SnO₂-SiO₂ 1D Core-Shell Nanowires Heterostructures for Selective Hydrogen Sensing

Muhammad Hamid Raza¹, Navpreet Kaur², Elisabetta Comini^{2*}, Nicola Pinna^{1*}

1 -Institut für Chemie and IRIS Adlershof, Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Brook-Taylor-Str. 2, 12489 Berlin, Germany

2 -Sensor Lab, Department of Information Engineering, University of Brescia, Via Valotti 9, 25133 Brescia, Italy

* Corresponding Author E-mail: elisabetta.comini@unibs.it, nicola.pinna@hu-berlin.de

Abstract

SnO₂ is one of the most employed *n*-type semiconducting metal oxide (SMOX) in chemo-resistive gassensing although it presents serious limitations due to a low selectivity. Herein, we introduce onedimensional (1D) SnO₂-SiO₂ core-shell nanowires (CSNWs). SnO₂ nanowires (NWs) are synthesized by vapor-liquid-solid deposition and the amorphous SiO_2 -shell layer with varying thicknesses (1.8-10.5 nm) was grown by atomic layer deposition (ALD). SiO₂-coated SnO₂ CSNWs show lower baseline conductance as compared to the Pristine SnO₂ NWs, due to an enhancement of the electron depletion layer. The SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs (N representing the number of SiO₂ ALD cycles) sensors show a dramatic improvement of the selectivity towards hydrogen. Moreover, the sensing-response markedly depends on the thickness of the SiO₂-shell layer and the working temperature. The SnO₂- $SiO_2/60$ CSNWs sensor (ca. 4.8 nm SiO_2 shell thickness) was the best performing sensor in terms of selectivity and sensitivity exhibiting a response of 160 (ca. 7-folds higher than the pristine SnO₂ NWs) towards 500 ppm of hydrogen at 500 °C with a lower detection limit at ppb-level (0.082 ppm). The selectivity and enhanced sensing-response are related to the masking effect of the SiO₂ shell and an increased in the width of the electron depletion layer due to the strong electronic coupling between the SnO₂ core and SiO₂-shell layer, respectively. The remarkable sensing performances of the SnO₂- SiO_2/N CSNWs can be attributed to the homogeneous and conformal SiO_2 shell layer by ALD, electronic coupling between the core and the shell, the optimized shell thickness and high surface area provided by the 1D SnO₂ NWs network.

KEYWORDS

SnO₂-SiO₂, atomic layer deposition, shell thickness, H₂ selectivity, core-shell nanowires

Introduction

Hydrogen is extensively used in numerous fields such as aerospace, chemical industry, fuel cells, electronics and civil engineering.¹ Taking into account the very low and wide flammable and explosive range of H_2 concentrations (4–75%), and its colorless and odorless properties, the management and safety of hydrogen raise a demanding challenge.² Therefore, it is essential to monitor the leakage of hydrogen at trace levels.³⁻⁵

SnO₂ is one of the most reported *n*-type semiconducting metal oxide (SMOX) employed in chemo-resistive gas-sensing, due to its wide band gap (3.6 eV at 300 K), low material cost, fast response, stability and simplicity.⁶⁻⁷ However, SnO₂-based gas sensors are limited by their low selectivity, e.g. interference with other reducing gases such as ethanol, methane and carbon monoxide that prevents accurate hydrogen detection.⁸ It has been observed that SnO₂-based gas sensors show effective improvements in their gas-sensing properties by employing various SnO₂ nanostructures in combination with secondary-materials such as by doping,⁹ surface modification with noble metals catalysts (e.g. Pt, Pd, Au, Ag)^{7,10-12} and metal oxides (ZnO, In₂O₃, NiO).^{8,13-14} Moreover, SMOX loaded with other materials can exhibit enhanced sensing characteristics due to modified transducer/receptor functions. Finally, nanoscale heterojunctions can further increase the gas-sensing responses due to the Fermi-level effect.¹⁵⁻¹⁷

One of the efficient methods to enhance selectivity of chemo-resistive gas sensors is to use a catalytic membrane on top of the core-materials.¹⁸⁻¹⁹ For example, it is possible by using platinum, palladium and nickel membranes to enhance the hydrogen and ethanol selectivity of a sensor in presence of other interfering gases.²⁰⁻²¹ Additionally, some metal organic frameworks (MOFs) materials such as zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIF-67 and ZIF-8) have been reported to act as molecular sieves to enhance the selectivity of gas-sensors.²²⁻²⁴ Especially, high response-signals were recorded for low concentration of H₂, whereas no significant response toward other interfering gases such as benzene, toluene, acetone and ethanol were detected.²² On the other hand, MOFs are not stable at the typical operating temperature of SnO₂-based gas sensors (around 400°C). Likewise, the use of a SiO₂ amorphous film onto an active substrate (mostly SnO₂) has also been reported to improve the selectivity for hydrogen sensing.^{19,25} In these sensors, the amorphous SiO₂ film apparently acts as a "molecular sieve", effectively decreasing the diffusion of gases having larger molecular sizes than H₂, leading to an improved selectivity to H₂.²⁶

SiO₂ coatings onto the SMOX are typically synthesized by chemical vapour deposition (CVD) or softchemistry approaches such as the sol-gel process using different silanes such as ethoxysilanes, hexamethyldisiloxane (HMDS), triethoxymethylsilane (TEMS) and ethoxy-trimethylsilane (ETMS), dirthoxydimethylsilane (DEMS) by dip- or spin-coating.^{19,26-30} Even though an improvement in the selectivity towards H₂ detection has been reported by using SiO₂–SnO₂ based materials, most of these reported nanomaterials lack in a fine control over the properties of the SiO₂ layer in terms of homogeneity, conformality and thickness.²⁶ As a matter of fact, only with a precise control of the SiO₂ coating, it would be possible to address fundamental questions like (i) how the SiO₂–shell layer acts as a molecular sieve, (ii) how the thickness of the SiO₂ coating influences the sensitivity and selectivity and ultimately leads to an enhancement of the gas-sensing performance, and (iii) what is the transducing mechanism of the heterostructures. Hence, only well-defined hierarchical nanostructures can be used to propose clear structure-properties relationship.^{8,16,30-31} The choice of active sensing material where such a masking layer can be applied is another significant factor. In recent years, due to their peculiar morphology and high surface-to-volume ratio, various one-dimensional (1D) nanostructures (e.g., nanorods, nanowires and nanobelts) have been synthesized and studied as the active material in state of the art metal oxide gas-sensors.^{10,32-35} These 1D nanowires provide a large number of active surface sites for the adsorption of gas molecules due to their high surface area.³⁶⁻⁴⁰ For examples, one of our recent study has shown that SnO₂ based C-S heterostructures such as SnO₂-NiO showed improved properties towards hydrogen gas-sensing as compared to pristine SnO₂ nanostructures.⁸ In that case, the enhanced sensing-response after the NiO-coatings was assigned to the formation of a *p*-*n* junction and to the modulation of space charge region. Moreover, it was demonstrated that the sensing-response was dependent on the thickness of the NiO-shell layer.⁸ Therefore, also in this study 1D SnO₂ nanowires (NWs) are chosen as the model material to study the role of SiO₂-coating thickness.

In this study, we describe the fabrication of well-defined hierarchical 1D SnO₂ (core)/SiO₂ (shell) coreshell nanowires (CSNWs) with different thicknesses of the shell layer directly onto the sensing device using a vapor–liquid–solid (VLS) and atomic layer deposition techniques. Since it is crucial to control the size of the nanowires and the thickness (on the order of a few nanometers) of the shell layer deposited onto the core substrate, atomic layer deposition (ALD) was chosen as a deposition technique in this study. ALD shows an atomic scale level control over the thickness of the shell layer due to the fact that the technique is based on self-terminated surface reactions.⁴¹⁻⁴³ Moreover, ALD can develop reproducible, homogenous and conformal coatings on the surface of high-aspect ratio nanostructured substrates at low temperatures while preserving the fundamental properties of the core materials.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ The gas-sensing properties of the as-synthesized SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs are studied as a function of the SiO₂-shell thickness allowing to elucidate the underlying gas-sensing mechanism and to propose clear structure–property correlations. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report where the role of the amorphous SiO₂ shell layer conformally coated onto 1D SnO₂ nanostructures has been studied by designing structurally well-defined hierarchical heterostructures with varying thickness of the shell layer.

Materials and Methods

(3-Aminopropyl)triethoxysilane, (APTES, $(H_2N(CH_2)_3Si(OC_2H_5)_3, 99\%)$ and SnO_2 (99.9%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Ozone (O₃) was generated using pure oxygen (99.99%) in a BMT803N ozone generator. Argon, nitrogen, and oxygen were purchased from Air Liquide (99.99% purity), and all other certified gases for sensing tests were supplied by the SOL Group (Italy). All chemicals and reagents were of analytical grade and used without further purification unless otherwise stated.

Substrate Preparation and Growth of SnO₂ Nanowires

The comprehensive of the substrate preparation is reported in our earlier reports.^{8,47} Briefly, an ultrathin layer of Au catalyst was deposited (onto the pre-cleaned alumina substrate, $2 \times 2 \text{ mm}^2$) using magnetron sputtering (Kenotec Sputtering system, Italy) at 7 sccm of argon using a RF power of 50 W at a pressure of 5×10^{-3} mbar, for 5 s. SnO₂ NWs were produced directly onto the Au-catalysed alumina substrates by VLS deposition in a custom designed tubular furnace (by Lenton) using SnO₂ powder as a source material. SnO₂ powder and Au catalysed substrates contained in alumina crucibles were placed inside the alumina tube. The powder was placed in a relatively high-temperature region and heated up to the 1370 °C leading to its evaporation. Alumina substrates were placed in a comparatively colder region (860 °C) to promote the condensation of evaporated

material. Argon gas, at 100 sccm mass flow, was used as the carrier gas to transport the vapors of the SnO_2 source material to the Au-catalyst supported onto alumina, where the deposition time was set to 2 min while maintaining the total pressure inside the tube at 100 mbar.

Synthesis of SnO₂-SiO₂ Core–Shell Nanowires (CSNWs)

SiO₂-shell layer was directly deposited onto the SnO₂ nanowires (NWs) grown onto the alumina substrate after the contacts were already deposited (see below and Figure 1). The surfaces of the platinum contacts were masked using a custom-designed copper frame shadow masked. Pre-cleaned silicon-wafers (Siegert wafer B014002, cleaned in piranha solution) were also put in the ALD chamber along with the SnO₂ nanowires samples to calibrate the thickness of the SiO₂ thin film by spectroscopic ellipsometry (SE). Atomic layer deposition (ALD) was performed in commercial ALD systems by Arradiance. The ALD systems were evacuated (*ca.* 8.5×10^{-3} mbar), and the temperature of the ALD chamber was stabilized at 160 °C before starting the ALD process. Prior to the ALD, all the samples were in situ treated with UV-ozone to remove organic impurities, if any (total exposure time, 300 s). The temperature of the reaction chamber and the supply lines was maintained at 160 and 120 °C, respectively. (3-Aminopropyl)triethoxysilane (APTES) kept at 80 °C was used as Si precursor, whereas millipore water and ozone (kept at RT) were used as oxygen sources.⁴⁸ APTES, H₂O and O₃ were introduced into the reaction chamber in a sequential manner using argon both as carrier and as purging gas. One ALD cycle was adjusted as a sequence of 2 s pulse of APTES, 30 s exposure, 30 s Ar purge, 0.2 s H_2O pulse, 30 s exposure, 40 s Ar purge, 0.2 s O_3 pulse, 30 s exposure, and 40 s of Ar purge. The thickness of the SiO_2 film was controlled by varying the number of ALD cycles (20–130). The samples are named as SnO_2 -SiO₂/N, where N stands for the number of SiO₂ ALD cycles (i.e., 20, 40, 60, 90 and 130 ALD).

Morphological and Microstructural Characterization

The thickness of the SiO₂ film was initially estimated on silicon wafers by using a spectroscopic ellipsometer from Sentech. The data was collected at an incident angle of 70° for wavelengths ranging from 370 to 1000 nm and an average of at least three measurements were considered. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) selected area electron diffraction (SAED) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX's) elemental mapping were performed using a FEI Talos F200S scanning/transmission electron microscope (S/TEM) operated at 200 kV. The TEM data including the SiO₂-shell thickness estimation directly onto the SnO₂ NWs were performed using VeloxTM analytical software. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were acquired with a FEI Quanta 200 FEG microscope.

Sensing Device Fabrication and Measurement Setup

Six different batches of gas-sensing devices were fabricated including the pristine $SnO_2 NWs$ and $SnO_2-SiO_2/N CSNWs$ with varying thicknesses of the SiO_2 -shell layer (i.e., 1.8-10.5 nm). Prior to the SiO_2 ALD, two parallel contacts were deposited on the alumina substrate by a two-step deposition process. TiW alloy adhesion layers (as pads) and Pt electrodes (thickness, $\sim 1 \mu m$) were deposited by dc magnetron sputtering (70 W argon plasma, RT, *ca.* 0.55 Pa) with a deposition time of 3 and 20 minutes, respectively. A micro-patterned platinum heater was also deposited on the backside of alumina substrate using the same two-step process. Finally, all of the devices were mounted on the TO packages using electro-soldered gold wires. The material synthesis and device fabrication process is schematically described in **Figure 1**.



Figure 1. Schematics of the synthesis of SnO_2 -SiO₂/N CSNWs and the device fabrication for gassensing measurements.

Gas-sensing measurements

A flow-through technique was used to analyze the sensing response of the fabricated devices in a homemade stainless steel chamber (volume, 1 dm^3) that is placed inside a climate chamber set at 20 °C (Angelantoni MTC 120, Italy). The temperature of the sensors was controlled independently by using a Thurlbly-Thandar PL330DP power supply. All the sensors were thermally stabilized at the set temperature for 8 hours prior to the measurement in the presence of 0% and 40% relative humidity (RH% at 20 °C).

Test gases with certified concentrations and dry air were mixed using mass flow controllers (MKS, Germany), where the total mass flow was maintained as 200 sccm. After the 30 minutes of exposure to a fixed concentration of the analyte-gas, synthetic airflow was restored for 60 minutes to allow a baseline recovery. A fixed voltage of 1 V was applied to the sensors (Agilent E3631A power supply) and the conductance of each sensor was measured continuously by using a picoammetters (Keithley 486, USA) in different atmospheres and temperatures. The sensors response was determined by the variation in resistance/conductance using the equation (1) and (2) for oxidizing and reducing gases, respectively.

Response
$$(S) = \frac{G_{air} - G_{gas}}{G_{gas}} = \frac{\Delta G}{G_{gas}}$$
 (1)

Response (S) =
$$\frac{G_{\text{gas}} - G_{\text{air}}}{G_{\text{air}}} = \frac{\Delta G}{G_{\text{air}}}$$
 (2)

Where G_{air} and G_{gas} are the sensor conductance in the synthetic air and the target gas flows, respectively. Gas-sensing characteristics were studied for various concentrations of hydrogen and some common interfering gases, i.e., ethanol, acetone, carbon monoxide, hydrogen sulfide and NO₂. Initially, to find the optimal working temperature for all the sets of sensing devices a temperature screening was performed between 200–500 °C. After the sensing parameters have been studied, the experimental data for calibration (response as a function of hydrogen concentration) at optimal working temperature were fitted to the power-law trend (equation 3).

Response =
$$A$$
 [Gas concentration]^{*B*} (3)

where A and B are constants related to the material composition and stoichiometry of the surface chemical reactions, respectively.^{8,47}

Results and Discussion

Structural Characterization

Figure S1a shows bright-field (BF) TEM image for an overview of non-coated SnO_2 NWs. It can be seen that as-synthesized SnO_2 NWs are relatively homogeneous showing nanowires like morphology with diameters ranging from 50–70 nm. Moreover, SEM micrographs (for bare SnO_2 NWs and SnO_2 -SiO₂/130 CSNWs) in **Figure S1b–d** further confirmed that the pristine SnO_2 NWs are identical in their size and diameter, and homogeneously dispersed onto the alumina substrate. After the ALD process, the SEM images showed a well-preserved SnO_2 morphology.

An insight into the morphology and microstructure of all the synthesized samples was investigated by high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM). BF-HRTEM image for an isolated pristine SnO₂ nanowire is shown in Figure 2a. The corresponding SAED pattern (Figure 2b) shows reflections corresponding to a single crystal of cassiterite (rutile-type structure) aligned along the $[\overline{1}00]$ zone axis, where the corresponding reflections are marked accordingly (ICDD 00-001-0625). The BF-TEM micrographs of isolated SiO₂-coated SnO₂ NWs (SnO₂-SiO₂/N) and their magnified images (cf. insets) show that SnO_2 nanowires are homogeneously and conformally coated with a continuous film of SiO_2 confirming the hierarchical core-shell like heterostructure (Figure 2c-h). It can be seen that the thicknesses of the SiO₂ shell layer onto the SnO₂ nanowires are calibrated and increased with increasing the number of SiO₂ ALD cycles. The average thickness of the SiO₂ film measured from the TEM images are 1.8, 3.1, 4.8, 7.5 and 10.5 nm for 20, 40, 60, 90 and 130 ALD cycles, respectively (Table S1). The plot of the thickness of SiO₂ vs the number of ALD cycles shows a good linearity ($R^2 =$ 0.998) with a slope corresponding to a growth per cycles (GPC) as 0.81 Å/cycle. The thicknesses of the SiO₂ coatings as a function of the ALD cycles estimated from the TEM images and by the ellipsometry are comparable, proving the saturation behaviour for the ALD process on both substrates (Table S1 and Figure S2). Figure 2i shows SAED pattern corresponding to an isolated SnO₂-SiO₂/130 CSNW in Figure 2h, which shows a single crystalline pattern for SnO₂, where the corresponding reflections marked correspond to [113] zone axis. Notably, other than the cassiterite phase of SnO₂, no additional reflections are present that can be indexed to ALD-deposited SiO₂. This shows that SnO₂ remained single crystalline after SiO₂ ALD, while the ALD-deposited SiO₂ thin film is as expected amorphous.⁴⁴ The magnified view in the inset in Figure 2g clearly demonstrates the presence of two distinctive phases, i.e., crystalline SnO₂-core and amorphous SiO₂-shell. The calculated *d*-spacing as 0.335 nm in SnO₂ region can be indexed to the (110) plane of SnO₂ cassiterite phase (Figure 2g).

The high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) images for the SnO_2 -SiO₂/N (N, 60 and 90) samples show a uniform and conformal coverage of the SnO_2 nanowires with an amorphous SiO₂ thin film. This is consistent with the bright-field TEM images, where the phases of SnO_2 and SiO_2 can be identified easily due to their different *Z*-contrast (**Figure 2j**,**k**). The corresponding energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDX) images for the elemental mappings show the presence of Si, Sn, and O atoms with a homogenous and conformal SiO_2 film onto the SnO_2 nanowires further confirming the CSNW-like heterostructures (**Figure 2j**,**k**). **Figure S3** shows the EDX spectra corresponding to the elemental mappings shown in **Figure 2j**,**k** for the SnO_2 -SiO₂/60 and SnO_2 -SiO₂/90 CSNWs.



Figure 2. Bright-field transmission electron microscopy (TEM) micrographs of pristine SnO_2 : (a) an isolated SnO_2 nanowire and (b) the corresponding SAED pattern. BF-TEM images for the isolated SnO_2 -SiO₂/N CSNWs: (c) SnO_2 -SiO₂/20, (d) SnO_2 -SiO₂/40, (e) SnO_2 -SiO₂/60, (f, g) SnO_2 -SiO₂/90, (h) SnO_2 -SiO₂/130 and (i) Corresponding SAED pattern. HAADF-STEM images and the corresponding EDX

elemental mappings for the (j) $SnO_2-SiO_2/60$ and (k) $SnO_2-SiO_2/90$ CSNWs. The insets in d-h show magnified view of the encircled areas in the corresponding micrographs.

Electrical Characteristics

To study the electrical behaviour of the sensing devices and to see if there is a significant effect on the electrical conductance due to the interface at SnO₂-base material and the SiO₂-shell, the baseline conductance of all of the pristine SnO₂ NWs and SiO₂-coated SnO₂ CSNWs samples were recorded in nitrogen and in air. Figure S4 shows the baseline conductance of all the fabricated devices as a function of temperature (RT-500 °C) under nitrogen. All the sensors show a monotonic increase in conductance with increasing the temperature from RT to 500 °C, thereby confirming a dominant semiconducting behaviour of the CSNWs heterostructures.¹⁶ Thus, the insulating nature of the SiO₂shell layers did not alter the semiconducting conductance-temperature behaviour of SnO₂ NWs. Noticeably, in our sensing-devices because the SnO_2 NWs are contacted before the SiO_2 deposition, *i.e.* the electrodes are connected to the SnO_2 -core network directly, the insulating SiO_2 -coating acts only as a surface modifier of the already prepared device. However, a finite SiO₂-loading effect was observed in which the electrical conductance decreased for all of the SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs sensors as compared to the pristine SnO₂ NWs. Under nitrogen, it can be assumed that the acceptor states due to the chemisorption effect of oxygen species are negligible. Therefore, a drastic decrease in electrical conductance (or increase in resistance) would point to an electron-depletion-layer (EDL) at the interface of SnO₂-core and SiO₂-shell layer similar to that has been demonstrated in the case of electronic coupling between SMOX-SMOX interfaces.⁴⁹⁻⁵⁰ It can be seen that conductance of SnO₂ NWs samples decrease significantly (up to four orders of magnitude) depending on the thickness of the SiO_2 coating at a particular operating temperature (Figure S4). This is attributed to the additional component of the resistance due to the extraction of electrons from SnO₂ NWs conduction band by SiO_2 .⁵¹ Thus, a junction is formed at the $SiO_2 - SnO_2$ interface, ^{29,52-54} which introduced an electrondepletion-layer (EDL) at the SnO₂ near surfaces (Figure 4d).

In addition, the electrical conductance of all the sensors were recorded (in dry air) and these values were used as reference and baseline for the gas-sensing study. There is a clear difference in the baseline conductance (G_{air}) among pristine and SiO₂-coated SnO₂ NWs sensors (Figure 3a). As a matter of fact, the conductance of the SnO₂-SiO₂ CSNWs sensors in air decreased sharply with the increase of the SiO₂-shell thickness up to the ca. 4.8 nm. It is well known that the electrical conductance at a particular temperature is seriously affected by the concentration of absorbed oxygen species.^{8,50} A comparison of the baseline conductance of all of the pristine and SiO₂-coated SnO₂ NWs sensors in nitrogen to the same sensor in dry air shows that the conductance decreased with the introduction of dry air (baseline conductance values, Figure 3a). This shows that oxygen can diffuse through the SiO_2 -shell to the SnO_2NWs . On the other hand, the extent of difference in conductance from nitrogen to dry air decreased for the samples with higher thickness (> 4.8 nm), manifesting that thicker SiO_2 -shell film hinder the diffusion of oxygen species to the SnO_2 surfaces (Figure 3a). Likewise, the baseline-conductance of the SnO₂/SiO₂-N CSNWs sensors show a steepdeclined with increasing the SiO₂-shell layer thickness up to the thickness ca. 4.8 nm (SnO₂- $SiO_2/60$ CSNWs), and then it stayed at a similar value with further increasing the shell thicknesses (studied up to ca. 10.5 nm). At higher thicknesses, the thick SiO₂-shell film impedes the diffusion of oxygen species to the SnO₂ NWs surfaces.

Gas Sensing Properties

The gas-sensing tests were performed for a series of SnO₂ NWs and SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs devices in the presence of hydrogen and common interfering gases (namely; ethanol, acetone, CO and H_2S) at different working temperatures in dry air (0% RH) and in a relative humid environment (40% RH). The isothermal electrical conductance transients toward various concentrations of H₂ (50, 200, and 500 ppm) at 500 °C in dry air (RH 0%) and 40% of relative humidity (RH 40%) are presented in Figure 3b,c and Figure S5a. It can be seen that as the hydrogen gas was introduced into the testing chamber, the electrical conductance of all the sensors increased, and shortly reached a maximum conductance value, followed by a recovery to their baseline as the hydrogen exposure was stopped (Figure 3b). This shows a typical *n*-type response of the SnO_2 -based SMOX gas-sensors. SnO_2 is a well-known nonstoichiometric SMOX showing *n*-type semiconducting behaviour due to the presence of oxygen vacancies.⁸ As described earlier (cf. electrical characteristics section), the presence of SiO₂-shell did not influence the semiconducting behaviour (*n*-type) of the SnO₂ NWs. Thus, the SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs devices show a response due to the SnO₂-core in the CSNWs heterostructures and the electrons conduction path should be mainly confined to the SnO₂-core, *i.e.* along the conductive core-axis (cf. discussion below). Moreover, all the sensors show a dynamic reversible response, where the response towards H₂ increases with increasing the concentration in both dry air and in air with 40% RH (Figure 3b,c).

Figure 3d represents the sensing-response of the devices fabricated with SnO_2 NWs and SnO_2 -SiO₂/N CSNWs with varying thicknesses of the SiO_2 -shell layer toward H₂ (200 ppm) in the temperature range of 200–500 °C. It can be seen that the response of all of the sensors increased with increasing the temperature and all of the SnO_2 -SiO₂/N CSNWs sensing devices show the highest response towards hydrogen at 500 °C. This is due to the high diffusion rate of H₂ molecules at this higher temperature, and comparatively higher thermal energy to overcome the activation energy barrier for the surface reactions and enhancing the diffusion of the molecules to the SnO₂ surface across the SiO₂ coating.⁵⁵ The sensing response of the different sensors as a function of H₂ concentration at their optimal working temperature (500 °C) in dry air (0% RH) are shown in Figure 3e. Higher the concentration of hydrogen, the greater is the response of the sensors. The calibration curves, response vs concentration follow a typical power-law relation (in agreement with the eq 3) for SMOX-sensors, further confirming the absence of any saturation process.^{8,37} The sensors detection limit is calculated while considering the minimum response value of 1 in eq 3. The values of different parameters calculated by the power-law fits are summarised in Table S2. The best performing sensors show a detection-limit at ppb-level (0.094 and 0.082 ppm for SnO₂-SiO₂/40 and SnO₂-SiO₂/60 CSNWs sensors, respectively) at 500 °C. Moreover, the SnO₂-SiO₂/60 CSNWs sensor shows a lower detection limit for hydrogen (0.082 ppm) as compared to ethanol (2.3 ppm) and acetone (3.5 ppm), cf. Figure 3f and Table S3. It is of note that SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs sensors showed a good selectivity towards hydrogen together with a comparatively higher sensing-response as compared to the pristine SnO₂ NWs both in dry air and in air with 40% RH. The response of all the fabricated sensors decreased with increasing the relative humidity (Figure S5b). This reduction of the gassensing response in humid environment for SMOX-based gas sensors is due to the competition of adsorption between the analyte gas and the water molecules as reported earlier.^{8,37} Figure 3g and Figure S5b compare the sensing response for the pristine SnO₂ NWs and SnO₂-SiO₂ CSNWs with different thickness of the SiO₂-shell layer, in dry air and in 40% RH, respectively. The SnO₂- SiO_2 CSNWs sensors with a shell thickness approx. 1.8–4.8 nm show an enhanced sensitivity toward H_2 as compared to the pristine SnO₂ NWs sensors. Indeed, SnO₂-SiO₂/60 CSNWs sensor shows a 6 to 7-folds increase in response as compared to the pristine SnO₂ NWs for all of the tested concentrations of hydrogen (50–500 ppm) at 500 °C *cf.* **Figure 3g.** In addition, among the SnO₂-SiO₂ /N CSNWs sensors, the sensing-response increased initially with increasing the SiO₂-shell thickness up-to the *ca.* 4.8 nm (*i.e.*, for SnO₂-SiO₂/60 CSNWs), and then it decreased with further increasing the SiO₂-shell thickness. For example, the pristine SnO₂ NWs, and SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs sensors with 20, 40, 60, 90 and 130 ALD cycles show a response of 7, 13, 25, 42, 6 and 3 towards 50 ppm of hydrogen, respectively (**Figure 3g**). The sensor fabricated with SnO₂-SiO₂/60 CSNWs shows the best response among all the fabricated sensors. This sensor revealed a distinguished response of 160 toward 500 ppm of H₂ (a concentration that is still two-orders-of-magnitude lower than the explosive limit of H₂) at 500 °C in dry air.

Figure 3h shows the sensing response of the pristine SnO_2 NWs and SnO_2-SiO_2/N CSNWs toward hydrogen and other interfering gases at the optimal working temperature of 500 °C. The response towards H₂ greatly increases after SiO₂ coating. On the other hand, the response to the acetone, ethanol, CO and H₂S is less significant and it is almost not affected by the SiO₂ coating. The SnO₂-SiO₂/60 CSNWs, the best performing sensor, show a response of 6.2, 3.8, 4, 1 and 42 toward ethanol (50 ppm), acetone (50 ppm), CO (100 ppm), H₂S (20 ppm) and hydrogen (50 ppm), respectively (**Figure 3h**). Clearly, the SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs sensors exhibit a negligible cross-sensitivity to the selected interfering gases making them appropriate for real time hydrogen-detection applications. A comparison of our sensors to some state-of-the-art SnO₂-based nanostructures for the selective detection of hydrogen is summarized in **Table S4**. Indeed, the present study clearly demonstrates the transduction mechanism towards hydrogen sensing of structurally well-defined 1D core-shell nanowires with a well-defined SiO₂ shell thickness allowing to propose clear structure-property correlations.



Figure 3. (a) Baseline electrical conductance of SnO_2 NWs and the SnO_2 -SiO₂/N CSNWs sensors devices in dry air and in nitrogen at 500 °C. Dynamic response of the sensors fabricated with bare SnO_2 NWs and the SnO_2 -SiO₂/N CSNWs at 500 °C to the different concentrations of H₂ (50–500 ppm), (b) in dry air and (c) in air with 40% RH. (d) The response of the bare SnO_2 NWs and the SnO_2 -NWs and the SnO_2 -NWs sensors toward 200 ppm of H₂ at different temperatures (200–500 °C). The power-law fits of the (e) sensing-response vs different concentrations of hydrogen at 500 °C for the sensors

fabricated with pristine SnO₂ NWs and various SnO₂/NiO-*X* CSNWs heterostructures in dry air, and (f) sensing-response vs different concentrations of hydrogen, acetone and ethanol for the best performing sensor (SnO₂-SiO₂/60 CSNWs) at optimal working temperature of 500 °C. (g) The response of the bare SnO₂ NWs and the SnO₂-SiO₂/*N* CSNWs sensors with varying thicknesses of the SiO₂ amorphous shell layer to hydrogen (50, 200 and 500 ppm) at 500 °C. (h) Response of the bare SnO₂ NWs and the SnO₂-SiO₂/*N* CSNWs sensors to the hydrogen (50 ppm) and common interfering gases, i.e., acetone (50 ppm), ethanol (50 ppm), and carbon monoxide (100 ppm) and hydrogen sulfide (20 ppm) at 500 °C, demonstrating a good selectivity towards hydrogen. Legends for all the panels are same as shown at the bottom of the Figure.

Gas Sensing Mechanism and Discussion

Figure 4 shows the schematics of the regions involved in the transduction mechanism for both the SnO_2 NWs and the SnO_2 -SiO_2/N CSNWs heterostructures. A detailed sensing mechanism for SnO_2 NWs has already been described in our earlier report ⁸. Briefly, the sensor signal is based on the charge transfer as a result of redox reactions between the chemisorbed oxygen species (i.e., O^{2-} , O_2^{-} , and O^{-}) and the analytes at the surfaces of the SMOX, which mainly induce a change in the electrical resistance of the device. In air, oxygen species adsorbed onto the SnO_2 surfaces withdraw electrons from the conduction band of the SMOX resulting in an electron depletion layer (EDL) in the near surfaces (**eq. 4,5**). This creates a surface potential, *i.e.* a Schottky barrier at the surface, resulting in an upward band bending. Another potential barrier is created in case of a SnO_2 NWs network due to the contacts between the depleted surfaces of the nanowires with each other (back-to-back Schottky barrier) at the SnO_2 -SnO₂ homojunction (**Figure 4a,b**).^{37-38,56}

When an analyte such as hydrogen (a reducing-gas) is introduced, it is oxidized during the reaction with the adsorbed oxygen species at the SnO₂ surface by donating electrons back to the conduction band of the SnO₂ NWs, thus accordingly narrowing the electron depletion region (decreasing the potential barrier height), **eq. 6,7**. This results in an increase in the width of the conduction channel and therefore to an increase of the conductance of the sensor (**Figure 4c**). Hence, the change in resistance of the device fabricated with pristine SnO₂ NWs is a combination of a series of resistance, *i.e.* change of the surface depletion region and the potential barrier height due to back-to-back SnO₂-SnO₂ homojunction.^{16,57} Importantly, due to the small size and diameter of the SnO₂ NWs, these changes in the electrical signals become greater, where the space-charge region participates significantly along with the potential barrier at back-to-back homojunction.^{8,16,58}

$$O_{2(qas)} + 2e^{-}(SnO_{2})_{(CB)} \rightleftharpoons 2O_{ads}^{-}(SnO_{2})$$
 (4)

$$0_{2(qas)} + 2e^{-}(SnO_{2})_{(CB)} \rightleftharpoons 0_{2ads}(SnO_{2})$$
 (5)

$$2H_{2(gas)} + 0_{2,ads}^{-} \rightarrow 2H_{2}0_{(des)}^{+} + e^{-}(SnO_{2})_{(CB)}$$
 (6)

$$H_{2(aas)} + O_{(ads)}(SnO_2) \rightarrow H_2 O_{(des)} \uparrow + e^{-}(SnO_2)_{(CB)}$$
 (7)

In the SiO₂ coated SnO₂ CSNWs, an additional heterojunction is introduced between the SiO₂-shell and the SnO₂-core, thereby narrowing the conduction channel along the SnO₂-core and increasing the resistance of the whole system.⁵¹⁻⁵⁴ Importantly, the electrons conduction path should be mainly confined to the SnO₂-core, *i.e.* along the conductive core-axis (**Figure 4d**).⁸

When the SnO_2 -SiO₂ CSNWs sensor is exposed to air, oxygen can diffuse through the SiO₂-shell to the SnO₂ core and chemisorbs by capturing electrons from the conduction band of the SnO₂ (*n*-type

SMOX). Thus the width of the EDL increases when the sensor is exposed to air narrowing the conduction channel (Figure 4e). The SiO₂-shell acts as a molecular sieve where the analyte has to diffuse through the SiO₂ layer to react at the SnO₂ surface. Therefore, the density of the films, thickness and the presence of pinholes/pores in the SiO₂-shell can critically affect the selectivity and sensitivity of the sensor.^{19,25,30} These aspects control the diffusion of gas molecules with respect to their size and nature, such as due to its smaller size (for example the molecular diameters of gases H₂, H₂O, O₂, CO are reported as 2.18, 2.72, 2.96 and 3.80 Å, respectively)²⁷ hydrogen can diffuse through the shell layer easier than the other analytes of interest.⁵⁹ Therefore, the diffusion of comparatively large-sized gases such as acetone, ethanol, carbon monoxide and hydrogen sulfide became negligible.¹⁹ Thus, the SiO₂-shell layer deposited on top of the SnO₂ NWs is mainly responsible for the selectivity towards hydrogen. Hydrogen (a reducing gas) is oxidized to water when it reacts with adsorbed oxygen species at the SnO₂ surface, accordingly narrowing the electron depletion region, eq. 6,7. This results in an increase in the width of the conduction channel and accordingly the conductance of the sensor increases (Figure 4f). The higher sensing-response of SnO_2 -SiO_2/20–60 CSNWs sensors as compared to the bare SnO₂ NWs is due to the greater width and a comparatively more resistive electron-depletion-layer.^{29,37,51} Indeed, this highly resistive EDL increased the tendency of electron acceptance from hydrogen.^{16,29,37} However, with the increase of the shell thickness beyond the critical thickness (4.8 nm, in this study, cf. Figure 2g), the SiO₂ layer became too thick to diffuse the hydrogen to the sensing layer and its oxidation products out, thereby it decreased the sensor response (cf. the sensitivity of the SnO₂-SiO₂ /90 and SnO₂-SiO₂/130 CSNWs sensors in Figure 3g).²⁵



Figure 4. Schematics of the sensing mechanism and effective conduction channel for the pristine $SnO_2 NWs$ and SnO_2 -SiO₂ CSNWs heterostructures. (a–c) represents pristine $SnO_2 NWs$; (a) in vacuum

(flat-band situation), (b) in air, the chemisorbed oxygen species withdrawing electrons from the conduction band, creating an electron depletion layer, thus narrowing the conduction channel and enhancing the barrier height at the surface and at the back-to-back contacts, (c) in H₂, the hydrogen adsorbed onto the SnO₂ surface donating electrons back to the depleted surfaces, reducing the barrier height along with expanding the conduction channel. (d–f) SnO₂-SiO₂ CSNWs; (d) in vacuum, where a SiO₂-SnO₂ junction is formed by creating the electron-depletion-layer (EDL) at the interface of the two materials (indeed the conduction channel became narrow as compared to the pristine SnO₂ NWs), (e) in air, as the chemisorbed oxygen species withdraw electrons from the conduction band of SnO₂, thus broadening the EDL at the interface with further narrowing the charge conduction channel, (f) in hydrogen, amorphous SiO₂-shell layer acts as a selective filter for hydrogen, the hydrogen species can diffuse at the SnO₂ surface and oxidize releasing electrons back to the conduction band of SnO₂, thus narrowing the EDL and broadening of the conduction channel.

Conclusion

In this article, we have studied the gas-sensing properties and the underlying transduction mechanism of well-defined SnO₂-SiO₂ core-shell nanowires heterostructures with varying thickness of the amorphous SiO_2 -shell layer (1.8–10.5 nm in thicknesses). The selectivity and response of pristine SnO₂ sensors are greatly enhanced by a conformal and homogeneous SiO₂ coating. The electrical properties and the sensor response of the SnO₂-SiO₂ CSNWs heterostructures strongly depend on the thickness of the SiO₂ shell layer. The SnO₂-SiO₂/60 CSNWs sensor with a shell layer thickness of 4.8 nm showed an optimized response of 160 (ca. 7-folds higher than pristine SnO₂ NWs) toward 500 ppm of hydrogen at 500 °C along with a lower detection-limit at ppb-level (0.082 ppm). This is attributed to an increase of the width of the electron-depletion-layer due to a strong core-shell coupling, where the conduction pathway is strictly confined to the SnO₂ core. In addition, an enhanced selectivity towards hydrogen is demonstrated due to a "masking effect" of the SiO₂ shell allowing hydrogen to more easily diffuse to the SnO₂ NWs surface compared to other reducing gases such as ethanol and carbon monoxide. The outstanding sensing properties of the SnO₂-SiO₂/N CSNWs can therefore be attributed to our heterostructured materials presenting at the same time a high surface area, a homogeneous and conformal, and electronically coupled SiO₂ shell layer presenting an optimized thickness. All in all, because our study precisely correlates the structural characteristics of well-defined SnO₂-SiO₂ heterostructures to the gas-sensing properties, we anticipate that it will be helpful for the understanding and the application of next-generation gas-sensing material.

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