PCCP

## Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/pccp

# Well-aligned Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods layered array: preparation, characterization and enhanced alcohol-gas sensing performance

Guohui Qin<sup>a</sup>, Fan Gao<sup>a</sup>, Qiuping Jiang<sup>a</sup>, Yuehua Li<sup>\*,b</sup>, Yongjun Liu<sup>c</sup>, Li Luo<sup>a</sup>, Kang Zhao<sup>a</sup>, Heyun Zhao<sup>\*,a,d</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Materials Science and Engineering, Yunnan University, Number 2 Green Lake North Road, Kunming, 650091, PR China.

<sup>b</sup> Advanced Analysis and Measurement Center of Dali University, number 2 Hongsheng Road, Dali, 671200, PR China.

<sup>c</sup> Advanced Analysis and Measurement Center of Yunnan University, Number 2 Green Lake North Road, Kunming, 650091, PR China.

<sup>d</sup> Yunnan Key Laboratory for Micro/Nano Materials and Technology, Yunnan University, Number 2 Green Lake North Road, Kunming 650091, P.R. China

\* Corresponding author email: <u>hyzhao@ynu.edu.cn</u> (h.zhao); Tel: +86-871-5031124, Fax: +86-871-5153832;

loneman2@163.com.

Well-oriented Neodymium doped SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanorods arrays were synthesized by a substrate-free hydrothermal route of using sodium stannate and sodium hydroxide at 210 °C. The morphology and phase structure of the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays were investigated by X-ray powder diffraction spectra, scanning electron microscopy, transmission electron microscopy, Raman scattering spectroscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectrum and BET method. The results demonstrated that the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanorods array showed a unique nanostructure combined together with double layered arrays of nanorods with a diameter of 12 nm and length of several hundred nanometers. The Nd-doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays kept the crystal structure of the bulk SnO<sub>2</sub> and possessed more surface defects caused by the Nd ions doped into the SnO<sub>2</sub> lattice. The Nd dopant act as a crystallite growth inhibitor to prevent the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods growth up. An investigation into the gas-sensing properties indicated that the optimized doping level of 3.0 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanorods array schibited an excellent sensing response toward alcohol at a lower temperature of 260 °C. The enhanced sensor performance was attributed to the higher specific surface area, multi-defect surface structure and the excellent catalytic properties of Nd dopant that is able to increase the amount of active sites on the surface of semiconducting oxides. The Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays sensors were considered to be a promising candidate for trace alcohol detections in environmental gas monitor.

Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscript

## **Revised Manuscript**

Rutile structured tin oxide (SnO<sub>2</sub>), as one of an important n-type semiconductor metal-oxide with a large direct energy band gap (E<sub>o</sub>=3.6 eV, at 300 K) has gained prominent attention due to its extensive applications in many fields, such as Li ion batteries,<sup>1</sup> dye-sensitive solar cells,<sup>2</sup> field-effect transistors,<sup>3</sup> photocatalysis<sup>4</sup> and especially gas sensors.<sup>5,6</sup> Since the discovery of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanobelts in 2001,<sup>7</sup> one-dimensional (1D) nanostructures of SnO<sub>2</sub> such as rods, wires, tubes and belts have been attracting a great deal of interest for scientific research due to their unique properties and potential to revolutionize broad areas of nanotechnology.<sup>8</sup> However, these products are usually randomly oriented and difficult to be made into nanostructured devices to effectively play its performance advantages. Up to now, many efforts have been focused on the assembly and integration of nanorods/nanowires as building blocks into three-dimensional arrays for enhancing their performances and expanding their practical applications, including microelectronic devices, chemical and biological sensors, energy conversion and storage, light-emitting displays, and catalysis.<sup>9,10</sup> In recent years, a few 1-D SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays with several different morphologies have already been synthesized by conventional growth of chemical vapor deposition (CVD),<sup>11</sup> thermal evaporation (TE),<sup>12</sup> hydrothermal approach<sup>13</sup> and so on. Although various physical and chemical routes have been developed to fabricate nanoarrays, these strategies need multiple steps, rigorous equipments or toxic reagents that limit their application. Especially, these methods always involve harsh, costly growth substrates such as Si, ITO, SiO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>, FTO, metal or alloy substrates, which affect the performance of the materials owing to the chemical stability, conductivity and toughness. Thus, it is still a tremendous challenge to develop a facile, effective, solution based, shape-controlled self-assembly method to realize the formation of complex aligned 1-D SnO<sub>2</sub> arrays without substrates, which will overcome the drawbacks or problems associated with substrates.

Volatile organic compound vapors (VOCs) such as alcohol, acetone, isopropanol, formaldehyde and so on, are the primary sources of indoor environmental pollutants and are considered seriously harmful to the human body.<sup>14,15</sup> There are notable correlations between VOCs emissions and different kinds of human health. In recent years, the investigation of gas sensor have received considerable attention for the profound influence on personal safety and detection of pollutants, toxins, and the transportation industries. SnO<sub>2</sub> is a well-known substance used for detection of different VOC pollutants owing to its low cost, high sensitivity, and quick gas response and thermal stability,<sup>16</sup> which has been extensively studied for detection of a wide variety of inflammable and toxic VOCs gases such as alcohol.<sup>17</sup> To date, there has been a great deal of research toward the development of miniaturized and highly efficient gas-sensing devices and their enhancement of sensor performance to detect various VOCs.

Many factors such as additives, grain size, microstructures and morphologies may influence the sensing properties of gas sensor significantly.<sup>18</sup> In order to improve the gas-sensing performances, nanostructured semiconductor oxides are attracting a great deal of attention due to their exclusive properties and novel applications. Many low dimensional nanostructures such as nanowires,<sup>19</sup> nanobelts,<sup>20</sup> nanorods,<sup>21</sup> nanotubes,<sup>22</sup> nanofibers and hierarchical flowerlike nanostructures,<sup>23,24</sup> have been found to show excellent sensing performances due to their high surface–volume ratio, abundant surface states and enhanced surface reactivity. Among them, attributing to their inherent high surface-to-volume ratio and ordered arrangement that is of great benefit for gas diffusion and mass transports in sensor materials, one-dimensional (1-D) nanoarray structures are

preferable for the detection of pollutant gases.<sup>25-27</sup> Moreover, another simple and effective artifice to improve the sensor response is doping noble metals,<sup>28,29</sup> or rare earth metal.<sup>30</sup> Rare earth doped compounds have been studied because of their fast oxygen ion mobility and catalytic properties which are important factors in chemical sensing.<sup>18</sup> The effects of doping of Yb,<sup>30</sup> Pr,<sup>31</sup> La,<sup>32</sup> Ce,<sup>33</sup> and Sm<sup>34</sup> have been reported by various authors, indicating positive effect on gas sensing of nanomaterials. Although seldom research works have been also presented that Nd doping can enhance the sensing properties,<sup>35-37</sup> the effects of Nd doping on the sensing of VOCs gases, such as alcohol, however, remained unclear. In addition, to the best of our knowledge, no attention has yet been focused on the fabrication of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> well-aligned nanorarrays to reveal the potential applications for high performance sensor.

In the present work, pristine and different atomic ratios of Nd-doped well-aligned layered  $SnO_2$  nanorod arrays were successfully synthesized using a substrate-free hydrothermal route without any surfactants. The gas sensing experiments of Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  towards alcohol were carried out compared with the pristine  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays to envisage the effect of Nd-doped on sensitivity, response and recovery times and selectivity, which reveal the potential applications for high performance sensor to detect alcohol in environmental gas monitor. A possible sensing mechanism of enhanced alcohol-gas sensing performance was also discussed for the Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanorod arrays.

## 2. Experimental

#### 2.1 Preparation of Nd-Doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays

Pristine and Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanoarrays were synthesized via a simple hydrothermal route without any surfactants and in the absence of substrates. For the synthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanoarrays, sodium stannate trihydrate sodium stannate four-hydrate (Na<sub>2</sub>SnO<sub>3</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O), neodymium chloride (NdCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O), sodium hydroxide (NaOH) and absolute alcohol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>OH) were used as precursors without further purification. All the used chemicals are highly pure and analytical grade reagents obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. (Shanghai, China). Deionized water was used throughout the experiments. Typically, the sodium stannate four-hydrate (Na<sub>2</sub>SnO<sub>3</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.188 mmol) was dissolved in 20 ml distilled water with vigorous stirring for 30 min to form uniform solutions. In order to study the effect of Neodymium dopant on the sensing performance, a suitable amount of Neodymium chloride was added to the solution with Nd to Sn atomic ratio of 0 at%, 0.5 at%, 1 at% and 3 at%, respectively. At the same tine, the sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 7 mmol) was also dissolved in 20 ml distilled water with vigorous stirring for 30 min. Then, the obtained mixture suspension of Na<sub>2</sub>SnO<sub>3</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O and NdCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O was slowly dripped into the NaOH solution with ceaseless stirring kept at 40 °C for 30 min, forming a semitransparent colloidal solution. After that, 40 ml of absolute alcohol was gradually added into the above mixed solution with vigorous stirring for 60 min. The resulting white homogeneous suspension was transferred to a 100 ml Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave and then heated in an oven at 210 °C for 48 h. After the autoclave cooled down naturally, a large amount of a grevish white precipitate was collected and washed several times with deionized water and absolute alcohol. Finally, the resulting products were dried in an oven at 80 °C for 24 h for further characterization.

3

#### 2.2 Characterization

The crystal structure of layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays were determined by powder X-ray diffraction. XRD patterns were recorded on a Rigaku D/MAX-3B powder diffractometer with copper target and  $K_a$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.54056$  Å) operated at 40 kV and 30 mA in the wide angle region from 15° to 90° (2 $\theta$ ) in steps of 0.02°. The morphologies of as-prepared layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays films were investigated with a Quanta 200 FEG environmental scanning electron microscopy (ESEM) at an accelerating voltage of 25 kV, while performing detailed structural characterizations with a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL 2010, 200 kV) equipped with selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern capabilities. The topological features and the composition of Sn, O, and Nd were determined by energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer on K and L lines. Raman scattering spectra were obtained using a Renishaw INVIA Laser Micro-Raman spectrometer. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was recorded at room temperature in PHI X-tool. During XPS analysis, Al *Ka* X-ray beam was adopted as the excitation source and power was set to 250 W. UV/Vis measurements were made with a UV-2401PC spectrophotometer. The specific surface area of the product was determined by Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) equation based on the nitrogen adsorption isotherm obtained with a Micromeritics Gemini VII apparatus (Surface Area and Porosity System), and the pore-size distribution was obtained from the desorption branch of the isotherm using the corrected form of the Kelvin equation by means of the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method.

## 2.3 Fabrication and gas-sensing performance tests

A series of sensors were elected indirect-heating structure as our previous detailed description of the sensor fabrication and gas detected.<sup>27</sup> A proper amount of the prepared sample was slightly ground together with several drops of water in an agate mortar to form a homogeneous paste. Then the paste was coated onto an alumina tube with Au electrodes and platinum wires which were used as electrical contacts. A Ni–Cr alloy coil was inserted through the tube as a heater to adjust the operating temperature from room temperature to 600 °C, which were controlled by tuning heating voltage. Before measuring the gas sensing properties, the gas sensors were aged at 500 °C for 120 h in dry air.

Gas-sensing properties test was performed on a JF02F gas sensing measurement system (Jin Feng Electronics of Sino-Platinum Metals Co. Ltd., China), which is a static system using atmospheric air as the interference gas and the diluting gas to obtain desired concentrations of target gases in a test chamber (about 15 L in volume). The export signal of the sensor was measured by using a conventional circuit in which the element was connected with an external resistor inseries at a circuit voltage. The target gas was injected into the chamber and the response of sensors began. The gas-sensing properties were assessed through sensor response *S*, which was defined as the ratio of  $R_a/R_g$ , where  $R_a$  and  $R_g$  stand for the electrical resistance of the sensor in atmospheric air and in the target gas, respectively. All of the tests in gas-sensing properties were performed at a relative humidity range of 50–70%.

## 3. Results and discussion

## 3.1 Characterization of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) was used to characterize the crystal structure and composition of the products and corresponding the typical XRD patterns as shown in Fig. 1 depicted a substantial texture effect in accordance with the crystal shape anisotropy and orientation. All the available reflections of the present XRD phases have been fitted with a Gaussian distribution. For the pristine  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays samples, all the diffraction peaks can be indexed to the rutile structured  $SnO_2$ (tetragonal, space group P42/mnm (136), with tetragonal lattice parameters of a=b=4.738 Å, c=3.186 Å), which match well with the standard data file of SnO<sub>2</sub> crystal (JCPDS file No. 41-1445). No signals of secondary phase such as Sn(OH)<sub>4</sub> or SnO are found in the product, indicating that only SnO<sub>2</sub> with good crystallinity and purity were obtained under these conditions. For the 0.5 at% and 1 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays samples, the diffraction peaks are almost similar to that of the pristine SnO<sub>2</sub>, no secondary phase is also found. Therefore, it can be speculated that Nd-oxides formed Nd-Sn-O solid solution with  $SnO_2$  because no other species existed in Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  samples. It is possible for  $Nd^{3+}$  ions cooperate with the matrix of  $SnO_2$  particles to form Nd-Sn-O solid solution since the radius of Nd<sup>3+</sup> (0.0983 nm) is not much bigger than that of Sn<sup>4+</sup> (0.069 nm). However, for the 3 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays sample, two weak additional diffraction peaks corresponding to the position 28.6° and 40.37° can be observed in the XRD pattern curve d, indicating the presence of a secondary phase, which could be assigned to the crystalline phases of Nd<sub>2</sub>Sn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> (JCPDS file No. 13-0185). This may be derived from that the 3 at% Nd doping is over the SnO<sub>2</sub> saturation, and the excess Nd atom reaction with the SnO<sub>2</sub> to form the new phase of  $Nd_2Sn_2O_7$ , which detected in the XRD measurement. Moreover, attention to the value of the relative intensities of all the  $SnO_2$  layered nanoarray samples shown in Fig. 1 are distinct from that of  $SnO_2$  powders, and higher intensity ratios of (101) and (002) to other planes in comparison with those in JCPDS file No.41-1445 are observed. The intensity of peak (002) of all the SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanoarray samples enhance very significantly, which can be attributed to the oriented growth in the [001] direction and orient perfectly with their c-axis.<sup>38</sup> This result indicates that all SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray samples showed higher orientation.

The enlarged image of the diffraction peak corresponding to (110) plane of SnO<sub>2</sub> array nanocrystals between 25° and 28° was shown in Fig. 1b, which is used to observe the Nd doping effect on peak position and peak intensity. Fig. 1b shows the variation of peak intensity and full-width at half maximum (FWHM) as a function of Nd concentration from 0 at% to 3 at% along (110) plane. With increasing Nd contents, the peak position slightly shifted a angles  $\Delta 2\theta$  ( $\Delta 2\theta$ -0.18°) towards lower side is observed, indicating an increase of the lattice parameter due to tensile/compressive stress on the lattice derived from the rare earth incorporation. This physical process suggests that a portion of the metal-oxide ions formed stable solid solution with SnO<sub>2</sub> and the metal-oxide ions occupy the regular lattice site in SnO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>18</sup> The intensity of the peaks decrease and the full-width at half maximum (FWHM) of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> peaks increase with the increase of the Nd contents, betokening that the crystallite size decreases gradually with increasing Nd content. The crystallite size with respect to Nd dopant concentration was calculated using Scherer's Eq. (1)

$$D = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta\cos\theta} \tag{1}$$

Where k is a constant value taken as 0.89;  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the X-ray source which taken as 1.5406 Å;  $\beta$  is the full

Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscrip

## **Revised Manuscript**

width at half maximum (FWHM) and  $\theta$  is the Bragg angle. By using Scherer's formula, the mean crystalline sizes of the obtained layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray samples are calculated to be about 27.3, 20.1, 16.4, 12.8 nm respectively, employing XRD data of the (110) plane diffraction peak. The results indicate that smaller and less ordered crystals are formed in the case of Nd-doped samples. The decrease of the crystallite size with the addition of Nd dopants suggests that the 3 at% of Nd dopant might lead to supersaturation which is responsible for the grain's shrinkage.<sup>39</sup> Since the ionic radius of Nd<sup>3+</sup> (0.0983 nm) is larger than the ionic radius of Sn<sup>4+</sup> (0.069 nm), incorporating Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions into the matrix leads most likely to some distortion and stress in the cell and the lattice, respectively. As a consequence, the grains might break which causes a decrease in the crystallite size with respect to the Nd addition.



Fig. 1 (a) XRD patterns of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanorods array samples. (b) Comparison the shift of (110) peaks.

The morphology of as-prepared Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanoarrays characterized by SEM. Fig. 2 shows the morphology of the as-prepared 0 at%, 1 at% and 3 at% Nd-doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray, respectaly. As shown in Fig. 2a, c and e, top-view images of layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array display large-area continuous, high ordered dense nanorods array. For our three layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array samples, the narrow size distribution of these nanorods with a fine round bar cross section as well as the vertical and dense alignment in the array is clearly observed. The nanorods density in the plane of the 1 at% and 3 at% Nd-doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray nanorods statistically counted to be *ca*. 258 and 283  $\mu$ m<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 2a and c), and the width of the cross section was estimated approximately 18.2 and 12.6 nm. Fig. 2e displays the top-view image of the pristine SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array. By the same way, the nanorods density on the plane statistically counted to be *ca*. 223  $\mu$ m<sup>-2</sup>, and the width of the cross section was estimated approximately 29 nm. It is obvious that the diameter of the nanorods is

thicker than that of Nd-doped nanorods of  $SnO_2$  nanarrays synthesized under the same conditions, suggesting that the Nd dopant can act as a crystallite growth inhibitor for the  $SnO_2$  material to prevent the nanorods further growth up.<sup>40</sup> This is in accordance with the result of the XRD patterns from Fig. 1. The small crystallite sized  $SnO_2$  nanorods should provide a large surface area that could increase the probability of surface trapping, which enhence the sensitivity to the surface reaction.



Fig. 2 (a) and (b) Top-view and Cross-sectional SEM image of 1 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array. (c) and (d) Top-view and Cross-sectional SEM image of 3.0 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array. (e) Pristine SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array SEM image (e) EDX spectrum of 3.0 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array.

A section edge of the Nd-doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray as shown in Fig. 2b and d displays the small nanorods tightly combined together, and these nanorods are generally perpendicular and arranged in very large uniform arrays. It can be seen that Nd-doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray was tightly combined together by two parts of the nanrods array with an apparent interface in the centre. Each of the nanorods has one end outside with neatly arranged, exhibiting peculiar orderly arrayed structures. The nanorods on each part, growing approximately perpendicular to the interface, has a length of about 200–300 nm. Note that we did not use any substrate before reaction, which is usually employed for the growth of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays.<sup>11,12</sup> The EDX spectrum is used to confirm the composition of the samples. The typical EDX pattern of 3 at% Nd-doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array was presented in Fig. 2f. The quantitative atomic percentages of the compositional elements such as stannum (Sn), oxygen (O) and neodymium (Nd) were presented as an inset in Fig. 2f. The image shows the presence of Sn, Nd and O as the only elementary species in the SnO<sub>2</sub> sample. The EDX spectra showing the 2.87 at% of Nd content in SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray is consistent with the initial ratio of experimental design within the experimental error.

In order to further observe the morphology and microstructures of the products in detail, TEM, selected area electron diffraction (SAED) and HRTEM images of the 3 at% Nd-doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays were shown in Fig. 3. Fig. 3a depicts a low-magnification TEM image of a section removed from the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array assemblies, where the rods-like array nanostructure of the prepared SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array assemblies can be clearly seen. An enlarge peaked top TEM image of  $SnO_2$  nanorods array shown in Fig. 3b confirms the product mainly consists of solid rod-like structure with a smooth surface and an obtuse angle top rather than a flat top. The straight nanorods have uniform diameters of around 12 nm, being in accordance with the SEM results. To get more detailed structure information about the construction units of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays, HRTEM and FFT of an individual nanorod taken from the product after ultrasonication were carried out. Fig. 3c shows a high-resolution transmission electron micrograph (HRTEM) of a single SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod and clear lattice fringes. Although the overview of HRTEM image illustrates that the single SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod is of a high quality single rutile crystals, it is obvious that the overall structure of  $SnO_2$  nanorod is not uniform. Here, in order to facilitate the description, we marked them as area A, B and C shown in Fig. 3c and d. As shown in the upper-left inset of Fig. 3c, an enlarge HRTEM image of the marked area A depicts a uniform structure and reveals 0.348 nm space between two adjacent lattice fringes parallel to the length of the nanorod, which is significantly larger than the usual value of 0.3347 nm of a bulk SnO<sub>2</sub>. The space corresponds to the (110) lattice planes of SnO2 in tetragonal cassiterite structure, indicating that the exposed facet of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods is the (110) plane and the oriented growth is preferentially along the [001] direction.<sup>41</sup> The corresponding fast Fourier transform (FFT) shown in the lower-left inset of Fig. 3c is an agreement with the survey results of HRTEM. The enlarge HRTEM images of the marked area B and C shown in the upper-left inset of Fig. 3d depict the lattice fringes and reveals approximate 0.349 nm space between two adjacent lattice fringes, which also corresponds to the (110) lattice planes of SnO<sub>2</sub> in tetragonal cassiterite structure. However, it is obvious that lattice fringes in area B and C of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod are distorted and discohered, indicating dislocations and extended defects inside. The reason for this result is mainly originated in the ionic radius of  $Nd^{3+}$  is larger than the ionic radius of  $Sn^{4+}$ , incorporating  $Nd^{3+}$  ions into the matrix leads most likely to some distortion and stress in the cell and the lattice. As a result, the lattice fringes of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod might be distorted and

discohered in the crystallite with respect to the Nd addition. These results support the XRD observation as shown in Fig. 1b.



Fig. 3. TEM images of 3 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod array. (a) TEM image of a section removed from the nanorods arrays at low magnification. (b) TEM image of top nanorods array. (c) HRTEM image of an individual Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod. Inset: an enlarge lattice fringes of area A and corresponding FFT pattern of HRTEM image, respectively. (d) Enlarge HRTEM image of the marked area B and C showing distorted and discohered lattice fringes. (e) TEM image of bizarre nanorods. (f) A cluster bizarre nanorods at low magnification. Inset: corresponding SAED pattern of the bizarre nanorod. (g) A cluster bizarre nanorods at high magnification. (h) HRTEM image of double nanorods lablled in Fig. b showing unclear, uniform and undulate lattice fringes.

Moreover, it is very valuable that some bizarre nanorods are observed in Fig. 3e. Fig. 3f shows a cluster bizarre nanorods at low magnification. It can be observed that the cluster nanorods were assembled by nanorods with rough surface. The inset shows the corresponding SAED pattern of the individual nanorod, which is made up of the different diffraction discohered circles, indicating that the bizarre nanorods is polycrystalline. The enlarge TEM image of a bizarre nanorod assembly shown in Fig. 3g demonstrates that the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods was constructed by rods-like or elliptical grain structure with rough surface. In addition, a corresponding HRTEM image of two parallel nanorods which was marked in Fig. 3f was shown in Fig. 3h. It is quite obvious from Fig. 3h that the lattice fringes of bizarre SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod are not clear, inconsistent and undulate, suggesting a great quantity of defects in the surface structure of the nanorods. Although the microstructures of these bizarre nanorods needs to be further observed in detail, it is reasonable to suspect that it is the crystalline phases of Nd<sub>2</sub>Sn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, since the diffraction peak of Nd<sub>2</sub>Sn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> phase was detected in the XRD measurement as shown in Fig. 1.

Raman scattering is an important spectroscopic tool for the characterization of nanometric size effects and a qualitative probe of the presence of lattice defects in solids on vibrational properties. The SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystal is rutile in nature and belongs to the space group  $D_{4h}^{14}$ , of which the normal lattice vibration at the  $\Gamma$  point of the Brillouin zone is given on the basis of group theory:  ${}^{42} \Gamma = 1A_{1g}(R) + 1A_{2g} + 1B_{1g}(R) + 1B_{2g}(R) + 1E_g(R) + 2A_{2u}(IR) + 2B_{1u} + 4E_u(IR)$ . Among them,  $A_{1g}$ ,  $B_{1g}$ ,  $B_{2g}$ and E<sub>g</sub> are the four first-order active Raman modes, the active IR modes are A<sub>2u</sub>, E<sub>u</sub> and B<sub>1u</sub>, and two silent modes are A<sub>2g</sub> and  $B_{1u}$ , respectively. The Raman spectrum performed at room temperature in the range of 300–900 cm<sup>-1</sup> of the prepared nanoarrays is shown in Fig. 4. Vibration peaks can be clearly observed at 358.1, 474.1, 578, 631.4, 693.4 and 774.4 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The most intense peak observed at 631.4 cm<sup>-1</sup> can be attributed to the  $A_{1g}$  mode, while those exhibited at 474.1 and 774.4 cm<sup>-1</sup> may be due to vibrational modes  $E_g$  and  $B_{2g}$ , respectively. The  $A_{1g}$  and  $B_{2g}$  modes are induced by the expansion and contraction vibration mode of Sn-O bonds vibrating in the plane perpendicular to the c-axis, and usually appear in bulk single crystals or polycrystalline  $SnO_2$  materials, whereas the  $E_g$  mode may be related to the vibration of oxygen in the oxygen plane vibrating in the direction of the c-axis. These Raman features give evidence that the as-synthesized layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays possess the features of the tetragonal rutile structure.<sup>43</sup> Furthermore, the other extra peaks are observed at 358.1, 578, 693.1 cm<sup>-1</sup> and the observation of these new peaks can be explained on the basis of the nano-effect. In nanocrystalline SnO<sub>2</sub> system, the surface properties are sensitive not only to the grain size and their distribution, but also to the oxygen vacancies and local disorder. Therefore, it is easy to observe the new modes in the Raman spectra.<sup>44</sup> The Raman

scattering peaks at 578 and 693.1 cm<sup>-1</sup>, showing minor shoulder features, might originate from the imperfections of surface structure.<sup>45</sup> The broad peak around 358.1 cm<sup>-1</sup> which was reported in extra-fine nanoparticles<sup>46</sup> is observed in all samples. It attributes to relaxation of Raman selection rule by a reduction in the particle size or by the high concentration of surface defects such as oxygen vacancies and lattice disorder.<sup>47</sup> In fact, the Nd dopant might be responsible for the changes in local disorder and defects that result in lattice disorder. Another feature to be noted is the intensities of all the Raman peaks are found to decrease in the doped samples. The decrease in intensity suggests that the Nd dopant interacts strongly with the support. The interaction between the Nd<sup>3+</sup> atoms and the support oxide hinders the crystallization, which is reflected in the reduction of peak intensity. This results supports the observation of XRD and SEM as shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2. The Raman spectrum results confirm the characteristics of the tetragonal rutile structure as well as revealing the peculiar features relating surface structure of the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanorods array.



Fig. 4 Raman spectra of Nd-doped 1 SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods arrays. a: undpoed. b: 1 at%. c: 3 at%.

XPS is a powerful technique to investigate the chemical composition and the valence state of the elements. The narrow scan XPS spectra were measured in order to study the chemical bond configuration and the composition of as-prepared 3 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays and the result was shown in Fig. 5. The carbon 1s line is used as the energy reference material to calibrate the binding energy scale for XPS measurements and to compensate the surface charging effect. Measured spectra surveys were decomposed into Gaussian components with a Shirley background using the software XPSPEAK. Fig. 5a shows the binding energy of the C1s at 285.16 eV, which might be introduced from the adsorption of the sample surface and the contamination of the instrument. In the present study, the high-resolution XPS spectra survey of Sn 3d (Figure 5b) depicts that Sn  $3d_{5/2}$  peaks respectively occur at 487.32 eV, while the Sn  $3d_{3/2}$  peak is located at 495.78 eV. The energy difference between Sn  $3d_{5/2}$  and Sn  $3d_{3/2}$  peak is 8.46 eV, which is in good agreement with the energy splitting reported for SnO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>48</sup> Sn  $3d_{5/2}$  peak of the prepared SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods is closely consistent with the standard data (486.70 eV), indicating that Sn is

Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscrip

Physical (

## **Revised Manuscript**

present in a chemical state of +4. The Nd dopant XPS spectra of 3 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays presented in Fig. 5c. It exhibits the energy loss peak is centred at 121.5 eV, which is closely consistent with the standard binding energy of Nd 4d (120.8 eV). XPS results show that Nd is in the +3 oxidation state in Nd-SnO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>49</sup> The O 1s spectrum of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays was presented in Fig. 5d. The broad and asymmetric nature of this peak could be due to various coordinations of oxygen in nanorods. The obtained O1s peak can be Gaussian divided into three symmetrical peaks located at 530.72 eV, 531.13 eV and 532.29 eV, respectively, indicating that there are three kinds of oxygen species in the sample. The low binding energy (530.72 eV) is assigned to  $O^{2^-}$  ion in the SnO<sub>2</sub> crystal lattice (O<sub>lattice</sub>) under completely oxidized stoichiometric conditions,<sup>50</sup> whereas the binding energy of 531.13 eV can be ascribed to the absorbed O<sub>x</sub><sup>-</sup> species (O<sup>-</sup> or O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> ions) in the oxygen deficient regions caused by oxygen vacancy (V<sub>O</sub>), oxygen interstitial (O<sub>i</sub>) and oxygen antisite (O<sub>sn</sub>),<sup>51</sup> which enhance the holes concentration to be helpful to absorb oxygen from the atmosphere.<sup>52</sup> Importantly, the highest peak at 532.29 eV corresponds to chemisorbed and dissociated oxygen species (O<sup>-</sup> or O<sup>2<sup>-</sup></sup>) on the surface of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays,<sup>53,54</sup> suggesting the amount of chemisorbed oxygen increased by the Nd doping. Thus, the increasing number of adsorbed oxygen ions could contribute to gas sensitivity because that the lattice oxygen does not react with the reducing gas.



Fig. 5 High-resolution XPS spectra of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array. (a) C1s. (b) Sn3d. (c) O 1s and (d) Nd 4d region.

Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) nitrogen adsorption and desorption measurements of the as-prepared Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanorods array product was carried out to predict the sensing performances. The representative N<sub>2</sub> adsorption and desorption isotherm and the corresponding BJH pore size distribution plot of the 3 at% Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanorods array was shown in Fig. 6. The isotherm exhibited a hysteresis loop at the p/p<sub>0</sub> ranges of 0.40-0.95 (Fig. 6a), which was associated with the filling and emptying of the 3 at% Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanorads array sample exhibits a larger pore volume between the nanorods. As shown in Fig. 6b, the pore size distribution of the  $SnO_2$  nanoradrary sample showed that a narrow peak appeared in pore size region of 5-120 nm and its top value is located at 21 nm, indicating thinner nanorods of  $SnO_2$  nanoradrary was calculated to be 28.621 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> by BET method, indicating a large of the active surface area of the  $SnO_2$  nanoradrary. Therefore, it is believed that the sensing performance can be improved by a large number of mass transport channels and a large surface area of Nd-SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoradray.



Fig. 6 (a) Typical nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherm and (b) BJH pore size distribution plots.

## 3.2. Gas Sensing characteristics of products

Due to the nanorods array structure, the Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanorods array may be particularly advantageous for gas sensing applications, and for this reason, we took the pristine and Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarray products as sensing materials, and investigated the application of the  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays in gas sensor.

It is well accepted that the gas sensitivity is greatly influenced by the amount of dopants and the operating temperature. In order to observe the effects of Nd dopant on the sensitivity of different gases, first of all, we performed the experiments of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray with doping different Nd contents exposed to 200 ppm various testing gases working at an optional operating temperature, 300 °C. The responses of the pristine and doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods arrays sensors toward to virous tested VOCs, including alcohol, acetone, toluene, isopropanol, methane, ammonia and so on were shown in Fig. 7. It demonstrates that all the sensors of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray assemblies exhibited a good response to alcohol, isopropanol and acetone, which is in agreement with the previous reports.<sup>27,55</sup> It is more important that the enhanced response to alcohol, isopropanol and acetone

is observed after doping a certain amount of Neodymium. In particular, the response improvement to alcohol is very significant. Therefore, the discussions followed are focused on the response to alcohol of Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays.



Fig. 7 Response of the Nd-doped SnO2 nanorods arrays to different kind gases at 300 °C.

Fig. 7 also indicates that an appropriate amount of Nd doping can greatly improve the gas sensing properties of layered  $SnO_2$  nanoarray. It can be seen that the sensor based on 3 at% Nd–doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarray exhibited the highest response to alcohol and the response amplitude was about 78, while the response of the 1 at% Nd–doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarray sensor was 56. However, the highest response of the pristine  $SnO_2$  nanoarray sensor toward 200 ppm alcohol is only 26. The response of the 3 at% Nd–doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarray is more than 3 times larger than that of the pristine  $SnO_2$  nanoarray. This result indicates that the Nd dopant is beneficial to improve the response toward alcohol, and 3 at% Nd is an optimum concentration for getting highest response in our Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays system. The higher responses are probably attributed to their bigger specific surface, which can absorb more oxygen molecules to react with alcohol molecules.

To research the influence of operating temperature and to get an optimum operating temperature, we tested the responses of  $SnO_2$  gas sensors to 200 ppm alcohol as a function of operating temperature and the result was shown in Fig. 8. From the curve, it can be seen that the sensing response first increased, and reached its maximum at a certain temperature, and then rapidly decreased with the increasing temperature. The reason can be explained as follows: an n-type metal oxide can adsorb oxygen from the atmosphere both in the  $O^{2-}$  and in the  $O^{-}$  species. The adsorption of  $O^{-}$  is the most interesting process for sensors because this oxygen ion is the more reactive and thus makes the material more sensitive to the presence of reducing gases. At relatively low temperature of the surface preferentially adsorbs  $O^{2-}$  and the sensitivity of the material is consequently very small. As the temperature increases, the dominant process becomes the adsorption of  $O^{-}$ , and then the response increases too. If the temperature increases too much, progressive adsorption of all oxygen ionic species previously

adsorbed occurs and the response decreases.<sup>56</sup> For the 3 at% Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays, the maximal response to 200 ppm of alcohol vapor was about 136.3 at 260 °C, and then decreased. Thus the optimized operating temperature is determined to be 260 °C. However, it could be found that the optimal working temperature of prinstine and 1 at% Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays was about 310 °C and 266 °C, and the maximal response to 200 ppm of alcohol vapor was only about 36.3 and 98, respectively. It indicates that the 3 at% Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays sensors have a lower optimum temperature and a higher response than that of pure and 1 at% Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays sensors. The reason could be explained on the basis of the change in the energy barrier height and the excellent electrocatalytic effect in due to the doping of 3 at% Neodymium in  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays.<sup>57</sup>



Fig. 8 Gas response depending on the operating temperature of the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array.

A repeatable characteristic and rapid response and recovery to a target gas are demanded for practical application. Fig. 9 shows the representative dynamic gas response of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array gas sensor to alcohol with concentrations ranging from 1 ppm to 200 ppm when the sensor worked at 260 °C. Six cycles were successively recorded, corresponding to alcohol concentrations of 1, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, and 200 ppm, respectively. An overview from Fig. 9 was evident that the response amplitude of the sensors gradationally increases with the gas concentration increasing from 1, 5, 10, to 200 ppm. It can be seen from Fig. 9 that the response and recovery characteristics were almost reproducible as well as the quick response and recovery times, indicating a stable and repeatable characteristic and maintaining fast response and recovery state. Particularly, the response and recovery characteristics of the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrys were significantly improved after doping Nd. Noticeably, as shown in the inset of Fig. 9, the sensor presents a considerable response of 7.2 to low alcohol concentration of 1 ppm, and 16.3 to concentration of 5 ppm at the operating temperature of 260 °C, indicating the sensor based on as-prepared SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray product is favourable to detect alcohol with low concentration.



Fig. 9 Dynamic response and recovery behaviors of the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array sensors exposed to different concentrations.

The gas-sensing response and recovery time is an important consideration to evaluate the performance of a gas sensor. Here, we defined as the time required to achieve 80% of the total resistance variation when the gas goes in and out. The time of 80% resistance for gas exposure  $(t_{on})$  and that for recovery  $(t_{off})$  were calculated from the resistance–time data shown in Fig. 10 a and b, which is the response transient of the sensors to 5 ppm and 200 ppm alcohol at 260 °C, respectively. Measured from the curves, in the pristine SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays sensor, it is found that the sensing response and recovery times are 16 s and 38 s for 5 ppm alcohol, 18 s and 43 s for 200 ppm alcohol, respectively. However, in the sensors of 1.0 at% and 3.0 at% Nd-doped nanoarray SnO<sub>2</sub>, response and recovery times are about 42 s and 65 s for 5 ppm alcohol, 38 s and 63 s for 200 ppm alcohol, respectively. This result suggests that both the response and recovery become slower after Nd doped, which is in a good agreement with the results reported by G.T. Ang<sup>55</sup> and S.L. Shi.<sup>58</sup> that response and recovery become slower after doped rare earth dopants might take place in the SnO<sub>2</sub> system. The slower response implies the decrease of the chemical reaction rate, resulting the Nd dopant elevate the activation energy of the chemical reaction which will prolong the response and recovery time. Though the detailed origin is not clear yet, and need further investigation, it is evident that the Nd doping caused the response and recovery time prolonged.



Fig. 10 Response and recovery transient time examined of the pristine and the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods arrays sensors. (a) 5 ppm. (b) 200 ppm.

Responses versus alcohol concentration curves of gas sensors manufactured using the pristine and the Nd-doped content with 1.0 and 3.0 at% SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray at operating temperature of 260 °C were summarily shown in Fig. 11. It can be observed from Fig. 11 that the responses of all sensors increase with the gas concentrations. Especially, Fig. 11 presents that sensor based on 3.0 at% Nd-doped SnO2 nanoarray exhibit much higher response to both gases than pristine and Nd-doped content with 1.0 at% nanoarray SnO<sub>2</sub>. For alcohol at concentrations of 50, 200, 500, 800, 1000 and 1200 ppm, the most sensitive SnO<sub>2</sub> (3.0 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray) sensor responses are 33.4, 127.6, 242.5, 278.2, 287.4 and 293.73, respectively. It was noteworthy that the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor fabricated in our work exhibits a higher response for alcohol compared with those sensors based on different SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures recently reported in the literatures.<sup>27,30, 33,34,36,55</sup>. Moreover, it is obvious that the 3.0 at% SnO2 nanoarray increase linearly from 10 to 600 ppm. Generally, the gas response of the semiconductor metal-oxide gas sensor can usually be empirically represented as  $R=a[C]^{b}+1$ ,<sup>59</sup> where [C] is the concentration of the target alcohol vapour, a is a parameter and b is the surface species charge parameter having value of 1 for O<sup>-</sup> and 0.5 for O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. At a certain working temperature, the above equation can be rewritten as log(R-1)=blog(C)+loga, indicating the linear relationship between R and C in logarithmic forms. From Fig. 11b, the value of b is 0.96 for 3.0 at% Nd-doped nanoarray obtained by leasts squares fitting of response versus alcohol concentration ranged from 10 ppm to 600 ppm in logarithmic scale. It indicates that the sensitivity almost increased linearly with the increase of the alcohol concentration with R-square confidence value above 0.90, suggesting the dominant adsorbed oxygen species at the surface of  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays sensors is  $O^-$  ions. This value agrees well with the values reported in the literature on semiconductor metal-oxide sensor.60





Fig. 11 (a) Gas response to alcohol concentrations. (b) The linear relationship between R and C in logarithmic forms of 3 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanorods array sensor

In practical application, the long-term stability of gas sensors is critical, for which we must determine the reliability of gas sensors and their length of service. To verify the stability of the of 3 at % Nd doped SnO<sub>2</sub> sensors, the gas response evolution is measured by repeating the response measurement for a number of times under the different concentration (50, 100, 200, 500, 800, 1000 ppm alcohol at 260 °C) for three months. The responses of 3 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor towards alcohol were measured on 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th, 50th, 60th, 70th, 80th, 90th days after the first measurement and the result was shown in Fig. 12. The 10-days-later response is slightly changed  $\pm 9.6\%$ ,  $\pm 10.3\%$ ,  $\pm 12.6\%$ ,  $\pm 15.2\%$ ,  $\pm 13.4\%$  and 14.1% for 50, 100, 200, 500, 800 and 1000 ppm alcohol gas, respectively, illustrating good stability and reliability of sensor material for commercial application. Thus, the Nd doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray sensors can be used as a promising material for alcohol sensors.

18



Fig. 12 The stability of the 3 at % Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarry sensor.

## 3.3. Sensing Mechanism

As a n-type metal-oxide semiconductor, the most widely accepted theory of tin dioxide  $(SnO_2)$  sensing mechanism is built on the change in resistance of the sensor by the adsorption and desorption process of oxygen molecules on the surface of sensing materials.<sup>60,61</sup> As shown in Fig.13, when the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays sensors are exposed in air ambient, oxygen molecules are chemisorbed and capture electrons from the conduction band of the SnO<sub>2</sub>, which induced the formation of an electron depletion layer on the surface of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and manifested in ordered arrays. It is vital to enhance the receptor function of the sensor and its gas response. Then the chemisorbed oxygen species will be formed by capturing electrons from the conduction band of SnO<sub>2</sub>. In this process, oxygen molecules act as electron acceptors only to result in the decrease of electron concentration and the increase of the resistance of the sensor, which can be described by following equations:<sup>61</sup>

$$O_2(gas) \leftrightarrow O_2(ads)$$
 (3)

$$O_2(ads) + e^- \leftrightarrow O_2^-(ads)$$
 (4)

$$O_2^{-}(ads) + e^- \leftrightarrow 2O^-(ads)$$
 (5)

When the surfaces of the  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays sensors are exposed to reducing gas such as alcohol at a moderate temperature, these gas molecules are oxidized by the adsorbed oxygen species, reducing the coverage of oxygen ions and simultaneously the depleted electrons are fed back into the conductance band of  $SnO_2$ , resulting in a narrowed depletion layer and therefore the sensor resistance is decreased. Thus, the conduction in ordered  $SnO_2$  arrays is described by competition between the semiconducting core and resistive shell layers. The reducing gas is oxidized by the reaction with negatively charged surface oxygen, which leads to the increase of conductivity. Alcohol is a reducing gas, which can react with adsorbed oxygen and release the electrons of the oxygen into the conduction band, leading to the decrease of the sensor resistance, thus generating electrical signals. The reaction between alcohol and ionic oxygen species can be described in detail as Eq. (8) and (9).<sup>30</sup> When gas is out, the sensor will be exposed to air again and thus refreshed by air. The sensitivity is based on the surface reaction that takes place between the VOCs with the oxygen ions.

$$C_2H_5OH+6O^{-}(ads) \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 3H_2O+6e^{-}$$
 (8)

$$C_2H_5OH+6O_2^{-}(ads) \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 3H_2O+12e^{-}$$
(9)

According to the above reactions, it can be clearly seen that a large specific surface area of the materials can provide more active site for the gas adsorption. Therefore, more electrons are released to reduce the resistance of the materials effectively. As it was confirmed that the large surface area and pore size of nanorods arrays are significantly beneficial for their gas sensing performance,<sup>62,63</sup> the array structure exactly accounts for their better performance than the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods structure as the alcohol sensor. In particular, thinner nanorods and densely aligned SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods of this layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods arrays provide a large surface area, which facilitates the adsorption of oxygen ions and gas molecules on the surface of the material. In addition, the large volume space between the nanorods supported by Fig. 6b is beneficial for gas diffusion and mass transport. These are the explanations for the good performance in alcohol gas sensing, including high sensitivity, fast response and recovery, and low detection concentration limit. The sensing mechanism process of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array for detecting gas is depicted in Fig. 13 a.



Fig. 13 Schematic illustrations of the gas sensing mechanism of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod array. (a) Undoped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarry sensor.
(b) Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarry sensors.

In this work, the response towards alcohol is largely promoted by the Nd dopant. Based on the above gas-sensing results, a possible mechanism of the Nd addition on the gas-sensing properties of SnO<sub>2</sub>-based sensors is offered. The improved alcohol response of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> arrays in this work is attributed to the increase in the amount of absorbed oxygen on the surface of Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanorods, which is confirmed by the XPS analysis. The specific surface area is increased with the doping of Nd, which can provide more active sites for gas adsorption on the surface. On the one hand, by doping of Nd, the decrease of crystallite size, which has been proved by XRD and SEM, could lead to the increase of adsorption. Therefore, Nd as an effective grain growth inhibitor that reduced the grain size and hence gave the higher surface area for surface reaction during the detection of alcohol and result in the increase of response. On the other hand, when Nd<sup>3+</sup> replaces Sn<sup>4+</sup> in SnO<sub>2</sub> lattice, the incorporating Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions into the matrix leads more defects such as rougher surface, disordered structures and boundaries (as shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4) on the surface of matrix, is conducive to the adsorption of oxygen from the atmosphere,<sup>64,65</sup> which can improve the gas-sensing properties. Thus, a large number of electrons are captured in air and released in alcohol atmosphere, leading a higher response (shown in Fig. 9 and 11). Thus, the sensors based on Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> show a higher response than that of the pure. Moreover, Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> arrays show a better response than the pristine SnO<sub>2</sub> arrays sensors due to the catalytic property of Nd.<sup>37</sup> As one of the high-activity catalysts, Nd dopants can also serve as sensitizers because they are able to increase the amount of active sites on the surface of semiconducting oxides, the detected gases could be easily decomposed. Therefore, Nd doping has a positive effect on gas sensing of nanomaterials. The the enhancement sensing mechanism of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods array for detecting gas is schematically depicted in Fig. 13 b.

Finally, it is well known from the above gas sensing results that the level of Nd contents has a significant influence on the response of sensors for alcohol detected. Accordingly, for low concentration of Nd-doped  $SnO_2$  nanoarrays sensors (1.0

at%), the responses were both higher than that of the pristine nanoarrays sensor. With the concentration of Nd increased to 3 at%, the response of 131 to alcohol was much better than 36.3 of undoped thicker nanoarrays sensors, and was still much better than 87.3 of the 1 at% Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays sensors. However, it does not indicate that a high level of doping concentration can cause the better response. This is because redundant doping will reduce the quantity of substituted Nd ions and many clusters such as Nd<sub>2</sub>Sn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, Nd-Nd or Nd-O will exist, decreasing the electric transduction of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays. Then it was the negative effect to improve the gas-sensing properties. Moreover, due to the Nd dopants as one of high-activity catalysts, alcohol molecules could be burned on Nd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> or Nd<sub>2</sub>Sn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> clusters and transformed into CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O without producing any electric signals.<sup>66</sup> Therefore, only just the appropriate concentration of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> is propitious to the improvement of gas sensing properties have been reported in other works.<sup>30,35</sup> According to the above results, it could be calculated that the level of 3.0 at% Nd-doped is an optimal doping concentration and the response is close to the saturated state in our report.

## Conclusion

In summary, Nd-doped with different level of SnO<sub>2</sub> layered nanoarrays were fabricated by a facile hydrothermal growth route in the absence of substrates and without any surfactants. The morphology and phase structure results of the Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays investigated by XRD, SEM, TEM, Raman, XPS demonstrated that the Nd-doped layered SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray has a hierarchical unique nanostructures combined together by two layers of rutile SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarrays kept the crystal structure of the bulk SnO<sub>2</sub> and possesses more surface defects caused by the Nd ions doped into the SnO<sub>2</sub> lattice. The enhanced alcohol-sensing performance of indirect-heating gas sensors based on this unique structure of Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods arrays with optimized Nd doping level of 3.0 at% exhibited an excellent sensing response toward alcohol at a lower temperature of 260 °C. The Nd-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoarray can be used as a promising materiala for alcohol detection, which may have great potential for the development of metal-oxide semiconductor alcohol sensors in environmental gas monitor.

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (no. 61161008, 61564009) and the Natural Science Foundation of Yunan Province (2009CD015).

## References

1 X. F. Li, X. B. Meng, J. Liu, D. S. Geng and Y. Zhang, Adv. Funct. Mater., 2012, 22, 1647.

- 2 Y. Fukai, Y. Kondo, S. Mori and E. Suzuki, *Electrochem. Commun.*, 2007, 9, 1439.
- 3 Y. Zhang, A. Kolmakov, S. Chretien, H. Metiu and M. Moskovits, Nano Letters, 2004, 4, 403.

Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics Accepted Manuscrip

## **Revised Manuscript**

- 4 Y. T. Han, X. Wu, Y. L. Ma, L. H. Gong, F. Y. Qu and H. J. Fan, CrystEngComm, 2011, 13, 3506.
- 5 A. Kolmakov, D. O. Klenov, S. Stemmer and M. Moskovits, Nano Lett., 2005, 5, 667.
- 6 D. J. Sirbuly, A. Tao, M. Law, R. Fan and P. D. Yang, Adv. Mater, 2007, 19, 61.
- 7 Z. W. Pan, Z. R. Dai and Z. L. Wang, Science, 2001, 291,1947.
- 8 X. Y. Kong, Y. Ding, R. S. Yang, Z. L. Wang, Science, 2004, 303, 1348.
- 9 X. S. Fang, L. M. Wu, L.F. Hu, Adv. Mater, 2011, 23, 585.
- 10 G. Z. Shen, J. Xu, X. F. Wang, H. T. Huang, D. Chen, Adv. Mater., 2011, 23, 771.
- 11 X.B. Li, X.W. Wang, Q. Shen, J. Zheng, W.H. Liu, H. Zhao, F. Yang, H.Q. Yang, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces, 2013, 8, 3033.
- 12 X. Wang, W. Liu, H. Yang, X. Li, N. Li, R. Shi, H. Zhao, J. Yua, Acta Mater., 2011, 59, 1291.
- 13 K. Zhao, G.F. Du, L. Luo, G.H. Qin, Q.P. Jiang, Y.J. Liu, H.Y. Zhao, CrystEngComm, 2015, 17, 2030.
- 14 Y. Liu, A. B. Sadik, J. J. Belbruno, M. A. Crane, S. E. Tanski, Nicotine Tob. Res., 2013, 15, 1511.
- 15 J. H. Yu, Gy. M. Choi, Sens. Actuators B, 2001, 75, 56.
- 16 B. Nicolae, S. Markus, G. Wolfgang, Fresen. J. Analy. Chem., 1999, 365, 287.
- 17 Z.P. Li, Q.Q. Zhao, W.L. Fan, J.H. Zhan, Nanoscale, 2011, 3, 1646.
- 18 S. Matsushima, T. Maekawal, J. Tamaki, N. Miura, N. Uamazoe, Chem. Lett., 1989, 18, 845.
- 19 D. F. Zhang, L. D. Sun, G. Xu, C. H. Yan, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., 2006, 8, 4874.
- 20 L. L. Fields, J.P. Zheng, Appl. Phys. Lett., 2006, 88, 263102.
- 21 H. Huang, Y. C. Lee, O. K. Tan, W. Zhou, N. Peng, Q. Zhang, Nanotechnology, 2009, 20, 115501.
- 22 L. Shi, H. L. Lin, Langmuir, 2011, 27, 3977.
- 23 L. L. Wang, J. N. Deng, Z. Lou, T. Zhang, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2014, 2, 10022.
- 24 L. L. Wang, T. Fei, Z. Lou, T. Zhang, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces, 2011, 3, 4689.
- 25 J. B. Sun, P. Sun, D. L. Zhang, J. Xu, X. S. Liang, F. M. Liu, G. Y. Lu, RSC Adv., 2014, 4, 43429.
- 26 J. Wang, F. Yang, X. W. Wei, Y. F. Zhang, L. M. Wei, J. J. Zhang, Q. F. Tang, B. Guo, L. Xu, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, 16, 16711.
- 27 L. Luo, Q. P. Jiang, G. H. Qin, K. Zhao, G. F. Du, H. Wang, H. Y. Zhao, Sens. Actuators B, 2015, 218, 205.
- 28 L. L. Wang, H. Dou, Z. Lou, T Zhang, Nanoscale, 2013, 5, 2686.
- 29 N. S. Murata, T. Y. Suzuki, M. T. Kobayashi, F. K. Togoh, K. K. Asakura, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., 2013, 15, 17938.
- 30 T.T. Wang, S.Y. Ma, L. Cheng, J. Luo, X.H. Jiang, W.X. Jin, Sens. Actuators B, 2015, 216, 212.
- 31 W. Q. Li, S. Y. Ma, Y. F. Li, X. B. Li, C. Y. Wang, X. H. Yang, L. Cheng, Y. Z. Mao, J. Luo, D. J. Genzang, G. X. Wan, X. L. Xu, *Alloys Comp.*, 2014, **605**, 80.
- 32 L. P. Chikhale, J. Y. Patil, A. V. Rajgure, F. I. Shaikh, I. S. Mulla, S. S. Suryavanshi, Ceram. Int., 2014, 40, 2179.
- 33 F. Pourfayaz, Y. Mortazavi, A. Khodadadi, S. Ajami, Sens. Actuators B, 2008, 130, 625.
- 34 S. Habibzadeh, A. A. Khodadadi, Y. Mortazavi, Sens. Actuators B, 2010, 144, 131.

- 35 Y. L. Cao, W. Y. Pan, Y. Zong, D. Z. Jia, Sens. Actuators B, 2009, 138, 480.
- 36 S. D. Wu, C. Li, W. Wei, H. X. Wang, Y. L. Song, Y.Q. Zhu, L. Z. Lu, J. Rare Earths, 2010, 28, 171.
- 37 C. Su, Y. C. Zou, X. F. Xu, L. Liu, Z. Liu, L. L. Liu, Colloids and Surfaces A: Physicochem. Eng. Aspects, 2015, 472, 63.
- 38 Y. L. Wang, M. Guo, M. Zhang, X. D. Wang, CrystEngComm, 2010, 12, 4024.
- 39 I.T. Weber, A. Valentini, L.F.D. Probst, E. Longo, E.R. Leite, Mater. Lett., 2008, 62, 1677.
- 40 X. Ya, G. Z. Zhang, S. P. Zhang, D. W. Zeng, C. S. Xie, Mater. Res. Bull., 2014, 52, 56.
- 41 J. Oviedo, M. J. Gillan, Surf. Sci., 2000, 463, 93.
- 42 L. Abello, B. Bochu, A. Gaskov, S. Koudryavtseva, G. Lucazeau and M. Roumyantseva, *J. Solid State Chem.*, 1998, **135**, 78.
- 43 J. F. Scott, J. Chem. Phys., 1970, 53, 852.
- 44 D. L. Hou, H. J. Meng, L. Y. Jia, X. J. Ye, H. J. Zhou, X. L. Li, Phys. Lett. A, 2007, 364, 318.
- 45 D. F. Zhang, L. D. Sun, G. Xu and C. H. Yan, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., 2006, 8, 4874.
- 46 C. H. Shek, G. M. Lin, J. K. L. Lai, Nanostruct. Mater., 1999, 11, 831.
- 47 A. Dieguez, A. Ramano-Rodrigues, A. Vila, J.R. Morante, J. Appl. Phys., 2001, 90, 1550.
- 48 Z. F. Dai, L. C Jia, G. T. Duan, Y. Li, H. W. Zhang, J. J Wang, J. L. Hu, W. P. Cai, Chem.-A Eur. J., 2013, 19, 13387.
- 49 C. D. Wagner, W. M. Riggs, L. E. Davis, Handbook of X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy; PerkinElmer: Eden Prairie, MN, 1979.
- 50 Y. D. Wang, I. Djerdj, M. Antonietti, B. M. Smarsly, Small, 2008, 4, 1656
- 51 M. S. Yao, F. Ding, Y. B. Cao, P. Hu, J. M. Fan, C. Lu, F. L. Yuan, C. Y. Shi, Y. F. Chen, Sens. Actuators, B: Chem., 2014, 201, 255.
- 52 M. Chen, Z. Wang, D. Han, F. Gu, G. Guo, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2011, 115, 12763.
- 53 J. C. C. Fan, J. B. Goodenough, J. Appl. Phys., 1977, 48, 3524.
- 54 L. X. Zhang, J. H. Zhao, H. Q. Lu, L. M. Gong, L. Li, J. F. Zheng, Sens. Actuators, B, 2011, 160, 364.
- 55 G. T. Ang, G. H. Toh, M. Z. A. Bakar, A. Z. Abdullah, M. R. Othman, Proc. Saf. Environ. Protect., 2011, 89, 186.
- 56 N. Yamazoe, J. Fuchigama, M. Kishikawa, T. Seiyama, Surf. Sci., 1979, 86, 335.
- 57 J. Kaur, S. C. Roy, M. C. Bhatnagar, Sens. Actuators B, 2007, 123, 1090.
- 58 S. L. Shi, Y. G. Liu, Y. J. Chen, J. Y. Zhang, Y. G. Wang, T. H. Wang, Sens. Actuators B, 2009, 140, 426.
- 59 D. E. Williams, Sens. Actuators B, 1999, 57, 1.
- 60 N. Yamazoe, G. Sakai, K. Shimanoe, Catal. Surv. Asia, 2003, 7, 63.
- 61 M. T. Batzill, U. R Diebold, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., 2007, 9, 2307.
- 62 Z. Y. Zhang, R. J. Zou, G. S. Song, L. Yu, Z. G. Chen and J. Q. Hu, J. Mater. Chem., 2011, 21, 17360.
- 63 H. K. Wang, F. Fu, F. H. Zhang, H. E. Wang, S. V. Kershaw, J. Q. Xu, S. G. Sun, A. L. Rogach, J. Mater. Chem., 2012, 22, 2140.
- 64 S. Q. Tian, Y. P. Zhang, D. W. Zeng, H. Wang, N. Li, C. S. Xie, C. X. Pan, X. J Zhao, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., 2015,

**17**, 27437.

65 W. An, X. Wu, X. C. Zeng, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2008, 112, 5747.

66 J. C. Belmonte, J. Manzano, J. Arbiol, A. Cirera, J. Puigorbe, A. Vila, N. Sabate, I. Cracia, C. Cane, J. R. Morante, Sens. Actuators B, 2006, 114, 881.