

1 RESEARCH ARTICLE

2 MATERIALS SCIENCE

3 **Special Topic: Ionic Thermoelectrics**

4 **Low-power biomimetic ionic thermoelectric device for multi-gas**
5 **olfaction**

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1 ABSTRACT

2 The escalating demand for intelligent multi-gas sensing has driven the need for high-
3 performance artificial olfactory systems with enhanced power efficiency. This work
4 proposes an innovative gas sensing mechanism enabled by the giant ionic-
5 thermoelectric effects in solid-state ionic polymer, which overcomes the low
6 thermopower-to-thermal conductivity (S/κ) limitation of the conventional electronic
7 thermoelectric materials. Using wafer-scale microfabrication technology, we
8 demonstrate the first functional ionic-thermoelectric biomimetic olfactory device that
9 can simultaneously resolve mixed gas analytes. This monolithic platform integrates
10 multiple sub-100 μm sensing units, each combining an ionic-thermoelectric module
11 with a narrow-bandpass optical filter, to selectively resolve the contributions of
12 individual gas species in mixed-gas environments. The device achieves a record
13 responsivity of 2340 V/W, a 20-fold improvement over commercial detectors (typically
14 <200 V/W) and achieves limits of detection of 1.42 ppm, 0.15 ppm, and 1.16 ppb for
15 CO_2 , CH_4 and CO , respectively. This work establishes a promising route to next-
16 generation artificial olfactory systems based on the ionic-thermoelectric effects.

17 **Keywords:** ionic thermoelectrics, biomimetic olfactory device, solid-state ionic
18 polymer, multi-gas sensing, low-power infrared detection

19 INTRODUCTION

20 The global demand for intelligent gas sensing systems is rapidly escalating, driven by
21 critical applications in environmental monitoring, healthcare diagnostics, food safety,
22 and industrial automation [1 – 5]. Inspired by the human olfactory system, which can

23 distinguish complex odor profiles with high sensitivity and selectivity, electronic noses
24 (e-noses) are engineered to replicate and even surpass these capabilities through sensor
25 arrays and pattern recognition algorithms [6–8]. Among the various gas sensing
26 technologies adopted in modern e-nose, such as electrochemical sensors, nondispersive
27 infrared (NDIR) sensors, photoionization sensors and metal oxide sensors [7, 9–14].
28 NDIR sensors are particularly attractive due to their unique merits such as high
29 reliability, long lifetime, excellent selectivity, and low operation temperature [7, 9–14].
30 The modern NDIR sensors directly detect infrared absorption fingerprints of gases
31 caused by characteristic molecular vibrations and are very suitable for long-term
32 continuous sensing of heteroatomic gases such as hydrocarbon, NO_x, CO, and CO₂. As
33 the key component of NDIR gas sensors, the infrared detectors directly determine the
34 performance and cost of the gas sensing system. Thermoelectric (TE) infrared sensors
35 based on the ‘Seebeck effect’, in which a temperature difference can induce a thermal
36 voltage due to the thermal diffusion of charge carriers in solids, are among the most
37 common infrared detectors used for gas sensing, owing to their ultralow energy
38 consumption, mature fabrication process, and high stability [15]. They are especially
39 suitable for long-term continuous operation due to their passive nature, showing
40 advantages over other infrared sensing technologies such as photovoltaics [16] and
41 bolometers [17, 18].
42 However, state-of-the-art TE infrared sensors often suffer from relatively low
43 responsivity, typically around 100 V/W, and a low response voltage [19], primarily due
44 to the unsatisfactory performance of TE materials, particularly their low thermopower

45 (S) to thermal conductivity (κ) ratio [19]. This ratio is a key parameter governing
46 thermoelectric sensor performance, because κ determines heat dissipation and thus the
47 achievable temperature rise under incident radiation, while S governs the conversion of
48 this temperature difference into electrical voltage. The responsivity (R) of a TE infrared
49 sensor can be expressed as [20]: $R = \frac{4\eta\delta S}{\kappa\pi d^2}$, where η , δ and d are the absorption
50 efficiency, thickness of the sensing layer and characteristic diameter of the detector,
51 respectively [20]. This relationship explicitly shows that R is proportional to S/κ ratio.
52 Therefore, a higher thermopower enhances the signal generation, while a lower thermal
53 conductivity suppresses heat dissipation, both contributing to improved responsivity.
54 However, the conventional electronic-based TE materials, such as doped
55 semiconductors (e.g., Bi_2Te_3 , PbTe), face an intrinsic trade-off. Reducing the κ via
56 heavy doping or alloying increases carrier-phonon scattering, inadvertently reducing S
57 and degrading overall performance. For instance, n-type $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_2.7\text{Se}_{0.3}$ achieves a
58 decent S of $-230 \mu\text{V/K}$ but simultaneously suffers from high $\kappa=1.5 \text{ W}/(\text{m}\cdot\text{K})$, yielding
59 a low absolute S/κ ratio of $153 \mu\text{V}\cdot\text{m}/\text{W}$, which is insufficient for high-sensitivity
60 applications [21, 22]. This physical S/κ bottleneck not only restricts responsivity but
61 also imposes low specific detectivity and large device size. Such limitations become
62 particularly vital in low-power high-performance gas sensing with miniature device
63 size, where the ability to generate a significant output voltage from a weak narrowband
64 infrared signal is crucial.

65 Recent advances in ionic-thermoelectric (i -TE) materials offer a promising solution to
66 the S/κ dilemma. Unlike electronic TE materials, i -TE systems employ ion migration

67 under temperature gradients, akin to the ion flux mechanisms underlying neural
68 signaling in biological olfaction, to generate substantial thermoelectric voltages [23–
69 27]. This decoupling of S and κ arises from the distinct transport mechanisms of ions
70 and phonons, bypassing the electronic material's inherent trade-offs. The Soret effect
71 enables *i*-TE composites to achieve giant thermopower values exceeding tens of
72 millivolts per kelvin, which is several orders of magnitude higher than conventional TE
73 materials, while maintaining ultralow thermal conductivity of $< 0.5 \text{ W}/(\text{m}\cdot\text{K})$ [26, 28–
74 30]. This unique combination makes *i*-TE materials ideal for self-powered,
75 ultrasensitive infrared (IR) sensing.

76 Moreover, the wafer-scale microfabrication offers several critical advantages for
77 practical *i*-TE sensing systems, including reproducible batch fabrication, improved
78 device-to-device uniformity, and compatibility with dense array integration. These
79 features are especially important for biomimetic olfactory devices, where consistent
80 performance across multiple sensing units is required for reliable pattern recognition.

81 In addition, wafer-scale processing supports sub-100 μm miniaturization and is readily
82 compatible with standard chip-level fabrication, optical filter integration, and
83 packaging strategies, thereby providing a practical route toward large-scale
84 manufacturing and deployment of integrated *i*-TE sensing platforms. However, current
85 *i*-TE systems predominantly utilize liquid or gel electrolytes [31, 32], suffering from
86 mechanical instability, solvent evaporation, and incompatibility with standard
87 microfabrication processes. Addressing the existing material and fabrication challenges
88 is critical to realizing the full potential of *i*-TE technology for scalable and high–

89 performance odor analysis.

90 In this work, we demonstrate the first fully integrated biomimetic olfactory device
91 (BOD) with multi-gas detection capability, which is constructed from a solid-state *i*-TE
92 array fabricated via wafer-scale microfabrication technology. This design leverages
93 solvent-free *i*-TE polymers, which exhibit giant ionic thermopower and ultralow
94 thermal conductivity, leading to exceptional S/κ ratios ($> 24 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{m}/\text{W}$). The proposed
95 BOD integrates multiple sub-100 μm sensing units of fast response and excellent
96 selectivity, each consisting of a miniature *i*-TE detector and a narrow-band pass optical
97 filter, to form a self-powered platform capable of simultaneously detecting multiple gas
98 species including CO_2 , CH_4 and CO as representative demonstrations. The BOD sensing
99 units demonstrate an ultrahigh responsivity of $2340 \text{ V}/\text{W}$, almost 20 times higher than
100 commercial TE detectors. The calculated limits of detection (LOD) are 1.42 parts per
101 million (ppm) for CO_2 , 0.15 ppm for CH_4 , and 1.165 parts per billion (ppb) for CO ,
102 indicating superior performance compared with commercial NDIR gas sensors, which
103 typically operate at ppm level [9, 33]. Moreover, the sensing architecture is inherently
104 extensible to a broader range of gas analytes through appropriate filter design and array
105 configuration. Overall, this proposed BOD offers a unique combination of low-power
106 operation, high sensitivity, and multi-gas detection capability, showing the great
107 potential of implementing the biomimetic ionic detection mechanism in advanced gas
108 sensing devices.

109

110

111 **RESULTS**

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113 The human sense of smell originates from neural signals generated by the interaction
114 between olfactory receptors and gas molecules, which are then processed by complex
115 neural networks in the brain. When gas molecules enter the nasal cavity and interact
116 with the olfactory bulb (Fig. 1a and b), they stimulate olfactory receptor cells to
117 generate an action potential through sodium-potassium pumps which regulate the
118 concentration gradients of Na⁺ and K⁺ ions across cell membranes. These electrical
119 signals are transmitted via the olfactory nerve to the olfactory cortex, where they are
120 decoded into specific odor information (Fig. 1c). Inspired by this neural response, we
121 developed an innovative strategy employing *i*-TE polymer composites to construct a
122 biomimetic olfactory device as illustrated in Fig. 1d. Specifically, the proposed device
123 mimics the array-based sensing feature of human olfaction and, more importantly, its
124 ion-involved electrical signaling concept, while its physical transduction mechanism is
125 based on infrared-modulated photothermal conversion and ionic thermoelectric
126 response. Moreover, it consists of an infrared light source (EMIRS200), a gas chamber
127 allowing selective infrared absorption, and an ionic olfactory detection unit that
128 integrates an absorption layer with an *i*-TE module supported by an SU-8 mold. The
129 working principle relies on the combination of photothermal and Soret effects. As
130 shown in Fig. 1d, the infrared light emitted by the broadband infrared source will
131 experience highly selective absorption caused by the resonance of gas molecule

132 vibrations in the gas chamber, and the intensity attenuation at those characteristic
133 wavelengths depends on the optical path and gas concentrations. The infrared light
134 modulated by different gas species then passes through the narrowband filters and gets
135 absorbed by the absorption layer, creating a temperature gradient that triggers the Soret
136 effect in the *i*-TE polymer composite. The anions and cations in the polymer will
137 thermally diffuse at different rates and their asymmetric Eastman entropies of transfer
138 generate a measurable voltage signal, enabling precise quantification of light intensity
139 variation within selected bands and in turn target gas concentrations through voltage
140 monitoring (Fig. 1e). The *i*-TE polymer composite can achieve a much higher S/κ than
141 conventional TE materials and makes it an ideal candidate for thermal sensing.
142 Furthermore, the fabrication process for *i*-TE polymers is both cost-effective and
143 environmentally friendly compared to traditional inorganic TE materials.
144 Herein, an all-solid-state *i*-TE polymer is integrated into the biomimetic olfactory
145 device. This *i*-TE polymer comprises poly(vinylidene fluoride-co-hexafluoropropylene)
146 (PVDF-HFP) matrix, sodium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide (NaTFSI) salt and
147 propylene carbonate (PC) plasticizer (Fig. 2a) and the corresponding chemical
148 structures of the molecules are shown in Fig. S1. Specifically, PVDF-HFP provides a
149 porous ion-conducting polymer matrix with low thermal conductivity and good film-
150 forming ability, which is favorable for maintaining a temperature gradient and device
151 integration. The NaTFSI serves as the ionic source, while PC acts as a plasticizing
152 medium to promote ion dissociation and transport, enabling a relatively high ionic
153 thermopower. Low-molecular-weight tris(pentafluorophenyl)borane (TPFPB) is

154 further introduced to tune the ion-transport asymmetry through selective capture with
155 Na^+ ions, which suppresses cation thermodiffusion and shifts the thermoelectric
156 response toward n-type behavior. This design is beneficial for obtaining a stable n-type
157 *i*-TE polymer suitable for reliable sensing operation under different humidity conditions
158 [34]. To measure ionic thermopower accurately, an in-plane setup with meticulous
159 calibration has been constructed (Fig. S2). According to prior research, the hot and cool
160 sides of the samples are electrically connected to the positive and negative terminals of
161 a voltmeter [34]. Figure 2b shows the voltage ΔV generated under a temperature
162 difference ΔT , illustrating typical n-type behaviors. The ionic thermopower (S_i) can be
163 determined by fitting the slope of $\Delta V / \Delta T$ according to the equation below:

$$S_i = -\frac{V(T_H) - V(T_C)}{T_H - T_C}, \quad (1)$$

164 where $V(T_H)$ and $V(T_C)$ are the potentials corresponding to the high (T_H) and low
165 temperatures (T_C), respectively. Figure 2c shows the thermopower of the n-type PVDF-
166 HFP/NaTFSI/TPFPB/PC *i*-TE polymer composite under different relative humidities.
167 This n-type polymer composite demonstrates a weak humidity dependence and stable
168 performance with thermopower ranging from ~ -5 to -6 mV/K within the testing
169 humidity, which is important for the reliability of the sensing unit under different
170 application scenarios. At high humidity, absorbed water can promote NaTFSI
171 dissociation and release more mobile free Na^+ ions that are otherwise partially
172 associated with TPFPB. This increased cation contribution may partially offset the
173 anion-dominated thermodiffusion, leading to a slight decrease in the magnitude of the
174 negative thermopower. Figure 2d illustrates the BOD sensing unit, which comprises an
175

176 absorption layer made of carbon black, a solid *i*-TE polymer composite contained by a
177 SU-8 mold, and two Al electrodes on the top and bottom of the mold, in which the
178 carbon black was selected for its broadband infrared absorption, efficient photothermal
179 conversion, low cost, and compatibility with the solid-state *i*-TE device, enabling
180 localized heating for voltage generation. After packaging, the BOD sensing unit with
181 the n-type *i*-TE polymer composite demonstrates stable performance under the
182 humidity ranging from 30 % to 90 % (detailed data are shown in Figs S3–S5). Moreover,
183 the long-term stability of the packaged BOD device was monitored under ambient
184 conditions for nearly two months, as shown in Fig. S6. It recorded the generated
185 voltage of the device under the same infrared source to compare the stability of the
186 fabricated BOD device. Clearly, the output voltage difference remained stable at
187 approximately ~1.0–1.2 mV throughout the test period of over 45 days, without any
188 obvious downward trend or degradation in signal response. The repeated transient
189 response measurements also remained highly consistent, further confirming the
190 operational stability of the packaged device. Thus, the adoption of the relatively
191 humidity-insensitive n-type *i*-TE polymer and device-level insulating packaging
192 ensures good device stability under different humidity environments during long-term
193 operation.

194 Figure 2e shows the comparison of the responsivity of the attained *i*-TE sensing unit
195 and those of thermopile sensors reported in the literature [35–44]. Owing to the
196 relatively low performance of conventional electronic TE materials, commercial
197 thermopile sensors often leverage microfabrication technology to integrate hundreds of

198 thermocouples in series, thus boosting the sensor responsivities to a typical value of
199 ~ 200 V/W. In contrast, the *i*-TE polymer used in this work has an intrinsically high S
200 of ~ 6 mV/K and a low κ of ~ 0.25 W/(m·K), which is beneficial for maintaining a
201 remarkable temperature difference during the measurement and in turn a high
202 responsivity of the device. These merits together with the excellent thermal stability
203 mentioned above make PVDF-HFP-based *i*-TE polymer an excellent candidate for
204 ionic thermoelectric applications. Interestingly, the *i*-TE polymer used in this work can
205 achieve an ultrahigh S/κ ratio of 24 mV·m/W, enabling a giant responsivity of
206 2340 V/W with just a single *i*-TE sensing unit. This ionic design greatly reduces
207 fabrication complexity while significantly enhancing sensor voltage output. Figure 2f
208 and Fig. S7 further show the thermal response of the BOD sensing unit, exhibiting a
209 response time of 26.19 s and a recovery time of 10.99 s, comparable to those of
210 commercial gas sensors (typically around 30 s). The shorter recovery time compared
211 with the response time is likely attributed to the asymmetric heating and cooling
212 processes. During the response stage, heat must accumulate in the device to establish a
213 sufficient temperature gradient and corresponding ionic thermoelectric output. In
214 contrast, during recovery, the temperature gradient decays more rapidly because the
215 bottom substrate and ceramic package serve as an efficient heat sink (cold side), which
216 accelerates heat dissipation from the top *i*-TE material. As a result, the output signal
217 returns to the baseline faster than it rises during heating.

218 Further, the fabrication process for the BOD sensing units, which are fabricated on 4-
219 inch quartz wafers, is shown in Fig. 3a. The 4-inch quartz wafers with a thickness of

220 500 μm were subjected to a standard Radio Corporation of America (RCA) cleaning
221 procedure to remove organic and inorganic contaminants. Thereafter, a 300 nm-thick
222 aluminum layer was deposited through a shadow mask via physical vapor deposition to
223 form the bottom electrode. Subsequently, a patterned SU-8 photoresist mold was
224 formed atop the bottom electrode using standard photolithography techniques. The *i*-
225 TE polymer solution was then dispensed into the SU-8 mold cavities and baked in a
226 vacuum oven to form solid-state *i*-TE pillars. To form the top electrode, a 300 nm-thick
227 layer of aluminum is deposited on the wafers using a sputtering process with a shadow
228 mask. Alignment of the shadow mask under a microscope ensures comprehensive
229 coverage of the *i*-TE pillars and electrodes. A layer of 2- μm black paint is spray-coated
230 on wafers with a shadow mask to form absorbers. The completed wafers were then
231 singulated using a laser wafer dicing system, and individual dies were wire bonded onto
232 ceramic leadless chip carrier-48 (CLCC-48) packages. Finally, narrow-bandpass filters
233 are implemented to define multiple sensing channels.

234 A typical BOD sensing unit is shown in Fig. 3b, which consists of a top and a bottom
235 electrode, an SU-8 mold, and an *i*-TE unit. Detailed scanning electron microscopy
236 (SEM) top view and cross-sectional views of a sensing unit are presented in Fig. 3c and
237 d, respectively, showing the *i*-TE sensing unit has a size of $\sim 100 \mu\text{m}$ and a thickness of
238 $\sim 35 \mu\text{m}$. It reveals that the filled polymer layer possesses a relatively uniform thickness
239 across the cavity and maintains good contact with the cavity walls, and there are no
240 obvious discontinuous regions, or severe overflow outside the designed cavity are
241 observed, confirming successful filling of the cavity. Figure 3e depicts the BOD module

242 featuring a CLCC-48 package and four narrow-bandpass filters (Fig. S8) corresponding
243 to four sensing units. Specifically, each sensing unit is equipped with a narrow-band
244 optical filter that isolates a distinct infrared wavelength region. Because different gases
245 exhibit characteristic absorption features at different wavelengths, integrating multiple
246 units into one module enables multi-channel spectral discrimination, allowing the
247 system to distinguish target gases more reliably and reducing cross-interference. In this
248 way, the module provides not only stronger functionality than a single unit but also
249 improved selectivity and identification capability through comparative analysis of the
250 outputs from different channels. In this work, we selected three different gases
251 including CO₂, CO and CH₄ for demonstration, which are common gas species raising
252 safety concerns in the indoor environment. Figure 3f displays the IR absorption spectra
253 of the target gases at the top, where CO₂, CO, and CH₄ molecules exhibit strong
254 characteristic absorption peaks at wavelengths of 4260 nm, 4650 nm and 3350 nm,
255 respectively. The absence of overlap in this range makes it an ideal choice for detecting
256 these gases with high selectivity based on their absorption properties. The measured
257 transmittance spectra of the narrow bandpass filters, shown in the middle, demonstrate
258 transmittance levels exceeding 80% at the corresponding IR absorption peaks of the
259 target gases, with no overlap between them. Moreover, the 3900 nm channel is
260 introduced as a reference channel, since it does not correspond to any characteristic
261 infrared absorption peak of the target gases. As indicated by the yellow transmission
262 peak in Fig. 3f, the corresponding multilayer-coated filter exhibits high transmittance
263 around 3900 nm while blocking other wavelength regions. Therefore, this channel

264 mainly reflects the baseline intensity of the infrared source and possible optical-path
265 attenuation, enabling compensation for source instability during long-term operation
266 and improving the reliability of gas recognition. At the bottom of Fig. 3f, the measured
267 absorption spectra of the absorber are also displayed. To be noticed, CO₂, CH₄, and CO
268 are selected as representative target gases, while the underlying sensing strategy is
269 general and not limited to these specific analytes. In addition, the filter bandwidth is an
270 important factor affecting gas selectivity, because it determines the extent to which the
271 transmitted spectral window overlaps with the characteristic absorption band of the
272 target gas and with possible interfering species. In general, a narrower bandwidth can
273 suppress spectral cross-interference and improve selectivity, although it may also
274 reduce the transmitted optical power and thus weaken the signal intensity. The
275 bandwidth is also affected by the characteristic peak width of the target gas: a distinctive
276 strong and narrow absorption peak requires a narrow bandwidth, but a wider
277 characteristic absorption peak justifies a relatively wider bandwidth of the filter.
278 Therefore, the filter bandwidth should be carefully optimized to balance selectivity and
279 signal strength according to the absorption spectra of target gases.

280

281 **The BOD response to a single-target gas**

282 An NDIR gas measurement platform has been established to facilitate the calibration
283 and performance evaluation of the BOD sensing module. As illustrated in Fig. 4a, the
284 system comprises a custom-built gas-sensing setup designed for precise control and
285 measurement. Gas cylinders containing target analytes are connected to mass flow

286 controllers (MFCs), which regulate the flow rates of individual gases. Moreover, the N₂
287 stream was subsequently passed through a water vessel to control the relative humidity
288 of the gas mixture. According to our tests, water vapor shows a negligible influence on
289 the measured results. These gases are subsequently directed into a mixing chamber,
290 where they are thoroughly blended to achieve the desired composition. The mixed gas
291 stream is then introduced into a white gas cell housing the sensing module. Inside the
292 gas cell, a commercial infrared emitter (EMIRS200) is employed and controlled via a
293 LabVIEW interface to ensure stable and programmable IR output. The infrared beam
294 passes through the gas cell and is then filtered through a narrow-bandpass optical filter.
295 Subsequently, the infrared signal is converted into a heat signal by the absorption layer
296 and then transformed into a voltage signal by the *i*-TE unit. A computer is integrated
297 into the system to enable automated data acquisition and control of experimental
298 parameters. The complete configuration of the measurement system is detailed in Fig.
299 S9.

300 To quantitatively assess the performance of the *i*-TE NDIR sensors in detecting target
301 gases, a parameter termed gas response $\Delta V / V_0$ is introduced. V_0 denotes the initial
302 voltage output of the *i*-TE sensors when the chamber is filled with pure nitrogen gas. V
303 represents the voltage output of the *i*-TE sensors when the target gases are introduced
304 into the chamber. The change in output voltage caused by the target gas is denoted as
305 $\Delta V = V - V_0$. To further analyze and predict the gas response of the *i*-TE NDIR sensors,
306 a modified Beer-Lambert law is introduced and employed to fit the data, as given by
307 [45–47]:

308
$$\Delta V / V_0 = span * (e^{-\varepsilon l x^c} - 1), \quad (2)$$

309 Here the coefficient *span*, ranging from 0 to 1, accounts for the fact that the absorption
310 of infrared radiation cannot reach 100 %, owing to the inevitable energy loss during the
311 infrared beam transmission through the gas cell. The coefficient ε symbolizes the
312 effective absorption coefficient of the target gas (Fig. S10 and Supplementary Note 1).
313 l denotes the length of the optical path, x stands for the concentration of target gases,
314 and c is the power factor for fitting with the actual absorption data.

315 Figure 4b illustrates the responses of the *i*-TE NDIR sensing module to individual target
316 gases in the presence of interfering gases. The concentration of interfering gases was
317 fixed at 5000 ppm for all the measurements. During CO₂ and CO detections, CH₄ was
318 introduced as the interfering species, whereas CO₂ served as the interferent in CH₄
319 measurements. The primary vertical axis represents the measured voltage signal, with
320 blue and red lines representing the responses of the target gases with and without the
321 presence of the interfering gases, respectively. A color bar is included to visualize the
322 precise concentration of the target gases. The tested concentrations range from 0 –
323 50,000 ppm for CO₂, 0 – 50 ppm for CO, and 0 – 10,000 ppm for CH₄. The CO
324 concentration was limited to 50 ppm to comply with laboratory safety regulations.
325 Initial peak voltages were recorded under pure nitrogen conditions, where infrared
326 transmission is maximal and the voltage signal reaches its highest value. As the
327 concentration of target gases increases, absorption of infrared radiation at their
328 characteristic wavelengths leads to a reduction in transmitted IR intensity and in turn a
329 decrease in the voltage signal. The close alignment between the blue and red curves

330 across all gas types demonstrates the excellent selectivity of the BOD device. This
331 excellent selectivity is attributed to the fundamental principles of NDIR sensing,
332 wherein each gas exhibits distinct absorption features with minimal spectral overlap.
333 Moreover, the utilization of ionic thermoelectric materials enables the BOD device to
334 generate millivolt-level signals without the need for external amplification, offering a
335 significant advantage over conventional NDIR sensors that typically require power-
336 consuming amplifiers. The amplitude of the voltage signal varies across each pixel due
337 to differences in absorption and fabrication inconsistencies. The experimental fitting
338 with the modified Beer–Lambert law is presented in Fig. 4c (see Supplementary Note
339 1 for more details of the Beer-Lambert law fitting). The majority of the experimental
340 data align closely with the predicted fitting curves, with the coefficient of determination
341 (R^2) exceeding 95%, indicating a strong correlation between the model and observed
342 sensor behavior. The saturation-like response observed at relatively high gas
343 concentrations mainly originates from the Beer-Lambert-type infrared absorption
344 process. At low concentrations, increasing gas concentration leads to a rapid increase
345 in characteristic IR absorption, resulting in a pronounced change in the transmitted IR
346 intensity and thus the sensor output. However, once the characteristic absorption band
347 becomes sufficiently strong, the transmitted IR intensity is already substantially
348 attenuated, so further increases in gas concentration produce only a limited additional
349 change in the voltage response. This leads to the apparent saturation behavior in Fig.
350 4c. Such behavior indicates high sensitivity in the low-concentration regime, which is
351 beneficial for trace-gas detection, but also suggests a compressed dynamic range at

352 higher concentrations. The detectable range could be further tuned by optimizing the
353 optical path length, selecting suitable absorption bands, or redesigning the narrow-band
354 filter to balance sensitivity and dynamic range. The stability of the gas sensors over a
355 long period is also critical to reliable measurements in practice. As an example, Fig. 4d
356 shows the long-term repeatability test results of the BOD CO₂ channel at different CO₂
357 concentrations. During the test period of ~30,000 s, the CO₂ sensing unit demonstrates
358 consistent results over a concentration range of 0 ppm to 50,000 ppm, with fluctuation
359 less than 5%, highlighting the excellent stability and reliability of the BOD device.

361 **The BOD response to mixed multiple target gases**

362 In many applications, the simultaneous detection of multiple gases is highly demanded.
363 By implementing four narrow-bandpass optical filters, the BOD module is capable of
364 detecting infrared signals at four distinct wavelengths, enabling multi-gas detection.
365 The schematic of the multi-channel *i*-TE NDIR gas-sensing platform is presented in
366 Fig. 5a. The chamber is initially purged with nitrogen (N₂) for 30 minutes to measure
367 the baseline signal V_0 . Subsequently, the target gases of predetermined concentrations
368 are mixed and injected into the chamber. The infrared emitter is then activated and
369 maintained for several minutes to ensure stable signal acquisition before being turned
370 off. The tested concentration ranges for the target gases are 0 – 50,000 ppm for CO₂, 0
371 – 25 ppm for CO, and 0 – 20,000 ppm for CH₄.

372 To ensure accurate calibration and monitoring of the infrared source, a reference
373 channel with a bandpass filter centered at 3.9 μm is integrated into the system. This

374 filter was fabricated through a multilayer coating process to achieve high transmittance
375 around 3.9 μm while blocking other wavelength regions, as shown by the yellow
376 transmission peak in Fig. 3f. Since this wavelength is not absorbed by the target gases,
377 the reference-channel signal mainly reflects the baseline intensity of the infrared beam
378 and possible optical-path attenuation, rather than gas-specific absorption. Therefore, the
379 3.9 μm channel can be used to compare with the gas-responsive channels and
380 compensate for drift in the emitter or sensor performance over time, improving the
381 reliability of gas recognition. Upon activation of the infrared emitter, a corresponding
382 increase in voltage is observed in each channel. After the emitter is turned off, the gas
383 concentrations are adjusted, and the system is allowed to stabilize for a predefined
384 interval before reactivating the emitter. This sequence is repeated to assess the BOD
385 module's response to various gas mixtures. The resulting relative voltage signals are
386 presented in Fig. 5b, normalized by the baseline signal V_0 . Each curve shows the voltage
387 signal from BOD, and the accompanying color bars indicate the concentrations of the
388 respective target gases. Previous measurements demonstrated strong selectivity under
389 interfering conditions. Thus, the observed voltage variations confirm that the BOD
390 module can simultaneously detect multiple gases. The reference channel, centered at
391 3900 nm, remains stable throughout the measurements, indicating consistent infrared
392 emission and enabling effective calibration against potential drift. As gas concentrations
393 increase, the normalized voltage signals decrease due to enhanced infrared absorption
394 at specific wavelengths. For CO_2 , the normalized voltage signal drops from 0.9 to 0.52
395 as the concentration increases from 0 to 50,000 ppm. Similarly, CO shows a decrease

396 in normalized voltage from 0.82 to 0.36 over a concentration range of 0 to 25 ppm. CH₄
397 exhibits a reduction in normalized voltage from 0.9 to 0.6 as its concentration increases
398 from 0 to 20,000 ppm.

399 Notably, the BOD module demonstrates high sensitivity to CO at low concentrations,
400 attributed to its higher effective absorption coefficient in the 3 – 5 μm spectral range
401 compared to CO₂ and CH₄. The calibrated Beer-Lambert law curves were used to
402 estimate gas concentrations from the measured voltage signals from each channel of
403 BOD. Multiple measurements were conducted at each concentration, and the average
404 values were used for estimation. Figure 5c summarizes the BOD response to ten
405 different combinations of CO₂, CO, and CH₄ gas mixtures. In Fig. 5c, the upper left
406 corner of each cell displays the set concentration values, while the lower right corner
407 shows the corresponding measured values. The close color matching between the set
408 and measured values indicates high measurement accuracy. The results reveal strong
409 agreement at low concentrations, specifically, CO₂ below 20,000 ppm, CH₄ below
410 20,000 ppm, and CO below 10 ppm, highlighting the BOD module's precision in this
411 range.

412 Moreover, the scalability of the system arises from its modular architecture, whereby
413 the incorporation of additional narrow-bandpass optical filters can extend the range of
414 detectable gas species. The limit of detection (LOD) can be calculated based on the
415 standard deviation σ_y of the response curve and the slope σ of the calibration curve
416 according to

417
$$\text{LOD} = 3 \times (\sigma_y / \sigma), \quad (3)$$

418 The device achieves remarkable detection limits, with a LOD of 1.42 ppm for CO₂, 1.16
419 ppb for CO, and 0.15 ppm for CH₄, demonstrating a better performance compared to
420 conventional TE-based NDIR gas sensors, which typically operate at the ppm level.
421 The calculation data of LOD is shown in Fig. S11.

422 In addition, this sensing strategy principally can be extended to other gases that possess
423 characteristic infrared-active vibrational absorption bands within the detectable spectral
424 range. These IR absorption peaks originate from molecular vibrations accompanied by
425 dipole-moment changes. Thus, polar or heteroatomic gas molecules generally exhibit
426 characteristic absorption peaks in the infrared region, whereas non-polar gases such as
427 H₂, O₂ and N₂ are IR-inactive or show negligible absorption under the present detection
428 mechanism. Besides CO₂, CO, and CH₄, representative examples include NH₃, NO_x,
429 SO₂, H₂S, and various volatile organic compounds (VOCs) such as ethanol and acetone,
430 all of which exhibit distinct infrared absorption features. By selecting appropriate
431 narrow-band optical filters matched to the characteristic absorption wavelengths of
432 these gases, the present platform could be further adapted for broader gas recognition.
433 In contrast, gases with weak or negligible infrared absorption are difficult to distinguish
434 using the current device configuration.

435

436 **CONCLUSION**

437 We report the first fully integrated biomimetic olfactory device (BOD) based on an all-
438 solid-state *i*-TE polymer array, which is fabricated using wafer-scale microfabrication
439 processes. Using ions instead of electrons as charge and energy carriers, this BOD

440 represents a significant advancement in gas sensing, addressing key challenges in
441 power efficiency, sensitivity, and multi-gas detection. By adopting *i*-TE PVDF-
442 HFP/NaTFSI/TPFPB/PC polymer with a large thermopower and a low thermal
443 conductivity, the device achieves exceptional S/κ ratios of 24 mV·m/W, far surpassing
444 the records of conventional electronic thermoelectric materials. As a result, this
445 monolithic BOD achieves a responsivity of 2340 V/W, approximately 20 times higher
446 than those of commercial thermoelectric detectors while operating without external
447 power, driven solely by thermally induced cation/anion flux, which mimics the neural
448 response initiation mechanism. The calculated LODs are 1.42 ppm, 0.15 ppm, and
449 1.165 ppb, demonstrating their great potential in applications requiring high sensitivity
450 and selectivity. It should be noted that the present work focuses on three representative
451 gases to validate the sensing concept. Nevertheless, the number and type of detectable
452 gas species are primarily determined by the spectral selectivity of the optical filters and
453 the array density, rather than by intrinsic limitations of the *i*-TE sensing mechanism.
454 Clearly, these performance metrics, combined with the device's scalability,
455 environmental robustness, and low power consumption, position the BOD as a
456 significant advancement for next-generation gas sensing across a wide range of
457 industrial, environmental, and biomedical applications.

458

459 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

460 **Gas Sensing Measurement**

461 A homemade measurement system has been developed for gas-sensing applications,

462 incorporating three mass flow controllers (MFCs) with flow rates of 100, 200, and 500
463 standard cubic centimeters per minute (sccm). As the setup shown in Fig. 4a, MFC1
464 and MFC2 are designated for the injection of target gases, while MFC3 is utilized for
465 delivering pure nitrogen as a carrier and diluting gas. The gases are mixed in a dedicated
466 mixing chamber before being introduced into a custom-built testing chamber. The
467 required flow rates for achieving these concentrations are calculated using the following
468 equation:

$$469 \quad V_{Target} = (C_{Target\ PPM} / C_{Cylinder\ PPM}) \times V_{Total}, \quad (4)$$

470 V_{Target} is the flow rate needed to achieve the desired concentration. $C_{Target\ PPM}$ is the
471 required concentration for the test. $C_{Cylinder\ PPM}$ is the concentration of the gas from the
472 supply cylinder. V_{Total} denotes the total flow rate set on the mass flow controller. For the
473 infrared light source, the commercial product EMIRS200 is employed, controlled via a
474 Keithley 2400. The system operates with a voltage of 5.6 V and a current of 0.08
475 amperes for a duration of 10 minutes, followed by a reset to 0 V for another 10 minutes.
476 For measuring voltage signals over time, a Keysight 34465A multimeter is integrated
477 into the system, with control facilitated through a Java program. Additionally, three
478 commercial products are utilized to monitor environmental parameters, including room
479 temperature, humidity, and concentrations of CO₂, CO, and CH₄.

480 **Optical properties measurement of narrow-bandpass filters and an absorber**

481 A Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectrometer (Vertex 70 Hyperion 1000) is
482 employed to measure the transmission and reflection characteristics of the narrow
483 bandpass filter and the absorption of the absorber. Calibration is performed using a gold

484 reference. The absorption of the absorber is calculated from the measured reflection and
485 transmission data using the following equation:

$$\alpha = 1 - \rho - T,$$

487 (5)

488 where α is the absorptance, ρ is the reflectance, and T is the transmittance.

489 **BOD sensing units process flow**

490 The standard wafer cleaning process, known as RCA clean, is applied to the 4-inch,
491 500-micron-thick quartz wafers. A 300 nm thick layer of aluminum is deposited on the
492 wafers using a sputtering process, with the power set to 100 W in DC mode. The
493 deposition rate is approximately 40 nm/min, and the thickness of the aluminum is
494 measured using a KLA-Tencor P-7 surface profiler. Next, the wafers are patterned using
495 a Karl Suss MA6 aligner and etched with an Oxford aluminum etcher to create the
496 bottom electrode (Fig. S12). A layer of SU-8 photoresist is then spin-coated onto the
497 wafers, achieving a thickness ranging from 10 to 100 microns. Photolithography and
498 development processes are employed to form a mold above the bottom electrode. The
499 developed wafers are inspected under a microscope to ensure that the photoresist is
500 fully developed and that the metal is exposed. To fill the SU-8 mold with ionic
501 thermoelectric materials, a drop casting method is utilized (Fig. S13). The wafers are
502 subsequently placed in a vacuum oven and baked at 60°C under a pressure of 10^{-3} Torr
503 for 24 hours to evaporate most of the solvent, resulting in the formation of solid-state
504 ionic thermoelectric pillars. A 300 nm thick layer of aluminum is then deposited on the
505 wafers using a shadow mask in the sputtering process to create the top electrode (Fig.

506 S14). The shadow mask is carefully aligned under a microscope to ensure proper
507 coverage of the ionic thermoelectric pillars and the electrode. Finally, a layer of black
508 paint is spray-coated onto the wafers using the shadow mask to form absorbers.

509

510 **SUPPLEMENTARY DATA**

511 Supplementary data are available at *NSR* online.

512

513

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526

527

528 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

529 C.C., G.Z.L. and B.L.H. conceived and designed the project. B.L.H. supervised this
530 project. G.Z.L. and C.C. fabricated and tested the ionic thermoelectric materials and
531 designed the experiment work. G.Z.L. and J.C.J. performed the thermopower
532 measurement. K.Q.L. and M.L. performed the spectral measurement. G.Z.L., W.Q.Z.
533 and W.Y.T. performed the gas test. Z.Y.F., W.Q.Z., Y.C.D. and W.Y.T. contributed to the
534 discussion of the gas measurement results. G.Z.L., C.C. and B.L.H. wrote the paper. All
535 authors contributed to the discussion and manuscript preparation.

536

537 **Conflict of interest statement.** None declared.

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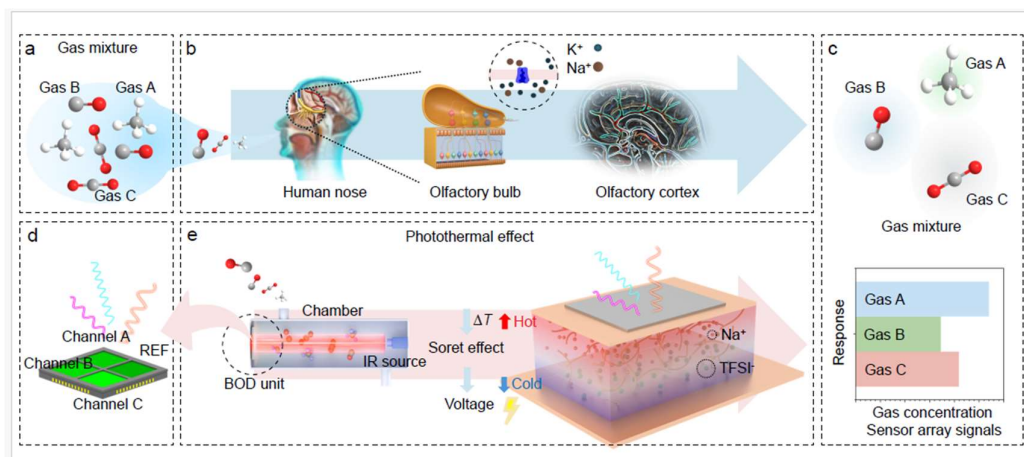
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657

658 **Figure 1.** Comparison of human olfactory system and biomimetic olfactory devices. (a)

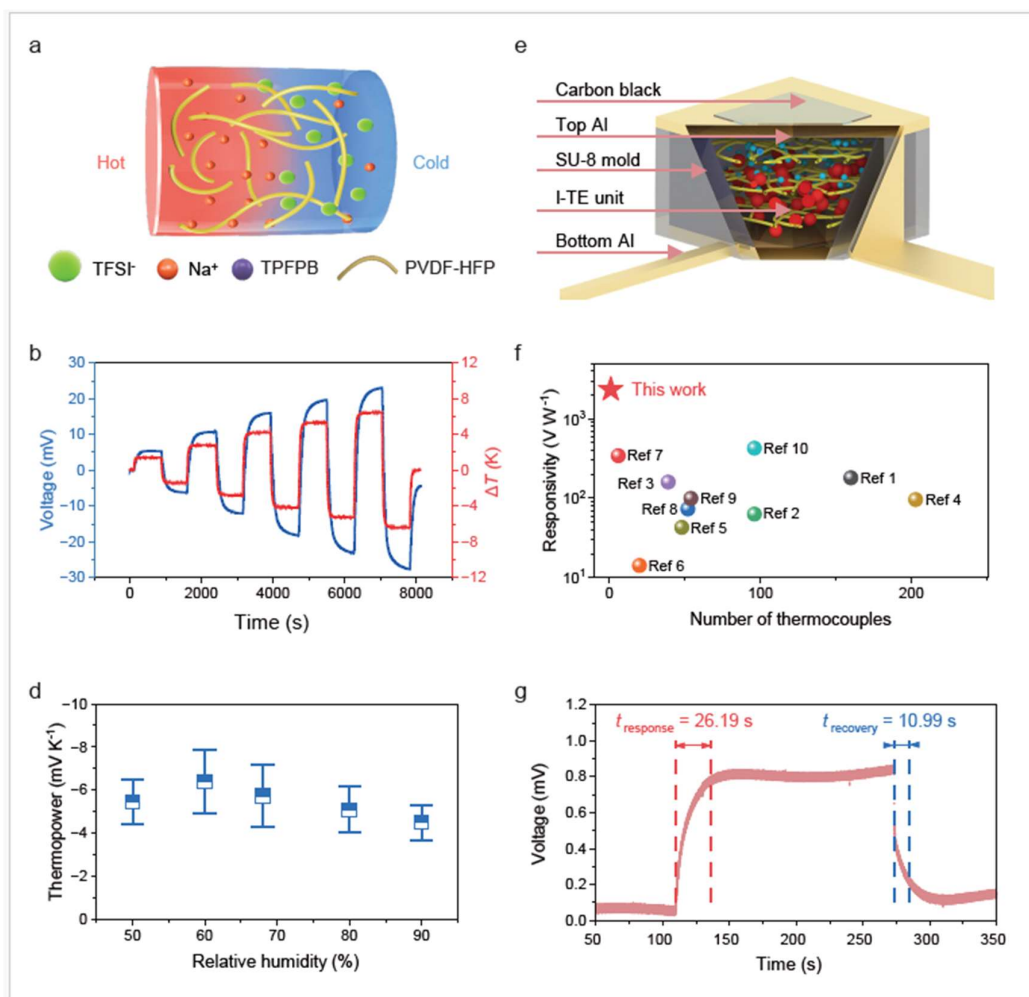
659 Gas molecules in a mixture. (b) Schematic of gas detection in human olfactory bulbs

660 and signal generation in olfactory cortex. (c) Illustration of the recognition results from

661 humans and BOD. (d) Schematic of BOD structure. (e) Schematic of NDIR module and

662 BOD units together with the signal generation principle in an ionic-thermoelectric (i-

663 TE) infrared sensor.



664

665 **Figure 2.** Thermoelectric performance of *i*-TE materials and sensing units. (a)

666 Diagrammatic illustration of the n-type *i*-TE material used. (b) Measured $\Delta V / \Delta T$

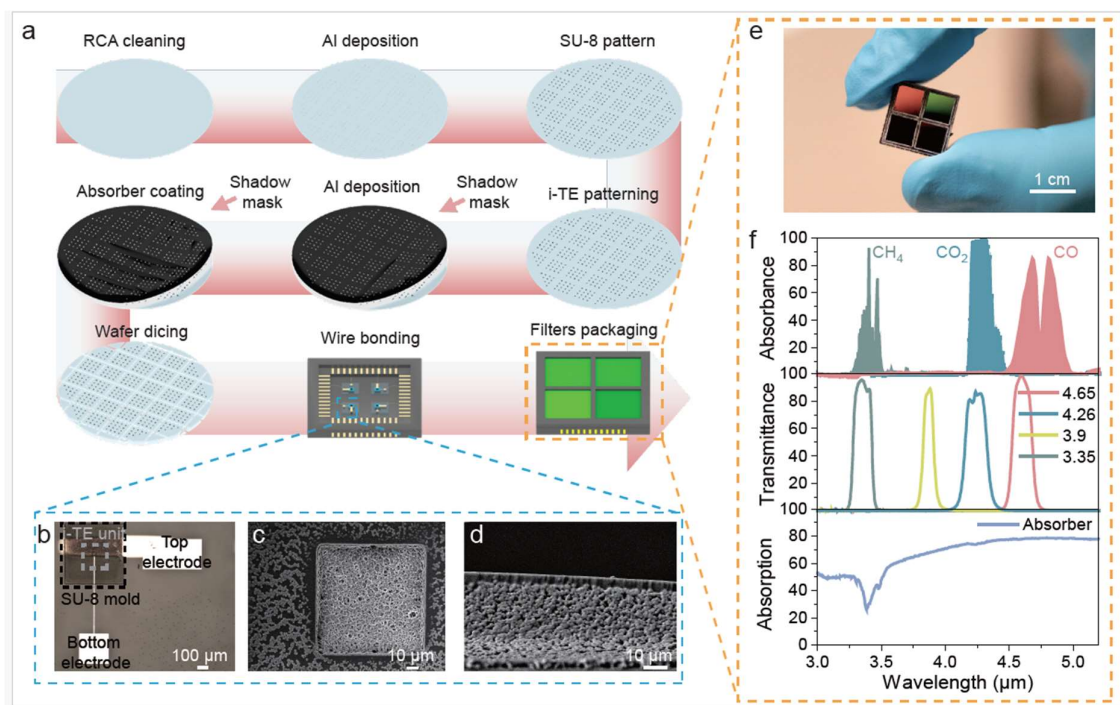
667 curves of the PVDF-HFP/NaTFSI/TFPFB/PC, and (c) its thermopower at different

668 relative humidity. (d) Schematic of a BOD sensing unit. (e) Responsivity comparison

669 between existing TE thermopiles and the *i*-TE BOD sensing unit [35–44]. (f) Thermal

670 response of a BOD sensing unit with respect to time.

671



673

674 **Figure 3.** The schematic and characterization of BOD sensing units. (a) Process flow

675 of BOD sensing units. (b) Image of the BOD sensing unit. (c) Top view SEM image of

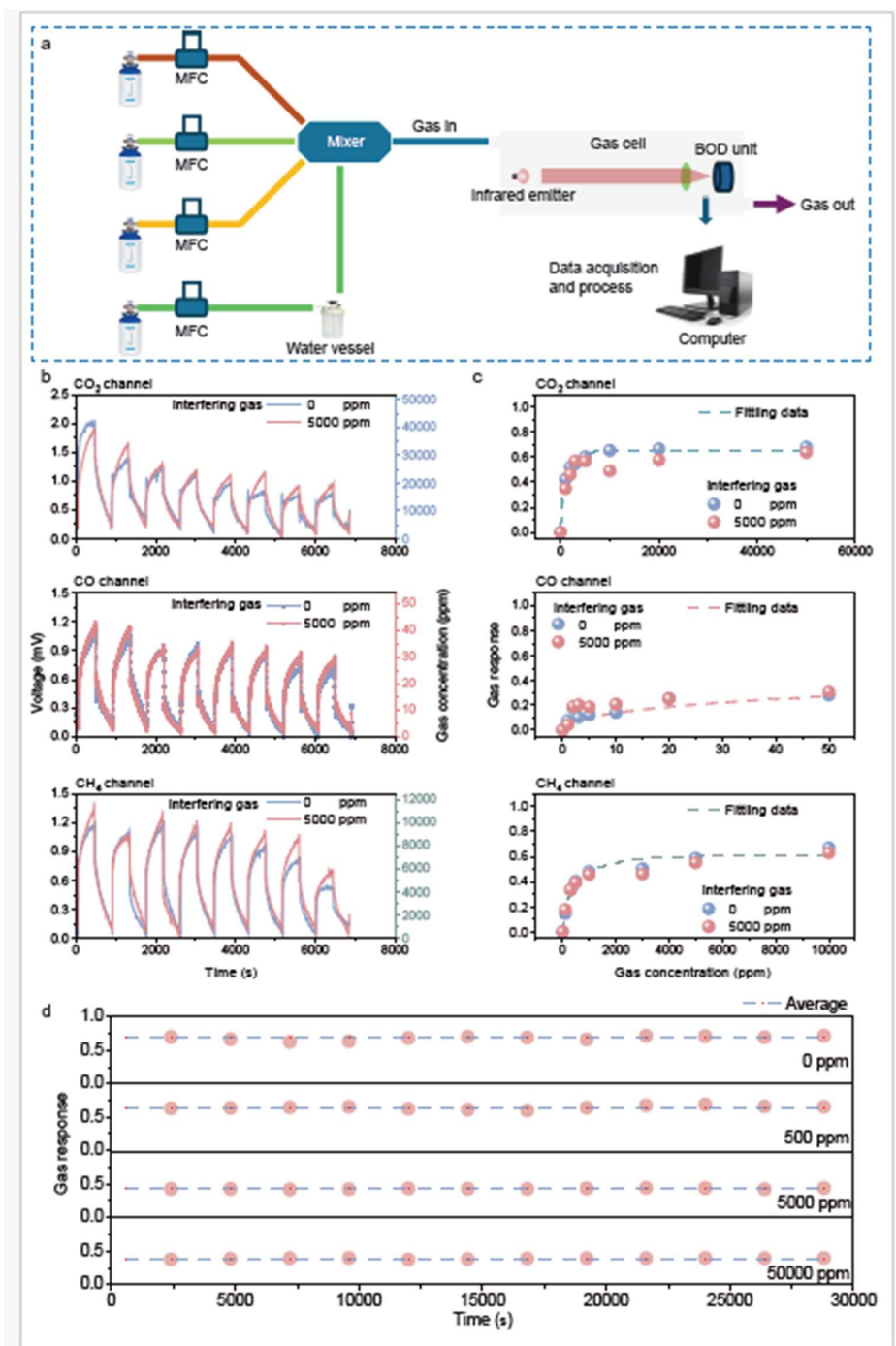
676 *i*-TE unit. (d) SEM image of the *i*-TE unit cross-section. (e) The image of BOD with

677 the CLCC package and filters. (f) Absorption spectra of the target gases (top), measured

678 transmittance spectra of the narrow bandpass filters (middle), and measured absorption

679 spectra of the absorber (bottom).

680



682

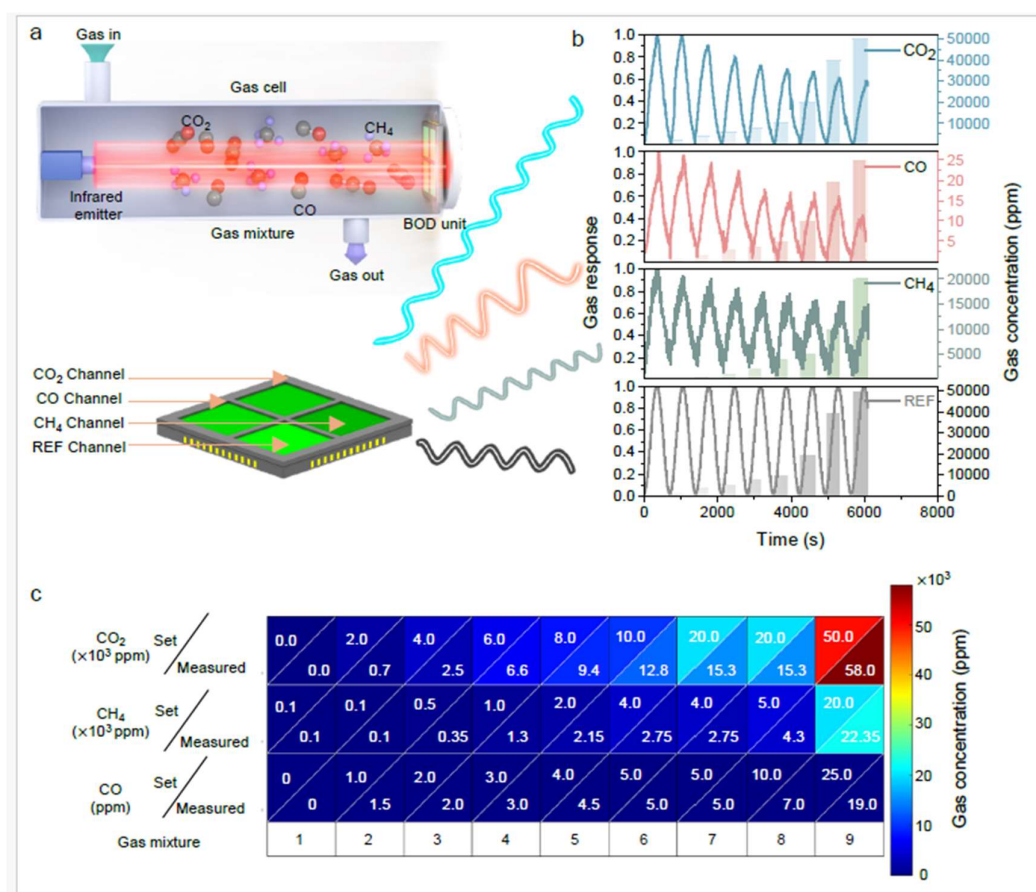
683 **Figure 4.** The BOD response to a single-target gas. (a) Schematic of NDIR sensor test

684 platform. (b) Voltage response of BOD with and without interfering gas as a function

685 of target gas concentration. The red and blue lines represent the results with and

686 interfering gas, respectively. (c) Gas response of BOD as a function of target gas
 687 concentration. The blue dots stand for the measured data from pure target gas, the red
 688 dots stand for the measured data with interfering gases, and the dashed lines are the
 689 fitting curves based on the modified Beer-Lambert law. (d) Repeatability test results of
 690 the BOD sensing unit with CO₂ at different concentrations.

691



692

693 **Figure 5.** BOD response to mixed target gases. (a) Schematic of the multi-channel gas

694 test platform. (b) Voltage response of BOD as a function of target gas concentration. (c)

695 Gas response of BOD to various gas mixtures with different compositions. The upper

696 left corner of a cell in each column displays the set values, while the lower right corner

697 displays the measured values.

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