

# Highly sensitive acetone sensor based on Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> electrospun nanofibers



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## ABSTRACT

In this study, a series of undoped and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers were synthesized via a simple electrospinning technique and subsequent calcination treatment. Field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) were carefully used to characterize the morphologies, structures and chemical compositions of these samples. The results reveal that the as-prepared nanofibers are composed of crystallite grains with an average size of about 10 nm and Eu<sup>3+</sup> ions are successfully doped into the SnO<sub>2</sub> lattice. Compared with pure SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers, Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers demonstrate significantly enhanced sensing characteristics (e.g., large response value, short response/recovery time and outstanding selectivity) toward acetone vapor, especially, the optimal sensor based on 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers shows the highest response (32.2 for 100 ppm), which is two times higher than that of the pure SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor at an operating temperature of 280 °C. In addition, the sensor exhibits a good sensitivity to acetone in sub-ppm concentrations and the detection limit could extend down to 0.3 ppm, making it a potential candidate for the breath diagnosis of diabetes.

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## 1. Introduction

In recent years, with increasing concerns about environmental safety and human health, the detection of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) has become an urgent task all over the world. An excessive concentration of VOCs may cause air pollution, explosion and even poisoning without timely monitoring and feedback [1]. As a common reagent in industries and labs, acetone has been widely used to purify paraffin, dissolve plastic and dehydrate tissues in pharmaceuticals [2]. This volatile compound has anesthetic effects on the central nerve system, and acetone inhalation will cause damage to kidney, liver and pancreas [3]. Furthermore, the acetone level in human breath can serve as a key biomarker for type-1 diabetes. As reported by clinical data, the mean concentration of the exhaled acetone from a healthy individual is 0.3–0.8 ppm, while that from a diabetic patient is found to exceed 1.8 ppm [4,5]. Therefore, it is of great necessity to develop a high-performance acetone sensor for environmental protection and healthcare purposes.

Gas sensors based on semiconducting metal oxides play an important role in the detection of inflammable and toxic gases because of their on-site and real-time gas monitoring [6–9]. SnO<sub>2</sub>,

a well-known n-type semiconductor with a wide band gap of 3.6 eV, has been proven to be an ideal sensing material to both reducing and oxidizing gases owing to its high response, low cost and nontoxicity [10]. In general, the gas-sensing mechanism of semiconducting oxides lies on the reaction between target molecules and adsorbed oxygen species, which is determined by the active sites and defects existing on the surface layer. Hence, morphology and structure are key factors in the gas-sensing process [11,12]. Taking advantages of small size, high density of sensing sites and large specific surface area, one-dimensional (1D) SnO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures with various morphologies have been developed for the acetone-sensing application, including nanorods [13], nanowires [14], nanosheets [15], nanotubes [16] and nanofibers [17]. In terms of the construction of 1D metal-oxide nanostructures, electrospinning is recognized as a convenient method to produce oxide nanofibers which are long in length, exceptionally uniform in diameter and diversified in composition [18]. The large surface-to-volume ratio of electrospun nanofibers can greatly facilitate the conversion of gas recognition into electric signals, resulting in an attractive sensing behavior for fabricating novel gas sensors. Doping with an extrinsic metal ion is another effective way to improve the gas-sensing performance of metal-oxide-semiconductors. Rare earth oxides, such as La<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [19], Sm<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [20] and CeO<sub>2</sub> [21], can serve as sensitizers to increase the amount of active centers on the surface of sensing materials due to their fast oxygen ion mobility and excellent catalytic properties. As one of the rare

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earth oxides,  $\text{Eu}_2\text{O}_3$  with good thermal stability and strong surface basicity offers opportunities to improve the acetone-sensing performance of 1D  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanomaterials [22]. Most researchers tend to explore the influences of Eu doping on photoluminescence and magnetic properties [23,24]. However, to the best of our knowledge, no attention has yet been focused on the effects of Eu introduction upon the acetone-sensing behavior of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers.

In this work, we adopted a facile electrospinning route followed by calcination to prepare Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers. This simple strategy could be extended to the fabrication of similar metal-oxide doped nanofibers using different precursors. For comparison, pristine  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers and Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers with different Eu doping levels were prepared using the same raw materials under identical conditions. The acetone-sensing properties of obtained nanofibers were investigated in detail. Finally, the sensing mechanism was also discussed in this paper.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Chemical reagents

Ethanol and N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF) were purchased from Beijing Chemical Co. Ltd. Tin(II) chloride dihydrate ( $\text{SnCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), Europium(III) nitrate hexahydrate ( $\text{Eu}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) and polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP, Mw=1,300,000) were acquired from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd. All the reagents were analytical grade and used as received without any further purification.

### 2.2. Preparation of pristine and Eu-doped $\text{SnO}_2$ nanofibers

In a typical procedure, 0.4 g  $\text{SnCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was dissolved in a solvent mixture of ethanol (4.4 g) and DMF (4.4 g) under magnetic stirring for 30 min. Subsequently, 0.8 g PVP and a suitable amount of  $\text{Eu}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  were added into the above-mentioned mixture. After vigorous stirring for 6 h at room temperature, a homogeneous and clear precursor solution was formed. The viscous precursor solution was then transferred into a glass syringe connected to a high-voltage supply. The electrospinning process was conducted in the ambient atmosphere with a relatively low humidity in order to guarantee the sufficient evaporation of the solvent from jet flow. A direct-current voltage (15 kV) was provided between the syringe needle and the aluminum foil collector at a distance of 20 cm. Finally, the electrospun nanofibers were peeled off from the collector and placed in a crucible. Calcination with a defined heating program was performed at 600 °C for 5 h in air to remove the organic component of PVP and crystallize  $\text{SnO}_2$ . Pristine  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers were prepared following the same procedure except the addition of Eu element.

### 2.3. Fabrication and measurement of gas sensors

The calcined nanofibers were mixed with several drops of deionized water to form a dilute slurry. The slurry was spin-coated onto a ceramic tube on which a pair of gold electrodes was previously printed. A Ni-Cr heating wire was inserted into the tube to form a side-heated gas sensor. Before the first measurement, all the sensors were dried for 2 days at room temperature and then aged at 200 °C for 12 h. Fig. 1 shows the schematic picture of the sensor device along with the measuring electric circuit.  $V_H$  is the heating voltage,  $V_{\text{test}}$  is the total voltage applied to the sensor resistance  $R_S$  and load resistance  $R_L$ ,  $V_L$  is the output voltage across  $R_L$ . The sensor resistance  $R_S$  can be obtained using  $R = R_L \cdot (V_{\text{test}} - V_L) / V_L$ . Gas-sensing properties were measured by CGS-8 intelligent test system (Beijing Elite Tech Co. Ltd., China) under laboratory

conditions (25 °C, 60 RH%). Atmospheric air was used as the referenced and dilute gas. The resistance change of sensor devices was recorded when exposure to the target gas at a certain operating temperature. The sensor response is defined as the ratio  $R_a/R_g$ , where  $R_a$  is the sensor resistance in air, and  $R_g$  is the sensor resistance in the presence of test gas [25]. The time taken by the sensor to reach 90% of the final equilibrium response value is defined as the response time in the case of adsorption, or the recovery time in the case of desorption [26].

### 2.4. Characterization

The morphologies of specimens were observed using field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, FEI Nova NanoSEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Hitachi S-570). X-Ray diffraction (XRD, PANalytical B.V. Empyrean, with a  $\text{CuK}\alpha$  radiation) was applied to examine the crystal structures. The chemical compositions of samples were analyzed through X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, ESCALAB250 using Al as the exciting source).

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Morphological and structural characteristics

Fig. 2(a–d) display the SEM images of Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers with different molar ratios (0 mol%, 1 mol%, 2 mol% and 3 mol%) of Eu. It can be observed that the fibrous network structures are well maintained after calcination, and all the fibers are long, continuous and randomly oriented. The high aspect ratio of nanofibers provides effective ways for electron transport during the gas-sensing process. The morphologies of all synthesized samples were further confirmed by TEM. As shown in Fig. 2(a'–d'), the as-synthesized nanofibers are composed of nanocrystals and rough on surface. The rough surface can increase the contact area between the test gas and active sites. Simultaneously, the micro-scaled pores between adjacent nanofibers and nano-scaled pores among agglomerated grains favor the absorption and diffusion of target molecules. According to the statistics given in Fig. 2(a'–d'), the average diameters of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$ , 1 mol%, 2 mol% and 3 mol% Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers are approximately 113, 108, 103 and 100 nm, respectively. Compared to pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers, the diameters of Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers gradually decrease with the increase of Eu content because of the increasing electric charge of precursor solution with totally ionization of  $\text{Eu}(\text{NO}_3)_3$  [27].

XRD patterns are shown in Fig. 3(a) to validate the crystal structures of final products. All the diffraction peaks can be perfectly indexed to the tetragonal rutile structure of  $\text{SnO}_2$  (JCPDS No. 41-1445), and no impure phases corresponding to Eu relative compounds are detected. To investigate the effects of Eu doping on the  $\text{SnO}_2$  crystal structure, we magnify the (110) and (101) peaks. From the high-resolution image (Fig. 3(b)), it can be clearly seen that the peaks of Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers shift slightly to a lower angle compared with those of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers, indicating that  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions are incorporated into the  $\text{SnO}_2$  lattice and occupy the tetragonal  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  cation sites of rutile  $\text{SnO}_2$  [28]. When the doping level is further increased to 3 mol%, the (110) and (101) peaks recover to a high angle again, implying the saturation of  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  substitution in the  $\text{SnO}_2$  lattice [29]. Moreover, the major diffraction peaks of Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers become weak and broaden, suggesting that the Eu dopant can suppress the growth of large  $\text{SnO}_2$  crystallites [30]. Table 1 gives the information about the lattice constants of Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers obtained from XRD data and crystallite sizes calculated using the Scherrer formula. It is found that the lattice constants (a and c) of  $\text{SnO}_2$  increase with

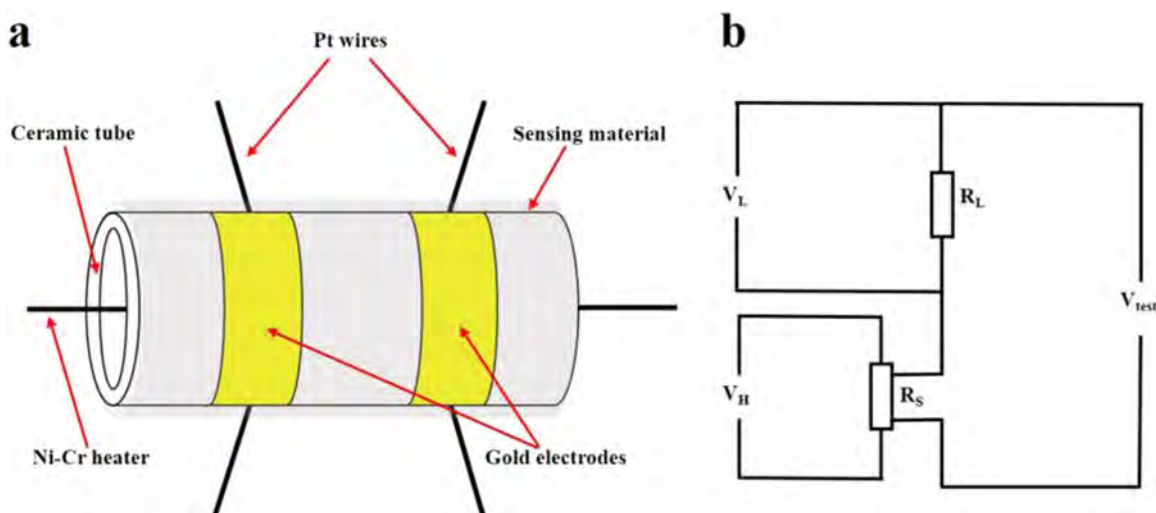


Fig. 1. Schematic picture of (a) the gas sensor and (b) corresponding electric circuit.

increasing Eu concentration. As the ionic radius of  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  (0.947 Å) is bigger than that of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  (0.69 Å), the replacement of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  by  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  would increase the cell volume. The average crystallite sizes of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$ , 1 mol%, 2 mol% and 3 mol% Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers are 12.0 nm, 11.5 nm, 8.8 nm and 9.8 nm, respectively. The reduction in the crystallite size of  $\text{SnO}_2$  by Eu doping allows more active sites on the surface. These results reveal that Eu doping can cause the lattice distortion of  $\text{SnO}_2$  and inhibit the growth of  $\text{SnO}_2$  crystallites [31].

### 3.2. XPS analysis

XPS analysis was carried out to illuminate the surface composition and chemical state of the element. Fig. 4(a) shows the XPS survey spectrum of 2 mol% Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers, and the energy scale is calibrated with the C 1s peak of adventitious carbon at 284.6 eV. For Sn element (Fig. 4(b)), two symmetric peaks are detected at 486.5 eV and 495.0 eV, which are assigned to  $\text{Sn}3d_{5/2}$  and  $\text{Sn}3d_{3/2}$ . The energy gap (8.5 eV) between doublet binding energies is in agreement with the standard value [32]. The high-resolution XPS spectrum of Eu 3d is shown in Fig. 4(c). The Eu  $3d_{5/2}$  peak centered at 1135.4 eV and Eu  $3d_{3/2}$  peak centered at 1165.4 eV is ascribed to  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  in  $\text{Eu}_2\text{O}_3$ . The energy difference between two peaks is estimated to be 30.0 eV, which is very closed to the value reported in the standard spectrum of Eu 3d [33]. In contrast to the standard binding energies of Eu  $3d_{5/2}$  (1126.0 eV) and Eu  $3d_{3/2}$  (1155.0 eV), red shifts of 9.4 eV and 10.4 eV are observed for the binding energies of the Eu  $3d_{5/2}$  and Eu  $3d_{3/2}$  peaks in Fig. 4(c), respectively. It reveals that the Eu-O distance in Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  is different from that in pure  $\text{Eu}_2\text{O}_3$  [34]. In other words, the Y-O bond length has changed due to the  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  incorporation into the  $\text{SnO}_2$  lattice, which is consistent with the XRD result. The inset in Fig. 4(d) is the O 1s spectrum of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$ . It can be deconvoluted into two gaussian components, a low binding energy (530.8 eV) attributed to the  $\text{O}^{2-}$  ions ( $\text{O}_L$ ) in the  $\text{SnO}_2$  lattice, and a high binding energy (532.0 eV) associated with the  $\text{O}^{2-}$  ions ( $\text{O}_V$ ) in oxygen-deficient regions within the  $\text{SnO}_2$  matrix [35]. However, the O 1s peak of 2 mol% Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  in Fig. 4(d) is asymmetrical with an obvious shoulder. It can be deconvoluted into three gaussian components located at 530.6 eV, 531.7 eV and 532.7 eV, respectively. The two low binding energies are in accordance with those of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$ , and the highest binding energy at 532.7 eV is originated from the chemisorbed and dissociated oxygen species ( $\text{O}_C$ ) on the surface of Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers [36]. The  $\text{O}_C$  component of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  is not detected, suggesting

that Eu doping increases the amount of chemisorbed oxygen. The gas-sensing properties are closely related to the chemisorbed oxygen species [37], thus the high percentage of  $\text{O}_C$  component (12.81%) implies a high response of Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers.

### 3.3. Acetone-sensing properties

In order to determine the optimal operating temperature for acetone detection, a series of experiments were performed at different temperatures. Fig. 5 presents the dependence of sensor response on the operating temperature. For the pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  sensor, the response to 100 ppm acetone increases markedly and reaches its maximum value at the operating temperature of 300 °C, and then decreases with further increasing the operating temperature. A similar trend is observed in the case of the sensors based on Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers, and the maximum responses appear at 280 °C. This phenomenon can be explained from the kinetics and thermodynamics of gas adsorption and desorption on the surface of  $\text{SnO}_2$ . At a low operating temperature, the acetone molecules are not active enough to overcome the activation energy barrier to react with the adsorbed oxygen species. When the operating temperature is too high, a few gas molecules may escape away before the reaction due to their risen activation energies [38,39]. Additionally, all Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers are more sensitive than pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers, and the optimal doping ratio of  $\text{Eu}/(\text{Eu}+\text{Sn})$  is 2 mol%. In the following tests, 280 °C was selected as the optimal operating temperature.

The response and recovery behavior is an important parameter to evaluate whether the sensor can rapidly monitor the target molecules in time. Fig. 6(a) depicts the response and recovery characteristics of pure and Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers against 100 ppm acetone at 280 °C. The responses of both sensors increase immediately after the test gas is injected, and then recover to the initial baselines sharply when exposure to fresh air. Although the response value of  $\text{SnO}_2$  is greatly enhanced by doping Eu, the response and recovery time does not increase. For the 2 mol% Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  acetone sensor, the response and recovery time is about 4 s and 3 s. The rapid response and recovery behavior is attributed to the 1D nanostructure, which can promote the transfer of acetone molecules to the interaction regions and raise the rate for charge carriers to traverse the barrier induced by gas recognition along the fiber [40]. It is also noteworthy that the response and recovery characteristics based on Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers are reversible and repeatable, as shown in Fig. 6(b).

To further investigate the sensitivities of fabricated sensors, the



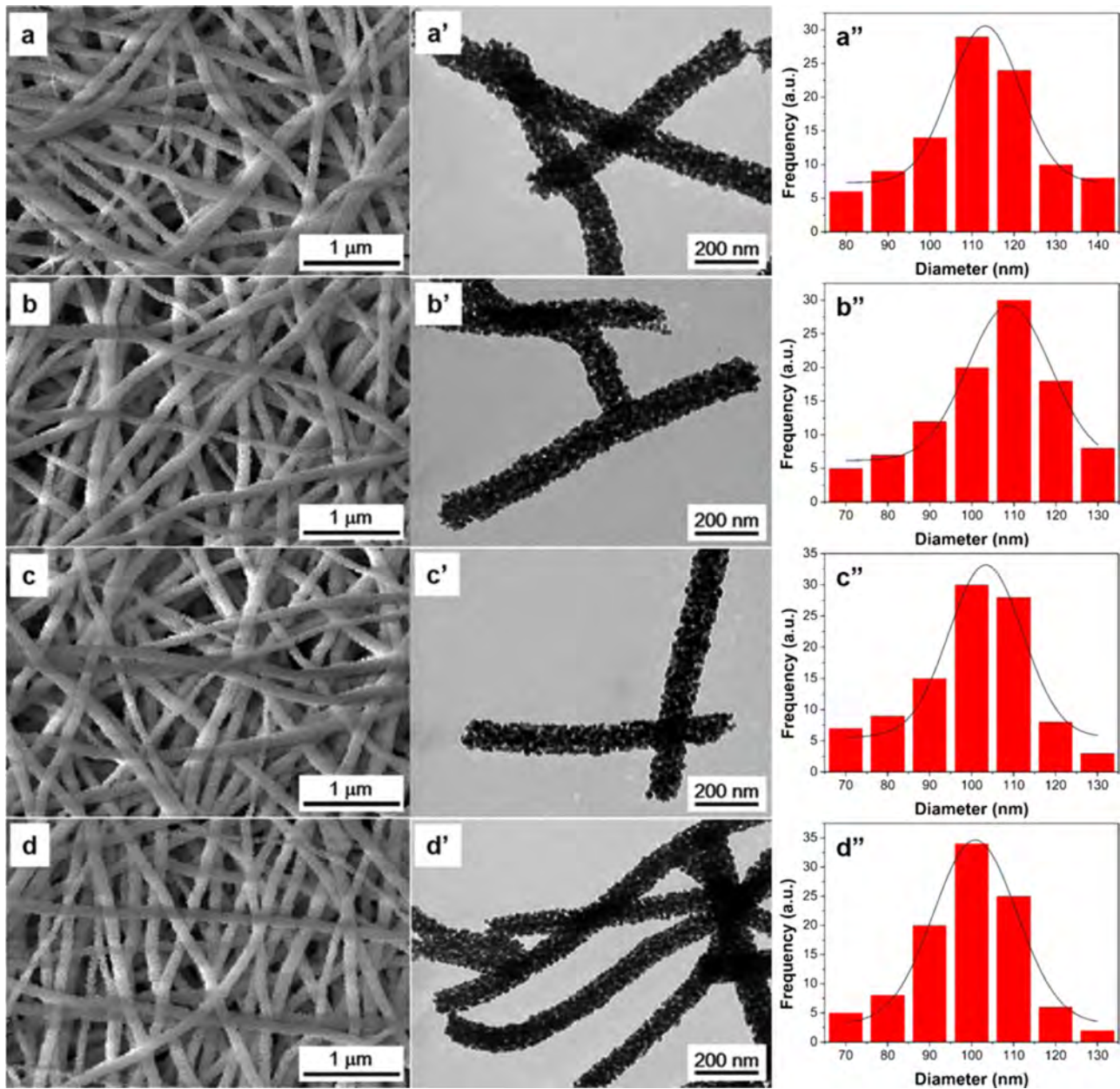


Fig. 2. SEM images, TEM images and diameter distributions of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers (a, a', a''), 1 mol% Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers (b, b', b''), 2 mol% Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers (c, c', c'') and 3 mol% Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers (d, d', d'').

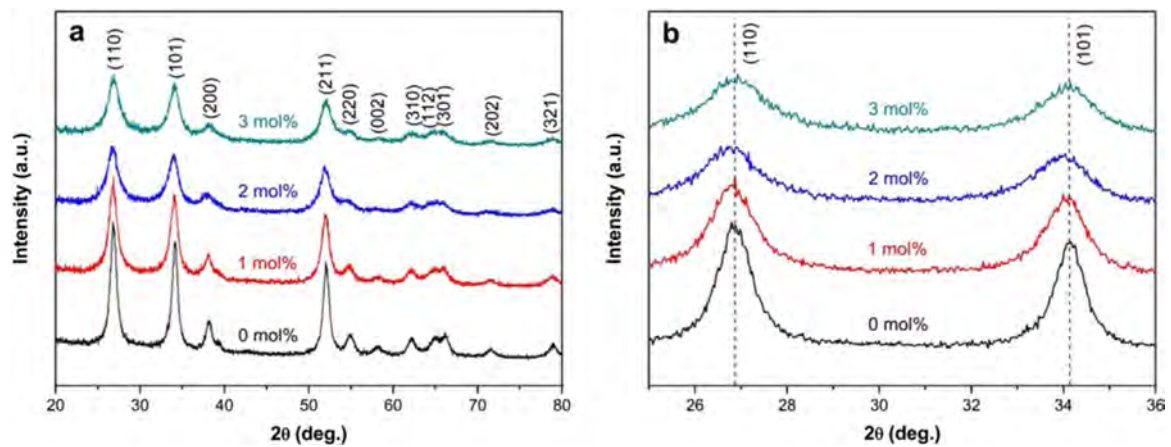


Fig. 3. (a) XRD patterns of pure and Eu-doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanofibers. (b) high-resolution image of (110) and (101) peaks.

**Table 1**

A list of the lattice constants, cell volumes and crystallite sizes of pure and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers.

Specimen	Lattice constant a=b (Å)	Lattice constant c (Å)	Cell volume (Å <sup>3</sup> )	crystallite size (nm)
0 mol%	4.7219	3.1750	70.79	12.0
1 mol%	4.7268	3.1819	71.09	11.5
2 mol%	4.7271	3.1831	71.13	8.8
3 mol%	4.7285	3.1888	71.30	9.8

responses of pure and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers versus different acetone concentrations at the optimal temperature are illustrated in Fig. 7(a). In the range of 10–500 ppm, the responses increase linearly with the increase of acetone concentration. Above 1000 ppm, the increasing rate of response slows down with further increasing acetone concentration, indicating that the sensors become more or less saturated. As for the pure SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor, its response can reach saturation at about 2000 ppm, confirming that no more active sites are available to react with new acetone molecules. However, for the sensors based on Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers, the responses are far from fully saturation even increasing acetone concentration up to 5000 ppm, indicating the acetone-sensing enhancement of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers with Eu additive. It is also evident that 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers exhibit a much higher sensitivity than pure SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers and other Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers in the whole detecting range. Fig. 7(b) shows the linear calibration curves in the range of 10–500 ppm. According to the conductance model of semiconducting-oxide sensors, the response can be empirically represented by the following equation [41]:

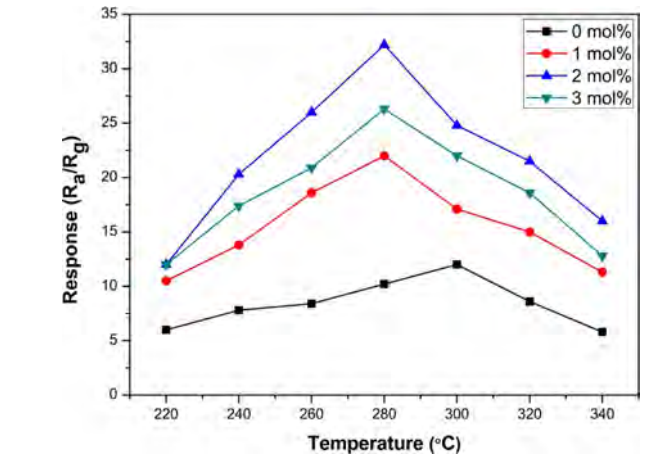


Fig. 5. Responses of pure and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers to 100 ppm acetone as a function of operating temperature.

$$S_g = a[C_g]^b + 1 \quad (1)$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants,  $S_g$  is the response value, and  $C_g$  is the concentration of test gas. The value of  $b$  is usually 0.5 or 1, depending on the charge species and stoichiometry of surface reactions. For  $b$  is around 0.5, the absorbed oxygen ions are O<sup>2-</sup>, and for  $b$  is around 1, the absorbed oxygen ions are O<sup>-</sup> [42]. The  $b$  values of both sensors are closer to 0.5, suggesting that the absorbed oxygen ions are mainly O<sup>2-</sup>. For the detection of trace acetone, the response curve based on 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers can be divided into two regions as shown in Fig. 8. It is

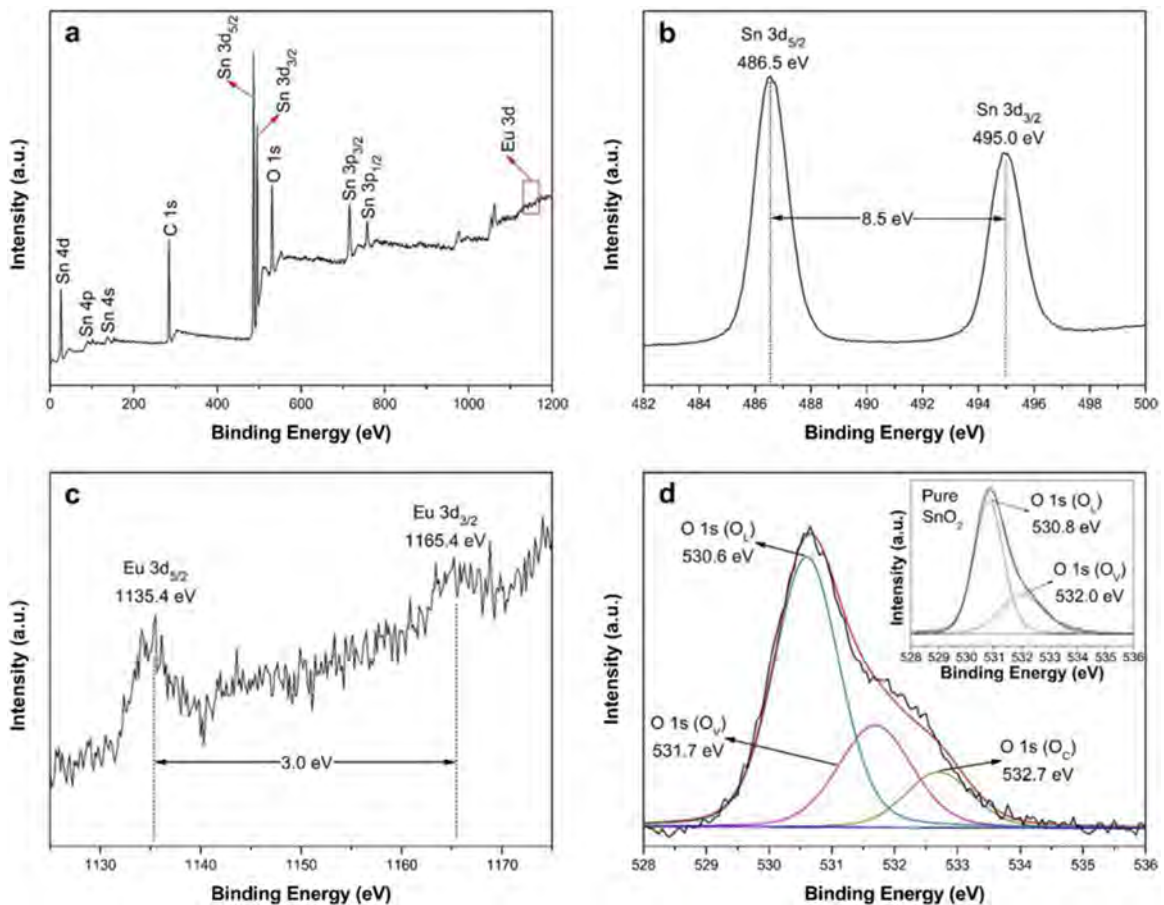


Fig. 4. XPS spectra of 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers, (a) survey spectrum and high-resolution spectra for (b) Sn3d, (c) Eu 3d and (d) O1s.

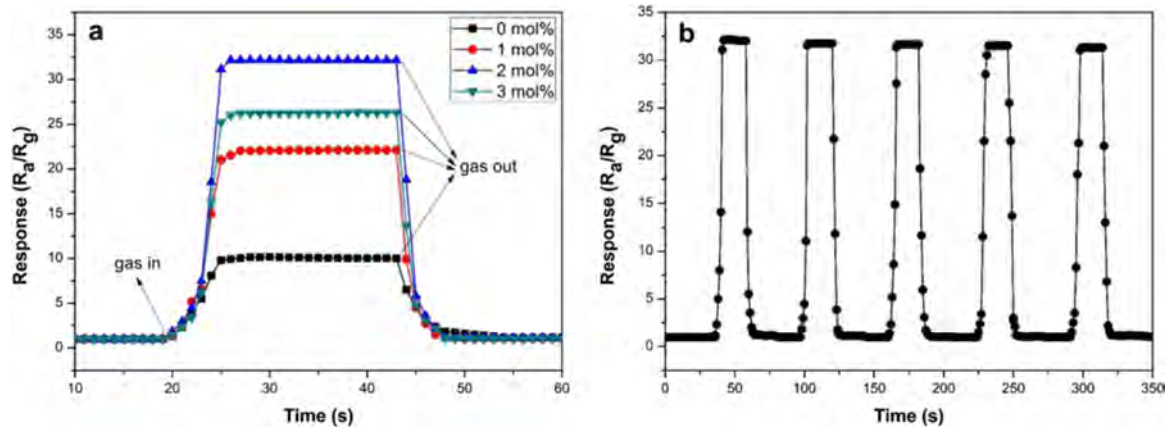


Fig. 6. (a) Dynamic response-recovery curves of pure and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers against 100 ppm acetone. (b) Five periods of the response-recovery curve based on 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers.

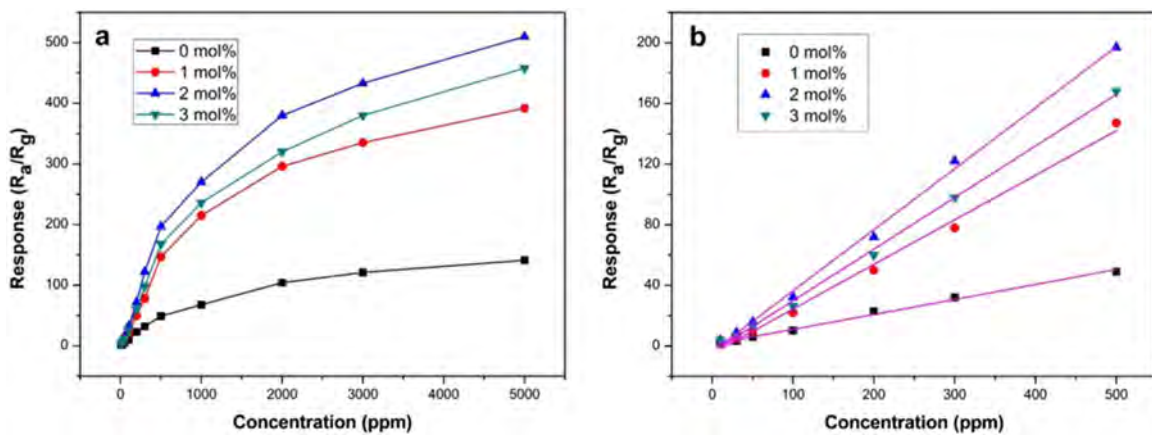


Fig. 7. (a) Responses of pure and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers versus acetone concentration. (b) The calibration curves in the range of 10–500 ppm.

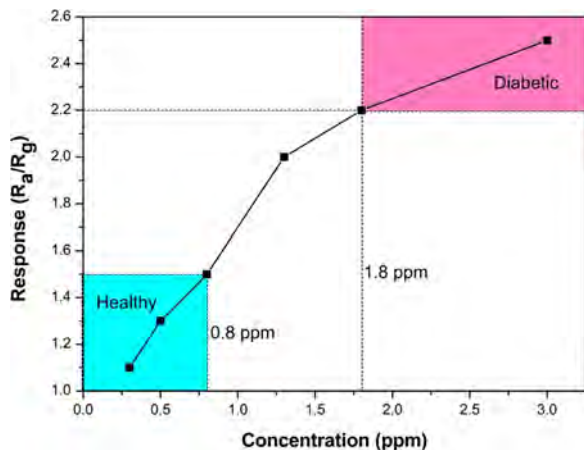


Fig. 8. Response of the 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor in sub-ppm concentrations.

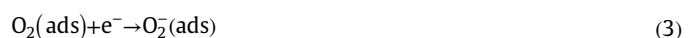
found that the acetone response of the optimal sensor is below 1.5 for healthy humans (<0.8 ppm) and above 2.2 for diabetic patients (>1.8 ppm). This 46.7% response increase may allow the reliable diagnosis of diabetes by analyzing breath acetone.

The cross-selectivity is also an important parameter to evaluate the gas-sensing properties. Fig. 9(a) displays the responses of pure and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers to 100 ppm of six gases, including acetone, ethanol, methanol, acetic acid, DMF and ammonia. It is noticed that the sensors based on Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers, especially the 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor, possess a much higher response to acetone than other gases compared with the

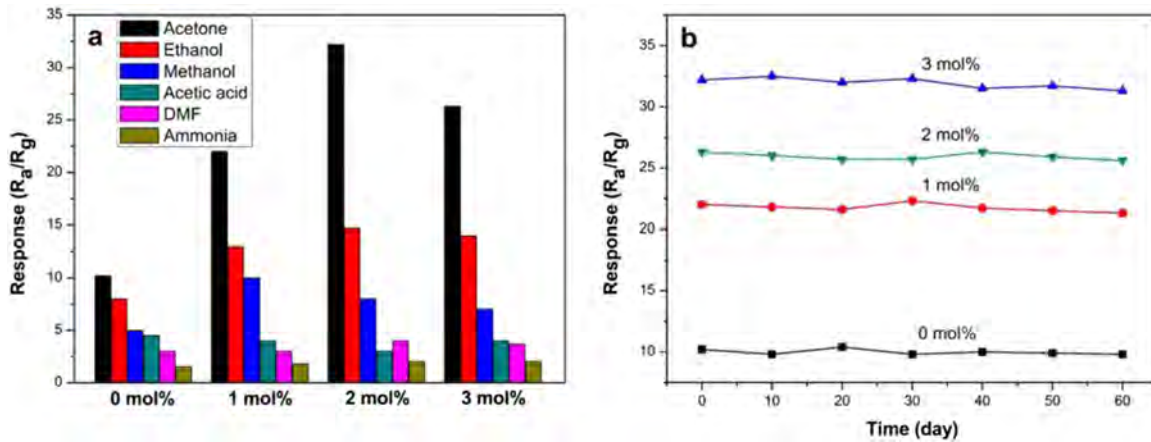
pure SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor. The results reveal that the sensor based on 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers has an excellent discriminative ability to acetone. To research the long-time stability of fabricated sensors, the responses against 100 ppm acetone at 280 °C were repeatedly measured every 10 days. As shown in Fig. 9(b), all the sensors exhibit nearly constant signals in 60 days, implying the superior stability of these sensors.

### 3.4. Gas-sensing mechanism

In general, the gas-sensing mechanism of n-type semi-conducting metal oxides is based on the change in resistance, which is caused by the absorption and desorption of oxygen molecules on the surface of metal oxides [43]. When Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers are exposed to air, oxygen molecules are absorbed on the surface of nanofibers, capturing electrons from the conduction band of SnO<sub>2</sub> to form chemisorbed oxygen species. An electron depletion layer will be generated on the surface during this process, leading to an increase of resistance. The formation of chemisorbed oxygen species can be described as follows:

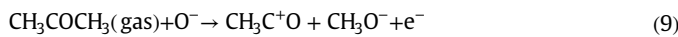
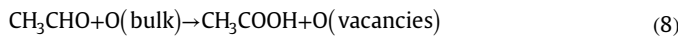
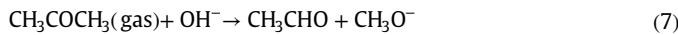
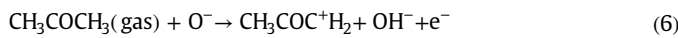






**Fig. 9.** (a) Responses of pure and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers to 100 ppm of acetone, ethanol, methanol, acetic acid, DMF and ammonia. (b) Stability measurement of pure and Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers.

When the nanofibers are exposed to acetone, the ionized oxygen species will react with acetone molecules and release electrons back to the conduction band. These released electrons increase the electron concentration and result in a decreased resistance. The reactions can be described by the following equations [44,45]:



According to the above mechanism, it can be concluded that the specific surface area of gas-sensing materials plays an important role in the enhancement of response. The high length-to-diameter ratio and net-like structure of 1D SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers can enhance the absorption of target gas molecules, leading to a high response value [46].

The improved acetone-sensing performance of Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers is mainly attributed to the increase of absorbed oxygen species. When Eu<sup>3+</sup> ions diffuse into the SnO<sub>2</sub> lattice and substitute Sn<sup>4+</sup> ions, the mismatch in ionic radius between Eu<sup>3+</sup> (0.947 Å) and Sn<sup>4+</sup> (0.69 Å) will result in the lattice distortion and defects. Oxygen vacancies are generated during the release of lattice distortion energy, and this process can be represented by the Kröger-Vink notations [47,48]:



To restore the stoichiometry of metal oxides, oxygen vacancies will absorb atmospheric oxygen. It has been reported that the adsorption energy of target gas on the oxygen-vacancy site is 3 times larger than that on the perfect site [49]. That means the oxygen vacancies on the surface of SnO<sub>2</sub> can act as electron donors, which is very helpful to adsorbing oxygen molecules. Consequently, a large number of electrons are captured in air and released in acetone atmosphere, leading to a higher response. Moreover, the substitution of Sn<sup>4+</sup> by Eu<sup>3+</sup> will induce holes, resulting in a decrease in electron concentration [50]. Thus the

resistance of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers increase by Eu doping. In our experiments, the resistance of SnO<sub>2</sub> sensor is increased from 346 kΩ to 1.02 MΩ after adding 2 mol% Eu, which will eventually contribute to the acetone-sensing improvement.

The catalytic activity of rare earth oxides is another considerable factor for the acetone-sensing enhancement. When Eu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, an alkalescent metal oxide, is introduced into the SnO<sub>2</sub> system, a basic surface can be constructed. According to Eq. (7), the basic surface can not only enhance the catalytic activity for the dehydrogenation of acetone gas to CH<sub>3</sub>CHO, but also that for the consecutive oxidation of CH<sub>3</sub>CHO to CO<sub>2</sub> [51]. That is to say, Eu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> can accelerate the reactions between acetone molecules and adsorbed oxygen species to release electrons to the conduction band, resulting in an enhanced response. However, when the doping level is higher than 2 mol%, the response begins to decrease. This is because redundant Eu<sup>3+</sup> will be expelled from the SnO<sub>2</sub> crystal and form many clusters such as Eu-Eu or Eu-O, reducing the electric transduction of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers [52]. Furthermore, acetone molecules will be burned on Eu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> clusters and transform into CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O without creating any electric signals [53,54], so 2 mol% is the optimal doping ratio.

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers with different molar ratios have been synthesized by simple electrospinning and calcination procedure. In comparison with pure SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers, large response value (32.2 for 100 ppm), short response/recovery time (4 s/3 s for 100 ppm), low detection limit (0.3 ppm) and good selectivity were simultaneously observed for 2 mol% Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers at 280 °C when utilized for acetone sensing. These enhanced acetone-sensing properties are attributed to the increase of absorbed oxygen species achieved by Eu doping and catalytic activity of Eu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The results obtained in this paper indicate that Eu-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers are promising for high-performance acetone sensors.

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