Recent Trends of Light-enhanced Metal Oxide Gas Sensors: Review

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Abstract

Recent light-enhanced metal oxide gas sensors are reviewed in this article. The basic mechanisms of a light-enhanced metal oxide gas sensor are discussed. Many literatures reveal that the standalone sensitivity and the response/recovery time enhancements enabled by the exposing light are not as high as the performance enhancement provided by external heating. Therefore, both optimal amount of external heating and exposed light intensity are necessary to increase the performance of these light-enhanced gas sensors. The development of highly light sensitive materials and structures is important to lower the overall power consumptions of the sensors.

Keywords: Chemical sensors, metal oxide, photo-enhancement, light-enhanced gas sensors

1. INTRODUCTION

Miniaturized gas sensors have been widely used today owing to their compact size, low-power consumption, and low cost, thus making them a good choice for mobile, wearable and internet of things (IoT) applications. Particularly, metal oxide gas sensors in this category show promising performances in terms of sensitivity and response speed while having a low manufacturing cost. However, these types of sensors generally operate at high temperatures above 2-300°C to activate the chemisorption of atmospheric oxygen on the metal oxide surface [1-4]. This high operating temperature increases power consumption of the gas sensors and therefore these sensors are not suitable for the usage in hazardous environments containing explosive or flammable gas species [3,5]. Additionally, the high operating temperature degrades the stability of the sensor materials and structures. It has been reported that the sensors operating at high temperatures have long-term drift problems due to the diffusion and sintering processes [1,3]. Therefore, it is necessary to reduce the operating temperature of the gas sensors while maintaining their stability and sensitivity. Light irradiation is one of the methods to improve the gas sensitivity at low operating temperatures. In this article, recent works on the light-enhanced gas sensors operating at low or room temperatures were reviewed. Since each light-enhanced gas sensor uses different materials, synthesis methods, gas species, gas concentrations, and light sources, direct performance comparisons among the gas sensors were not made. Instead, this article focused on the recent trends of the light-enhanced gas sensors and their light sources, providing a guidance on the potential light-enhanced gas sensor researches in the future.

2. LIGHT-ENHANCED GAS SENSORS

2.1 Metal oxide gas sensor mechanism

The complete mechanism of metal oxides gas sensing is still not clear; however, there is a consensus that the governing mechanism is based on the free charge carrier exchange between adsorbed gas species and bulk metal oxides. For example, in n-type metal oxides, electrons in the conduction band are drawn and trapped at the metal oxide surface as $O_2$ is adsorbed. As a result, a band bending occurs at the surface. The band bending region is called the space-charge layer or depletion region where almost no free charge carriers are left. The space-charge layer thickness is modulated as adsorbed $O_2$ reacts with other gas species, and this modulation leads to conductivity change in the metal oxides. The conductivity change by gas exposure not only depends on the sensing material properties but also on the geometries when the nanocrystal size is larger than Debye length ($L_D$) of an electron...
These well-known metal oxide materials for gas sensors are the transition-metal oxides with d⁰ and d¹⁰ electronic configurations such as TiO₂, V₂O₅, WO₃, ZnO, and SnO₂.

2.2 Light-enhanced metal oxide gas sensor mechanism

The mechanism of light-enhanced metal oxides is essentially similar to the general heat-operated metal oxide gas sensors, but it involves photocatalytic reactions of photo-generated carriers in the gas adsorption/desorption process. The governing mechanism of light-enhanced gas sensors can be summarized as follows:

1. Increased free charge carrier density in metal oxides due to generated electron-hole pairs by light illuminations.
2. Weakly bound oxygen species on the metal oxide surfaces formed by cyclic reactions between oxide species and photo-generated electron-hole pairs.

Graphic illustrations of the light-assisted gas sensing mechanism are shown in Fig. 1 [1]. Under the dark condition, the chemisorbed oxygen species are strongly bound to the metal oxides surfaces in the oxygen-ambient atmosphere [Fig. 1(a)]. As the light is illuminated to the metal oxides, the chemisorbed oxygen species are desorbed by interacting with photo-generated carriers.

Table 1. List of light-enhanced metal oxide gas sensors

| Material | Target Gas | Gas conc. (ppm) | Temp. (°C) | Light Source | Note | Ref. |
|----------|------------|-----------------|------------|--------------|------|-----|
| CdS/ZnO  | Formaldehyde | 10 | RT | 450-nm, 500-W Xe-lamp | $\frac{\Delta I}{I_g}$ (100%) = 120% | [13] |
| ZnO     | Ethylene, Acetone | 5200 (Ethylene) 900 (Acetone) | RT | 4-W white-LED (380–780 nm) | $\frac{R_a}{R_g}$ = 1.06 (Ethylene), 1.2 (Acetone) | [1] |
| ZnO (Sn doped) | Ethanol | 320 | RT | Visible-light (not specified) | $\frac{R_a}{R_g}$ (100) = 225% | [2] |
| ZnO     | Ethanol, Toluene, Pentane, Acetaldehyde | 0.001 – 10 | RT | 400-nm UV-LED (2.2 mW/cm²) | Response not specified, able to detect <100 ppb for all tests | [14] |
| ZnO (TiO₂ doped) | Ethanol | 50-200 | RT | 365-nm, 24-W UV lamp | 5 wt% TiO₂ doped performed best | [10] |
| ZnO (Cu doped) | Ethanol, Acetone | 1120 | RT | 355-nm Xe-lamp | $\frac{\Delta I}{I_g}$ (100%) = 64% (ethanol), 63% (acetone) | [20] |
| ZnO (Au coated) | NO₂ | 5 | RT | 365 nm (1.2 mW/cm²) | 455% | [21] |
| ZnO | H₂ | 100 | RT | UV irradiation (not specified) | $\Delta R = 0.56$ | [22] |
| SnO₂/ZnO | NO₂ | 5 | RT | 365 nm (1.2 mW/cm²) | 619% | [4] |
| ZnO | H₂ | 100 | RT | 380 nm UV-LED (25 mW/cm²) | $\Delta R = 0.2$ | [16] |
| SnO₂/TiO₂ | Ethanol | 100 | RT | 380 nm UV-LED (0.7 Cd/m² by 2 mm apart) | $\frac{R_a}{R_g}$ (100) = 16 | [3] |
| SnO₂ | NO₂ | 1–3 | RT - 300 | 365 nm, Mercury-Xe lamp (3500 mW/cm²) | $\Delta R = 90\%$ (300°C, 3 ppm) | [5] |
| SnO₂ (Au, In, Si doped) | CO | 100 | 0 - 500 | 365 nm, Mercury-Xe lamp(15 mW/m²) | $\Delta R = 1$ (Au doped, 300°C), 0.8 (undoped, 300°C), 0.6 (In doped, 300°C), 0.5 (Si doped, 400°C) | [15] |
| WO₃ | NO₂ | 0.16 – 0.32 | RT | 380, 400, 480, 510, 590 nm LEDs | $\frac{R_{SO_2}}{R_{air}} = 9.2$ (max. response under 590 nm at RT) | [9] |
| ZnS (Au doped) | NO₂ | 5 | 300 | 254 nm LED 1.2 mW/cm² | 884% | [8] |
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electrons [Fig. 1(b)]. By oxygen desorption, the space-charge layer thickness is reduced increasing the conductivity of the metal oxides. After desorption of chemisorbed oxygen species, the new oxygen species are adsorbed by interacting with photo-generated electrons and the conductivity is decreased. Unlike chemisorbed oxygen species, the new oxygen species are weakly bound to the surface so that the absorption/desorption process could be activated at low temperatures. The absorption/desorption process soon reaches the steady state after a while. Upon target gas exposure, for example of reducing gas, the photo-generated holes are recombined to the electrons donated from the target gas causing the electron-hole separation, and this leads to the decrease in the resistance across the metal oxides [Fig 1(c)].

2.2 Photo-generated free charge carriers in light-enhanced metal oxide gas sensors

The free charge carrier generation by light illumination in the metal oxides is explained by the principle of interband transition. When light is irradiated to the metal oxides, the electrons in the valence band are excited to the conduction band forming electron-hole pairs. Only the light that has higher energy than the band gap of the metal oxides can generate electron-hole pairs in the interband transition. Fig. 4 (d) shows the relation between the gas sensing responses and the photon energy (wavelength). It is observed that the gas response rapidly increases when the light energy is higher than the band gap (SnO2 in the figure) of the sensing material. For this reason, UV light (λ < 400 nm) is usually used as the light source for the metal oxide gas sensors.

Recent light-enhanced gas sensors and their sensitivities to different target gases are listed in Table 1. Some of the light-enhanced gas sensors improve their responses by adding different materials to the metal oxides surfaces. S. Park et al. synthesized 1D ZnS nanostructures on the Au-coated sapphire (001) substrate, sputtered Au thin film to the nanowires, and the Au-functionalized ZnS nanowires gas sensor was fabricated [8]. The TEM image of an Au-functionalized ZnO nanowire is shown in Fig 2 (a). In response to 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 ppm NO2 gas, these Au-functionalized ZnS nanowire gas sensors showed superior responses of up to 2.8, 3.3, 3.6, 5.1, 5.4-fold, respectively [Fig. 2 (b)], compared to the responses of pristine ZnO nanowire gas sensors. Another work by S. Park et al. reported light-enhanced SnO2-core/ZnO-shell nanowire gas sensor structures using a two-step process: the synthesis of SnO2 nanowires was followed by atomic layer deposition (ALD) of ZnO [4]. The response of the SnO2-core/ZnO-shell gas sensors is 618% in 5 ppm NO2 under 1.2 mW/cm2 UV illumination. This response is a huge improvement compared to the responses of pristine ZnO and SnO2 nanowire gas sensors in the same conditions. The reason for the improved responses of these core-shell structures is because the n-n heterojunction acts as a lever through which the electron transfer rate is controlled [4].

The band diagrams of the SnO2/ZnO core-shell structure before and after equilibrium, with and without UV irradiation are described in Fig. 2 (d). J.D. Prades et al. reported on a room temperature light-enhanced monocrystalline SnO2 nanowire gas sensor as shown in Fig. 4 (a) [9]. Under UV illumination, their sensor demonstrated detection as low as 100 ppb NO2 at room temperature [Fig. 4 (b)]. The improvement in light-enhanced gas sensors’ responses by changing the wt% of the doping materials was reported in [10]. In UV spectra, the ZnO doped with a small TiO2 contents exhibited red-shift, and the ZnO doped with large TiO2 contents exhibited blue-shift [Fig. 2 (j)]. They found the highest gas sensing response when ZnO is doped with 5 wt% of TiO2 as shown in Fig. 2 (k). A high gas sensitivity is observed when the spectra is red-shifted because most of the materials have a higher absorption coefficient in longer wavelengths.

Most light-enhanced gas sensors require light sources to be activated. However, these light sources lie in UV range and have high power consumption. Therefore, there have been many attempts to use visible light sources, which are more ambient and less power-consuming, to generate the electron-hole pairs in the metal oxide gas sensors. Q. Geng et al. revealed that ZnO gas sensors could respond to the visible light [1] produced by the two-photon excitation process [11, 12] so that the visible light can be used as an excitation source. C. Shao et al. found that changing the concentration of Sn in the Zn:Sn source material would control the number of defects in ZnO, and that these defects work as electron donors allowing ZnO to absorb visible light [2]. They also found that with 1:1 Zn:Sn ratio (denoted as SZ2), the defects concentration is the highest, and therefore the maximum gas response is achieved.
Fig. 3 shows the SEM images of ZnO samples with different Sn concentrations (a-c) and the corresponding UV spectra [2]. A light-enhanced gas sensor incorporated both CdS, which have a band gap ~2.4 eV, and ZnO was also reported to enhance the visible light responses [13].

2.3 Operation condition optimization (light intensity and temperature) for light-enhanced metal oxide gas sensors

Because each light-enhanced gas sensor has different material preparation methods, device structures, and illuminated light conditions, the question of the best operating conditions is still debated by researchers. Several works reported that the maximum response is achieved by a moderate light intensity. J.D Predas et al. demonstrated experimentally that the response is a function of both photon flux and gas concentration in their SnO$_2$ nanowire gas sensors as shown in Fig. 4 (c) [9]. Based on their study, the maximum gas response is obtained with photon flux, enough for desorbed oxygen to create new oxygen vacancies but not excessive to prevent large desorption of NO$_2$. In a light-enhanced ZnO gas sensor study, B.P.J. Costello et al. found that the optimal light intensity giving maximum response is dependent on the analyte [14]. Fig. 5 (a-d) show the sensor responses versus light intensities for different gas types (hexane, propane, methane, and ethanol). To find out the optimal temperature for light-enhanced gas sensors, E. Comini et al. investigated the relationship between the gas sensor sensitivity and the temperature under light
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**Fig. 3.** (a-c) SEM images, (d) room-temperature PL spectra of Zn:Sn: 2:3, 1:1, 1:3 (from top to bottom). (e) Ethanol vapor responses of the samples prepared with different weight ratio Zn:Sn, All adapted from [2].

**Fig. 4.** (a) Schematic representation of the nanowire device and experimental setup, (b) response of a SnO$_2$ NW operated in dark and UV illuminated to NO$_2$ of different concentrations. (c) Sensor response of the SnO$_2$ NW devices under illumination with different photon energies and photon flux towards 0.5-ppm NO$_2$. (d) Variation of sensor response for three different concentration of NO$_2$ vs. the flux of photons. All figures are adapted from [9].

**Fig. 5.** Plot of sensitivity (% change in baseline current) vs. light intensity when nanoparticulate zinc oxide sensors were exposed to (a) hexane vapor, (b) propane vapor, (c) methane vapor, (d) ethanol vapor. Repose in dark- and UV-irradiation condition for (e) gold catalyzed and (f) pristine SnO$_2$ RGTO samples as a function of the working temperature towards 100 ppm of CO at 30% RH. (a-d) were adapted from [14], and (e, f) were adapted from [15].

illumination [15], and measured the highest responses of light illuminated gas sensors at a working temperature of 300°C [Fig. 5 (e, f)]. Moreover, they found a memory effect occurred when their sensors are operated in low incident power and low temperature, but the effect is eliminated as the working temperature is increased above 250°C.

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### 2.3 Challenge in light-enhanced metal oxide gas sensors

The light source is a challenge in light-enhanced gas sensors. Bulky and high power light sources cancel out the small form factors of nanofabricated gas sensors. There were attempts to use low power LEDs with the gas sensors [3,16], but the light source and gas sensor were two separate parts. Therefore, combining both the light sources and gas sensors in one platform is desirable for future integration with mobile/wearable device applications. We believe that the advanced fabrication methods such as focused energy field method [17], high-resolution electrohydrodynamic (EHD) printing [18] or nanomembrane transfer printing [19] would make it possible to integrate both light source and gas sensor in a single small platform (Fig. 6).
3. CONCLUSIONS

In this article, various light-enhanced metal oxide sensors were reviewed. In the first two sections of this article, the basic mechanisms of light-enhanced gas sensors were explained. We then introduced some of the recent publications and their attempts, which demonstrated the absorption wavelength tuning methods and operating condition optimizations, to improve the light-enhanced gas sensor’s performance.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported by the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) Grant funded by the Korean Government (MSIP) (No. 2015R1A5A1037668), the Center for Integrated Smart Sensors funded by the Ministry of Science, ICT & Future Planning as Global Frontier Project (CISS-2012M3A6A6054201), and by the BK21 Plus Program.

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