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# SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructural gas sensor with high response and selectivity to parts-per-billion-level NO<sub>2</sub> at low operating temperature†

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Considering the harmfulness of nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), it is important to develop NO<sub>2</sub> sensors with high responses and low limits of detection. In this study, we synthesize a novel SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure through a one-step solvothermal method, which is used for the first time as an NO<sub>2</sub> sensor. The material exhibits three-dimensional flower-like microparticles assembled by two-dimensional nanosheets, *in situ*-formed SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructures, and large specific surface area. Gas sensing measurements show that the responses of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure to 500 ppb NO<sub>2</sub> are as high as 657.4 and 63.4 while its limits of detection are as low as 2.5 and 10 parts per billion at 75 °C and ambient temperature, respectively. In addition, the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure has an excellent selectivity to NO<sub>2</sub>, even if exposed to mixture gases containing interferential part with high concentration. The superior sensing properties can be attributed to the *in situ* formation of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> p–n heterojunctions and large specific surface area. Therefore, the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure having excellent NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performances is very promising for applications as an NO<sub>2</sub> sensor or alarm operated at a low operating temperature.

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## 1. Introduction

Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) is one of the most harmful air pollutants, which can cause the formation of acid rain, photochemical smog, and ozone in the atmosphere. It can also cause chronic bronchitis, emphysema, and respiratory irritation even at a small concentration.<sup>1–3</sup> The annual, daily, and hourly safe concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> are approximately 21.2, 42.4, and 106.0 parts per billion (ppb), respectively, according to the Chinese ambient air quality standard (GB3095-2012). Therefore, it is important to develop NO<sub>2</sub> sensors with high sensitivities and low limits of detection for environment and human health protection.

Metal oxide sensors are widely used for gas sensing owing to their high sensitivities, low costs, simple fabrications, and long-term stabilities.<sup>4</sup> Various NO<sub>2</sub> sensors have been developed based on different metal oxides, such as WO<sub>3</sub>, ZnO, In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, NiO, and SnO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>5–8</sup> Among these metal oxides, SnO<sub>2</sub> is one of the most investigated materials owing to its excellent thermal and chemical stabilities,<sup>9</sup> and thus has been used for the detection of

different gases with various morphological or chemical modifications.<sup>10–17</sup> SnO<sub>2</sub> is a wide-band-gap (~3.6 eV) n-type semiconductor with an oxidation state of +4. In addition to SnO<sub>2</sub>, tin oxides with other oxygen stoichiometries, such as SnO, Sn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>,<sup>18</sup> Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>,<sup>19</sup> and Sn<sub>5</sub>O<sub>6</sub>,<sup>20</sup> exist. Among these tin oxides, SnO and Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> have also been used as gas sensing materials.<sup>21–24</sup> Suman compared the NO<sub>2</sub> sensing properties of SnO<sub>2</sub>, SnO, and Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanobelts synthesized by carbothermal reduction. The Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and SnO nanobelts exhibited better responses to NO<sub>2</sub> than that of SnO<sub>2</sub>, which could be attributed to lone pairs on the surfaces of Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and SnO, providing more active sites for NO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>9</sup>

The formation of a p–n heterostructure is an effective method to improve the gas sensing capabilities of metal oxide gas sensors. The p–n heterostructures can adjust the electronic and chemical properties through chemical bonding and charge transfer at the interface and thus improve the gas sensing performance.<sup>25,26</sup> Numerous studies have been reported on improvements in gas sensing properties by the formation of p–n heterostructures including CuO–SnO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>27</sup> CuO–In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>,<sup>28</sup> CuO–ZnO,<sup>29</sup> Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>–SnO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>30</sup> and NiO–SnO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>31</sup> Owing to the differences in semiconductor type and bandwidth of tin oxides, they can form p–n heterojunctions and increase the gas sensing performances. Li fabricated a SnO<sub>2</sub>–SnO nanostructure with a p–n heterojunction through a simple hydrothermal process.<sup>32</sup> The SnO<sub>2</sub>–SnO composite exhibited an increased sensing performance for NO<sub>2</sub> detection with a low limit of detection, low operating temperature (50 °C), and high sensing selectivity. Yu

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fabricated a SnO–SnO<sub>2</sub> p–n heterostructure by simple hydrothermal and annealing processes.<sup>33</sup> The p–n heterostructural sensor exhibited excellent performances for NO<sub>2</sub> sensing at room temperature including a fast response, high sensitivity, and low limit of detection with a stable and repeatable response pattern. Shanmugasundaram synthesized SnO–SnO<sub>2</sub> composites with *in situ* p–n heterojunctions by a simple hydrothermal method.<sup>34</sup> The sensor response, selectivity, and sensitivity to H<sub>2</sub> were improved by the heterostructure and its optimal operating temperature was considerably lower than that of pure SnO<sub>2</sub>. In these studies, the p–n heterojunctions played important roles in the sensing performance improvements. The p–n heterojunction formed at the SnO–SnO<sub>2</sub> interface narrowed the forbidden band, promoting the transition of electrons, which contributed to the enhancement in gas sensing performance. Although the SnO–SnO<sub>2</sub> p–n heterostructure had good NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performances at low temperatures, the response was not sufficiently high, which hinders its use for the detection of a low concentration of NO<sub>2</sub>.

Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is an n-type semiconductor with a band gap of 2.2–2.9 eV,<sup>21</sup> narrower than that of SnO<sub>2</sub>. If Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is used to replace SnO<sub>2</sub> to form a SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure, the forbidden band will be further narrowed and the transition of electrons will be further enhanced, which will improve the NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance. Furthermore, the lone pair electrons on the surface of Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> help the adsorption of NO<sub>2</sub> and enhance the response. Zeng used Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> modified hierarchical SnO<sub>2</sub>, the electron injection from Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to SnO<sub>2</sub> played an important role in the improvement of NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance.<sup>35</sup> Therefore, the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure is likely to exhibit an outstanding NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance.

In this study, we synthesized a novel SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure through a simple one-step solvothermal method and for the first time evaluated its use as an NO<sub>2</sub> sensor. Its micro-morphology, crystal structure, and chemical composition were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), atomic and electrostatic force microscopy (AFM and EFM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). Furthermore, its gas sensing performances for NO<sub>2</sub> and other contrast gases were investigated. The SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure exhibited excellent responses to a ppb level of NO<sub>2</sub> at its optimal operating temperature of 75 °C and ambient temperature. Moreover, the limits of detection of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure were as low as 2.5 and 10 ppb at 75 °C and ambient temperature, respectively. In addition, the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure exhibited an excellent selectivity to NO<sub>2</sub>, even if in a mixture with interferential gases in high concentration. The possible sensing mechanism is discussed. The main factors for the enhancements were attributed to the formation of p–n heterojunctions and large specific surface area of the material.

## 2. Experiments

### 2.1 Material synthesis

All chemicals used in this study were of analytical grade and used as received without further purification. Stannous chloride

dihydrate (SnCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O) was purchased from Aladdin Regent Co., Ltd., while urea (CO(NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>), sodium hydroxide (NaOH), and absolute ethyl alcohol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH) were purchased from Kelon Chemical.

The SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure was synthesized by a simple solvothermal process. In a typical synthesis procedure, 1.536 g of NaOH, 1.280 g of urea, and 0.723 g of SnCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O were sequentially added to a mixture solvent consisting of 25 mL of absolute ethyl alcohol and 55 mL of deionized water under moderate stirring. After the stirring for 3 h, the solution was transferred into a 100 mL teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and the solvothermal process was performed at 180 °C for 18 h. The precipitates were collected and consecutively washed six times by deionized water and absolute ethyl alcohol by centrifugation (10 000 rpm). The collected product was dried at 60 °C for 10 h in a drying oven to obtain the as-prepared sample. To evaluate the influence of the composition on the sensing performance, as-prepared samples were calcined at 550 and 700 °C under ambient atmosphere for 2 h, yielding two other samples.

### 2.2 Characterization

The composition and crystalline structure of the sample were characterized by powder XRD using a Bruker D2 Phaser in the 2θ range of 10–80° with Cu Kα irradiation at 30 kV. XPS was performed using an ESCALA B250Xi spectrometer with a monochromatic Al excitation source. Its morphology was observed using field-emission SEM (Hitachi S5200) at an accelerating voltage of 5 kV. High-resolution (HR) morphology images and selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns were acquired by using TEM (FEI Tecnai G2 F20) at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. More detailed information of phase distribution was obtained through atomic and electrostatic force microscopy (AFM and EFM) measurements by using a MFP-3D-SA microscopy. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) specific surface areas and pore size distributions of the samples were measured using an Autosorb-IQ2 analyzer. Ultraviolet (UV)-visible spectra were acquired using an SP-756 analyzer.

### 2.3 Fabrication and evaluation of the gas sensor

A spot of the prepared sample was mixed with a drop of deionized water using a mortar to form a homogeneous paste. The paste was uniformly coated on top of a gas sensor component, and then assembled into a gas sensor (Fig. S1†). The thickness of the sensing film was about 10–15 μm. Before the evaluation, the gas sensors were aged for 10 days at approximately 150 °C (heating current of 70 mA, heating resistance of 53 ± 5 Ω at ambient temperature). SnO was reported to be stable below 370 °C,<sup>36</sup> so the aging process would not change the phase of sensing materials. After the aging, the gas sensing performances of the sensor were evaluated using a CGS-8 intelligent gas sensing analysis system (Beijing Elite Co., Ltd., China) under laboratory conditions (approximately 25 ± 3 °C, relative humidity in the range of 50% to 60%). Static sensing test was used to evaluate the sensing performance of the sensors by injecting a certain volume of 5000 ppm standard NO<sub>2</sub> into a gas



sensor chamber whose volume was 1 L. The operating temperature of the sensor was controlled by adjusting the heating current. The measurement circuit used in the experiments is shown in Fig. S2.† The response ( $R$ ) of the gas sensor was defined as the ratio of the sensor resistance in the gas ( $R_g$ ) to that in the air ( $R_a$ ) for oxidizing gases ( $R = R_g/R_a$ ), such as  $\text{NO}_2$ , and inversely for reductive gases ( $R = R_a/R_g$ ), such as volatile organic compounds (VOCs). The response and recovery times ( $t_{\text{res}}$  and  $t_{\text{rec}}$ ) were defined as the times to achieve 90% of the total resistance changes in the response and recovery, respectively.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1 X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns

The compositions and crystalline structures of the samples were characterized by XRD, as shown in Fig. 1. The as-prepared sample was composed of SnO (Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS) no. 06-0395, marked by ●) and  $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$  (JCPDS no. 16-0737, marked by ◆). The (002) and (001) peaks of SnO are the first and second highest in the pattern, respectively, showing the dominant SnO phase in the sample. Compared with the standard diffraction pattern (JCPDS no. 06-0395), the (002) and (001) peaks of SnO in the pattern of the as-prepared sample are the two highest peaks, rather than the (101) and (110) peaks. This suggests that the formed SnO phase in the as-prepared sample is predominated by exposed (002) and (001) facets. The peaks of  $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$  are observed in the range of  $26\text{--}34^\circ$  (bottom inset in Fig. 1), but their intensities are considerably lower than those of SnO. The XRD results show the SnO– $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$  composition of the as-prepared sample. After the calcination at  $550^\circ\text{C}$ , the peaks of SnO are vanished and replaced by those of  $\text{SnO}_2$  (JCPDS no. 41-1445, marked by ■). This transition in the XRD pattern demonstrates the decomposition and oxidation of SnO into  $\text{SnO}_2$ .<sup>19,37</sup> Although the  $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$  peaks are decreased, they can still be distinguished, as shown in the top inset in Fig. 1. This shows the  $\text{SnO}_2$ – $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$

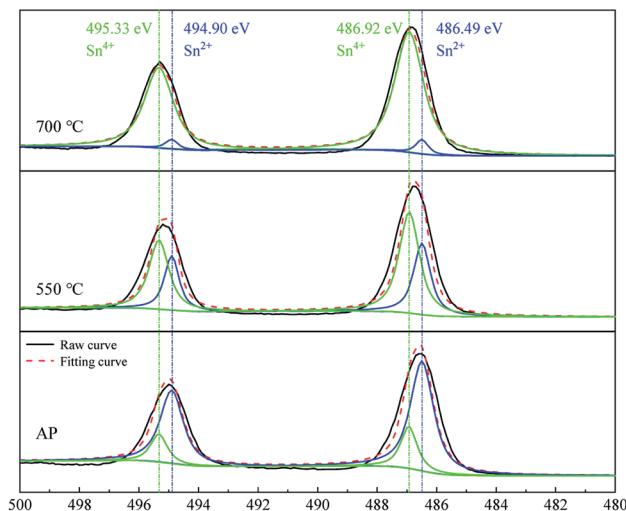


Fig. 2 HR Sn 3d X-ray photo electron spectrum of the samples.

composition of the sample calcined at  $550^\circ\text{C}$ . After the calcination at  $700^\circ\text{C}$ , only the  $\text{SnO}_2$  peaks can be distinguished in the XRD pattern, showing that SnO and  $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$  entirely decomposed and oxidized into  $\text{SnO}_2$ .

#### 3.2 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

The chemical compositions and oxidation states of the samples were further characterized by XPS. Fig. S3† presents a full-scan X-ray photo electron spectrum of the as-prepared sample, showing the characteristic peaks of Sn, O, and C without other impurities. To understand the valence states of the tin element, the HR Sn 3d spectrum was analyzed, as shown in Fig. 2. The deconvolution of the spectrum yielded four Gaussian peaks. The fitted peaks at 495.33 and 486.92 eV correspond to the  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  state, while those at 494.90 and 486.49 eV correspond to the  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  state. For the as-prepared sample, the peak area of  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  is larger than that of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$ , which demonstrates the domination of  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  state. This is consistent with the XRD results, further confirming the phase composition of major SnO and minor  $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$ . The ratio of the peak areas between  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  is 3.67, and the calculated mole ratio of SnO to  $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$  is 1.67 (a  $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$  unit cell contain two  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  and one  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  atoms<sup>38</sup>). After the calcination at  $550^\circ\text{C}$ , the peaks are shifted to higher binding energies and those of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  are dominant. After the calcination at  $700^\circ\text{C}$ , the peaks are further shifted to higher binding energies, which well match with the binding energies of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$ , while the peaks of  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  are almost vanished. The XPS results of the Sn-related states obtained in this experiment demonstrate the transition of  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  during the calcination, consistent with the XRD results.

#### 3.3 Morphological evaluation

The morphologies of the samples were characterized by field-emission SEM, as shown in Fig. 3. Fig. 3(a) and (b) show field-emission SEM images of the as-prepared sample. The material is composed of microparticles with diameters of 2 to 4  $\mu\text{m}$ . The

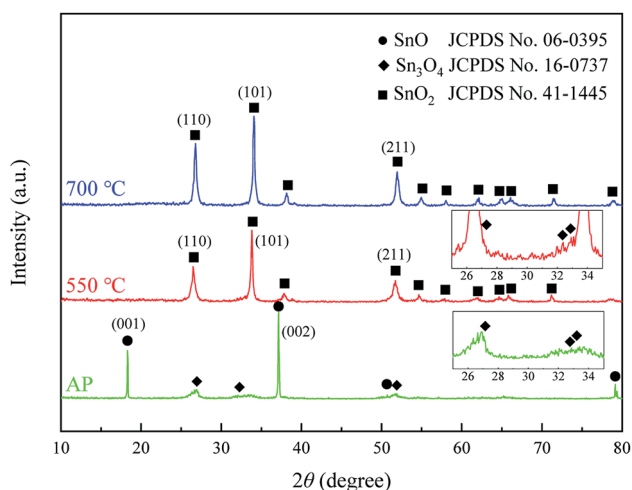


Fig. 1 XRD patterns of the as-prepared sample (denoted as AP) and samples calcined at 550 and  $700^\circ\text{C}$ .



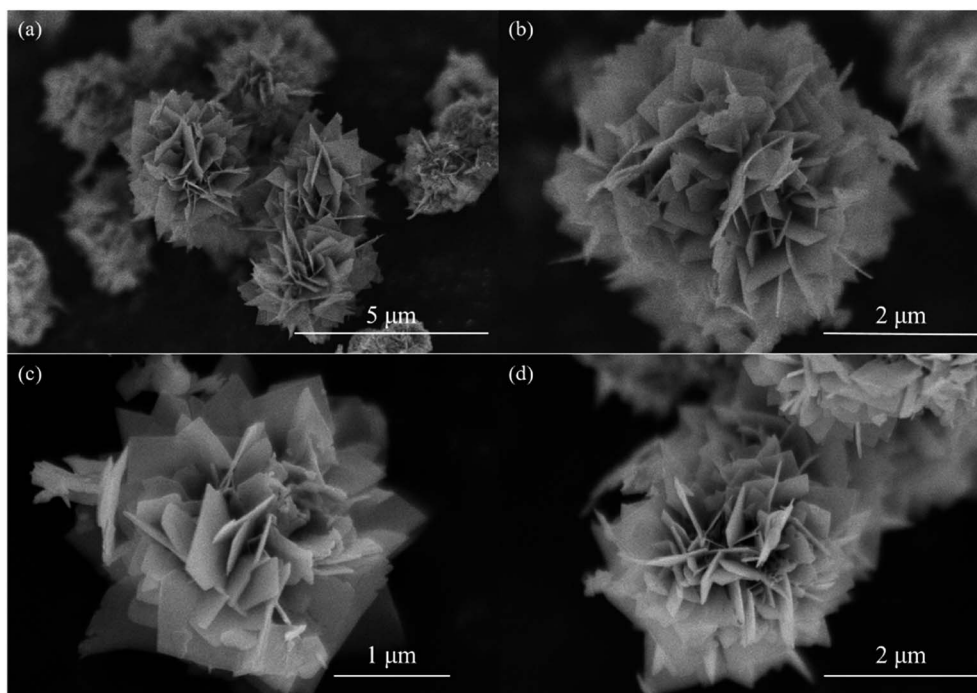


Fig. 3 SEM images of (a) and (b) as-prepared sample; (c) sample calcined at 550 °C; (d) sample calcined at 700 °C.

microparticles consist of large numbers of two-dimensional nanosheets and have flower-like morphologies. The microparticles exhibit a two-three-dimensional (2–3D) hierarchical structure (*i.e.*, the 2D nanosheets are assembled into 3D microparticles).<sup>39</sup> After the calcinations at 550 and 700 °C, the morphologies maintain the 2–3D hierarchical structure and are similar with that of the sample obtained without calcination. This implies that the calcination has no considerable effect on the morphology.

TEM and HRTEM images and SAED pattern were acquired to investigate the microstructure of the as-prepared sample, as shown in Fig. 4. In Fig. 4(a), the peripheral nanosheets can be

distinguished; the thicknesses of the nanosheets are approximately 30 nm. The HRTEM image and SAED pattern in Fig. 4(b) show further structural information about the microparticles. In the HRTEM image, the lattice fringes with interplanar crystal spacings of 0.3652 and 0.3297 nm correspond to the (101) and (111) planes of the  $\text{Sn}_3\text{O}_4$  structure (JCPDS no. 16-0737), respectively. Lattice fringes with an interplanar crystal spacing of 0.2689 nm corresponding to the (110) planes of the tetragonal  $\text{SnO}$  structure (JCPDS no. 06-0395) are also observed. These two different phases exist at one nanosheet together, and contact with each other, form heterojunctions on the nanosheets *in situ*. Therefore, the as-prepared sample exhibited a  $\text{SnO-Sn}_3\text{O}_4$

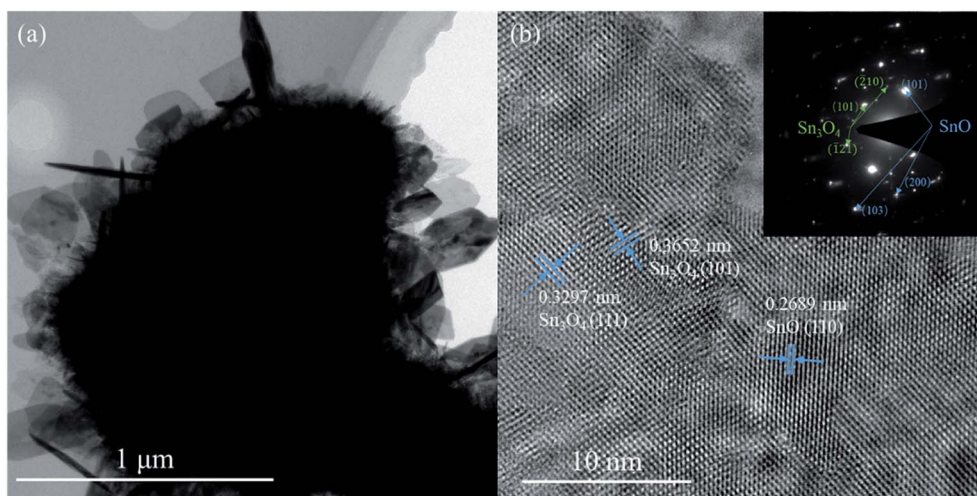


Fig. 4 (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images and SAED pattern of the as-prepared sample.



heterostructure. The inset in Fig. 4(b) shows a SAED pattern of the as-prepared sample. SnO and Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> crystalline phases could be distinguished, confirming the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure of the material.

AFM measurement and EFM measurement with a bias voltage of 10 V were carried out to distinguish the different phases on the nanosheet more intuitively, the results are shown in Fig. 5. Before the measurement, the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composite was grinded and dispersed on ITO glass. It can be found that the ITO substrate is mostly white in EFM image (Fig. 5(b)) by comparing with corresponding AFM image (Fig. 5(a)), illustrating its electroconductibility. Whereas, the image of the nanosheet in Fig. 5(b) exhibits mostly black with a small part of white. This phenomenon is much more clear in the comparison of Fig. 5(c) and (d), and the white part in Fig. 5(d) correspond well to the projecting part in Fig. 5(c). This means the nanosheet contains major insulating phase and minor conductive phase. Considering the high resistance of SnO<sup>40,41</sup> and the phase ratio indicated by XRD, the black and white part in EFM image may well be SnO and Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, respectively. This result further illustrates the distribution of SnO and Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> phase and the *in situ* formation of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterojunctions.

### 3.4 Gas sensing performance

The operating temperature is an important parameter of metal oxide sensors. The responses of the samples to 500 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub>

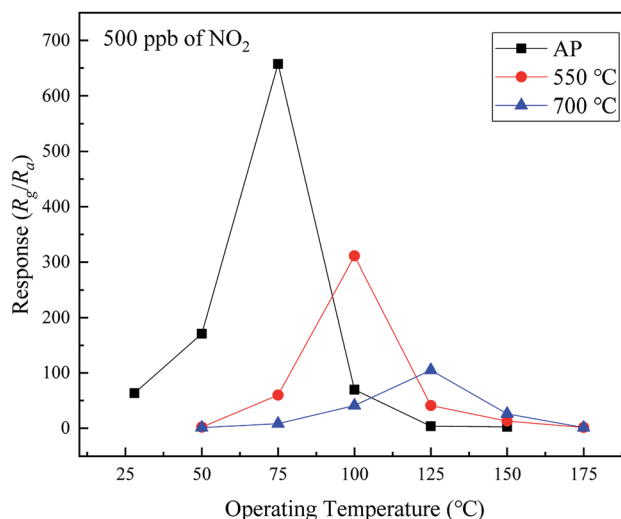


Fig. 6 Responses of the samples to 500 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub> as a function of the operating temperature.

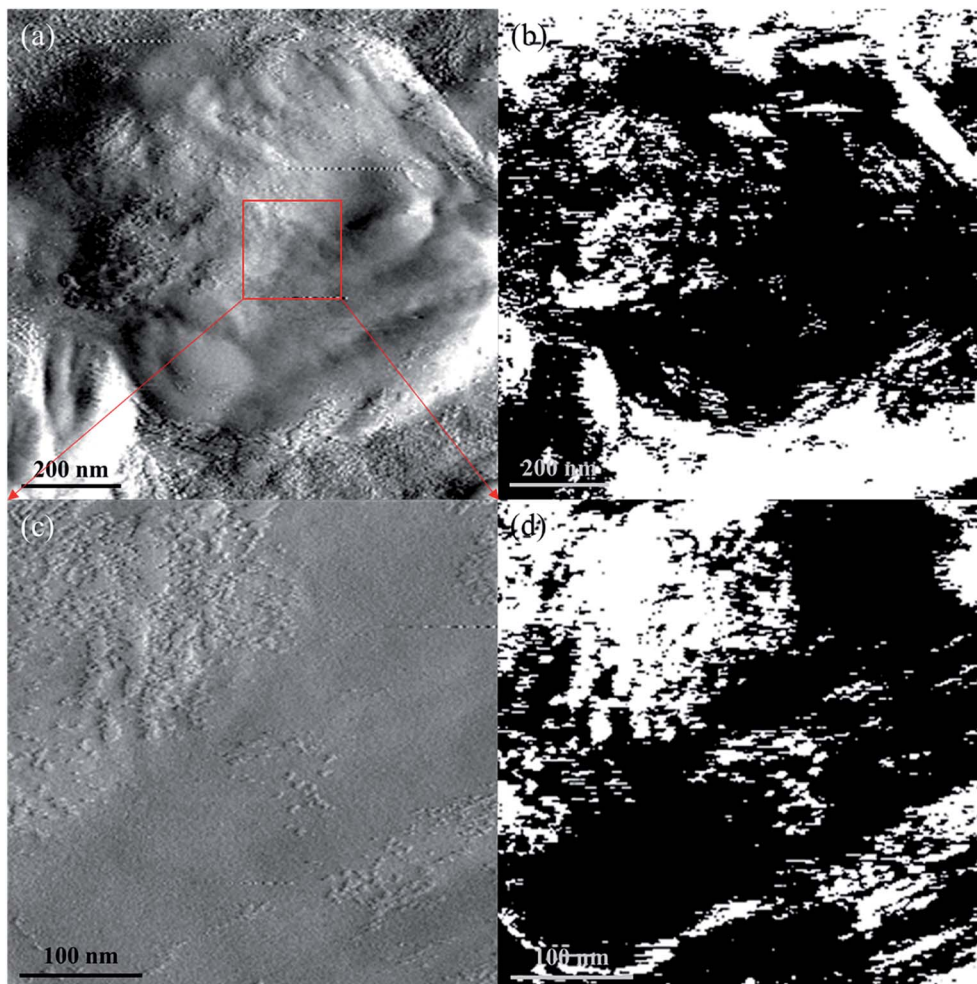


Fig. 5 AFM ((a) and (c)) and corresponding EFM ((b) and (d)) image of a nanosheet.

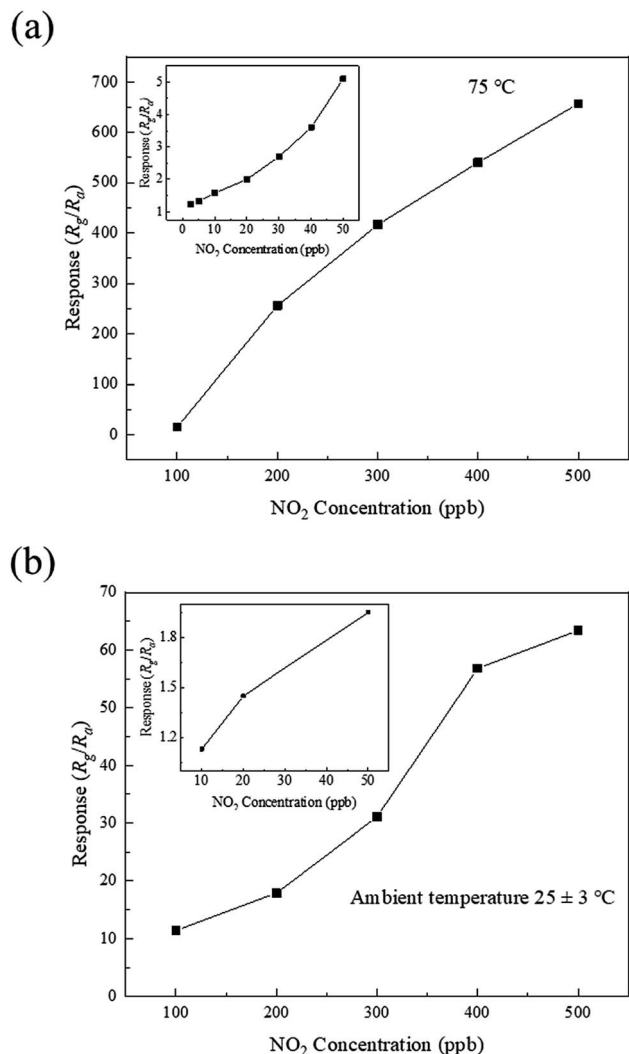


Fig. 7 Responses of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure as a function of the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration at (a) 75 °C and (b) ambient temperature.

as a function of the operating temperature in the range of ambient temperature to 175 °C were evaluated, as shown in Fig. 6. The response of each sample increases, reaching the

maximum at a certain temperature, followed by decrease with the increase in the operating temperature. The samples exhibit different optimal operating temperatures corresponding to the highest responses (75, 100, and 125 °C for the as-prepared and 550 and 700 °C calcined samples, respectively). The highest responses of the samples are 657.4, 311.2, and 104.9, respectively. Therefore, the composition of the sample has a significant influence on its response to NO<sub>2</sub>. The response of the as-prepared sample (SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure) is considerably higher than those of the two other samples. It is worth noting that the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure has a response of 63.4 at ambient temperature (28 °C), which is a relatively high value.

To investigate the NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure, the responses as a function of the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration at 75 °C and ambient temperature were evaluated, as shown in Fig. 7. As shown in Fig. 7(a), the response is high and increases with the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration (416.6, 540.1, and 657.4 at 300, 400, and 500 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub> at 75 °C, respectively). Owing to the very large resistance, the response to NO<sub>2</sub> above 500 ppb was hard to gauge. The inset in Fig. 7(a) shows the response to NO<sub>2</sub> in the range of 2.5 to 50 ppb. When the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration is as low as 2.5 ppb, the response is still 1.23, which can be easily discerned (the resistance curve of this test is shown in Fig. S4†). This implies that the detection limit of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure is as low as 2.5 ppb, which is a relatively low concentration. These results reveal the excellent NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure. Fig. 7(b) shows the responses at ambient temperature in the range of 50 to 500 ppb (31.1, 56.8, and 63.4 at 300, 400, and 500 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub>, respectively). The response to 10 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub> at ambient temperature is 1.13, which implies that the limit of detection at ambient temperature is as low as 10 ppb. Comparison of the NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performances of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure analyzed in this study and those in previous studies is shown in Table 1. The SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure exhibits a high response and low limit of detection of NO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure has an excellent NO<sub>2</sub> sensing response and very low limit of detection, not only at its optimal operating temperature of 75 °C, but also at ambient temperature. The low operating temperature is

Table 1 Comparison of the NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance with those in previous reports

Material	Operating temperature	NO <sub>2</sub> concentration	Response	Limit of detection	Reference
SnO–SnO <sub>2</sub>	RT <sup>a</sup>	1 ppm	4.68	0.1 ppm	33
SnO <sub>2</sub> –SnO	50 °C	50 ppm	8	0.1 ppm	32
SnO <sub>2</sub> –ZnO	RT UV-enhanced	1 ppm	2.4	—	42
TeO <sub>2</sub> –SnO <sub>2</sub>	RT	3 ppm	9.97	—	43
WS <sub>2</sub> –carbon nanofibers	RT	5 ppm	20.5%	10 ppb	44
α-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /rGO <sup>b</sup>	RT	5 ppm	8.2	50 ppb	45
In <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /rGO	RT	30 ppm	8.25	—	46
Te nanotube	RT	1 ppm	30.5%	0.5 ppb	47
LaFeO <sub>3</sub> nanocube	RT	1 ppm	29.60	—	48
rGO/SnO <sub>2</sub> nanosheet	RT	100 ppm	2.87	1 ppm	49
SnO–Sn <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	RT	500 ppb	63.4	10 ppb	This study
	75 °C		657.4	2.5 ppb	

<sup>a</sup> RT: room temperature. <sup>b</sup> rGO: reduced graphene oxide.





advantageous for a low energy consumption and reduced tendency for ignition, which is favorable for an increase in the service lifetime.

The resistances of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure upon exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> in the range of 200 to 500 ppb at 75 °C and ambient temperature (28 °C) are shown in Fig. 8. The response ( $t_{\text{res}}$ ) and recovery ( $t_{\text{rec}}$ ) times are also shown in Fig. 8. At its optimal operating temperature, the response and recovery times of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure decrease with the increase in the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration. At 500 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub>, the response and recovery times are 178 and 87 s, respectively. At ambient temperature, the response time decreases with the increase in the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration and stabilizes around 2.5 min, which shows the quick response of the NO<sub>2</sub> sensor operated at room temperature. Nevertheless, the recovery time is much more than 20 minutes, which is a common problem for the sensors running at ambient temperature.

The selectivity is another important characteristic of metal oxide sensors. Comparison of the responses to NO<sub>2</sub> and other contrast gases is shown in Fig. 9. The responses of the contrast

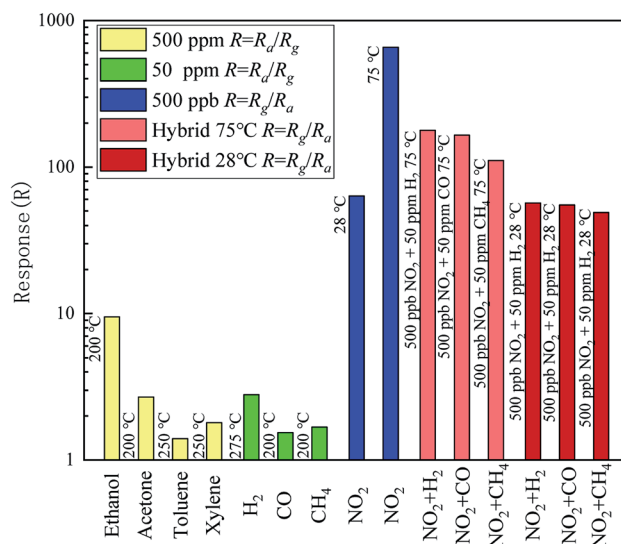


Fig. 9 Selectivity of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure.

gases were measured at corresponding optimal operating temperatures, which are shown at the left of relevant bar. All the optimal operating temperatures of contrastive gases are not less than 200 °C, much higher than that of NO<sub>2</sub>. The concentrations of the used VOCs were 500 ppm, while those of the other reductive gases (H<sub>2</sub>, CO, and CH<sub>4</sub>) were 50 ppm. The concentrations of all contrast gases were considerably higher than that of NO<sub>2</sub>. Nevertheless, the response of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure to NO<sub>2</sub> is hundreds or tens of times larger. What the most noteworthy is, when exposed to mixed gases consist of 500 ppb NO<sub>2</sub> and 50 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub> at 75 °C, the responses are still as high as 178.1, 165.1 and 110.9, respectively. Furthermore, when exposed to mixed gases at 28 °C, the responses of the sensor decrease just slightly compared with pure NO<sub>2</sub>, illustrating that these reductive gases almost have no interference on NO<sub>2</sub> sensing at ambient temperature. These results demonstrate the excellent selectivity of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure to NO<sub>2</sub>, even if exposed to mixture gases containing interferential part in high concentration.

The short-term and long-term stability of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure were also been tested, as shown in Fig. 10. Fig. 10(a) and (b) illustrate the resistance curve of the sensor by repetitive exposing to 100 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub> five times at 75 and 25 °C, respectively. It is clearly that all of the five resistance tracks in both figures are similar and have almost the same peak value, revealing the good reversibility of the sensor. The continuous measurement of the response of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure to 500 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub> at 75 °C and ambient temperature for about 30 days were investigated and the results are shown in Fig. 10(c). Both of the deviations of the responses at two different work temperature are less than 5%, exhibiting good long-term stability. These experiments demonstrate the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure possesses good repeatability and stability.

This systematic analysis demonstrates the excellent NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performances of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure including very high response, low limits of detection, and excellent selectivity to a ppb level of NO<sub>2</sub> at 75 °C and ambient

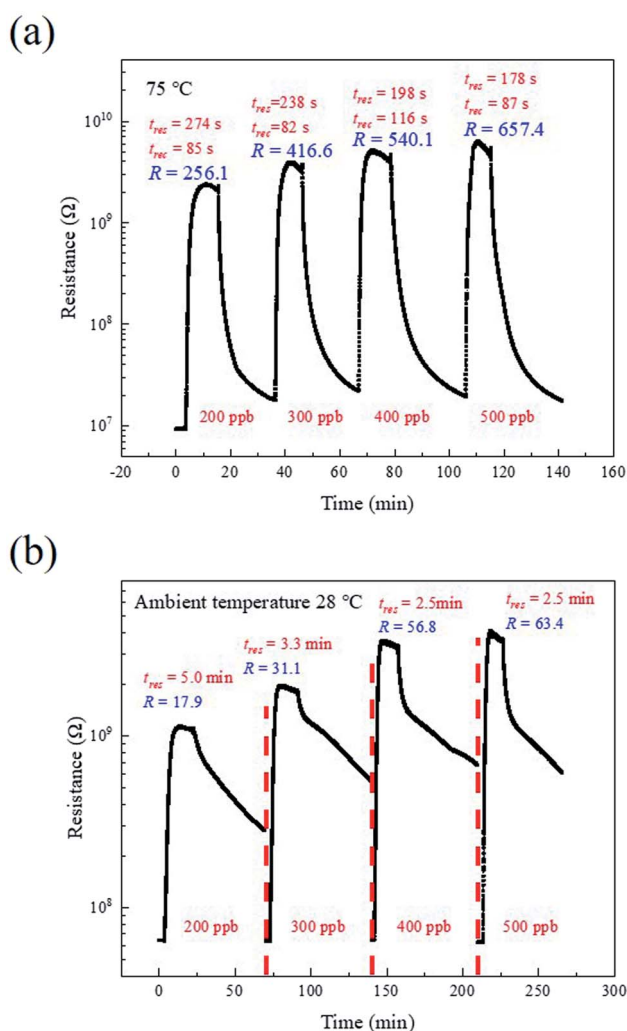


Fig. 8 Actual resistance curves of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure at (a) 75 °C and (b) ambient temperature (28 °C).



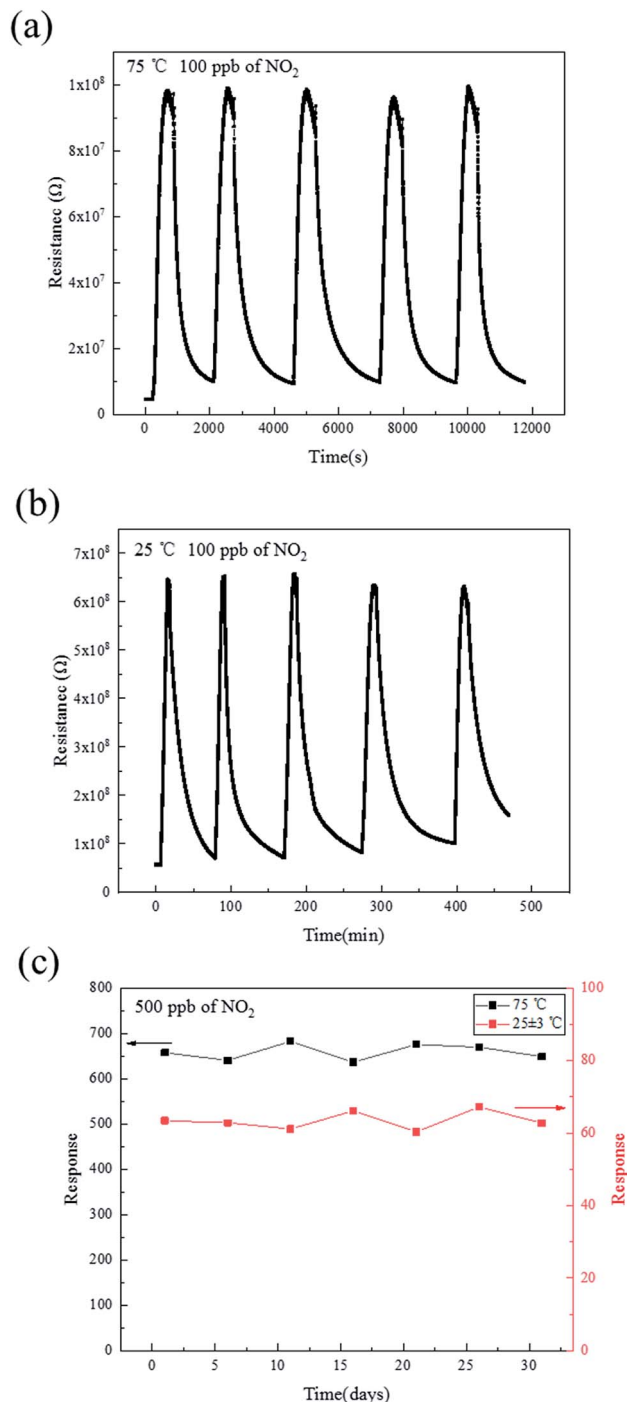


Fig. 10 Repeatability curve of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure at (a) 75 °C and (b) 25 °C; (c) long-term stability of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure at 75 °C and ambient temperature.

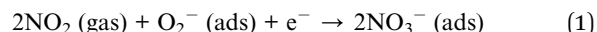
temperature. Therefore, the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure is very promising as an NO<sub>2</sub> sensor or alarm operated at a low or ambient temperature.

### 3.5 Sensing mechanism

The gas sensing mechanism of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure can be explained by common adsorption–oxidation–desorption pathway. When the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure is exposed to

clean air, O<sub>2</sub> molecules adsorb on the surface by extracting electrons from the conduction band and form oxygen anions (mainly O<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup> at a low temperature<sup>50</sup>), yielding an electron depletion layer on the surface. The width of the depletion layer does not change after the adsorption of O<sub>2</sub> is saturated.<sup>51</sup> Once the sensor is exposed to NO<sub>2</sub> gas, NO<sub>2</sub> molecules adsorb on the surface by extracting electrons from the conduction bands or interacting with the chemisorbed oxygen on the surface.<sup>33,52</sup> To figure out the truly reactions, FTIR was used to distinguish the adsorbate on SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure after the reaction of adsorbing NO<sub>2</sub>, the results are shown in Fig. 11.

This figure shows the FTIR spectra of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in air and atmosphere of 1% NO<sub>2</sub> at room temperature. Both of these two curve have band at 1630 and 3421 cm<sup>−1</sup>, which can be assigned to H<sub>2</sub>O in the sample. Also both of them have four peaks at 481, 532, 582 and 634 cm<sup>−1</sup>, which can be ascribed to Sn–O vibration.<sup>53,54</sup> After adsorption in 1% NO<sub>2</sub>, a peak around 1384 cm<sup>−1</sup> appears, which can be assigned to adsorbed NO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>55</sup> According to previous research,<sup>56</sup> this peak is most likely to be NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>. So the product of NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> at room temperature should be NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> here. The reaction equation should be<sup>45,57</sup>



This result proves that the product of NO<sub>2</sub> adsorbing, at least at room temperature, is NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>. This reaction consumes large numbers of electrons and increase the thickness of the depletion layer, thus increasing the potential barrier together with the sensor resistance. When the sensor is exposed to clean air again, NO<sub>2</sub> molecules desorb from the surface and release the captured electrons back to the material, leading to the recovery of the sensor resistance.

The SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure exhibited a very high response at relatively low operating temperature, which might be attributed to the following factors. Firstly, the formation of p–n heterojunctions at the SnO and Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> interfaces could be

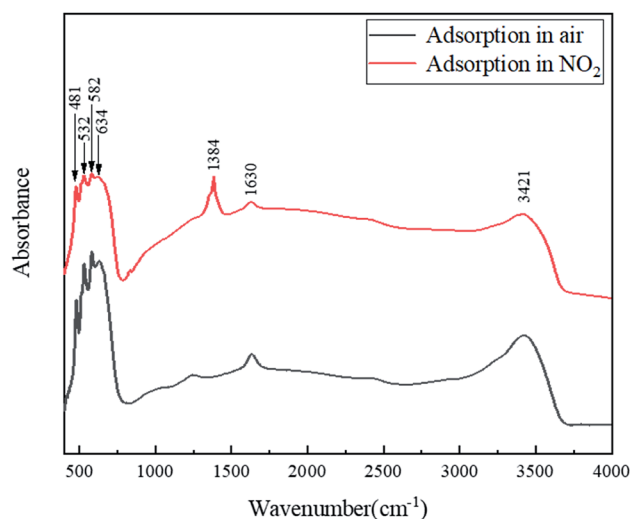


Fig. 11 FTIR spectrum of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure after adsorption in air and NO<sub>2</sub>.



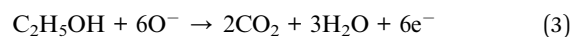
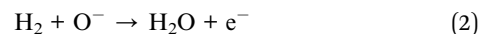


the primary factor contributing to the high response and low operating temperature. A plot of  $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$  against the photon energy ( $h\nu$ ) for the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure and its energy structure schematic diagram are shown in Fig. 12(a) and (b), respectively. The formation of the heterojunction leads to bending of the forbidden bands to equilibrate the Fermi level ( $E_F$ ) between the SnO and Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> band gaps, the electrons will transfer from n-type Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to p-type SnO according to their work functions (5.1 eV for SnO<sup>58</sup> and 3.9 eV for Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (ref. 59)), as shown in Fig. 12(b). Generally, a narrower forbidden band implies a lower energy required for the transition of electrons.<sup>32</sup> Compared with SnO<sub>2</sub> (typically 3.6 eV) in SnO–SnO<sub>2</sub> (ref. 32 and 33) composite, Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in (2.12 eV in this study) SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure exhibited a considerably smaller band width. Therefore, the electrons could easily transfer from the forbidden band to the conduction band at a low operating temperature and participate in the gas sensing reaction. The *in situ* formation of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterojunctions is conducive to increase the interfacial area and further enhance the effect of the heterojunctions. Furthermore, the formation of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterojunctions lead to the transfer of electrons from n-type Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to p-type SnO, and generate depletion layer at the interface of two phases. This depletion layer will coexist with the depletion layer formed by the adsorption of gases (O<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> here), and change simultaneously with the other one when the adsorbed state changes. This process facilitates the detection of NO<sub>2</sub> through the change in the electrical conductivity of the material.<sup>45,60</sup>

Secondly, the morphology of the material contributes to the performance enhancement. The N<sub>2</sub> adsorption–desorption isotherm of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure and corresponding pore size distribution are shown in Fig. S5.† The calculated BET surface area of the sample is 43.86 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>−1</sup>, while the average pore diameter is 32.31 nm. The mesoporous structure and large specific surface area enhance the diffusion and absorption of

NO<sub>2</sub> molecules on the surface, thus improving the sensing performance.

The excellent selectivity of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure to NO<sub>2</sub> can be attributed to the reasons as follows. As discussed above, the formation of p–n heterojunctions and the large specific surface area make SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure exhibit high response to NO<sub>2</sub> at low operating temperature. When the operating temperature increase beyond 75 °C, its response to NO<sub>2</sub> decrease because of the desorption of NO<sub>2</sub> molecules induced by high temperature. But for reductive gases (such as H<sub>2</sub> and ethanol), their main sensing mechanism on metal oxide sensors are reacting with adsorbed oxygen ions, for example,



These reactions will return the electrons to the material and lead to the reduction of resistance, which is an opposite change compared with oxidizing gases. In these reactions, high temperature (higher than 200 °C in general, also this is the reason why “O<sup>−</sup>” instead of “O<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup>” appears in eqn (2) and (3)) is a requirement. Nevertheless, the number of adsorbed oxygen anions on SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure are significant reduced because of the desorption induced by high temperature when the operating temperature exceeding 75 °C. So the sensing reactions between reductive gases and oxygen anions are inactive, leading to the low response to reductive gases. When SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure is exposed to mixed gases of NO<sub>2</sub> and reductive gases at 75 °C, although the concentrations of reductive gases are much higher, they can barely react with NO<sub>2</sub> molecules at this temperature, only the high concentration influences the adsorption of NO<sub>2</sub> molecules. Therefore, the resistances of the sensors still increase and the responses are still high when exposed to mixed gases, exhibiting excellent selectivity to NO<sub>2</sub>.

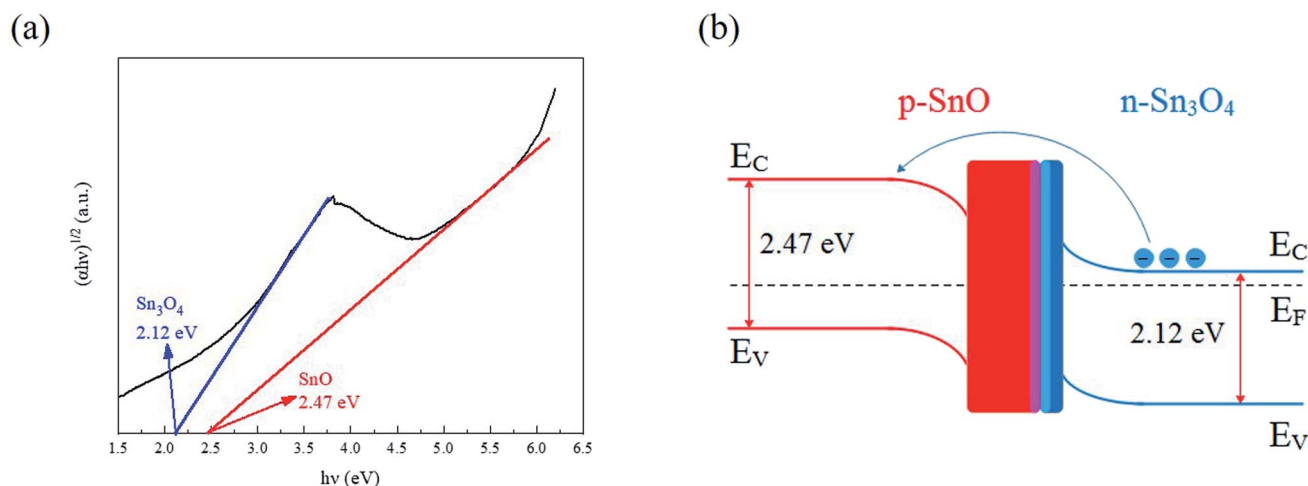


Fig. 12 (a) Plots of  $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$  against the photon energy ( $h\nu$ ) for the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure. (b) Schematic of the energy structure of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure.



## 4. Conclusion

The SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-heterostructure-based material was fabricated and used as an NO<sub>2</sub> sensor. The morphology, structure, and composition characterizations revealed its 3D flower-like microparticles structure assembled by 2D nanosheets, *in situ*-formed SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure, and large specific surface area. The gas sensing measurements showed the excellent NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance of the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure. Its responses were as high as 657.4 and 63.4 to 500 ppb of NO<sub>2</sub> while its limits of detection were as low as 2.5 and 10 ppb at 75 °C and ambient temperature, respectively. In addition, the SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure exhibited an excellent selectivity to NO<sub>2</sub>, even if exposed to mixture gases containing interferential part with high concentration. The high performances were attributed to the *in situ* formation of SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> p–n heterojunctions and large specific surface area. The SnO–Sn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> heterostructure having the excellent NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance is promising for applications as an NO<sub>2</sub> sensor or alarm operated at a low operating temperature.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

## Acknowledgements

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