# Design of PbS quantum dots-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites for highly selective NO<sub>2</sub> sensing at room temperature

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# Abstract

Traditional resistive semiconductor gas sensors suffer from high operating temperature and poor selectivity. Herein, a highly selective NO<sub>2</sub> sensor based on PbS quantum dots-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites operating at room temperature was fabricated to address the issue. The ternary nanocomposites were synthesized via an in-situ method, yielding PbS quantum dots (QDs) with an average size of ~10 nm and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles in the 10-20 nm range, uniformly distributed on ultrathin MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets with an average thickness of ~7 nm. The optimized sensor demonstrated a significant improvement in response to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> at 25°C, achieving a response of 44.5%, which is approximately seven times higher than that of the pure MoS<sub>2</sub>-based sensor (6.4%). The sensor also achieved relatively short response/recovery times and full recovery properties. Notably, the optimal sensor displayed extraordinary selectivity towards NO<sub>2</sub>, showing negligible responses to different interfering gases. Density functional theory calculations were conducted to elucidate the underlying sensing mechanism, which was attributed to the enhanced specific surface area, the receptor function of both PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, along with the transducer function of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets.

Keywords: PbS quantum dots, PbMoO<sub>4</sub>, MoS<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, selective sensing, room temperature

#### 1. Introduction

The escalating global concern over the detection of toxic and hazardous gases grows up rapidly, promoting substantial attention in advanced sensing technologies. Among various harmful gases, NO<sub>2</sub> is commonly produced by vehicular exhaust, the manufacturing industry, and thermal power generation. The acid rain and photochemical smog induced by NO<sub>2</sub> pose substantial damage to the vulnerable ecosystem [1]. Exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> potentially causes irreparable damage to the human, leading to respiratory disease and cardiovascular issues. Therefore, developing effective technologies for NO<sub>2</sub> detection holds profound significance for economic prosperity, environmental protection, and ensuring human safety [2].

Traditional resistive semiconductor gas sensors, predominantly composed of metal oxide, are subjected to the restrictions of elevated operating temperatures (typically exceeding 200 °C) and poor selectivity [3]. As a result, the sensors exhibit considerable power consumption and encounter difficulty in accurately distinguishing gas species when inferring among various gases. Motivated by this, many attempts and efforts are devoted to the reduction of operating temperature and enhancement of gas selectivity. Room-temperature gas sensors offer significant advantages over high-temperature counterparts in terms of energy efficiency, safety, portability, and long-term stability. High-temperature sensors, requiring elevated operational temperatures to facilitate gas detection, consume more energy and pose greater safety risks, particularly when detecting flammable gases. Additionally, prolonged high-temperature operation can induce grain growth in sensing materials, leading to sensor degradation

and reduced stability. In contrast, room-temperature sensors avoid these issues, offering a more energy-efficient and portable solution with greater long-term reliability. These advantages make room-temperature gas sensors highly appealing for future applications, aligning with current technological trends and sustainability goals. A variety of novel semiconductor nanostructures are constructed to replace the traditional mono-component single-metal oxide sensing material, basically including ZnO, SnO<sub>2</sub>, Co<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, etc [4-7]. Construction of heterostructures capitalizing on the diverse excellent properties of individual components is considered as an effective method to address these issues [8, 9].

Quantum dots (QDs) emerging as a new type of semiconductor, are widely regarded as having the potential to break through the limitations of traditional sensing materials, owing to their small dimensions and exceptional electric properties. QDs have been fabricated into gas sensors and achieve high sensor response along with good selectivity [10]. Especially, PbS QDs stand out among various quantum dots, owing to low-cost fabrication compatibility, narrow band gap (0.95 eV), and large specific area [11]. Furthermore, the zero-dimensional PbS QDs are proven to be attractive additives for hybrid materials in NO<sub>2</sub> sensor applications [12]. Bimetal oxide including ZnSnO<sub>3</sub>, LaFeO<sub>3</sub>, and CuWO<sub>4</sub> etc, provides several advantages over single metal oxide in gas sensor applications [13-16]. The presence of diverse metal cations offers additional active sites for gas adsorption, consequently leading to an enhanced sensor response. Besides, the complex structure of bimetal oxide allows for the modulation of the interaction between different metal elements [17, 18], enhancing the accuracy identification of gases. The n-type bimetal oxide semiconductor material of PbMoO<sub>4</sub> is utilized to decorate MoO<sub>3</sub> for sensing enhancement, indicating significant potential for further development in gas

sensors [19]. MoS<sub>2</sub>, derived from the natural mineral molybdenite, is abundant in nature and has been identified as a promising candidate for gas sensing applications due to its unique physical and chemical properties. By processing molybdenite into a functional gas sensing material, its value is significantly enhanced, providing a sustainable and high-value use for this naturally occurring mineral [20]. Besides, MoS<sub>2</sub> is also demonstrated as a promising substrate in the fabrication of hybrid material, due to the high carrier mobility facilitating the collection of the generated electrons in sensing reaction and offering numerous edge sites for the nucleation of decoration phase material [21].

Considering the individual advantages of PbS QDs, PbMoO<sub>4</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub>, designing heterostructures that integrate these components offers a feasible way to maximize their collective strengths. Motivated by this, PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites were fabricated for highly selective NO<sub>2</sub> sensing at room temperature through a straightforward in-situ synthesis route. The optimal sensor based on PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites exhibited a high response to NO<sub>2</sub> at 25°C, as well as extraordinary selectivity. The enhanced sensing mechanism was systematically discussed based on the microstructure characterization and density functional theory (DFT) calculation. It was attributed to the synergistic effect of the improved specific surface area, receptor function of PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, and transducer function of MoS<sub>2</sub>. The ternary nanocomposites exhibited broad prospects in highly selective sensing NO<sub>2</sub> at room temperature.

#### 2. Experimental

# 2.1 Synthesis of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites

The detailed synthetic methods for  $MoS_2$  materials were improved based on our previous work, as given in the supplementary material [22]. Fig. 1 illustrates the schematic diagram of the synthesis

process of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites. First, MoS<sub>2</sub> powder (0.1 g) was evenly dispersed in 10 mL absolute ethanol by ultrasonic treatment for 30 min. Consequently, predetermined concentrations (8.32, 10.4, 12.48, 14.56 and 16.64 mM) of PbNO<sub>3</sub> and NaS<sub>2</sub> were dissolved into 20 mL aqueous solution, respectively. Next, PbNO<sub>3</sub> aqueous solution was transferred into MoS<sub>2</sub> suspension with vigorously stirring for 20 min. In the process, excessive Pb<sup>2+</sup> was absorbed on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub>, and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles were subsequently generated, forming the binary nanocomposites of PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub>. After that, NaS<sub>2</sub> aqueous solution was dropwise added into the above suspension, which was under continuous stirring by employing a burette for 20 min. Then, the achieved precipitates were collected and rinsed with absolute ethanol and water through centrifugation to remove the extra ions. Finally, the above products were subjected to a vacuum oven at 60 °C to obtain PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites, which were named as PM-26.6%, PM-33.25%, PM-39.9%, PM-46.55%, and PM-53.2% referring to the Pb/Mo molar ratios.



Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the synthesis process of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary

#### nanocomposites

#### 2.2 Sensor fabrication and sensing measurement

Typically, the ethanol suspension of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites was distributed on an Au interdigital electrode (fringe spacing of 150  $\mu$ m), as described in our previous work [23]. The as-fabricated sensors were dried naturally without heating and then aged at 50 °C to improve the stability. The CGS-MT (Beijing, Sino Aggtech) was utilized to measure sensing performance of the sensor device at an operating temperature of 25 °C. Furthermore, the relative humidity was measured at approximately 25 °C with values ranging between 10% and 45% RH. The sensor response was defined as S =  $|R_a-R_g|/R_a \times 100\%$ , where  $R_a$  and  $R_g$  represent the resistance of the sensors in the atmosphere of fresh air and target gases, respectively. The response and recovery times were defined as the duration for sensor resistance change of 90%  $|R_a-R_g|$ .

#### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Material characterizations

Fig. S1 illustrates the surface morphologies of pure MoS<sub>2</sub> and PM-46.55% sample under different fields of view. Visually, pure MoS<sub>2</sub> exhibits a hierarchical flowerlike shape assembled from a majority of ultrathin nanosheets with an average thickness of ~7 nm. Besides, quite a few nanoparticles with average size of approximately 10 nm are uniformly in-situ dispersed on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, which is ascribed to the modification of PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles. Fig. 2(a-d) shows different fields of view for the TEM images of PM-46.55% sample. It is found that PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles predominantly localize at the edge side of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, which is consistent with our previous report [22]. The HRTEM image reveals that PbS QDs are basically less than 10 nm, whereas the size of PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles is in the range of 10-20 nm, as shown in Fig. 2(e). Furthermore, several PbS QDs contact with PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles to form heterojunction without excessive agglomeration, enhancing the transport of charge carriers. Meanwhile, the interplanar lattice spacings of 0.301 nm and 0.251 nm correspond to the (200) and (202) planes of PbS and PbMoO<sub>4</sub>, respectively. Fig. 2(f) presents the SAED pattern of PM-46.55% sample, indicating a polycrystalline structure. The diffraction rings refer to the planes of PbS, PbMoO<sub>4</sub>, and MoS<sub>2</sub>, proving the successful construction of ternary heterostructure. The selected area of the sample for applying EDS mapping coupled with TEM is illustrated in Fig. 2(g-k). As a result, the distribution of Mo, S, Pb, and O signals are uniform, indicating that PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles are attached on the nanosheets evenly.



Fig. 2. (a-d) Low-magnification TEM images of PM-46.55% nanocomposites. (e) High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of PM-46.55% nanocomposites. The inset figures display the clear lattice

# fringes. (f) Selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns of PM-46.55% nanocomposites. (g) HAADF image of a selected area of PM-46.55% nanocomposites, and (h-i) corresponding elemental mappings of Mo, S, Pb, and O elements distribution within the nanocomposites.

The formation of multi-metal oxide  $PbMoO_3$  are independent of the drying process after collecting the product of centrifugation. The XRD patterns of the samples drying in the vacuum oven are illustrated in Fig. S2, in which the typical characteristic peaks referring to PbMoO<sub>3</sub> are clearly observed. The attachment of Pb2+ on the surface of MoS2 possibly in-situ transforms MoO3 into  $PbMoO_4$  nanoparticles with the help of water, as shown in the equation (1) [24]. With the addition of Pb<sup>2+</sup> in the aqueous solution, MoO<sub>3</sub> oxidation layer on MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets is etched into small nanoparticles. Besides, MoS<sub>2</sub> is reported to gradually dissolve in water with the presence of oxygen and subsequently generate  $MoO_4^{2-}$ , as described in the equation (2). Moreover, the defects on  $MoS_2$ nanosheets with high reactivity are easy to absorb  $Pb^{2+}$  and then interact with  $MoO_4^{2-}$  to form PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, which may be another possible reaction pathway [25]. EPR was conducted on the MoS<sub>2</sub> and PbS quantum dots-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposite to investigate the presence of vacancies, as shown in Fig. S3. The results revealed a weak characteristic peak at a g-factor of 1.999 for both samples, indicating the presence of a small number of sulfur vacancies. Moreover, the peak intensity for MoS<sub>2</sub> was higher than that of the PbS quantum dots-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites, suggesting that the introduction of PbS QDs tends to promote growth at defect sites, thereby reducing the number of vacancies.

$$MoO_3 + H_2O + Pb^{2+} \rightarrow PbMoO_4 + 2H^+$$
(1)

$$MoS_2 + \frac{9}{2}O_2 + 3H_2O \rightarrow MoO_4^{2-} + 2SO_4^{2-} + 6H^+$$
 (2)

XRD patterns of pure MoS2, PbS and PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites with different Pb/Mo molar ratios are shown in Fig. 3(a). For pure MoS<sub>2</sub>, the peaks at approximately 9°, 33°, and  $57^{\circ}$  can be well assigned to the (002), (100), and (110) planes of hexagonal MoS<sub>2</sub> (ICDD card No. 75-1539). The identified (111), (200), and (220) diffraction peaks of PbS at approximately 26°, 30°, and 43° are observed, which refers to the cubic PbS (ICDD card No. 05-0592). Obviously, the corresponding peaks are also observed in all PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites. Besides, the diffraction peaks at approximately 18° and 27° can be well indexed to the (101) and (112) planes, which are in accordance with tetragonal PbMoO<sub>4</sub> (ICDD card No. 44-1486). The presence of the above characteristic peaks indicates the formation of ternary heterostructures. With increasing Pb components in the nanocomposites, the intensity of diffraction peaks of PbMoO<sub>4</sub> decreases, especially for the (112) peak. Meanwhile, the peaks belonging to PbS clearly sharpen, which is ascribed to the additional formation of PbS QDs. The Raman spectra of pure MoS<sub>2</sub> and PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites are presented in Fig. 3(b). The characteristic peaks at approximately 376 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 406 cm<sup>-1</sup> are corresponded to  $E_{2g^1}$  and  $A_{1g}$  modes of MoS<sub>2</sub> [26]. These two peaks are also observed in the spectra of ternary nanocomposites. However, two peaks at around 317 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 868 cm<sup>-1</sup> appear apparently, which are attributed to the  $v_2(B_g, A_g)$  and  $v_1(A_g)$  modes of PbMoO<sub>4</sub>. The two peaks are attributed to the symmetric and antisymmetric stretching of the  $MoO_4^{2-}$  group and the characteristic symmetric stretching of molybdates [27, 28].

Fig. 3(c) shows the BET surface area of pure  $MoS_2$  and PM-46.55% sample, which are calculated to be 22.08 m<sup>2</sup>/g and 33.50 m<sup>2</sup>/g, respectively. Apparently, the BET surface area of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites is substantially enhanced after the attachment of PbS QDs and  $PbMoO_4$  nanoparticles. The defects and vacancies on the edge side of  $MoS_2$  nanosheets offer numerous nucleation sites for the decoration phases of PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, which shows a large specific surface area. The improved large specific surface area exposes additional active centers for the interaction of electrons with gas reactants, which is conducive to the gas sensing properties.



Fig. 3. (a) XRD patterns of pure MoS<sub>2</sub>, PbS and PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites with different Pb/Mo molar ratios. (b) Raman spectra of pure MoS<sub>2</sub> and PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites. (c) BET surface area of pure MoS<sub>2</sub> and PM-46.55% nanocomposites.

Fig. 4 illustrates the XPS spectra of the PM-46.55% sample to investigate the elemental composition and chemical states. As illustrated in the Mo 3d spectra (Fig. 4(a)), the doublet characteristic peaks at 232.1 eV and 228.8 eV, corresponding to Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub>, respectively, indicate the Mo predominantly exist in the +4 state [29]. Besides, the peak at a higher binding energy of 235.8 eV is attributed to the presence of Mo<sup>6+</sup>, which is ascribed to Mo<sup>6+</sup> ions in PbMoO<sub>4</sub> [30]. Furthermore, a characteristic peak at a lower binding energy of 226.1 eV is observed, corresponding to S 2s peak in Fig. 4(b). The doublet characteristic peaks at binding energies of 163.1 eV and 161.6 eV are observed, indicating the presence of S<sup>2-</sup>. Observation of two new peaks at 168.8 eV and 165.1 eV

partial oxidation and generation of vacancies and defects at S sites [31, 32]. As illustrated in Fig. 4(c), the Pb 4f spectra can be perfectly fit into four peaks at 143.9 eV, 142.7 eV, 139.1 eV and 137.9 eV, respectively. These peaks correspond to Pb  $4f_{5/2}$  and Pb  $4f_{7/2}$ , indicating the presence of Pb<sup>2+</sup> ions in the ternary nanocomposites [33]. For the O 1s in Fig. 4(d), the characteristic peaks assigned to lattice oxygen, adsorbed oxygen, and hydroxyl are observed at 530.8 eV, 531.8 eV, and 533.6 eV, respectively. The results confirm the presence of PbMoO<sub>4</sub> in the ternary nanocomposites and the generation of vacancies and defects, which facilitates the gas sensing adsorption [34].



Fig. 4. (a) XPS spectra of (a) Mo 3d, (b) S 2p, (c) Pb 4f, and (d) O 1s of PM-46.55%

#### nanocomposites.

In Fig. S4(a), the XPS survey spectrum for pure MoS<sub>2</sub> identifies the presence of Mo, S, and O signals. Moreover, Mo, S, Pb, and O elements are observed in the XPS survey spectrum for PM-46.55%

ternary nanocomposites. To note, the intensity of the peaks for O 1s for pure MoS<sub>2</sub> is lower than that for ternary nanocomposites, which is ascribed to the formation of PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles. As given in Fig. S4(b), the doublet high-intensity characteristic peaks in Mo 3d spectra for pure MoS<sub>2</sub> demonstrate the presence of Mo<sup>4+</sup>. A relatively low-intensity peak located at 236.1 eV presents the +6 state, demonstrating the transition from Mo<sup>4+</sup> to Mo<sup>6+</sup> during MoS<sub>2</sub> slightly oxidation process [35]. The spectra of S 2p for pure MoS<sub>2</sub> in Fig. S4(c) is similar as that of ternary nanocomposites, whereas the intensity peak assigning to S-O bond is relatively low, indicating the slight oxidation of sulfur for pure MoS<sub>2</sub>. Obviously, the O 1s spectrum is mainly ascribed to the adsorbed oxygen and no typical characteristic peak for lattice oxygen is observed, which is may be due to the relatively slight oxidation (Fig. S4(d)).

Considering the crucial role of PbS QDs in the sensing reaction, PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> model is chosen to represent the complex PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites in DFT calculation [36, 37]. Fig. 5(a-h) displays the optimized structure and Mulliken population of MoS<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub>, PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub>, respectively, from both top view and side view. As shown in Fig. 5(a, b), the charges of Mo and S atoms for pure MoS<sub>2</sub> are 0.07 e and -0.03 e, respectively. When NO<sub>2</sub> approaches to the pure MoS<sub>2</sub>, the charges of Mo and S atoms closing to NO<sub>2</sub> molecule change to be 0.06 e and -0.02 e, respectively. However, the charges of Mo and S atoms located relatively far from NO<sub>2</sub> molecule show no difference (Fig. 5(c, d)). As shown in Fig. 5(e, f), after the contact between PbS and MoS<sub>2</sub>, the charges of Mo and S atoms decrease, indicating the electrons transfer from PbS to MoS<sub>2</sub> and the successful construction of heterojunction [38]. When NO<sub>2</sub> molecule is absorbed on PbS, the charges of adsorption Pb site change to be 0.71 e from 0.61 e, as illustrated in Fig. 5(g, h). Additionally, the

charges of S atoms closest to the adsorption Pb site change from -0.61 e to -0.57 e. Compared with NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> system, the negative charge accumulates more on NO<sub>2</sub> molecule in the NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> system, indicating NO<sub>2</sub> captures more free electrons from PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> than pure MoS<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, in the NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> system, the charge distribution on MoS<sub>2</sub> surface also slightly changes, confirming that the charges generated in the adsorption process transfer from PbS to MoS<sub>2</sub> through the heterojunction channel. After that, the free electrons generated in the sensing process are transferred to the electrodes through the conductive pathway of MoS<sub>2</sub> for collection.



Fig. 5. (a-d) Top view and (e-h) side view of the optimized structure and Mulliken population of

MoS<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub>, PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> system.

The adsorption parameters of NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> models are given in Table. 1. The adsorption distance of NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> system is longer than that of NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> system, indicating the weak adsorption of NO<sub>2</sub> on MoS<sub>2</sub> surface. Besides, the small charge transfer of adsorption energy for NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> system also confirms the intensive NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on MoS<sub>2</sub>. Though the negative value of adsorption energy proves the adsorption process proceeds spontaneously, the sensing reaction is still weak due to the low absolute value of adsorption energy. The adsorption site for NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> system possibly occurs at the S sites whereas the adsorption site for NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> is Pb site from PbS. The shortened bond distance, along with the increased absolute values of charge transfer and adsorption energy, demonstrates a strong interaction between the NO<sub>2</sub> molecule and PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub>. This confirms that the addition of PbS QDs significantly enhances the sensing performance of pure MoS<sub>2</sub>.

	(A)	(e)	(eV)
NO <sub>2</sub> -MoS <sub>2</sub> N-S	3.153	-0.11	-0.07947
NO <sub>2</sub> -PbS-MoS <sub>2</sub> N-Pb	2.625	-0.28	-0.35597

Table 1. Adsorption parameters of NO<sub>2</sub> on MoS<sub>2</sub> and PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub>

To investigate the effect of heterojunction formation and NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on electronic properties, the TDOS curves are analyzed in Fig. 6. Fig. 6(a) displays the TDOS curves of MoS<sub>2</sub> and PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub>, showing that the TDOS of PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> shifts to left significantly. Furthermore, two new peaks at around -6.8 eV and -10.6 eV appear, which is possibly due to the overlapping of the density states of PbS and MoS<sub>2</sub>. The results prove that a large amounts of charge transfer and heterojunction formed between PbS and MoS<sub>2</sub>. As illustrated in Fig. 6(b), the TDOS curve of NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> slightly shifts to right, indicating that the adsorption of NO<sub>2</sub> molecule influences the electron orbitals of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Meanwhile, some new peaks occur at approximately -7.3 eV and -10.2 eV, which are ascribed to the NO<sub>2</sub> molecule. However, the difference between the TDOS curves of  $MoS_2$  and  $NO_2$ - $MoS_2$  is small, indicating the weak adsorption of  $NO_2$  on  $MoS_2$ . Compared with the system of  $NO_2$ - $MoS_2$ , the TDOS curve of  $NO_2$ -PbS- $MoS_2$  shifts to left notably, indicating a strong interaction between  $NO_2$  and  $MoS_2$ , as given in Fig. 6(c). The substantial change proves that the decoration of PbS predominantly enhances the sensitivity to  $NO_2$ .



Fig. 6. (a) TDOS curves of MoS<sub>2</sub> and PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub>. (b) TDOS curves of MoS<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> system. (c) TDOS curves of PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> system.

The PDOS curves of MoS<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub>, and PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> are given in the supplementary material (Fig. S5-Fig. S7). It is because that the total density of states is greatly affected by the electron in the outer orbit of the atom, the partial density of states in some outer orbits is primarily investigated in the PDOS curve of NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> system, as shown in Fig. 7(a). The density of states predominantly occurs in the range of –8 eV to 5 eV, and the overlapping parts suggest the orbitals hybridization in the adsorption process. Notably, the Pb 5p orbital hybridizes with N 2p and O 2p orbitals in the range of 2 eV to 5 eV, indicating that strong interaction and adsorption occur between the decoration phase of PbS and NO<sub>2</sub> molecule. Fig. 7(b-f) displays the PDOS curves of Mo, S, Pb, N and O elements, respectively. The electron states near the Fermi level are primarily contributed by Mo 4d, S 3p, Pb 5p, N 2p and O 2p for each element. The above orbitals are more likely to hybridize with other orbitals and then form bonds, finally affecting the sensing reaction. In addition, the interaction and charge transport in

PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> systems are also evaluated by electron density difference (EDD) analysis, as displayed in Fig. S8.



Fig. 7. (a) PDOS curves of NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> system. (b-f) PDOS curves of Mo, S, Pb, N, and O elements in NO<sub>2</sub>-PbS-MoS<sub>2</sub> system.

#### 3.2 NO<sub>2</sub> sensing properties

Fig. S9 illustrates the dynamic response-recovery curves of pure MoS<sub>2</sub> based sensor to gradient concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> ranging from 1-20 ppm at 25 °C. It is found that this sensor exhibits a low response of 19.9% even to a high concentration of 20 ppm. To systematically investigate the gas sensing properties of the obtained ternary nanocomposites with different Pb/Mo molar ratios, Fig. 8(a) evaluates the dynamic sensing response of the sensors to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> at room temperature of 25 °C and relative humidity of 20%RH. It can be seen that the responses of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites based sensors far surpass the response value of pure MoS<sub>2</sub>. Among the sensors constructed from ternary nanocomposites with different Pb/Mo molar ratios, the PM-46.55% sensor exhibits the highest sensor response of 44.5%, which is approximately 7-fold as the response value of

6.5% for pure MoS<sub>2</sub> to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>. The results demonstrate that the attachment of PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanocomposites significantly improves the sensing performance. The inset figure illustrates the I-V curves of the sensors based on PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites. The linear relationship between current and voltage signifies the ohmic contact, ensuring a stable and predictable electrical response to detected gas.

The dynamic response curves of the sensors based on PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites to various concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> were examined, and the corresponding results are given in Fig. 8(b). The response values of the optimal sensor based on PM-46.55% sample are 47.4%, 57.4%, 62.5%, 66.1%, 78.5%, and 73.0% to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 10 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, when the gradient concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> are below 5 ppm, the response value increases linearly, as illustrated in Fig. 8(c). Furthermore, the relationship between sensor response and NO<sub>2</sub> concentration for this optimal sensor can be represented as S = 45.11 + 5.9 C, which facilitates the rapid detecting and accurate quantifying of the NO<sub>2</sub> in actual applications (Fig. 8(d)). However, only polynomial equations can be used for fitting the relationship between response value and NO<sub>2</sub> concentration once NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations above 10 ppm. The phenomenon is possibly ascribed to the saturation adsorption of NO<sub>2</sub> molecules onto the surface of ternary nanocomposites, thereby preventing variations in sensor resistance.



Fig. 8. (a) Dynamic sensing response of the sensors based on PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> at room temperature of 25 °C. The inset figure shows the I-V

curves of the sensors. (b) Dynamic response curves of the sensors based on PbS

QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites to various NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the range of 1~10

ppm. (c) Relationship between sensor response and NO<sub>2</sub> concentration. (d) Linear relationship

### between sensor response and NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the range of 1~5 ppm.

Repeatability and long-term stability referring to the properties of the sensors maintain accuracy over an extend period, significantly determining the practicality of the sensors. To comprehensively investigate the repeatability of the sensors based on PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites, which are subjected to 4 cycles of 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>, as illustrated in Fig. 9(a). All the sensors based on ternary nanocomposites exhibit consistent response and recovery properties, indicating an exceptional repeatability to NO2. The long-term stability of the optimal PM-46.55% sensor is evaluated by continuously exposing to 1 ppm  $NO_2$  in 30 days, as given in Fig. 9(b). Apparently, the sensor exhibits almost no decreased response in a period of 30 days, confirming an excellent long-term stability. Besides, despite the variation of relative humidity in a relatively wide range of 10%-40%RH, the sensor response shows a slight decrease and maintains an extraordinary response higher than 42%. The results demonstrate that the sensor also has good moisture resistance to some extent. Fig. 9(c) shows the resistance changes of the PM-46.55% sensor to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>, demonstrating suitable response/recovery times (128 /1510 s) and full recovery properties. Obviously, the sensor resistance decreases dramatically after contacting with the oxidating gas of NO<sub>2</sub>, confirming a p-type semiconducting behavior of the sensor. Selectivity is another crucial parameter for gas sensors in ensuring accurate detection. Thus, the sensor responses to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> and other six types of interfering gases including 100 ppm methanol, 100 ppm ethanol, 100 ppm acetone, 100 ppm sulfur dioxide, 100 ppm propanol, and 100 ppm ammonia are given in Fig. 9(d). The sensor shows the highest response to NO<sub>2</sub>, which is tens to hundreds of times higher compared with the interfering gases, beneficial to distinguishing target gases in complicated environments. The pure MoS<sub>2</sub> sensor has poor selectivity across a range of gases, as shown in Fig. S10. As shown in Fig. S11, the water contact angle of pure MoS<sub>2</sub> and PbS quantum dots-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites are measured to be 62.29° and 66.74°, respectively, to investigate the humidity tolerance of both sensors. A comparison of the sensor performance between this work and reported literatures is summarized in Table S1 and the results show that PbS quantum dots-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites-based gas sensors promising candidates for detecting NO<sub>2</sub> gas in practical applications.



Fig. 9. (a) Repeatability of the PM-46.55% sensor to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> for four successive cycles. (b) Long-term stability of the PM-46.55% sensor to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> in 30 days. (c) Response and

recovery times of the PM-46.55% sensor to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>. (d) Selectivity of the PM-46.55% sensor

to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> and six types of interfering gases with suitable concentrations.

3.3. Gas sensing mechanism

The sensing performance toward NO<sub>2</sub> for the sensor based on PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites is superior to the sensor based on pure MoS<sub>2</sub> at 25°C. The enhanced sensing performance is attributed to the synergistic effects of the substantially improved specific surface area, the exceptionally high reactivity of PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles as receptors [39, 40], along with the transducer function arising from MoS<sub>2</sub> with efficient carrier mobility [41, 42].

As discussed in the BET results, the specific surface area of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites is significantly enhanced after the decoration of 0D PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub>. The receptor function refers to the interaction between target gas molecules and the sensing material, typically driven by chemical adsorption, physisorption, or catalytic reactions, depending on the surface properties of the receptor materials. In this case, the ultrasmall size of PbS quantum dots (QDs), with their high specific surface area, plays a critical role in enhancing gas sensing performance [43]. The increased surface area provides additional active sites for gas molecule adsorption. PbS QDs with a majority of dangling bonds are highly reactive to gas molecules, thereby functioning as the receptor in the ternary nanocomposites during the sensing process. The DFT calculations also demonstrate that NO2 molecules are more readily captured by PbS in the nanocomposites than by pure MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, which further confirms the receptor role of PbS QDs. Besides, the introduction of Pb<sup>2+</sup> to the surroundings of Mo atom significantly enlarges the electron density, facilitating to activation of the chemical adsorption of gas molecules [17]. Hence,  $PbMoO_4$ nanoparticles also attract some parts of gas molecules, which is crucial to catching the target gases.

When the designed ternary nanocomposites are exposed to air, the free oxygen molecules are easily absorbed on the surface of the nanocomposites and then converted into active absorbed oxygen ions ( $O_2^-$  at 25°C) by capturing electrons from the conduction band as illustrated in equation (3) [44]. As a result, the hole concentrations in the sensing material increase, causing the resistance of the sensing material reduced to some extent. When the sensor contacts with NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> molecules are absorbed on the surface of the ternary sensing material. The absorbed NO<sub>2</sub> molecules will further capture electrons from the conduction band of the sensing material and then form NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. Additionally, since the electronegativity of  $NO_2$  is much higher than that of oxygen, the absorbed  $NO_2$  molecules also react with oxygen species of  $O_2^-$ , as given in equation (4) [45, 46]. This phenomenon leads to further depletion of electrons and, conversely, a sharp increase in hole concentration, and the conductivity of the gas sensor is dramatically enhanced, leading to a drastic change in the sensor current of the ternary nanocomposites [47].

$$O_2 + e^- \rightarrow O_2^-$$
(3)  
 $NO_2 + O_2^- + 2e^- \rightarrow NO_2^- + 2O^-$ 
(4)

Apart from the gas chemisorption process, the charge transfer contributes equally to the sensing performance, as shown in Fig. 10. Due to the difference of PbS QDs, MoS<sub>2</sub> and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> in work function, the electrons transfer from PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> to MoS<sub>2</sub> until the equilibrium of Fermi level [12, 48]. In sequence, numerous heterojunctions are constructed between the decoration particles and the substrate material of MoS<sub>2</sub>, providing charge transfer channels in the sensing process. When the sensor contacts with oxidizing gas of NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> molecules are more likely to be adsorbed on the receptor of PbS QDs and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, injecting a concentration of holes into sensing material [49]. The transducer function is primarily governed by the substrate material of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Specifically, when injected holes are transported to the MoS<sub>2</sub> smoothly through the heterojunction channel at the interface, the holes are subsequently moved on the high-mobility transport pathways of MoS<sub>2</sub> to the electrodes for collection [33]. The change in conductivity is then detected and quantified, enabling precise measurement of gas concentration. All of these enable the PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposite nanohybrids to exhibit excellent NO<sub>2</sub> sensing performance.

The strong selectivity of the PbS quantum dots-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposite sensor toward NO<sub>2</sub> can be attributed to two primary factors. First, NO<sub>2</sub> possesses a high electron affinity, enabling it to efficiently withdraw electrons from MoS<sub>2</sub>, which induces significant changes in the conductivity of the sensor. Second, the integration of PbS QDs enhances the surface reactivity and adsorption capacity of MoS<sub>2</sub> by introducing additional active sites that are particularly favorable for NO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.



Fig. 10. Sensing mechanism of NO<sub>2</sub> absorbed on PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites and schematic illustrations of the band diagram of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub>

ternary nanocomposites before and after contact of the three individual phases.

# 4. Conclusions

PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites were successfully synthesized through a facile in-situ synthesis process. The morphology and composition of the obtained nanocomposites were systematically investigated, showing that PbS QDs, with sizes below 10 nm, and PbMoO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, approximately 10-20 nm in size, were uniformly distributed on MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. Impressively, the as-fabricated sensor exhibited an excellent response of 44.5% to 1 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> at 25°C, which is approximately seven times higher than that of the pure MoS<sub>2</sub>-based sensor. Notably, the sensor also displayed remarkable selectivity toward NO<sub>2</sub> with negligible responses to various interfering gases. Density functional theory was employed for in-depth mechanism investigation, revealing the adsorption behavior of NO<sub>2</sub> on sensing material. The possible sensing mechanism was attributed to the synergistic effects of enhanced specific surface area, receptor function of zero-dimensional decoration particles, and transducer function of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheet substrate<sub>2</sub>. This work highlights the potential of PbS QDs-PbMoO<sub>4</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> ternary nanocomposites in highly selective NO<sub>2</sub> sensing at room temperature, providing a feasible way to fabricate novel high-performance sensors.

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