

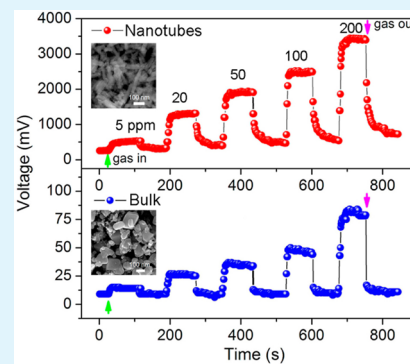
Reactive-Template Fabrication of Porous SnO₂ Nanotubes and Their Remarkable Gas-Sensing Performance

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ABSTRACT: A facile reactive-template strategy has been developed to fabricate porous SnO₂ nanotubes using MnO₂ nanorods as the sacrificial template. The formation of nanotubes is based on the redox reaction mechanism, which requires no post-treatment of the MnO₂ templates. The morphological and structural characteristics of the samples have been systematically characterized by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), thermal-gravimetric (TG), and N₂ adsorption–desorption techniques. A gas-sensor device was constructed using as-prepared SnO₂ nanotubes and was tested for its ability to detect ethanol and some other compounds. Because of the porous structure and relative large specific surface area, the SnO₂ nanotube sensor manifests remarkably improved sensing performance, including fast response/recovery, high sensitivity, and excellent repeatability, suggesting the promising application of the SnO₂ nanotube materials.

KEYWORDS: SnO₂, nanotubes, porous, gas sensor, high performance



1. INTRODUCTION

Nanostructured metal oxides with a hollow and/or porous structure have received considerable attention in many applications, including lithium-ion batteries,^{1–3} supercapacitors,⁴ solar cells,⁵ photocatalysts,⁶ and chemical gas sensors,^{7,8} resulting from their unique structural features. In particular, the 1D tubular structures of metal oxides are even more appealing because of their robust structure, large surface-to-volume ratio, improved surface area, and easily accessible inner surface to guest molecules. These properties make them highly promising for use in functional devices with high performance. For example, SnO₂ nanotubes have demonstrated enhanced electrochemical properties in lithium-ion battery applications.^{9–11} SnO₂ nanotubes have been prepared using anodic aluminum oxide (AAO) membranes,¹¹ silica nanorods,⁹ MoO₃ nanorods,¹² carbon nanotubes,¹³ and cellulose fibers¹⁴ as the template. It has been stated that the hollow structure of SnO₂ nanotubes could greatly facilitate electron transportation, increase electrode contact with the electrolyte, and alleviate electrode volume change in charge/discharge processes.

Another prominent example is the utilization of metal-oxide nanotubes for use in high-performance gas-sensing devices.^{14–17} Chen et al.¹⁶ have reported the enhanced sensing properties of α -Fe₂O₃ nanotubes prepared using AAO as the template. Song and co-workers¹⁵ have shown that the porous NiO nanotubes derived from the controlled oxidation of preformed Ni₃S₂/Ni core–shell nanorods possess improved gas-sensing performance toward ethanol. It is noted that the aforementioned metal-oxide nanotubes are mainly fabricated using the template method, where the template matrix is first conformally coated or filled with the desired metal-oxide

precursors. In a subsequent step, the template is removed via thermal calcination or chemical etching to generate the tubelike nanomaterials. The template strategy is versatile, fabricating various structured nanotubes such as straight and helical tubes depending on the morphology of the template.⁹ However, the template procedure usually suffers from tedious and multiple-synthesis processes; hence, it is time consuming. Furthermore, it might also pose a risk to contaminating the final product resulting from the incomplete removal of the template. Hence, it is of great interest to develop a facile protocol for fabricating nanotube materials by a template-free method or a reactive-template process that requires no post-treatment of the template. Pioneering works^{18–22} have shown that ZnO micro/nanotubes can be obtained by a one-step solution process through the self-corrosion of ZnO micro/nanorods. Jia et al.^{16,23} have also shown that α -Fe₂O₃ nanotubes can be formed by simply extending the hydrothermal reaction time in the presence of NH₄H₂PO₄ as the additive. α -Fe₂O₃ nanotubes have also been obtained by templating against ZnO nanorods.²⁴ However, the facile fabrication of SnO₂ nanotubes has been rarely reported.

In this work, we report an alternative synthesis of porous SnO₂ nanotubes via a reactive-template method using MnO₂ nanorods as the sacrificial template. This procedure is based on the redox chemistry between reductive Sn²⁺ and oxidative MnO₂ in an acidic environment. In our previous publication,²⁵ we employed such a reactive-template method to synthesize

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conducting polymer polypyrrole nanotubes as well as its advanced nanocomposites with noble metals. The present work proves further the validity and universality of the reactive-template process for generating inorganic nanotubes. To gain some perspective on their potential application, as-synthesized SnO₂ nanotubes were used to fabricate a chemical gas-sensing device that exhibits superior performance in terms of fast response recovery, high sensitivity, and excellent repeatability when compared to bulk SnO₂ materials.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Synthesis of MnO₂ Nanorods. The synthesis of MnO₂ nanorods followed that from our previous work.²⁵ Typically, 0.63 g of KMnO₄ and 0.25 g of MnSO₄·H₂O were dissolved in 40 mL of distilled water under stirring to form a homogeneous solution. The stock solution was then transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave (50 mL) and heated at 160 °C for 12 h. After reacting, the dark-brown precipitate was harvested by centrifugation, washed with water and ethanol, and dried at 80 °C.

2.2. Synthesis of SnO₂ Nanotubes. In a typical synthesis, 0.1 g of MnO₂ nanorods were dispersed in 35 mL of distilled water under sonication. Next, 0.3 mL of concentrated HCl was added into the mixture followed by the addition of 0.3 g of SnCl₂·2H₂O. The mixture was stirred for ca. 20 min, transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave (50 mL), and heated at 120 °C for 4 h. The product was centrifuged, washed with water and ethanol, and dried at 60 °C. Finally, porous SnO₂ nanotubes were obtained by annealing the product at 500 °C for 2 h.

2.3. Characterization and Gas-Sensing Test. The samples were characterized by means of powder X-ray diffraction (Bruker, D8 Advance, Cu K α , λ = 1.5418 Å), scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Shimadzu SS-550 and Quanta 250 FEG), transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL-1400, 100 kV), thermal-gravimetric analysis (TG, Mettler-Toledo TGA/DSC 1/1600HT, 5 °C/min, air), and N₂ adsorption–desorption (JW-BK122W). The gas-sensing properties of the as-prepared SnO₂ nanotubes were tested on a WS-60A gas-sensor measurement system (HanWei Electronics, China) at 300 °C with a relative humidity of 30%. The gas sensor is fabricated by coating a slurry of SnO₂ nanotubes and deionized water onto an alumina tube (length 4 mm, diameter 1 mm) positioned with two Au electrodes and four Pt wires on both ends. A Ni–Cr alloy foil in the alumina tube is employed as a heater. Atmospheric air is used as the reference and dilute gases. A calculated amount of test gas such as ethanol is introduced into the test chamber by a syringe. Two electric fans installed in the chamber are used to make the gas homogeneous. After completing a test, the chamber was removed for sensor recovery. The sensor sensitivity is defined as the ratio $S = R_a/R_g$, where R_a and R_g are the sensor resistance in air and in target gas, respectively.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The overall synthesis procedure for SnO₂ nanotubes is illustrated in Figure 1, which consists of two steps. α -MnO₂ nanorods (JCPDS 44–0141) were first prepared using a hydrothermal reaction.^{25,26} The MnO₂ nanorods were then employed as a reactive template to afford the conformal coating

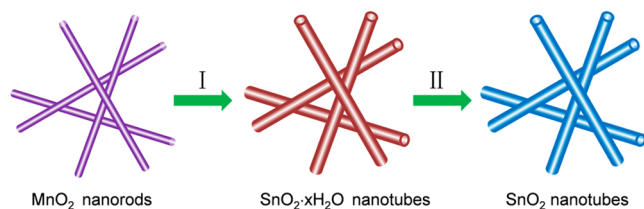


Figure 1. Synthesis process for SnO₂ nanotubes via a reactive-template strategy.

of Sn(OH)₄ or SnO₂·*x*H₂O using SnCl₂ as the Sn source via a hydrothermal process (step I). This process involves redox chemistry between MnO₂ and Sn²⁺. It is known that the standard reduction potential of MnO₂/Mn²⁺ is ca. 1.22 V in acid media (eq 1), whereas that of Sn⁴⁺/Sn²⁺ is 0.15 V, which is much lower than 1.22 V (eq 2). As a result, the MnO₂ nanorods could readily oxidize Sn²⁺ into Sn⁴⁺. The Sn⁴⁺ released in this reaction would be confined to the vicinity of the MnO₂ nanowire surface to form a precipitation layer of hydroxide (Sn(OH)₄) because of the hydrolysis and consumption of H⁺ (eq 3). At the same time, the MnO₂ template is reduced to soluble Mn²⁺. When the MnO₂ nanorods are completely dissolved because of reduction, then the Sn(OH)₄ nanotubes with a hollow interior are eventually formed. Under elevated temperature and autogenerated pressure (eq 4), the Sn hydroxide might transform into SnO₂·*x*H₂O with a rather poor crystallinity, as later proved by XRD analysis. TG analysis in Figure 2 reveals that the sample

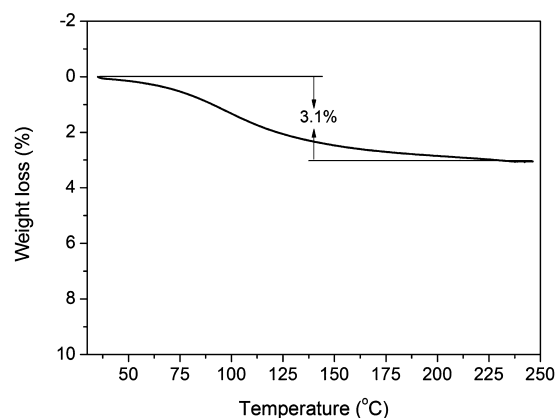
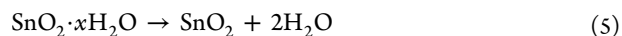
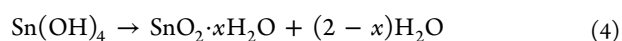
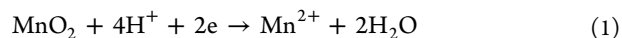


Figure 2. TG analysis of the sample before calcination.

exhibits a total weight loss of only 3%, which can be ascribed to the evaporation of water molecules in SnO₂·*x*H₂O. In step II, the formed SnO₂·*x*H₂O nanotubes can be converted into pure SnO₂ by simply annealing (eq 5).



The crystallographic structure of the as-prepared nanotubes was examined by XRD, as shown in Figure 3. It reveals that the sample before calcination shows a very low diffraction intensity with pronounced peak broadening, indicating a poor crystallinity resulting from the low hydrothermal temperature. The nanotubes after calcination exhibit good crystallinity, and the diffraction peaks accord well with that of rutile SnO₂ (JCPDS 41-1445). The crystallite size of the SnO₂ nanotubes is estimated to be 11.3 nm using the Scherrer equation based on the full-width at half-maximum (fwhm) of the (110) diffraction peak. Furthermore, no obvious peaks for the MnO₂ nanorod template and other impurities can be detected in both patterns, suggesting that MnO₂ nanorods have been completely dissolved in the hydrothermal reaction. Figure 4a–c displays

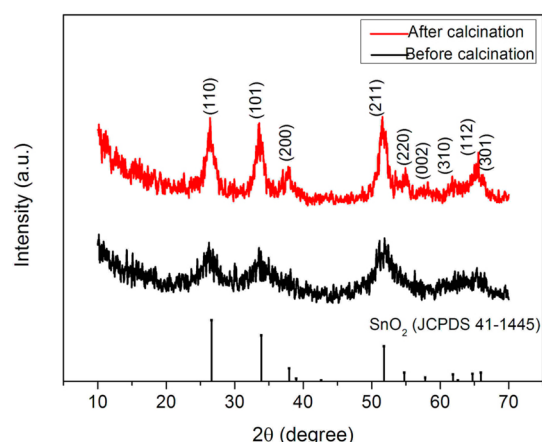


Figure 3. XRD patterns of the products before and after calcination.

the SEM images of the MnO_2 nanorods and the as-prepared SnO_2 nanotubes. The MnO_2 nanorods in Figure 4a have a 1D structure, with a longitude of several micrometers and diameter of tens of nanometers. The SnO_2 nanotubes in Figure 4b,c show a rough surface because the tube walls are composed of many nanoparticles. In addition, the SnO_2 nanotubes are observed to have a small length-to-diameter ratio compared to that of MnO_2 nanorods, which might be due to the rupture of MnO_2 nanorods caused by fast Sn^{2+} reduction in the hydrothermal process.

Further details of the as-prepared SnO_2 nanotubes can be seen in the TEM images in Figure 4d,e. In Figure 4d, the nanotubes are constituted by a large amount of nanoparticles

with a size in the range of 5–15 nm. The hollow interior of the nanotubes are visible, as indicated by the dashed lines in Figure 4d,e. Furthermore, the nanotubes also manifest a porous structure because of the interparticle pores formed by the aggregation of the nanoparticles. The porous structure has been further confirmed by the N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherm in Figure 4f. The pore-size distribution (inset of Figure 4f) calculated using the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method for both the adsorption and desorption branches of the isotherm indicates that most of the pores have a diameter in the range of 2–6 nm. Such a porous structure leads to a Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) specific surface area of $66.1 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$.

Porous nanostructured materials have long been demonstrated to have great potential for many applications because of the advantages that arise from their unique structure. When used as sensing materials, the porous structure could enable a fast response recovery and high sensitivity resulting from enhanced gas diffusion and mass transportation as well as improved active surface area.^{7,8,13,17,27,28} It is expected that as-prepared porous SnO_2 nanotubes would deliver a better sensing performance. Thus, a gas sensor was fabricated using the SnO_2 nanotubes as the active materials and preliminarily examined using ethanol and some other compounds as the target gases. For comparison, another gas sensor based on bulk SnO_2 particles was also fabricated and tested.

Figure 5a compares the dynamic response–recovery sensing curves of both gas sensors to different concentrations of ethanol (5, 20, 50, 100, and 200 ppm). It can be seen that both sensors exhibit a very fast response and recovery speed with gas in and out. The sensors also show very distinct responses to different ethanol concentrations. With increasing concentrations of

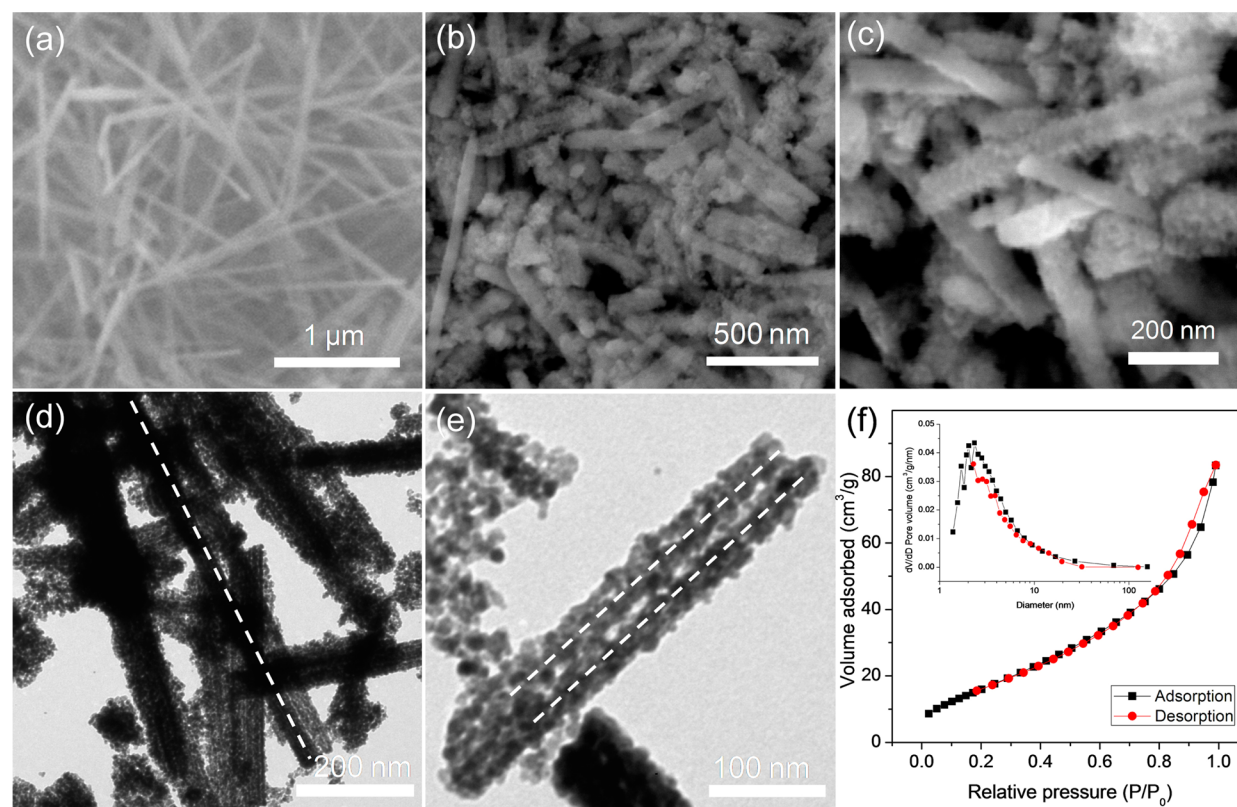


Figure 4. SEM images of (a) MnO_2 nanorods and (b, c) SnO_2 nanotubes. (d, e) TEM images of SnO_2 nanotubes. (f) N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherm with the BJH pore-size distribution in the inset.

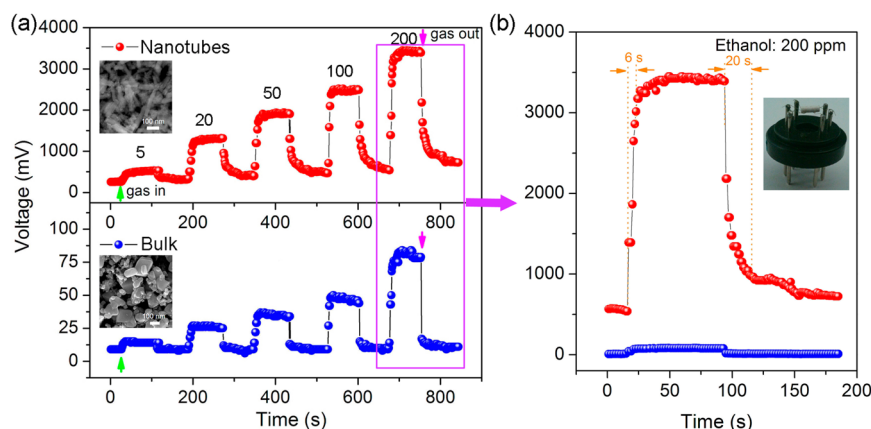


Figure 5. (a) Dynamic response-recovery sensing curves of SnO₂ nanotubes and bulk materials to different ethanol concentrations (5–200 ppm). (b) Comparison of the sensing performances to 200 ppm of ethanol (the inset is a photograph of the gas sensor device).

ethanol, the sensor sensitivity also shows a remarkable increase, indicating an excellent discrimination ability to varied gas concentrations. However, the SnO₂ nanotubes possess a much better response than that of the bulk SnO₂, which can be seen from the higher response amplitude to each ethanol concentration of the former sensor in comparison to that of the latter. For comparison, the sensing curves of both sensors to 200 ppm of ethanol are presented in Figure 5b. Obviously, the nanotube sensor shows a significantly higher signal, whereas that of the bulk SnO₂ sensor is almost negligible. The response-recovery curve of the SnO₂ nanotube sensor in Figure 5b also indicates a very short response time of 7 s and a quick recovery within 20 s. Their sensor sensitivities to different ethanol concentrations are compared in Figure 6, which suggests that

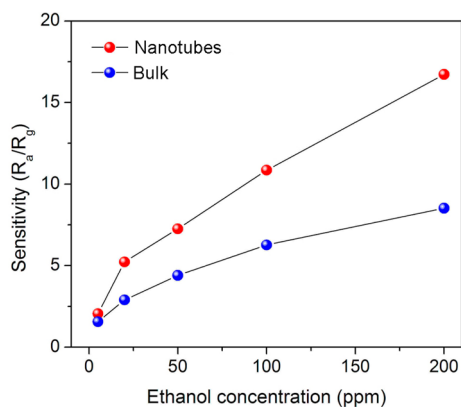


Figure 6. Sensor sensitivities of SnO₂ nanotubes and bulk materials to various ethanol concentrations.

the nanotubes are more sensitive than bulk SnO₂. To 200 ppm ethanol, the nanotube sensor has a sensitivity of 16.7, which is nearly two times higher than that (8.5) of bulk SnO₂. The superior sensor response of SnO₂ nanotubes over bulk SnO₂ particles probably results from the porous structure and large specific surface area of 66.1 m²/g, which is nearly four times higher than that (17.5 m²/g) of bulk SnO₂ particles. Furthermore, compared with previous works,^{29,30} the gas sensors based on SnO₂ nanoparticles have been reported to show a response time longer than 20 s to 100 ppm ethanol, whereas the SnO₂ nanotube in this work has a response time of only several seconds (<6 s), as evaluated from Figure 5a. This

further confirms the advantages of the SnO₂ nanotube structure in fabricating high-performance gas sensors.

The sensor sensitivity of SnO₂ nanotubes to several other compounds (all of the concentrations are 20 ppm) is also studied. The results shown in Figure 7a confirm that the nanotubes sensor has a higher sensitivity to all of the test gases than the bulk SnO₂. As shown in Figure 7a, the SnO₂ nanotube sensor displays the highest sensitivity, with a value of up to 17.2 for glycol and 14.6 for butanol, which are much larger than that for ethanol (5.8), acetone (2.4), and methanol (1.9). It seems that the sensor is more sensitive to higher alcohols. The glycol molecule has two hydroxyls, which could exhibit stronger reducibility than ethanol, leading to a higher response in surface-sensing reactions with the chemisorbed oxygen species (O₂⁻, O⁻, and O²⁻) on the SnO₂ surface.^{29–31} Except for glycol and acetone, it is noted the sensor sensitivity shows an overall increase with the carbon chain number of alcohols (i.e., in the sequence of methanol < ethanol < butanol). Such a phenomenon has also been previously reported by Yeh et al.³⁰ They found that the hydrothermally prepared SnO₂ nanoparticles possessed a higher sensitivity to alcohols with a longer carbon chain,³⁰ although the reason to this finding remains unclear. This result is possibly related to the different chemical reactivity of the alcohols following different sensing mechanisms. In the sensing process, the alcohols will be oxidized by the oxygen species and decomposed into aldehydes or alkenes through two possible mechanisms of dehydrogenation or dehydration.³² Another possibility might be related to the conversion of CH₂ groups into CO₂ and H₂O. The different carbon chains might pose a different effect on the sensing reactions.

Humidity is an important factor that might affect the gas-sensing properties of a semiconductor metal oxide.^{33,34} The SnO₂ nanotube sensor has been thus investigated for detecting 100 ppm of ethanol under different relative humidities. As shown in Figure 7b, the relative humidity demonstrates a large influence on sensing performance. Overall, the sensor response amplitude manifests a decrease with the increase of relative humidity from 17 to 54%, and the response time of the sensor shows a significant extension from 3 to 11 s. However, the influence of the relative humidity on the recovery process of gas sensors is not very significant. The adverse effect of high humidity on gas-sensor performance can be ascribed to the immeasurable chemisorption/physorption of water molecules on the SnO₂ surface,^{34,35} which might interfere with the sensing

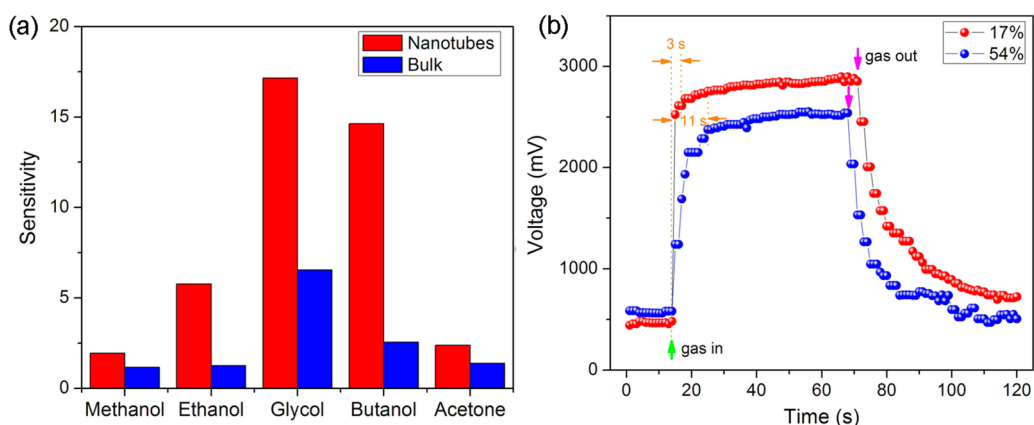


Figure 7. (a) Sensor sensitivities of SnO₂ nanotubes and bulk materials to various compounds (20 ppm). (b) Dynamic response-recovery sensing curves of SnO₂ nanotubes to 100 ppm of ethanol at different relative humidities (17 and 54%).

reactions by replacing the oxygen species preadsorbed on the SnO₂ surface, decreasing the activity of the sensing layer and retarding the response speed of gas sensors.

From the viewpoint of practical applications, gas sensors are expected to have good repeatability and stability. These parameters have been investigated by applying the SnO₂ nanotube sensor to successive gas-sensing tests in six cycles over a period of 4 months. As shown in Figure 8, the SnO₂

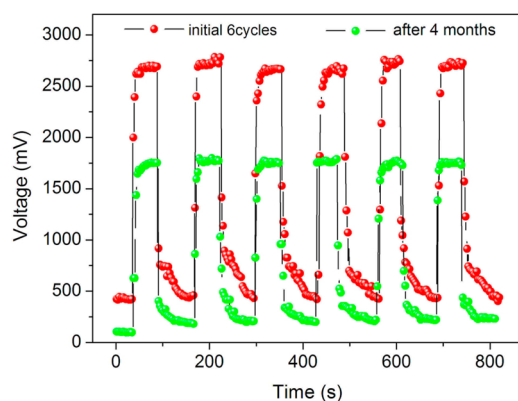


Figure 8. Repeatability and long-term stability of the SnO₂ nanotubes sensor (100 ppm of ethanol).

nanotube sensor exhibits a very fast response and recovery on successive gas-sensing tests in response to 100 ppm of ethanol, revealing an excellent repeatability even after 4 months. However, the long-term stability of the sensor is not very satisfactory. As can be seen, after working for 4 months the response of the sensor shows a decrease from its initial response amplitudes; however, it still features a very fast response-recovery characteristic. The decreased sensor stability may be caused by the structural change of the SnO₂ nanotubes over a long working time. Further effort is needed to improve the sensor stability for acquiring a long sensor life. Potentially, the decreased sensor performance might be alleviated by surface functionalization of the SnO₂ nanotubes with catalyst nanoparticles.

4. CONCLUSIONS

A reactive-template method using MnO₂ nanorods has been developed for fabricating SnO₂ nanotubes. This procedure requires no post-treatment or removal of the template. The

reactive MnO₂ nanorods serve as an oxidative platform to afford a conformal coverage of the Sn component. MnO₂ nanorods dissolved into the form of soluble Mn²⁺ on reduction by Sn²⁺, and they simultaneously generated SnO₂ nanotubes with a hollow interior. Inspired by the unique porous structure, the SnO₂ nanotubes have been employed as the active materials to fabricate gas-sensing devices, which demonstrated excellent performance in terms of sensor sensitivity, fast response recovery, and repeatability, for alcohols. The SnO₂ nanotubes are also found to have much better sensor properties than bulk SnO₂ materials, which might result from their large specific surface area and hollow structures.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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