

Fast Response Ammonia Gas Sensor Based on SnO₂ Nanoporous Synthesized By the Simple Heat-Up Method

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigated the electrical and gas-sensing properties of SnO₂ nanoporous synthesized via the simple heat-up method. The I-V characteristics of the SnO₂ nanoporous revealed Ohmic contact materials. The SnO₂ nanoporous sensor was tested upon exposure to 50 ppm ammonia gas at 250 °C. It showed an immediate response to ammonia with a recovery time of 200 s in the first cycle. Additionally, the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor was tested for its response to ammonia gas at concentrations ranging from 10 ppm to 90 ppm at a temperature of 250 °C. The results indicated that the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor responded to ammonia gas at low concentrations, even as low as 10 ppm. Furthermore, the relative response value of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor demonstrated an increase in relative response value with increasing NH₃ concentration.

Keywords: SnO₂, Nanoporous, Heat-up method, Ammonia sensors, Gas sensor

Introduction

Currently, semiconductor metal oxide gas sensors, especially nanostructured metal oxides, have gained much attention from research communities due to their properties, such as high response, fast response and recovery time, room temperature operation, and low cost [1–4]. The most popular semiconductor metal oxide gas sensor is tin dioxide. Tin dioxide (SnO_2) is an N-type semiconductor with a stable wide bandgap of 3.6 eV [5]. SnO_2 nanostructured material has been researched for its ability to detect various gases, including nitrogen dioxide (NO_2), formaldehyde gas (HCHO), carbon dioxide (CO_2), carbon monoxide (CO), hydrogen sulfide (H_2S), ammonia (NH_3), and ethanol, among others [6–11]. However, tin dioxide nanomaterials can be synthesized by using various methods such as thermal evaporation, chemical vapor deposition (CVD), physical vapor evaporation (PVD), sol-gel, hydrothermal, atomic layer deposition (ALD), microwave-assisted, precipitation, and electrospinning [6,12–18]. These methods have their advantages and disadvantages for synthesizing SnO_2 nanomaterials. The advantages of these methods for the synthesis of SnO_2 nanomaterials include high crystallinity, selective deposition, and high purity. However, these methods can also have disadvantages such as high equipment costs, complexity, high temperatures, high-pressure vessels, hazardous precursor gases, and long processing time [19]. One interesting method for synthesizing semiconductor nanomaterials is the heat-up method because it is relatively simple, uncomplicated, low-cost, and cost-effective [20, 21]. Moreover, it can produce various nanostructured materials, including oxides, metals, and semiconductors. However, the heat-up method has the following limitations: temperature instability, difficulties with product reproducibility, and difficulties in controlling the size and shape [22, 23].

Ammonia gas is a toxic, colorless, odorous, and corrosive gas with the general chemical name of ammonia anhydrous. It is an inorganic substance with the molecular formula NH_3 . Ammonia is used in various chemical industries, such as fertilizer production, petrochemical equipment, beverage production, the automotive industry, explosives, plastics, and pesticides. Ammonia is widely used in the refrigeration industry as a refrigerant for various products, including vegetable and fruit juices, soft drinks, breweries and wineries, meat processing, cold storage warehouses, and ice rinks for sports [24]. However, ammonia has highly toxic and corrosive properties that can harm the skin, eyes, throat, and lungs of those who inhale it. Therefore, it is crucial not to inhale it above the safe level, as it can cause life-threatening diseases. The Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) has set an acceptable exposure limit for ammonia to humans at 25 ppm for 8 hours and 35 ppm for 15 minutes [24, 25].

A research study on the detection of ammonia gas by using tin dioxide nanomaterials has been reported. Phuoc et al. synthesized SnO_2 porous nanofiber by using a facile electrospinning method and examined its response to H_2S gas at concentrations of 0.1-1 ppm and temperatures of 150 to 450 °C. The fabricated sensor demonstrated fast response and recovery times, with a gas response of 15.2 [26]. Shruthi et al. fabricated $\text{Ag:Y}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SnO}_2$ core-shell-based nanostructured sensor by using a simple slurry coating method. The $\text{Ag:Y}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SnO}_2$ sensor was tested for ammonia concentrations ranging from 1 ppm

to 100 ppm at room temperature. The sensor exhibited rapid response (2 s) and recovery times (8 s), with the highest response [27].

In this study, we present the SnO₂ nanoporous materials synthesized using a simple heat-up method at temperatures of 110 °C and 240 °C. Additionally, we report on the dynamic response and recovery cycle of SnO₂ nanoporous when exposed to NH₃ gas concentrations of 50 ppm at a temperature of 250 °C. To confirm the results of this study, we continued to observe the dynamic response and recovery cycle of SnO₂ nanoporous when exposed to NH₃ gas concentrations ranging from 10 ppm to 90 ppm at a temperature of 250 °C.

Materials and Methods

Fabrication of SnO₂ nanoporous

The SnO₂ nanoporous were prepared by the heat-up method. Firstly, 3.102 g of Tin (IV) bis (acetylacetonate) dichloride and 2.069 g of 1,2-hexadecanediol were added to dibenzyl ether (60 mL), which served as the solvent in a three-necked flask, as shown in Figure 1. Then, 6 mL of oleyl amine was added as a reducing and growth agent to regulate the crystal growth. After that, the solvent in a three-necked flask was heated at 110 °C for 30 min under oxygen-free vacuum conditions and then heated to 240 °C for 30 min. Next, the sample was washed and centrifuged three times with ethanol. Finally, the sample was dispersed in deionized (DI) water [20, 21].

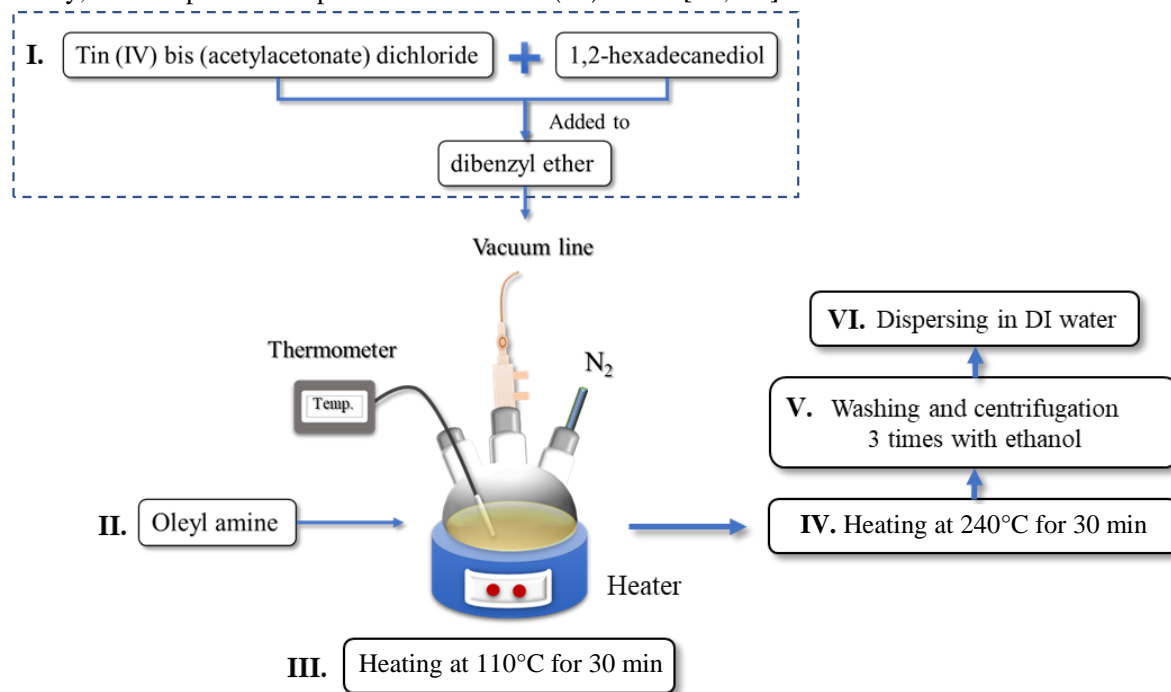


Figure 1 Schematic of SnO₂ nanoporous preparation by the heat-up method.

Characterization of SnO₂ nanoporous

The morphology of the SnO₂ nanoporous was investigated by using scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-4800). Then, the crystal structure of the sample was analyzed by using an

X-ray diffraction technique (XRD, Rigaku SmartLab High-Resolution X-ray Diffractometer (HR-XRD) using Cu K α ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$) at 45 kV and 200 mA). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, K-alpha, Thermo Scientific using conventional monochromatic Al K α radiation ($h\nu = 1486.6 \text{ eV}$) with $\theta = 0^\circ$ (normal emission) and a pass energy of 50 eV was used to examine the sample components.

Fabrication of SnO₂ nanoporous sensor

The synthesized SnO₂ nanoporous in DI water were dropped onto the interdigitated electrodes (IDE) electrode (Cr/Au, 3/70 nm) with a volume of 2 μl , as shown in Figure 2. Then, the sample was heated in an N₂ atmosphere for 3 minutes at 300 $^\circ\text{C}$ to improve ohmic contact.

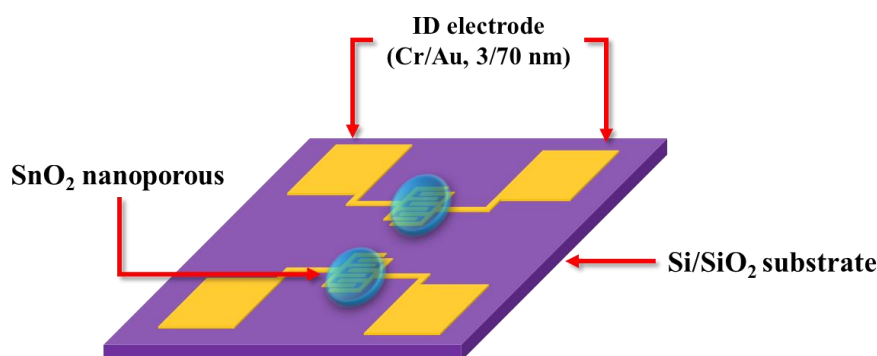


Figure 2 Schematic of SnO₂ nanoporous sensor fabrication.

Measurement of the electrical and gas-sensing properties

The electrical properties of the sample were measured in the range of -3 V to 3 V at temperatures of room temperature (RT) and $250 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The sensitivity of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor was measured by using a Keithley-4200 semiconductor parameter analyzer at $250 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The sample's resistance, current, and response were examined by exposing them to NH₃ gas at concentrations of 50 ppm and different concentrations ranging from 10-90 ppm. The heater and gas flow were controlled by a Hanyoung Nux PX7 and a Victor SR312, respectively. The relative response can be calculated via the following equation (1)

$$RH = \frac{|R_a - R_g|}{R_a} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

where RH is relative response, R_a is resistance in an air atmosphere, and R_g is resistance in an ammonia atmosphere [28].

Results and discussion

The sample's surface morphology was investigated using the SEM technique, as shown in Figure 3(a-b). The SEM images showed an area with a cracked porous structure at a magnification 4,000x (bar 1 μm) and 16,000x (bar 300 nm). Figure 3(c) shows high-magnification SEM images (magnification

30,000x, bar 200 nm). It can be seen that the surface morphology exhibits numerous pores in the SnO₂ materials, which greatly helps in improving the response of the gas sensor. However, the pore diameters vary in the range of 10-100 nm.

The crystal structure of the SnO₂ nanoporous was investigated by the X-ray diffractometer technique, as shown in Figure 4. The XRD pattern (Figure 4) shows the SnO₂ phase at planes of (110), (101), and (211), which correspond to the peaks of 26.10, 33.55, and 51.35, respectively. Moreover, the results indicated a tetragonal crystal system according to the JCPDS pattern (41-1445) [29, 30]. Additionally, the XRD pattern of the sample showed low intensity and small peaks. As a result, the SnO₂ nanoporous were relatively low in crystallinity. The atomic percentages of the sample were investigated by the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy technique, as shown in Table 1. The atomic percentages of Sn, O, and C were 18.67, 45.33, and 36.00, respectively. Therefore, the ratio of Sn and O atoms was approximately 1:2.

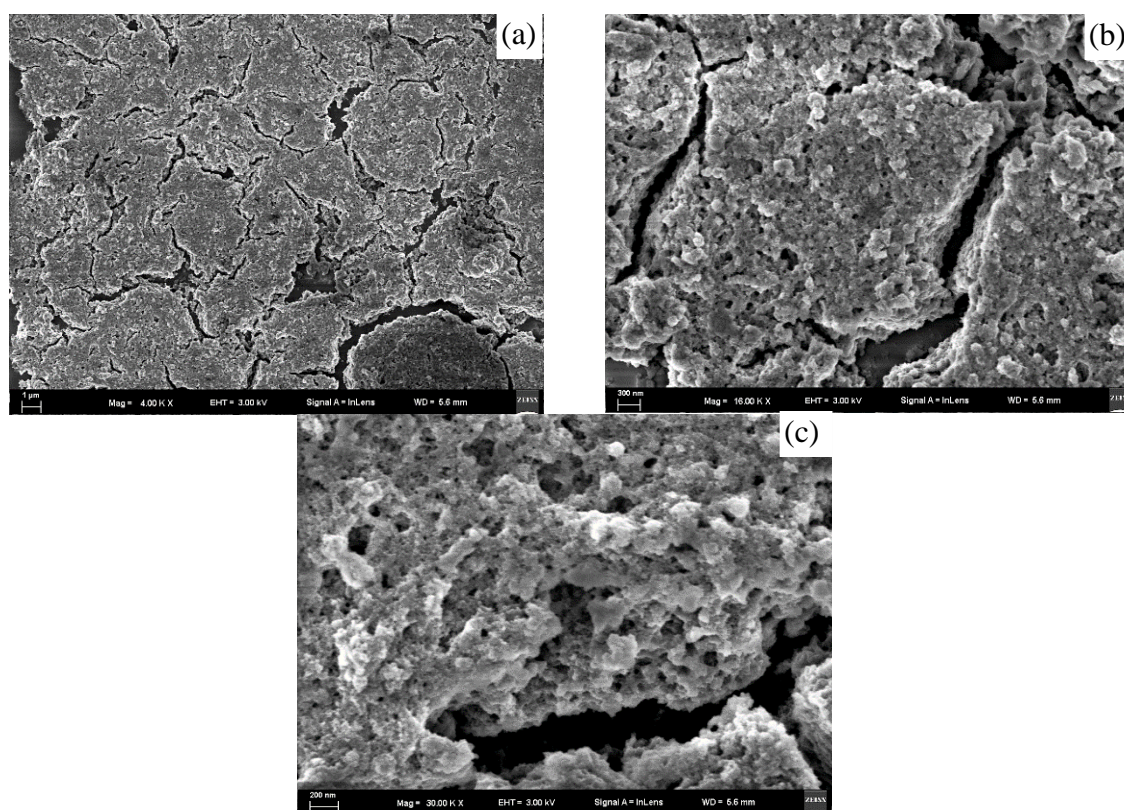


Figure 3 (a) Low and (b) high magnification SEM images of the SnO₂ nanoporous.

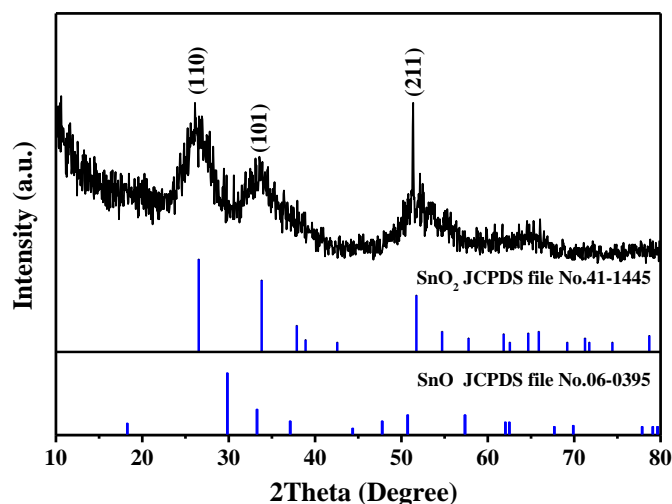


Figure 4 XRD pattern of the SnO₂ nanoporous with JCPDS file No.41-1445.

Table 1 Atomic percent of the SnO₂ nanoporous

Elements	Atomic percent (%)
Sn 3d	18.67
O 1s	45.33
C 1s	36.00

Figure 5 shows the XPS patterns of the SnO₂ nanoporous with elemental descriptions. The survey spectrum of the SnO₂ nanoporous (Figure 5(a)) demonstrated that the sample consisted of peaks from the elements Sn, O, and C. Figure 5(b) shows the peaks of the Sn element. The Sn 3d symmetrical peaks appeared at 495.1 eV and 486.7 eV, corresponding to Sn 3d_{3/2} and Sn 3d_{5/2}, respectively. Moreover, the binding energy separation between Sn 3d_{3/2} and Sn 3d_{5/2} peaks was 8.4 eV. This result could be attributed to the binding energy of the Sn⁴⁺ and was consistent with previous reports [31, 32]. Figure 5(c) demonstrates the O element peaks, with O 1s appearing at 533.1 eV, 531.8 eV, and 530.6 eV corresponding to adsorbed oxygen (O_{ads}), defective oxygen (O_v) and lattice oxygen (O_L), respectively [32].

Figure 6 demonstrates the I-V characteristic curves of the SnO₂ nanoporous measured at temperatures of RT (red line) and 250 °C (black line). The results showed linear relations and indicated ohmic contact materials [33]. In addition, the resistance values were calculated via the I-V linear relation slope. Therefore, the resistance values of the SnO₂ nanoporous were 6.54×10⁴ MΩ and 2.45×10² MΩ measured at temperatures of RT and 250 °C, respectively. The results suggested that the electrical conductivity of the SnO₂ nanoporous was greater when measured at 250°C than when measured at RT.

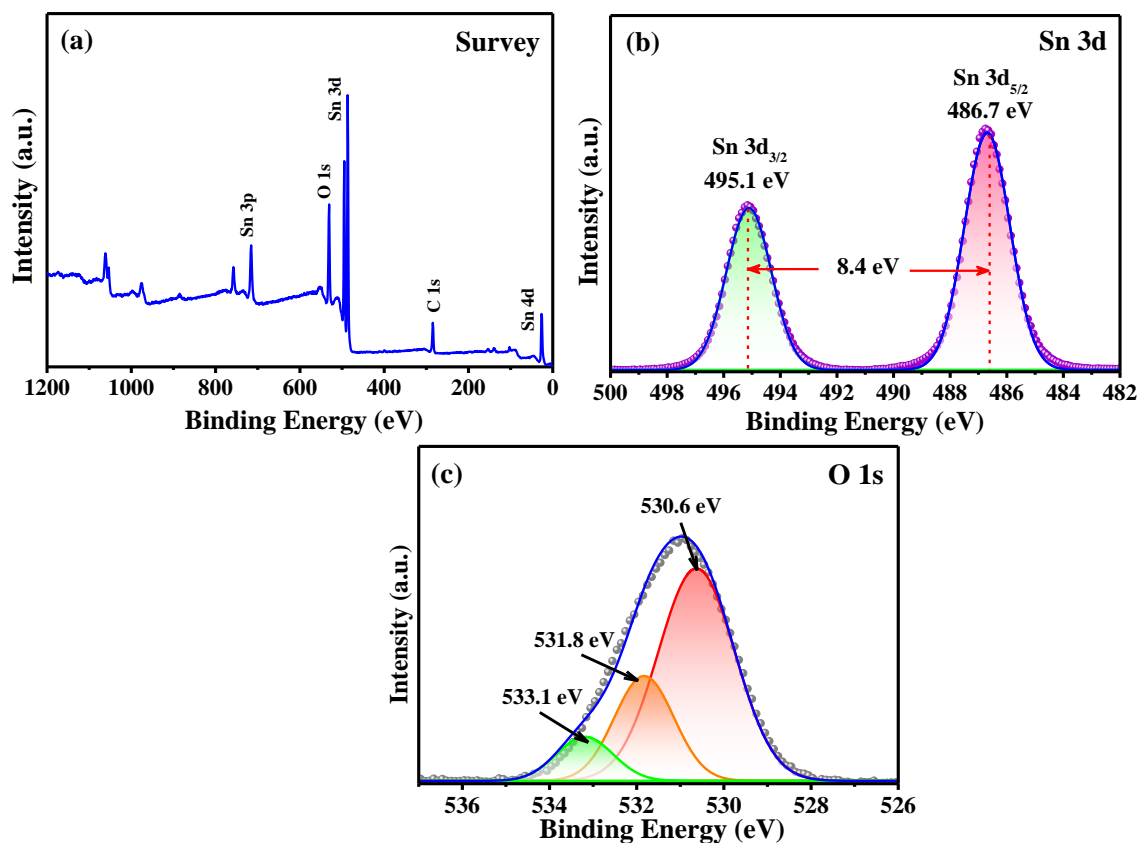


Figure 5 XPS patterns of the as-synthesized SnO₂ nanoporous: (a) survey spectrum and high-resolution spectra of (b) Sn 3d, (c) O 1s, and (d) C 1s.

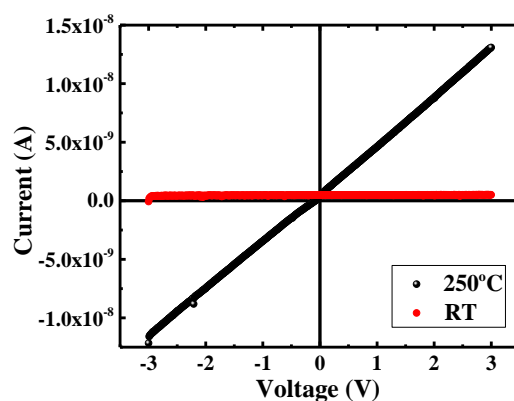


Figure 6 I-V curves of SnO₂ nanoporous measured at RT and 250 °C.

Figure 7(a) shows the dynamic response and recovery time cycles of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor upon exposure to NH₃ gas with a concentration of 50 ppm at 250 °C. The response and recovery test cycle were repeated two times. The results unambiguously showed that the two cycles' response values differed. The first cycle had an immediate response to the NH₃ gas, with a response of about 60%. Then, the response value of the first cycle decreased to about 40%. According to Figure 7(b), the

first cycle recovery time (t_{rec}) was 200 s. The high-resolution second response cycle of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor (Figure 7(c)) showed a slow response time, with a response time value (t_{res}) of approximately 80 s, which is clearly seen as a bend in the response time curve. In addition, the recovery time (t_{rec}) of this cycle was 300 s. This result showed that the sensor had a slower response to ammonia gas and a longer recovery time.

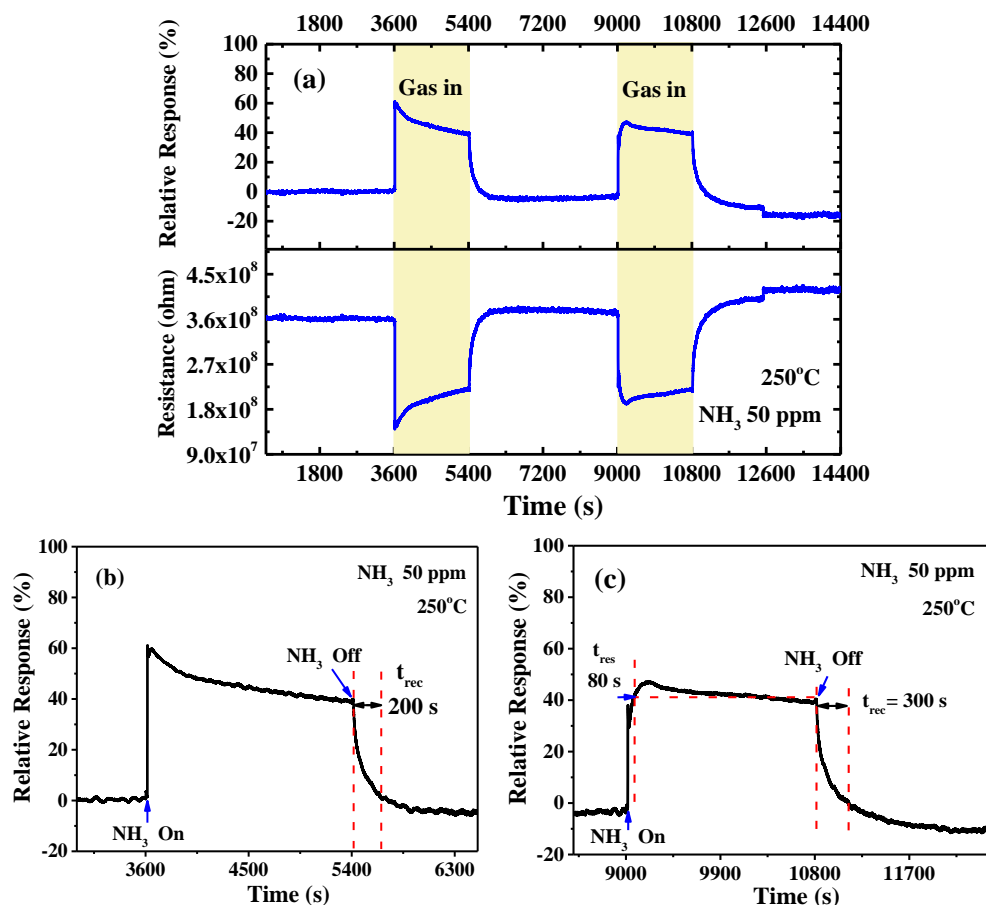


Figure 7 (a) Relative response curves of SnO₂ nanoporous sensor upon exposure to NH₃ gas concentration of 50 ppm at 250°C. The high-resolution response of (b) first and (c) second cycle.

However, the SnO₂ nanoporous sensors were tested for their response to NH₃ gas at concentrations ranging from 10 ppm to 90 ppm at 250 °C, as shown in Figure 8, and the response and recovery time of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor demonstrated an increase in response time with increasing NH₃ concentration [34, 35]. According to Figure 8, the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor had the lowest response at a concentration of 10 ppm and greatest at a concentration of 90 ppm. Furthermore, the response and recovery cycles of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor at concentrations ranging from 10 ppm to 50 ppm were similar. When the response value reached its maximum value, it gradually decreased. However, the response and recovery cycles of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensors at NH₃ concentrations ranging from 70 ppm to 90 ppm exhibited a similar curve bending in the response time.

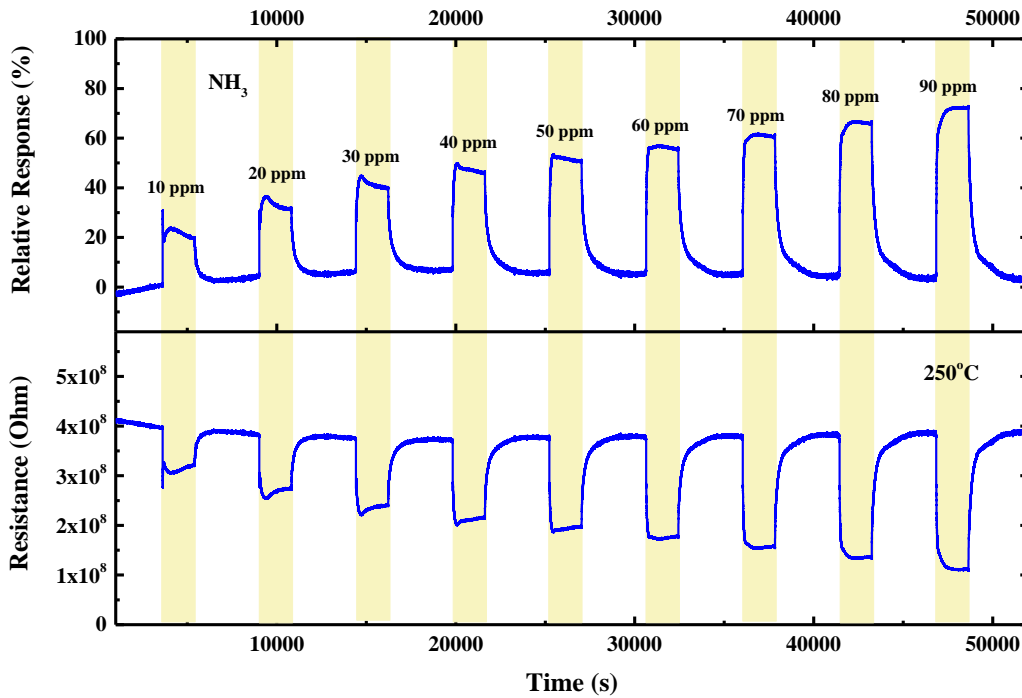
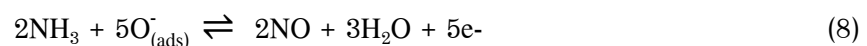
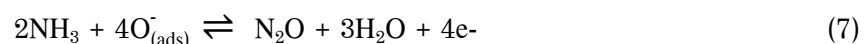
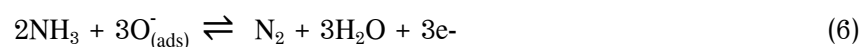


Figure 8 The response and recovery cycles of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor were investigated upon exposure to NH₃ gas in various concentrations ranging from 10 ppm to 90 ppm at 250 °C.

Consequently, their response to NH₃ gas reached a stable state with response values of approximately 61%, 66%, and 71%, corresponding to concentrations of 70 ppm, 80 ppm, and 90 ppm, respectively. Moreover, the response and recovery cycle of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor at an NH₃ gas concentration of 60 ppm exhibited the most stable response values compared to the cycles at other concentrations. This cycle showed no bending in the response time and maintained a constant response value during the presence and absence of ammonia gas in the chamber. Therefore, the results suggested that the SnO₂ nanoparticle sensor was suitable for detecting ammonia gas at a concentration of 60 ppm. The response remained stable for 1800 s with a response value of approximately 56%.

Figure 9 illustrates the gas sensor mechanism of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor in an ammonia atmosphere at 250 °C. The chemical reaction of the SnO₂ nanoporous sensor in air and ammonia atmospheres can be described via the following equation (2-8), respectively [28, 34, 35].



In air, the initial resistance of the SnO₂ nanoporous was high because the oxygen at the surface area of the SnO₂ nanoporous was capturing the nearly free electrons, as shown in the reaction equation (4). Therefore, the surface area of the SnO₂ nanoporous had a low free electron concentration. Additionally, the oxygen atoms become oxygen ions. As a result, the space charge region width became wider. However, when the surface area of the SnO₂ nanoporous was exposed to ammonia gas, the space charge region width became narrow because the oxygen ions reacted with ammonia gas, as shown in the reaction equation (6-7). This reaction resulted in free electrons from the previous reaction being released onto the surface area of the SnO₂ nanoporous, causing the resistance of the SnO₂ nanoporous to be lower than the initial resistance value [5, 36-38].

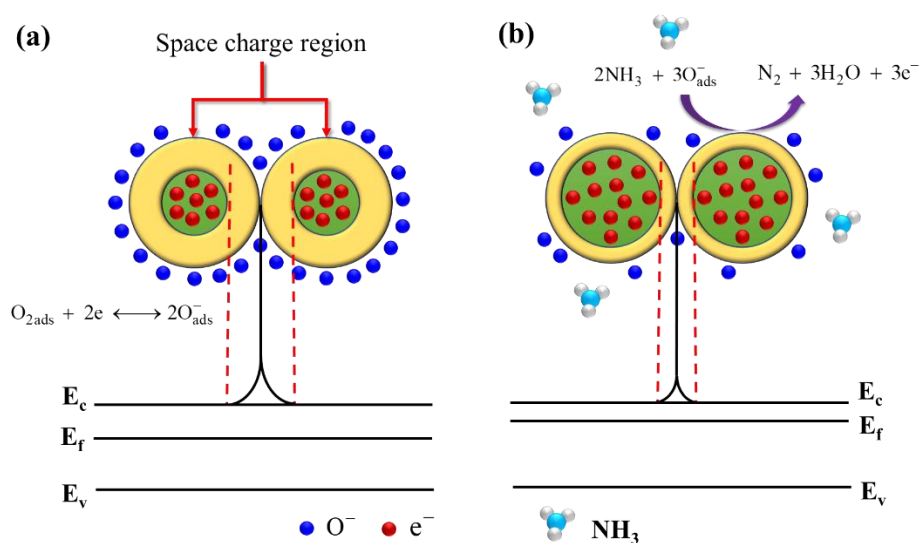


Figure 9 Schematic of the sensing mechanism of SnO₂ nanoporous (a) in air and (b) NH₃ atmospheres.

Conclusions

In summary, SnO₂ nanoporous were successfully synthesized by using the simple heat-up method. The surface morphology of the as-synthesized sample was investigated by using SEM techniques, demonstrating a cracked, porous structure for the SnO₂ nanoporous. The crystal structure of the SnO₂ nanoporous was analyzed by using XRD techniques, revealing a tetragonal crystal structure for SnO₂. The I-V characteristics of the SnO₂ nanoporous exhibited ohmic contact materials. The SnO₂ nanoporous sensor showed a fast response and recovery time when exposed to NH₃ gas at a concentration of 50 ppm and a temperature of 250 °C. Additionally, this sensor responded to NH₃ gas at low concentrations of 10 ppm, with the response value increasing as the NH₃ concentration increased.

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