

A Review on Metal Oxide Nanoparticles: Bridging Chemical Synthesis Strategies to Emerging Applications

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Abstract

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) exhibit size-dependent properties that drive advances in catalysis, energy storage, sensing, remediation, and biomedicine. Chemical synthesis routes allow precise control over structure, composition, and crystallinity, typically yielding 5–100 nm particles. Sol-gel offers molecular-level mixing and uniformity; hydrothermal/solvothermal methods operate at 100–250 °C and 1–10 MPa; thermal decomposition yields highly crystalline oxides at 300–750 °C; and microwave-assisted synthesis achieves uniform nanoparticles within minutes. Unlike prior reviews that focus separately on methods or applications, this article uniquely bridges synthesis strategies with application-driven property requirements, mapping how reaction conditions govern morphology, defect states, and surface reactivity. Representative case studies highlight enhanced catalytic activity from high surface areas, improved Li-ion battery cycling stability, ppm-level gas sensing, pollutant degradation via photocatalysis, and targeted drug delivery using functionalized oxides. Finally, we critically assess challenges in scalability, reproducibility, and biocompatibility, and outline future directions in hybrid architectures and continuous-flow synthesis.

1. Introduction

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have received a lot of interest for their unusual physicochemical features and wide range of applications in catalysis, sensing, energy storage, environmental remediation, and biomedicine. Their enormous surface area, customizable characteristics, and surface reactivity allow for personalized solutions for specific applications. Chemical synthesis methods, such as sol-gel [1], hydrothermal [2], solvothermal [3], and other chemical approaches, allow precise control over composition, size, morphology, and crystallinity. These techniques regulate nanoparticle properties by manipulating precursor concentrations, reaction kinetics, temperature, and surfactant use [4].

This review provides an extensive overview of the chemical processes used to synthesize MONPs, detailing the principles, advantages, and limitations of various methods. Representative examples of MONPs are provided, showcasing their versatile applications. Understanding these synthesis approaches will help researchers select appropriate methods to achieve desired nanoparticle characteristics for specific applications. MONPs have demonstrated exceptional performance across diverse fields, including catalysis [5], energy storage, sensing, environmental remediation, and biomedical applications [6]. Their high activity and selectivity have made them

invaluable catalysts in chemical reactions, while their use in energy storage has improved battery performance and supercapacitor efficiency. In sensing applications, MONPs enable highly accurate detection of analytes, which has been instrumental in gas sensing, biosensing, and environmental monitoring.

Furthermore, MONPs have played a critical role in environmental remediation by removing pollutants and treating wastewater, and their utilization in biomedicine has revolutionized diagnosis and therapy as drug delivery systems, imaging agents, and theragnostic tools. Despite substantial progress in MONP synthesis and applications, challenges such as scalability, reproducibility, toxicity, safety, and integration into practical systems remain key issues requiring attention [7]. The future holds exciting opportunities for advancements, including the development of hybrid nanocomposites and multifunctional platforms that combine imaging, treatment, and sensing capabilities. By addressing these challenges and capitalizing on future perspectives, MONPs are expected to make substantial contributions to catalysis, energy storage, environmental protection, and biomedical sciences, offering transformative advancements across multiple industries.

Recent reviews on metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have provided valuable insights, yet most concentrate on either synthesis strategies or application domains individually. For instance, Yin et al. [8] emphasize microwave-assisted and solution-combustion approaches with a focus on synthetic efficiency, while Radulescu et al. [9] highlight eco-friendly and biomedical aspects of green-synthesized MONPs. More recently, Belew and Assege [10] reviewed solvothermal synthesis with attention to morphology control and application challenges. These contributions are important, yet they largely treat synthesis and applications as distinct discussions. In contrast, the present review aims to bridge this gap by systematically linking chemical synthesis parameters—such as temperature, pressure, reaction time, and precursor chemistry—to nanoparticle morphology, defect chemistry, and performance in catalysis, energy storage, sensing, environmental remediation, and biomedicine. By integrating synthesis principles with application-oriented case studies, this article provides a distinct framework for guiding the rational design and deployment of MONPs.

2. Chemical Synthesis Methods

The Chemical synthesis procedures are crucial for determining the properties of metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs), which affect their performance in a variety of applications. Key techniques include the sol-gel process, hydrothermal and solvothermal treatments, thermal decomposition, electrochemical synthesis, and microwave-assisted synthesis as seen in Fig. 1. The sol-gel approach [11] provides great purity and uniformity, while hydrothermal and solvothermal treatments [12] provide precise control over particle size, morphology, and enhanced crystallinity. Thermal decomposition [13] offers a straightforward approach to obtaining nanoparticles with controlled sizes and shapes. Electrochemical synthesis [14] is valued for its simplicity and ability to produce high-quality nanoparticles. Microwave-assisted synthesis [15] significantly reduces reaction times and enhances particle uniformity. Each method manipulates precursor concentrations, reaction kinetics, temperature, and surfactants to tailor MONPs for specific applications in catalysis, energy storage, sensing, environmental remediation, and biomedicine [16]. This review explores these synthesis techniques, highlighting their principles, advantages, and limitations, which are essential for advancing MONP research and broadening its practical applications.

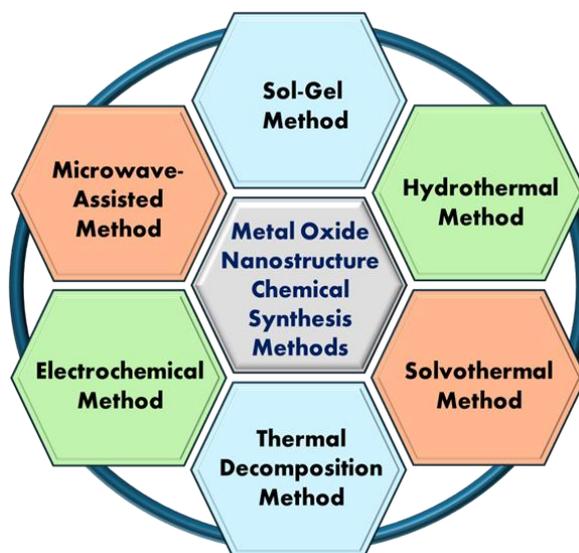


Fig. 1 Schematic overview of major chemical synthesis methods for MONPs, including sol-gel, hydrothermal/solvothermal, thermal decomposition, electrochemical, and microwave-assisted routes

2.1 Sol-Gel Process

2.1.1 Principle and Mechanism

The sol-gel procedure is a flexible approach for the synthesis of metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs), involving the initial mixing of metal alkoxides with a solvent and a hydrolyzing agent. During hydrolysis, the metal-oxygen bonds in the precursor compounds are cleaved, releasing hydroxyl groups. These metal hydroxides subsequently undergo condensation reactions, where the hydroxyl groups react to form metal-oxygen-metal linkages [17]. This condensation leads to the formation of a gel network. To obtain nanoparticles, the gel undergoes aging or drying, followed by calcination at elevated temperatures. The aging process ensures the complete removal of solvent and water molecules while drying removes residual moisture. Calcination involves heating the gel at high temperatures, causing the precursor compounds to decompose and crystallize, forming MONPs [18].

The controlled synthesis of zirconia nanoparticles for catalytic applications using the sol-gel technique has been demonstrated, demonstrating the impacts of various reaction variables, including precursor concentration, solvent composition, particle size, morphology, reaction temperature, and crystallinity [19]. The study indicated that precise control over the final properties of zirconia nanoparticles is achievable by adjusting these factors [20]. Another example is the creation of alumina (Al₂O₃) nanoparticles using the sol-gel process. Researchers have created and analyzed alumina nanoparticles, emphasizing the importance of a catalyst for hydrolysis to facilitate the formation of well-dispersed, uniform nanoparticles [21]. Aging, drying, and calcination steps are crucial for producing crystalline alumina nanoparticles with controlled shapes and enhanced properties. For the purpose of producing crystalline alumina nanoparticles with a regulated shape and improved features, aging, drying, and calcination operations were required. Other MONPs synthesized using the sol-gel process include iron oxide (Fe₃O₄) [22], tin oxide (SnO₂) [23], and zinc oxide (ZnO) [24]. Each of these nanoparticles requires specific precursor materials, solvent compositions, hydrolyzing agents, and subsequent aging, drying, and calcination steps. The sol-gel technique enables fine control over particle size and shape, resulting in improved characteristics and performance adapted to specific applications [25].

2.1.2 Advantages and Limitations

The sol-gel method offers important advantages such as high product homogeneity, chemical purity, and the possibility of tailoring surface functionality through dopant or ligand incorporation [26]. These features make it attractive for designing MONPs with properties suited to catalytic, optical, or biomedical applications. However, the method also has limitations. It requires stringent control of reaction parameters such as pH, temperature, and reaction time, which complicates scalability [27]. In addition, the precursors, particularly metal alkoxides, are relatively expensive, and the multi-step process (hydrolysis, gelation, drying, and calcination) often leads to longer synthesis times compared to other chemical routes [27]. Nevertheless, refinements in sol-gel protocols have enabled the preparation of novel nanomaterials with specialized functionalities, reinforcing its role as a versatile synthesis strategy [28]. Representative sol-gel conditions for common MONPs are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 Representative sol-gel syntheses of metal-oxide nanoparticles (MONPs): typical precursors, media, processing, and size ranges

Metal Oxide	Precursors	Solvent	Hydrolyzing agent/catalyst	Aging & Drying	Calcination (°C)	References
ZrO ₂	Zirconium alkoxides	Alcohol / H ₂ O	Acid or base	Aging, oven drying	400–700	[26]
Al ₂ O ₃	Aluminum alkoxides/nitrates	EtOH / H ₂ O	Acid or base	Aging, drying	500–800	[28]
Fe ₂ O ₃ (γ/α)	Fe(NO ₃) ₃ ·9H ₂ O, FeCl ₃	H ₂ O / EtOH	NH ₄ OH (base)	12–24 h aging, drying	400–600	[29]
SnO ₂	SnCl ₄ ·5H ₂ O	H ₂ O or EtOH/H ₂ O	NH ₄ OH / bio-extract	Aging, drying	350–550	[30]
ZnO	Zn(CH ₃ COO) ₂ ·2H ₂ O	EtOH (+ H ₂ O)	NaOH (base)	Aging, drying	400–550	[31]

Abbreviations: EtOH = ethanol; H₂O = deionized water; NH₄OH = ammonium hydroxide. Values indicate typical ranges reported in the cited studies.

2.2 Hydrothermal and Solvothermal Treatments

2.2.1 Principle and Mechanism

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) are frequently synthesized using hydrothermal and solvothermal techniques. These approaches use the high temperature along with high-pressure settings to help nanoparticles develop. In the hydrothermal approach, a precursor solution is sealed in a pressure vessel and heated above its boiling point, facilitating the dissolution, nucleation, and development of nanoparticles under controlled circumstances (see Table 2 for representative examples) [32]. Solvothermal synthesis is similar but utilizes organic solvents as the reaction medium [3]. Detailed analysis of hydrothermal synthesis-produced materials, including oxides [33], hydroxides [34], sulphides [35], nitrides [36], and organic-inorganic hybrids [37]. The precise control over reaction parameters in these methods allows for the tailored synthesis of MONPs with specific properties for diverse applications [38].

Table 2 Representative examples of MONPs synthesized using hydrothermal and solvothermal treatments

Metal Oxide	Precursors	Solvent	Temperature / Pressure	Time	Morphology / Particle Size	References
ZnO	Zn acetate	H ₂ O / EtOH	160–200 °C, autogenous	12–24 h	Nanoflakes, ~40–50 nm	[39]
CeO ₂	Ce(NO ₃) ₃	Ethanol	180–200 °C, autogenous	12 h	Spherical, ~10–20 nm	[40]
TiO ₂ (rutile)	TBOT	HCl/H ₂ O	150 °C	12 h	Globosa-like nanorods (~250 nm × 2.1 μm)	[41]
SiO ₂ (mesoporous MSNs)	TEOS	EtOH / H ₂ O + catalyst	180 °C, autogenous	24 h	Mesoporous spheres (MSNs)/ ~50–200 nm	[42]

Abbreviations: EtOH = ethanol; TEOS = tetraethyl orthosilicate; MSNs= mesoporous silica nanoparticle; TBOT = titanium butoxide.

2.2.2 Advantages and Limitations

Hydrothermal and solvothermal methods offer several advantages. Firstly, they make it possible to create extremely crystalline nanoparticles that have precise command over their size, shape, and surface characteristics [43]. The high temperatures and pressures aid in the dissolution of precursors and the creation of thermodynamically stable crystalline phases [44]. Additionally, these methods allow for the incorporation of dopants or the formation of composite nanoparticles [45]. Moreover, the relatively fast reaction kinetics of hydrothermal and solvothermal methods result in shorter synthesis times compared to other techniques. However, these methods also have limitations. One significant limitation is the requirement for specialized equipment capable of withstanding high temperatures and pressures [46]. The cost and complexity of such equipment can hinder their widespread use. Additionally, controlling the growth and nucleation processes can be challenging, potentially leading to a diverse size distribution of nanoparticles. Furthermore, the selection of solvents and precursors is constrained by the high temperatures and pressures, as some chemicals may decompose or react unfavorably under such conditions.

2.3 Thermal Decomposition Method

2.3.1 Principle and Mechanism

The thermal decomposition method is widely used to produce metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs). This approach involves the decomposition of precursor compounds at elevated temperatures, leading to the formation of nanoparticles. Typically, the precursor materials are organic compounds such as metal carboxylates, metal alkoxides, or metal acetylacetonates [47]. Upon heating, these compounds undergo thermal decomposition, releasing volatile by-products and resulting in the formation of MONPs. This method offers the advantage of producing nanoparticles with controlled size and morphology, as the decomposition conditions can be precisely regulated. Also, thermal decomposition can yield highly crystalline nanoparticles due to the high temperatures. The choice of precursor materials and decomposition conditions significantly influence the properties of the resulting nanoparticles, making this method versatile for synthesizing various types of MONPs for applications in catalysis, energy storage, sensing, and biomedicine [8,46-47]. As seen in Table 3, various examples of metal oxide nanoparticles synthesized through the thermal decomposition method are presented, showcasing the versatility of this approach in controlling nanoparticle properties.

Table 3 Representative examples of MONPs synthesized using the thermal decomposition method

Metal Oxide	Precursors	Reaction Temperature	References
Iron Oxide (Fe ₃ O ₄)	Iron carboxylates	300-500°C	[48]
Cobalt Oxide	Co (NH ₃) ₅ (H ₂ O)] (NO ₃) ₃	300-500°C	[49]
Copper Oxide (CuO)	Copper (II) Sulphate	750°C	[50]
Zinc Oxide (ZnO)	Zinc acetate Dehydrate	550°C	[51]

2.3.2 Advantages and Limitations

The thermal decomposition approach is a simple and efficient technique for synthesizing metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs), providing control over size and morphology by modifying parameters such as precursor concentration and temperature. It avoids solvent use, reducing contamination risks. However, limitations include the possibility of unwanted by-products, inconsistent size distribution, and challenges with scaling up due to difficulties in maintaining uniform heating. These factors can affect the final nanoparticle quality, necessitating careful optimization of reaction conditions to ensure desired properties are achieved [50-51].

2.4 Electrochemical Synthesis

2.4.1 Principle and Mechanism

Electrochemical synthesis is a versatile technique for producing metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) using electrochemical cells. The process involves applying an electric potential to induce redox reactions of metal ions in solution, leading to nanoparticle formation. Techniques like electrodeposition [52], anodization [53], and electrochemical precipitation [54] are commonly used for MONP synthesis. This approach enables control over particle size, composition, and morphology by altering parameters including applied potential, electrolyte concentration, and timing of reaction making it significant for applications in catalysis, sensing, and energy storage. Table 4 provides representative examples of metal oxide nanoparticles synthesized via electrochemical techniques, showcasing the method's versatility and precise control over particle characteristics.

Table 4 Representative examples of MONPs synthesized using electrochemical synthesis

Metal Oxide	Synthesis Technique	Electrolyte	Applied Potential Range	References
Titanium Dioxide	Electro deposition	Titanium salt solutions	1-5 V	[55]
Nickel Oxide	Electro deposition	Nickel salt solutions	1.5 -3 V	[56]
Manganese Oxide	Anodization	Manganese salt solutions	0.5-2 V	[57]
Indium Oxide	Electrochemical Precipitation	Indium salt solutions	-2 to -3 V	[58]

2.4.2 Advantages and Limitations

Electrochemical synthesis is a versatile technique for producing metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) utilizing electrochemical cells. It entails the reduction or oxidation of metal ions in solution, driven by an applied electric potential. Techniques such as electrodeposition, anodization, and electrochemical precipitation are commonly used. This method offers precise control over the nanoparticle characteristics by tuning parameters like voltage, current density, electrolyte composition, and pH [59]. Despite its advantages, including low-temperature processing and real-time monitoring, challenges exist in scaling up due to the need for specialized equipment and maintaining uniform conditions.

2.5 Microwave-Assisted Synthesis

2.5.1 Principle and Mechanism

Microwave-assisted synthesis is a cutting-edge technique for rapidly producing metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs). This technique involves using microwave irradiation to heat the mixture of reactions, resulting in faster reaction rates due to the materials' selective dielectric heating capabilities [60]. The microwaves penetrate the solution, generating heat uniformly and efficiently within the mixture, which significantly reduces the reaction

time and enhances the process yield. By adjusting parameters like power intensity and reaction time, one can control the size, shape, and crystallinity of the nanoparticles, making this method suitable for various applications [61]. The advantages and characteristics of different MONPs synthesized using this approach are highlighted in Table 5 Representative examples of MONPs synthesized using microwave-assisted synthesis. Despite its benefits, the method requires careful optimization of microwave settings to avoid overheating and non-uniform particle distribution.

Table 5 Representative examples of MONPs synthesized using microwave-assisted synthesis

Metal Oxide	Precursors	Microwave Power (Watt)	Reaction Time (Sec)	References
Zinc Oxide	Zinc acetate, ammonium hydroxide	540-680W	600-700	[62]
Iron Oxide	Iron salts, organic stabilizers	400-800 W	600-700	[63]
Titanium Dioxide	Titanium alkoxides, surfactants	800 W	300	[64]
Cerium Oxide	Cerium salts, organic solvents	1000 W	600-700	[65]

2.5.2 Advantages and Limitations

Microwave-assisted synthesis offers notable advantages for producing metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs). This method enables rapid heating and high reaction rates, substantially shortening synthesis times, which is especially valuable for scaling up production [66]. The localized and controlled heating provided by microwaves enhances the reproducibility and uniformity of nanoparticles, while also requiring fewer reagents, making it a more environmentally sustainable approach [67]. However, limitations include the risk of overheating or thermal runaway, leading to nanoparticle agglomeration or undesired side reactions, necessitating careful optimization of reaction conditions and monitoring. Additionally, the penetration depth of microwaves can be limited, particularly for highly conductive materials, potentially affecting nanoparticle uniformity. Proper choice of microwave-transparent reaction vessels and absorbers is crucial for effective synthesis [67-68]. A comparative overview of the discussed chemical synthesis methods is presented in Table 6, which summarizes typical particle sizes, morphologies, advantages, and limitations. This provides a concise reference that complements the detailed descriptions in Section 2.

Table 6 Overview of major chemical synthesis methods for MONPs with typical particle sizes, morphologies, advantages, and limitations

Synthesis Method	Typical Particle Size (nm)	Common Morphology	Advantages	Limitations
Sol-gel	10-100	Uniform spherical/porous	High purity, homogeneity, fine size control, tunable surface chemistry	Multi-step, long processing time, costly precursors, limited scalability
Hydrothermal / Solvothermal	20-200	Crystalline rods, spheres, plates	Precise control over size/shape, high crystallinity, and dopant incorporation	Requires autoclaves, limited precursor/solvent choices
Thermal decomposition	5-50	Spherical, crystalline	Narrow size distribution, highly crystalline products	High temperature, by-products, scaling issues
Electrochemical	10-100	Nanowires, films, particles	Low-temperature, tunable composition, real-time control	Equipment demand, reproducibility and scale-up limits
Microwave-assisted	5-50	Uniform spherical	Very rapid synthesis, energy-efficient, good reproducibility	Risk of overheating, shallow penetration depth

3. Advantages of Chemical Synthesis Methods

Chemical synthesis techniques are critical in the manufacture of metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs), providing great control over their size, shape, content, and surface properties. These technologies enable researchers to precisely modify the properties of nanoparticles, which is critical for maximizing their efficacy in a variety of applications. Such control enables the tailored design of nanoparticles with specific characteristics that enhance their performance in fields like catalysis, electronics, and optics, emphasizing the central role of chemical synthesis in advancing nanotechnology [69]. The main advantages of chemical synthesis methods are outlined in Fig. 2.

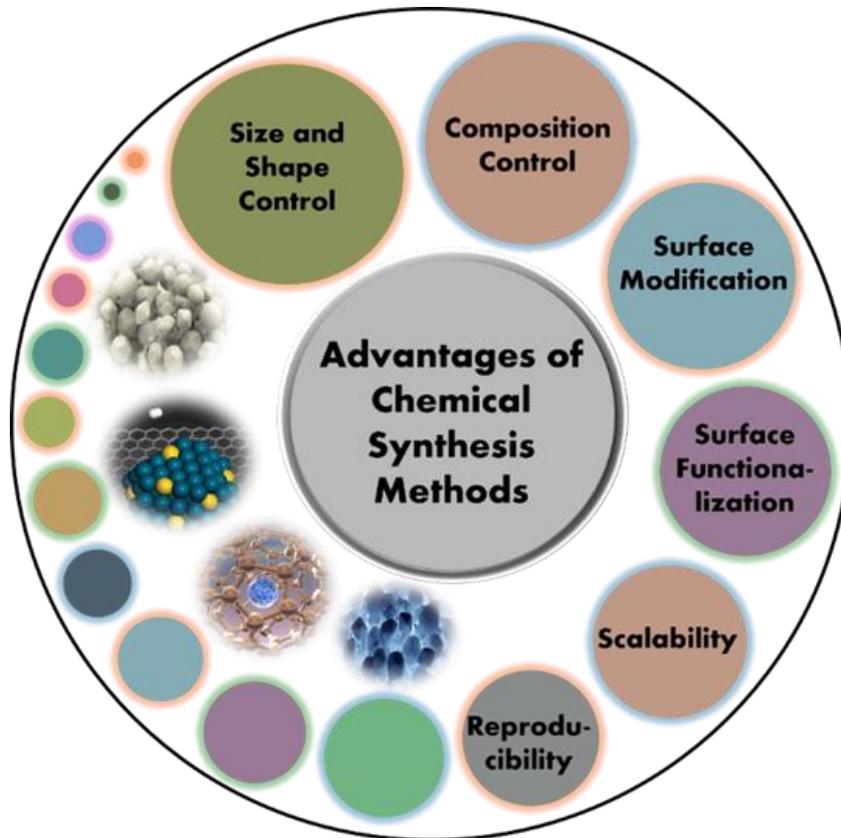


Fig. 2 Key advantages of chemical synthesis approaches for MONPs, highlighting control of size, shape, composition, and surface functionalization

3.1 Size and Shape Control

Chemical synthesis methods provide precise control over the size and shape of MONPs, which is critical for their intended features and applications. Temperature, precursor concentration, surfactant type, and reaction time can be adjusted to achieve uniform size and morphology. For instance, the sol-gel process enables uniform MONP synthesis through controlled hydrolysis and condensation [18], while hydrothermal and solvothermal techniques produce well-defined crystalline structures [70]. This flexibility enhances the nanoparticles' optical [71], catalytic [72], and electronic properties [73], allowing for superior application-specific performance.

3.2 Composition Control

The Chemical production methods provide for fine control over the composition of metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs). By selecting suitable precursor materials and adjusting stoichiometry, researchers can synthesize MONPs with specific compositions and doping levels [74]. This compositional control allows for the modulation of critical properties, including band gap energy, magnetic behavior, and catalytic activity. For instance, incorporating dopants into metal oxide nanoparticles can enhance their catalytic efficiency, improve charge carrier mobility, or introduce unique magnetic properties. This ability to fine-tune composition facilitates the development of specialized materials designed for targeted applications across various fields.

3.3 Surface Modification and Functionalization

Chemical synthesis techniques also enable extensive surface modification and functionalization of MONPs. During the synthesis, functional groups, surfactants, or ligands can be introduced to the nanoparticle surface, enhancing stability, dispersibility, and compatibility with diverse environments [75]. Surface modifications can confer specific properties, such as increased biocompatibility, improved catalytic activity, or selective adsorption capabilities. In this regard, the functionalization of iron oxide nanoparticles with biocompatible coatings has extended their applications in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and targeted delivery of drugs [76]. The versatility of MONPs is significantly enhanced through such modifications, enabling their integration into various technological and biomedical systems.

3.4 Scalability and Reproducibility

Chemical synthesis methods provide significant advantages in terms of scalability and reproducibility, enabling the mass production of metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) while maintaining consistent quality [77]. These techniques can be easily scaled up to meet industrial demands, allowing for large-scale manufacturing without compromising nanoparticle integrity. By meticulously controlling reaction parameters and optimizing synthesis conditions, researchers can achieve reproducible results, ensuring uniformity in nanoparticle characteristics from batch to batch [78]. This consistency is crucial for the successful transition of MONPs from laboratory settings to commercial applications, particularly in industries that require high-quality nanomaterials for various applications. Recent advancements in automated synthesis and monitoring technologies further enhance scalability, providing a pathway for the efficient production of MONPs tailored to specific industrial needs.

4. Applications of MONPs

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have received a lot of interest as adaptable nanomaterials because of their distinct physicochemical features that set them apart from their bulk counterparts. These features make MONPs ideal for a variety of applications, including catalysis, where their large surface area and reactivity improve catalytic activity, as proven by Xing Yi and colleagues [79]. In energy storage, Haruna and colleagues have shown that MONPs improve charge capacity and cycling stability, leading to better battery performance [80]. Furthermore, Gomez-Aviles et al. highlight the potential of MONPs in sensing applications, enabling the detection of various analytes at low concentrations [81]. MONPs also serve an important role in environmental rehabilitation by adsorbing contaminants and aiding their breakdown, as documented by Naseem and co-researchers [82]. In the biomedical arena, Rarokar and their research team have proved their potential for targeted drug administration and as contrast agents in imaging techniques, hence improving diagnostic capacities [83]. This diverse set of applications highlights the importance of MONPs in developing technology across numerous areas. Figure 3 illustrates various applications of MONPs, highlighting their broad utility across areas like energy storage, catalysis, sensing, and environmental remediation.

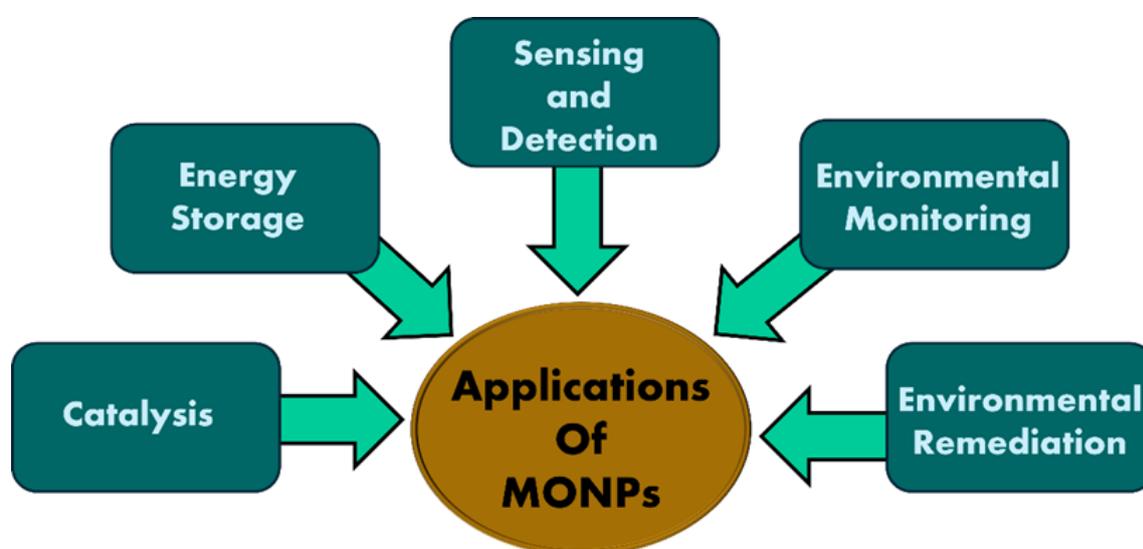


Fig. 3 Diverse applications of MONPs in catalysis, energy storage, sensing, environmental remediation, and biomedical fields

4.1 Catalysis

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have substantially advanced the science of catalysis by improving performance and selectivity simply because of their high surface area-to-volume ratio and distinct surface characteristics. These characteristics promote efficient adsorption and activation of reactants, leading to enhanced reaction kinetics [84]. Their tunable size, shape, and composition allow for precise tailoring of catalytic behavior for specific reactions. For example, transition metal oxides such as iron oxide (Fe_2O_3) exhibit notable activity in oxidation, hydrogenation, and carbon-carbon bond formation [85]. MONPs also play a crucial role in environmental catalysis, enabling pollutant degradation and wastewater treatment. Titanium dioxide (TiO_2) nanoparticles, known for their exceptional photocatalytic activity and stability, are commonly employed to degrade organic contaminants in photochemical processes. Recent reviews emphasize the pivotal role of transition metal oxides in catalysis, underlining how their tunable surface chemistry and mesoporosity enhance catalytic efficiency [86].

4.2 Energy Storage

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have attracted a lot of attention in the field of energy storage because of their unique properties and potential to improve the efficiency of batteries and supercapacitors. These nanoparticles offer several benefits, including a large amount of surface area, higher electrochemical activity, and improved charge transport capabilities, all of which contribute to increasing the potential for energy storage [87]. As electrode materials to enhance the efficiency of lithium-ion battery cells (LIBs), MONPs have been extensively studied in the context of batteries [88]. And even further. Lithium iron phosphate (LiFePO_4) nanoparticles, for instance, have been used often as a cathode material in LIBs. Because of their large theoretical potential, superior thermal stability, and extended cycle life [89]. Various synthesis approaches, such as sol-gel [90], hydrothermal [91], and solid-state reactions [92], have been utilized to prepare well-defined and highly crystalline LiFePO_4 nanoparticles. These nanoparticles have better lithium-ion diffusion kinetics and high-rate performance, making them ideal for applications needing high-power output [93]. Similarly, metal oxide nanoparticles like manganese dioxide (MnO_2) have shown promise as cathode and anode materials in LIBs [94]. MnO_2 nanoparticles have a high theoretical capacity and a low cost, making them ideal for large-scale energy storage. However, due to poor cycling stability and slow kinetics, its practical application is limited [95]. The electrochemical performance of MnO_2 nanoparticles has been improved by several methods, including adjusting particle size, altering surface chemistry, and adding carbonaceous elements. These modifications have resulted in enhanced capacity retention, improved cycling stability, and higher rate capability.

Supercapacitors, on the other hand, are especially effective in applications requiring short bursts of energy, such as electric vehicles and renewable energy systems. Additionally, supercapacitors can be charged and discharged much faster than traditional batteries, making them a popular choice for certain industrial and military applications. MONPs' massive specific surface area and strong electrical conductivity have made them appropriate electrode materials for supercapacitors [96]. For instance, ruthenium oxide (RuO_2) nanoparticles have been widely studied for their excellent pseudocapacitive behavior, resulting in high specific capacitance and fast charge/discharge rates [97]. Various synthesis methods, such as hydrothermal [98], solvo thermal [99], and electro-deposition have been employed to prepare RuO_2 nanoparticles with tailored properties. These nanoparticles exhibit outstanding cycling stability and long-term electrochemical performance, making them suitable for supercapacitor applications. Recent review work by Pazhamalai et al., emphasizes that composite electrode materials combining metal oxides with conductive supports significantly enhance energy storage performance. Such designs improve charge transport, capacity retention, and cycling stability, addressing key challenges in lithium-ion batteries and supercapacitors [100].

4.3 Sensing and Detection

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) are gaining popularity in sensing and detection technologies due to their nanoscale features, which include a high surface area-to-volume ratio, improved surface reactivity, and changeable electrical properties [101]. These features lead to remarkable sensitivity and selectivity, making MONPs suited for a wide range of applications including gas sensing, biosensing, and environmental monitoring. Significant gains in the efficiency, accuracy, and responsiveness of MONP-based sensors can be achieved by carefully controlling nanoparticle composition, size, and surface modification, making them essential for the development of next-generation sensing technologies.

4.3.1 Gas Sensing

MONPs have been widely used in gas-sensing applications due to their ability to detect and respond to a variety of gases with high sensitivity and rapid response times [102]. Gas sensors based on MONPs have several advantages, including low cost, miniaturization, and the capacity to detect multiple gases simultaneously. Tin

oxide (SnO₂) nanoparticles [103] are commonly used in gas sensing devices for the detection of harmful gases, including carbon monoxide (CO) [104] and nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) [105]. SnO₂ nanoparticles exhibit high sensitivity to these gases, making them suitable for applications in environmental monitoring, industrial safety, and automotive exhaust control. The design and manufacturing of a CO gas sensor with greater sensitivity and selectivity, for instance, was demonstrated via the fabrication of SnO₂ nanoparticles [106]. The unique surface chemistry and morphology of SnO₂ nanoparticles enable efficient gas adsorption and promote enhanced sensing performance [107]. Other metal oxide nanoparticles, such as zinc oxide (ZnO) [108] and tungsten oxide (WO₃) [109], have also been employed in gas sensing applications. ZnO nanoparticle's wide surface area and strong electron mobility make them suitable for gas detection [110]. They have been utilized for the detection of various gases, including ethanol [111], ammonia [112], and hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) [113]. Similarly, WO₃ nanoparticles have been studied for the selective detection of gases such as ozone (O₃) [114] and nitrogen oxide (NO_x) [115] in environmental monitoring applications.

4.3.2 Bio-Sensing

MONPs are employed in bio-sensing, where they have significant applications, as labels or transducers for identifying biomolecules with great sensitivity. The large surface area and surface reactivity of MONPs facilitate the immobilization of biomolecules and amplify the relationship between the sensor surface and the desired analyte [116-117]. The detection of DNA, proteins, and illness biomarkers has been made possible by the use of iron oxide (Fe₃O₄) nanoparticles in bio-sensing applications [118]. The unique magnetic properties of Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles enable their use in magnetic biosensors, where the nanoparticles act as labels that can be manipulated and detected using external magnetic fields [119]. Miao et al. developed an ultrasensitive DNA-based biosensor Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles for the detection of cancer-related gene mutations [120].

ZnO nanoparticles have also been used in biosensors to detect a variety of biomolecules [121]. ZnO nanoparticles offer advantages such as high biocompatibility and easy surface functionalization. They have been employed in protein sensors, DNA sensors, and immune sensors for the detection of specific biomarkers. ZnO nanoparticle surface functionalization with particular recognition elements allows the very sensitive and specific detection of target biomolecules [122]. Recent studies by research group of Lawaniya et al., highlight the application of metal oxide gas sensors for detecting volatile organic compounds (VOCs) as biomarkers of foodborne pathogens. Such sensors demonstrate high sensitivity and selectivity, offering rapid and non-invasive monitoring strategies for food safety and public health [123].

4.4 Environmental Monitoring

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have attracted substantial attention in the monitoring of environments due to their ability to detect and quantify contaminants in both air and water. Their high surface reactivity, catalytic activity, and sensitivity make them excellent materials for environmental sensors. Prominent examples include titanium dioxide (TiO₂) [124] and zinc oxide (ZnO) [125], which are frequently employed for detecting harmful gases, heavy metals, and organic pollutants.

Recent studies have highlighted the use of TiO₂ nanoparticles in wastewater treatment, particularly for their photo-catalytic properties, which enable the breakdown of organic pollutants under ultraviolet light [124]. TiO₂'s ability to degrade pollutants such as formaldehyde and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) makes it especially valuable for indoor air quality monitoring, and advancements in synthesis techniques are enhancing its sensitivity and selectivity [126]. Surface modification and doping techniques, such as the inclusion of noble metals or nonmetals, boost TiO₂'s photocatalytic efficacy, expanding its use in contaminated site rehabilitation [127]. Zinc oxide (ZnO) nanoparticles have emerged as key components in the detection of heavy metals in water sources, including lead (Pb) and mercury (Hg) [128]. Their enormous surface area enables efficient adsorption of metal ions, leading to great detection sensitivity. Recent discoveries involve combining ZnO with carbon-based materials like graphene or carbon nanotubes to improve conductivity and sensing capabilities. These hybrid materials enable rapid, reliable, and portable solutions for assessing water quality, thereby facilitating efficient pollutant degradation. Additionally, electrochemical methods utilizing ZnO-based sensors have demonstrated promising results for on-site monitoring of water pollutants, reflecting the growing interest in real-time environmental analysis [129].

5. Environmental Remediation

5.1 Environmental Remediation Using MONPs

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have emerged as excellent environmental cleanup tools due to their distinct properties such as huge surface area, high reactivity, and catalytic capabilities. MONPs' features make them suitable for a variety of applications, including pollution removal, hazardous chemical degradation, and

environmental restoration. MONPs' versatility in adsorbing and breaking down toxins has led to their employment in a wide range of environmental applications, such as wastewater treatment, air purification, and soil remediation [130]. This section discusses the most recent developments and different uses of MONPs in environmental remediation as given below in Fig. 4.

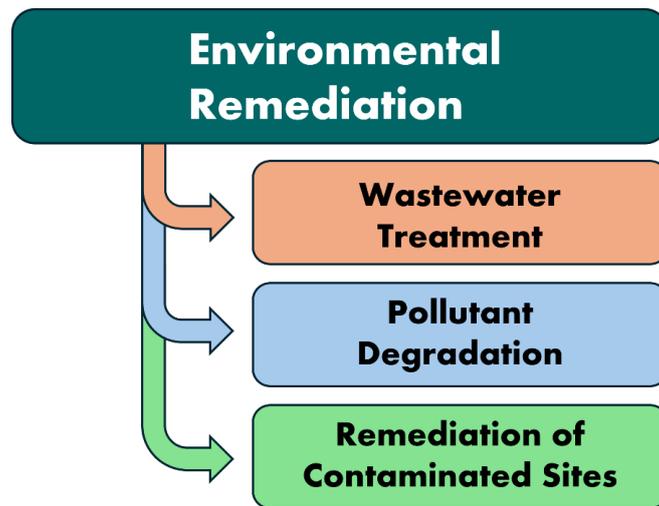


Fig. 4 Role of MONPs in environmental remediation, illustrating their use in wastewater treatment, pollutant degradation, and contaminated site restoration

5.1.1 Wastewater Treatment

MONPs have shown great potential in wastewater treatment due to their remarkable adsorption and catalytic properties. Their ability to efficiently remove a wide range of contaminants, including organic compounds, dyes, and heavy metals, makes them beneficial for improving water quality while reducing environmental impact [131]. For example, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanoparticles have been extensively researched for photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants in wastewater [132]. When exposed to UV light, TiO₂ generates reactive oxygen species (ROS), such as hydroxyl radicals, which degrade organic contaminants, making it very effective at cleaning dye-laden industrial effluents [133].

In addition to TiO₂, iron oxide (Fe₃O₄) nanoparticles have demonstrated outstanding efficacy in adsorbing heavy metals from polluted water due to their strong affinity for metal ions. Some instances include Pb, Cd, and Hg. Magnetic separation methods allow for facile recovery of these nanoparticles following treatment [133-134]. A recent study has also investigated the functionalization of Fe₃O₄ with biocompatible coatings, which improves adsorption capacity and selectivity, enabling the removal of several contaminants in a single operation [135].

5.1.2 Pollutant Degradation

In several environmental matrices, MONPs also play a significant part in the degradation of contaminants. Their catalytic activity and ability to generate reactive species make them effective in breaking down organic compounds and reducing the levels of hazardous substances in the environment [136]. One example is the use of zinc oxide (ZnO) nanoparticles for the breakdown of organic contaminants such as phenols and pesticides [137]. ZnO nanoparticles can produce ROS when exposed to UV or visible light, resulting in the destruction of organic molecules [138]. Additionally, the catalytic capabilities of cerium oxide (CeO₂) nanoparticles in the oxidation of organic pollutants, for example, hydrocarbons and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) [139].

MONPs' catalytic activity is critical in the degradation of many contaminants, including organic molecules and toxic chemicals, across a variety of environmental matrices. When triggered with UV or visible light, zinc oxide (ZnO) nanoparticles can degrade organic contaminants such as phenols, insecticides, and medicines. ZnO nanoparticles generate ROS, which oxidizes contaminants and converts them into less hazardous molecules [136-138]. Recent advances have focused on doping ZnO with metals (e.g., Ag, Cu) or incorporating it into composite nanostructures (e.g., ZnO-graphene), resulting in increased photocatalytic activity and stability [139]. The redox properties of cerium oxide (CeO₂) nanoparticles, which enable the catalytic oxidation of hydrocarbons and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in water and air, are now gaining attention. According to studies, doping CeO₂ with transition metals greatly increases its catalytic efficiency, which qualifies it for use in air purification systems [140]. Furthermore, hybrid materials like CeO₂-TiO₂ composites have improved their potential for environmental application by expanding the spectrum of light wavelengths that can be used for pollutant degradation [141].

5.1.3 Remediation of Contaminated Sites

MONPs provide novel methods for remediating polluted soil and groundwater. Their adsorption and catalytic properties help to remove or neutralize contaminants such as heavy metals, herbicides, and industrial solvents, reducing toxicity and environmental risk. Silica-coated magnetite ($\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2$) has been used to treat soil and groundwater, with the silica layer increasing dispersibility and adsorption effectiveness [140]. These nanoparticles successfully adsorb polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and other organic contaminants, indicating a high potential for remediating hydrocarbon-contaminated locations [141].

Zero-valent iron (ZVI) nanoparticles are commonly used to remediate groundwater contaminated with chlorinated organic chemicals like trichloroethylene (TCE) and heavy metals like arsenic and chromium. ZVI promotes reductive dechlorination and metal immobilization via adsorption and precipitation processes [142]. Emerging approaches include stabilizing ZVI nanoparticles with biopolymers or surfactants, which increases their stability and mobility in subterranean conditions, allowing for more effective contamination removal [141]. Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have made significant advances in environmental remediation, notably in novel applications such as nanocomposite creation, multifunctional catalysts, and hybrid systems. Recent research has looked into using MONPs in conjunction with carbon-based materials like graphene or activated carbon to improve adsorption and catalytic capabilities in wastewater treatment. MONPs have also been used in membrane technologies to degrade complex contaminants and selectively remove heavy metals. Novel research also focuses on doping MONPs with rare-earth elements to increase their photocatalytic efficacy in visible light, widen their environmental applications, and enable cost-effective solutions for long-term remediation [135-143]. Recent review work by Tereshkov et al., they emphasize the growing role of metal oxide-based sensors in ecological monitoring, where they provide sensitive, cost-effective, and portable solutions for detecting toxic gases and environmental pollutants [142].

6. Biomedical Applications

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) are becoming increasingly attractive in biomedical applications because to their unique properties, which include a large surface area, surface reactivity, and the ability to change physical and chemical properties. These features make MONPs excellent for a wide range of biological applications, such as medication administration, imaging, diagnostics, biosensing, and tissue engineering (as seen in Figure 5). Iron oxide nanoparticles have been shown to target cancer cells, and gadolinium oxide nanoparticles improve MRI imaging. MONP-based biosensors, such as those that use ZnO for biomarker detection, are extremely sensitive for early illness detection. Furthermore, advances in tissue engineering use MONP-infused scaffolds, such as hydroxyapatite-coated TiO_2 for bone regeneration, to boost cell proliferation and mechanical strength. Recent research has expanded the applicability of MONPs, making them vital instruments for biomedical advancement [144]. Examples of MONPs' use in biomedicine include the following session.

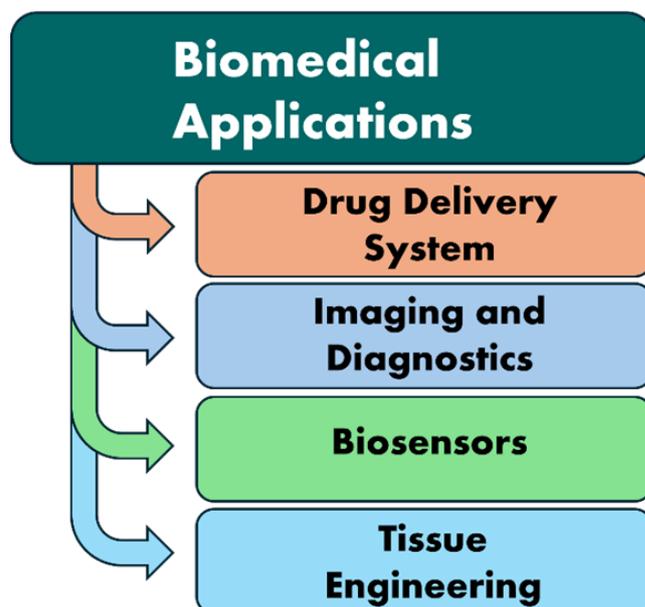


Fig. 5 Biomedical applications of MONPs, including drug delivery, imaging, biosensing, and tissue engineering

6.1 Drug Delivery Systems

MONPs, such as iron oxide and cerium oxide, have been studied in drug delivery due to their biocompatibility and ability to be functionalized with medicinal molecules. Surface changes enable targeted delivery and controlled drug release, as shown in research with Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles for chemotherapeutic medicines, which improve tumour site targeting while minimizing side effects [145,146]. Sun et al.'s study highlighted that metal-organic frameworks (MOFs), a type of MONP, are effective nanocarriers due to their high porosity and adjustable components. They allow for controlled drug release and can act as therapeutic agents. The tailored properties of MOFs make them suitable for targeted drug delivery, improving therapeutic efficiency while minimizing side effects [147]. Another research by Maria and the research team indicated that using MONPs like TiO₂ and ZnO in drug delivery enhances pharmacological activity and stability. They can penetrate cells effectively, providing a platform for sustained and targeted release of therapeutic agents, thus improving bioavailability [148].

6.2 Imaging & Diagnostics

In imaging, MONPs such as gadolinium oxide (Gd₂O₃) are utilized to improve MRI contrast. Recent advancements include integrating MONPs with fluorescent dyes or quantum dots for multimodal imaging [149]. Cerium oxide nanoparticles, for example, have high X-ray attenuation qualities, which improve computed tomography (CT) imaging [150]. Recent developments have focused on using iron oxide nanoparticles in MRI contrast enhancement. These nanoparticles improve the quality of imaging due to their magnetic properties, making them ideal for non-invasive diagnostics. Research in 2023 by Zeyi and their team emphasized the role of surface modification in enhancing nanoparticle stability and biocompatibility for better imaging outcomes [147].

6.3 Biosensors

MONP-based biosensors, such as ZnO and TiO₂, are highly sensitive to detecting biomarkers. Integrating MONPs with electrical equipment has led in the development of enhanced biosensors for real-time monitoring of glucose levels, cancer markers, and infections, all of which have potential diagnostic applications. MONPs like ZnO and CuO have been used in biosensors for detecting glucose levels, as they offer high surface area and catalytic activity. Recent studies demonstrated their enhanced sensitivity and response time, providing rapid and accurate detection in biosensor applications by Nikolova and the team [148].

6.4 Tissue Engineering

MONPs, such as hydroxyapatite-coated TiO₂, are employed in bone tissue engineering because they have osteoconductive properties. Recent research focuses on nanocomposite scaffolds that combine MONPs and biopolymers to improve cell proliferation, differentiation, and mechanical strength in tissue regeneration, particularly for orthopaedic and neurological applications. Research published in 2023 by Sun et al. examined the incorporation of MONPs, like TiO₂ and silica nanoparticles, in scaffolds for bone tissue regeneration. These nanoparticles enhance mechanical strength and promote cell adhesion, leading to improved bone healing and regeneration [147].

7. Toxicity, Biocompatibility, and Safety Considerations

The translation of MONPs into biomedical and environmental applications requires careful assessment of their safety profiles. Recent studies emphasize that particle size, surface charge, solubility, and morphology strongly influence cytotoxic responses, with smaller particles (<20 nm) often generating higher levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that can trigger oxidative stress, DNA damage, and inflammation [151,154]. Predictive nano-(Q) SAR models are increasingly being applied to anticipate such toxicological outcomes and to support safer material design [151]. From an environmental perspective, exposure pathways and bioaccumulation remain critical concerns, particularly in aquatic systems where MONPs can affect microbial activity, plants, and higher organisms [152,153]. In human health contexts, solubility and ion release have been identified as key drivers of cytotoxicity in pulmonary and epithelial models [154]. To address these issues, strategies such as surface functionalization, polymeric coatings, and "safe-by-design" approaches are being developed to improve stability, reduce immunogenicity, and enhance overall biocompatibility [151-155]. These considerations highlight that alongside their wide utility, MONPs demand rigorous toxicological evaluation and responsible design for safe biomedical and environmental deployment.

8. Challenges and Future Directions in MONP Development for Multifunctional Applications

While MONPs have shown considerable potential in a variety of applications, there are still several difficulties and opportunities for advancement that must be addressed. Metal-oxide-nanoparticles (MONPs) have enormous potential for a variety of applications, but overcoming many difficulties is required to fully realize their possibilities. First and foremost, ensuring MONPs' biocompatibility and long-term safety is critical to their effective translation into clinical applications [156]. Further research is required to determine their possible toxicity [157], immunological response [158], and biodegradation mechanisms in biological systems [159]. Furthermore, scalability and cost-effectiveness are significant barriers, as large-scale synthesis with consistent characteristics is difficult and critical for industrial applications [160]. Stability concerns, such as agglomeration, necessitate advanced techniques to improve dispersion and nanoparticle stability [156].

Standardization remains critical for reliably assessing MONP physicochemical properties, allowing for better comparisons and a deeper knowledge of their structure-property interactions. In addition, regulatory problems must be addressed to ensure safe and responsible use in biological and environmental applications. Advances in functionalization strategies, such as surface modification [161], core-shell architectures [162], and composite materials [102], are critical for creating MONPs with specific features for specified applications. Recent concerns, such as scalability, remain critical, as do issues with manufacturing homogeneous batches [160]. Stability issues also degrade performance, highlighting the necessity for novel stabilization solutions [162]. The development of multifunctional platforms with imaging, therapy, and sensing capabilities has the potential to revolutionize theragnostic by improving disease monitoring, treatment, and diagnostics [163]. combining multiple MONPs or generating hybrid nanocomposites [164], core-shell structures [165], and heterostructures [166] may result in materials with improved properties. Recent research indicates that these hybrids can provide superior catalytic characteristics and targeting accuracy for medical applications. Advanced approaches, such as in situ imaging [167] and real-time monitoring, provide vital insights into the behavior of MONPs in complicated contexts, enabling further optimization. Addressing these issues through coordinated interdisciplinary research would enable the practical application of MONPs, accelerating progress in fields such as medicine, environmental science, and materials engineering.

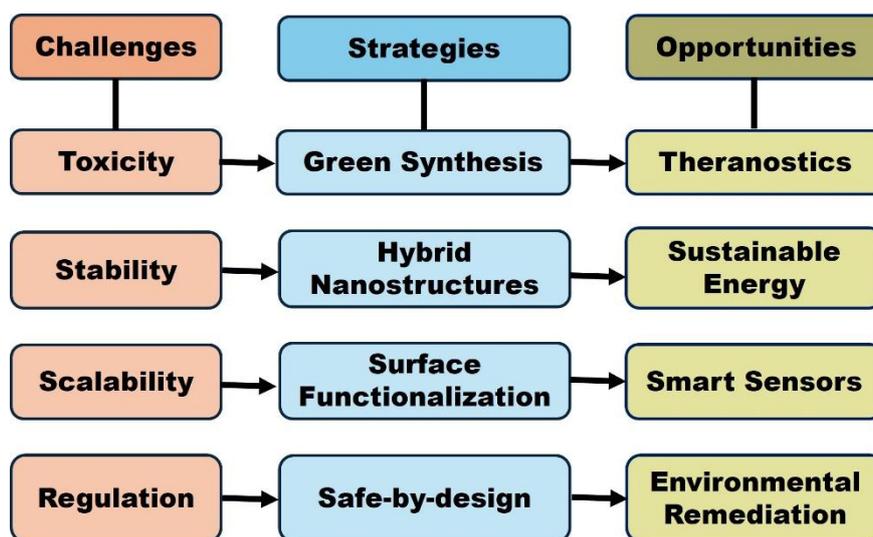


Fig. 6 Challenges, strategies, and future opportunities for metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs), highlighting key barriers to translation, potential approaches to overcome them, and emerging application domains

In addition to technical challenges, sustainability and regulatory aspects must also be addressed for the successful translation of MONPs. Green synthesis strategies using plant extracts, microorganisms, and biopolymers are gaining momentum as eco-friendly alternatives to conventional chemical routes, reducing hazardous by-products and energy consumption while supporting circular economy practices [168]. These approaches align with the broader goal of sustainable nanotechnology, ensuring minimal environmental burden and enhanced societal acceptance. Furthermore, regulatory frameworks for nanomaterials remain fragmented across regions, with limited standardized protocols for evaluating safety, toxicity, and long-term environmental impact [169-170]. Developing harmonized guidelines and international policies will be essential to ensure responsible production, commercialization, and safe deployment of MONPs in the biomedical and environmental

sectors. Integrating green synthesis with sustainability principles and regulatory oversight will therefore be central to advancing MONP applications in a socially and environmentally responsible manner. The interconnection between critical challenges, strategic approaches, and future opportunities for MONPs is summarized in Fig. 6, providing a visual roadmap for advancing their safe and sustainable development.

9. Conclusion

Metal oxide nanoparticles (MONPs) have emerged as multifunctional materials whose tunable size, morphology, crystallinity, and surface chemistry underpin their diverse applications in catalysis, energy storage, sensing, environmental remediation, and biomedicine. Advances in chemical synthesis approaches have enabled unprecedented control over these parameters, translating into enhanced performance across domains. Yet, widespread deployment requires overcoming key barriers, including toxicity, long-term stability, scalability, and the absence of harmonized regulatory frameworks. Addressing these challenges through green and sustainable synthesis strategies, rational surface engineering, hybrid nanostructures, and safe-by-design approaches will be essential to ensure responsible translation from laboratory to real-world applications. Looking ahead, the integration of interdisciplinary tools such as computational modeling, in situ monitoring, and standardized toxicological protocols can accelerate the design of nanoparticles that are not only efficient but also safe and environmentally compatible. By bridging innovation in synthesis with sustainability and regulatory responsibility, MONPs are poised to drive next-generation technologies and contribute meaningfully to sustainable development, global health, and environmental resilience.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Author Contribution

All authors have contributed equally to prepare the paper.

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