



Influence of Synthesis on Constitution and Gas Sensing Property of SnO₂ Nanomaterial

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In this paper, nanostructure SnO₂ was prepared by dissolving tin granule in citric acid and gaining the precursor, which was treated with different ways and calcinated. The influence of treatment with the precursor on the gas sensing property of SnO₂ was studied. The precursor was treated with different methods and calcined at different temperature. SnO-doping SnO₂ was prepared from annealing the washed precursor and pure SnO₂ was synthesized from annealing the unwashed precursor. Four nanomaterials were obtained. The phases, constitution, morphology of them were characterized by XRD and SEM. Gas sensors were fabricated and an investigation into the SnO₂-based gas-sensing properties has been conducted. Compared to SnO-doping SnO₂, pure SnO₂ sensor shows much better gas sensing properties. It is more sensitive to H₂S, Cl₂, C₂H₅OH and HCHO than SnO-doping SnO₂.

Key Words: Tin dioxide, Precursor, Constitution, SnO-doping SnO₂, Sensitivity.

INTRODUCTION

Semi-conducting tin dioxide (SnO₂) is widely used as optoelectronic devices^{1,2}, gas sensors³⁻⁵, dye-base solar cells⁶, photocatalysts⁷ and secondary lithium batteries electrode materials⁸, because of its excellent photoelectric and chemical properties. Recently, SnO₂-based sensor has attracted increasing attention on gas sensing applications due to its suitable physico-chemical properties such as high stability, high reactivity to reducing gases at relatively low operating temperature. In particular, the synthesis of SnO₂ with particular conformation may provide promising gas-sensing performance. It is usually claimed that nanometer-scaled materials as gas sensors have significant advantages because of their small grain size, which becomes important to enhance the adsorption capacity. Control of the physical properties, such as film thickness, morphology, microstructure and stoichiometry of the elemental composition of the sensor layer, is vital as they determine the material's sensitivity and performance of the gas-sensing material. As discussed before, the physical properties are affected by the preparing methods. Nowadays, a great deal of work has been done on synthesizing sensing-materials such as sol-gel^{9,10}, chemical vapour deposition (CVD)^{11,12}, chemical precipitation¹³⁻¹⁴, microwave digestion¹⁵ and dissolution-pyrolysis¹⁶. Generally speaking, dissolution-pyrolysis is a simple way to synthesize SnO₂. SnO₂-based sensor fabricated by dissolution-pyrolysis method had fibrous microstructure, which could take finer effect on its gas sensing property¹⁶.

In the present work, the precursor prepared through dissolution-pyrolysis is treated with different methods and calcined at different temperature. The constitution and microstructure of the precursor is characterized in detail. The influence of different treatment of the precursor on the constitution, morphology and gas sensing properties of SnO₂ are investigated.

EXPERIMENTAL

All the chemical reagents used are analytical grade (Beijing Chemical Reagent Corp.). The preparation of SnO₂ was as follows: 4 g of metal tin and 80 g of citric acid were added in 100 mL of deionized water. After citric acid was completely dissolved by stirring, the reaction would last for 48 h at 175 °C. Then cooling down to room temperature, the precipitated precursors on the bottom of flask were collected and separated into two portions leaving some to be characterized. One portion of it was pre-calcined at 200 °C for 2 h to make the organic matter decomposed completely then calcined at 450 °C and 550 °C for 6 h. The products were signed A₁ and A₂. The other was washed several times with deionized water and ethanol then calcined at 450 °C and 550 °C for 6 h. The products were signed C₁ and C₂. All the annealing processes were performed in air in a high temperature resistance furnace with a temperature ramp of 10 °C/min. After aging for 5 days, the constitution of precursor was characterized by XPS. The four samples were investigated by XRD and SEM.

Characterization: X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were collected on a Bruker D8 advance X-ray diffractometer with CuK_α radiation. The accelerating voltage and the applied current were 40 kV and 40 mA, respectively. Data were recorded at a scanning rate of 0.02° s⁻¹ in the 2θ range of 10–70°. It was used to identify the phase present and their crystallite size. The crystallite size was calculated from X-ray line broadening analysis by Scherer equation: $D = 0.89\lambda/\lambda\cos\theta$, where D is the crystal size in nm, λ is the CuK_α wavelength (0.15406 nm), β is the half-width of the peak in rad and θ is the corresponding diffraction angle. The microstructure of as-prepared sample was analyzed with the help of scanning electron microscopy (AMRAY-1000B). The size and the shapes of the particle were analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (JEM -2010).

Sensor preparation: Four sensors were fabricated by dropping the paste on the interdigital electrodes of a microhotplate. The films were about 30 μm in thickness and their resistances were about 500–2000 kΩ. Fig. 1 shows the cross-sectional schematic view and the front view of the microhotplate. The silicon-based microhotplate is embedded with a snake-like Pt heater (20 μm in width and 20 μm in spacing) and Pt interdigital electrodes (20 μm in width and 70 μm in spacing). The process of microhotplate fabrication can be found in the literature¹⁷. After being dried for 3 h, the gas-sensing properties of the sensors were measured.

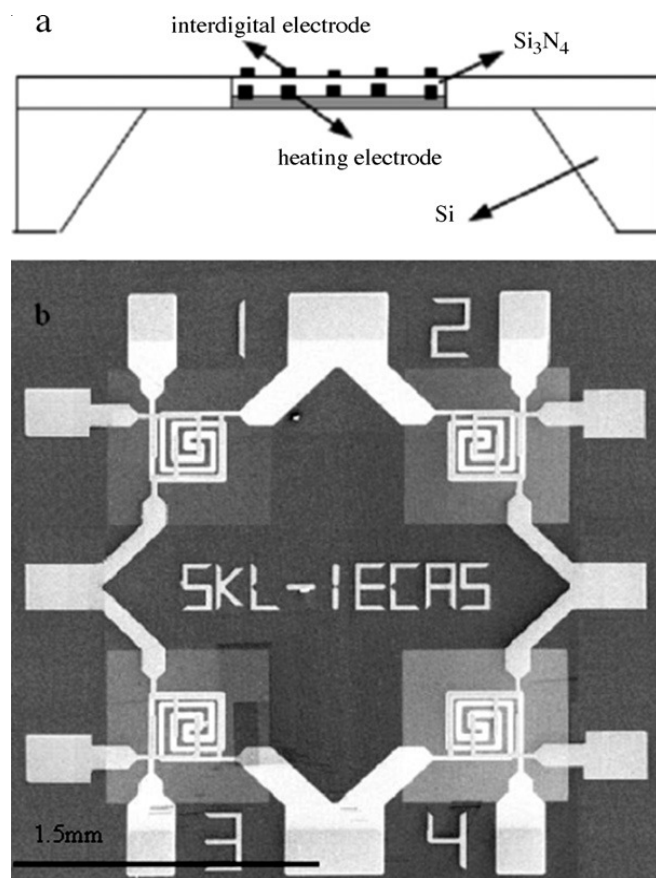


Fig. 1. (a) A cross-sectional schematic view and (b) a front view of the microhotplate

Gas sensor measurements: Gas-sensing properties were measured using a static test system, which included a test

chamber (about 1 L in volume) and a data acquisition/processing system. Dry air was used as both a reference gas and a diluting gas to obtain desired concentrations of analytes. An analyte was injected into the test chamber by a syringe through a rubber plug. After the analyte was fully mixed with the diluting gas, the sensor was put into the test chamber and the response began. When the response reached a constant value, the sensor was taken out to recover in dry air. The gas response is defined as R_g/R_a , where R_g and R_a are the resistances of the sensor upon exposure to an analyte and dry air, respectively. The response time is specified as the time to rise to 90 % of the equilibrium value of sensor resistance after an analyte is injected. The recovery time is defined as the time to fall to 10 % of the final resistance value after the removal of an analyte. The operating temperature of sensors was adjusted by varying a heating voltage V_h . The experimental set-up and the schematic diagram of the measurement circuit are shown in Fig. 2.

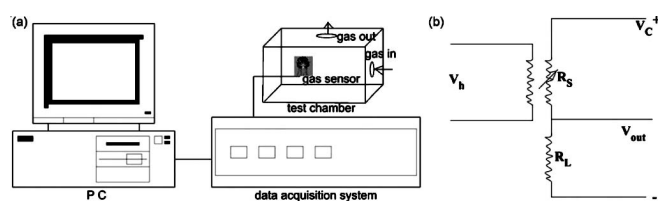


Fig. 2. (a) Experimental set-up and (b) a schematic diagram of the measurement circuit. R_L : load resistance; R_s : sensor resistance; V_c : operating circuit voltage; V_h : heating voltage; V_{out} : output voltage

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of prepared SnO₂: The XRD patterns of the as-prepared four samples of SnO₂ were shown in Fig. 3. Fig. 3 (a) showed that samples A₁ and A₂ were pure SnO₂. Fig. 3 (b) showed that samples C₁ and C₂ were SnO-doping SnO₂. The diffraction peaks of SnO assigned to (101) plane with the value of 2θ is 29.917°. It is square crystallinity with the lattice constants of $a = 3.796 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 4.816 \text{ \AA}$. Fig. 3 showed that in the samples A₁, A₂, C₁ and C₂ present SnO₂ a tetragonal rutile structure of high crystallinity and all the peaks match well with Bragg reflections of the standard rutile crystalline phase (SG: P4₂/mnm; JCPDS file No. 41-1445). The average crystallite size of the replicas SnO₂ were estimated according to the line width analysis of the diffraction peaks (110) based on the Scherrer formula^{18,19}. It was found that the grains grew up with an increase in calcination temperature.

Fig. 4 showed the SEM images of as-prepared samples A₁, A₂, C₁ and C₂. It can be seen from Fig. 4 that A₁ and A₂ has poriferous architecture. C₁ and C₂ has floccule architecture. The aperture of A₁ and A₂ is larger than of C₁ and C₂.

Gas sensing properties: Recently, the gas sensing properties of various n -type semi-conductors have been widely explored²⁰⁻²⁴. SnO₂, which is a well-known wide-band-gap n -type semiconductor, shows outstanding response to NO_x, CO_x, H₂, C₂H₅OH, H₂S, etc., Herein, SnO₂ based sensors were fabricated using prepared four samples A₁, A₂, C₁ and C₂ and gas sensing properties have been studied.

Fig. 5 showed the response test of four sensors of A₁, A₂, C₁ and C₂ in various gas environments, such as 50 ppm H₂S, gasoline, HCHO, Cl₂ and ethanol at the working temperature of 175 °C. It is clearly that the sensors C₁ and C₂ are more

sensitive to these gases than A₁ and A₂ and have excellent selectivity to Cl₂ and ethanol. The sensors A₁ and A₂ almost have no response to any gas at the operating temperature of 175 °C.

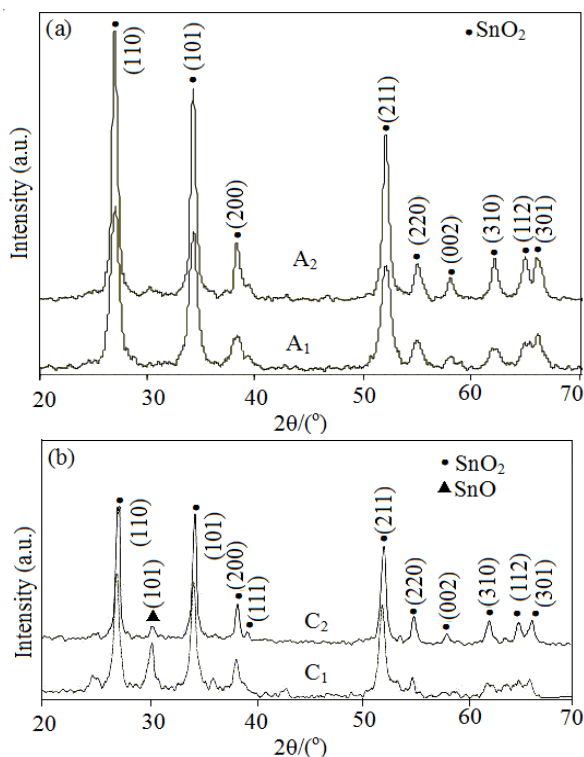


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of SnO₂: (a) A₁ and A₂ (b) C₁ and C₂

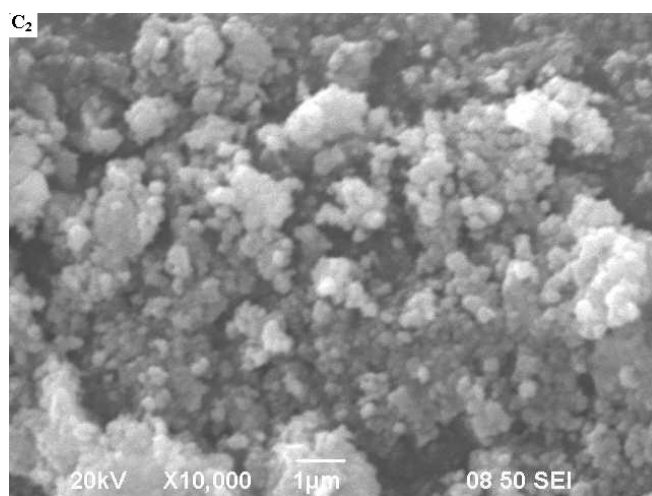
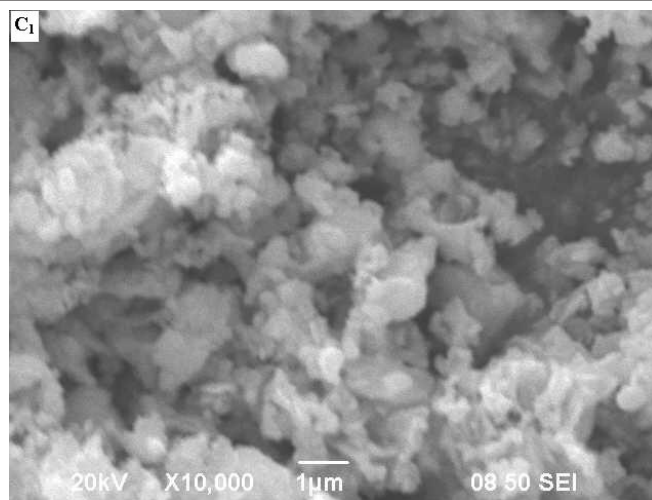


Fig. 4 SEM image of the samples A₁, A₂, C₁ and C₂

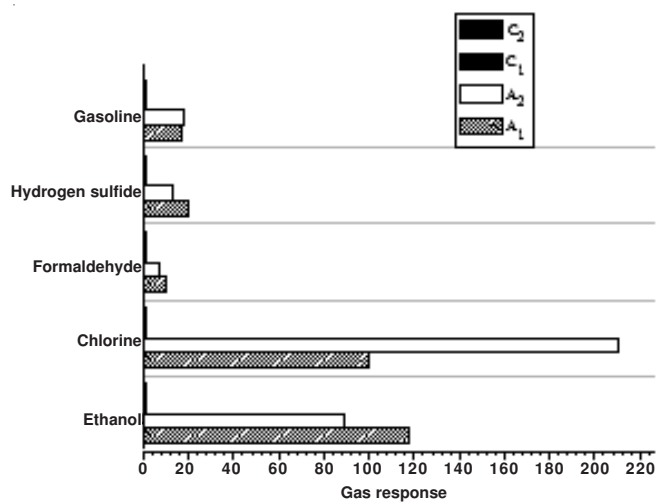
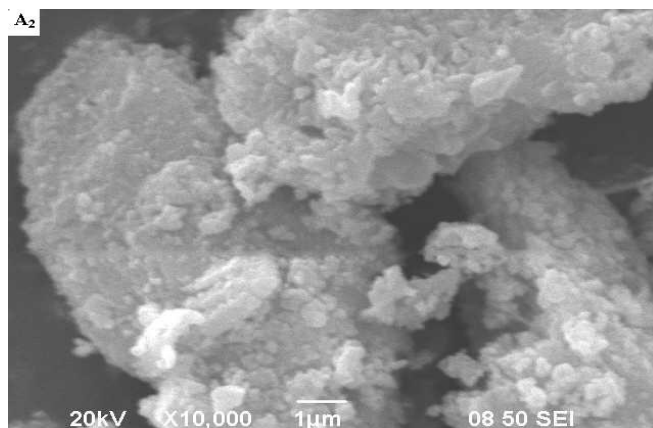
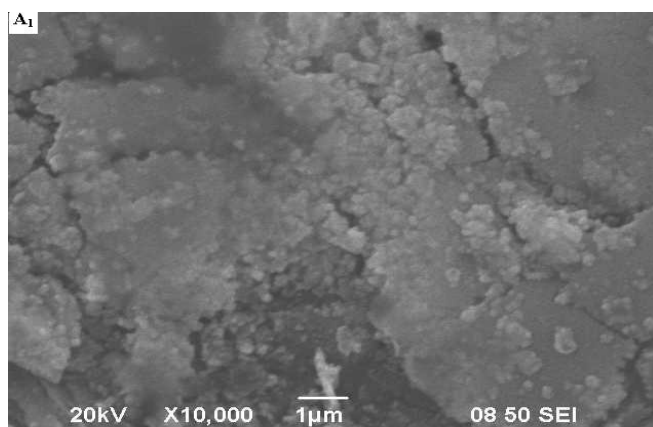


Fig. 5. Response values of A₁, A₂, C₁ and C₂ sensors to different gases of 50 ppm

Fig. 6 showed the gas sensing properties influenced by the working temperature, which is from room temperature to 300 °C in gases of 50 ppm Cl₂ and ethanol. As we can see in Fig. 6 (a), the SnO₂-based sensors A₁ and A₂ had the maximum sensitivity to Cl₂ at 200 °C, which were 231 and 435. Sensors C₁ and C₂ had the maximum sensitivity to Cl₂ at 300 °C, which

were 30 and 21. Fig. 6 (b) showed the sensitivity to ethanol of A₁ and A₂ were 118 and 89. But there were almost no response to ethanol of C₁ and C₂.

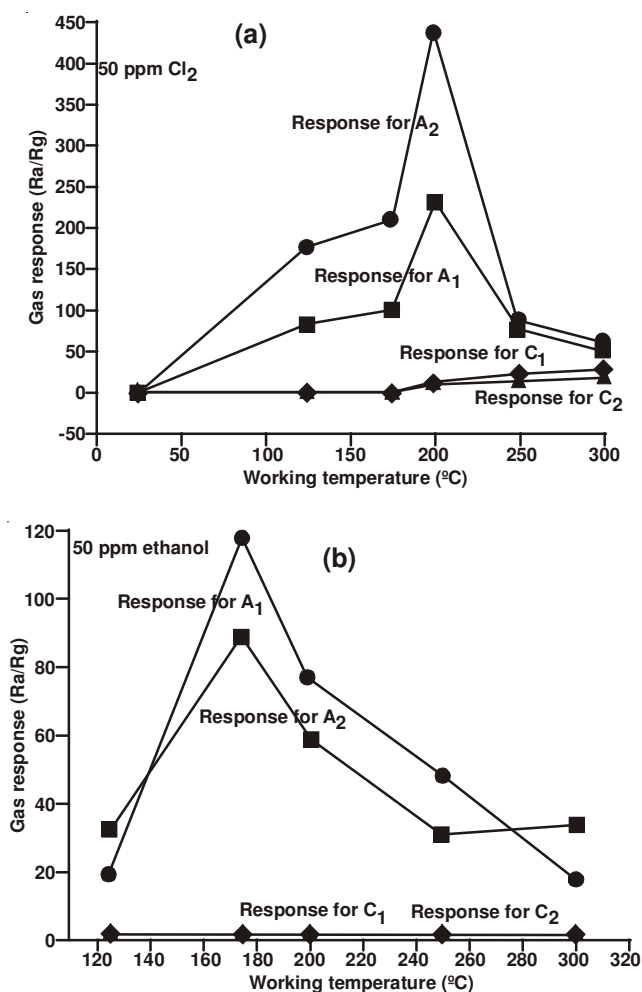
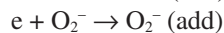
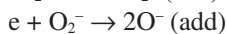
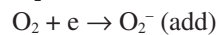


Fig. 6. Sensitivity to 50 ppm Cl₂ and ethanol at working temperature for A₁, A₂, C₁ and C₂

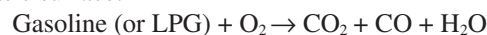
In an air ambience, oxygen molecules adsorb on the surface of SnO₂ and form oxygen ions (O⁻, O²⁻) by capturing electrons from the conduction band, which leads to a high resistance state of SnO₂ based sensor.



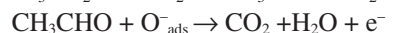
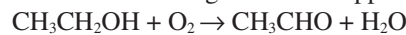
When exposed to a reducing gas, the adsorbed oxygen (O⁻, O²⁻) on the surface will react with the reducing gas, which releases electrons to the conduction band. This leads to the decreased amount of the carrier holes in the surface charge layer and the rapid increase of resistance. After the analyte is removed, the resistance returns to the original value due to the re-adsorption of oxygen.

The interaction of reducing or combustible gases with the surface chemisorbed oxygen can take place in different ways of physical or chemical reactions. Vancu *et al.* have suggested the following reaction to be favourable with the reducing gases: $\text{R} + \text{O}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{RO} + e^-$. It has also been pointed out that the gas sensing phenomenon is intimately connected with the occur-

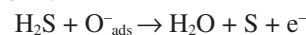
rence of surface catalyzed combustion²⁵. As we are aware from the catalytic chemistry, the surface acid/basic state could be advantageously utilized to favour some particular reactions. With the prior knowledge of the type of a target gas, the sensor surface could accordingly be modified in order to preferentially sense the reducing gas over other interfering gases. Based on the above theories, Gnanasekar *et al.*²⁶ have suggested that the following reactions would take place in the gasoline combustion on a basic surface:



Fu *et al.*²⁷ have suggested that aldehyde (CH₃CHO) was the intermediate product when ethanol was oxidized on the basic surface and the following reactions happened:

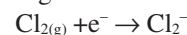


H₂S and the chemisorbed oxygen O⁻ can give rise to the following reaction²⁸:



Electrons released from the above reactions would annihilate the holes: $h^\bullet + e^- \rightarrow 0$. Hence, the resistance of gas-sensing materials increased and then realized the detection of different gases. For gasoline or LPG, the population of negatively charged oxygen adsorbates effectively controls the conductance of SnO₂. For the oxide SnO₂, the electron concentration depends on the stoichiometry deviation determined by oxygen vacancies, which are predominant atomic defects. The electrical properties of nanocrystalline SnO₂ depend strongly on the surface states, produced by oxygen and other gas molecules chemisorbed at the grain boundaries, which result in the space charge appearance and band modulation. Therefore, the variation of the chemisorbed molecule density is supposed to be mainly responsible for the electrical response.

While when exposed to the oxide gases, such as Cl₂, it can be adsorbed or interact with the oxygen adsorbed onto the sensors surface according to the following reactions:



It is well known that ethanol can act as the reducing atmosphere and the reducing ability is stronger than formaldehyde (HCHO). So the sensitivity of nano-structured SnO₂ in this work to ethanol was higher than that to formaldehyde. Under the similar conditions, materials with higher effective surface areas such as A₁ and A₂ offer a higher probability of ethanol molecules with adsorbed oxygen and hence they are able to have a higher electrical conductivity change. The surface of C₁ and C₂ was less effective so the sensitivity were lower. On the other hand, the composition of C₁ and C₂ was different from A₁ and A₂. There was SnO phase in C₁ and C₂. It is known that SnO would react with oxygen adsorbed on the sensor surface according to the following reaction:



Therefore the concentration of oxygen ions decreased so as the resistance of SnO₂ sensors. As a result the sensitivity of A₁ and A₂ was much higher than that of C₁ and C₂.

Conclusion

Nanostructured SnO₂ has been synthesized with the method of dissolution-pyrolysis. In this paper, influence of different treatment with the precursor on SnO₂ has been studied

in detail. The precursor was treated with different methods and calcined at different temperature. SnO-doping SnO₂ was prepared from annealing the washed precursor and pure SnO₂ was synthesized from annealing the unwashed precursor. Four nanomaterials signed A₁, A₂, C₁ and C₂ were obtained. The phase, constitution and morphology of the materials are characterized by XRD and SEM. The particle size of SnO-doping SnO₂ was larger than the pure SnO₂. The gas sensing property of fabricated materials was tested. Compared to SnO-doping SnO₂, pure SnO₂ sensor shows much better gas sensing properties, which are due to larger surface area for gas adsorption and diffusion and higher concentration of oxygen ions. It is more sensitive to H₂S, Cl₂, C₂H₅OH and HCHO than SnO-doping SnO₂.

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