

A Comprehensive Review of Nanoparticle Characterization Techniques

K. Sreelatha*, C. S. AnandaKumar¹, M. Saraswathi², P. Anusha³,
N. Madhuri Rose⁴, Deepthi Bhargava⁵

*.2,3,4 Dept of Physics, Ch. S.D St Theresa's College for women (A), Eluru, 534003, A.P
¹Dept of Physics, SVKP & Dr KS Raju Arts & Science College, Penugonda, 534320, A.P

Corresponding author: K. Sreelatha.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.52403/ijrr.20250124>

ABSTRACT

Synthesized nanoparticles have a significant impact on many aspects of daily life, driving innovations in a wide range of industries, from healthcare to electronics and energy. Their unique properties, including a high surface-area-to-volume ratio, enhanced chemical reactivity, and size-dependent characteristics, make them ideal for a variety of applications. Synthesized nanoparticles play an increasingly important role in our daily lives, transforming industries and improving the quality of life in many ways. From healthcare and environmental sustainability to electronics and food safety, the unique properties of nanoparticles offer solutions that are more efficient, sustainable, and effective. As nanotechnology continues to evolve, the potential for nanoparticles to shape our future and revolutionize everyday products is immense.

Keywords: Characterization of Synthesized Nanoparticles- Need, Methods

1. INTRODUCTION

The characterization of synthesized nanoparticles (NPs) is crucial in contemporary research for several reasons, primarily due to their unique properties and wide range of applications in fields such as medicine, electronics, energy, and materials

science. Nanoparticles often exhibit distinct behaviours compared to bulk materials, and accurate characterization ensures that their properties are well understood, optimized, and applied effectively.

Reasons why characterization is necessary:

a. To Understand the Properties of Nanoparticles

Nanoparticles have a high surface-area-to-volume ratio, which significantly influences their chemical, physical, and optical properties. For instance:

Size and Shape: The size and morphology of nanoparticles directly affect their reactivity, stability, and interaction with biological systems. Characterizing these properties allows researchers to correlate specific shapes and sizes with their performance in applications like drug delivery or catalytic reactions.

Surface Characteristics: The surface properties of nanoparticles, such as surface charge, roughness, and functional groups, dictate how they interact with their environment. For example, in drug delivery, surface functionalization can be critical for targeting specific tissues.

Optical Properties: NPs often display unique optical properties such as surface plasmon resonance, which are dependent on their size, shape, and composition. Characterizing these properties is essential

for applications in sensors, imaging, and photothermal therapies.

b. To Determine Structural Integrity

The structural characteristics of nanoparticles, including their crystalline structure and phase purity, influence their mechanical, electrical, and thermal properties. Characterization techniques like X-ray diffraction (XRD) and Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy provide insights into: The crystal structure and lattice arrangement (e.g., face-centered cubic, hexagonal close-packed). The chemical bonding and functional groups present on the nanoparticle surface. phase transitions during the synthesis process that could impact the material's final properties.

c. For Optimization of Synthesis Methods

The synthesis method of nanoparticles (e.g., sol-gel, chemical vapor deposition, biological synthesis) can significantly influence their final properties. Characterization helps: Optimize the synthesis conditions by correlating material properties with synthesis parameters such as temperature, pH, precursor concentration, and reaction time - Identify unwanted by-products or impurities that may form during synthesis, leading to suboptimal performance of the nanoparticles.

d. For Ensuring Consistency and Reproducibility

Consistency and reproducibility are essential for the reliable application of nanoparticles. Characterization ensures that synthesized nanoparticles meet the desired specifications in terms of size, shape, composition, and performance. Without characterization, batch-to-batch variations may lead to inconsistent results, especially in fields like nanomedicine, where uniformity is crucial for safety and efficacy.

e. For Assessing the Biological Interactions

Nanoparticles are increasingly being used in biomedical applications, such as drug delivery, diagnostics, and imaging. It is crucial to understand how nanoparticles interact with biological systems, including:

Toxicity: Characterizing the biocompatibility of nanoparticles helps ensure they are safe for use in medical applications.

Cellular Uptake and Distribution: Nanoparticles need to be characterized to understand how they are taken up by cells, their distribution in tissues, and their ability to target specific cells or organs.

Stability in Biological Fluids: The stability of nanoparticles in physiological conditions is vital to ensure their effective use in drug delivery. Surface functionalization, which can be evaluated by FTIR or XPS (X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy), is often employed to improve stability and target specific cells.

f. For Determining the Functionalization and Modification of Nanoparticles

Functionalization involves attaching specific molecules or ligands to the surface of nanoparticles to enhance their performance for targeted applications. For example, FTIR spectroscopy or XPS can be used to:

Confirm the presence and type of functional groups on the surface.

Assess the success of attaching specific biomolecules or polymers to the nanoparticle surface study the interactions between nanoparticles and these attached molecules to optimize their performance in specific applications.

g. For Monitoring Environmental and Stability Changes

Nanoparticles may undergo changes in their properties over time due to environmental factors such as temperature, light, or chemical exposure. Characterization techniques help to: Monitor changes in nanoparticle size, morphology, and surface charge in different environments. Assess the long-term stability of nanoparticles to ensure their effectiveness in applications such as drug delivery systems or sensors.

h. To Compliance with Regulatory Standards

As nanoparticles are increasingly used in consumer products, medicine, and other regulated sectors, it is important to

demonstrate their safety and efficacy. Characterization plays a crucial role in meeting regulatory standards, ensuring that nanoparticles are consistently produced with the desired properties and without harmful side effects.

i. To Tailor Nanoparticles for Specific Applications

The versatility of nanoparticles is one of their greatest advantages, as they can be engineered for specific functions. For example, superparamagnetic nanoparticles can be used in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), while quantum dots are used in fluorescence imaging. Characterization allows researchers to - Tailor the size, shape, and surface properties of nanoparticles to optimize their function for particular applications - Ensure that the nanoparticles are able to perform their intended tasks effectively, whether in diagnostics, environmental remediation, or energy storage.

The development of nanoscale materials has significantly advanced over the past decade, with a notable increase in the diversity and quantity of these materials. This progress necessitates the establishment of more precise and reliable protocols for their characterization and monitoring during formation. It is essential to address the unique challenges of analysing nanomaterials and to compare them with their bulk counterparts [1. Grieger et al., 2012]. A comprehensive evaluation of nanoparticles (NPs) requires a multidimensional approach, integrating complementary strategies to achieve more accurate insights. As nanoscience continues to evolve, researchers recognize the differences in characterization techniques when applied to nanoscale materials compared to traditional bulk materials [2. Wang et al., 2013]. Despite careful consideration of various factors, two critical parameters in NP analysis are size and shape. Additional properties, such as distribution, aggregation level, surface charge, surface area, and surface phenomena, also play a crucial role in

determining the behaviour and applications of nanoparticles [3. Otero et al., 2017]. Moreover, factors like size distribution and the presence of natural ligands on the nanoparticle surface can influence their properties and potential applications. Before proceeding with further characterization or application, the crystal structure and chemical composition of nanoparticles must undergo thorough investigation as an essential initial step after synthesis [4. Sharma et al., 2019].

2. METHODS OF CHARACTERIZATION

The synthesized nanoparticles (NPs) are evaluated and confirmed based on their average crystalline size, morphology, and surface charge using techniques such as powder X-ray diffractometry (XRD), photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy, ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-Vis/DRS), field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM), and energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis. Characterization and analysis of NPs are fundamentally assessed through molecular size distribution and surface morphology. In modern times, electron microscopy has made it possible to determine both the morphology and the size of NPs with precision. [5. Harte et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2019].

a. Thermal Analysis

Numerous studies emphasize the significance of examining the thermal properties of nanoparticles (NPs). Thermal analysis involves heating the synthesized samples to varying temperatures to determine their stability and identify the appropriate calcination temperature for the synthesized NPs [6. Anandjiwala et al., 2007].

b. X-Ray Diffraction

X-ray diffraction (XRD) is a widely recognized analytical technique used to investigate crystal structures, identify compounds, assess the degree of

crystallinity, quantify chemical species, analyse particle sizes, and detect isomorphous substitutions, among other applications. When X-ray radiation interacts with a material, it produces diffraction patterns that reveal the physicochemical characteristics of the crystal structure. In powdered samples, these diffracted patterns primarily originate from the material itself, reflecting its intrinsic physical and chemical properties.

XRD is highly versatile and can be employed to examine a wide range of materials, including biomolecules, inorganic catalysts, polymers, superconductors, and glasses [7. Nyoman Rupiasih et al., 2013; Santhoshkumar et al., 2011]. It is a standard method for determining and analysing the crystallographic structures and morphologies of nanomaterials. Variations in signal intensity are related to the composition and number of constituents in the sample. XRD instruments collect scattered signal intensities to generate diffraction patterns, typically displayed as signal intensity versus phase angle.

These patterns are crucial for accurately calibrating the crystalline structure of a material, including its orientation and phase angles, allowing for precise analysis and interpretation. Phase identification is often conducted using the reference records from the Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS). A significant advantage of XRD is its non-destructive nature, enabling detailed analysis without damaging the material under investigation [8. Saba, 2014].

c. Scanning Electron Microscopy with Field Emission

The Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM) is a specialized type of electron microscope that captures detailed images of a sample's surface by scanning it with a high-energy beam of electrons in a raster pattern. The interaction of electrons (e^-) with the sample's surface generates signals containing information about the surface's topography,

composition, and additional properties such as conductivity [9. Belcher et al., 2004]. These signals include backscattered electrons, cathodoluminescence, secondary electrons (SE), specimen current, and transmitted electrons, with SE imaging being the most commonly used detection mode. The smaller spot size of a field-emission SEM compared to conventional SEMs enables the production of exceptionally high-resolution images, revealing fine details in the range of 1–5 nm [10. Valenzuela-Muñiz et al., 2014]. Electron microscopes utilize a beam of highly energetic electrons to analyze materials on a microscopic scale, making FESEM an indispensable tool for detailed surface imaging in nanoscience [11. Wang, 2000]. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) is commonly employed to determine the dimensions and shapes of synthesized nanoparticles (NPs). It produces high-resolution images of a sample's surface [12. Umer et al., 2012]. Unlike a light microscope, which measures scattered photons, an SEM functions by detecting electrons scattered by the sample, providing a distinct approach to detailed material analysis.

d. UV-Vis Spectroscopy Characterization

Absorption spectroscopy is a technique used to analyze the intensity of solutions. In this process, a beam of light is passed through the sample solution, and the detected amount of light is measured [13. Raj & Trivedi, 2020]. Particles typically absorb either UV or visible light. The absorbance of UV-Vis light occurs due to the excitation of outer electrons (e^-) from the conduction band to the valence band of the material. The Lambert–Beer law serves as the mathematical and physical basis for measuring optical absorption in gases and solutions. According to this law, absorption is directly proportional to the path length l and the concentration c of the absorbing substance. It is expressed as $A = \epsilon bc$ where ϵ is the absorptivity coefficient. The type and environment of the sample strongly

influence absorption. For instance, structural groups in the sample impact the capture of light wavelengths, producing various absorption bands in the spectrum. Additionally, the solvent in which the absorbing species is dissolved can significantly affect the absorption range. The particle size also plays a crucial role; when the particle size is much larger than the wavelength λ the light is partially scattered and reflected rather than fully absorbed, as the particles preferentially interact with the light. In solid samples, light penetrates the material and undergoes multiple interactions, including diffraction, refraction, and reflection, before diffusing back to the surface. The Bouguer–Lambert–Beer law cannot be applied to solid samples because it assumes no light intensity loss due to refraction or scattering [14. Dowlath et al., 2021]. Instead, the Kubelka–Munk equation is commonly used for analyzing diffuse reflectance measurements in such cases.

$$F(R_{\infty}) = \frac{\kappa(1-R)^2}{s-2R}$$

In the Kubelka–Munk model, R represents the reflectance at the sample's front surface, while k and s are coefficients corresponding to absorption and scattering, respectively. The Kubelka–Munk function $F(R_{\infty})$ is directly proportional to the concentration of adsorbate molecules. By analysing the onset of the Kubelka–Munk function plot against wavelength or photon energy, the energy gap of a semiconductor can be readily

determined. To obtain a diffuse reflectance spectrum, it is essential to use an integrating sphere to collect the diffusely reflected light. Additionally, a reference standard, such as BaSO₄ or a white standard, should be employed to ensure accurate measurements (as illustrated in Fig. 1).

e. Photoluminescence Spectroscopy

Photoluminescence spectroscopy involves the continuous emission of radiation from a material's surface under photoexcitation. This technique is a powerful and non-destructive method widely used to analyse the stability of materials, particularly in bulk semiconductors and nano-sized materials. When a pulsed laser is used for excitation, it allows the determination of the excited state's lifetime, a setup referred to as time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL). Upon exposure to sufficiently energetic light, photons are absorbed by the material, triggering excitation processes. The excited carriers then relax, releasing radiation. Absorption occurs when the energy of the photons matches or exceeds the material's bandgap. Therefore, selecting appropriate excitation sources is crucial for accurate measurements, tailored to the electronic band structures of different materials. Additionally, external factors such as temperature, excitation power, and applied magnetic or electric fields can significantly influence photoluminescence behaviour and must be considered during analysis.

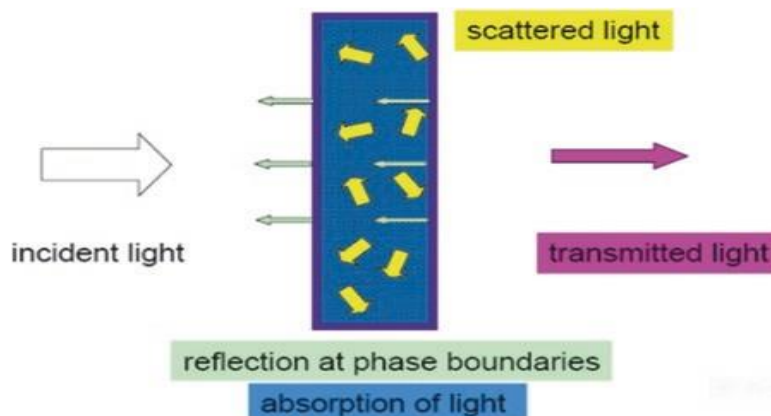


Fig. 1 Interaction of light source with a nano-sample (Benhalilibaet al., 2012) or pressure, can help us to comprehensively understand the electronic states and bands that can be changed during the photoluminescence measurement [15. Benhalilibaet al., 2012].

f. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy

Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy is a powerful characterization and analysis technique known for its precision, reproducibility, and excellent signal-to-noise ratio. It can detect subtle absorption changes on the order of 10^{-3} , ensuring high spectroscopic performance. This capability allows FTIR to analyze digested samples or suspensions comprehensively, representing all components during nanoparticle synthesis [16. Lin et al., 2014].

FTIR is frequently used to verify the presence of biomolecules involved in nanoparticle synthesis, making it a vital tool in advanced research. The technique has been applied extensively to nano-sized materials, including identifying functional groups covalently bonded to carbon nanotubes, silver, gold nanoparticles (NPs), graphene, and studying interactions between catalysts and substrates during catalytic processes [17. Gurunathan et al., 2014].

FTIR spectroscopy offers a convenient, cost-effective, non-invasive, and reliable method for identifying the role of biological molecules in reducing silver nitrate. By measuring infrared absorption against wavelength, FTIR can determine functional groups and structural features in natural extracts combined with nanoparticles. The resulting spectrum reflects the optical properties of the nanoparticles. For instance, bio-assisted silver nanoparticles synthesized using various leaf extracts have been successfully analyzed using FTIR spectroscopy, revealing distinctive peaks [18. Preetha et al., 2013].

3. CONCLUSION

The characterization of synthesized nanoparticles is an essential aspect of nanoparticle research and application. It provides critical information regarding their structure, stability, surface properties, and interactions with the environment. Through careful and precise characterization, researchers can ensure that nanoparticles

meet the required specifications for various applications, optimize synthesis protocols, assess their safety in biological systems, and ensure reproducibility and consistency. Thus, nanoparticle characterization is a foundational element in advancing nanotechnology and ensuring its safe and effective use in a wide range of fields.

Declaration by Authors

Acknowledgement: None

Source of Funding: None

Conflict of Interest: No conflicts of interest declared.

REFERENCES

1. Grieger, K. D., Linkov, I., Hansen, S. F., & Baun, A. (2012). Environmental risk analysis for nano- materials: Review and evaluation of frameworks. *Nanotoxicology*, 6(2), 196–212. <https://doi.org/10.3109/17435390.2011.569095>
2. Wang, Y., Wan, D., Xie, S., Xia, X., Huang, C. Z., & Xia, Y. (2013). Synthesis of silver octahedra with controlled sizes and optical properties via seed-mediated growth. *ACS Nano*, 7(5), 4586–4594. <https://doi.org/10.1021/nn401363e>
3. Otero, R., Vázquez de Parga, A. L., & Gallego, J. M. (2017). Electronic, structural and chemical effects of charge-transfer at organic/inorganic interfaces. *Surface Science Reports*, 72(3), 105–145. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.surfrep.2017.03.001>
4. Sharma, D., Kanchi, S., & Bisetty, K. (2019). Biogenic synthesis of nanoparticles: A review. *Arabian Journal of Chemistry*, 12(8), 3576–3600. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.arabjc.2015.11.002>
5. Harte, A., Jädernäs, D., Topping, M., Frankel, P., Race, C. P., Romero, J., et al. (2017). The effect of matrix chemistry on dislocation evolution in an irradiated Zr alloy. *Acta Materialia*, 130, 69–82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actamat.2017.03.024>
6. Anandjiwala, S., Srinivasa, H., Kalola, J., & Rajani, M. (2007). Free-radical scavenging activity of *Bergia suffruticosa* (Delile) Fenzl. *Journal of Natural Medicines*, 61(1), 59–62. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11418-006-0017-7>

7. Nyoman Rupiasih, N., Aher, A., Gosavi, S., & Vidyasagar, P. B. (2013). Green synthesis of silver nanoparticles using latex extract of *Thevetia peruviana*: A novel approach towards poisonous plant utilization. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, 423(1), 012032. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/423/1/012032>
8. Saba, H. (2014). A review on nanoparticles: Their synthesis and types. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*, 4, 1–3.
9. Belcher, A. M., Mao, C., Solis, D. J., Reiss, B. D., Kottmann, S. T., Sweeney, R. Y., et al. (2004). Virus-based genetic toolkit for the directed synthesis of magnetic and semiconducting nanowires. *AIChE Annual Meeting, Conference Proceedings*, 303, 2401.
10. Valenzuela-Muñiz, A. M., Alonso-Nuñez, G., Botte, G. G., Miki-Yoshida, M., & Verde-Gómez, Y. (2014). Influence of nickel on the electrochemical activity of PtRu/multiwalled carbon nanotubes electrocatalysts for direct methanol fuel cells. *Journal of Applied Electrochemistry*, 44(6), 695–700. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10800-014-0679-x>
11. Wang, Z. L. (2000). Transmission electron microscopy of shape-controlled nanocrystals and their assemblies. *Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 104(6), 1153–1175. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp993593c>
12. Umer, A., Naveed, S., Ramzan, N., & Rafique, M. S. (2012). Selection of a suitable method for the synthesis of copper nanoparticles. *Nano*, 7(5), 1230005. <https://doi.org/10.1142/S1793292012300058>
13. Raj, S., & Trivedi, R. (2020). Nanotechnology a novel approach to enhance crop productivity. *Biochemistry and Biophysics Reports*, 24, 100821. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrep.2020.100821>
14. Dowlath, M. J. H., Musthafa, S. A., Mohamed Khalith, S. B., Varjani, S., Karuppanan, S. K., Ramanujam, G. M., et al. (2021). Comparison of characteristics and biocompatibility of green synthesized iron oxide nanoparticles with chemical synthesized nanoparticles. *Environmental Research*, 201, 111585. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2021.111585>
15. Benhaliliba, M., Benouis, C. E., Tiburcio-Silver, A., Yakuphanoglu, F., Avila-García, A., Tavira, A., et al. (2012). Luminescence and physical properties of copper doped CdO derived nanostructures. *Journal of Luminescence*, 132(10), 2653–2658. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jlumin.2012.03.044>
16. Lin, P. C., Lin, S., Wang, P. C., & Sridhar, R. (2014). Techniques for physicochemical characterization of nanomaterials. *Biotechnology Advances*, 32(4), 711–726. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2013.11.006>
17. Gurunathan, S., Han, J. W., Kwon, D. N., & Kim, J. H. (2014). Enhanced antibacterial and anti-biofilm activities of silver nanoparticles against Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria.
18. Preetha, D., Arun, R., Kumari, P., & Aarti, C. (2013). Synthesis and characterization of silver nanoparticles using cannonball leaves and their cytotoxic activity against MCF-7 cell line. *Journal of Nanotechnology*, 2013, 1–5.

How to cite this article: K. Sreelatha, C. S. AnandaKumar, M. Saraswathi, P. Anusha, N. Madhuri Rose, Deepthi Bhargava. A comprehensive review of nanoparticle characterization techniques. *International Journal of Research and Review*. 2025; 12(1): 194-200. DOI: [10.52403/ijrr.20250124](https://doi.org/10.52403/ijrr.20250124)
