# Room-Temperature Chemiresistive Effect of $TiO_2 - B$ Nanowires to Nitroaromatic and Nitroamine Explosives

Danling L. Wang, Antao T. Chen, Member, IEEE, Qifeng F. Zhang, and Guozhong Z. Cao

Abstract-Semiconducting TiO2-B nanowires were synthesized and their chemical sensor performance was studied. It was found that the TiO<sub>2</sub> - B nanowires exhibited a large and reversible change in electrical resistivity when exposed to trace vapor of nitroaromatic and nitroamine explosives. The sensor showed high sensitivity and fast response at room temperature. The chemiresistive effect was attributed to the adsorption of high electronegativity explosives on the TiO2-B nanowires and a consequent depletion of charge carriers in the nanowires by surface states created by the explosive molecules. The role of the TiO2-B nanowires is proposed to impart both an extremely large surface area for the adsorption of gas molecules and a surface enriched in hydroxyl groups which connect to nitro groups of the explosive molecules. Chemiresistive sensors made of TiO<sub>2</sub> - B semiconducting nanowires promised to achieve micro-sized devices with several orders of magnitude reduction in dimensions, weight, and power consumption over current explosive detectors.

Index Terms—Charge transfer, chemiresistive sensor, surface depletion layer,  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires, trace explosives detector.

# I. INTRODUCTION

APOR detection is a common approach to detect hidden explosive devices to protect society from terrorist attacks. Most high explosives are nitroaromatic and nitroamine compounds. The vapors of such compounds are known to be highly difficult to detect due to their extremely low vapor pressure. As a result, detecting trace explosives usually requires complicated technologies involving ionization and fluorescent sensing materials, making detection systems bulky and having high-power consumption, limiting their applications. There are fundamental

Manuscript received August 05, 2010; revised October 11, 2010; accepted October 12, 2010. Date of publication October 25, 2010; date of current version April 20, 2011. This work was supported in part by the Office of Naval Research under Grant N00014-05-1-0843 and by the NSF Center on Materials and Devices for Information Technology Research (CMDITR) under Grant DMR-0120967. The work of nanowires fabrication was supported in part by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, Division of Materials and Engineering under Award Grant DE-FG02-07ER46467(Q.F.Z.). The work of D. Wang was supported in part by the University of Washington WRF-APL Fellowship. The associate editor coordinating the review of this paper and approving it for publication was Prof. E. H. Yang.

D. L. Wang and A. T. Chen were with the Applied Physics Laboratory, Department of Electrical Engineering, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98105 USA.

Q. F. Zhang and G. Z. Cao were with the Department of Sciences and Engineering University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98105 USA (e-mail: antaochen@apl.washington.edu).

Color versions of one or more of the figures in this paper are available online at http://ieeexplore.ieee.org.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/JSEN.2010.2089618

limitations to significantly reducing the size and power consumption of existing technologies. It is highly desirable that explosive detectors be made with microelectronic technology and be monolithically integratable with silicon microelectronics circuits. Nanotechnology holds great promise to meet this need.

In this paper,  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires were studied to work as a chemiresistive sensor material for a detection of the nitroaromatic and nitroamine explosives. It was found that, in a chip-size device with greatly reduced size, weight, and power consumption, both the sensitivity and response speed of the  $TiO_2 - B$ nanowire sensor had surpassed those of current technologies [1]–[3]. TiO<sub>2</sub> – B is one of the crystal polymorphs of TiO<sub>2</sub> [4]. Single crystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> – B nanowires of well controlled length and diameter can be chemically synthesized in relatively large quantities [5]–[11]. The achievement of  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires in detecting explosives is related to two common characteristics of the nitroaromatic and nitroamine explosive compounds: 1) high electronegativity due to strong oxidizing chemical groups and 2) strong tendency to adsorb on the surfaces of objects exposed to their vapor. Therefore, to effectively detect these explosive compounds, it is desirable that the sensing material has a high surface-to-volume ratio as well as a large surface area for molecule adsorption and, moreover, must be able to facilitate a strong surface charge transfer interaction with the molecules. It was demonstrated that semiconducting  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires might meet these requirements very well and presented both a strong and fast response when exposed to the vapors of explosives, by means of a change in the electric conductance. In addition, the inorganic nature of the material offers good stability, important for practical applications.

# II. MATERIAL SYNTHESIS AND DEVICE FABRICATION

## A. Material Synthesis

The TiO<sub>2</sub> – B nanowires were synthesized with a hydrothermal method [6]–[10]. Typically, a suspension containing 0.5 g of commercial anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> powder (J. T. Baker Chemical Company) dispersed in 20 ml of 10 M NaOH aqueous solution was prepared as a precursor. After vigorous stirring for  $5 \sim 10$  min, the suspension was transferred to a Teflon vessel and placed in a hermetically sealed autoclave and heated at 180 °C for 32 h. The precipitate produced was washed with 0.1 M HCl several times and then with DI-water until the pH value reached 7. This treatment removes Na<sup>+</sup> ions remaining in the titanate nanoproducts and results in the formation of H<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> nanowires. A following post-treatment at 450 °C for



Fig. 1. Schematic sketch of the chemiresistive effect of  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires to nitroaromatic and nitroamine explosives. Inset is a SEM image of the  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires film. The film is fabricated on glass substrate and its resistance is modulated as the vapor (TNT) switches between "on" and "off."



Fig. 2. SEM image of the interconnected 3-D mesh structure of a  $\rm TiO_2-B$  thin film.

1 h was carried out to promote the phase transformation from  $H_2TiO_3$  to  $TiO_2 - B$  [6]. The length of the nanowires could be controlled by an ultrasonic treatment of the suspension of  $TiO_2$  nanoparticles, as described in literature [8]. The diameter of the nanowires was determined by the temperature during hydrothermal growth.

## B. Device Fabrication

As-synthesized nanowires were dispersed in ethanol to form a suspension. This suspension was then drop-cast on glass substrates and heated at 70 °C to attain a thin film of nanowires about 10  $\mu$ m in film thickness. To fabricate a sensor, as shown in Fig. 1, patterned titanium electrodes were deposited through a shadow mask over the nanowire film by sputtering. The titanium electrodes have a circular shape and are 4 mm in diameter. The spacing between contacts is 1 cm for the convenience of shadow mask patterning and probing during testing. The nominal thickness of the titanium electrodes is 200 nm.



Fig. 3. (a) EDS spectrum and (b) XRD pattern of synthesized  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires.  $\theta$  is the X-ray diffraction angle. The XRD pattern matches the  $TiO_2 - B$  pattern in literature [4], [6].

## C. Test of Sensor Performance

Vapors of equilibrium concentration at room temperature were generated using glass beads coated with various explosives (Inert Products, LLC.) and a vapor generator based on [12], and confirmed by an HP 5797 gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Vapor of lower concentration is obtained by diluting the saturated explosive vapor with air at the required ratio. The resistance change and response time of the sample is determined by measuring its resistance between two metal contacts with an electrometer (Keithley 617) when the gas applied to the thin film sample is cycled between air with vapor and pure air. The electrometer applies a constant current of 1 nA (=  $10^{-9}$  A) through the sample during resistance measurement, and the voltage across the sample is typically below 1 V.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Single crystalline  $\text{TiO}_2 - B$  nanowires synthesized through the high-yield hydrothermal method have a consistent diameter. A scanning electron microscopy (SEM) observation, as shown in Fig. 2, revealed that the film was made of a three dimensional mesh of randomly orientated and interconnected nanowires. These nanowires were several micrometers in length and 50–100 nm in diameter, depending on the condition of the nanowire synthesis. The large amount of free space between wires makes the thin film highly permeable by vapors of analytes for rapid response. Shown in Fig. 3 are energy dispersive



Fig. 4. Typical resistance change of a  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowire thin film in response to vapors. (a) 1 ppb of 2, 4, 6-trinitrotoluene (TNT). (b) 5 ppt of 1, 3, 5-Trinitroperhydro-1, 3, 5-triazine (RDX) at ambient conditions.

spectrum (EDS) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) of the nanowire film, revealing the composition of titanium oxide and a structure of  $TiO_2 - B$ .

The sensing performance of nanowire samples were tested in ambient air, except for tests of temperature effects. During the test, the resistance of the sample was recorded while air flow to the sample was switched between pure air and air that contained explosive vapor at intervals of several seconds to a few tens of seconds. The chemiresistive response is defined as  $S = (R_v - R_0)/R_0$ , where  $R_v$  is the resistance when the sample is exposed to the vapor, and  $R_0$  is the resistance of the fresh sample before it is exposed to any explosive vapor [13]. The resistance of the nanowires increases to  $R_v$  upon exposure to explosive vapor. After the sample is returned to fresh air, its resistance decreases and reaches a stabilized value  $R_s$ , which is usually 0% to 100% higher than  $R_0$  and is likely due to incomplete desorption of explosive molecules from the surface of nanowires. Subsequent switching cycles between vapor of the same concentration and pure air make the resistance vary between  $R_v$  and  $R_s$ , as shown in Figs. 4 and 5. The recovery time of the resistance after the explosive vapor is replaced by pure air is almost the same as the response time to the vapor. The incomplete desorption mentioned above can be eliminated by heating the sample at 80 °C to 100 °C for several minutes, and the resistance of the sample returns to  $R_0$ . Although the base resistance has a drift from 0.6 G $\Omega$  to 1.5 G $\Omega$ , the resistance change between  $R_v$  and  $R_s$  is found to be highly consis-



Fig. 5. Chemisistive response to different concentration of RDX vapor at room temperature. The nanowires are 1.1  $\mu$ m in length and 50 nm in diameter. The noise-equivalent detection limit of RDX is 100 parts-per-quadrillion.



Fig. 6. Resistance change  $R_v - R_s$  over 15 000 continuous test cycles between vapor of 100 ppb of DNT and pure air. Each test cycle consists of 6 s of vapor followed by 6 s of air.

TABLE I Response of a  $\rm TiO_2-B$  Nanowire Thin Film to Explosives

Symbol	Equilibrium Vapor Concentration		Percentage Response $(100 \times (R_v - R_0)/R_0)$	Response Time (s)	Molar Mass(g/mol)
Nitrotoluene (NT)		130ppm	55	0.57	132
2,4-dinitroto (DNT)	luene	100ppb	58	0.64	182.13
2,4,6-trinitrotoluene (TNT)		5ppb	57	1.67	227.13
RDX		5ppt	50	2.35	222.12

Response of a  $TiO_2$ -B nanowire thin film sample to room temperature equilibrium vapor of common high explosives. ppm: parts-per-million; ppb: parts-per-billion; ppt: parts-per-trillion.

tent over a long-term test of 15000 switching cycles (Fig. 5). It demonstrated the exceptional stability of sensing performance. The sample was at ambient temperature throughout the test.

Table I lists the percentage resistance change and response times of the  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowire thin film for vapor of representative explosive compounds at equilibrium concentrations, where the values of equilibrium vapor concentration are refer-



Fig. 7. GC-MS spectra of RDX and TNT.

enced from literature [14]. Significant and fast changes in resistance have been observed with all major explosives, including cyclotrimethylenetrinitramine (RDX) which has extremely low vapor pressure. The concentrations of TNT and RDX vapors were analyzed by HP 5797 GC-MS spectrum and compared with the results in literature [15] (Fig. 7). Note that molecules of less mass produce faster response, because the response time is limited by the diffusion of the vapor molecules through the nanowire thin film and smaller molecules permeate the 3-D matrix of nanowires faster.

In order to determine whether the response is due to charge transport within individual wires or across junctions between connecting wires, test samples of nanowires of the same diameter but different lengths were fabricated and their test results compared. The nanowire length is controlled by an ultrasonic treatment of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles prior to the hydrothermal synthesis of the nanowires [8]. As shown in Fig. 8(a) and (b), the nanowire diameters were 50 nm  $\pm$  10 nm. The lengths of the longer nanowires were  $2.4 \pm 0.5 \ \mu m$ , and the lengths of the shorter nanowires were  $1.8 \pm 0.3 \,\mu\text{m}$ . Test results showed that the length of the wires has no significant effect on the chemiresistive response. However, shorter wires respond to the vapor at a slower rate. The slower response can be attributed to the denser packing of shorter nanowires and the consequent slower permeation of the thin film by vapor. Since the test samples have the same separation between the electrodes, the average path length for an electron to travel from one electrode to the other electrode is largely independent of the length of nanowires. However, the average number of junctions between connecting nanowires in the path of the electron is strongly dependent on the length of individual wires. In the film made of shorter wires, electrons need to pass through a greater number of junctions. The fact that the response is not affected by the length of nanowires indicates that junction between nanowires does not play a significant role in the sensing process. In addition, different metal electrodes including gold, aluminum copper, and titanium have been used for the electrodes. Different types of metals did not change sensitivity and response time, indicating that the interface between the metal electrodes and nanowires did not play a significant role in the chemiresistive response. Test samples with titanium electrodes exhibited a more linear current-voltage (I-V) relationship, characteristic of a good ohmic contact between the metal electrode and nanowires. Based on these observations, it can be concluded that the electrical response is dominated by the charge transport within individual nanowires.

Previously, nanowires of semiconducting metal oxides, such as ZnO [16]–[18] and  $SnO_2$  [19], [20], have been used for sensors to detect gases such as oxygen, ethanol, and NO<sub>2</sub>. However, these gas sensors operate at elevated temperatures of 200–500 °C, and their sensitivity is only at parts-per-million level with a slow response on the order of a minute [16], [19], [21]. Their sensing mechanism at elevated operating temperatures was attributed to the chemical reduction-oxidation reactions taking place on the nanowire surface [22]. Since the detection of explosives based on  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires was realized at room temperature, the interaction between explosive molecules and  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires should be quite different from previous metal oxide gas sensors. Explosive molecules are unlikely to be capable of producing significant and fast chemical reduction-oxidation reactions at room temperature to produce sensitivity below ppt level (Fig. 4) and a fast response on the order of a second. Cyclical current-voltage measurements showed a linear relationship between the current and voltage no matter whether the test sample is exposed to explosive vapor or pure air. The current-voltage scans do not show any cyclical voltametric peaks indicative of red-ox processes. The synthetic  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires have relatively higher charger carrier transfer ability than anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> [23], less compact structure and higher level of oxygen vacancies due to Ti<sup>4+</sup> ions. The Ti<sup>4+</sup> ions can be coordinated by hydroxyl groups and form hydroxyl terminated surfaces [24]. The surface hydroxyl groups can trap electrons and facilitate adsorption of explosive compounds via their nitro groups. This indicates that the hydroxyl groups on the  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires surface may play an important role in determining the explosive gas sensing properties at room temperature and further study is needed. Previous studies have shown that titanium oxide is an n-type semiconductor due to oxygen vacancies [25], [26]. It is also known that nitroaromatic compounds and most high explosive compounds are highly electronegative, meaning that



Fig. 8. SEM images of nanowires of different length and diameter obtained through treatment and their sensing responses to TNT vapor (a) Nanowires of  $2.4 \,\mu\text{m} \pm 0.5 \,\mu\text{m}$  in length and  $50 \,\text{nm} \pm 10 \,\text{nm}_{\text{in}}$  in diameter obtained with pre-ultrasonic treatment and reaction temperature of  $180 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The response time is approximately 1.95 s. (b) Shorter wires of  $1.8 \,\mu\text{m} \pm 0.3 \,\mu\text{m}$  in length and  $50 \,\text{nm} \pm 10 \,\text{nm}_{\text{in}}$  in length and  $50 \,\text{nm} \pm 10 \,\text{nm}_{\text{in}}$  diameter obtained without pre-ultrasonic treatment and reaction temperature of  $180 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The response time is  $2.67 \,\text{s}$ . (c) Thicker wires of  $100 \,\text{nm} \pm 20 \,\text{nm}$  in diameter with the lengths of  $1.8 \,\mu\text{m} \pm 0.3 \,\mu\text{m}$  were obtained with reaction temperature of  $150 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The three images have the same scale of magnification. Wires of different diameters exhibit a similar response time to TNT vapor but thinner wires are more sensitive.

they tend to attract electrons from other molecules through charge transfer interactions from nitro groups in explosives to hydroxyl groups on  $\text{TiO}_2$  – B nanowires surface. When explosive molecules adsorb on the surface of n-type semiconductor nanowires, the explosive molecules can trap charge carriers via surface hydroxyl groups and create a carrier depletion region near the  $\text{TiO}_2$  – B nanowires surface. This could explain the increase of the resistance when the nanowires are exposed to explosive vapors.

The surface depletion being the origin of the chemiresistive response is confirmed by the effect of wire diameter on the response. Samples made of films with two different wire diameters were prepared [27] and tested. The lengths of the nanowires were  $1.8 \pm 0.3 \mu m$  for both diameters employed [see Fig. 8(a) and (c)]. The same film thickness and electrode spacing were used for all test samples. Wires of 50 nm  $\pm$  10 nm in diameter produced a response of 30%, higher than the 22% response observed for wires of 100 nm  $\pm$  20 nm in diameter. This observation supports the surface depletion hypothesis because thinner wires are more susceptible to surface depletion [28]. The response time is found to be largely independent of



Fig. 9. Sensing response of  ${\rm TiO}_2-{\rm B}$  nanowires to saturated vapors of different chemical compounds.

the diameter of nanowires. Because the band-gap of  $TiO_2$  is much greater than the thermal energy, the chemiresistive response of  $TiO_2$ -B nanowires to explosive trace vapors is found to be reliable and insensitive to temperature. There is only a few percent decrease in (Rv-Rs), and a slightly faster response at 75 °C over 25 °C. Such stability is the key to reliable sensors for practical applications. The nanowires are also found to have good specificity (Fig. 9) and be not sensitive to chemicals that are unrelated to explosives that often cause false positives to other explosive detectors such as inert chemicals that have high nitrogen content (for example, urea).

### IV. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, a large and fast increase of the electrical resistivity of  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires in response to sub-trace vapors of nitroaromatic and nitroamine explosive compounds at room temperature has been observed. Experimental results indicate that the response originates from a depletion of electron carriers by the surface states produced by adsorbed molecules of electronegative explosive compounds on  $TiO_2 - B$  nanowires surface.

### REFERENCES

- K. Shiraishi, T. Sanji, and M. Tanaka, "Trace detection of explosive particulates with a phosphole oxide," ACS Appl. Mater. Interf., vol. 1, pp. 1379–1382, 2009.
- [2] S. J. Toal and W. C. Trogler, "Polymer sensors for nitroaromatic explosives detection," J. Mater. Chem., vol. 16, pp. 2871–2883, 2006.
- [3] J. S. Yang and T. M. Swager, "Porous shape persistent fluorescent polymer films: An approach to TNT sensory materials," *J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, vol. 120, pp. 5321–5322, 1998.
- [4] R. Marchand, L. Brohan, and M. Tournoux, " $\mathrm{TiO}_2(B)$  A new form of titanium-dioxide and the potassium octatitanate  $\mathrm{K}_2\mathrm{Ti}_8\mathrm{O}_{17}$ ," *Mater. Res. Bul.*, vol. 15, pp. 1129–1133, 1980.
- [5] Y. F. Chen, C. Y. Lee, and M. Y. Yeng *et al.*, "Preparing titanium oxide with various morphologies," *Mater. Chem. Phys.*, vol. 81, pp. 39–44, 2003.
- [6] J. Jitputti, S. Pavasupree, and Y. Suzuki *et al.*, "Synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes and its photocatalytic activity for H-2 evolution," *Jpn. J. Appl. Phys.*, vol. 47, pp. 751–756, 2008.
- [7] S. Pavasupree, Y. Suzuki, and S. Yoshikawa *et al.*, "Synthesis of titanate, TiO<sub>2</sub>(B), and anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers from natural rutile sand," *J. Solid-State Chem.*, vol. 178, pp. 3110–3116, 2005.
- [8] N. Viriya-Empikul, N. Sano, and T. Charinpanitkul *et al.*, "A step towards length control of titanate nanotubes using hydrothermal reaction with sonication pretreatment," *Nanotechnol.*, vol. 19, p. 035601, 2008.
- [9] Y. Q. Wang, G. Q. Hu, and X. F. Duan *et al.*, "Microstructure and formation mechanism of titanium dioxide nanotubes," *Chem. Phys. Lett.*, vol. 365, pp. 427–431, 2002.
- [10] R. Yoshida, Y. Suzuki, and S. Yoshikawa, "Syntheses of TiO<sub>2</sub>(B) nanowires and TiO<sub>2</sub> anatase nanowires by hydrothermal and postheat treatments," *J. Solid-State Chem.*, vol. 178, pp. 2179–2185, 2005.
- [11] X. W. Zhang, J. H. Pan, and A. J. Du *et al.*, "Aggregating TiO<sub>2</sub>(B) nanowires to porous basketry-like microspheres and their photocatalytic properties," *Chem. Lett.*, vol. 37, pp. 424–425, 2008.
- [12] P. A. Pella, "Generator for producing trace vapor concentrations of 2, 4, 6-trinitrotoluene, 2, 4-dinitrotoluene, and ethylene-glycol dinitrate for calibrating explosives vapor detectors," *Anal. Chem.*, vol. 48, pp. 1632–1637, 1976.
- [13] S. Ahlers, G. Muller, and T. Doll, "A rate equation approach to the gas sensitivity of thin film metal oxide materials," *Sens. Actuators B—Chem.*, vol. 107, pp. 587–599, 2005.
- [14] Existing and Potential Standoff Explosives Detection Techniques. Washington, DC: National Academies Press, 2004.
- [15] J. Yinon, "Trace analysis of explosives in water by gas chromatography mass spectrometry with a temperature-programmed injector," J. Chromatogr. A, vol. 742, pp. 205–209, 1996.

- [16] M. W. Ahn, K. S. Park, and J. H. Heo *et al.*, "Gas sensing properties of defect-controlled ZnO-nanowire gas sensor," *Appl. Phys. Lett.*, vol. 93, p. 263103, 2008.
- [17] T. J. Hsueh, S. J. Chang, and C. L. Hsu *et al.*, "Highly sensitive ZnO nanowire ethanol sensor with Pd adsorption," *Appl. Phys. Lett.*, vol. 91, p. 053111, 2007.
- [18] C. Y. Lu, S. P. Chang, and S. J. Chang *et al.*, "ZnO Nanowire-based oxygen gas sensor," *IEEE Sensors J.*, vol. 9, pp. 485–489, 2009.
- [19] Y. J. Choi, I. S. Hwang, and J. G. Park *et al.*, "Novel fabrication of an SnO<sub>2</sub> nanowire gas sensor with high sensitivity," *Nanotechnol.*, vol. 19, p. 095508, 2008.
- [20] B. Deb, S. Desai, and G. U. Sumanasekera *et al.*, "Gas sensing behaviour of mat-like networked tungsten oxide nanowire thin films," *Nanotechnol.*, vol. 18, p. 285501, 2007.
- [21] L. O. Peres and J. Gruber, "The use of block copolymers containing PPV in gas sensors for electronic noses," *Mater. Sci. Eng. C-Biomimetic and Supramolecular Syst.*, vol. 27, pp. 67–69, 2007.
- [22] G. Jimenez-Cadena, J. Riu, and F. X. Rius, "Gas sensors based on nanostructured materials," *Analyst*, vol. 132, pp. 1083–1099, 2007.
- [23] G. Wang, Q. Wang, and W. Lu *et al.*, "Photoelectrochemical study on charge transfer properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> – B nanowires with an application as humidity sensors," *J. Phys. Chem. B*, vol. 110, pp. 22029–22034, 2006.
- [24] G. Munuera, V. Rivesarnau, and A. Saucedo, "Photo-adsorption and photo-desorption of oxygen on highly hydroxylated TiO<sub>2</sub> surfaces. 1. Role of hydroxyl-groups in photo-adsorption," *J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. I*, vol. 75, pp. 736–747, 1979.
- [25] M. D. Earle, "The electrical conductivity of titanium dioxide," *Phys. Rev.*, vol. 61, pp. 56–62, 1942.
- [26] M. Gratzel, "Photoelectrochemical cells," *Nature*, vol. 414, pp. 338–344, 2001.
- [27] M. H. Seo, M. Yuasa, and T. Kida *et al.*, "Gas sensing characteristics and porosity control of nanostructured films composed of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes," *Sens. Actuators B—Chem.*, vol. 137, pp. 513–520, 2009.
- [28] A. Rothschild and Y. Komem, "The effect of grain size on the sensitivity of nanocrystalline metal-oxide gas sensors," J. Appl. Phys., vol. 95, pp. 6374–6380, 2004.



**Danling L. Wang** graduated from the Department of Physics, Peking University, Beijing, China. She is currently a graduate student at the Department of Electrical Engineering, University of Washington, Seattle.

Her research is mainly focused on chemical sensors with nanostructured thin films.



Antao T. Chen (M'02) received the B.S. and M.Eng. degrees from Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing, China, in 1983 and 1989, respectively, and the M.S. and Ph.D. degrees from the University of Southern California, Los Angeles, in 1995 and 1998, respectively.

From 1983 to 1986, he was a Lens Designer for State Northwestern Optical Instrument Corporation, Xi'an, China. From 1989 to 1993, he was Staff Research Engineer with the Chinese Academy of Electronics and Information Technology, Beijing.

He joined Lucent Bell Labs Optoelectronics Center as a Member of Technical Staff in 1998 and became a Distinguished Member of Technical Staff in 2001. Since 2004, he has been a Senior Staff Scientist and Associate Professor with University of Washington, Seattle. His research area includes free space, integrated and fiber optics for information transmission and processing, chemical and environmental sensing, microfabrication, and propagation and scattering of terahertz waves, especially those involving electrooptic materials and polymers.

Dr. Chen is a winner of the 1999 Bell Labs President Gold Award and the 2001 Photonics Circle of Excellence Award.



**Qifeng F. Zhang** is currently working at the University of Washington, Seattle, as a Research Assistant Professor. His research interests include engineering applications of nanostructured materials in electronic devices including the solar cells, UV light-emitting diodes (LEDs), field-effect transistors (FETs), and gas sensors.



**Guozhong Z. Cao** received the B.S. degree from the East China University of Science and Technology, the M.S. degree from the Shanghai Institute of Ceramics of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai, China, and the Ph.D. degree from the Eindhoven University of Technology, Eindhoven, The Netherlands.

He is a Boeing-Steiner Professor of Materials Science and Engineering at the University of Washington, Seattle. He has published over 250 refereed papers and authored and edited seven books and four conference proceedings. His current research

is focused mainly on nanomaterials for energy related applications including solar cells, lithium-ion batteries, supercapacitors, and hydrogen storage