#### **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

# WO<sub>3</sub> nanomaterials synthesized via a sol-gel method and calcination for use as a CO gas sensor

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Abstract Carbon monoxide is a poisonous and hazardous gas and sensitive sensor devices are needed to prevent humans from being poisoned by this gas. A CO gas sensor has been prepared from WO<sub>3</sub> synthesized by a sol-gel method. The sensor chip was prepared by a spin-coating technique which deposited a thin film of WO<sub>3</sub> on an alumina substrate. The chip samples were then calcined at 300, 400, 500 or 600 °C for 1 h. The sensitivities of the different sensor chips for CO gas were determined by comparing the changes in electrical resistance in the absence and presence of 50 ppm of CO gas at 200 °C. The WO<sub>3</sub> calcined at 500 °C had the highest sensitivity. The sensitivity of this sensor was also measured at CO concentrations of 100 ppm and 200 ppm and at operating temperatures of 30 and 100 °C. Thermogravimetric analysis of the WO<sub>3</sub> calcined at 500 °C indicated that this sample had the highest gas adsorption capacity. This preliminary research has shown that WO<sub>3</sub> can serve as a CO gas sensor and that is should be further explored and developed.

**Keywords** WO<sub>3</sub> nanomaterial, sol-gel, calcinations, CO gas sensor, sensitivity

## **1** Introduction

Carbon monoxide is a hazardous gas which is colorless, odorless, tasteless, and difficult to dissolve in water. It can remain in the air for a long period of time, 1–5 years, due to the ability of the atmosphere to absorb it. In big cities the

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main source of CO gas is the incomplete combustion reaction of fossil fuels in motor vehicles and industrial plants. CO gas is also formed as a byproduct of human and animal metabolisms.

CO gas is very harmful to human health. People living and working close to heavy traffic and industrial factories are the most affected group. The effects of CO vary and depend on the overall health of an individual. CO poisoning worsens the condition of patients with heart and lung disorders, and it can cause premature delivery and death. CO hinders the transport of oxygen in the blood and can result in a lack of oxygen which causes the heart to work harder. The inhalation of large quantities of CO over a short time period can result in fainting and even death.

Sensitive sensors that can detect the presence of CO are very important. Tungsten trioxide is an n-type metal oxide semiconductor which has many applications including sensors for various substances such as NO<sub>2</sub> [1,2], CH<sub>4</sub>, CO [3], NH<sub>3</sub> [4], methanol, *ter*-butanol, dimethyl methylphosphonate (DMPP), *iso*-propanol, hexanol [5], and acetone [6]. WO<sub>3</sub> has also been used in electrochromic devices (smart windows) [7–10], and in electrochemical capacitors [11]. The optimal performance of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanomaterials in these devices depends on the electrical conductivity and surface adsorption properties of the material which are closely related to the structure, morphology and size of the material [12,13].

Many methods have been used to synthesize  $WO_3$  nanomaterials and these methods have resulted in different structures, morphologies and properties. Some of the methods include sol-gel processes [1,7–9], hydrothermal processes [2,4,14], spray pyrolysis [3], cathodic electrodeposition [10], solid-fed flame synthesis [13], laser ablation [15], solvothermal synthesis [16], chemical vapor deposition [17], reactive sputtering [18], liquid phase deposition [19], and a colloidal gas aphrons method [20]. Among these methods, the sol-gel process is a relatively cheap, simple and easy procedure since it does not need strict control of the temperature and pressure. In addition, it has been successfully applied in industries for the mass production of thin and thick films with controllable sizes, shapes, and homogeneities.

In a sol-gel process, an "aqueoussol" is transformed into a "solid" gel. However, since a gel is still wet and amorphous even after drying, thermal treatment at a higher temperature is usually carried out. The thermal treatment is intended to eliminate volatile matter, break intermolecular bonds in the substances, and assist in thermal decomposition, phase transitions, and structure modifications including crystallization [21]. High temperature calcination is commonly employed as the thermal treatment process. Wang et al. used calcination at different temperatures to modify the crystalline structures of WO<sub>3</sub> nanomaterials for NO<sub>2</sub> gas sensor applications [1]. The sensitivities toward NO<sub>2</sub> gas strongly depended on the structure of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanomaterials which resulted from different calcination temperatures.

Although many papers have reported the application of  $WO_3$  in various gas sensors, the application of  $WO_3$  as a CO gas sensor has rarely been reported. SnO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub> and Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> are the most common semiconductor materials used in CO gas sensors [22]. Therefore in this research WO<sub>3</sub> nanomaterials were synthesized by a sol-gel method followed by calcination and the WO<sub>3</sub> was then applied as a CO gas sensor. X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy, Raman spectroscopy, Brunauer Emmet Teller (BET) surface area analysis, differential thermal analysis (DTA) and thermo gravimetry analysis (TGA) were used to characterize and compare the structures and morphologies of the resulting nanomaterials. The sensitivity of the sensors for CO gas was measured by determining the resistance changes of the sensor chip before and after CO gas exposure. This research proves the ability of WO<sub>3</sub> to act as a CO gas sensor.

### 2 Experimental

The sol-gel process to produce the tungsten trioxide nanomaterial has been previously reported by our group [23]. First 7 g of WCl<sub>6</sub> (Acros Organics) was mixed with 100 mL of  $C_2H_5OH$  to produce the tungsten alkoxide precursor, W(OC<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>6</sub>. Next 10 mL of 0.5 M NH<sub>4</sub>OH solution was added to the precursor as a catalyst and the solution was stirred for 24 h under ice cooling while the hydrolysis and condensation processes occurred. The chloride ions were then removed by washing the precipitate with de-ionized-water and centrifuging until

no AgCl precipitate appeared when 0.1 M AgNO<sub>3</sub> solution was added. The washed precipitate was then peptized using ammonia hydroxide. Finally  $50 \,\mu$ L of surfactant (Triton X-100) was added to the solution and the WO<sub>3</sub> gel was formed.

The gel was spin-coated onto a polished surface of alumina (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) substrate ( $20 \text{ mm} \times 20 \text{ mm} \times 2 \text{ mm}$ ) at a rate of 500 rpm for 30 s and then at 2000 rpm for 90 s. The alumina substrate was cleaned with de-ionized water and acetone prior to use. The WO<sub>3</sub> gels coated on top of the alumina substrates were then calcined at 300, 400, 500 or 600 °C for 1 h. The samples were slowly cooled to room temperature inside the furnace to allow the particles to from well-ordered arrays and crystalline solids.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, FEI S-50 with a working voltage of 20 kV) and high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, FEI Tecnai G<sup>2</sup> with a working voltage of 200 kV equipped with an energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer) were used to observe the morphologies and chemical compositions of the materials. X-ray diffraction (XRD Philips X-Pert XMS) using a Cu Ka X-ray source with a wavelength of 1.54056 Å and a Nifilter was used to observe the structures and crystalline sizes of the materials. The XRD measurements were carried out from  $2\theta = 20^{\circ}$  to  $90^{\circ}$  with a scan rate of 0.02° s<sup>-1</sup>. Thermo gravimetric analysis and differential thermal analysis (TGA/DTA, Mettler Toledo) were used to measure the moisture content and to inspect the structural changes that occurred when the temperature was increased from room temperature to 600 °C. BET (Quantachrome Autosorb iQ) analysis was used to measure the active surface area and material pore sizes in the WO<sub>3</sub>. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (Shimadzu FTIR 8400S) from 400 to 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> and Raman spectroscopy (Renishaw) were used to identify the functional groups in the WO<sub>3</sub> samples. HRTEM, EDX, TGA/DTA, BET, FTIR, and Raman measurements of WO<sub>3</sub> powder were also performed.

The sensor chips were assembled as follows. First, both ends of the  $WO_3$ -spin-coated alumina wafer were sputtered with palladium (2 mm in width) for 3 min to form current collectors. The back side of the alumina substrate was also sputtered with Pd in a 1-mm-wide zigzag-line shape to form a heater. To measure the sensitivity for CO gas, the sensor chip was placed in a chamber. Both the current collectors were connected to Cu wires which extended out of the chamber and were connected to the electrochemical measurement device (Solartron Instrument). Both ends of the Pd heater were also connected to Cu wires which were connected to the thermocontroller device outside of the chamber. Figure 1 shows the schematic diagram of the sensor chip arrangement.

To measure the sensitivity, the chip temperature was set at 200 °C and the resistance of the chip in air (denoted as  $R_o$ ) was measured by applying a constant potential difference of 3 V using the potentiostat mode of the



Fig. 1 Schematic diagram of the sensor chip arrangement. 1 Alumina substrate, 2 palladium electrode, 3  $WO_3$  film, 4 palladium heating element, 5 connecting wires, 6 small ceramic tube for thermocouple connection

Solartron instrument. CO gas was then introduced into the chamber so that the concentration of CO gas was 50 ppm and the resistance of the chip was then recorded. This resistance is denoted as  $R_g$ . This measurement was applied to the four samples that were calcinated at 300, 400, 500, and 600 °C. The sensitivity (*S*) was defined as the ratio of the absolute difference between  $R_g$  and  $R_o$  to  $R_o$ , which is mathematically expressed as Eq. (1):

$$S = \frac{\left|R_g - R_o\right|}{R_o}.$$
 (1)

These measurements were conducted to find the sample with the highest sensitivity for CO gas. After this sample was identified, further measurements were performed on this sample. The CO sensitivity changes at other CO concentrations (100 ppm and 200 ppm) at 200 °C and at other operation temperatures (30 °C and 100 °C) at 200 ppm CO were measured.

## 3 Results and discussion

Figure 2 depicts the secondary electron SEM images of the WO<sub>3</sub> films coated on top of the alumina wafers after they were calcined at 300, 400, 500 or 600 °C. The WO<sub>3</sub> particles are grainy thin transparent slabs. These shapes are similar to those reported previously [23]. The size of particles increased with increasing calcination temperature. For example, the particles calcinated at 300 °C were 161–322 nm whereas those calcinated at 600 °C were 407–1142 nm. At higher temperature more energy is available

for the particles to grow larger. This result is similar to the results of Wang et al. [1] who also reported that particle sizes increased with calcination temperature.

The XRD patterns of the WO<sub>3</sub> materials are shown in Fig. 3. As the calcination temperature increased, the XRD peaks became sharper with higher intensities. Hence, the crystallinity was enhanced with increasing calcination temperature. The XRD patterns of the samples calcined at 300 °C and 400 °C have broader and less intense peaks which is an indication of semi-crystalline materials.

Based on the XRD analysis, two different structures of WO<sub>3</sub> were identified. The XRD pattern of the sample calcined at 300 °C is consistent with a WO<sub>3</sub> hexagonal structure (PDF No 85-2459) where the three dominant crystalline plane orientations are (002), (112) and (321) at  $2\theta = 23.197^\circ$ ,  $33.832^\circ$ , and  $65.2^\circ$  respectively. For the samples calcined at 400 °C and higher, the XRD patterns show a WO<sub>3</sub> monoclinic structure (PDF No 83-0950) with three dominant planes of (002), (200), and (020) at  $2\theta =$ 23.117°, 23.583°, and 24.367° respectively. The most intense peak at  $2\theta = 41.7^{\circ}$  is due to the alumina substrate, the (006) plane (PDF No 41-1230). The polymorphism of the WO<sub>3</sub> crystalline structure is a function of the calcination temperature. The hexagonal phase is metastable, whereas the stable phase at room temperature is monoclinic or orthorhombic [24].

The crystallite size (D, in nm) of a material can be calculated using the Scherrer formula:

$$D = \frac{0.9\lambda}{B\cos\theta},\tag{2}$$

where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of X-ray radiation (nm), B is the



Fig. 2 Secondary electron SEM images of  $WO_3$  coated on top of alumina wafers after calcination at (a) 300, (b) 400, (c) 500, and (d) 600 °C for 1 h

full width at half maximum (FWHM, radian), and  $\theta$  is Bragg's angle (degree) [25]. The crystalline sizes of WO<sub>3</sub> were calculated using Eq. (2) and are shown in Table 1. Obviously, the crystalline size increases with increasing calcination temperature. Also, Table 1 lists the active surface areas of WO<sub>3</sub> powder calcined at 300, 400, 500 and 600 °C. The active surface area decreased as calcination temperature increased. Bigger particles always have smaller active surface areas.

To observe the morphology of the WO<sub>3</sub> materials in more detail, HRTEM analysis was performed on the sample calcined at 600 °C and the results are displayed in Fig. 4. Figure 4(a) shows a cluster of the WO<sub>3</sub> material which is 100–250 nm in width and 400–600 nm in length and consists of about 30 particles. Figure 4(b) shows the higher magnification of the square region in (a). Magnifications of the square regions (1) and (2) in Fig. 4(b) are shown in Fig. 4(c) and 4(d) respectively. The lattice spacings are 0.35 nm and 0.37 nm which correspond to the (020) and (200) planes respectively. These planes are also identified in the XRD analysis shown in Fig. 3.

The chemical analysis of the WO<sub>3</sub> material was

determined using EDX spectroscopy and the results are shown in Fig. 5. The synthesized nanomaterial only contained W and O and had no impurities. The Cu signal is from the Cu film grid and the Fe and Co signals are from the TEM holder.

Figure 6 shows the Raman spectra of WO<sub>3</sub> powder calcined at 300, 400, 500 and 600 °C. Generally the Raman peaks were enhanced as the calcination temperature increased. These results are in line with the XRD results showing that the crystallinity was enhanced with increasing calcination temperature. The Raman peaks above 1200 cm<sup>-1</sup> are attributed to the water content and they disappeared when the calcination temperature was above 400 °C. Hence, the samples calcined above 400 °C were crystalline, whereas those calcined at 400 °C and below were semi-crystalline materials.

The peaks at about 715 and 807 cm<sup>-1</sup> are due to the O– W–O stretching modes ( $\nu$  (O–W–O)), whereas those at about 273 and 327 cm<sup>-1</sup> are from the O–W–O bending modes ( $\delta$  (O–W–O)) of monoclinic WO<sub>3</sub>. The hexagonal phase of WO<sub>3</sub> is indicated by the Raman peaks at about 645, 690, and 817 cm<sup>-1</sup> which are due to the O–W–O



Fig. 3 X-ray diffraction patterns of WO\_3 material after calcination at 300, 400, 500, and 600  $^\circ C$  for 1 h

stretching modes (v (O–W–O)) and those at about 253 and 320 cm<sup>-1</sup> which are due to the W–O–W stretching modes (v (W–O–W)) [26]. Therefore, the samples calcined at 400 °C and above have monoclinic structures, whereas the sample calcined at 300 °C has a hexagonal structure.

Figure 7 shows the TGA/DTA results of the WO<sub>3</sub> powder. A TGA/DTA analysis was performed on a WO<sub>3</sub> gel in order to explore the weight and heat changes of the material during heating (Fig. 7(a)). The weight of the material decreased sharply, as much as 70%, below 90 °C which is the result of the removal of large amounts of physically bonded water and other volatile materials. This process is indicated by the first endothermic peak at 90 °C. There are no significant weight changes observed from 90 to 170 °C. The second endothermic peak at 230 °C is indicative of the vaporization of a small amount (~5%) of chemically bonded water. Above 230 °C the material weight loss is only 0.8%, which is probably due to the removal of oxygen [4].

The sample calcined at 300 °C (Fig. 7(b) lost more weight than any of the other calcined samples. It lost 2.5% of its weight below 90 °C (from the loss of water and other volatiles), 1.7% from 90 to 230 °C and 2.8% from 230 to 600 °C. The total loss was 7%, whereas the sample calcined at 400 °C lost only 0.64% upon heating to 343 °C. When heated to above 343 °C, the sample regained 0.12% due to the adsorption of gasses. Hence, the semi-crystalline structures of these two samples that was indicated by the XRD and Raman analyses is due to the presence of some water and other volatile matter.

The TGA of the samples calcined at 500 and 600 °C are

 Table 1
 Crystallite sizes and active surface areas of WO<sub>3</sub> powder calcinated at different temperatures

Calcination temperature /°C	300	400	500	600
Crystallite size /nm	6.4	10.9	21.8	39.3
BET surface area $/(m^2 \cdot g^{-1})$	83.94	15	11.2	4.51



**Fig. 4** Bright-field TEM images of the WO<sub>3</sub> material calcined at 600 °C. (a) A WO<sub>3</sub> cluster, (b) higher magnification of the square region in (a), (c) and (d) magnified images of the square regions in (b), 1 and 2 respectively



Fig. 5 EDX spectra of WO<sub>3</sub> taken from the square region in Fig. 4(a)



Fig. 6 Raman spectra of WO<sub>3</sub> powder calcined at 300, 400, 500, and 600 °C

shown in Fig. 7(c). Both these samples gained weight as they were heated. The weight of the sample calcined at 500 °C increases 4.29% on heating from room temperature to 600 °C, whereas the weight of the sample calcined at 600 °C decreases 0.25% below 60 °C and then increases 2% when heated above 60 °C. The increase in sample weights is probably caused by gas adsorption since the DTA result in Fig. 7(a) does not show any phase transformations peaks but only shows the vaporization processes. Hence, the WO<sub>3</sub> sample calcined at 500 °C has the best gas adsorption ability and would presumably be the most suitable for use as a gas sensor. Wang et al. reported that  $WO_3$  calcined at 550 °C showed the best sensitivity for  $NO_2$  gas adsorption [1].

Figure 8(a) depicts the sensitivity for CO by the sensors prepared by different calcination temperatures. The sensor calcined at 500 °C had the highest sensitivity for CO gas. This result is supported by the TGA data in Fig. 7(c) which shows that the sample calcinated at 500 °C had the best ability for gas adsorption.

It is important to understand the reasons that the sample calcinated at 500 °C had the best CO sensitivity. The structure of a material drastically affects the properties of that material including its sensitivity to certain gases.



Fig. 7 (a) TGA/DTA of WO<sub>3</sub> gel without thermal treatment, (b) TGA of WO<sub>3</sub> powder treated at 300 and 400  $^{\circ}$ C, (c) TGA of WO<sub>3</sub> powder treated at 500  $^{\circ}$ C and 600  $^{\circ}$ C

Tamaki et al. [27] reported that the grain size strongly influences the sensitivity of WO<sub>3</sub> to nitrogen oxides. The sensitivity of the sensor increased as the grain size decreased. Hidayat et al. [13] reported that the adsorption performance of tungsten oxide for methylene blue depended on the particle size. The interactions between the surface atoms of tungsten oxide and the methylene blue molecules increased as the tungsten oxide particle sizes decreased. However in this work, the sample calcined at 500 °C did not have the smallest particles and crystallite



**Fig. 8** (a) Sensitivity of WO<sub>3</sub>-based chip sensor calcined at 300, 400, 500 and 600 °C, measured at 200 °C and 50 ppm CO; (b) Sensitivity of sensor calcined at 500 °C measured at different operating temperatures: 30, 100 and 200 °C at 50 ppm CO; (c) Sensitivity of sensor calcined at 500 °C measured at different CO gas concentrations: 50, 100 °C and 200 ppm at 200 °C

sizes. Nor did it have the highest active surface area. These all belonged to the sample calcined at 300 °C (Fig. 2 and Table 1) which was not the most sensitive sample for CO gas.

The sensing properties of semiconductor materials depend on the structural defects (non-stoichiometric structures) and the free electrons that come from oxygen vacancies. There are more oxygen vacancies on WO<sub>3</sub> surfaces calcined at higher temperatures [1]. The material's crystallinity also plays a role in determining its sensing properties [4]. The sample calcined at 600 °C should have the highest number of oxygen vacancies and the best crystallinity since it was calcined at the highest temperature. However, it had the lowest sensitivity for CO gas. Therefore there must be some interdependencies among

the various aspects, such as particle size, crystallite size, active surface area, oxygen vacancies, and crystallinity, which affect the sensitivity for CO.

The CO gas detection process can be written as:

$$\frac{1}{2}O_{2(g)} + e^{-} \rightarrow O_{ads}^{-}$$
(3)

$$CO_{(g)} + O_{ads}^{-} \rightarrow CO_{2(g)} + e^{-}.$$
 (4)

The first reaction describes the adsorption of oxygen from the air onto the surface of WO<sub>3</sub> as a sensor material and the second reaction describes the surface reaction between CO gas and the oxygen ion. The chemisorbed oxygen molecules attract electrons from the conduction band of WO<sub>3</sub> and are reduced to different ionic forms such as O<sup>-</sup>, O<sup>-</sup><sub>2</sub> and O<sup>2-</sup> which results in a reduction of the electrical conductivity of the material. When this material is then exposed to reductive gases, such as CO, the chemisorbed oxygen will react with the gases and release the electrons back to the conduction band, leading to an increase in the material electrical conductivity. In a good gas sensor, the changes in material conductivity must be great and proportional to the gas concentration [28].

The density of electrons at the tungsten oxide surface increases with the operating temperature [1]. The more electrons that are attracted to the material surface, the lower the material's conductivity will be. Therefore, the sensitivity of WO<sub>3</sub> toward CO gas increased with operating temperature as shown in Fig. 8(b). Moreover, when there is more CO gas near the surface of the material sensor, more oxygen ions react with the CO gas and more electrons are released back in the conduction band of the material. As a result, the conductivity of the material decreases and the sensitivity of the sensor material increases. Figure 8(c) shows that as expected the sensitivity of the WO<sub>3</sub> sensor increased as the CO gas concentration increased.

### 4 Conclusions

WO<sub>3</sub> nanomaterials have been synthesized by a sol-gel method followed by calcination at 300, 400, 500 or 600 °C for 1 h. The nanomaterials were then applied as CO gas sensors. The sensitivity of the material toward CO gas depended on the calcination temperature which affected the material's structure. WO<sub>3</sub> calcined at 500 °C had the best sensitivity for CO gas due to its good ability to adsorb gas. The sensitivity of the sensor also depended on the sensor operating temperature and the CO gas concentration. Sensitivity increased as both operating temperature and CO gas concentration increased. These results show that WO<sub>3</sub> can serve as a CO gas sensor and it should be further explored and developed.

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