

Review



# Chemoresistive Gas Sensors Based on Noble-Metal-Decorated Metal Oxide Semiconductors for H<sub>2</sub> Detection

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Abstract: Hydrogen has emerged as a prominent candidate for future energy sources, garnering considerable attention. Given its explosive nature, the efficient detection of hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) in the environment using H<sub>2</sub> sensors is paramount. Chemoresistive H<sub>2</sub> sensors, particularly those based on noble-metal-decorated metal oxide semiconductors (MOSs), have been extensively researched owing to their high responsiveness, low detection limits, and other favorable characteristics. Despite numerous recent studies and reviews reporting advancements in this field, a comprehensive review focusing on the rational design of sensing materials to enhance the overall performance of chemoresistive H<sub>2</sub> sensors based on noble-metal-decorated MOFs is lacking. This review aims to address this gap by examining the principles, applications, and challenges of chemoresistive H<sub>2</sub> sensors, with a specific focus on Pd-decorated and Pt-decorated MOSs-based sensing materials. The observations and explanations of strategies employed in the literature, particularly within the last three years, have been analyzed to provide insights into the latest research directions and developments in this domain. This understanding is essential for designing and fabricating highly efficient H<sub>2</sub> sensors.

Keywords: noble metal; metal oxide semiconductors; chemoresistive; H<sub>2</sub> sensors

# 1. Introduction

Hydrogen(H<sub>2</sub>), serving as both a reducing and carrier gas and a novel energy source, holds immense application value in the chemical, electronics, healthcare, and metal smelting industries. However, H<sub>2</sub> is susceptible to leakage during its production, storage, transportation, and utilization processes. H<sub>2</sub> is undetectable by smell due to its lack of color and odor, and high concentrations can cause asphyxiation. Furthermore, when its volumetric concentration in the air falls within the range of 4% to 75%, H<sub>2</sub> becomes susceptible to explosion upon exposure to an open flame. Consequently, the deployment of H<sub>2</sub> sensors for detecting H<sub>2</sub> content in the environment and monitoring its leakage during usage is imperative. Despite advancements in the development of various H<sub>2</sub> sensors, real-time leak detection and precise localization of leak sources remains challenging due to the fast diffusion of H<sub>2</sub> [1–5].

An excellent gas sensor should exhibit high responsiveness, fast response/recovery times, robust stability, and exceptional selectivity [6]. Fast response and recovery times for  $H_2$  detection are essential to achieve real-time monitoring [7]. A low detection limit is also required. For instance, medical diagnosis necessitates a reliable  $H_2$  gas sensor with a detection limit of approximately 10 ppm to aid healthcare providers in diagnosing specific digestive issues [8].



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To develop a highly efficient H<sub>2</sub> sensor, extensive research efforts have been undertaken and subsequently summarized. Kafil et al. [9] directed their attention towards specific sensor parameters, including sensitivity, selectivity, humidity tolerance, and response time, among others, and proposed corresponding enhancement strategies while analyzing the underlying causes. Sharma et al. [10] concentrated on recent advancements in metal oxide semiconductor (MOS)-based and field effect transistor (FET)-based H<sub>2</sub> sensors, discussing the pertinent sensing techniques, mechanisms, and factors influencing sensor sensitivity. Kamal Hossain et al. [11] summarized strategies to augment  $H_2$  sensing performances using noble-metal-decorated nanostructured zinc oxide (ZnO) as sensing materials. Despite the plethora of recent research endeavors and reviews reporting advancements in this field, a comprehensive review specifically focusing on the rational design of sensing materials to enhance the overall performance of chemoresistive  $H_2$  sensors based on noble-metaldecorated MOSs remains elusive. Herein, we compile observations and explanations of strategies employed in the literature, particularly within the last three years, to provide insights into the latest research directions and developments in this domain. Initially, it introduces the classifications and fundamental operational principles of H<sub>2</sub> sensors. Following this introduction, the review delves into a comprehensive analysis of the specific operational mechanisms of chemoresistive MOSs-based  $H_2$  sensors, employing illustrative examples to elucidate these mechanisms. The third section of this review explores the recent progress in the utilization of noble-metal-decorated MOSs for the development of high-performance H<sub>2</sub> sensors. Ultimately, the review concludes with a concise summation and delineates potential avenues for future research and development.

## Types and Working Principles

H<sub>2</sub> sensors are primarily categorized into the subsequent classifications (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Classification of H<sub>2</sub> sensors.

(1) Electrochemical H<sub>2</sub> Sensor

An electrochemical  $H_2$  sensor functions through the utilization of electrochemical reactions. The interaction of  $H_2$  with the surface of the working electrode elicits variations in the potential of the electrode or adjustments in the circuit current. These modifications can be meticulously measured through the utilization of a reference electrode for calibra-

tion, thereby facilitating the precise detection of  $H_2$  concentration fluctuations. LaConti et al. [12] innovatively deployed a specialized electrochemical sensor in 1971 for the quantitative determination of  $H_2$  concentrations in gas mixtures containing electrochemically inactive species. After this work, electrochemical  $H_2$  sensors have undergone significant advancements. In a recent contribution, Wang et al. [13] deliberated on the progression of solid-state electrochemical  $H_2$  sensors.

(2) Catalytic Combustion H<sub>2</sub> Sensors

 $H_2$ , characterized as a combustible gas, undergoes a rapid oxidation reaction with oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>), leading to the release of heat. This thermal signal is subsequently converted into an electrical signal via a sensitive transducer element. Depending on the methodology employed for converting thermal signals into electrical signals, these sensors can be further categorized into Pellistor and thermoelectric  $H_2$  gas sensors. The operational principle of the Pellistor  $H_2$  sensor involves the generation of heat through a chemical reaction, causing an elevation in temperature of the temperature-sensitive material. This temperature change results in a variation in resistance and, consequently, the creation of a potential difference. In contrast, thermoelectric  $H_2$  sensors generate electrical signals through the utilization of the thermoelectric effect, also known as the Seebeck effect. In 1985, J.F. McAleer and his colleagues introduced the concept of the thermoelectric  $H_2$  sensor, thereby laying the theoretical groundwork for subsequent investigative endeavors in the field of thermoelectric  $H_2$  sensing technologies [14]. More recently, Zhang et al. [15] developed a new catalytic combustion  $H_2$  sensor using the electrodeposition method.

#### (3) Optical fiber H<sub>2</sub> sensors

Optical  $H_2$  sensors operate by detecting changes in the optical properties of a material upon exposure to  $H_2$ . The utilization of optical fibers as sensing elements in  $H_2$  sensors was first reported by Butler et al. in the 1980s. The primary advantages of optical fiber  $H_2$  sensors include their corrosion resistance, suitability for remote sensing, and resistance to electromagnetic interference [16]. Shen et al. [17] has summarized various optical fiber  $H_2$  sensing technologies since 1984.

(4) Semiconductor-type sensors

This type of  $H_2$  sensor primarily operates on the basis of the chemical interaction between  $H_2$  and sensitive materials, which can be readily transduced into an electro-optical signal capable of quantitative assessment. In 1962, Seiyama and colleagues were the first to utilize the unique properties of semiconductor materials for the development of gas sensors [18]. They fabricated gas sensors utilizing zinc oxide (ZnO) semiconductor materials and observed the change of the sensor's resistance when exposed to reducing gases.

Over the past few years, advancements in material synthesis techniques and the iterative refinement of processing technologies have facilitated the development of highperformance H<sub>2</sub> sensors. Among them, MOS-based H<sub>2</sub> sensors boast numerous advantages, including rapid response times, cost-effectiveness, and ease of integration, leading to their extensive application. Various techniques for synthesizing MOSs have been reported, including gas-liquid-solid (GLS) technology [19], electrospinning [20], sol-gel processing [21], hydrothermal synthesis [22], and carbon-thermal transport growth [23]. GLS is commonly used for nanowires, but has complex procedures. Electrospinning is efficient for one-dimensional (1D) nanostructures, but may use toxic solvents. The sol-gel method allows for homogeneous mixing, but may leave residual pores and carbon, requiring heat treatment. Hydrothermal synthesis suits a range of microstructures, but requires precise control. Carbon-thermal transport growth offers specific morphologies and sizes, but may compromise stability and reproducibility. Various MOSs are commonly employed in gas sensing, such as ZnO and tin oxide (SnO<sub>2</sub>), among others. However, the poor electronic conductivity of MOSs constrains electron transport during gas–solid interactions, and MOSs usually exhibit limited activity for  $H_2$  detection. To enhance the gas-sensing performance of MOS-based materials, various strategies have been employed, including morphology and size adjustment, exposure of high-energy crystal planes, structural modification, and noble metal decoration. Among these strategies, noble metal decoration was widely employed.

In recent years, considerable research has been conducted on noble-metal-decorated MOS H<sub>2</sub> sensors. As illustrated in Figure 2, over the past decade, the majority of studies on noble metals have concentrated on Palladium (Pd), Platinum (Pt), Gold (Au), Iridium (Ir), and Silver (Ag) for modifying MOSs-based H<sub>2</sub> sensors. Meanwhile, research on MOSs has primarily focused on n-type semiconductors such as  $SnO_2$ , ZnO, Titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>), and tungsten trioxide (WO<sub>3</sub>), as well as p-type MOSs like nickel oxide (NiO), copper oxide (CuO), and Tricobalt tetraoxide (Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>). Numerous studies have demonstrated that the chemical/electronic sensitization of noble metals can substantially enhance the response and selectivity of sensors towards specific gases [24–26].



**Figure 2.** From 2015 to 2024, published articles and patents of noble-metal-decorated MOSs-based  $H_2$  sensors were categorized: (**a**) based on the type of noble metal utilized, and (**b**) based on the specific MOS employed. Data is from the Web of Science.

Despite the successful commercialization of MOS-based H<sub>2</sub> sensors, they operate at relatively high temperatures, ranging from 250 °C to 400 °C, and a significant dependence on humidity. This dependence undermines the reliability of MOS sensors, particularly when operated at room temperature (RT), as noted in [27]. Humidity can interfere with gas–solid interactions by forming water layers, reducing the effective surface area for H<sub>2</sub> adsorption. High temperatures boost energy consumption and accelerate sensor aging, shortening lifespan. Noble metal decorations can mitigate these issues by inhibiting water adsorption and favoring the adsorption and H<sub>2</sub> reactions with a low activation energy, enabling low-temperature operation. Moon et al. [28] improved H<sub>2</sub> detection at RT and reduced humidity impact by modifying SnO<sub>2</sub> with Pd NPs. Lupan et al. [29] showed enhanced H<sub>2</sub> detection at RT and a reduced humidity dependence with Au-NP/ZnO NWs, achieving high selectivity and response. To meet the H<sub>2</sub> sensing performance benchmarks, which include a response time of less than 1 s at a 4% hydrogen concentration and less than 60 s at a 1% H<sub>2</sub> concentration, along with a recovery time of less than 60 s, it is imperative to develop H<sub>2</sub> sensors characterized by faster response and recovery performance [30].

## 2. Sensing Mechanism

#### 2.1. General Sensing Mechanism of MOSs-Based H<sub>2</sub> Sensors

The general mechanism of chemical impedance MOSs gas sensing can be elucidated as follows [31]: Firstly, the adsorption of oxygen molecules from the ambient air on the metal oxide surface leads to the trapping of electrons and the conversion of oxygen anions as shown in Equations (1)–(4) [32]. Temperature plays a crucial role in the O<sub>2</sub> adsorption and dissociation process. As the temperature increases, the O<sub>2</sub> molecules gain enough energy to undergo chemisorption and capture electrons to form oxygen anions (e.g., O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, O<sup>-</sup>, and O<sup>2-</sup>) [33]. At this point, the sensitivity of the sensor increases significantly, but too high a temperature may lead to too fast a reaction between the target gas and the oxygen anions, reducing the selectivity of the sensor [34]. The adsorption and dissociation temperatures of O<sub>2</sub> vary depending on the sensing material. For example, the reactions of Equations (2)–(4) occur at a temperature below 180 °C, 180 °C~400 °C, and above 400 °C on Pd, respectively. At high temperatures, adsorbed oxygen anions may desorb from the surface, leading to a decrease in the active sites on the sensor surface, thus affecting the sensitivity. Excessive temperatures may also lead to sintering or phase transformation of the MOSs, further degrading the performance of the sensor [27].

$$O_2(gas) \rightarrow O_2(ads),$$
 (1)

$$O_2(ads) + e^- \rightarrow O_2^- (ads), \qquad (2)$$

$$O_2^- (ads) + e^- \rightarrow 2O^- (ads),$$
 (3)

$$O^{-}(ads) + e^{-} \rightarrow O^{2-}(ads),$$
 (4)

$$H_2(gas) \rightarrow H_2(ads),$$
 (5)

$$H_2(ads) \rightarrow 2H(ads),$$
 (6)

$$H(ads)+O^{-}(ads) \rightarrow OH^{-}(ads), \tag{7}$$

$$OH^-(ads)+H(ads) \rightarrow H_2O(gas)+e^-$$
, (8)

$$4H(ads) + O_2^- (ads) \rightarrow 2H_2O(gas) + e^-$$
(9)

In the context of n-type MOSs, such as ZnO and SnO<sub>2</sub>, the presence of an electron depletion layer (EDL) on their surface leads to an increase in surface resistance. Conversely, for p-type MOSs, a hole accumulation layer (HAL) forms on the surface of the sensing material, resulting in a decrease in surface resistance.

When exposed to  $H_2$ ,  $H_2$  molecules adsorb onto the surface of sensing materials, which then reacts with adsorbed oxygen anions present on the MOS surface, as illustrated in Equations (5)–(9). In a  $H_2$ -rich environment, the  $H_2$  reacts with adsorbed oxygen anions on the surface to produce water, simultaneously releasing electrons back to the material's surface. For n-type MOSs, this leads to an increase in electron concentration on the outer surface, causing a narrowing of the EDL and resulting in a sensing signal characterized by a reduced resistance value. Conversely, in p-type semiconductors, the emitted electrons decrease the hole concentration, thereby generating a sensing signal marked by an increased resistance value. Furthermore, the specific temperature at which the reactions in Equations (5)–(9) occur is dependent on the sensing material. However, the gas response of conventional MOSs is limited. Therefore, an effective strategy involves the utilization of noble metal nanoparticles for modification.

#### 2.2. Sensing Mechanism of Noble-Metal-Decorated MOSs-Based H<sub>2</sub> Sensors

The modification of MOSs with noble metal nanoparticles, such as Pd, Pt, and Au, represents an efficacious method for enhancing gas response. In comparison to unmodified MOSs, the H<sub>2</sub> sensing behavior and mechanism of noble-metal-loaded MOSs exhibit a significantly higher degree of complexity. This complexity arises from the intricate interplay between the noble metals and the MOSs, encompassing both surface chemistry and electronic coupling [35].

Initially, we focused on the surface chemistry underlying the H<sub>2</sub> sensing mechanism of noble-metal-decorated MOSs. Extensive research has shown that noble metals serve as catalysts, enhancing the adsorption of oxygen onto material surfaces and facilitating the dissociation of target gas molecules. The Schottky barrier, formed at the junction of noble metal electrodes (Pt, Pd, Au, etc.) and the semiconductor material, is recognized as a critical factor in sensing processes. In the context of H<sub>2</sub> sensors based on noble-metal-decorated MOSs, beyond the reactions outlined in Equations (1)–(5), there may also be a phenomenon where oxygen and hydrogen atoms diffuse from the noble metal onto the oxide support. This phenomenon is termed "spillover". Recently, several advanced methodologies have been formulated to gain a deeper understanding of the gas sensing mechanism of noble-metal-decorated MOSs. These methodologies encompass density functional theory calculations and in situ transmission electron microscopy analysis [36,37]. A diverse range of noble-metal-decorated MOSs, including Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> and Pt/ZnO, have been employed in H<sub>2</sub> sensors. Subsequently, we will discuss the sensing mechanism of a typical Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> H<sub>2</sub> sensing system as an illustrative example (Figure 3).



Figure 3. Illustration of the H<sub>2</sub> gas sensing mechanism of Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> [38].

When pure  $SnO_2$  is exposed to air,  $O_2$  molecules adsorb onto the  $SnO_2$  surface. This adsorption process captures free electrons from the conduction band of  $SnO_2$ , forming adsorbed oxygen anions (depending on the operating temperature, as detailed in [39]). Consequently, an EDL forms, leading to an increase in the sensor's resistance.

When Pd at the nanoscale interfaces with  $SnO_2$ , it extracts electrons from  $SnO_2$ , thereby inducing an EDL at the interfaces [38]. Upon exposure of the Pd/ $SnO_2$  composite to air, the catalytically active Pd facilitates the dissociation of  $O_2$  molecules, with the resultant oxygen atoms subsequently diffusing from the Pd to the  $SnO_2$  support [38] (Figure 3). The diffused oxygen atoms then accept electrons from the bonded  $SnO_2$ , leading to the broadening of the EDL.

When the sensor is subjected to  $H_2$ , as depicted on the right-hand side of Figure 3,  $H_2$  molecules adsorb onto the Pd surface and disassociate into hydrogen atoms due to the strong affinity of Pd for  $H_2$  [40]. Subsequently, following spillover, the diffused hydrogen atoms primarily interact with adsorbed oxygen anions [38], forming surface hydroxyl groups [41]. These hydroxyl groups exhibit a reduced electron affinity, causing the release of electrons back to SnO<sub>2</sub> upon the desorption of produced  $H_2O$  molecules at temperatures

exceeding 100 °C. This process results in a significant narrowing of the EDL and a corresponding decrease in its resistance [42]. Note that, following the spillover, the active sites on Pd for  $O_2$  and  $H_2$  molecule adsorption and dissociation are freed and become available to capture additional  $O_2$  and  $H_2$  molecules, thereby initiating a new reaction cycle.

Moreover,  $H_2$  can reduce PdO to Pd (Equation (10)), leading to the cessation of electronic interactions or even the formation of a low-work-function Pd hydrid (PdH<sub>x</sub>), which promotes the reverse transfer of electrons [43]. Consequently, the return of a significant number of electrons results in a narrowing of the EDL and a decrease in the sensor's resistance [44]. The initial reduction reaction of PdO<sub>x</sub> leads to an increase in the concentration of Pd<sup>0</sup>. This process is considered partial and reversible, as reported in [45]. The resultant reduced Pd can subsequently catalyze the reaction between H<sub>2</sub> molecules and adsorbed oxygen anions, as outlined in Equations (5)–(9). This catalysis facilitates the release of electrons into the conduction band of SnO<sub>2</sub>, thereby enhancing the conductivity of the composites [46].

$$PdOx + 1/2H_{2(g)} \to Pd^0 + xH_2O_{(g)}$$
 (10)

The aforementioned mechanism elucidates the superior sensing performance of noblemetal-decorated MOSs at both room and high temperatures. Notably, Pd has been documented as an exceptionally efficient catalyst for H<sub>2</sub> dissociation, even at low temperatures [32]. Meng et al. [47] proposed that, in addition to the adsorption of  $H_2$  and  $O_2$ on Pd surfaces, electron sensitization of Pd can also facilitate the redistribution of interfacial electrons (Figure 4a). Considering the example of 1.0 at  $Pd/SnS_2/SnO_2$ , the metal-semiconductor interface exhibits distinct phenomena due to the difference in work functions. Specifically, the work function of Pd is higher than that of the  $SnS_2/SnO_2$ semiconductor (Figure 4b). Consequently, the energy band in the semiconductor shifts downward, resulting in the formation of Schottky barriers at the metal-semiconductor interface. Within the 1.0 at% Pd/SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> composition, Pd exists not only in its metallic form, but also as PdO. Notably, the work function of PdO ( $\phi$  = 7.9 eV) is higher than that of SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub>, prompting electrons to transfer from SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> to PdO, leading to the formation of a p-n heterojunction (Figure 4c). The concurrent generation of Schottky barriers and p-n heterojunctions broadens the EDL in SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub>, thereby increasing the baseline resistance ( $R_a \approx 225 \text{ M}\Omega$ ). Upon exposure of Pd/SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>, a portion of Pd converts to PdH<sub>x</sub>, characterized by a lower work function ( $\varphi < 4.4$  eV, Figure 4d). This shift causes electrons to flow from PdH<sub>x</sub> back to  $SnS_2/SnO_2$ , increasing the electron concentration in  $SnS_2/SnO_2$  and subsequently decreasing the resistance ( $R_g$ ) of the Pd/SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> material. These synergistic effects result in a significant variation in resistance and contribute to the excellent sensing characteristics of the material.

The small amount of Pd could exhibit three distinct functionalities: catalyzing the dissociation of  $O_2$  molecules, catalyzing the dissociation of  $H_2$  molecules, and exerting a direct influence on the thickness of the EDL. Among these functionalities, the primary role of Pd is likely to serve as a catalyst for  $H_2$  dissociation, attributed to its efficient capability to facilitate this process even at a low temperature—a pivotal advantage in the context of  $H_2$  sensing applications. Nevertheless, the significance of the other two roles should not be overlooked. When Pd is deposited onto MOSs, it can further influence the sensor's response characteristics via complex interactions between Pd and the MOSs. These interactions encompass various facets, including interface chemistry and electronic coupling mechanisms, which collectively govern the overall performance of the sensor.

In summary, due to the interaction between noble metals and MOSs, the  $H_2$  sensing mechanism of noble-metal-loaded MOSs is complex, and many aspects such as surface chemistry and electronic coupling need to be considered.



**Figure 4.** (a) Schematic diagram of the  $Pd/SnS_2/SnO_2$  H<sub>2</sub> sensing mechanism. The band structure of (b)  $Pd/SnS_2/SnO_2$ , (c)  $PdO/SnS_2/SnO_2$  and (d)  $PdH_x/SnS_2/SnO_2$  [47]. Reprinted with permission from Elsevier, copyright 2022.

# 3. Noble-Metal-Decorated MOSs-Based Gas Sensors

# 3.1. Pd-Decorated MOSs-Based Gas Sensors

Pd-decorated MOSs exhibit heightened sensitivity, remarkable selectivity, fast response/recovery times, and low detection limits for H<sub>2</sub> sensing, attributable to the distinct solubility of H<sub>2</sub> in Pd and its capacity to form PdHx. Notably, only H<sub>2</sub> is capable of inducing significant lattice expansion in Pd, due possibly to the small radius of the hydrogen atom, whereas other gases such as carbon monoxide (CO) exhibit no such effect. This specificity contributes to the excellent selectivity of the Pd-based sensor. The processes of hydrogen adsorption and desorption on Pd occur rapidly, facilitating fast response and recovery. Furthermore, the rapid diffusion and high solubility of hydrogen atoms within the Pd lattice result in substantial resistance changes even at trace concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>, enabling low detection limits.

Given these advantages, Pd catalysts are extensively utilized for  $H_2$  detection. Various studies have shown that the reduction of Pd precursors can be accomplished through solution-based methods involving UV light irradiation [48], chemical reducing agents [49], and thermal treatments [50].

#### 3.1.1. Pd-Decorated SnO<sub>2</sub>

Among the diverse array of semiconductors, n-type SnO<sub>2</sub>, characterized by its wide band gap of 3.5~4.0 eV [51,52], which can be measured via photocurrent spectroscopy [53], stands out as a promising candidate for sensing applications due to its low cost, simple manufacturing technique, and good long-term stability. However, its application is hindered by limitations such as low sensitivity, high operational temperature, inadequate selectivity, and sluggish response kinetics. To overcome these disadvantages, the modification of SnO<sub>2</sub> through the incorporation of other materials, particularly noble metals such as Pd, has proven to be an effective strategy for improving its sensing performance.

Manipulating the dimensionality [54–57] and dispersion of Pd on MOSs supports can fine-tune their H<sub>2</sub> sensing performances. So far, a number of Pd-based H<sub>2</sub> sensors, including nanowires (NWs) [5,58,59], nanosheets (NSs) [60], nanofibers (NFs) [59,61], nanoflowers [62], nanorods (NRs) [63,64], nanotubes (NTs) [65,66], and films have been suggested [47].

The nanoparticles (NP) enhance sensor sensitivity by providing a larger surface area for gas adsorption. Nam et al. [67] (Table 1) fabricated Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (NPs) for an exceptionally sensitive and selective H<sub>2</sub> gas sensor by leveraging Pluronic F-127 (Figure 5). Pluronic F-127, a block copolymer structured as (polyethylene oxide)99-(polypropylene oxide)69-(polyethylene oxide)99 [68], features three hydrophilic chains and a central hydrophobic chain. It functions dualistically as a reducing agent and surfactant, enhancing the dispersion of Pd NPs and modulating their size. In comparison to pristine SnO<sub>2</sub> and Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs synthesized without the aid of F-127, the Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs synthesized with F-127 assistance, denoted as F-Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub>, exhibited a superior H<sub>2</sub> response of 27, 190 and a fast response time of 3 s when exposed to 50 ppm of H<sub>2</sub> at 100 °C (Figure 5). This enhancement is attributed to the increased number of nanojunctions.



**Figure 5.** (a) Schematic illustration of the synthesis mechanism of F-Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles with Pluronic F-127 assistance and corresponding response comparison plot of SnO<sub>2</sub>, Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> [69]. Reprinted with the permission from Elsevier, copyright 2024. (b) F-Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> to 50 ppm of H<sub>2</sub> at 100 °C [69]. (c) Schematic of the fabrication of Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> sensing film patterns and MEMS H<sub>2</sub> sensing chips: The micro hotplate arrays are aligned with the mask [38], (d) SnO<sub>2</sub> film patterns are deposited in the central sensing area by a mask-assistant magnetron sputtering method [38], (e) Pd NPs catalysts are further decorated on SnO<sub>2</sub> by ALD [38], (f) the film patterns perform annealing treatment in air-H<sub>2</sub>-air, and finally the MEMS H<sub>2</sub> sensing chips are obtained after (g) dicing and (h) wire bonding [38].

In the above work and some other literature [47], H<sub>2</sub> sensors utilizing SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures exhibit linear response characteristics within a concentration range of up to 1% H<sub>2</sub>. Only a few works reported H<sub>2</sub> sensing properties at concentrations exceeding this threshold. For H<sub>2</sub> concentrations ranging from 1% to 2%, detection utilized the volumetric expansion characteristic of the  $\beta$ -phase PdH<sub>x</sub>. This expansion arises from the phase transition from  $\alpha$ -Pd to  $\beta$ -PdH<sub>x</sub>, causing the reconnection of previously disrupted junctions within the Pd, thereby resulting in a fast decrement of the resistance in Pd-based sensors [69].

Materials	Optimal Temperature (°C)	$ au_{res}/ au_{rec}$ (s)	Detection Limit (ppm)	Concentration (ppm)	Response	Ref.
F-Pd/SnO <sub>2</sub>	100	3/NA <sup>a</sup>	50	50	27,190 <sup>c</sup>	[67]
$30Pd/SnO_2$	150	NA/30 <sup>a</sup>	0.5	20	1.51 <sup>d</sup>	[38]
$Pd/SnS_2/SnO_2$	300	1/9 <sup>a</sup>	10	500	90 <sup>d</sup>	[47]
$Pd/SnO_2$	210	3.4/5.6 <sup>a</sup>	1.5	5000	712.65 <sup>e</sup>	[35]
SnO2-Pd@rGO	390	8/3 <sup>a</sup>	0.1	200	243.5 <sup>f</sup>	[32]
NiO-shelled						
Pd-decorated ZnO NW	200	NA	NA	100	13.36 <sup>d</sup>	[62]
Pd@ZnO-2	350	84/468 <sup>a</sup>	NA	100	22 <sup>d</sup>	[70]
Pd/Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -NiO NFs	250	11/105 <sup>a</sup>	1	1000	199.24 <sup>d</sup>	[71]
<i>p</i> -PdO- <i>n</i> -WO <sub>3</sub> - heterostructure film	160	4/NA	0.5	100	45.1 <sup>d</sup>	[72]
Pt SnO <sub>2</sub> -Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	300	12/NA	NA	100	57.9 <sup>d</sup>	[73]
Pd-doped rGO/ZnO-SnO <sub>2</sub>	380	4/8 <sup>a</sup>	9.4	100	9.4 <sup>d</sup>	[74]
5.0 wt% Pd NPs/CeO <sub>2</sub> -C	25	3/NA <sup>a</sup>	NA	100	1322 <sup>d</sup>	[75]
Pt-TiO <sub>2</sub> -MoS <sub>2</sub>	100	NA	50	500	47.09 <sup>d</sup>	[76]
Pt-SnO <sub>2</sub>	25	13/NA <sup>a</sup>	NA	1000	5000 <sup>e</sup>	[77]
Pt-SnO <sub>2</sub>	825	NA	NA	1000	450 <sup>e</sup>	[78]
ZnO-Pt	300	133/112 <sup>a</sup>	100	1000	132.5 <sup>g</sup>	[79]
WO <sub>3</sub> /Pt-ZnO	R.T.	19/81 <sup>a</sup>	1	100	61.5 <sup>d</sup>	[80]
ZNT/G	R.T.	30/38 <sup>a</sup>	10	100	28.08 <sup>d</sup>	[81]
MoS <sub>2</sub> -HIZNTs	R.T.	14/19 <sup>a</sup>	10	500	51.1 <sup>h</sup>	[82]
Pt-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -V <sub>o</sub>	240	2/45 <sup>b</sup>	0.086	50	NA	[83]
PtRu/CeO <sub>2</sub>	500	97/123 <sup>a</sup>	100	100	NA	[84]
$Ag@SnO_2@g-C_3N_4$	300	3⁄4 a	0.03	50	5.4 <sup>d</sup>	[85]
Ir <sub>red</sub> /ZnO-450	450	7/9.7 <sup>a</sup>	10	100	5.5 <sup>d</sup>	[86]

Table 1	The comparison of	f sensing performances	of noble-metal-decorated MOSs.
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<sup>a</sup>: The response time ( $\tau_{res}$ ) and the recovery time ( $\tau_{rec}$ ) were determined as the time taken for the resistance (current) to reach 90% of the saturated response upon exposure to H<sub>2</sub> and to decrease by 90% back to baseline after removal, respectively. <sup>b</sup>:  $\tau = v_0^{-1} exp \left(\frac{-E_{ads}}{TK_B}\right)$ .  $v_0$ ,  $K_B$ , and T are the attempt frequency, Boltzmann constant, and temperature. <sup>c</sup>:  $R = (R_a - R_g)/R_g$ . R is the sensor response.  $R_a$  and  $R_g$  are the sensor resistance in air and target gas, respectively. <sup>d</sup>:  $R = R_a/R_g$ . <sup>e</sup>:  $\Delta I/I_0 = [(I - I_0)/I_0] \times 100\%$ . I and I<sub>0</sub> represent the current values under target gas and baseline (no target gas) conditions, respectively. <sup>f</sup>:  $R = I_g/I_0$ . <sup>g</sup>:  $R = (G_g - G_a)/G_a \times 100\%$ . Gg and Ga are the conductance of H<sub>2</sub> gas and air stimulation at different ppm of the sensor, respectively. <sup>h</sup>:  $R = R_a/R_g \times 100\%$ . NA: Not available.

A comprehensive elucidation of the H<sub>2</sub>-sensing mechanism at concentrations above 1% is required. Liu et al. (Table 1) have proposed the existence of two H<sub>2</sub> concentrationdependent sensing mechanisms for their developed Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs film-based H<sub>2</sub> sensor, designed for H<sub>2</sub> detection across a wide concentration range (1.5 ppm to 10%) [35]. Specifically, below a 1% H<sub>2</sub> concentration, the sensor response exhibits a linear correlation with the square root of the H<sub>2</sub> concentration, primarily attributed to the electronic coupling effect occurring at the interface between PdH<sub>x</sub> and SnO<sub>2</sub>. This mechanism facilitates a high sensitivity of 0.23 ppm<sup>-1</sup>. As the H<sub>2</sub> concentration increases beyond this point, a linear dependence between the response and H<sub>2</sub> concentration is observed, with a sensitivity of 0.018 ppm<sup>-1</sup>. This latter behavior is attributed to the redox reaction between H atoms and the adsorbed oxygen anions on the SnO<sub>2</sub> surface [35].

 $SnO_2$ -based  $H_2$  sensors show a high compatibility with integrated circuits (IC). The development of intelligent and integrated  $H_2$  sensors has emerged as a focal area of contemporary research. As gas sensing chips transition into mass production, a multitude

of challenges have come to light. Achieving a uniform film at the wafer level is a pivotal prerequisite for ensuring high consistency among sensing chips. However, conventional techniques such as drop-coating and screen-printing fall short at meeting this criterion due to their inherent lack of precision and uncontrollability. Furthermore, these methods often lead to unwanted contact between sensing materials and electrode pads, thereby inducing signal crosstalk between the heating and testing electrodes, and potentially compromising the subsequent packaging process. Consequently, the development of effective gas sensing film patterning methods and noble metal catalytic modification techniques at the wafer level is of paramount importance for the mass manufacturing of sensing chips. Recently, Zhang et al. [38] (Table 1) have devised a straightforward methodology that integrates atomic layer deposition (ALD), magnetron sputtering, and subsequent annealing in an air-H<sub>2</sub>-air atmosphere to fabricate high-performance Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> film patterns tailored for  $H_2$  sensing (Figure 3). This approach allows for precise regulation of the grain size and crystallinity of the Pd/SnO<sub>2</sub> films through meticulous control of the deposition and annealing processes, ultimately enhancing their  $H_2$  sensing capabilities. The resultant MEMS  $H_2$ sensing chips exhibit remarkable consistency and a broad detection range spanning from 0.5 to 500 ppm. Notably, even at an  $H_2$  concentration as low as 0.5 ppm, a discernible change in resistance and response value (with a signal-to-noise ratio exceeding 3) is observed [38]. This sensing chip boasts a lower detection limit and an expanded detection range encompassing three orders of magnitude compared to certain previously reported H<sub>2</sub> sensors [38]. Two problems may be encountered regarding thin films such as film uniformity and signal crosstalk, which can be further explored with more advanced deposition techniques, as well as with new patterning methods. A combination of deposition techniques and patterning methods can be used to significantly improve the performance of H<sub>2</sub> sensors. For example, ALD deposits a uniform film and combines it with an isolation trench design to reduce signal crosstalk or deposit a uniform catalytic layer by sputtering. Adding a shielding layer also blocks electric field interference [87].

In addition to the decoration with noble metals, the further modification of SnO<sub>2</sub> with alternative semiconductors offers a viable approach to enhancing its  $H_2$  sensing capabilities, primarily due to the substantial resistance modulation at heterojunction barriers. Various semiconductors have been utilized to establish heterojunctions with SnO2 and are co-supported with noble metals [88]. Notably, 2D semiconductors have emerged as prominent candidates owing to their layered structure, high surface-to-volume ratio, unique semiconducting attributes, and substantial electronegativity [89]. Tin disulfide (SnS<sub>2</sub>), for instance, exhibits considerable potential in heterostructure-based sensing applications. Meng et al. (Table 1) synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub>@SnS<sub>2</sub> hollow nanostructures through a combined hydrothermal and impregnation approach [47]. The optimized 1.0 atomic percent (at%) Pd/SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites exhibited a peak response of 95 towards 500 parts per million (ppm) H<sub>2</sub> at 300  $^{\circ}$ C (Figure 6a), which was 10.6 times higher than that of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and 5.3 times higher than that of pure  $SnS_2/SnO_2$ -2 nanocomposites [47]. Furthermore, the 1.0 at% Pd/SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> composites demonstrated rapid response and recovery times of 1 and 9 s (Figure 6b), respectively, along with exceptional selectivity and stability [47]. The enhanced H<sub>2</sub> sensing properties of the Pd/SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites may be attributed to several factors: (1) the spillover effect of Pd, (2) the formation of a Schottky barrier at the interface between Pd and  $SnS_2/SnO_2$ , and (3) the establishment of a p-n heterojunction at the junction between PdO and SnS<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub>.





**Figure 6.** (a) Response curves and (b) response/recovery time of  $Pd/SnS_2/SnO_2$  towards 500 ppm H<sub>2</sub> [47]. Reprinted with permission from Elsevier, copyright 2022. (c) The schematic for the rGO-wrapped SnO<sub>2</sub>–Pd hollow porous spheres. SnO<sub>2</sub>–Pd@rGO: (d) TEM image (inset: high-resolution HRTEM image), (e) HRTEM image [32]. Reprinted with permission from Elsevier, copyright 2022.

Apart from SnS<sub>2</sub>, graphene and reduced graphene oxide (rGO) have been extensively employed to construct heterojunctions with MOSs to achieve impressive gas sensing performances, attributed to their large specific surface areas and exceptional electron mobility [32]. Notably, the hydrophobicity of rGO has been confirmed to suppress the effects of high humidity on graphene-based gas sensing [90]. Qiu et al. (Table 1) fabricated an rGO-encapsulated SnO<sub>2</sub>–Pd porous hollow sphere composite (SnO<sub>2</sub>–Pd@rGO) for a high-performance H<sub>2</sub> sensor [32]. The porous hollow architecture of this composite was derived from a carbon sphere template (Figure 6c). The encapsulation with rGO was achieved through the self-assembly of GO onto SnO<sub>2</sub>-based spheres, followed by thermal reduction in a H<sub>2</sub> atmosphere (Figure 6c). This sensor demonstrated outstanding selective H<sub>2</sub> sensing characteristics at 390 °C, exhibiting a linear response across a broad concentration range (0.1–1000 ppm) with a fast recovery time of 3 s. It also showed a high response of approximately 8 to 0.1 ppm H<sub>2</sub> within one minute and maintained acceptable stability under high humidity conditions (e.g., 80%). The calculated detection limit of 16.5 ppb facilitated the potential for trace  $H_2$  monitoring. Furthermore, the sensor displayed a detectable response to  $H_2$  at a minimum concentration of 50 ppm at 130 °C. These remarkable performances were primarily attributed to the unique hollow porous structure with abundant heterojunctions (Figure 6d,e), the catalytic activity of doped-PdO<sub>x</sub>, the relatively hydrophobic surface provided by rGO, and the deoxygenation process following  $H_2$  reduction.

The chemiresistive gas sensing mechanism of the MOSs composite is attributed to both electronic sensitization (i.e., energy band modulation and heterojunction formation) and chemical sensitization (i.e., doping spillover and oxygen adsorption) [91]. In the context of electronic sensitization, heterojunctions are established between p-type rGO and n-type SnO<sub>2</sub>. The disparity in their work functions (5.1 eV for rGO and 4.5 eV for SnO<sub>2</sub>) [92] leads to the formation of an electron depletion region on the SnO<sub>2</sub> side at the SnO<sub>2</sub>/rGO interface.

Notably, the experimental evidence revealed that the  $SnO_2$ –Pd@rGO composite predominantly comprises PdO and PdO<sub>2</sub> phases, accounting for 96.1% of the total Pd content. The doped PdO<sub>x</sub> species are recognized as potent electron acceptors exhibiting p-type behavior, which can effectively lower the Fermi level of  $SnO_2$ . Consequently, an additional electron depletion region is induced on the  $SnO_2$  side at the  $SnO_2$ /Pd interface. Furthermore, PdO<sub>2</sub>, being metastable and more reactive towards the target gas compared to PdO [93], is likely advantageous for enhancing the H<sub>2</sub> sensing performance of the  $SnO_2$ –Pd@rGO composite, given the substantial presence of PdO<sub>2</sub> in the material.

#### 3.1.2. Pd-Decorated ZnO

As discussed above,  $SnO_2$  exhibits high conductivity and remarkable sensitivity to low gas concentrations, particularly enabling a swift response to variations in H<sub>2</sub> concentration and generating pronounced electrical signal changes in H<sub>2</sub> sensors. However, ZnO offers several advantages over  $SnO_2$  in the context of H<sub>2</sub> sensors utilizing MOSs. Specifically, ZnO boasts superior biological adaptability, safety, unique piezoelectric properties, and potential fabrication process and cost benefits. Consequently, in certain specific applications, ZnO may be a more suitable sensing material for H<sub>2</sub> sensors.

Nonetheless, the sensing application of pure ZnO is constrained by its low response, instability, and particularly poor H<sub>2</sub> selectivity. To address these limitations, functionalizing ZnO with noble metal catalysts, such as Pd and Pt, presents a promising approach to enhance the properties of the material [70].

The presence of relatively high humidity leads to a decreased gas response in ZnO sensors, owing to competition for adsorption sites on the sensor surface between  $H_2O$  molecules and  $H_2$  molecules [94]. Nevertheless, the incorporation of noble metal NPs has been found to enhance the stability of gas sensors under humid conditions [95].

To enhance the sensing performance by generating abundant active sites, effective approaches involve forming MOSs heterojunctions and modifying the morphology to achieve a larger specific surface area. Controlling the morphology of Pd–ZnO structures can regulate their H<sub>2</sub> sensing capabilities. For instance, Nguyen et al. (Table 1) observed the microscopic morphology of Pd@ZnO-2 using TEM (Figure 7a) [70]. The Pd-decorated ZnO showed improved H<sub>2</sub> sensing performances compared with the ZnO NPs.

However, the operation of gas sensors at high temperatures can lead to the oxidation of ultrafine noble metal particles in the air, thereby reducing sensing performance and causing agglomeration of noble metals on the sensor surface [96]. Therefore, it is crucial to devise a method to shield noble metals from direct air exposure to enhance sensing performance. One effective preservation strategy involves depositing a thin layer of metal oxide on a surface adorned with nano-noble metal particles. Among the candidates for protective layer materials, p-type NiO has garnered significant attention due to its robust structural

stability, exceptional oxygen adsorption capacity, and potent catalytic activity [97]. Badie et al. (Table 1) [60] employed NiO as a deposition layer to coat Zn NWs decorated with Pd (Figure 7b). In the absence of Pd decoration on ZnO, NiO comes into direct contact with ZnO. The intimate contact between n-type ZnO and p-type NiO generates numerous heterojunctions with potential barriers that impede charge flow in air. Upon exposure to the target gas, the barrier height alters, leading to a change in sensor resistance. Since NiO is deposited as a continuous layer, a core-shell structure forms, with ZnO and NiO in direct contact, maximizing the contact area between the components and resulting in substantial resistance variations. Alternatively, when Pd nanoparticles are positioned between ZnO and NiO layers, Zn-Pd-Ni oxide heterojunctions exhibit superior performance in gas sensing applications [98].



**Figure 7.** (a) TEM observation for Pd@ZnO-2 [70]. Reprinted with the permission from Elsevier, copyright 2020. (b) Transmission electron microscope (TEM) image of a NiO-shelled Pd-decorated ZnO NW [60]. Open access. (c) The fabrication process of the Pd-doped rGO/ZnO-SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites [74]. Open access.

P-type MOSs, exemplified by NiO as previously mentioned, offer distinct advantages over n-type MOSs in the selectivity and monitoring of reducing gases. This superiority is attributed to the extensive adsorption of oxygen on their surfaces [71]. Research has demonstrated that sensors based on noble-metal-decorated NiO exhibit promising sensing capabilities for H<sub>2</sub> detection [99]. Cai et al. (Table 1) [71] fabricated porous NiO NFs embedded with Pd and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NPs through a straightforward electrospinning process. These sensors achieved a maximum response value of 199.24 for 1000 ppm H<sub>2</sub> gas at an optimal operating temperature of 250 °C, accompanied by a response/recovery time of 11/105 s. Additionally, they exhibited robust selectivity and long-term stability towards H<sub>2</sub>. The exceptional gas sensing performance of these sensors is primarily attributed to the catalytic effect of Pd and the unique fluffy porous 1D microstructure, which features tightly linked p-n heterojunctions between NiO and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. This structure provides a large specific surface area and numerous active sites, thereby facilitating the reaction between H<sub>2</sub> molecules and surface oxygen anions.

Similarly, Zhu et al. (Table 1) [72] observed that Pd in Pd-decorated WO<sub>3</sub> composites exists in the form of PdO, forming a p-n heterojunction. The H<sub>2</sub> gas sensor assembled using the p-PdO-n-WO<sub>3</sub> heterostructure and a uniformly dispersed thin film exhibited excellent sensing performance, high sensitivity, a low detection limit, and good stability. At an optimal operating temperature of 160 °C, the sensor demonstrated response values ( $R_a/R_g$ ) of 1.2 and 45.1 for H<sub>2</sub> concentrations of 500 ppb and 100 ppm, respectively. Furthermore, the response times were 38 s and 4 s for these concentrations.

In addition to the construction of p-n heterojunctions, the H<sub>2</sub> sensing performance of materials can also be improved by constructing n-n heterojunctions and/or adding other components. For example, Zhang et al. (Table 1) [74] prepared quaternary nanocomposites (Figure 7c) by hydrothermal method using Pd-doped rGO/ZnO-SnO<sub>2</sub> for use as sensing materials in H<sub>2</sub> sensors. Compared with ZnO-SnO<sub>2</sub> composites, the materials doped with 3 wt% rGO (NC3) exhibited a better H<sub>2</sub> response. The maximum H<sub>2</sub> response of the NC3 material at 380 °C is 9.4, which is two times that of NC0, i.e., ZnO-SnO<sub>2</sub>.

Oxygen vacancies, a prevalent and crucial type of crystal defect, play a significant role in the sensing performance of these semiconductors [100]. Various strategies have been proposed to enhance the oxygen vacancy content. Traditional methods, such as high-temperature gas reduction and calcination, are commonly employed to create oxygen defects [56,101–106]. However, these methods often require complex or hazardous conditions, including high temperatures and  $H_2$ -rich atmospheres. Consequently, the use of an appropriate reducing agent to regulate the concentration of oxygen vacancies at RT has become increasingly important. Ascorbic acid, for instance, serves as an effective reducing agent, promoting the formation of both surface and intrinsic hydroxyl groups. The hydroxyl-oxygen vacancy model introduces a novel mechanism for the generation of oxygen vacancies, wherein hydroxyl groups and oxygen vacancies coexist, with the latter providing accommodation space for adjacent hydroxyl groups. Song et al. (Table 1) [75] developed a "hydroxyl-oxygen vacancy model" utilizing the redox-capable  $Ce^{4+} \leftrightarrow Ce^{3+}$ system (Figure 8). Following ascorbic acid reduction, Pd NPs-modified cerium dioxide (CeO<sub>2</sub>) (in cubic, Figure 8b, rod-shaped, and spherical morphologies) exhibits a high abundance of hydroxyl groups [75]. This approach not only facilitates the formation of oxygen vacancies within the CeO<sub>2</sub> lattice, but also establishes a linear correlation between the surface Ce<sup>3+</sup> content, the content of oxygen vacancies, and highly reactive oxygen species [75]. The optimal 5.0 wt% Pd NPs/CeO<sub>2</sub>-C, characterized by the highest concentration of oxygen vacancies and  $Ce^{3+}$  content, owned the largest EDLs in air (Figure 8a). It demonstrated rapid sensing kinetics (3 s for 1% H<sub>2</sub> and 2 s for 3% H<sub>2</sub>, Figure 8c,d) and remarkable sensitivity to  $H_2$  ( $R_a/R_g$  of 1322 for 1%  $H_2$ ), with a detection limit as low as 50 ppm [75].



**Figure 8.** (a) Mechanistic diagram of the 5 wt% Pd NPs/CeO<sub>2</sub>-C sensor [75]. (b) TEM images of 5 wt% Pd NPs/CeO<sub>2</sub>-C5 wt% Pd NPs /CeO<sub>2</sub>-C [75]. (c) Variation of response times of different proportions of 5 wt% Pd NPs CeO<sub>2</sub> at 25 °C in 10,000 ppm H<sub>2</sub> in 1% and (d) 3% H<sub>2</sub> concentration [75]. Reprinted with permission from Elsevier, copyright 2023.

#### 3.2. Pt-Decorated MOSs

Pt is also widely used for the  $H_2$  detection. Compared with Pd, Pt has a lower affinity for  $H_2$  molecules, is less prone to  $H_2$  embrittlement, and has better long-term stability. And under certain extreme conditions (e.g., high temperature, strong acid and alkali environment), Pt may exhibit higher stability. Due to the high catalytic activity of Pt, Pt can quickly promote the reaction of  $H_2$  with the sensor surface. Therefore, when Pt is used as a catalyst, the response speed of the  $H_2$  sensor is usually faster, and when the  $H_2$ concentration decreases, the sensor doped with Pt is usually able to return to its initial state more quickly. Accordingly, Pt-decorated MOSs-based  $H_2$  sensors show great potential in applications that require high sensitivity, high selectivity, and a fast response.

#### 3.2.1. Pt-Decorated SnO<sub>2</sub>

In practical applications within the realm of gas sensors,  $SnO_2$ -based gas sensors continue to be a leading choice. Various strategies have been employed to enhance the gas sensitivity of Pt-decorated  $SnO_2$ -based H<sub>2</sub> sensors, including the construction of n-n, p-n, and p-p heterojunction composites [107–109], the design of hierarchical structures, and the addition of catalytic layers. Luo et al. (Table 1) [76] successfully synthesized a ternary Pt–TiO<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composite through a two-step hydrothermal method, combining TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles with flower-like MoS<sub>2</sub> structures and depositing Pt. The optimal composites exhibited remarkable sensitivity and selectivity towards H<sub>2</sub> at 100 °C. Similarly, Yin et al. (Table 1) [73] prepared SnO<sub>2</sub>–Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> p-n heterojunction-based Pt sensing materials via a

hydrothermal method, which demonstrated excellent gas sensitivity and selectivity for  $H_2$  at an optimal operating temperature of 300 °C with an optimal amount of 5% Co.

The long-term stability of MOSs-based sensing materials at RT is crucial for H<sub>2</sub> sensors, as it represents a significant hurdle to their commercialization. Huang et al. (Table 1) [77] addressed this challenge by preparing 1 wt% Pt-doped Pt–SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites that exhibit impressive room-temperature H<sub>2</sub> sensing capabilities. However, these capabilities diminished rapidly over time. Specifically, after seven days of aging, the response to 1% H<sub>2</sub> at RT decreased by a factor of 50. Notably, gentle heat treatment (e.g., 10 min at 140 °C) fully restored the room-temperature H<sub>2</sub> sensing performances of the aged sample. In contrast, the robust response of the Pt–SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite with 5 wt% Pt to 1% H<sub>2</sub> at RT, synthesized by Zhu et al. (Table 1) [78], remained nearly unchanged after six months of aging. However, the recovery rate in air decreased significantly.

#### 3.2.2. Pt-Decorated ZnO

Analogous to Pt-decorated ZnO, the ZnO morphology impacts the sensing properties of Pt-decorated ZnO-based  $H_2$  sensors.

In the work conducted by Uddin et al. (Table 1) [79], the ZnO morphology was optimized through rapid thermal annealing, resulting in an optimal pencil-like topography sensing material suitable for industrial applications up to 300 °C. Additionally, Tan et al. [80] directionally grew ZnO NR arrays on glass substrates and subsequently coated them with  $WO_3/Pt$  (Figure 9a,b). Benefiting from the advantages of effective carrier transport in nanoarrays, the high catalytic efficiency of Pt clusters, and the work function of  $WO_3$  NPs, the optimal materials exhibited exceptional H<sub>2</sub> sensing performances, achieving a response of 61.5 to 100 ppm H<sub>2</sub> with response and recovery times of 19 and 81 s, respectively.



**Figure 9.** (**a**,**b**) SEM image and cross-sectional SEM of WPt<sub>0.25</sub>/ZnO and the elemental distribution. [80] Reprinted with permission from Elsevier, copyright 2024. (**c**) Field emission SEM images of the optimal ZNT/G. (**d**) The TEM microstructure cross sections of the optimal ZNT/G [81]. Reprinted with permission from [81]. Copyright {2017} American Chemical Society.

Furthermore, ZnO NTs (ZNTs) are also employed in gas sensing applications due to their advantages of having a larger surface area, higher surface oxygen vacancy concentration, and an elevated surface-to-volume ratio [81]. However, ZNTs suffer from limitations such as poor selectivity, stability, and operating temperatures, which impede their progress in gas sensing. These challenges can be addressed by the preparation of hybrid nanocomposites [110]. Kathiravan et al. (Table 1) [81] documented the innovative nanostructural interfaces of self-assembled hierarchical ZnO NTs/graphene (ZNT/G) composites by systematically modulating the growth times of ZNTs on graphene substrates (Figure 9c,d). The optimal ZNT/G sensor demonstrated exceptional repeatability, reliability, and sustained long-term stability over a period of 90 days during hydrogenation/dehydrogenation cycles [81]. This superior performance was attributed to the formation of a robust metallized region at the ZNT/G interface, facilitated by the inner and outer surfaces of the ZNTs, which collectively established a multifaceted depletion layer. Vivekanandan et al. (Table 1) [82] constructed a hybrid structure comprising MoS<sub>2</sub>-incorporated ZnO hollow NTs (MoS<sub>2</sub>-HIZNTs). This hybrid nanostructure was synthesized through a simple soft-chemical method involving the etching of ZNTs in an aqueous solution with MoS<sub>2</sub> serving as an inducible candidate. The resulting MoS<sub>2</sub>-HIZNT material exhibits a unique labyrinth-like structure, leading to exceptional H<sub>2</sub> sensing performance at RT. The enhanced surface area of MoS<sub>2</sub>-HIZNTs facilitates the adsorption of more gas ions, resulting in a linear increase in oxygen vacancies and surface-active sites.

As discussed in Section 3.1.2, the oxygen defects in MOSs nanomaterials possess a unique electronic structure and unsaturated coordination environment, which facilitates molecular adsorption and electron transfer in sensing reactions [111]. In addition to ZnO, both iron(III) oxide (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) [112] and CeO<sub>2</sub> can enhance their H<sub>2</sub> sensing performances through the introduction of oxygen defects. Zhang et al. (Table 1) [83] reported a stable  $H_2$  sensor based on Pt single atoms (Pt SA) anchored to oxygen-rich vacancies on Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NSs ( $Pt-Fe_2O_3-Vo$ ) (Figure 10). The surface oxygen vacancies were introduced in the last step under the reducing condition (Figure 10a). Gas sensing studies revealed that at an optimal temperature of 240  $^{\circ}$ C, the sensor response of Pt–Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>–Vo was improved by a factor of 17 compared to pure  $Fe_2O_3$  (Figure 10f), with an ultra-fast response time of 2 s (Figure 10g). It also delivered excellent selectivity, as illustrated in Figure 10h. The exceptional sensing performance of  $Pt-Fe_2O_3-Vo$  is attributed to the unique morphology (Figure 10b–e), which favored oxygen spillover. Experimental and density functional theory (DFT) calculations [113] demonstrated that the Pt-Fe atomic site at the oxygen vacancy exhibits higher binding energy, leading to a strong electronic interaction between Pt and the  $Fe_2O_3$  surface, which stabilizes the Pt SA and enhances the sensing performance.  $CeO_2$ , characterized by numerous intrinsic defects, possesses various intriguing properties such as oxygen-rich defects, significant redox properties, high oxygen storage capacity, and the ability to absorb and release oxygen through the conversion between  $Ce_3^+$  and  $Ce_4^+$ . These attributes of CeO<sub>2</sub> are highly promising for exceptional gas sensing performance. Kim et al. (Table 1) [84] developed CeO<sub>2</sub> hollow NFs (Figure  $10i_{j}$ ) through electrospinning to enhance the interaction between oxygen vacancies (Figure 10k) and H<sub>2</sub> on PtRu, resulting in higher selectivity and a broader detection range (100 ppm to 50%) compared to the  $CeO_2$ and Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub>.



**Figure 10.** (a) Synthesis of Pt-loaded  $Fe_2O_3$  NSs (Pt– $Fe_2O_3$ –Vo). Characterization of Pt– $Fe_2O_3$ –Vo [85]: (b) SEM images [83]; (c) EDX elemental mappings [83]; (d,e) HRTEM images [83]. (f) Dynamic curve of sensor response at different H<sub>2</sub> concentrations [83]. (g) Response–recovery time of Pt– $Fe_2O_3$ –Vo and Pt– $Fe_2O_3$  sensors to 50 ppm of H<sub>2</sub> at 240 °C [83]. (h) Selectivity of the sensors to different gases [83]. Reprinted with permission from [83]. Copyright {2024} American Chemical Society. (i) FESEM image of Ce electrospun fiber after calcination at 500 °C with inset showing diameter distribution (mean: 82 nm) [84]. (j) HRTEM image of PtRu/CeO<sub>2</sub> with energy dispersive spectroscopy mapping [84]. (k) X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy of O 1s [84]. Reprinted with permission from Elsevier, copyright 2024.

# 3.2.3. Other Noble-Metal-Decorated MOSs

In addition to Pd and Pt, other noble-metal-decorated MOS nanomaterials also exhibit excellent H<sub>2</sub> sensing performance, such as Au, Ag, Ir, etc.

Hyodo et al. [114] fabricated Au(n)/Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub> for H<sub>2</sub> sensing. They found that water molecules and/or hydroxyl groups adsorbed on the surface played a crucial role in increasing the H<sub>2</sub> adsorption and dissociation on the surface, thereby enhancing H<sub>2</sub> sensing performances.

Shao et al. (Table 1) [85] introduced a novel  $H_2$  sensor featuring a sandwich structure that incorporates Ag. This structure comprises a catalytic sensitization layer composed of Ag NPs, a gas sensing layer of SnO<sub>2</sub>, and an electron supply layer of graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>), collectively referred to as the catalytic-sensitization-layer gas-sensinglayer electron-supply-layer (CSE) configuration (Figure 11a). The optimal Ag@SnO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> material exhibited a detection limit of 30 ppb, with response and recovery times of 7 s and 9.7 s, respectively, as well as remarkable long-term stability. Guo et al. (Table 1) [86] achieved successful redispersion of Ir NPs through carbon-assisted pyrolysis, thereby enhancing the activity and stability of H<sub>2</sub> sensors. They used a typical metal–organic framework [115–117], ZIF-8, as the precursor to obtain the carbon-decorated ZnO via the annealing in N<sub>2</sub> and calcination in air (Figure 11b). The obtained materials inherited the porous structure from the ZIF-8 and showed a large specific area, which guaranteed rich reactive sites. By improving the dispersion and uniformity of Ir NPs, the catalytic performance of the material was significantly enhanced. The redispersed Ir NPs possess a larger active surface area, which is pivotal in enhancing the performance of the H<sub>2</sub> sensor.



**Figure 11.** (a) Fabrication process of Ag@SnO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> [85]. Reprinted with permission from Elsevier, copyright 2024. (b) Schematic illustration of the  $Ir_{red}$ /ZnO synthetic route [86]. Reprinted with permission from [86]. Copyright {2024} American Chemical Society.

#### 4. Conclusions

Chemoresistive  $H_2$  sensors play a pivotal role in various fields, including the hydrogen energy industry, environmental monitoring, and medical diagnosis. The development of cost-effective sensing materials is crucial for advancing these applications. MOSs have emerged as potential candidates for  $H_2$  sensing, yet their inherent sensing performance remains limited. To enhance their performances, the introduction of noble metals to create noble-metal-decorated MOSs sensing materials has become a widely adopted strategy.

Despite recent extensive research and reviews documenting progress in this field, a comprehensive analysis specifically addressing the rational design of sensing materials to optimize the overall performance of noble-metal-decorated MOS-based chemoresistive

 $H_2$  sensors is lacking. This review summarizes the recent research advancements in noblemetal-decorated MOSs-based H<sub>2</sub> sensing materials. We comprehensively consolidate and analyze the strategies utilized in the literature, particularly those reported within the last three years, to furnish a foundational comprehension of the rationale underlying the design of highly efficient chemoresistive H<sub>2</sub> sensors. Current research efforts in this field primarily focus on noble metals such as Pd, Pt, Au, Ag, and Ir, while the MOSs are mainly SnO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and NiO. Enhancing the dispersion and uniformity of noble metal NPs is anticipated to boost the catalytic properties of these materials. Furthermore, manipulating the morphology of noble-metal-decorated MOSs-based sensing materials is another promising strategy. Morphologies that can yield a high specific surface area, such as NWs [5,58,59], NSs [60], NFs [59], NRs [64], and NTs [66], are preferred due to the abundance of reaction sites. Additionally, the construction of MOSs into heterojunctions, such as p-n-type NiO-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and PdO-WO<sub>3</sub>, or the incorporation of other components like G and rGO, can further improve the H<sub>2</sub> sensing performance of the material. These strategies collectively offer significant potential for enhancing the sensing capabilities of noble-metal-decorated MOSs in H<sub>2</sub> detection applications.

The incorporation of oxygen vacancies and the precise modulation of their concentrations within MOSs constitute a widely employed strategy. Reducible oxides, exemplified by ZnO, CeO<sub>2</sub>, and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, are typically utilized for this purpose. The creation of oxygen defects is commonly achieved through gas reduction and calcination treatments. However, these methodologies often suffer from complex or dangerous conditions, including high temperatures and reducing atmospheres. Consequently, the development of a safe and easily operated method for controlling oxygen vacancy concentration at RT utilizing an appropriate reducing agent is important. Ascorbic acid has emerged as a promising candidate for facilitating the formation of both surface-bound and intrinsic hydroxyl groups in the context of oxygen vacancy modulation. The adoption of the hydroxyl-oxygen vacancy model for sensing materials heralds a novel approach to synthesizing high-performance gas sensors. Nonetheless, the attainment of remarkably high response values at RT is accompanied by an elongation in the recovery time to the initial baseline. The challenge of reducing recovery time while maintaining high sensor responsiveness remains an area requiring further exploration and investigation.

The H<sub>2</sub> sensing performances of perovskite materials such as BaTiO<sub>3</sub>, which are also prone to oxygen vacancies, have not been widely explored like materials such as SnO<sub>2</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub>, despite their physical and chemical properties making them interesting candidates for gas sensing applications [118]. Perhaps due to its complex H<sub>2</sub> sensing mechanism, it may undergo a phase transition from ferroelectric to paraelectric within the temperature range of H<sub>2</sub> sensing. Multiple influencing factors make it complex to regulate their H<sub>2</sub> sensing performances. Fully understanding the H<sub>2</sub> sensing mechanism of such systems can help improve the H<sub>2</sub> sensing performance of such materials.

Multi-sensing mode represents one of the most promising avenues for future development in gas sensing technology. Gas sensors equipped with a single sensing mode are frequently constrained by their operational principles and the properties of sensitive materials, potentially leading to false positives or negatives in specific conditions. By integrating sensors based on diverse principles, such as electrochemical, optical, thermal, and chemical impedance [119], the multi-sensing mode facilitates multi-dimensional detection of target gases. This integration significantly enhances detection accuracy and reliability, mitigating the risks associated with false positives and negatives. For instance, combining the gasochromic properties of WO<sub>3</sub> with the chemoresistive characteristics of SnO<sub>2</sub> enables the design of an H<sub>2</sub> sensor with a dual detection mode, thereby improving its detection accuracy and reliability. Furthermore, under the multi-sensing mode, algorithms such as machine learning [120] can be employed to process and analyze this data by amalgamating multiple sensors and gathering extensive data [121–125], enabling precise predictions of gas concentration and real-time detection under complex environments.

Although chemoresistive  $H_2$  sensors based on noble-metal-decorated MOSs have demonstrated their high responsiveness and low detection limits, they also face many challenges, such as performance issues in high-temperature environments, poor selectivity, and humidity-dependent response. Breakthroughs on these issues are needed in the future.

In summary, the future development of noble-metal-decorated MOSs-based  $H_2$  sensors may follow the directions of cost-effectiveness, intelligence, and integration.

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