

# Fabrication of WO<sub>3</sub> nanotube sensors and their gas sensing properties

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## Abstract

WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes were synthesized using TeO<sub>2</sub> nanowire templates. Transmission electron microscopy revealed the nanotubes to have tube diameters, lengths, and wall thicknesses ranging from 100–200 nm, 3–4 μm, and 20–30 nm, respectively. The multiple networked WO<sub>3</sub> nanotube sensors showed responses of 144–677% in the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration range of 1–5 ppm at 300 °C. These responses were approximately double those observed for the WO<sub>3</sub> nanorod sensors over the same NO<sub>2</sub> concentration range. A model describing the gas sensing mechanism of WO<sub>3</sub> NTs is also proposed.

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**Keywords:** WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes; Gas sensors; Response; NO<sub>2</sub>

## 1. Introduction

One-dimensional (1D) nanostructure-based sensors have the advantages of higher sensitivity, superior spatial resolution, and rapid response due to the high surface-to-volume ratios than thin film gas sensors [1–3]. Over the past two decades, considerable efforts have been made to synthesize metal-oxide 1D nanostructures such as nanowires, nanorods, nanobelts, and nanoribbons and to investigate their gas sensing properties [4]. On the other hand, there have been few reports on nanotube gas sensors compared to other 1D nanostructures.

Tungsten oxide (WO<sub>3</sub>) is an important n-type semiconducting material with a band gap of 2.7 eV, with applications in gas sensing, photocatalysis, and electrochromic devices [5]. Gas sensors based on WO<sub>3</sub> nanostructures have attracted considerable attention because of their excellent sensitivity and selectivity in detecting a range of gases [6,7]. WO<sub>3</sub> nanowires or nanorods have exhibited favorable sensing properties to NO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, O<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and liquefied petroleum gas at elevated temperatures (200–300 °C) [8–12]. On the other hand, little is known regarding the synthesis and gas sensing properties of

WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes (NTs) [13] in spite of their advantage of higher surface-to-volume ratios than WO<sub>3</sub> nanowires or nanorods. This paper reports the synthesis, structure and NO<sub>2</sub> gas sensing properties of WO<sub>3</sub> NTs. A model describing the gas sensing mechanism of WO<sub>3</sub> NTs is also proposed.

## 2. Experimental

WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes were synthesized using a TeO<sub>2</sub> nanowire template. First, TeO<sub>2</sub> nanowires were synthesized by the thermal evaporation of Te powders on Si (100) substrates. Approximately 2.0 g of Te powders was placed in an alumina crucible and located at the center of a horizontal quartz tube, which was mounted inside a conventional horizontal tube furnace. During nanowires synthesis, the temperature of the source materials was maintained at 500 °C for 1 h. After synthesis, the furnace was cooled to room temperature and the Si substrate was removed from the tube. The TeO<sub>2</sub> nanowires were then transferred to a sputter chamber to coat them with a WO<sub>3</sub> thin film. The sputter deposition of WO<sub>3</sub> was conducted at 50 W in an Ar atmosphere at an Ar flow rate of 10 sccm for 10 min. Throughout the sputtering process, the Si substrate was rotated for more uniform coating of WO<sub>3</sub> on the surface of the TeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. The pressure in the reactor was maintained at 20 mTorr. The WO<sub>3</sub>

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nanotubes were synthesized by eliminating the  $\text{TeO}_2$  core by thermal evaporation at  $700^\circ\text{C}$  in air for 1 h at 1 mTorr pressure. A selective elimination of  $\text{TeO}_2$  is possible by heating the  $\text{TeO}_2$ -core/ $\text{WO}_3$ -shell nanostructures at a high temperature because of a big difference in melting point between the two materials ( $\text{TeO}_2$  ( $732^\circ\text{C}$ ) and  $\text{WO}_3$  ( $1,473^\circ\text{C}$ )).  $\text{TeO}_2$  evaporates at a lower temperature than  $\text{WO}_3$  ( $1,473^\circ\text{C}$ ) because of this big difference in melting point. Actually, the temperature increases,  $\text{TeO}_2$  nanowires started to evaporate at  $\sim 550^\circ\text{C}$ , whereas the evaporation of the  $\text{WO}_3$  shell layers occurred above  $900^\circ\text{C}$ . As a result of the selective elimination of  $\text{TeO}_2$ , we obtained  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes. On the other hand, the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods were synthesized by the thermal evaporation of  $\text{WO}_3$  powders on Si (100) substrates in an  $\text{N}_2$  atmosphere at  $1,100^\circ\text{C}$  at 1 Torr for 1 h.

The collected  $\text{WO}_3$  1D nanostructure samples were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-4200), transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Philips CM-200) equipped with an energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDXS) and X-ray diffraction (XRD, Philips X'pert MRD diffractometer). The crystallographic structure was determined by glancing angle XRD with  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation ( $0.15406\text{ nm}$ ), a scan rate of  $4^\circ/\text{min}$ , a  $0.5^\circ$  glancing angle, and a rotating detector.

For the sensing measurement, Ni ( $\sim 10\text{ nm}$ ) and Au ( $\sim 50\text{ nm}$ ) thin films were deposited sequentially by sputtering to form electrodes using an interdigital electrode (IDE) mask. Multiple networked  $\text{WO}_3$  1D nanostructure gas sensors were fabricated by pouring a few drops of the  $\text{WO}_3$  1D nanostructures-suspended in ethanol onto the oxidized Si substrates equipped with a pair of IDEs with a gap length of  $20\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ . The electrical and gas sensing properties of the as-synthesized  $\text{WO}_3$  1D nanostructures were measured using a home-built computer-controlled characterization system consisting of a test chamber, sensor holder, Keithleysourcemeater-2612, mass flow controllers and data acquisition system (Fig. 1). During the measurements, the 1D nanostructured gas sensors were placed in a sealed quartz tube with an electrical feed through. The test gas was mixed with dry air to achieve the desired concentration and the flow rate was maintained at 200 standard cubic centimeters per minute (sccm) using mass flow controllers. The working temperature of the sensors was adjusted by changing the voltage across the heater side. The gas sensing properties of the 1D nanostructure gas sensors were measured at  $300^\circ\text{C}$  in a quartz tube placed in a sealed chamber with an electrical feed through. A set amount of  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $> 99.99\%$ , 1–5 ppm) gas was injected into the testing tube through a microsyringe, and the output voltage across the sensor in the nanotubes was monitored. The resistance of the sensor in dry air or in the test gas was measured

from this voltage. The response of the 1D nanostructure sensors is defined as  $R_g/R_a$  for  $\text{NO}_2$ , where  $R_a$  and  $R_g$  are the electrical resistances of the sensors in air and target gas, respectively. The response time was defined as the time needed for the change in electrical resistance to reach 90% of the equilibrium value after injecting the gas. The recovery time was defined as the time needed for the sensor to return to 10% of the original resistance in air after removing the gas.

### 3. Results and discussion

Fig. 2 and inset in Fig. 2 show SEM and enlarged SEM images of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes prepared using a  $\text{TeO}_2$  nanowire template. The specific surface area of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes and  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods measured using the Brunauer–Emmet–Teller (BET) method was  $67.7$  and  $21.4\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ , respectively, suggesting that nanotubes have far larger surface area than nanorods. We can see many  $\text{WO}_3$  nanoparticles in addition to  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes in the SEM image. We surmise the nonuniform shape is due to the somewhat low substrate temperature in the thermal evaporation process for the synthesis of  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes. If we had increased the substrate temperature a little bit, we could have obtained  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes with a more uniform shape. The tube diameters and wall thicknesses of the nanotubes ranged from  $100$  to  $120\text{ nm}$  and  $20$ – $30\text{ nm}$ , respectively as shown in the low-magnification TEM image (Fig. 3(a)). Fig. 3(b) presents a local high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of a nanotube. The resolved spacings between two neighboring parallel fringes in the image corresponding to the primitive monoclinic  $\text{WO}_3$  (200) and (002) planes were approximately  $0.37$  and  $0.39\text{ nm}$ . Fig. 3(c) shows the corresponding selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern of  $\text{WO}_3$ . The strong reflection spots in the corresponding selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern were assigned to the reflections of

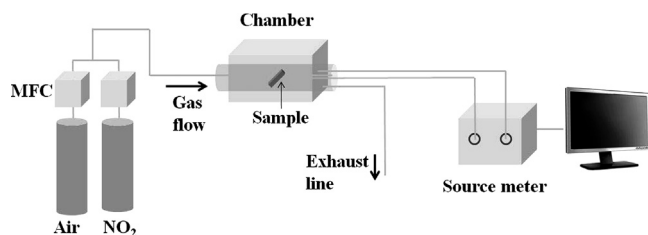


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of the gas sensing measurement system.

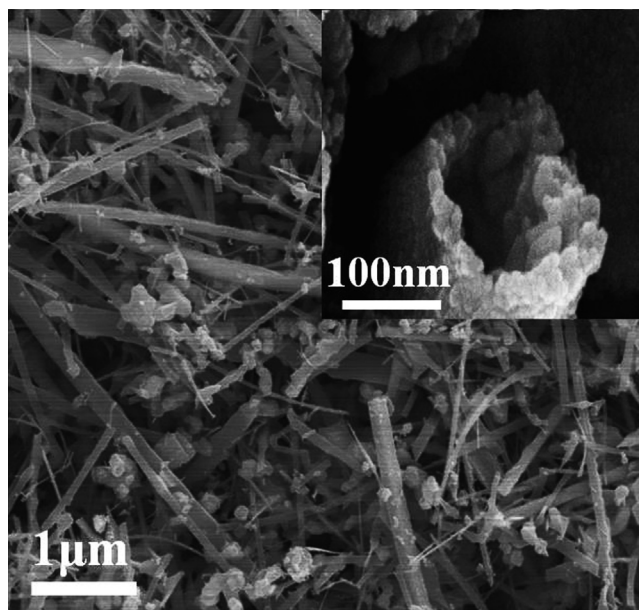


Fig. 2. SEM image of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes. Inset, enlarged SEM image of a typical  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotube.

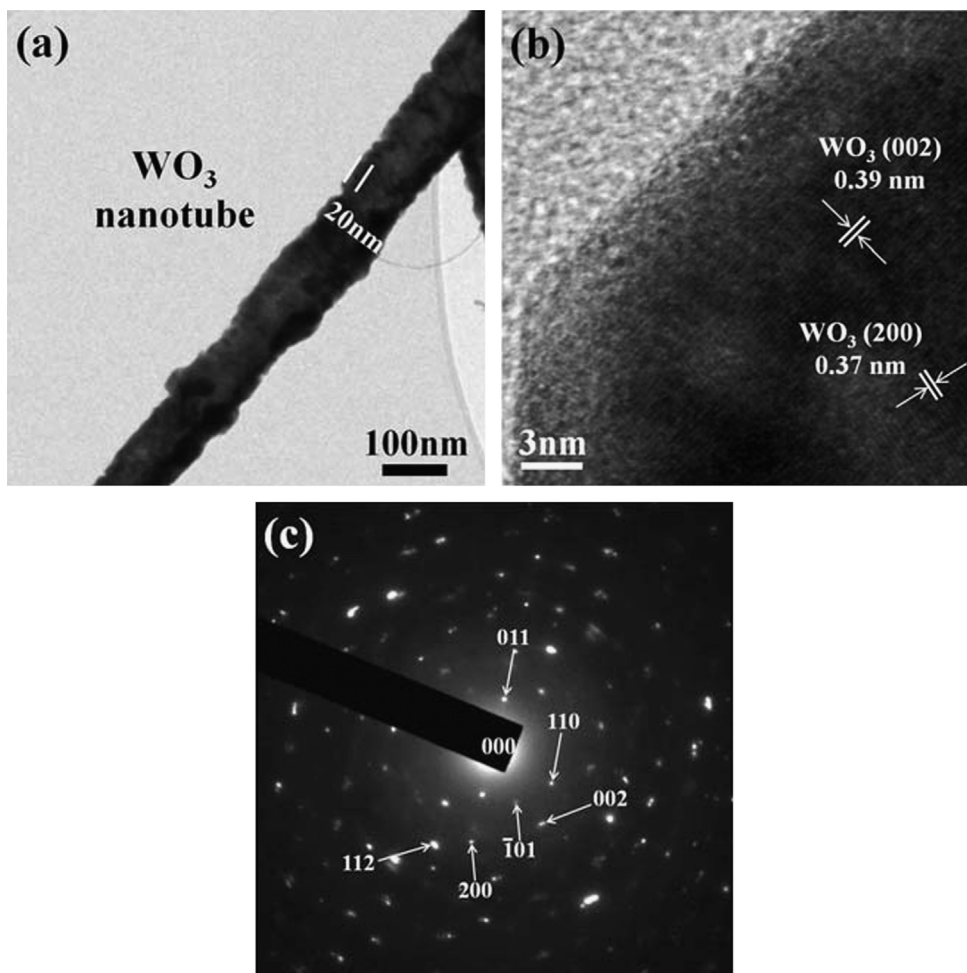


Fig. 3. (a) Low magnification TEM image, (b) high resolution TEM image, and (c) selected area electron diffraction pattern of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes.

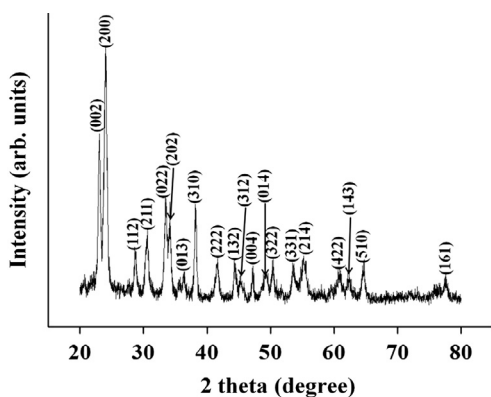


Fig. 4. XRD patterns of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes.

primitive monoclinic-structured  $\text{WO}_3$  with lattice constants  $a=0.7327$  nm,  $b=0.7564$  nm,  $c=0.7727$  nm, and  $\beta=90.488^\circ$ , (JCPDS no. 89-4476). On the other hand, a close examination of the SAED pattern indicated that the reflection spots did not belong to the same zone axis, suggesting that the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotube in the TEM image is polycrystalline.

The XRD patterns of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes also showed that the tubes were crystalline (Fig. 4). The reflection peaks in the XRD pattern of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes were assigned to the (002),

(200), (112), (211), (022), (202), (013), and (310) reflections of primitive monoclinic-structured  $\text{WO}_3$  (JCPDS no. 89-4476). EDXS confirmed that the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes were composed of W and O (Fig. 5(a)). The Cu in the spectrum was attributed to the TEM grid. EDXS analyses (Fig. 5(b)) also confirmed that  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes were synthesized successfully by showing higher W and O concentrations at both edge regions of the nanostructure.

Fig. 6(a) shows the dynamic responses of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods and  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes to  $\text{NO}_2$  gas in a range of 1–50 ppm at  $300^\circ\text{C}$ . The resistance increased upon exposure to  $\text{NO}_2$  and recovered completely to the initial value upon the removal of  $\text{NO}_2$ . The sensor responses to  $\text{NO}_2$  gas were quite stable and reproducible for repeated test cycles. Fig. 6(b) and (c) shows an enlarged part of the data in Fig. 6(a) measured at a  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration of 5 ppm for the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods and  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes, respectively, to reveal the moments of gas input and gas stop. The  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods showed responses of approximately 142, 175, 220, 272, 326, 383 and 462% at  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10 and 50 ppm, respectively (Table 1). On the other hand, the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes showed responses of approximately 144, 187, 338, 520, 677, 881 and 1,054% at  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10 and 50 ppm, respectively (Table 1). Therefore, the responses of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes were approximately double

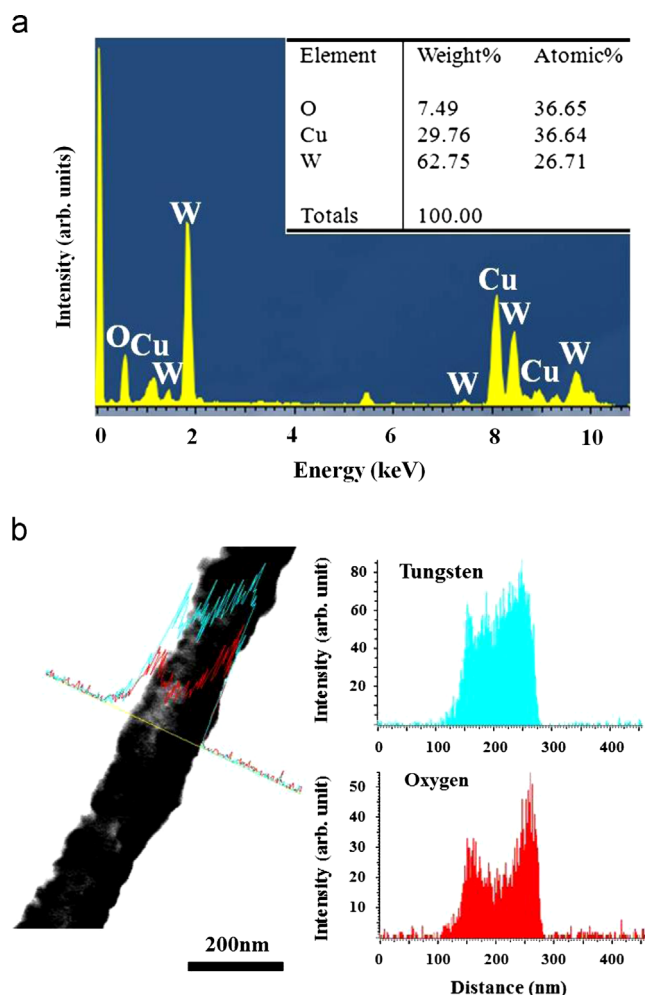


Fig. 5. (a) EDXS line scanning concentration profiles and (b) EDX spectra of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes.

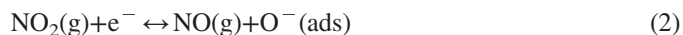
those of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods at 1–5 ppm  $\text{NO}_2$ . Fig. 6(d) shows the responses of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods and  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes as a function of the  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration. The response of an oxide semiconductor is commonly expressed as  $R = A[C]^n + B$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are constants,  $n$ , and  $[C]$  are exponent, and the target gas concentration, respectively [14]. Data fitting gave  $R = 46.420[C] + 87.676$  and  $R = 139.753[C] + 46.027$  for the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorod and  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotube sensors, respectively. The responses of the nanotube sensor tends to increase more rapidly than that of the nanorod sensor as the  $\text{NO}_2$  gas concentration was increased, suggesting that the response of the former would be far higher than that of the latter at high  $\text{NO}_2$  gas concentrations such as a few thousand ppm  $\text{NO}_2$ , even though the response of the nanotubes were examined only in the  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration range of 1–5 ppm. Table 1 also shows that the response and recovery times of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes are considerably shorter than those of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods. The higher sensing speed of the nanotubes than the nanorods might also be attributed to the larger number of carriers generated at the larger surface of the nanotubes.

Table 2 [15–24] shows that the response of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes was superior to those of typical semiconductor oxide

1D nanostructures such as  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanobelts,  $\text{ZnO}$  nanorods,  $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3$  nanowires, and  $\text{MoO}_3$  lamellae and oxide semiconductor 1D heterostructures such as  $\text{SnO}_2$ -core/ $\text{ZnO}$ -shell nanofibers to  $\text{NO}_2$  gas reported previously as well as that of  $\text{WO}_3$  nanowires even though a somewhat higher  $\text{NO}_2$  gas concentration range used in this study was considered. Although Table 2 suggests that the response of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanofibers is inferior to that of  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes, the response for the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanofibers was measured at a far higher  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration (200 ppm). An extrapolation of the response curve of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes in Fig. 5(d) to 200 ppm would give a response of 252,400%. Therefore, the response of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes is also higher to that of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanofibers.

Besides the responses to  $\text{NO}_2$  gas, we also measured the responses of both  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes and  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods to  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  to examine the selectivity of the two different  $\text{WO}_3$  nanostructure sensors. Fig. 7 compares the responses of  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes and  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods to those four different gases. The results reveal that both  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes and  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods are more sensitive to  $\text{NO}_2$  gas than other gases and that  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes have a higher selectivity than  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods. Therefore, we may say that the sensors have particularly good selectivity for  $\text{NO}_2$  gas.

The  $\text{NO}_2$  gas sensing mechanism of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotube sensor was modeled using the surface-depletion model [25], as shown in Fig. 8. Upon exposure to  $\text{NO}_2$  gas,  $\text{NO}_2$  gas adsorbs on the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes and electrons are released from the nanotubes, and are attracted to the adsorbed  $\text{NO}_2$  molecules because an oxidizing gas, such as  $\text{NO}_2$ , acts as an electron acceptor, as shown in the following reactions [26]:



As a result of these reactions, a depletion region forms in the surface region of each the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotube, resulting in an increase in the resistance of the nanotube sensor. On the other hand, after the  $\text{NO}_2$  gas supply is stopped, the trapped electrons are released to the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes by  $\text{NO}_2$  gas, leading to a decrease in the depletion layer width (Fig. 8) and resistance. This results in an increase in carrier concentration in the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes and a decrease in the surface depletion layer width. In other words, the removed electrons are returned to the conduction band, which results in a sharp decrease in electrical resistance in the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotube sensors.

The higher response of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotube sensor than the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods might be due to the higher surface-to-volume ratio of the  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes.  $\text{WO}_3$  nanotubes have a higher surface-to-volume ratio than  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods because of the large inner and outer surface, whereas  $\text{WO}_3$  nanorods have only outer surfaces. A larger surface would lead to the release of a larger number of electrons from the nanostructure sensor upon exposure to  $\text{NO}_2$  gas and collect a larger number of electrons in the nanostructure sensor after stopping the  $\text{NO}_2$  gas supply. Therefore, a larger surface would result in a stronger response to  $\text{NO}_2$  gas.

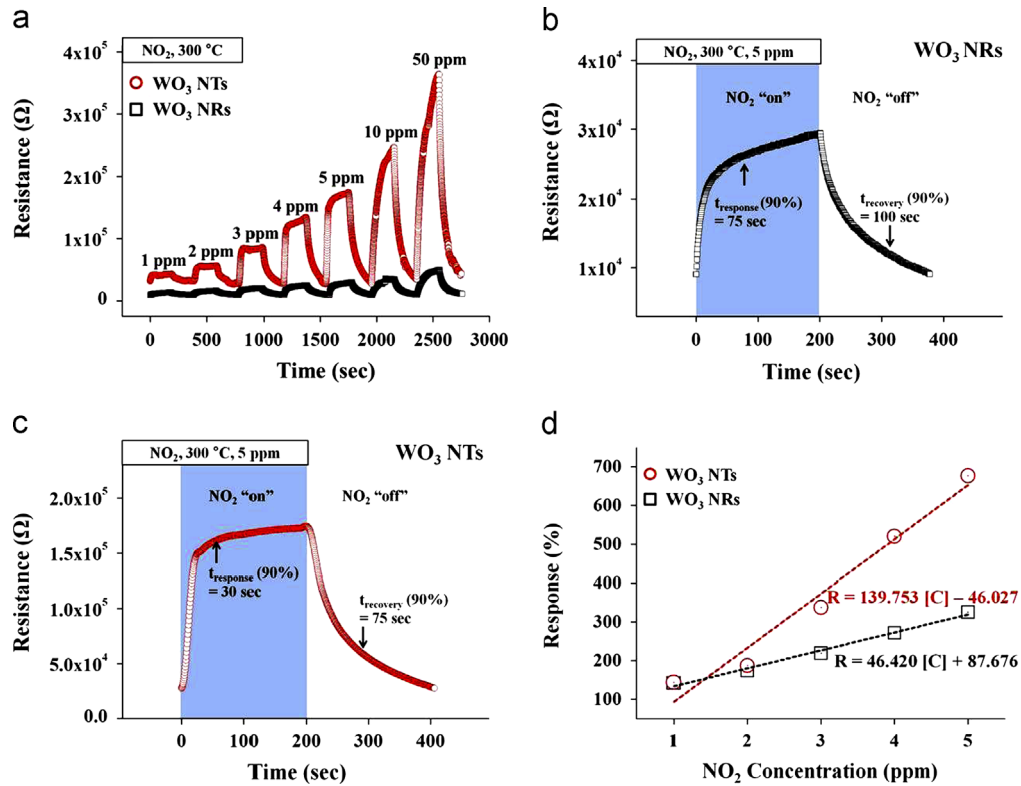


Fig. 6. (a) Dynamic responses of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods and WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes. (b) Enlarged part of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods curve in Fig. 6(a) at 5 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>. (c) Enlarged part of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes curve in Fig. 6(a) at 5 ppm NO<sub>2</sub>. (d) Responses of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods and WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes as a function of the NO<sub>2</sub> gas concentration.

Table 1

Responses, response times, and recovery times measured at different NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for the WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods and WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes at 300 °C.

NO <sub>2</sub> conc. (ppm)	Response (%)		Response time (s)		Recovery time (s)	
	WO <sub>3</sub> NRs	WO <sub>3</sub> NTs	WO <sub>3</sub> NRs	WO <sub>3</sub> NTs	WO <sub>3</sub> NRs	WO <sub>3</sub> NTs
1	142.31	144.45	100	20	100	70
2	174.85	186.98	85	20	120	85
3	219.54	337.89	80	15	110	100
4	272.29	520.27	80	40	120	90
5	325.69	676.57	75	30	100	75
10	382.85	881.41	110	90	90	70
50	462.40	1053.80	120	100	100	70

Table 2

Comparison of the response of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanotube sensor with those of other 1D nanostructured sensors reported previously.

Nanomaterial	NO <sub>2</sub> conc. (ppm)	Response (%)	Reference
WO <sub>3</sub> nanotubes	5	677	Present work
ZnO nanorods	0.1	40	[15]
SnO <sub>2</sub> nanobelts	0.3	230	[16]
In <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> nanowires	0.5	35	[17]
In <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> nanowires	10	60	[18]
In <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> nanowires	100	200–500	[19]
WO <sub>3</sub> nanowires	0.5	60	[20]
WO <sub>3</sub> nanowires	1	30–200	[21]
SnO <sub>2</sub> -core/ZnO-shell nanofibers	1–5	10–40	[22]
MoO <sub>3</sub> lameller	10	118	[23]
TiO <sub>2</sub> nanofibers	100	10,000	[24]

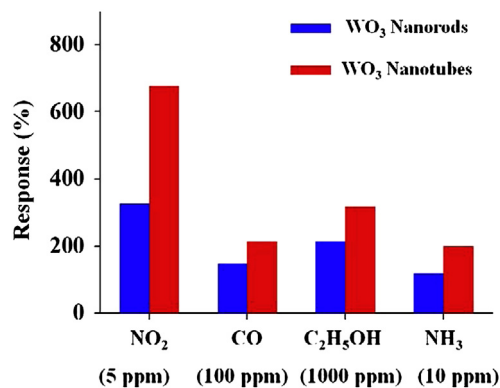


Fig. 7. Comparison of responses of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods and WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes to different gases. The results prove that WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods and WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes have good selectivity for NO<sub>2</sub> gas.

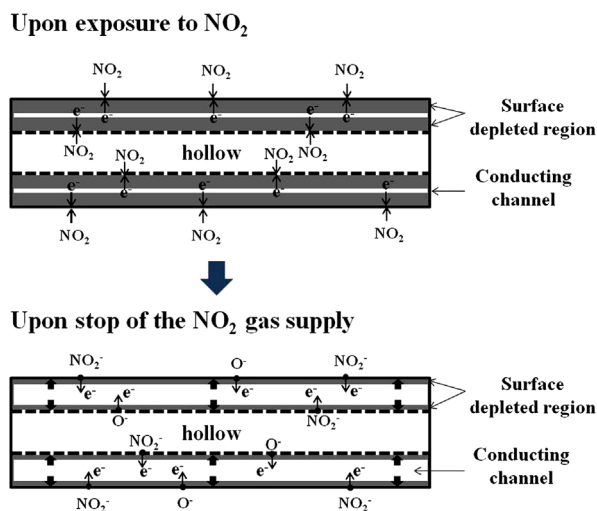


Fig. 8. Schematic diagram showing the width of the depletion region in the WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes upon exposure to air and NO<sub>2</sub> gas.

#### 4. Conclusions

WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes were prepared as gas sensors using a TeO<sub>2</sub> nanowire template. The WO<sub>3</sub> nanotube sensor showed responses of 144–1,054% to 1–50 ppm NO<sub>2</sub> at 300 °C. These responses were far superior to those obtained by most oxide one-dimensional nanostructures reported in the literature. The enhanced response of WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes toward NO<sub>2</sub> gas over that of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods might be due to the higher surface-to-volume ratio of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanotubes.

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