

Recent Advances in Metal Oxides and Metal Oxide Nanocomposites for Chemiresistive Detection of Hazardous Gases

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Abstract- *The rapid and reliable detection of hazardous gases is essential for environmental monitoring, industrial process control, public safety, and healthcare diagnostics. Among various sensing materials, nanostructured metal oxides (MOs) and their nanocomposites have emerged as the most promising candidates for chemiresistive gas sensors owing to their excellent chemical stability, tunable electronic properties, high surface area, and cost-effective fabrication. This mini-review summarizes recent developments in the synthesis, sensing mechanisms, and gas-sensing performance of pristine MOs and MO-based nanocomposites for hazardous gas detection. Various synthesis approaches, including sol-gel, hydrothermal, chemical precipitation, spray pyrolysis, combustion, chemical vapor deposition, and microwave-assisted methods, are critically discussed with respect to their influence on morphology, crystallinity, defect engineering, and sensing characteristics. The review further highlights the fundamental chemiresistive sensing mechanism and key performance parameters such as sensitivity, selectivity, response/recovery time, detection limit, and long-term stability. Recent advances in heterostructures, noble metal decoration, graphene- and polymer-based composites, and hybrid nanomaterials are comprehensively evaluated, demonstrating remarkable improvements in sensing performance through synergistic interfacial interactions and enhanced charge transfer. Finally, current challenges, including high operating temperature, humidity interference, and limited selectivity, are discussed along with future strategies for developing low-power, room-temperature, high-performance chemiresistive gas sensors.*

Keywords: *Metal Oxide Nanostructures, Chemiresistive Gas Sensors, Metal Oxide Nanocomposites, Hazardous Gas Detection, Gas Sensing Mechanism*

I. INTRODUCTION

Metal oxides (MOs) have garnered significant attention in recent decades due to their versatile properties and wide-ranging applications in various technological domains [1]. Among these applications, gas sensing stands out as a critical field where the unique properties of MOs have been extensively exploited [2]. The increasing demand for efficient, reliable, and cost-effective gas sensors arises from their critical roles in environmental monitoring, industrial safety, healthcare, and domestic applications [3]. Gas sensors based on MOs have demonstrated exceptional performance in detecting toxic, flammable, and hazardous gases with high sensitivity, selectivity, and stability, making them indispensable in addressing modern societal challenges [4-6].

The synthesis of MOs plays a pivotal role in determining their structural, morphological, and physicochemical properties, which directly influence their gas-sensing performance [7]. MOs, including both single-MOs and bimetallic oxides, possess unique characteristics such as semiconducting behavior, tunable band gaps, high surface area, and robust chemical stability [8]. These features enable effective interaction between the gas molecules and the sensing material, leading to detectable changes in electrical or optical signals [9]. The synthesis methods employed for MOs, such as sol-gel processes, hydrothermal techniques, chemical vapor deposition, combustion methods, etc. significantly impact the material's properties, including particle size, crystallinity, porosity, and surface defects [10-12]. An in-depth understanding of these synthesis

techniques is crucial for tailoring MOs for specific gas-sensing applications.

The fundamental chemiresistive sensing mechanism of MOs is predominantly governed by surface reactions, where the adsorption and desorption of gas molecules alter the electrical conductivity of the material [7, 13, 14]. When exposed to a target gas, MOs exhibit changes in resistance due to charge transfer between the gas molecules and the surface states of the material [15]. The sensitivity of this process is highly dependent on factors such as the type of gas, operating temperature, surface morphology, and the presence of catalytic additives or dopants [16]. In particular, bimetallic oxides and composite materials have shown promise in overcoming the limitations of single-MOs by offering synergistic effects that enhance gas-sensing performance [17]. These materials often exhibit improved sensitivity, reduced operating temperatures, and enhanced selectivity due to the combination of multiple active sites and catalytic functionalities [18]. The applications of metal oxide-based gas sensors are diverse and continue to expand with advancements in synthesis techniques and material design [19]. Environmental monitoring, for instance, relies heavily on gas sensors for detecting pollutants such as nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), carbon monoxide (CO), and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) [20]. In the industrial sector, gas sensors are crucial for detecting explosive gases like methane (CH₄) and hydrogen (H₂), ensuring safety and compliance with regulatory standards [21]. Additionally, in healthcare, these sensors play a vital role in non-invasive diagnostics, such as breath analysis for disease detection [22]. The development of portable, low-power, and miniaturized gas sensors further broadens their utility in consumer electronics and smart devices [23]. Despite their advantages, metal oxide-based gas sensors face several challenges that necessitate further research and innovation. Issues such as high operating temperatures, limited selectivity, response and recovery times, and susceptibility to humidity interference must be addressed to achieve optimal performance [24]. Emerging strategies, including the incorporation of nanostructures, doping, hybrid composites, and functionalization with noble metals or polymers,

offer promising pathways to overcome these limitations [25]. Moreover, advancements in theoretical modeling and computational techniques provide valuable insights into the underlying mechanisms, enabling the rational design of next-generation gas-sensing materials.

This review aims to provide an in-depth analysis of the synthesis methods, structural characteristics, and functional properties of MOs with a particular emphasis on their applications in gas sensing. By exploring recent advancements and identifying current challenges, this article seeks to contribute to the growing body of knowledge in the field and pave the way for the development of innovative solutions to address the evolving demands of chemiresistive gas sensing technologies. The review highlights not only the scientific and technological aspects but also the interdisciplinary nature of the field, which integrates chemistry, materials science, physics, and engineering to create efficient and sustainable chemiresistive sensing platforms.

II. SYNTHESIS METHODS OF MOS FOR GAS SENSING APPLICATIONS

MOs are among the most extensively studied materials for gas sensing due to their remarkable chemical and physical properties, including high sensitivity, selectivity, and stability [7, 26]. The performance of metal oxide-based gas sensors is significantly influenced by their synthesis methods, which determine key material characteristics such as particle size, crystallinity, morphology, surface area, and defect structure [27]. This section provides a detailed overview of various synthesis approaches used for metal oxide preparation, emphasizing their scientific principles, advantages, limitations, and examples from the literature [28].

2.1 Sol-Gel Method

The sol-gel method is a widely employed and highly adaptable technique for the synthesis of MOs, owing to its ability to produce materials with remarkable uniformity, high purity, and controlled microstructure [10]. This method involves the conversion of a liquid precursor, referred to as the sol, into a solid gel through a sequence of hydrolysis and condensation

reactions [29]. Fundamentally, the sol-gel process begins with the hydrolysis of metal alkoxides or inorganic salts to generate hydroxylated intermediates, which subsequently undergo polycondensation, forming a robust three-dimensional network of metal-oxygen bonds [30]. Key chemical steps include hydrolysis, where metal precursors react with water to form hydroxides, and condensation, which facilitates the linkage of hydroxyl groups, resulting in the development of the solid gel matrix [31]. This technique has been extensively explored in the synthesis of functional materials for gas sensing applications, as highlighted in the literature. For instance, M. Jabeen et al., synthesized ZnO nanoparticles using the sol-gel process demonstrated exceptional ethanol gas sensitivity, attributed to their uniform particle size and enhanced surface area [32].

Similarly, Y He et al., prepared SnO₂ thin films via sol-gel method exhibited superior CO detection performance due to their engineered porosity and well-defined crystallinity [33]. The sol-gel method offers several advantages, such as precise control over particle size, morphology, and composition, as well as the ability to incorporate dopants or functional additives at relatively low synthesis temperatures, thereby preserving their activity [34]. However, this method also has limitations, including the lengthy processing time required for aging and drying steps and the potential for cracking or shrinkage during gel formation, which can impact material integrity [29]. Despite these challenges, the sol-gel approach remains a cornerstone in the field of metal oxide synthesis, offering unparalleled opportunities for tailoring materials to meet the specific requirements of gas sensing applications.

2.2 Hydrothermal and Solvothermal Methods

Hydrothermal and solvothermal methods are widely employed for the synthesis of MOs, leveraging elevated temperatures and pressures within sealed reaction vessels to facilitate controlled crystal growth and the formation of unique morphologies [35]. These techniques are particularly advantageous for producing nanoscale structures such as nanorods, nanowires, and nanosheets, which exhibit enhanced properties tailored to specific applications. The

underlying principle of these methods involves the dissolution of precursors, followed by nucleation and crystal growth under high-pressure conditions, with water acting as the reaction medium in hydrothermal synthesis or organic solvents being utilized in solvothermal processes [36]. The temperature and pressure parameters play a pivotal role in determining the crystal phase, size, and morphology of the resulting materials [37]. For instance, hydrothermally synthesized Au/TiO₂ nanocomposite have demonstrated superior sensing performance detecting gases including CO and H₂, NO, etc, gaseous, attributed to their high aspect ratio and increased surface area (Zhang et al. Haiyang Liu et al., 2016) [38]. Similarly, hydrothermally prepared WO₃ nanoflakes exhibited remarkable NH₃ sensitivity, which can be linked to their controlled crystal orientation and optimized pore structure, as highlighted (PS Kolhe et al., 2020) [39]. The primary advantages of these methods include precise control over particle size and morphology, high crystallinity, and minimal structural defects, making them highly suitable for advanced gas-sensing applications [40]. However, these methods also present certain limitations, such as the need for specialized equipment, such as autoclaves, and the often lengthy reaction times, which may pose challenges for large-scale production [41]. Despite these constraints, hydrothermal and solvothermal techniques remain indispensable tools for the synthesis of high-performance MOs, offering unparalleled control over material properties critical to gas-sensing technologies.

2.3 Chemical Precipitation

Chemical precipitation is widely recognized as a simple, cost-effective, and scalable method for the synthesis of MOs, making it particularly attractive for large-scale applications [42]. The process involves the reaction of metal salt solutions with a suitable precipitating agent, such as ammonia or sodium hydroxide, to form insoluble metal hydroxides. These hydroxides are subsequently subjected to calcination at elevated temperatures to yield the desired metal oxide products [43]. This method has been extensively utilized in the preparation of various gas-sensitive materials due to its simplicity and cost-efficiency [44]. T. Doan et al. reported that MOF-

derived ZnO/CuO nanoparticles synthesized via a precipitation method exhibit remarkable sensitivity toward hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) gas, which is mainly attributed to their uniform and well-controlled particle size [45]. Similarly, M. Shoaib et al. reported that ZnO nanoparticles and their corresponding thin films synthesized using this method exhibited excellent methane sensing performance, which can be attributed to their intrinsically porous structure [46]. Despite its advantages, including economic viability and scalability, chemical precipitation is not without limitations. Challenges such as limited control over particle morphology and size distribution often arise, which can affect the uniformity and performance of the synthesized materials [40]. Additionally, the calcination step required to convert hydroxides to oxides can lead to particle agglomeration, thereby compromising the surface area and gas sensing performance of the final product. Nevertheless, the method remains a cornerstone in the synthesis of MOs, offering a balance between simplicity, cost, and functionality, which is critical for their application in gas sensing technologies.

2.4 Spray Pyrolysis

Spray pyrolysis is a versatile and widely used technique for the synthesis of metal oxide particles, involving the atomization of a precursor solution into fine droplets that are subsequently thermally decomposed to form MOs [47]. The fundamental principle of this process is the rapid evaporation and decomposition of these droplets as they enter a high-temperature furnace, leading to the deposition of uniform and porous metal oxide layers. This method has been extensively applied in the fabrication of thin films for gas sensing applications, as evidenced by various studies [48]. However, spray pyrolysis also presents certain limitations, such as the high energy consumption required to maintain elevated temperatures and the challenge of achieving precise control over particle size during synthesis [49]. Despite these limitations, its adaptability and efficacy in producing high-quality MOs render spray pyrolysis an indispensable method for advancing gas sensing technologies, particularly in the development of sensitive and reliable sensors for environmental and industrial monitoring [50].

2.5 Combustion Synthesis

Combustion synthesis is a widely utilized method for the preparation of MOs, characterized by its reliance on the highly exothermic reaction between a fuel, such as glycine or urea, and an oxidizer. This technique is well-regarded for its simplicity, cost-effectiveness, and rapid processing, making it an appealing choice for the synthesis of advanced materials [51, 52]. The fundamental principle of this method lies in the generation of substantial heat during the reaction, which facilitates the formation of highly crystalline MOs with porous structures that are advantageous for various applications [53]. For instance, magnesium oxide (MgO) nanoparticles synthesized using combustion techniques have demonstrated excellent performance in CO_2 sensing due to their high surface area and enhanced adsorption properties [54]. Similarly, tungsten trioxide (WO_3) nanostructures prepared through combustion synthesis have exhibited superior sensitivity to hydrogen gas, highlighting the versatility of this method in tailoring MOs for specific gas-sensing applications [55]. The method offers several advantages, including rapid synthesis, energy efficiency, and the ability to produce materials with a high degree of porosity, which is critical for improving gas diffusion and interaction with sensing surfaces [56]. However, it is not without limitations; challenges such as inhomogeneous particle distribution and limited control over the morphology of the synthesized materials can impact the reproducibility and performance of the resulting products [51]. Despite these limitations, combustion synthesis remains a highly promising approach for the development of MOs tailored for advanced gas-sensing technologies, contributing significantly to the growing field of functional materials.

III. MOS BASED CHEMIRESENSITIVE GAS SENSING MECHANISM & EVALUATION

Chemiresistive gas sensing is a widely employed detection strategy that hinges on the variation in electrical resistance of semiconducting materials upon interaction with target gas molecules [57]. Among various materials, semiconducting metal oxides (SMOs) such as ZnO, SnO_2 , TiO_2 , WO_3 , and In_2O_3 are extensively utilized due to their high

chemical and thermal stability, tunable surface properties, and the ability to be synthesized in diverse nanostructured morphologies [58]. The fundamental sensing mechanism involves the adsorption of oxygen molecules on the metal oxide surface, especially under elevated temperatures, where these molecules extract electrons from the conduction band of n-type semiconductors to form chemisorbed oxygen species such as O_2^- , O^- , and O^{2-} [59]. This process results in the formation of an electron depletion layer (EDL), increasing the material's resistance. Upon exposure to reducing gases (e.g., CO, NH_3 , H_2S), these gases react with the chemisorbed oxygen species, releasing electrons back to the conduction band, which narrows the EDL and decreases the resistance [60]. Conversely, exposure to oxidizing gases (e.g., NO_2 , O_3) leads to further electron withdrawal and increased resistance. In p-type semiconductors (e.g., NiO, CuO), the mechanism is reversed: reducing gases decrease hole concentrations, increasing resistance, whereas oxidizing gases enhance hole accumulation, lowering resistance [61]. The overall performance of a chemiresistive gas sensor is governed by several key parameters, including operating temperature, nanostructure, surface area, defect concentration, and gas diffusion kinetics [62]. Nanostructures such as nanorods, nanowires, nanotubes, and porous architectures play a critical role by enhancing the surface-to-volume ratio, increasing the density of active sites for gas adsorption, and improving electron transport pathways [63]. The choice of operating temperature is crucial, as it affects the formation and reactivity of adsorbed oxygen species and the desorption kinetics of the gas molecules [64]. Additionally, oxygen vacancies and surface defects serve as active centers for gas adsorption, making defect engineering an effective strategy for enhancing sensitivity and response time. The dynamic response and recovery behavior, which reflect how quickly a sensor reacts to the presence and absence of a gas, are directly linked to the surface reaction rates and the reversibility of adsorption processes. Recent advancements have highlighted the importance of heterostructures, dopants, and nanocomposites in fine-tuning the chemiresistive response [57]. For instance, p-n and n-n heterojunctions at the interface of two semiconductors introduce additional energy

barriers that modulate charge transfer, thereby amplifying the resistance change upon gas exposure. Similarly, doping with noble metals or transition elements can introduce catalytic activity, enhance surface reactivity, and shift the Fermi level, improving gas selectivity and lowering the activation energy for surface reactions [65]. Integration of SMOs with two-dimensional materials like graphene, MoS_2 , or MXenes provides synergistic effects such as higher conductivity, enhanced gas adsorption, and improved sensor stability under ambient conditions [66]. Moreover, environmental factors such as humidity can significantly influence gas sensing behavior by altering surface interactions or blocking active sites, necessitating the development of moisture-tolerant sensing platforms. Altogether, the chemiresistive gas sensing mechanism is governed by a complex interplay between surface chemistry, electronic structure, and environmental parameters, and continuous innovations in material design and surface engineering are driving the development of next-generation sensors with ultra-low detection limits, rapid response-recovery, high selectivity, and long-term operational stability for practical applications [67, 68].

The performance of these sensors is evaluated based on key parameters such as sensitivity, selectivity, response time, recovery time, stability, reproducibility, and power consumption [69]. Sensitivity, which refers to the sensor's ability to detect low concentrations of gases, is influenced by material properties such as surface area, morphology, and crystallinity, with nanostructured MOs (e.g., nanoparticles, nanowires, and nanosheets) enhancing sensitivity due to their higher surface area [70]. Doping with foreign elements and creating composites, such as bimetallic oxide composites or MO/graphene hybrids, further boosts sensitivity by modifying electronic structures and catalyzing surface reactions. Selectivity, the ability of a sensor to distinguish between target and interfering gases, is a significant challenge, often addressed by optimizing the material composition, forming heterojunctions, or incorporating catalytic materials like noble metal nanoparticles [71]. Cross-sensitivity remains a concern, but signal processing techniques can mitigate this issue. Response time and recovery time,

which are critical for real-time detection, depend on the surface interactions between the gas molecules and the sensing material, with nanostructured MOs enabling faster response and recovery [72]. Elevated operating temperatures, commonly required for high sensitivity and fast response, increase power consumption; however, research into room-temperature operation using advanced materials like graphene and light-assisted activation techniques offers potential solutions. Stability and reproducibility, key for long-term deployment, are influenced by factors like material degradation and environmental conditions, and can be enhanced by material optimization and protective coatings. Environmental robustness and miniaturization for integration into portable devices are additional concerns, with strategies such as using hydrophobic coatings and microfabrication techniques being explored to address these challenges [73]. Despite the need for improvements in selectivity and operating conditions, chemiresistive gas sensors based on metal oxides and their composites continue to be a dominant and promising choice for various applications in environmental monitoring, industrial safety, healthcare diagnostics, and beyond, due to their simplicity, scalability, and potential for widespread commercialization.

IV. REVIEW OF PRISTINE NANOSTRUCTURED MOS FOR HIGH PERFORMANCE CHEMIRESENSITIVE GAS SENSORS

Pristine nanostructured metal oxides (MOs) have garnered considerable attention for their potential in high-performance chemiresistive gas sensors due to their tunable morphologies, high surface-to-volume ratios, and surface reactivity. Both n-type and p-type MOs offer promising gas detection capabilities, with enhanced sensitivity, selectivity, and fast response/recovery dynamics under optimized conditions. Recent studies have explored various synthetic strategies such as hydrothermal, template-assisted, and surfactant-mediated methods to fine-tune particle size, crystallinity, and porosity, directly influencing gas adsorption and electron transport mechanisms. This section reviews key reports on pristine MO-based sensors, highlighting their

structural attributes, detection limits, operating temperatures, and gas-specific sensing efficiencies. One of the noteworthy developments in this area was demonstrated by Hui-Bing Na et al., who utilized absorbent cotton as a bio-template to synthesize hierarchically porous ZnO hollow tubules. The resulting ZnO-600 sensor exhibited an ultra-low detection limit of 10 ppb for H₂S and a fast response time of 29 s to 50 ppb H₂S, operating efficiently across a broad concentration range. The superior performance was attributed to its high surface area (31 m²/g), interconnected meso/macroporous network, and abundant surface-adsorbed oxygen species, which facilitated rapid gas diffusion and improved adsorption kinetics [74]. Building upon the morphological advantages of 1D nanostructures, Zhao et al. synthesized ZnO nanorods (ZNRs) via a complex-surfactant-assisted hydrothermal method and evaluated them for ethanol sensing [49]. Compared to zero-dimensional and two-dimensional counterparts, the ZnO nanorods demonstrated exceptional sensitivity ($R_a/R_g = 45$) to 100 ppm ethanol, with rapid response (6 s) and recovery (31 s) at 300 °C. The enhanced sensing was credited to the high aspect ratio of the ZNRs, which improved gas molecule transport and increased the density of surface oxygen vacancies [75]. Further exploring the impact of morphology on sensing performance, Cui et al. compared ZnO nanofibers, nanoplates, and nanoflowers for formaldehyde (HCHO) sensing under UV illumination [50]. Among these, ZnO nanofibers showed superior sensitivity, a fast response (32 s), and a quick recovery (17 s). These advantages were primarily due to their larger surface area and improved charge separation facilitated by UV activation, which accelerated electron–gas interactions and desorption processes [76]. To enhance selectivity and stability, several studies have focused on combining MOs to form heterojunctions. For instance, Ran Yoo et al. engineered a p–n heterojunction by depositing hydrothermally synthesized CuO nanoparticles onto flower-like ZnO structures [51]. The resulting CuO/ZnO composite sensor exhibited selective detection of dimethyl methylphosphonate (DMMP), with a rapid response time of 26.2 s and high sensitivity (response = 626.21 s) at 350 °C. The improved performance was attributed to the extended depletion region and

modulated resistance due to heterojunction formation, enhancing charge carrier separation and adsorption efficiency [77]. A similar approach was adopted by Jiangyang Liu et al., who developed ZnO/SnO₂ hollow nanostructure composites through a solution-phase method [52]. Uniform dispersion of ZnO nanoparticles over SnO₂ hollow spheres was confirmed via XRD, TEM, and XPS. The heterostructure significantly boosted ethanol sensing response—sevenfold compared to pristine SnO₂ and enabled detection at ppb levels. These enhancements stemmed from the synergistic interaction at the heterojunction interface, which increased chemisorbed oxygen species and electron exchange [78]. Emphasizing the role of template-assisted synthesis, Jun Zhang et al. fabricated porous SnO₂ nanotubes using MnO₂ nanorods as a sacrificial template. This method resulted in high surface area structures that required no post-synthesis treatment. The SnO₂ nanotube-based sensors demonstrated high sensitivity, fast response-recovery cycles, and excellent repeatability for alcohol detection, underscoring the importance of porosity and structural integrity in enhancing chemiresistive behavior [79]. Another study focusing on ethanol sensing was presented by Shixiu Cao et al., who employed a one-step hydrothermal synthesis to produce WO₃ nanofibers with uniform morphology. The sensor achieved a notable response of 62 at 350 °C, which was attributed to the nanofiber's one-dimensional architecture that promoted electron transport and efficient gas adsorption. This work further highlighted the influence of dimensional control on sensing activity [80]. Complementing this, Ze-Xing Cai et al. synthesized single-crystalline WO₃ nanowires hydrothermally on FTO substrates and calcined them to yield an orthorhombic phase. With diameters between 15–20 nm, these nanowires exhibited a response of 37 and rapid response/recovery (68/88 s) to NO at 300°C. XPS and DRIFT analyses confirmed that surface oxygen defects played a critical role in the NO chemisorption and oxidation processes, pointing to the value of defect engineering in optimizing gas sensor functionality [81]. Park et al. synthesized nanograined ZnO nanowires (20–100 nm) via ZnSe thermal oxidation (650°C), achieving an exceptional 237, 263% response at 10 ppm NO₂ (300°C), far

surpassing single-crystal ZnO (6.5%). The sensor exhibited shorter recovery time and enhanced sensitivity due to multiple grain boundaries increasing resistance modulation. These findings demonstrate the potential of nanograined ZnO nanowires for high-performance, cost-effective NO₂ sensing applications. The superior sensing behavior was attributed to the formation of multiple electrical barriers at the grain boundaries, which amplified resistance changes upon gas adsorption/desorption. Additionally, the sensor exhibited a shorter recovery time 180 s, making it highly effective for NO₂ detection [82]. In the domain of titanium-based oxides, Y. Kwon et al. reported the fabrication of TiO₂ nanotube arrays via anodization of Ti thin foils for ethanol gas sensing applications. The nanotube arrays exhibited diameters of 70–120 nm and lengths of 300–400 nm. The sensors demonstrated exceptionally high responses of 68,000% and 1,380,000% to 300 ppm and 1000 ppm ethanol at 250°C, respectively, surpassing most reported one-dimensional oxide nanostructures. The key sensing parameters such as LOD 50 ppm, response time 110 s, and fast recovery time 19 s [83]. Room-temperature operation remains a challenge for many MO-based sensors, but Y. Shen et al. reported the in-situ growth of mesoporous In₂O₃ nanorod arrays on a porous ceramic substrate via a one-step hydrothermal method for highly sensitive NO₂ detection at room temperature. The nanorods (120–200 nm in diameter, 0.5–1 µm in length) were assembled from aggregated In₂O₃ nanoparticles (10–30 nm), forming a mesoporous structure with a high surface area. The fabricated sensor demonstrated an exceptional response of 14.9 toward 800 ppb NO₂ at 25°C, with a rapid response time of 14 s and a UV-assisted recovery time of 32 s. The high sensing performance was attributed to the mesoporous architecture and the enhanced nucleation facilitated by the ceramic substrate. This work highlights a cost-effective strategy for fabricating highly efficient NO₂ gas sensors operating at room temperature [84]. Focusing on molybdenum-based oxides, B. Mandal et al. tailored MoO₃ nanostructures via frequency-dependent pulsed temperature hydrothermal growth, enhancing ethanol sensing performance. MoO₃ nanofibers exhibited higher crystallinity, surface area, and defect sites than nanobelts, leading to superior

sensitivity. The sensor operated at 275°C with a response time of 45 s, recovery time of 138 s, and a LOD of 21 ppm. These improvements make MoO₃ nanofibers promising for high-performance chemiresistive ethanol sensing [85]. Z. Li et al. reported the hydrothermal synthesis of CeO₂ nanowires without surfactants, demonstrating their efficacy in H₂S sensing at room temperature (25°C). The synthesized CeO₂ nanowires exhibited a uniform diameter of 12.5 nm with a cubic fluorite structure and [111] preferred orientation. The sensor based on these nanowires showed excellent performance, including a low detection limit of 50 ppb, fast response (24 s), and recovery time (15 s). Additionally, the sensor exhibited good sensitivity, long-term stability, and high selectivity towards H₂S

gas [86]. Taken together, these studies illustrate the critical roles of nanostructure design, oxygen vacancy control, and heterojunction engineering in modulating gas sensing behavior. Strategies such as template-assisted synthesis, defect modulation, dimensional tuning, and hybridization have enabled remarkable improvements in sensitivity, selectivity, and stability. As summarized in Table 1, the comparative analysis of recent developments confirms that pristine nanostructured metal oxides remain at the forefront of next-generation chemiresistive gas sensor design, providing scalable, tunable, and efficient materials for diverse sensing applications.

Table 1: Summary of pristine nanostructured MOs for chemiresistive gas sensing without modification.

Sensing Material	Morphology	Synthesis Method	Target Analyte	Operating Temperature (°C)	Tres/Trec (Sec)	LOD	Ref.
WO ₃	Nanofiber	Electrospinning	NH ₃	200	1/5	–	[87]
V ₂ O ₅	Nanowire	Melt quenching	Ethanol	330	–	–	[88]
NiO	Nanowire	Chemical Reduction	NH ₃	–	–	–	[89]
CuO	Nanorod	Hydrothermal	Ethanol	210	13/17	5 ppm	[90]
WO ₃	Nanofiber	Hydrothermal	Ethanol	350	–	10 ppm	[80]
CuO	Nanowire	Electrodeposition	H ₂ S	180	–	10 ppb	[91]
MoO ₃	Nanofiber	Hydrothermal	Ethanol	275	45/138	21 ppm	[85]
MoO ₃	Nanorod	Probe ultrasonic	NO ₂	290	–	10 ppm	[92]
In ₂ O ₃	Nanowire	Electrospinning	H ₂ S	25	–	–	[93]
In ₂ O ₃	Nanorod	Hydrothermal	NO ₂	25	14/32	100 ppb	[84]
TiO ₂	Nanofiber	Electrospinning	CO	200	32/84	1 ppm	[94]
ZnO	Nanowire	Thermal Evaporation	NO ₂	300	570/180	100 ppb	[82]
ZnO	Nanowire	Hydrothermal	H ₂ S	300	–	50 ppb	[95]
ZnO	Nanorod	Vapor phase transport	H ₂ S	Room temperature	320/3592	500 ppb	[96]
ZnO	Nanorod	Hydrothermal	Ethanol	320	47/50	1 ppm	[97]

ZnO	Nanofiber	Hydrothermal	CO	250	1/0.002	10 ppm	[98]
TiO ₂	Nanotube	Electrochemical anodization	Ethanol	250	110/19	50 ppm	[83]
SnO ₂	Nanowire	Chemical vapor deposition	NO ₂	250	5/–	50 ppm	[99]
WO ₃	Nanowire	Hydrothermal	NO ₂	150	–	5 ppm	[100]
WO ₃	Nanowire	Hydrothermal	NO	300	63/88	50 ppm	[81]
WO ₃	Nanospheres	Hydrothermal	NO ₂	300	–	1 ppm	[101]

V. REVIEW OF NANOSTRUCTURED MOS BASED COMPOSITES FOR HIGH PERFORMANCE CHEMIRESENSITIVE GAS SENSORS

In recent years, composite materials based on metal oxides (MOs) have gained considerable attention for chemiresistive gas sensing applications due to their improved sensitivity, selectivity, stability, and tunable operating temperatures. The integration of nanostructured MOs with noble metals, conductive additives, and other semiconducting materials has led to the development of highly efficient sensors capable of detecting a broad range of hazardous gases at sub-ppm or even ppb levels. This section reviews recent advancements in the design and performance of such MO-based composite systems, highlighting their morphology, detection limits, operating temperatures, and gas-sensing mechanisms. One notable approach involves doping noble metals into metal oxide matrices to enhance catalytic activity and promote gas molecule adsorption. For instance, S. An et al. synthesized Au-doped In₂O₃ nanotube sensors using TeO₂ nanowire templates, yielding high surface area structures with significantly improved ethanol sensing performance. These sensors exhibited exceptional responses ranging from 187% to 1219% at 300 °C for ethanol concentrations between 50 and 250 ppm, clearly outperforming undoped counterparts. The observed enhancement was attributed to the Au-induced spillover effect and increased chemisorption, facilitating faster reaction kinetics and improved electron transfer [102]. Similarly, P. Jaroenapibal et al. introduced Ag-doping into WO₃ nanofibers via electrospinning. The

optimized 3 mol% Ag-doped WO₃ sensor demonstrated a high response of 90.3 to 5 ppm NO₂ at 225 °C, nearly nine times greater than the undoped version. The porous nanofiber morphology coupled with Ag's electronic and catalytic effects contributed to improved sensitivity and selectivity. Although the response (6 min) and recovery (18 min) times were moderate, the doping level and material structure

played critical roles in enhancing sensing capability [103]. Beyond doping, hybrid nanocomposites have shown excellent results in tailoring surface and electronic properties for gas sensing. L. Guo et al. fabricated Pt-loaded ZnO–In₂O₃ nanofibers using a ZIF-8 framework, introducing ultra-small Pt nanoparticles as active catalytic sites. This hybrid composite demonstrated ultra-low detection limits (0.5 ppm) for acetone at 300 °C with extremely fast response and recovery times (1 s and 44 s, respectively). The unique heterojunction interface and catalytic activity of Pt facilitated rapid gas molecule dissociation and charge transfer, boosting sensitivity and long-term stability [104]. To operate at room temperature, polymer-inorganic hybrid composites have been explored. A. Seif et al. developed UV-assisted PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanofibers via in situ polymerization on electrospun TiO₂ scaffolds. These sensors displayed excellent NH₃ sensitivity with a detection limit of 50 ppb and stable operation under ambient conditions. The anatase-rutile TiO₂ core provided a semiconducting backbone, while the porous PANI shell offered enhanced conductivity and interaction with target gases. The hybrid also displayed good humidity tolerance, making it suitable for practical breath

analysis applications [105]. Graphene-based hybrid structures also play a pivotal role in enhancing chemiresistive properties. Wang et al. integrated 1 wt% graphene oxide (GO) into hollow SnO₂ nanofibers to enhance formaldehyde sensing. The resulting composite exhibited a fourfold increase in sensitivity compared to pure SnO₂ nanofibers, achieving a detection limit of 500 ppb and a rapid response/recovery time at a relatively low temperature of 120 °C. The synergistic interaction between GO's high surface area and SnO₂'s semiconducting behavior led to an efficient electron modulation and gas adsorption interface [106]. Heterojunction-based nanofibers have emerged as a reliable strategy for tuning sensing behaviors. C. Li et al. synthesized p-n NiO/ZnO heterojunction nanofibers with an optimized NiO content of 4 mol%. These sensors delivered a high response (892) to 100 ppm trimethylamine (TMA) at 260 °C, with a low detection limit of 0.5 ppm and fast response/recovery times (<30 s/<35 s). The formation of p-n junctions enhanced carrier modulation and depletion layer width, enabling improved sensitivity and selectivity for amine-based gas detection [107]. Similarly, J. H. Lee et al. reported the fabrication of Co₃O₄-loaded ZnO nanofibers through electrospinning. The Co₃O₄ inclusion (5%) led to a significant increase in hydrogen gas response (~133 at 10 ppm H₂) with excellent selectivity and a low detection threshold (1 ppm). The nanofiber morphology supported efficient gas transport, while the Co₃O₄ loading induced surface electronic effects and oxygen vacancy generation, resulting in superior performance [108]. The incorporation of sulfide phases has also proven beneficial. R. Li et al. developed SnO₂/SnS₂ nanotube composites via an in situ hydrothermal sulfuration process. These composites, flexible and operable at room temperature, exhibited a remarkable NH₃ response of 2.48 at 100 ppm. The formation of a heterostructure with enhanced charge separation and extended depletion regions contributed to this improvement. The hollow tubular architecture also ensured sufficient active sites and rapid gas diffusion [109]. In another hybrid design, S. Shao et al.

synthesized Au@WO₃-SnO₂ nanoporous nanofibers through post-synthetic hydrothermal treatment. These sensors achieved a low detection limit of 0.5 ppm and a high acetone response of 79.6 at 150 °C. The inclusion of gold nanoparticles and dual-phase oxides led to enhanced catalytic effects, selective adsorption, and better stability over extended use. Such systems are highly promising for applications in non-invasive health monitoring [110]. Carbon-based additives further enrich MO sensing matrices. J. Fan et al. incorporated carbon nanotubes (CNTs) into CuO/SnO₂ composites for detecting H₂S at low concentrations. The resulting sensor demonstrated superior sensitivity (0.1 ppm LOD), rapid response (8.3 s), and recovery (11.5 s) at a low operating temperature of 40 °C. The CNTs improved electron pathways and formed p-n junctions with metal oxides, significantly enhancing sensing characteristics [111]. To further elevate performance, noble metal-decorated rGO-ZnO composites were proposed by Z. U. Abideen et al. using sol-gel and electrospinning. These composites, functionalized with either Au or Pd, exhibited excellent gas responses for CO and benzene (C₆H₆) with LODs as low as 1 ppm, along with rapid kinetics and low-temperature operation. The synergy between 1D ZnO nanofibers, conductive rGO sheets, and noble metals amplified adsorption sites and catalytic breakdown of analytes, showing potential for sensitive and selective detection in industrial or environmental monitoring scenarios [112]. Collectively, these studies highlight the potential of nanostructured MO-based composites in enhancing chemiresistive gas sensors through strategic modifications like noble metal doping, heterojunctions, polymer/carbon integration, and sulfide incorporation. These designs improve sensitivity, response/recovery times, and temperature adaptability by enhancing surface area, charge transport, and catalytic activity. As summarized in Table 2, the comparative analysis reveals key structure-property-performance relationships crucial for developing next-generation gas sensing materials.

Table2: Summary of composite of nanostructured MOs for chemiresistive gas sensing.

Sensing Material	Synthesis Method	Target Analyte	Operating Temperature (°C)	Tres/Trec (Sec) Composite	Tres/Trec (Sec) Pristine	Ref.
Au/WO ₃	Electrospinning	<i>n</i> -butanol	250	55/–	76/–	[113]
Au/ZnO	Hydrothermal	Ethanol	380	3/1	5/6	[114]
Au/ZnO	Hydrothermal	Toluene	340	36/45	–	[115]
Au/In ₂ O ₃	Thermal evaporation	Ethanol	300	50/100	15/90	[102]
Ag/WO ₃	Electrospinning	NO ₂	225	11.9/8.7	12.4/6	[103]
Pt/In ₂ O ₃	Electrospinning	Acetone	180	6/9	≈15/19	[116]
Pd/SnO ₂	Electrospinning	Formaldehyde	160	2/7	12/22	[117]
Pd/WO ₃	Electrospinning	Toluene	350	10.9/16.1	28.6/56.6	[118]
PANI/SnO ₂	Electrospinning	H ₂	48	≈3/4	–	[119]
GO/WO ₃	Electrospinning	Acetone	375	4/10	8/13	[120]
GO/SnO ₂	Electrospinning	Formaldehyde	120	66/10	70/7	[106]
rGO/Co ₃ O ₄	Electrospinning	NH ₃	20	4/300	–	[121]
rGO/ α -Fe ₂ O ₃	Electrospinning	Acetone	375	3/9	25/30	[122]
NiO-WO ₃	Electrospinning	Acetone	375	10/15	6/11	[123]
CuO-WO ₃	Electrospinning	DMMP	RT	9.2/15.5	8.7/13.7	[124]
In ₂ O ₃ -ZnO	Electrospinning	Ethanol	225	53/3.7	105/7	[125]
NiO-ZnO	Electrospinning	Trimethylamine	260	18/20	5/13	[107]
NiO/SnO ₂	Electrospinning	Ethanol	300	2.9/4.7	–	[126]
CuO/SnO ₂	Electrospinning	H ₂ S	200	23/15	–	[127]
α -Fe ₂ O ₃ -SnO ₂	Electrospinning	Ethanol	300	22.46/20	–	[128]
MoS ₂ -SnO ₂	Electrospinning	Methane	180	150/20	–	[129]
MoS ₂ -ZnO	Hydrothermal	NO ₂	200	–	–	[130]
MoS ₂ -TiO ₂	Hydrothermal	Ethanol	150	≈20	–	[131]
Au/rGO/ZnO	Electrospinning	CO	400	177.3/76.1	–	[112]
Pt/ZnO/In ₂ O ₃	Electrospinning	Acetone	300	1/44	2/32	[104]
CNT/CuO/SnO ₂	Electrospinning	H ₂ S	40	8.3/11.5	–	[111]

VI. SUMMARY

Metal oxide (MO)-based chemiresistive gas sensors have emerged as one of the most promising technologies for the detection of hazardous gases because of their high sensitivity, simple device architecture, low fabrication cost, and excellent chemical and thermal stability. This review comprehensively discussed recent advances in the synthesis, sensing mechanisms, and performance of

pristine metal oxides and metal oxide-based nanocomposites for hazardous gas detection. It was demonstrated that the sensing characteristics of MOs are strongly influenced by their synthesis routes, which govern critical material properties such as morphology, crystallinity, particle size, porosity, surface defects, and oxygen vacancies. Conventional synthesis techniques, including sol-gel, hydrothermal, chemical precipitation, spray pyrolysis, combustion, chemical vapor deposition, and microwave-assisted

methods, provide versatile approaches for tailoring these properties to achieve superior sensing performance.

Furthermore, the review highlighted the fundamental chemiresistive sensing mechanism based on surface adsorption–desorption reactions and charge transfer processes, emphasizing the importance of nanostructure engineering, defect modulation, and heterojunction formation in enhancing sensor response. Comparative analysis of recent literature revealed that pristine nanostructured metal oxides exhibit excellent gas sensing characteristics; however, the incorporation of noble metals, graphene derivatives, conductive polymers, transition metal oxides, and other functional nanomaterials significantly improves sensitivity, selectivity, response/recovery characteristics, and detection limits through synergistic catalytic and electronic effects. Despite remarkable progress, several challenges remain, including high operating temperatures, humidity interference, limited selectivity, and long-term operational stability. Future research should focus on developing room-temperature sensing materials, multifunctional heterostructures, flexible and wearable sensor platforms, low-power devices, and intelligent sensor systems integrated with artificial intelligence and the Internet of Things (IoT). Overall, nanostructured metal oxides and their composites continue to provide a versatile and scalable platform for next-generation chemiresistive gas sensors, offering significant potential for applications in environmental monitoring, industrial safety, food quality assessment, and non-invasive healthcare diagnostics.

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