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# NAP-XPS study of surface chemistry of CO and ethanol sensing with WO<sub>3</sub> nanowires-based gas sensor

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## ABSTRACT

The nanowires prepared on a commercial Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-based sensor platform were studied by near ambient pressure X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (NAP-XPS) upon detecting CO and ethanol. Our findings indicated that the ex-situ prepared WO<sub>3</sub> NWs-based gas sensor might not be suitable for NAP-XPS studies, as the surfaces tend to accumulate significant carbon contamination, which remains on the surface even after long-term annealing in mbar range oxygen atmosphere at 593 K. To address this challenge, we developed a methodology involving exposure of the sensor to NO<sub>x</sub>, which effectively cleans the surface and enables the detection of subtle chemical changes upon exposure to various carbon-containing analytes. Using NAP-XPS analysis, we investigated the gas sensing mechanisms of WO<sub>3</sub> NWs for CO and ethanol at different temperatures, revealing that it might combine several mechanisms commonly observed in metal-oxide chemiresistors. It is shown that the response to CO rather arises from the quick interaction of CO molecules with the ionosorbed oxygen. In the case of ethanol sensing, the main driving force for the sensor macroscopic electrical response at low temperatures is the adsorption of ethanol molecules. In contrast, at high temperatures, it combines the adsorption of ethoxy groups with the strong reducing effect of EtOH on the WO<sub>3</sub> surface.

## 1. Introduction

Tungsten trioxide (WO<sub>3</sub>) is well known as a traditional material for sensitive layers in gas-detecting chemiresistors and has been reported/ investigated for this purpose since 1967 [1]. The current research status of tungsten trioxide-based chemiresistors can be found in reviews such as [2–5]. When considering the use of tungsten trioxide or its "suboxides" in sensors, the following material properties should be taken into account: electrotransport properties, redox stability (tendency to form reduced phases of WO<sub>3-δ</sub> stoichiometry with their characteristic surface- or volume-oxide vacancies), cation electronegativity related with Brønsted acidity, Lewis acidity, ferroelectricity, catalytic activity, crystalline structure and the existence of polymorphs, dominating orientation of surface facets, material dimensionality (bulk, 2D-, 1D- or

0D-nanostructures) and its relation to Debye length, specific surface of the material. Some of the above-mentioned characteristics are inherent to WO<sub>3</sub>, the other ones are obtained secondarily as a consequence of the selected synthesis- and deposition method.

Tungsten trioxide is a typical n-type oxidic semiconductor (e.i. in an oxygen-containing atmosphere, the charge transfer is driven by an electron-depleted region on its surface) with bandgap  $\Delta E_g = 2.7$  eV [6], which is somewhat less when compared to SnO<sub>2</sub> ( $\Delta E_g = 3.6$  eV) - the most common oxide in gas sensing applications [7]. This implies that WO<sub>3</sub> should have a less pronounced temperature dependence of specific resistivity. However, the authors in Ref. [8] have observed that a mixed phase containing sub-stoichiometric monoclinic WO<sub>2.83</sub>, WO<sub>2.92</sub>, and tetragonal W<sub>5</sub>O<sub>14</sub> exhibited p-type response behavior to ethanol (EtOH) and methanol vapors at room temperature (RT) and also a p-type

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response to  $\text{NO}_2$  at slightly elevated temperatures in the range 25–50 °C that converted to n-type response at 50–250 °C. Similarly, in Ref. [9], the sensor based on the  $\text{W}_{18}\text{O}_{49}$  phase has a p-type response when detecting ammonia. In general, as tungsten trioxide tends to form surface or volume oxygen vacancies associated with this sub-stoichiometry (often marked as  $\text{WO}_{3-\delta}$ ), it is always very important to check the concentration of oxidic vacancies in the material. On the other hand, there are indications that  $\text{WO}_3$  or  $\text{WO}_{3-\delta}$  are not reduced to  $\text{WO}_2$  during sensing performance, as no works report the formation of the  $\text{WO}_2$  phase in sensitive layers. Furthermore, it seems that the role of surface- and volume-oxygen vacancies in the detection process is rather different; while the volume affects mainly the material conductivity, the surface provides particularly reactive sites for gas adsorption and molecular reactions [10].

The electronegativity of tungsten achieves  $\chi_{\text{W}} = 2.36$ , which is the second-highest value of all metals (just after gold). This circumstance, together with the high tungsten oxidation state (6+), makes  $\text{WO}_3$  to be probably the most acidic (Brønsted acidity) of all usual gas-sensitive oxides, including  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ ,  $\text{CuO}$  or  $\text{ZrO}_2$ , which can explain the good sensitivity of  $\text{WO}_3$  oxide to basic gases (ammonia, hydrazine) [11]. In addition, due to its electronic structure,  $\text{WO}_3$  can accept lone pair of electrons into its empty orbital, thus acting as a Lewis acid [12], which allows the detection of all gases that exhibit Lewis basicity, e.g. CO, HCN, cyanogen. It is supposed that these Lewis acid-Lewis base reactions can occur even at RT [13], which allows the design of chemiresistors with low power consumption. Another effect that may favor the interaction of  $\text{WO}_3$  or  $\text{WO}_{3-\delta}$  with polar gases - is the existence of material ferroelectricity, especially when the crystal symmetry is lower and oxygen vacancies are present. Under such circumstances, a spontaneous electric dipole moment in the material is formed, and it can spontaneously interact with the molecular dipole moment of gaseous analytes. Thus, the monoclinic  $\text{WO}_3$  phase exhibited significantly higher sensitivity to acetone vapors than the hexagonal phase [14]. This phenomenon is attributed to the different polarity coming from the crystal geometry. Monoclinic  $\text{WO}_3$  with oxygen vacancies is ferroelectric due to the displacement of the charge center of  $[\text{WO}_6]$  octahedra. Tungsten oxide also has pronounced catalytic behavior in the total oxidation of volatile organic compounds. In Ref. [15], the authors observe the oxidation of benzene, toluene, and xylene into  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in a wide range of operating temperatures (50–450 °C). The high catalytic activity stems from the high concentration of surface-oxygen vacancies, which stimulates the chemisorption of reactive oxygen species from the atmosphere. In any case, not only aromates but also other gaseous analytes can be easily oxidized on the tungsten oxide surface, so in reality, the products of their oxidation are detected.

Tungsten trioxide is known to have at least five polymorphs - monoclinic, triclinic, orthorhombic, hexagonal, and cubic. Its crystals are generally formed by corner or edge-sharing of  $[\text{WO}_6]$  octahedra. A comprehensive crystallographic review of tungsten trioxide is given in Ref. [16].  $\text{WO}_3$  is characterized by nonstoichiometric properties, as the lattice can withstand a considerable amount of oxygen deficiency, expressed formally as  $\text{WO}_{3-\delta}$ , where the value of  $\delta$  strongly affects the electronic band structure and resistivity of the material. For  $\delta \geq 0.13$  (e.g. in  $\text{W}_{18}\text{O}_{49}$ ), the pure-octahedra structure becomes unstable and partial restructuring occurs. All these polymorphs differ in ability to interact with gases (e.g. hexagonal  $\text{WO}_3$  contains typical hexagonal and trigonal tunnels inside its structure, which can be advantageous for gas sensing) [12]. Another aspect of this topic - the gas sensing response of semiconductors is a surface-controlled process. Hence it also depends on the crystal orientation of the individual oxide grains in the sensitive layer, and therefore the use of so-called "faceted engineering" (i.e. stimulating preferential growth of certain crystal orientation during the deposition of the sensitive layer) can be a helpful tool for improving the sensing process. It has been shown that the (010) facets of triclinic  $\text{WO}_3$  had a better response to 1-butylamine, while the (002) ones exhibited a stronger response to acetone [17]. A more detailed view revealed that in

the monoclinic phase, the surface energy of facets (and also sorption capacity for oxygen species) decreases in the sequence (002) > (020) > (002). Consequently, the response to reducing gases will also decrease in this sequence. At the same time, the reaction to oxidizing analytes (such as  $\text{NO}_2$ ) will be strongest for (002), as in this latter case, there is the weakest competition between  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  species [18].

As for other oxidic materials, three generalized sensing mechanisms are often reported for  $\text{WO}_3$  [19]: a) "Ionosorption model", where ionosorption of negatively charged oxygen species plays a crucial role leading to the formation of depleted regions in the oxide. Subsequent reaction of these oxygen species with the target analyte is accompanied by electron exchange and modulation of intergrain resistance. b) "Oxygen-vacancy model" - this mechanism accents reversible partial reduction and reoxidation of the oxidic surface. The partial reduction of the oxide by e.g. ethanol can cause the formation of additional oxygen vacancies associated with the injection of electrons into the conduction band. As soon as the analyte is oxidized, the oxide surface interacts more intensively with atmospheric oxygen, the vacancies are filled, and the sensitive layer restores its original resistance. c) "Direct adsorption model" - according to this description, the molecules of an analyte can absorb directly onto the oxidic surface without any reaction with ionosorbed oxygen [10]. Of these three mechanisms, the c) is less commonly discussed/accepted, but e.g. in Ref. [20] spectroscopic studies confirm that the molecule of detected acetone absorbs via the oxygen of its carbonyl into the oxygen vacancy of the  $\text{WO}_{3-\delta}$  surface. For ethanol, it has been proposed that its adsorption occurs in the form of ethoxy species, followed by the subsequent desorption of hydrogen and acetaldehyde, but certainly, these products can be subjected to consecutive reactions. A similar mechanism, which included the formation of acetaldehyde during the detection of ethanol, was also observed for ZnO-based chemiresistors [21].

Each detection process is based on direct interaction between the sensitive layer and an analyte molecule. This trivial fact implies that not only the material properties of tungsten trioxide discussed above but also the characteristics of the analyte molecule will co-determine the detection parameters. The following "molecular descriptors" should be taken into account: redox properties, presence and spatial orientation of the dipole moment, Brønsted acidity, and Lewis acidity. The contribution of redox properties has been discussed many times - regardless of the detailed mechanism (which can be rather complicated), the reducing gases act as electron donors and the oxidizing ones as electron acceptors, thus modulating the resistance of the sensitive semiconductive layer accordingly. As for the molecular dipole moment - when present, it interacts with the spontaneous dipole moment of ferroelectric  $\text{WO}_{3-\delta}$ . For example, in Ref. [19], the authors state that the dipole moment of the acetone molecule qualifies the adsorption geometry with the carbonyl group pointing towards the oxidic surface, which is discussed in detail also in Ref. [14]. We have already mentioned that tungsten trioxide behaves like both Brønsted acid and Lewis acid. Based on this premise, one should suppose that  $\text{WO}_3$  will easily detect gaseous molecules with complementary properties - i.e. either Brønsted or Lewis bases (ammonia, organic amines, hydrazine, alcohols, aldehydes, carbon monoxide, cyanogen, etc.). However, this simple scheme may be complicated by water molecules, which are always present in the environment and can be easily protonated/deprotonated and also act as a strong Lewis basis. The resistance of  $\text{WO}_3$  was found to increase in the presence of atmospheric humidity - this is the opposite behavior compared to  $\text{SnO}_2$ -based sensors. Also, when detecting carbon monoxide, the  $\text{WO}_3$  sensors respond better in humid air than in dry conditions, unlike the  $\text{SnO}_2$  ones [20].

The current debate on the detection mechanism of different analytes by  $\text{WO}_3$ -based chemiresistors suggests the need for further investigation. In recent years, in-situ/operando techniques have been used to study gas sensors and shed light on this problem [22,23]. The advantage of such an approach is to obtain information about the surface chemistry of a gas sensor operating under conditions closer to those occurring during the

real detection process. The most commonly used analytical techniques in operando studies of gas sensors are diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) [24,25], UV visible spectroscopy (operando UV-Vis) [26], Raman spectroscopy [27,28], X-ray absorption (XAS) and emission (XES) spectroscopies [29]. However, it should be mentioned that one of the most powerful techniques for surface-sensitive chemical analysis of a solid surface in the presence of gas is near-ambient photoelectron spectroscopy (NAP-XPS) [30,31]. We have recently successfully utilized NAP-XPS to study the EtOH and NO<sub>x</sub> detection mechanisms of several different chemiresistive materials [21, 32–34]. It was demonstrated that NAP-XPS could provide information about the presence of various surface-intermediated species and the formation of surface vacancies while detecting reducing gases or their disappearance upon exposure to the oxidizing analytes. In this work, we applied the NAP-XPS technique to investigate the interaction of WO<sub>3</sub> nanowires (NWs)-based gas sensors with NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, and EtOH to contribute to understanding their detection mechanisms.

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Synthesis of WO<sub>3</sub> nanowires and fabrication of WO<sub>3</sub>-based gas sensor

WO<sub>3</sub> NWs were synthesized by aerosol-assisted chemical vapor deposition (AACVD) directly on the top of a commercial Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-based sensor platform with platinum interdigitated electrode structures (IDES) separated by 15 μm gap (KBI2 Tesla Blatná a. s.). The synthesis process was performed at 390 °C using a solution of tungsten hexacarbonyl (20 mg, W(CO)<sub>6</sub>, Sigma-Aldrich, ≥ 97%) and methanol (5 ml, Sigma-Aldrich, ≥99.6%) as previously reported [35]. The aerosol droplets from the solution were generated using a piezoelectric ultrasonic atomizer (Liquifog, Johnson Matthey) operating at 1.6 MHz and transported to the heated sensor platform by a nitrogen gas flow (200 cm<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>). The time taken to transport the entire volume of solution was typically 45 min. These conditions allowed for the formation of a light blue color uniform film over the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-based sensor platform. The prepared sensor was then annealed at 500 °C for two hours in the air, changing the WO<sub>3</sub> NWs color from light blue to white. It was essential to have a high density of NWs completely covering the IDES area and ensuring the elimination of its signal during the NAP-XPS measurements, as it could contribute to the O 1s and C 1s spectra from the WO<sub>3</sub> NWs layer, thus distorting them.

### 2.2. Morphological and structural characterizations

The distribution, morphology, and crystal structure of WO<sub>3</sub> NWs were observed by a scanning electron microscope (SEM) *Tescan MIRA 3* and a transmission electron microscope (TEM) *JEOL 2200FS* operated at electron beam energy 30 keV and 200 keV, respectively. The distribution of WO<sub>3</sub> NWs deposited on the sensor platform was studied via low-magnification SEM images. The morphology and crystal structure were characterized by TEM using high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) technique. For TEM measurement, WO<sub>3</sub> NWs were wiped onto a holey carbon-coated copper 300-mesh grid (Agar Scientific), and *Digital Micro-graph* software was used for TEM image analysis.

### 2.3. In-situ near-ambient pressure X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy characterization and measurement of chemiresistor properties at low pressure

A laboratory NAP-XPS system (SPECS Surface Nano Analysis GmbH) was utilized to conduct the NAP-XPS measurements. The system was equipped with a monochromatized Al K $\alpha$  X-ray source, a hemispherical electron energy analyzer, and a specially designed NAP cell [32]. The WO<sub>3</sub> NWs-based gas sensor was mounted on a sample holder that, along

with the NAP-XPS measurements, also allowed in-situ observation of the sensor resistance by applying a constant voltage of 0.1 V to its contacts. Based on these measurements, the so-called low-pressure (LP) chemiresistor properties were evaluated. During the NAP-XPS measurements, W 3d, O 1s, and C 1s XPS spectra were recorded at a constant pass energy of 20 eV and a photoelectron emission angle of 0° with respect to the sample normal. The following steps were taken to investigate the interaction of the sensor with low concentrations of EtOH and CO. The spectra were first acquired at 593 K in 1 mbar of oxygen, thus mimicking the ambient atmosphere without a reducing agent, and then in 1.2 mbar of O<sub>2</sub>/EtOH and O<sub>2</sub>/CO mixtures prepared by adding 0.2 mbar of EtOH vapor or CO gas to the oxygen. The study was also collected at 593 K in 0.2 mbar of EtOH or CO only. Between each dosing, the surface was refreshed by exposing it to 1 mbar of O<sub>2</sub> for 30–90 min. The interaction of the sensor with NO<sub>x</sub> was studied by exposing it to 1 mbar of O<sub>2</sub> containing 1% of NO<sub>x</sub>. After the NO<sub>x</sub> exposure, the experiment with CO and EtOH was repeated at 593 and 373 K. Ar<sup>+</sup> sputtering, which is used to create oxygen vacancies on the sensor surface, was performed at room temperature using 1000 eV Ar ions incident on the surface at an angle of 45 degrees. The NAP-XPS core-level spectra were fitted with a Voigt profile after subtracting the Shirley background using the KolXPDP fitting software.

### 2.4. Measurement of chemiresistor properties of WO<sub>3</sub> NWs at atmospheric pressure

Apart from investigating sensor resistance in-situ during NAP-XPS characterization, which resulted in the evaluation of LP chemiresistor properties, it was also necessary to explore the chemiresistor properties of WO<sub>3</sub> NWs-based sensors in real conditions, i.e. under atmospheric pressure (abbreviated as AP chemiresistor properties). The concentration of EtOH, CO, or NO<sub>2</sub> was 10 ppm in synthetic air, reference gas "pure" synthetic air (Linde Gas a.s.) containing < 0.05 ppm of hydrocarbons. These AP chemiresistor measurements were carried out on the same sensor substrates as described in Section 2.1. The measuring apparatus is depicted in Fig. S1 of the Supporting Information (SI). It is constructed as a continuous-flow system containing Tedlar sample bags, a sampling valve, a chamber with a sensor, pump, valve for gas-flow setting and rotameter. The VITON connecting tubes have a diameter of 3 mm; the SWAGELOG sampling valve and chamber-feedthroughs are used. The measuring chamber has an internal volume of 110 ml (material - PEEK, equipped with stainless steel insert, which serves as electromagnetic shielding). The gas flow rate was kept at 80 ml min<sup>-1</sup>.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Structural analysis and AP chemiresistor properties of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanowires

The SEM image of the WO<sub>3</sub> NWs deposited on the sensor platform is shown in Fig. 1a. It can be seen that the NWs with a length of about 10 μm formed a well-distributed carpet-like layer that completely covered the surface of the platform. TEM examination of a single WO<sub>3</sub> NW (Fig. 1b-d) revealed that the individual NWs were 100–150 nm thick and entirely crystalline. HRTEM and SAED patterns verified the monoclinic phase of the tungsten oxide with a lattice spacing of 0.40 nm, corresponding to the (002) lattice plane. These results are in good agreement with the previous XRD analysis of the WO<sub>3</sub> NWs, which evidenced diffraction patterns associated with the monoclinic phase of WO<sub>3</sub> (ICCD card no.72–0677) [35].

The AP chemo-resistive properties of the fabricated WO<sub>3</sub> NWs-based sensor were investigated by measuring its responses to 10 ppm of NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and EtOH at  $T_{\text{oper}} = 593$  K. Its measured resistance in air at room temperature was about 10 kOhm. After reaching the operating temperature, the baseline resistance of the sensor measured in the air dropped to about 450–600 Ω. It showed excellent reactions to NO<sub>2</sub> and

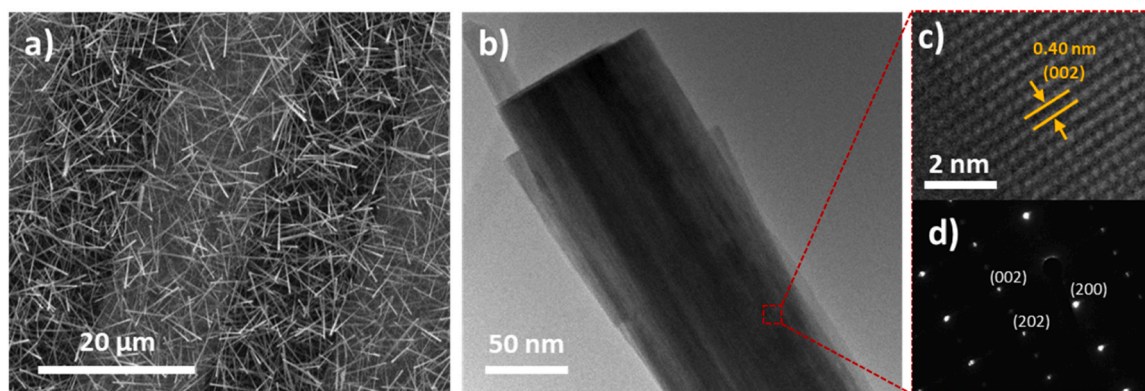


Fig. 1. (a)  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs deposited on the sensor platform, (b) low-magnification TEM image of a single  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs, (c) and (d) high-resolution HRTEM image of the NW and its corresponding diffractogram, respectively.

slightly smaller but satisfying responses to CO and EtOH (Fig. S2 of SI).

### 3.2. In-situ NAP-XPS study

The  $\text{WO}_3$ -based gas sensor was loaded into the evacuated high-pressure cell of the NAP-XPS spectrometer, exposed to 1 mbar of  $\text{O}_2$  at room temperature, and subsequently heated to 593 K. The acquisition of the W 4f XPS spectrum in UHV at room temperature (top spectrum in Fig. 2a) showed that the NWs mainly consist of  $\text{WO}_3$ , giving rise to the doublet with the main peak binding energy (BE) at about 35.7 eV [36, 37]. The presence of a small state at about 34.6 eV assigned to  $\text{WO}_x$  ( $x < 3$ ) indicated that the surface of the NWs is slightly reduced, probably due to various surface defects and inhomogeneities [37]. The presence of the defects could also be seen from the asymmetry of the corresponding O 1s spectrum in Fig. 2b, typically indicating the presence of hydroxylated oxygen vacancies on the surface of oxides [38] or different oxygen-containing hydrocarbon impurities [39]. The corresponding C 1s (Fig. 2c) showed that the as-received  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs contain a relatively high amount of adventitious carbon on their surface. Heating of the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs in the  $\text{O}_2$  atmosphere resulted in complete surface reoxidation, leading to the disappearance of the  $\text{WO}_x$  state in the W 4f spectrum (bottom spectrum in Fig. 2a) and also to a slight decrease of the signal at 532 eV in the corresponding O 1s spectrum. It should be mentioned that the heating in  $\text{O}_2$  also shifted all spectra to lower BE by about 0.2 eV compared to their positions at room temperature. We believe this is due to the band-bending effects caused by the oxygen ionosorption on metal oxides [32]. However, in order to detect changes in the shape of C 1s, O 1s, and W 4f spectra, we eliminated this shift in Fig. 2 for all spectra measured in  $\text{O}_2$ . The corresponding C 1s spectrum revealed only a very moderate reduction in the amount of surface carbon on heating in the  $\text{O}_2$  environment.

The electrical resistance of the sensor, monitored simultaneously with the NAP-XPS measurements, showed that the loading of the sensor to the NAP cell and subsequent evacuation results in its room temperature resistance of about 2 kOhm (Fig S3 of SI). The exposure to 1 mbar of  $\text{O}_2$  and heating to 593 K caused a decrease of the sensor's resistance to about 200 Ohm. The low initial sensor resistance  $R_0$ , arising from the high density of  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs required for the NAP-XPS measurements, resulted later in generally lower responses of the sensor to the analytes but, at the same time, showed a very low noise level.

The in-situ responses of the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs-based sensor on the addition of EtOH and CO to the oxygen and upon exposing it to 1 mbar of 1%  $\text{NO}_x/\text{O}_2$  mixture are presented in Fig. 3. The sensor exposing to the  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$  mixture initiated a well-seen and quick in-situ LP response corresponding to n-type semiconductor (Fig. 3a). However, the recovery of the sensor after stopping the EtOH dosing and exposing it again to 1 mbar  $\text{O}_2$  was significantly prolonged. The baseline continued to recover even during the following CO exposure, causing however a much

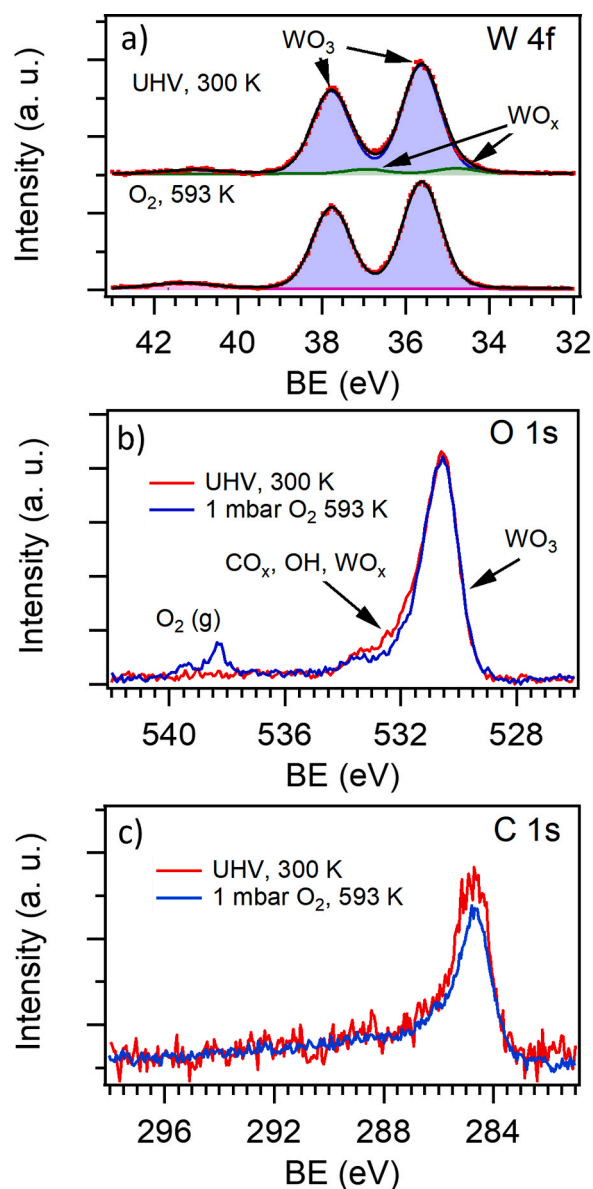
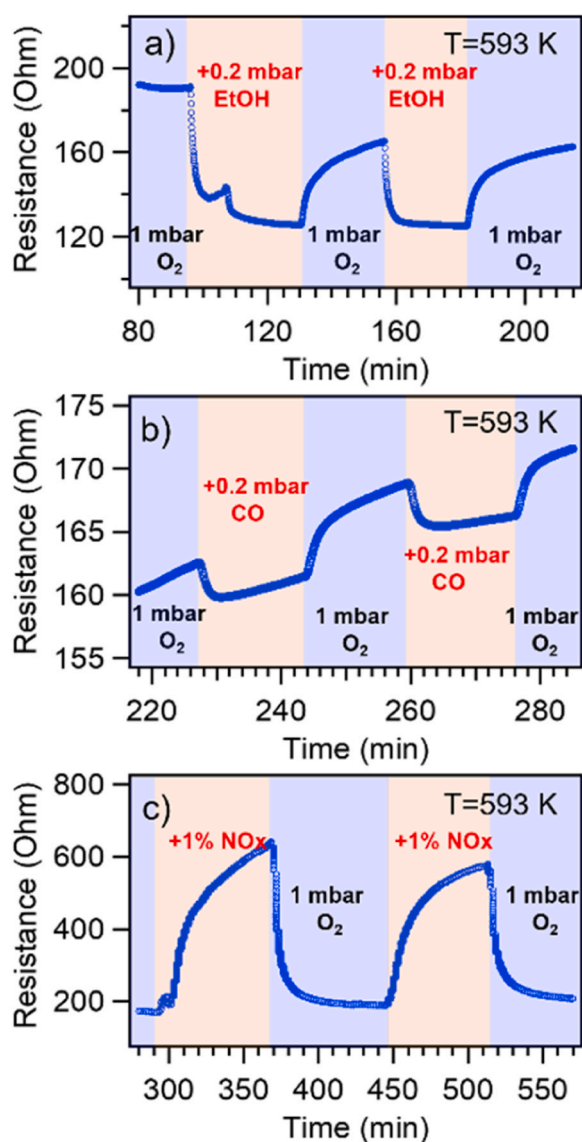


Fig. 2. NAP-XPS W 4f (a), C 1s (b), and O 1s (c) spectra collected from the as-prepared  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs in UHV at RT and in the presence of 1 mbar  $\text{O}_2$  at 593 K.



**Fig. 3.** Responses of the as-prepared  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS-based chemiresistor to ethanol (a), CO (b), and nitrogen dioxide (c) at  $T_{\text{oper}} = 593$  K inside the high-pressure (NAP) cell of the NAP-XPS spectrometer.

smaller response than in the case of ethanol (Fig. 3b). Finally, exposing the sensor to the  $\text{O}_2/\text{NO}_x$  mixture demonstrated a fast positive response of much higher amplitude and quick recovery to the initial state after switching the atmosphere back to  $\text{O}_2$  (Fig. 3c).

The LP responses were generally analogous to the AP measurements presented in Fig. S2 of SI. For the CO and EtOH sensing, the LP baseline value (approx. 200  $\Omega$ ) was slightly lower than the AP one (approx. 500  $\Omega$ ). However, this is not an order-of-magnitude difference and can be attributed to the significantly lower partial pressure of oxygen in the standard atmosphere. There was an apparent similarity between the AP and LP responses of the chemiresistor to EtOH. In both cases, the first response was higher than the following ones, and the initial value of the sensor baseline did not recover in the subsequent measurement cycles. For CO, the LP responses were significantly lower than the AP responses and were accompanied by the baseline drift, indicating the importance of oxygen in the detection mechanism. In the case of  $\text{NO}_x$  detection, the AP and LP responses to  $\text{NO}_2$  are almost identical.

The NAP-XPS spectra obtained when the sensor was exposed to the  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$  and  $\text{O}_2/\text{CO}$  mixtures and pure EtOH and CO gases at 593 K are presented in Fig. S4 of SI. By comparing them with the spectra measured

in  $\text{O}_2$ , a slight shift of about 0.1–0.2 eV to higher BE with respect to the peak positions in  $\text{O}_2$  can be noticed. A similar shift has already been observed in the case of exposing other oxides to an EtOH-containing atmosphere [32]. It is probably related to the change in the surface work function caused by the mixed effect of decreased chemisorbed oxygen concentration and analyte adsorption on oxide surfaces. Apart from these shifts, a surface reduction was seen from the W 4f spectrum measured in EtOH and tiny changes in the corresponding C 1s and O 1s regions. Because of the substantial surface carbon contamination, assigning them to the presence of any species resulting from CO or EtOH exposures was impossible. The NAP-XPS measurements performed during the  $\text{O}_2/\text{NO}_x$  exposure showed that  $\text{NO}_x$  also substantially affects the sensor surface. First, it affected the position of all the NAP-XPS peaks, shifting them by a further 0.3 eV to lower BE. This shift, resulting from the adsorption of  $\text{NO}_x$  species on the sensor surface, was well seen by comparing the as-measured W 4f spectra acquired in  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2/\text{NO}_x$ , respectively, as shown in Fig. S5 of SI. We tried to detect the adsorbed  $\text{NO}_x$  species by measuring the N 1s spectrum of the sensor exposed to the  $\text{O}_2/\text{NO}_x$  mixture, but unsuccessfully. It seems that the coverage of the adsorbed  $\text{NO}_x$  species is below the XPS detection limit. Eliminating the  $\text{NO}_x$ -induced shift from the spectra measured in  $\text{O}_2/\text{NO}_x$  and comparing them with the spectra obtained in  $\text{O}_2$  demonstrated that the  $\text{NO}_x$  exposure also had a cleaning effect on the sensor surface. It was completely free from all carbon contamination after approximately 90 min of  $\text{O}_2/\text{NO}_x$  exposure (Fig. 4a, b). At the same time, the comparison of the W 4f spectra (Fig. 4c) showed no changes in the spectrum shape during the  $\text{NO}_x$  exposure.

As the  $\text{O}_2/\text{NO}_x$  exposure substantially influenced the sensor surface, we decided to repeat the CO and EtOH exposures and see how the  $\text{NO}_x$  treatment affected the functionality of the sensor. In the case of prevailing ionosorption or direct adsorption models in the sensing mechanism of EtOH and CO by the  $\text{WO}_3$ -based sensor, the opening of additional adsorption sites was expected to increase the sensor's response. The in-situ measured LP responses to CO of the cleaned  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS-based sensor presented in Fig. 5a showed that, despite the surface cleaning, the sensor responses remained almost the same as in the case of the "contaminated" sensor. In the case of EtOH detection (Fig. 5b), the reaction of the sensor on the first EtOH dosing was a bit higher than before the  $\text{NO}_x$  exposure; however, the recovery was worse. The sensor recovered to only approximately 50% of its initial resistance after about 20 min of the  $\text{O}_2$  exposure. The second EtOH pulse returned the sensor resistance to the same response level as during the first exposure, indicating a saturation EtOH layer formed on the surface during each exposure that is not dependent on the amount of the preadsorbed species.

The NAP-XPS spectra obtained while exposing the cleaned sensor to  $\text{O}_2/\text{CO}$  are presented in Fig. 6. In the case of CO, the NAP-XPS measurements showed practically no CO adsorption on  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS, neither in the presence of  $\text{CO}/\text{O}_2$  nor even CO. The only peaks detected upon both exposures in the corresponding C 1s spectra (Fig. 6a) were the small peaks at about 284.6 eV and gas phase peaks at about 291 eV. The position of the first peak corresponds rather to  $-\text{CH}_x$  and C-C bonds, and it probably arose from some carbon contamination that accumulated on  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS during the longtime CO exposures. The states of C-O and C=O species, typically located at 286 and 289 eV, respectively, were absent. Finally, CO molecules demonstrated a slight ability to reduce the surface of  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS, as can be seen from the corresponding O 1s and W 4f spectra collected in CO (Fig. 6b and c). Thus, it can be concluded that the CO detection mechanism of the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS-based sensor most probably involves the interaction of CO molecules with the chemisorbed or bulk oxygen atoms rather than its direct adsorption on the surface.

The NAP-XPS spectra obtained while subsequently exposing the cleaned sensor to  $\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$ , EtOH, and  $\text{O}_2$  again are presented in Fig. 7. The C 1s spectrum measured in the presence of  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$  (the second spectrum from the bottom in Fig. 7a) demonstrated the presence of intermediate surface species on  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS during the exposure. The

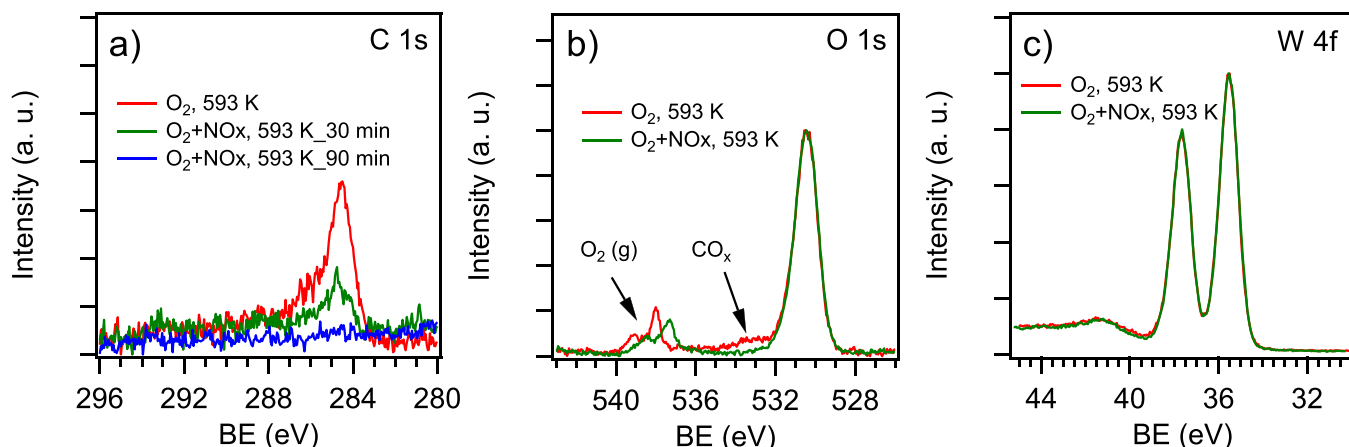


Fig. 4. C 1s (a), O 1s (b), and W 4f (c) NAP-XPS spectra acquired from the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs in the presence of 1 mbar  $\text{O}_2$  and 1%  $\text{NO}_x/\text{O}_2$  gas mixture at 593 K. The spectra measured in the  $\text{O}_2/\text{NO}_x$  mixture are shifted by 0.3 eV to higher BE to eliminate the band-bending effects caused by  $\text{NO}_x$  adsorption.

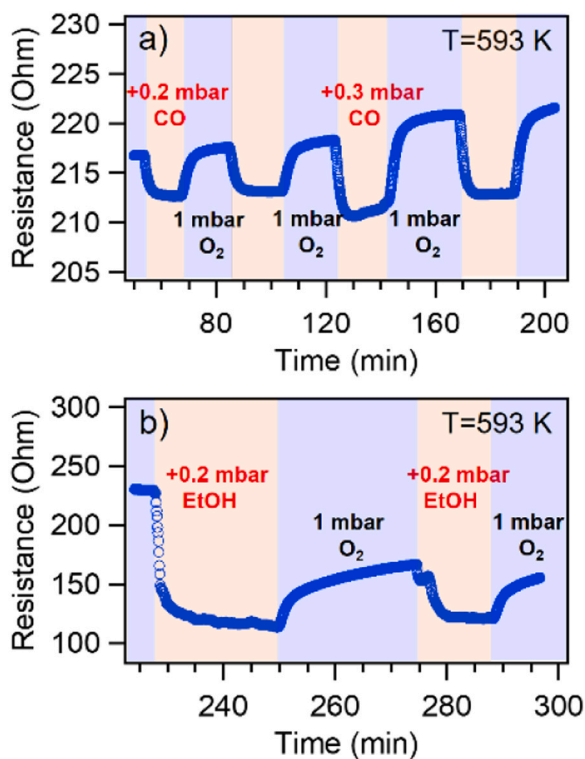


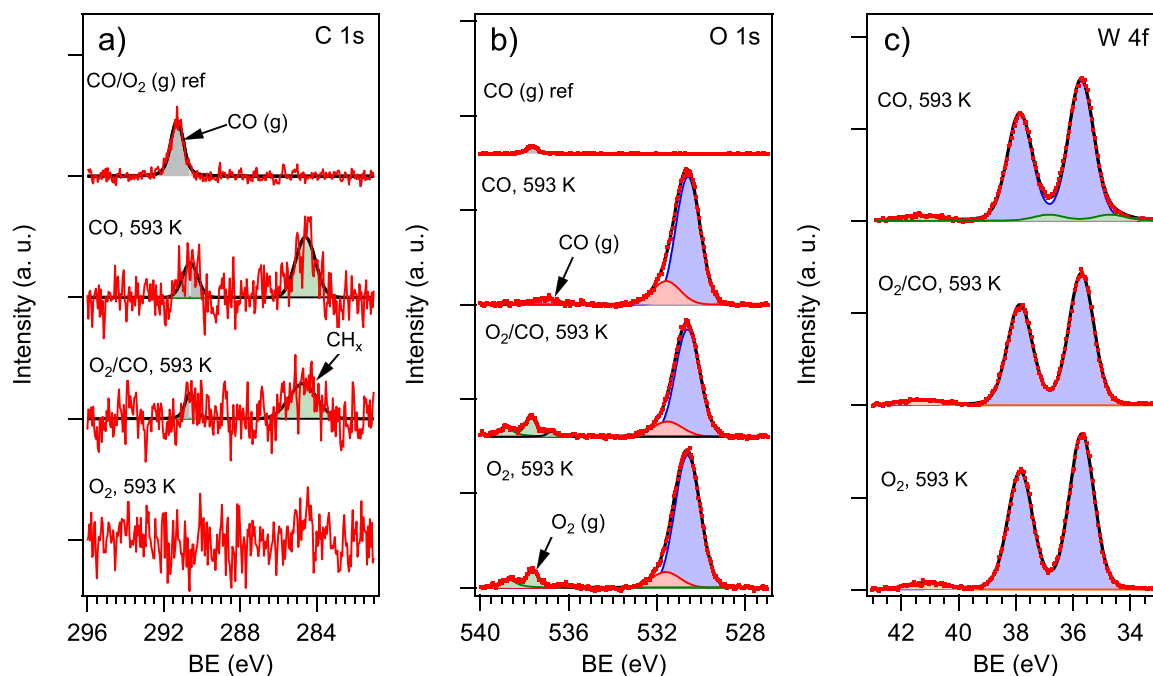
Fig. 5. LP responses of the cleaned  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs-based chemiresistor CO (a) and EtOH (b) at  $T_{\text{oper}} = 593$  K.

fitting of this spectrum shows that the surface might be covered by ethoxy species typically indicated by the two peaks separated by about 1.3 eV corresponding to the methyl ( $\text{CH}_3$ -) and alkoxy ( $-\text{CH}_2\text{O}$ -) carbons [40]. The presence of entire ethanol molecules adsorbed on the surface cannot be ruled out either. Their XPS signal should also contain two peaks of the methyl and hydroxymethyl ( $-\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ ) groups. These two peaks of neutral ethanol molecules separated by about 1.5 eV can be seen from the C 1s spectrum of the ethanol gas phase (the top spectrum in Fig. 7a). The carbon signal in the presence of only EtOH (the third spectrum from the bottom in Fig. 7a) was practically the same as in the  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$  mixture concerning the intensity and shape. At the same time, the corresponding O 1s and W 4f spectra presented in Fig. 7b and c indicated a partial reduction of the surface. It evidences that EtOH molecules should be partially oxidized to ethoxy groups, releasing

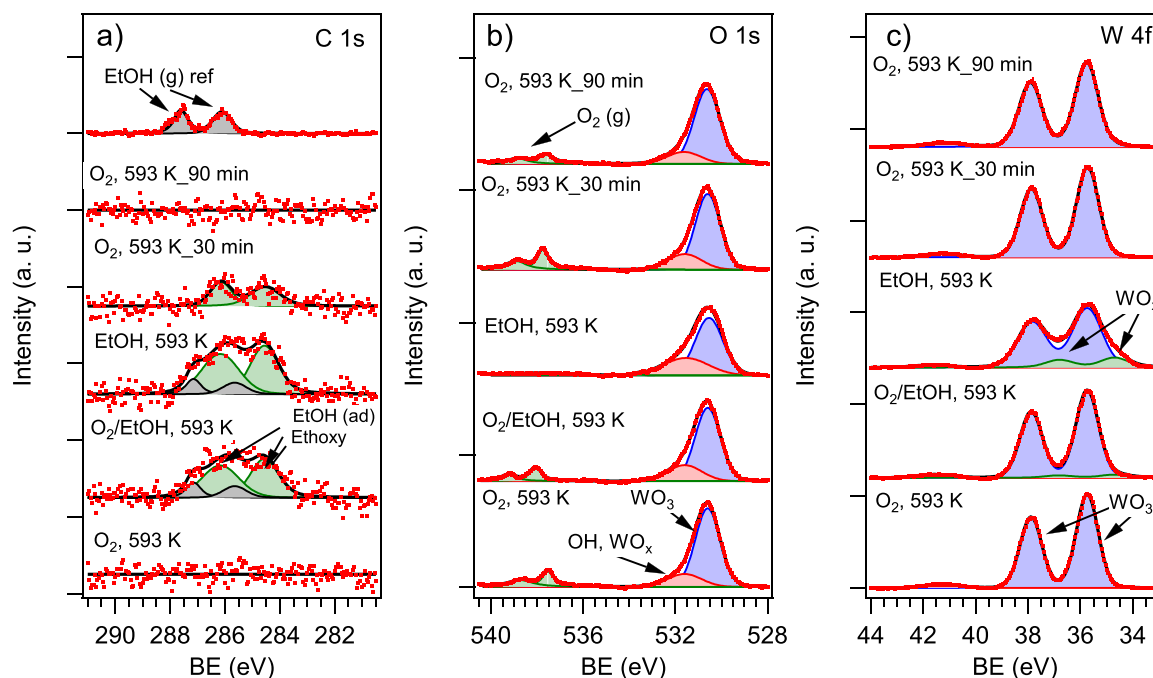
hydrogen atoms that reduce the sensor surface. However, the absence of carbonyl, carbonate, formyl, and carboxylate groups in the C 1s spectrum (typically present at BE of 288–290 eV) clearly shows ethanol decomposition on  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs at 593 K no further than to ethoxy species (either in the presence or absence of  $\text{O}_2$ ).

After studying the surface chemistry of the sensor at 593 K, we decided to decrease its working temperature to 393 K and investigate it again. According to the ionosorption model, the charged oxygen ions ( $\text{O}_{\text{ads}}^-$ ), which are the most reactive and sensitive to the reducing agent, are expected to appear on the surface of metal oxides exposed to oxygen only at temperatures above 423 K [41]. At lower temperatures,  $\text{O}_2$  molecules should adsorb nondissociatively as the superoxide  $\text{O}_2^-$  ions, which are considered less important in gas sensing [42]. Also, at this temperature, the reduction of the  $\text{WO}_3$  surface by CO or EtOH is very unlikely. Therefore, if the ionosorption or oxygen-vacancy mechanisms prevail in the detection of CO and EtOH by the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs-based chemiresistor, it should show little or no sensor response. The results presented in Fig. 8a indeed showed an almost undetectable reaction of the sensor to CO at 393 K. In the case of EtOH detection (Fig. 8b), the response was better detectable but with a much lower amplitude than at 593 K. The EtOH exposure also caused the drifting of the sensor baseline. During the subsequent  $\text{O}_2$  exposures, the sensor resistance was recovered only by the value of its drop in the first several minutes of EtOH exposure, while the decrease due to the prolonged EtOH exposure remained unrecovered. It indicated that different reversibly and irreversibly adsorbing species might occur during the EtOH exposure of  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs at 373 K, causing reversible and irreversible changes in the sensor resistance. Measuring the C 1s spectra during the  $\text{O}_2/\text{CO}$  and  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$  exposures at 373 K (Fig. 8c) revealed similar results to those obtained at 593 K. Initially, during the  $\text{O}_2$  exposure, there was present only a tiny amount of some carbon contamination accumulated on the surface. Adding CO to the atmosphere did not change the appearance of the C 1s spectrum, indicating no CO adsorption on the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs even at low temperatures. Regarding  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$  exposure at 393 K, the corresponding C 1s spectrum showed a similar adsorbed EtOH-derived species on the surface as at 593 K. However, the sensor at the low temperature showed a much lower rate of their desorption in the  $\text{O}_2$  atmosphere. The accumulation of a high amount of carbon contaminations was observed, which was most likely responsible for the continuous drift of the sensor baseline.

After analyzing the obtained results, it is clear that only one model cannot wholly describe the CO and EtOH sensing mechanisms of the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs-based chemiresistor. It is probably a combination of several sensing models generally reported for the metal-oxide chemiresistors. In the case of CO, it appears that CO molecules adsorb on the surface of  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs, neither at 593 K nor at 393 K, and cannot act as direct



**Fig. 6.** C 1s (a), O 1s (b), and W 4f (c) NAP-XPS spectra acquired from the cleaned  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS-based sensor while exposing it to  $\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_2/\text{CO}$ , and CO. The topmost spectra in the C 1s and O 1s regions are the reference spectra of CO gas.

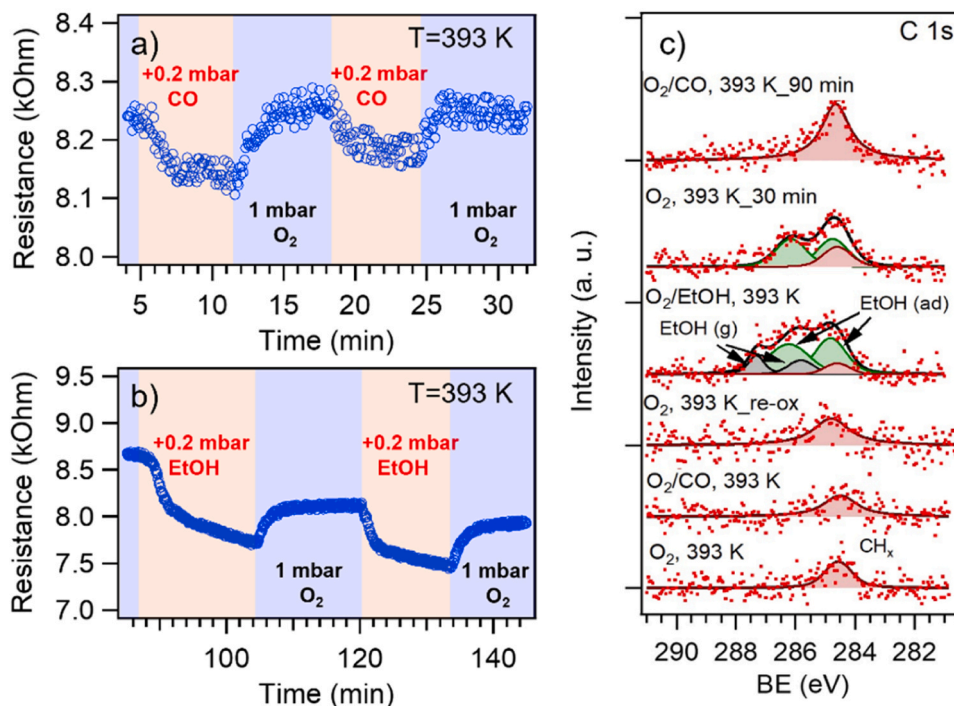


**Fig. 7.** C 1s (a), O 1s (b), and W 4f (c) NAP-XPS spectra acquired from the cleaned  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS-based sensor while exposing it to  $\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$ , EtOH, and again  $\text{O}_2$ . The topmost spectrum in the C 1s region is the reference spectra of EtOH vapor.

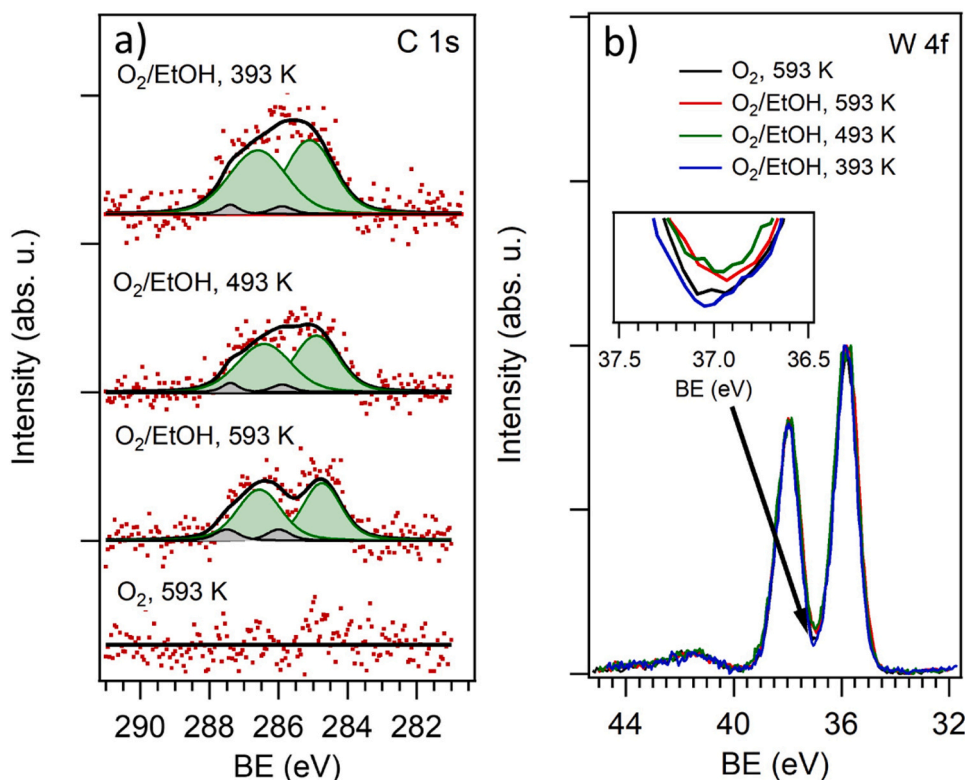
electron donors for the surface. However, they interact with the  $\text{WO}_3$  surface at high temperatures, probably decreasing the ionosorbed oxygen concentration and creating some not detectable by XPS low amount of surface oxygen vacancies. This explains the detectable chemiresistor response at 593 K and why there is almost no reaction to CO at 393 K, the temperature at which no chemisorbed atomic oxygen is present on the surface, and when CO cannot reduce the bulk oxide.

On the contrary, exposing the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS-based sensor to the EtOH-containing atmospheres showed that there is always a certain amount

of adsorbed EtOH-related species on the surface. The comparative NAP-XPS analysis performed at different temperatures and presented in Fig. 9 showed that the amount and type of those species are temperature dependent. As seen from Fig. 9a, demonstrating the absolute C 1s signal of the adsorbed species on the surface of  $\text{WO}_3$  NWS exposed to  $\text{O}_2$  at 593 K and the  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$  mixture at 593, 493, and 393 K, the amount of the adsorbed EtOH molecules increases with decreasing surface temperature. In addition, the peak positions of the methyl ( $\text{CH}_3$ -) and alkoxy ( $-\text{CH}_2\text{O}-$ ) carbons in the ethoxy groups, which are present on the surface



**Fig. 8.** LP responses of the WO<sub>3</sub> NWS-based chemiresistor to CO (a) and EtOH (b) at  $T_{\text{oper}} = 393$  K. (c) C 1s NAP-XPS spectra acquired from the WO<sub>3</sub> NWS-based sensor while exposing it to different analytes at 393 K.



**Fig. 9.** C 1s (a) and W 4f (b) NAP-XPS spectra acquired from the clean WO<sub>3</sub> NWS-based sensor while exposing it to 1 mbar of O<sub>2</sub> at 593 K and upon subsequent O<sub>2</sub>/EtOH exposures (1.2 mbar) at different temperatures.

at 593 K, shift to a higher BE with decreasing temperature. It indicates that some adsorbing EtOH molecules probably do not oxidize to ethoxy but adsorb in the molecular form at lower temperatures. The corresponding W 4f spectra depicted in Fig. 9b also support this suggestion.

Indeed, from the inset image, showing the part of W 4f doublet of WO<sub>3</sub> at about 37 eV, it can be seen that exposing the sensor to the O<sub>2</sub>/EtOH atmosphere at 593 K initiates a slight increase of XPS signal at this BE, which according to Fig. 7c corresponds to the W 4f<sub>5/2</sub> component of the



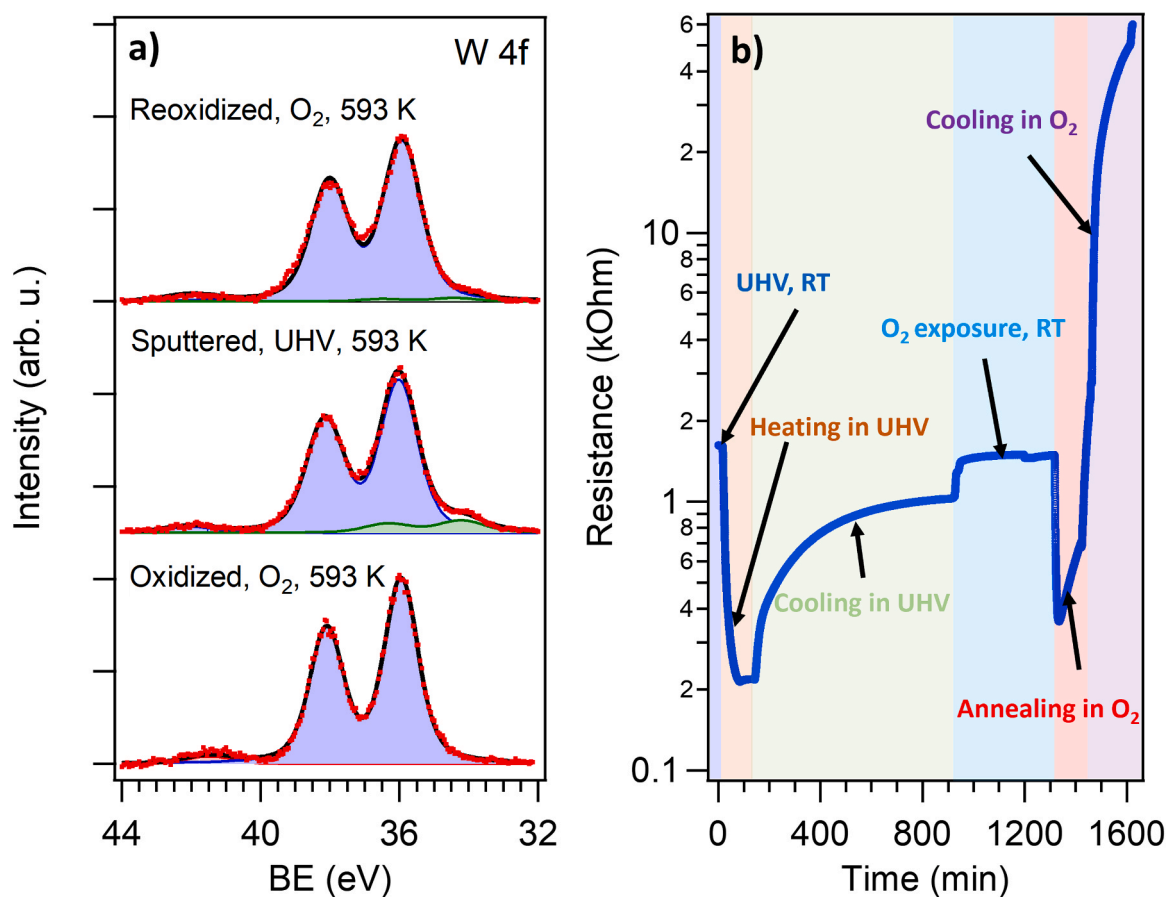
reduced  $\text{WO}_x$ . The surface reduction of the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs by EtOH at high temperatures probably occurs via the interaction of the detached from the hydroxy group hydrogen atom with the  $\text{WO}_3$  surface, forming oxygen vacancies and leaving ethoxy groups on the surface. Fig. 9b also demonstrates that the  $\text{O}_2/\text{EtOH}$  exposed surface remained similarly reduced at 493 K and completely reoxidized at 393 K due to the stopping of the hydrogen detachments.

The formation of relatively high amounts of oxygen vacancies on the surface while detecting EtOH at high temperatures, when the sensor had the most heightened sensitivity, indicated that they might contribute to the sensor response. According to the review article of Shekh et al. [43], there is still a lack of information on how oxygen vacancies influence the electrical conductivity of different metal oxides. However, studies demonstrate that they play a crucial role in the sensing mechanism of metal-oxide gas sensors [44]. To determine the effect of the surface oxygen vacancies on the electrical conductivity of the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs, we performed an experiment that included the formation of the surface oxygen vacancies by  $\text{Ar}^+$  sputtering. It allowed us to create only surface oxygen vacancies and avoid the appearance of bulk defects. Before the sputtering, the sensor was cleaned and reoxidized by annealing at 593 K for about 1 h in 1 mbar of  $\text{O}_2$ , cooled to room temperature in  $\text{O}_2$ , and evacuated. The in-situ measured UHV resistance of the cleaned sensor at room temperature was approximately 240 kOhm. After that, the sensor surface was sputtered for 2 min by Ar ions at room temperature. As shown in Fig. 10a, the sputtering resulted in the partial reduction of the sensor surface. The reduction of the sensor surface dropped the sensor resistance to about 1.6 kOhm (Fig. 10b). Heating of the sputtered sensor to 593 K in UHV caused a further decrease in the sensor resistance to about 210 Ohm, which recovered only to about 1 kOhm after cooling to RT. Exposing the reduced sensor surface to 1 mbar of  $\text{O}_2$  initiated a jump

to about 1.5 kOhm. The sensor heating in the oxygen atmosphere to 593 K again caused a resistance drop to about 300 Ohm, after which it continuously increased while keeping the sensor in  $\text{O}_2$  at 593 K. In about 1.5 h of the annealing, it increased approximately two times to 600 Ohm.

The NAP-XPS measurement performed on the surface of the sensor during the annealing in  $\text{O}_2$  (top spectrum in Fig. 10a) showed that the concentration of the surface vacancies decreased, but still, some amount of them was present on the surface. The obtained spectrum indicated that the process of the surface reoxidation in 1 mbar of  $\text{O}_2$  at 593 K has relatively low kinetics, probably due to the low rate of  $\text{O}_2$  dissociation on the surface of  $\text{WO}_3$ . Finally, cooling the reoxidized sensor in  $\text{O}_2$  to room temperature increased the sensor resistance to more than 50 kOhm. This value was five times lower than the sensor resistance before sputtering but was much higher than the resistance of the freshly sputtered sensor.

The performed experiments demonstrated that the oxygen vacancies on the surface of the  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs strongly influence their electrical conductivity and should contribute to the sensor response in the detection of EtOH. Indeed, despite the higher amount of adsorbed EtOH at 393 K, the response at this temperature was much lower. As no surface vacancies were detected and no oxygen ionosorption is expected at this operating temperature, the sensor response is likely related to the direct adsorption of EtOH molecules working as electron donors. In contrast, the sensor response at 593 K was four times higher than at 393 K, suggesting the presence of additional sensing mechanisms contributing to it. It is the formation of relatively high concentrations of oxygen vacancies, which we detected by XPS. There might also be an effect connected with a decrease in the concentration of the ionosorbed oxygen, adsorption sites for which the adsorbed EtOH and ethoxy species might block. It is not easy to distinguish the contributions of each mechanism. However,



**Fig. 10.** (a) W 4f NAP-XPS spectra acquired from the oxidized  $\text{WO}_3$  NWs-based sensor in  $\text{O}_2$  at 593 K, the sputtered sensor in UHV at 593 K, and the reoxidized sensor in 1 mbar of  $\text{O}_2$  at 593 K. (b) presents the evolution of the sputtered sensor resistance upon different treatments.

our work clearly shows that all of them should be considered when describing the EtOH detection mechanism of the WO<sub>3</sub> NWs-based sensor.

#### 4. Conclusions

In this study, we have successfully performed the NAP-XPS investigation of the surface chemistry of 1D WO<sub>3</sub> nanostructures-based gas sensors when detecting NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, and ethanol. The results demonstrated that long-term annealing in lower pressure of oxygen after synthesis might be insufficient to obtain a WO<sub>3</sub> NWs-based gas sensor suitable for the NAP-XPS study due to high carbon contamination on their surface, coming from the air exposure. We developed a methodology based on exposing the sensor to NO<sub>x</sub> to get a clean surface that allowed the detection of tiny chemical changes while exposing it to different carbon-containing analytes. The NAP-XPS study of the CO and EtOH gas sensing mechanisms of the WO<sub>3</sub> NWs revealed that they combine several sensing models generally reported for the metal-oxide chemiresistors. The CO sensing does not appear to include long-term adsorption of CO molecules on the WO<sub>3</sub> NWs surface accompanied by electron donation. The sensor response rather arises from the quick interaction of CO with the surface oxygen atoms, which decreases the concentration of ionosorped oxygen and creates an almost undetectable amount of surface oxygen vacancies. In the case of EtOH sensing, the situation is more complicated. It is shown that from 393 K up to 593 K, the chemiresistor surface contains adsorbed ethanol molecules and ethoxy species, which could provide electrons to the surface. It is the main driving force for the macroscopic electrical response of the sensor at lower temperatures without oxygen ionosorption and surface reduction. This observation is consistent with the references [10,20], where the so-called "direct adsorption model" was proposed. Increasing the sensor operating temperature to 593 K significantly increased its response, indicating additional sensing mechanisms. Those are a strong reducing effect of EtOH on the WO<sub>3</sub> surface detected by XPS and the decrease in the concentration of the ionosorbed oxygen, for which the adsorbed EtOH and ethoxy species block adsorption sites.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Lesia Piliá:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **Thu Ngan Dinhová:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **Martin Janata:** Investigation, Methodology. **Dmytro Balakin:** Investigation, Methodology. **Stella Vallejos:** Investigation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **Jaroslav Otta:** Investigation, Methodology. **Jitka Štefková:** Investigation, Methodology. **Ladislav Fišer:** Investigation, Methodology. **Premysl Fitl:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **Michal Novotný:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **Jaromir Hubálek:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **Michael Vorochta:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Validation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Iva Matolinová:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Martin Vrnáta:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Validation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence

the work reported in this paper.

#### Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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#### Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.snb.2023.134682.

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