



# Superior triethylamine-sensing properties based on $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$ n–n heterojunction nanosheets directly grown on ceramic tubes

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## ABSTRACT

A highly sensitive and selective gas sensor towards triethylamine (TEA) has been successfully fabricated by designing n–n heterojunctions consisting of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets and  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles. The  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets with the thickness about 15 nm were directly grown on  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ceramic tubes by a simple hydrothermal process. After the formation of n–n heterojunctions by employing PLD method, the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticle/ $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets heterojunctions exhibit high sensing properties to TEA gas. The as-prepared ST3 ( $\text{SnO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$  3000) sensor response could reach to 52.3 at relatively low temperature (260 °C) when exposed to 100 ppm TEA gas, which is much higher than that of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheet sensor ( $\sim 3$  @ 100 ppm TEA @ 320 °C). Compared with the pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheet sensor (S sensor), the depletion layer formed at the n–n heterojunctions interface in  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  sensor can greatly increase the resistance in air and decrease the resistance in TEA gas. Due to the general working principle and controllable growth strategy, this work provides a way for developing the chemiresistive gas sensors.

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## 1. Introduction

Triethylamine (TEA), a colorless transparent liquid with a strong ammonia-like odor, has been widely used as solvents, catalysts and raw materials in the process of organic synthesis. It can also be secreted in dead fish and sea creatures. The TEA concentration can increase with the decay of the dead fish and marine products. Taking its volatility, highly combustible and toxicity into account, TEA can result in serious damage to human health and environment, such as eye and skin chemical burns caused by contacting. TEA can also cause pulmonary edema and even death on inhalation [1,2]. Although, several methods have been adopted to detect TEA, such as chromatography, electrochemistry analysis, and colorimetric method [3–5], the reference electrodes and expensive equipment hinder their application [6]. Thus, there is a great demand for accurate and fast detection of TEA with high sensitivity and good selectivity in biomedical, chemical, food industries and our daily life.

$\text{SnO}_2$  is a chemically and thermally stable n-type oxide semiconductor with a wide band gap of 3.6 eV at room temperature [7–9]. It has been well reported that both the shape and size of

materials can greatly influence the sensing properties of  $\text{SnO}_2$  [10]. Thus, considerable efforts have been made to fabricate nanostructured  $\text{SnO}_2$ , such as nanoparticles, nanorods, nanosheets, and hollow spheres [11–15], in order to further improve its sensing performance. Among the various nanostructures, nanosheets have been paid great attention due to their high surface area to volume ratio and stability [14,16,17].

It is well known that  $\text{SnO}_2$ -based gas sensors exhibit good sensing properties to many flammable and explosive gases like trimethylamine (TMA) [18], CO and  $\text{CH}_4$  [19]. However,  $\text{SnO}_2$ -based gas sensors for detecting TEA are rarely reported. To the best of our knowledge, only Wang et al [20] fabricated  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods TEA sensor using the traditional slurry-coating method. However, the high working temperature (350 °C), low response (200 @ 1000 ppm), and complex preparation process made it need further researched [20]. Recently, doping or formation of heterojunction has been demonstrated to be another way to improve the sensing properties [2,19,21–23]. By varying the electronic structure of the metal oxide nanocomposites, the inherent characteristics of the sensor can be tailored for detection of specific gases [21,22]. For example, Zhang et al. [22] have demonstrated by using  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3/\text{ZnO}$  core-shell nanostructure as a model to improve the gas sensing properties. The electronic interaction between the metal oxide semiconductor components plays an important role in tuning the conductivity and sensor properties. Hsu et al. [23] synthesized high density vertical

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Ti doped ZnO (ZnO:Ti) nanorods (NRs) to detect ethanol gas. The ethanol gas responses of the ZnO:Ti NRs are higher than that of the ZnO NRs by around 5.1 times to 1000 ppm ethanol. Our group fabricated NiO/ZnO pn heterojunctions gas sensor to detect TEA gas, and the sensor exhibited highly sensitive and selective sensing property to TEA gas [24].

In addition, as an n-type semiconductor with a wide bandgap of 3.2 eV [25], TiO<sub>2</sub> (titanium dioxide) has been well known and used as an important gas sensing material because of its reversible and large changes in the electrical resistance and the exceptional chemical stability. There are some reports on high efficiency gas sensors based on TiO<sub>2</sub> [26–28]. Among them, there are several reports on the fabrication of heterojunction based on TiO<sub>2</sub> with high selectivity and response in recent years [27,28]. For example, Deng et al. used nanofibers of zinc oxide and titanium dioxide to fabricate (ZnO/TiO<sub>2</sub>) heterojunction device for ethanol sensing. The ZnO/TiO<sub>2</sub> heterojunction showed higher response (~3 times) than only ZnO and TiO<sub>2</sub> based devices toward ethanol (20–500 ppm) [29].

In this paper, we have successfully implanted TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles onto the surface of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets by pulsed laser deposition (PLD) process. It is worth highlighting that the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets synthesized directly on the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> tubes which can be used directly for gas sensor fabrication without the slurry-coating fabrication process. With the formation of n–n heterojunction, the sensitivity and selectivity of TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheet sensor were enhanced obviously in comparison with pure SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheet sensor and the possible sensing mechanism was also discussed.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Direct growth of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets on Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ceramic tubes

All the chemicals were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent (Shanghai, China). SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were prepared by the following hydrothermal process: 0.04 M SnCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O solution was mixed with 0.04 M CO(NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub> solution under stirring, and then they were transferred into Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclaves. At the same time, the cleaned Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> tubes with predesigned gold electrodes were suspended into the aqueous solution. After the reaction at 95 °C for 24 h, we got the nanosheet samples. Then, SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were obtained by further annealing the precipitation precursor in a muffle furnace at 500 °C for 4 h.

### 2.2. Growth of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles onto SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets by PLD

A layer of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles was deposited onto the surface of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets by pulsed laser deposition (PLD) using TiO<sub>2</sub> target at room temperature. A KrF laser of 1 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> and an oxygen partial pressure of 3 × 10<sup>−4</sup> Pa were typically applied. By controlling the laser pulses, e.g., 1000, 2000, 3000, 4000 pulses, the TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheet heterojunction with TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle layer of different thickness were grown. Thus, different gas sensors directly fabricated with SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, named as S sensor, and TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheet heterojunction, named as ST1–ST4 sensor, were ready for further measurement.

### 2.3. Material characterizations and sensor properties

The morphology, microstructure, and composition of TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were measured by a field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, FEI QUANTA FEG250) equipped with an energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS, INCA MAX-50) and a high-resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM, JEM-2100F, JEOL) with an energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX, OXFORD LINK-ISIS). The phase of the sensor materials was characterized

by X-ray diffraction (XRD, D8-Advance, Bruker). X-ray photoelectron spectrum (XPS) analysis was conducted using an Al KaX-ray source (1486.6 eV) on a Thermo-VG ESCALAB MKII spectrometer. The gas sensing properties were measured by a gas sensing test system (WS-30A, Weisheng Electronics, Zhengzhou, China). The concentrations of the target gases were obtained by the static gas distribution method, which was calculated by the following Formula [30]:

$$Q = \frac{V \times \varphi \times M}{22.4 \times d \times \rho} \times 10^{-9} \times \frac{273 + T_R}{273 + T_B} \quad (1)$$

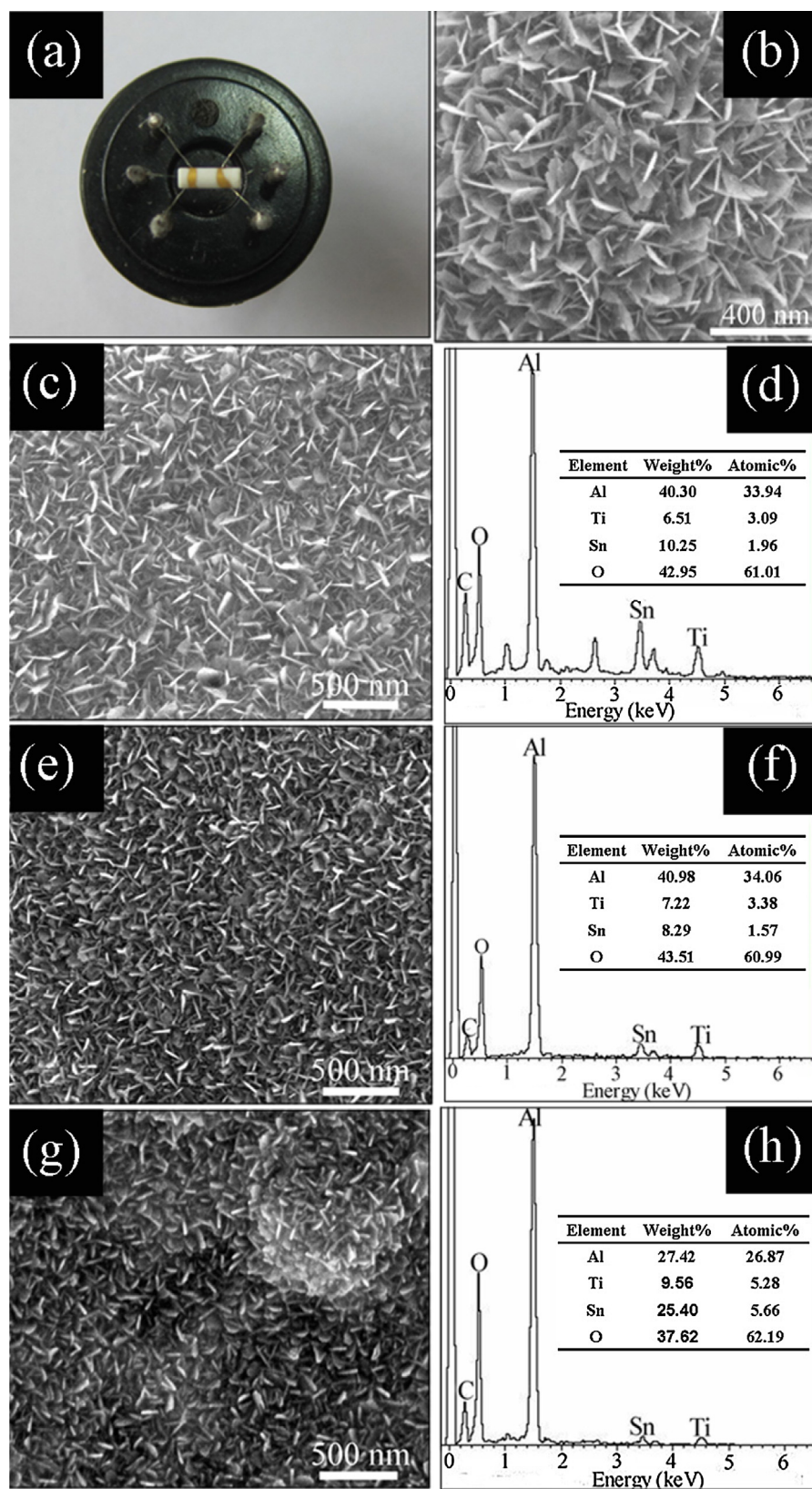
where  $Q$  (mL) is the liquid volume of the volatile compound,  $V$  (mL) is the volume of the testing chamber,  $\varphi$  is the required gas volume fraction,  $M$  (g mol<sup>−1</sup>) is the molecular weight,  $d$  (g cm<sup>−3</sup>) is the specific gravity, and  $\rho$  is the purity of the volatile testing liquid,  $T_R$  and  $T_B$  (°C) are the temperatures at ambient and test chamber, respectively. The devices were put into an airtight test box. Test gases of TEA with calculated concentration were injected into the testing chamber by a microsyringe. At a certain TEA concentration, the corresponding response of the sensor increases rapidly and reaches its equilibrium. Once the target gas is removed, the response decreases quickly to the baseline. The sensor response is defined as the ratio of  $R_a/R_g$ , where  $R_a$  and  $R_g$  are the resistances of the sensors in air and in target gas, respectively. The response and recovery time was defined as the time needed for the sensor-resistance to change by 90% of the difference from the maximum after injecting and removing the detected gas.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Characterizations of SnO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets

Fig. 1(a) is an optical photograph of an Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> tube grown with SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, interdigitated with a pair of Au electrodes, Pt lead wires and heater. The surface morphology of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets directly synthesized on the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> tubes is shown in Fig. 1(b). The optical photograph of the panorama device is shown in Fig. S1 (a) in supplementary information. However, due to the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were grown directly on the surface of the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> tube, it is difficult to be observed by naked eyes. Therefore, the FESEM measurement was carried out to observe the surface structure information of the sensing material on the surface of the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> tube, which was shown in Fig. S1 (b) and (c) in supplementary information. It can be seen that the thickness of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets is about 15 nm. It has been reported that the sensing properties could remarkably increase as the average crystallite size decreases down to 20 nm [14,31,32]. This is because when the crystallite size is smaller than or close to twice the thickness of electron depletion layer, the whole particle can be fully depleted of electrons through surface interactions, which lead to the increase of the sensing properties [32]. Additionally, 2D structures are considered to be stable [33,34]. They are effective in mitigating the strong agglomeration between nanostructures. Moreover, the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets distribute vertically on the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> tube, which will provide a larger contact area to the target gas. Fig. 1(c), (e), and (g) show the morphology of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets when a thin layer of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles was deposited onto their surface by PLD with laser pulses of 1000, 3000 and 4000, respectively. Fig. 1(d), (f) and (h) are the corresponding EDS spectrum of the TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> samples. The peak of Ti can be clearly observed in all the spectra. According to the EDS analysis shown in inset of Fig. 1(b, d and f), it can be concluded that the TiO<sub>2</sub> content increases with the increasing laser pulses. The peaks of Al observed in the spectra are attributed to the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> tube.

The phases of the SnO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were tested by XRD. Fig. 2(a) exhibits the XRD spectrum of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets.

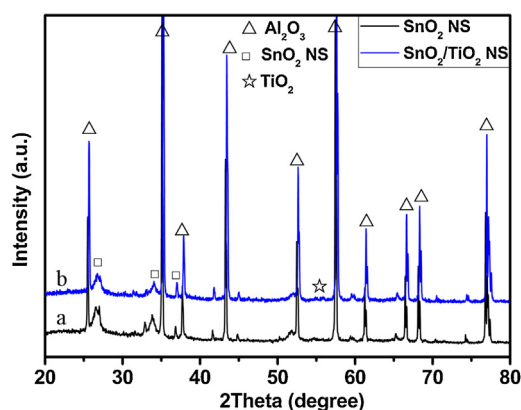


**Fig. 1.** (a) Gas sensor of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets fixed on an electronic bracket; (b) SEM image of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets taken from (a); SEM images and the corresponding EDS spectra of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets after a PLD growth process for TiO<sub>2</sub> with different deposition laser pulses. ((c) and (d)) 1000 pulses; ((e) and (f)) 3000 pulses; ((g) and (h)) 4000 pulses.

Typical tetragonal rutile SnO<sub>2</sub> (JCPDS Card No. 41-1445) diffraction patterns can be observed with the diffraction peaks of under Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> substrate. The weak peaks of TiO<sub>2</sub> (JCPDS card No. 88-1175) are due to the small amount.

To gain further insights into the crystallographic features of the pure SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets and the TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, TEM, HRTEM and the associated diffraction techniques were employed, as shown in Fig. 3. Fig. 3(a) presents a TEM image for SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. The





**Fig. 2.** XRD spectra of as-synthesized nanosheets grown on  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  substrate. (a)  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets; (b)  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets with 3000 pulses.

inset SAED pattern indicates that the nanosheet is of polycrystalline structure composed of small nanoparticles. Fig. 3(b) shows the same HRTEM image, where the lattice spacings are determined to be 0.335 nm, corresponding to the (110) planes of the  $\text{SnO}_2$ . Fig. 3(c) is the EDX spectrum of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets. The peaks of Sn and O can be clearly observed in the spectrum.

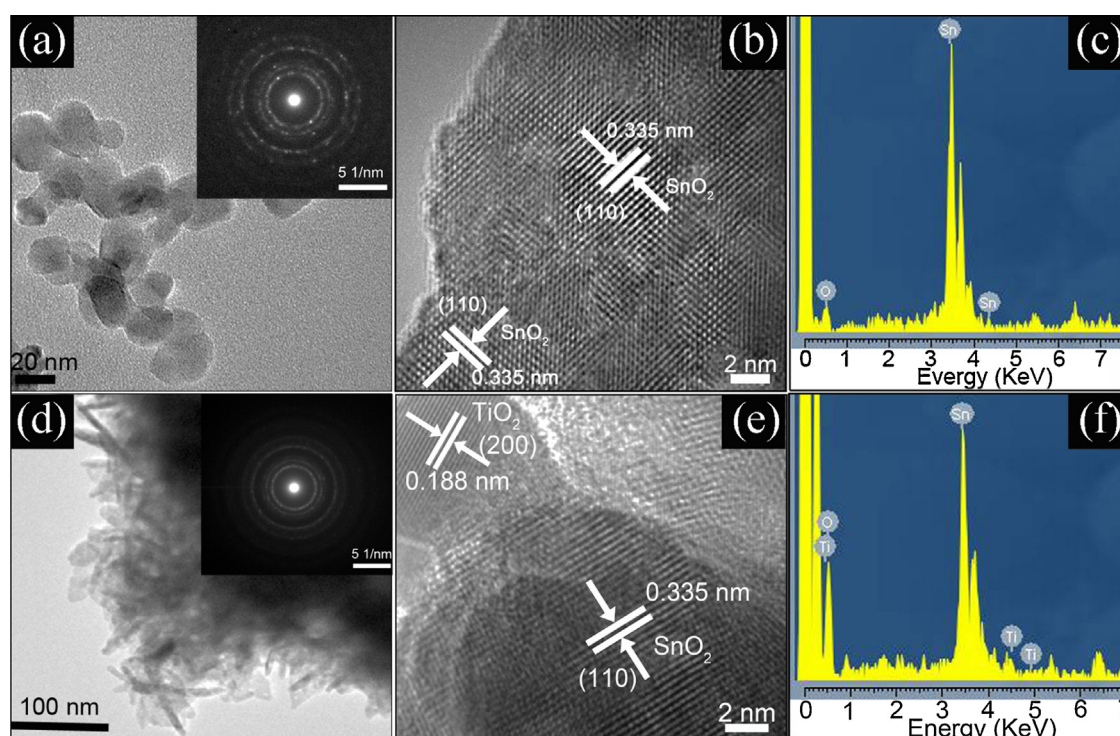
TEM, HRTEM and diffraction analyses were also conducted for  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$ . Fig. 3(d and e) shows the TEM and HRTEM images of  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets, where the lattice spacings are determined to be 0.335 nm of  $\text{SnO}_2$  (110) and 0.188 nm of  $\text{TiO}_2$  (200), respectively. The HRTEM image evidently demonstrates that  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles are present on the surface of  $\text{SnO}_2$  and form the n–n heterojunction. The EDX further demonstrates the  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  composite is composed of Ti, Sn and O, as shown in Fig. 3(f).

The chemical composition and purity of the sample  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  composite was also investigated by XPS analysis. The fully scanned spectra (Fig. 4a) demonstrates that Ti, Sn, O, and C exist in  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  heterostructures. The C element can be ascribed to the adventitious

carbon-based contaminant, and the binding energy for the C1s peak at 284.6 eV is used as the reference for calibration. Fig. 4(b) displays the high resolution Sn 3d spectra of this sample. Both Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Sn 3d<sub>3/2</sub> peaks are found to be asymmetric. Binding energy of Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub> was similar to that of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  in  $\text{SnO}_2$  (486.6 eV), and higher than that of  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  in  $\text{SnO}$  (485.9 eV) or Sn metal [35,36]. It is suggested that tin ions are positively charged by forming direct bonds with oxygen ions [35]. Besides, the peaks for Ti 2p in the composite show no shift compared with that in bare  $\text{TiO}_2$ , confirming that the structure of  $\text{TiO}_2$  remains intact after synthesis of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles. In Fig. 4(c), there are two peaks in the Ti 2p region. The peak located at 464.2 eV corresponds to the Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and another one located at 458.5 eV is assigned to Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub>. The splitting between Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> is 5.7 eV, indicating a normal state of  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  in the as-prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  heterostructures. The main component of O1s signal shown in Fig. 4(d), centered at 531.5 eV, is attributed to the lattice oxygen as  $\text{O}^{2-}$  in  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ .

### 3.2. Performance comparison of S and ST sensors

Firstly, the gas sensing properties of the sensors were measured at different working temperature. Fig. 5 shows the response of the sensors to 100 ppm TEA as a function of the working temperature in the range of 200–400 °C. The optimal operating temperature for our sensors is around 260 °C and the response of ST3 sensor is much higher than that of other sensors in the whole temperature range. The sensor responses can reach 10 (ST3 sensor) even the temperature is lower than 200 °C. Furthermore, the response further increases with the increase of working temperature. When the temperature is up to 260 °C, the ST3 sensor exhibits the maximum response of 52.3. Then, the response decreases as the temperature further increases, which is due to the competing desorption of the chemisorbed oxygen [37,38]. When the working temperature is up to 260 °C, the chemical adsorption oxygen absorbed on the surface of the  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets will gain enough energy to desorb from the surface of nanosheets, and then the chemical adsorption of



**Fig. 3.** (a–c) TEM, HRTEM, and EDS images of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets; (d–f) TEM, HRTEM, and EDS image of  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets.

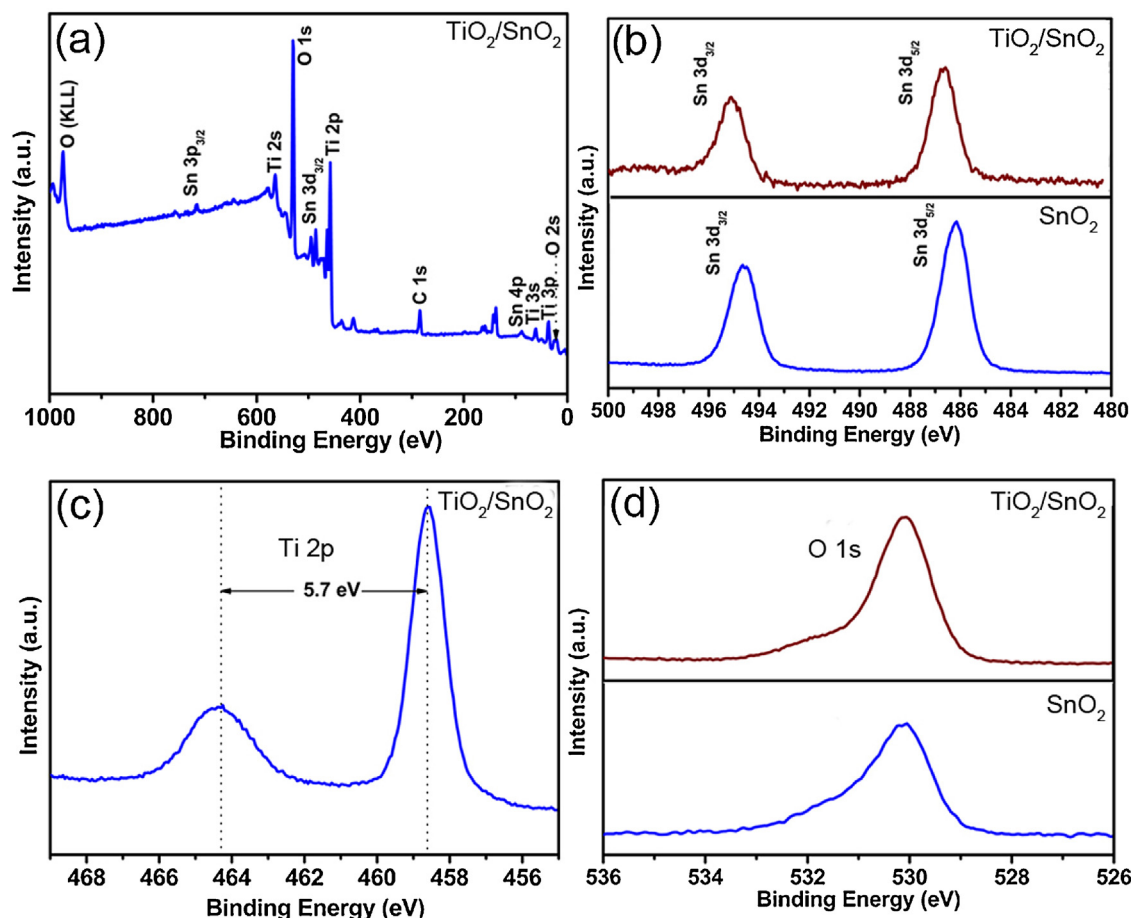


Fig. 4. XPS patterns of the as-synthesized  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  sample: (a) XPS full spectrum; (b) Sn 3d spectra; (c) Ti 2p spectra; (d) O 1s spectra.

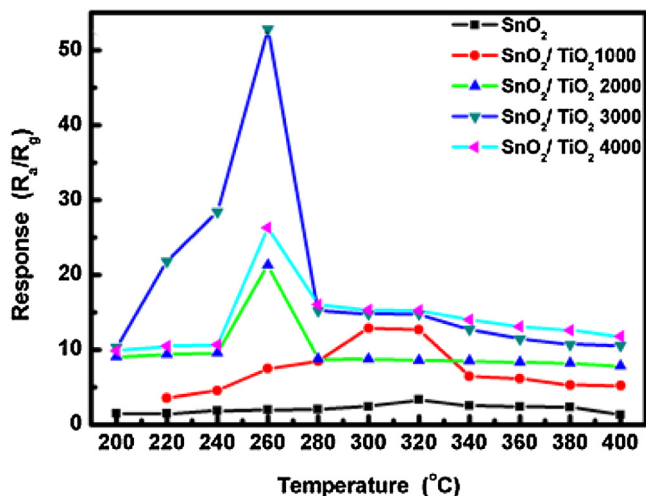


Fig. 5. The relationship between working temperature and response of  $\text{SnO}_2$  sensor (S sensor) and  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  sensors (ST sensors) to 100 ppm TEA gas.

oxygen gets saturation. With the further increase of operating temperature, the rate of desorption of target molecules is much higher than that of adsorption. This limits the reaction between adsorption oxygen and target gas molecules, which reduces the sensing response [39,40].

The sensor resistance in air and 50 ppm TEA of different sensors was shown in Fig. S2 in supplementary information. It can be seen that the resistance of  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$  3000 in air ( $\text{ST3} > \text{ST2} > \text{S}$ ) was

largest in the three kinds of sensors. This may be due to the formation of n–n heterojunctions. These results are also in agreement with the gas sensing mechanism later.

Fig. 6(a) indicates a typical response profile to investigate the repeatability of the gas sensors after aged for 3 days. It is noted that both the sensors are in good reproducible run after six cycles, indicating a very good repeatability of the sensors. Fig. 6(b) shows the response curve of the sensors to TEA gas of different concentrations from 2 to 1000 ppm at 260 °C. It is obvious that the sensor ST3 exhibits higher response than that of sensor S for higher TEA concentration in the range of 2–1000 ppm, which can be attributed to the formation of  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  n–n heterojunctions. The sensor response of ST3 increases gradually with the increasing concentration of TEA and can reach to 140 when the TEA concentration is 1000 ppm. It also indicates that the response could reach to about 8 with a much lower concentration of 2 ppm.

The response/recovery time is another important parameter used for characterizing the sensor performance. According to the definition of response and recovery time, it can be clearly observed from Fig. 7(a) and (b) that when the target gas was injected into the box, both sensors response fast and the response time of sensor S and ST3 is 12 and 16 s, respectively. After evacuation, sensor S needs 35 s to recover the initial state, which is longer than that of sensor ST3 (22 s).

For the further optimized  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  heterostructures, all the sensors shows a clear increase in the range of 10–100 ppm, with the increase of TEA concentration, as shown in Fig. 8(a). The cross response of the sensors were examined by exposing the sensors to 100 ppm TEA, ethanol, acetone, glycol, paraxylene at 260 °C, as summarized in Fig. 8(b). The ST3 sensor response to those

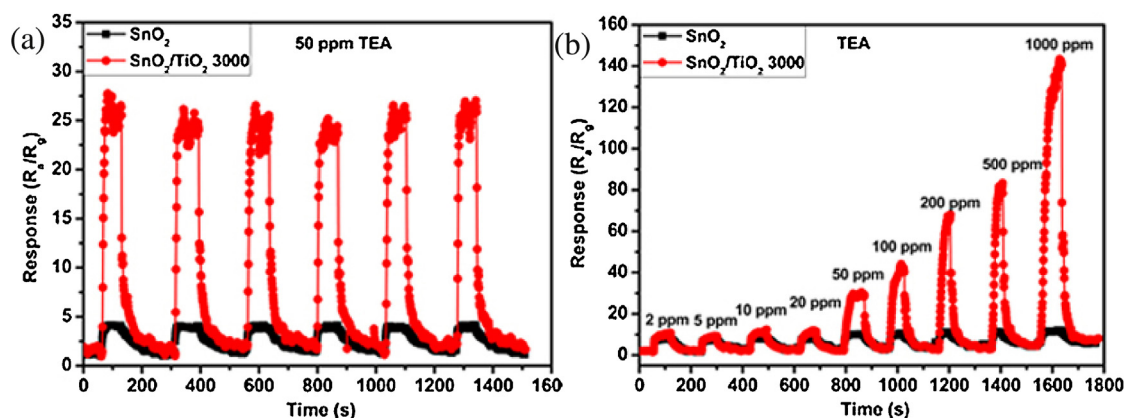


Fig. 6. (a) the repeatability testing of the sensors to 50 ppm TEA at 260 °C; (b) relationship between response and different concentrations of TEA at 260 °C.

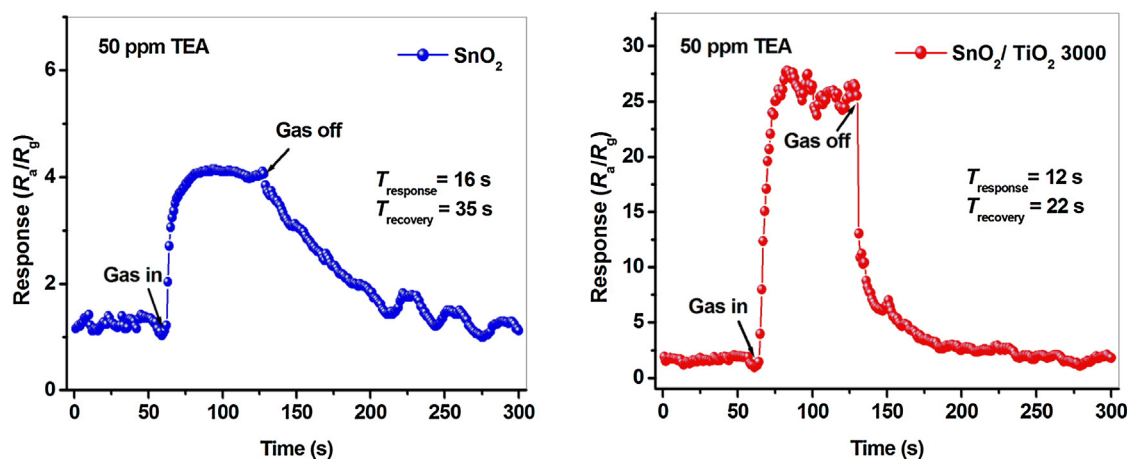


Fig. 7. Response and recovery time of the S and ST3 sensors to 50 ppm TEA at 260 °C. (a) S sensor; (b) ST3 sensor.

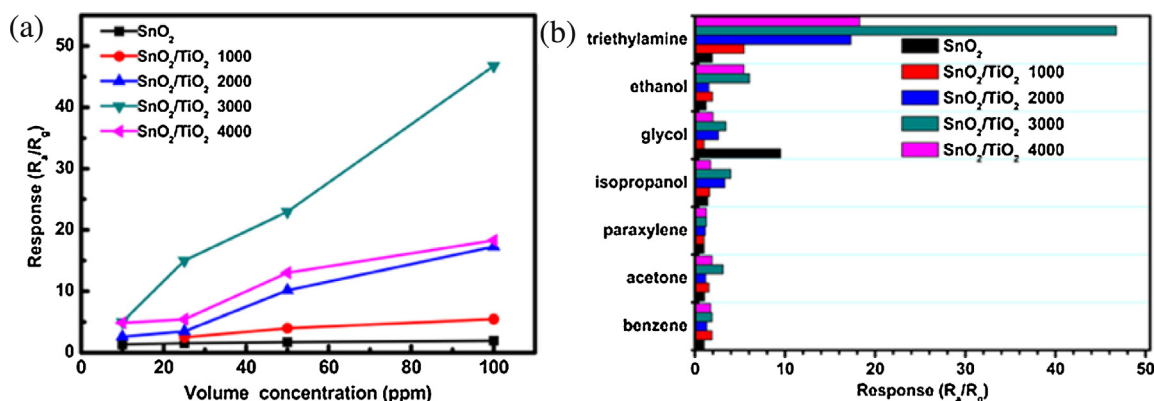
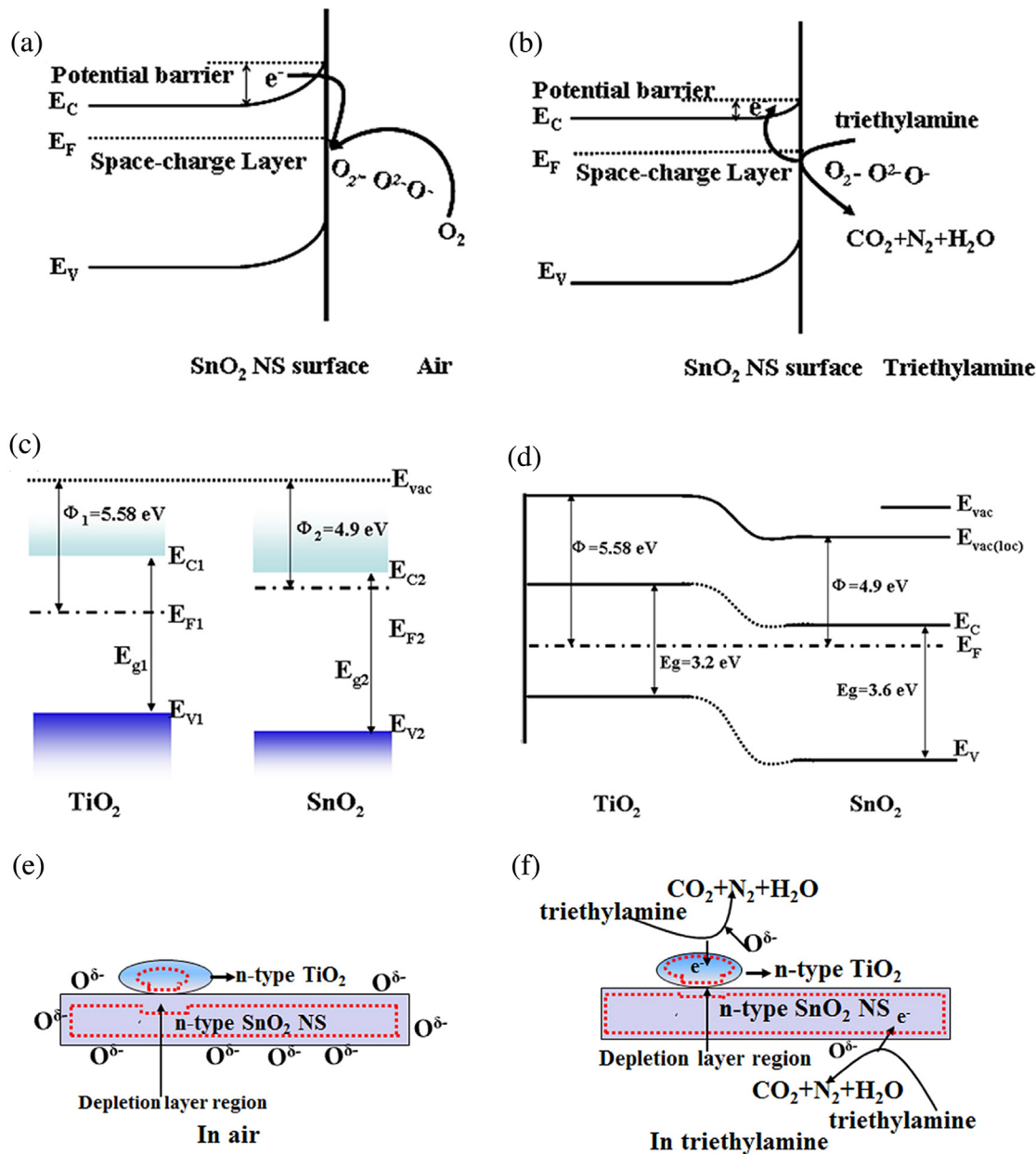


Fig. 8. (a) The corresponding relationship between response and concentration; (b) Selectivity of the sensors for different target gases.

interfering gases is lower than 10 except ethanol. But, the response to TEA is as high as 47. This indicates an excellent selectivity to TEA. The reason may be the different reaction activity of target gases in terms of bond energy [41,42]. The main bond energies of target gases, for example, TEA (C–N), isopropanol (C–C), ethanol (O–H), benzene (C=C), and acetone (C=O), are 307, 345, 458.8, 610.3, and 798.9 kJ/mol, respectively [41,42]. Due to the low C–N bond energy, the high reaction activity of TEA molecules is expected to contribute to the high response of  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheets sensors. Moreover,

the response values of ST sensors are higher than those of S sensor, especially to TEA. The maximum response of ST3 sensor to TEA is about 24 times higher than the pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanosheet sensor, which is very attractive for trace TEA detection. A comparison between the sensing performances of our sensor and literature results is summarized in Table 1. It is worth noting that the ST3 sensor in this work exhibits better sensing properties in comparison with those reported in the literature.





**Fig. 9.** (a and b) The energy band diagram of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheet in air and in TEA; (c and d) The energy band diagram of n-type TiO<sub>2</sub> and n-type SnO<sub>2</sub> heterojunction. (e and f) Schematic model for the TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> n-n heterojunction nanosheets sensor exposed to air and TEA gas, respectively. The outside part indicated by red dashed lines is the depletion layer.

**Table 1**

Sensing properties of TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets and other reported gas sensors working under different operating temperatures.

Sensing material	[TEA] (ppm)	T <sub>sens</sub> (°C)	Response (R <sub>a</sub> /R <sub>g</sub> )	Refs.
SnO <sub>2</sub> nanorods	50	350	65	[20]
SnO <sub>2</sub> flowerlike	100	350	4	[39]
brick-shaped SnO <sub>2</sub>	100	160	70	[40]
TiO <sub>2</sub> /SnO <sub>2</sub> nanosheets	100	260	52.3	Our work

### 3.3. Mechanism on enhanced ST sensing properties

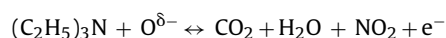
The sensing mechanism of n-type semiconductor sensors has been well explained by the space-charge layer mode [20,43,44]. The change of resistance can be primarily ascribed to the adsorption and desorption of the target gas molecules on the surface of the sensing materials. Once the SnO<sub>2</sub>-based sensing materials are exposed to

air at a high temperature, oxygen molecules adsorb on the SnO<sub>2</sub> surface and extract electrons in the bulk to become oxygen ions species (O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, O<sub>2</sub><sup>2-</sup>, or O<sup>-</sup>), which causes the formation of depletion layer in the surface of sensing materials. Therefore, the decrease of the carrier concentration leads to a high resistance of the sensor. When the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets are exposed to TEA gas, the target molecules will react with the oxygen ions, which results in electrons being released to the depletion layer of SnO<sub>2</sub> and increases the carrier concentration of SnO<sub>2</sub>. The working principles in air and target gas are schematically shown in Fig. 9(a–b).

However, after the loading of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, the sensing mechanism will become complex due to the formation of n–n heterojunctions. The improvement of the sensing properties to TEA gas may be attributed to the interface between SnO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>, which means the formation of n–n heterojunctions between SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles [45]. Fig. 9(c–d) shows the

energy band structure diagram of n-type SnO<sub>2</sub>/n-type TiO<sub>2</sub> heterocontact. As we know, the work functions of TiO<sub>2</sub> and SnO<sub>2</sub> have been reported to be 5.58 and 4.9 eV, respectively [46–49]. When the TiO<sub>2</sub> is in contact with SnO<sub>2</sub>, noticeable electron transfer from SnO<sub>2</sub> to TiO<sub>2</sub> will occur and the charge transfer leads to band bending around surface due to the large gradient of the band gap and work function [50,51]. This creates an electron depletion layer on the side of SnO<sub>2</sub> and further bends the energy band and leads to a higher resistance of sensing materials than of the pure SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor. In addition, the capture of the electrons occurs in the two materials residing in both TiO<sub>2</sub> and SnO<sub>2</sub> near their interface. This carrier capture would create depletion layers in both the TiO<sub>2</sub> and SnO<sub>2</sub> near the interface and a potential barrier at the TiO<sub>2</sub>-SnO<sub>2</sub> interface. Therefore, when TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures are formed, the electrons in SnO<sub>2</sub> are greatly depleted due to the formation of n–n heterojunctions in addition to the adsorption of oxygen molecules, as shown in Fig. 9(e).

However, once TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> sensors are exposed to reducing TEA gas, the interaction of TEA molecules with pre-adsorbed oxygen ions releases electrons back to TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. The reaction between TEA and surface oxygen species can be simply described as [47,52,53]



This significantly reduces the width of the depletion layer between TiO<sub>2</sub> and SnO<sub>2</sub>, resulting in a great decrease in sensor resistance, shown in Fig. 9(f). In brief, in comparison with the S sensor, the formation of n–n heterojunction in ST sensor greatly increases the resistance in air and decreases the resistance in TEA gas. Thus, based on the definition of sensor response ( $S = R_a/R_g$ ), the enhanced S to TEA is mainly attributed to the variation of resistance caused by the formation of n–n junction.

#### 4. Conclusions

In conclusion, we manufactured a highly sensitive and selective TEA gas sensor based on TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> n–n heterojunctions. The TiO<sub>2</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheet gas sensor exhibits highly sensitive and selective sensing property to TEA gas. The as-prepared ST3 sensor response could reach 52.3 when exposed to 100 ppm TEA gas, which is much higher than that of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheet sensor. Compared with the pure SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor (S sensor), the depletion layer formed at the n–n heterojunctions in ST sensor greatly increases the change of the resistance in air and in TEA gas, which leads to a high response to TEA gas. This theoretical model can also be used to explain other n–n heterojunctions for sensor application. This work provides a rational way for designing high performances gas sensors.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.snb.2016.01.059>.

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