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**Ph.D. DISSERTATION**

**Chemoresistive gas sensing properties of  
functionalized two-dimensional materials**

**By**

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**SEOUL NATIONAL UNIVERSITY  
COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING  
DEPARTMENT OF MATERIALS SCIENCE AND  
ENGINEERING**

# **Chemoresistive gas sensing properties of functionalized two-dimensional materials**

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fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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## Abstract

With the development of the Internet of things (IoT) technology that enables information exchange with all users and devices connected to things, smart sensors that exchange information inside and outside the device are becoming the most important technologies. In particular, the gas sensor is of great interest because it can detect the presence and concentration of a gas and can be applied to a number of areas such as human life, safety, health, and environment monitoring. To be applied to the Internet of Things or next-generation devices, gas sensors must meet all the demanding requirements of low power consumption, low cost, miniaturization, and easy integration with existing technologies. To date, semiconducting metal oxides have been used most often as gas sensing materials due to several advantages such as mass production, miniaturization, low cost, and high gas reactivity at high temperatures. However, there is still a lot of efforts in search of alternative gas sensing materials without solving the main problems such as high-power consumption, use of external heater, weak long-term stability, low humidity durability, and the requirements of the Internet of Things.

Among the materials proposed as alternatives, two-dimensional (2D) materials such as graphene, transition metal dichalcogenide, and metal oxide nanosheets are receiving great attention. 2D materials are evaluated for their ability to replace metal oxides and be applied to future technologies because of their unique and superior advantages, such as flexibility, high specific surface area, many active sites and good room temperature gas sensing properties. It is attracting attention as the next generation gas sensing material because it can improve and solve the disadvantages of the unique properties of 2D materials through

surface functionalization, noble metal decoration, and understanding of the sensing mechanism, and maximize the advantages. In addition, it satisfies the requirements of actual equipment application such as low temperature gas detection, low cost, mass production and miniaturization, and easy to apply to existing technology. However, two-dimensional materials also have disadvantages that must be overcome, such as low selectivity, long response and recovery times, and irreversible gas detection properties.

Therefore, this paper is based on a reduced graphene oxide (rGO)/Molybdenum disulfides ( $\text{MoS}_2$ ) hybrid composite-based humidity sensor manufactured using 1) chemical fabrication such as hydrothermal methods and 2) mechanical fabrication method. Finally, 3) noble metal decorated  $\text{MoS}_2$  based gas sensor array are introduced. The detection characteristics of a resistive gas sensor are presented, which solves the problem of power consumption, and low selectivity.

First of all, rGO/ $\text{MoS}_2$  composites were synthesized by a simple hydrothermal synthesis method. The gas-sensing properties were confirmed by drop-casting the synthesized material on the interdigitated electrodes manufactured through the photolithography process. Sensors based on the rGO/ $\text{MoS}_2$  composites showed high sensitivity, selectivity, and reversible sensing response to relative humidity (RH) at room temperature. The theoretical detection limit was calculated to be about 0.01783% RH level. This sensor not only shows stable operation even in a curved form, but also expands the potential for practical application to next-generation technologies such as the Internet of Things and wearable electronics based on an easy manufacturing process.

Secondly, the room temperature and humidity sensing characteristics of the rGO/ $\text{MoS}_2$  van der Waals composites were confirmed by a simple solution process. Sensors based on

the rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> van der Waals composites showed improved response, selectivity, and reversibility to RH over other gases, and the computational room temperature detection limit was very sensitive, 0.0109% RH. This sensor not only shows stable operation even in a bent flexible device but has also been proven to operate as it is after a long period of more than a year. The excellent humidity sensing characteristics, long-term stability and flexible device applications extend the applicability of the actual gas sensor to the rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> van der Waals composites.

Thirdly, the noble metal was decorated on the surface of the MoS<sub>2</sub> prepared by using a solution process, and the gas sensing properties were measured. In this study, Pd, Au, and Pt were synthesized on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub>, and compared to the case of using pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>, the selectivity was improved. Based on a very simple manufacturing process and excellent gas sensing characteristics, it is possible to confirm the potential of two-dimensional MoS<sub>2</sub> as the next generation gas sensing material.

**Keywords:** chemoresistive gas sensor, MoS<sub>2</sub>, two-dimensional materials, functionalization, gas sensor array

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## **Chapter 1.**

# **Chemoresistive gas sensing of two-dimensional materials: Principles and leading materials**

## 1.1. Introduction

The olfactory sense is one of the five primary senses (vision, hearing, smell, taste, and touch) of human beings. Predominantly, taste and smell are used to detect flavor. However, the olfactory sense is a major factor in detecting and distinguishing the flavors of different products. In addition, there are typically hundreds of indoor chemicals in the atmosphere, including combustion by-products nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO), and several volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Despite very low concentrations, some of these compounds are very toxic, such as NO<sub>2</sub> and CO. Therefore, monitoring air quality is crucial to maintaining the safety and health conditions. Artificial olfaction is a biomimetic olfactory system<sup>[1]</sup>, which can protect the experts who are required to work in hazardous air environments or improve the quality of life by diagnosing diseases and controlling air quality in daily life. Recently, artificial olfaction has been developed for numerous industry applications<sup>[2]</sup>, such as indoor air-quality monitoring<sup>[3]</sup>, medical care<sup>[2,4,5]</sup>, customs security<sup>[6]</sup>, food quality control<sup>[7-13]</sup>, environmental quality monitoring<sup>[14-16]</sup>, military applications<sup>[17]</sup>, and hazardous gas detection<sup>[18,19]</sup>.

Gas sensor is a technological device that transforms chemical information, originated from a chemical reaction of the analyte or from a physical property of the system, into an analytically useful signal<sup>[20]</sup>. Gas sensors can be classified

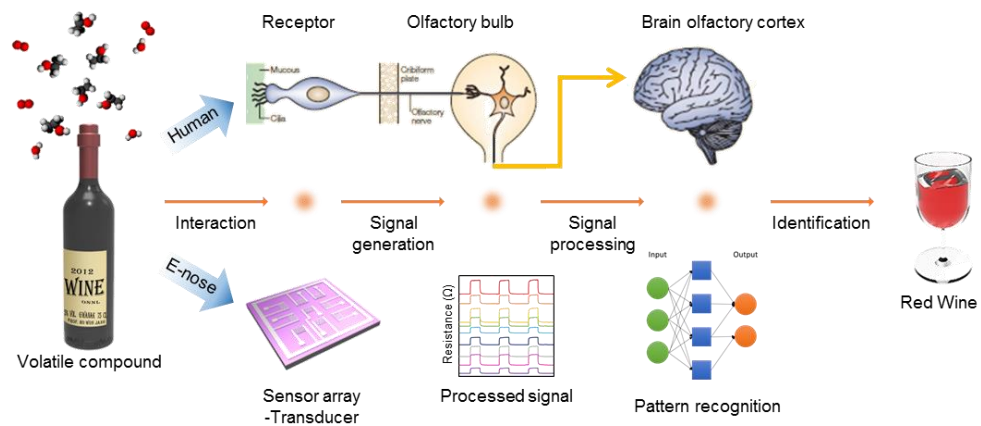


according to the operating principle as shown in Table 1.1. Among them, resistive semiconductor gas sensors receive the most attention owing to their several advantages such as low cost, high sensitivity, simple construction, and high compatibility with microelectronic processing. The most common sensing materials are metal oxide semiconductors (MOS)<sup>[21–24]</sup>. MOS have been extensively used over the past decades for chemoresistive gas sensor due to their advantages of low cost, small size, and high sensitivity to gas molecules<sup>[25–27]</sup>. However, metal oxides have major drawbacks that it is very influenced by surrounding environment during measurement and low selectivity, brittleness which hinder the use of metal oxides in next-generation technologies such as wearable devices and electronic nose.

Recently, two-dimensional (2D) materials such as graphene, metal oxide nanosheets, and transition metal dichalcogenides are gaining increasing attention as prospective sensing materials due to high surface-to-volume ratios, and surface configurations including dangling bonds on the edge sites and basal planes can be easily modified by decoration and functionalization process<sup>[28,29]</sup>. Moreover, unique properties such as flexibility, high transparency, and easy fabrication process are suitable for high performance gas sensors<sup>[30,31]</sup>.

In this thesis, chemoresistive gas sensing properties of 2D materials such as graphene oxide and MoS<sub>2</sub> are presented, also the improvement of sensing

properties of the 2D materials using functionalization and noble metal decorations are investigated. The thesis not only reports sensing performances of the sensors, but also demonstrates sensing mechanism depending on surface configurations, synthetic methods, and surface functional groups on surfaces. The observations on chemoresistive sensing properties of various 2D materials with different device designs and the investigations on sensing mechanisms will broaden the potential and lay the groundwork for 2D materials to be applied in practical applications such as wearable devices and electronic nose.



**Figure 1.1.** Comparison of the mammalian olfactory system and the e-nose system<sup>[32]</sup>

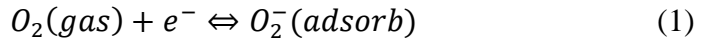
Table 1.1. Characteristics of diverse types of gas sensors.

Type of gas sensor	Advantage	Disadvantage
<b>Optical</b>	High sensitivity, selectivity and stability, long Lifetime, Insensitive to environment change	Difficulty in miniaturization, high cost
<b>Electrochemical</b>	High sensitivity, Low power requirements and good resolution, Does not get poisoned by other gas	Limited temperature range, Short of limited shelf life
<b>Catalytic</b>	Small size, Inexpensive operating costs	Highly sensitive to environment change, Baseline drift, Low sensitivity to NH <sub>3</sub> and CO <sub>2</sub>
<b>Semiconductor</b>	Low cost, Short response time, Wide range of target gases	Relatively low sensitivity and selectivity, Sensitive to environmental factors

## 1.2. Basics of chemoresistive gas sensors

### 1.2.1. Principles of gas sensing mechanisms

Semiconductor gas sensors operate by detecting changes in conductivity resulting from gas adsorption and desorption. In general, changes in the electrical properties of a sensor caused by the adsorption of gas molecules are mainly related to oxygen chemisorption.<sup>[21,33]</sup> Molecular oxygen adsorbs on the surface of oxide materials by attracting an electron from the conduction band of the semiconductor as shown in the Equation (1).



At high temperature (100 – 400 °C), the oxygen ion molecules are dissociated into oxygen ion atoms with singly ( $O^-$ ) or doubly ( $O_2^-$ ) negative electric charges by trapping an electron again from the conduction band.



The oxygen ions on the surface of oxide materials are very active, so undergoing chemical reaction with target gas molecule as shown in the Equation (4)



where X and X' is target gas molecule and out gas after chemical reaction, respectively. The b means the number of electrons.<sup>[34]</sup>

Based on charge carriers, semiconducting oxide materials can be classified into two groups: *n*-type and *p*-type materials. Target gas species can also be divided into two groups: oxidizing gas (electron acceptors) and reducing gas (electron donor). The chemical reaction causes change of the electric carrier concentration of oxide materials and thus change of gas sensor resistance. The change of gas sensor resistance depends on a type of oxide materials and target gas.

#### *n*-type semiconductor gas sensor

Since majority carriers in *n*-type semiconductors are electrons, the electrons in the conduction band of *n*-type semiconductors are removed by the adsorbed oxygen ions. This change in charge carrier concentration causes an increase of resistance of *n*-type semiconductor sensor at operating temperature. When the *n*-type semiconductor sensor is under reducing gas ambient, then a decrease in resistance of the sensor occurs. Conversely, an oxidizing gas cause depletion of charge carrying electrons, resulting in an increase in resistance.

### *p-type semiconductor gas sensor*

A *p*-type semiconductor is one where the majority charge carriers are positive holes. When the oxygen ions are adsorbed on the surface, *p*-type semiconductor generates holes via the excited electrons from valence band resulting in decreasing the sensor resistance (opposite to *n*-type). The opposite effect of *n*-type is also observed showing an increase in resistance in the presence of reducing gas and a decrease in resistance in the presence of oxidizing gas (Figure 1.2).

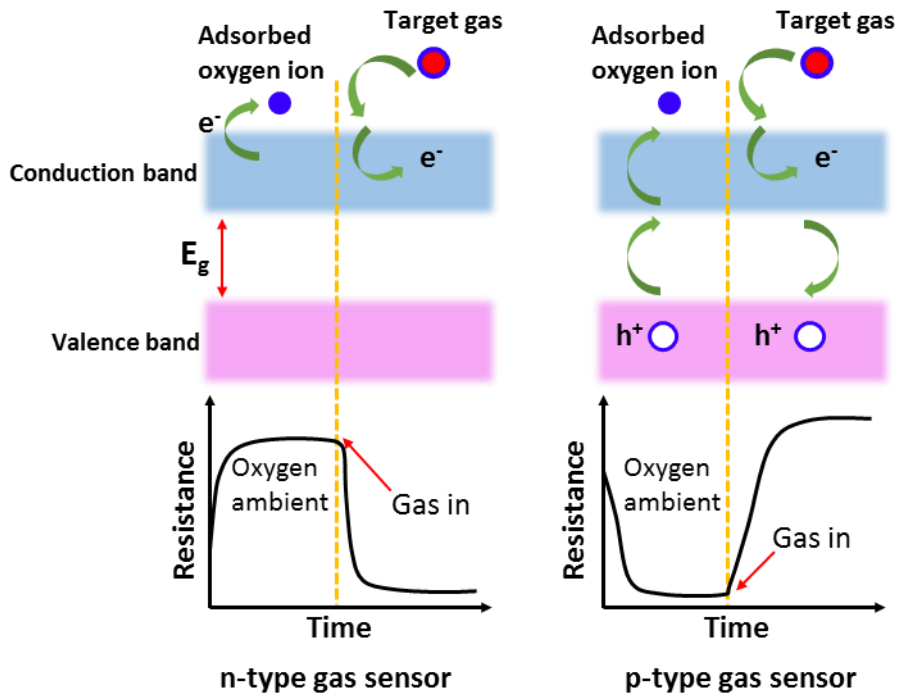


Figure 1.2 Schematic diagram for change of the sensor resistance upon exposure to reducing gas (target gas) in the cases of *n*-type and *p*-type semiconductor sensors.



## 1.2.2 Gas sensor parameters

Several parameters are used to characterize the performance of the sensor. The most important and essential parameters of the gas sensor and their definitions are listed below.

### *Response and Sensitivity*

Response of semiconductor gas sensors is defined as the ratio of the resistance before and after sensing performance as shown the Equation (5);

$$Response = \frac{R_g}{R_a} \quad \text{or} \quad Response = \frac{R_a}{R_g} \quad (5.1)$$

$$Response (\%) = \frac{\Delta R}{R_g} \times 100 (\%) \quad (5.2)$$

where  $R_a$  is the sensor resistance in ambient air,  $R_g$  is the sensor resistance in the target gas, and  $\Delta R = |R_a - R_g|$ .

Sensitivity ( $S$ ) of gas sensor is a change of measured signal (i.e. response) per analyte concentration; it can be represented by slope of a calibration graph. This parameter is sometimes confused with the limit of detection.

### *Response and recovery time*

Response time is the time it takes for sensor to undergo resistance changing from 10% to 90% of the value in equilibrium upon exposure to target gas. Recovery time is the time required for the sensor signal to return to 90% of its initial value upon removal of the target gas (Figure 1.3).

### *Limit of detection*

Limit of detection is defined as the lowest concentration of the target gas that can be detected by the gas sensor under given conditions. Limit of detection is estimated via extrapolating of sensitivity versus concentration curve and using the following equation. (6)

$$\text{Limit of detection} = \frac{3.3 \times \sigma}{\text{Slope } (s)} \quad (6)$$

where  $\sigma$  is standard deviation of the regression line (Figure 1.4).<sup>[35]</sup>

### *Selectivity*

Selectivity represents characteristics that determine whether a gas sensor can respond selectively to a specific analyte or a group of analytes.

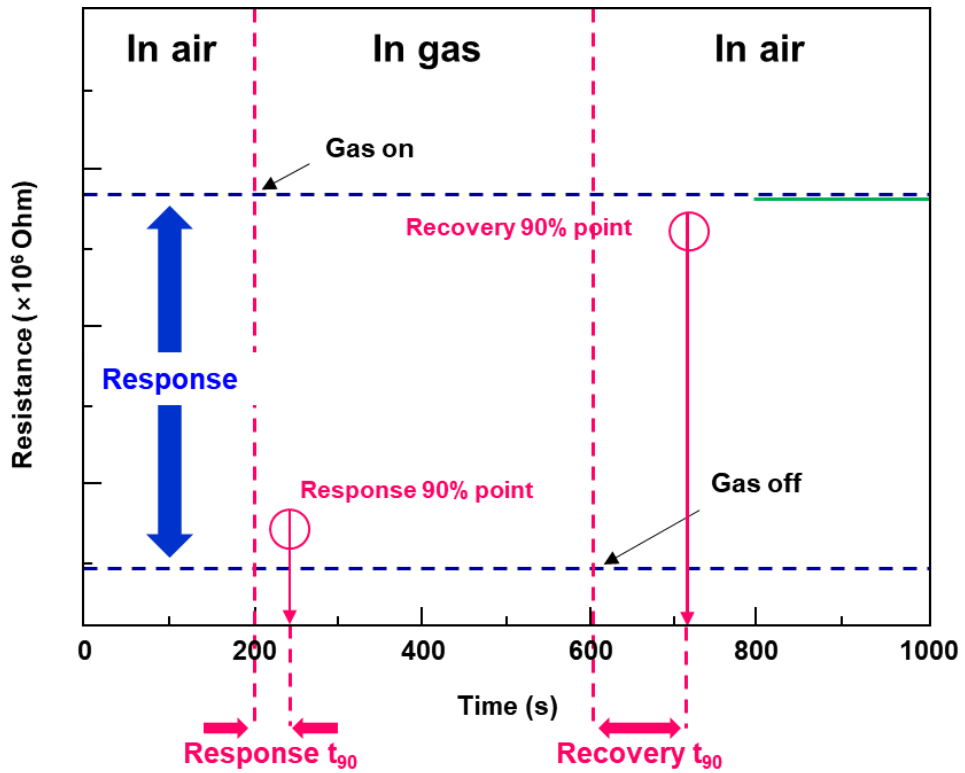
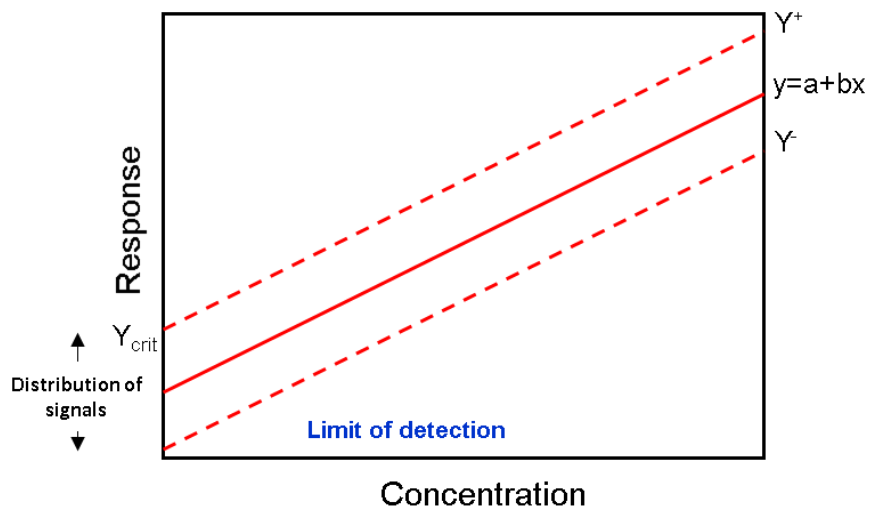


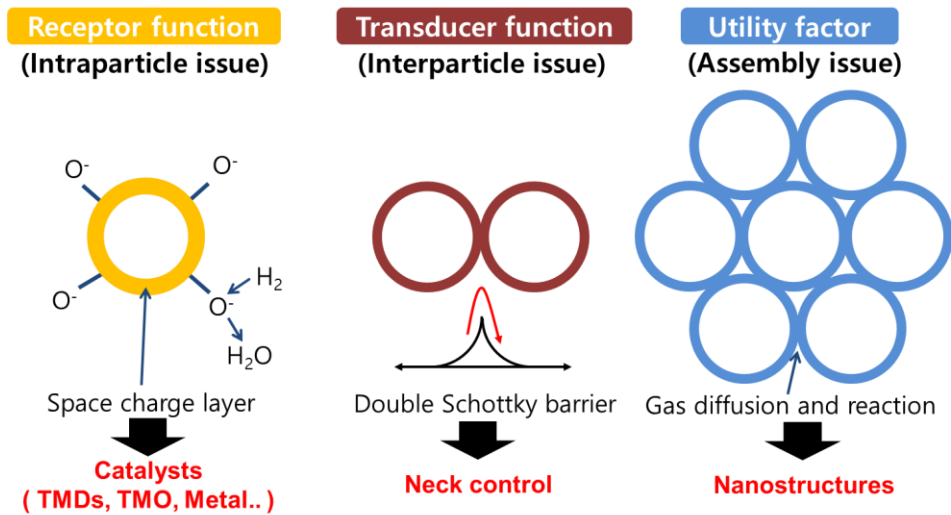
Figure 1.3. Definition of response and recovery time.



**Figure 1.4.** Limit of detection estimation. Extrapolating line ( $y=ax+b$ ) and graphical deduction of limit of detection. The arrow on the y axis reflects the maximum future signal (responses) height.<sup>[35]</sup>

### **1.2.3. Three basic factors for chemoresistive gas sensing**

The gas sensing properties of chemoresistive gas sensors are affected by three basic factors: receptor function, utility factor, and transducer function. Figure 1.5 shows the schematic diagram for concept of three basic factors. The receptor function refers to how the surface of sensing materials interact with gas molecules. It is possible to enhance sensing responses by modification of surface chemistry. In particular, surfaces of 2D materials with numerous active edge sites and defects can be easily modified by simple functionalization and surface decoration processes that enhance gas selectivity. Since the nanoscale noble metals have catalytic effect for preferred selective detection of specific gas species, they effectively enhance the receptor function. Utility factor is the ability of inner sites of sensing materials to access the target gas which have relevance to porosity of sensing layers and diffusion depth of gas molecules. For instance, the sensing ability can be lower when the sensing layer is too thick and the pore size is too small at the same time because gas molecules cannot pass through the sensing body. Transducer function expresses the ability to convert the signal generated by gas adsorption into an electrical signal like current, and resistances. Shape and configuration of sensing layers can tune transducer function. Hence, in order to achieve high gas sensing performance, the three basic factors should be properly controlled.



**Figure 1.5.** Schematic diagram of three basic factors in chemoresistive gas sensing

## 1.3. Two-dimensional materials for chemoresistive gas sensing

### 1.3.1. Graphene-based gas sensors

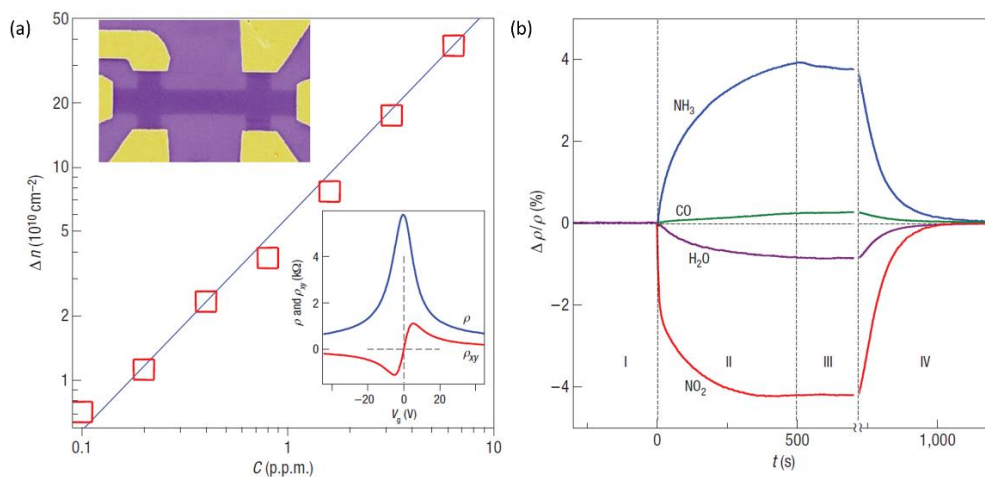
Graphene composed of a single layer of carbon honeycomb lattice is considered as a promising material for next generation of high-performance sensing application, because all atoms of the graphene are surface atoms, the electrical noise level is very low, and characteristics can be easily adjusted by a simple procedures. For these reasons, many research groups are investigating chemoresistive gas sensing applications based on graphene derivatives, such as graphene, graphene oxide, and reduced graphene oxide.

Shedin *et al.*<sup>[36]</sup> reported capability of detecting individual gas molecules using microscale graphene gas sensor (Figure 1.6). In the report, Shedin *et al.* found that the initial undoped state could be recovered by annealing at 150 °C in vacuum (region IV in Figure 1.6). Repetitive exposure–annealing cycles showed no ‘poisoning’ effects of these chemicals (that is, the devices could be annealed back to their initial state). Lipatov *et al.*<sup>[37]</sup> reported reduced graphene oxide (rGO) gas sensor based gas sensor array addressing the selectivity problem. With irregular structure of rGO films at different levels of organization, ranging from nanoscale to microscale, the rGO based sensor array demonstrated a high selectivity that can classify different alcohols, such as methanol, ethanol and isopropanol (Figure 1.7). Pour *et al.*<sup>[38]</sup> reported the development of graphene nanoribbon based sensor array

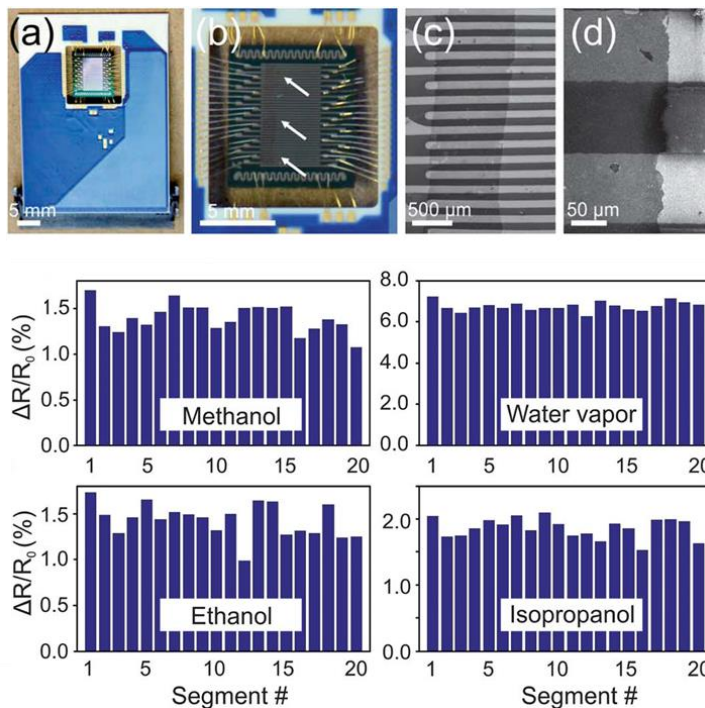
using solution process on the KAMINA platform. Pour *et al.* found that the lateral extension of graphene nanoribbons resulted in a reduction in the electronic bandgap, improving the conductivity of the graphene and enhancing the response to low molecular weight alcohols (Figure 1.8.). Dan *et al.*<sup>[39]</sup> demonstrated that the contamination layer chemically dopes the graphene, enhanced carrier scattering, and acted as an absorbent layer that concentrates analyte molecules at the graphene surface, thereby enhancing the sensor response.

On top of this, there is a lot of researches on chemoresistive gas sensors based on graphene derivatives.<sup>[40-43]</sup> This research attempts to provide high-performance gas sensors with high sensitivity, reversibility, and selectivity, but remains an open question. Delays in response and recovery, high power consumption, sophisticated structures, and the flexibility of the device have hindered the practical application of the sensor. Therefore, I report a variety of approaches, such as functionalization and surface decoration to enhance the selectivity of MoS<sub>2</sub> based materials.

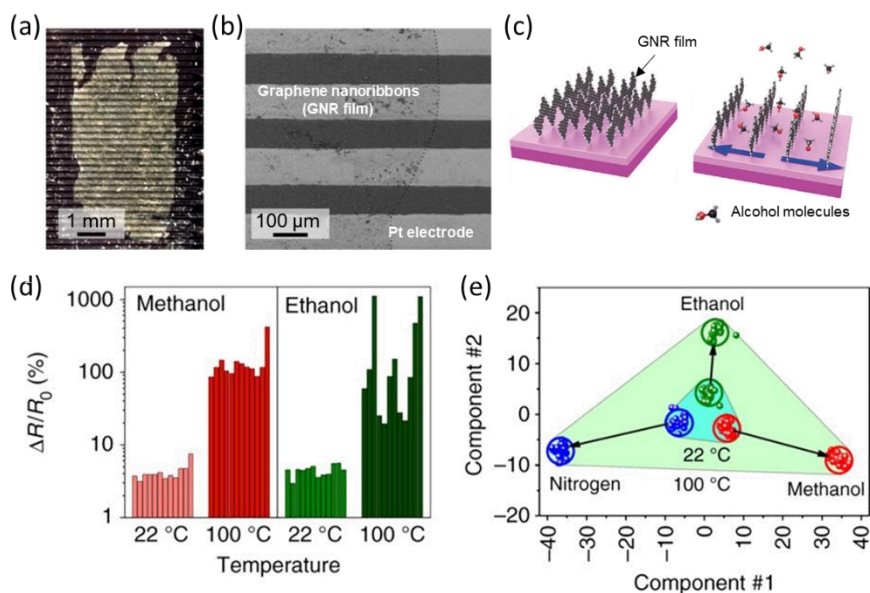




**Figure 1.6.** Sensitivity of graphene to chemical doping. (a) Concentration of chemically induced charge carriers in single-layer graphene exposed to different concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2$ . Upper inset: SEM. Lower inset: Characterization of the graphene device by using the electric-field effect. (b) Changes in resistivity upon exposure to various gases of 1 ppm.<sup>[36]</sup>



**Figure 1.7.** (a) Optical image of a KAMINA platform based on reduced graphene oxide and (b) active area of the sensor. (c) SEM image of sensors deposited with rGO and (d) a fragment of one of the devices shown in (c). (e) Distributions of gas responses of rGO segments to 1500 ppm of methanol, water vapor, ethanol and isopropanol mixed with dry air.<sup>[37]</sup>



**Figure 1.8.** (a) Optical image of KAMINA chip with a GNR film deposited on the multielectrode. (b) SEM image of the random GNR film segments on the multielectrode structure. The edge of the GNR film is shown by the dotted curve. (c) Schematic image of GNR film on the substrate and the possible intercalation of alcohol molecules which might induce the decrease in the conductivity of the eGNR film. (d) Representative dynamic responses at room temperature and 100 °C to 500 ppm methanol and ethanol with selected fragment of the GNR sensor array. (e) The results of LDA processing of the responses obtained by GNR sensor array exposed to nitrogen mixed with 500 ppm of ethanol and methanol at 22 °C (small blue triangle) and 100 °C (large green triangle).<sup>[38]</sup>

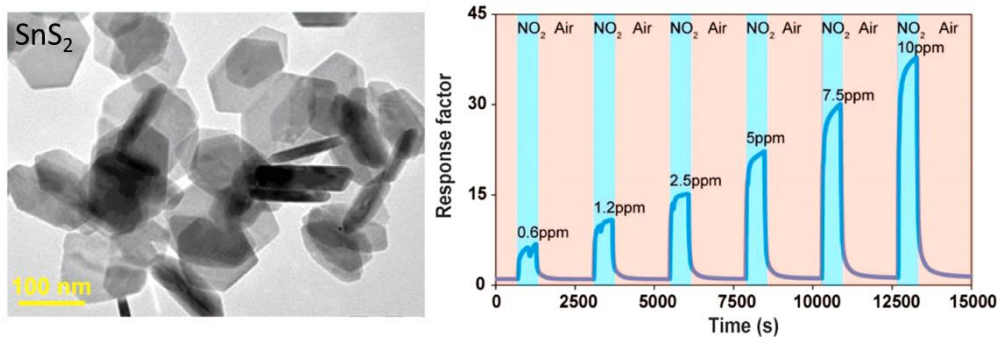
### 1.3.2. Transition metal dichalcogenides based gas sensors

Due to the increasing interest in two-dimensional materials, transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) such as MoS<sub>2</sub>, WS<sub>2</sub>, SnS<sub>2</sub>, WSe<sub>2</sub>, and NbSe<sub>2</sub> are being studied as gas sensing materials.<sup>[44–51]</sup> In contrast to graphene-based materials, TMDs have other advantages, such as semiconducting nature, and numerous active edge sites.

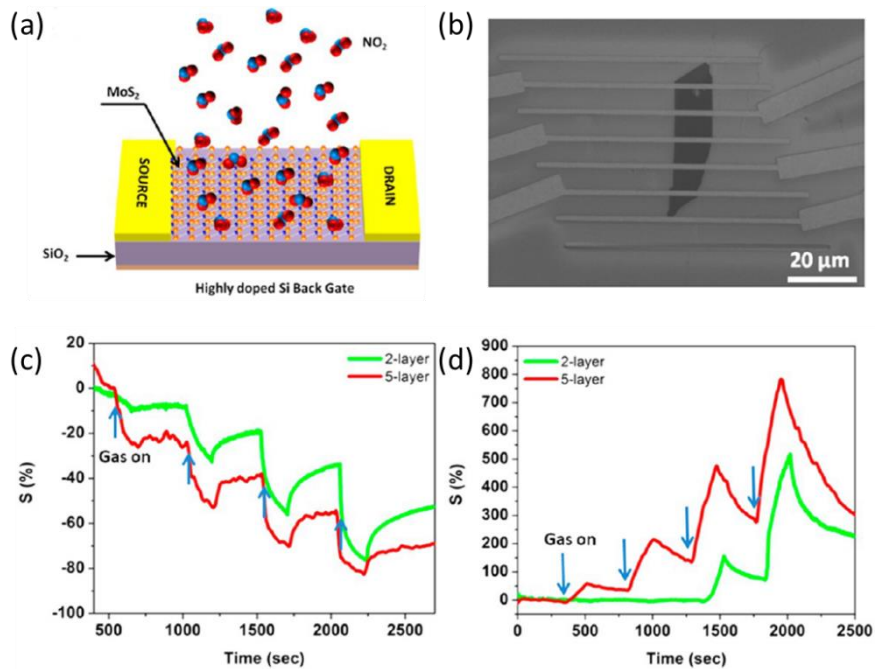
Ou *et al.*<sup>[44]</sup> demonstrated reversible and selective sensing properties of 2D SnS<sub>2</sub> flakes to NO<sub>2</sub> exposures at low operating temperatures of less than 160 °C (Figure 1.9). The optimal sensing temperature was 120 °C showing excellent linearity with increasing NO<sub>2</sub> concentration from 0.6 to 1.2 ppm. Ko *et al.*<sup>[45]</sup> reported Ag nanowire decorated large-area 2D WS<sub>2</sub> based NO<sub>2</sub> gas sensor with high response and significantly improved recovery. Late *et al.*<sup>[46]</sup> reported gas sensing behavior of few MoS<sub>2</sub> layers using transistor geometry. The sensor exhibited excellent sensitivity, and recovery. The sensing mechanism was investigated by DFT calculations (Figure 1.10). Cho *et al.*<sup>[50]</sup> presented chemoresistive gas sensing properties of 2D NbSe<sub>2</sub>/WSe<sub>2</sub> layered junction which is applicable on wearable devices. They showed high endurance to mechanical bending and doing laundry as well.

As noted above, many researchers have explored TMDs based chemoresistive gas sensors to demonstrate impressive chemoresistive sensing properties such as high

selectivity, sensitivity, and reversibility compared to other 2D materials. Despite the great potential for high performance gas sensors, selectivity and recovery problem still remains. Therefore, this paper uses several methods to improve selectivity and recovery of TMDs based gas sensors.



**Figure 1.9.** TEM image of 2D SnS<sub>2</sub> and the sensing responses to NO<sub>2</sub> gas operated at 120 °C.<sup>[44]</sup>



**Figure 1.10.** (a) Schematic of the MoS<sub>2</sub> transistor-based NO<sub>2</sub> gas-sensing device. (b) SEM image of two-layer MoS<sub>2</sub> transistor device. Sensing curves to (c) NH<sub>3</sub> and (d) NO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>[46]</sup>

## **Chapter 2**

### **Room temperature humidity sensors based on rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrid composites synthesized by hydrothermal method**



## 2.1. Introduction

The growth of Internet of things (IoT), interconnection between objects which possess the technology that detect and propagate internal and external state of the object, have opened new opportunities for gas sensors <sup>[52]</sup>. In previous study, low or high level of relative humidity can induce some physical discomfort such as respiratory or skin problems <sup>[53]</sup>. Controlling and monitoring humidity have gained great interest in IoT including building automation, agriculture, aerospace, semiconductor industry and healthcare <sup>[54–56]</sup>. For the IoT, however, the device should satisfy special requirements like high response, selectivity, reliability, low-cost mass production, and low power consumption.

Electronic type humidity sensors are classified into two types by measuring methods: capacitive and resistive-type humidity sensors. Capacitive-type humidity sensors are extensively exploited due to their numerous advantages such as low power consumption, good linearity, and wide range of relative humidity (R.H.) detection. However, complex device structure and expensive price due to complicated fabrication process still remain as challenges to be overcome <sup>[57–59]</sup>. In the contrast, resistive-type humidity sensors have merits of simple fabrication, cost effectiveness, and small size which can be easily applied to sensor array <sup>[56,60–64]</sup>.

For resistive-type humidity sensors, metal oxide <sup>[65]</sup> and polymer <sup>[66]</sup> have been studied, but considerable problems have been remained: Wang *et al.* <sup>[21]</sup> have

revealed that metal oxide based humidity sensors show significant degradation of the sensor performance under humid ambient. Wang *et al.* [67] also showed polymer based humidity sensors exhibit inherent drawbacks of poor stability in high humidity environment, thus limit their further development. To overcome these problems, other types of materials have been studied as alternative sensing elements.

Two-dimensional (2D) materials, such as graphene and transition metal dichalcogenides (TMD), with large surface to volume ratio, high specific area, and numerous active sites have demonstrated great potential as sensing materials [36,38,68–70]. Reduced graphene oxide (rGO), one of the graphene derivatives, is a very fascinating material for humidity detection [40,71,72] because rGO has oxygen-containing functional groups such as –COOH and –OH on the surface which show hydrophilicity [73,74]. Moreover, rGO can be fabricated by facile and cost-effective processes that can be ready for mass-production [75]. In addition, molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>) is attracting considerable attention as a humidity sensing material due to its remarkable sensing performance originating from numerous dangling bonds at the edge sites [46,48]. Taking both advantages of the materials, rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrid composites are utilized for humidity sensors [61,76]. Hydrothermal synthesis has the advantage of a liquid phase process that can produce crystalline anhydrous ceramic powder in one process. The main difference from other methods is that

annealing process at high temperature is not required. In other words, not only the annealing process but also the grinding process according to the annealing process is not required. Therefore, it is possible to suppress the inflow of impurities and the occurrence of defects due to grinding. Another advantage of hydrothermal synthesis is that the choice of raw materials to react and the reaction conditions are very wide, not only the use of cheap raw materials, but also the easy control of the physical and chemical properties of the powder. It can satisfy such characteristics as miniaturization of powder size. In addition, the manufacturing process is simple, and a large amount of high purity powder can be obtained from low purity low cost raw materials [77,78].

In the previous research, Novoselov *et al.*, has proven van der Waals bonding formation between 2D materials [79]. When *p*-type rGO [71,80] contacts to intrinsic *n*-type MoS<sub>2</sub> [48], *p-n* junction is formed by van der Waals bonding between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> [81]. The *p-n* heterojunction formed between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> interface enhances the humidity sensing performance of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrid composites through controlling electronic transport at the hetero-interface and synergistic promotion of humidity sensing reaction [76,81].

Herein, we report extremely sensitive and selective humidity sensors using layered structures of rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrid composites fabricated by hydrothermal method. Drop-casting methods on Pt electrodes were used to fabricate the sensors

which show a high and linear response to a wide range of RH due to the increased number of active sites and *p-n* junction formation. As taking both advantages of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>, we present the enhanced sensing properties such as sensitivity, selectivity and response time. The morphology of rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrid composites was examined by scanning electron microscope (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and the formation of *p-n* junctions are clarified by peak shift of X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). Our results here suggest that the fabrication of rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrid composites through hydrothermal method is an effective method to fabricate highly sensitive and selective humidity sensing materials.

## **2.2. Experimental section**

### **2.2.1. Synthesis of MS-GO**

22 mg of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> was added to various concentrations of GO in DMF and stirred at room temperature until the solutions were homogeneously mixed. The amount of GO was decided by calculating molar ratio as GO/(NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> to be 5:1, 3:2, 1:5. Next, each solution was well dispersed by using an ultrasonic bath for 20 min, and was then transferred to a 40 mL Teflon-lined autoclave and kept in a convection oven at 200 °C for 10 h. The product was then centrifuged at 8,000 rpm and washed with DI water. Next, the solution was rinsed 5 times to completely remove DMF and organic residues. The final products which consisted of

rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrid composites (MS-GOs) were re-dispersed in 5 mL DI water. Pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> was prepared by using the same procedure but without the addition of GO. The samples were named each rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> 5:1, 3:2, and 1:5 as MS-GO1, MS-GO2, and MS-GO3.

### **2.2.2. Sensor fabrication**

Electrodes which has 4 μm of interspaces were prepared on a SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate using photolithography followed by metal deposition (Pt/Ti) using e-beam evaporator. A 0.4 μL drop of a MS-GO solution was cast onto a Pt finger/SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate. To evaporate the DI water, the samples were dried on a hotplate at 100 °C for 10 minutes, resulting in sensing materials loading on the substrate.

### **2.2.3. Material characterization**

To ensure successful hybridization of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> from GO and (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> precursors, various characterizations were carried out using SEM, TEM, Raman and XPS. The SEM was performed by using Stereoscan 440 (Leica Cambridge) to study the morphology of surface. The high resolution TEM (HRTEM) measurements were accomplished using JEM-2100F (JEOL) performed at an acceleration voltage of 200 kV. The XPS were characterized with K-Alpha (Thermo electron).

#### **2.2.4. Sensor measurements**

The humidity sensing properties of rGO, MS-GOs, and MoS<sub>2</sub> based sensor were measured at room temperature by monitoring resistivity change of sensors during switching flow gases from dry air to humid air. The resistance of the sensor was measured under a DC bias voltage of 1 V using a source measurement unit (Keithley 236). The continuous flow rate of 500 sccm was used for both dry and humid air. The response of the sensors was accurately regulated by the ratio of the fully recovered resistances after exposure to humidity to the base resistance in dry air.

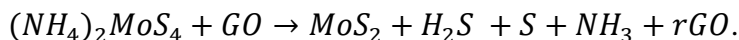
#### **2.2.5. Flexible Device**

Interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) of 5 μm interspacing were prepared on PET substrate using photolithography followed by metal (Pt/Ti) deposition. The active area for humidity sensing was consist of 20 finger electrodes. 0.5 μl of MS-GO<sub>2</sub> was deposited on the Pt/IDEs/PET substrate by drop-casting method, and then dried for 10 min at 100 °C on a hotplate to remove the solution. To confirm stable sensing operation under bending strain, the flexible device was attached on pen cap (bending radius of 7 mm). The bent sensor was fixed on an alumina plate and loaded to the gas sensing measurement system.

## 2.3. Result and discussion

### 2.3.1. Fabrication process and electrical properties

The fabrication process of MS-GO is demonstrated in Figure 2.1.  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{MoS}_4$  and graphene oxide in *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF) solution was used as precursor material of MS-GO. GO and  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{MoS}_4$  were dispersed by ultrasonication for 10 minutes and then poured in a 40 mL Teflon-lined autoclave. Then MS-GOs were synthesized by hydrothermal method at 200 °C for 10 hours. During the fabrication process,  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{MoS}_4$  and GO were reduced to  $\text{MoS}_2$  and rGO respectively by following equation <sup>[82,83]</sup> :



After cooling down to the room temperature, the final product was centrifuged at 8,000 rpm to remove DMF and then washed with DI water. MS-GO was then drop-casted onto a Pt finger electrode with 4- $\mu\text{m}$  interspacing patterned on  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrate (Figure 2.2a). Both sides of finger electrodes were passivated with insulating material to observe the sensing performance occurred at active area (Figure 2.2b). 0.4  $\mu\text{L}$  of each MS-GOs were drop-casted onto Pt finger electrodes. The MS-GOs were sufficiently distributed on the active area between Pt finger electrodes (Figure 2.2c) and then dried on a hot plate to remove the DI water which can influence on humidity sensing properties. Figure 2.2d, e, and f show SEM images of pristine rGO,  $\text{MoS}_2$ , and MS-GOs, respectively. From previous study,

MoS<sub>2</sub> was exfoliated by sonication showed the stacked layer structure. However, MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized by hydrothermal method showed flower-like nanoparticles, composed with nano-sheets. As shown in Figure 2.2f, MoS<sub>2</sub> is well distributed on rGO without noticeable aggregation, resulting in highly exposed edge sites.

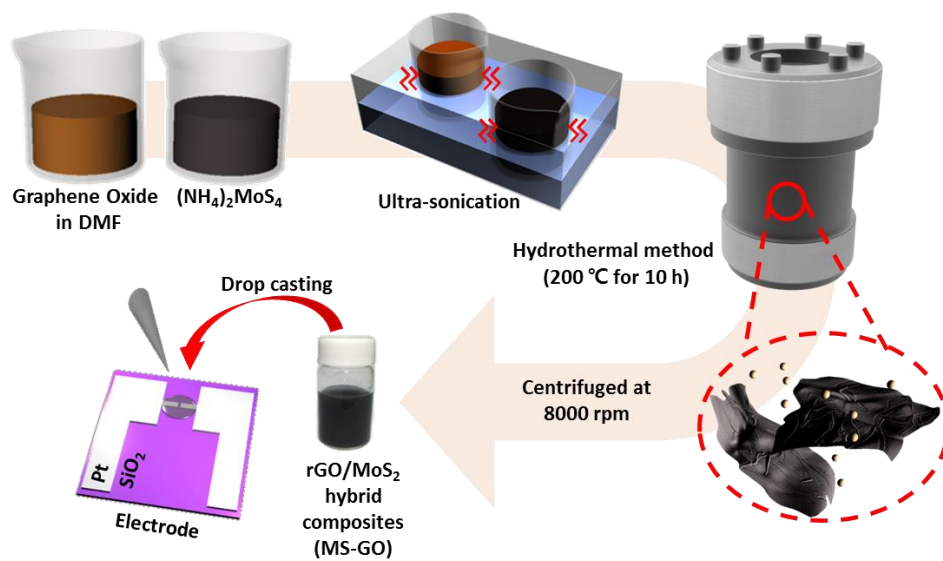
TEM images were taken in order to characterize the microstructural information of the samples. Figure 2.3 reveals morphology of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figure 2.3a, b, and c) and a MS-GO (Figure 2.3d, e, and f). The TEM image of Figure 2.3a indicates the micro-sized MoS<sub>2</sub> particles due to van der Waals stacking of MoS<sub>2</sub>, and this is clear in the moire patterns observed in Figure 2.3b due to overlapping of different planes of MoS<sub>2</sub>. The interlayer distance of MoS<sub>2</sub> is 0.67 nm matching to the reported MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figure 2.3c). Figure 2.3d shows a MS-GO composite structure with well dispersed layered MoS<sub>2</sub> on rGO bases. From Figure 2.3e, few layered MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes co-exist on rGO are observed, attributing to the selective growth of MoS<sub>2</sub> on oxygen functional groups of GO. (002) basal planes of MoS<sub>2</sub> and interlayer distance of MoS<sub>2</sub> in a MS-GO corresponds with pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> to 0.67 nm (Figure 2.3f). From this TEM image, it is clear that MoS<sub>2</sub> and rGO composites are successfully fabricated.

Figure 2.4a and b display Raman spectra of MS-GO with rGO region (Figure 2.4a) and MoS<sub>2</sub> region (Figure 2.4b). The value of I<sub>D</sub>/I<sub>G</sub> were 1.20 and 1.14 with rGO, and MS-GO2. The increased intensity ratio of I<sub>D</sub>/I<sub>G</sub> with rGO and MS-GO2

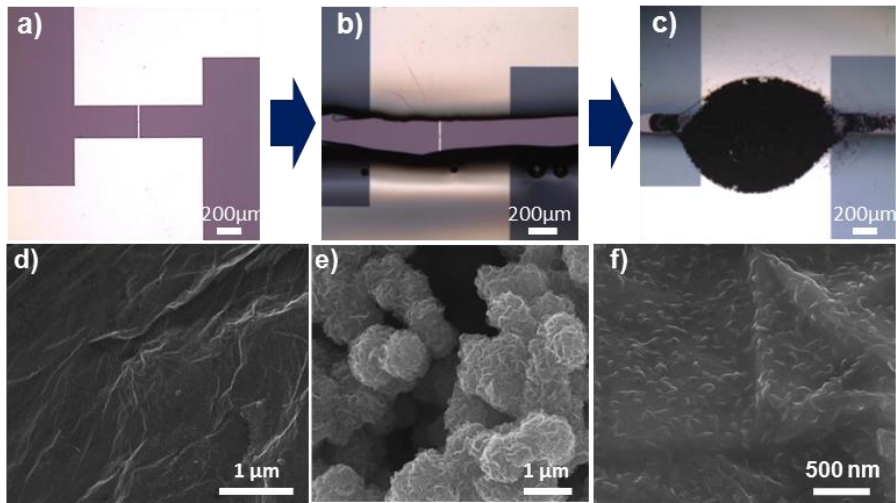


suggests that GO is successfully reduced to rGO containing some defect sites and created increased number of new  $sp^2$  domains which were presented less in GO. The D peak of GO, rGO, and MS-GO2 are shown in 1347, 1353, and 1357  $cm^{-1}$  respectively and G peak of GO, rGO, and MS-GO2 each are shown in 1591, 1589, and 1607  $cm^{-1}$ . From previous research, D band reveals the structural defects induced from the attachment of oxygen containing functional groups such as hydroxyl and epoxy groups on the basal plane of graphene and its derivatives such as GO and rGO [84]. The G band of the MS-GO2 was shifted to higher frequency confirming the electron interactions between rGO and  $MoS_2$  [85]. And two main peaks shown in Figure 2.4b at 376 and 402  $cm^{-1}$  indicates  $E_{2g}^1$  and  $A_{1g}$  modes of  $MoS_2$ . The intensity of two peaks shows edge terminated characteristics of  $MoS_2$  associated with the lower intensity of  $E_{2g}^1$  compared to  $A_{1g}$ . Quite a number of unsaturated sulfur atoms exist in the edge site playing an important role in detecting humidity. The chemical properties of  $MoS_2$  are analysed by XPS shown in Figure 2.4c and 4d [84]. In Figure 2.4c, three major peaks at 226, 228.5 and 232 eV correspond to the S 2s of  $MoS_2$ ,  $Mo^{4+} 3d_{5/2}$  and  $Mo^{4+} 3d_{3/2}$  respectively [75,86]. Figure 2.4c shows the absence of  $MoO_3$  because no any other peaks for  $Mo^{6+}$  is shown and this can prove that the Mo atoms are not oxidized in MS-GO [87]. The characteristics of sulfur are shown in Figure 2.4d. The peaks shown at 161 and 163 eV correspond to the S  $2p_{3/2}$  and S  $2p_{1/2}$  of  $MoS_2$ . MS-GO2 shows slightly increased binding energy compared to pristine  $MoS_2$  which can be considered as some specific

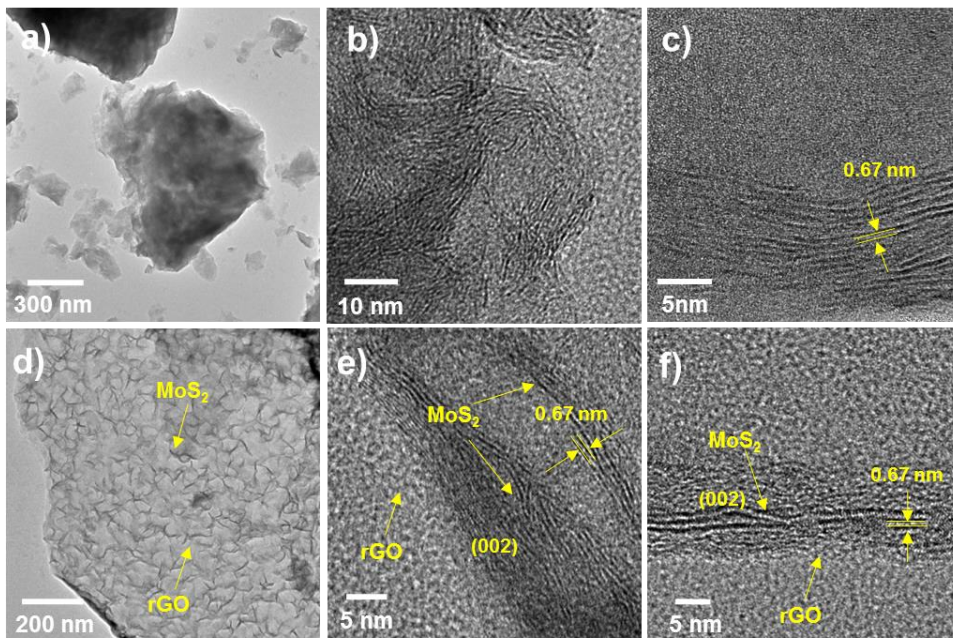
interaction existing between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. The interaction induced by the transfer of electrons between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> enhances the conductivity of MS-GOs which can be the evidence of the formation of junction between the interface of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. The heterojunctions formed between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> are considered to be the reason of increased humidity sensing properties of MS-GOs.



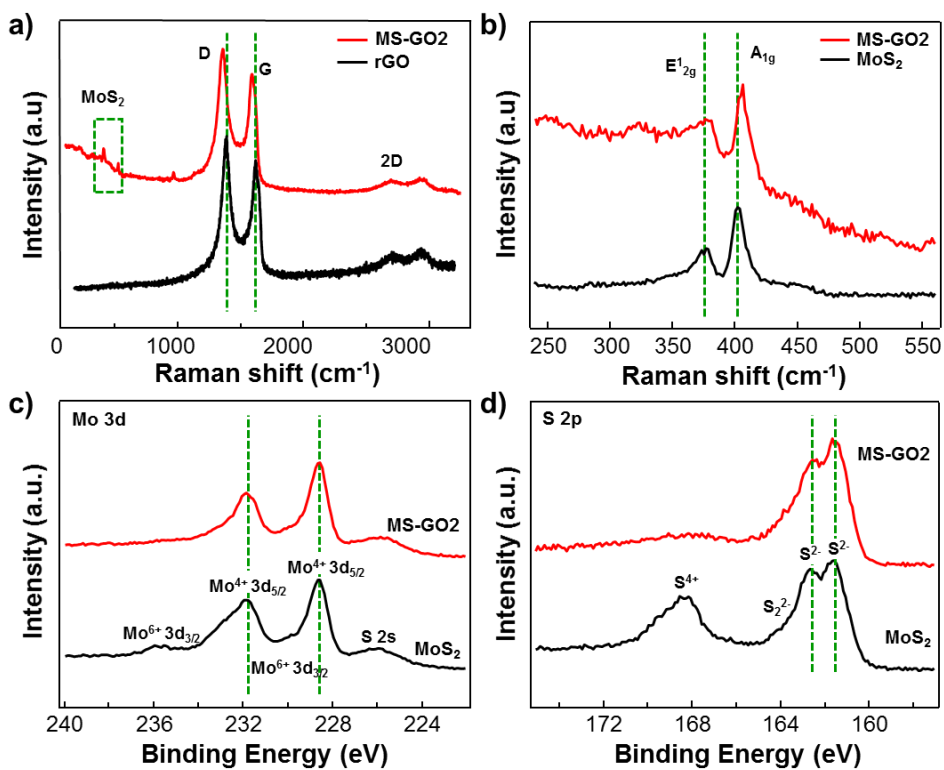
**Figure 2.1.** Fabrication procedure of MS-GO humidity sensor.



**Figure 2.2.** (a-c) Optical microscope image of sensing device and the sensing area with MS-GO drop casted. SEM images of (d) rGO, (e) MoS<sub>2</sub> and (f) MS-GO.



**Figure 2.3.** TEM images of (a–c) pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> and (d–f) MS-GO



**Figure 2.4.** Raman spectra of MS-GO hybrids prepared using various GO contents: (a) rGO and (b) MoS<sub>2</sub> peak regions. (c) Mo 3d and (d) S 2p XPS spectra of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> and of MS-GO with various GO contents.

### 2.3.2. Gas sensing properties of MS-GO

Figure 2.5 shows the sensing properties of bare rGO, MoS<sub>2</sub> and MS-GO. The dynamic sensing curves of rGO, MS-GO1, MS-GO2, MS-GO3 and MoS<sub>2</sub> are shown in Figure 2.5a. All samples including bare samples possess different base resistances in dry air condition, as shown in the inset data of Figure 2.5b. The bare rGO shows the lowest baseline resistance ( $5.8 \times 10^3 \Omega$ ) and the baseline resistance of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> is extremely higher up to  $1.7 \times 10^8 \Omega$  (Figure 2.6a and e). The samples revealed resistance ranging from  $1.0 \times 10^4 \Omega$  to  $4.2 \times 10^6 \Omega$  (Figure 2.6b, c, and d). The increase of baseline is in accordance with the increasing concentration of MoS<sub>2</sub>. The response to humidity were defined here as  $(R_{\text{humidity}} - R_{\text{dry}})/R_{\text{dry}} \times 100$ , where  $R_{\text{dry}}$  and  $R_{\text{humidity}}$  indicate the resistance of the sensor measured in dry air and in humid air, respectively. The response of rGO, MS-GO1, MS-GO2, MS-GO3 and MoS<sub>2</sub> were calculated to be 3%, 15%, 21%, 14%, and 49% at 50% RH at room temperature (Figure 2.5b). The response time and recovery time for each sample (response  $t_{90}$  and recovery  $t_{90}$  are the time expended for the resistance to reach 90% of its steady state value in humid response and the recovery to original state, respectively) were calculated (Figure 2.5c). As shown in Figure 2.5c, the response  $t_{90}$  of rGO, MSGO1, MS-GO2, MS-GO3 and MoS<sub>2</sub> were 193.7, 59, 30, 116, and 17 s, and the recovery  $t_{90}$  of each sample were 418, 343, 253, 282, and 474 s, respectively. While MS-GO2 showed recovery time over 1 minute for

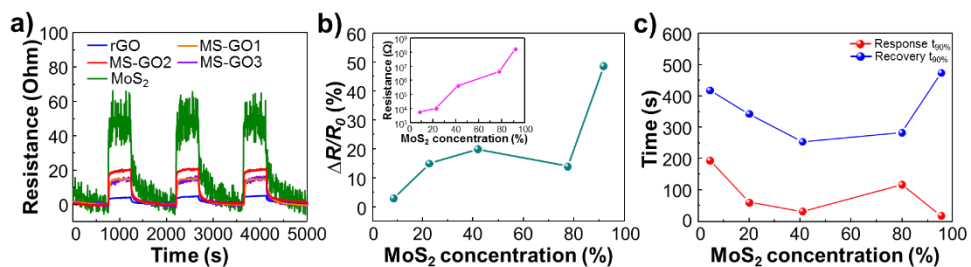
full recovery, humidity sensors based rGO, graphene and MoS<sub>2</sub> sheets exhibited much longer response and recovery time <sup>[42,46,88]</sup>. Though MoS<sub>2</sub> showed the highest response value but comparing its response and recovery time with other samples, MS-GO2 showed the best sensing performances.

Considering MS-GO2 as the best sample, more detailed sensing properties are measured. MS-GO shows a 4 times higher response than pristine rGO (Figure 2.7a). In order to evaluate the selectivity of MS-GO2 on humidity sensing properties compared to other gases, the responses of MS-GO2 to various gases such as 10 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>, 1000 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 50 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, and 50 ppm C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH has been measured (Figure 2.8). For comparison, pristine rGO was equally tested. Responses of MS-GO2 to 10 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>, 1000 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 50 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, and 50 ppm C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH at room temperature are 4, 2.8, 0.2, and 0.3% respectively, while responses of the pristine rGO are 3, 1, 0.1, and 0.4% (Figure 2.7b). From the previous study, pristine rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> showed good response to NO<sub>2</sub> gas but in this study, MS-GO2 shows extremely high selectivity to humidity <sup>[69,85]</sup>. This result reveals that the humidity sensing properties of rGO has been significantly enhanced by combining rGO with MoS<sub>2</sub>. Since MS-GO2 shows a particularly high response to 50% relative humidity air, suggesting that MS-GO2 is profitable for detect humidity air selectively which is one of the most important factors required for semiconductor gas sensors. Moreover, long reliability is considered as another critical factor for humidity

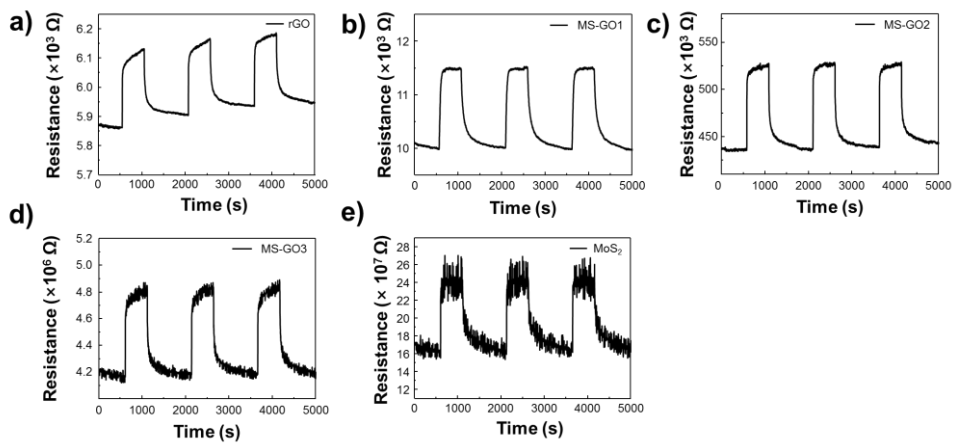


sensors. In this work, we have confirmed the excellent repeatability of MS-GO1 to humidity without any significant degradation (Figure 2.9).

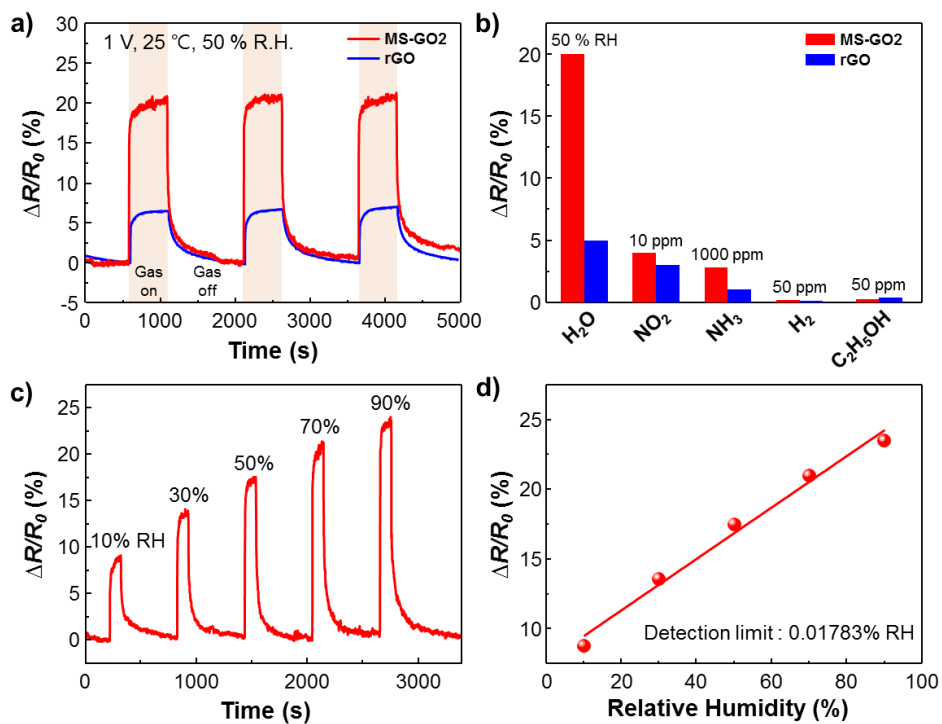
To evaluate the detection limit of MS-GO2 to humid air, the response of the sensor was measured to 10, 30, 50, 70, and 90% R.H as shown in Figure 2.7c. The  $\Delta R/R_o$  values proportionally increase with increasing R.H values. The response values were plotted as a function of the humidity concentration in Figure 2.7d. A simple linear regression fit was plotted to derive the linear correlation between the responses and the concentrations. The linear regression equation is expressed as  $y = 0.1865x + 7.8615$ , where  $y$  is the response and  $x$  is the relative humidity value. The measure of goodness-of-fit of the linear regression,  $r^2$ , was calculated to be 0.98. The responses of the sensor are 9.03, 13.91, 17.53, 21.40, and 23.85 to 10, 30, 50, 70, and 90% RH, respectively. Although the H<sub>2</sub>O concentration of 1 ppm was the lowest examined experimentally in the present study, the theoretical detection limit was calculated to be approximately 0.01783% R.H [35,85]. This low level of the detection limits to H<sub>2</sub>O indicates its possibility of using in various applications such as environmental monitoring, hospital, and laboratory.



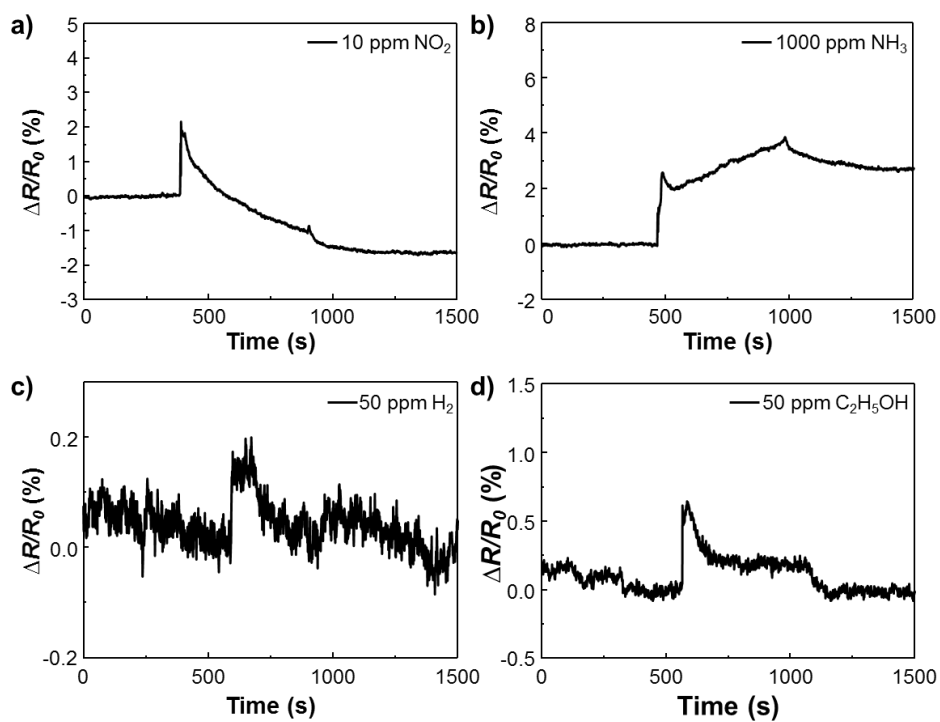
**Figure 2.5.** (a) Sensing curves of rGO, MS-GO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. (b) Responses  $((R_{\text{air}} - R_{\text{gas}})/R_{\text{gas}})$  of rGO and MS-GO to 50% R.H. and resistance of rGO, MS-GO and MoS<sub>2</sub> at 25 °C. (c) Response and recovery time at 25 °C to 50% R.H.



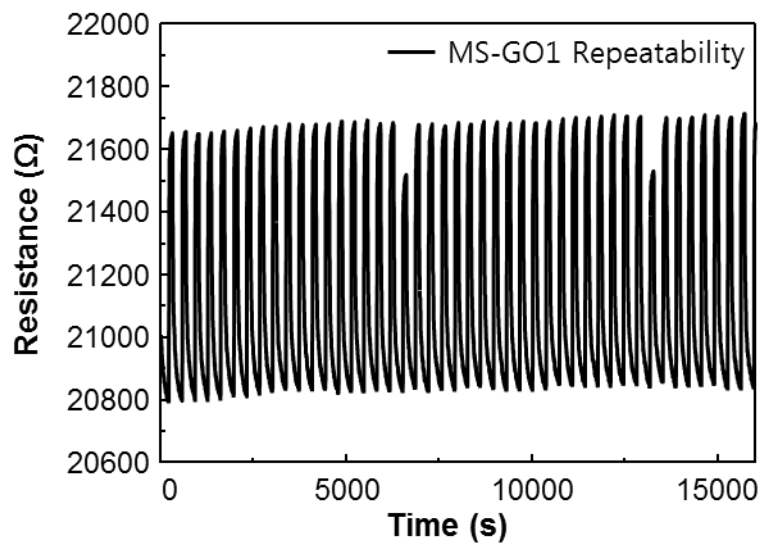
**Figure 2.6.** Sensing curves of pristine (a) rGO, (b) MS-GO1, (c) MS-GO2, (d) MS-GO3 and (e) MoS<sub>2</sub> to three pulses of 50% R.H



**Figure 2.7.** Characteristics of the humidity sensors at room temperature. (a) The response curves to (a) 50% R.H. and (b) various types of gases. (c) The response curves and (d) calibration of response toward 10-90 % R.H. at 25°C.



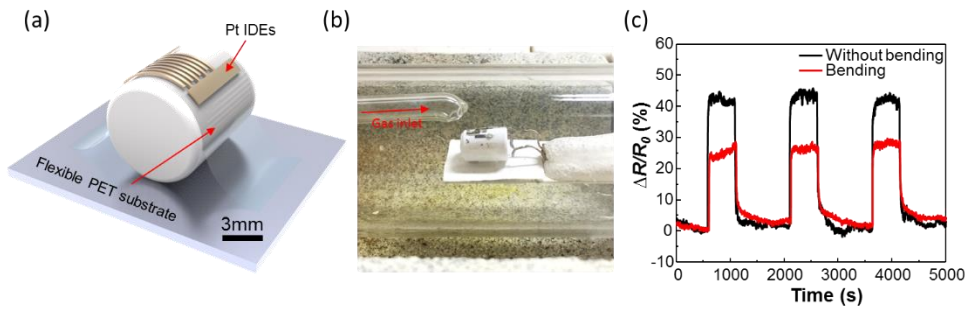
**Figure 2.8.** Response curves to (a) 10 ppm  $\text{NO}_2$  gas, (b) 1000 ppm  $\text{NH}_3$  gas, (c) 50 ppm  $\text{H}_2$  gas, and (d) 50 ppm  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$  gas at 25 °C.



**Figure 2.9.** Long repeatability to 50 % R.H at 25 °C

### **2.3.3. Sensing performance with flexible substrate**

The sensing performance of flexible device was examined, which broadens the applications of possibility of MS-GO sensor to wearable devices. PET film was used for substrate of the flexible device and Pt electrodes were deposited on the PET film by E-beam evaporator. To confirm stable sensing performance under bending strain, the flexible device was attached on the pen cap (Figure 2.10a). The bent sensor was transported into the chamber of the sensing measurement system (Figure 2.10b). Figure 2.10c shows the sensing performance of MS-GO<sub>2</sub> at 1 V before and after bending (flat and bent). The response of the flat and bent sensor was 43.89 % and 25.01 %, respectively. The sensor was still working owing to the flexibility.

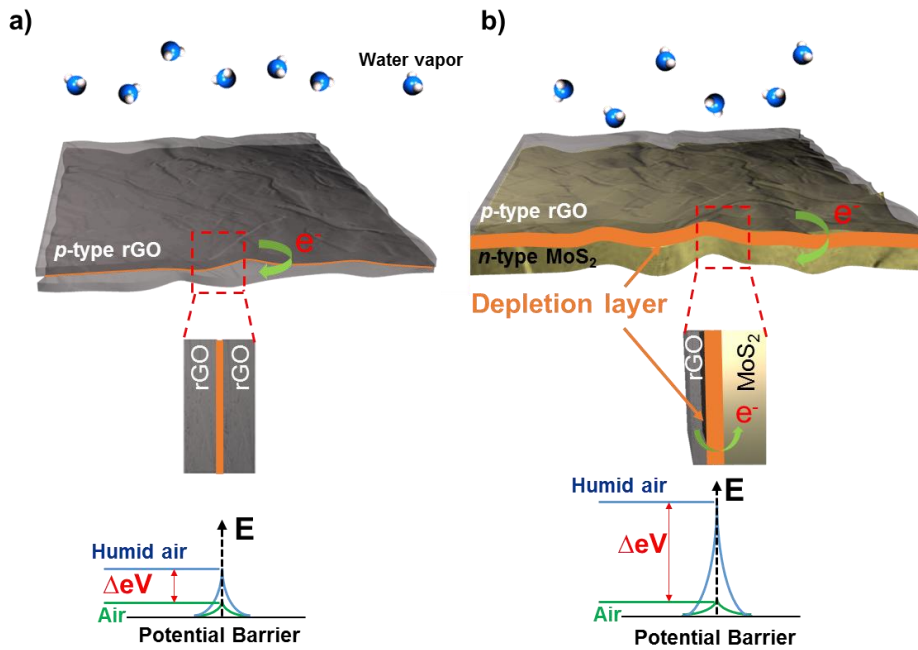


**Figure 2.10.** Schematic of a bended IDE sensor on a PET substrate. (b) Photograph of humidity sensing setup for the sensor under bending strain. (c) Response curves of the sensor without and with the bending strain.



### 2.3.4. Gas Sensing Mechanism

The enhanced sensing properties of MS-GOs to humidity is considered to be induced by the following functions. First, the residual oxygen containing functional groups on the surface of rGO make the material more hydrophilic and play a critical role in detecting humidity <sup>[69,73,75]</sup>. Moreover, the dangling bonds on the edge site of MoS<sub>2</sub> can react with approaching water vapor <sup>[28,83,89]</sup>. By combination of these two functions, humidity sensing properties of MS-GOs were improved compared to base materials of pristine GO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. Second, the mechanism of enhanced sensing properties of MS-GO is illustrated with schematics in Figure 2.11. From the previous study, rGO is considered to be a *p*-type material and MoS<sub>2</sub> as *n*-type material <sup>[76,81]</sup>. As both two materials are 2D materials, the van der Waals force is formed between them naturally which induces a heterojunction between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> <sup>[79]</sup>. In case of bare rGO, the rGO are used as an electron tunnel. Compared to bare rGO, the heterojunction formed between *p*-type rGO and *n*-type MoS<sub>2</sub> with depletion layer at the interface of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> decreases the electron current path <sup>[90]</sup>. The potential barrier increases at the humidity condition because water vapor adsorbed on the MS-GO acts as an electron acceptor. In short, maximized active sites and electronic sensitization effect induced extremely improved humidity sensing properties of MS-GO.



**Figure 2.11.** Schematic illustration for the current path of rGO and MS-GO. Schematic illustration for the enhanced depletion region on (a) bare rGO and (b) MS-GO.

## 2.4. Conclusion

We have developed MS-GO based humidity sensors with high response and super-selectivity using simple hydrothermal method. The responses of MS-GO hybrid composites to various gases such as 10 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>, 1000 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 50 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, and 50 ppm C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH were much increased than those of pristine rGO. Especially, the response to humidity of MS-GO<sub>2</sub> was 4 times higher compared to pristine rGO. The theoretical detection limit to H<sub>2</sub>O was 178.3 ppm, which demonstrates the encouraging the potential application of MS-GO hybrid composites to control relative humidity that might directly affect our health. These results were due to the utmost utilization of the electronic sensitization by decorating rGO with MoS<sub>2</sub>. We strongly believe that our sample is very appropriate to make high performance humidity sensor. We suggest that MS-GO can act as a promising sensing material in next generation to develop enhanced performance of resistive humidity sensors.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Highly selective and sensitive chemoresistive humidity sensors based on rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> van der Waals composites**

### 3.1. Introduction

Graphene/TMDC is one of the most spotlighted heterostructure in the last decade<sup>[91]</sup>. Graphene provides a conductive framework and mechanical support while the TMDC addresses several electrochemical problems by advantage of its attractive chemical properties. Several methods have been studied to fabricated 2D/2D heterostructure such as mechanical exfoliation and aligned transfer, CVD method, and solution-based methods. Mechanically exfoliated and transferred 2D heterostructures shows high quality but there are shortcomings related to its scalability. CVD method requires expensive device and high temperature process<sup>[92]</sup>. Solution-based methods using ultrasonication are mechanical fracture techniques that can generate hydrodynamic shear force in many types of reactions, material handling, and synthetic cavitation. Sonication can generate nanomaterials by hydrostatic shear, promote the dispersion of MoS<sub>2</sub> and graphene, and obtain the oxidizing effect of -OH, -H, -N, and -O generated during the sonication process. Increased temperature during processing can lead to thermal degradation of volatile hydrophobic materials in the mixed material. The sonication process is very promising because it is simple, environmentally friendly and can be delaminated simultaneously<sup>[93]</sup>. Sonication not only helps exfoliate bulk materials into nanoscale products in the absence of external reducing agents and reactants, but also disperses MoS<sub>2</sub> and graphene uniformly in the solution or solvent<sup>[93-95]</sup>.

Coleman *et al.* recently reported that MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets can be easily obtained by sonicating MoS<sub>2</sub> powders by selecting an appropriate solvent, and that this method can be used to mass-produce MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at low cost<sup>[96]</sup>. Similarly, uniform graphene nanosheets (single or multilayer) can be obtained simply by sonication in water, providing a new platform for easy production of graphene-based materials. Since both rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> are 2D materials with layered structures, they can naturally form hetero junction by van der Waals force.<sup>[79]</sup> Heterostructures between 2D layered materials have recently been reported, and the van der Waals *p-n* heterojunction between *p*-type rGO and *n*-type MoS<sub>2</sub> was reported for its application in water splitting electrodes.<sup>[83,97]</sup> Accordingly, the composites between hydrophilic nature of 2D rGO and 2D MoS<sub>2</sub> with abundant active edge sites can form large area of *p-n* heterojunction which is advantageous to enhance humidity sensing performance via controlling electronic transport at the hetero-interface and synergistic promotion of humidity sensing reaction.<sup>[76,90,97]</sup>

Herein, we report rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrid composites (RGMSs) based humidity sensors that are unprecedentedly selective to other gaseous molecules at room temperature. The RGMSs were fabricated with very simple process in room temperature with low cost. The sensing properties of RGMSs are dramatically enhanced by a *p-n* heterojunction formed between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>, attributed to the extreme exploitation of the electronic sensitization. The *p-n* heterojunction is

clarified by peak shifts in X-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS) and Raman spectra.<sup>[98,99]</sup> We also present the linearity of the sensors for varied humidity concentrations range from 5% to 85% humidity, the theoretical detection limit, and reliable operation upon multiple sensing events. The calculated detection limit was 0.0109% RH. As RGMSs consist of 2D van der Waals materials, the fabrication process is rather simple and free from high temperature annealing, and thus highly flexible humidity sensors are demonstrated by using drop-casting method on gold electrodes deposited on the PET substrate with E-beam evaporator. The flexible humidity sensor showed no degradation in sensing performance after bending several times. The synergistic combination of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> indicates that possibility of realizing a humidity sensor for use in wearable electronics.

## **3.2. Experimental section**

### **3.2.1. Preparation of graphene oxide (GO)**

GO was prepared by the modified Hummers method. Briefly, 2 g of graphite powder (Alfa Aesar, 200 mesh, 99.9995 %) was stirred with 2 g of sodium nitrate (NaNO<sub>3</sub>) and 100 mL of concentrated sulfuric acid (95%) for 1 day in an ice water bath. After the oxidation process, 12 g of potassium permanganate (KMnO<sub>4</sub>) was gradually added into the reaction mixture. Once it was mixed well, the ice bath was removed, and the solution was stirred at 50 °C until at highly viscous liquid was obtained. After adding 100 mL of de-ionized (DI) water, the suspension was heated

in a water bath at 98 °C for 20 min. Then, it was further treated with warm water and hydrogen peroxide in sequence. The mixed solution was centrifuged at 6,000 rpm and washed with hydrogen chloride (35%) and DI water for removing residual byproducts. The centrifuging and washing process were repeated with five times. Finally, the GO was dried at 50 °C for 24 hours in a vacuum oven.

### **3.2.2. Reduction of GO**

The dried GO sheets were exfoliated by the sonication method. The brown dispersion of GO sheets was centrifuged at 8,000 rpm for 10 min to remove the unexfoliated GO. The reduction of GO was used by hydrazine hydrate ( $\text{NH}_2\text{NH}_2$ , 50–60% in DI water). The GO solution was mixed with a  $\text{NH}_2\text{NH}_2$  solution with a ratio of 1 mg of GO to 1 mM of  $\text{NH}_2\text{NH}_2$  reducing agent. The reduction process was conducted with a water-cooled condenser for 24 h. Finally, the reduced graphene oxide (rGO) solution was successfully obtained after vacuum filtration and washing with acetone.

### **3.2.3. Fabrication of RGMS hybrid composites**

rGO and  $\text{MoS}_2$  powder (Graphene market) were separately dispersed in 2 mL DI water by ultra-sonication at 60 Hz for 10 min. To make RGMS, the molecular weight of rGO and  $\text{MoS}_2$  were set to 12 and 160.07 g/mol each, and the molar ratio was calculated to be 1:1, 1:5, and 1:10 for RGMS 1, RGMS 5, and RGMS 10,



respectively. The calculated amounts were mixed and re-dispersed by ultrasonication for 24 h to make mechanical interaction between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>.

### **3.2.4. Sensor fabrication**

Inter digitated electrodes (IDEs) with an interspacing of 4 μm was prepared on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate by photolithography followed by metal (Pt/Ti) deposition by e-beam evaporation. A 0.4 μL drop of RGMS was cast onto a Pt IDE/SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate and dried for 10 min at 100 °C to remove DI water.

### **3.2.5. Characterization**

The surface morphology and the microstructure of the fabricated RGMS on the Si substrate were characterized by a field-emission scanning electron microscopy (MERLIN Compact, ZEISS) using 1kV. Energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) mapping was carried out on RGMS in the scanning SEM mode. For the transmission electron microscopy (TEM), RGMS were deposited on a quantifoil Cu grid (300 mesh holey carbon). The TEM experiments were performed using a JEM-2100F spectrometer. Also, EF-TEM was performed for RGMS. Raman scattering was performed using a Raman spectrometer at an excitation wavelength of 532 nm using laser light. XPS was carried out at Research Institute of Advanced Materials in Seoul National University. Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) was performed to confirm the creation of p-n junction between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> by clearly showing the band structure of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. Electrochemical

impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was conducted from 10 kHz to 10 mHz with an AC amplitude of 10 mV. The measured spectra were fitted by using the ZSimpWin software.

### **3.2.6. Sensor measurement**

Gas sensing properties of RGMS sensors were measured in a quartz tube at room temperature by monitoring the variation of sensor resistance on flowing dry air to a calibrated humid air (balanced with dry air). The response of RGMS was accurately determined by measuring the base resistance in dry air and the fully saturated resistance after exposure to humid air. The sensor resistance was measured at a DC bias voltage of 1V using a source measurement unit (Keithley 236). A constant flow rate of 500 sccm was used for dry air and the humid air. The response of the RGMS sensors was precisely determined by the ratio of the fully saturated resistances after exposure to the humid air to the base resistances in dry air

## **3.3. Result and discussion**

### **3.3.1. Fabrication process and electrical properties**

RGMSs were synthesized by a simple process. The fabrication process of RGMSs is demonstrated in Figure 3.1. rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> were soaked in distilled water and dispersed by ultra-sonication for 10 min. Dispersed rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> were added together with 1:1, 1:5 and 1:10 molar ratio of rGO:MoS<sub>2</sub> and the samples were

named as RGMS 1, RGMS 5 and RGMS 10 each. The molecular weight of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> are considered to be 12 and 160.07 g/mol. After mixing rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> together, ultra-sonication was used for 24 h to uniformly bind together. During the synthesis process of RGMSs, thermal annealing process or chemical agent that might affect the original characteristics of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> were not used. After ultra-sonication, 0.4 μL of slurry containing RGMS was deposited on the Pt interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) with an active area of 1 mm × 1 mm with 4 μm interspace. After drop-casting, the IDE was fully dried to evaporate distilled water. Figure 3.2a shows the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of a RGMS, confirming that rGO in the net form and MoS<sub>2</sub> in layered structure are attached together. The SEM images of pristine rGO, MoS<sub>2</sub>, RGMS 1 and RGMS 10 are shown in Figure 3.3 to compare with RGMS 5. To confirm the existence of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> in a RGMS, energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) mapping was carried on the RGMS. For EDS mapping, area was selected randomly, and the selected area is shown in Figure 3.2b. Figure 3.2c, d, e, and f show the element mapping of Mo, S, C, and O respectively, for the selected area in Figure 3.2b, indicating the co-existence of Mo, S, C, and O. This suggests that MoS<sub>2</sub> is well attached on rGO with no serious aggregation. In addition, Figure 3.3a shows rGO sheet which can wrap MoS<sub>2</sub> by continuous sonication. By this phenomenon, element mapping of Mo, S, C and O shows signal at same position. The oxygen shown in EDS mapping is from the oxygen containing functional groups at the defect site of rGO.<sup>[100]</sup>

Figure 3.4a and b show the TEM images of RGMS. Figure 3.4a shows the TEM image of a RGMS, indicating that the rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> co-exist by checking the interlayer distance of MoS<sub>2</sub> in RGMSs, corresponding to the pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>. The SAED pattern shown in the inset of Figure 3.4b indicates the presence of various planes of MoS<sub>2</sub> ((100) and (110)). In addition, the TEM image of pristine rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> are shown in Figure 3.3e-h. The amorphous characteristics of rGO and crystallinity of MoS<sub>2</sub> are revealed in the inset in Figure 3.3f and h respectively. Moire patterns in Figure 3.3h indicates overlapping phenomenon of different MoS<sub>2</sub> planes with an interlayer distance of MoS<sub>2</sub> as 0.27 nm between (100) plane and 0.16 nm between (110) plane (MoS<sub>2</sub> JCPDS No.: 37-1492). From this TEM image, the morphology of RGMS is clearly confirmed. The wettability of pristine rGO, RGMS 5, and pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> were also revealed by their static contact angle with water (Figure 3.5a, b, and c). The same amount of water droplets (0.5  $\mu$ L) was dropped onto the rGO, RGMS 5, and MoS<sub>2</sub> at the same time. The static contact angle between rGO and water was found to be 41.2°. Hence, rGO shows a good hydrophilicity property, and the oxygen containing groups presumably exist on the surface of rGO. The contact angle between MoS<sub>2</sub> and water was 44.2°. Compared to the pristine rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>, RGMS 5 showed a higher hydrophilicity of 36.9°. The water droplet on rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> remained, but the surface of water droplet on RGMS 5 spread out, indicating increased hydrophilicity of RGMS 5 compared to those of the pristine rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>.

To determine the existence of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>, Raman spectrum of RGMS 5 was compared to those of MoS<sub>2</sub> and rGO (Figure 3.6e and f), confirming that the MoS<sub>2</sub> and rGO are well hybridized. The gap between the peaks for in-plane ( $E_{2g}^1$ ) and out-of-plane ( $A_{1g}$ ) vibrational modes shows the number of MoS<sub>2</sub> layers. Compared to pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>, both peak of the  $E_{2g}^1$  and  $A_{1g}$  in RGMS have blue shift ( $E_{2g}^1$  from 379.72 to 377.00 and  $A_{1g}$  from 405.72 to 403.00  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) maintaining same gap width of 2.72  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which means that the MoS<sub>2</sub> in RGMS has same number of layer with pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>. The blue shift means that lattice vibration modes in MoS<sub>2</sub> in the composite need more energy than those in the pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> since MoS<sub>2</sub> is anchored by rGO in the composite.

This is an evidence of van der Waals heterojunction between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. On the other hand, there is no considerable peak shift in D and G peaks for the pristine rGO and RGMS 5. MoS<sub>2</sub> is surrounded by rGO, but most of the surface of rGO is not contacted with MoS<sub>2</sub>. It is considered that the decreased intensity of D and G peaks of RGMS is due to the fact that MoS<sub>2</sub> interrupts the layer-by layer stacking of rGO in composite as seen in Figure 3.1.

The D and G peak of rGO are shown at 1345.0 and 1587.0  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . The D peak of rGO is attributed to the  $sp^3$  defect sites, and G peak indicates the existence of  $sp^2$  carbon atoms with in-plane vibrations ( $E_{2g}^1$ ). According to the decreased intensity of D-band, superior device performance is expected because low energy binding

sites such as carbon  $sp^2$  bonds cause fast gas reactions and high energy binding sites such as point defects provide slow gas reactions. As the surface of rGO decreases due to the contacted area with  $MoS_2$ , the intensity of D and G peaks in RGMS is relatively decreased. [75,84,89]

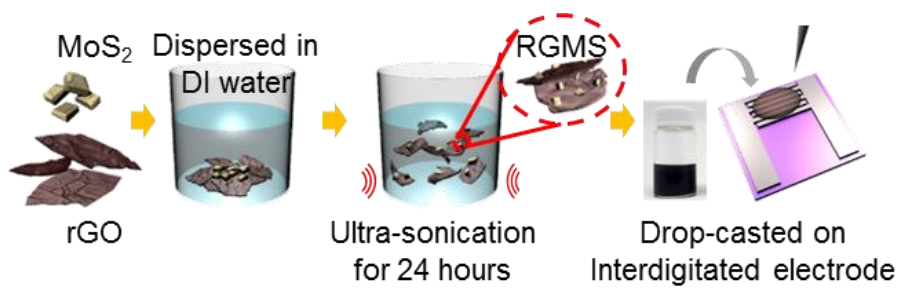
The XPS spectra of RGMS 5, the pristine rGO and  $MoS_2$  (Figure 3.6a, b, and c) were compared to investigate the chemical state of Mo and S. The XPS spectrum of the pristine  $MoS_2$  shows five main peaks including the 2s of  $MoS_2$  peak at 226.5 eV. The four main peaks of Mo  $3d^{4+}_{5/2}$ , Mo  $3d^{4+}_{3/2}$ , Mo  $3d^{6+}_{5/2}$ , and Mo  $3d^{6+}_{3/2}$  at 229.3, 232.4, 233.1, and 235.6 eV, respectively, are the characteristics of  $MoS_2$ . The XPS spectra of sulfur edges in  $MoS_2$  show the  $2p_{1/2}$  and  $2p_{3/2}$  core levels at 162.1 and 163.3 eV each (Figure 3.6b), which is consistent with the previous reports.<sup>[101]</sup> Since rGO has  $sp^2$  carbon with pi-electrons, which determine the physical and electrical properties of rGO, the portion of  $sp^2$  bonding can provide the hint of structure–property relationships.<sup>[72]</sup> As shown in Figure 3.6d, the C 1s XPS spectrum of rGO shows the four different carbon atoms in different functional groups, indicating the existence of the following oxygen functional groups: C–C at 284.4 eV, C–OH at 285.1 eV, C–O at 286.1 eV, and C=O at 287.5 eV. As for RGMS 5, the binding energies slightly increased compared to those of pristine  $MoS_2$  and rGO. The binding energy of Mo 3d in RGMS 5 shown in Figure 3.6a

indicates that Mo  $3d^{4+}_{5/2}$ , Mo  $3d^{4+}_{3/2}$ , Mo  $3d^{6+}_{5/2}$ , and Mo  $3d^{6+}_{3/2}$  increased to 229.4, 232.5, 233.1, and 235.7 eV.

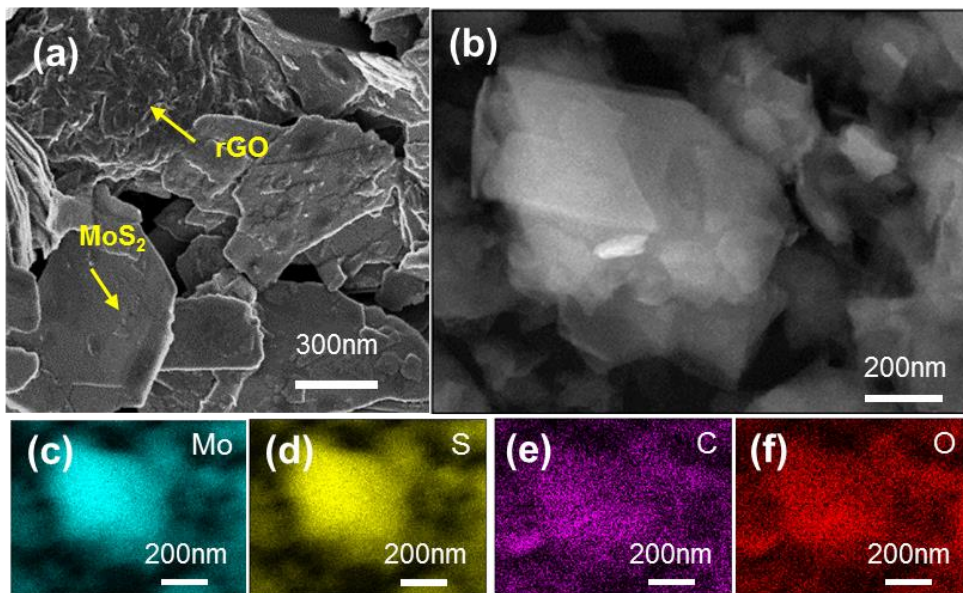
Binding energy of the principal peaks of S 2p (S  $2p_{1/2}$  and S  $2p_{3/2}$ ) in RGMS 5 increased to 162.3 and 163.5 eV each (Figure 3.6b). Moreover, the binding energy of C 1s with C–C, C–OH, C–O, and C=O peak also showed slight increase to 284.5, 285.2, 286.2, and 287.6 eV for RGMS 5 (Figure 3.6c). All these results indicate the interaction between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> in RGMS 5, allowing electron transfer between the connection of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. This phenomenon can significantly affect the conductivity of RGMS. Theoretically, atom contains the inner electrons, outer electrons, and nucleus. Coulomb interaction exists between the inner electrons and nucleus, and the outer electrons carry out shielding effect to the inner electrons, indicating that as the concentration of the outer electron decreases, the shielding effect relatively decreases, and thus increase the binding energy of the inner electrons for the existence of penetration effect, resulting in the corresponding XPS peaks shift to a higher energy direction. Clearly, the XPS surveys in Figure 3.6 show that electrons can transfer from MoS<sub>2</sub> to rGO, and this can be the evidence of heterojunction formation.<sup>[84]</sup> Moreover, the ratio of the bonding state in rGO with C=C, C–C, C–O, and C=O is shown in Figure 3.6d. The ratio of the bonding state of RGMS is observed at almost the same inclination to rGO.

To observe the electronic structures of RGMS heterojunction, UPS analysis was performed. The work function can be calculated from the energy difference between the Fermi level and the vacuum level. The valence band maximum can be calculated from the difference of the lowest binding energy. As shown in the Figure 3.7a, after forming composite, the work function of the rGO has decreased from 4.65 to 4.60 eV and MoS<sub>2</sub> has increased from 4.55 to 4.60 eV. In Figure 3.7b, the energy difference between the Fermi level and valence band maximum is increased, demonstrating the *n*-type behavior of MoS<sub>2</sub> and decreased indicating *p*-type behavior of rGO. On the basis of the results, we have made a band diagram indicating the band bending behavior at the interface of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3.3c and d).<sup>[102,103]</sup>

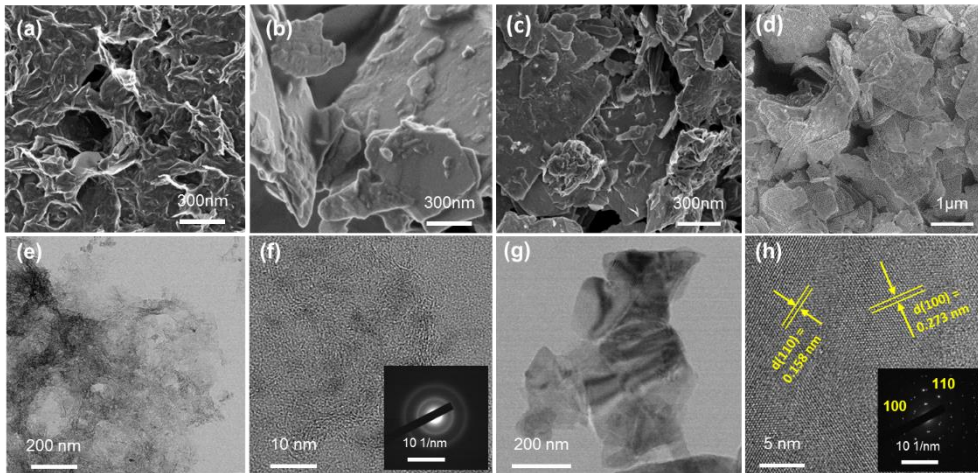




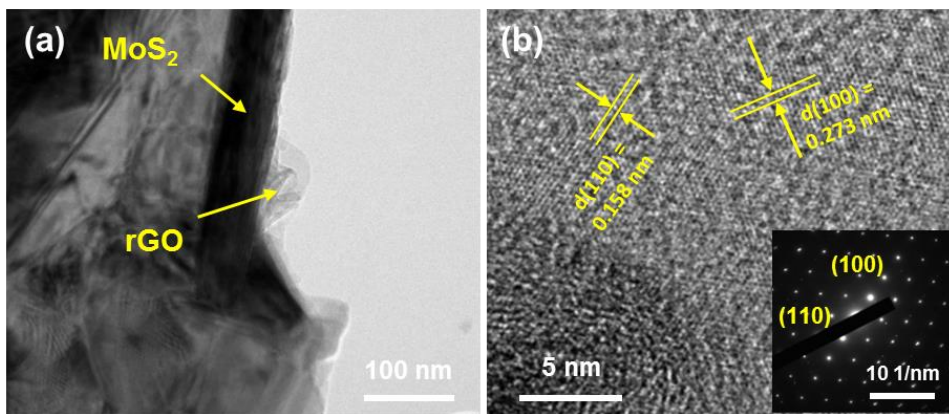
**Figure 3.1.** Fabrication procedure of rGO@MoS<sub>2</sub> humidity sensor.



**Figure 3.2.** (a) SEM image of RGMS. (b) EDS spectrum of RGMS. (c) Molybdenum, (d) sulfur, (e) carbon, and (f) oxygen elemental mapping of RGMS.



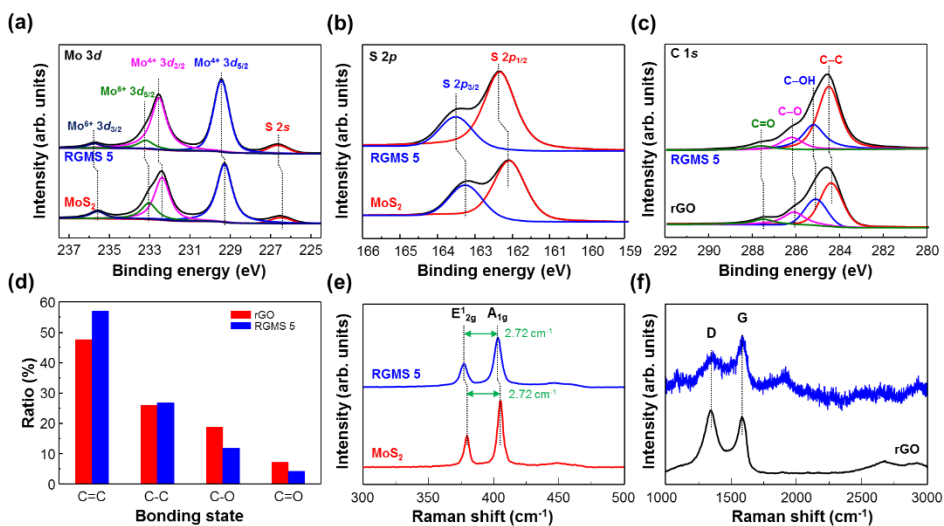
**Figure 3.3.** SEM images of (a) rGO, (b) MoS<sub>2</sub>, (c) RGMS 1 and (b) RGMS 10. And TEM images of (e) rGO and high-magnification TEM image of rGO. TEM image of (e) MoS<sub>2</sub> and (h) high-magnification TEM image of MoS<sub>2</sub>.



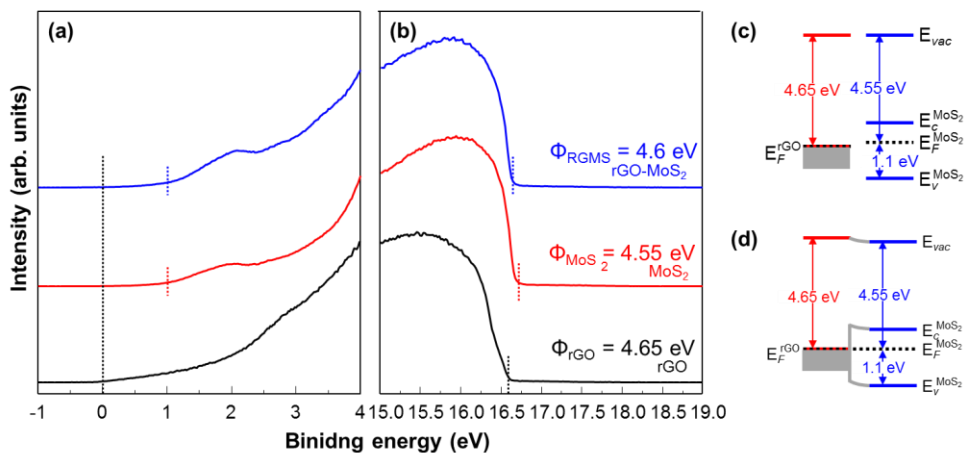
**Figure 3.4.** HRTEM images of RGMS with (a) low resolution and (b) high resolution.



**Figure 3.5.** Surface tension of water drops on (a) rGO, (b) RGMS 5 and (c) MoS<sub>2</sub>.



**Figure 3.6.** Raman spectra of rGO, MoS<sub>2</sub> and RGMS. XPS spectra of RGMS compared with rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. (b) Mo 3d, (c) S 2p, (d) C 1s and (e) the ratio of bonding state



**Figure 3.7.** UPS spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub>, rGO and RGMS. (a) HOMO and (b) the secondary electron cutoff. Band diagram of RGMS heterojunction at (a) flat band condition and (d) equilibration of Fermi.

### 3.3.2. Gas sensing properties of MS-GO

For the comparison of humidity sensing property, pristine rGO, RGMS 1, RGMS 5, RGMS 10, and MoS<sub>2</sub> were drop casted on IDE for the sensing measurements. Figure 3.8a shows the dynamic sensing transient of pristine rGO, MoS<sub>2</sub>, RGMS 1, RGMS 5, and RGMS 10. The device was exposed to three consecutive pulses of 500 sccm of humid air balanced with dry air (Figure 3.8a). The response of the samples is defined by the following equation:  $(R_{\text{humidity}} - R_{\text{air}})/R_{\text{air}} \times 100$  where  $R_{\text{air}}$  and  $R_{\text{humidity}}$  denote the resistance in the dry air and humid air, respectively. The responses of pristine rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> are 4.1 and 70.7%, respectively. All the RGMSs showed increased response compared to the pristine rGO. RGMS 1, RGMS 5, and RGMS 10 showed 10.5, 872.7, and 86.6% of response each (Figure 3.8b). The error bars indicate the maximum and minimum values of response obtained from three sensors of each MoS<sub>2</sub> at given concentration which are exposed to 50% R.H (Figure 3.8b). RGMS 5 shows a dramatic enhancement in response, exhibiting 220 times higher than that of pristine rGO.

The base resistance increased with increasing molar ratio of MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3.9). Pristine rGO showed conducting properties with a base resistance of 52.2  $\Omega$  and MoS<sub>2</sub> showed insulating characteristic showing its base resistance of  $3.1 \times 10^8 \Omega$ . As the base resistance increases, the noise in the measurement also increases relatively. To have exceptional chemoresistive properties, the resistance of the gas



sensing device has to be in optimal range. The noise signal of MoS<sub>2</sub> is due to the exceeding resistance range of reading capability of the measurement unit.<sup>[103]</sup> Therefore, controlling the base resistance of the sensing material is an important factor for humidity sensor. In the inset of Figure 3.8b, all the mixed samples showed different baseline resistances in the ambient air. The baseline resistance of the RGMS 1, RGMS 5 and RGMS 10 increased relatively with increasing mole fraction of MoS<sub>2</sub> (1.6 kΩ, 11.8 kΩ, and 9.5 MΩ each shown in Figure 3.9b, c, and d). As the rapid increase of the resistance around 83.3% of MoS<sub>2</sub> concentration, the critical threshold of percolation is considered to be 83.3% of MoS<sub>2</sub> concentration. Therefore, the composites containing 16.7% or less of rGO shows a sensitive resistivity increase by the molar concentration of the insulating phase. The slight increase of base resistance of the RGMSs containing higher than 17% concentration of rGO can be explained by conducting path formed by rGO.<sup>[104,105]</sup>

Figure 3.10a shows the responses of RGMS 5 to 50% R.H, 50 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 50 ppm CH<sub>3</sub>COCH<sub>3</sub>, 10 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>, and 1000 ppm NH<sub>3</sub> at 27 °C, 1V. The response ( $|\Delta R/R_0|$ ) of RGMS 5 to 1000 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 50 ppm CH<sub>3</sub>COCH<sub>3</sub>, 10 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> and 1000 ppm NH<sub>3</sub> is 3.2, 17.8, 29.6 and 47.9%, respectively. The RGMS 5 based sensor showed the highest response to 50% R.H (~873.7%). The dynamic sensing transients of RGMS 5 are shown in the inset of Figure 3.10a, indicating that RGMS 5 has extremely high selectivity to humidity, which is one of the most critical factors of

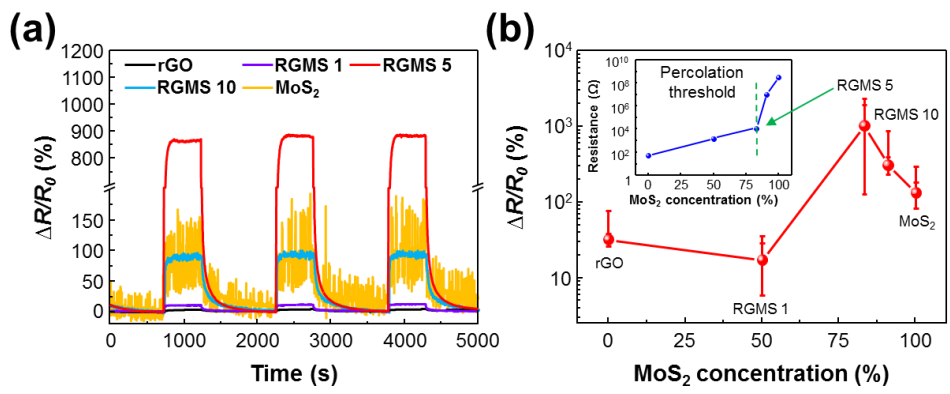
semiconductor sensors. In previous study, pristine rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> shows high selectivity to NO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>[46,69]</sup> According to the previous researches, more than 10 ppm of NO<sub>2</sub> and out of the range of 30-60% of R.H has a detrimental effect on human body. The RGMS 5 sensor showed 30 times higher sensitivity at 50% R.H than at 10 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>. For the practical applications, high stability upon multiple repeatability is required for humidity sensor. The RGMS 5 sensor showed excellent repeatability as shown in Figure 3.10b. Three of RGMS 5 sensors were fabricated and the sensing properties of each samples were measured 4, 12, and 20 months after fabrication. RGMS 5\_1, RGMS 5\_2 and RGMS 5\_3 showed 658.24, 846.87 and 1609.27% of response each immediately after the sensors were fabricated. The sensors still showed 846.87, 907.51 and 1328.30% of response respectively after 4, 12 and 20 months. RGMS 5 was repeatedly exposed to 50% R.H at 27 °C, as shown in Figure 3.10c. After multiple exposures to 50% R.H, RGMS 5 recovered its original baseline resistance.

To evaluate the humidity response linearity and calculate the detection limit of RGMS 5 at 27 °C, the response of the sensor was measured in the range from 5% to 85% R.H, as shown in Figure 3.10d. Electrical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was measured in order to determine gas reaction in RGMS humidity sensor. The Nyquist plots of the RGMS are shown in Figure 3.11a. The equivalent circuit of R<sub>2</sub> shown in Figure 3.11b and c represents the interfacial resistance between the

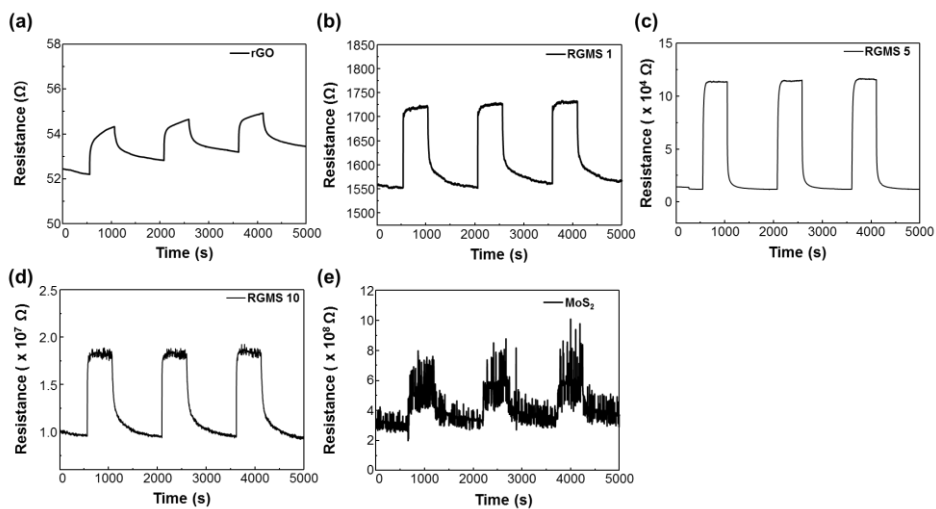
sensing material and the ambient air conditions (dry and humid conditions), and  $R_3$  represents the resistance between the adsorbed water molecules on the surface of RGMS and dry air. From the impedance fitting, the  $R_2$  under dry condition was measured to be  $29413 \Omega$  and the resistance under humid condition was  $41816 \Omega$ .<sup>[106]</sup> The increased response values with increasing humidity concentration can be explained by the Grotthuss Mechanism.<sup>[107]</sup> Previous studies have shown that at low concentration of R.H, water molecules are physisorbed by forming two hydrogen bonds at the active sites such as hydrophilic groups, and vacancies.<sup>[108,109]</sup> At this point, the water molecules are not able to move because of the formation of the two hydrogen bonds. Therefore, significant energy is required for proton to transfer between the adjacent  $-OH$  groups of the first layer physical adsorption of water, resulting in strong electrical resistance. As the R.H increases, multilayer physical adsorption of water molecules is formed. In the second physisorbed layer, water molecules move easily, because of the formation of just one hydrogen bond. Moreover, in multilayer physical adsorption progress, physisorbed water molecules are ionized by an electrostatic field to form a large number of  $H_3O^+$ , acting as the charge carrier. At higher R.H, physisorbed water layers show liquid like behavior. In the bulk liquid, charge transport occurs by the Grotthuss chain reaction ( $H_2O + H_3O^+ \rightarrow H_3O^+ + H_2O$ ), as proton hopping occurs between the adjacent water molecules. Moreover, at high R.H, physisorbed water penetrates between the RGMSs and interacts with the functional groups of RGMSs, affecting the ionic

conductivity. This phenomenon is caused by electron conduction through the RGMSs sensing channel and proton hopping through the continuous water layer following the Grotthuss mechanism. The values of response were plotted as a function of the humidity concentration as shown in Figure 3.10d. A linear regression fit was applied to find out the relationship between the responses and the concentrations of humidity. The linear regression equation is indicated as  $y = 28.4x - 127.0$ . In this equation,  $x$  is the humidity and  $y$  is the response value. The measure of goodness-of-fit of the linear regression,  $r^2$ , was calculated to be 0.104. The responses of the sensor are 174.2, 541.2, 965.2, 1590.6, and 2494.3% at 5, 25, 45, 65, and 85% of R.H. To get different humidity condition, 5% R.H was controlled with 50 sccm humidity/950 sccm air, 25% R.H with 250 sccm/750 sccm, 45% R.H with 450 sccm /550 sccm, 65% R.H with 650 sccm/350 sccm and 85% R.H with 850 sccm/150 sccm. The lowest measurable humidity on the equipment used in this study was 5% R.H; however, the theoretical detection limit was calculated to be 0.0109% R.H.<sup>[98,99]</sup> In addition, Figure 3.10f shows the hysteresis curves of the sensor device in the process of adsorption and desorption. The humidity level was ranged from 5-85% R.H with ascending R.H from 5% to 85% (adsorption) and descending R.H from 85% to 5% (desorption). As seen in Figure 3.10f, the two curves are very close. The largest humidity hysteresis is only 5.6% R.H which indicates that the hysteresis for the RGMS 5 humidity sensor is small. The extremely high selectivity, excellent repeatability, and low

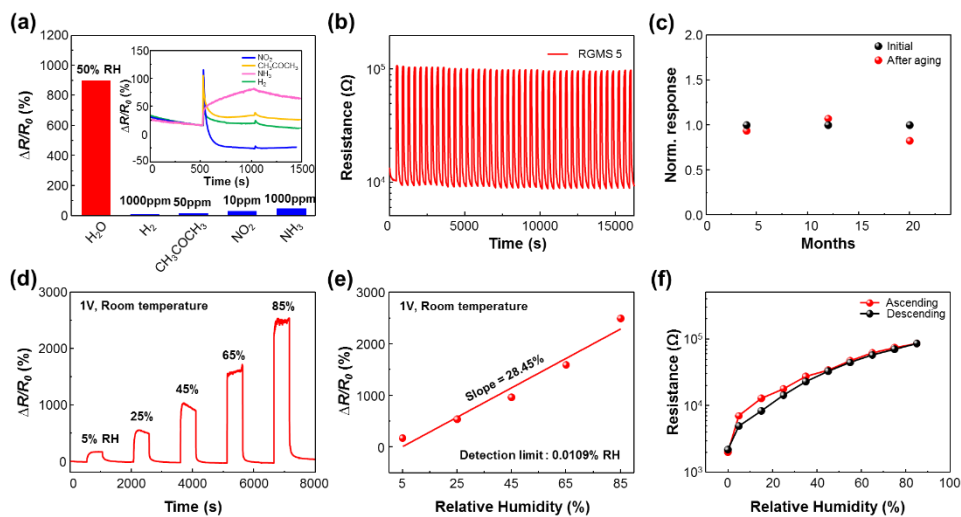
concentration of the detection limits to humidity suggest its possibility of practical application to various fields such as industrial automation, pharmaceuticals, agriculture, and environmental monitoring. Moreover, the highest response of the humidity is as high as 2494.2%, which is much higher than those of the humidity sensors for high performance in previous studies using graphene synthesized by the chemical vapor deposition (CVD) method, PDDA/GO, graphene with thermally exfoliated, MoS<sub>2</sub> sheets, and rGO (Table 3.1). While RGMSs showed reversible characteristics, humidity sensors based rGO, graphene and MoS<sub>2</sub> sheets exhibited irreversible sensing properties.<sup>[46,61,63,88,110–112]</sup> This remarkable response of RGMS is attributed to the *p-n* heterojunction formation between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub>. As described in the table, RGMS 5 shows a high level of response time, recovery time, and response.



**Figure 3.8.** (a) Response  $((R_{\text{humidity}} - R_{\text{air}})/R_{\text{air}})$  curves of rGO, RGMS 1, RGMS 5, RGMS 10 and MoS<sub>2</sub> to 50% R.H. at 27 °C. (b) Response of rGO, RGMSs and MoS<sub>2</sub> and inset is the baseline resistance of rGO, RGMSs and MoS<sub>2</sub>.

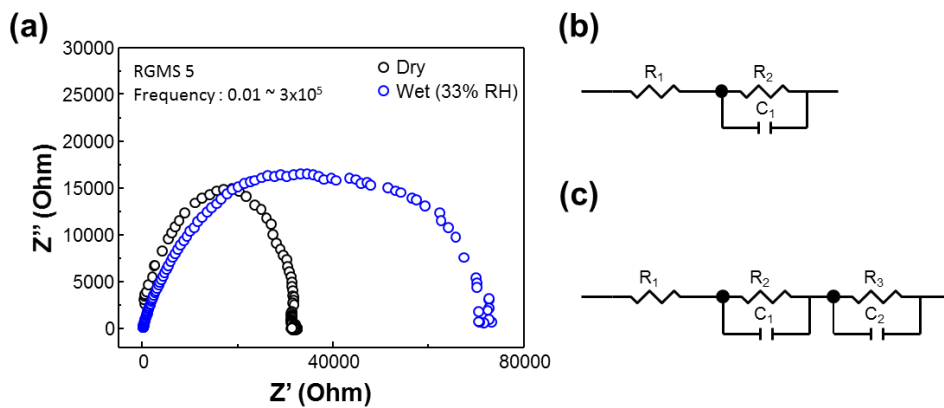


**Figure 3.9.** Response curves of (a) pristine rGO, (b) RGMS 1, (c) RGMS 5, (d) RGMS 10 and (e) pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> to three pulses of 50% RH at room temperature.



**Figure 3.10.** (a) Response to various types of gases and inset is the sensing curves of each gases ( $H_2$ ,  $CH_3COCH_3$ ,  $NO_2$  and  $NH_3$ ). (b) Multiple repeatability of RGMS 5 to 50% R.H. (c) Long term stability of RGMS 5 with three different samples with 4, 12 and 20 months respectively. (d) Response curves to different RH of 5%, 25%, 45%, 65%, and 85% at 1V. (e) Linear fit of the responses as a function of humidity air at 1V. (f) Hysteresis of RGMS 5 at different R.H. of 5%, 25%, 45%, 65%, and 85% at 1V.

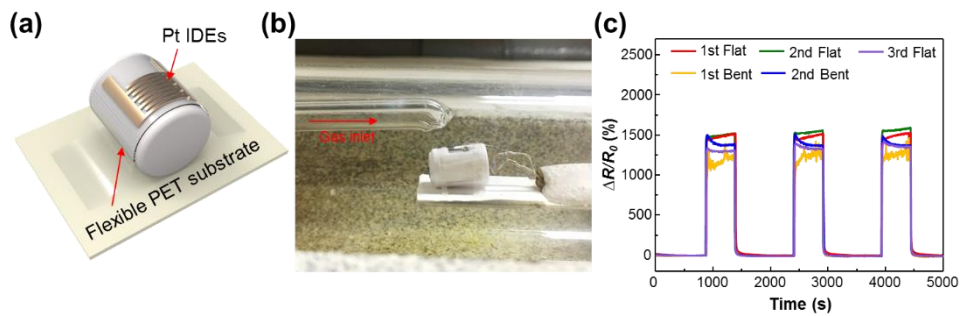




**Figure 3.11.** (a) Nyquist plots of RGMS 5 in dry air and wet air condition. Equivalent circuits of RGMS 5 under (b) dry air condition and (c) wet air condition.

### **3.3.3. Sensing performance with flexible substrate**

The sensing performance with a high bending strain was also investigated to broaden the applications of RGMS-based humidity sensor to wearable devices. Thin PET film was used for the flexible substrate, and Pt electrode was deposited on the thin PET film with E-beam evaporator (Figure 3.12a). To validate stable sensing operation under bending strain, the flexible substrate was attached on the pen cap (bending radius of 7mm). The bent sensor was loaded to the chamber of the humidity sensing measurement device (Figure 3.12b). Figure 3.12c shows the sensing curves of RGMS 5 without and with the bending strain (flat and bent). Before bending, the sensor showed the 1484.7% of response to 50% humidity. When the sensor was bent, the sensor still worked owing to the high flexibility of RGMS showing the 1506.32% of response. This can make RGMS 5 applicable to various fields, typically wearable device and health care.

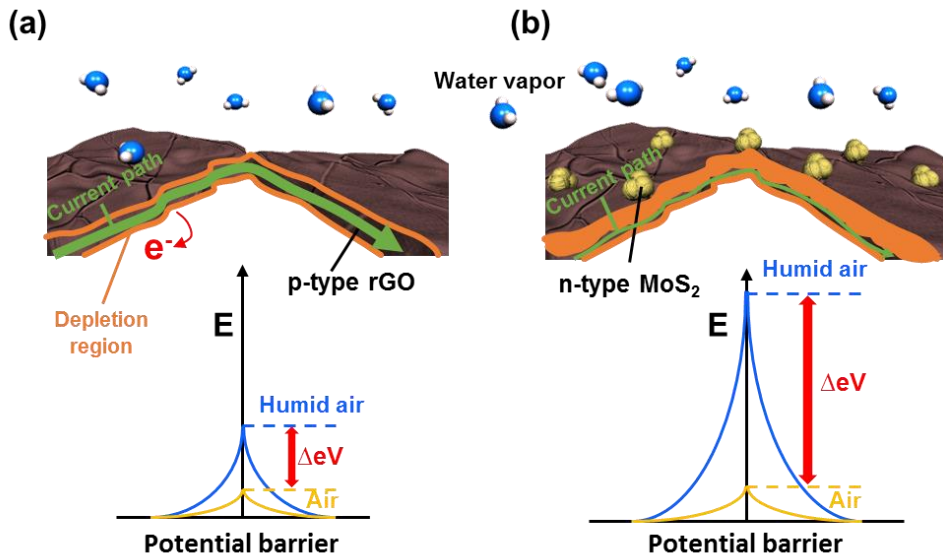


**Figure 3.12.** (a) Schematic of a bended IDE sensor on a PET substrate. (b) Photograph of humidity sensing setup for the sensor under bending strain. (c) Response curves of the sensor without and with the bending strain.

### 3.3.4. Gas sensing mechanism

The enhanced humidity sensing properties of RGMSs are attributed to the following factors: the utility factor, receptor function, and transducer function. First, the structural characteristics of RGMSs provide a large surface area and high hydrophilicity, indicating that the water vapor can be adsorbed by the oxygen containing functional groups on the surface of rGO and dangling bonds on the edge sites of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, highly sensitive and fast response time was obtained (receptor function).<sup>[113]</sup> Second, taking MoS<sub>2</sub> as percolating agent through a matrix of rGO sheets, the value of critical number fraction can be maximized since the small volume ratio of a MoS<sub>2</sub> and a rGO sheet which shows percolation threshold in the inset of Figure 3.8b. rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> are considered to exist forming in rotation demonstrated in Figure 3.13. At the specified concentration of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> with maximized active sites, the accessibility of water vapor into RGMSs extremely increases (utility factor).<sup>[63,104]</sup> For the last, the *p-n* heterojunction between rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> is the principle factor in the enhanced response of composites. In a previous study, 2D materials such as rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> can naturally form a heterojunction by van der Waals force.<sup>[79]</sup> As rGO is an inherently *p*-type 2D material and MoS<sub>2</sub> is well known *n*-type material, they can form heterojunction naturally.<sup>[76,81]</sup> Unlike rGO, which is used as an electron transfer path, RGMS forms a *p-n* heterojunction at the interface of rGO and MoS<sub>2</sub> and reduces the electron current path. Since water

vapor acts as an electron acceptor, the potential barrier increases when water molecules adsorb on RGMSs. The modulation of interfacial potential barriers by exposure to wet air was significantly higher in RGMSs than in rGO, increasing the sensing performance (transducer function). In short, maximized active sites, easy accessibility of humidity and electronic sensitization effect induced extremely increased humidity sensing properties of RGMSs which have not been reported yet.



**Figure 3.13.** Schematic illustration of the mechanism with enhanced humidity sensing properties of the enhanced depletion region on (a) bare rGO and (b) RGMS.

### 3.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, we developed an RGMS humidity sensor with enhanced sensitivity by a simple fabrication process. RGMS humidity sensor demonstrated high response with long stability and flexibility. The high response of RGMS humidity sensor is attributed to the  $p$ - $n$  heterojunction formed by  $p$ -type rGO and  $n$ -type MoS<sub>2</sub> and the effect of the oxygen functional groups remaining on the surface of rGO. We expect that the excellent properties demonstrated in this study have shown the possibility of RGMS-based humidity sensors in practical applications.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Highly selective noble metal decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> based gas sensor array**



## 4.1. Introduction

The electronic nose (E-nose), which mimics the function of the mammalian olfactory system<sup>[1,114–116]</sup>, is an advanced and promising technology that can substitute human sensory panels for specific purposes in practical applications. By using a chemical gas sensor array in combination with a classification algorithm, e-nose can detect and recognize odors and flavors. E-nose has gained worldwide attention for its critical role in health care<sup>[2,4]</sup>, environmental monitoring<sup>[3,14–16]</sup>, food processing<sup>[7–13]</sup>, security and public safety<sup>[6]</sup>, transportation and industrial processes<sup>[2,117]</sup>. Since the main purpose of e-noses is to maintain a safe environment for human life, e-nose must be a device that can be integrated with mobile devices or wearable devices that are closely used in human life. Therefore, e-nose should be portable, compact and reliable<sup>[6,118–124]</sup>. In this respect, semiconductor gas sensors are ideal candidates for applications. Based on the Micro Electro Mechanical Systems (MEMS) platform, e-nose can be operated with very low power consumption by miniaturizing a device consisting of a gas sensing material and a heater in the sensor chip<sup>[125]</sup>.

Two-dimensional (2D) materials including graphene, transition metal dichalcogenides (TMD), and boron/carbon nitride have attracted great attention as gas sensing materials due to their excellent electrical, mechanical and surface properties.<sup>[126]</sup> 2D gas sensing materials have the advantage of being sensitive to

low concentrations of gases due to their high surface-to-volume ratios. In addition, facile surface modification with charge-transfer doping effects readily improves the gas sensing properties. Among them, TMD is a very suitable material for gas sensors because of its high surface-to-volume ratio and many dangling bonds in edge sites and basal planes that can detect sensitive gases at low concentrations.<sup>[46,51,127–130]</sup> Since the selectivity of individual materials is limited, methods for improving the selectivity and gas sensing properties of materials have been studied. The methods include nanostructure fabrication and surface decoration to improve selectivity and gas sensing properties. In particular, the fabrication of nanostructures increases the surface area of the material that can react with the gas, increasing sensitivity. Attention has also been paid to methods of improving sensitivity and selectivity through the effect of catalysts containing platinum, palladium and gold nanoparticles. MoS<sub>2</sub> is easy to incorporate surface adatoms such as noble metal nanoparticles on the surface due to the functional groups present at the edge site and basal plane. This feature induces electron exchange between the 2D material and the metal nanoparticles decorated on the surface, resulting in doping of the 2D material.

Herein, we provide the effects of Au, Pd and Pt incorporation on MoS<sub>2</sub> were investigated. Incorporation with Au, Pd and Pt significantly improves the chemical sensing ability of the MoS<sub>2</sub> system. During the solution mixing of an aqueous

solution of  $\text{HAuCl}_4$ ,  $\text{K}_2\text{PdCl}_4$  and  $\text{K}_2\text{PtCl}_4$ , the metal precursors were reduced as a result of the charge transfer of electrons from the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes, which were subsequently incorporated into the  $\text{MoS}_2$  surface because of the difference in the reduction potential between the Au (or Pd or Pt) precursors and the  $\text{MoS}_2$  work function and they were characterized through Scanning electron microscope (SEM), Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), raman and X-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS) analysis. The pristine, Au-decorated, Pd-decorated and Pt-decorated  $\text{MoS}_2$  ( $\text{PMoS}_2$ , Au- $\text{MoS}_2$ , Pd- $\text{MoS}_2$  and Pt- $\text{MoS}_2$ ) were exposed to six different gases at 150 °C to evaluate their gas sensing behavior. This study also presents a classification of gas component using Principle Component Analysis (PCA). Finally, the selectivity of each materials is proved by first-principles density functional theory (DFT) calculation. This study provides clear understanding on the effect of noble metal catalysts on improving gas sensing selectivity by  $\text{MoS}_2$  which can be applicable into e-nose.

## **4.2. Experimental section**

### **4.2.1. Fabrication of metal nanoparticles on $\text{MoS}_2$**

3 mg of layered  $\text{MoS}_2$  powder (~90 nm powder, 99% purity, 5g; Graphene supermarket) was dispersed in a 45 vol % ethanol/water mixture (1ml/mg) and sonicated in an ultra-sonication bath for several hours. In an individual vial, gold chloride monohydrate ( $\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), potassium tetrachloropalladate ( $\text{K}_2\text{PdCl}_4$ ),

and Potassium tetrachloroplatinate ( $K_2PtCl_4$ ) was dissolved in water. To decorate  $MoS_2$  with Au, Pd, and Pt nanoparticles, a small amount of the  $HAuCl_4$ ,  $K_2PdCl_4$ , and  $K_2PtCl_4$  solution was added each vial to an aqueous dispersion of chemically exfoliated  $MoS_2$  at specific temperature, which was then stirred for several minutes. A reaction occurred immediately, completing within a few minutes.

#### **4.2.2. Sensor fabrication**

IDEs of 4  $\mu m$  interspacing were prepared on  $SiO_2/Si$  substrate using photolithography followed by metal (Pt/Ti) deposition by e-beam evaporation. A 2  $\mu l$  drop of  $MoS_2$  nanoparticle solution was cast onto a Pt IDEs/ $SiO_2/Si$  substrate and was then dried for 30 minutes at 100 °C. The fabricated sensors were calcined at 500°C in Ar ambient to crystallize the noble metal nanoparticles using Rapid Thermal Annealing (RTA).

#### **4.2.3. Characterizations**

Noble metal decorated  $MoS_2$  on Si substrate were characterized by a scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, MERLIN Compact, ZEISS) using 5 kV. For TEM analysis, noble metal decorated  $MoS_2$  were deposited on quantifoil Cu grids (300-mech holey carbon). The TEM experiments were performed by JEM-2100F. Raman scattering was performed on a Raman spectrometer with excitation by 640 nm laser light. XPS was carried out at 4D beamlines at Research Institute of Advanced Materials (RIAM).

#### **4.2.4. Sensor measurements**

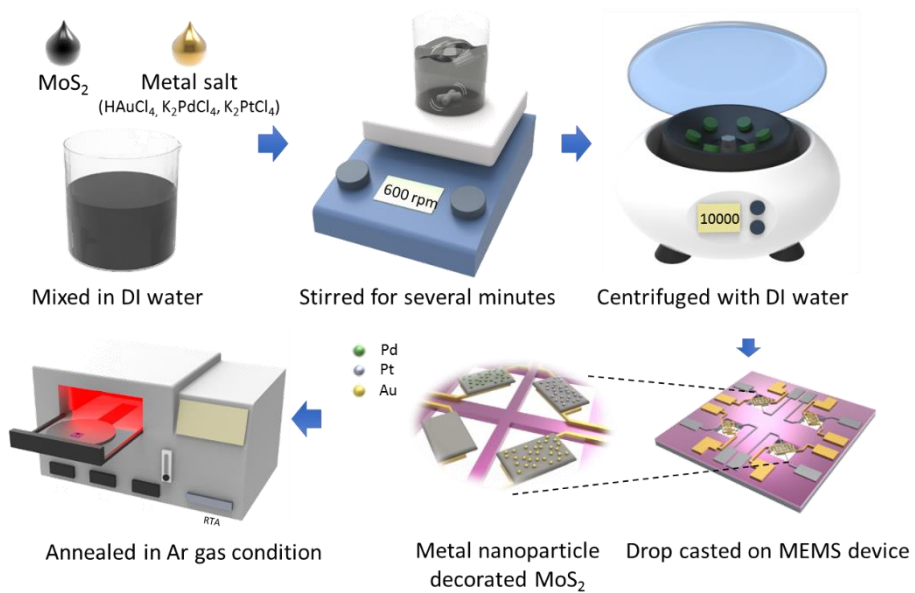
The gas-sensing measurements were performed in a quartz tube with an external heat source. The gas-sensing properties of noble metal decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> sensors were measured at 150 °C. As the flow gas was changed from dry air to a calibrated test gas (balanced with dry air, Sinjin Gases), the variation in the sensor resistance was monitored using a source measurement unit (Kithley 2400). A constant flow rate of 1000 sccm was used for dry air and the test gas. The sensor resistance was measured DC bias voltage of 0.5V. The response of the sensors ( $\Delta R/R_0 \cdot 100$ ) was accurately determined by measuring the baseline resistances of the sensors in dry air and the saturated resistances after exposure to the test gas. Gas flow was controlled using mass flow controllers, and all the measurements were recorded using a computer over a GPIB interface.

### **4.3. Result and discussion**

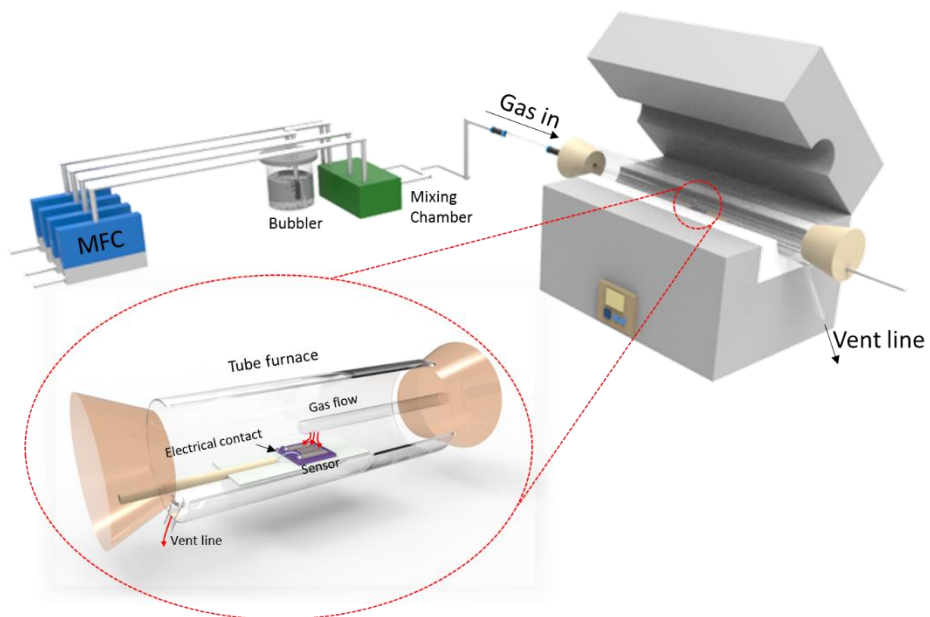
#### **4.3.1. Fabrication process of metal decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>**

The schematic in Figure 4.1 illustrates the fabrication process of the controlled process of decorating Au, Pd and Pt nanoparticled onto MoS<sub>2</sub> and forming the resulting film for gas sensing devices. First, ultrafine MoS<sub>2</sub> powder (Graphene supermarket, average particle size < 90nm, 99%) was exfoliated in an ethanol/water mixture. Aqueous solutions of gold chloride monohydrate (HAuCl<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O), potassium tetrachloropalladate (K<sub>2</sub>PdCl<sub>4</sub>), and potassium

tetrachloroplatinate ( $K_2PtCl_4$ ) was injected into  $MoS_2$  solution at a controlled molar concentration. After simple stirring with heating, high-resolution Au, Pd and Pt nanoparticles were spontaneously decorated onto the  $MoS_2$  layers because of a redox reaction between  $MoS_2$  and noble metal ions. To remove the residual metal salts, each solution is centrifuged with deionized water with 13500 rpm for 10 min. The final solution is dispersed in 1ml of distilled water. After dispersion, each solution was drop-casted onto the interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) for 0.5  $\mu$ l. To remove DI water after drop-casting, the sensor was annealed on 100 °C hotplate for 30 min. The gas sensing properties of fabricated sensor was measured in a quartz tube at 150°C by monitoring the change of the sensor resistance on flowing dry air to a calibrated target gas (Figure4.2).



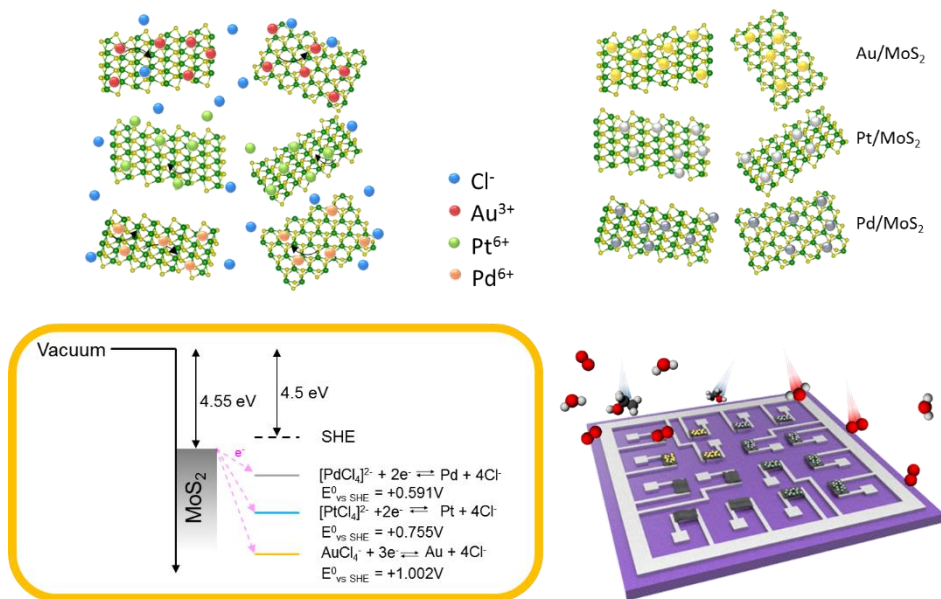
**Figure 4.1.** Schematic illustration of the fabrication process of noble metal nanoparticle decorated  $\text{MoS}_2$



**Figure 4.2.** Schematic of sensing measurement system.



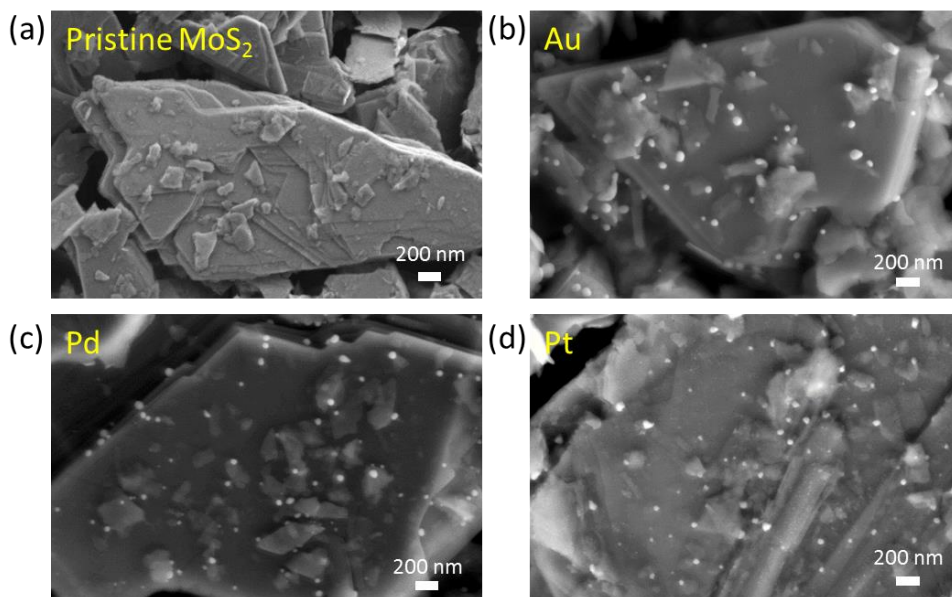
Since the work function of MoS<sub>2</sub> is 4.55 eV, the Fermi level of MoS<sub>2</sub> is about +0.05V higher than the potential of the standard hydrogen electrode (4.5eV). This is much higher than the reduction potentials of +1.002, +0.591 and +0.755V of AuCl<sup>4-</sup>, PdCl<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and PtCl<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>. This potential difference results in spontaneous electron transfer from MoS<sub>2</sub> to metal ions, indicating that metal nanoparticles can form on the MoS<sub>2</sub> through a redox reaction between MoS<sub>2</sub> and the metal salt (Figure 4.3). In particular, the dangling bond and edge sites of partially unbound sulfur MoS<sub>2</sub> are expected to be the main sites for seeding of the metal nucleus.<sup>[131,132]</sup>



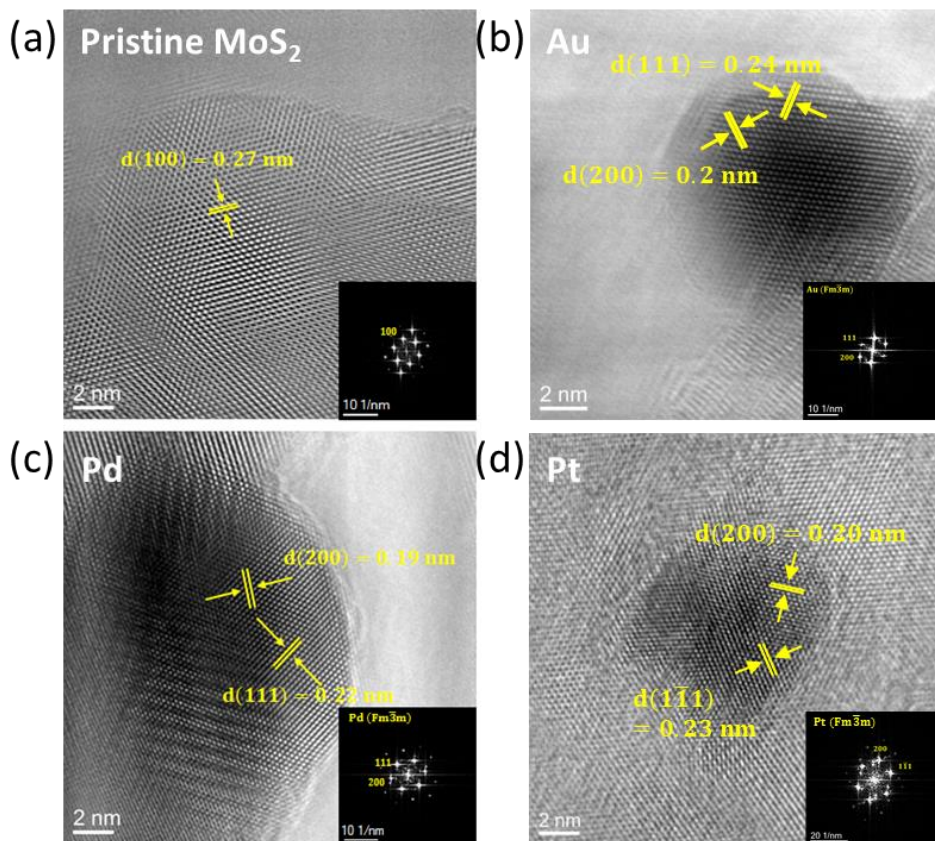
**Figure 4.3.** Energy diagram showing the work function of MoS<sub>2</sub> and the Pd<sup>2+</sup>/Pd<sup>0</sup>, Au<sup>3+</sup>/Au<sup>0</sup>, Pt<sup>2+</sup>/Pt<sup>0</sup> reduction potential (1.002V vs. SHE)

### **4.3.2. Characterization of metal decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>**

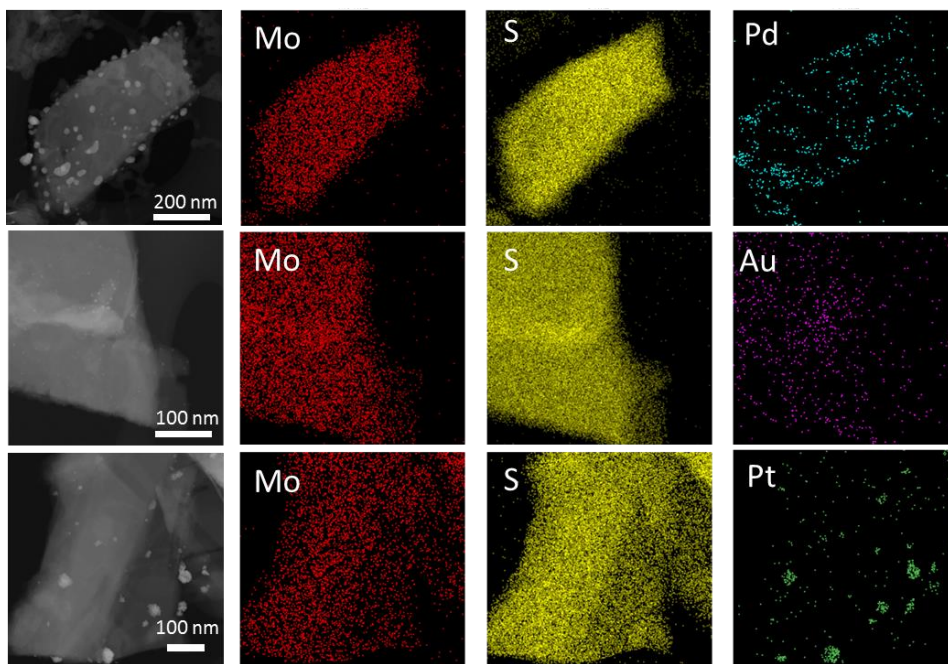
The approximate morphology of the metal nanoparticles decorated on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub> is shown in the SEM images (Figure 4.4). TEM analysis was performed for more accurate analysis. As a result, the interlayer distance was found to be 0.27 nm, confirming that it was MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figure 4.5a). In addition, the TEM images shown in Figure 4.5d, e and f show that Au nanoparticles are 5 nm, Pd nanoparticles are 10 nm, and Pt nanoparticles are about 5 nm in size. The insets in each Figure 4.5a, b, c, and d show that all of them had an FCC crystal structures. The EDS analysis shown in Figure 4.6 confirmed that Pd, Au and Pt nanoparticles were well synthesized on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub>.



**Figure 4.4.** SEM images of (a) pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>, (b) Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>, (c) Pd-MoS<sub>2</sub> and (d) Pt-MoS<sub>2</sub>



**Figure 4.5.** HRTEM images of (a) pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>, (b) Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>, (c) Pd-MoS<sub>2</sub> and (d) Pt-MoS<sub>2</sub>.



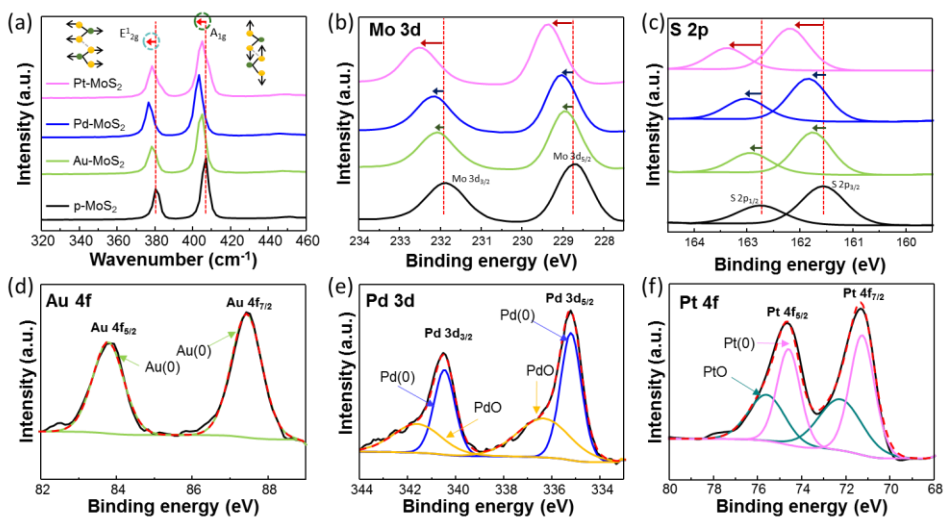
**Figure 4.6.** TEM EDS of MoS<sub>2</sub> with Au, Pd and Pt nanoparticles.

In order to determine the effects of the Au, Pd, and Pt-doping of MoS<sub>2</sub>, Raman spectroscopy, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) were performed. Raman spectra show that pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> produces two representative vibration peaks, E<sup>1</sup><sub>2g</sub> and A<sub>1g</sub>, at 380 and 406 cm<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Figure 4.7a). The E<sup>1</sup><sub>2g</sub> phonon mode represents in-plane vibrations of Mo and S atoms, whereas the A<sub>1g</sub> peak represents the out-of-plane vibration of S atoms. Upon decoration of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> with Au, Pd and Pt nanoparticles, the E<sup>1</sup><sub>2g</sub> peak downshifted to 378, 376, and 378 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The A<sub>1g</sub> peaks of Au, Pd and Pt nanoparticles also showed downshift to 404, 403 and 404 cm<sup>-1</sup> individually, suggesting MoS<sub>2</sub> were *n*-type doped by Au, Pd, and Pt nanoparticles.

XPS results further confirm the presence of *n*-doping upon decoration. Figure 4.7b-f show XPS core level spectra of Mo 3d and S 2p for pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>, Au-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>, Pd-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> and Pt-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>. The peaks for Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> are located at binding energies around 231.87 and 228.67 eV, as well as for the S 2p peaks, which are located at around 167.77 and 161.57 eV. The former peaks are attributed to the Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub> orbitals of Mo<sup>4+</sup>, and the latter are due to the S 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and S 2p<sub>3/2</sub> orbitals of the divalent sulfide ions (S<sup>2-</sup>) in MoS<sub>2</sub>. Compared to the peaks of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>, peaks for Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub>, Mo3d<sub>5/2</sub>, S 2s<sub>1/2</sub>, and S 2s<sub>3/2</sub> are shifted slightly to higher binding energy after Au (Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub> = 232.09 eV, Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> = 228.99 eV, S 2s<sub>1/2</sub> = 162.99 eV,

and S  $2d_{3/2}$  = 162.79 eV), Pd (Mo  $3d_{3/2}$  = 232.13 eV, Mo  $3d_{5/2}$  = 229.03 eV, S  $2s_{1/2}$  = 163.06 eV, and S  $2d_{3/2}$  = 161.83 eV), and Pt (Mo  $3d_{3/2}$  = 232.54 eV, Mo  $3d_{5/2}$  = 229.34 eV, S  $2s_{1/2}$  = 163.44 eV, and S  $2d_{3/2}$  = 162.24 eV) decoration due to the electronic interaction between Au, Pd, and Pt with the interface of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Figure 4.7d–f provides the binding energies of three different noble metals on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Peaks located at about 87.2 eV and 83.6 eV can be ascribed to Au  $4f_{5/2}$  and Au  $4f_{7/2}$ , respectively; peaks representing Pd  $3d_{3/2}$  and Pd  $3d_{5/2}$  are near 340.5 eV and 335.2 eV, respectively; peaks at 74.6 eV and 71.3 eV originate from Pt  $4f_{5/2}$  and Pt  $4f_{7/2}$ , confirming the decoration of MoS<sub>2</sub> with Au, Pd and Pt nanoparticles<sup>[133]</sup>. XPS peaks indicate the successful deposition of different noble metals onto the surface of the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub>. According to the blue-shift to higher binding energies compared to that of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>, indicating an up-shift to the Fermi level in MoS<sub>2</sub> due to n-type doping. Raman spectroscopy and XPS confirmed that charge transfer from Au, Pd, and Pt nanoparticles to MoS<sub>2</sub> induces n-doping effects on the MoS<sub>2</sub>.

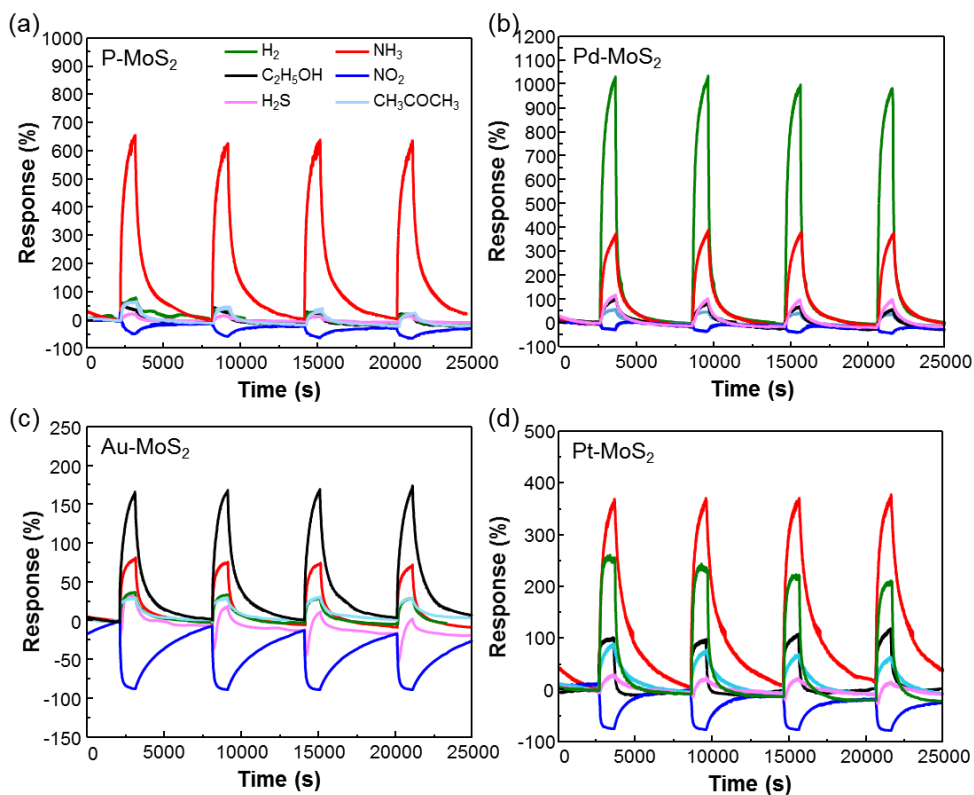




**Figure 4.7.** Characterization of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub>, Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>, Pd-MoS<sub>2</sub> and Pt-MoS<sub>2</sub> with (a) Raman spectroscopy and (b-c) XPS. The main peaks of MoS<sub>2</sub> is shown with (b) Mo 3d and (c) S 2p. XPS analysis of (d) Au, (e) Pd, and (f) Pt nanoparticles.

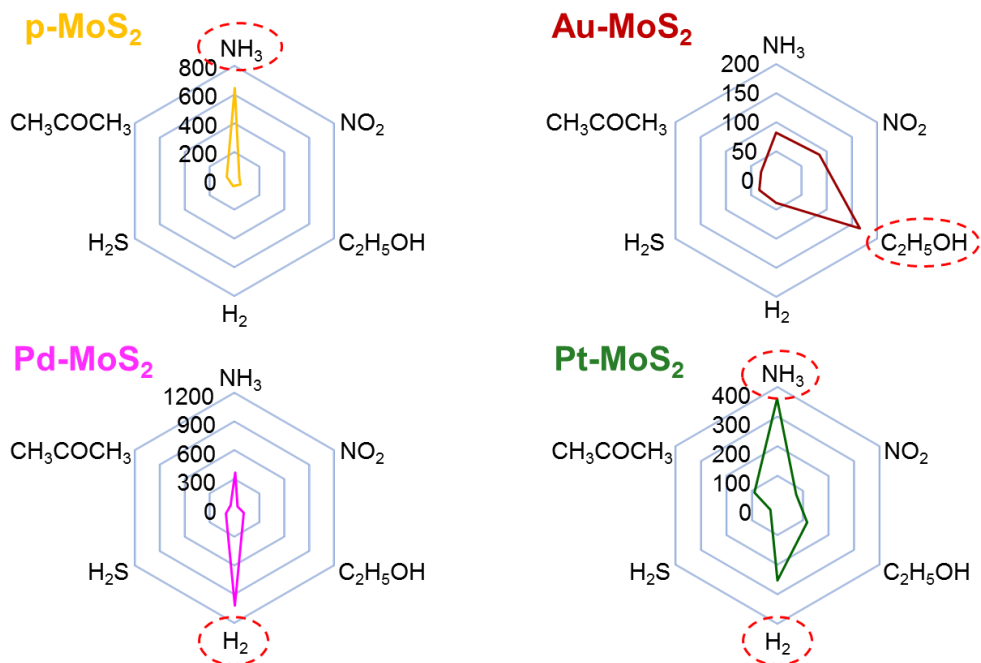
### 4.3.3. Gas sensing properties

The experimental results indicate that the metal nanoparticle decorated on the MoS<sub>2</sub> strongly affects the gas sensing properties. Figure 4.8 show the dynamic sensing transients of the metal nanoparticle decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>. The device was exposed to four consecutive pulses of 50 ppm of NH<sub>3</sub>, 50 ppm of H<sub>2</sub>, 50 ppm of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH, 50 ppm of CH<sub>3</sub>COCH<sub>3</sub>, 5 ppm of NO<sub>2</sub>, and 5 ppm of H<sub>2</sub>S gases. The sensing properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> were 63.46, 40.02, 77.325, 23.05, 651.53 and 46.64% to CH<sub>3</sub>COCH<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH, H<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> gases (Figure 4.8a). Au-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> showed 29.35, 165.28, 36.86, 32.71, 80.37 and 87.0 % response to each gas (Figure 4.8b). The response of Pd-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> was 58.32, 102.62, 1027.1, 113.79, 371.69, and 26.92% (Figure 4.8c). Pt-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> showed 89.48, 101.41, 256.5, 27.8, 366.71, and 77.38% response to six gases (Figure 4.8d).



**Figure 4.8.** The response curves of (a) p-MoS<sub>2</sub>, (b) Au-MoS<sub>2</sub>, (c) Pd-MoS<sub>2</sub> and (d) Pt-MoS<sub>2</sub> to 50 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 50 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 50 ppm C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH, 50 ppm CH<sub>3</sub>COCH<sub>3</sub>, 5 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> and 5 ppm H<sub>2</sub>S at 150 °C.

Figure 4.9 show radar charts of gas sensitivity toward  $\text{CH}_3\text{COCH}_3$ ,  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{H}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  gas species. The pristine  $\text{MoS}_2$  and Pd-decorated  $\text{MoS}_2$  sensor showed high sensitivity toward  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{H}_2$  gas respectively. Au-decorated  $\text{MoS}_2$  sensor showed superior sensitivity to ethanol gas. Pt-decorated  $\text{MoS}_2$  sensor was highly sensitive to  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  gases.



**Figure 4.9.** Polar plot of response of p-MoS<sub>2</sub>, Pd-MoS<sub>2</sub>, Au-MoS<sub>2</sub> and Pt-MoS<sub>2</sub>.

#### 4.4. Conclusion

In conclusion, we have reported high sensitivity of noble metal decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> gas sensor array prepared facile fabrication steps. The surface of MoS<sub>2</sub> was decorated with well dispersed Gold, Palladium and Silver nanoparticles using solution process. All sensors were exposed to 5 ppm of NO<sub>2</sub>, 50 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 50 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 50 ppm CH<sub>3</sub>COCH<sub>3</sub> and 50 ppm C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH gas. Each sensor showed enhanced selectivity to different gases. Pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> showed high sensitivity to NH<sub>3</sub> gas. Compared to this result, Au-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> showed selectivity to NO<sub>2</sub> gas. Pd-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> showed increased sensitivity to H<sub>2</sub> gas and Ag-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> showed high selectivity to H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S gas. To these excellent properties, it is expected that the significantly simple fabrication process enlarges the potential of noble metal decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> sensor array for practical application in environmental monitoring.

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## 국문초록

### 2차원 물질 기반 화학저항식 가스 감지 특성 연구

사물과 연결된 모든 사용자 및 기기와 정보교환을 가능케 하는 사물인터넷 기술의 발달에 따라 기기의 내·외부 정보를 교환하는 스마트센서가 가장 중요한 기술로 고려되고 있다. 특히, 가스 센서는 특정 가스의 존재 및 농도를 검지 할 수 있고 인간의 생활, 안전, 건강, 환경, 에너지 절약에 달하는 수많은 영역에 적용 가능하므로 매우 큰 관심을 불러일으키고 있다. 사물인터넷 혹은 차세대 기기에 적용하려면 가스 센서는 저 소비전력, 저가격, 소형화, 현존 기술과의 접목이 쉬워야 하는 점 등 까다로운 요구사항을 전부 만족시켜야 한다. 오늘날까지 반도체성 금속산화물은 대량생산, 소형화, 저가격, 고온 에서의 높은 가스 반응성 등 여러 장점 덕분에 가스감지물질로 가장 많이 사용되어왔다. 하지만 여전히 낮은 선택성, 고 소비전력, 복잡한 합성 방법 등의 주요 문제점 및 거론된 사물인터넷의 요구사항을 해결하지

못한 채, 대체 가능한 가스 감지물질을 탐색하는 연구가 활발히 진행되고 있다.

대안으로 제시되는 물질 중 대표적으로 그래핀, 전이금속 다이칼코게나이드, 금속산화물 나노시트 같은 2 차원 물질들이 가장 많은 관심을 받고 있다. 2 차원 물질들은 유연성, 높은 비표면적, 많은 활성 사이트, 우수한 상온 가스감지 특성 등 독특하고 우수한 장점들로 인해 금속산화물을 대체하고 미래 기술에 적용 가능하다는 평가를 받는다. 표면 기능화와 귀금속 표면장식을 통해 2 차원 물질 고유 성질의 단점을 개선 및 해결하고, 장점을 극대화할 수 있기 때문에 차세대 가스감지물질로 주목을 받고 있다. 또한 상온 가스감지 특성을 보이며 저가격 대량생산 및 소형화가 쉽고, 기존 기술에 적용하기 쉬운 점 등 실제기기 적용의 요구사항을 만족한다. 하지만 2 차원 물질도 낮은 선택성, 긴 반응시간 및 회복시간, 비가역적 가스감지 특성과 같은 반드시 극복해야 할 약점들을 가지고 있다.

그러므로, 본 논문은 1) 화학적 합성 방법 중 하나인 수열합성 방법과 2) ultra-sonication 을 이용해 물리적으로 합성한 rGO/MoS<sub>2</sub> 반데르발스 복합체,



3)귀금속이 표면 장식된  $\text{MoS}_2$ , 위의 세가지 샘플로 준비된 화학저항식 가스센서의 감지 특성을 제시하며, 간단한 공정 과정을 통해 저렴한 가격으로 합성을 진행하고, 표면 기능화를 통해 선택성이 낮은 문제 등을 해결했다.

첫 번째로, 간단한 수열합성 방법을 통해  $\text{rGO/MoS}_2$  복합체를 합성하였다. 합성한 물질을 포토리쓰그래피 공정을 통해 제작된 IDE 위에 drop-casting 하여 가스 감지 특성을 확인하였다.  $\text{rGO/MoS}_2$  복합체를 기반으로 한 센서는 상온에서 습도에 대해 고 감도, 고 선택성, 가역적 감지 반응을 보였다. 이론적 감지 한계는 약 0.01783% RH 수준으로 계산됐다.

두 번째로, 물리적으로 합성한  $\text{rGO/MoS}_2$  반데르발스 복합체의 습도 감지 특성을 확인하였다.  $\text{rGO/MoS}_2$  습도센서는 기타 가스보다 습도에 향상된 반응성, 선택성, 가역성을 보여주었으며, 계산적 상온 감지 한계는 0.0109% RH 정도로 매우 민감했다. 이 센서는 휘어진 형태에서도 안정적인 구동을 보여줄 뿐만 아니라, 장기간이 지난 이후에도 구동이 되는 것이 검증되었다. 이러한 우수한 특성과 손쉬운 제조공정을 이용하여 합성된  $\text{rGO/MoS}_2$

반데르발스 복합체는 사물인터넷 및 웨어러블 전자기기 등 차세대 기술에 실제 적용 잠재성을 넓혔다.

세 번째로, MoS<sub>2</sub>의 표면에 용액공정방법을 이용해 귀금속 나노입자를 장식하고 이를 기반으로 한 가스 감지 특성을 분석하였다. 본 실험에서는 Pd, Au, 그리고 Pt를 MoS<sub>2</sub> 표면에 합성하였으며, MoS<sub>2</sub>의 선택성을 향상시켜 2x2 어레이를 구현하였다. 매우 간단한 제조 공정과 우수한 가스 감지 특성을 기반으로 차세대 가스 감지 물질로써 2차원 MoS<sub>2</sub> 잠재성이 높음을 확인할 수 있는 연구이다.

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**성명:** 박 서연

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