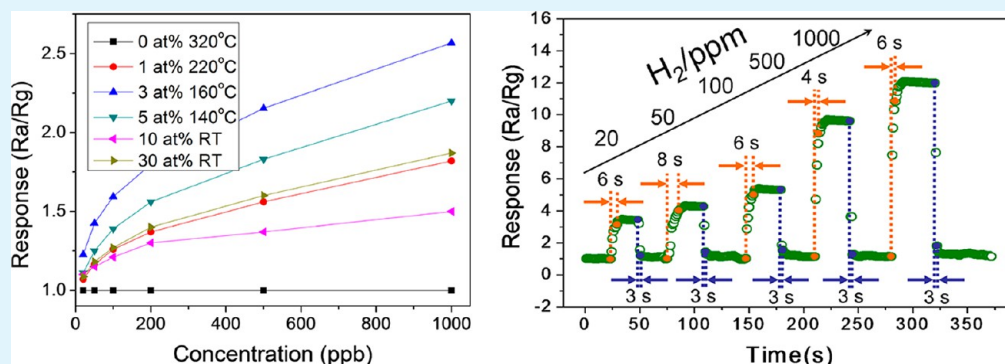


Ultrasensitive Hydrogen Sensor Based on Pd⁰-Loaded SnO₂ Electrospun Nanofibers at Room Temperature

Zhaojie Wang,[†] Zhenyu Li,^{*,†,‡} Tingting Jiang,[†] Xiuru Xu,[†] and Ce Wang^{*,†}

[†]Alan G. MacDiarmid Institute, Jilin University, Changchun 130012, P. R. China.

[‡]Australian Future Fibres Research & Innovation Centre, Institute for Frontier Materials, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria 3217, Australia.



ABSTRACT: Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers have been successfully synthesized with different loaded levels via electrospinning process, sintering technology, and in situ reduction. This simple strategy could be expected to extend for the fabrication of similar metal–oxide loaded nanofibers using different precursors. The morphological and structural characteristics of the resultant product were investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS). To demonstrate the usage of such Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanomaterial, a chemical gas sensor has been fabricated and investigated for H₂ detection. The sensing performances versus Pd⁰-loaded levels have been investigated in detail. An ultralow limit of detection (20 ppb), high response, fast response and recovery, and selectivity have been obtained on the basis of the sensors operating at room temperature. The combination of SnO₂ crystal structure and catalytic activity of Pd⁰-loaded gives a very attractive sensing behavior for applications as real-time monitoring gas sensors.

KEYWORDS: hydrogen sensors, Pd⁰-loaded, SnO₂ nanofibers, room temperature, crystal structure, catalytic activity

1. INTRODUCTION

Hydrogen (H₂) as a clean and sustainable energy carrier is being widely used in energy generation.^{1,2} Simultaneously, it is facile to explosive under a concentration range (4–75%) and low ignition energy (0.02 mJ).³ Thereby, a reliable hydrogen sensor is needed to detect a leakage from the storage and transportation. Like other semiconductor type gas sensors, SnO₂, which has been mostly conducted on H₂ sensor, remains a future challenge for the development of low operating temperature, limit of detection, high sensitivity, fast response and recovery, and high selectivity.^{4–10}

As we know, the working mechanism of SnO₂-based H₂ sensors lies in the convection of electrical conductivity due to surface reactions such as reduction caused by H₂ exposures.^{11,12} Because these surface reactions depend on the active centers and the defects existing on the surface layer of materials, the sensor response is usually determined by the surface-to-volume ratio of materials. To satisfy this requirement, researchers have developed one-dimensional electrospun nanofibers as highly sensitive H₂ sensors because of the ultrahigh surface-to-volume

ratio, implying those large surface activities, reactions at grain boundaries and the congruence of the carrier screening length with their lateral dimensions. Therefore, promising results of the H₂ sensing performance of SnO₂-based nanofibers have been reported in our previous research.^{13–16}

In practice, the optimized operating temperature of these sensors are still very high, which brings about much inconvenience for practical applications and sometimes is even unsafe for detecting combustion gases. One of the most effective methods is functionalizing the material with catalytically active metals. Because of its electrical resistivity changes when palladium absorb hydrogen to form a hydride (PdH_x), Pd-functionalized nanostructures have developed as a novel candidate in decrease operating temperature toward oxygen and hydrogen.^{17,18} For example, Lee et al. have reported that Pd-doped SnO₂ nanorod thin film sensor exhibited 6 time

Received: November 26, 2012

Accepted: February 27, 2013

Published: February 27, 2013

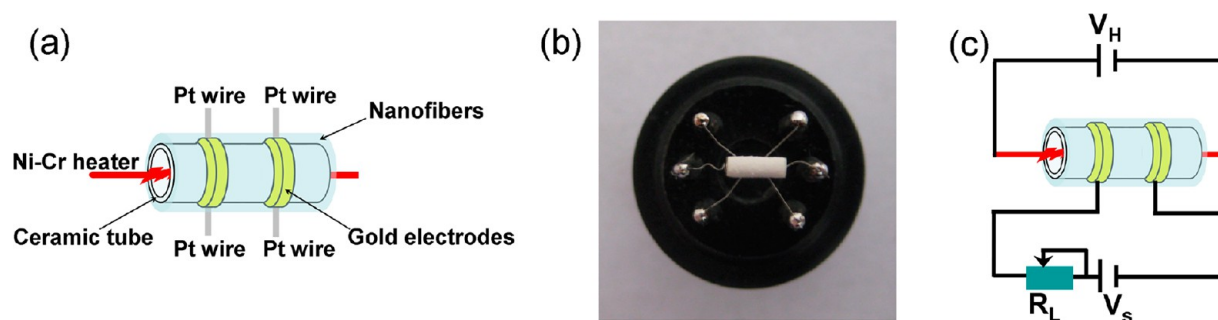


Figure 1. (a) Schematic image of the nanofibers sensor, (b) photograph of the SnO₂ nanofiber sensor, and (c) schematic diagram of the electrical circuit for measuring the nanofiber gas sensor.

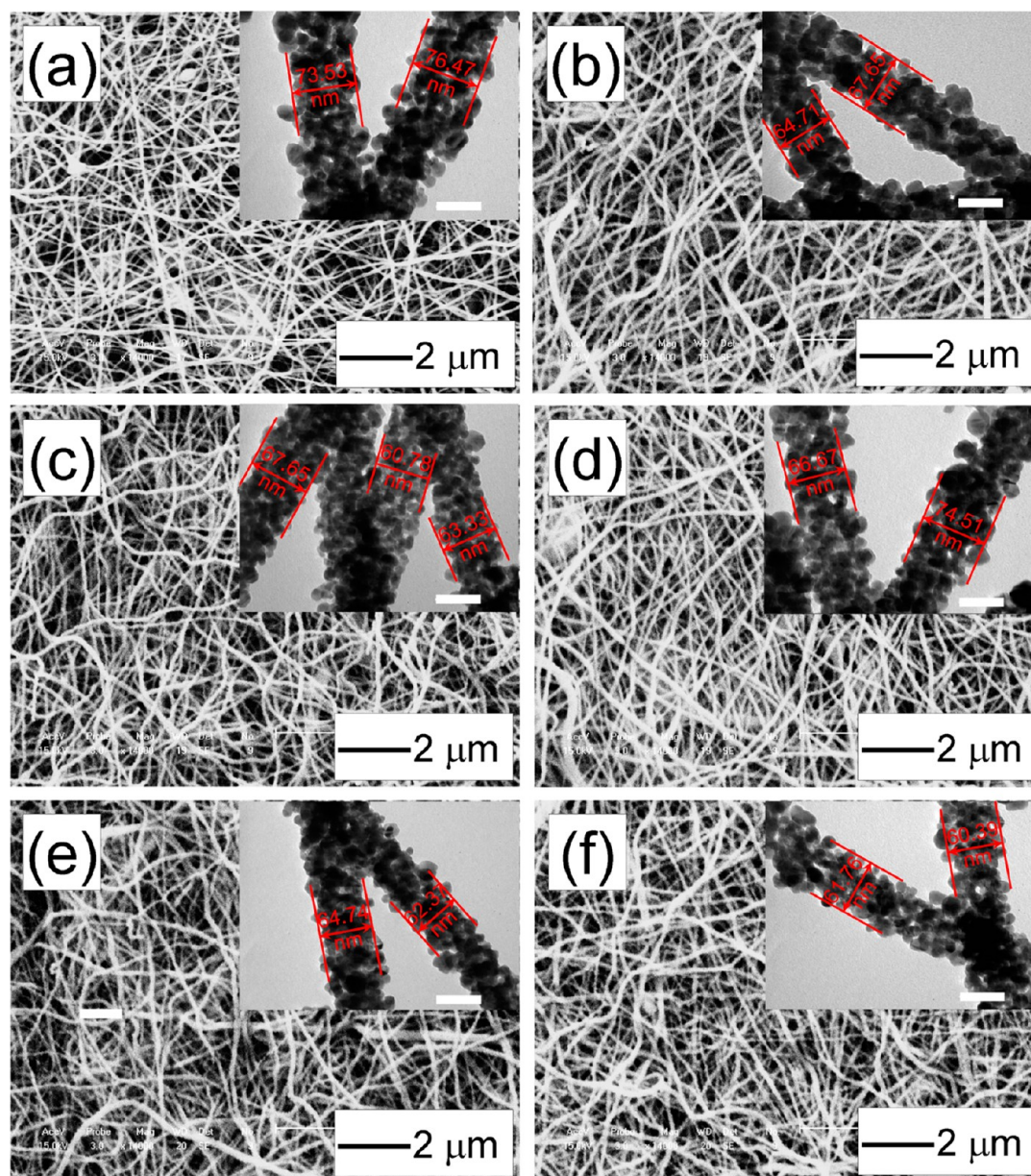


Figure 2. SEM images of (a) unloaded SnO₂ nanofibers, (b) 1, (c) 3, (d) 5, (e) 10, and (f) 30 at % Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers. The scale bar is 2 μm. The insets are the magnified TEM images, respectively. The scale bar is 50 nm.

better response to 1000 ppm H₂ compared to the undoped sample.¹⁹ Choi et al. have discussed the tuning of gas selectivity via the combinatorial control of Pd doping concentration in the

hollow nanofibers.²⁰ The molecular adsorbate on the Pd nanocrystals surfaces was dissociated by the enhanced catalytic and diffused to the oxide surface subsequently.²¹

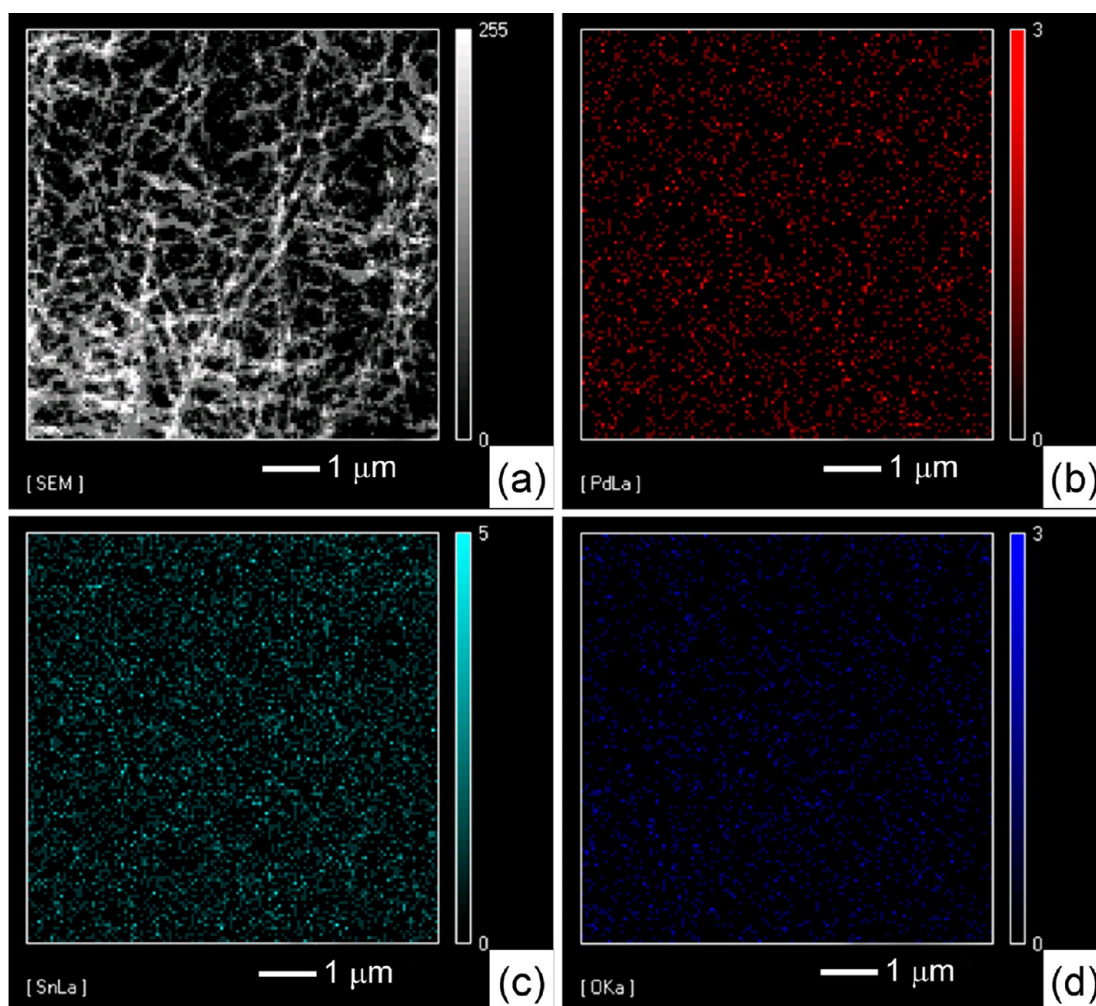


Figure 3. EDX mapping images of the 30 at % Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers. (a) The respective SEM images, the distribution of (b) Pd, (c) Sn, and (d) O in the nanofibers.

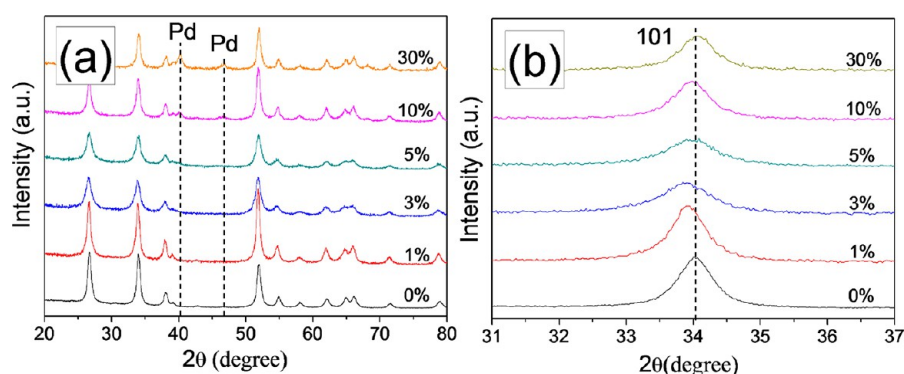


Figure 4. (a) Full-angle range of XRD patterns of pristine and Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers. (b) High-resolution of (101) peak.

In our previous work, 1D Pd²⁺-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers have been successfully prepared combining electrospinning and calcination. Enhanced H₂ sensitivity at lower operating temperature compared with unloaded SnO₂ nanofibers was achieved.¹⁵ Herein, we report the synthesis and H₂ sensing properties of Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers. Further improved gas sensing properties such as operating at room temperature and ultralow limit of detection (20 ppb) have been achieved for the Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers. The sensing

mechanism and the structure–activity relationship of SnO₂ were discussed as well.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Chemicals. Ethanol (>95%), N, N-dimethyl formamide (>95%, DMF) and SnCl₂·2H₂O were purchased from Tianjin Chemical Co. (China). PdCl₂ and hydrazine hydrate were purchased from Beijing Chemical Co. (China). Poly(vinyl pyrrolidone) (PVP, *M_w* = 1 300 000) was purchased from Aldrich. All chemicals were used as received without any further purification.

2.2. Preparation of Pd⁰-Loaded SnO₂ Composite Nanofibers.

In a typical procedure, 0.4 g of SnCl₂·2H₂O was dissolved in 4.4 g of DMF and 4.4 g of ethanol under vigorous stirring for 10 min. Subsequently, 0.8 g of PVP and a suit amount of PdCl₂ were added into the above solution under vigorous stirring for 30 min. The mixture was electrospun (voltage: 12 kV; distance between anode and cathode: 20 cm) and followed by sintering at 600 °C for 5 h. The Pd²⁺-loaded SnO₂ composite nanofibers were immersed into excessive hydrazine hydrate to react for 30 min. The obtained Pd⁰-SnO₂ composite nanofibers were washed with deionized water 3 times and then dried in air at 60 °C for night. The pure SnO₂ nanofibers were also obtained with no addition of PdCl₂ by the same procedure.

2.3. Fabrication and Measurement of H₂ Gas Sensor Based on Our Products. The as-prepared nanofibers were mixed with deionized water in a weight ratio of 100:25 to form a paste. Fix a pin cross the ceramic tube core to set up the ceramic tube for coating. We then coated the paste with a paint pen on the surface of the ceramic tube which has a pair of gold electrodes printed previously. The coating was required to be uniform and covered gold electrodes completely. The ceramic tube coated with materials dried in the shade and then a Ni–Cr heating wire was inserted in the tube to form a side-heated gas sensor. Panels a and b in Figure 1 shows a schematic image of the as-fabricated sensor and a photograph of the sensor on the socket, respectively.

Gas sensing properties were measured using the CGS-1 intelligent test system (Beijing Elite Tech Co. Ltd., China). When the resistances of all the sensors were stable, saturated target gas was injected into the test chamber (20 L in volume) by a microsyringe through a rubber plug. The saturated target gas was mixed with air (relative humidity was about 25% and room temperature was about 25 °C) by two fans in the analysis system. After the sensor resistances reached a new constant value, the test chamber was opened to recover the sensors in air. All the measurements were performed in a laboratory fume hood. The sensor resistance and response values were acquired by the analysis system automatically. The electrical properties of the sensor were measured by Figure 1c gives out the theoretic diagram of the test circuit. The sensor response was measured between room temperature

Table 1. Calculated Values Based on (101) Crystal Planes for the Unloaded and Pd⁰-Loaded SnO₂ Nanofibers

Pd ⁰ -loaded SnO ₂ nanofibers (at %)	fwhm (deg)	2θ (deg)	crystalline size (nm)
0	0.62232	34.02	13.2
1	0.67424	33.91922	12.2
3	0.82384	33.87365	10.0
5	0.77457	33.96851	10.6
10	0.72929	33.98009	11.3
30	0.68829	34.05042	11.9

(RT) and 340 °C. The sensor response is defined as the ratio Ra/Rg, where Ra is the resistance in dry air, and Rg is the resistance in test gas. The response and recovery time tests were carried out by combining gas cylinder (e.g., 1 L jar) and extension cord. A certain concentration of aimed gas was allocated in the gas cylinder. One side of the extension cord connected with a gas sensor and the other side was connected with the bottom case of test chamber. The response and recovery behavior measurement was based on the “insert” and “take out” of the gas cylinder. Here the time taken by the sensor to achieve 90% of the total resistance change was defined as the response time in the case of adsorption or the recovery time in the case of desorption.

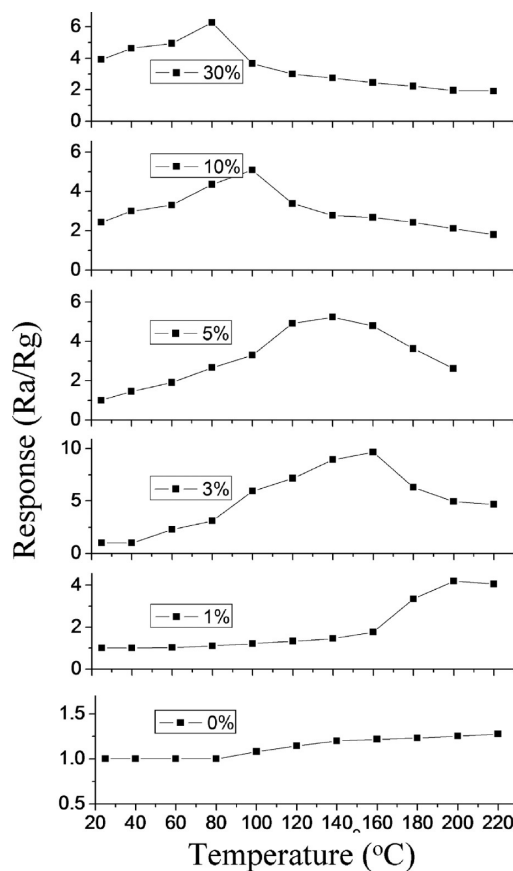


Figure 6. Responses of unloaded and Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers with different loading levels against 50 ppm H₂ as a function of operating temperatures.

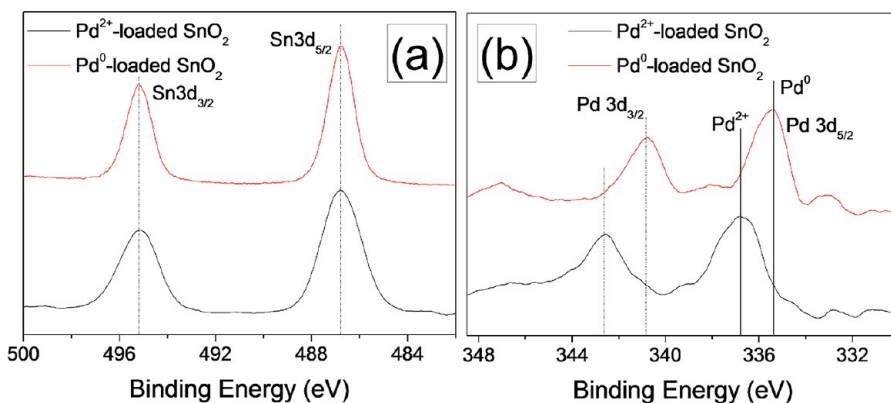


Figure 5. XPS spectra of the (a) Sn 3d and (b) Pd 3d electron binding energies with 30 at % loading level before (black line) and after (red line) in situ reduction.

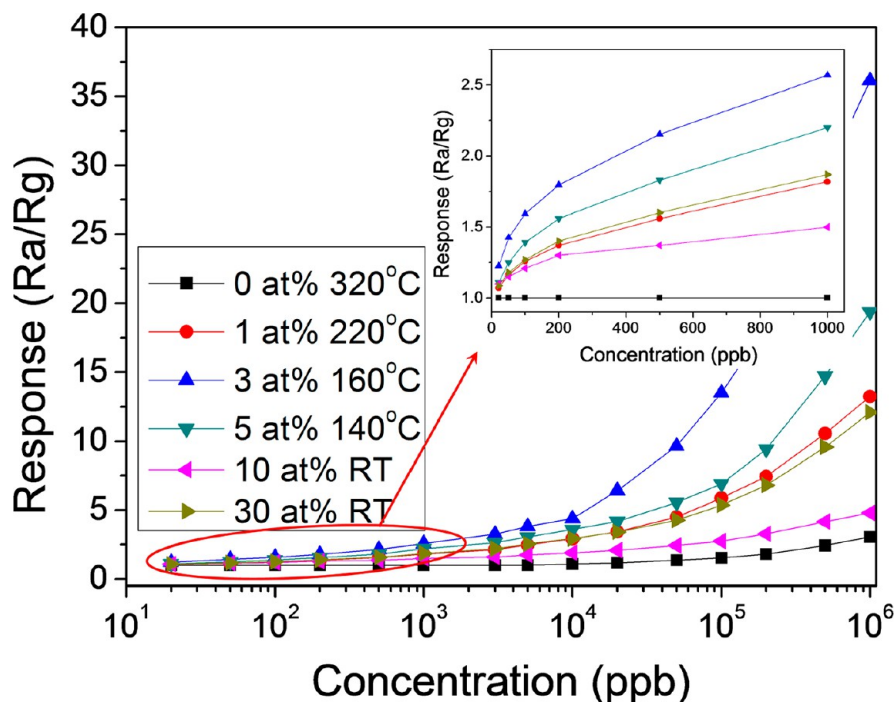


Figure 7. Linear plots of the response of the sensors based on Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofiber against H₂ in the range of 20 ppb to 1000 ppm at different operating temperatures. The inset presents the acceptable response of them at low H₂ concentration.

2.4. Characterization. Nanofibers were characterized by means of scanning electron microscope (SEM, SSX-550, Shimadzu equipped with energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy), transmission electron micrographs (TEM, Hitachi S-570), X-ray diffraction (XRD, PANalytical B.V. Empyrean, standard reflection mode with a Cu K α source). Analysis of the X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) was performed on an ESCLAB MKII using Al as the exciting source.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The morphologies characterized by SEM and TEM of SnO₂ nanofibers loaded with different levels of Pd⁰ sintered at 600 °C following in situ reduction. As shown in Figure 2, all specimens display the similar disordered and bended fibrous morphology with average diameters ~70 nm. Both large voids between the adjacent fibers and small pores within the final fibers provide easy pathways for gas molecules to penetrate easily into the whole membranes. According to the magnified TEM micrographs, there are slightly changes in nanoparticles diameters.

To characterize the distribution of Pd, we characterized the 30 at % Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofiber nonwoven membrane by EDX of SEM. The elemental-mapping analysis, as shown in Figure 3, revealed that the Pd (red) atoms were homogeneously distributed throughout the Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ composite nanofibers, which were similar to Sn (green) and O (blue) atoms in the composite nanofibers. Pd atoms can distribute homogeneously via our method, which will increase the effective amount of that during reacting with aimed gases.

The crystallization of the electrospun nanofibers as a function of Pd content was examined by X-ray diffraction (XRD). Figure 4a shows the XRD patterns of unloaded and 1, 3, 5, 10, and 30 at % Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ specimens calcined at 600 °C and following in situ reduction in hydrazine hydrate. All of them display clear reflections from the (110), (101), (200), (211), and (220) etc. crystallographic planes of the cassiterite SnO₂ crystalline phase (rutile structure, JCPDS 41–1445, space group *P4₂/mnm*).²² There is no indication of the presence of any dopant-related

diffraction peaks for the Pd⁰-loaded level less than 5 at % samples, implying the high dispersion or the poor crystallinity of dopants related nanoparticles. While as for the 10 and 30 at % Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers, the peaks at $2\theta = 40.2$ and 46.8° correspond to the reflection of the cubic structure of Pd⁰ (JCPDS File 46–1043).²³ However, two tiny differences between the unloaded and Pd⁰-loaded samples can be discerned. One is that the full widths at half-maximum (fwhm) of the diffraction peaks for the loaded samples are slightly larger than that of the unloaded sample, as shown in the enlarged partial view of the XRD patterns (Figure 4b). The crystallite sizes of samples can be estimated by using the Scherrer equation

$$D = \frac{0.9\lambda}{B\cos\theta}$$

Where D is the crystallite size, B is the fwhm, θ is diffraction angle, and λ is the wavelength of X-ray.²⁴ The estimated crystallite sizes corresponding to (101) crystallographic planes were illustrated in Table 1. In contrast to the pristine SnO₂ nanofibers, the grain sizes within all Pd⁰ loaded SnO₂ nanofibers reduced. Another difference lies in the tiny change in the positions of the diffraction peaks in the patterns. Taking the (101) crystallographic planes as an example, the position of the diffraction peaks from Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ specimens shift to lower angles compared to the unloaded SnO₂ specimen at first, confirming the Pd²⁺ is incorporated into the SnO₂ lattice and occupying the tetragonal Sn⁴⁺ cation sites after calcination (when the concentration of Pd is less or equal to 3 at %). As the concentration of Pd is higher or equal to 5 at %, the (101) peak recovers toward the original degree again, implying that some Pd²⁺ ions cannot be contained within the SnO₂ crystal and expelled from the crystal during the calcination for the different ions radius of Pd²⁺ (86 pm) and Sn⁴⁺ (69 pm).

The chemical composition of the specimens after calcination and in situ reduction was examined by X-ray photoelectron

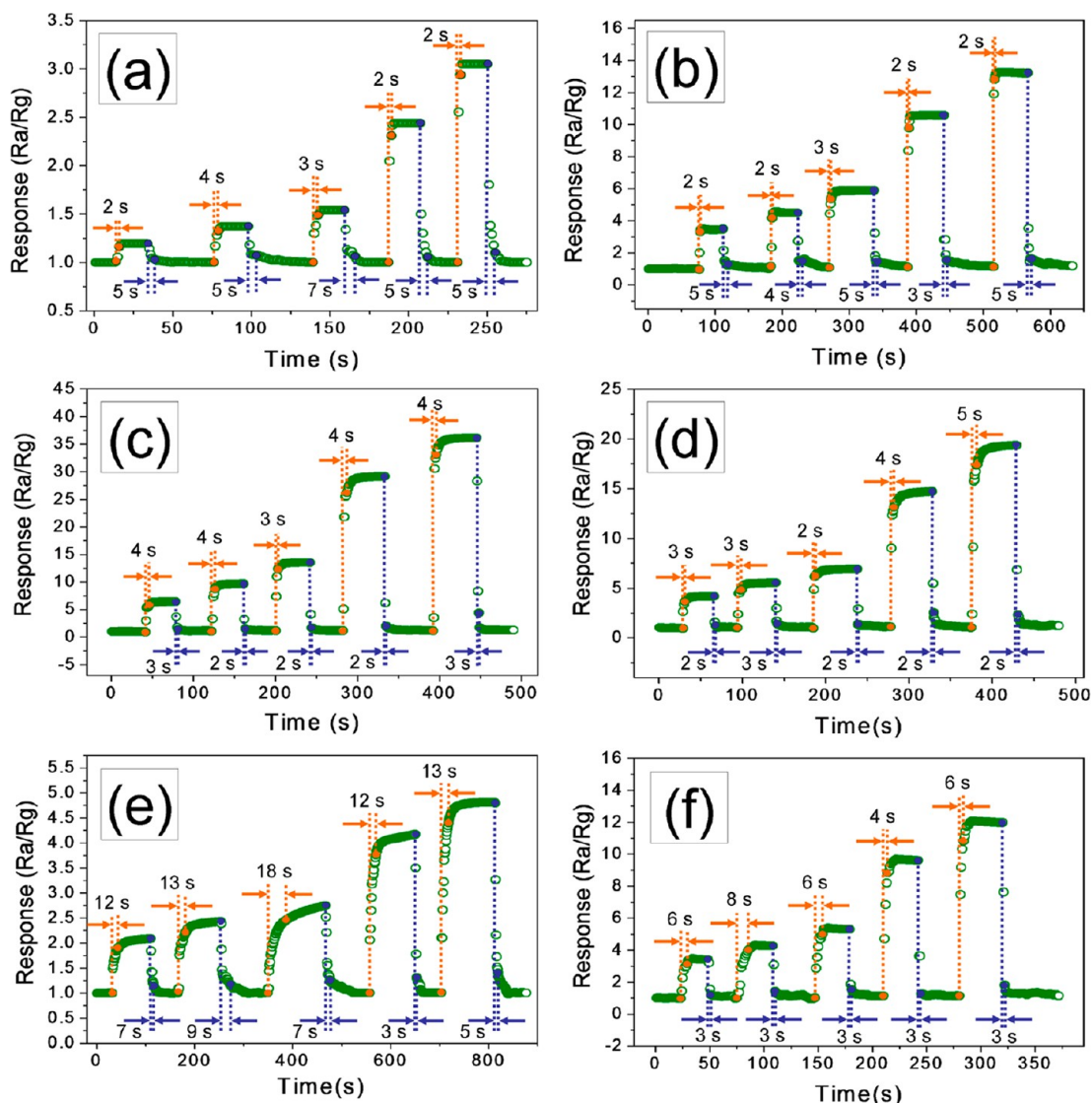


Figure 8. Dynamic H₂ sensing transients of all sensors with different loading levels (a) 0, (b) 1, (c) 3, (d) 5, (e) 10, and (f) 30 at % to 20, 50, 100, 500, and 1000 ppm in turn.

spectroscopy (XPS). Figure 5 shows the Sn 3d and Pd 3d photoemission spectra of 30 at % Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ specimen before and after in situ reduction. The Sn 3d doublet characterized by 3d_{3/2}–3d_{5/2} splitting was clearly observed in Figure 5a. In situ reduction in hydrazine hydrate does not produce any significant reduction of Sn⁴⁺ as detected by XPS. Significant changes, especially the shape of Pd 3d signal, are observed in these spectra. The gap between the Pd 3d_{3/2} and Pd 3d_{5/2} level is 5.3 eV, which is very close to the spin–orbit doublet separation value reported in the literature.²⁵ The characteristic peak of Pd 3d_{3/2} with binding energy of 336.9 eV corresponds to Pd²⁺ (PdO), and after in situ reduction, the peak shifts to the binding energy of 335.7 eV, which is identified as Pd⁰ peak. This indicates that the PdCl₂ (338.6) in precursor nanofibers was turned into PdO in SnO₂ nanofibers during the calcinations at 600 °C and finally turned into Pd⁰ after in situ reduction.

To examine the gas sensing properties of our electrospun SnO₂ nanofibers and the effect of Pd⁰-loading on their sensing properties we fabricated gas sensors comprising different Pd⁰-loading levels and measured their resistance response. The

optimum working temperature range is an important functional characteristic for semiconducting oxide sensors. Figure 6 shows the response of the sensors to 50 ppm of H₂ at operating temperatures from RT to 220 °C. It can be observed that the sensor based on pure SnO₂ shows no response to 50 ppm H₂ until the operating temperature in the range to 120 °C. And in our previous research the pure SnO₂ nanofibers would exhibit the maximum response of 1.4 at 320 °C. For Pd⁰ doped SnO₂ nanofibers, the optimum operating temperatures have significantly decreased by increasing the Pd-loading level, which in turn directly verifies the promotion effect of Pd loading. Satisfyingly, 10 and 30 at % Pd⁰-loaded specimens have considerable response at room temperature although their optimized operating temperatures are still much higher than RT (It is important to note that the following systematic analysis was based on their optimum operation temperatures except for the two operating at RT).

Figure 7 shows the response changes based on our specimens with different Pd⁰-loaded levels, against different concentrations of H₂ (20–1000 ppm). The largest response is obtained with the 3 at % dopant to the other specimens, in which even at

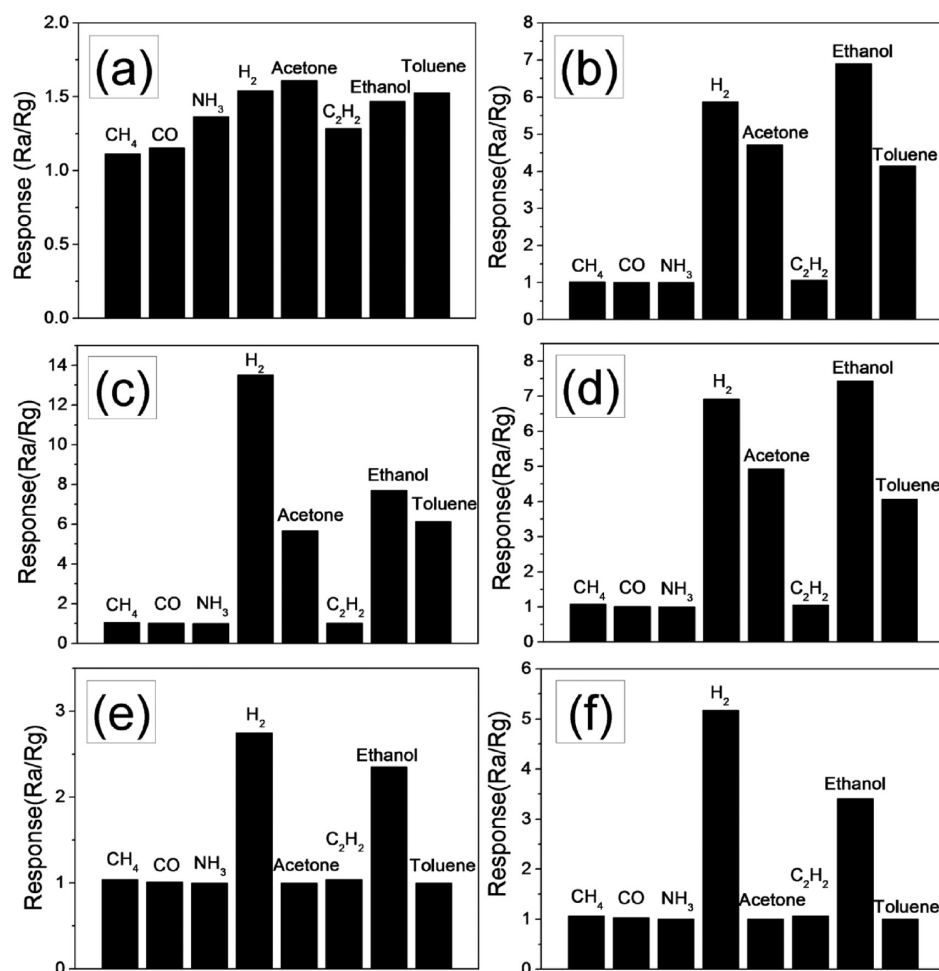


Figure 9. Response of all sensors with different loading levels (a) 0, (b) 1, (c) 3, (d) 5, (e) 10, and (f) 30 at % to 100 ppm different gases at respective operating temperature.

20 ppb of H₂ detectable response can be observed, surpassing most the existed H₂ devices based on SnO₂ nano-hybrid-structures. The response of our samples increases rapidly with increasing H₂ concentration and still unsaturated at 1000 ppm H₂, confirming a very wide detection scope. The inset in Figure 7 presents the acceptable response of our samples at low H₂ concentration.

The dynamic H₂ sensing transients of all sensors at different operating temperatures are shown in Figure 8. A few cycles were successively recorded, corresponding to different H₂ concentrations ranging from 20 to 1000 ppm. It has been found to be highly dependent on the catalyst loading. When the Pd⁰-loaded level is low (≤ 5 at %, Figure 8a–d), which were operated at high temperature, they usually have short response (2–5 s) and corresponding recovery (2–7 s) time. As for the sensors operated at RT, their response time is a little longer than the other sensors operated with heating. In contrast, under the same conditions, the 30 at % Pd⁰-loaded sample has a much faster response rate than that of 10 at % and a shorter recovery time of only ~ 3 s. All of these results are ideal in actual application.

The good selectivity to detect a target gas in the presence of multigas molecules, especially with similar physicochemical properties, is very important toward good sensing element in real-time gas sensing devices. For systematic analysis, the sensitivity values to various gases (CH₄, CO, NH₃, acetone, C₂H₂, ethanol, and toluene) at 100 ppm were measured and the results are presented in Figure 9. Clearly, at high operation

temperatures of low Pd⁰-loaded specimens, the three species of acetone, ethanol, and toluene are the most interferences to H₂. Although the two sensors operated at RT exhibit better selectivity, which almost only response to H₂ and ethanol (the response value of H₂ lies higher than ethanol). The Pd⁰ sensitization of SnO₂ nanofibers results in a low operating temperature and a high response to H₂, which is proven to be one of the most effective methods for improving the sensing performance and is potentially useful for the decrease of the power consumption.

To clarify the advantages of the Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers in the sensor response to hydrogen, we quantitatively compare our studies with previous works using SnO₂ and other metal oxide electrodes for hydrogen sensing. The comparison of sensor response at different hydrogen concentrations and of various SnO₂ electrodes for hydrogen sensing is summarized in Table 2. To give convective comparative data, we have made a suitable transformation to these data by $S = R_a/R_g$. Accordingly, these results definitely show that the Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofiber gas sensors have achieved better sensing results than that of SnO₂ electrodes for hydrogen sensing.

The enhanced gas sensing performance can be explained by the following aspects. The first is that the changes on SnO₂ crystal structures. For Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ composite nanofibers, as the Pd (≤ 3 at %) occupy the tetragonal Sn⁴⁺ cation sites within the rutile, large crystal lattice distortion will generate,

Table 2. Brief Summary of Results Reported on SnO₂-Based H₂ Sensors^a

materials	concentration					T (°C)
	20 ppb	1 ppm	10 ppm	500 ppm	1000 ppm	
SnO ₂ film ^{26,27}			1.18			300
SnO ₂ nanorod ²⁸				1.4		300
SnO ₂ nanowire ²⁸					4.25	300
SnO ₂ nanobelt ²⁹						80
SnO ₂ nanofiber		1	1.09	2.44	3.05	320
3% Pd ²⁺ -doped SnO ₂ nanofiber ¹⁵				16	26.5	280
30% Pd ²⁺ -loaded SnO ₂ nanofiber ³⁰		~3				350
3% Pd ⁰ -loaded SnO ₂ nanofiber	1.22	2.57	4.39	29.14	36.14	160
30% Pd ⁰ -loaded SnO ₂ nanofiber	1.09	1.87	2.93	9.59	12.09	RT

^aAll the values were read from the corresponding references and converted as Ra/Rg for comparison.

causing the increasement of oxygen vacancy in the final product. Additionally, such large crystal lattice distortion will further prevent the growth of SnO₂ crystal and lower the gain size of SnO₂ crystal within the final product as well. As the concentration of Pd is higher or equal to 5 at %, some Pd²⁺ ions can not be contained within the SnO₂ crystal and expelled from the crystal during the calcination. After in situ reduction, Pd⁰ was loaded on the surface of SnO₂ nanocrystals. In this case, the observed magnitude of the changes in sensing properties, kinetics and temperature dependence brought about by Pd⁰ functionalization can be explained by “electronic mechanism” and “chemical mechanism”. In the electronic mechanism, the sensitization is promoted by direct exchange of electrons between the semiconductor and the metal additive nanocrystals.³¹ When gas molecules are chemisorbed on the Pd⁰ nanocrystals, their electronic density or even their oxidation state may change, the work function of Pd⁰ nanocrystals being also affected. These facts modify the electron exchange properties between the metal nanocrystals and the semiconductor substrate, and consequently, the electronic conductivity in the SnO₂ is modified.^{32–36} On the other hand, it proposes that the Pd nanocrystals catalytically activate the dissociation of molecular oxygen on the surface of metal oxide substrates, resulting in the increase in length of the depleted layer together with the width and height of potential barrier. When the samples were exposed upon reducing gas, the depleted layer was fading away, thus the width and height of the barrier potential decreased, leading to the decrease in sensor resistance.³⁷

4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, a simple route was successfully promoted to synthesize novel Pd⁰-loaded SnO₂ nanofibers. The as-prepared SnO₂ sample consists of different Pd⁰-loaded levels have been investigated as hydrogen sensors in detail. By adjusting the Pd⁰-loaded levels, high sensing performance such as high response, low detection limit (20 ppb), fast response (4–13 s) and recovery (3–9 s), and high selectivity toward H₂ can be obtained at room temperature. The excellent sensing performances are attributed to the changes in crystalline structure and catalytic effect of Pd⁰.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: askyu224901@yahoo.com.cn (Z.L.); cwang@jlu.edu.cn (C.W.). Tel.: +86 431 85168292. Fax: +86 431 85168292.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The work has been supported by National 973 Project (2007CB936203 and S2009061009), NSF China (51003036), Jilin Province Key Project (20110339), and Doctoral Interdisciplinary Sponsored Research Project of Jilin University (2012JC006).

REFERENCES

- Dresselhaus, M. S.; Thomas, I. L. *Nature* **2001**, *414*, 332–337.
- Iwanaga, T.; Hyodo, T.; Shimizu, Y.; Egashira, M. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2003**, *93*, 519–525.
- Sumida, S.; Okazaki, S.; Asakura, S.; Nakagawa, H.; Murayama, H.; Hasegawa, T. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2005**, *108*, 508–514.
- Yamazaki, T.; Okumura, H.; Jin, C. J.; Nakayama, A.; Kikuta, T.; Nakatani, N. *Vacuum* **2005**, *77*, 237–243.
- Mishra, V. N.; Agarwal, R. P. *Microelectron. J.* **1998**, *29*, 861–874.
- Dolbec, R.; El-Khakani, M. A.; Serventi, A. M.; Saint-Jacques, R. G. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2003**, *93*, 566–571.
- Baik, N. S.; Sakai, G.; Miura, N.; Yamazoe, N. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2000**, *63*, 74–79.
- Shimizu, Y.; Kai, S.; Takao, Y.; Hyodo, T.; Egashira, M. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2000**, *65*, 349–357.
- Kawahara, A.; Yoshihara, K.; Katsuki, H.; Shimizu, Y.; Egashira, M. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2000**, *65*, 17–22.
- Wada, K.; Egashira, M. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2000**, *62*, 211–219.
- Ponzoni, A.; Comini, E.; Sberveglieri, G. *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **2006**, *88* (203101), 3.
- Huang, H.; Ong, C. Y.; Guo, J.; White, T.; Tse, M. S.; Tan, O. K. *Nanoscale* **2010**, *2*, 1203–1207.
- Wang, Z. J.; Li, Z. Y.; Sun, J. H.; Zhang, H. N.; Wang, W.; Zheng, W.; Wang, C. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2010**, *114*, 6100–6105.
- Xu, X. R.; Sun, J. H.; Zhang, H. N.; Wang, Z. J.; Dong, B.; Jiang, T. T.; Wang, W.; Li, Z. Y.; Wang, C. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2011**, *160*, 858–863.
- Zhang, H. N.; Li, Z. Y.; Liu, L.; Xu, X. R.; Wang, Z. J.; Wang, W.; Zheng, W.; Dong, B.; Wang, C. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2010**, *147*, 111–115.
- Liu, L.; Guo, C. C.; Li, S. C.; Wang, L. Y.; Dong, Q. Y. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2010**, *150*, 806–810.
- Lewis, F. A. *Platinum Met. Rev.* **1982**, *26*, 20–27.
- Flanagan, T. B.; Oates, W. A. *Annu. Rev. Mater. Sci.* **1991**, *21*, 269–304.
- Lee, Y. C.; Huang, Hui; Tan, O. K.; Tse, M. S. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2008**, *132*, 239–242.
- Choi, J. K.; Hwang, I. S.; Kim, S. J.; Park, J. S.; Park, S. S.; Jeong, U.; Kang, Y. C.; Lee, J. H. *Sens. Actuators, B: Chem.* **2010**, *150*, 191–199.

- (21) Kolmakov, A.; Klenov, D. O.; Lilach, Y.; Stemmer, S.; Moskovits, M. *Nano Lett.* **2005**, *5*, 667–673.
- (22) Haridas, D.; Gupt, V. *Sens. Actuators, B: Chem.* **2012**, *166–167*, 156–164.
- (23) Kim, S. S.; Park, J. Y.; Choi, S. W.; Na, H. G.; Yang, J. C.; Kim, H. W. *J. Alloys Compd.* **2011**, *509*, 9171–9177.
- (24) Patterson, A. L. *Phys. Rev.* **1939**, *56*, 978–982.
- (25) Jiménez, V. M.; Espinós, J. P.; González-Eliphe, A. R. *Sens. Actuators, B* **1999**, *61*, 23–32.
- (26) Wheeler, M. C.; Tiffany, J. E.; Walton, R. M.; Cavicchi, R. E.; Semancik, S. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2001**, *77*, 167–176.
- (27) Cavicchi, R. E.; Suehle, J. S.; Kreider, K. G.; Shomaker, B. L.; Small, J. A.; Gaitan, M.; Chaparala, P. *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **1995**, *66* (812), 3.
- (28) Wang, B.; Zhu, L. F.; Yang, Y. H.; Xu, N. S. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2008**, *112*, 6643–6647.
- (29) Kind, L. H.; Messer, B.; Kim, F.; Yang, P. *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.* **2002**, *41*, 2405–2408.
- (30) Yang, D. J.; Kamienchick, I.; Youn, D. Y.; Rothschild, A.; Kim, I. D. *Adv. Funct. Mater.* **2010**, *20*, 4258–4264.
- (31) Zhdanov, V. P. *Surf. Sci.* **2002**, *512*, L331–L334.
- (32) Kim, J. C.; Jun, H. K.; Huh, J. S.; Lee, D. D. *Sens. Actuators, B* **1997**, *45*, 271–277.
- (33) Papadopoulos, C. A.; Vlachos, D. S.; Avaritsiotis, J. N. *Sens. Actuators, B* **1996**, *32*, 61–69.
- (34) Angelis, L.; Riva, R. *Sens. Actuators, B: Chem.* **1995**, *28*, 25–29.
- (35) Ivanovskaya, M. I.; Bogdanov, P. A.; Orlik, D. R.; Gurlo, A. C.; Romanovskaya, V. V. *Thin Solid Films* **1997**, *296*, 41–43.
- (36) Xing, L. L.; Ma, C. H.; Chen, Z. H.; Chen, Y. J.; Xue, X. Y. *Nanotechnology* **2011**, *22* (215501), 7.
- (37) Liu, H.; Gong, S. P.; Hu, Y. X.; Liu, J. Q.; Zhou, D. X. *Sens. Actuators, B* **2009**, *140*, 190–195.