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1 **Multifunctional Tin Dioxide Materials: Advances in Preparation**
2 **Strategies, Microstructure, and Performance**

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16 **Abstract**

17 Tin oxide materials are a class of unique semiconductor materials with widespread technological
18 applications because of their valuable semiconducting, gas sensing, electrical and optical properties in
19 the fields of macro/mesoscopic materials and micro/nanodevices. In this review, we describe the efforts
20 toward understanding the synthetic strategies and formation mechanisms of the micro/nanostructures of
21 various tin dioxide thin films prepared by pulsed laser ablation, highlighting contributions from our
22 laboratory. First, we present the preparation and formation processes of tetragonal-phase tin dioxide
23 thin films with interesting fractal clusters. In addition, the quantum-dot formation and dynamic scaling
24 behavior in tetragonal-phase tin dioxide thin films induced by pulsed delivery will be discussed
25 experimentally and theoretically. Finally, we emphasize the fabrication, properties and formation
26 mechanism of orthorhombic-phase tin dioxide thin films by using pulsed laser deposition. This
27 research may provide a novel approach to modulate their competent performance and promote rational
28 design of micro/nanodevices. Once mastered, tin dioxide thin films with a variety of fascinating
29 micro/nanostructures will offer vast and unforeseen opportunities in semiconductor industry as well as
30 in other fields of science and technology.

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32 **Keywords:** Tin Oxides; Thin Films; Preparation Strategies; Microstructure; Performance

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38 1. Introduction

39 The key scientific issues of semiconductor micro/nanodevices and optoelectronics components in
40 application and development have been driven scientists to explore in depth the design, preparation,
41 micro/nanostructure and performance of semiconductor materials.¹⁻⁵ Semiconductor oxides are
42 fundamental to the development of smart and functional materials, devices, and systems. Tin oxide
43 materials have two unique structural features: mixed cation valences and an adjustable oxygen
44 deficiency, which are the bases for creating and tuning many novel material properties, from chemical
45 to physical. Tin oxide micro/nanostructures have garnered considerable attention in recent years for
46 their potential to facilitate both the fundamental research and practical applications through their
47 advantageous chemical and physical properties.⁶⁻⁸ An integrated device for semiconductor industry is
48 highly desirable for versatile advanced applications.⁹⁻¹¹ The prospect of using pulsed laser deposition
49 processes to fabricate semiconductor oxide thin films continues to drive research towards improving
50 the performance of the semiconducting materials utilized in these devices. Since the properties of
51 materials strongly depend on its micro/nanostructures, which all result from the fabrication processes,
52 the influence of micro/nanostructural evolution on material properties is especially remarkable for
53 materials science and engineering.^{12,13} However, challenges remain to further improve the material
54 fabrication processes for various advanced applications. This optimization requires a clear
55 understanding of the relationship between micro/nanostructures and thin film morphologies.^{14,15}

56 Tin oxide micro/nanostructures provide a versatile, multifaceted platform for a broad range of
57 advanced applications.¹⁶ Recent studies have validated their use in many fields of science and
58 technology that integrate the areas of chemistry, physics, materials science and nanotechnology. For
59 example, they can function as semiconductors for a number of applications in microelectronic devices,
60 optoelectronic components, and solar-thermal converter, they can serve as gas-sensors for the detection
61 and forecasting of a variety of combustible gases, environmental pollution gases, industrial emissions

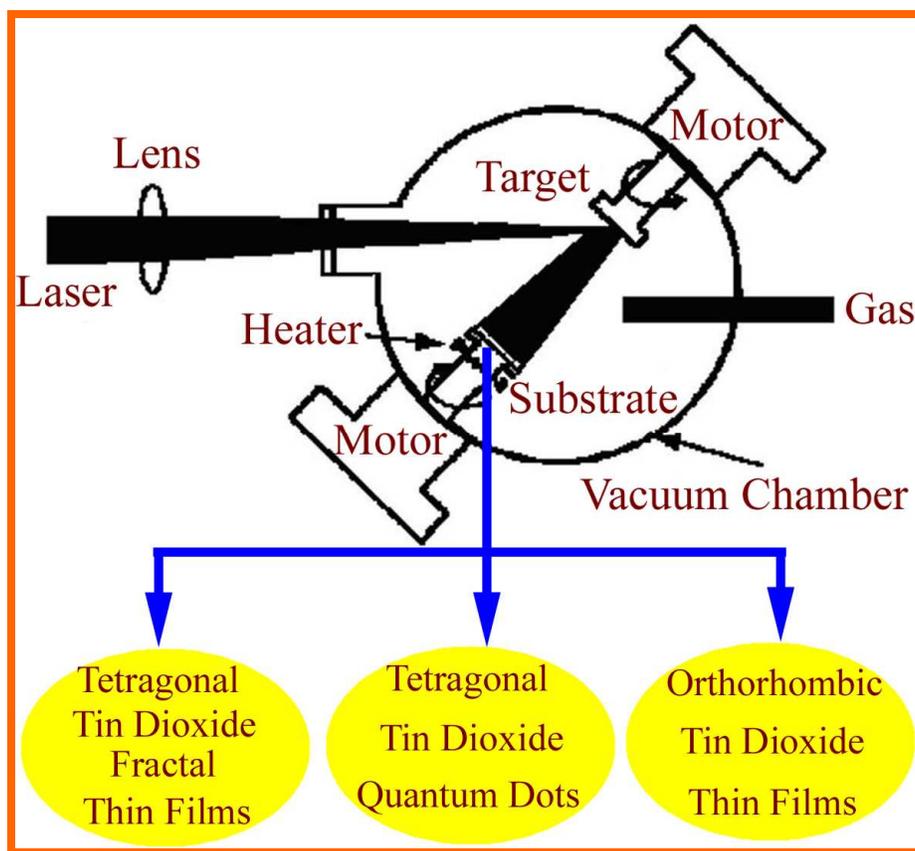
62 and hazardous gases, they can be used as electrodes for melting optical glass and electrolytic aluminum
63 industry, they can act as catalysts for the active phase of many heterogeneous catalysis in hydrocarbon
64 oxidation, they can also serve as varistor for the arrester used in power systems, and so on.

65 Tin dioxide (SnO_2) thin films are essential components of several modern technologies. For instance,
66 SnO_2 thin films represent an unsurpassed material in the design of metal oxide gas-sensors,^{17,18} and the
67 microelectronic revolution would have not been the same without the excellent properties of SnO_2 thin
68 films. However, SnO_2 thin films with fascinating micro/nanostructures are often used in many sundry
69 devices and systems. For example, it is used as the lithium-ion battery anode materials, gas-sensing
70 materials, negative temperature coefficient thermistor materials, doped SnO_2 varistor materials,
71 resistance-type humidity-sensing materials, catalyst materials, optical and electrical materials, etc. the
72 possibility to grow micro/nanostructures is therefore essential to improve the performance of SnO_2
73 thin films.¹⁹ Several synthetic strategies have been developed to grow the SnO_2 thin films and study
74 their chemistry.^{20,21} In fact, significant advances have been done in the understanding of the
75 micro/nanostructural evolution of SnO_2 thin films.^{22,23} However, it is only in the past few years that it
76 became evident that besides SnO_2 thin films that closely resemble the corresponding bulk materials,
77 also new systems exist, sometimes with unexpected properties either related to the morphologies of
78 SnO_2 thin films or to their micro/nanostructural flexibility. Presumably, the most exciting
79 developments are related to the possibility to modify in a desired manner the chemical properties of
80 molecules or deposited SnO_2 thin films with fascinating micro/nanostructures.^{24,25} Most of above
81 applications are based upon the novel micro/nanostructures known as derived from different synthetic
82 strategies and processing.²⁶⁻²⁸ Pulsed laser deposition (PLD) technique is considered to be one of the
83 effective methods for the preparation of SnO_2 thin films with fascinating micro/nanostructures.

84 PLD is a useful growth tool in which photonic energy is coupled to the bulk starting material via
85 electronic processes.^{29,30} Laser ablation for thin film growth has many advantages: (i) energy source

86 (laser) is outside the vacuum chamber, in contrast to vacuum-installed devices, which provides a much
87 greater degree of flexibility in materials used and geometrical arrangements; (ii) almost any condensed
88 matter material can be ablated; (iii) pulsed nature means that thin film growth rates may be finely
89 controlled; (iv) amount of evaporated source material is localized only to that area defined by the laser
90 focus; (v) under optimal conditions, the ratios of the elemental components of the bulk and thin films
91 are the same, even for chemically complex systems; (vi) kinetic energies of the ablated species lie
92 mainly in a range that promotes surface mobility while avoiding bulk displacements; and (vii) ability to
93 produce species with electronic states far from chemical equilibrium opens up the potential to produce
94 novel or metastable materials that would be unattainable under thermal conditions. Above growth
95 processes may be supplemented by an inert or reactive gas or ion source, which may affect the ablation
96 plume species in the gas phase or surface reaction. The diversity of thin films grown by using PLD is
97 enormous and perhaps recommends its flexibility more persuasively than anything else.

98 During the past ten years or so, we and our collaborators have actively devoted in the investigations
99 of the micro/nanostructures of tin oxide thin films that related to the synthesis methods, technological
100 improvements, characterizations, properties and applications. This review only covers some of the most
101 recent studies, with a focus on their synthetic strategies and formation mechanisms. We start with a
102 detailed investigation of the preparation and formation processes of tetragonal-phase SnO₂ thin films
103 with interesting fractal clusters. We then describe experimentally and theoretically the quantum dot
104 formation and dynamic scaling behavior in tetragonal-phase SnO₂ thin films induced by pulsed
105 delivery. Finally, we elaborate on the fabrication, properties and formation mechanism of
106 orthorhombic-phase SnO₂ thin films. Fig. 1 shows schematic illustrating the morphological changes
107 involved in the tetragonal SnO₂ fractal thin films, tetragonal SnO₂ quantum dots and orthorhombic
108 SnO₂ thin films prepared by laser ablation.



109

110 **Fig. 1** Schematic illustrating the morphological changes involved in the tetragonal SnO₂ fractal thin
111 films, tetragonal SnO₂ quantum dots and orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films prepared by laser ablation.

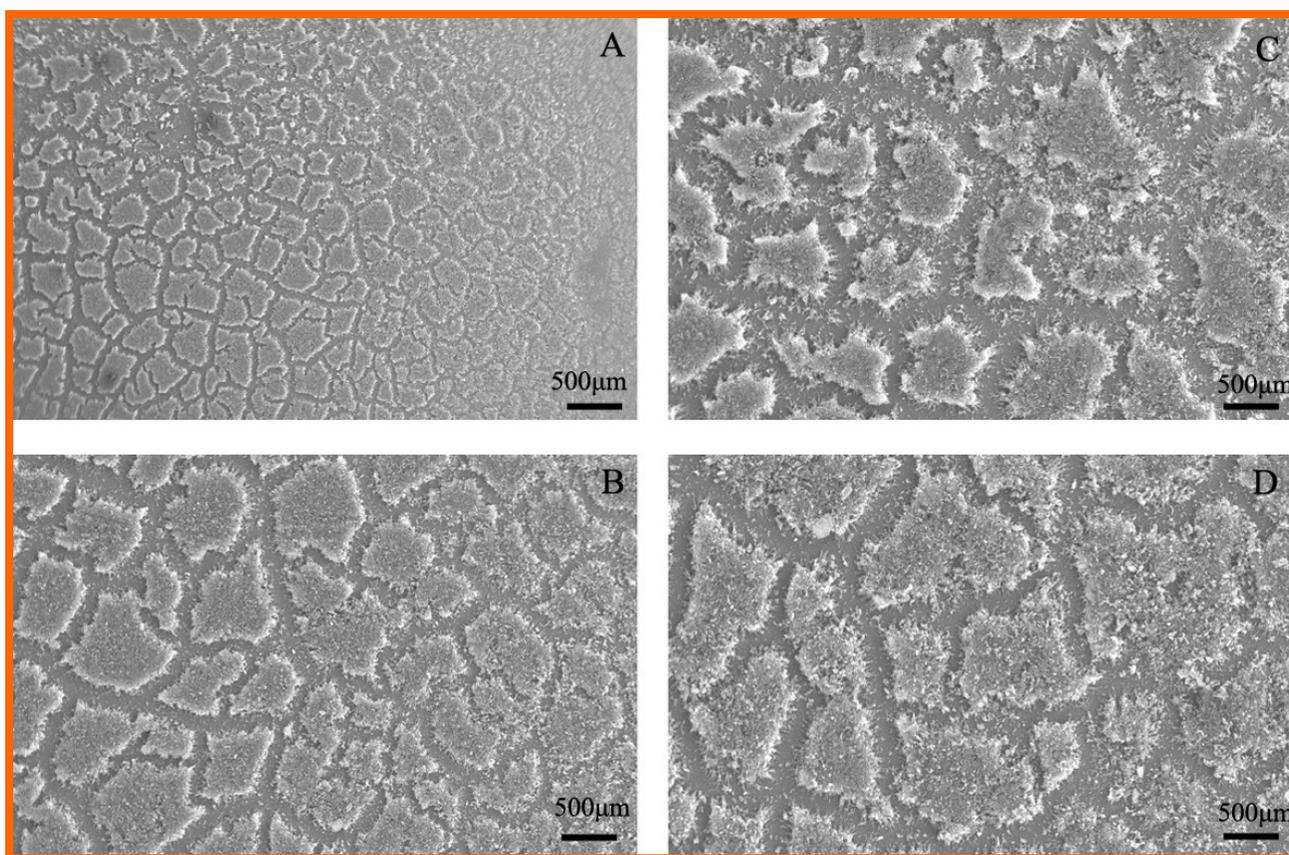
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113 2. Tin dioxide fractal thin films

114 With the advent of advanced thin film technology more cost-effective, reproducible devices can be
115 constructed with a reduction in device size and a concomitant increase in the response speed by using
116 SnO₂ thin films. Since gas sensing is based on adsorption mechanism on the SnO₂ grain surface, a
117 small grain size is desirable in order to achieve a high specific area for high sensitivity.^{31,32} Structural
118 properties, such as grain size, grain geometry as well as specific surface area, can significantly affect
119 the gas sensing properties of SnO₂ thin films. In order to control these structural characteristics, the
120 micro/nanostructural evolution of SnO₂ thin films should be understood. Micro/nanostructural

121 variations should inevitably change their chemical and physical properties. Thus, the study of the
122 micro/nanostructures of SnO₂ grains can help us to reveal some peculiar micro/nanoscale features and
123 to explain the corresponding experimental results.

124 Fractal theory is a potentially powerful technique to characterize micro/nanostructures. We and our
125 collaborators have successfully applied this technique to the fractal assessment of SnO₂ thin films.^{33,34}
126 Besides showing some examples of geometric structures of SnO₂ thin films, here we will discuss the
127 applicability and relevance of fractal theory to studying the micro/nanostructure and formation
128 mechanism of SnO₂ thin films. Fig. 2 shows the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of SnO₂
129 thin films prepared on Si (100) substrate at temperatures of (A) 300, (B) 350, (C) 400, and (D) 450°C,
130 respectively. SEM observation indicated that all thin films produced under different substrate
131 temperatures exhibited self-similar fractal patterns. It can be seen that the fractal patterns are open and
132 loose structure with increasing substrate temperature. The average size and fractal dimension (*D*) of the
133 fractal clusters for four thin films were estimated by measurement on the fractal regions and using
134 conventional box-counting method,³⁵⁻³⁷ respectively, which were decided to be about 0.307 μm (Fig.
135 3A) with *D* = 1.896, 0.906 μm (Fig. 3B) with *D* = 1.884, 1.202 μm (Fig. 3C) with *D* = 1.865, and 1.608
136 μm (Fig. 3D) with *D* = 1.818. It was found that the average size of the fractal clusters increased and the
137 fractal dimension decreased with increasing substrate temperature. The smaller fractal dimension
138 means that the SnO₂ thin films are composed of the open and loose fractal structure with finer branches.
139 This fractal structure may lead to improvement in the design of gas sensors for the monitoring of
140 environmental pollutants.



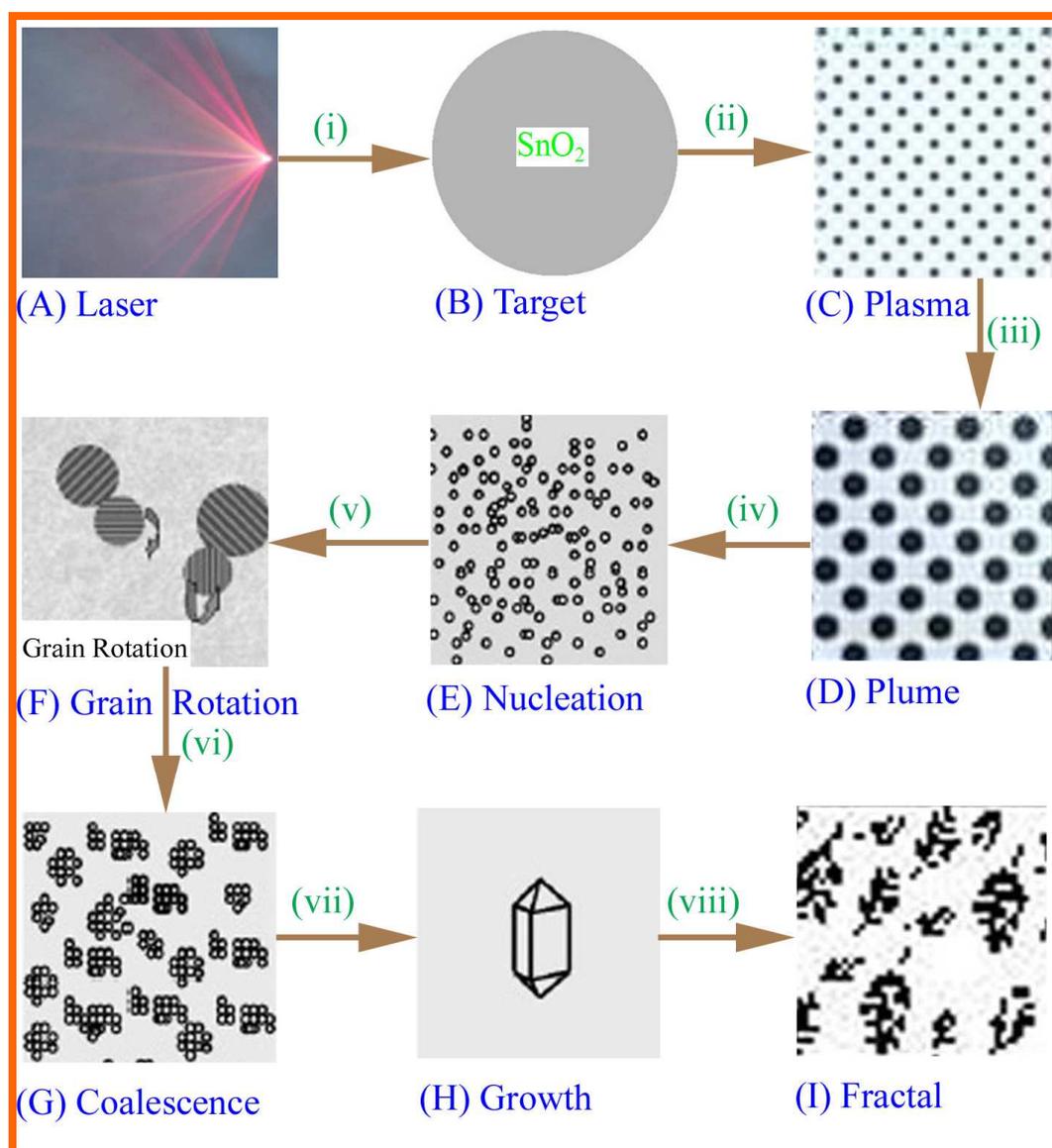
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142 **Fig. 2** SEM images of SnO₂ thin films prepared on Si (100) substrate at temperatures of (A) 300; (B)
143 350; (C) 400; and (D) 450°C.³³

144

145 On the basis of experimental observation, the formation process of SnO₂ nanocrystals and fractal
146 clusters could be reasonably described by a novel model proposed by us.³³ It was separated into eight
147 steps, which illustrated in detail in Fig. 3: (i) operation of the KrF excimer laser at a repetition rate of
148 10 Hz at an incident angle of 45° to the polished sintered cassiterite SnO₂ target rotating at a rate of 15
149 rpm to avoid drilling; (ii) production of the high-temperature and high-pressure SnO₂ plasma at the
150 solid-liquid interface quickly after the interaction between the pulsed laser and SnO₂ target; (iii)
151 subsequent expansion of the high-temperature and high-pressure SnO₂ plasma leading to cooling of the
152 SnO₂ plumes.^{38,39} In this case, the interval between two successive pulses is much longer than the life

153 of the plasma. Therefore, the next laser pulse had no interaction with the former plasma; (iv) deposition
154 of the SnO₂ plume on Si (100) substrate after the disappearance of the plasma, inducing the initial
155 nucleation of SnO₂ nanocrystals; (v) grain rotation culminating in a low-energy configuration. This
156 process is directly related to the reduction of surface energy, aimed at minimizing the area of high-
157 energy interfaces;⁴⁰ (vi) possible formation of a coherent boundary between grains due to grain rotation,
158 with the consequence of removing the common grain boundary and culminating in a single larger SnO₂
159 nanocrystal. This is the coalescence process; (vii) growth of SnO₂ nanocrystals along preferred
160 crystallographic directions which could be predicted by an analysis of the surface energy in several
161 crystallographic orientations; (viii) formation of the fractal structure as SnO₂ crystallizes and nucleates
162 at high energy interfaces such as grains boundaries. According to the fractal theory, the heat released
163 by crystallization leads to a local temperature rise in surrounding area and this temperature field can
164 propagate quickly and stimulate new nuclei appearing randomly in nearby regions. The stimulated
165 nuclei of the next generation can also cause a local temperature rise and repeat the above process many
166 times until SnO₂ fractal patterns are formed.^{41,42} Based on the above proposed formation mechanism,
167 we characterized the formation processes of SnO₂ fractal clusters as shown in Fig. 3A~I. We believe
168 that the laser ablation technique is an appropriate method to synthesize a series of fractal clusters with
169 controlled composition, morphology and nanocrystal size, which are of important in the study of the
170 sensitivity of SnO₂ thin films.



171

172 **Fig. 3** The formation processes of SnO₂ nanocrystals and fractal clusters: (A) laser; (B) target; (C)
 173 plasma; (D) plume; (E) nucleation; (F) grain rotation; (G) coalescence; (H) growth; and (I) fractal.³³

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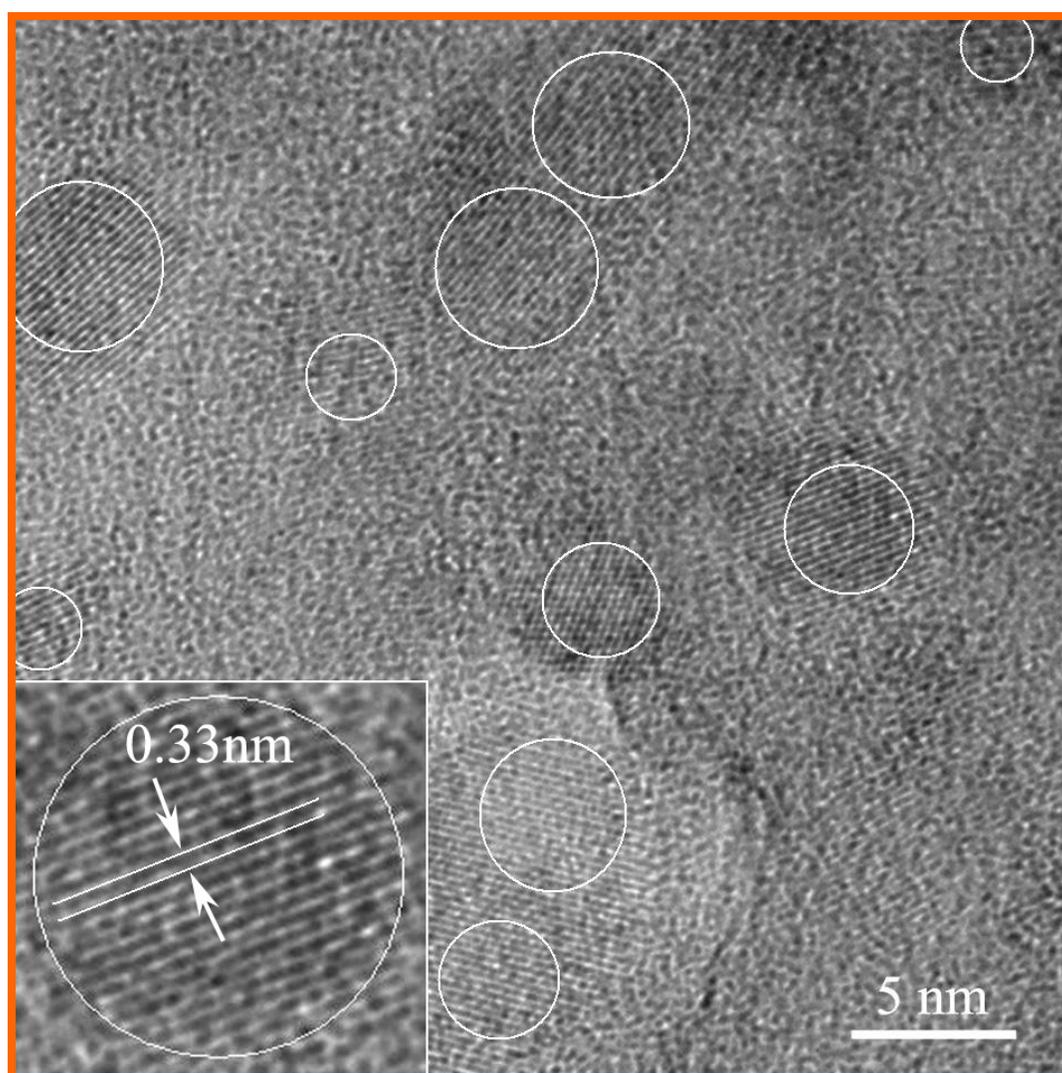
175 3. Tin dioxide quantum dots

176 In a variety of nonequilibrium growth processes, such as gelation, aggregation, coagulation, and
 177 condensation, the formation of size-distributed clusters is a very commonly encountered phenomenon.

178 Therefore, understanding the related dynamics is a problem of considerable interest. Many studies on

179 this subject have revealed the scale invariance of the cluster size distribution. Among the various
180 processes involving cluster/droplet growth and coalescence, the process of vapor deposition has been
181 most widely investigated, a few examples being the role of condensate patterns in heat transfer, breath-
182 figure formation, and thin film growth. We have successfully demonstrated experimentally and
183 theoretically the quantum dot formation and dynamic scaling behavior of SnO₂ nanocrystals induced by
184 pulsed delivery.⁴³ Fig. 4 shows a high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) image of
185 the as-deposited SnO₂ thin films prepared by PLD method. It can be seen that the clear-cut crystalline
186 features inside the SnO₂ thin films. On closer inspection, recurrent values of separation distance
187 between lattice layers were found (in particular, 0.33 nm, evidenced in the bottom left-hand corner
188 inset of Fig. 4), corresponding to lattice parameters of the rutile structure of SnO₂ cassiterite phase
189 (arising from <110> reflection). HRTEM investigation can give useful information about local
190 composition at dislocation cores. As can clearly be seen in Fig. 4, the grain cluster is composed of
191 several primary nanocrystallites without grain boundaries. This is strong evidence that the coalescence
192 occurs when two or more neighbor grains assume the same orientation, resulting in a single
193 nanocrystal. When nanocrystalline materials grow by oriented attachment at crystallographically
194 specific surfaces, there is a small misorientation at the interface. Spiral growth at two or more closely
195 spaced screw dislocations provides a mechanism for generating complex structures.⁴⁰ When the grains
196 assume the same orientation, that is, a coherent grain-grain boundary, the grain boundary must migrate
197 toward the smaller particle, resulting in a single larger nanocrystal.⁴² We suggest that these
198 nanocrystals are composed of isolated SnO₂ nanocrystals about from 4 to 10 nm in size that are
199 besieged by amorphous phase. This structure should result in the quantum dots of SnO₂ nanocrystals.
200 The local HRTEM image revealed that individual SnO₂ nanocrystal embedded isolatedly in an
201 amorphous matrix, which confirmed that the existence of the quantum dots is due to the reduction of
202 the grain size by pulsed delivery. It is reasonable to speculate that the crystalline quantum dots may

203 lead to further enhancement of the energy gap due to low-dimensional confinement. This quantum dot
204 distribution is in agreement with previous simulations based on the kinetic Monte-Carlo model.⁴³



205

206 **Fig. 4** HRTEM image of the as-prepared SnO₂ thin films shows the structural features of the crystalline
207 nanophase; the bottom left-hand corner inset shows a magnification of the image of a single SnO₂ dot
208 5.5 nm in diameter in (110) plane with the measured lattice parameters.⁴³

209

210 Fig. 5 shows the kinetic Monte-Carlo simulations of pulsed-laser deposition (Fig. 5a) and molecular-
211 beam epitaxy (MBE) (Fig. 5b) in the submonolayer regime. This model is controlled by three

212 parameters: the pulse intensity I , the diffusion constant D , and the average flux density of incoming
213 particles F . In particular, the control parameter of PLD is the pulse intensity I , which is the number of
214 particles deposited in one pulse per unit area, and the diffusion-to-deposition ratio D/F . The average
215 deposition rate is given by $F = I/\Delta t$, where Δt is the time interval between two pulses. The intensity is
216 measured in monolayers (ML), and D/F is dimensionless, as the lattice constant is set to unity.
217 Performing Monte-Carlo simulations, we investigated the nucleation density for various pulse
218 intensities using a system size of 400×400 square lattice and the island distance has been measured at
219 0.2 ML coverage, when the island density reaches its maximum but coalescence does not yet set in. For
220 small intensities, we recover the well-known power law for the island distance in MBE.⁴⁴

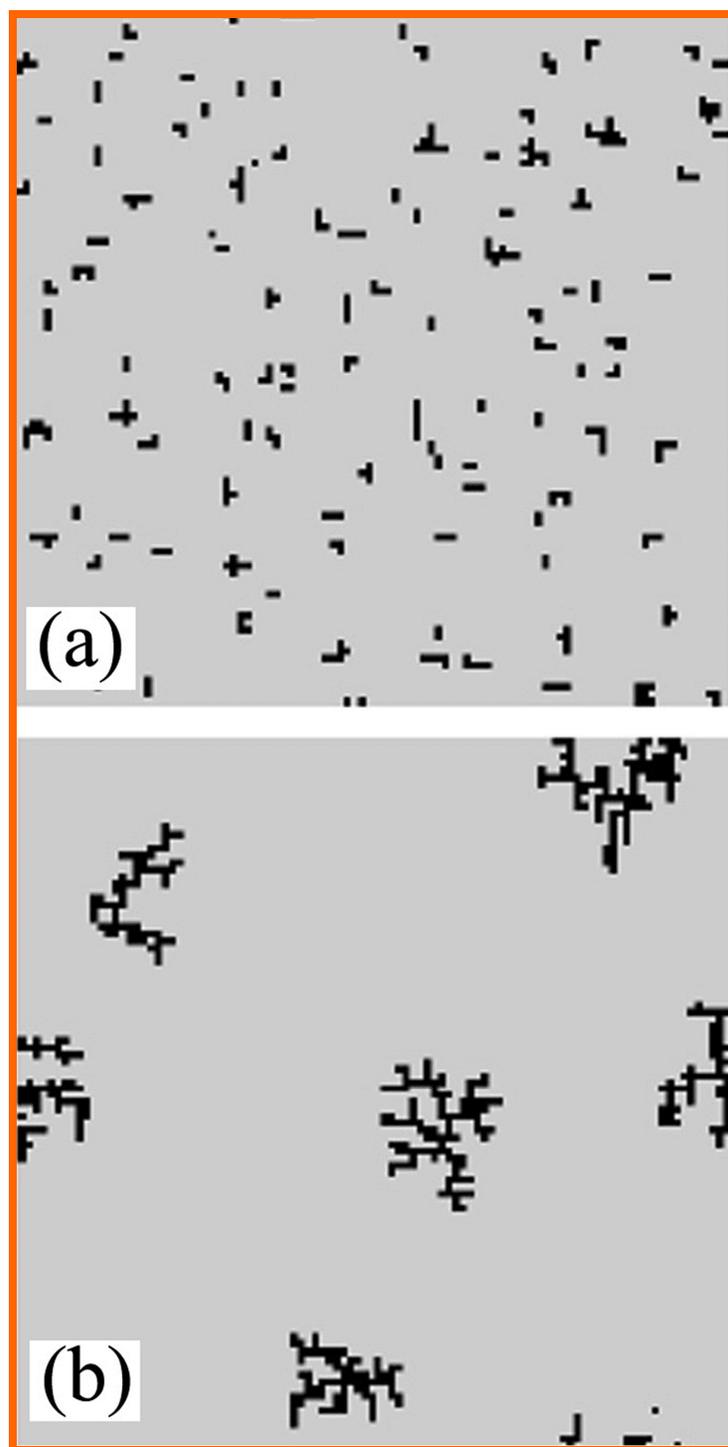
$$221 \quad l_D \propto (D/F)^\gamma, \quad (1)$$

222 where the exponent γ depending on the dimension of the surface, the island dimension, and the critical
223 nucleus i^* , that is, the smallest stable island contains i^*+1 atoms. For a two-dimensional surface,
224 compact islands and a critical nucleus of $i^* = 1$, one obtains $\gamma = 1/6$. Here, one should note that the
225 islands are not compact but fractal patterns as shown in Fig. 5b. This is due to the fact that edge
226 diffusion is not considered in the simulations. The exponent γ can be determined from simulations such
227 that one monitors the number of nucleation events in a layer ($\propto l_D^{-2}$) as a function of D/F . However, for
228 PLD with large intensities, the island distance obeys a different power law:

$$229 \quad l_D \propto I^{-\nu}, \quad (2)$$

230 where $\nu = \gamma/(1-2\gamma) = 1/(2+d_f)$, and more generally $\gamma = 1/(4+d_f)$, if they have the fractal
231 dimension d_f . In this regime the island distance is independent of the parameter D/F , since the adatoms
232 do not make use of their diffusion probability, as they find an island and attach to it in a much shorter
233 time as the time they are allowed to diffuse between two depositions. Therefore, above two regimes

234 described by the formulae (1) and (2) are separated by a crossover at a certain intensity, where the
235 number of deposited atoms is of the same order of magnitude as the adatom density. As the average
236 adatom density n in MBE scales as $n \propto (D/F)^{-1+2\gamma}$, the critical intensity has to show the same scaling
237 behavior: $I_c \propto (D/F)^{-1+2\gamma}$. The qualitative difference between PLD and MBE for $I > I_c$ is shown in Fig.
238 5. As can be seen, there are many nucleations at an early stage, although the effective flux of incoming
239 particles is the same in both cases. The scaling behavior, namely, the fractal dimension, is measured by
240 using the box-counting method. The fractal dimension values for the PLD and MBE were decided to be
241 1.28 ± 0.03 and 1.62 ± 0.03 , respectively. The scaling exponent was found to be significantly different as
242 compared to the exponent for the same system under continuous vapor deposition such as MBE. The
243 simulations revealed that this attractive difference could be pursued to the large fraction of multiple
244 droplet coalescence under pulsed vapor delivery.



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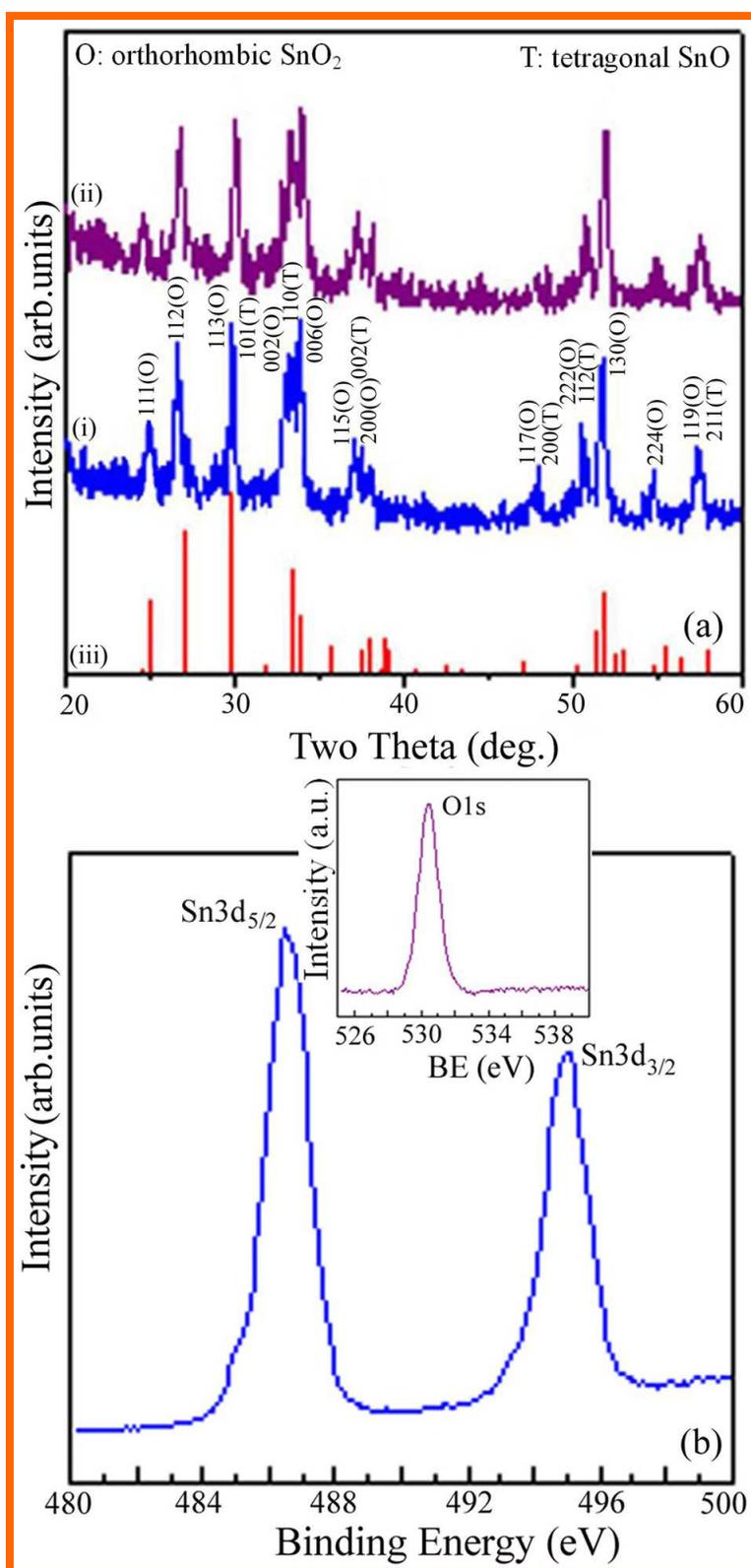
246 **Fig. 5** The kinetic Monte-Carlo simulations of pulsed-laser deposition and molecular-beam epitaxy in
247 the submonolayer regime. (a) A simulated PLD-grown surface with $D/F = 2 \times 10^8$ and $I = 0.01$ ML; (b)
248 A simulated MBE-grown surface with $D/F = 2 \times 10^8$. The figure shows typical configurations after
249 deposition of 0.05 ML.⁴³

250 4. Orthorhombic tin dioxide thin films

251 It has been known that the naturally occurring form of SnO₂ is cassiterite. Under normal conditions,
252 SnO₂ exists in the most important form of a crystalline phase known as cassiterite. The cassiterite has a
253 rutile tetragonal crystal structure and its optical, electrical and gas-sensing properties have been
254 extensively studied.^{22,23} Sangaletti and co-workers have reported SnO₂ multilayer thin film grown by
255 the rheotaxial growth and thermal oxidation method on Al₂O₃ substrates.⁴⁵ Their results indicated that,
256 in addition to the SnO₂ cassiterite phase, a contribution from another SnO₂ phase was present, which
257 can be related to cassiterite by introducing micro-twinning effects. This SnO₂ multilayer thin film
258 showed a higher sensitivity towards CO with respect to the conventional single layer SnO₂ sensors.
259 Another form of SnO₂ with an orthorhombic structure is known to be stable only at high pressures and
260 temperatures. The formation of orthorhombic-phase SnO₂ is intimately tied to a number of important
261 synthesis parameters such as high pressures and temperatures.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ Müller found an unknown epitaxial
262 interface phase of SnO₂ on α -quartz (10 $\bar{1}$ 0), which indicated that different octahedra stacking in the
263 case of SnO₂ may give rise to different orthorhombic possibilities.⁴⁹ Several authors have claimed the
264 “discovery” of this “high-pressure” phase under low-pressure conditions.⁵⁰⁻⁵³ Arbiol and co-workers
265 have reported the synthesis of pure monocrystalline orthorhombic SnO₂ nanowires and pure
266 monocrystalline orthorhombic SnO₂ nanowires decorated with cassiterite SnO₂ nanoclusters.⁵⁴ In fact,
267 when previous experiments are examined in detail, it is often difficult to rule out the possibility of the
268 presence of high compressive stress. Here, we highlight our experimental results of orthorhombic SnO₂
269 thin film under low pressure and temperature by using pulsed laser deposition technique.⁵⁵

270 The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the as-prepared thin films (Fig. 6a-i) indicated that the
271 major reflections can be indexed to the orthorhombic-phase SnO₂ (labeled O) referred to the
272 International Center for Diffraction Data PDF file as shown in Fig. 6a-iii. Upon exposing the as-
273 prepared thin films to ambient air for six months, the intensity and position of the XRD patterns remain

274 unchanged (Fig. 6a-ii). This result revealed that the as-prepared thin films are stable and have an
275 orthorhombic SnO₂ structure. However, it seems that some reflections can also be assigned to the
276 tetragonal-phase SnO (labeled T). Above results proved that the as-prepared thin films may be a
277 mixture matrix of the orthorhombic-phase SnO₂ and tetragonal-phase SnO. Further investigation of the
278 phase purity of the as-prepared thin films is necessary. Fig. 6b shows the X-ray photoelectron spectra
279 (XPS) taken from the tin and oxygen regions. The peaks at 495.0 and 486.5 eV are attributed to the
280 Sn3d_{3/2} and Sn3d_{5/2}, respectively, which are close to the data for Sn(3d) in SnO₂. The gap between the
281 Sn3d_{3/2} and Sn3d_{5/2} levels is 8.5 eV which is approximately the same as that in the standard spectrum
282 of Sn. The peak at 530.5 eV can be assigned to the O1s (the inset in Fig. 6b). Owing to the proximity of
283 the XRD patterns and XPS peaks of SnO₂ and SnO, the valence states of tin species of the as-prepared
284 thin films could not be satisfactorily determined from the XRD and XPS results. Fig. 7a represents the
285 room-temperature experimental Mössbauer spectrum for the as-prepared thin films as well as its fitting
286 curve. Clearly, only one absorbing peak appears here, with an isomer shift and a quadruple splitting
287 being 0 and ~0.6 mm/s, respectively. From data analysis, it is concluded that the tin shows a Sn⁴⁺
288 valence state. The energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS) analysis revealed that the as-prepared
289 thin films are composed of 33.4 at.% Sn and 66.6 at.% O (Fig. 7b), that is, Sn:O = 1:1.994, which is in
290 good agreement with Sn:O = 1:2 of SnO₂ bulk. The above results indicated that the chemical
291 composition of the as-prepared thin films is consistent with the SnO₂ form.



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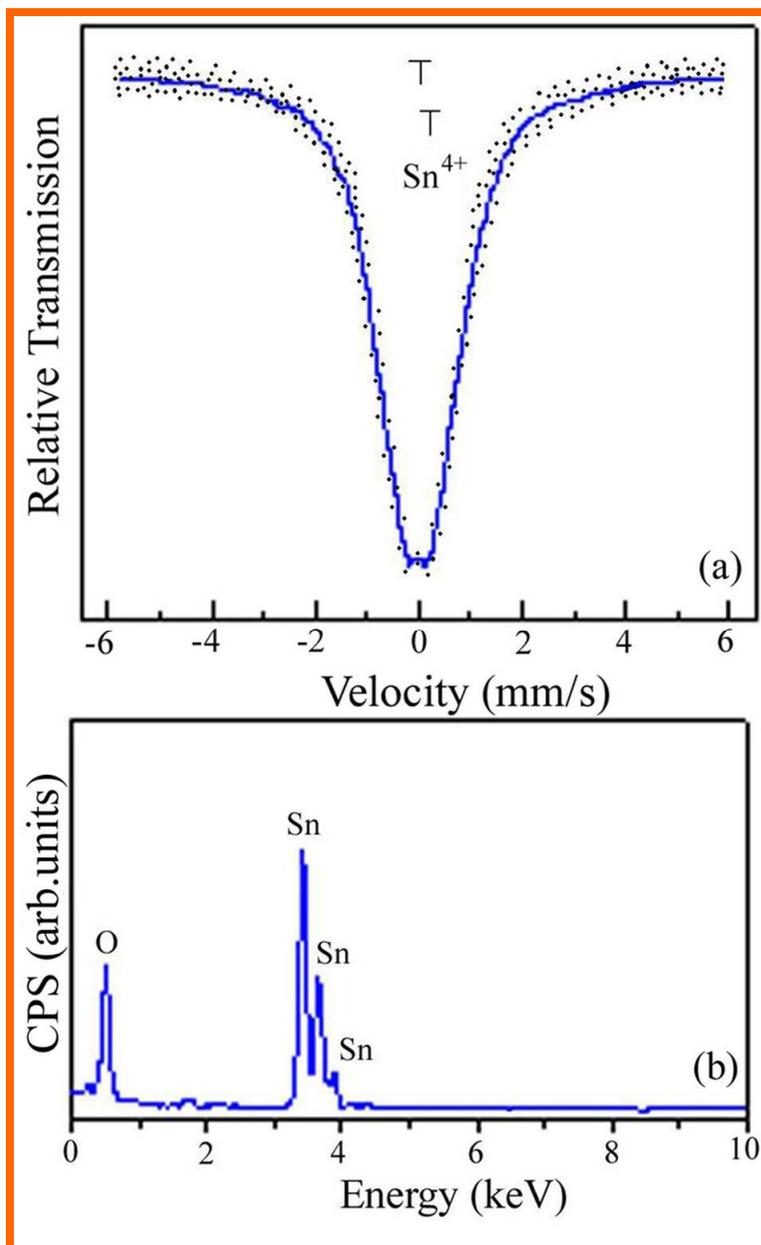
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Fig. 6 (a) XRD patterns of (i) the as-prepared SnO₂ thin film (orthorhombic SnO₂ labeled O and tetragonal SnO labeled T); (ii) exposing the as-prepared SnO₂ thin film to ambient air for six months;

295 (iii) the standard SnO₂ bulk. (b) XPS of the as-prepared SnO₂ thin film, which was taken from the tin
296 and oxygen regions.⁵⁵

297



298 **Fig. 7** (a) Room-temperature experimental Mössbauer spectrum for the as-prepared SnO₂ thin film and
299 its fitting curve. (b) EDXS of the as-prepared SnO₂ thin film.⁵⁵

300

301 Since the applications of SnO₂ are related to surface electronic properties, we further examined the
302 electronic structure of the orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films using soft X-ray absorption near-edge
303 structure (XANES) spectroscopy. A comparison of the Sn *M*_{4,5}-edge XANES spectrum of the
304 orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films to those of the tetragonal SnO₂ and SnO reference samples is given in
305 Fig. 8a. The Sn *M*_{4,5}-edge spectra reflected electron transitions from Sn3*d* core level (spin-orbit split
306 into 3*d*_{3/2} and 3*d*_{5/2} levels, giving rise to *M*₄ and *M*₅ edges, respectively) to unoccupied electronic states
307 above the Fermi level. If the core hole and electron correlation effects are ignored, such spectra
308 essentially depicted Sn-related *p*- and *f*-projected states in the conduction band. Nevertheless, it is
309 important to note that the surface electronic structure of the orthorhombic SnO₂ is more similar to that
310 of the tetragonal SnO₂ rather than the tetragonal SnO. The data in Fig. 8a show that undercoordinated
311 surface atoms in the orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films introduce additional Sn-related electronic states,
312 which are close to the conduction band minimum (~499 eV in Fig. 8a). This finding is surprising. It is
313 consistent with the Mössbauer and EDXS analysis which revealed no evidence of the tetragonal-phase
314 SnO, and rules out the existence of the tetragonal SnO in XRD. The evaluation of above all
315 experimental data indicated that the as-prepared thin films are composed of a pure orthorhombic-phase
316 SnO₂. Fig. 8b shows that the optical transmittance is measured in the wavelength range from 200-800
317 nm for the orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films and tetragonal SnO₂ reference sample at room temperature.
318 We found that the transparency of the orthorhombic SnO₂ is superior to that of the tetragonal SnO₂. Fig.
319 8c shows the absorption coefficient versus the photon energy for the orthorhombic SnO₂ and tetragonal
320 SnO₂ reference sample. A linear extrapolation towards zero absorption *E*_g corresponds to direct allowed
321 transitions. We obtained *E*_g = 4.02 eV for the orthorhombic SnO₂ and *E*_g = 3.73 eV for the tetragonal
322 SnO₂ reference sample in energy. By comparing *E*_g for the orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films with that of
323 the tetragonal SnO₂ reference sample, it is evident that the band-gap widening occurs and hence the
324 orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films becomes transparent.

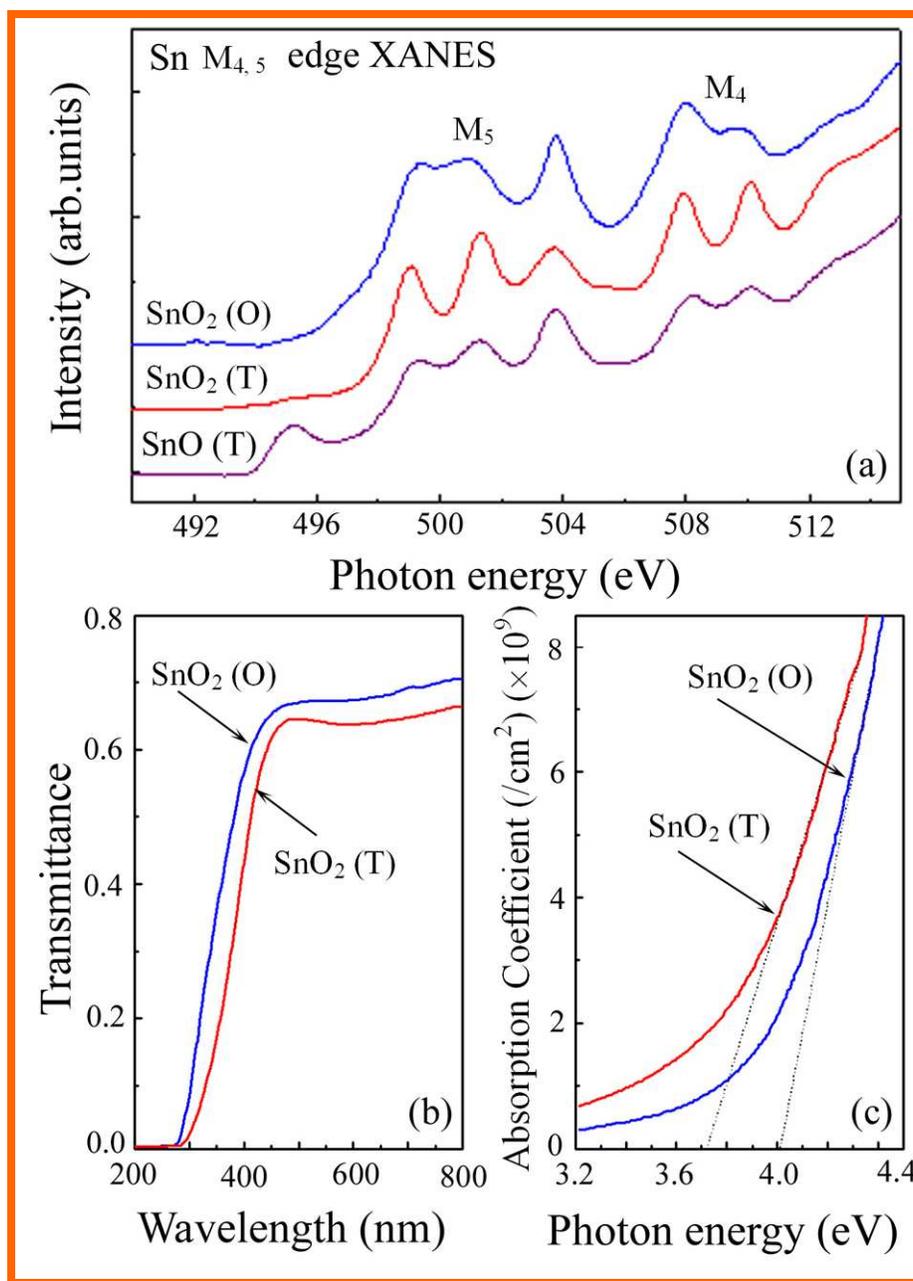
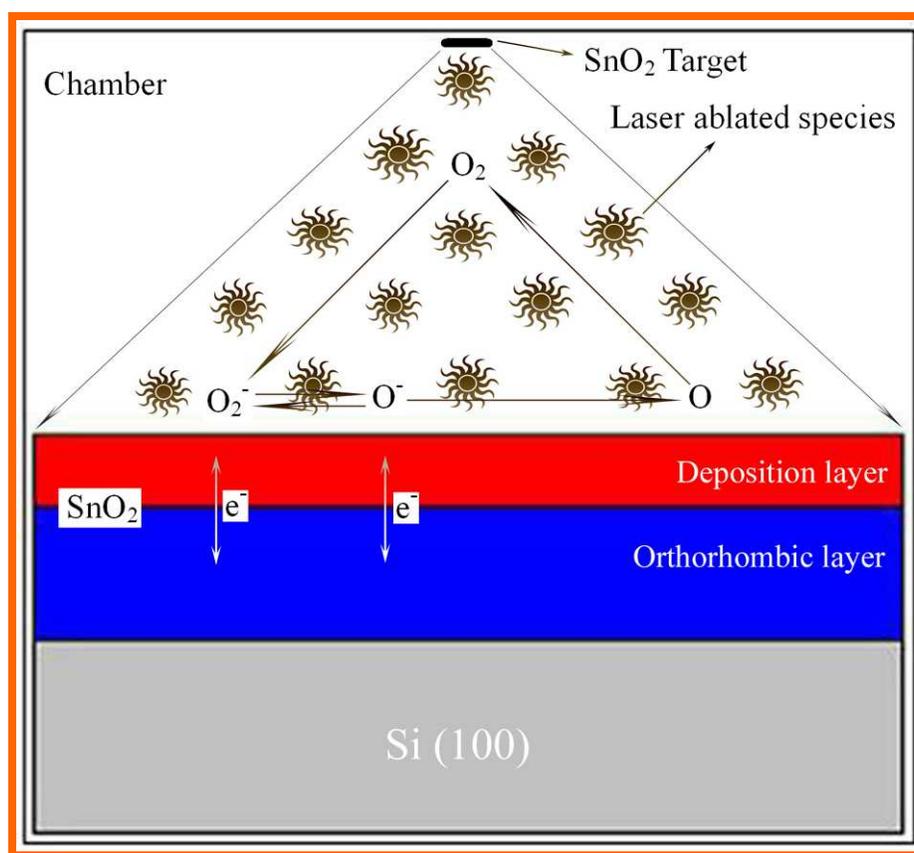


Fig. 8 (a) Sn $M_{4,5}$ -edge XANES spectrum of the orthorhombic SnO_2 [labeled $\text{SnO}_2(\text{O})$] compared with the spectra from tetragonal SnO_2 [labeled $\text{SnO}_2(\text{T})$] and SnO [labeled $\text{SnO}(\text{T})$]. (b) Spectrophotometric transmittance measured in a wavelength range of 200-800 nm for the orthorhombic SnO_2 and tetragonal SnO_2 . (c) Absorption coefficient vs photon energy obtained from Fig. 8b.⁵⁵

331 Further advancement of this approach to the synthesis of orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films requires a
332 clear understanding of its formation mechanism. Fig. 9 shows the schematic diagram of the oxygen
333 exchange reaction mechanism at the grain interfaces to explain the formation of this orthorhombic
334 phase. It consisted of four different oxygen species (O₂, O₂⁻, O⁻, and O) coupled by the elementary
335 reaction steps. Since the transported oxygen species is neutral atom, the availability of neutral oxygen
336 atom at the surface of the deposition layer is a factor influencing the degree of exchange. The amount
337 of available oxygen atom depends on the rate of the dissociation of O₂ and the amount of oxygen
338 species at the surface of the deposition layer in the atmosphere of the laser ablated plume. A based
339 explanation for the formation of orthorhombic-phase in the oxygen exchange reaction may come from
340 ablated plume to deposition layer variation. Since the grain-boundary diffusion is fast, we expect
341 oxygen exchange reaction at the grain interfaces in the deposition layer. The most significant
342 development of this model is the incorporation of the neutral oxygen atoms, which can be considered to
343 be a part of the lattice in the oxidized or stoichiometric form of the deposition layer, resulting in the
344 atomic rearrangement and the formation of the orthorhombic-phase SnO₂. In this model, the capture of
345 an electron depends on the thermal velocity of electrons close to the substrate temperature and the
346 density of electrons close to the surface of the deposition layer. Since the oxygen species (O₂⁻ and O⁻)
347 continuously exchange electrons with the deposition layer and the neutral oxygen atoms may contribute
348 to the lattice of the deposition layer via the faster diffusion of the grain boundary, which result in the
349 reduction of the oxygen vacancies, the band-gap widening occurs and the orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films
350 becomes transparent.⁵⁶ The epitaxial strain in randomly oriented polycrystalline orthorhombic SnO₂ thin
351 films should not attain substantial magnitude. We can speculate that the key factor for the synthesis of
352 the orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films is not compressive stress in the thin films. Above results indicated
353 that the orthorhombic SnO₂ thin films can be fabricated through processes at ambient or subambient
354 pressures.

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Fig. 9 Schematic diagram of oxygen exchange reaction mechanism at the grain interfaces to explain the formation and optical properties of the orthorhombic phase.⁵⁵

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359 5. Concluding Remarks

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Due to increasing interest in the SnO₂ nanomaterials, we carried out a series of studies investigating their micro/nanostructural evolution and related formation mechanisms. We examined the micro/nanostructures, functions, formation processes, and physicochemical characteristics of the SnO₂ thin films. Research on SnO₂ thin films will bring the innovations to technologies, such as micro/nanostructure and morphology associated technique, micro/nanostructure and characterization coupling technique, micro/nanostructure and advanced function simulation technique, and so forth. In order to achieve optimized functional performance with the SnO₂ micro/nanostructures, however,

367 several challenges still remain. Further investigation and additional effort are needed to tackle some
368 important issues for promoting the practical applications of the SnO₂ micro/nanostructures.

369 This review has provided the synthetic strategies and formation mechanisms of the
370 micro/nanostructures of various SnO₂ thin films prepared by pulsed laser ablation. We hope this review
371 has given the reader a sense of the great potential of SnO₂ thin films with interesting
372 micro/nanostructures. As we and others continue to explore this promising material, the unique
373 micro/nanostructure features of SnO₂ thin films and numerous ways in which the properties can be
374 tuned will likely lead to the development of further exciting techniques and powerful combinations of
375 existing ones. It is expected that these SnO₂ thin films with fascinating micro/nanostructures may offer
376 vast and unforeseen opportunities in oxide semiconductor devices as well as in other fields of science
377 and technology.

378

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