDS), a flow-through hydrothermal method (42, 43). Maghemite (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) was purchased from Nanophase Technologies Corp. (Romeoville, IL, Catalog No. Fe-0800-007-025). The micro-sized electrolytic Fe<sup>0</sup> powder (Fe<sup>EL</sup>) was from Fisher (Pittsburgh, PA, 99%, Catalog No. I60-3). Nano iron powders were not sieved or

polished before use. Some experiments were performed with nano iron powders that were flash-dried by rinsing with acetone/water during suction filtration (as described previously; 44), because preliminary experiments suggested that this process can facilitate sample handling and increase reproducibility without significantly altering the reactivity of the particles. Except where noted otherwise, all handling of these materials was done under anoxic conditions (e.g., in an anoxic chamber containing 5% H<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub>). The Fe<sup>EL</sup> was sieved with a 200 mesh sieve, and the fines were discarded. The remaining iron powder (100–200 mesh) was then washed with water, ultrasonicated for 15 min until the supernatant water showed no color or turbidity (3 times was always sufficient), and then flash-dried. The resulting material was stored under anoxic conditions.

**Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM).** High-resolution TEM was performed using either a JEOL JEM 2010F operated at 200 kV or a Tecnai 12ST (Cs of 2 mm) operated at 120 kV. All images were digitally recorded using slow scan 1024 × 1024 CCD cameras and processed using Digital Micrograph (Gatan). Pre-reaction samples were mounted on carbon-coated TEM grids in an anaerobic chamber but were exposed to air briefly during transfer from the anaerobic chamber to the microscope. Prior to insertion into the microscope, post-reaction samples were mounted on carbon-coated TEM grids inside an anaerobic glovebag.

**X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS).** Samples for XPS were mounted on double-sided adhesive tape in an anaerobic chamber and transferred into the instrument without exposure to air via a N<sub>2</sub>-purged glovebag attached to the sample entry system. The XPS measurements were performed using a Physical Electronics Quantum 2000 scanning ESCA microprobe with a focused monochromatic Al K $\alpha$  X-ray (1486.7 eV) source for excitation, a spherical section analyzer, and a 16-element multichannel detection system. The X-ray beam was 105 W with a 100  $\mu$ m spot rastered over a 1.4 mm × 0.2 mm rectangle on the sample surface. The X-ray beam was incident normal to the sample, and the X-ray photoelectron detector was at 45° off normal. Data were collected using a pass energy of 23.5 eV. For the Ag 3d<sub>5/2</sub> line, these conditions produced a full-width at half-maximum (fwhm) of 0.77 eV. The binding energy scale was calibrated using the Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub> feature at 932.62 ± 0.05 eV and Au 4f at 83.96 ± 0.05 eV for known standards. The 1 eV, 20 uA electrons, and low energy Ar<sup>+</sup> ions were used to minimize charging.

**X-ray Diffraction (XRD).** Specimens were prepared for XRD analysis by spreading ~25 mg of Fe<sup>H2</sup> or Fe<sup>BH</sup> on a zero-background slide and allowing it to dry for 2–3 days in an anaerobic chamber that was constantly purged with N<sub>2</sub>. The dried specimens were protected from oxygen by applying a few drops of 10% glycerol in 95% ethanol and allowed to dry for 1–2 more days. The glycerol-coated specimens were then analyzed in ambient air with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation using a Philips X'Pert MPD diffractometer (PW3040/00) operated at 40 KVP and 50 mA. Continuous scans from 2 to 75° 2 $\theta$  were collected at a scan rate of about 2.4° 2 $\theta$  min<sup>-1</sup>. Successive scans, as well as scans taken after 24 h of exposure to ambient air, showed no change in the structural properties of the glycerol-coated specimens, verifying the protective effect of the glycerol film with respect to oxidation. The mean crystallite dimension was estimated using the Scherrer equation, after correction for instrumental broadening.

**Scanning Transmission X-ray Microscopy (STXM).** X-ray absorption measurements were done at the Advance Light Source (Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory) on beam line 11.0.2. For end station and beam line details, see <http://www-als.lbl.gov/als/microscopes/scope11.0.2.html>. All samples were prepared inside an anaerobic chamber (<0.1 ppm O<sub>2</sub>) by dipping carbon-coated TEM grids into dried powder

samples and mounting the grids onto aluminum sample holders. Transfer of these holders into the microscope resulted in short (<30 s) exposure of the sample to air. Details regarding the methods used for data acquisition and analysis have been described previously (45).

**Surface Area by Gas Adsorption.** BET (Brunauer–Emmett–Teller) surface areas were determined from N<sub>2</sub> physisorption with an RXM-100 advanced catalyst characterization system (ASDI, Inc), using the BJH (Barrett–Joyner–Halenda) and multi-point BET methods. Samples were loaded in an anaerobic chamber and evacuated at specified temperatures between 50 and 150 °C for 4 h before each measurement.

**Electrochemical Experiments.** Powder disk electrodes (PDEs) were prepared by pressing the powders into the electrode cavity (this compression was sufficient to hold most Fe powders in the cavity). Details of the design and application of these electrodes, including extensive validation and analysis of their response with Fe<sup>EL</sup>, has been reported previously (46). In this study, we used only high purity iron as the underlying disk material, to avoid any possibility of galvanic processes. Electrode potentials and currents were recorded with a potentiostat (Autolab PGSTAT30, EcoChemie, Utrecht, The Netherlands). Electrochemical experiments were performed using the methods, solutions, and electrodes described above in various permutations. All potentials are reported relative to a Ag/AgCl reference, and currents are reported in accord with IUPAC convention (anodic currents are positive and cathodic currents are negative). All polarization experiments were done at a scan rate of 0.1 mV/s, which should give approximately steady-state conditions at the working electrode (47).

**Batch Experiments (Benzoquinone).** Benzoquinone (BQ) batch experiments were performed in an anaerobic chamber with a 3.4% H<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. Particle samples (flash-dried Fe<sup>BH</sup>, flash-dried Fe<sup>H2</sup>, and as-received Fe<sup>EL</sup>) were weighed into 40-mL amber reaction vials and suspended in 20.0 mL of deoxygenated, deionized water. After ≥ 4 h exposure, 5.0 mL of BQ stock solution was added to each of the reaction vials (final concentration = 0.2–2 mM). The vials were sealed and removed from the anaerobic chamber and placed on a shaker table (200 rpm). Periodically, vials were moved back into the anaerobic chamber and sampled for analysis by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). HPLC was done with a Sorbax C18 StableBond column (at 30 °C), 40 mM aqueous acetate buffer (pH 5) and ~35% acetonitrile, with a UV-absorbance detector at  $\lambda$  = 235 nm.

**Batch Experiments (Carbon Tetrachloride).** Three complementary procedures were used for the batch experiments with carbon tetrachloride (CT). The first was optimized for routine determination of CT disappearance kinetics and the yield of chloroform (CF); the second gave full time-series data on all products and, therefore, mass balance but was only done for a few samples of Fe<sup>0</sup>; and the third gave the yield of all products and mass balance readily but without the time-series data needed for full kinetic analysis.

For the first and second procedures, experiments were performed in well-mixed, 120-mL, zero-headspace reactors. Target quantities of Fe<sup>0</sup> (3.00 g Fe<sup>EL</sup>, 0.15 or 0.30 g Fe<sup>H2</sup>, and 0.15 or 0.30 g Fe<sup>BH</sup>) were selected to give roughly equal surface areas (~6 m<sup>2</sup> L<sup>-1</sup>). The Fe<sup>0</sup> was exposed to deoxygenated, deionized water or buffer for 24 h, and then CT-saturated deoxygenated water was added to give an initial CT concentration (C<sub>0</sub>) of 4.0  $\mu$ M for the first procedure and 862  $\mu$ M for the second procedure. During reaction, vials were covered with foil to exclude light, and they were mixed on a rotary shaker at 24 rpm at room temperature (~22 °C). Samples were taken periodically and analyzed for CT, CF, HCOO<sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>. Controls were prepared without Fe<sup>0</sup> (for leakage of

**TABLE 2. Summary of Physical Properties**

name	sample history	mean particle size from TEM (nm)	shell thickness (nm)	TEM structure	XRD (grain size nm)	XPS	STXM
Fe <sup>H2</sup>	as-received	~38 Fe <sup>0</sup> >60 nm Fe-Ox plates	~3.4 FeOx	"large" plates (oxide) and smaller Fe <sup>0</sup> irregularly shaped particles with crystalline oxide shell	Fe <sup>0</sup> (~30) FeOx (~60)	Fe <sup>0</sup> + Fe <sup>3+</sup>	Fe <sup>0</sup> + FeOx
Fe <sup>H2</sup>	flash-dried	~44 Fe <sup>0</sup>		as above with more large plates		less Fe <sup>0</sup>	
Fe <sup>BH</sup>	as-received	~59 size range (20–100)	~2.3	three levels of structure: (i) small crystallites < 1.5 nm (ii) 20–100 nm spherical aggregates with an amorphous coating (iii) chains of 20–100 nm particles	mostly Fe <sup>0</sup> (<1.5)	Fe <sup>0</sup> + Fe <sup>3+</sup> + B and Na	mostly Fe <sup>0</sup>
Fe <sup>BH</sup>	flash-dried	~67 size range (20–100)	~3.2	as above with thicker coating		less Fe <sup>0</sup> + B and Na	

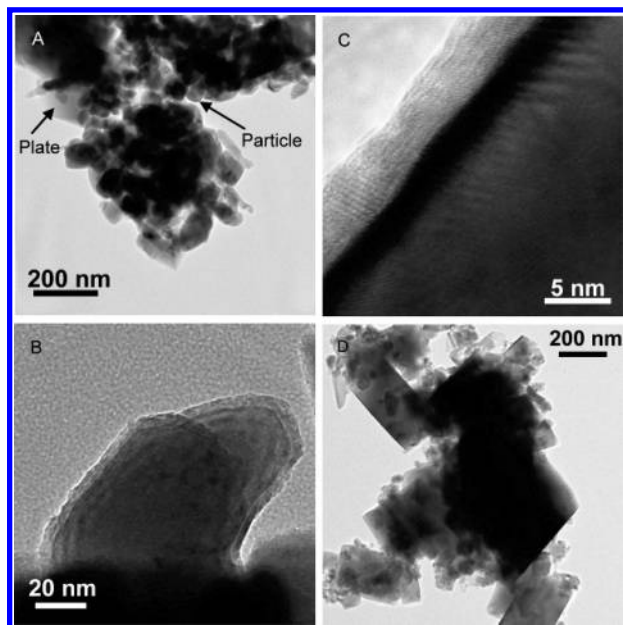
CT or volatile products) and without CT (for leaching of HCOO<sup>-</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup>). Concentrations of CT and CF were measured by gas chromatography with a headspace autosampler, DB-624 column, and electron capture detector. Chloride was analyzed using ion chromatography, using an Allsep Anion A2 column with carbonate-based eluant. Formate was analyzed with an assay based on photoluminescence, as described elsewhere (48). Methane and carbon monoxide were detected by headspace analysis using gas chromatography with thermal conductivity detection with a GS-GASPRO capillary column operated at -80 °C.

For the third procedure, experiments were performed in 12-mL headspace reactors. Target quantities of each sample (10 mg) were exposed to deoxygenated deionized water overnight. Then, CT-saturated deoxygenated water was added (giving initial concentrations of 2.4 mM CT and 0.2 g L<sup>-1</sup> Fe<sup>0</sup>), the vials were crimp-sealed with Teflon-lined septa, and the sealed vials were gently agitated in the dark using a mechanical shaker until analysis. Concentrations of chlorinated methane species were analyzed by gas chromatography with a DB-1 column and a mass spectrometric detector. Analysis for non-chlorinated gas species was performed with gas chromatography using thermal conductivity detection (TCD).

**Results and Discussion**

**Structure and Composition.** Particle shape, size, and composition are important properties that affect the chemical and physical properties of nanoparticles. To provide primary characterization of these properties, XRD, TEM, and XPS measurements were made on specimens of Fe<sup>H2</sup> and Fe<sup>BH</sup>, as received and after flash-drying. In addition, STXM and BET measurements were made on selected samples. The results of these analyses are summarized in Table 2.

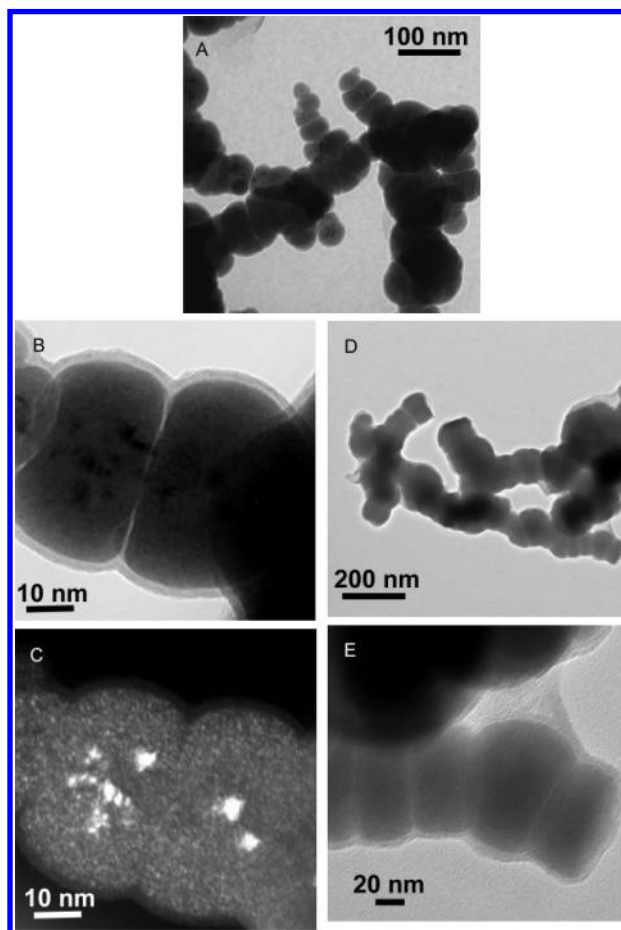
XRD on the as-received Fe<sup>H2</sup> showed two phases, α-Fe<sup>0</sup> and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, with the proportion of metal and oxide ranging from 70 to 30% metal (and from 30 to 70% oxide). The proportions of α-Fe<sup>0</sup> and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> agree well with the manufacturer's description of this product (35). The mean crystallite dimension (from the Scherrer equation) for the metal grains was ~30 nm while that for the oxide was ~60 nm. In contrast, Fe<sup>BH</sup> yielded very broad peaks for α-Fe<sup>0</sup> with mean crystallite dimensions <1.5 nm. The non-Lorentzian shape of these peaks (Supporting Information, Figure S1) suggests a distribution of crystallite dimensions. In addition to the much smaller crystallite size, the XRD patterns for Fe<sup>BH</sup> differ from those for Fe<sup>H2</sup> by having no reflections for oxide phases. Flash-drying had essentially no effect on the XRD patterns for both Fe<sup>H2</sup> and Fe<sup>BH</sup>.



**FIGURE 1. TEMs of Fe<sup>H2</sup>. (A) Low magnification image of as-received sample. (B) Higher resolution image of irregularly shaped metal particle. (C) Higher resolution image of oxide shell around metal particle. (D) Low resolution image of flash-dried sample.**

The TEM data (Figure 1A) show that as-received Fe<sup>H2</sup> is composed of aggregates of faceted plates and smaller irregular particles. The plates—which appear to be oxide—are usually larger than the particles and vary in size and quantity. The small irregularly shaped particles consist of a nearly single-crystal Fe<sup>0</sup> core with a polycrystalline oxide shell, as shown in Figure 1B,C. Flash-dried Fe<sup>H2</sup> is similar, except that more large oxide plates are shown in Figure 1D (however, this difference could be due to sampling bias).

The TEM images of the three batches of Fe<sup>BH</sup> appear similar to one another (Figure 2). The material is comprised of <1.5 nm crystals that are aggregated into approximately spherical 20–100 nm diameter particles, and these particles are further aggregated into the chains shown in Figure 2A. Electron diffraction from the particle cores indicates that the cores are made up of either very small grains or are amorphous. For several particles, however, small discrete spots are visible on the diffraction patterns, which indicate crystalline material (Figure 2B,C). Dark-field imaging (Figure 2C) of these particles clearly reveals crystallites that are only a few nanometers in size. This is consistent with the average crystallite size of <1.5 nm measured from diffraction peak broadening in the



**FIGURE 2.** TEMs of Fe<sup>BH</sup>. (A) Low magnification image of as-received sample. (B) Higher resolution image of metal particle. (C) Dark field image of metal particle highlighting small metal crystallites in particle. (D) Low resolution image of flash-dried sample. (E) Higher resolution image of flash-dried sample showing spreading of coating layer between particles.

XRD data. The spherical particles appear to be coated with a shell of apparently amorphous material, which partially decomposed after 1 min under the 200 V electron beam of the TEM (Supporting Information, Figure S2). Flash-dried Fe<sup>BH</sup> is similar to as-received Fe<sup>BH</sup>, except for variations in the distribution of the material coating the particles (Figure 2D,E).

The TEM images were used to determine particle size (Supporting Information, Figure S3), from which specific surface areas ( $\rho_a$ , m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) were calculated assuming that the particles have spherical geometry and density equal to that of Fe<sup>0</sup> (7.68 g cm<sup>-3</sup>). For Fe<sup>H2</sup>, the average particle size was 38 nm as received and 45 nm after flash-drying. Calculating  $\rho_a$  for each particle and averaging gives 25 and 33 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. However, because the particle size distributions are skewed by a small number of large particles (they appear to be log-normally distributed, Figure S3), smaller estimates of  $\rho_a$  (11 and 3.5 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) are obtained by dividing the total surface area of the particles by their (calculated) mass. This procedure is comparable to the property that is measured by BET gas adsorption, and the value of  $\rho_a$  calculated from total surface area agrees well with the value we measured for flash-dried Fe<sup>H2</sup> by BET (3 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>). The calculated values of  $\rho_a$  are inversely proportional to the assumed density of the particles, so using the average density of magnetite and Fe<sup>0</sup> ( $\approx 6.7$  g cm<sup>-3</sup>) would increase the estimated values of  $\rho_a$  by 14%. Overall, our values are consistent with the low end of the range of BET-determined

**TABLE 3.** Particle Surface Compositions Determined by XPS<sup>a</sup>

	Fe/O	Fe	O	B	Na	S	Ca
		Fe <sup>H2</sup>					
as-received (fresh)	1.15	50.9	44.2	0.0	3.0	1.9	0.0
air-exposed	0.89	45.7	51.5	0.0	1.7	1.1	0.0
as-received (aged)	0.72	37.9	52.3	0.0	8.1	1.3	0.4
flash-dried	0.85	45.0	52.9	0.0	0.7	0.9	0.5
		Fe <sup>BH</sup>					
as-received (fresh)	0.41	20.0	49.1	16.0	14.5	0.5	0.0
air-exposed	0.40	23.5	59.2	12.0	4.8	0.5	0.0
as-received (aged)	0.56	29.2	52.4	16.2	2.2	0.0	0.0
flash-dried	0.55	30.8	56.4	12.3	0.5	0.0	0.0

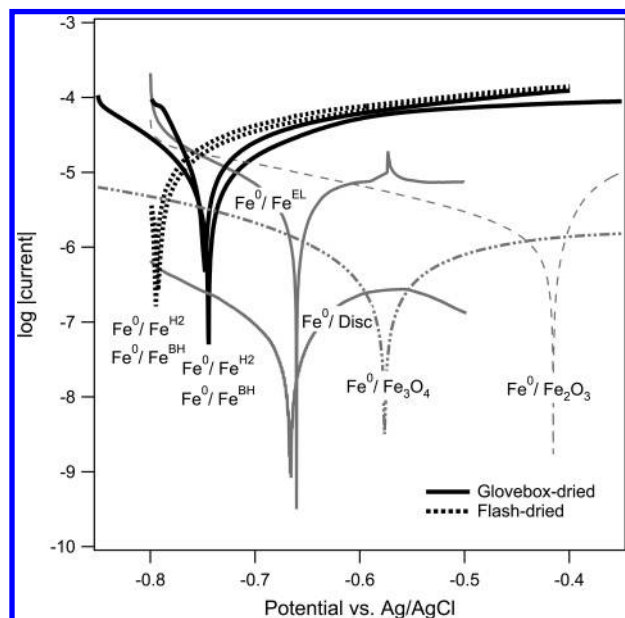
<sup>a</sup> In atomic %.

$\rho_a$  values given by the manufacturer of Fe<sup>H2</sup> (4–60 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>; 35).

For Fe<sup>BH</sup>, the TEM data gave average particles sizes of 59 and 67 nm, for the as-received and flash-dried samples, respectively (Figure S3). Calculating  $\rho_a$  for each measured particle and averaging gives 19 and 14 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>; whereas, dividing the total surface area of the particles by their mass gives  $\rho_a = 7$  and 8.5 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>. The latter value agrees well with the value of  $\rho_a$  that we measured for flash-dried Fe<sup>BH</sup> by BET gas adsorption (5 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>). Even if a particle density closer to that of magnetite is assumed in the calculations, our estimates of  $\rho_a$  for Fe<sup>BH</sup> are lower than the BET-determined values that have been reported previously for this material (33.5–35 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>; 5, 8).

XPS showed that the Fe<sup>H2</sup> surfaces are made up of mostly Fe and O with small amounts of S, Na, and Ca (Table 3). The presence of sulfur is expected due to the use of FeSO<sub>4</sub> as a precursor in the synthesis of this product, and the manufacturer claims that reduced S plays an important role its reactivity (35). The Fe/O ratio observed by XPS varied from 0.72 to 1.15, which is consistent with a mixture of metallic iron and iron oxide (cf., the Fe/O ratio for Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which would be  $\sim 0.67$ ). In contrast to the composition of Fe<sup>H2</sup>, Fe<sup>BH</sup> contains significantly less Fe and S, more B, and the Fe/O ratio varies from 0.4 to 0.55. The relative amounts of Fe, O, B and Na appear to be consistent with the presence of a metal core, a thin iron oxide layer, and an outer layer that is predominantly a sodium borate phase. The XPS spectra of the as-received samples of Fe<sup>BH</sup> suggest mostly oxidized B (borate) with some reduced B (boride), as might be expected based on previous work showing that iron borides can be formed from reduction of aqueous Fe<sup>2+</sup> with borohydride (49). In the air-exposed and flash-dried samples, the surface contained less Na than B, but the data are still consistent with a borate component in the shell. Most of the B we see is located in the surface layer of the particles, as has been observed previously (50); however, others have described Fe<sup>BH</sup> type particles as doped with B (9), and our measurements do not exclude that possibility.

The Fe 2p XPS data give Fe<sup>0</sup> and iron oxide peaks for Fe<sup>H2</sup> and Fe<sup>BH</sup> (Supporting Information, Figure S4). We have not attempted to quantify the ratios of Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Fe<sup>3+</sup> from these spectra, but it is evident from the data presented in Table 3 that the ratio of Fe<sup>0</sup> to oxide signal varies with the sample type and history. Because XPS is sensitive to the outer 3–5 nm of the particles, the presence of a peak for Fe<sup>0</sup> confirms that the shell is less than a few nanometers thick. Exposure of the nanoparticles to air caused the Fe<sup>0</sup> peak in the XPS spectra to decrease or disappear. Flash-drying decreased the Fe<sup>0</sup> to oxide signal strength, but Fe<sup>0</sup> was always present. It may prove to be significant that the S on the Fe<sup>BH</sup> is in an oxidized form while the S on the Fe<sup>H2</sup> appears to be in a reduced form.



**FIGURE 3.** Log absolute current vs potential plot from anodic polarization of stationary powder disk electrodes packed with various iron and iron oxide powders. At scan rate = 0.1 mV/s in anoxic aqueous borate (pH 8.4).

STXM was used to measure the L-edge X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) to give spatially resolved chemical state information on the Fe absorbers in the samples. The spectral information obtained by this method is particularly sensitive to oxidation states because of the strong dipole-allowed L-edge  $2p \rightarrow 3d$  electronic transition. The XANES data (Supporting Information, Figure S5) show that  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$  is similar to the  $\text{Fe}^0$  standard, with little oxide peak area (which would appear at slightly higher energy), whereas the XANES for  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  has broader peaks that suggest iron oxide as well as  $\text{Fe}^0$ . In addition, the area-to-area variation of the XANES was greater for  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  than for  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$ , which is consistent with the XRD and TEM data (Table 2), confirming that there are separate metal and oxide iron phases in the  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  material.

**Electrochemical Properties.** During preliminary testing of the reproducibility of anodic polarization voltammograms obtained with our powder disk electrodes (PDEs), we found that  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  that had been allowed to dry under our glovebox atmosphere gave currents that declined steadily over a period of 14 days (Figure S6). However, flash-dried  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  gave anodic polarization voltammograms that were reproducible over 20 days (Figure S7), so all further electrochemical characterizations were performed with PDEs made from flash-dried powders. Even with flash-dried  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$ , consecutive voltammograms obtained with the same PDE showed a decreasing current response. To determine if this behavior is due to passivation by reaction with the electrolyte or potential driven transformation of the electrode material, we exposed the PDE packed with  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  to borate solution (pH 8.4) for various amounts of time before recording the anodic polarization voltammogram. After 1 h of exposure in borate, the current response decreased, indicating that the loss of electrochemical response was due to solution driven passivation (Figure S8). Since solution driven passivation cannot be overcome in our system, all further polarization experiments were initiated immediately after the electrode was put in solution.

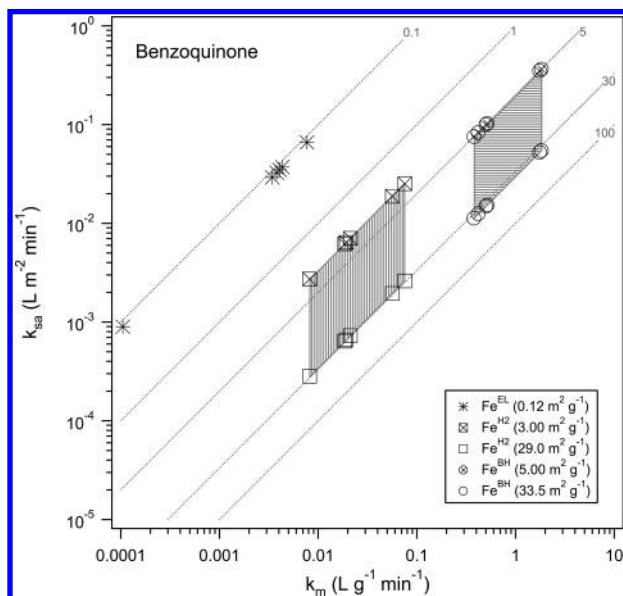
All of the above experiments provide a baseline from which we can interpret and compare the electrochemical results of the nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  materials. Figure 3 shows the anodic polarization voltammograms obtained with PDEs of the nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  materials, several powder iron oxides, and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{EL}}$ . For reference, data obtained with a polished disk  $\text{Fe}^0$  electrode are also

included in the figure. As expected, the conventional  $\text{Fe}^0$  disk electrode and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{EL}}$  PDE gave anodic polarization voltammograms that reflect the transition from the active to passive state of iron as the potential becomes more anodic, which is typical for  $\text{Fe}^0$  in borate buffer (51–54). A prominent feature of the log current vs potential plot for these electrodes is the singularities where net current is zero (i.e., the corrosion potential;  $E_{\text{corr}}$ ). The conventional  $\text{Fe}^0$  disk and the  $\text{Fe}^{\text{EL}}$  PDE give  $E_{\text{corr}}$  values that are very similar to each other and also to the literature value for  $\text{Fe}^0$  in borate (51–54). The anodic polarization voltammograms for  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  PDE's give  $E_{\text{corr}}$  values more anodic than the  $\text{Fe}^0$  disk and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{EL}}$  PDE. This is not surprising, given that  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  is a mixed oxide containing  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  and that  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  contains only  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ . Thus, it appears that our experimental design is sensitive to the oxidation state of the iron used in the fabrication of the working electrode in that the material with the most oxidized iron gives the most anodic  $E_{\text{corr}}$  relative to  $\text{Fe}^0$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{EL}}$ .

Figure 3 also shows two sets of anodic polarization voltammograms for the two nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  materials ( $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$ ). The solid lines represent  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$  after they were dried in the anaerobic chamber. The most striking difference is that the  $E_{\text{corr}}$  values for both materials are shifted cathodically relative to the  $E_{\text{corr}}$  of  $\text{Fe}^0$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{EL}}$ . Recall, from experiments mentioned above that  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  dried in the anaerobic chamber gave decreasing current response; therefore, more stable and representative results are expected with flash-dried material. The  $E_{\text{corr}}$  values for flash-dried  $\text{Fe}^{\text{H2}}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{BH}}$  are shifted even more cathodically relative to the  $\text{Fe}^0$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{EL}}$  electrodes (Figure 3). The shift in  $E_{\text{corr}}$  must reflect disproportionate changes in the kinetics of the coupled half-reactions that determine  $E_{\text{corr}}$  in this system: anodic dissolution of  $\text{Fe}^0$  and the reduction of water. Exactly how electrode material (i.e., conventional  $\text{Fe}^0$  disk vs our nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  PDE) affects the kinetics of these half-reactions is still under investigation, but it is likely to involve the high surface areas of the nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  powders, which often have large surface concentrations of edges, corners, and other defect sites.

**Batch Results.** Two model contaminants were used as probe compounds to investigate the reactivity of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  with solutes: benzoquinone (BQ) and carbon tetrachloride (CT). BQ was chosen because it is a well-established probe for the reactivity of iron oxides (55, 56), and CT has been used in many detailed studies of the reactivity of iron and iron oxides (e.g., refs 57–64). BQ is likely to form comparatively strong inner-sphere complexes on iron and iron oxides (at pH > 7, as is relevant to this study; 56), whereas CT is believed to form weak and outer-sphere complexes with oxide-coated iron (65). BQ is labile to reduction by electron transfer (ET) and hydrogen atom transfer (HT), and both pathways will produce mainly hydroquinone (HQ). In contrast, while CT is believed to react mainly by ET in systems containing  $\text{Fe}^0$  (66, 67), branching among two pathways of ET produces diagnostic products: chloroform (CF) for the “1-electron pathway” and methane, carbon monoxide, or formate for the “2-electron pathway” (58, 61, 68). Since the latter are the preferred products—from the perspective of remediation—any nano-size effect on branching between these two reaction pathways is of practical as well as fundamental interest.

For BQ, pseudo-first-order disappearance rate constants were obtained from the concentration versus time data (not shown), and the results were used to calculate mass normalized rate constants ( $k_{\text{M}}$ ,  $\text{L g}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$ ). Assuming a range of  $\rho_{\text{a}}$  for each type of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$ , we calculated surface area-normalized rate constants ( $k_{\text{SA}}$ ,  $\text{L m}^{-2} \text{min}^{-1}$ ) for each value of  $k_{\text{M}}$ . The results are summarized in Figure 4, which allows comparisons between types of iron, over ranges of  $\rho_{\text{a}}$  (note that changes in assumed  $\rho_{\text{a}}$  causes points to move vertically

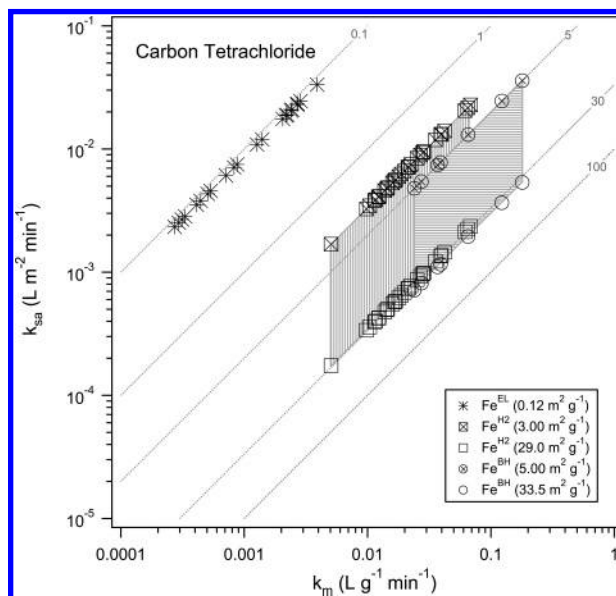


**FIGURE 4.** Surface area normalized rate constants ( $k_{SA}$ ) vs mass load-normalized rate constants ( $k_M$ ), for disappearance of benzoquinone (BQ) in batch experiments. Diagonal lines are contours for representative values of  $\rho_a$  ( $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ ). For both types of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$ ,  $k_{SA}$  is shown for high and low  $\rho_a$  values (given in the legend). High values of  $\rho_a$  are from Table 1. Low values or  $\rho_a$  are BET measurements from this study. The resulting ranges of rate constants are shaded.

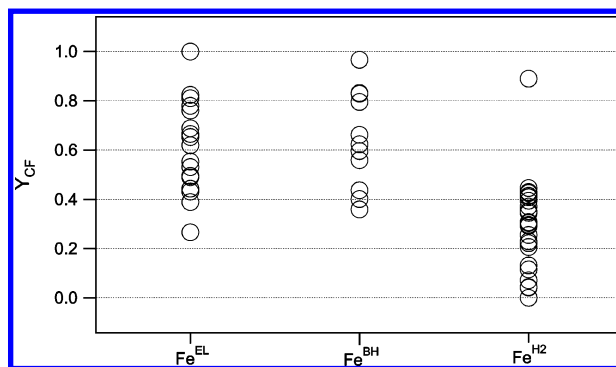
on the plot) and variations in experimental conditions for a particular type of iron (initial  $C_0$  values, pH, mixing rate, etc., which cause the data to distribute diagonally along the contour for the assumed value of  $\rho_a$ ). For the whole range of conditions tested, the trend in  $k_M$  is  $\text{Fe}^{EL} < \text{Fe}^{H2} < \text{Fe}^{BH}$ . With respect to  $k_{SA}$ , the data in Figure 4 show that  $\text{Fe}^{EL} \approx \text{Fe}^{H2} < \text{Fe}^{BH}$  for the whole range of plausible values of  $\rho_a$ . The greater reactivity of  $\text{Fe}^{BH}$  (vs  $\text{Fe}^{H2}$ ) with BQ is consistent with the more metallic composition of  $\text{Fe}^{BH}$ , but the role of other factors (e.g., the B-rich shell material and very small crystallite size) is unknown. The products formed from BQ were the same for all three types of iron: HQ was the only identified product, and it gave mass balance with respect to the amount of BQ reacted.

Figure S9 shows TEM micrographs of flash-dried  $\text{Fe}^{BH}$  (A and B) and  $\text{Fe}^{H2}$  (C and D) after reaction with BQ. The lower magnification images (A and C) demonstrate that some particles appear unaltered even after substantial reaction with BQ (cf., Figures 1-2). Of particular note is that the thickness of the coating on the  $\text{Fe}^{BH}$  particles appears similar to what was observed before reaction, and none of the unreacted particles show “disrupted” shells. It is likely that the microstructure of the B-rich shell material plays a key role in the relative reactivity of  $\text{Fe}^{BH}$ . Higher-resolution images (Figure S9B,D) demonstrate that the solid-state reaction products are nanocrystalline and appear to be well-separated from the parent particles, which suggests that the products are formed by oxidative dissolution followed by precipitation. Lattice fringe measurements and diffraction patterns show that the main product is maghemite/magnetite (with some goethite, in the case of  $\text{Fe}^{BH}$ ).

The kinetic data obtained with CT show somewhat different trends than were obtained with BQ. Figure 5 shows  $k_{SA}$  versus  $k_M$  for CT, calculated with the same ranges of  $\rho_a$  that were used for Figure 4. Clearly,  $k_M$  for reduction of CT is larger with nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  than micro- $\text{Fe}^0$  ( $\text{Fe}^{EL} < \text{Fe}^{H2} \approx \text{Fe}^{BH}$ ). The relative values of  $k_{SA}$  vary, however, depending on the assumed values of  $\rho_a$ . For high  $\rho_a$ , it appears that  $\text{Fe}^{EL} > \text{Fe}^{H2} \approx \text{Fe}^{BH}$ ; but for low  $\rho_a$ ,  $\text{Fe}^{EL} \approx \text{Fe}^{H2} \approx \text{Fe}^{BH}$ . Thus, given the difficulties in determining accurate (and relevant) values of



**FIGURE 5.** Surface area-normalized rate constants vs mass load-normalized rate constants for the disappearance of carbon tetrachloride (CT). Diagonal lines are contours for representative values of  $\rho_a$  ( $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ ). For both types of nano- $\text{Fe}^0$ ,  $k_{SA}$  is shown for high and low  $\rho_a$  values (given in the legend). High values of  $\rho_a$  are from Table 1. Low values or  $\rho_a$  are BET measurements from this study. The resulting ranges of rate constants are shaded.



**FIGURE 6.** Yield of chloroform ( $Y_{CF}$ ) vs iron type ( $\text{Fe}^{EL}$ ,  $\text{Fe}^{BH}$ ,  $\text{Fe}^{H2}$ ). The range of  $Y_{CF}$  for each iron type reflects the wide range of experimental conditions tested (pH, buffer, age and handling of iron, etc.).

$\rho_a$  for nano- $\text{Fe}^0$ , it is unclear whether there is a nano-size effect on the surface area-normalized rate constants for reduction of CT. This conclusion holds over the whole range of experimental conditions tested (initial CT concentration, buffer type, pH, and sample handling), the effects of which are represented by the range of data along the contours in Figure 5. The conclusion that nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  may not be more reactive than micro- $\text{Fe}^0$  on a surface area normalized basis does not necessarily contradict prior claims that nano- $\text{Fe}^0$  is more reactive than micro- $\text{Fe}^0$  on a per mass basis. It does, however, demonstrate the importance of clearly defining the basis of comparison. Of course, if mass transport (across the stagnant boundary layer or some passivating surface layer) were rate limiting under the conditions of the batch experiments performed in this study, this could mask differences in the intrinsic reactivity of surface sites. We do not think mass transport effects are significant in this study because we observed no change in  $k_{SA}$  with rpm  $> 15$  (data not shown); however, subtle mass transport effects might be revealed by further study with more sensitive methods (63, 69).

Figure 6 shows the yield of CF ( $Y_{CF}$ )—one measure of the branching between the one- and two-electron pathways for

**TABLE 4. Mass Balance Data for CT and Products<sup>a</sup>**

particle prep.	CCl <sub>4</sub>	CHCl <sub>3</sub>	CH <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub>	unknown
		Fe <sup>HL</sup>		
as-received	54.2	21.7	0.0	24.1
flash-dried	58.3	18.4	0.0	23.3
		Fe <sup>BH</sup>		
as-received	28.8	34.8	0.7	36.7
flash-dried	15.8	39.3	2.4	42.5

<sup>a</sup> % of initial CT concentration (2.4 mM) at *t* = 27 h.

reduction of CT—for the same experiments included in Figure 5. In general, the values of *Y*<sub>CF</sub> are >0.4 for Fe<sup>EL</sup> and Fe<sup>BH</sup> but are <0.4 for Fe<sup>HL</sup>. It is not yet clear why Fe<sup>HL</sup> gives such a low, and favorable, *Y*<sub>CF</sub>, but this result is likely to be due to (i) the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> shell on Fe<sup>HL</sup>, (ii) the reduced S on the surface of Fe<sup>HL</sup>, and/or (iii) the B associated with Fe<sup>BH</sup>. The first possibility is supported by the low values of *Y*<sub>CF</sub> that have been reported for suspensions of nano-sized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (61). Previous studies of CT reduction by FeS (70), showed that CF was a major product, with CS<sub>2</sub> being a notable minor product, neither of which were observed in this study with Fe<sup>HL</sup>. In Figure 6, as in Figure 5, the range of results for each type of Fe<sup>0</sup> reflects the effects of buffer type, pH, and sample handling, which helps to establish the significance of the difference between *Y*<sub>CF</sub> for Fe<sup>HL</sup> relative to the two other types of Fe<sup>0</sup>.

To determine what products other than CF were formed, it was necessary to perform batch experiments at high initial CT concentration (0.86–2.4 mM) with a variety of analytical methods, as appropriate for the range of anticipated products. Typical results from headspace GC/MS, shown in Table 4, suggest that CF was the major product for Fe<sup>HL</sup> and Fe<sup>BH</sup>, that CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> is a minor product, and that a significant portion of the CT reacted to undetermined products. Although not reflected in Table 4, GC/TCD analysis of these samples also showed trace quantities of CH<sub>4</sub> (<0.1 vol %) in the Fe<sup>BH</sup> samples, whereas no CH<sub>4</sub> was detected in the Fe<sup>HL</sup> samples. No CS<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, or CO was detected in the headspace products of either material. Little difference was noted between the as-received and flash-dried samples. In other experiments (not shown), small amounts of formate (1–5 μM at C<sub>0</sub> = 4 μM, 5–11 μM at C<sub>0</sub> = 862 μM) were detected, but these quantities are not enough to close the mass balance for CT degraded. Recall that formate is produced through the “2-electron” pathway. These data indicate that at low C<sub>0</sub> values, the 2-electron pathway may be favored over the 1-electron pathway. We are still left with a large fraction of carbon that has not been detected, however, and further studies are ongoing to determine all of the products formed under these experimental conditions.

**Implications.** Data from this paper demonstrate that the two types of nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> used in this study are composed of particles with a core/shell structure and that the shells are composed of passivating or protective phases that impart stability to the particles in aqueous suspensions. For Fe<sup>HL</sup>, the shell is mainly iron oxide, whereas for Fe<sup>BH</sup> the shell is composed of iron and boron oxides. Flash-drying these materials—to remove water and solutes—generally had little effect on the properties studied, again suggesting passivation of the particles.

Despite their stability with respect to aqueous corrosion and other solvent-driven dissolution processes, both types of nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> react rapidly with BQ and CT. Although the rate constants for these reactions are large when normalized to iron mass, the surface area-normalized rate constants are similar for nano- and micro-sized Fe<sup>0</sup>. The apparent lack of an “intrinsic” nano-size effect may reflect the difficulty in defining or measuring the (relevant) specific surface area for

highly reactive materials whose properties change with time and environmental conditions. Nevertheless, our results suggest that the extraordinarily high contaminant degradation rates that have often been ascribed to nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> are mostly due to the large amount of surface area used in laboratory tests with these materials. In contrast, it appears that nano-Fe<sup>0</sup> can have a profound effect on the distribution of products formed from contaminant degradation. In particular, the low yield of chloroform from carbon tetrachloride that was obtained with Fe<sup>HL</sup> suggests the possibility of an effective new chemical technology for remediation of carbon tetrachloride contaminated groundwater.

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## Supporting Information Available

Additional data from X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), scanning transmission X-ray spectroscopy (STXM), and voltammetry. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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