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Nanostructured tin oxide materials for the sub-ppm detection of indoor formaldehyde pollution

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1 **Abstract:** Interesting sensing performances of indoor formaldehyde pollution were obtained
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4 when small amounts of zinc were introduced in tin oxides. Nanostructured Sn oxide-based
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6 porous materials doped with Zn or not, were synthesized using hydrothermal routes. The
7
8 physicochemical properties of the as-prepared metal-oxide materials were characterized
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10 using nitrogen adsorption, X-ray powder diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy
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12 (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS).
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14 Gas sensors were prepared using the aforementioned tin oxide materials and they exhibited
15
16 a high sensitivity to formaldehyde at 230°C, as well as a good repeatability over the time.
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18 Their limit of formaldehyde detection was as low as 8 ppb in dry air and 50 ppb in air with
19
20 60% RH at 25°C. These results were much better than those reported in the open literature
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22 and they were attributed to both higher area BET, around 180 m²/g, and smaller crystallite
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24 size, 3.1 nm.
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34 **Keywords:** formaldehyde, chemical gas sensor, nanoporous material, tin oxide, indoor air
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1. Introduction

Ambient air quality within buildings is considered as a major public health concern. Among the many chemicals that can be found in indoor air, formaldehyde is considered as one of the most toxic volatile organic compounds (VOC) [1, 2]. Emissions of formaldehyde essentially originate from furniture made of agglomerated wood (plywood panels, fiberboards, oriented strand boards, etc.), which slowly releases unreacted formaldehyde from the adhesive, but also from textiles, paints, cleaning products and cosmetics [3, 4]. In the early 2000's, formaldehyde has been classified carcinogenic, mutagenic and reprotoxic (CMR) by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) and by the World Health Organization (WHO). Several safety and occupational health authorities worldwide have laid down permissible exposure levels of formaldehyde by inhalation [5]. For example, the French Agency for Environmental and Occupational Health Safety (AFSSET) has estimated the short-term (up to 2 hours) and long-term (above 2 hours) formaldehyde exposure limits to $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (40 ppb) and $10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (8 ppb), respectively [6, 7]. These international guideline values are based on results of epidemiological and toxicological test outcomes, obtained from both human and animal, for a certain exposure time or are based on health hazard assessments in the relevant toxicological literature [5].

For monitoring the presence of formaldehyde in indoor air, chemiresistive-type semiconductor-based gas sensors appear as attractive devices due to their small size, fast response, extensive stability with time and easy use [8, 9]. Among metal oxide semiconductors, SnO_2 still remains the leading material for detecting reducing gases due to its good sensitivity and stability [10 -13]. It is also well-known that the sensing performances

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3 of this kind of sensor are directly controlled by grain size, structure, surface area and
4 morphology of SnO₂ materials [14-16].

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6 Over the past few years, many methods were extensively investigated for producing
7 highly porous nanoparticles of SnO₂ with well-adjusted architecture, able to enhance the
8 gas detection performances of metal oxide-based gas sensors [17]. Sol-gel [18], sputtering
9 [19] or chemical precipitation [20] were the most popular techniques reported in the
10 literature. However, and although significant progresses have been made for improving the
11 gas sensing performances of SnO₂-based sensor by morphology control, the detection limit
12 of formaldehyde still remains higher than the recommended exposure levels.
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24 In the present study, an easy and fast hydrothermal method is reported to produce
25 porous SnO₂-based materials for the sub-ppm detection of formaldehyde. Materials were
26 produced by hydrothermal synthesis and were thoroughly characterized in order to obtain
27 information about texture, morphology and composition of the as-prepared tin oxides.
28 Finally, detection performances of the nanoporous SnO₂-based materials were evaluated in
29 the presence of low concentrations of formaldehyde in air containing various levels of
30 relative humidity. We show that the obtained performances in the sub-ppm detection of
31 indoor formaldehyde pollution are in the range of those fixed by the occupational health
32 authorities worldwide.
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2. Experimental

2.1. Raw materials

Tin(IV) chloride hydrate ($\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%), and zinc acetate di-hydrate ($\text{Zn}(\text{COOCH}_3)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 97%) were purchased from Alfa Aesar. Sodium hydroxide (97-100%), hydrochloric acid (37%) and absolute ethanol (> 99.9%) were provided by Sigma-Aldrich. All the materials were used as received.

2.2. Preparation of tin oxides

SnO_2 and Zn-doped materials were prepared with a synthesis method inspired by Dou et al. [21]. In this study, we labelled our nanostructured materials NS Sn and NS Zn/Sn for non-doped and Zn-doped Sn oxides, respectively. NS Sn was obtained first by dissolving SnCl_4 (0.27 g) and NaOH (0.002 g) in a mixture of distilled water (15 mL) and absolute ethanol (15 mL). The resultant solution was then transferred into a Teflon-lined autoclave (50 mL) and submitted to thermal treatment (180°C). After 24h, the autoclave was opened and the solid product was collected by centrifugation, washed three times with distilled water, and dried at ambient pressure (70°C, 12 h). For obtaining the material doped with Zn (NS Zn/Sn), the same synthesis procedure was applied but with addition of zinc acetate ($\text{Zn}(\text{COOCH}_3)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$; 0.004 g) to the aqueous solution of SnCl_4 . Then, we used distilled water instead of deionized water for the synthesis on the one hand, and we washed with distilled water instead of using distilled water and ethanol on the other hand. As shown below, these two apparently very minor differences with respect to the synthesis method used by Dou et al. [21] had a paramount importance on the resultant textural properties of the materials.

2.3. Characterization techniques

1 Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were obtained at -196°C using a Micromeritics
2 ASAP 2020 automatic system. For that purpose, the porous tin oxides were outgassed at
3
4 60°C under secondary vacuum for at least 48 hours prior to any measurement. The BET
5
6 area, A_{BET} , was calculated by applying the BET equation [22] to the nitrogen adsorption
7
8 isotherms. The total pore volume, $V_{0.97}$, was calculated as the amount of nitrogen adsorbed
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10 at the relative pressure of 0.97. The micropore volume, $V_{\mu-N_2}$, was calculated by applying the
11
12 Dubinin-Radushkevich equation [23] to the N_2 isotherms. The mesopore volume, V_{meso} , was
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14 calculated by subtracting $V_{\mu-N_2}$ from $V_{0.97}$. Finally, the pore size distributions (PSDs) of the
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16 oxides were calculated with the AS1Win software of Quantachrome Instruments, by
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18 applying to the adsorption branch of the nitrogen isotherms the Non-Local Density
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20 Functional Theory (NLDFT) for silica at equilibrium.
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28 High-angle XRD patterns were collected with a Bruker D8 Advance X-ray powder
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30 diffractometer, equipped with a Cu anode as X-ray source (working at 40 kV and 40 mA) and
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32 with an energy-dispersive one-dimensional detector. The diffraction patterns were obtained
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34 over the 2θ range of 10° to 80° with steps of 0.019° . Crystalline phase assignment was
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36 based on Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS) cards. Quantitative XRD
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38 analysis was performed by Rietveld refinement applied to the full pattern, using TOPAS
39
40 software to obtain the average crystallite size of crystalline phases.
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47 Small-angle XRD patterns were collected with a Bruker D8 Advance X-ray powder
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49 diffractometer, equipped with a Cu anode as X-ray source (working at 40 kV and 40 mA) and
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51 with a scintillation detector. Silver behenate was used as a low-angle diffraction standard
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53 calibration for specimen displacement correction, with $d_{001} = 583.80$ pm.
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1 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images were obtained with a FEI XL30 SFEG and a FEI
2 Quanta 450W scanning electron microscopes without metallization.
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5 The morphologies and size of the SnO₂ doped and non-doped materials were also
6 obtained from transmission electron microscopy (TEM) measurements, which were carried
7 out using a JEM - ARM 200F Cold FEG TEM/STEM operating at 200 kV and equipped with a
8 spherical aberration (Cs) probe and image correctors (point resolution 0.12 nm in TEM
9 mode and 0.078 nm in STEM mode).
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11
12 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data were obtained with an ESCAPlus OMICROM
13 system equipped with a hemispherical electron energy analyser. The spectrometer was
14 operated at 10 kV and 15 mA under vacuum ($< 5 \times 10^{-9}$ Torr), using a non-monochromatized
15 MgK α X-ray source ($h\nu = 1253.6$ eV). Analyser pass energies of 50 and 20 eV were used for
16 survey scans and for detailed scans, respectively. Binding energies were referenced to the
17 C1s peak (284.5 eV) from adventitious carbonaceous contamination. A survey scan (1 sweep
18 / 200 ms dwell) was acquired between 1100 and 0 eV. Current region sweeps for Sn3d,
19 Zn2p, O1s and C1s were obtained. The CASA data processing software allowed smoothing,
20 Shirley-type background subtraction (for metals, Tougaard background subtraction was
21 used), peak fitting, and quantification. The atomic percentages of each element were
22 calculated from intensity ratios using Wagner sensitivity factors [24].
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47 *2.4. Preparation of sensors and gas detection measurements*

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51 The as-prepared SnO₂ materials were dispersed in ethanol at a concentration equal to
52 100 mg L⁻¹ and then drop-casted onto commercial sensor platforms (Heraeus MSP 632) to
53 obtain thick-film gas sensors. These platforms are made of interdigitated combs and allow
54 the heating, temperature and conductance measurement of the sensitive material as a
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1 function of time. Each thick-film gas sensor was finally inserted inside a 25 ml gas chamber
2 to study their sensing performances. Before the test, each sensor was aged under synthetic
3 air flow (2% relative humidity (RH) at 25°C, 100 mL min⁻¹) at 500°C for 48 h to ensure the
4 crystallization of materials and then the stabilization of the sensors resistance. This
5 synthetic air was used as carrier gas, both for oxide stabilization and for formaldehyde
6 dilution. Formaldehyde vapors were obtained using a permeation oven. The permeation
7 rate of formaldehyde was estimated at 200 ng min⁻¹, thus leading to an initial concentration
8 of formaldehyde equal to 262 ppb in synthetic air.
9

10 The gas response of the sensor was defined as $S = G/G^\circ$, where G is the conductance
11 under synthetic air mixed with formaldehyde, and G° is the conductance under pure
12 synthetic air. To evaluate the detection performances of each sensor, the experiments were
13 divided in two groups. Firstly, experiments were carried out in synthetic air with a relative
14 humidity equal to 2% at 25°C in order to determine both the optimum operating
15 temperature and the limit of detection (LOD) of each gas sensor. Secondly, after having
16 identified the best material for formaldehyde detection in synthetic air, additional
17 experiments were carried out in order to evaluate the new LOD in the presence of humidity
18 (60% RH at 25°C).
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21 **3. Results and discussion**

22 *3.1. Structure and morphology*

23 Fig. 1 (a) displays the nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of the materials at -
24 196°C and Fig. 1 (b) shows the corresponding pore size distributions (PSDs). The isotherms
25 were type IV and possessed hysteresis loops typical of capillary condensation in mesoporous
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1 materials. The nitrogen uptake up to a relative pressure of 0.1 indicates the presence of
2 micropores (pore diameters lower than 2 nm) in both samples. Both materials exhibited H2-
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4 type hysteresis loops, typical of ink-bottle pores with network connectivity. The porous
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6 texture of the materials was mainly composed of mesopores, corresponding to more than
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9 60% of the total pore volume, although NS Zn/Sn exhibited a lower mesopore volume, 0.10
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11 $\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$, compared to that of NS Sn, $0.12 \text{ cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$. Both materials comprised moderate
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14 amounts of micropores, $0.06 \text{ cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$.
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19 NS Sn and NS Zn/Sn exhibited mesopore size distributions centered on a diameter of 5
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21 nm. NS Sn and NS Zn/Sn exhibited similar A_{BET} values, 185 and $177 \text{ m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$, respectively. Table
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24 1 reports some literature data on the textural properties of nanostructured SnO_2 materials
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26 synthesized for gas sensing applications. It is noteworthy that the studied SnO_2 materials
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28 presented much higher surface areas than those previously reported for SnO_2 synthesized
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30 using similar procedures Zn-doping of NS Sn slightly decreased the mesopore volume while
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32 keeping the PSD almost unchanged.
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37 XRD patterns and resultant crystallographic data are shown in Fig. 2 (a). The XRD patterns
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39 presented bands between 20 and 80° corresponding to the (110), (101), (200), (211), (220),
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41 (002), (310), (301), (202) and (321) reflections, which are assigned to the rutile-type of SnO_2
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43 (JCPDS card, no. 41-1445). Tetrahedral lattice constants ($a = 474 \text{ pm}$ and $c = 379 \text{ pm}$)
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45 calculated by Rietveld refinement were identical for both materials. These data agree with
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47 values already reported for SnO_2 ($a = 473 \text{ pm}$ and $c = 318 \text{ pm}$). Neither peak of compounds
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49 other than SnO_2 , nor Zn phases in NS Zn/Sn were detected in the XRD patterns. Those facts
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51 can be explained: (i) either by the low concentration of the Zn phases; or (ii) by the too small
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53 crystallite size of the Zn phases, thus preventing their observation by this technique. The
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1 narrower peaks of the NS Sn pattern indicate that the crystallite size, D , is higher than that
2 of the NS Zn/Sn material, as confirmed by the calculations: crystallite sizes were indeed 3.3
3 ± 0.02 nm and 3.1 ± 0.02 nm, respectively. Therefore the main effect of Zn addition was the
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5 reduction of the crystallite size.
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10 The chemical nature of the materials surface was studied by X-ray photoelectron
11 spectroscopy (XPS). Fig. 2 (b) and (d) shows the fitting of the O1s high-resolution spectra,
12 which led to two contributions for NS Sn and NS Zn/Sn. Fig. 2 (c) and (e) also displays the
13 binding energy regimes containing the Sn3d_{3/2} and Sn3d_{5/2} emission lines of the materials.
14 Calculations for the Sn3d_{3/2} and Sn3d_{5/2} orbitals yielded a peak area ratio near the
15 corresponding 0.66 for the 3d orbital. The position of the Sn3d_{3/2} line was found 8.4 eV
16 higher than the binding energy of the Sn3d_{5/2} line, and the symmetry of the peaks for all the
17 samples indicated the absence of metallic Sn. The position of the Sn3d_{5/2} line indicated the
18 presence of oxidized Sn species, in particular SnO₂. These results agree with the XRD results
19 presented above. Binding energies (BE) and relative areas (A) of the peaks are collected in
20 Table 2. Curve fitting of the Zn2p orbital was not possible because the signal of the
21 spectrum was too low.
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43 The relative concentrations of Sn and O, expressed in at. %, agreed with the formula of
44 SnO₂. The concentration of Zn was 0.2 at. % at the surface of NS Zn/Sn material, and the
45 latter also contained more oxygen than NS Sn: 62.5 at. % versus 60.9 at. %, respectively.
46 Fitting the high-resolution Sn spectra resulted in a single contribution for NS Zn/Sn and NS
47 Sn, assigned to Sn (IV) in SnO₂. Three facts also confirmed that Zn was present in low
48 amount on the NS Zn/Sn surface: (i) the Sn3d and O1s peaks were not shifted to lower BE
49 with respect to the non-doped NS Sn sample, indicating that no oxygen deficiency exists in
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1 the Zn-doped material; (ii) the Sn3d spectrum of NS Zn/Sn presented no shoulder assigned
2 to Zn, thus evidencing the absence of Sn-O-Zn coordination; (iii) the Sn3d and O1s spectra
3 were consistent with each other.
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8 Fig. 3 (a) displays SEM image of NS Zn/Sn in a representative way of what was really
9 deposited on the sensor support. Similar morphology was observed for NS Sn and an image
10 can be seen in Fig. S1 (a) of the supplementary information. NS Sn and NS Zn/Sn were
11 composed of irregular particle agglomerates. Further structural characterization of the
12 prepared nanostructured SnO₂ materials was performed by TEM. Fig. 3 (b) and Fig. S1 (b)
13 display TEM micrographs of NS Zn/Sn and NS Sn, respectively. Both images exhibited
14 agglomerated uniform particles of quasi-spherical morphology with a mean diameter of
15 around 4–5 nm. The doping process seems not modifying the particle size of the
16 nanoparticles. The selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern for the NS Zn/Sn
17 sample is presented in Fig. 3 (c) and contains a set of diffraction rings that were indexed to
18 the (110), (101), (200) and (211) planes of cassiterite, i.e., the rutile-like SnO₂, which is in
19 good agreement with the XRD data. Fig 3 (d) and Fig. S1 (c) showed that no significant
20 chemical contrast was noticed on the high-angle annular dark-field images (HAADF) for Zn-
21 doped SnO₂ material, suggesting a composition as homogeneous as in the non-doped
22 material.
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47 *3.2. Gas sensing performances of tin oxide materials*

48 *3.2.1 Surface morphology of thick-film gas sensor*

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51 Fig. 3 (e) and (f) display SEM images of the resulting NS Sn-based thick film after drop-
52 casting followed by heating at 500°C for 48 h. A fairly uniform film with small grains was
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obtained. The thickness of the NS Sn sensitive layer was close to 15 μm . The same morphology and thickness were observed for the Zn-doped SnO_2 film.

3.2.2 Sensors responses in synthetic air (2% RH)

The operating temperature of sensing materials is an important parameter for resistive gas sensors because of its influence on the gas-sensing process [35, 36]. To evaluate the optimum temperature for formaldehyde detection, each sensor was exposed to 262 ppb formaldehyde vapors at a flow rate equal to 100 mL min^{-1} during 5 min at different temperatures ranging from 50 to 500°C . Fig. 4 (a) represents the typical electrical response of the NS Sn sensor at an operating temperature of 260°C . Looking at the linear variation of the normalized conductance (G/G°) of the sensor during the first seconds of formaldehyde exposition, information about the reactivity of the gas sensor submitted to formaldehyde vapors can be obtained from the slope. Fig. 4 (b) shows the evolution of the normalized conductance slope plotted versus the sensitive surface temperature for each gas sensor under 262 ppb of formaldehyde.

The optimum temperatures were estimated at 230 and 260°C for NS Zn/Sn and NS Sn sensors, respectively. Therefore, the presence of Zn in NS Zn/Sn sensor lowered the optimum temperature for the detection of formaldehyde.

The detection mechanism of formaldehyde with tin oxide-based gas sensors was discussed in several previous works [27, 37-38]. In brief, when SnO_2 surface is exposed to synthetic air flow, chemisorbed oxygen species are created at the surface of each grain by trapping electrons from the conduction band (c.b.) of SnO_2 according to the successive reactions:



These reactions induce the formation of a thick space-charge layer, a high intergranular potential barrier, and then a high electrical resistance of the material. Since SnO₂ is an n-type semiconductor and formaldehyde a reducing gas, an oxidation mechanism of formaldehyde molecules occurs at the sensor surface, and then the electrical resistance decreases when exposed to CH₂O:



This detection mechanism leads to a thinner space-charge layer, a lower intergranular potential barrier and then to an increase of the concentration of electrons in the conduction band of the material. When the formaldehyde vapor is no more present, the sensor is exposed again to synthetic air flow and then the resistance increases again by trapping atmospheric oxygen molecules.

Fig. 4 (c) shows the real-time response curves upon exposure to various concentrations of formaldehyde, from 262 to 8 ppb, diluted in synthetic air. The exposition time and purging time under pure synthetic air between each CH₂O exposition were 5 min and 15 min, respectively. As expected, the amplitudes of the sensor electrical responses gradually decreased when decreasing the formaldehyde concentration. The responses of the SnO₂-

1 based sensors as a function of the formaldehyde concentration were also measured and
2 plotted in Fig. 4 (d) in order to estimate the detection limit of each gas sensor. The detection
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5 limit corresponds to the concentration at which the amplitude of the electrical response
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8 was three times higher than the signal / noise ratio ($S/N > 3$). The NS Zn/Sn sensor exhibited
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10 the highest response amplitude under CH_2O in comparison with the NS Sn sensor. The
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12 detection limits for formaldehyde were estimated at 8 and 15 ppb for NS Zn/Sn and NS Sn
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14 sensors, respectively. The response of each material increased nearly linearly with the
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16 formaldehyde concentration. These low limits of detection (LOD), can be attributed first to
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18 the high specific surface area of tin oxide materials (177 and $185 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for NS Zn/Sn and NS
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20 Sn sensors, respectively), leading to a high amount of adsorbed oxygen and, maybe, to a
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22 high permeability for fast adsorption and gas diffusion. Moreover, the small crystallite size
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24 of SnO_2 -based materials plays an important role in the sensitivity of metal oxide-based gas
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26 sensors. In particular, Xu et al. stated that the sensitivity of the sensor remarkably increases
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28 when the crystallite size (D) of the sensing material is close to - or less than - the double of
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30 the thickness of the space-charge layer (L) [39]. For SnO_2 material in air, it is admitted that
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32 the space-charge layer produced around the surface of the crystallites due to the
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34 chemisorbed oxygens is close to 3 nm [40]. In the present study, the average crystallite sizes
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36 obtained by XRD for both synthesized material were 3.1 and 3.3 nm for NS Zn/Sn and NS Sn
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38 sensors, respectively, i.e., were lower than $2L$. In that case, the space-charge layer region
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40 dominates the whole particle behavior, and the crystallites are almost fully depleted of
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42 mobile charge carriers. The energy bands are nearly flat throughout the whole structure of
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44 the interconnected grains. There are no significant barriers for inter-crystallite charge
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46 transport and then the conductivity is essentially controlled by the inter-crystallite
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48 conductivity. Only a few charges acquired from surface reactions can thus produce large
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1 changes of conductivity of the whole structure, so that the crystalline material becomes
2 highly sensitive to ambient gas molecules when its crystallite size is small enough. A
3 schematic model of the effect of CH₂O exposure on SnO₂ material with small grain size is
4 shown in Fig. 5.
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10 From these electrical responses, the response and recovery times were also evaluated for
11 a formaldehyde concentration of 100 ppb (sensor chamber volume and gas flow rate equal
12 to 25 mL and 100 mL min⁻¹, respectively). Those characteristics are important parameters
13 for estimating the performances of a gas sensor. The response and recovery times are
14 expressed as the time needed for the sensor signal to reach 90% of its saturation after
15 applying or switching off formaldehyde in the gas chamber (see again Fig. 4 (a)). The
16 response and recovery times were 70 s and 126 s, respectively, for NS Sn derived sensor
17 while they were reduced to 60 s and 100 s, respectively, for the NS Zn/Sn-derived one.
18 Therefore, the NS Zn/Sn-derived sensor is the most efficient candidate for the detection of
19 very low formaldehyde concentrations in synthetic air. Indeed, it exhibits excellent
20 responses and good linear dependence in a broad range of formaldehyde concentrations
21 (from 8 ppb up to 262 ppb). Beyond the favorable porous nanostructure, these good
22 performances can be explained by the introduction of a small amount of Zn²⁺ during the
23 synthesis of tin oxide material, in comparison to other materials. According to solid-state
24 chemistry [43, 44], the proportion of oxygen vacancies in Zn-doped SnO₂ nanostructures
25 indeed increases, due to the substitution of Sn⁴⁺ by Zn²⁺. Owing to more surface oxygen
26 vacancies, more oxygen species can adsorb at the surface of doped SnO₂, thus leading to a
27 further increase of the sensor response.
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57 Table 3 reports some literature data on the gas sensing performances of various tin
58 oxide-based gas sensors towards formaldehyde in synthetic air. The operating temperature
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1 of NS Zn/Sn material (230°C) is comparable with values reported in the literature results,
2 ranging from 160 to 330°C. Although those temperatures are still higher than room
3 temperature, it is worth noticing that the sensor fabricated in the present work exhibits
4 sensing performances one order magnitude higher than those reported in the literature.
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10 The repeatability of the NS Zn/Sn sensor was also studied by testing 100 ppb of
11 formaldehyde four times under the same conditions (5 min exposition time, 230°C and flow
12 rate equal to 100 mL min⁻¹). From Fig. 4 (e), it can be observed that the NS Zn/Sn gas sensor
13 had a good repeatability and stability over the time.
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21 *3.2.3 Sensor response in the presence of humidity*

22 The relative humidity in indoor air usually ranges from 30 to 60% [48]. The electrical
23 signal presented in Fig. 4 (f) shows the real-time response of the NS Zn/Sn sensor for various
24 formaldehyde concentrations under 60% RH at 25°C. The latter figure evidences that there
25 is a very strong influence of water in the detection performances of the NS Zn/Sn gas
26 sensor. In the presence of 60% RH, it was indeed no longer possible to reach a LOD as low as
27 8 ppb. The competitive adsorption of water and formaldehyde at the surface of the metal
28 oxide during the detection process decreased the detection performances with respect to
29 formaldehyde. In these experimental conditions, the LOD was about 50 ppb. However, even
30 if the signal/noise ratio decreased, the results were still better than those reported in the
31 literature, see again Table 3. The outstanding performances of our SnO₂ based sensors are
32 due to both higher A_{BET} and smaller crystallite size, which provide more surface-active sites,
33 may induce larger changes of electrical conductivity of SnO₂, and thus give the sensor a
34 higher response to reducing gases [42, 49].
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4. Conclusion

In the present study, two tin oxide materials (NS Zn/Sn, NS Sn) were synthesized using easy and fast hydrothermal methods. Thick-film gas sensors were fabricated by coating commercial interdigitated comb array platforms with each kind of tin oxide, and were then tested for the detection of formaldehyde in synthetic air. It was found that, at 230°C, the nanoflower Zn-doped SnO₂-based sensor exhibited an excellent response, a good linear dependence in a broad range of formaldehyde concentrations (from 8 ppb to 262 ppb), as well as short response/recovery times and a good repeatability over the time. These good sensing performances were mainly attributed to the high specific surface area and the small crystallite size, which was even reduced by the presence of a small amount of Zn in the SnO₂ matrix. Humidity (60% RH at 25°C) was found to have a strong influence on the formaldehyde detection level, although the lowest detection limit in the present experimental conditions remained quite low, close to 50 ppb. However, the obtained performances are in the range of those fixed by the occupational health authorities worldwide for indoor formaldehyde pollution.

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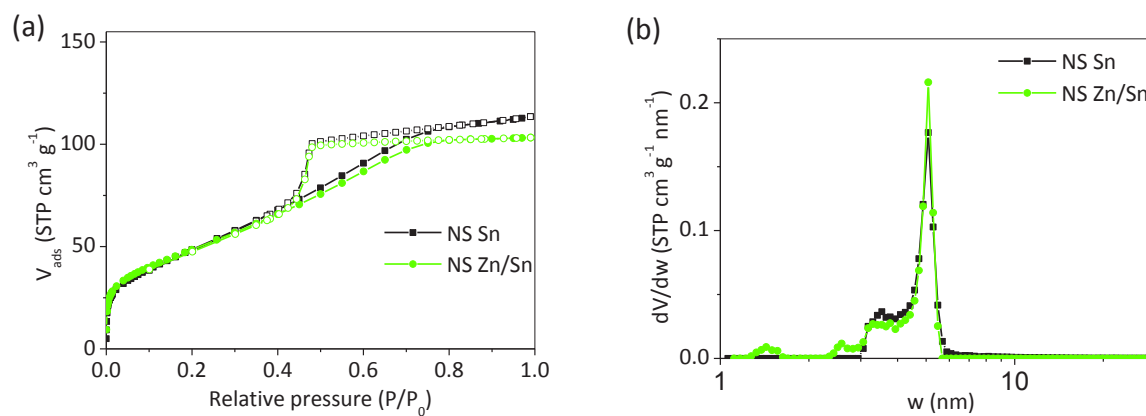


Fig. 1: (a) Nitrogen adsorption (full symbols) – desorption (empty symbols) isotherms of the materials measured at -196°C ; (b) Pore size distributions (PSDs) obtained by applying the NLDFT method to the data shown in (a).

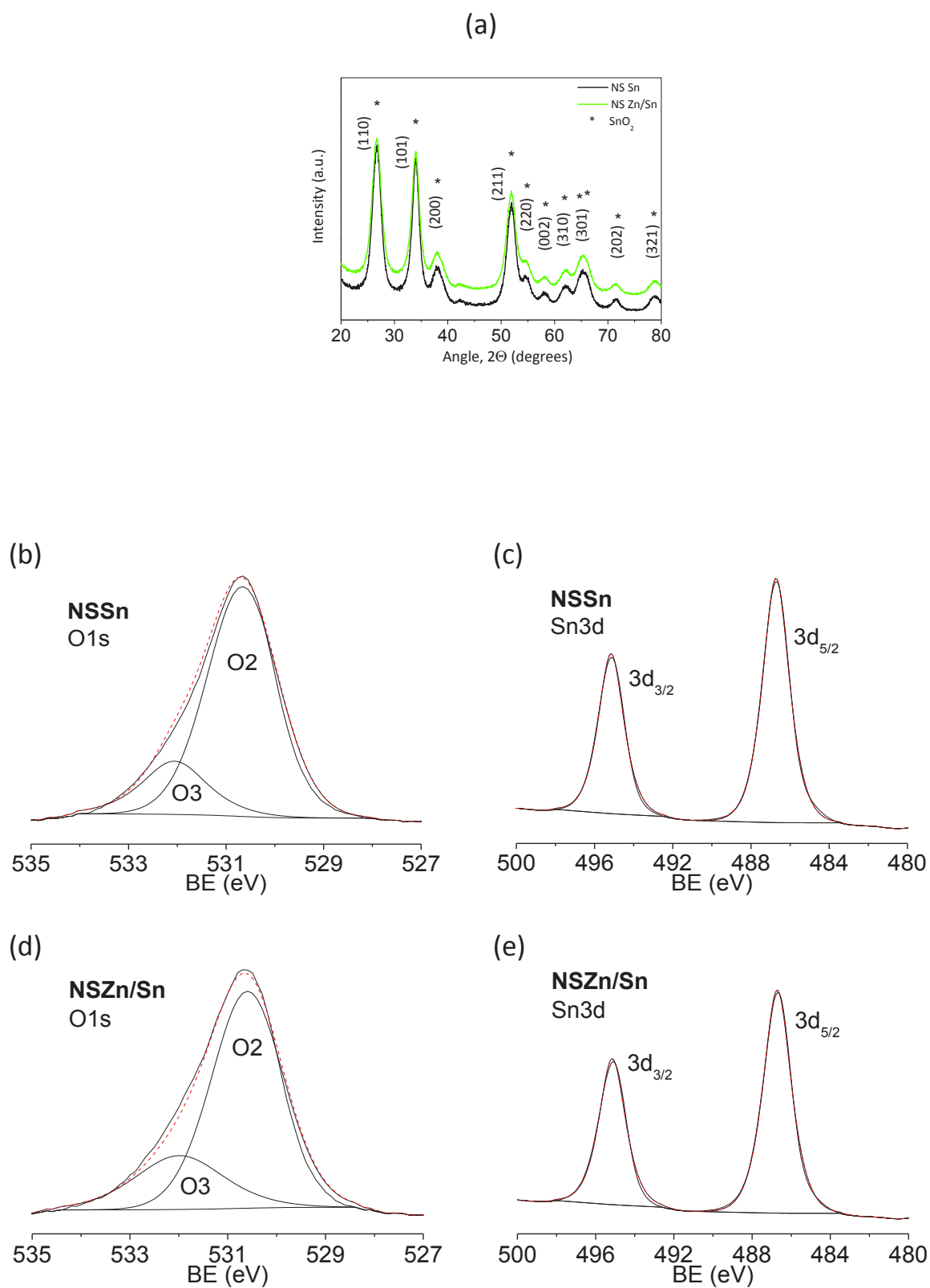


Fig. 2: (a) Wide-angle XRD profiles, (b and d) O1s and (c and e) Sn3d high-resolution XPS spectra of the studied materials.

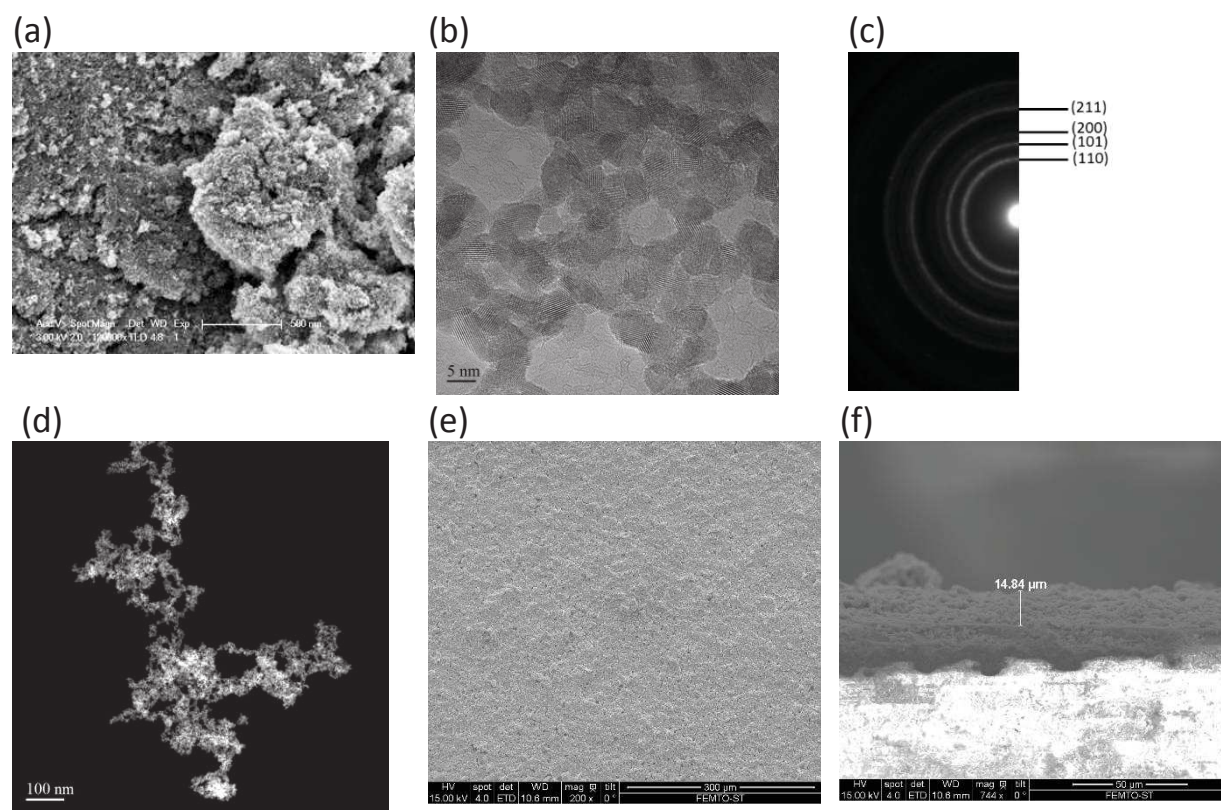


Fig. 3: (a) SEM image, (b) BF-TEM image, (c) SAED pattern and (d) HAADF-STEM image of the nanostructured Zn-doped SnO₂. Top (e) and side (f) views by SEM of the NS Sn-based thick film produced by the drop-casting process.

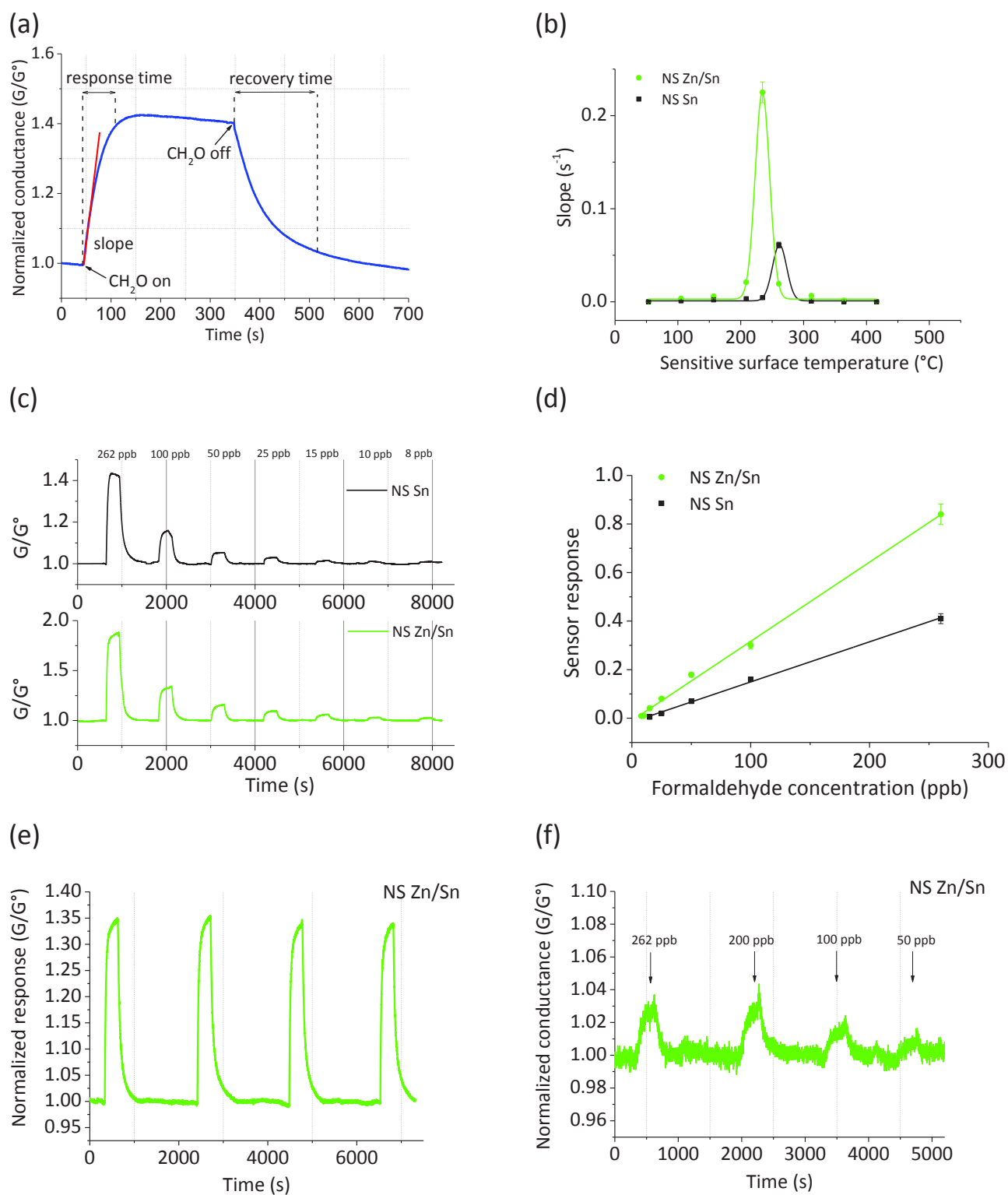


Fig. 4: (a) Dynamic response of the NS Sn sensor at an operating temperature of 260°C; (b) evolution of the normalized conductance slopes under 262 ppb of formaldehyde; (c) real-time responses of each sensor for various formaldehyde concentrations (sensing temperatures equal to 260°C and 230°C for NS Sn and NS Zn/Sn, respectively); (d) responses of the SnO_2 -based gas sensors as a function of the formaldehyde concentration; (e) repeatability of the NS Zn/Sn gas sensor under 100 ppb of formaldehyde (sensing temperature equal to 230°C); (f) real-time responses of the NS Zn/Sn sensor for various formaldehyde concentrations under 60% RH at 25°C (sensing temperature equal to 230°C). For all tests, 5 min exposition time and 100 mL min^{-1} flow rate were applied.

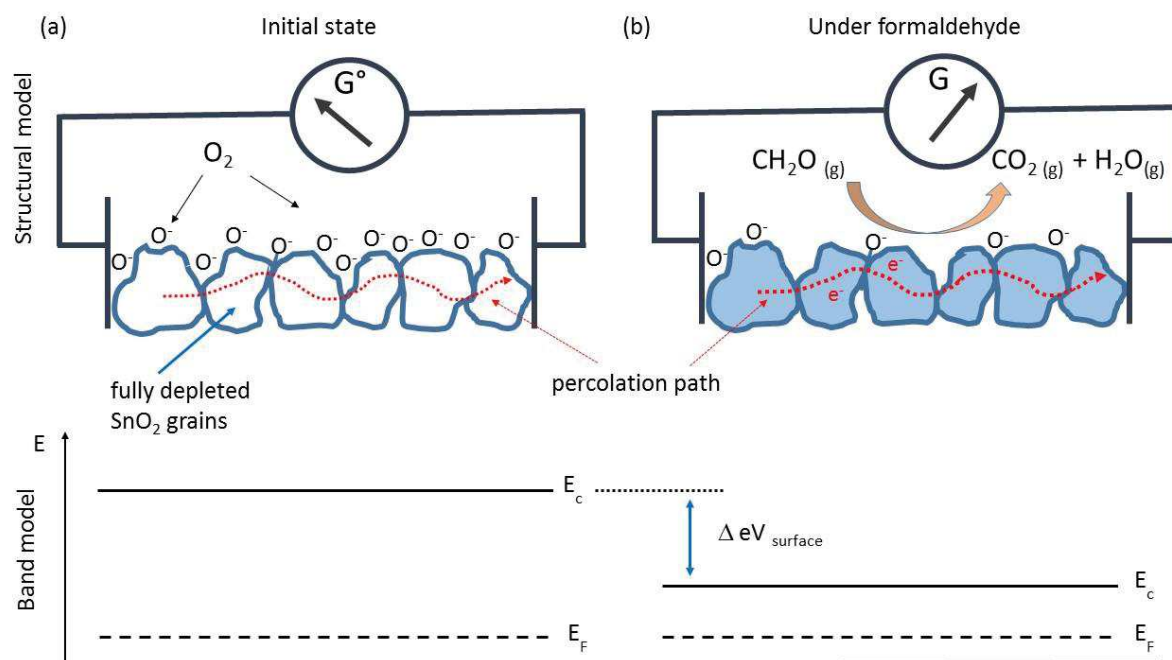


Fig. 5: Structural and band model for a SnO_2 material with crystallite size lower than the double of the thickness of the space-charge layer: (a) initial state under synthetic air and (b) effect of formaldehyde on the position of the conduction band. E_c and E_F denote the energy of the conduction band and Fermi level, respectively, while eV_{surface} denotes the potential barrier (adapted from Refs. [41, 42]).

Table 1: textural properties of nanostructured SnO₂ materials for sensing applications.

Materials	Average crystallite size (nm)	A _{BET} (m ² /g)	Ref.
NS Sn	3.3	185	This study
NS Zn/Sn	3.1	177	This study
Zn doped SnO ₂ nanoflowers		10	[21]
SnO ₂ blooming nanoflowers	20	15.5-38.4	[24]
SnO ₂ nanoflowers	350	27.6-29.8	[25]
NiO-SnO ₂ heterojunction microflowers	10-20	38-39	[26]
SnO ₂ microspheres	8	64	[27]
SnO ₂ mesoporous microfibers	2.5-8.5	58-101	[28]
Porous flower-like SnO ₂	6.3	67	[29]
Hierarchical porous SnO ₂ micro-rods	5-10	11	[30]
Porous NiO/SnO ₂ microspheres and microcubes	7.5-11.6	38.5-61.5	[31]
Porous SnO ₂ nanowires	n.a.	38	[32]
SnO ₂ nanocorals	200-300	23.2	[33]
SnO/SnO ₂ nanoflowers	9-11	25.3-28.1	[34]

n.a.: not available

Table 2: Surface chemical composition data obtained from XPS.

Sample	Surface concentration (at. %)			Binding energies (eV) and relative peak areas (%)						
				O1s peak			Sn3d _{5/2}		Sn3d _{3/2}	
	O	Sn	Zn	O1	O2	O3	II(1)	II(2)	II(1)	II(2)
NS Sn	60.9	39.1	-	-	530.7 (81.7)	532.2 (18.3)	486.7 (61.8)	-	495.1 (38.2)	-
NS Zn/Sn	62.5	37.3	0.2	-	530.6 (77.2)	531.9 (22.9)	486.7 (62.0)	-	495.1 (38.0)	-

Table 3: Comparison of the sensing performances of various SnO₂-based gas sensors for the detection of formaldehyde in synthetic air.

Materials	Optimum T (°C)	LOD (ppb)	RH (%)	Ref.
NS Sn	260	15	2	This study
NS Zn/Sn	230	8	2	This study
		50	60	
SnO ₂ microspheres	200	1000	25-30	[27]
SnO ₂ hollow microspheres	300	1000	n.a.	[45]
SnO ₂ mesoporous microfibers	150	50	n.a.	[28]
Porous flower-like SnO ₂	240	110	n.a.	[29]
Hierarchical porous SnO ₂ micro-rods	330	50	n.a.	[30]
SnO ₂ nanowires	270	20	n.a.	[46]
Porous SnO ₂ nanowires	380	1000	n.a.	[32]
SnO ₂ nanocorals	300	2000	n.a.	[33]
Cedar-like SnO ₂ nanostructures	200	1000	n.a.	[47]
NiO-SnO ₂ microflowers	100	100	n.a.	[26]
SnO/SnO ₂ nanoflowers	120	1000	n.a.	[34]

n.a.: not available

Supplementary Material

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