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Enhancing NO2 sensing performance through interface engineering in Cs2AgBiBr6/SnO2/ZnO-NRs sensor

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Abstract

Developing sensors that operate under ambient conditions with minimal energy consumption, ensuring a robust response and efficient recovery to toxic $NO₂$ gas, can help take appropriate and corrective measures to protect human health from exposure to hazardous environments. In this study, we have successfully designed a gas sensor device based on a sandwoch structure of $Cs_2AgBiBr_6/SnO_2/ZnO-nanorods$ $(CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs)$ for detecting NO₂ at room temperature. The insertion of the SnO2 layer between the CABB and ZnO-NRs, which works as a hole blocker, not only improves significantly the sensor stability from a few hours to more than a month but also offers the energy step for electron transfer from ZnO-NRs to CABB. The CABB layer further enhances the charge separation, transport, and conductivity from the perovskite to the ZnO surface, actively participating in the gas-sensitive reaction. The response of $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ sensors to 100 ppm $NO₂$ is about 9 times higher than that of $ZnO-NRs$, showing a significantly improved $NO₂$ sensing performance.

Keywords: Perovskite, Cs₂AgBiBr₆, hole block layer, ZnO-NRs, NO₂ sensor.

1. **Introduction**

The release of toxic and harmful gases from technological and industrial developments inevitably impacts the natural environment and living organisms $[1]$. NO₂ gas is a critical indicator for the assessment of air quality. High concentrations of $NO₂$ in the atmosphere could result in the formation of acid rain and photochemical smog formation $[2, 3]$. Long-term exposure to $NO₂$ will significantly impact human health [4]. Extensive research has demonstrated that high levels of nitrogen dioxide pollution in urban areas contribute to two-thirds of asthma cases among children [5]. Short-term exposure to 50 ppm $NO₂$ may cause damage to the respiratory system [6]. Therefore, detecting $NO₂$ with low concentration detection limit is crucial from various perspectives.

Metal oxide semiconductor (MOS) gas sensors are widely used in environmental gas detection due to their low raw material cost, ease of preparation, high response and short response time [7]. Commonly used oxide semiconductor gas sensing materials include ZnO , $SnO₂$, $TiO₂$ and NiO. However, these materials exhibit widespread shortcomings such as high operating temperature, long recovery time, poor stability, and limited selectivity [8-11]. To address these issues, various strategies such as element doping $[12]$, formation of heterojunction $[13]$, nanostructure $[14]$, design morphology and structure [15] are implemented to enhance the sensors' performance. In recent years, there has been a growing interest in the utilization of perovskite materials in gas sensing applications, owing to their optoelectronic characteristics such as high carrier mobility, extended carrier lifetime, significant absorption coefficient and other advantages $[16-18]$. The flexible ABX_3 structure of the perovskite allows for precise tuning of optoelectronic properties to meet specific requirements for various applications, including sensors. A detailed examination of perovskite nanomaterials reveals alterations in optoelectronic properties when exposed to gases such as NO2, $CH₄$, NH₃, C₂H₅OH, making them suitable for gas sensing applications [19-21]. Property changes can be detected by recording the variations in electrical resistance, phosphorescence, or fluorescence response, etc., to monitor the concentration of gases in the environment [22-24]. Fu et al. utilized a spin coating method to prepare an organic and inorganic hybrid perovskite p-type CH3NH3PbI3 film, demonstrating rapid sensing of $NO₂$ at room temperature, and elucidating the chemical adsorption induced gas-sensitive mechanism by in-situ FTIR [25]. Kim et al. fabricated inorganic CsPbBr3 perovskite thin-film using hot injection followed by soft soaking treatment to enhance carrier life and selectivity for $NO₂[26]$. However, single perovskite films as gas sensing layers show characteristics such as long response times, low sensitivity and insufficient stability. Li et al. found that ZnO micro balls (MBs) decorated with CsPbBr₃ quantum dots (QDs) showed an improved $NO₂$ sensing performance with high response and stability under light illumination, but poor humidity resistance to $NO₂$ [27]. Ye et al. demonstrated that halide perovskite $Cs₂PbBr₆$ linked with two-dimensional covalent organic frameworks (2D COF) can significantly enhance the selectivity and sensitivity to $NO₂ [28]$. Nevertheless, perovskites containing lead pose environment and human health risks, potentially hindering their large-scale application in gas sensors. To develop lead-free perovskites with high stability is a crucial concern for real applications, and the relevant mechanism concerning the stability requires a deep understanding.

In this study, we used lead-free double perovskite $Cs₂AgBiBr₆$ (CABB) film in conjunction a with a ZnO-nanorods (ZnO-NRs) array to enhance the device's response to NO2 gas. Further optimization of the sensing device involved interface engineering through addition of a $SnO₂$ layer between the two films. The experimental results indicate that the presence of a $SnO₂$ layer between the zinc oxide and perovskite layers provides special energy band alignment, improves gas responsiveness and enhances sensing stability compared to the films without the layer, demonstrating fast response and recovery properties.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Synthesis of ZnO-NRs film

Initially, a dense and uniform seed layer of ZnO nanoparticles was applied on a glass substrate using the spin coating method, followed by annealing as detailed in a previous report [29]. Subsequently, ZnO nanorods (ZnO-NRs) were grown on the ZnO seed layer using the hydrothermal method. The glass, coated with the ZnO seed layer, was positioned diagonally with the seed layer facing downward immersed into a 200 mL Teflon-lined autoclave containing 0.05 M of Zn(NO₃)₂ · 6H₂O and 0.05 M hexamethylenetetramine (HMTA). The hydrothermal reaction took place at 90℃ for 8h. Finally, the coated samples were washed with deionized water, air-dried, and further crystallized by annealing at 500℃ for 20 min to form ZnO-NRs film.

2.2. Synthesis of SnO2/ZnO-NRs films

A SnO2 film was prepared using the spinning coating method. In a typical process, SnCl4·5H2O was dissolved in isopropyl alcohol (IPA) to create precursor solutions with concentrations of 0.01 M, 0.05 M. The precursor solution was then spin-coated onto the ZnO-NRs film, spun at 3000 rpm for 30 s, placed on a hot plate at 150℃ for 20 min, and annealed at 500 °C in a tube furnace for 2h to produce a $SnO₂-x/ZnO-NRs$ film, where x represents the $SnO₂$ precursor concentration. The term $SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ subsequently refers to $SnO₂-0.01/ZnO-NRs$, unless specified otherwise.

2.3. Fabrication of CABB/SnO2/ZnO-NRs films

A CABB layer was deposited on ZnO-NRs or $SnO₂-x/ZnO-NRs$ films using a vacuum evaporation system within a glovebox under a pressure below 10^{-4} Pa. CABB crystals were ground into powder as the source for evaporation, with the rate set at a constant 0.4 nm/s. The optimized final thickness was 50 nm. The samples were then heated on a hot plate in the glove box at 285℃ for 10 min to create the CABB/ZnO-NRs or CABB/SnO₂-x/ZnO-NRs film as the sensing layer. The term CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs is used interchangeably with CABB/SnO₂-0.01/ZnO-NRs, unless specifically stated otherwise.

2.4. Fabrication and measurement of sensor device

The sensor was created by depositing platinum interdigital electrodes onto the sensing layer through DC magnetron sputtering, using a contact mask [29]. Gas sensing measurement were carried out in air at room temperature of 25˚C and environmental humidity of 60%, if not particularly indicated. In this work, the NO₂ sample gas was purchased as premixed gas of 0.75% NO2 with 99.25% Ar. The test chamber filled with ambient air is sealed, and the NO2 sample gas is injected into the chamber via a syringe for the sensing test. Once the resistance is stabilized, the lid of the test chamber was opened to release the testing NO2 gas. This is a traditional way for static gas sensing test. The sample gases CH4, H2, CO (5% CH4, H2, CO mixed with 95% Ar), NO, NO2, SO2 (0.75% NO, NO2, SO2 mixed with 99.25% Ar), H2S (0.05% H2S mixed with 99.95% SF6), and NH3, Ethanol, Acetone (bottled solution with saturated vapor pressure) are used for selectivity test. An external Keithly 2400 source meter connected to a computer was used to measure the sensor's resistance change, and the data were automatically recorded by the test system software. The test process is schematic shown in Fig. S1. The gas sensing response (Res) of the sensors is calculated by Eq. (1) below:

$$
Res = \frac{R_{gas}}{R_{air}} - 1
$$
 (Eq. 1)

where R_{gas} and R_{air} are the resistances of the sensors in NO₂ and in air respectively.

The response (τ_{res}) and recovery (τ_{recov}) times are defined as the time for the resistance change to reach up 90% of the final ΔR ($\Delta R =$ Rair – Rgas). The selectivity factor (SF) is defined as the response ratio of the main gas (gas 1) to the comparison gas (gas 2):

$$
SF = \frac{Res_{gas1}}{Res_{gas2}} \tag{Eq. 2}
$$

Fig. 1 schematically illustrates the fabrication procedures and the test process of the CABB/SnO2/ZnO-NRs sensor.

Fig. 1. Schematic showing the preparation and test procedures of the CABB/SnO2/ZnO-NRs sensor. (a) spin-coated ZnO seed layer; (b) hot table drying seed crystals; (c) hydrothermal reaction; (d) ZnO-NRs film; (e) spin-coated $SnO₂$ layer; (f) vacuum evaporation; and (g) gas test system.

2.5. Materials Characterization

The crystal structures of the samples were analyzed using x-ray diffractometry (XRD) with Cu-K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.15418$ nm) on a Bruker D8 instrument. The morphology of the films was examined by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) using a Zeiss Sigma500 microscope. Ultraviolet-visible (UV–vis) diffuse reflectance spectra were obtained using a Shimadzu UV-33600 spectrophotometer from Japan. Photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured at room temperature with an excitation wavelength of 320 nm, employing a CLY18 Fluo Time 300 instrument from German PicoQuant. The element binding energy was determined by X–ray photoelectron spectroscopy obtained using the XPS Escalab 250Xi instrument from Thermo Fisher, USA with monochromatized Al K α at the energy of 1486.6 eV as the X–ray source. The instrument was calibrated to the carbon C 1s peak at 248.8 eV present on the surface. The piezoelectric property of the films was measured by piezoelectric forces microscopy (PFM, SPA 400, Seiko Inc.).

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. Microstructure characterization

XRD analysis was employed to characterize the impact of interface engineering on the crystallinity of individual layers of the sensor. In the case of ZnO NRs, a distinct peak at approximately $2\theta = 34.46^{\circ}$ signifies a well orientated alignment along the [0 0 2] direction (Fig. 2(a)). Noticeably, no discernible $SnO₂$ -related peak appeared in the XRD spectra of SnO2/ZnO-NRs, probably attributed to the even distribution and insufficient thickness of the $SnO₂$ film, falling beyond the detection limit. The minor peaks associated with $(1 0 0)$, $(1 0 1)$, and $(1 0 2)$ ZnO plane in ZnO-NRs vanished when SnO₂ coating was applied on the surface. Furthermore, the (0 0 2) ZnO peak was found to shift to a higher diffraction angle with increasing $SnO₂$ precursor concentration, as evidenced in the magnified XRD patterns $(Fig. 2(a))$. This shift indicated the presence of compressive stress along the [0 0 2] direction of ZnO-NRs, leading to alterations in the polarization electric field within the ZnO nanorods. Fig. 2(b) shows the XRD patterns of CABB/SnO2/ZnO-NRs, where the additional diffraction peaks correspond well with the standard $Cs₂AgBiBr₆$, confirming the successful synthesis of CABB on the SnO2/ZnO-NRs.

Fig. 2. (a) XRD patterns (left) and amplified local region of the XRD patterns (right) of the ZnO-NRs and $SnO₂-x/ZnO-NRs$; (b) XRD patterns of CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs.

The SEM images in Fig. 3 show the morphologies of the ZnO-NRs, $SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$, and $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs films$. In Fig. 3(a), the hexagonal ZnO nanorods, each with an average diameter of 260 nm, were closely arranged and grown along the C-axis orientation of ZnO, consistent with the XRD pattern in Fig. 2(a). The surface of ZnO-NRs coated with 0.01 M $SnO₂$ exhibits a rough structure in Fig. 3(b). As the $SnO₂$ precursor concentration increased to 0.05 M, the nanorods transform into a cylindrical shape, with $SnO₂$ nanocrystals covering the top and sides in Fig. 3(c). In addition, some SnO2 forms a network of interconnected bridges among the ZnO nanorods. Figs. 3(d) and $3(e)$ reveal that the average length of the nanorods is 2.9 μ m, and that the SnO2/ZnO-NRs are uniformly covered by CABB layer.

Fig. 3. SEM images showing the morphology of (a) ZnO-NRs; (b) $SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$; (c) $SnO₂ 0.05/ZnO-NRs$; and (d, e) $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ with (d) and (e) being the top and cross-sectional view, respectively.

Fig. 4(a) shows the optical absorption properties measured by UV–Vis spectroscopy. The absorption edge around 400 nm for ZnO-NRs corresponds to the optical band gap of ZnO, and the much increased absorption in the visible region is attributed to the light scattering of the nanorods. To elucidate the optical properties without interference from ZnO-NRs, the CABB is also evaporated onto quartz. The consistent absorption peak positions imply that the CABB layer on $SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$ shares the same optical band gap as on quartz. CABB is classified as an indirect-gap semiconductor, and its optical bandgap E_g can be obtained from the optical absorption spectrum (the inserted plots in Fig. 4(a)) by the following equation:

$$
\alpha = \frac{c(\hbar v - E_g \pm E_p)^2}{\exp(\pm E_p / kT - 1)}, \hbar v > E_g \mp E_p
$$
 (Eq. 3)
= 0, $\hbar v \le E_g \mp E_p$

The estimated E_g of the CABB layer is 2.44 eV, and the phonon energy (E_p) is 0.05 eV. The band gap value is aligned with the previously reported value of 2.39 eV for the CABB film [30].

The photoluminescence (PL) spectrum of ZnO-NRs in Fig. 4(b) displays three emission peaks at 390 nm, 470 nm, and 610 nm, corresponding to the near-band edge emission (NBE), emission from the donor level of Zn interstitial to acceptor energy level of Zn vacancy, and the ionized oxygen vacancies, respectively. The intensity of the Zn and oxygen vacancies-related peak was found to decrease when $SnO₂$ coating is on ZnO-NRs and CABB coating is on SnO₂/ZnO-NRs, indicating the formation of heterojunction among ZnO-NRs, SnO₂, and CABB. The build-in electric field at the heterojunction interface enhances the separation of photon-generated carriers and diminishes the radiative recombination.

Fig. 4. (a) UV–vis absorption spectra; and (b) PL spectra of $ZnO-NRs$, $SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$, and

The XPS survey scan of $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ is shown in Fig. 5(a), and highresolution XPS spectra of the elements are conducted to determine their chemical states (Figs. 5(b)-5(d)). The O 1s spectrum of ZnO-NRs in Fig. 5(b) can be deconstructed into three peaks, positioned at 530.27, 531.54, and 532.57 eV, corresponding to lattice oxygen (O_L) , oxygen vacancies (O_V) , and adsorbed water molecules $(H-O-H)$, respectively $[31]$. The O_V content is 38.74%, 42.82%, 34.47%, and 34.81% for ZnO-NRs, $SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$, $SnO_2-O.05/ZnO-NRs$, and $CABB/SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$, respectively. This indicates that a low concentration (0.01 M) of $SnO₂$ primarily induces surface defects (the roughness on the surface observed in Fig. 3(b)) and increases the oxygen vacancy density. Conversely, a high concentration of SnO2 (0.05 M) produces thicker SnO2 layer covering the surface area of ZnO-NRs, thereby decreasing the oxygen vacancy density. The CABB coating on the $SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$ surface also diminishes the oxygen vacancy density.

The Zn 2p XPS spectrum of ZnO-NRs (Fig. 5(c)) shows two peaks, Zn $2p_{1/2}$ and $2p_{3/2}$, at 1044.62 eV and 1021.52 eV, respectively. The Zn $2p_{3/2}$ peak experiences a blue shifts of about 0.22 eV in $SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$ and 0.55 eV in $CABB/SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$, suggesting charges transfer away from Zn sites. The Sn 3d XPS spectra in Fig. 5(d) display a similar blue shift of the Sn 3d peaks. The peaks at 486.71 and 495.21 eV in $SnO_2/ZnO-$ NRs can be attributed to Sn $3d_{5/2}$ and Sn $3d_{3/2}$, respectively, corresponding to Sn^{4+} cations. The core level of Sn $3d_{5/2}$ experiences a blue shift by 0.26 eV in

CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs, indicating a movement of charges away from Sn sites. The comparable blue shift of Zn 2p and Sn 3d peaks suggests a strong interaction between ZnO-NR_S, SnO₂ and the CABB species.

Fig. 5. XPS spectra: (a) survey scan of $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$; (b) O 1s; (c) Zn 2p; (d) Sn 3d.

4.2. $NO₂$ gas sensing properties

The performance of $NO₂$ sensing was assessed at room temperature of 25° C with a relative humidity of 60%. Both ZnO-NRs and SnO2/ZnO-NRs show noticeable response to $NO₂$ (Fig. 6(a)). The initial resistance is about 24 M Ω for ZnO-NRs, and such a high resistance is unfavorable for the real application of gas sensor. The initial resistance decreases about 10 times in SnO₂/ZnO-NRs, and further decreases around 100 times to 300 kΩ in CABB/SnO2/ZnO-NRs. The dynamic resistance changes of $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ $(CABB/SnO₂-0.05/ZnO-NRs)$ under various $NO₂$ concentrations in Fig. 6(b) (Fig. S2) indicate a significant improvement in sensing performance after CABB deposition. CABB/SnO2/ZnO-NRs demonstrated the best response and the shortest response/recovery time compared to ZnO-NRs, SnO₂/ZnO-NRs, and CABB/SnO₂-0.05/ZnO-NRs (Figs. $6(c)$ - $6(e)$). The response at 100 ppm was 9.66, about 5.5 times higher than that of $SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$, with a response/recovery time of 8s/9s, demonstrating rapid response and recovery characteristics. Fig. 6(f) shows the response curves under 1 ppm $NO₂$ condition for 6 cycles, showcasing the excellent baseline stability and response repeatability. The baseline goes up under high concentration conditions. Fig. 6(g) displays the changes in resistance and response under various humidity conditions at 25°C. The resistance slightly increase as increasing the humidity, and the response is 2.07 ± 0.11 with 5% deviation under various relative humidity, indicating good humidity resistance. The selectivity for reference gases is measured and shown in Fig. $6(h)$. The sample exhibited no response to CH_4 , CO, and H_2 , even at concentrations as high as 400 ppm, while it had a weak response to H₂S, SO₂ and NO. The sensor responds more strongly to NH₃ than to other interfering gases, and the selectivity factor (SF) for $NO₂$ to $NH₃$ is 11, showing a great selectivity to NO₂. Traditional perovskite-based gas sensors have poor stability and are easily decomposed in an air environment, so most perovskite-based gas sensors are tested under the protection of a specific gas environment, such as N_2 or Ar $[25, 27, 32]$. In this work, the response of CABB/SnO2/ZnO-NRs sensors was still about 70% of that of the newly prepared ones after storing in the air for 20 days without any preservation (Fig. 6(i)), showing a significant improvement in stability compared with CABB/ZnO-NRs sensors which are stable only in less than a day (Fig. S3). It is believed that the stability could be further improved if the $SnO₂$ layer is optimized in terms of microstructure and a suitable package is added to protect the device from light illumination.

Fig. 6. The dynamic resistance of (a) ZnO-NRs and $SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$; (b) $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$; (c) the response, (d) response time and (e) recovery time of the device as a function of gas concentration; (f) repeatability at 1 ppm NO₂. (g) humidity test at $25^{\circ}C$; (h) the selectivity to various gases; (i) long-term stability test.

The $NO₂$ sensing performance of $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ was compared with other metal halide perovskite materials reported in previous studies as shown in Table. 1. The sensor developed in this work can operate in air under various humidity without the need for additional light assistance, demonstrating excellent response and fast response speed. This makes it a most promising candidate for industry application.

Table. 1. Comparison of $NO₂$ gas sensing properties with other metal halide perovskite materials in previous reports at different operating conditions.

			C	Response		
		Т	(ppm)	$(R_{\rm gas}/R_{\rm air}$	Response/	
Materials	Environment	$({}^{\circ}C)$		1)	Recovery time (s)	Ref.
$CH3NH3PbI3 film$	In Ar	R.T	1	2.3	$22/13$ s	[25]
CsCuI ₃ film	In N_2	R.T	0.1	2.2	146/413 s	$[32]$
Cs ₂ SnI ₆ film	In dry air	R.T	20	34	247/818 s	$[33]$
CsPbBr ₃ film	In air	R.T.	8	0.26	58/77 s	[26]
	405 _{nm} LED					
MASnI ₃ film	In N_2	R.T	1	40	200/600 s	[34]
CsPbBr ₃ /ZnO	520 nm LED					
powder	In air	R.T.	5	52	63/40 s	[27]
$Cs_2AgBiBr_6/SnO_2$						This
ZnO film	In air	R.T.	1	2.3	12/9 s	work

*****All the response values are from the reference and recalculated based on the same definition $(R_{gas}/R_{air}-1)$, and all the response/recovery time is defined as the time for the resistance to reach up to 90% of the final ΔR ($\Delta R = R_{air} - R_{gas}$).

4.3. Gas sensing mechanism

Fig. 7(a) shows the evolution of color in CABB/ZnO-NRs over time under argon within the glove box. The yellow hue exhibits no discernable alteration in the argon atmosphere stored for 180 days, indicating stability of the CABB layer. Conversely, in ambient air, the color of the composite film gradually diminished within a short duration (several hours) (Fig. 7(b)). The CABB layer, deposited on the ZnO seed layer comprised of disordered small nanocrystals, maintains its color stability even when exposed to air for 40 days (Fig. 7(b)). Furthermore, when CABB is coated on SnO2/ZnO-NRs, the color remains unchanged after being stored in air for 180 days (Fig. $7(c)$). CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs with electrodes in ambient air for 40 days also show no color change. This suggests that the introduction of $SnO₂$ layer significantly enhances the stability of CABB on ZnO-NRs.

Fig. 7. Evolution of the color with time of (a) CABB/ZnO-NRs in argon gas within a glove box, (b) CABB/ZnO-NRs and CABB/ZnO seed layer in ambient air, and (c) $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ and $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ with electrods in ambient air.

To elucidate these phenomena, the piezoelectric property of the samples was characterized using piezoelectric forces microscopy (PFM) as depicted in Fig. 8. In PFM measurements, an AC voltage (V) was applied to the thin film surface and the electrode at the bottom through the conductive tip, deforming the surface underneath the tip. The distinctive butterfly-shaped loops $(Fig. 8(a))$ and the average phase angle close to 180° (Fig. 8(b)), specifically measuring 174°, 175°and 179°, for ZnO-NRs, $SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ and $SnO₂-0.05/ZnO-NRs$, respectively, signify the presence of the piezoelectric effect rather than electrostatic forces. The corresponding PFM images are shown in Fig. 8(c-e). The piezoelectric coefficient d_{33} is the conversion coefficient for converting the deformation energy into electric energy, reflecting the coupling relationship between piezoelectric materials' elastic and dielectric properties. The average d₃₃ value is 2.27 pm V⁻¹, and this value increases to 3.65 pm V⁻¹ and 4.84 pm V^{-1} for SnO₂/ZnO-NRs and SnO₂-0.05/ZnO-NRs, respectively. This trend aligns with the observed compressive stress along the c-axis in ZnO-NRs, which intensifies with an increase in the $SnO₂$ precursor concentration (Fig. 2(a)). The lattice strain induces permanent local electric dipoles, resulting in the enhancement of the piezoelectric polarization (d₃₃) in SnO₂/ZnO-NRs. Our previous publication [35] have shown a piezoelectric polarization-enhanced gas sensing. It was demonstrated that the enhanced polarization electric field provides additional energy to the electrons, just like additional heating or illumination, to overcome the reaction energy barriers, thus enhancing the gas sensing performance. However, the CABB degradation rate is reduced after the insert of the $SnO₂$ layer, indicating that the polarization field is the reason for the enhancement of response but not the reason for the CABB degradation. In addition, despite the larger polarization field, $SnO₂-0.05/ZnO-NRs$ exhibit a poorer NO₂ gas response than $SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$ after the CABB coating. It is possible that the SnO_2 interconnected bridges among the ZnO nanorods in the $SnO₂-0.05/ZnO-NRs$ make the current not only along the ZnO-NRs, but also between the NRs, which reduces the gas response.

Fig. 8. (a) A representative amplitude by PFM versus applied bias voltage curve; (b) phase-voltage hysteresis loop versus applied bias voltage curve; (c-e) PFM images of domain structures ZnO-NRs, SnO₂/ZnO-NRs and SnO₂-0.05/ZnO-NRs films.

In order to understand the impact of the incorporated $SnO₂$ layer on the stability of CABB and its improved gas sensing performance, the energy band structures of ZnO-NRs, $SnO₂$ and CABB are established by considering the optical band gap (Fig. 4), the valence band edge (Fig. S5) and the work functions [29, 36, 37] of distinct layers presented in Fig. S6. The band structures for the CABB/ZnO-NRs and the $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ hetrojunction are established by aligning individual ones with the Fermi level, as shown in Fig. 9(a) and Fig. 9(b). At the interface between CABB and ZnO-NRs, a straddling gap (type I) structure is evident, indicating the migration of

both electron and holes from ZnO to CABB. This leads to a strong redox reaction on the CABB surface, rendering it prone to decomposition, akin to the photo-corrosion of CdS $[38, 39]$. Inserting a layer of $SnO₂$ between ZnO-NRs and CABB introduces a step in the conduction band (CB) of $SnO₂$, facilitating the smooth electron transfer from ZnO to CABB and the accumulation of charges at the CABB. In contrast, the valence band (VB) of SnO₂ effectively hinders the migration of holes from ZnO-NRs to CABB, preventing the redox reaction and notably enhancing the stability of the CABB layer. The mechanism of the gas sensing can be understood based on the aforementioned analysis, attributed to the enhancement of the polarization electric field on the CABB surface promoting gas absorption. All the three layers, ZnO , $SnO₂$ and $CABB$, exhibit N-type semiconductor properties. Upon exposure to the ambient air, oxygen molecules seize electrons in the semiconductor's conduction band, forming adsorbed oxygen negative ions (O_2) , and consequently creating a depletion layer on the semiconductor surface. According to the energy band structure (Fig. $9(b)$), the depleting layer exists not only at the surface but also at the interface between different layers. In the $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ structure, a higher density of $O₂$ is formed on the CABB compared to $SnO_2/ZnO-NRs$, as more electrons accumulate on the former. NO₂, with a higher oxidization ability, is easily to replace the chemically adsorbed O_2 on the surface, resulting in more electrons transferring toward $NO₂$ molecules and the formation of chemically adsorbed NO₂. This increases the width of the depletion layers at the CABB/air, $CABB/SnO₂$ and $SnO₂/ZnO$ interfaces, thus significantly enhancing the sensor resistance (Fig. 9(c)). Upon removal from the $NO₂$ environment, $NO₂$

dissociates from the surface by the driving of concentration gradient, releasing electrons back into the conduction band. Oxygen around occupies the $NO₂$ sites again, resulting in a decrease in the resistance of the composite film. The corresponding reaction equations are present below [27]:

$$
O_{2(\text{air})} \rightarrow O_{2(\text{ads})}
$$
(1)

$$
O_{2(\text{ads})} + e^{-} \rightarrow O_{2(\text{ads})}^{-}
$$
(2)

$$
NO_{2} + e^{-} \rightarrow NO_{2}^{-}
$$
(3)

$$
NO_{2} + O_{2(\text{ads})}^{-} \rightarrow NO_{2}^{-} + O_{2}
$$
(4)

The polarization electric field provides the required energy for the O_2 and NO_2 to extract electrons from the CABB and enhances the chemically adsorption on the surface. The inserted SnO2 layer allows only electrons to transfer to the CABB, increasing the carrier concentration, and promoting the migration speed, thus improving gas adsorption and desorption rates and enhancing the sensing response and speed.

In addition, it has been reported that Ag and Br ions are prone to migrate vacancymediated in the CABB, leaving more defects on the surface [30]. The state of surface defects may change or redistribute when a high concentration of $NO₂$ is adsorbed on the surface. This requires higher activation energy for $NO₂$ dissociation from the surface, reducing the rate of $NO₂$ dissociation. The residue amount of $NO₂$ on the surface increases as the concentration increases, boosting the recovered resistance to a level higher than the initial value and resulting in the baseline fluctuation at high concentration. It is possible to passive the CABB surface by N-heterocyclic amines [40], reducing the formation of vacancies and thus suppressing the baseline fluctuation.

Fig. 9. (a) Schematic of energy alignment diagram of (a) CABB/ZnO-NRs and (b) $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$; (c) The schematic illustration showing the mechanism of gas sensing.

5. Conclusions

We developed a sensor to detect $NO₂$ using a lead-free perovskite-based CABB/SnO2/ZnO-NRs system. It was found that CABB is unstable and prone to decomposition on the ZnO-NRs due to the migration of both electrons and holes to CABB, resulting in a robust redox reaction. To address this issue, a $SnO₂$ layer was spin-coated at the interfaces of ZnO-NRs and CABB perovskite layer, serving as an effective hole-blocking layer that significantly improved the stability of the CABB and, consequently, the performance of the sensor device. Furthermore, the $SnO₂$ coating on ZnO-NRs enhances the polarization effect, effectively promoting the chemical adsorption rate and significantly improving the sensing performance. The optimized $CABB/SnO₂/ZnO-NRs$ sensor demonstrates superior gas-sensing capabilities with high response and rapid response/recovery speed across the entire concentration range. Remarkably, it can work at room temperature without additional heat or light assistance. This innovative approach can pave the way for the development of lead-free perovskitebased devices for various sensing applications, contributing to environmental monitoring.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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