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Ultrasensitive Detection of Xylene Gas by Cauliflower-like Au-TiO₂ Core-Shell Nanoparticles

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Abstract

TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs) and Au-TiO₂ core-shell NPs (C-S NPs) were synthesized for xylene gas detection. Morphological, phase, and chemical studies demonstrated the successful generation of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs with a cauliflower-like morphology and desired composition. Also, the surface area of TiO₂ NPs was 8.46, which increased to 23.88 m²/g for Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs, due to the creation of a porous TiO₂ shell around the Au core. The response of the TiO₂ NPs to 50 ppm xylene was 14.19 at 500°C, while it increased to 165.77 at a lower temperature (450°C). Furthermore, while the TiO₂ NPs gas sensor has no selectivity to xylene gas, the TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensor exhibited excellent selectivity. Overall, incorporation of Au in TiO₂ in the form of a C-S structure improved the performance of the sensor to sense xylene. Improved xylene sensing for the TiO₂ C-S NPs stemmed from the high surface area and porous nature, oxygen defects, and formation of Au-TiO₂ Schottky barriers. This research demonstrates the development of high-output xylene sensors by means of Au-TiO₂ with a C-S structure.

Keywords: Xylene; Au-TiO₂; Core-shell; Gas sensor; Selectivity; Sensing mechanism.

1. Introduction

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are highly volatile in nature at room temperature (20°C) and 1 atm [1]. Benzene (C₆H₆), toluene (C₇H₈), and xylene (C₈H₁₀), collectively known as BTX, are among the most common VOCs and are generally found in petroleum products [2,3]. Among the three isomers of xylene (meta(*m*), ortho (*o*), and para (*p*)) [4], *p*-xylene, which is a flammable and colorless liquid, comprises ~86 vol% of the overall consumption of xylene. *p*-xylene is utilized in a cleaning agent, solvent, and starting material for synthesis of terephthalic acid used in the synthesis of polyester fibers and resins [5,6].

However, xylene is considered a pollutant and toxic VOC [7]. Inhaling xylene vapors causes irritation of the throat and nose as well as difficulty in breathing. Neural toxicity includes slight inebriation, headaches, dizziness, irritability, vertigo, staggering, and unconsciousness. Furthermore, it can negatively affect the kidneys, liver, and central nervous system. Renal toxicity effects include nausea, abdominal pain, and vomiting [8]. Furthermore, xylene is a biomarker for fast detection of prostate cancer [9]. Therefore, detection of xylene is of importance in multiple aspects.

Even though traditional approaches like gas chromatography and ion/mass spectrometry techniques may be used for detection of VOCs, in general, they need complicated and tedious pre-treatment procedures. Furthermore, they are not portable and consume high power [10]. Therefore, gas sensors with online response, portability, and high performance can be used for detection of VOCs including xylene. Among sensors, the resistive type is popular due to its quick response time (t_{res}) and recovery time (t_{rec}), high response, good stability, simplicity in manufacturing, and affordable price [11]. Generally, semiconducting metal oxides are employed for realization of

resistive sensors owing to simple synthesis, stable nature, low cost , and high mobility of charge carriers [12].

N-type TiO_2 is a wide band gap semiconductor that crystalizes in three phases: rutile, brookite, and anatase. Among them, rutile is the most stable [13]. With its transparency to visible light, strong oxidizing ability for decomposition of organic substances, good superhydrophilicity, high stability, nontoxicity, and low cost [14], TiO_2 is not only widely used in photocatalyst applications [15,16], but is also a promising sensing material [17]. However, in their pristine form, TiO_2 gas sensors have high sensing temperatures, low response, and poor selectivity [18]. Hence, various approaches such as p-n heterojunction [19,20], doping [21,22], decoration [23,24], and use of special morphologies like core-shell (C-S) structures [25,26] have suggested to boost the sensing characteristics of TiO_2 sensors including a decrease of sensing temperature, boosting of response, and selectivity enhancement.

In C-S structures, a thin layer of shell material is present around a core, and the interface area between the two materials is maximized [27]. For gas sensing applications, the two most widely used C-S structures are metal oxide-metal oxide [28,29] as well as noble metal-metal oxide [30] [31]. In particular, the use of the latter C-S structure is highly promising since it prevents direct contact of noble metals with one another due to the presence of an overlying thin shell. In fact, when noble metals are dispersed on metal oxides, they can be easily poisoned by sulfur-containing gases; in cases of poor dispersion or high concentration, these metals can provide conducting paths on the sensor surface and degrade the electrical properties [32].

Previously, Zhu *et al.* [33] reported Au- TiO_2 C-S for successful detection of ozone at room temperature (RT). Kim *et al.* [34] used Au- TiO_2 C-S for CO sensing at 600°C. Also, Park *et al.* [35] used Au- TiO_2 C-S for CO detection. Ag- TiO_2 C-S nanowires were used for detection of NH_3

gas [36]. Zhu *et al.* [37] used Au-TiO₂ C-S for RT sensing of ethanol gas. Liu *et al.* reported a lotus-like Au-TiO₂ sensor for enhanced CO gas sensing [38].

In general, noble metals in combination with metal oxides are used for detection of gases, mainly thanks to their high catalytic activity [39]. Even though Au has higher price relative to other noble metals, its catalytic activity towards p-xylene is already demonstrated in some previous literature [40-42]. However, no studies have been devoted to xylene sensing using an Au-TiO₂ C-S structure.

Motivated by the above, this study produced TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs) and Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs hydrothermally. The highest response of the TiO₂ NPs sensor to 50 ppm xylene was 14.19 at 500°C, while that for the Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs sensor was higher at 165.77 at a lower temperature (450°C). Besides, the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensor exhibited excellent selectivity to xylene, while the TiO₂ NP gas sensor did not. The boosted xylene detection capability of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP sensor was ascribed to its high surface area and porous nature, oxygen defects, and formation of Au-TiO₂ Schottky barriers.

2. Experimental Section

2.1. Chemicals

Gold (III) chloride trihydrate (HAuCl₄, 99.9% purity), titanium (IV) fluoride (TiF₄), and L-ascorbic acid (C₆H₈O₆, 98% purity) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Trisodium citrate dehydrate (Na₃C₆H₅O₇·2H₂O, 99.0% purity) was purchased from Alfa Aesar Co.

2.2. Synthesis of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs

Fig. 1 schematically depicts the production of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs. Initially, a HAuCl₄ solution (250 mL, 1 mM) was heated while stirring. Later on, the above solution was subjected to stirring again at 100°C for 5 min after the addition of a trisodium citrate solution (4.5 mL, 10 mM). Subsequently, the gradual introduction of substance ascorbic acid (0.01 M, 4 mL) into the solution above resulted in a transformation of color to purple. Then, TiF₄ (0.04 M, 6 mL) was added to the solution, and DI water was added to dilute the mixture to 80 mL. An autoclave was filled with this solution and processed at 180°C for 48 h. Then, the cooled solution was washed with DI water using centrifugation at 8,000 rpm for 15 min and was dried in an oven. For production of pristine TiO₂ NPs, the same procedure was employed without HAuCl₄.

2.3. Characterizations

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM; Hitachi S-4200,) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM; JEM-2100 F, JEOL) were used for morphological examination. The chemical composition exploration was carried out using Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) in TEM. To ascertain the powder phases, X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed with CuK_{α1} radiation ($\lambda = 0.15406$ nm) using a Bruker D8 Advance instrument. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area was obtained by N₂ adsorption-desorption analysis (Star II 3020, Micromeritics Instrument Corporation). To obtain information on the elemental chemical states, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS; Thermo Fisher Scientific) was conducted. Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS, Thermo Fisher Scientific) analysis in ultrahigh vacuum using HeI (h ν =21.2 eV) radiation was employed to calculate the work functions.

2.4. Gas sensing tests

A bi-layer (Au-Ti) electrode was sputter-deposited onto an Al_2O_3 substrate as a gas sensor (**Fig. 1**). To evaluate the electrical and gas sensing behavior of the sensors, they were positioned within a gas chamber in a tubular quartz furnace having good temperature control. The gases (xylene, NO_2 , CO, C_2H_4 , N_2O , CO_2 , H_2S , H_2 , CH_3COCH_3 , toluene, and benzene) in their standard cylinders had an initial concentration of 100 ppm, while the background consisted of dry air with no relative humidity (0% RH). Also, NH_3 used N_2 as a background gas. Synthetic dry air was used as a balance gas to make desired concentrations of gases. For all the gases, except NH_3 , a mixture of pure air and target gas from cylinders balanced with dry air were inserted into the chamber via mass flow controllers (MFCs), while keeping a constant flow rate of 100 sccm into gas chamber. The xylene sensing behaviors were also examined in humid air (RH up to 80%) at 450°C . The genuine temperature and specific RH values were gauged employing the commercial RH probe. To attain 100% relative humidity (RH) in the air, dry air was introduced into a sealed glass vessel containing water. Thereby, bubbles in the air were formed and directed toward the outlet line. By blending dry air (0% RH) with humid air (100% RH) at suitable levels using MFCs, the RH level was controlled (e. g., 3:2 ratio for 40% RH and 1:4 ratio for 80% RH). The resistance of the gas sensors was dynamically measured in the air (R_a) and target gas (R_g). The response was computed as $R=R_a/R_g$ for reducing gases and as $R=R_g/R_a$ for oxidizing gases. The t_{res} and t_{rec} were obtained using the procedure in [43].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structural, morphological, and compositional studies

Figs. 2(a)-(c) give TEM micrographs of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs. A C-S structure was obtained with a core size of ~ 50 nm and overall C-S NP size 300 nm. The shell was not smooth but contained voids and pores, which are advantageous for gas diffusion. Also, **Figs. S1(a)-(d)** display additional TEM images of multiple Au-TiO₂ C-S, revealing the spherical morphology of the Au core in the synthesized Au-TiO C-S with an average Au size of approximately 50 nm. **Fig. 2(d)** indicates the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs. Rings related to the (111), (200), and (222) crystalline planes of Au [44] and to the (116), (105), and (101) crystalline planes of TiO₂ [45] were seen, confirming the co-existence of Au and TiO₂. To determine the chemical composition of NPs, TEM-EDS color mapping analysis was performed. **Figs. 2(e)-(h)** show the combined mapping, mapping of Ti, mapping of O, and mapping of Au elements, respectively. The core part was comprised of Au, while the shell part was TiO₂. Also, the EDS spectrum in **Fig. 2(i)** presents the expected signals related to Ti, O, and Au, at weight percentages of 62.28, 29.57, and 8.15%, respectively. **Fig. 3(a)** shows XRD pattern of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs, exhibiting the peaks related to Au core, which match with JCPDS File No. 04-0784 (**Fig. 3(d)**), along with the peaks related to TiO₂ (anatase) (JCPDS File 21-1272 (**Fig. 3(c)**)). Also, in **Fig. 3(b)**, XRD pattern of bare TiO₂ is presented, well matching with the anatase phase of TiO₂. **Figs. 3(e) and (f)** display SEM images of TiO₂ NPs at two magnifications, demonstrating a rectangular-like morphology with sizes of 100-500 nm. **Figs. 3(g) and (h)** present SEM micrographs of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs at two magnifications. Similar to a recent study [46], the NPs had a cauliflower-like morphology comprised of individual Au cores with sizes of 50 nm and an overall C-S size of ~300 nm.

Figs. 4(a) and (b) reveal the BET graphs of TiO₂ NPs and Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs, respectively, with BET surface areas of 8.46 and 23.88 m²/g. This confirms that the surface area of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs

was almost three times that of the TiO₂ NPs, demonstrating the porous nature of the TiO₂ shell around individual Au NPs, as observed in the TEM analysis. Therefore, increase of surface area after formation of C-S structure can be related to formation of porous TiO₂ shell. Also, **Figs. 4(c) and (d)** reveal the BJH curves of TiO₂ NPs and Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs, respectively. Based on the BJH plots, the average sizes of pores in TiO₂ NPs and Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs were 41.68 and 559.22 nm, respectively. The larger pores in Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs provide a higher surface area for channels of gas diffusion [47].

Fig. 5(a) shows the XPS survey of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs, comprising signals related to C (from the environment), Ti, O, and Au. Lack of impurity signals in the XPS survey, demonstrating high purity of starting precursors and successful synthesis. **Fig. 5(b)** reveals the Au 4f core-level region peaks of Au 4f_{7/2} and Au 4f_{5/2} at 83.2 and 86.9 eV, respectively, which can be ascribed to metallic Au [48]. Also, **Fig. 5(c)** reveals the Ti 2p core region, with two peaks at 459.4 and 465.3 eV, related to Ti 2p_{3/2} and Ti 2p_{1/2}, respectively [49]. **Fig. 5(d)** displays deconvoluted O 1s, where three peaks corresponding to lattice oxygen (O_l) at 530.0 eV, oxygen vacancies (O_v) at 531.2 eV, and adsorbed oxygen at 532.1 eV [50] are accurately fitted. The areas of these peaks were 66.5, 7.2, and 26.3%, respectively, showing that considerable oxygen was adsorbed on the Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs, which is an advantage for reaction with xylene gas [51].

To calculate the work function (Φ) of the synthesized materials, UPS spectra were obtained for Au and TiO₂ NPs, as presented in **Fig. 6(a)**. Based on the energy cut-off values of Au and TiO₂ NPs presented in **Figs. 6(b) and (c)**, respectively, Φ values were calculated using the procedure explained in a recent paper and were 5.2 and 5.0 eV for Au and TiO₂ NPs [52].

3.2. Gas sensing part

Fig. 7(a) offers the responses of TiO_2 and Au-TiO_2 C-S NPs sensors to xylene (50 ppm) according to temperature. At lower temperatures, the resistance of the gas sensors was very high due to wide band gap of TiO_2 and low mobility of charge carriers. Also, at lower temperatures, the responses of both gas sensors were very low due to the insufficient energy of xylene to overcome the adsorption potential barrier. At 300°C , the responses of TiO_2 and Au-TiO_2 C-S NPs sensors were 1.00 and 2.88, respectively. For TiO_2 NPs, the response gradually increased with temperature, reaching the highest response of 14.19 at 500°C . For the Au-TiO_2 C-S NP gas sensor, the maximum response was observed at 450°C , and a further increase of temperature to 500°C decreased the response as the desorption rate became dominant over the adsorption rate. Also, **Figs. 7(b) and (c)** present the changes in the base resistance of TiO_2 and Au-TiO_2 C-S sensors with temperature, respectively. In both instances, the resistance decreases as the temperature rises, indicating a semiconducting nature. An increased number of electrons transition from the valence band of TiO_2 to the conduction band, causing a reduction in the base resistance. Also, under the identical temperatures, the base resistance of Au@TiO_2 C-S nanocomposite surpasses that of pure TiO_2 . This is because electrons shift from TiO_2 to Au owing to the variance in the work function of two materials.

Figs. 8(a) and (b) reveal the transient resistance plots of TiO_2 and Au-TiO_2 C-S NPs, respectively, to 10, 30, and 50 ppm xylene at their optimal sensing temperatures. In both cases, the resistance dropped in the presence of reducing xylene gas, revealing the n-type nature originating from TiO_2 . The base resistance of TiO_2 NPs was lower than that of Au-TiO_2 C-S NPs, reflecting the flow of electrons from TiO_2 to Au. To obtain better insight, the transient response graphs of the two sensors to various amounts of xylene gas are compared in **Fig. 8(c)**. The responses of the

TiO₂ NP gas sensor to 10, 30, and 50 ppm xylene were 3.78, 5.82, and 7.27, respectively, and those of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensor were 63.38, 97.91, and 165.77 (**Fig. 8(d)**). This shows that incorporation of Au into TiO₂ in the form of a C-S structure remarkably increased the response of the sensor to xylene gas, implying a promising role of Au NPs toward xylene gas sensing due to their catalytic effects and electronic features. Besides, the t_{res} and t_{rec} of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP sensor to 50 ppm xylene were 458 and 345 s, respectively (**Figs. S2(a) and (b)**).

To assess the output of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP sensor to low amounts of xylene gas, it was exposed to 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9 ppm xylene at 450°C (**Fig. 9(a)**). The relevant calibration graph is shown in **Fig. 9(b)**. The responses to the mentioned concentrations were 2.0, 5.6, 15.4, 31.3, and 57.2, respectively, demonstrating successful xylene detection. The sensors were exposed to NO₂, CO, C₂H₄, NH₃, N₂O, CO₂, H₂S, H₂, CH₃COCH₃, toluene, benzene, and xylene gases (50 ppm) at 450°C for selectivity studies (**Fig. 9(c)**). The responses of TiO₂ NPs to the mentioned gases were 1.47, 2.77, 2.30, 2.52, 2.74, 2.47, 5.39, 2.51, 2.57, 1.43, 1.48, and 7.27, respectively. The responses of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP sensor to the mentioned gases were 1.00, 1.53, 1.79, 1.88, 1.93, 2.21, 5.11, 5.59, 19.17, 1.41, 2.24, and 165.77, respectively. These results show that the TiO₂ NP sensor had no selectivity for xylene, while the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensor showed high selectivity to xylene gas, which is important from a practical viewpoint. **Fig. 9(d)** shows the response of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP toward 50 ppm xylene at 450°C in the humid air. The responses in 40 and 80% RH were decreased to 81.2 and 52.0% of the response in dry air, respectively. In humid air, H₂O molecules adhere to the sensor and occupied potential adsorption sites, decreasing the number of sites for xylene adsorption [53]. In order to avoid the decrease of the response in humid environments, we may add moisture-proof barriers for hygroscopic materials [54]. For example, some MOFs with good hydrophobicity can increase moisture-proof nature of gas sensors [55].

Fig. 9(e) illustrates the repeatability of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs gas sensor over five consecutive cycles when subjected to 50 ppm xylene at 450°C. The responses calculated across sensing cycles are presented in **Fig. 9(f)**. **Fig. 9(g)** displays the reproducibility evaluation of these three fabricated Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensors when exposed to 50 ppm xylene at 450°C. **Fig. 9(h)** illustrates the sensing cycles for both the newly fabricated and stored (after six months) sensors to 50 ppm xylene gas at 450°C. The response showed a slight decline from 165.77 in its initial state to 161.19 after six-month period, indicating excellent stability.

There are three types of xylene isomers depending on the position of –CH₃ group on the benzene ring of xylene as shown in **Fig. S3(a)**. Among them, p-xylene occupies about 86% of consumption in volume [5]. Therefore, we also exposed the sensor to o- and m-xylene gases at 450°C (**Fig. S3(b)**). The response to 50 ppm o- and m-xylene gases was 4.04 and 5.74 respectively, which were insignificant compared to the response to p-xylene (165.77).

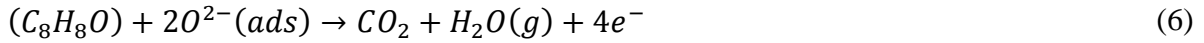
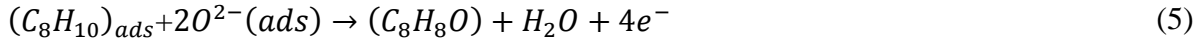
In real applications, microheaters are installed on the sensor devices, elevating the sensing temperature to desired temperatures (>300°C). Since the heating part is relatively small in comparison to sensing systems, it will not significantly warm the surroundings: In canned sensors, the sensing part with the micro-heater pattern is located inside the metallic can, which is situated > 5 mm above the circuit board. In MEMS or NEMS sensors, the sensing part itself is extremely small [56]. By the way, the relatively high sensing temperature may result in relatively high power consumption. Sensing temperature can be reduced by operation of the sensor in self-heating mode [11] or use of UV light irradiation [57], which will be studied in future works.

3.3 Proposed sensing mechanism

The mechanism of adsorption of oxygen molecules onto TiO₂ NPs in air is shown below [58].



Since the sensing temperature for TiO₂ NPs was 450°C, we can surmised that the dominant ions on the sensing layer is O²⁻ ions [59]. An insufficiency of electrons on the external surfaces of the TiO₂ NPs led to the generation of an electron depletion layer on TiO₂ NPs. Accordingly, the resistance increased for TiO₂ as an n-type gas sensor [60]. In xylene gas atmosphere, the reaction between adsorbed xylene and oxygen occurs as follows [61].



Thus, the released electrons increase the conductivity of the sensor. Moreover, at contact points between individual TiO₂ NPs, homojunctions were formed in air; subsequent exposure to xylene gas decreased the height of the homojunctions, leading to a sensing signal [62]. Anyway, the pristine sensor offered a weak response to xylene due to its small surface area and lack of heterojunctions.

In contrast, the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensor showed a significantly stronger response to xylene gas. This sensor had a higher surface area (almost three times higher) than that of TiO₂ NPs, with a higher porous nature of the TiO₂ shell layer over the Au NPs. Therefore, the presence of more adsorption sites along these pores led to higher adsorption and better gas diffusion into the deep regions of the sensor (**Fig. 10**).

Owing to the difference in Φ values of Au ($\Phi=5.2$ eV) and TiO₂ ($\Phi=5$ eV), which were calculated based on UPS spectra, Schottky junctions were formed at contact areas between these materials. The energy levels of Au and TiO₂ before contact are presented in **Fig. 11(a)**. Upon contact to rebalance the two Fermi levels, electrons flow from TiO₂ to Au, forming Schottky junctions in air (**Fig. 11(b)**). Therefore, the base resistance of Au-TiO₂ is higher than that of TiO₂ NPs due to the formation of EDL in contact areas with Au. In a xylene environment, the electrons are return to the sensor surface, decreasing the heights of Schottky junctions and the resistance modulation (**Fig. 11(c)**). A higher initial resistance, i.e., smaller electron conduction volume, will contribute to the high sensing behaviors, in which a change of the same electron concentration by introduction of xylene lead to a higher response. Due to numerous Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs, this mechanism is dominant in resistance modulation for this gas sensor.

Noble metals generally have good catalytic activity [63,64]. Also, Au has shown good catalytic performance [65,66]. The dehydrogenation of oxidized $-\text{CH}_3$ groups of xylene is catalyzed by adsorbed oxygen species. The catalytic activation of Au in Au NPs can decrease the enthalpy of dehydrogenation of xylene, decreasing the activity while increasing the sensing reaction to produce an improved output. Both plane structure and the π -conjugate of the benzene ring lead easy reaction of xylene with oxygen species absorbed in the Au-TiO₂ gas sensor rather than other gases, which explains the selectivity of the sensor to xylene [67]. Furthermore, incoming oxygen molecules can be adsorbed onto Au NPs to become dissociated on its surface and by a spillover effect [68], move to nearby TiO₂, causing faster and higher adsorption of oxygen ions onto TiO₂ NPs.

Table 1 [61,67,69-77] shows a comparison of the xylene detection capability of the current sensor with those previous research. Overall, the Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs sensor has better performance

than other reported sensors. The relatively high operating temperature may be reduced by strategies such as self-heating operation [78] and UV illumination [79]. It should be noted that recently flexible sensing devices have gained much more attention [80,81], therefore, in future studies, development of flexible sensor based on Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs may open a new opportunity of emerging applications.

4. Conclusions

We demonstrated that incorporation of Au into TiO₂ in the form of a C-S structure improved the performance of a sensor to xylene gas. TiO₂ NPs and Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs were hydrothermally produced for xylene gas detection. TEM/SEM investigations confirmed the formation of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs with a cauliflower-like morphology and high surface area of 23.88 m²/g along with a desired composition. Also, the surface area of TiO₂ NPs was 8.46, and it increased for Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs due to the creation of a porous TiO₂ shell around the Au core. The response of the TiO₂ NP sensor to 50 ppm xylene was 14.19 at 500°C, and that for the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP sensor was higher at 165.77 at 450°C. Furthermore, while the TiO₂ NP gas sensor has no selectivity to xylene, the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensor demonstrated outstanding selectivity. The porous nature and high surface area, oxygen defects, and formation of Au-TiO₂ Schottky barriers accounted for the boosted xylene detection of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs.

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Figure Captions

Fig. 1. Schematics of the synthesis of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs and the fabrication of the sensing device.

Fig. 2. (a)-(c) TEM images of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs at different magnifications, (d) SAED pattern, (e)-(h) TEM-EDS color mapping analysis, and (i) EDS spectrum of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs.

Fig. 3. XRD patterns of the (a) Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs and (b) TiO₂ NPs. The standard JCPDS patterns of (c) TiO₂ and (d) Au. SEM images of (e,f) TiO₂ NPs and (g,h) Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs at different magnifications.

Fig. 4. N₂ adsorption-desorption curves of (a) TiO₂ NPs and (b) Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs and BJH plot of (c) TiO₂ NPs and (d) Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs.

Fig. 5. XPS survey of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs. XPS core levels of (b) Au 4f, (c) Ti 2p, and (d) O 1s.

Fig. 6. (a) Normalized UPS spectra of Au and TiO₂ NPs. Energy cut-off values of (b) Au and (c) TiO₂ NPs.

Fig. 7. (a) Responses of TiO₂ and Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs gas sensors to 50 ppm xylene gas versus temperature. Variations of the resistance of (b) pristine TiO₂ and (c) Au-TiO₂ C-S nanocomposite gas sensors with varying the temperature.

Fig. 8. Dynamic resistance curves of (a) TiO₂ and (b) Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensors to 10, 30, and 50 ppm xylene gas at 450°C. Comparison of gas performance of TiO₂ and Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensors to 10, 30, and 50 ppm xylene gas at 450°C. (c) Dynamic response curves and (d) sensor response.

Fig. 9. Dynamic resistance curves of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs to 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9 ppm xylene gas at 450°C. (b) Corresponding calibration curve, (c) selectivity histogram of TiO₂ and Au-TiO₂ C-S

NP gas sensors to 50 ppm gases at 450°C, and (d) dynamic relative responses of Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensors to 50 ppm gases at 450°C in the presence of 0, 40, and 80% RH. RH was set and measured at 25°C. (e) Repeatability test showing five sequential cycles of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs gas sensor exposed to 50 ppm xylene gas at 450°C, and (f) corresponding response values plotted against the sensing cycles. (g) Reproducibility test for three similarly prepared Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs gas sensors exposed to 50 ppm xylene gas at 450°C, (h) dynamic response curves comparing fresh and six-month-preserved Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs gas sensors exposed to 50 ppm xylene gas at 450°C.

Fig. 10. Schematic of the xylene sensing mechanism of the Au-TiO₂ C-S NP gas sensor.

Fig. 11. Energy bands of TiO₂ and Au (a) before contact and after contact in (b) air and (c) xylene gas.

Table 1. The xylene sensing properties of Au-TiO₂ C-S NPs and those reported in the literature.

Sensing material	Conc. (ppm)	T(°C)	Response (R_a/R_g) or (R_g/R_a)	Ref.
Au-SnO ₂ nanocomposite	100	350	27.9	[67]
NiCo ₂ O ₄ /WO ₃ nanocomposite	100	300	15.7	[61]
Cr-doped WO ₃ nanofiber	100	225	35	[69]
0.4 wt% Co-doped ZnO nanofiber	100	320	14.8	[70]
10 wt% α -Fe ₂ O ₃ /Bi ₂ WO ₆ nanoplate	100	260	13.5	[71]
W-doped NiO nanotube	200	375	8.74	[72]
α -MoO ₃ nanoplates	100	370	19.2	[73]
ZnO/ZnCo ₂ O ₄ hollow C-S nanocage	100	320	34.26	[74]
Au-loaded MoO ₃ hollow sphere	100	250	22.1	[75]
Sn-doped NiO microsphere	10	250	3	[76]
α -MoO ₃ / α -Fe ₂ O ₃ heterojunction	100	206	6.8	[77]
Au-TiO ₂ C-S NPs	50	450	165.77	Present work

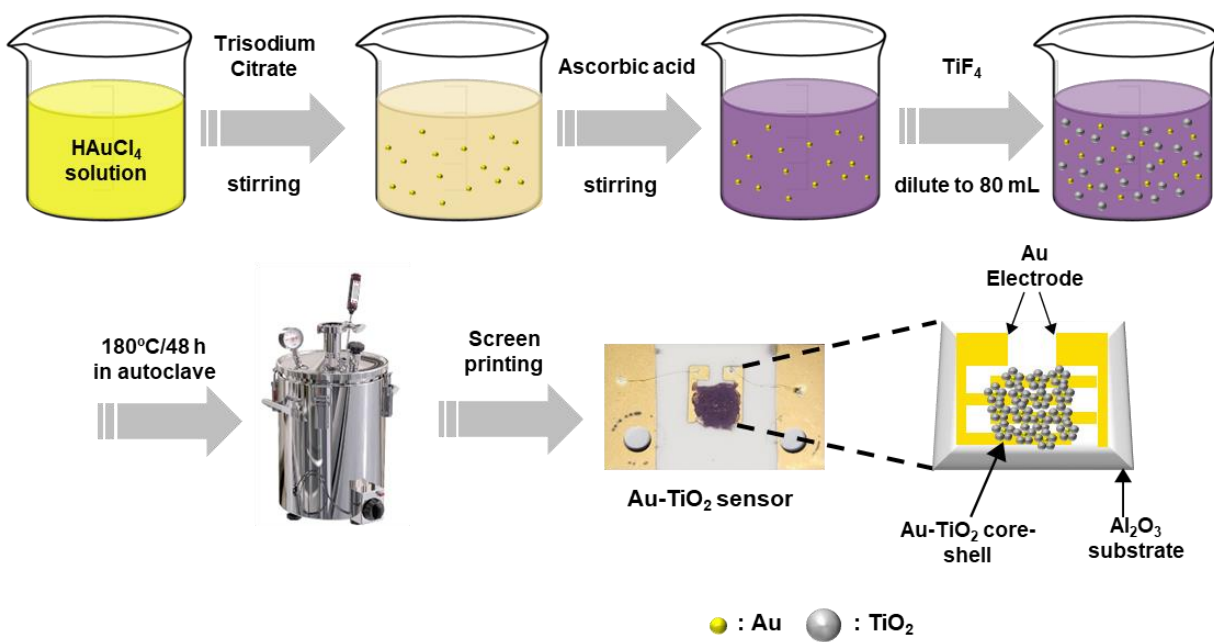


Fig. 1

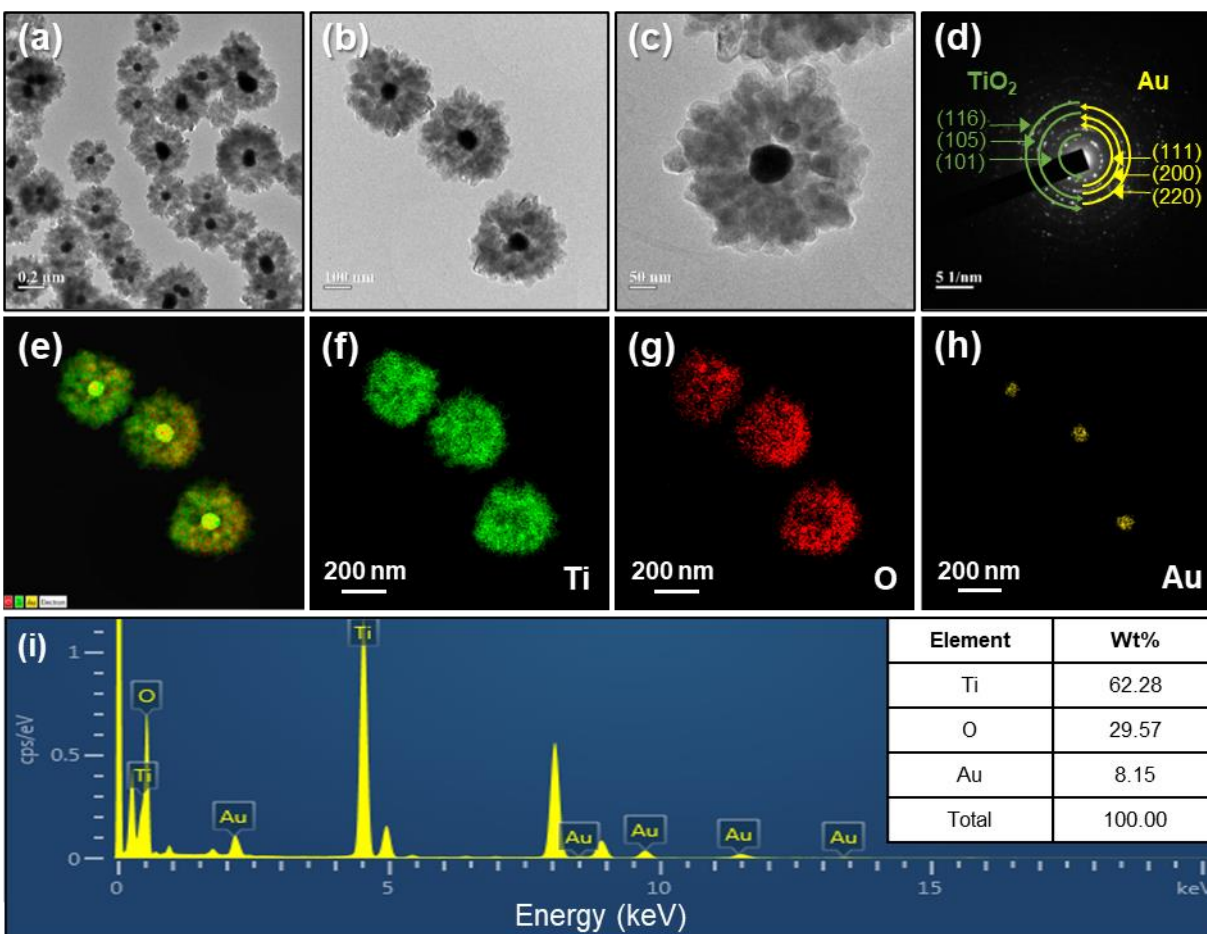


Fig. 2

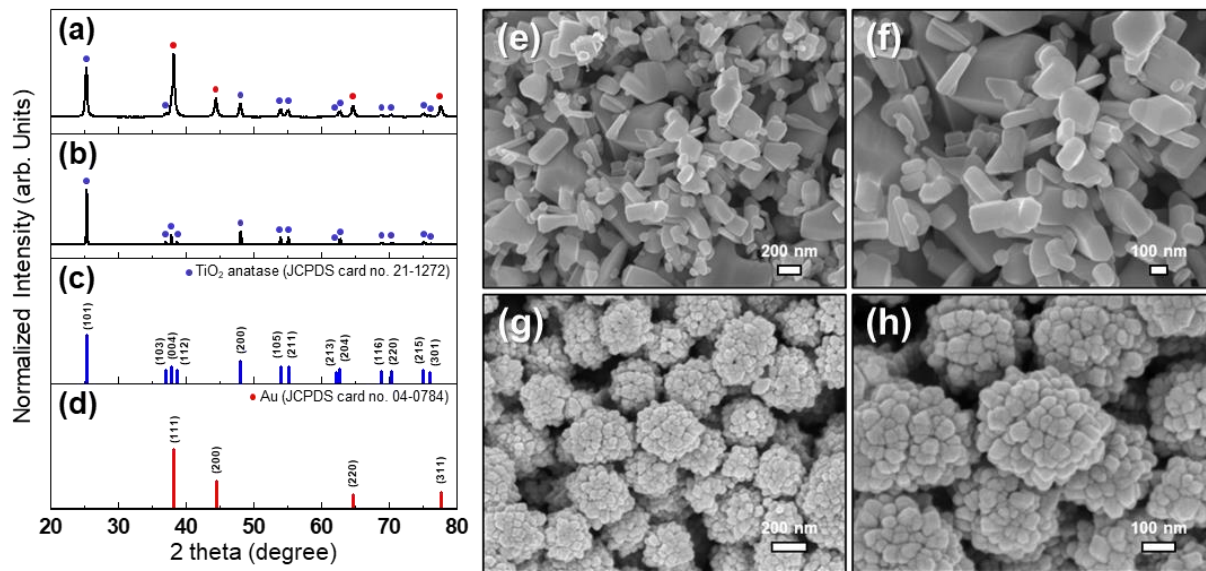


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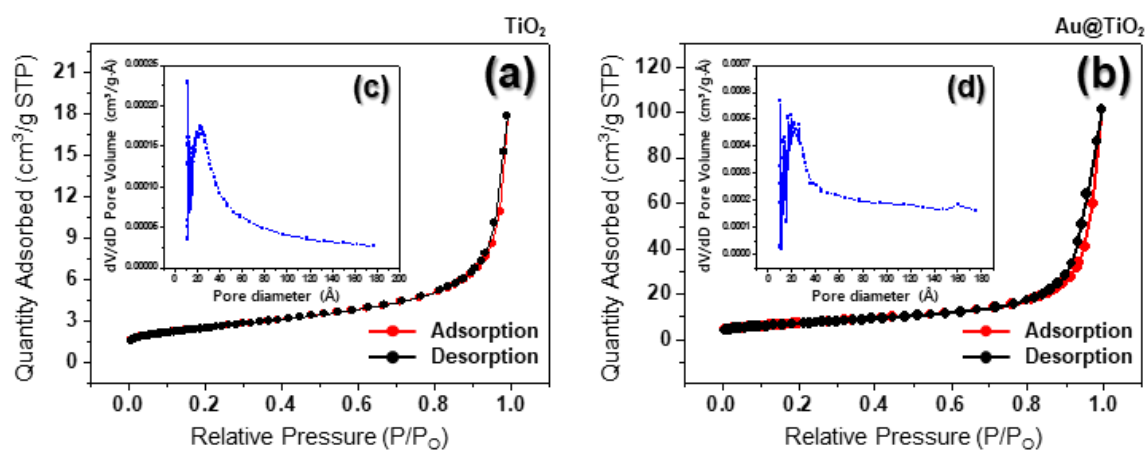


Fig. 4

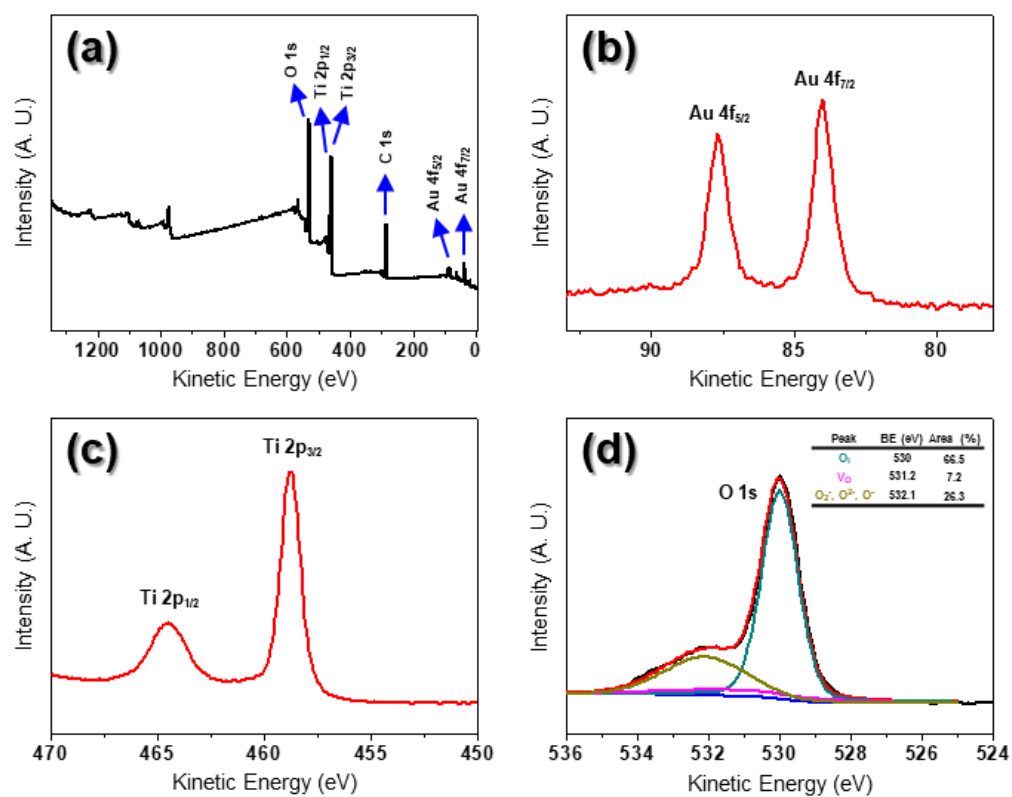


Fig. 5

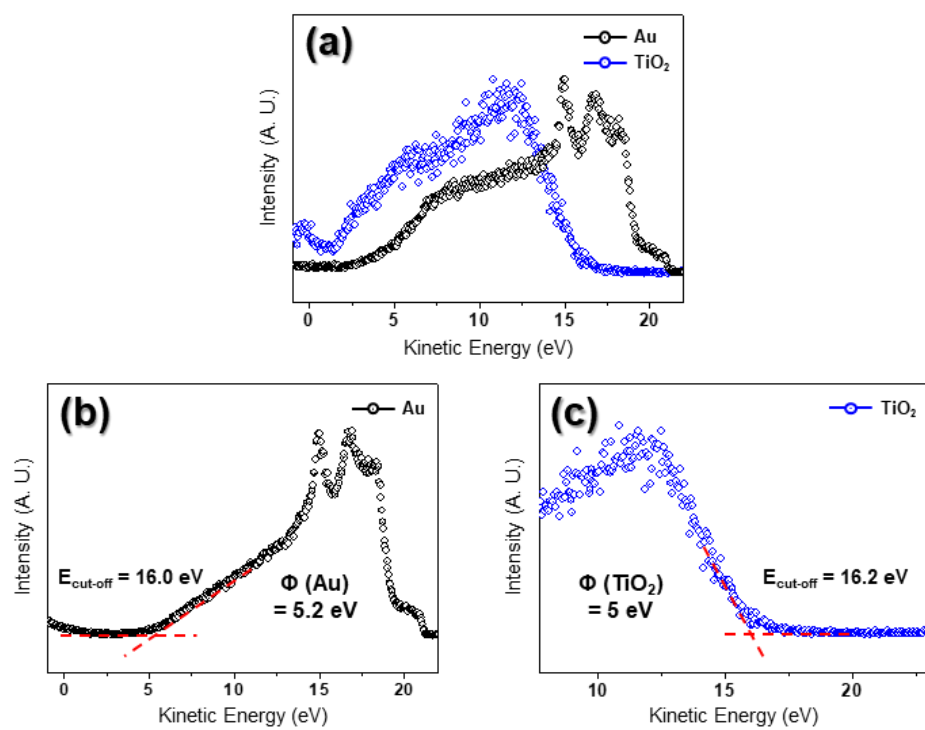


Fig. 6

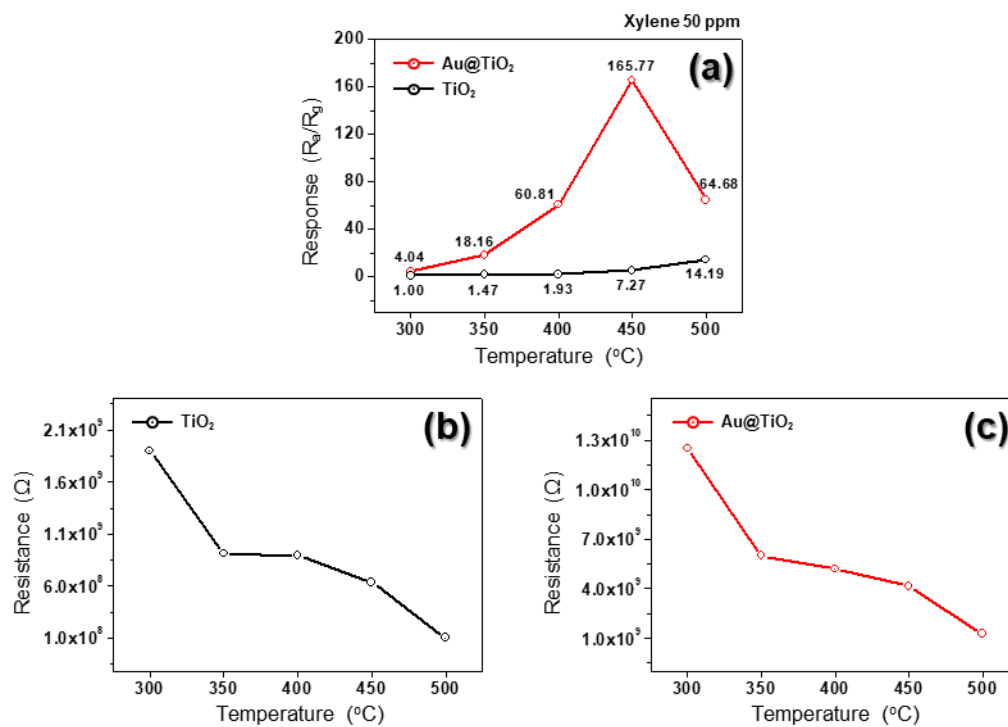


Fig. 7

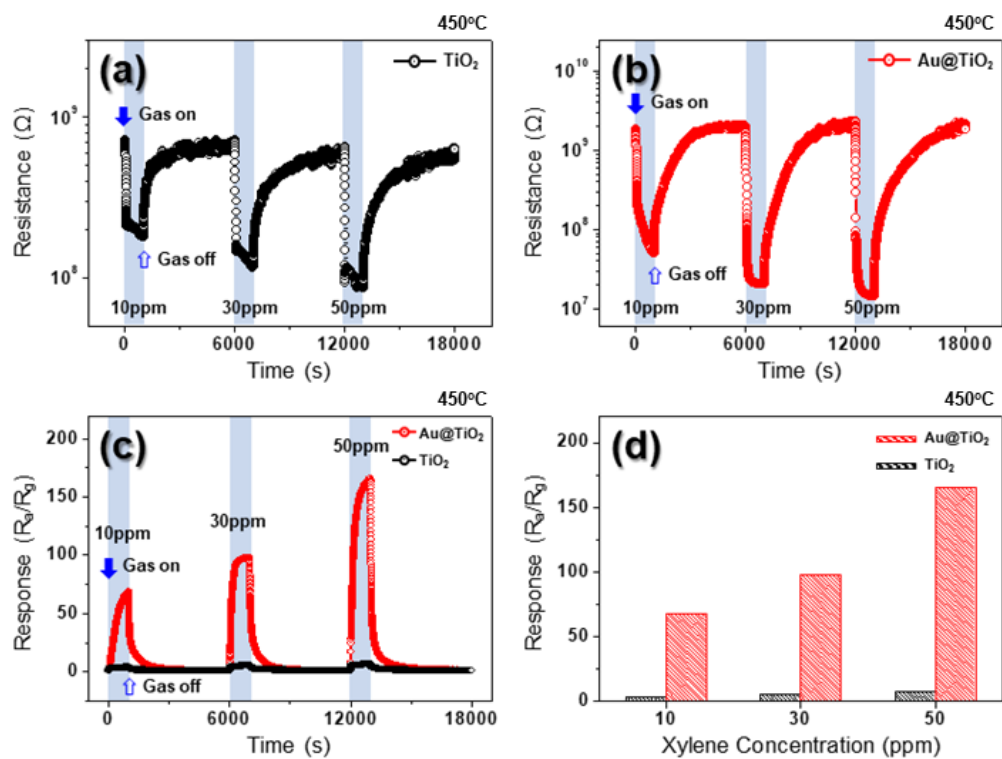


Fig. 8

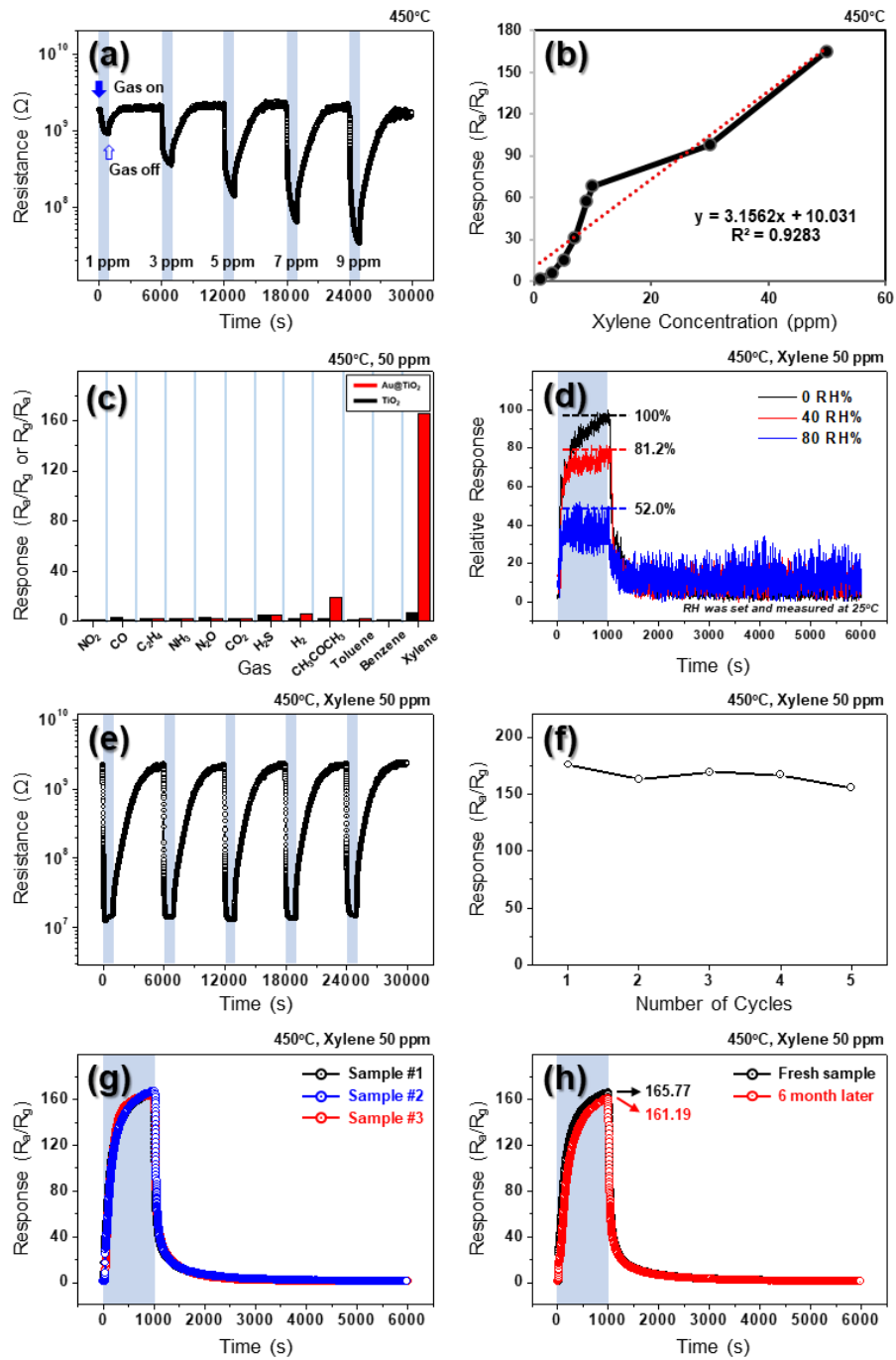


Fig. 9

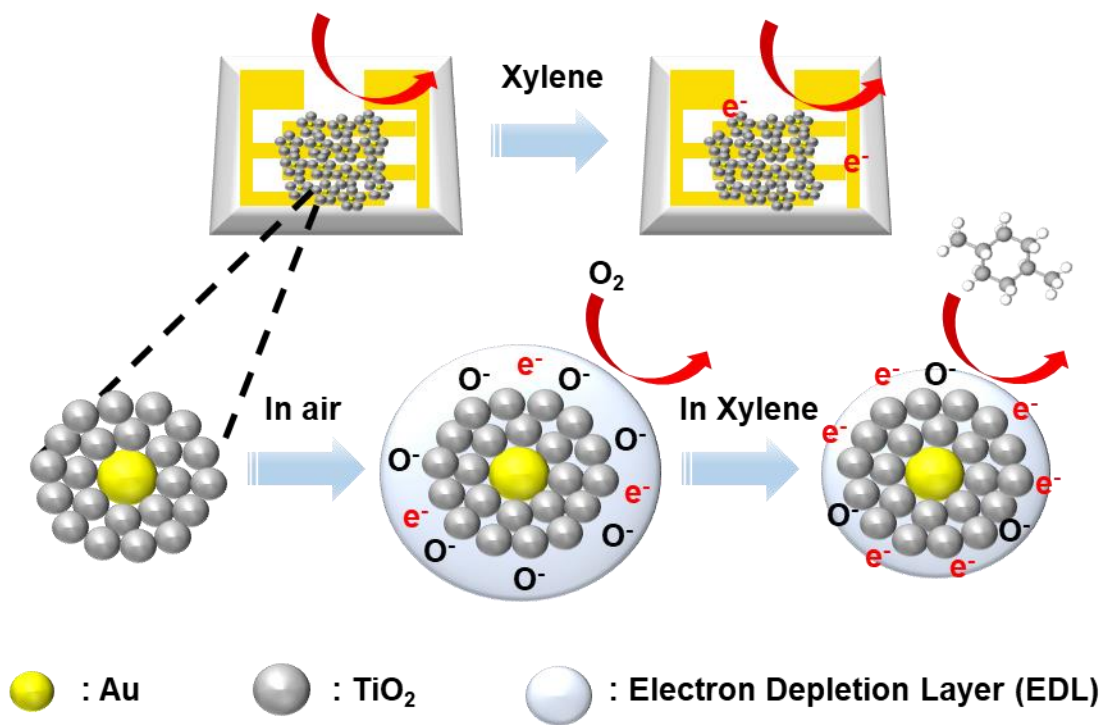
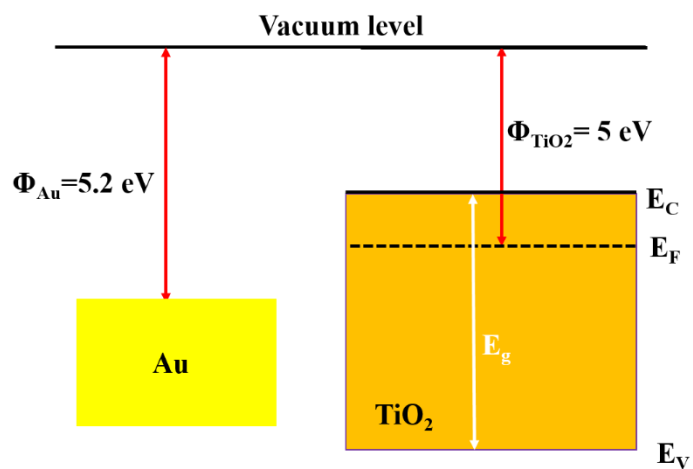
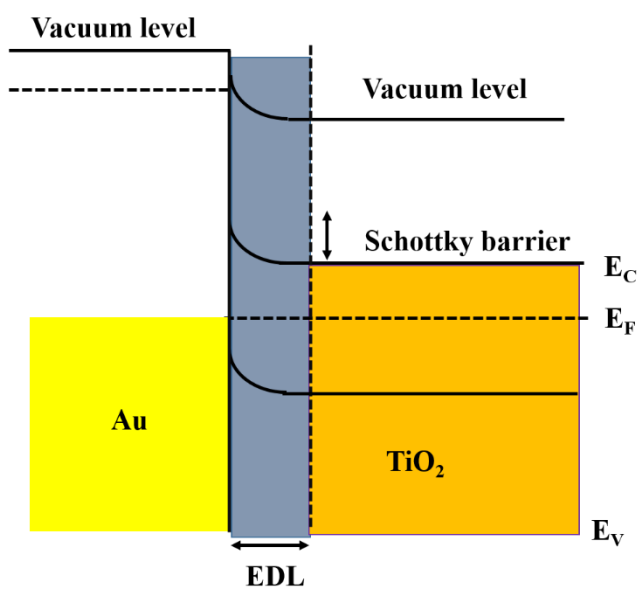


Fig. 10

(a) Before Contact



(b) After contact in air



(c) After contact in xylene

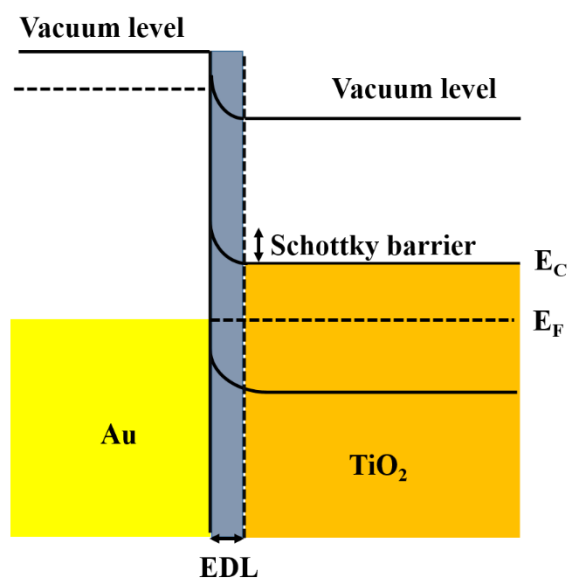


Fig. 11

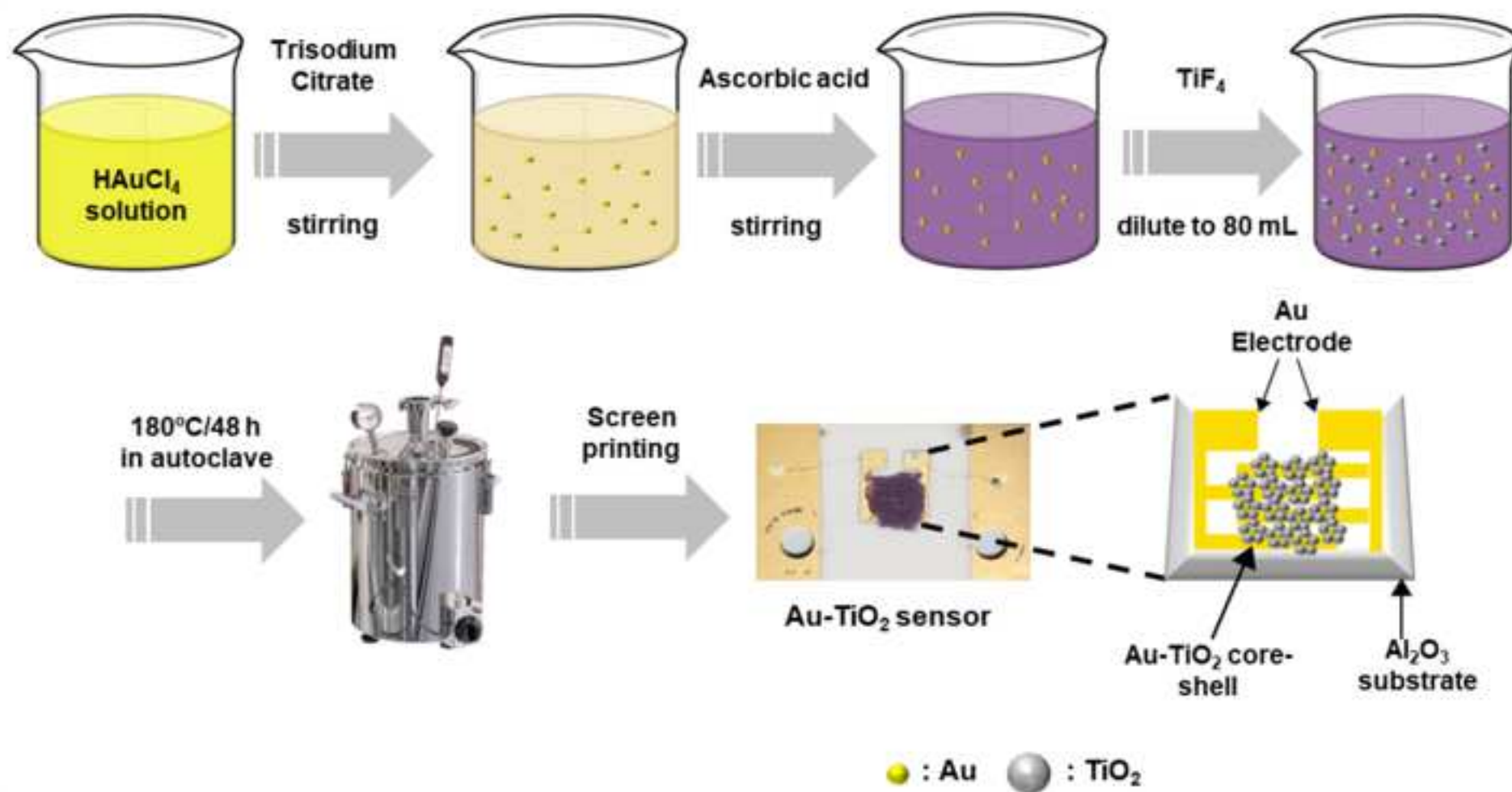
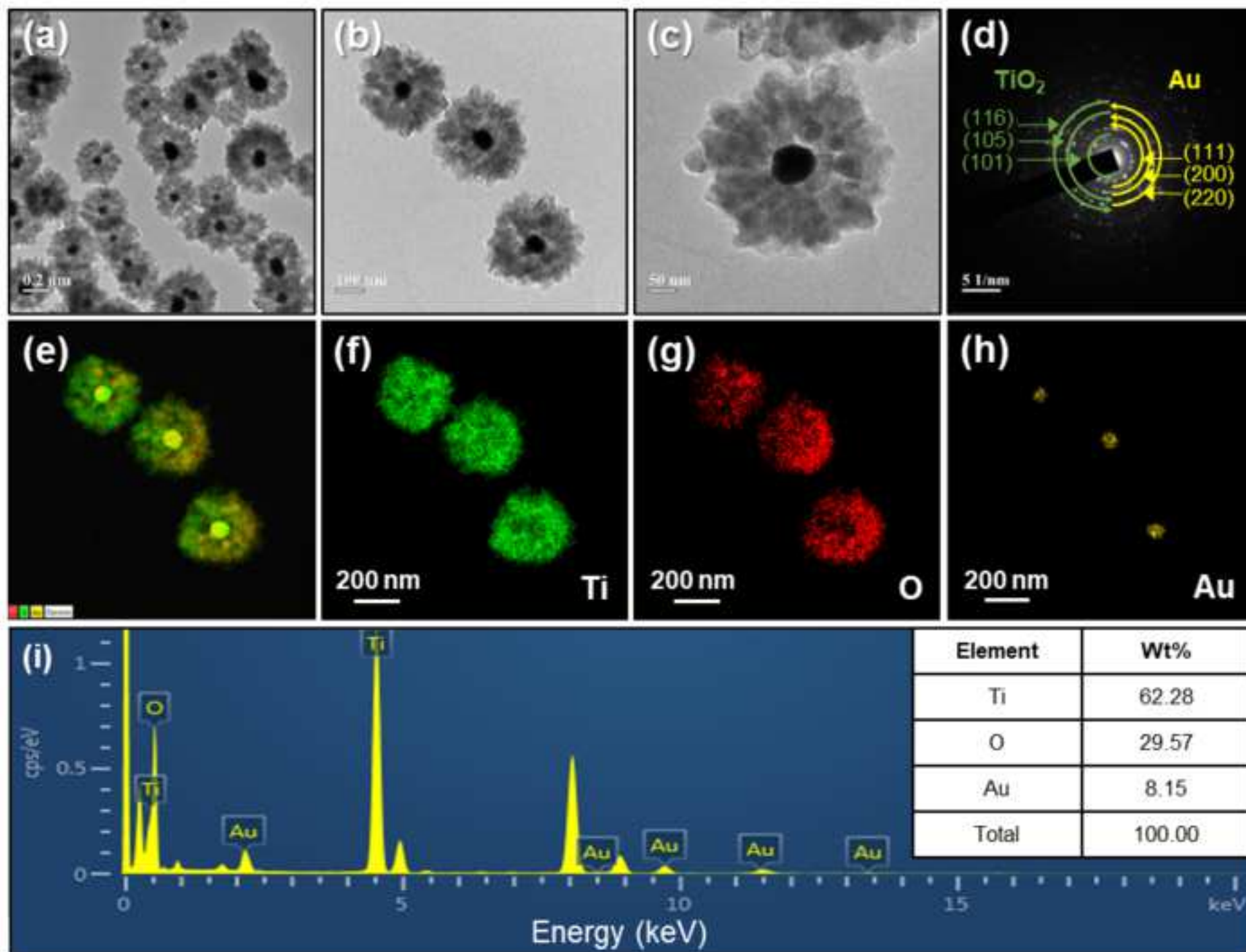
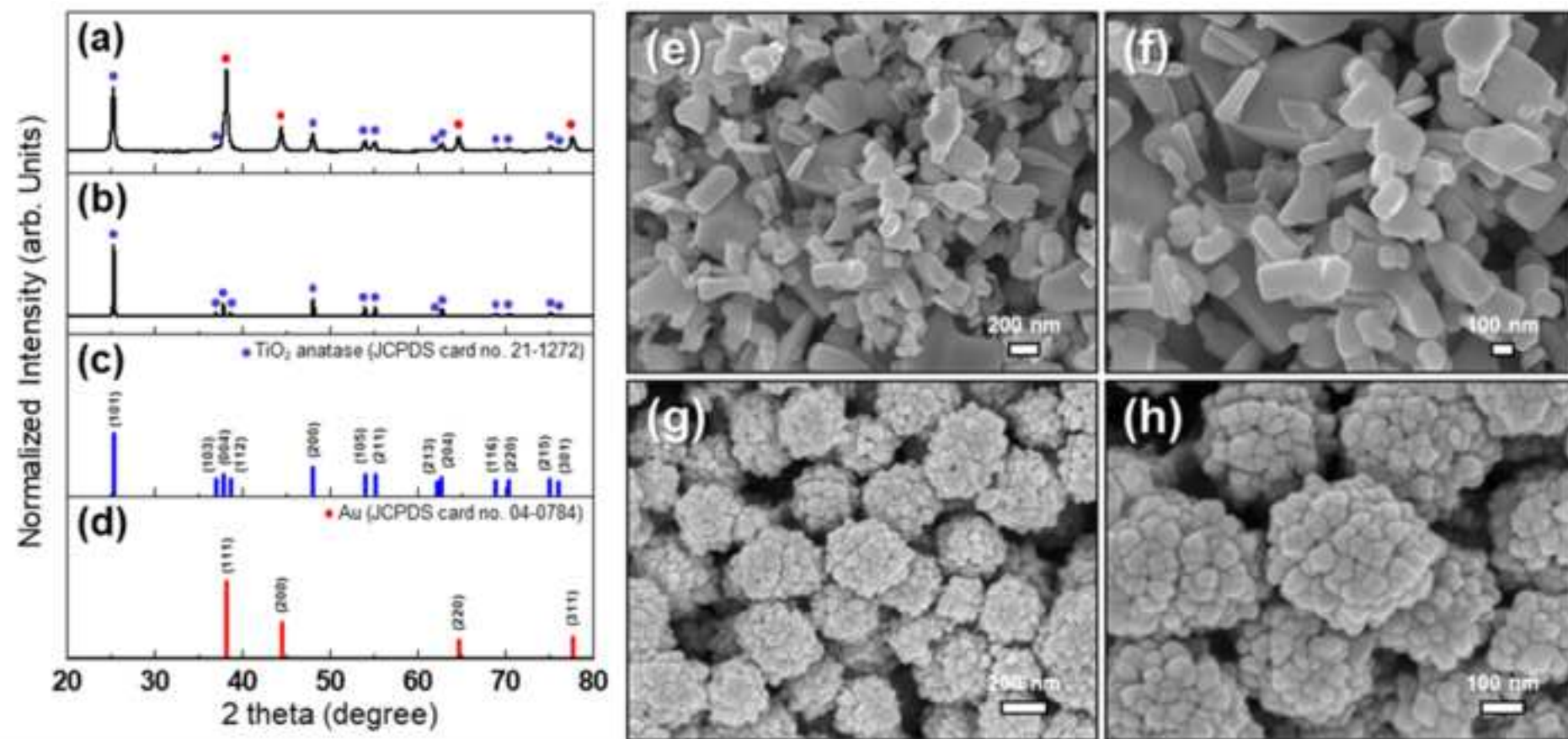


Figure 2

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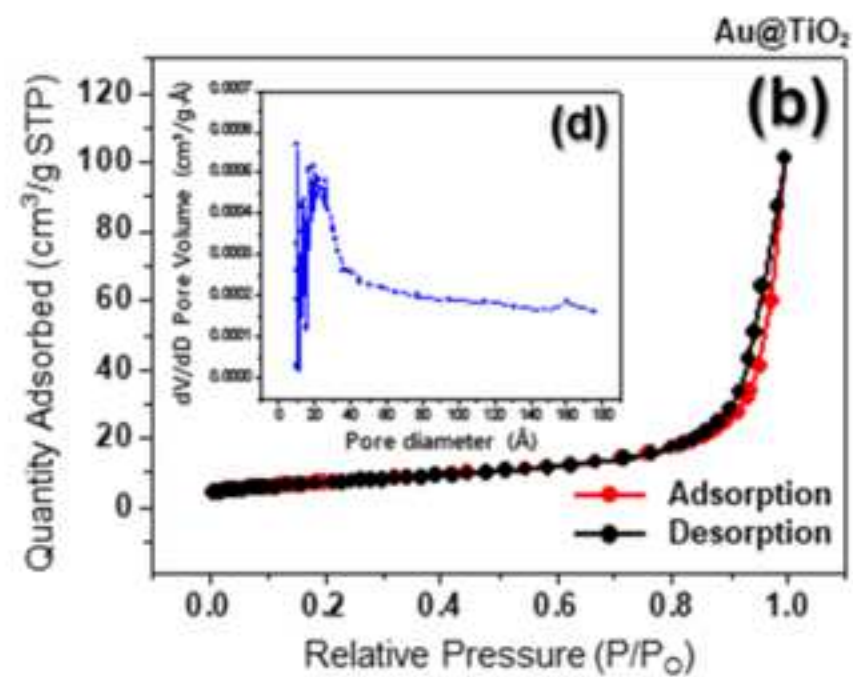
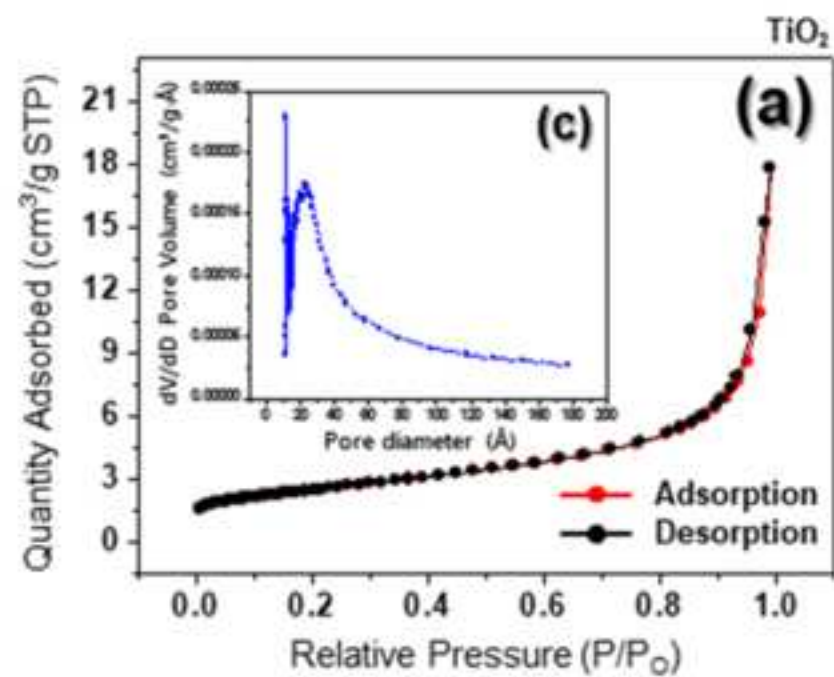
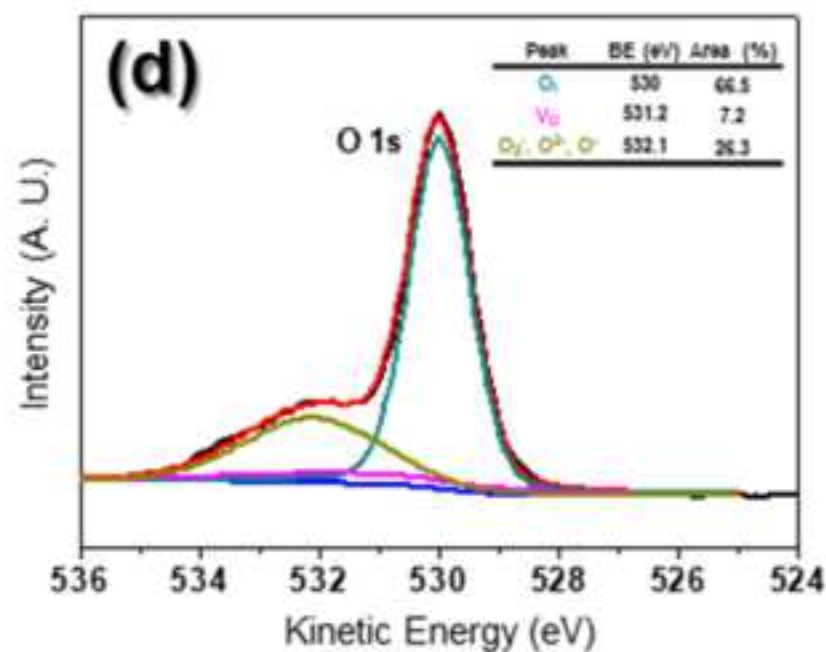
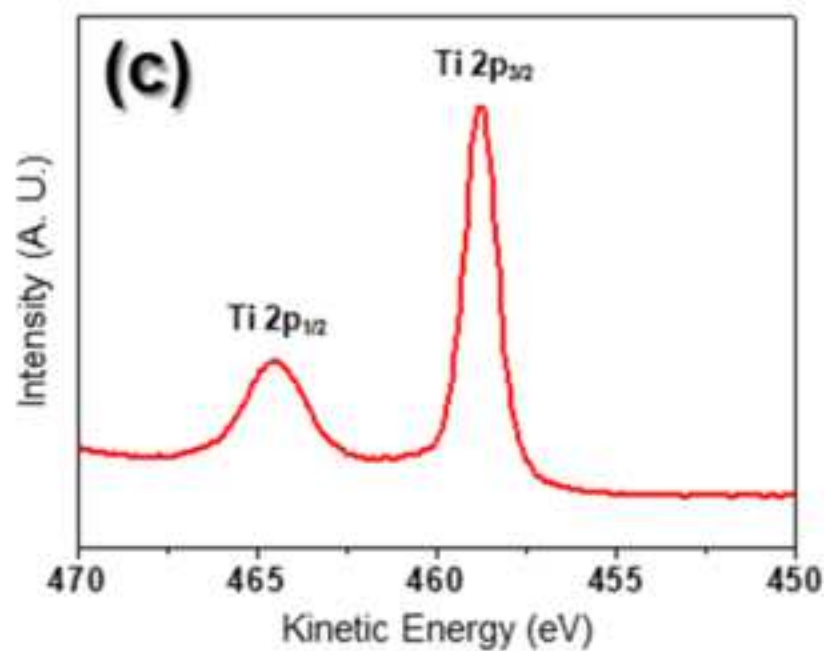
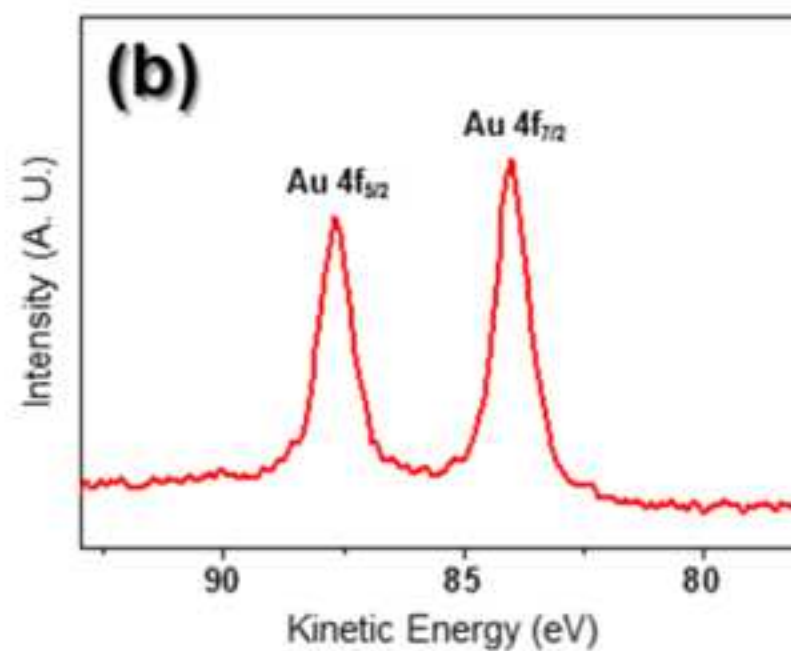
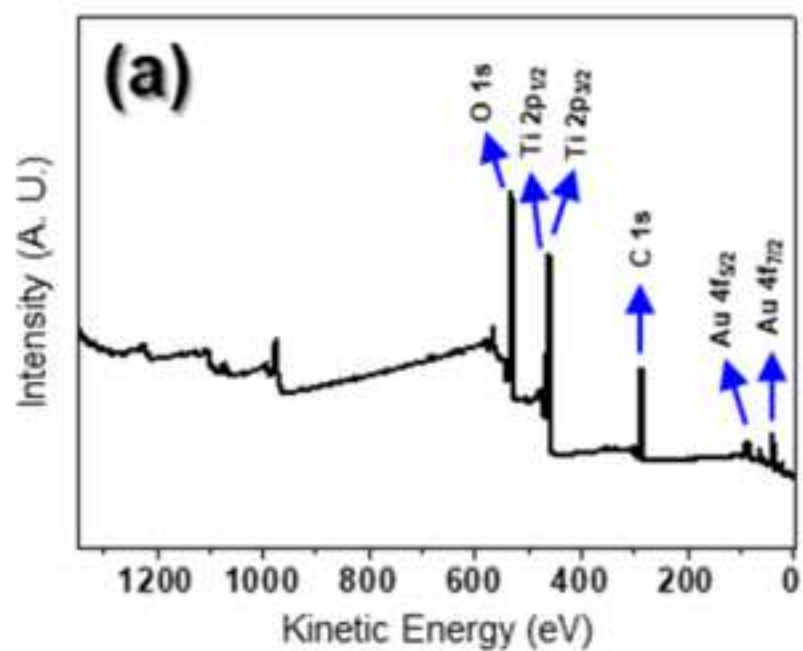


Figure 5

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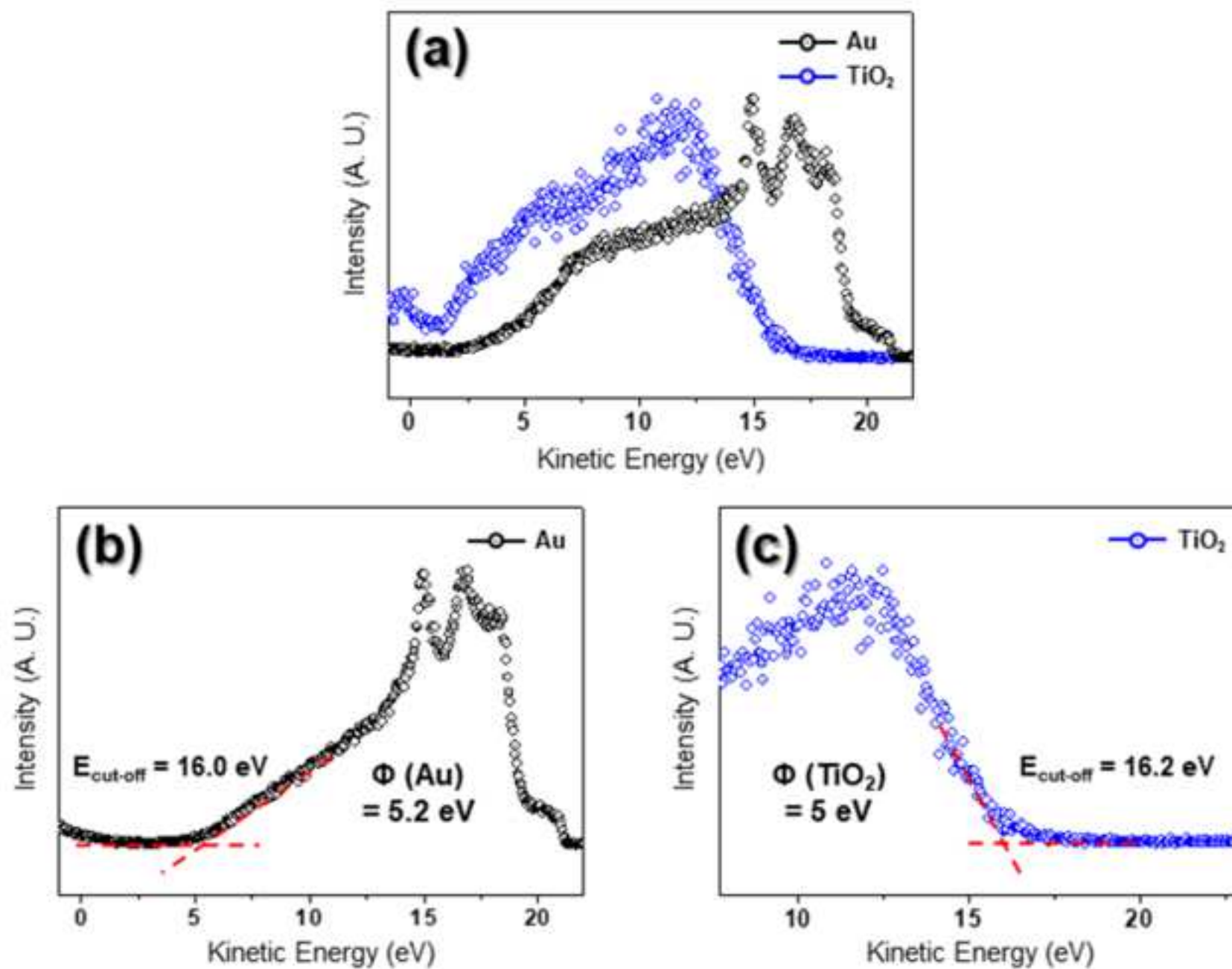


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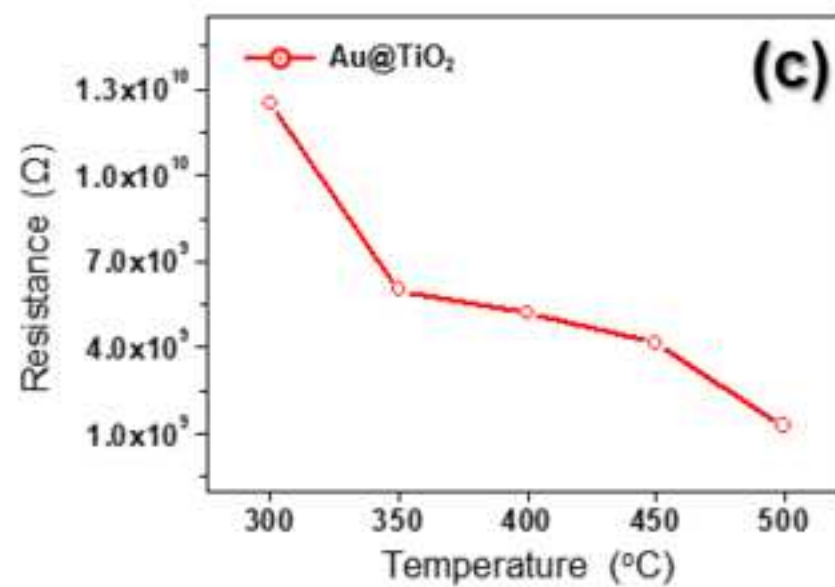
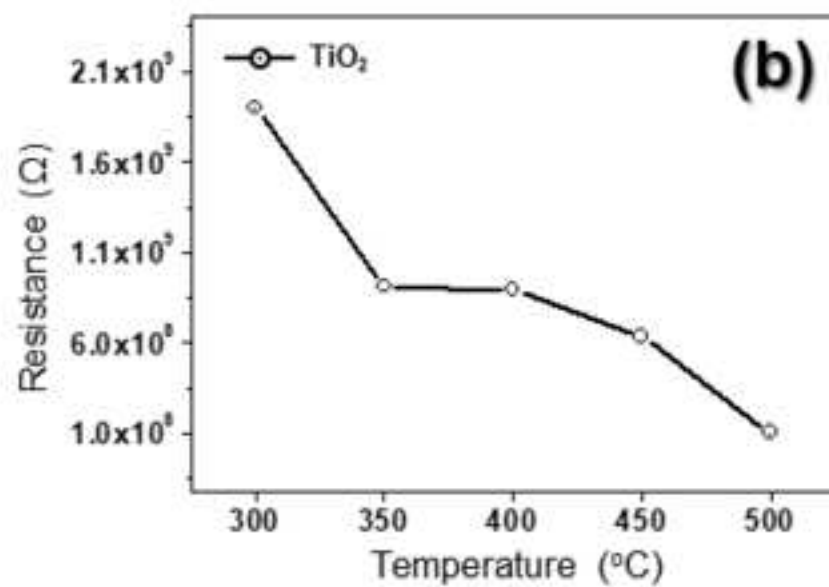
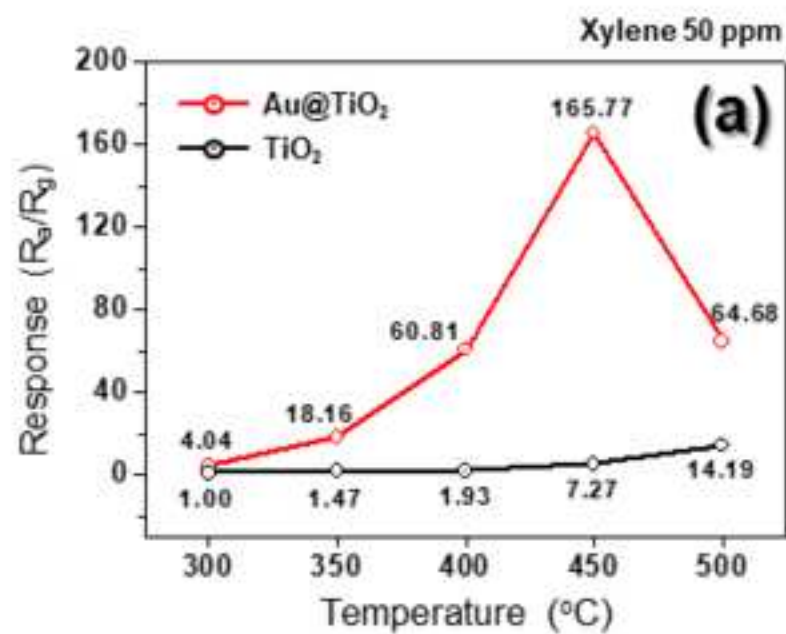
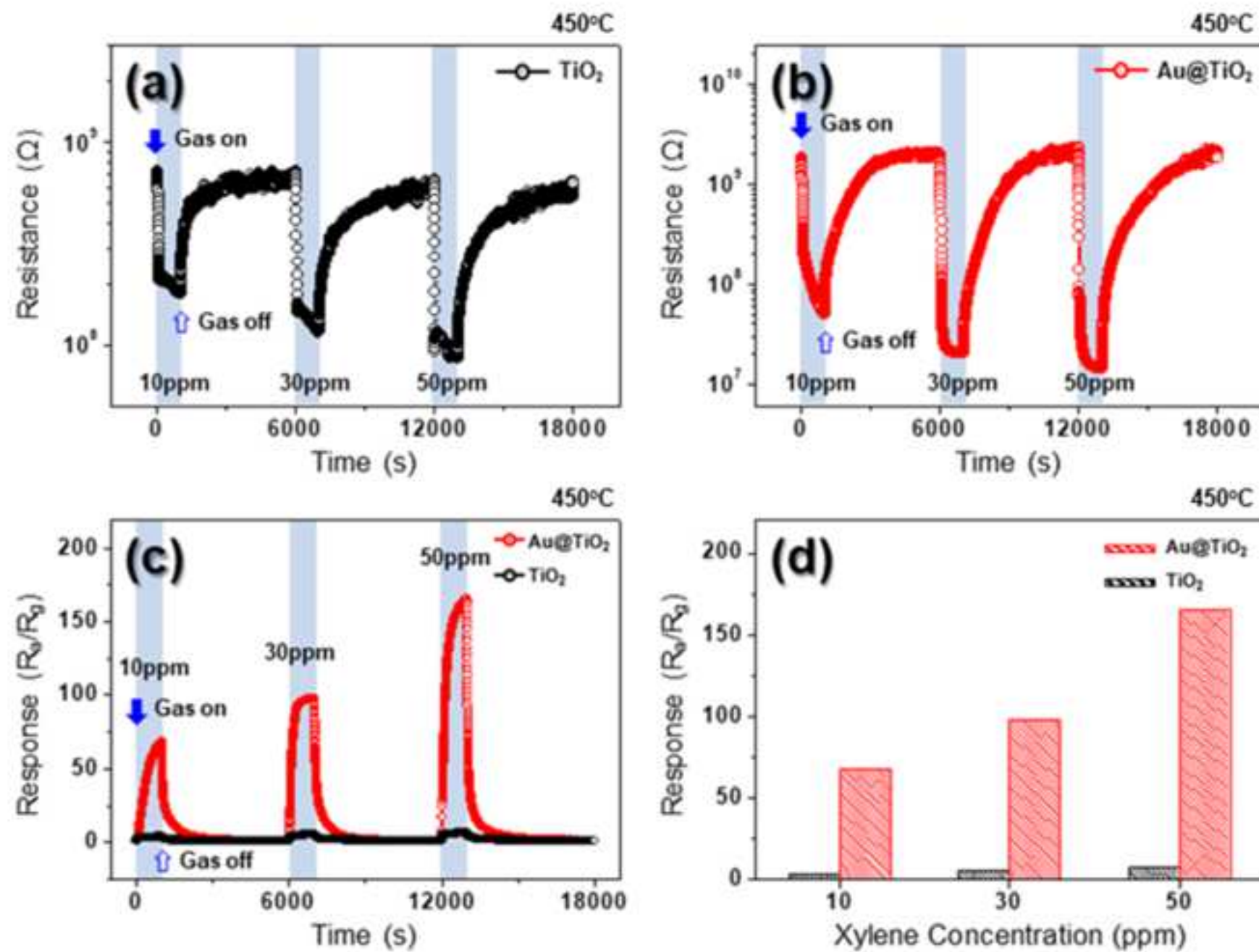
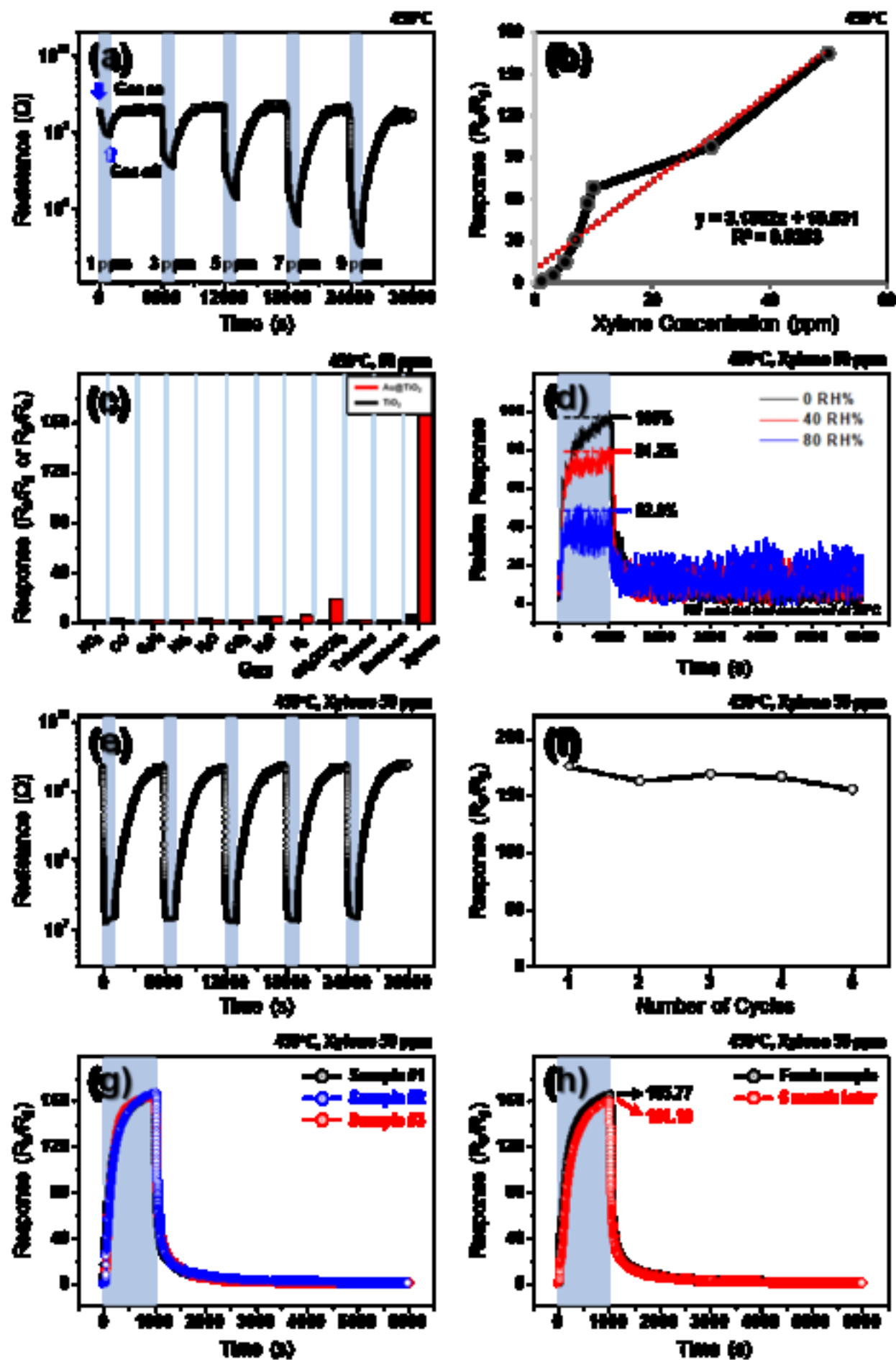
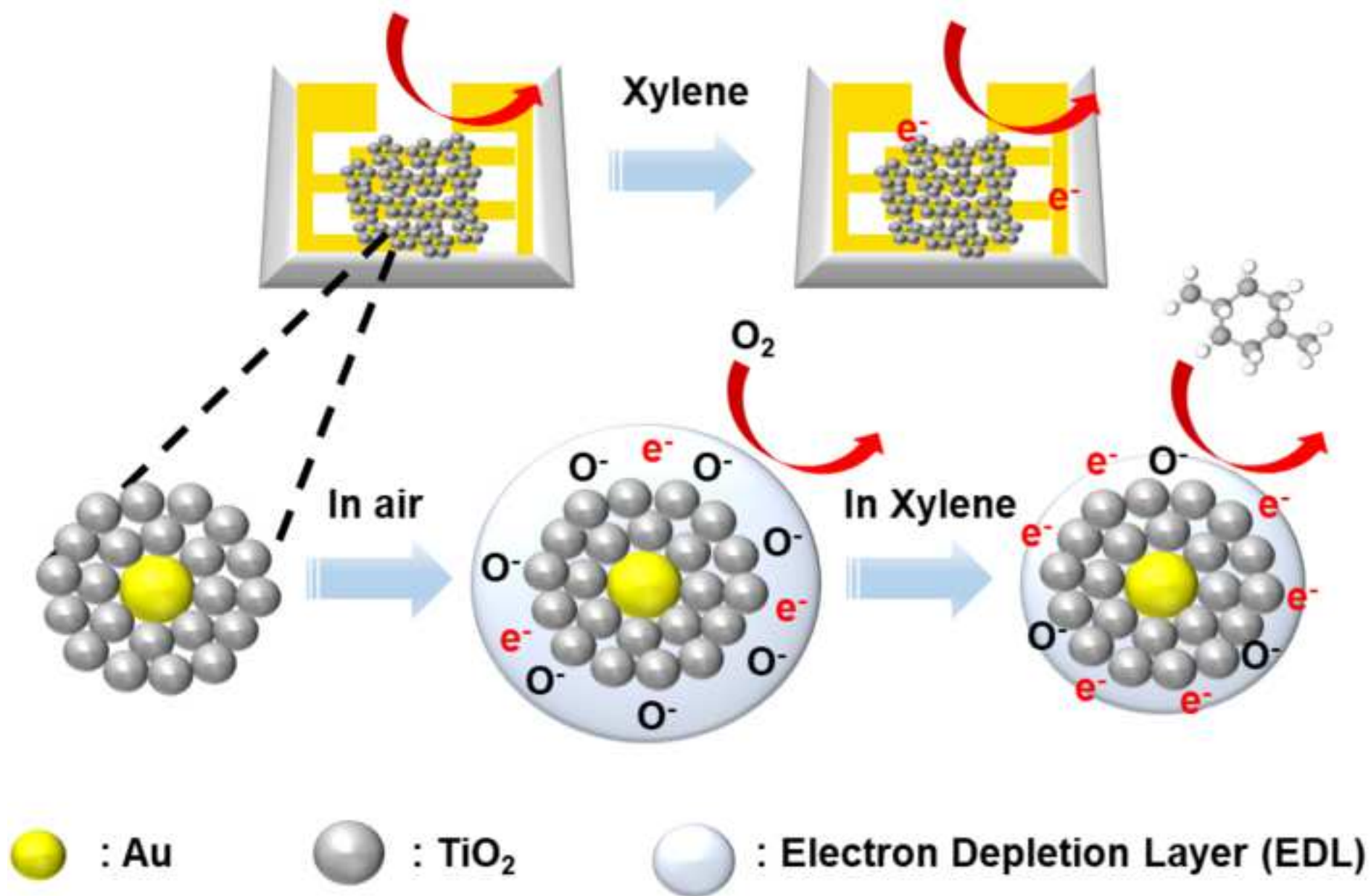


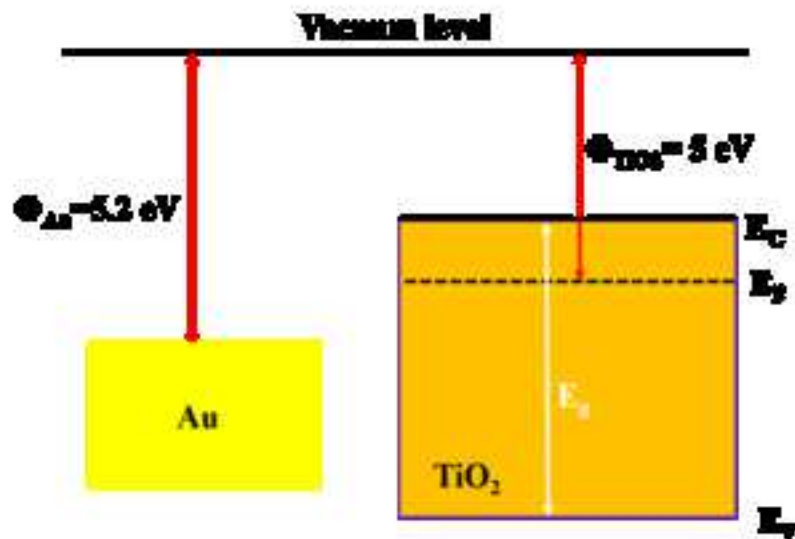
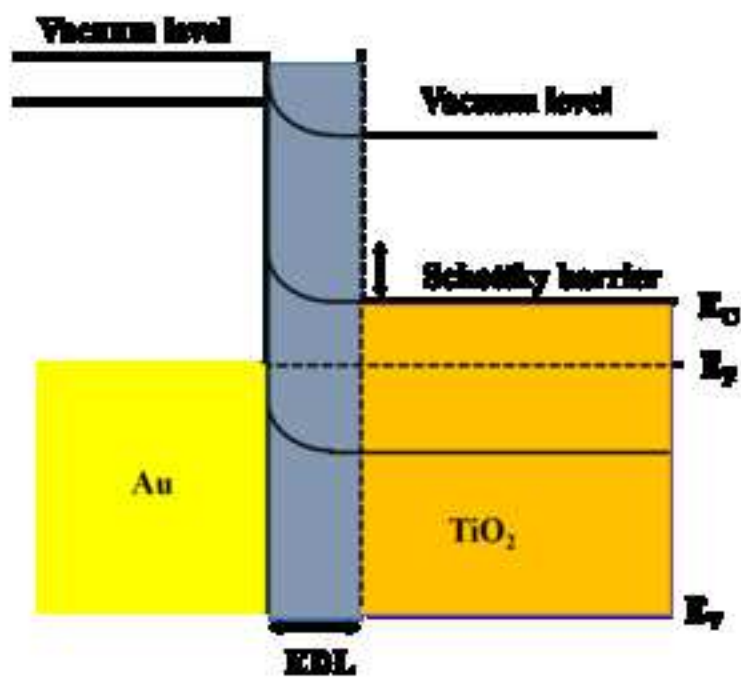
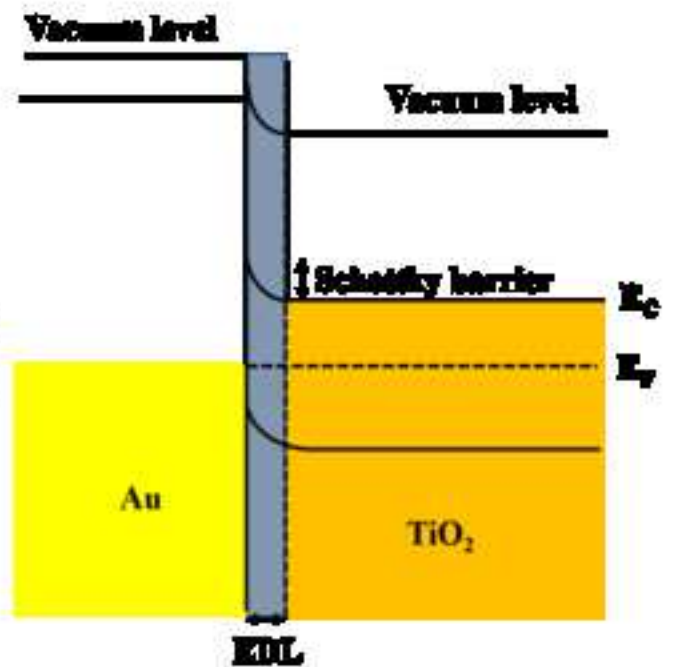
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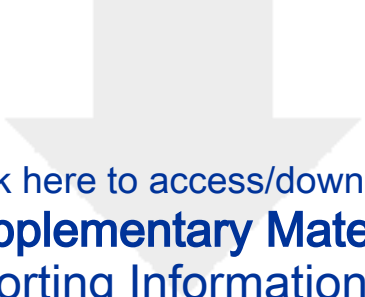
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(a) Before Contact**(b) After contact in air****(c) After contact in xylene**



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