See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/263956953

Topochemical Preparation of WO3 Nanoplates through Precursor H2WO4 and Their Gas-Sensing Performances

ARTICLE in THE JOURNAL OF PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY C · AUGUST 2011

Impact Factor: 4.77 · DOI: 10.1021/jp205782a

CITATIONS

70

READS

81

7 AUTHORS, INCLUDING:



Jianmin Ma

Hunan University

94 PUBLICATIONS 1,707 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Taihong Wang

Hunan University

279 PUBLICATIONS 12,362 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Jun Zhang

University of Jinan (Jinan, China)

163 PUBLICATIONS 2,979 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Wenjun Zheng

Nankai University

112 PUBLICATIONS 2,308 CITATIONS

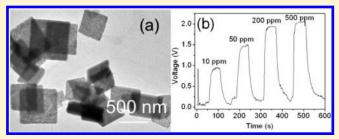
SEE PROFILE

pubs.acs.org/JPCC

Topochemical Preparation of WO₃ Nanoplates through Precursor H₂WO₄ and Their Gas-Sensing Performances

Jianmin Ma,^{†,‡} Jun Zhang,[§] Shurong Wang,[§] Taihong Wang,[†] Jiabiao Lian,[‡] Xiaochuan Duan,[‡] and Wenjun Zheng^{‡,*}

ABSTRACT: Size- and shape-controllable preparation of WO₃ nanoplates has been successfully realized through topochemical transformation of corresponding H₂WO₄ precursors synthesized by a facile solution-phase method. The fluoroboric acid was found to not only provide acid source but also act as a structure-directing agent during the growth process of H₂WO₄ nanoplates in the solution phase. WO₃ nanoplates could be obtained by the two different topochemical transformation methods, hydrothermal treatment of H₂WO₄ nanoplates at



the temperature (above $160 \,^{\circ}$ C) and calcination at higher temperatures in air, based on their similarity of the W–O octahedral layers in both H_2WO_4 and WO_3 . Furthermore, the enhanced ethanol-sensing performance could be attributed to the plate-like morphology, especially the high crystallinity, due to the advantages of the effective adsorption and rapid diffusion of the ethanol molecules.

1. INTRODUCTION

The design and rational synthesis of inorganic semiconductors with tailored characteristics (dimensionality, morphology, crystal phase, components, crystallinity, etc.) have attracted increasing attention because they largely determine the physical properties of the materials. As an important n-type semiconductor, tungsten trioxide (WO₃) has received much attention in the past few decades owing to its intriguing physiochemical properties and widespread potential applications. Currently, WO₃ materials have been reported to have been use in a variety of fields, such as electrochromic and photochromic devices, folithium ion batteries, photocatalysts, gas sensors, heterogeneous catalysts, solar energy devices, field electron emission smart windows, superconductivity, thermoelectricity, and ferroelectric properties, and in turn, this will inspire more people to pursue in the reaction schemes the preparation of the tungsten oxide based materials with distinct size and shape.

Tungsten oxide based materials, including tungsten oxides (WO_3) , tungsten suboxides (WO_{3-x}) , tungsten bronzes M_xWO_3 $(M = K^+, Li^+, etc.)$, and tungsten oxide hydrates $(WO_3 \cdot nH_2O)$, are a kind of complicated materials with respect to crystal structure and thermal stability because of several structures and complicated formulas. For all of the WO_3 structures, they have a distorted ReO_3 -type consisting of a three-dimensional network of WO_6 octahedrons linked by their oxygen corners. ²² So far, the WO_3 nanomaterials with different morphologies such as

nanorods, 23,24 nanotubes, 25,26 nanoplates, $^{27-30}$ and nanoparticles 11,31,32 were successfully synthesized by various methods. Among various nanostructures, two-dimensional (2D) nanocrystals not only can provide active sites for catalysts and sensors but also can be used as building blocks to construct complex nanostructures. Recently, Oaki et al. realized the spontaneous conversion of a BaWO₄-poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) to hexagonal WO₃ nanosheets via a dissolution—deposition process.²⁷ Sugahara and co-workers reported the synthesis of single-crystalline WO₃ nanoplates through a topochemical conversion process using lamellar tungstate-based inorganic—organic hybrids as precursors via intermediate species of H₂WO₄ nanoplates.²⁸ Kalantar-zadeh et al. fabricated the atomically thin WO₃ using a three-step process, involving wet-chemical synthesis of hydrated-WO₃, mechanical exfoliation of fundamental layers, and dehydration by annealing at 300 °C. 29 Kalantar-zadeh et al. also obtained the WO₃ nanoplatelets with thicknesses of less than 60 nm and lengths of 100-1000 nm by anodization at elevated temperatures in nitric acid.³⁰

In this work, we report a novel synthesis of single-crystalline WO_3 nanoplates through a topochemical conversion process of the obtained H_2WO_4 nanoplates into WO_3 nanoplates by a

 Received:
 June 20, 2011

 Revised:
 July 29, 2011

 Published:
 August 16, 2011

[†]Key Laboratory for Micro-Nano Optoelectronic Devices of Ministry of Education, State Key Laboratory for Chemo/Biosensing and Chemometrics, Hunan University, Changsha, 410082, P. R. China

[†]Department of Materials Chemistry, Key Laboratory of Advanced Energy Materials Chemistry (MOE), College of Chemistry, Nankai University, Tianjin, 300071, P. R. China

[§]Department of Chemistry, Key Laboratory of Advanced Energy Materials Chemistry (MOE), College of Chemistry, Nankai University, Tianjin, 300071, P. R. China

size- and shape-controlled condensation process under hydrothermal condition at higher temperature (above $160\,^{\circ}\text{C}$) or via calcination at higher temperatures in air. In addition, we also reported an ethanol sensor with high sensitivities and rapid response using single crystalline WO₃ nanoplates as the active materials. The results indicate that the enhanced alcohol-sensing performance could be attributed to the plate-like morphology, especially the high crystallinity, due to the advantages of the effective adsorption and rapid diffusion of the alcohol molecules.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

- **2.1. Synthesis.** All the chemicals were of analytical grade and used without further purification. In a typical synthesis, 0.5 g of $\rm Na_2WO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ was introduced into 23.5 mL of distilled water. After $\rm Na_2WO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ was completely dissolved, 1.5 mL of HBF₄ solution (w, 40%) was added dropwise to the $\rm Na_2WO_4$ solution under magnetic stirring. After stirring for about 10 min, the above mixture was transferred into a 30 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave. The autoclave was maintained at fixed temperature for 10 h and then cooled to room temperature naturally. The resulting product was collected by filtration, washed several times with distilled water and absolute ethanol, and then dried at 60 °C in air for 4 h.
- **2.2. Characterization.** The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the products were recorded with Rigaku D/max Diffraction System using a Cu K α source (λ = 0.15406 nm). The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were taken with a JEOL JSM-6700F field emission scanning electron microscope (15 kV). The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images were taken on a JEOL 2010 high-resolution transmission electron microscope performed at 200 kV. The specimen of HR-TEM measurement was prepared via spreading a droplet of ethanol suspension onto a copper grid, coated with a thin layer of amorphous carbon film, and allowed to dry in air.
- 2.3. Fabrication and Analysis of Gas Sensor. The gas sensor was fabricated as follows: A proper amount of WO₃ nanomaterials was ground with several drops of water in an agate mortar to form a slurry. Then, the slurry was coated onto an alumina tube with a diameter of 1 mm and length of 4 mm, positioned with two Au electrodes and four Pt wires on each end of the tube. A Ni-Cr alloy filament was put through the tube and used as a heater by tuning the heating voltage. Gas sensing tests were performed on a static test system (HW-30A, HanWei Electronics Co., Ltd., Henan Province, China) using air as the reference and diluting gas at a relative humidity (RH) of 38%. The sensor was placed in a transparent testing chamber with a volume of 15 L and aged for several days before analysis. Target gas such as ethanol was injected into the testing chamber by a microsyringe. The sensor signal voltage (V_{out}) was collected by a computer at a constant test voltage of 5 V. The sensor response is defined as the ratio $S = R_a/R_{gr}$ where R_a and R_g are the electrical resistance of the sensor in test gas and in air, respectively. The response and recovery time is defined as the time for the sensor to reach 90% of its maximum response and falls to 10% of its maximum response, respectively. Photographs of the gas sensor and working principle of HW-30A system can be obtained from our previous work.³

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Structure and Morphology. We first studied how the structure and chemical composition of tungsten oxide products

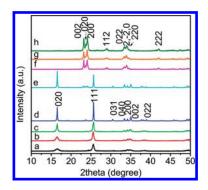


Figure 1. XRD patterns of the products synthesized at different temperature: (a) 30, (b) 60, (c) 90, (d) 120, (e) 150, (f) 160, (g) 180, and (h) 210 $^{\circ}$ C.

changed as the reaction temperature increased from 30 to 210 °C while keeping the other conditions constant. The XRD patterns of the samples synthesized at different temperatures are shown in Figure 1. When reactions were conducted at lower temperatures (from 30 to 90 °C), pure orthorhombic H_2WO_4 phase (JCPDS No. 43-0679) could be obtained, as shown in Figure 1a–c. With the temperature increasing to the ranges from 120 to 160 °C, orthorhombic H_2WO_4 and triclinic WO_3 phase (JCPDS No. 32-1395) could be found to coexist, as shown in Figure 1, panels d and e. Further enhancing the reaction temperature, the crystal phase of the samples changed to pure triclinic WO_3 (JCPDS No. 32-1395), which could be confirmed from the XRD results in Figure 1f–g. The above investigations showed that both pure orthorhombic H_2WO_4 and triclinic WO_3 phase could be obtained by varying the reaction temperatures in present studied system.

The size and shape of the as-synthesized products were further analyzed by SEM technique. Figure 2 shows the representative SEM images of the samples synthesized at different temperatures. It is observed that all of the products are composed of a large quantity of nanoplates. The sizes of nanoplates obviously increase with an increase in the reaction temperature. In addition, it should be noted that the homogeneity of samples becomes lower with an increase in the reaction temperature. Our results indicate that the reaction temperature plays an important role in controlling nucleation and growth of tungsten oxide nanoplates. An appropriate temperature is critical for the nanoplates with different composition and size. In order to clearly illustrate the temperature-dependent chemical components, size and shape of final products, the detailed conditions for preparing some typical samples are listed in Table 1.

To further investigate the detailed structural and morphological characteristics of tungsten oxides, we chose the three typical samples (P-60, P-120, and P-180) as studied targets and investigated them by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) technique. Figure 3 shows the TEM observations of the samples (P-60, P-120, and P-180) synthesized at different temperatures, respectively. Figure 3a shows a low magnification TEM image of P-60, which presents a quadrangular plate-like morphology with a side length of 120-180 nm. In addition, it is clear that these H_2WO_4 nanoplates have a very low thickness. In Figure 3b, the HR-TEM image of an individual H_2WO_4 nanoplate reveals that the as-synthesized H_2WO_4 (P-60) is not well crystalline. It should be noted that there also are some defects in the WO_3 nanoplate, as marked by a circle in Figure 3b. The corresponding local fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern (the inset of Figure 3b)

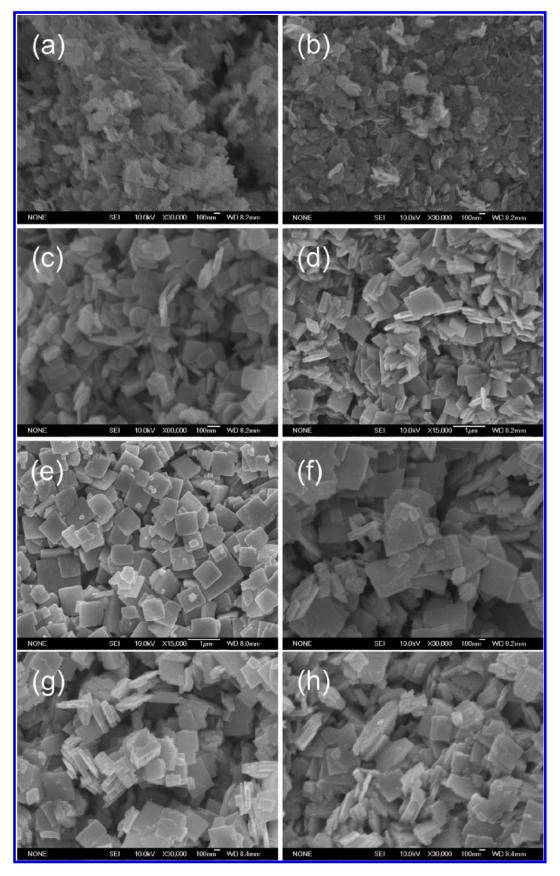


Figure 2. SEM images of the products synthesized at different temperature: (a) 30, (b) 60, (c) 90, (d) 120, (e) 150, (f) 160, (g) 180, and (h) 210 $^{\circ}$ C.

Table 1. Experimental Condition for the Preparation of Samples

sample no.	temperature (°C)	phase	morphology	size (nm)
P-30 P-60 P-90 P-120 P-150 P-160 P-180	30 60 90 120 150 160	o-H ₂ WO ₄ o-H ₂ WO ₄ o-H ₂ WO ₄ and t-WO ₃ o-H ₂ WO ₄ and t-WO ₃ t-WO ₃	nanoplates nanoplates nanoplates nanoplates nanoplates nanoplates	100-130 100-130 80-130 500-1000 500-1200 400-1000 200-1000
P-210	210	t-WO ₃	nanoplates	100-700

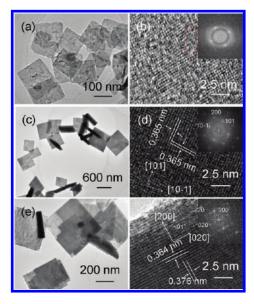


Figure 3. (a) TEM images and (b) HR-TEM image of P-60; (c) TEM images and (d) HR-TEM image of P-120; (e) TEM images and (f) HR-TEM image of P-180.

of P-60 further indicates its polycrystalline nature. Figure 3, panels c and d, shows the TEM and HR-TEM images of H₂WO₄ nanoplates (P-120), respectively. Figure 3a shows a low magnification TEM image of P-120, which presents a quadrangular plate-like morphology with a side length of 450-600 nm and a thickness of about 50 nm. In Figure 3d, a clear 2D crystal lattice is revealed, and the interplanar distances of 0.365 and 0.365 nm can be readily assigned to the 101 and 10-1 crystal planes, respectively. The separation angle of the [101] and [10-1] directions is 88.9°, which is extremely close to the calculated value according to the cell parameters. Based on the above analyses, it can be concluded that the single-crystalline orthorhombic H₂WO₄ nanoplates synthesized at 120 °C are perpendicular to the c axis. Figure 3e shows a typical TEM image of WO₃ (P-180), which consists of nanoplates with different sizes, and the thickness of the nanoplates is about 50 nm. The HR-TEM image obtained from the central part of the nanoplate (Figure 3e) is presented in Figure 3f. It also shows a clear 2D crystal lattice, the interplanar distances of 0.364 and 0.376 nm of which can be readily assigned to the 200 and 020 crystal planes, respectively. The separation angle of the [200] and [020] directions is about 91°, which is extremely close to the value of the triclinicWO₃ phase. The HR-TEM image

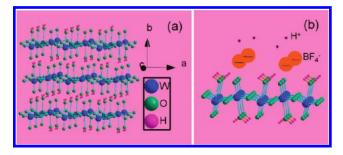


Figure 4. Schematic illustrations: (a) the H_2WO_4 crystal structure and (b) the interaction of H_2WO_4 crystal planes and HBF_4 .

and FFT pattern (Figure 3f) indicate that the WO_3 nanoplate derived from the H_2WO_4 nanoplate is a whole single crystal.

3.2. Formation Mechanism of H₂WO₄ and WO₃ Nanoplates. Usually, there are many factors that influence the morphology of the nanocrystals, such as crystal growth habits and external factors. The intrinsic crystal structure is the essential factor for morphology control. Here, to discuss the formation mechanism of orthorhombic H₂WO₄ nanoplates, its crystal structure is given in Figure 4a and depicted as follows: it consists of layers of $[WO_6]$ octahedra, which share their four equatorial oxygen atoms. The layers are linked to each other through hydrogen bonds, which are derived from the interaction of water molecules and oxygen atoms in the axial positions of [WO₆] octahedra with the neighboring layers. The normal direction of the layers of $[WO_6]$ octahedra is the crystal direction [010]. Because of the lamellar structure separated by crystal water molecules along the (010) crystal plane, H₂WO₄ tends to form plate-like nanocrystals with an inhibited growth direction of [010].

On the other hand, the external environment can also remarkably influence the growth of nanocrystals, for example, the kinetics of nucleation and crystal growth. In the present case, the formation of H₂WO₄ nanoplates indicated that the nucleation and growth were well controlled by using HBF4 as the acid source. The BF₄ anion has a distorted tetrahedron structure, in which four fluorine atoms occupy the apexes of a tetrahedron centering on each boron atom. BF₄ anion can be added to the hydrogen bonds system, which may induce the oriented arrangement of the BF₄⁻ anion on the (010) plane of H₂WO₄. Thus, the growth of the (010) plane of H₂WO₄ is inhibited by the adsorption of BF₄ anions, and H₂WO₄ nanoplates are produced. A similar phenomenon for the synthesis of turbostratic boron nitride (BN) nanoplates has been reported by our group.³⁴ In order to clearly demonstrate the interaction of H₂WO₄ crystal planes and HBF₄, a schematic illustration is given in Figure 4b.

Furthermore, in order to explain the formation mechanism of triclinic WO_3 nanoplates, we first studied the structure and morphology of intermediate products at different times. In Figure S_3 , one can see that the final triclinic WO_3 (Figure S_3) is evolved from the initial orthorhombic H_2WO_4 (Figure S_3) from XRD data (Figure S_3 —d). In addition, the morphology evolution experiments (Figure S_3 —d) indicate that the final triclinic S_3 0 nanoplates (Figure S_3 0 is from the S_3 1 nanoplates (Figure S_3 2 with the same size derived from the Ostwald ripening process of the initial small S_3 2 nanoplates (Figure S_3 3 nanoplates (Figure S_3 4 nanoplates (Figure S_3 5 and the morphological similarity (Figure S_3 6 nanoplates from S_3 7 nanoplates from S_3 8 nanoplate

(Figure 5) verify that the condensation from H_2WO_4 nanoplates to WO_3 nanoplates is a topotactic process. In addition, the similarity between the orthorhombic H_2WO_4 and triclinic WO_3 in the crystal structure may play essential roles during the topotactic process. Further studies are still necessary to understand their growth process, which can provide important information for structure design and morphology controlled synthesis of oxides.

3.3. Influence of Calcination Temperature on the Structure and Morphology. According to the above discussion for the formation mechanism of t-WO $_3$ and other literature, ^{12,27-30} the crystal water molecules in H_2 WO $_4$ nanoplates can be readily removed by annealing them at an elevated temperature. Herein, in order to investigate the gas-sensing properties, the P-60 and P-120 samples were selected as precursors and then annealed at

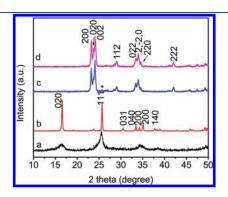


Figure 5. XRD patterns of the products synthesized for different times at 180 $^{\circ}$ C: (a) 10 min, (b) 1 h, (c) 2.5 h, and (d) 5 h.

various temperatures in air for 2 h. The as-obtained results are listed in Table 2.

Figure 7 shows the typical XRD patterns of the products calcined at various temperatures of $300-600\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ in air for 2 h. All of the diffraction peaks in the patterns can readily be indexed to a pure triclinic phase [space group P-1(2)] of WO₃ phase (JCPDS No. 32-1395). No H₂WO₄ is observed, implying the precursors have been completely converted into $t\text{-WO}_3$ via heat treatment. In addition, with increases in calcination temperatures from 300 to 600 °C, the diffraction peaks in Figure 7 for WO₃ nanocrystals gradually become sharp, suggesting enhancement in the degree of dehydration and reorganization during the calcination process.

Figure 8 shows the TEM images of P-60 and P-120 calcined in air at different temperatures for 2 h, respectively. For products S1-S3 calcined from the precursor P-60, it is found that only the plate-like morphology of S4 calcined at 300 °C (Figure 8a) was essentially preserved in the process of calcination. When the annealing temperatures were increased to relative high temperatures (450 and 600 °C), the morphologies of the samples completely changed, which consisted of interconnected nanocrystallites (Figure 8b and c). For products S4-S6 calcined from the precursor P-120, one can find that the plate-like morphology (Figure 8d and e) is still maintained until the calcining temperature reached 450 °C. However, the sharp angles of the nanoplates gradually become rounder after calcining P-120 at 600 °C, as shown in Figure 8f. The above result suggests that crystal growth and atom rearrangement occur at the sharp edges due to their high energy levels when calcining the samples at an elevated temperature. In addition, it should be noted that only the thicker WO₃ nanoplates can easily maintain the plate-like morphology at higher temperature.

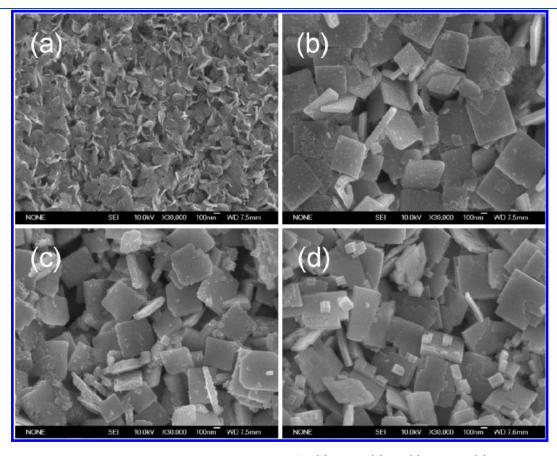


Figure 6. SEM images of the products synthesized for different times at 180 °C: (a) 10 min, (b) 1 h, (c) 2.5 h, and (d) 5 h.

Table 2. Results and Experimental Parameters for the Annealed Samples at Different Temperatures

sample no.	precursor	annealing temperature (°C)	phase	morphology
S1	P-60	300	t-WO ₃	nanoplates
S2	P-60	450	t-WO ₃	nanoparticles
S3	P-60	600	t -WO $_3$	nanoparticles
S4	P-120	300	t -WO $_3$	nanoplates
S5	P-120	450	t -WO $_3$	nanoplates
S6	P-120	600	t-WO ₃	nanoplates

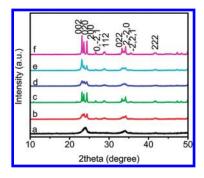


Figure 7. XRD patterns of the different samples: (a) S1, (b) S2, (c) S3, (d) S4, (e) S5, and (f) S6.

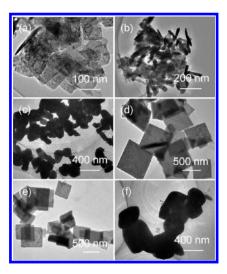


Figure 8. (a) TEM image of S1. (b) TEM image of S2. (c) TEM image of S3. (d) TEM image of S4. (e) TEM image of S5. (f) TEM image of S6.

3.4. Performances of WO₃ Nanomaterials Gas Sensor. First of all, we use the S1–S6 as the active element for evaluating the alcohol-sensing properties of single crystalline WO₃ nanomaterials, respectively. Figure 9 shows the dynamic responses of the WO₃ nanomaterials at the operating temperature of 300 °C with various concentrations of alcohols. It can be seen that the S5 sensor is more sensitive than the others. The response amplitude of the S2, S5, and S6 sensors are increased with increasing ethanol concentration, whereas the increase in the response of the S1, S3, and S4 sensors is almost negligible. Sensitivity is another important factor of chemical sensors; a higher sensitivity can usually allow for a lower detection limit. The sensor sensitivities to different ethanol concentrations are compared in Figure 10, showing that the sensor sensitivity for all of the sensors (S2, S5, and S6) is

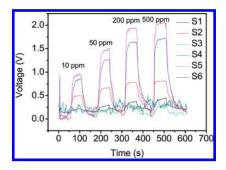


Figure 9. Dynamic response-recovery curves of the six sensors to different ethanol concentrations.

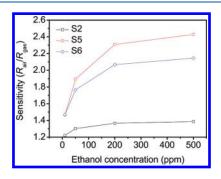


Figure 10. Comparison of sensor sensitivities to different ethanol concentrations for different catalysts.

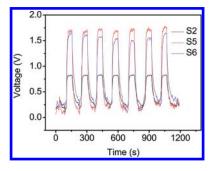


Figure 11. Reproducibility of the WO₃ sensors on successive exposure (7 cycles) to 100 ppm ethanol.

improved with increasing gas concentration. In Figure 10, the WO₃ (S5) sensor has much higher sensitivities, and its sensor sensitivity is further largely improved with increasing gas concentration due to the high crystallinity and plate-like morphology of S5. Finally, it should be noted that WO₃ (S2, S5, and S6) sensors have excellent reproducibility. As shown in Figure 11, the reproducibility experiment of the WO₃ (S2, S5, and S6) sensors demonstrate that the sensor maintains its initial response amplitude without a clear decrease upon seven successive sensing tests to 100 ppm ethanol. These results demonstrate that the WO₃ (S5) sensor has higher sensitivities and a faster response on ethanol as well as good stability due to its plate-like morphology and high crystallinity.¹²

For common n-type semiconductors, their sensing mechanism generally can be interpreted by the classical electron depletion theory. For example, the surface of SnO_2 is depleted of electrons by the absorbed oxygen species $(O^2^-, O_2^-, \text{ and } O^-)$ from the conduction band of SnO_2 , resulting in a high resistance

of the sensor.³⁸ In this work, surface sensing reactions maybe happen on the surface of WO₃ nanoplates, when the WO₃ nanoplates are exposed to a reducing gas such as ethanol. The ethanol molecules can be oxidized by the surface absorbed oxygen species $(O^{2-}, O_2^- \text{ and } O^-)$ and consequently, the depleted electrons will be released to WO3. However, there is another "generation of oxygen vacancies" model suggested by Georg et al.,³⁹ which also can be used to explain the origin of the surface oxygen vacancies of WO3. The model involves following steps: H atoms were dissociated from the absorbed ethanol on the surface, and then these H atoms reacted with the lattice oxygen of the WO₃ film, which ultimately created surface oxygen vacancies and adsorbed water molecules.^{39,40} Thus, the gas sensing mechanism of WO₃ toward ethanol needs further investigation. Finally, it should be noted that the unique plate-like morphology of WO₃ should be highly advantageous for the gas sensing reaction, as it has a large exposure of surface atoms providing more active sites for the absorption of gas molecules and hence promoting the surface reactions.

4. CONCLUSION

In summary, we have developed a facile solution phase route to the single-crystalline WO_3 nanoplates through a topochemical conversion process of the obtained H_2WO_4 nanoplates into WO_3 nanoplates by a size- and shape-controlled condensation process under hydrothermal condition at higher temperature (above $160\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$) or via calcination at higher temperatures in air. This synthetic method is simple, mild, and controllable, and it provides a novel method for direct solution growth of highly oriented two-dimensional nanostructures. The formation of nanoplates of H_2WO_4 is closely related to that of fluoroboric acid due to its unique structure. Furthermore, it was found that the gas-sensing performance could be improved by choosing the plate-like morphology and high crystallinity of t- WO_3 nanoplates in aspects of the high sensitivities and rapid response on ethanol due to the advantages of the effective adsorption and rapid diffusion of the alcohol molecules.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: zhwj@nankai.edu.cn.

■ ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (20971070 and 21073095) and MOE (No. RT0927).

■ REFERENCES

- (1) Ma, J. M.; Duan, X. C.; Lian, J. B.; Kim, T. I.; Peng, P.; Liu, X. D.; Liu, Z. F.; Li, H. B.; Zheng, W. J. *Chem.—Eur. J.* **2010**, *16*, 13210–13217.
- (2) Ma, J. M.; Chang, L.; Lian, J. B.; Huang, Z.; Duan, X. C.; Liu, X. D.; Peng, P.; Kim, T. I.; Liu, Z. F.; Zheng, W. J. Chem. Commun. 2010, 46, 5006–5008.
- (3) Pan, W. Z.; Tian, R. Y.; Jin, H.; Guo, Y. J.; Zhang, L. P.; Wu, X. C.; Zhang, L. N.; Han, Z. H.; Liu, G. Y.; Li, J. B.; Rao, G. H.; Wang, H. F.; Chu, W. G. *Chem. Mater.* **2010**, *22*, 6202–6208.
- (4) Vallejos, S.; Stoycheva, T.; Umek, P.; Navio, C.; Snyders, R.; Bittencourt, C.; Llobet, E.; Blackman, C.; Moniz, S.; Correig, X. Chem. Commun. 2011, 47, 565–567.
- (5) Zhu, J. H.; Wei, S. Y.; Alexander, M.; Dang, T. D.; Ho, T. C.; Guo, Z. H. Adv. Funct. Mater. **2010**, 20, 3076–3084.

- (6) Blackman, C. S.; Parkin, I. P. Chem. Mater. 2005, 17, 1583-1590.
- (7) Figueroa, R.; Kleinke, M.; Cruz, T. G. S.; Gorenstein, A. J. Power Sources 2006, 162, 1351–1356.
 - (8) Li, W. J.; Fu, Z. W. Appl. Surf. Sci. 2010, 256, 2447-2452.
- (9) Miseki, Y.; Kusama, H.; Sugihara, H.; Sayama, K. J. Phys. Chem. Lett. 2010, 1, 1196–1200.
- (10) Sayama, K.; Hayashi, H.; Arai, T.; Yanagida, M.; Gunji, T.; Sugihara, H. Appl. Catal. B: Environ. 2010, 94, 150–157.
- (11) Ardizzone, S.; Cappelletti, G.; Ricci, C.; Sin, A. J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol. 2010, 10, 8367–8374.
- (12) Chen, D. L.; Hou, X. X.; Wen, H. J.; Wang, Y.; Wang, H. L.; Li, X. J.; Zhang, R.; Lu, H. X.; Xu, H. L.; Guan, S. K.; Sun, J.; Gao, L. *Nanotechnology* **2010**, *21*, 035501.
- (13) Khatko, V.; Vallejos, S.; Calderer, J.; Gracia, I.; Cane, C.; Llobet, E.; Correig, X. Sens. Actuators B 2009, 140, 356–362.
- (14) Liu, H. J.; Huang, S. J.; Zhang, L.; Liu, S. L.; Xin, W. J.; Xu, L. Y. Catal. Commun. 2009, 10, 544–546.
- (15) Gondal, M. A.; Hameed, A.; Yamani, Z. H. J. Mol. Catal. A-Chem. **2004**, 222, 259–264.
- (16) Zheng, H. D.; Tachibana, Y.; Kalantar-zadeh, K. Langmuir 2010, 26, 19148–19152.
- (17) Meda, L.; Tozzola, G.; Tacca, A.; Marra, G.; Caramori, S.; Cristino, V.; Bignozzi, C. A. Sol. Energy Mater. Sol. Cells 2010, 94, 788–796.
 - (18) Li, Y. B.; Bando, Y.; Golberg, D. Adv. Mater. 2003, 15, 1294–1298.
- (19) Liu, J. G.; Zhang, Z. J.; Zhao, Y.; Su, X.; Liu, S.; Wang, E. G. Small **2005**, 1, 310–313.
 - (20) Granqvist, C. G. Sol. Energy Mater. Sol. Cells 2000, 60, 201-262.
- (21) Zheng, H. D.; Ou, J. Z.; Strano, M. S.; Kaner, R. B.; Mitchell, A.; Kalantar-zadeh, K. *Adv. Funct. Mater.* **2011**, 21, 2175–2196.
- (22) Guery, C.; Choquet, C.; Dujeancourt, F.; Tarascon, J. M.; Lassegues, J. C. J. Solid State Electrochem. 1997, 1, 199–207.
- (23) Wang, J. M.; Khoo, E.; Lee, P. S.; Ma, J. J. Phys. Chem. C 2008, 112, 14306–14312.
- (24) Phuruangrat, A.; Ham, D.J.; Hong, S.J.; Thongtem, S.; Lee, J. S. J. Mater. Chem. **2010**, 20, 1683–1690.
- (25) Wang, Z. X.; Zhou, S. X.; Wu, L. M. Adv. Funct. Mater. 2007, 17, 1790–1794.
 - (26) Chen, D.; Sugahara, Y. Chem. Mater. 2007, 19, 1808-1815.
 - (27) Oaki, Y.; Imai, H. Adv. Mater. 2006, 18, 1807–1811.
- (28) Chen, D.; Gao, L.; Yasumori, A.; Kuroda, K.; Sugahara, Y. Small **2008**, *4*, 1813–1822.
- (29) Kalantar-zadeh, K.; Vijayaraghavan, A.; Ham, M.; Zheng, H. D.; Breedon, M.; Strano, M. S. *Chem. Mater.* **2010**, *22*, 5660–5666.
- (30) Sadek, A. Z.; Zheng, H. D.; Breedon, M.; Bansal, V.; Bhargava, S. K.; Latham, K.; Zhu, J. M.; Yu, L. S.; Hu, Z.; Spizzirri, P. G.; Wlodarski, W.; Kalantar-zadeh, K. *Langmuir* **2009**, *25*, 9545–9551.
- (31) Le Houx, N.; Pourroy, G.; Camerel, F.; Comet, M.; Spitzer, D. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2010**, *114*, 151–161.
- (32) Heidari, E. K.; Marzbanrad, E.; Zamani, C.; Raissi, B. *Nanoscale Res. Lett.* **2010**, *5*, 370–373.
- (33) Zhang, J.; Wang, S. R.; Xu, M. J.; Wang, Y.; Zhu, B. L.; Zhang, S. M.; Huang, W. P.; Wu, S. H. Cryst. Growth Des. 2009, 9, 3532–3537.
- (34) Lian, J. B.; Kim, T. I.; Liu, X. D.; Ma, J. M.; Zheng, W. J. J. Phys. Chem. C 2009, 113, 9135–9140.
- (35) Zhang, J.; Liu, X. H.; Guo, X. Z.; Wu, S. H.; Wang, S. R. Chem. —Eur. J. **2010**, 16, 8108–8116.
 - (36) Williams, D. E. Sens. Actuators B: Chem 1999, 57, 1–16.
 - (37) Barsan, N.; Weimar, U. J. J. Electroceram. 2001, 7, 143–167.
- (38) Ma, J. M.; Zhang, J.; Wang, S. R.; Yang, J. Q.; Wang, Q. H.; Jiao, L. F.; Duan, X. C.; Lian, J. B.; Liu, Z. F.; Kim T. I.; Zheng, W. J. *CrystEngComm* DOI: 10.1039/c1ce05320e.
- (39) Georg, A.; Graf, W.; Neumann, R.; Wittwer, V. Solid State Ionics **2000**, 127, 319–328.
- (40) Ou, J. Z.; Yaacob, M. H.; Breedon, M.; Zheng, H. D.; Campbell, J. L.; Latham, K.; du. Plessis, J.; Wlodarski, W.; Kalantar-zadeh, K. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* **2011**, *13*, 73330–7339.