

## Ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> Nanorods: Template- and Surfactant-Free Solution Phase Synthesis, Growth Mechanism, Optical, Gas-Sensing, and Surface Adsorption Properties

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A novel template- and surfactant-free low temperature solution-phase method has been successfully developed for the controlled synthesis of ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorods for the first time. The ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorods are  $2.0 \pm 0.5$  nm in diameter, which is smaller than its exciton Bohr radius. The ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods show a high specific area ( $191.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ). Such a thin SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorod is new in the family of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures and presents a strong quantum confinement effect. Its formation depends on the reaction temperature as well as on the concentration of the urea solution. A nonclassical crystallization process, Ostwald ripening process followed by an oriented attachment mechanism, is proposed based on the detailed observations from a time-dependent crystal evolution process. Importantly, such structured SnO<sub>2</sub> has shown a strong structure-induced enhancement of gas-sensing properties and has exhibited greatly enhanced gas-sensing property for the detection of ethanol than that of other structured SnO<sub>2</sub>, such as the powders of nanobelts and microrods. Moreover, these ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods exhibit excellent ability to remove organic pollutant in wastewater by enormous surface adsorption. These properties are mainly attributed to its higher surface-to-volume ratio and ultrathin diameter. This work provides a novel low temperature, green, and inexpensive pathway to the synthesis of ultrathin nanorods, offering a new material form for sensors, solar cells, catalysts, water treatments, and other applications.

### Introduction

Semiconducting metal oxide nanocrystals have a wide range of applications in photocatalysts, battery materials, sensors, and optoelectronic devices because of their quantum confinement effect and size- and shape-dependent characteristics.<sup>1–4</sup> In particular, SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals are important

owing to their potential applications based on gas sensing,<sup>5,6</sup> field-emission,<sup>7</sup> electrochemical<sup>8</sup> and photocatalytic properties.<sup>9</sup> Recently, these useful properties have stimulated the search for new synthetic methodologies for well-controlled SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures. Several reports on high-temperature physical SnO<sub>2</sub> syntheses have been published.<sup>10</sup> Compared with high-temperature physical synthetic methods, the chemical methods appear to be of particular interest because they offer the potential of facile scale-up and occur at moderate temperatures. The chemical syntheses of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures are generally carried out in water or high boiling point organic solvent using tin salts or organic tin as starting materials in the presence of surfactants.<sup>11</sup> These

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methods are convenient and may lead to SnO<sub>2</sub> nanomaterials of controlled morphology. For example, using oleylamine as solvent and oleic acid as surfactant, Li and co-workers synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorods with a diameter of about 5 nm based on the oleylamine-assisted hydrolysis of tin alkoxide in the presence of high content of oleic acid at 180 °C.<sup>12</sup> Wang and co-workers demonstrated the synthesis of twisted and branched SnO<sub>2</sub> poly crystalline nanowires with diameters of 1.5–4.5 nm by a solvothermal process at 180 °C, combined with the introduction of oleylamine and oleic acid used as surfactants.<sup>13</sup>

It is well-known now that the size and morphology of the nanomaterials greatly affect their properties as well their further applications. Particularly for SnO<sub>2</sub> nanomaterials, early studies demonstrated that their gas sensing performance is affected by several structural parameters such as particle size, surface-to-volume ratio, and crystallinity.<sup>14</sup> For example, small particle size, a large surface-volume ratio, and high crystallinity are required to enhance the sensitivity of gas sensors. Although many one-dimensional (1-D) SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures have been synthesized by chemical methods, such as solution-phase precursor route,<sup>15</sup> microemulsions,<sup>16</sup> template methods,<sup>17</sup> and hydrothermal methods,<sup>18</sup> most of these 1-D SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals have diameters larger than that required for the emergence of the quantum confinement effect (the exciton Bohr radius of SnO<sub>2</sub> is only 2.7 nm). This limits their applications, to some extent. Recently, Samulski and co-workers have demonstrated the synthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorods with a diameter of 3.4 nm by a hydrothermal process at 150 °C.<sup>19</sup> However, the development of template- and surfactant-free low temperature routes (<100 °C) for the production of ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorods remains a challenge.

In the present work, we demonstrate a facile and economical route for the large-scale synthesis of ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorods with an average diameter of 2 ± 0.5 nm via a simple hydrolysis reaction of tin tetrachloride with urea at 90 °C, using neither template nor surfactant. Briefly, SnCl<sub>4</sub> is mixed with CO(NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub> in aqueous solution at room temperature and atmospheric pressure, and the mixture is then heated at 90 °C for 24 h, which permits ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorods to form. Experimental observations suggest SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods are formed by a nonclassical crystallization process: classical Ostwald ripening process followed by a nonclassical oriented attachment mechanism. Furthermore, these ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods exhibit enhanced gas-sensing activity and excellent ability to remove organic pollutant in wastewater.

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## Experimental Section

**Chemicals.** Five hydrated tin tetrachloride (SnCl<sub>4</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O), urea (CO(NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>), fuming hydrochloride (HCl, 37%), super-pure water (Millipore, 18.2 MΩcm), absolute ethanol. All reagents used were analytically pure, and were purchased from Beijing Chemical Reagent Company and were used without further purification.

**Preparation of Ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> Nanorods.** In a typical synthesis, 0.1 g of SnCl<sub>4</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O, 1 g of CO(NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, and 2 mL of fuming HCl were added to 40 mL of superpure water under mild stirring, forming a colorless transparent aqueous solution. This solution was transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave of 50-mL capacity. The autoclave was sealed and maintained at 90 °C for 24 h. Finally, the autoclave was cooled down to room temperature naturally. The resulting white product was retrieved by centrifugation and washed several times with super-pure water and absolute ethanol, and then dried in vacuum at 50 °C for 4 h.

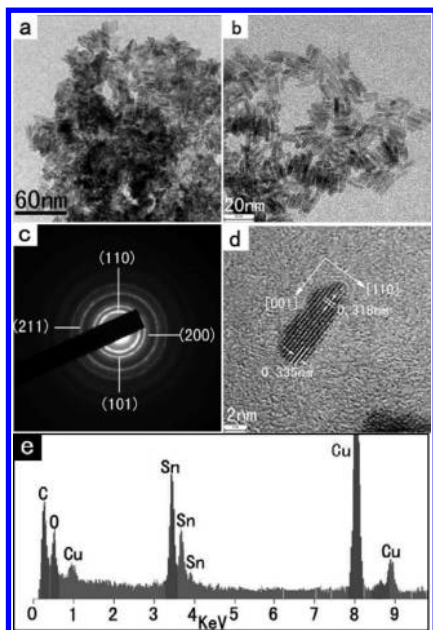
**Characterization.** X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the products were recorded on a Rigaku (Japan) D/max-γA X-ray diffractometer equipped with graphite monochromatized Cu-Kα radiation (λ = 1.54178 Å). Samples for transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis were prepared by drying a drop of nanocrystal dispersion in absolute ethanol on amorphous carbon-coated copper grids. Particle sizes and shapes high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) characterization was performed with a JEOL 2010 operated at 200 kV. The Raman spectrum was produced at room temperature on a Spex 1403 Raman spectrometer with an argon-ion laser at an excitation wavelength of 514.5 nm. UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded with a Shimadzu UV-2500. Photoluminescence (PL) measurements were carried out by using a Perkin-Elmer LS-55 luminescence spectrometer with a pulsed Xe lamp.

**Gas-Sensing Measurement.** The SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor was fabricated by dip-coating as-prepared SnO<sub>2</sub> alcohol colloids to the ceramic tube of the sensor body without an additional annealing process except for aging in the gas sensor system. The sensitivity (*S*) is defined as  $S = R_a/R_g$ , where *R<sub>a</sub>* is the resistance in atmospheric air (its relative humidity is about 25%) and *R<sub>g</sub>* is the resistance of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods in ethanol-air mixed gas. *R<sub>a</sub>* is around 4.7 MΩ in atmospheric air at the working temperature of 270 °C.

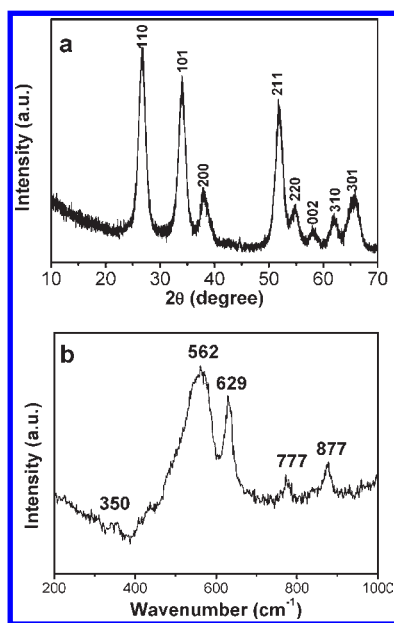
**Water Treatment Experiment.** Ten milligrams of the absorbent was added into 25 mL of acid fuchsine aqueous solution (1.0 × 10<sup>-4</sup> M) in a flask reactor (capacity ca. 100 mL) at room temperature. The suspension was stirred magnetically in the dark. UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded at different intervals to monitor the absorption process using a Shimadzu-2550 spectrophotometer.

## Results and Discussion

**Morphology and Structure.** The structure and morphology of these SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods were investigated by TEM. Figure 1a shows the overall morphology of the sample, which indicates that the obtained product consists of large quantities of rod-like structures. The enlarged TEM image shown in Figure 1b reveals that these small nanorods are 2.0 ± 0.5 nm in diameter and 12 ± 3 nm in length. The bright ring patterns from selected area electron diffraction (SAED) given in Figure 1c can be well indexed to the rutile phase structure of SnO<sub>2</sub>. The HRTEM image, Figure 1d, demonstrates the single-crystal nature of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. The lattice spacing of 0.318 nm between adjacent lattice planes in the image corresponds to the distance between two (001) crystal planes, confirming [001] as the preferred growth direction for the rutile phased SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. Energy dispersive



**Figure 1.** (a) Low-magnification TEM image of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. (b) High-magnification TEM image of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. (c) SAED pattern of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. (d) HRTEM image of a single SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod. (e) EDS spectrum of the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods.



**Figure 2.** (a) Typical XRD pattern of the as-synthesized ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. (b) A typical Raman spectrum of the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods.

X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) characterizations demonstrated that the rod-like structures are composed of tin and oxide (Figure 1e). Tin and oxide peaks can be clearly observed in this spectrum. The Cu and C peaks in the EDS spectrum arise from the copper TEM grid used in the measurements.

The powder XRD pattern of the as-synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods sample is shown in Figure 2a. The diffraction peaks reveals that the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods have a tetragonal crystal structure with lattice parameters  $a = b = 4.74$  Å and  $c = 3.19$  Å, which are well matched with those of the corresponding bulk rutile SnO<sub>2</sub> ( $P4_2/mnm$ ,  $a = b = 4.7382$  Å and  $c = 3.1871$  Å, JPCDS No. 41-1445), while

peaks are obviously broadened with decreasing crystal size. No other crystalline impurities were detected in the synthesized product. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) result indicates that the specific area of the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods is 191.5 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>. Consequently, from the results of the XRD, EDS, and BET analyses, the as-synthesized product could be determined to be pure rutile phase SnO<sub>2</sub> with high specific area.

Raman scattering is a useful tool for the characterization of nanosized materials and a qualitative probe of the presence of lattice defects in solids.<sup>20</sup> At the same time, Raman spectroscopy is sensitive to crystal surface area.<sup>21</sup> The Raman spectrum of as-synthesized sample shows the presence of five peaks at 350, 562, 629, 777, and 877 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 2b). Among the peaks, Raman peaks at 629 and 777 cm<sup>-1</sup> can be indexed to A<sub>1g</sub> and B<sub>2g</sub> vibration modes, respectively.<sup>22</sup> However, the Raman peaks at 350, 562, and 877 cm<sup>-1</sup> are not detected in the bulk rutile SnO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, compared with the Raman peaks of bulk rutile SnO<sub>2</sub>, the Raman peaks of the present SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods are considerably broader. Fauchet et al. and Richter et al. reported that while Si nanocrystals are smaller than 30 nm, it would lead to down shift and broadening of the Raman spectrum.<sup>23,24</sup> Chuu et al. found that for small CdS crystallites with diameters ranging from 3 to 100 nm the size effect is manifested by addition to the normal modes of the single crystal.<sup>25</sup> Therefore, these new Raman modes, being related to the facet surface area of a crystal, arise from nanoscaled SnO<sub>2</sub> with small grain size. This finding agrees very well with the Matossi force constant model.<sup>26</sup> The Raman spectrum confirms the characteristics of the tetragonal rutile structure as well as the very small size of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods.

**Optical Properties.** High-energy shift of an absorption edge is generally expected for nanomaterials. To confirm this, the absorption spectrum was acquired from the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods, and the results are shown in Figure 3a. The optical transition of SnO<sub>2</sub> crystals is known to be a direct type.<sup>27</sup> In this case, the absorption coefficient  $\alpha$  is expressed as  $\alpha(h\nu) \sim (h\nu - E_g)^{1/2}/h\nu$ .<sup>28</sup> Plots of  $(\alpha(h\nu))^2$  versus  $h\nu$  can be derived from the absorption data in Figure 3a. The intercept of the tangent to the plot gives a good approximation of the band gap energy of the direct band gap materials. This is  $\sim 4.72$  eV for the ultrathin nanorods, as shown in the inset of Figure 3a, which are far larger than the value of 3.62 eV for bulk SnO<sub>2</sub> because of the strong quantum size effect.

Figure 3b shows the room-temperature photoluminescence spectra of the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods, which were measured by using a Perkin–Elmer LS-55 luminescence spectrometer with an excitation-slit width of 5 nm and an emission-slit width of 5 nm. A green emission centered at

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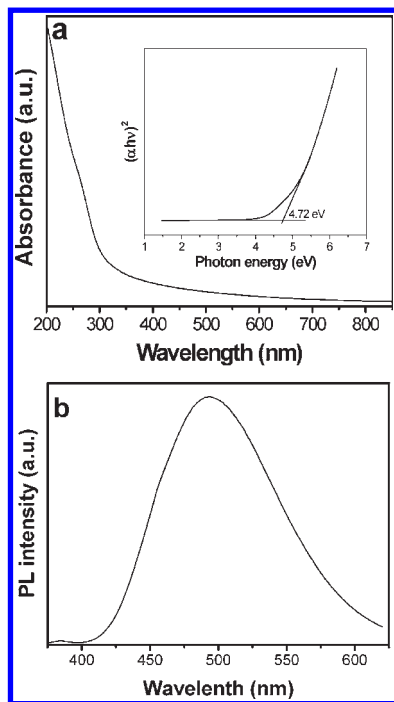
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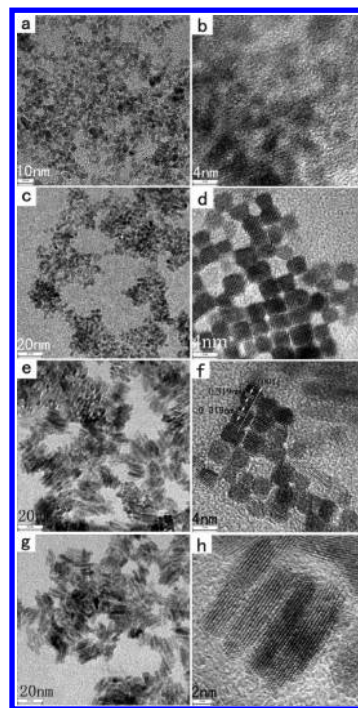
**Figure 3.** (a) UV-vis adsorption of the as-synthesized ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. (b) A typical room-temperature photoluminescence spectrum of the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods.

493 nm (2.51 eV) was observed from the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. Since the band gap of the present SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods is 4.72 eV as determined from the UV/visible absorption spectrum, the observed green luminescence band cannot be ascribed to the direct recombination of a conduction electron in the Sn 4d band with a hole in the O 2p valence band. The nature of the transition is generally believed to be Sn or O vacancies formed during the growth process inducing trapping states in the band gap. A similar emission has been reported in the case of SnO<sub>2</sub> polycrystalline nanowires synthesized by the solvothermal route.<sup>13</sup>

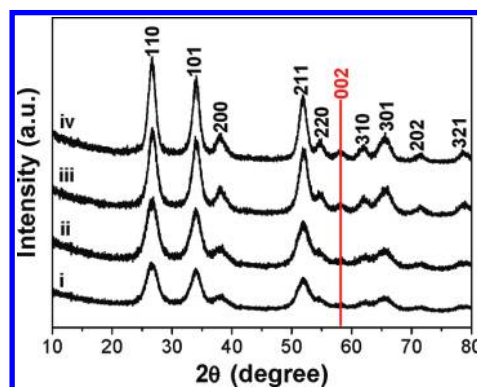
#### Morphology Evolution Process and Growth Mechanism.

To investigate the growth process of the ultrathin nanorods, a series of experiments were carried out, as discussed below. We followed the nucleation and growth steps by studying the samples obtained at different reaction stages using the TEM, HRTEM, and XRD techniques. Figure 4a–h shows the TEM and HRTEM images of the samples obtained after the reaction performed for 3 h, 8 h, 15 h, and 24 h, respectively. These images distinctly reveal the transformation process of the particle morphology from the nanoparticles to nearly monodisperse nanocubes, to short nanochains, and finally to single-crystalline nanorods.

Figure 4a,b shows the TEM and HRTEM images of the product obtained after 3 h, indicating the product consisted of sphere-like SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles about 1–1.5 nm in diameter. If the reaction time was prolonged to 8 h, most of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were developed into single-crystalline cube-like nanocrystals (Figure 4c,d). The cubes were about 2 nm in width. It should be noted that the size of the cubes is consistent with the diameter of the final SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. After 15 h reaction, most of the nanocubes in the solution spontaneously reorganized into short nanochains (Figure 4e,f). The HRTEM image



**Figure 4.** TEM and HRTEM images of the products prepared at 90 °C for various time: (a, b) 3 h, (c, d) 8 h, (e, f) 15 h, and (g, h) 24 h.

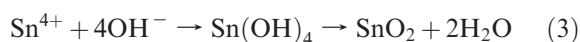
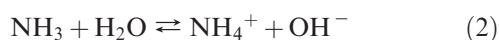


**Figure 5.** XRD patterns of SnO<sub>2</sub> samples prepared at 90 °C for (i) 3 h, (ii) 8 h, (iii) 15 h, and (iv) 24 h.

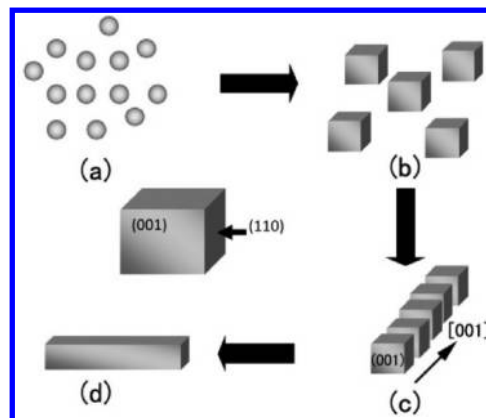
indicates that the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes contained in one nanochain are bound to each other on (001) faces, leading to the particle attachment along the [001] direction, which is consistent with the growth direction of the final nanorods. Finally, as the reaction time increased enough (24 h), single-crystalline SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods were formed by the recrystallization of multiple nanocubes contained in a chain-like aggregate that fused gradually into one crystal (Figure 4g–h).

Time-dependent XRD patterns (Figure 5) reveal the crystallographic orientation transformation from nanoparticles to nanorods. For the initial nanoparticles and nanocubes, no obvious (002) diffraction peak was detected. For the intermediate nanochains, a detectable (002) diffraction peak can be seen. For the single-crystalline nanorods, the (002) diffraction peak is stronger. The enhancement of the (002) diffraction peak can be attributed to the oriented attachment of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes by binding to each other on (001) faces, which is consistent with the observation of TEM and HRTEM.

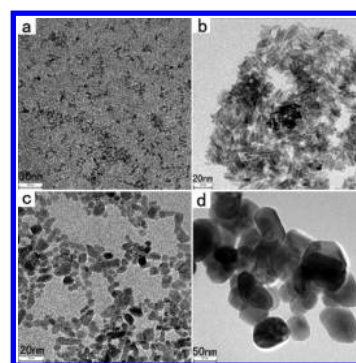
From the above experimental observations, we believe that formation of the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods can be rationally expressed as a kinetically controlled nonclassical crystallization process: classical Ostwald ripening process followed by a nonclassical oriented attachment mechanism. First, when the hydrolysis reaction was carried out in the solution system at 90 °C for 3 h, it generated rutile phase SnO<sub>2</sub> small nanoparticles, which were formed in the solution through a homogeneous nucleation process. Then, to minimize the overall energy of the system, the small SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles started to dissolve into the solution and grow onto large nanoparticles of SnO<sub>2</sub> via a classical crystallization process known as Ostwald ripening. Because of the ripening mechanism, the large nanoparticles gradually evolved into nanocubes. Subsequently, the nanocubes assembled into short nanochains by binding to each other on (001) faces. Finally, the linear aggregates recrystallized into single-crystalline nanorods whose diameter was determined by the diameter of the nanocubes. Therefore, the present SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods are prepared through the synergic effect of ripening mechanism and oriented attachment. A classical Ostwald ripening process generated the intermediate nanocubes; subsequently, a nonclassical particle-based crystallization process yields the single-crystalline nanorods. In summary, the chemical reactions contained in the formation procedure of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods can be seen in eqs 1, 2, and 3:



Then, what is the driving force for the oriented attachment of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes? The growth of nanorods or nanowires by oriented attachment of small nanocrystals has been reported for several materials, such as CdTe nanowires,<sup>29</sup> ZnO nanorods,<sup>30</sup> PbSe nanowires and nanorings,<sup>31</sup> ZnS nanorods,<sup>32</sup> and CdSe nanowires,<sup>33</sup> Cu nanowires,<sup>34</sup> and In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanowires.<sup>35</sup> The driving forces of the 1-D oriented attachment of nanocrystals were generally attributed to the dipole–dipole interactions induced by the inherent anisotropy of crystal structure, interactions between organic long-chain molecules, and weak interaction between magic-sized clusters. However, it seems that these driving forces mentioned-above cannot be fully used to explain the formation of the present ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods because of the following: (1) no polar surfaces along the [001] direction of rutile phase SnO<sub>2</sub>;<sup>11c</sup> (2) no long-chain organic molecules were used in



**Figure 6.** Schematic illustration of the formation and shape evolution of the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods: (a) Formation of sphere-like SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles after 3 h reaction; (b) Formation of nanocubes by an Ostwald ripening process; (c) Formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanochains through SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes binding to each other on (001) faces; (d) SnO<sub>2</sub> nanochains grown into single-crystalline nanorods by fusion and recrystallization of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes.



**Figure 7.** TEM images of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals prepared in different urea concentration: (a) 0.2 g, (b) 0.6 g, (c) 2 g, and (d) 4 g. In all cases, the reaction was carried out at 90 °C for 24 h.

the present reaction; (3) as the primary built unit of the self-assembled nanochains, the size of the nanocubes is far larger than that of magic-sized clusters. For rutile phase SnO<sub>2</sub>, computer simulation studies have demonstrated that the sequence of surface energy in different crystallographic orientations is (001) > (101) > (100) > (110), that is, the (001) crystal face has the highest surface energy.<sup>36–38</sup> Therefore, according to the Lowest Energy principle, the [001] direction theoretically is a preferential growth direction of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals. Here, HRTEM image (Figure 4f) clearly demonstrated that the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes bind to each other on (001) faces to maximally reduce their surface energies, which offer a convincing evidence to support that surface energy probably is a driving force in the oriented attachment process of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocubes. The formation process of the nanorods is summarized in Figure 6.

**Influencing Factors.** Controlled experiments indicate that the concentration of the urea solution is crucial for the formation of the ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. Figure 7 exhibits the morphologies of the products obtained from

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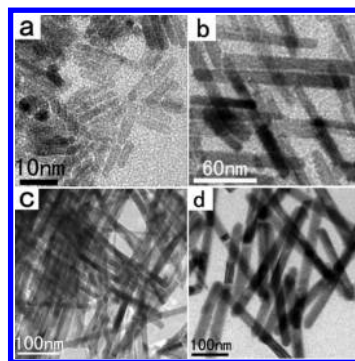
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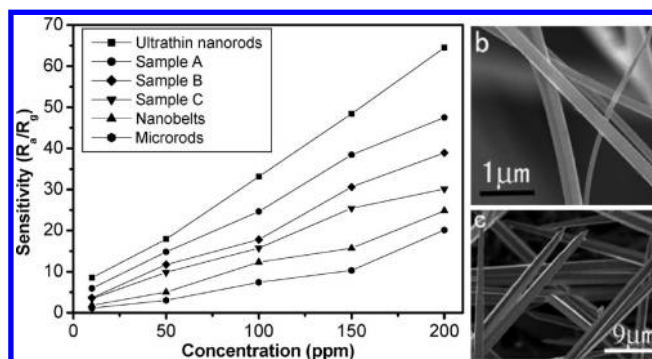
the aqueous solution of urea with different concentration when keeping other experimental conditions unchanged. In the absence of urea, no crystalline products were obtained. When 0.2 g of urea was added into the reaction mixtures, the products consist of lots of nanoparticles with very small sizes (Figure 7a). When the amount of urea is increased to 0.6 g, the product is a mixture of nanorods and nanoparticles (Figure 7b). When the amount of urea is increased to 2 g,  $\sim 10$  nm sized  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles were obtained (Figure 7c). When the amount of urea is further increased to 4 g,  $\sim 50$  nm sized  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles were obtained (Figure 7d). These results indicate that ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods can only be synthesized in a solution that contains a suitable amount of urea. As a hydrolysis agent, the concentration of urea may control the hydrolysis rate of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$ . When reaction occurs at a low concentration of urea, the concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  generated by the hydrolysis of urea is low (reaction eq 1). As a result, the concentration of  $\text{OH}^-$  generated from the hydrolysis of  $\text{NH}_3$  is low (reaction eq 2). The low concentration of  $\text{OH}^-$  restrains the hydrolysis of the  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  (reaction eq 3). Therefore, the nucleation rate of  $\text{SnO}_2$  is much faster than the rate of crystal growth because of the existence of a small quantity of  $\text{Sn}(\text{OH})_4$  (reaction eq 3). Large quantities of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nuclei tend to orient and aggregate together to form larger and more thermodynamically stable nanorods. On the contrary, when the concentration of urea is high, the concentration of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  ions is greatly reduced because of the hydrolysis of the  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$ ; therefore, the rate of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nucleation is then depressed, which slows down the aggregation of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nuclei before the crystal growth of  $\text{SnO}_2$  during the solution-phase process. Large  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles are formed under these conditions instead of nanorods.

We further investigated the effect of reaction temperature on the morphology of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanostructures. The sample prepared at 120 °C for 24 h was composed of nanorods and nanocrystals (Figure 8a). The diameter of the nanorods is about 4–5 nm. When the hydrolysis reaction was performed at 140 °C, the obtained products are nanorods with an average diameter of 15 nm (Figure 8b, sample A). When the reaction temperature was increased to 160 °C, the obtained products are composed of a large number of uniform  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanowires (Figure 8c, sample B). The nanowires are about 30 nm in diameter and several micrometers in length. When the reaction temperature was further increased to 200 °C, the products are uniform nanorods, which are about 40 nm in diameter and 600 nm in length (Figure 8d, sample C). These controlled experimental observations suggest that a more rapid hydrolysis at higher temperature favors the formation of relative larger 1-D  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanostructures, suppressing the growth of ultrathin nanorods.

**Gas-Sensing Properties.** Since the as-synthesized ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods have high crystallinity, large surface area, it can be expected that the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods possess an enhanced gas-sensing performance. To test this, we investigated the  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$  gas sensing properties of the as-synthesized  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods. The sensitivity ( $S$ ) is defined as  $S = R_a/R_g$ , where  $R_a$  is the resistance in atmospheric air (its relative humidity is about 25%) and  $R_g$  is the resistance of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods in ethanol-air mixed gas.  $R_a$  is around 4.7 M $\Omega$  in atmospheric air at the working



**Figure 8.** TEM images of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanocrystals prepared at different reaction temperature for 24 h: (a) 120 °C, (b) 140 °C, (c) 160 °C, and (d) 200 °C.



**Figure 9.** (a) Relationship between the sensor sensitivity and the ethanol concentration of the samples. (c) The SEM image of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  microrods. The preparation of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanobelts and microrods is based on the thermal evaporation route described by Hu et al.<sup>45</sup>

temperature of 270 °C. The experimental results demonstrated that the ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorod has a very high sensitivity to ethanol, as shown in Figure 9. The sensitivities of the ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods are 8.5, 17.9, 33.1, 48.4, and 64.5 to 10, 50, 100, 150, and 200 ppm ethanol vapor, respectively. As comparison, sample A, sample B, sample C,  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanobelts, and microrods were selected to evaluate the ethanol gas-sensing performance, respectively. Keeping the experimental parameters unchanged, it was found that the as-synthesized ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods have obviously better gas-sensing properties than those of the sample A, sample B, sample C,  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanobelts, and microrods. Furthermore, compared with the ethanol gas-sensing properties of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods (31.4 to 300 ppm),<sup>39</sup> hollow spheres (7.5 to 50 ppm),<sup>40</sup> and nanotubes (8 to 20 ppm),<sup>41</sup> reported by others, those of the as-synthesized ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods are superior.

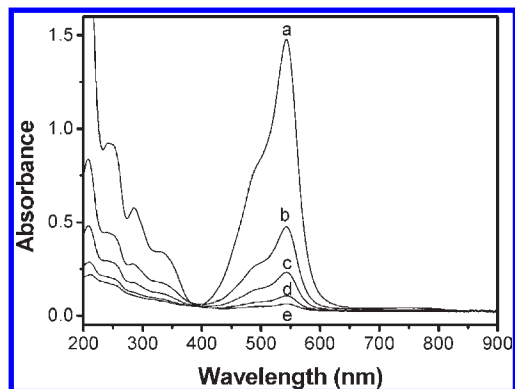
As for the sensing mechanism of ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods, it involves the interaction between ethanol and the chemisorbed oxygen ions on the surface of the ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods, such as  $\text{O}_2^-$ ,  $\text{O}^-$ , and  $\text{O}^{2-}$ .<sup>42</sup> It is well-known that a space-charge-layer (SCL) will form on the surface of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  when an electron from semiconducting  $\text{SnO}_2$  is trapped by adsorbed oxygen species. Because

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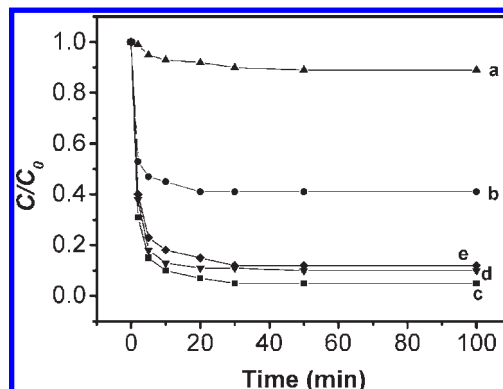
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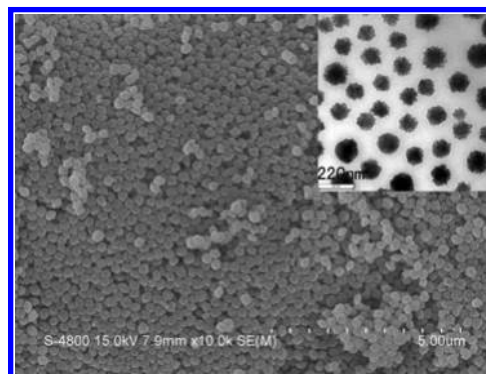
**Figure 10.** Absorption spectra of a solution of acid fuchsine ( $1.0 \times 10^{-4}$  M, 25 mL) in the presence of ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods (10 mg) at different time intervals of (a) 0 min; (b) 2 min; (c) 5 min; (d) 10 min; and (e) 20 min, respectively.

the ethanol reacts with the ionic oxygen species, the electrons trapped by the oxygen adsorbents are released to the metal oxides. As a result, the conductivity of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  will increase. Earlier studies demonstrated that the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanostructure will exhibit better gas-sensing properties when its size is reduced to a scale close to or smaller than the double of SCL thickness (for  $\text{SnO}_2$ , its SCL thickness is 3 nm).<sup>43</sup> In the present work, the diameters of the ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods are only  $2 \pm 0.5$  nm, which is obviously smaller than the SCL thickness of  $\text{SnO}_2$ . Therefore, as a result, the as-synthesized ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods display a very high sensitivity to ethanol gas. In addition, we believe that the higher sensitivity of the ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods might be attributed to their single-crystalline structure, which make the electron transfer become easy in the SCL. Furthermore, the sensitivity of the ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods is directly proportional to the concentration of ethanol gas. The linear relation between sensitivity and gas concentration can be expressed as  $S = A[C]^N$ , where  $A$  is a constant, and  $C$  is the gas concentration. The value of  $N$  is 1 or 1/2. Generally, the value of  $N$  is 1 when the size of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles is comparable with the SCL thickness of  $\text{SnO}_2$ , while the value is 1/2 when the size of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles increases to more than 20 nm.<sup>39,44</sup> Since the diameter of the nanorods is only  $2 \pm 0.5$  nm, the value of  $N$  is 1. Here, such a linear dependence of the sensitivity on the ethanol concentration further suggests that the ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods can be used as a promising material for the fabrication of gas sensors.

**Applications in Water Treatment.** We further used the as-obtained  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods to investigate their applications in water treatment. Acid fuchsine, a common azo-dye in the textile industry, was chosen as a typical organic waste and was the characteristic absorption of acid fuchsine at about 545 nm for monitoring the adsorption process. Figure 10 indicates the absorption spectra of an aqueous solution of acid fuchsine (initial concentration:  $1.0 \times 10^{-4}$  M, 25 mL) in the presence of 10 mg of as-synthesized ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods under stirring in the



**Figure 11.** Adsorption rate of the azo-dye acid fuchsine on (a) commercial  $\text{SnO}_2$ ; (b) commercial  $\text{TiO}_2$ ; (c) fresh ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods; (d) secondary; and (e) third, respectively.



**Figure 12.** FESEM and TEM (insert) images of the self-assembled  $\text{SnO}_2$  submicrometer spheres from the ultrathin nanorods.

dark. As shown in Figure 10, the absorbance intensity of the peak corresponding to the acid fuchsine molecule at 545 nm decreased very quickly once  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods were added. With time increasing, the typical sharp peak at 545 nm almost completely vanished after 20 min. As comparison, the commercial  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles were selected to evaluate the adsorb capacity of acid fuchsine, respectively. Keeping the experimental parameters unchanged, it was found that the as-synthesized ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods have obviously better removal ability than the commercial  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  (Figure 11a–c). This might be attributed to the very small diameter and high surface area of the as-synthesized  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods. Interestingly, it was found that sphere-like aggregations would form once the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods adsorb acid fuchsine (Figure 12). These spheres have relative larger diameters (about 200 nm); therefore, they can be conveniently separated from the solution, which is of considerable importance in the practical water treatment applications. In addition, the  $\text{SnO}_2$  submicrospheres containing acid fuchsine could be renewed by annealing at  $270^\circ\text{C}$  in air for 5 h, and the renewed  $\text{SnO}_2$  materials held almost the same adsorption capability as shown in Figure 11d,e. These results indicate the promising potential of using the as-obtained  $\text{SnO}_2$  materials as efficient water treatment material for environment cleaning.

## Conclusion

In summary, we have demonstrated the synthesis of ultrathin  $\text{SnO}_2$  single-crystalline nanorods via a simple hydrolysis

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reaction of tin tetrachloride with urea at 90 °C, without using any template and surfactant. The present synthetic route has a few advantages, such as low temperature, green-friendly, and low cost. Ultrathin SnO<sub>2</sub> single-crystalline nanorods are obtained through the synergic effect of Ostwald ripening mechanism and oriented attachment process. Surface energy was found as a possible driving force for the self-assembly of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals, which allow us to further research the oriented attachment mechanism. The shape evolution of nanocrystals in the present reaction system should be valuable for the precise understanding of the ultrathin nanowire structures. The as-synthesized ultrathin rod-like structure

endows the SnO<sub>2</sub> with superior gas-sensing activity. Meanwhile, the as-synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> quantum rods showed an excellent ability to remove an organic pollutant in wastewater.

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