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# A novel mixed potential NH<sub>3</sub> sensor based on TiO<sub>2</sub>@WO<sub>3</sub> core–shell composite sensing electrode



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#### ABSTRACT

The TiO<sub>2</sub>@WO<sub>3</sub> core-shell composite with mass ratio of core and shell4:1 was prepared by a hydrothermal synthesis method using sodium tungstate dehydrate, nitric acid and commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> powder as raw materials. A novel mixed potential NH<sub>3</sub> sensor was fabricated by using above-mentioned TiO<sub>2</sub>@WO<sub>3</sub> as sensing electrode and La<sub>10</sub>Si<sub>5.5</sub>Al<sub>0.5</sub>O<sub>27</sub> as solid electrolyte. X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscope (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) were used to characterize the morphology and structure of the samples. The sensor response to NH<sub>3</sub> was examined at 400~550 °C. The experimental results indicated that the sensor based on TiO<sub>2</sub>@WO<sub>3</sub> sensing electrode possessed greatly enhanced NH<sub>3</sub> sensing properties including higher and more stable response value and faster response rate compared to the sensor using TiO<sub>2</sub>, WO<sub>3</sub> or TiO<sub>2</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub> mixture sensing electrode under the same conditions. The responding potential values of the sensor with TiO<sub>2</sub>@WO<sub>3</sub> sensing electrode exhibited a linear dependence on the logarithm of the NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The highest NH<sub>3</sub> sensitivity of 74.8 mV/decade was achieved at 450 °C. In the meantime, the sensor salso showed well anti-interference capability to CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>, but noticeable cross sensitivity toward NO<sub>2</sub> was observed. O<sub>2</sub> effect on responding signal could be calibrated by predetermining O<sub>2</sub> content.

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## 1. Introduction

Recently, the diesel cars are substantially introduced because of their high fuel efficiency and low  $CO_2$  emissions. However, compared to gasoline automobiles, the diesel cars produce higher emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> because three-way catalysts for NO<sub>x</sub> removal do not work in oxidizing atmosphere [1,2]. NO<sub>x</sub> emissions result in serious environment problems, including photochemical smog and acid rain. Therefore, suitable advanced after-treatment technology is needed to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> into N<sub>2</sub> in order to meet the upcoming more stringent emission standards. Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR) using NH<sub>3</sub>/urea has been recognized as an effective technology for the removal of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from heavy-duty diesel engine cars [3,4]. In SCR system, NH<sub>3</sub> as a reducing agent produced by injecting urea into a catalytic converter successfully reduces NO<sub>x</sub> to N<sub>2</sub> over catalysts in a wide range of temperature [5,6]. The amount of urea injection must be

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strictly controlled in order that redundant NH<sub>3</sub> will not cause new air pollution [7]. So NH<sub>3</sub> concentration in down-stream needs monitoring continuously.

Several analytical techniques have been developed for detecting NH<sub>3</sub>, including gas chromatography, ion chromatography and electrochemical methods. Compared to other approaches, electrochemical detection shows the advantages of simple experimental procedures, short response time, and feasibility for building portable sensors. Fortunately, the smart NH<sub>3</sub> sensor technology is available for vehicle applications [8]. Up to now, the main types of NH<sub>3</sub> sensors mostly investigated by researchers are semiconductor-type sensors [9,10] and solid electrolyte type sensors [11–28]. However, the semiconductor-type gas sensors for NH<sub>3</sub> detection in the presence of various interfering gases remain challenging [29]. In contrast, solid electrolyte type gas sensors have advantages of simple structure, good selectivity and high sensitivity, especially excellent stability under high temperature, showing a wide application prospect [30].

The solid electrolyte type NH<sub>3</sub> sensors include Nerstian type [11–13] and mixed potential type [14–28]. Nagai et al. developed Nernstian NH<sub>3</sub> sensors based on two types of auxiliary sensing electrode of  $Pr_2(SO_4)_3$ ·(NH<sub>4</sub>)\_2SO<sub>4</sub> or 0.7La<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>–0.3NH<sub>4</sub>H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>.

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The sensors showed superior sensing performances such as rapid, continuous and reproducible response to NH<sub>3</sub>. But because of the stability problem of the auxiliary electrodes, the NH<sub>3</sub> sensors could not be utilized at high temperature [11–13]. The sensors based on ammonium hydrogermanate electrolyte could be used at a limited temperature range [14,15]. The mixed potential type NH<sub>3</sub> sensors based on solid electrolyte have been extensively reported by some groups. Häfele et al. proposed a mixed potential type sensor using zirconia electrolyte. The sensing signal of the sensor was a result of catalytic and adsorptive interactions between the gas and the sensing electrode [16]. Kida et al. fabricated a mixed potential sensors by depositing MoO<sub>3</sub> layer with a thickness of 200 nm on a YSZ tube, which showed considerably high sensitivity toward NH<sub>3</sub> (10–100 ppm) in air at 500 °C. The sensing signal  $\Delta$ EMF of the sensor was still as high as 30 mV even to  $10 \text{ ppm NH}_3$  [17]. Wang et al. presented various metals and metal oxides as sensing electrodes, including  $V_2O_5$ , MoO<sub>3</sub> and/or WO<sub>3</sub> that are doped with materials like Bi and with stabilizers to improve the long-term stability for ammonia sensors and declared that doped V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>,  $BiVO_4$ ,  $MoO_3$  and  $WO_3$  are effective for the sensing to  $NH_3$  [18]. A YSZ-based mixed potential type NH<sub>3</sub> sensor attached with an Auelectrode covered with vanadia-tungstenia-titania-based SCR catalyst was fabricated and displayed good sensitivity and longstability to NH<sub>3</sub> [20]. The planar sensors using Au or NiO/Au as the sensing electrode also exhibited good sensitivity to NH<sub>3</sub> at 600 and 700 °C [19,21,22]. Teranishi et al. demonstrated an approach to impart both proton conduction and solid acidity to the surface of YSZ by the surface treatment of YSZ with H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, the sensor showed a remarkably sensitive and selective response to low concentrations (10-200 ppm) of NH<sub>3</sub> [23]. Satsuma et al. fabricated mixed potential sensors using YSZ as the solid electrolyte and a mixture of Au and various metal oxides (e.g., V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> or MoO<sub>3</sub>) as the sensing electrode. The effects of calcination temperature and acidbase properties of the metal oxides on the sensing properties were examined. The results showed that the acidity of metal oxides closely correlated with the NH<sub>3</sub> selectivity and the sensors with metal oxides calcined at nearly melting points displayed optimal properties [24]. Plashnitsa et al. prepared a planar sensor using a nano-structured Au sensing electrode and found that its performance was greatly modified by nano-SiO<sub>2</sub> particles. As a consequence, the sensor exhibited great selectivity to NH<sub>3</sub> ascribed to the strong acid-base interaction between nano-SiO2 and gaseous NH<sub>3</sub> molecules [25]. The YSZ-based mixed potential sensors attached with CoWO<sub>4</sub> gave the fast response. The 90% response and recovery time to 100 ppm NH<sub>3</sub> were 3s and 1s, respectively. The sensor also exhibited outstanding selectivity to NH<sub>3</sub> against the interference gases [26]. The NH<sub>3</sub> sensor with In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> sensing electrode showed a excellent response to NH<sub>3</sub> but serious cross-sensitivity to NO<sub>2</sub>. In order to minimize the interference from NO<sub>2</sub> of the above sensor, the LaCoO<sub>3</sub> reference electrode was used instead of Pt. The result showed that the interfering effect of 150 ppm  $NO_2$  to the new sensor was reduced by five times [27]. Recently, the NH<sub>3</sub> sensor based on YSZ electrolyte and Ni<sub>3</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> sensing electrode exhibited good sensitivity, repeatability, longterm stability, and selectivity against various interfering gases [28].

Obviously, the improvement of NH<sub>3</sub> sensor is mainly depended on the design of sensing electrodes. The sensitivity of the NH<sub>3</sub> sensors has room to be further enhanced by tuning chemical composition and microstructure of sensing electrode. Recently, core-shell nanostructure composites substituting single metal oxide for gas sensors have attracted great attention due to their unique properties, which give more versatile functions [31,32]. As far as we know, the core shell structure composite materials as the sensing electrode for solid electrolyte-based mixed potential type NH<sub>3</sub> sensors has received less attention and need further investigation  $WO_3$  and  $TiO_2$  as common sensing materials had been employed for  $NH_3$  detection in semiconductor sensors and showed excellent response properties [33,34]. In this work, we synthesized  $TiO_2@WO_3$  core shell composite via the hydrothermal method. A mixed potential type  $NH_3$  sensor was prepared by using the  $TiO_2@$  $WO_3$  as sensing electrode and  $La_{10}Si_{5.5}Al_{0.5}O_{27}$  as electrolyte. The morphology and structure of the samples were characterized and the performance of the sensors was examined.

# 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Preparation and characterization of materials and sensor

The TiO<sub>2</sub>@WO<sub>3</sub> core-shell composite was prepared from  $Na_2WO_4 \cdot 2H_2O(AR)$ , and  $TiO_2$  (AR, 150 nm for diameter) by the hydrothermal process similar to what reported by Xu et al. [35]. Typically, Na<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>4</sub> solution was first prepared by dissolving 1.000 g  $Na_2WO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$  into 40 ml deionized water and then 2.8115 g TiO<sub>2</sub> were added into the Na<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>4</sub> solution under constant magnetic stirring to keep the final mass ratio of  $TiO_2/WO_3 = 4:1$ . Then 20 ml 5 M HNO<sub>3</sub> was dropped into the mixture with constant magnetic stirring. As a result, the white suspension was turned into yellow color, indicating that H<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>4</sub> was formed. The suspension was transferred into a Teflon-lined autoclave and maintained at 180 °C for 24 h, and then cooled to room temperature. The resulting yellow precipitate was extracted by filtering and dried in vacuum at 80 °C for 12 h. After the precipitate was calcined in air at 500 °C for 2 h, TiO<sub>2</sub>@WO<sub>3</sub> core-shell composite was obtained. For comparison purposes, WO<sub>3</sub> powder was prepared by the same method except for no TiO<sub>2</sub> addition. Finally, yellow WO<sub>3</sub> powder was obtained by calcination in air at 500°C.Furthermore, the physical mixture of TiO<sub>2</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub> (TiO<sub>2</sub>/WO<sub>3</sub>) was obtained by mixing TiO<sub>2</sub> powder and the obtained WO<sub>3</sub> powder with mass ratio of  $TiO_2:WO_3 = 4:1$ .

 $La_{10}Si_{5.5}Al_{0.5}O_{27}$  (LSAO) electrolyte with porous layer was prepared by solid state reaction method in combination with screen-printing technology. The analytical grade  $La_2O_3$ ,  $Al_2O_3$  and SiO<sub>2</sub> powders were used as raw materials. It was noted that  $La_2O_3$ powder needed to be treated at 900 °C for 3 h before weighing in order to eliminate the lanthanum hydroxide or lanthanum hydroxyl present in  $La_2O_3$  powder [36]. The stoichiometric

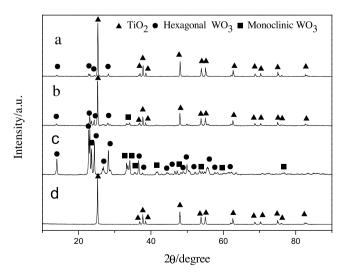


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of the prepared powder samples (a)  $TiO_2@WO_3,$  (b)  $TiO_2/WO_3,$  (c)  $WO_3,$  (d)  $TiO_2.$ 

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