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# Perovskite nanomaterials as optical and electrochemical sensors

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The perovskite family is comprised of a great number of members because of the possible flexible substitution of numerous ions in its system. These compounds have a broad range of applications due to their outstanding optoelectronic properties in solar cells, photodetectors, lasers, and light-emitting diodes (LEDs). Perovskite nanocrystals (PNCs) are highly tolerant to defects, unlike metal chalcogenides, and do not require surface passivation to retain high quantum yields. Interestingly, the defect structures and trap states in perovskites are often found only in their conduction and/or valence bands and not in the mid-states of the bandgap. Such characteristics essentially boost their properties and largely favor their sensing applications. Perovskites have thus been attempted by numerous groups to address the serious concern of heavy metal ions, biomolecules, and gas molecule detection with high selectivity and sensitivity limits. In this context, the current review describes recent developments and various strategies used in applying perovskites as probes for sensing various contaminants, drugs, and gases in the environment. The focus is on two main aspects: (i) the exploitation of the high fluorescence of these perovskites for optical sensing and (ii) the utilization of the redox ability of these perovskites for electrochemical sensing. This review also outlines the existing challenges, giving future perspectives for developing perovskite-based sensing probes of high sensitivity and enduring stability for a range of environmental analytes.

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## 1. Introduction

Environmental contamination with heavy metal ions is a severe problem since most of these ions are toxic. Although a few metal ions, namely copper, iron, zinc, and manganese, are nutritionally vital for healthy living, some metal ions such as

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lead, cadmium, and mercury are hazardous even in trace concentrations. Considering the toxic effects of these metal ions in the environment, there is a continuous demand for the development of highly sensitive sensing strategies for their detection. Numerous analytical approaches, including liquid chromatography, capillary electrophoresis, gas chromatography, spectrophotometry, atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS), inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES), synchronous fluorescence and pH-based flow injection analysis have been established for the determination of such environmental pollutants.<sup>1–5</sup> However, most of these techniques suffer from the drawbacks of low sensitivity, low selectivity, poor stability, being expensive, the use of complicated instruments, requirements for well-experienced professionals, and the pretreatment of the sample, thus making them impossible for real-time and on-site detection. Very few techniques, such as chemosensing, have gained much attention where the determination of analytes can be estimated by the naked eyes.<sup>6</sup> These chemosensors provide easy, safe, effective, on-site, and rapid real-time detection, simply and inexpensively providing both qualitative and quantitative information.<sup>7</sup>

Chemosensors can convert chemical information into a useful signal due to chemical reactions that occur in the analyte, leading to a change in the physical properties of sensor materials. Chemical sensors consist of two major components, namely, a receptor (a molecular recognition system) and a transducer that expresses the connected binding occasions. There are a variety of materials that can be used as chemosensors, namely, polymers, organic molecules and metal oxide nanoparticles, and these are reportedly used for the sensing of different analytes ranging from cations, anions, explosives, biomolecules and gases in diverse fields including biological, medical, defense security and environmental fields.<sup>8–25</sup> To this end, herein, we have highlighted the use of perovskite chemosensors that are highly sensitive to changes in the optical/electrochemical signals that arise from a signifi-

cant variation in their absorbance, fluorescence or current/voltage.

## 2. Scope of the review

One can see the reports of various PNCs as sensing probes in the literature.<sup>26–33</sup> In this direction, in 2018, Zhu *et al.* comprehensively reviewed various perovskites for sensing applications, wherein they discussed the perovskite stability under various environmental conditions and demonstrated their use as sensors for diverse analytes like humidity, temperature, gases, explosives, solvents and metal ions.<sup>34</sup> To date, this review paper by Zhu *et al.* is the only comprehensive report on the sensing ability of metal halide perovskites. Since research on perovskites is very rapidly advancing, it is important to study the advances in this field over the last two years. More advances were seen after 2018, especially in the field of metal ion and gas sensing and we intend to provide a brief account of the present status of various perovskite materials used for sensing applications that were reported after the last review in 2018. Fig. 1 provides the number of papers published on sensing metal ions, biomolecules, and gases using PNCs in the last 5 years. As can be seen, only a limited number of research papers have recently been published on sensing biomolecules and gases. Biomolecules cannot be optically sensed by perovskites since their biocompatibility is inherently nil. It has been observed that when a biomolecule is tagged to PNCs, the PNCs lose their structure and fluorescence immediately. However, they show good stability and sensing ability in electrochemical sensing. In this context, this review highlights the biomolecules and gas sensing achieved through an electrochemical method, wherein adsorption and porosity are identified as key influential parameters.

The optical sensing mainly utilizes  $ABX_3$  ( $X$  = halide ions)-type perovskites, while electrochemical sensing mainly utilizes  $ABO_3$ / $ABO_4$ -type perovskites. Gas sensing involves both  $ABX_3$



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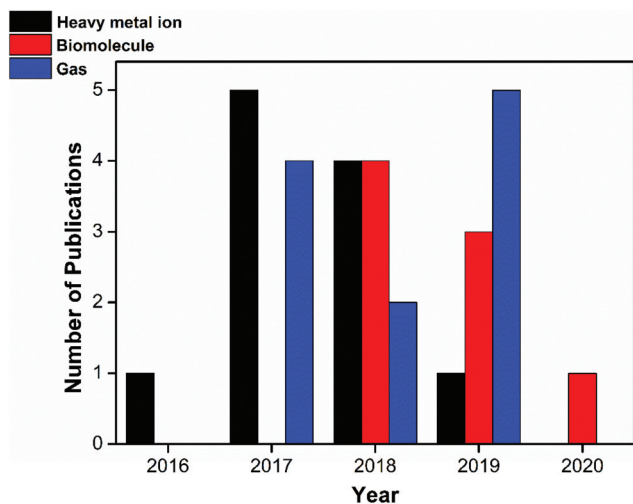
include the synthesis and development of perovskite fluorescent probes for bio sensing.



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**Fig. 1** Statistical data from the literature collected from 2016 to the present on the perovskites being exploited for heavy metal ion sensing, biomolecule sensing, and gas sensing applications.

and  $\text{ABO}_3$  type perovskites. Therefore, our review describes the various strategies used in sensing and developments achieved in the last couple of years in this field, with a neat focus on (i) the exploitation of the high fluorescence of these perovskites as optical sensors and (ii) the utilization of the redox capability of these perovskites for electrochemical sensing. Lastly, the current challenges and forthcoming perspectives for sensing probes based on perovskites, in the framework of high sensitivity and enduring stability, are also discussed at length. At this juncture, we believe that this review will provide necessary insights towards achieving high-sensitivity limits and to design stable devices for enhanced

sensitivity and sensing over a range of analytes in different environments.

### 3. Optical sensing

Accordingly, many organic dye-based optical sensors have been established and reported for the sensing of metal ions.<sup>35–40</sup> Organic dyes have limited applications due to their dependency on pH, self-quenching behavior at greater concentrations, impervious Stokes shifts, poor molar absorption coefficients, constricted absorption, and wide emission with indigent separation of absorption and emission bands.<sup>16,41,42</sup>

As an alternative to organic-based dyes, perovskite nanocrystals (PNCs) possess exceptional optical properties that render them as major assets as probes for sensing applications. The basic component of perovskites is the  $\text{ABX}_3$  structure and this simple structure consists of corner-sharing  $\text{BX}_6$  octahedra, where “A” is a cation or a molecule that is selected to neutralize the total charge, the “B” atom is typically a  $\text{Pb}^{2+}$  cation and “X” is a halide ion such as  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Br}^-$  or  $\text{I}^-$  (Fig. 2).<sup>43</sup> These have been denoted as organic–inorganic hybrid perovskites or all-inorganic perovskites, which is based on whether the “A” site is occupied with an organic molecule or an inorganic cation.<sup>44–47</sup> The family of perovskites comprises a vast number of members because of the flexible substitutions of ions in the  $\text{ABX}_3$  structure. These compounds have a broad range of applications including solar cells,<sup>48–50</sup> photodetectors,<sup>51–54</sup> lasers,<sup>55,56</sup> and light-emitting diodes (LEDs)<sup>57–61</sup> due to their excellent optical and electronic properties.<sup>51,62–68</sup>

The remarkably high fluorescence of PNCs confers very high sensitivity when they are used as optical sensors. The ancillary binding of receptor units to the PNC’s surface causes



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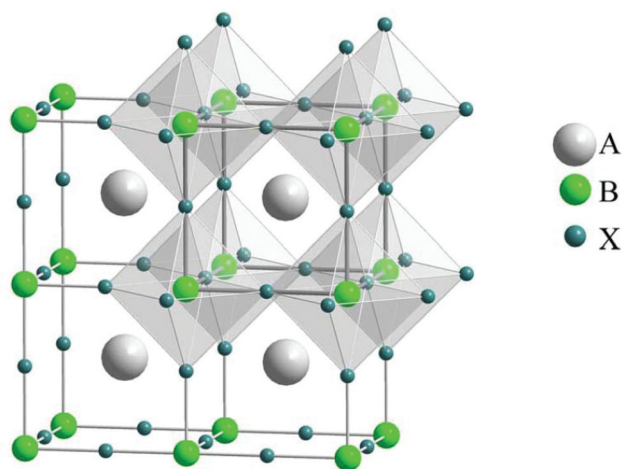


Fig. 2 General crystal structure of the perovskite  $ABX_3$  with evidenced corner-sharing octahedral  $BX_6$  (reprinted with permission from ref. 43. Copyright 2008 APS).

a considerable loss of fluorescence. The generated PNC-ligand conjugate helps in spatial luminescence center separation and the binding sites of the analyte are distinct from the fluorescent probes based on organic dyes. PNCs enjoy the effects of quantum confinement because of their dimensionality and material composition. Marginally different energies arising from the array of nearby transitions will shorten them into a single intense transition. Hence, quantum confinement is responsible for their amazing optoelectronic properties such as long carrier diffusion length, extremely narrow emission bands, and high photoluminescence quantum yields.<sup>16,36–40</sup> With metal ions, the interaction of PNCs gives rise to either the fluorescence quenching or fluorescence enhancement mechanism. In general, the interaction of PNCs with metal ions is a very complicated process and many interaction routes have been reported for the fluorescence quenching mechanism, namely photoinduced electron transfer (PET), non-recombination induced by cation exchange, ligand competition-induced non-radioactive recombination, non-radioactive recombination induced by the electron transfer mechanism, electron transfer *via* binding with surface ligands, inner filter quenching and Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET).<sup>35,69–71</sup>

Optical sensing based on metal chalcogenide (MC) quantum dots has been vastly explored and well established.<sup>72–76</sup> Unlike MC quantum dots, PNCs are highly tolerant of defects and they do not require surface passivation to retain high quantum yields. Interestingly, the defect structures and trap states in PNCs are often found to be located in the conduction and valence bands and not in the mid-states of the bandgap. Compared to metal chalcogenide QDs, all-inorganic perovskite  $CsPbBr_3$  QDs can reach quantum yields up to 90% with emission widths as low as 12 nm (ref. 77) and these two are the main boosting parameters for us to utilize their properties for sensing and achieve high detection limits. Also,  $CsPbBr_3$  PNCs exhibit absorption that is higher by nearly

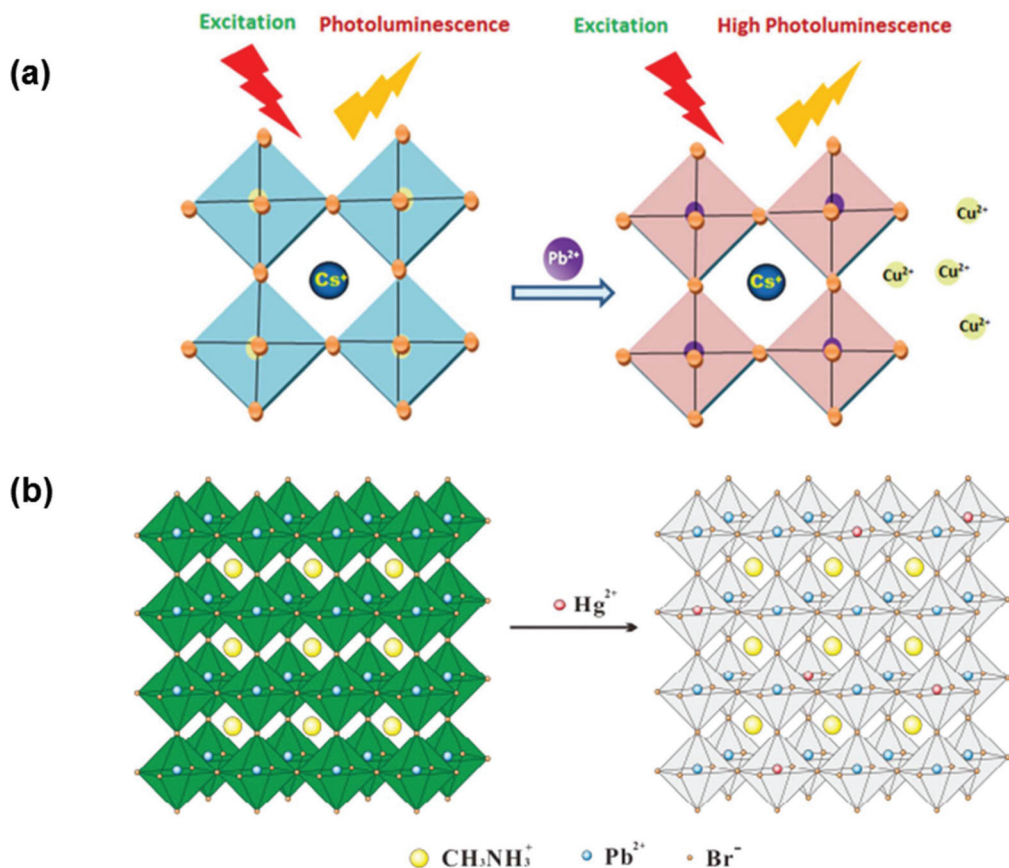
two orders of magnitude as compared to MCs. The mechanism of optical sensing can be divided into four categories as given below.

### 3.1 Cation exchange

The cation of the analyte binds to the B site ion on the surface of the sensing perovskite nanocrystal and allows the exchange process, tunes the composition, and repairs the shallow traps on the surface, thereby leading to changes in its optical properties. Passivation of the surface can be understood by adjusting the surface states *via* cation exchange.  $CsCuCl_3$  reported by Aamir *et al.* shows excellent optical properties with a bandgap energy of 2.6 eV. These  $CsCuCl_3$  perovskites were sensitive to many metal ions, wherein the fluorescence was quenched by  $Hg^{2+}$  and  $Ag^{2+}$ , but the same was enhanced by  $Pb^{2+}$  ions. This implies that  $CsCuCl_3$  could be used as a fluorescence “turn-on” chemidosimeter for the selective sensing of  $Pb^{2+}$ . By combining the  $CsCuCl_3$  and  $Hg^{2+}$  ions, they developed a more efficient sensor for  $Pb^{2+}$  ion sensing and the possible mechanism for this reaction is shown in Fig. 3(a).<sup>78</sup> A hybrid  $CH_3NH_3PbBr_3$  perovskite quantum dot (QD) was used as a fluorescent nanosensor for the rapid visual determination of ultra-trace mercury ions ( $Hg^{2+}$ ). Noticeably, the PL peak at 520 nm for  $CH_3NH_3PbBr_3$  QDs was suppressed by  $Hg^{2+}$  and a blue shift in their optical properties was observed with an increase in the amounts of  $Hg^{2+}$  and this is attributed to the surface ion-exchange reaction. Good selectivity, sensitivity, and lower LOD (limit of detection) of 0.124 nM (24.87 ppt) in the range of 0 to 100 nM were achieved. Fig. 3(b) shows the PNC structure, wherein the  $Hg^{2+}$  ions replace part of the  $Pb^{2+}$  ions on the surface of QDs, thereby leading to fluorescence quenching. It was substantiated through XPS analysis that as the concentration of  $Hg^{2+}$  increases, the Pb : Br ratio decreases (Hg : Br ratio increases). The interfering metal ions like  $Cd^{2+}$ ,  $Pb^{2+}$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $Zn^{2+}$ ,  $Ba^{2+}$ ,  $Mn^{2+}$ ,  $Cu^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ , and  $Ag^+$  did not any show any influence on the fluorescence intensity of perovskite QDs and also a spot plate test was done for the visual detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ .<sup>79</sup> One can find only a couple of papers explaining fluorescence sensing based on cation exchange and only one paper quoting anion exchange as a sensing mechanism. The anion exchange mechanism is explained in detail below.

### 3.2 Anion exchange

One of the most promising features of  $CsPbBr_3$  nanocrystals is their broadly tunable emission wavelengths and the entire visible spectrum can be easily accessed by altering the halide composition. Anion exchange reactions are pervasive features of the metal halide perovskite nanochemistry. Park *et al.* established the method for the development of an easy and portable colorimetric sensor based on cellulose by combining it with  $CsPbBr_3$  PQDs for ultrafast naked-eye detection of chlorine and iodine ions.  $CsPbBr_3$  PQDs-cellulose composites were produced through a sequential hot injection reaction method. These composites show outstanding stability and durability against various environmental surroundings, along with excel-



**Fig. 3** (a) Possible sensing mechanism of  $\text{Pb}^{2+}$  by  $\text{CsCuCl}_3$  (reprinted with permission from ref. 78. Copyright 2016 RSC). (b) Illustration of the cation exchange process on the surface of perovskite quantum dots (reprinted with permission from ref. 79. Copyright 2017 Elsevier).

lent photoluminescence properties. Using the fast anion exchange strategy, iodine and chlorine ions were sensed in real water samples with limits of detection of 2.56 and 4.11 mM, respectively, as shown in Fig. 4.<sup>80</sup>

### 3.3 Electron transfer

Feasible alignment of the valence band and conduction band energy levels of the donor and acceptor moieties allows electron transfer to occur. Highly photostable fluorescent (XZn)  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$  (X = Mg, Mn, or Ni) crystals were ingrained in  $\text{BiFeO}_3$  nanocomposites for heavy metal ion sensing. These nanocomposites exhibited near-infrared fluorescence responses for XZn or (Fe)–O–O–(Bi) interfaces at 785/832 nm and the (XZn)  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{BiFeO}_3$  lattices showed high/low potentials ranging from 572.15–808.77 meV/206.43–548.1 meV. The obtained data showed that heavy metal ions ( $\text{Cr}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Pb}^{2+}$ ) hybridized with the paired-spin X–Zn–Fe to decrease the average polarization angles ( $-29.78$  to  $44.71^\circ$ ).<sup>81</sup> Because of strong interfacial coupling, the unexpected interfacial electronic transition of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ – $\text{BiFeO}_3$  (1.14 eV) created a new electron transfer in the nearby conduction bands or valence bands between  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{BiFeO}_3$ , thus offering a good amount of effective electrons or holes to capture the heavy metal ions on the surface. Also, to enhance the selectivity, interfacial spin-

paired orbital alteration by X–Zn co-doping and electron–hole recombination rates was considered. The electron donor state in the  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  spinel is mainly due to superexchange interactions happening between metal ions in the octahedral and tetrahedral lattices. Cation rearrangement takes place *via* the co-doping of X–Zn resulting in the conduction band and valence band being close to the Fermi point. Colloidal  $\text{CsPbX}_3$  QDs were used as simple promising fast probing material with high sensitivity and selectivity for  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions in nonpolar solvents like cyclohexane, edible or industrial oils. The detection range was in the order of  $2 \times 10^{-9}$  to  $2 \times 10^{-5}$  M. A small change in PL was explained as a consequence of removing or persuading surface defects in respective metal oleates. However, they used DFT studies to substantiate the observed significant changes in PL during the detection of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ . The observed PL quenching was initiated by the adsorption of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  on the surface of QDs followed by charge transfer. The valence band maximum of perfect  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  was donated mainly by Br, whereas the conduction band minimum was contributed dominantly by Pb. Upon the addition of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ , there was the rising of some new states at the valence band maximum edge of  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$ . This feature arose majorly from Cu and somewhat from Br states, allocated to the Br–Cu–OOCH-type formed on the surface of  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  QDs. When an exciton is formed, the

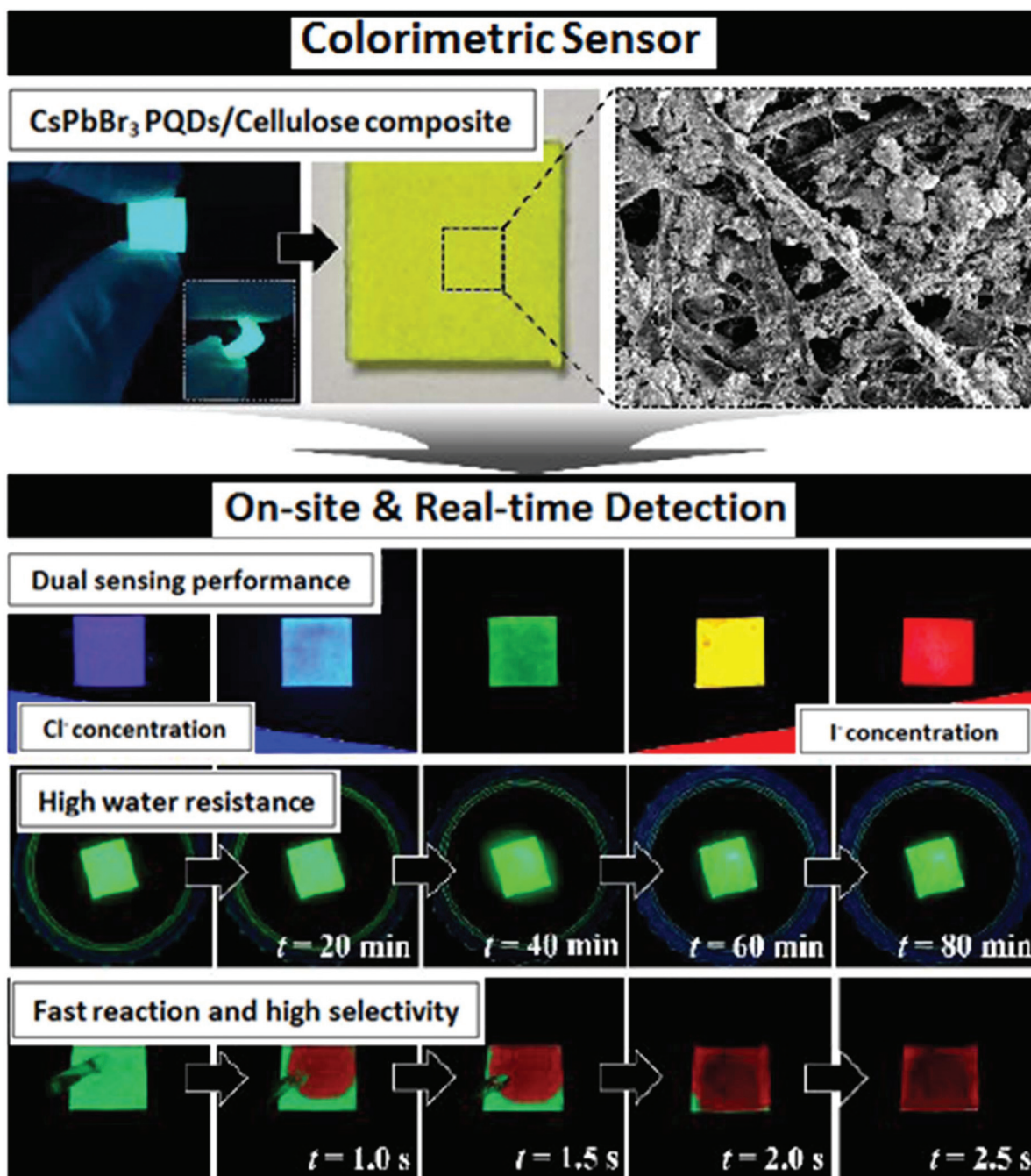


Fig. 4 Schematic representation of iodine-spiked and chlorine-spiked sample determination using CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> PQDs-cellulose composites (reprinted with permission from ref. 80. Copyright 2020 ACS).

hole is favored to be taken by these new states as per the principle of minimum energy. This is highly suspected to offer a well-organized nonradiative recombination pathway for the quenching of PL. There is also strong evidence that in addition to the crystal size, structure, and component, the well-defined smooth surface planes of the nanocrystals play a vital role in the sensitive and selective detection of metal ions.<sup>82</sup> CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> PQDs were also used by another group as a fluorescent probe for the selective detection of Cu<sup>2+</sup> in the organic phase

(hexane). Quenching of PL intensity on the addition of Cu<sup>2+</sup> ion was explained on account of electron transfer from the PQDs to Cu<sup>2+</sup> and the mechanism is supported by the absorption spectrum and PL decay lifetimes. This probe exhibited a detection limit (LOD) of 0.1 nM, a detection range from 0 to 100 nM and high sensitivity of the order 10<sup>7</sup> M<sup>-1</sup>.<sup>83</sup> Lead-free Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>Br<sub>9</sub>: Eu<sup>3+</sup> perovskite QDs were synthesized *via* an improved ligand-assisted reprecipitation method. The synthesized Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>Br<sub>9</sub>: Eu<sup>3+</sup> perovskite QDs showed emissions,

representing the exciton emission and red emission of  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions due to efficient electron transfer (ET) from the perovskite QDs to  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$ . Doping of  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ameliorated the photoluminescence quantum yield (PLQY) from 18% to ~42.4%, in addition to the enhanced water stability of  $\text{Cs}_3\text{Bi}_2\text{Br}_9$  perovskite QDs. Eco-friendly and non-toxic  $\text{Cs}_3\text{Bi}_2\text{Br}_9$ :  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  perovskite QDs demonstrated a good linear range from 5 nM to 3  $\mu\text{M}$  with a low detection limit of 10 nM for  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions in water, and the sensing mechanism is as shown in Fig. 5.<sup>84</sup>

Another typical charge transfer resulting in fluorescence quenching was demonstrated by the Huang and Tan groups. They designed molecularly imprinted polymers (MIPs) through imprinting technology by the sol-gel reaction and used them for the detection of omethoate (OMT) Fig. 6(a) and phoxim Fig. 6(b). The definite interactions between the template and imprinted cavities lead to charge transfer resulting in fluorescence (FL) quenching. MIPs@ $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  QDs are particularly selective and were found to be a simple fluorescence sensor for the direct detection of organophosphorus (OP) pesticides in real samples such as vegetables and soil.<sup>85,86</sup>

### 3.4 FRET

Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) is a non-radiative energy transfer phenomenon. For an effective FRET process, there must be considerable spectral overlap between the emission spectra of the donor and the absorption spectra of the acceptor molecule with the distance between the two spectra being in the range of 10–100 Å. The 2D hybrid perovskite  $(\text{NH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_{10}\text{NH}_3)\text{PbBr}_4$  was prepared *via* a fast precipitation method and exhibited fluorescence at 552 nm due to aggregation-induced emission (AIE) in a DMSO/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  > 4/6 mixed system. The FRET mechanism was demonstrated using rhodamine B (RhB), where RhB acts as a good acceptor as shown in Fig. 7(a). The emission peak of the perovskite  $\text{C}_{10}\text{PbBrPE}$  at 552 nm successfully overlapped with the excitonic peak of RhB with a Förster radius value of 10.37 Å and the donor-acceptor distance was calculated to be 10.21 Å, which was within the range of 10–100 Å. This system was successfully used for the detection of  $\text{Hg}(\text{II})$  ions in the DMSO/water (1/9) mixed system with a detection limit of 2.36  $\mu\text{M}$ .<sup>87</sup>

In another case, simple perovskite quantum dots (CPBQDs) were used to design a fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET)-based detection device. The synthesized CPBQDs improved the FRET detection *via* a nanoscale polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) fiber membrane ( $d \approx 400$  nm) fabricated by the electrospinning method. It was also proposed that it could be used in various fields for detection including biological proteins, metal ions, and pH changes. As a result of the tunable emission spectra of PQDs, there exist many PQDs-fluorescein couples suitable for FRET. This study reveals that electrospinning the polymer fiber membrane with PQDs condensed in it is super sensitive and can act as a multifunctional sensor. The sensing of trypsin was achieved through the cleavage of peptide CF6 (Cys-Pro-Arg-Gly-R6G) and a very low detection limit of 0.1  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  was obtained. The high-efficiency FRET process between the CPBQD/PMMA FM and cyclam- $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  allows a remarkable detection limit for  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ , up to  $10^{-15}$  M Fig. 7(b).<sup>88</sup> Table 1 gives the comparison of various perovskite nanocrystals used as optical probes for heavy metal sensing.

### 3.5 Perovskite sensors in aqueous media

Despite all the struggles and developments made in this area, the instability of perovskites in aqueous media remains a great challenge for their practical applicability as sensors. The perovskite structure collapses due to various environmental factors such as temperature,<sup>27,89</sup> water,<sup>90,91</sup> oxygen,<sup>48,92</sup> etc. The tolerance factor has been studied to assess the stability of perovskites. The Goldschmidt tolerance factor ( $t$ ) is a steadfast empirical key for predicting the stability of the crystal structure. It is determined from the ionic radius of the atoms by using the following expression:

$$t = \frac{r_A + r_X}{\sqrt{2}(r_B + r_X)}$$

where  $r_A$  is the radius of the 'A' cation,  $r_B$  is the radius of the B cation, and  $r_X$  is the radius of the anion. The tolerance value between 0.8–1.0 (Fig. 8) was found to be favorable for the perovskite cubic structure and the non-perovskite structures generally result from a larger (>1) or smaller (<0.8) tolerance factor

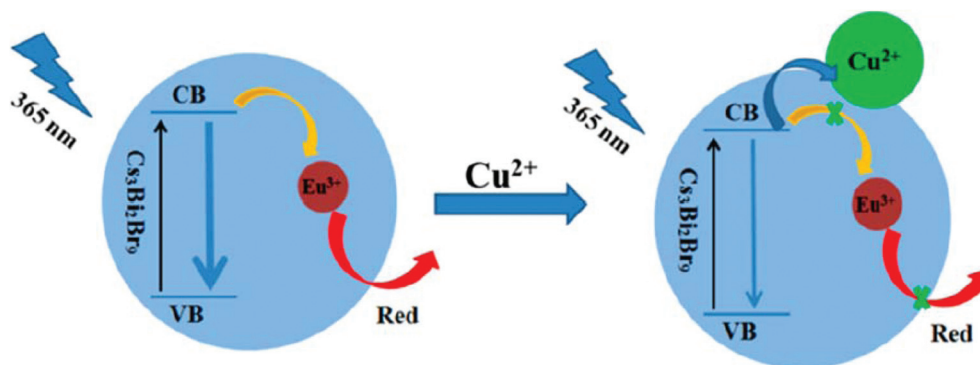
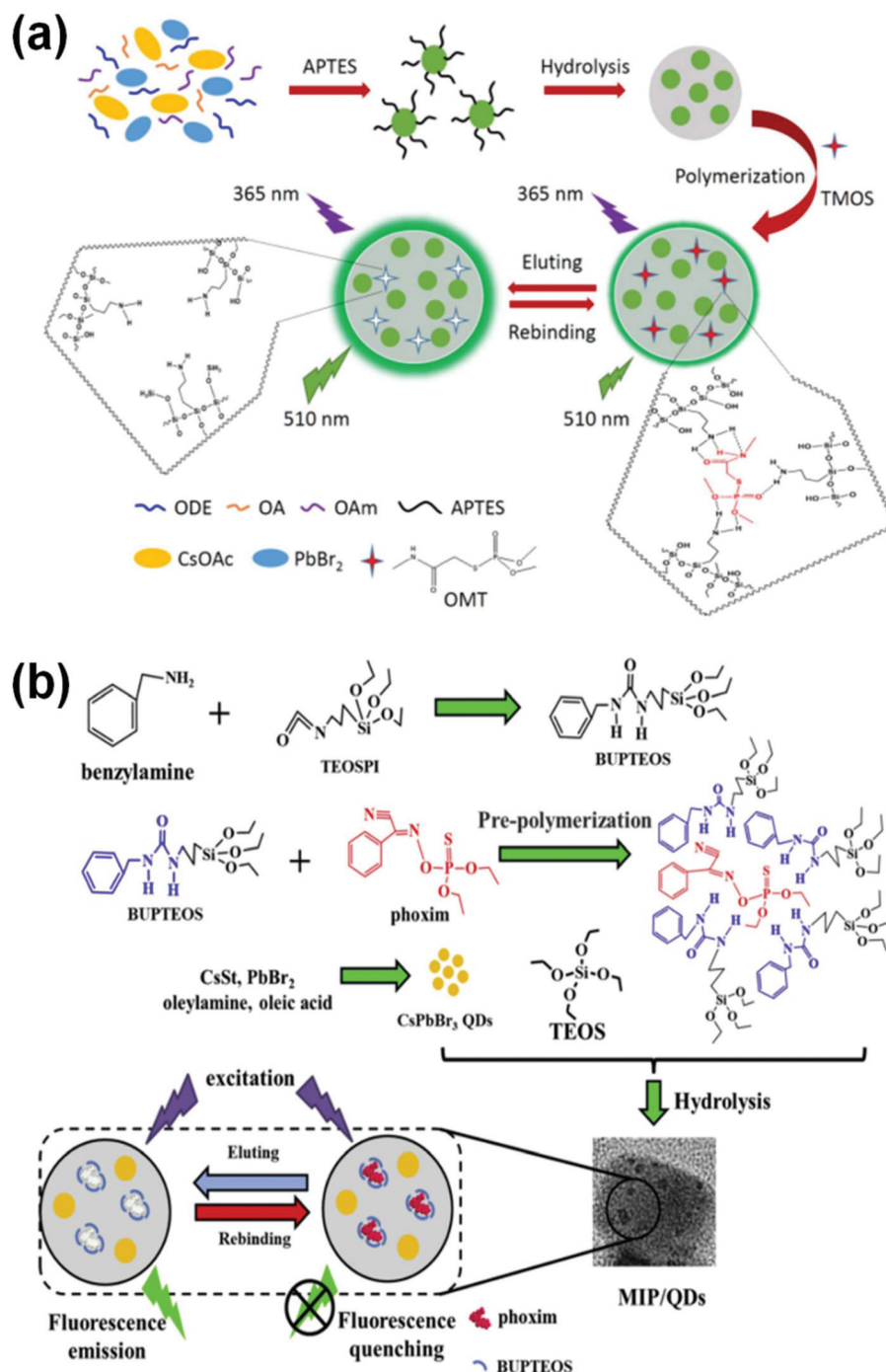


Fig. 5 Schematics of fluorescence quenching due to electron transfer (reprinted with permission from ref. 84. Copyright 2019 ACS).

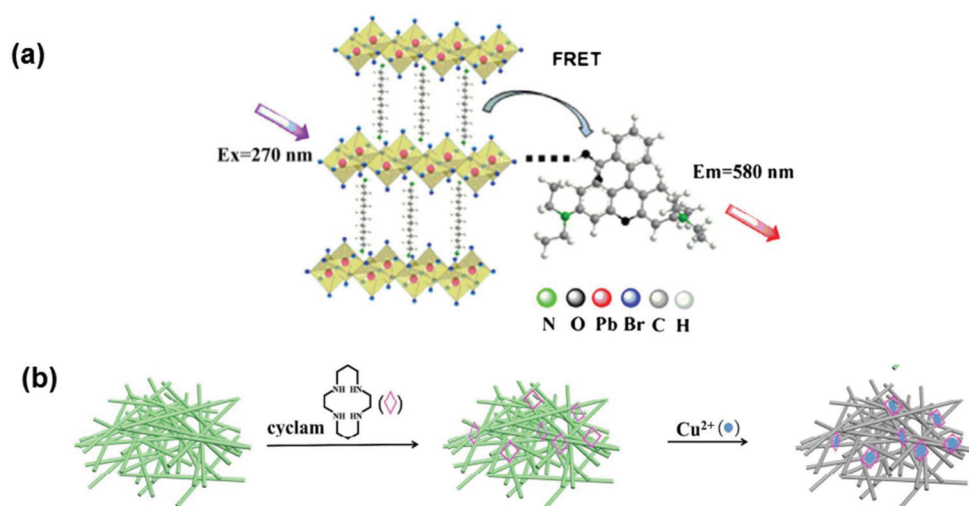


**Fig. 6** (a) Graphical representation of a pesticide sensor for the detection of omethoate (OMT) and phoxim (reprinted with permission from ref. 85 copyright 2018 American Chemical Society). (b) Graphical representation of a pesticide sensor for the detection of phoxim (reprinted with permission from ref. 86. Copyright 2019 Elsevier).

value.<sup>93–95</sup> Over the past few years, various methods have been established to improve the stability of perovskites by coating the perovskite surface with hydrophobic materials like acid–base additives,<sup>96,97</sup> alkyl phosphonic acid  $\omega$ -ammonium chlorides,<sup>98</sup> metal–organic frameworks (MOFs),<sup>99,100</sup> polymers like poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG),<sup>101</sup> poly(vinylpyrrolidone),<sup>102,103</sup> stearic acid,<sup>104</sup> capping them with organic ligands such as

PCBEG and PEG-<sup>60</sup>fullerenes.<sup>105,106</sup> These modifications not only help in improving the stability of the perovskite but also support in passivating their trap sites and defect sites,<sup>28,107–117</sup> and this supports better sensitivity when used as sensing probes.

The synthesis of stable 2D PEA<sub>2</sub>PbI<sub>4</sub> (where PEA is phenethylammonium) PNCs by the antisolvent precipitation



**Fig. 7** (a) A possible sensing mechanism for FRET between  $C_{10}PbBrPE$  and RhB (reprinted with permission from ref. 87 copyright 2017 Springer). (b) schematic illustration of the sensing of  $Cu^{2+}$  using CPBQDs/PMMA FM and cyclam by the FRET mechanism (reprinted with permission from ref. 88 copyright 2013 RSC).

**Table 1** Comparison of the LODs of various perovskite nanocrystals used as optical probes for heavy metal and anion sensing

| S. no. | Perovskite material                         | LOD                                                                                        | Analyte                           | Ref. |
|--------|---------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|------|
| 1      | $CsCuCl_3$                                  | $1 \times 10^{-7} M$ – $1.5 \times 10^{-6} M$                                              | $Pb^{2+}$                         | 78   |
| 2      | $CH_3NH_3PbBr_3$ QDs                        | $0.124 \times 10^{-9} M$                                                                   | $Hg^{2+}$                         | 79   |
| 3      | $(XZn)Fe_2O_4-BiFeO_3$                      | —                                                                                          | $Co^{2+}$ , $Cr^{3+}$ & $Cd^{2+}$ | 81   |
| 4      | $CsPbBr_3$                                  | $2 \times 10^{-9} M$ – $2 \times 10^{-5} M$                                                | $Cu^{2+}$ , $Yb^{2+}$             | 82   |
| 5      | $Cs_3Bi_2Br_9$ : $Eu^{3+}$                  | $5 \times 10^{-9} M$ – $3 \times 10^{-6} M$                                                | $Cu^{2+}$                         | 84   |
| 6      | $CsPbBr_3$                                  | $0.1 \times 10^{-9} M$                                                                     | $Cu^{2+}$                         | 83   |
| 7      | $(NH_3(CH_2)_{10}NH_3)PbBr_4(C_{10}PbBrPE)$ | $2.4 \times 10^{-6} M$                                                                     | $Hg^{2+}$                         | 87   |
| 8      | CPBQDs/PMMA FM                              | $0.1 \times 10^{-6} M$                                                                     | $Cu^{2+}$                         | 88   |
| 9      | 2D $PEA_2PbI_4$                             | $5 \times 10^{-10} M$ – $5 \times 10^{-2} M$                                               | $Cu^{2+}$                         | 118  |
| 10     | $CH_3NH_3PbBr_3$                            | $20 \times 10^{-5}$ – $200 \times 10^{-5} M$ & $2 \times 10^{-3}$ – $100 \times 10^{-3} M$ | $Cu^{2+}$ & $Cd^{2+}$             | 119  |
| 11     | $CH_3NH_3PbBr_3$                            | $3.2 \times 10^{-6} M$                                                                     | $F^-$                             | 120  |
| 12     | $CsPbBr_3$ /Cellulose Composite             | $4.11 \times 10^{-3}$ & $2.56 \times 10^{-3}$                                              | $Cl^-$ & $I^-$                    | 80   |

method has been reported by Ma *et al.* It was witnessed that the degradation of  $PEA_2PbI_4$  PNCs in water was due to the process of desorption, where the  $PEA^+$  species desorbed from  $PbI_2$ . PNCs could be stabilized in high  $PEA^+$  concentration ( $>0.15 M$ ) aqueous solutions because of an adsorption process. These two procedures were modest and could attain balance in 0.15, 0.25, and 0.5 M  $PEA^+$  aqueous solution. More significantly, the recyclability of the desorption and adsorption processes was confirmed and it was stable for 2 months. Based on this, the inherently unstable PNCs were stabilized and were utilized practically as a probe for sensing  $Cu^{2+}$  in an aqueous environment.<sup>118</sup> Zhang *et al.* attempted a two-step method to encapsulate perovskite  $CH_3NH_3PbBr_3$  QDs into a MOF-5 matrix to improve the stability of luminescent perovskite QDs as shown in Fig. 9(a). Outstanding water resistance, thermal stability, and stable photoluminescence were achieved over a wide range of pH and applied to  $Cu^{2+}$  and  $Cd^{2+}$ . The detection of  $Cu^{2+}$  concentration in the range from  $20 \times 10^{-5}$  to  $200 \times 10^{-5} M$  was demonstrated. The luminescence intensity was significantly quenched by the addition of  $Cu^{2+}$  ions. For

$Cd^{2+}$  ions, the PL intensity was progressively enhanced with increasing concentration of  $Cd^{2+}$  ions from  $2 \times 10^{-3}$  to  $100 \times 10^{-3} M$ .<sup>119</sup> Various ligands and their combinations were tried by different researchers to enhance stability. Dual ligands AH (6-amino-1-hexanol) and OA (*n*-octylamine) were used for the synthesis of the  $CH_3NH_3PbBr_3$  PQDs probe. Quenching of fluorescence was observed in the presence of  $F^-$  ions, due to hydrogen bonding between the hydroxyl groups of AH and  $F^-$  ions, and that reduced the growth of the dual ligand-capped perovskite quantum dots (DL-PQDs). This probe showed promising sensitivity and selectivity for the detection of  $F^-$  with a limit of detection of  $3.2 \mu M$  ( $0.061 mg L^{-1}$ ). A spot plate test was also done for the visual detection of fluoride ions as shown in Fig. 9(b).<sup>120</sup>

## 4. Electrochemical sensing

Electrochemical sensors are considered to be rapid, low-cost, portable, and user-friendly devices for monitoring environ-

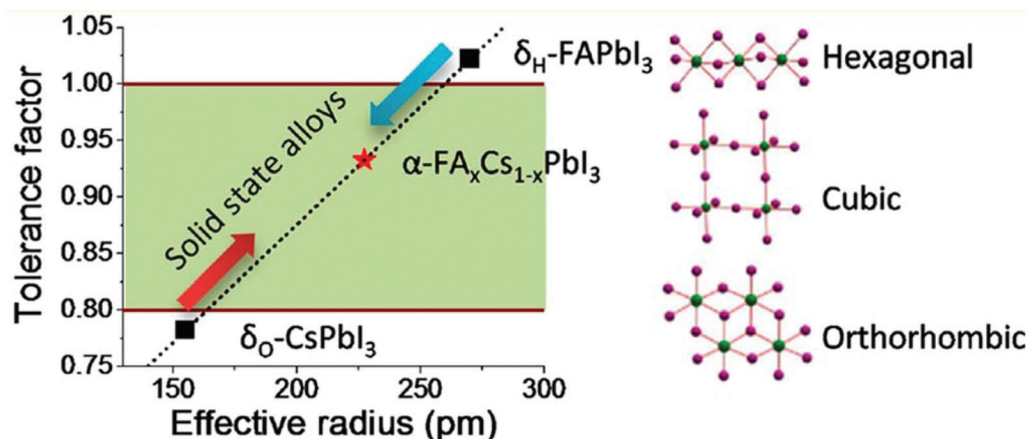


Fig. 8 Correlations between the tolerance factor and the crystal structure of perovskite materials (reprinted with permission from ref. 95. Copyright 2015 ACS).

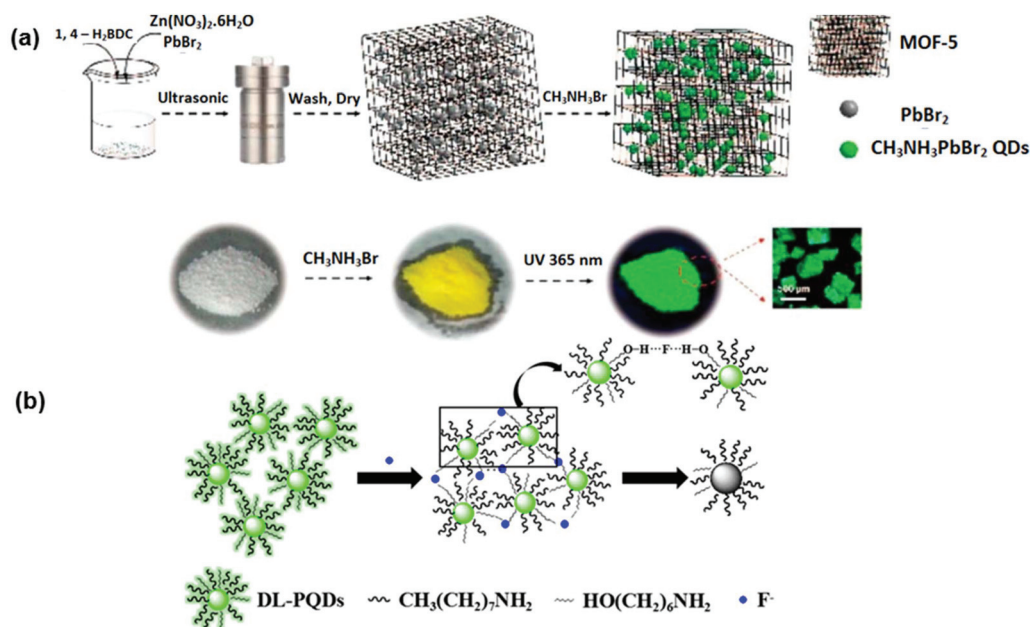


Fig. 9 (a) Schematic representation of the two-step approach to stabilizing PQDs before sensing  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  in aqueous media (reprinted with permission from ref. 119. Copyright 2018 ACS). (b) Schematic illustration of the sensing mechanism of  $\text{F}^-$  by DL-PQDs (reprinted with permission from ref. 120. Copyright 2018 Elsevier).

mental pollution.<sup>121,122</sup> Electrochemical methods are applicable for the detection of environmentally emerging contaminants at ultra-low concentrations with high sensitivity and low detection limits.<sup>123</sup> The method also offers enormous advantages such as high sensitivity, on-site determination, and good selectivity as compared to other methods.<sup>122,124</sup> To detect environmentally toxic metal ions, an electrochemical technique called anodic stripping voltammetry (ASV) is commonly used, wherein high sensitivity, a very low detection limit, and simultaneous detections are achieved.<sup>125</sup>

During the accumulation process, the analyte in the supporting electrolyte solution will be deposited on the surface of

the working electrode in the form of film at negative potentials where the oxidation takes place  $\text{M}_{(\text{s})} \leftrightarrow \text{M}^{n+}_{(\text{aq})} + n\text{e}^-$ .<sup>125</sup> The analyte reoxidizes and strips back into the supporting electrolyte solution<sup>125,126</sup> during the stripping process. Similarly, the inorganic perovskite nanocrystals, possessing electrically energetic structures and suitable magnetic and dielectric characteristics, have been broadly used in the development of electrochemical sensors, solid fuel cells, and many of electrochemical catalytic processes.<sup>127</sup> Perovskite materials possessing the  $\text{ABO}_3$  and  $\text{A}_2\text{BO}_4$  structures have been considered for such catalytic and electrocatalytic properties, where the A-site cation is generally occupied by alkaline-earth or rare-earth metal

cation(s), while the B-site cation is normally occupied by transition metal cation(s).<sup>128,129</sup> Both  $\text{ABO}_3$  and  $\text{A}_2\text{BO}_4$  nano-perovskites have been widely used in different applications due to their fascinating properties.

Perovskites of  $\text{ABO}_3$ -type binary metal oxides are reported to offer high ionic and electronic conductivity, enhanced catalytic activity, thermal and chemical stability, variations in oxygen content, mobility of oxide ions within the crystal, and electrically active structure.<sup>127,130</sup> The probability of substituting the original A-site and B-site cations of perovskite oxides with other metal cations to produce an altered perovskite oxide composition with the formula of  $\text{A}_{1-x}\text{A}'_x\text{B}_{1-y}\text{B}'_y\text{O}_3$  has unlocked the chance to project new functional perovskite oxide compositions.<sup>129</sup> Among them, the alkaline-earth metals (*i.e.*, Ca, Mg, Ba, Sr)-based perovskite materials can be easily formed; they willingly react and are low-cost materials. Therefore, they can conceivably act as electrode materials in electrochemical sensing procedures to sense chemicals and biomolecules in both liquid and gaseous phases.<sup>131</sup> Also, the metal titanates have attracted substantial consideration for their exceptional properties like nontoxicity, chemical stability, low cost, and thermal stability. Their nanocomposites are reported to be excellent electrode materials, even though they suffer from aggregation tendencies. In this respect, assimilating metal titanates into a highly conductive matrix has been demonstrated as a valued approach to improve conductivity and electrocatalytic activity.<sup>132</sup>

#### 4.1 Lanthanide-based perovskite oxide sensors

The  $\text{NdFeO}_3$  perovskite screen-printed carbon electrode was developed for the electrochemical sensing of dopamine (DA) and uric acid. The  $\text{NdFeO}_3$ , which was modified on a screen-printed carbon electrode, showed better performance as compared to the bare electrode and other perovskite-based sensors, namely  $\text{SrPdO}_3$ ,<sup>133</sup>  $\text{LaCoO}_3$ ,<sup>134</sup>  $\text{LaFeO}_3$ .<sup>135</sup> They demonstrated that the proposed  $\text{NdFeO}_3$  perovskite material acts as a modifier for fabricating enzyme-free electrochemical sensors and monitors the biochemical substances.<sup>128</sup> The same perovskite was also tested for AML (amlodipine) sensing by Nada *et al.* by the modification of carbon paste (CP) with  $\text{NdFeO}_3$ , CNTs, and glycine in the presence of SDS. The probe was used for the instantaneous sensing of antihypertensive and antioxidant drugs, AML and AA (ascorbic acid), respectively. The systematic performance of the suggested surface towards AML was examined in terms of linear dynamic range, detection limit and sensitivity. The utilization of the proposed method for AML determination in marketable tablets and human urine has been demonstrated.<sup>127</sup> The proposed nano-sensing electrode with combined fascinating characteristics of  $\text{NdFeO}_3$  nano-perovskites is shown as a reliable alternative to other chromatography and spectroscopy techniques. This study also indicated the potential applicability of this perovskite sensor to other drugs. Akbari *et al.* described the preparation of a new graphene oxide- $\text{LaMnO}_3$ -modified GCE for the electroanalysis and determination of hydroquinone (HQ) and catechol (CT) and they also showed the excellent performance

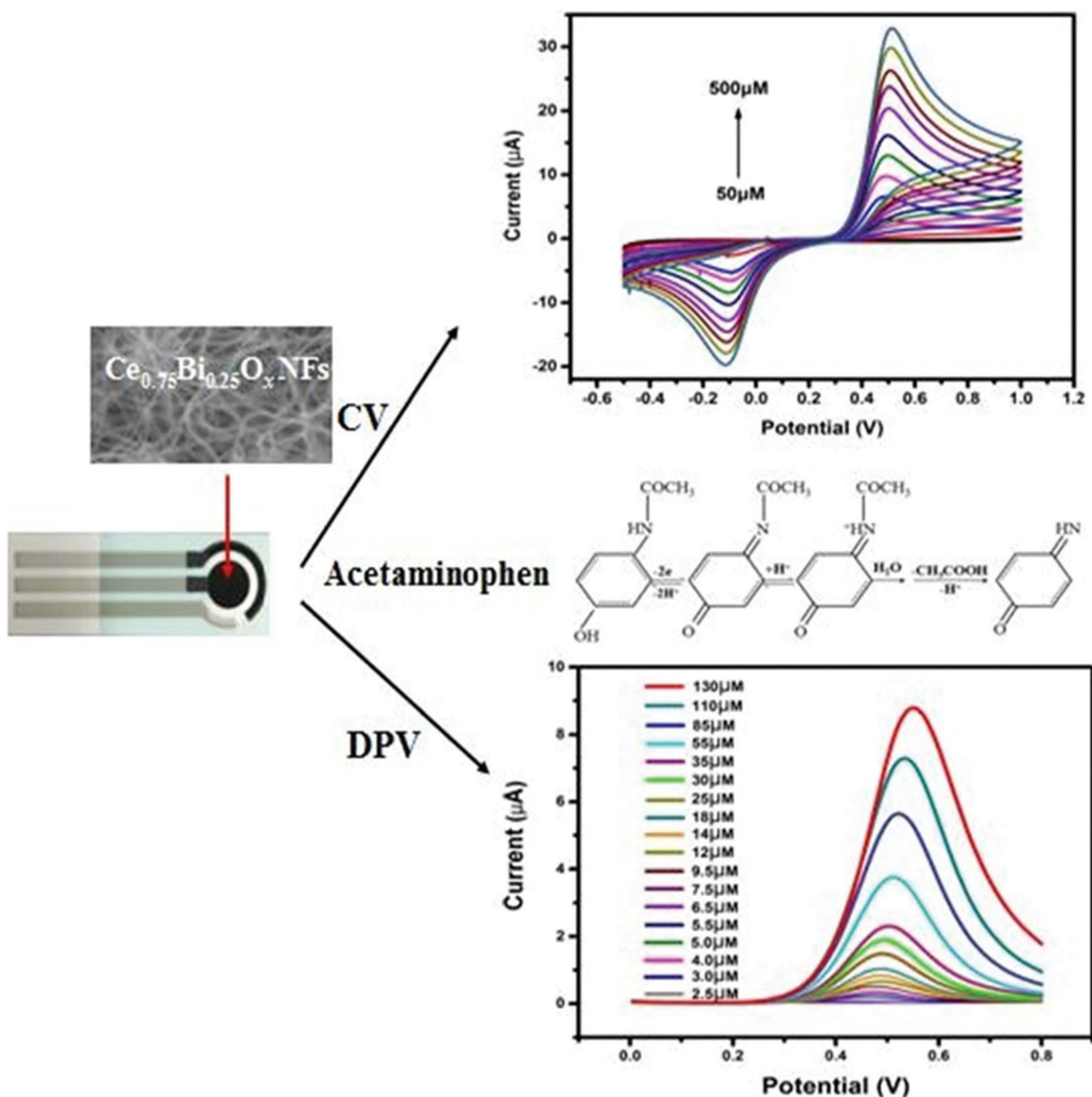
of this sensor towards the simultaneous determination of HQ and CT by the voltammetry technique.<sup>136</sup> A nanocomposite of lanthanum cobalt nitrate and hydrotalcite nanotubes (LCO/HNT) was designed previously by our group for the detection of flutamide.<sup>124</sup> The developed electrode showed a better electrocatalytic effect on flutamide due to its significant properties such as short electron transfer pathway, large surface area, and superior electron conductivity with the benefits of low cost, rapid detection, trace-level LOD, high detection sensitivity, good reproducibility, excellent stability, and accuracy. The developed electrode achieved a detection limit of  $0.002\text{ }\mu\text{M}$  and sensitivity around  $0.7571\text{ }\mu\text{A }\mu\text{M}^{-1}\text{ cm}^{-2}$ .

#### 4.2 Strontium-based perovskite oxide sensors

A fiber-based electrochemical sensor towards Acetaminophen (AP) sensing was fabricated using a  $\text{CeBiOx}$  nanofibers-altered screen-printed electrode (SPE). The  $\text{CeBiOx}$  nanofibers were synthesized by electrospinning a precursor solution of polymer using cerium nitrate and bismuth nitrate followed by calcination to decompose the polymer and transform the precursor nanofibers into  $\text{CeBiOx}$  NFs. The obtained results revealed that the Ce:Bi molar ratios in the originators had a noteworthy effect on the electrocatalytic activity of  $\text{CeBiOx}$  towards AP detection. The  $\text{CeBiOx}$ NFs with the optimum Ce:Bi molar ratio showed ultrasensitivity of  $360\text{ }\mu\text{A mM}^{-1}\text{ cm}^{-2}$  and  $350\text{ }\mu\text{A mM}^{-1}\text{ cm}^{-2}$ , with a good detection limit of  $0.2\text{ }\mu\text{M}$  and  $1\text{ }\mu\text{M}$  ( $\text{S/N} = 3$ ) and a wide linear range up to  $130\text{ }\mu\text{M}$  and  $500\text{ }\mu\text{M}$  for DPV and CV-based AP detection, respectively, as shown in Fig. 10.<sup>121</sup> Cao *et al.* also detected AP in commercial tablets and spiked human serum samples using these electrodes but with much better accuracy and good recovery.<sup>137</sup>

Systematic characterization of the perovskite oxide family with various compositions of  $\text{Pr}_{1-x}\text{Sr}_x\text{CoO}_{3-\delta}$  ( $x = 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8$ , and  $1$ ) has been reported and applied for the detection of PPD (P-Phenylenediamine). A correlation was found between the yields of the hydrogen peroxide intermediate ( $\text{HO}_2^-$ ) and the B–O (B-site metal cation to oxygen anion) bond strengths of these perovskite oxides.  $\text{Pr}_{0.8}\text{Sr}_{0.2}\text{CoO}_{3-\delta}$  (PSC82) displayed the highest sensitivity to PPD as it produced the highest current due to the  $\text{HO}_2^-$  yield of 86% that was generated as a result of the chemical oxidation of PPD to *p*-quinone diamine as shown in Fig. 11. Relative to the conventional ultraviolet-visible spectrophotometry (UV-vis) detection method, the amperometric detection of PPD in hair dye using this perovskite sensor provides greater accuracy, higher selectivity toward PPD, and stability, which warrant its potential application to real hair dyes.<sup>129</sup> Table 2 gives a list of different perovskite materials used for sensing various environmental pollutants.

Sundaresan *et al.* synthesized strontium cerate nanoparticles (SC NPs) through a simple sonochemical method called ultrasound-assisted (UA) and stirring-assisted (SA) synthesis (UASC NPs) and applied them as an improved electrode material for the determination of nifedipine (NDF). Interestingly, the UASC NPs-modified screen-printed carbon electrode (UASC NPs/SPCE) showed brilliant electrocatalytic



**Fig. 10** Representation of an electrochemical sensor for detecting the pain reliever/fever reducer drug Acetaminophen based on an electrospun CeBiOx nanofibers-modified screen-printed electrode (reprinted with permission from ref. 121. Copyright 2017 Elsevier).

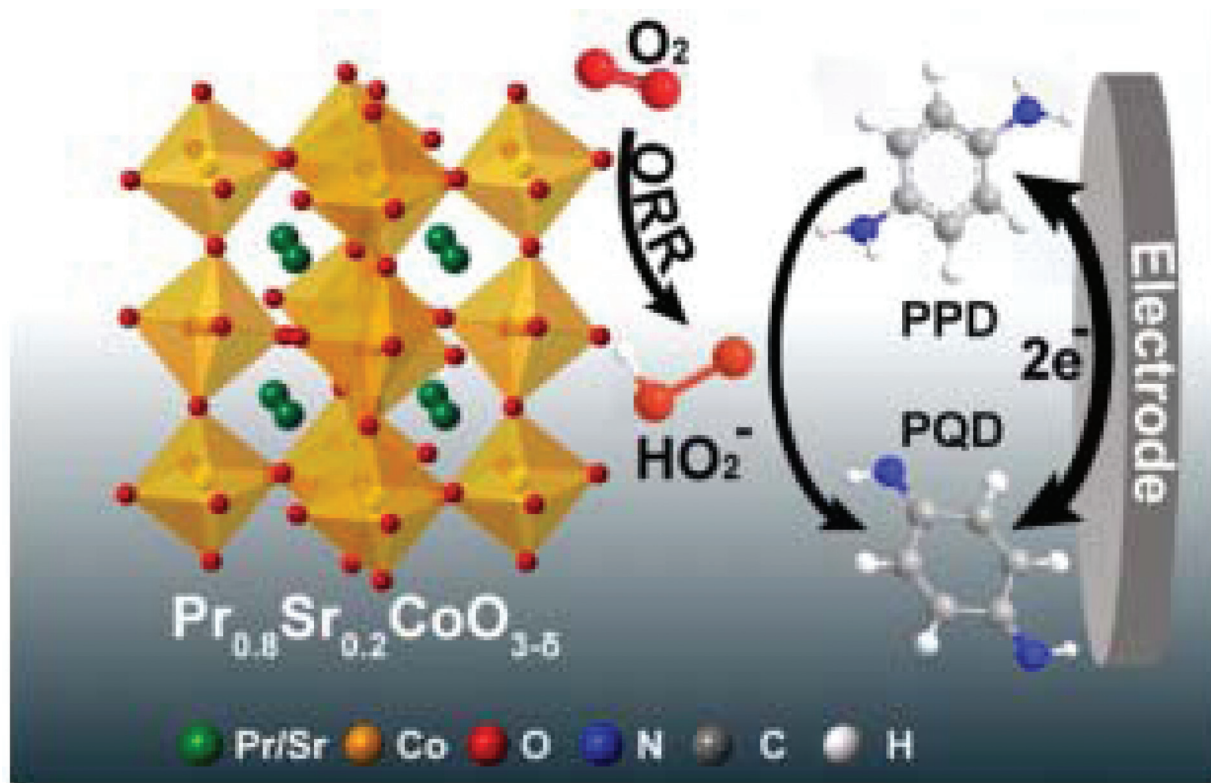
activity and substantial electroanalytical performance in NDF sensing when compared to SASC NPs/SPCE and unmodified SPCE as shown in Fig. 12.<sup>130</sup>

The synthesized UASC NPs displayed excellent selectivity even in the presence of nitro groups comprising drugs, pollutants, biological compounds, and common inorganic species. They have been effectively used in the sensing of NDF (Nifedipine) in real urine, water, and NDF tablets. The easily accessible and environmentally friendly sonochemical technique offers a facile and operational method for scale control in industry. Strontium-based perovskite  $\text{SrZrO}_3$  cubes entrenched on nitrogen-doped reduced graphene oxide

(N-rGO/ $\text{SrZrO}_3$ ) was prepared for the electrochemical sensing of hydroquinone (HQ). The sensor had a good detection limit (0.61  $\mu\text{M}$ ), repeatability, reproducibility, and high selectivity towards the sensing of HQ. Therefore, inorganic perovskite oxide-based nanocomposites are realized to be promising for achieving enhanced electrochemical sensitivities.

## 5. Gas sensing and device fabrication

We would like to highlight that to the best of our knowledge, this review is the first of its kind to summarize and analyze the



**Fig. 11** Schematic representation of the oxygen reduction reaction and the related redox reaction converting PPD into perovskite quantum dots and vice versa on the surface of the PSC82/GE electrode (reprinted with permission from ref. 129. Copyright 2019 Elsevier).

**Table 2** Comparison of different perovskite electrode materials used for sensing environmental pollutants and drugs with their obtained LODs

| S. no. | Electrode material       | Technique | Sensitivity                                                                       | LOD                                                | Linear ranges ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Analyte          | Ref. |
|--------|--------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------|------|
| 1.     | NdFeO <sub>3</sub>       | SWV       | —                                                                                 | 0.27 $\mu\text{M}$                                 | 0.5–100 & 150–400               | Dopamine         | 128  |
| 2      | PSC82                    | CA        | 655 $\mu\text{A } \mu\text{M}^{-1}$                                               | 0.17 $\mu\text{M}$                                 | 0.5–100 $\mu\text{M}$           | P-Phenyl diamine | 129  |
| 3      | GLNFCNTCP                | DPV       | 113.2 $\mu\text{A } \mu\text{M}^{-1}$                                             | 0.704 nM                                           | 0.003–0.2                       | AML              | 127  |
| 4      | SrCeO <sub>3</sub>       | DPV       | 1.31 $\mu\text{A } \mu\text{M}^{-1}$                                              | 6.4 nM                                             | 0.02–174                        | NDF              | 130  |
| 5      | LaMnO <sub>3</sub>       | DPV       | 0.0719 $\mu\text{A } \mu\text{M}^{-1}$ and 0.0712 $\mu\text{A } \mu\text{M}^{-1}$ | 0.06 $\mu\text{M}$ and $\gamma$ 0.05 $\mu\text{M}$ | 0.5–433.3 & 0.5–460.0           | HQ & CT          | 136  |
| 6      | CeBiOx                   | DPV       | 360 $\mu\text{A m cm}^{-2}$                                                       | 0.2 $\mu\text{M}$                                  | 0–130                           | AMP              | 137  |
| 7      | HNT/LaCoO <sub>3</sub>   | DPV       | 0.7571 $\mu\text{A } \mu\text{M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$                            | 0.002 $\mu\text{M}$                                | 0.009–145                       | Flutamide        | 124  |
| 8      | N-rGO/SrZrO <sub>3</sub> | SWV       | —                                                                                 | 0.61 $\mu\text{M}$                                 | 25–2500                         | Hydroquinone     | 138  |

use of perovskites for gas sensing, reporting the works published after 2017. It is largely reported that the working of these gas-sensing perovskite devices is based on two concepts: (i) the electron transfer mechanism and (ii) the adsorption mechanism. When the analyte gases like NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, O, O<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S and H<sub>2</sub> are exposed to the applied current/voltage, an interaction between the gas and the electrons results in the formation of reactive oxygen/intermediate species (ROS), which undergo reduction to molecular oxygen  $\text{O}^{2-} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} 2\text{O}_2 + 2\text{e}^-$ . The physicochemical adsorption of this molecular oxygen on the perovskite layer allows changes in electrochemical signals and facilitates sensing.

### 5.1 O<sub>2</sub> sensing

The sole sensing of oxygen molecules is relatively easy and many groups have attempted it, even much earlier than 2017. The sensing of oxygen gas has reached very high sensitivity levels with perovskite sensing electrodes. In 2017, the nano-structured organometal halides-based perovskite films were fabricated by the spin coating method through a solvent annealing process at 100 °C to detect O<sub>2</sub>. In this study, O<sub>2</sub> sensing was carried out using a gold integrated reference electrode based on the resistive response of the device to the exposed O<sub>2</sub> gas. The very sensitive response of the device was

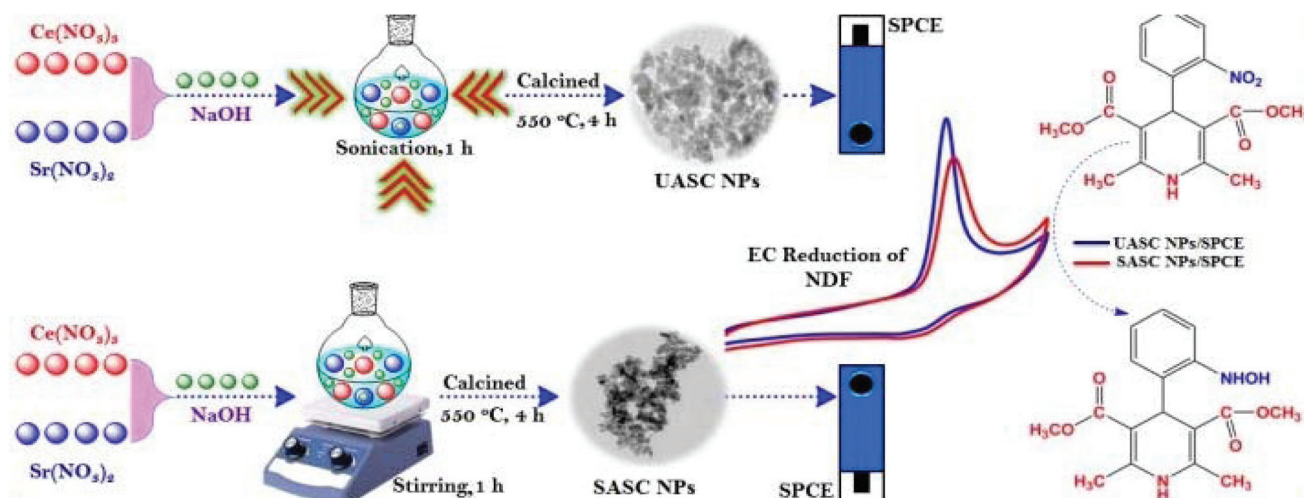
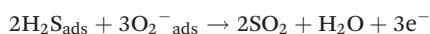


Fig. 12 Synthesis procedures and their electrochemical applications of UASC NPs and SASC NPs towards the sensing of NDF (reprinted with permission from ref. 130. Copyright 2019 Elsevier).

observed at a concentration of 28 ppm in ambient conditions.<sup>139</sup> Another group in 2017 developed a  $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$  perovskite coated on a pre-patterned Pt electrode by the spin coating method for self-powered ozone sensors. This sensor could be operated at room temperature and could detect very low concentrations of ozone gas by an electrochemical mechanism. The device achieved remarkable sensitivity at 2500 ppb level of ozone when exposed for 60 min. The developed device exhibited long-term stability and compatibility and could be further used for other analytes.<sup>140</sup>

## 5.2 $\text{H}_2$ , $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and CO sensing

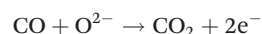
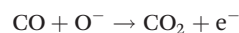
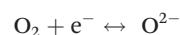
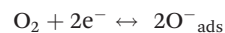
Following  $\text{O}_2$ , the sensing of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{H}_2$ , and CO gas was largely attempted. In this direction, Ag-doped  $\text{CaCu}_3\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_{12}$  (CCTO) films were fabricated as sensor probes to detect  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  gas. Firstly, the perovskite was synthesized *via* the sol-gel method and the Ag-doped CCTO films were fabricated by a spin coating method. A photolithographic process was applied to deposit positive photoresist on CCTO film by sputtering chromium and gold layers on the substrate and further baking at 400 °C to remove the leftovers from the surface. The obtained results showed that the Ag-doped CCTO responded successfully to the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration range between 0.2 and 10 ppm, which was higher than undoped CCTO films. These results proved that Ag acts as a catalyst to improve the sensitivity response of the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  sensor. This study also revealed that the exposure of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  to the CCTO film allowed its reaction with a reactive oxide layer and resulted in a decrease in the resistivity of the device. The overall mechanism was explained as follows:<sup>141</sup>



The Zhang group in 2017 developed the LSCF/YSZ/Pt sensor to detect  $\text{H}_2$  gas by an electrochemical method. LSCF ( $\text{La}$ ,  $\text{Sr}$ ) ( $\text{Cr}$ ,  $\text{Fe}$ )  $\text{O}_{3-\delta}$  perovskite was synthesized by the sol-gel method and used for sensing  $\text{H}_2$ . A Pt electrode was used as a reference

electrode with YSZ as a solid electrolyte. The interface reaction between  $\text{H}_2$  gas and the LSCF/YSZ/Pt sensor resulted in a fast electrochemical response, of  $-55.4$  mV at a low concentration of  $\text{H}_2$  gas (100 ppm) and  $-143.6$  mV at 1000 ppm of  $\text{H}_2$  gas. It was reported that the oxidation based on the electron donation followed by adsorption facilitated the sensing process in the device. Response time was as low as 4 s and a recovery time of 24 s was obtained for 500 ppm. The probe showed excellent selectivity to hydrogen against the interference of  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8$ ,  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ , and  $\text{NH}_3$ . The  $\text{H}_2$  determination performance for concentrations above 100 ppm is attributed to the high electrocatalytic activity of the perovskite electrode to  $\text{H}_2$  oxidation.<sup>142</sup>

$\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  doped with strontium, cerium, and zirconium to form  $\text{La}_{1.9}\text{Sr}_{0.2}\text{Ce}_{0.1}\text{Cu}_{0.8}\text{Zr}_{0.2}\text{O}_4$  perovskite structure *via* a polymer precursor method was tried for the detection of carbon monoxide (CO). The response of a thick-film device prepared by a screen printing technique was investigated by an AC impedance method using an LCR meter at 300–600 °C. They found that the  $\text{La}_{1.9}\text{Ce}_{0.1}\text{CuO}_4$  thick-film device responded well to CO between 50 and 600 ppm at 400 °C, and 50 Hz. The donation of electrons caused oxidation of CO as described in the following equations:



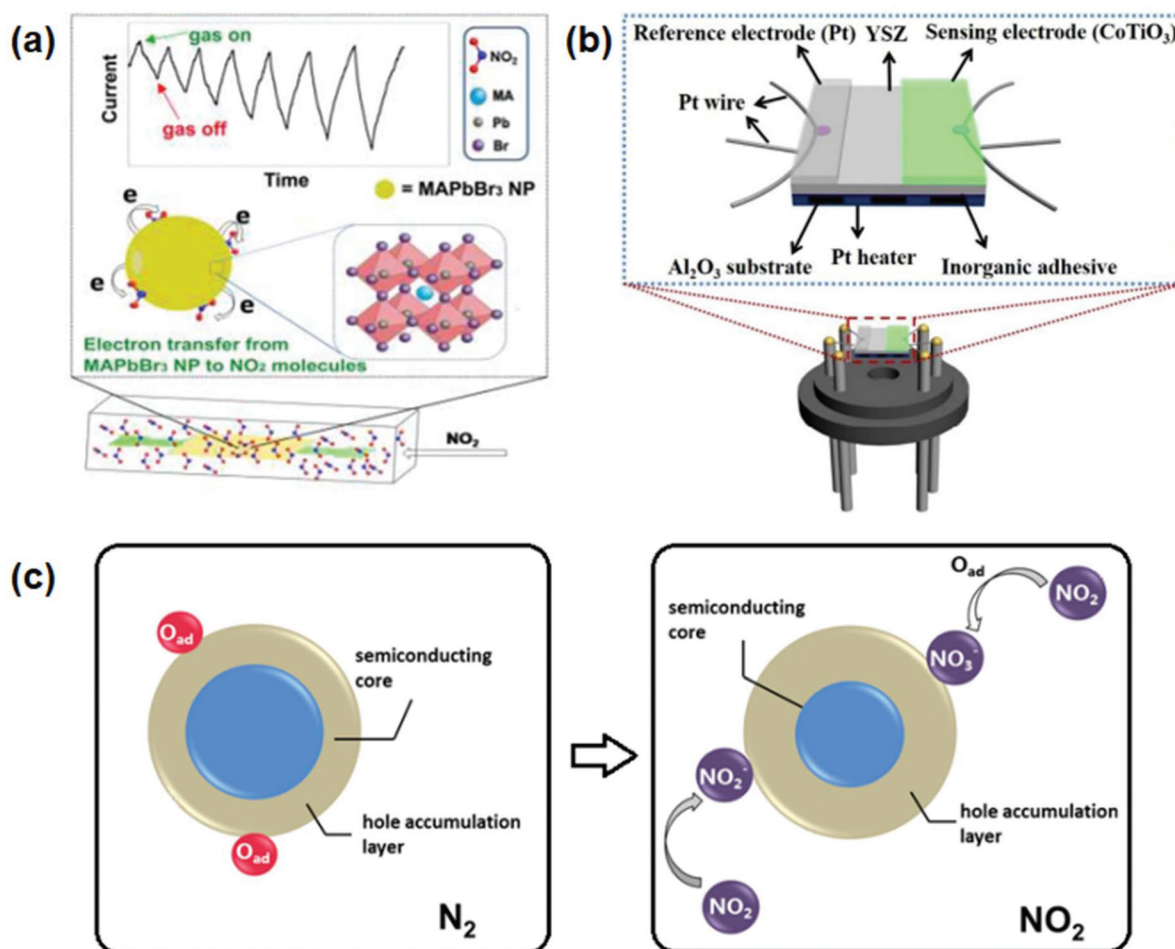
Under atmospheric pressure and at high temperatures such as 400–500 °C, the oxygen molecules react or become adsorbed on the oxide surface as  $\text{O}^-$  or  $\text{O}^{2-}$ . As a result, the electrons arrested by the adsorbed oxygen were free and contributed to the p-type cuprates, which in turn increased the sensor resistance, thereby decreasing the electric charge to decrease the sensor capacitance.<sup>143</sup>

A novel CO sensing device using bismuth ferrite as a sensing electrode and Au as a reference electrode for environmental monitoring was developed by Chakraborty and group. The obtained detection results confirmed the response of the CO gas to the applied current voltage. The device achieved the lowest detection limit of 30 ppm for CO gas at 350 °C, and the device was stable up to 150 days. The adsorption of O<sub>2</sub> on the sensing surface allowed the ionization of oxygen into O<sup>-</sup>, O<sup>2-</sup> and O<sup>2-</sup> forms. When CO molecules interacted with this sensing platform, it resulted in the formation of CO<sub>2</sub> and the generated electrons recombined with holes, which in turn increased the resistance.<sup>139</sup>

The effect of the TiO<sub>2</sub>/LSCNO (La, Sr, Co, Ni, O) PN heterojunction was investigated for the better sensing capacity of CO gas. The sensitive response of the device was observed at 200 °C for a concentration of 400 ppm. The oxygen vacancies resulted in the enhanced adsorption of CO, which then formed CO<sub>3</sub> and decreased the resistance of the device.<sup>144</sup>

### 5.3 NO sensing

Among the different target gas monitoring, the determination of nitric oxide (NO) has gained substantial interest. NO is an exceedingly toxic oxidizing gas with a pungent odor. It is continuously released as automotive exhaust and also when there is an influence of nitric acid on metals, such as in metal etching and pickling. It plays an important role in human biological processes like the cardiovascular<sup>145</sup> and immune systems.<sup>146</sup> NO also disturbs the neuron operation, which leads to neurodegenerative diseases.<sup>147</sup> Thus, it is very important to develop NO gas sensors. Many research groups have used perovskites to sense NO<sub>2</sub> gas. For the first time, the Zhuang group in 2017 reported the synthesis of perovskite films *via* the solution processing approach for sensing gases. The CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub>-*x* (SCN)*x*-based chemiresistor-type sensor was fabricated by spin coating of the perovskite on the Pb (SCN)<sub>2</sub>, Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate, which can sensitively and selectively detect acetone and nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) at room tempera-



**Fig. 13** (a) High-performance room-temperature NO<sub>2</sub> sensors based on CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbBr<sub>3</sub> semiconducting films: the effect of surface capping by alkyl chains on sensor performance (reprinted with permission from ref. 148. Copyright 2019 Elsevier). (b) Schematic view of the planar type YSZ-based NO<sub>2</sub> sensor (reprinted with permission from ref. 149. Copyright 2019 Elsevier). (c) Schematics showing the NO<sub>2</sub> sensing mechanism (reprinted with permission from ref. 150. Copyright 2019 Elsevier).

**Table 3** Comparison of detection limits of various perovskite materials used for gas sensing

| S. no. | Perovskite                                        | Electrode                      | LOD (ppm)  | Analyte         | Ref. |
|--------|---------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------|-----------------|------|
| 1      | CH <sub>3</sub> NH <sub>3</sub> PbI <sub>3</sub>  | Gold interdigitated electrodes | 20         | NO <sub>2</sub> | 153  |
|        | CH <sub>3</sub> NH <sub>3</sub> PbBr <sub>3</sub> | Gold interdigitated electrodes | 0.1        |                 | 148  |
|        | CoTiO <sub>3</sub>                                | Pt                             | 50 and 100 |                 | 154  |
|        | LaFeO <sub>3</sub>                                | Ag                             | 1          |                 | 155  |
|        | LaFePd <sub>0.05</sub> O <sub>3+</sub>            | Pt                             | 10         |                 | 151  |
|        | NaBiTiO <sub>3</sub>                              | CuO                            | 50         |                 | 152  |
| 2      | MAPbI <sub>3</sub>                                | Gold interdigitated electrodes | 28         | O <sub>2</sub>  | 139  |
| 3      | La <sub>2</sub> CuBO <sub>4</sub>                 | Gold interdigitated electrodes | 50         | CO              | 143  |
|        | BiFeO <sub>3</sub>                                | Au                             | 30         |                 | 156  |
|        | LaSrCoNiO <sub>3</sub>                            | Ag                             | 400        |                 | 157  |
|        | CaCu <sub>3</sub> Ti <sub>4</sub> O <sub>12</sub> | Interdigitated gold electrodes | 0.2 to 10  |                 | 141  |
| 5      | (La, Sr)(Cr, Fe)O <sub>3-δ</sub>                  | Pt                             | 100        | H <sub>2</sub>  | 158  |

ture. The reference electrodes (Au) were fabricated by photolithography techniques with controlled width and gaps between the adjacent fingers. Sensing occurs based on the increase in the capacitance of the sensing layer to the applied NO<sub>2</sub> gas. The fabricated device sensitively detects NO<sub>2</sub> gas and acetone with the limit of detection of 20 ppm and 200 ppb, respectively, and they confirmed that the sensitivity and stability of the perovskite were increased by thiocyanate and could be widely used for various other gas sensing applications.<sup>136</sup> The same hybrid perovskite (CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbBr<sub>3</sub>) but with a different halide were fabricated as semiconducting films under room conditions by a very simple coating technique to detect NO<sub>2</sub> gas up to a limit of 0.1 ppm. The interaction of perovskite film with NO<sub>2</sub> resulted in electron transfer from one to the other, decreasing the conductivity of the perovskite layer. A schematic representation of the device is represented in Fig. 13(a).<sup>148</sup>

A YSZ coupled CoTiO<sub>3</sub> electrode was used for sensing NO<sub>2</sub> at the operating temperature of 650 °C. The NO<sub>2</sub> sensor provided a low detection limit of 500 ppb, and the response values were 118 mV and 130 mV towards 50 ppm and 100 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> at 650 °C, respectively; the device was reported to be stable for 20 days. Both the cathodic and anodic reactions were carried out simultaneously when the sensor was exposed to NO<sub>2</sub> gas (cathodic reaction: NO<sub>2</sub> + 2e<sup>-</sup> → NO + O<sup>2-</sup> and anodic reaction: O<sup>2-</sup> →  $\frac{1}{2}$  2O<sub>2</sub> + 2e<sup>-</sup>) and the resulting O<sub>2</sub> created pressure on the sensing electrode. It resulted in negative linearity with ΔV. The sensing mechanism is well elucidated based on the mixed potential model and substantiated using polarization curve measurements. A schematic representation of the device is shown in Fig. 13(b).<sup>149</sup> The fabricated sensor also exhibited good reproducibility and selectivity toward NO<sub>2</sub> and these attractive sensing characteristics indicate this NO<sub>2</sub> sensor using CoTiO<sub>3</sub> to be a promising detection device for automotive exhaust.

The (LaFeO<sub>3</sub> (LFO) hollow micro spindles derived from a metal-organic framework, with a longitudinal dimension of 5 μm by a self-template chemical process were used with the Ag reference electrode for NO<sub>2</sub> gas sensing at a much lower operating temperature of 155 °C. A high limit of detection of 5 ppm was observed for NO<sub>2</sub> gas and the device was cost-

effective. According to the reaction mechanism, when the LFO layer was exposed to NO<sub>2</sub> gas it resulted in the direct capture of electrons and the formation of surface-adsorbed nitrite species, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup><sub>(ads)</sub> → NO<sub>(gas)</sub> + O<sup>-</sup><sub>(ads)</sub>, through catalytic decomposition. A schematic representation of the device is given in Fig. 13(c).<sup>150</sup>

The same LaFeO<sub>3</sub> perovskite electrode was decorated with PdO NPs for enhancing the sensitivity, stability, and selectivity of the gas sensor, and this strategy was found to be suitable for application to other sensor devices as well. The oxidation process initiated due to the transfer of electrons from the sensor electrode allowed the NO<sub>2</sub> gas to react, resulting in the formation of O<sup>2-</sup>, which in turn reacted with the reference electrode to form O<sub>2</sub> (reaction to SE side: NO<sub>2</sub> + 2e<sup>-</sup> → NO + O<sup>2-</sup> and reaction to RE side: O<sup>2-</sup> - 2e<sup>-</sup> →  $\frac{1}{2}$  2O<sub>2</sub>).<sup>151</sup>

A Cu-doped NaBiTiO<sub>3</sub> (NBTC) perovskite was also developed as an amperometric type NO<sub>2</sub> sensor. The study reported the sensitive response of NBTC (0.15 to 500 ppm) towards NO<sub>2</sub> gas sensing at the current value of 2.25 μA at 500 °C. Thus, they proposed that the sensitivity and stability of the developed device could be applied in real-time applications, mostly in automotive exhaust.<sup>152</sup> Table 3 gives the comparison of detection limits of various perovskite materials used for gas sensing.

## 6. Conclusions and perspectives

Researchers have been successfully exploiting the ability of perovskites to transmute external stimulants into highly optical and electrical signals. Optical sensing is mainly a fluorescence-based process, and it occurs *via* FRET, electron transfer, or cation exchange. ABX<sub>3</sub>-type perovskites appear to be promising materials for optical sensing for metal ions such as Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Hg<sup>2+</sup>, Pb<sup>2+</sup>, Co<sup>2+</sup>, *etc.* but they lack practical application due to their moisture sensitivity. As mentioned, regardless of the difficulty in achieving the fabrication of these perovskite materials as sensing probes, enhancing their stability is a very challenging task. Over the past few years, some of the methods, including ligand exchange, doping, the formation of heterostructures, and hybridization with porous membranes,

have been attempted to improve the stability of perovskites but with little success for sensing applications. Contemplating the fact that these perovskites are affected by external factors such as temperature, humidity, gases, and solvents, designing these sensors in the real intricate environment is important. The intrinsic toxicity of Pb is another serious issue that must be considered. It is well known that the lone pair of electrons ( $6s^2$ ) in Pb species, which align with halides, is responsible for the high fluorescence of Pb that gives way for sensing. Although one can find many reports on the replacement of Pb by Ge, Sn, Bi, and Cu, their application for sensing activity seems limited. Double perovskites, wherein Pb cations are replaced by two other cations, namely, Ag, Bi, In and Sb, have shown good photovoltaic properties and also stability, and thus can be explored for such sensing applications. However, this study will have an upper hand (reach another level) over a wide range of practical applications if water-stable PNCs are discovered.

The perovskite-based electrode materials using the  $ABO_3$ -type structure have been proved for sensing by different electrochemical approaches mostly with GCE and SPCE using cyclic voltammetry and square wave voltammetry techniques. These sensors showed good detection limits, repeatability, reproducibility, and high selectivity towards the sensing of various environmental pollutants and drugs. With low cost, prompt detection, trace-level LODs, wide linear range, good sensitivity, reproducibility, excellent stability, and accuracy, these sensors could potentially be utilized for screening various environmental pollutants and drugs in remote areas. Therefore, these kinds of sensing work conducted on inorganic perovskite oxide-based materials offer promises to design probes for electrochemical detections in real-time conditions. There is, however, scope to enhance the sensitivity levels with the fine-tuning of surface area, crystal size, and structure, which is at present scarcely explored. Applications in the areas of the sensing of emerging contaminants and PPCPs (Pharma and Personal Care Products) using these perovskites seems very promising for future studies.

With regard to gas sensing, devices based on perovskite materials have been successfully fabricated and efficiently used to sense some of the essential gases such as  $N_2$ ,  $H_2S$ ,  $H_2$ ,  $NO_2$ ,  $NH_3$  and  $O_2$  via electron transfer and adsorption. Target gas molecules feasibly adsorb onto trap states and defects of perovskites, and sometimes also intercalate into their lattices resulting in intermediate complexes that can be reversed thus facilitating sensing ability. Compared to other gas sensors, most of these perovskite gas sensors can be operated at room temperature. Organometallic halide perovskites, being good semiconductors and showing response to conductivity on interaction with target gases, can be practically applied in vacuum or inert conditions to detect gas molecules. The changes in the resistance of these semiconducting perovskites on interaction with gases such as  $O_2$ , CO and  $NH_3$  open up vast possibilities for the development of more sensitive sensors. Protected surfaces with considerably improved stability have been attempted for sensing gases in real-time. There

are studies wherein perovskite sensors are practically applied, as in ozone sensors that can detect very low concentrations, up to ppb levels. The formation of perovskite composites with stable materials, and incorporating them into porous structures and membranes could also be new areas for exploring them as stable perovskite sensors for gas detection. The simultaneous detection of more than one gas at a time will be another significant development in the years to come.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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