

Facile One-Step Synthesis of Three-Dimensional Pd–Ag Bimetallic Alloy Networks and Their Electrocatalytic Activity toward Ethanol Oxidation

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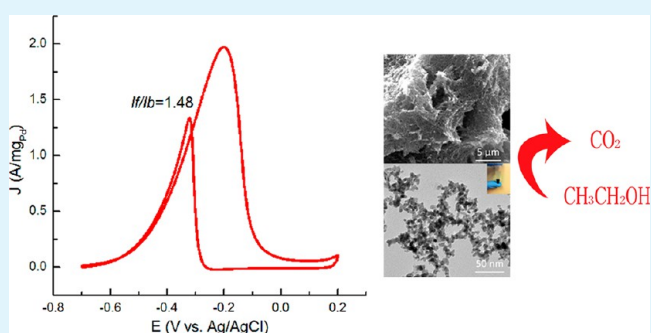
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The three-dimensional palladium networks and palladium–silver bimetallic alloy networks were synthesized at room temperature on a large scale using a rapid and simple strategy. The results revealed that the morphology of the networks is not affected by the composition. We demonstrated that the as-prepared unsupported networks exhibited excellent electrochemical activity and stability toward ethanol oxidation reaction in alkaline media due to the formation of palladium–silver alloys as well as the porous nanostructures. The results indicate that the well-defined three-dimensional palladium–silver bimetallic alloy networks are promising catalysts for fuel cells.

KEYWORDS: Pd, bimetallic alloy, three-dimensional networks, fuel cell, ethanol oxidation reaction



1. INTRODUCTION

Noble metals, such as platinum (Pt), palladium (Pd), and gold (Au), have been used in various areas for decades, including fuel cell catalysts,^{1,2} cell imaging,^{3,4} surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS),^{5–7} biosensing,⁸ and drug delivery.^{9,10} Particularly, the rational design of noble metal nanostructures with favorable size, shape, and composition provides wide opportunities to construct advanced electrocatalysts in fuel cells with high activity and stability.^{11,12} For instance, Pd presents high catalytic activity and stability for ethanol oxidation reaction (EOR) in alkaline solutions even though it has no electrocatalytic activity in acid type direct ethanol fuel cells (DEFCs).^{13,14} However, the efficiency and activity of Pd-based catalysts are still the main challenges for DEFC applications. To overcome these problems, a number of strategies have been explored, including alloying with other nonprecious metals and adjusting morphologies of the nanostructures.^{12,15–17} To this end, silver (Ag), copper (Cu), ruthenium (Ru), and tin (Sn) have been used to form alloys with Pd, which presented good catalytic activity toward EOR.^{14,18–22} For example, Ding et al. synthesized Pd–Sn hierarchical alloy nanosheet dendrites by an electrodeposition approach, which exhibited high electrocatalytic activity and superior long-term cycle stability toward EOR.²³ The addition of the nonprecious metal not only efficiently enhances the electrochemical performance of the EOR but also greatly decreases the cost of the electrocatalysts.

On the other hand, specific structures, such as three-dimensional (3D) noble metal networks (NWs), nanoflowers,

nanoneedles, nanodendrites, or core–shells, have significant effects on the properties of the materials.^{16,24–27} Among them, 3D NWs have attracted many interests in the area of sensors,¹⁹ drug delivery,²⁸ and fuel cells,²² due to their high surface area, low density, and special electrical properties.¹⁹ For the fuel cell application, the 3D NWs materials can serve as catalysts themselves, which have shown high activities and satisfactory stability in comparison to commercial carbon supported Pt catalyst. This type of nanostructures is characterized by contiguous material that is effectively presintered, thus minimizing loss of electrochemical surface area (ECSA) due to an agglomeration pathway. At the same time, the elimination of the carbon support would allow for a thinner electrode catalyst layer and for improved mass transport and Pt utilization within the catalyst layer because the catalyst layer would be in direct contact with the gas diffusion layer.^{29–31} In this study, we synthesized 3D Pd NWs and Pd–Ag bimetallic alloy networks (BANWs) on a large scale. Compared with other synthesis strategies, the Pd–Ag BANWs were prepared by a rapid aqueous solution method without formation of silver chloride (AgCl).^{26,32,33} The as-prepared NWs can be directly utilized as unsupported electrocatalyst and exhibited enhanced activity and stability on EOR in alkaline solutions compared with commercial palladium/carbon (Pd/C) catalyst. Therefore, it is

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expected that these novel 3D porous nanostructures hold great promise in fuel cells and other electrochemical applications.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Chemicals and Reagents. Sodium borohydride (NaBH_4 , 98%, powder), silver nitrate (AgNO_3 , 99.9+%), and palladium on activated carbon powder (20% Pd loading, nominally 57.05% water wet) were purchased from Alfa Aesar. Potassium hydroxide (KOH, reagent grade) was obtained from Amresco. Palladium(II) nitrate hydrate ($\text{Pd}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Pd ~ 41.9%, Pd 99.9%) was bought from Strem Chemicals. Ethanol 200 proof ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$) was purchased from Decon Laboratories.

2.2. Characterization. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were obtained by a Philips CM200 UT (Field Emission Instruments, USA). FEI Sirion field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) was used for imaging and energy-dispersive X-ray analysis (EDX). X-ray diffraction (XRD) characterization was carried out by a Rigaku Miniflex 600. The tube was operated at 40 kV accelerating voltage and 15 mA current.

2.3. Synthesis of 3D Pd NWs and Pd–Ag BANWs. 3D Pd–Ag BANWs were synthesized using a simple aqueous solution method. Briefly, 1 mL of metal precursor aqueous solution containing $\text{Pd}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and AgNO_3 , with a total metal ions concentration of 0.1 M, was injected into NaBH_4 solution (0.1 M, 5 mL). The mixture was stirred until the solution became colorless. The black products were then washed with DI water, followed by drying at room temperature. As a comparison, pure 3D Pd NWs were synthesized using the same method. The final products were denoted as Pd, $\text{Pd}_{67}\text{Ag}_{33}$, $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$, and $\text{Pd}_{33}\text{Ag}_{67}$, respectively, according to the different compositions.

2.4. Electrochemical Experiments. The Pd NWs, Pd–Ag BANWs, and commercial Pd/C catalysts (0.1 M with respect to total metal ions) were obtained by dissolving the catalysts into deionized water. Then, the catalysts with a Pd loading of 1.25 μg were dropped onto the polished and cleaned glassy carbon electrode (GCE, 3 mm in diameter) surface and dried at 60 °C. After that, 2.5 μL of 0.05% nafion was covered on the surface and dried under the same condition.

The electrochemical measurements were conducted on an electrochemical workstation (CHI 630E) coupled with a three-electrode system. A Pt wire and a Ag/AgCl electrode filled with saturated KCl aqueous solution were used as the counter electrode and reference electrode, respectively.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Characterization of 3D Pd NWs and Pd–Ag BANWs. The morphology of Pd NWs (Figure 1a) and Pd–Ag BANWs (Figure 1b–d) were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), which confirms the formation of the foam-like 3D NWs by a simple aqueous method. With a higher magnification, the porous structure is clearly observed, as shown in Figure 1d. The similar morphology for each sample indicates that the ratio of Pd to Ag does not have much effect on the structure of the NWs.

The NWs structures of Pd, $\text{Pd}_{67}\text{Ag}_{33}$, and $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$ were further characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), as shown in Figure 2. All the 3D NWs presented a similar structure, where the networks are composed of fused nanoparticles. The diameters of nanoparticles in Pd NWs and $\text{Pd}_{67}\text{Ag}_{33}$, and $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$ BANWs are 5.9, 5.7, and 6.0 nm, respectively (Figure S1a–c, Supporting Information), which was measured by Nano Measure Software. This result confirms that the composition does not have an effect on the morphology of the NWs. The inset in Figure 2a shows the digital photograph of 3D Pd–Ag BANWs, which demonstrates that the sample with 3D networks could be produced on a large

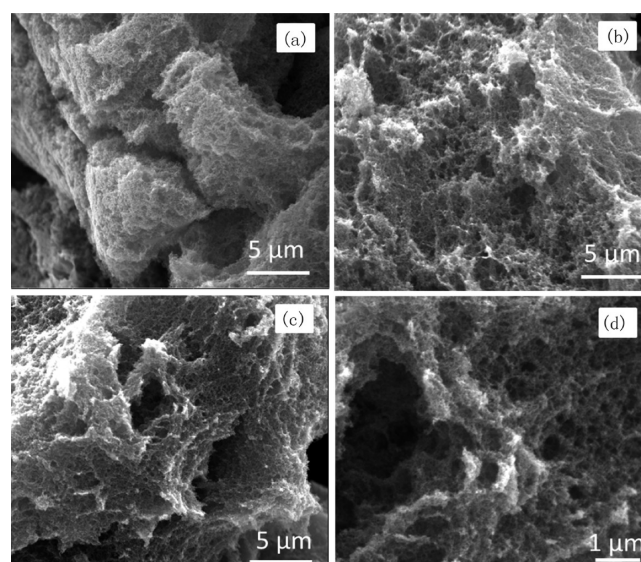


Figure 1. SEM images of as-prepared 3D Pd NWs (a) and $\text{Pd}_{67}\text{Ag}_{33}$ (b) and $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$ (c, d) BANWs.

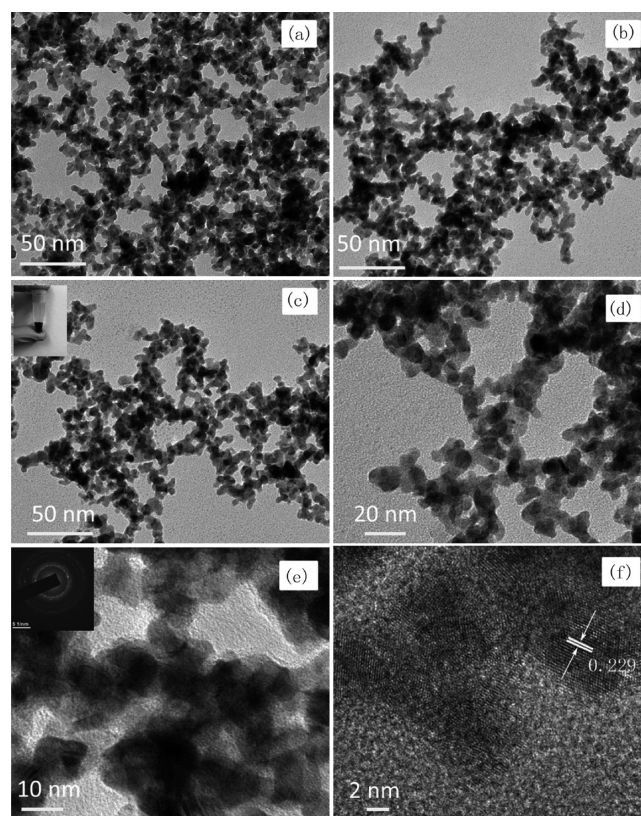


Figure 2. TEM images of Pd NWs (a) and $\text{Pd}_{67}\text{Ag}_{33}$ (b) and $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$ (c, d, e) BANWs. Inset in (c) is the digital photograph of Pd–Ag BANWs. Inset in (e) is the SAED pattern of $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$ BANWs. (f) HRTEM image of $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$ BANWs.

scale. The polycrystalline structure of $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$ BANWs was further demonstrated by the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern, as shown in Figure 2e, inset. It confirmed that the Pd–Ag NWs were formed by the fusion of nanoparticles. The structure of a $\text{Pd}_{50}\text{Ag}_{50}$ BANW individual nanoparticles was characterized by high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), as shown in Figure 2f. The image

reveals that the measured interplanar spacing is around 0.229 nm. This value corresponds to the (111) lattice plane of the Pd–Ag alloy nanostructure.

To analyze the composition of 3D Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs, energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy was used (Figure 3d and Figure S2d, Supporting Information). The

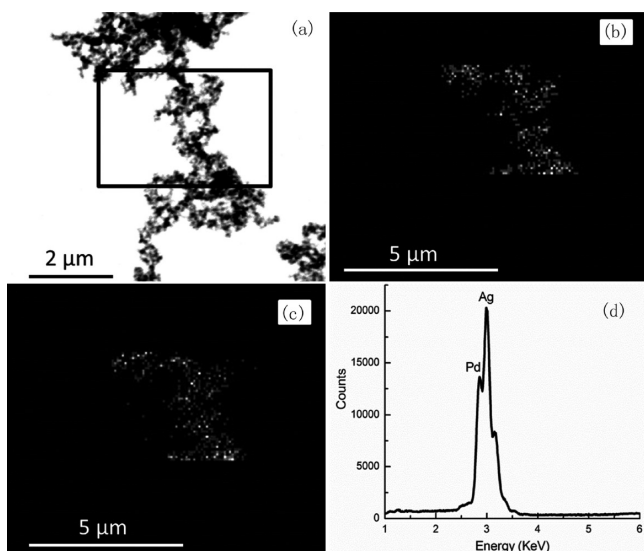


Figure 3. (a) TEM image of 3D Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs and related element mapping of Pd (b) and Ag (c). (d) EDX spectrum of Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs.

peaks representing Pd and Ag shown on the spectra confirm the presence of these two elements in the NWs. On the basis of EDX results, the ratios of Pd to Ag are 62:38 and 47:53 for Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs, respectively, which are close to 67:33 and 50:50. It is clear that the precursors added can be totally reduced in the presence of a strong reducing agent. Moreover, Figure 3 and Figure S2 show the TEM images and related element mapping images of Pd and Ag for Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. The maps confirm the formation of Pd–Ag alloys, which are uniformly distributed all over the 3D NWs.

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of Pd NWs and Pd–Ag BANWs reveal their fcc structures, as shown in Figure 4a. For the Pd NWs, the peaks observed at $2\theta = 40.08, 46.5, 68, 81.9, \text{ and } 86.42^\circ$ correspond to (111), (200), (220), (311), and (222) planes. For Pd–Ag BANWs, these peaks shift to a

smaller angle because of the presence of Ag. The peak positions of Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ are located between Pd (green) and Ag (red) peaks, indicating the alloy formation between Pd and Ag. The bimetallic Pd–Ag nanoparticles' size can be calculated according to Scherrer equation³⁴

$$L = \frac{0.9\lambda_{K\alpha 1}}{B_{2\theta} \cos \theta_{\max}}$$

where L is the size of Pd–Ag nanoparticles. $\lambda_{K\alpha 1}$ is the X-ray wavelength ($\lambda = 0.154 \text{ nm}$). $B_{2\theta}$ is the half-peak width. θ_{\max} is the Bragg angle. The calculated nanoparticle sizes of Pd NWs and Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs are 5.67, 6.12, and 6.38 nm, which agree with the TEM results very well.

The presence of Pd and Ag in Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ was further confirmed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). Figure 4b shows the Pd XPS spectra for Pd NWs and Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. It reveals that the peak positions for Pd (3d_{5/2}) and Pd (3d_{3/2}) in BANWs negatively shift relative to that of Pd NWs. This shift should be attributed to the alloy formation between Pd and Ag in Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. Figure 4c shows the deconvolution of Pd 3d spectra for Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. It presents two sets of peaks. One set shows Pd (3d_{5/2}) at 335.2 eV and Pd (3d_{3/2}) at 340.5 eV, corresponding to Pd (0). The other set presents Pd (3d_{5/2}) at 336.9 eV and Pd (3d_{3/2}) at 342.4 eV, which are assigned to Pd (II).³⁵ The deconvolution results reveal that Pd (0) is the dominant composition in Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. The XPS quantification results reveal that the ratios between Pd and Ag are 49.21:50.79 and 38.71:61.29 for Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀, respectively, which are much lower than the expected values. It is noted that the outer surfaces of these nanostructures are enriched with Ag, which is attributed to the higher reduction potential of Pd²⁺ compared to that of Ag⁺.

3.2. Ethanol Oxidation with 3D Pd NWs and Pd–Ag BANWs. The electrocatalytic activities of 3D Pd NWs and Pd–Ag BANWs were studied by cyclic voltammetry (CV) from -0.7 to 0.2 V with the same Pd loading. Figure 5a shows the typical CV curves of Pd-based 3D NWs as well as commercial Pd/C catalysts in N₂-saturated 1 M KOH solution. All the samples present reduction peaks of palladium oxides between -0.33 and -0.25 V in the negative scan. For Pd NWs and Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs, it reveals that palladium oxides were reduced at relatively lower potential in the sample with higher Ag concentration. Additionally, the reduction peak current increased with the increase in the Ag concentration.

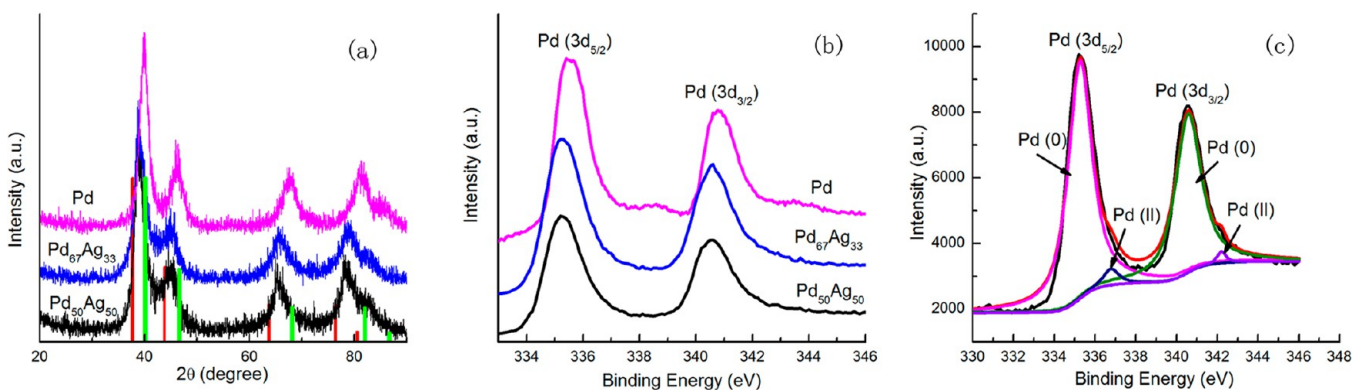


Figure 4. (a) XRD patterns of Pd NWs and Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. JADE database peak positions for Pd (green) and Ag (red). (b) Pd XPS spectra of Pd NWs and Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. (c) Deconvolution of Pd XPS spectra for Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs.

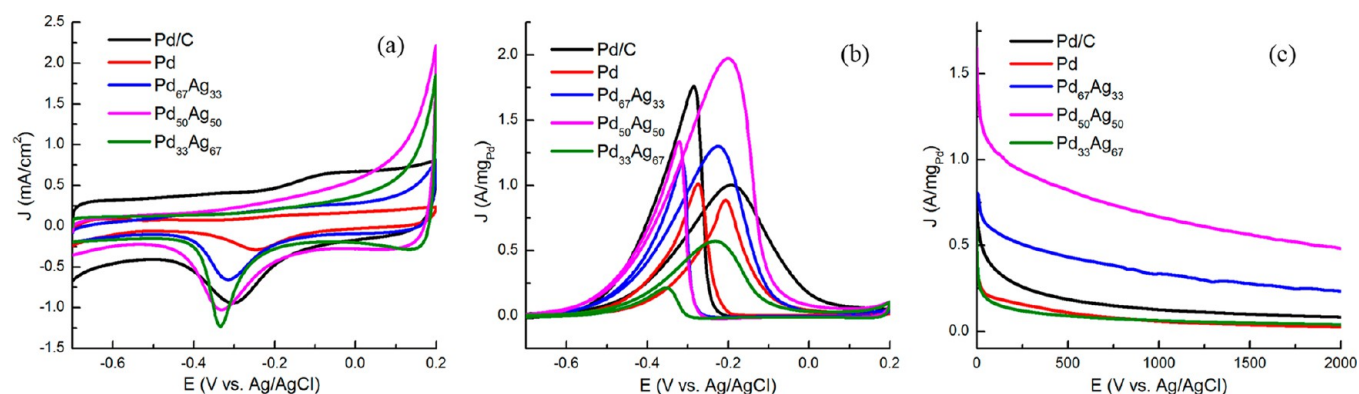


Figure 5. CV curves of Pd NWs, Pd₆₇Ag₃₃, Pd₅₀Ag₅₀, and Pd₃₃Ag₆₇ BANWs, and Pd/C catalysts in N₂-saturated 1 M KOH (a) and 1 M KOH + 1 M CH₃CH₂OH solution (b) at a scan rate of 50 mV/s. (c) Chronoamperometric curves of Pd NWs, Pd₆₇Ag₃₃, Pd₅₀Ag₅₀, and Pd₃₃Ag₆₇ BANWs, and Pd/C catalysts in N₂-saturated 1 M KOH + 1 M CH₃CH₂OH solution at an electrode potential of -0.3 V.

Table 1. Electrochemical Parameters of Commercial Pd/C, Pd NWs, and Pd–Ag BANWs

	ECSA (m ² /g _{Pd})	onset potential (V)	peak current (A/mg _{Pd})	I _f /I _b
Pd/C	24.38	-0.46	1.01	0.57
Pd	10.55	-0.39	0.89	0.88
Pd ₆₇ Ag ₃₃	19.48	-0.47	1.30	1.1
Pd ₅₀ Ag ₅₀	32.81	-0.50	1.97	1.48
Pd ₃₃ Ag ₆₇	23.23	-0.45	0.57	2.59

These phenomena are attributed to the presence of Ag in Pd–Ag alloys. However, this trend does not maintain as the ratio between Pd and Ag increased to 1:2. Pd₃₃Ag₆₇ BANWs present the highest reduction peak, while the peak potential is almost same as that of Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. In the positive scan, OH[−] was adsorbed onto the surface of catalysts. An obvious onset potential could be observed on Pd₆₇Ag₃₃, Pd₅₀Ag₅₀, and Pd₃₃Ag₆₇ BANWs, which is associated with the alloy nanostructures in these three samples. Namely, the Pd–Ag alloy is favorable for the adsorption of OH[−]. In comparison with Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₃₃Ag₆₇ BANWs, Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ shows a more negative onset potential, indicating the easier adsorption of OH[−] on the surface.³⁶

According to the CV curves in Figure 5a, the corresponding ECSA of each catalyst was calculated by quantification of the electric charges associated with the reduction of PdO,³⁷ as shown in the following equation³⁸

$$\text{ECSA} = \frac{Q}{m \times C \times \nu}$$

where Q is the charge for PdO reduction on the surface, which can be obtained from the area integral of Figure 5a. m is the mass of Pd (1.25 μg). C is the charge required to reduce the layer of PdO (420 $\mu\text{C}/\text{cm}^2$). ν is the scan rate, which is 50 mV/s. The calculated ECSA is listed in Table 1. It has been demonstrated that ECSA dominates the electrocatalytic activity of catalyst materials. Higher ECSA contributes to an increase of EOR activity and thus an increase of the overall fuel cell performance.³⁹ The specific ECSA of the Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs (32.81 m²/g_{Pd}) is highest among the synthesized samples, which is even higher than that of commercial Pd/C catalyst (24.38 m²/g_{Pd}). It should be noted that the ECSA is increasing with the increase of Ag concentration within a certain range. However, the further increase of the Ag:Pd ratio shows an inhibiting effect on the ECSA.

With the addition of 1 M ethanol, the 3D Pd NWs and Pd–Ag BANWs exhibit electrochemical activity toward EOR in alkaline media, as shown in Figure 5b. All the samples display a typical current peak in the forward scan, representing the oxidation of ethanol. The onset potential and peak current of each catalysts are summarized in Table 1. A more negative onset potential and higher peak current were presented on Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs compared to commercial Pd/C. For Pd NWs and Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs, there is a negative shift of onset potential with the increase of Ag concentration. A higher oxidation peak current is also presented on the sample with more Ag. However, the Pd₃₃Ag₆₇ BANW exhibits a more positive onset potential and lower oxidation current peak relative to other 3D NWs. In the backward scan, another oxidation peak is formed on the four CV curves, which is associated with the oxidation of intermediates of ethanol dissociative adsorption. The accumulation of these intermediates will cause “catalyst poisoning”.^{22,40} The ratio of forward peak current density (I_f) to backward peak current density (I_b) is used to evaluate the catalyst tolerance to carbonaceous intermediates accumulation.³² The EOR test results show that the I_f/I_b values of the synthesized 3D NWs are larger than that of commercial Pd/C, indicating the better tolerance to carbonaceous intermediates accumulation of as-prepared 3D NWs. Of the four kinds of NWs, Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ shows best electrochemical performance for EOR, including more negative onset potential, higher ethanol oxidation peak current, and quite large I_f/I_b value.

To investigate the electrocatalyst stability of 3D Pd NWs, Pd–Ag BANWs, and commercial Pd/C, chronoamperometric tests were carried out on the catalysts at a potential of -0.3 V for 2000 s in N₂-saturated 1 M KOH + 1 M CH₃CH₂OH solution, as shown in Figure 5c. All the catalysts show a significant decay at the very beginning and then remain stable. The current decay of the EOR implies the formation of carbonaceous intermediates, which could poison the active sites of the catalysts. As expected, the Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANW shows higher

current density at the start and the end of the tests, indicating its better catalytic activity and stability against the poisoning.^{40,41}

Figure 6b shows the TEM image of Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs after scanning the potential between -0.7 and 0.2 V in 1 M KOH +

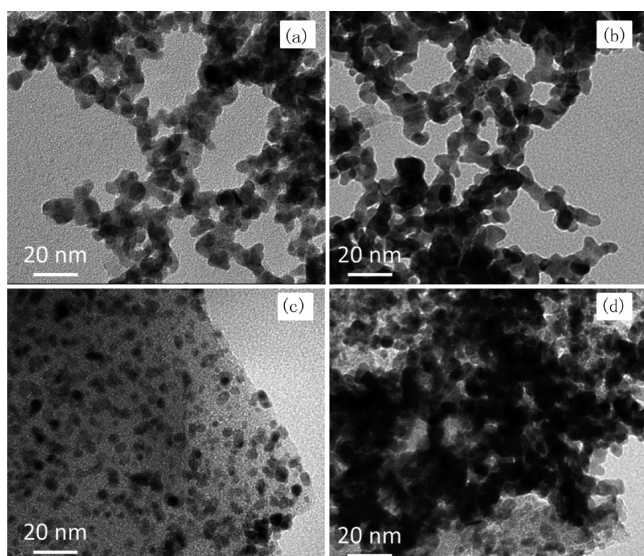


Figure 6. TEM images of Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs before (a) and after (b) 20 potential cycles in 1 M KOH + 1 M CH₃CH₂OH solution. TEM images of commercial Pd/C catalysts before (c) and after (d) 20 potential cycles in 1 M KOH + 1 M CH₃CH₂OH solution.

1 M CH₃CH₂OH solution. It reveals that the NWs' structure was maintained after 20 cycles. The average diameter of the NWs is 7.25 ± 0.5 nm (Figure S1b, Supporting Information), which is close to that before scanning, as shown in Figure 6a. Figure 6c shows the well-dispersed Pd particles supported on carbon materials. However, the Pd particles aggregate together after the test, as shown in Figure 6d. This further confirms the higher stability of Pd–Ag BANWs compared to that of commercial Pd/C catalysts.

The enhanced electrochemical catalytic activity and stability of Pd–Ag BANWs toward EOR in alkaline media are attributed to the particular foam-like 3D porous nanostructure as well as the alloy formation between Pd and Ag. Compared with the traditional commercial Pd/C catalyst, which is composed of Pd nanoparticles supported on carbon materials, the self-supported porous 3D BANWs offer numerous advantages to improve the catalytic activity and stability. The 3D porous BANWs do not have to be supported on the high surface carbon materials, which avoids the degradation of carbon materials. On the other hand, 3D porous BANWs are continuous materials with high surface area, which keeps them away from the particle aggregation issue. These advantages ensure the high ECSA, which, in turn, increases the catalytic activity and stability of the materials. On the basis of bifunctional mechanism theory,⁴⁰ the Pd–Ag bimetallic alloy is more efficient to remove the carbonaceous intermediates and favorable for the release of the active sites on the catalyst surface. On the other hand, the d-band center of Pd will shift up when combined with Ag atom because of the surface tensile strain which is caused by the difference lattice constant between Ag and Pd.^{36,42} Basing on the d-band center theory, a stronger adsorption was formed between Pd–Ag alloy and OH[−], which was favorable for the

removal of carbonaceous intermediates, and thus, the oxidation of ethanol on the catalyst surface was improved. However, the more adsorption of OH[−] will, in turn, suppress the dissociative adsorption of ethanol.⁴³ Therefore, the peak current of ethanol electrooxidation decreased in Pd₃₃Ag₆₇ BANWs.

In order to evaluate the capability of catalysts to remove the adsorbed poisoning species, the CO stripping experiments on Pd/C, Pd NWs, and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs were carried out in 1.0 M KOH solution. After purging the solution with N₂ for 30 min, CO was bubbled for 20 min under a fixed potential of -0.3 V vs Ag/AgCl, followed by purging N₂ for another 30 min. The CV curves of CO stripping were recorded at a scanning rate of 50 mV/s. As shown in Figure 7, each sample

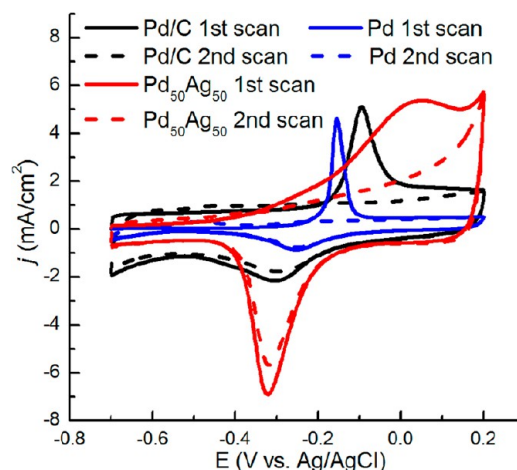


Figure 7. CV curves of CO stripping on commercial Pd/C, Pd NWs, and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs catalysts. The dash lines are CV curves recorded after CO stripping.

shows a typical CO oxidation peak in the first cycle. The onset potential of CO oxidation on Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs (-0.35 V) is more negative than that on commercial Pd/C (-0.18 V) and Pd NWs (-0.23 V) catalysts. This indicates the highest ability of Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs to facilitate the removal of CO among the three samples, which also explains the higher catalytic activity of Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs toward ethanol electrooxidation than others. The broad CO oxidation peak on the surface of Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs might be related to the two types of CO_{ads} species on the Pd–Ag surface: Pd adsorbed CO and Ag adsorbed CO.⁴⁴ In the second cycle, the CO oxidation peak is not observed on the surface of Pd NWs and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs, which demonstrates the great ability of the 3D NWs to overcome CO poisoning during EOR.²³

4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, 3D Pd NWs and Pd–Ag BANWs were synthesized with a fast and simple method on a large scale. The as-synthesized Pd–Ag BANWs presented enhanced electrocatalytic activity and stability toward EOR in alkaline solutions due to the formation of Pd–Ag alloys as well as the porous nanostructures. We demonstrated that the morphology of the 3D NWs was not affected by the composition, while the ratio between Pd and Ag had a significant effect on the electrocatalytic activity toward EOR. Moreover, the Pd–Ag BANWs, with an appropriate composition, exhibited better electrocatalytic activity than that of commercial Pd/C catalyst.

Therefore, we expect that the well-defined 3D Pd–Ag BANWs could be a promising catalyst for fuel cells.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Size distribution of Pd NWs, and Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. Size distribution of Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs after the test. Element mapping and EDX spectra of Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ BANWs. XPS spectra of Pd₆₇Ag₃₃ and Pd₅₀Ag₅₀ BANWs. The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsami.5b01963.

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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