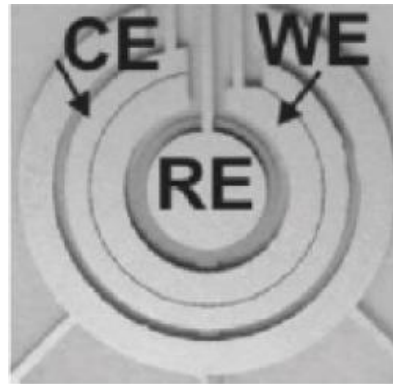


Semiconductor Sensors:

Ch6: Gas Sensors cont.

Electrochemical Gas Sensors



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There are three basic electrochemical processes which are useful in transducers:

- (A) **Potentiometric**. These involve the measurement of the e.m.f. (potential) of a cell at zero current. The e.m.f. is proportional to the logarithm of the concentration of the substance being determined.
- (B) **Voltammetric**. An increasing (decreasing) potential is applied to the cell until oxidation (reduction) of the substance to be analysed occurs and there is a sharp rise (decrease) in the cell current to give a peak current. The height of this peak current is directly proportional to the concentration of the electroactive material. If the appropriate oxidation (reduction) potential is known, one may step the potential directly to that value and observe the current. This mode is known as *amperometric*.
- (C) **Conductimetric**. Solutions containing ions conduct electricity. The magnitude of this conductance may change due to a chemical or a biochemical reaction. The relationship between conductance and concentration depends on the nature of the reaction. Measurement can be very simple.

If a piece of metal is placed in an electrolyte solution as in Figure 4.1, there is charge separation between the metal (electrode) and the solution. This sets up what we can call an *electron pressure*, usually called a *potential*. It cannot be measured directly, and requires a combination of two such electrode-electrolyte solution combinations. Each is called a *half-cell*.

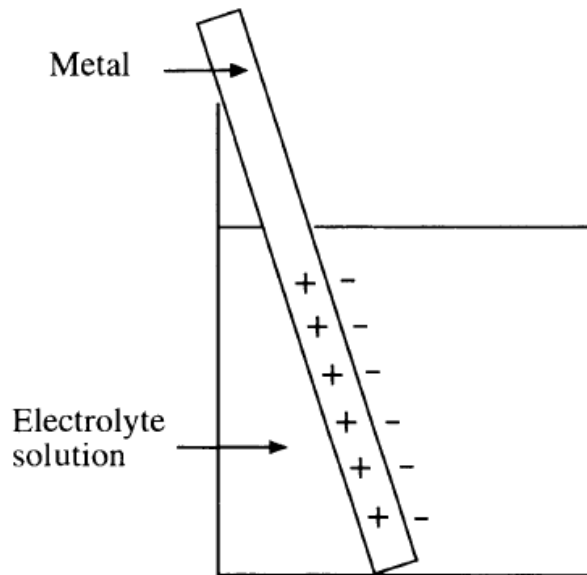


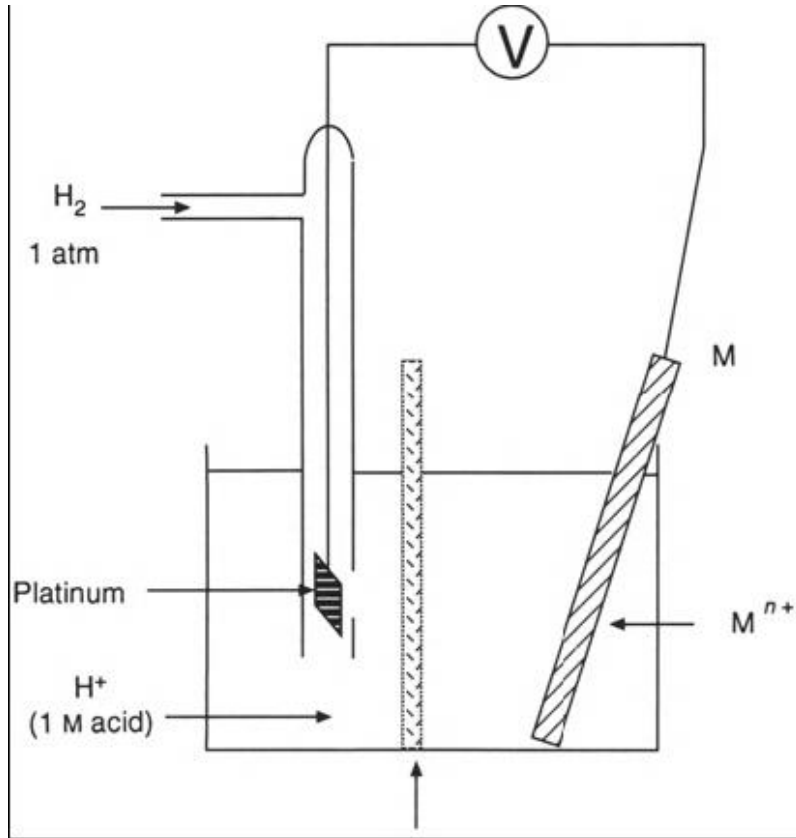
Figure 4.1 A metal electrode dipped in electrolyte solution. One-half cell

Standard Electrode Potentials

Reducers	Stable	Volts
Lithium	Li ⁺	-3.03
Potassium	K ⁺	-2.92
Calcium	Ca ²⁺	-2.87
Sodium	Na ⁺	-2.71
Magnesium	Mg ²⁺	-2.37
Aluminum	Al ³⁺	-1.66
Zinc	Zn ²⁺	-0.76
Iron (Fe)	Fe ³⁺	-0.44
Lead (Pb)	Pb ²⁺	-0.13
H ₂	2H ⁺	0
Copper	Cu ²⁺	+0.34
Silver	Ag ⁺	+0.80
Mercury	Hg ²⁺	+0.85
2Cr ³⁺ +7H ₂ O	Cr ₂ O ₇ ²⁻ +14H ⁺	+1.33
2Cl ⁻	Cl ₂	+1.36
Mn ²⁺ +4H ₂ O	MnO ₄ ⁻ +8H ⁺	+1.49
Gold	Au ³⁺	+1.52
2O ²⁻	O ₂	+1.52
2F ⁻	F ₂	+2.87
Stable	Oxidizers	

<http://www.chemistryland.com/CHM130FieldLab/Lab8/Lab8.html>

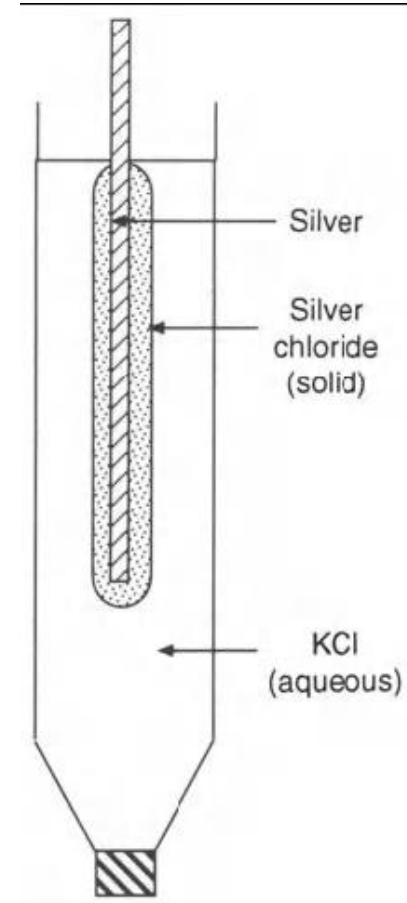
Hydrogen reference electrode



$$E_{\text{cell}} = \Delta E = E_{\text{ind}} - E_{\text{RE}}$$

Ind: indicator, RE: reference electrode

The silver-silver chloride reference electrode.



The combination shown in Figure 4.2 is an electrochemical *cell*. The two half cells must be connected internally by means of an electrically conducting bridge or membrane. Then the two electrodes are connected externally by a potential measuring device, such as a digital voltmeter(DVM).

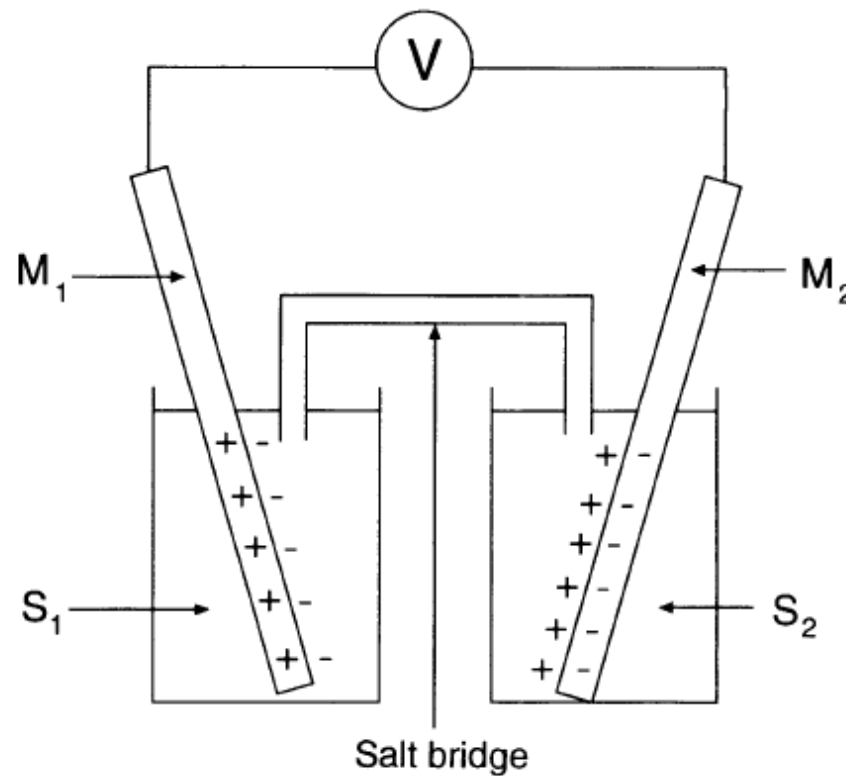


Figure 4.2 Two half-cell electrodes combined, making a complete cell

The e.m.f. value. of the cell is the difference between the electrode potentials of the two half-cells. Its magnitude depends on a number of factors:

- (i) the nature of the electrodes M1 and M2;
- (ii) the nature and concentrations of the solutions S1 and S2;
- (iii) the liquid junction potential at the membrane (or salt bridge).

The most straightforward situation is if S_1 contains an ion M_1^{n+} of M_1 and S_2 contains an ion M_2^{m+} of M_2 .

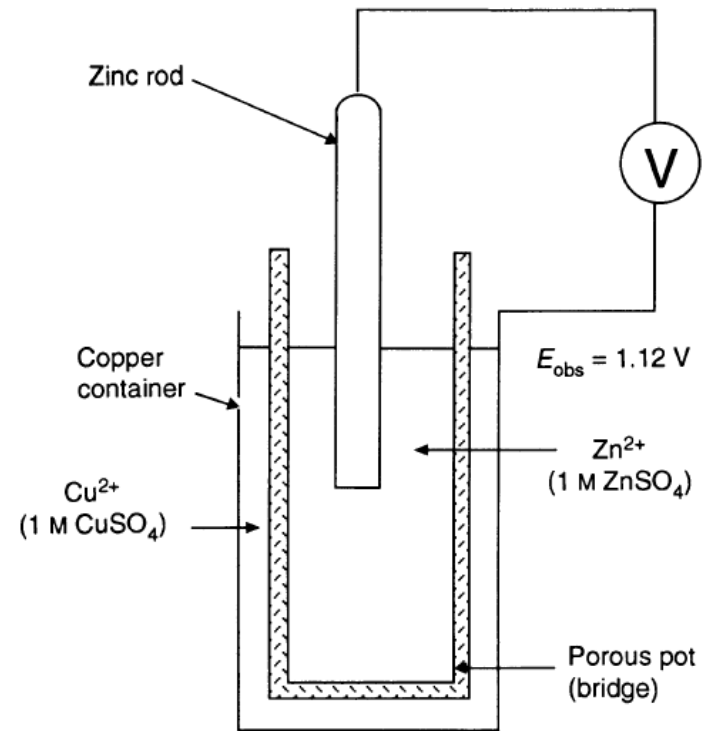
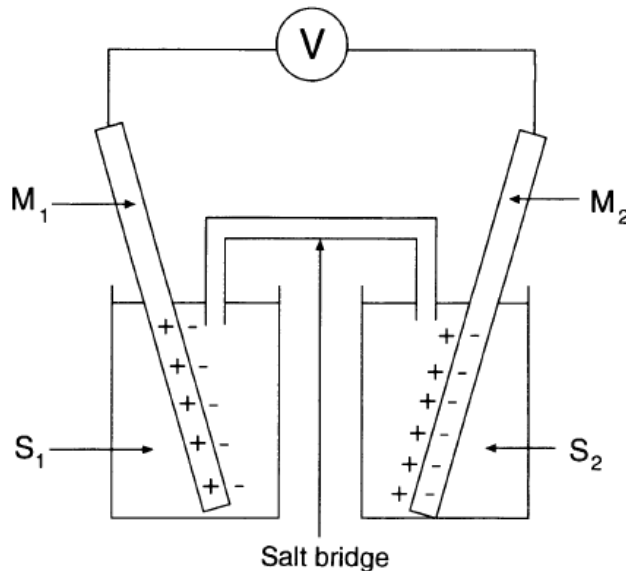
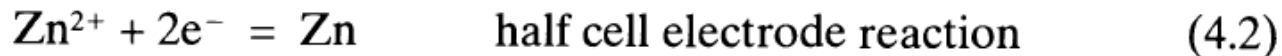
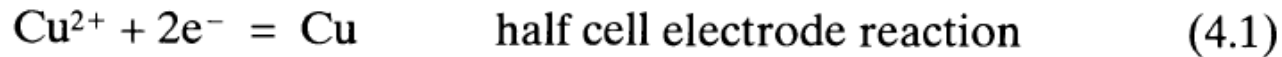


Figure 4.2 Two half-cell electrodes combined, making a complete cell

Figure 4.3 The Daniell cell

If we consider each half-cell, we can write the half-cell reactions:



If we subtract equation 4.2 from equation 4.1 we obtain



The Gibbs free energy for this reaction is negative, showing that the reaction will proceed spontaneously in the direction indicated.

The Gibbs free energy is simply related to the e.m.f. of the cell:

$$\Delta G = -nFE$$

N : number of electrons transferred (in this case $n = 2$),

F : Faraday constant = 96487 C/ mol

E : e.m.f. of the cell

Thus, if ΔG is negative, E is positive.

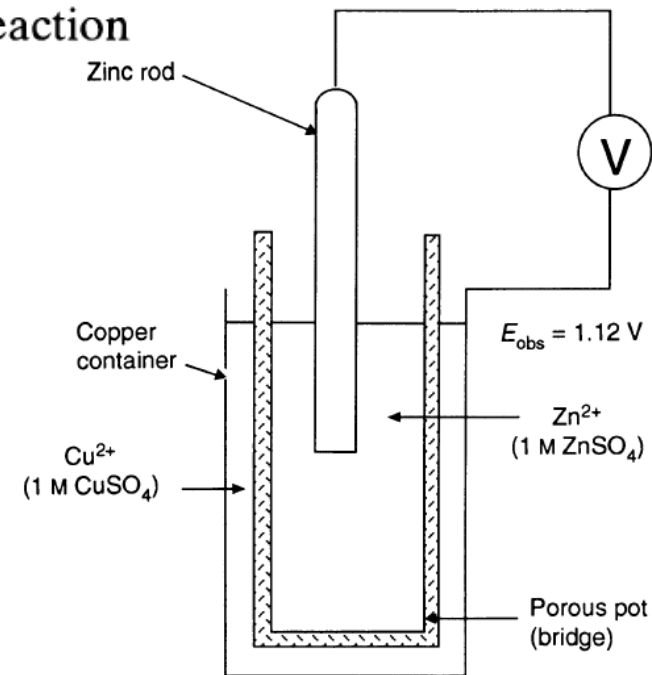
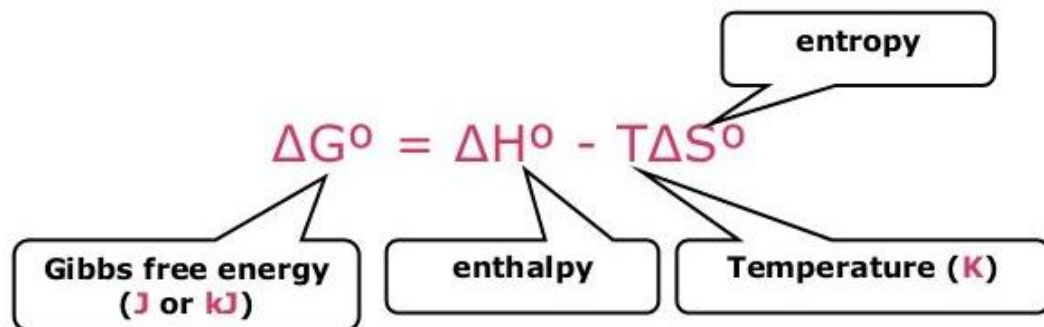


Figure 4.3 The Daniell cell



Gibbs free energy is the energy that is available to do useful work.

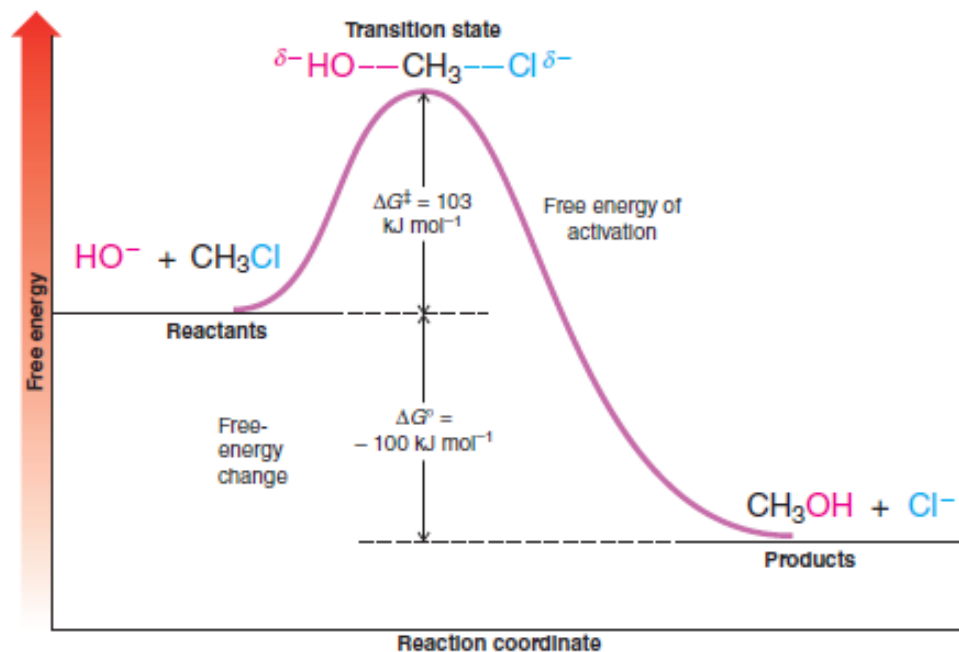
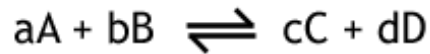


Table 4. Three Thermodynamic Quantities

Quantity	Symbol	Measures	Units
Enthalpy	H	Heat	Energy
Entropy	S	Disorder	Energy/K
Free energy	G	Reactivity	Energy

Concentration Constant: K_c

In the reaction:

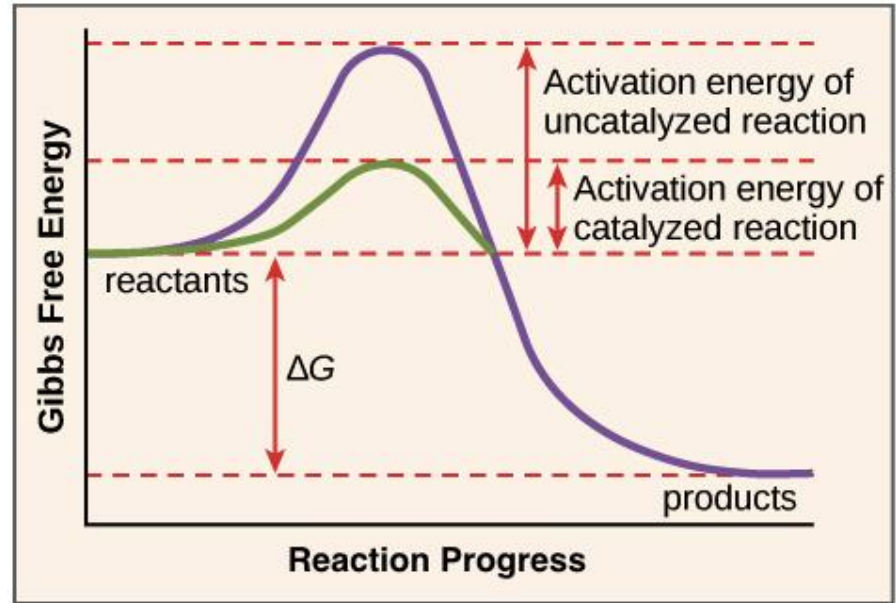


$$K_c = \frac{[C]^c [D]^d}{[A]^a [B]^b}$$

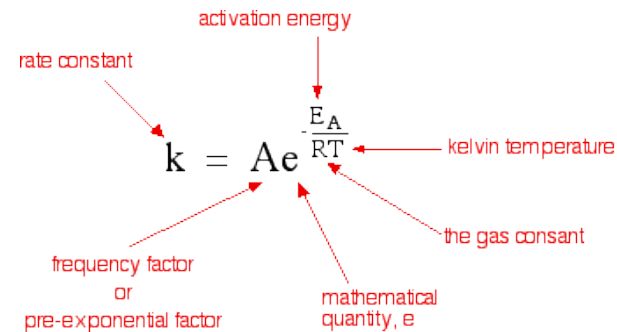
[A] = concentration of A in mol dm^{-3}

a = number of moles of A

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<https://www.khanacademy.org/science>



R is a constant equal to 8.314 J/mol-K

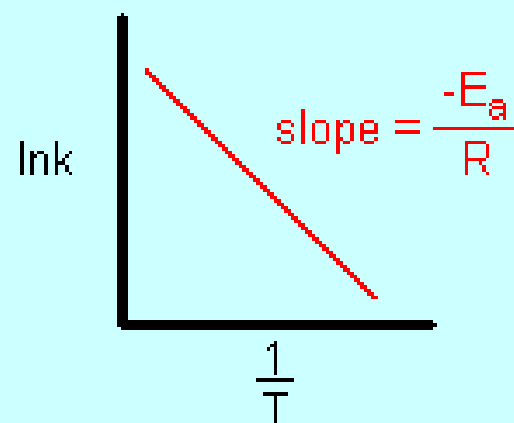
<https://www.chemguide.co.uk/physical/basicrates/arrhenius.html>

Arrhenius Equation:

$$k = Z e^{-E_a / RT}$$

$$\ln k = -\frac{E_a}{R} \left[\frac{1}{T} \right] + \ln Z$$

$$y = mx + b$$



The activation energy can also be found algebraically by substituting two rate constants (k_1 , k_2) and the two corresponding reaction temperatures (T_1 , T_2) into the Arrhenius Equation

$$\ln \frac{k_1}{k_2} = \frac{E_a}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right)$$

$$E_a = \frac{R T_1 T_2}{(T_1 - T_2)} \ln \frac{k_1}{k_2}$$

Ex:

$$\ln(5.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1} / 2.8 \times 10^{-2} \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}) = (-E_a / R) \{1/599 \text{ K} - 1/683 \text{ K}\}$$

$$-3.9484 = -E_a/R \{2.053 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K}^{-1}\}$$

$$E_a = (1.923 \times 10^4 \text{ K}) (8.314 \text{ J/K mol})$$

→

$$E_a = 1.60 \times 10^5 \text{ J/mol}$$

The basic Nernst equation is a logarithmic relationship derived from fundamental thermodynamic equations such as:

$$\Delta G = -RT \ln K$$

We know that Gibbs free energy is simply related to the e.m.f. of the cell:

$$\Delta G = -nFE$$

So, for the half-cell reaction, $\text{Ox} + n\text{e}^- = \text{R}$, the **Nernst equation** is:

$$E = E^\ominus + \frac{RT}{nF} \ln \left(\frac{a_{\text{Ox}}}{a_{\text{R}}} \right) \quad \frac{RT}{F} = 0.0257 \text{ V} \quad \text{at } T = 298 \text{ K (25 }^\circ\text{C)}$$

where a_{Ox} and a_{R} are activities,

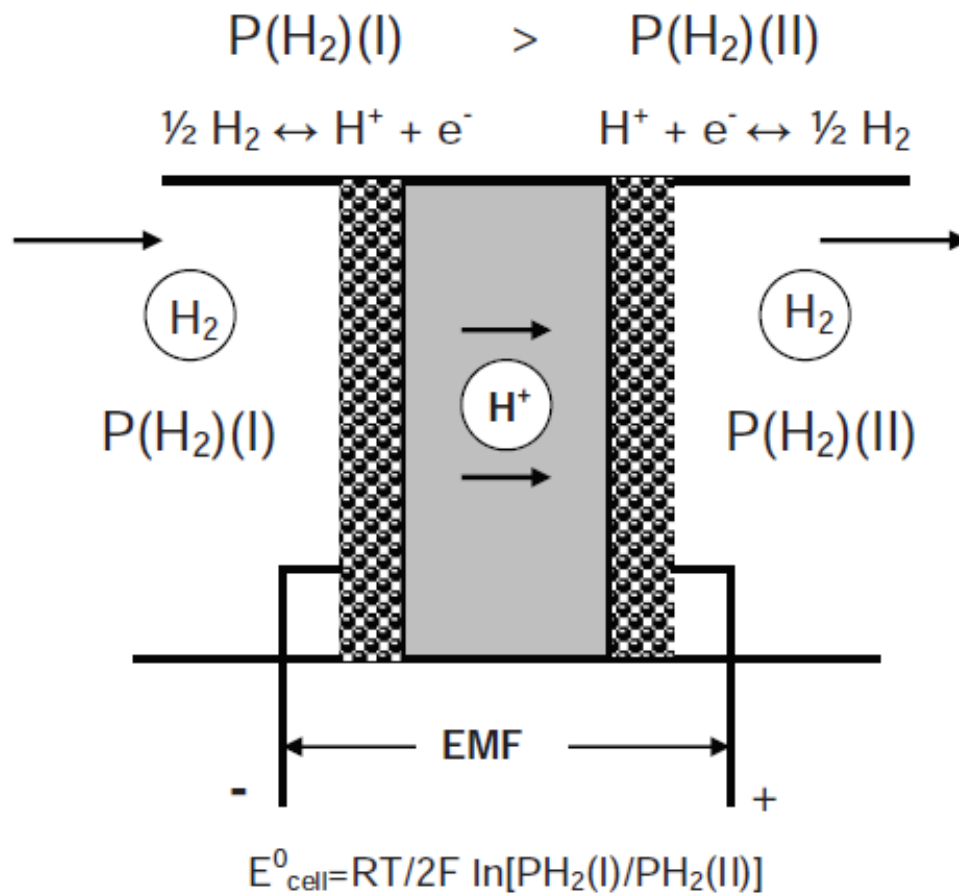
It is usually more useful to express concentrations in powers of ten and therefore to use logarithms to base 10 rather than the *natural* logarithms to base e. The Nernst equation then becomes:

$$E = E^\ominus + 2.303 \frac{RT}{nF} \log \left(\frac{[\text{Ox}]}{[\text{R}]} \right)$$

The reduced species, R, is often a metal, so it has a constant concentration (activity) = 1,

$$E_a = E^0 + RT/F \ln[H^+]/[H_{2a}]^{1/2}$$

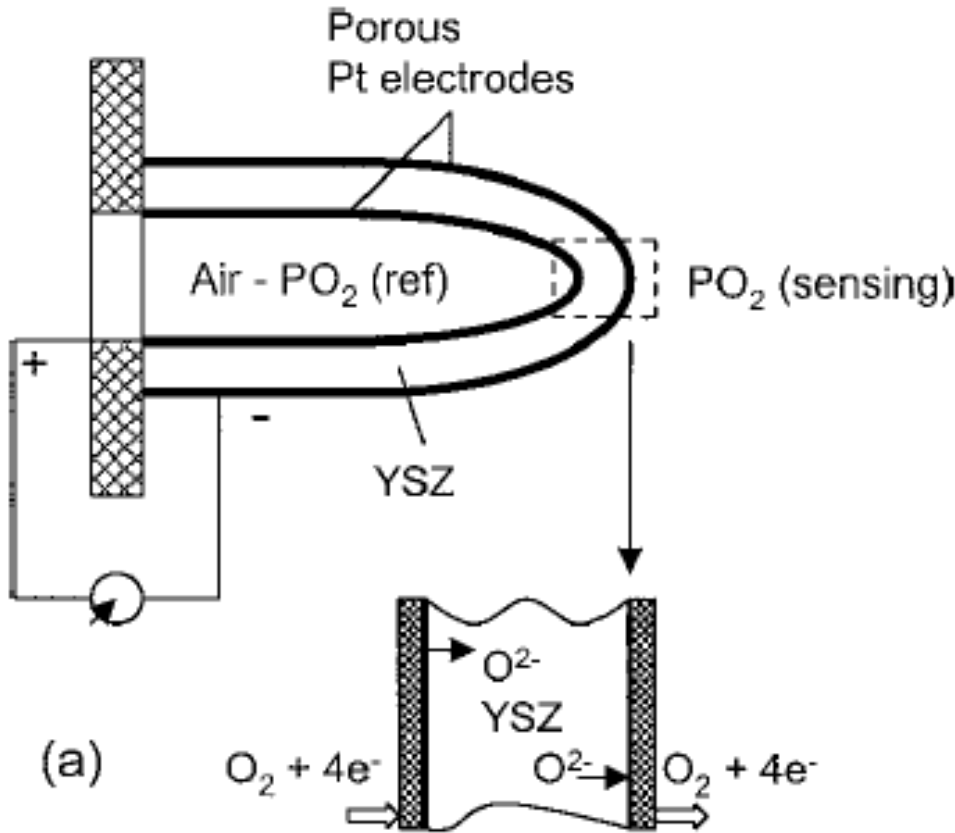
$$E_b = E^0 + RT/F \ln[H^+]/[H_{2b}]^{1/2}$$



The main application of oxygen sensors in the gasoline run automobiles is to control the air-to-fuel ratio (λ). Table II lists the types of oxygen sensors used in automobiles.

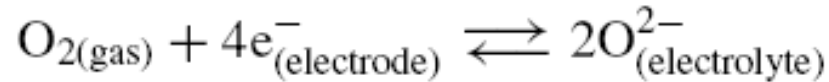
TABLE II Materials, applications and limitations of different types of oxygen sensors

Sensor type	Materials used in sensors	Principle	Applications	Limitations
Potentiometric	YSZ	Nernst principle	As λ -sensor in automobiles; combustion monitoring in industrial boilers, etc.	Output signal varies logarithmically with P_{O_2} ; not suitable for lean burn engine
Amperometric	YSZ	Polarographic oxygen pumping	Wide range O_2 sensor in automobiles	More complicated packaging and design; complexity in diffusion barrier control
Resistive semiconductor	TiO_2	Defects induced conductance variation	As λ -sensor in automobiles	Base resistance drift with time



Schematic diagram of a potentiometric oxygen sensor employing a thimble YSZ electrolyte and platinum electrodes (a) and the chemical potential profile in the sensor cell (b).

The presence of gaseous oxygen at the electrode-electrolyte interface defines a value for oxygen activity and the Fermi level (E_F) is controlled at the interface by the oxygen-electrode equilibrium:



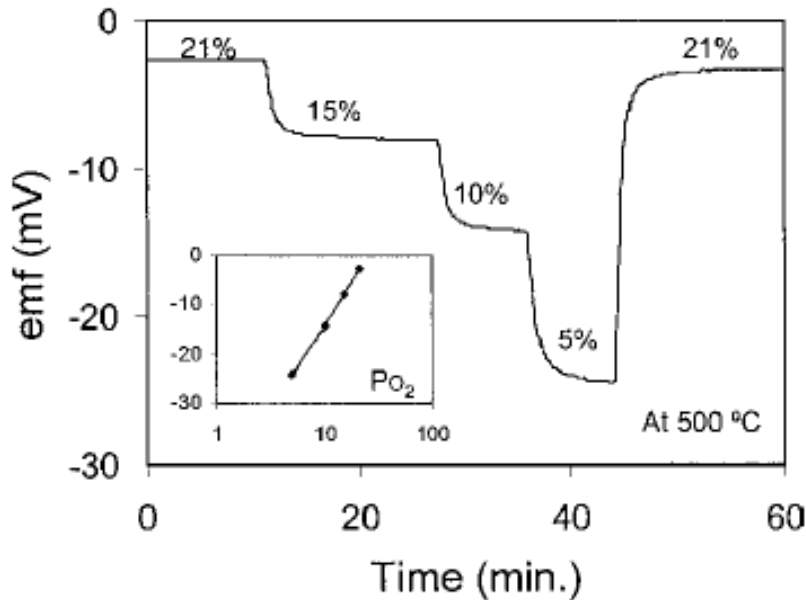
$$E_F = \frac{1}{4}(2\mu_{\text{O}^{2-}} - \mu_{\text{O}_2})$$

where μ is the chemical potential. Since YSZ is a good oxide ion conductor and has high vacancy concentration (proportional to the mole fraction of the dopant (yttria), the chemical potential of oxide ions within the YSZ electrolyte is unchanged. So, for different partial pressures of oxygen on two sides, the difference in Fermi levels is given by:

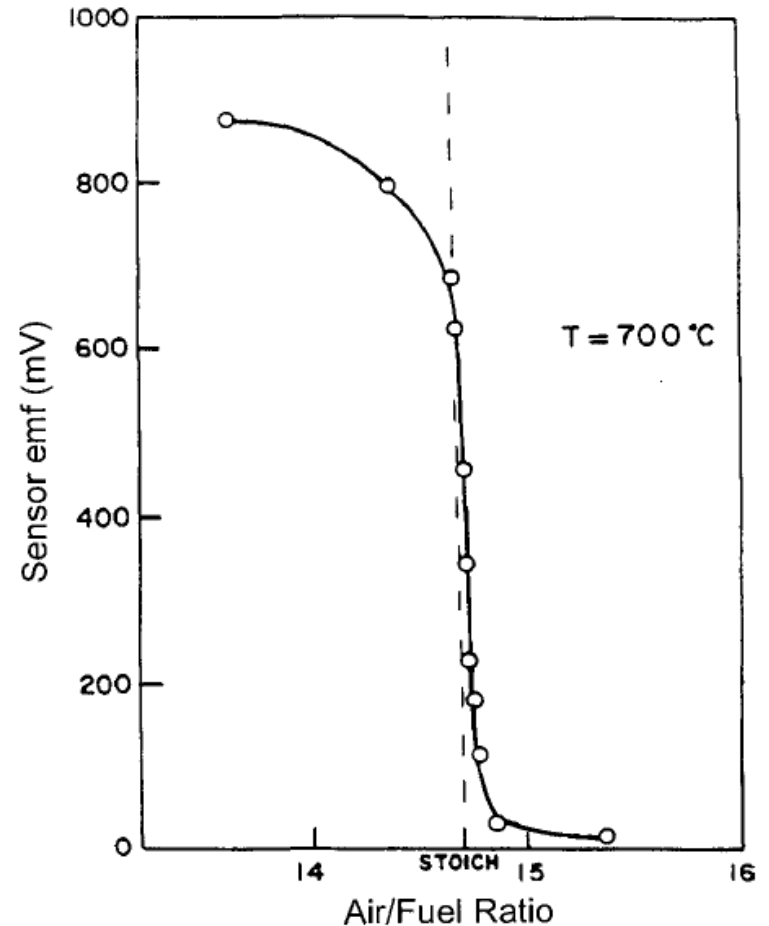
$$\Delta E_F = -\frac{1}{4}(\mu'_{\text{O}_2} - \mu''_{\text{O}_2}) = -\frac{kT}{4e} \ln(P'_{\text{O}_2}/P''_{\text{O}_2})$$

Thus, the potential difference (emf) measured between the two electrodes is given by:

$$\text{emf} = \frac{RT}{4F} \ln\left(\frac{P'_{\text{O}_2}}{P''_{\text{O}_2}}\right)$$



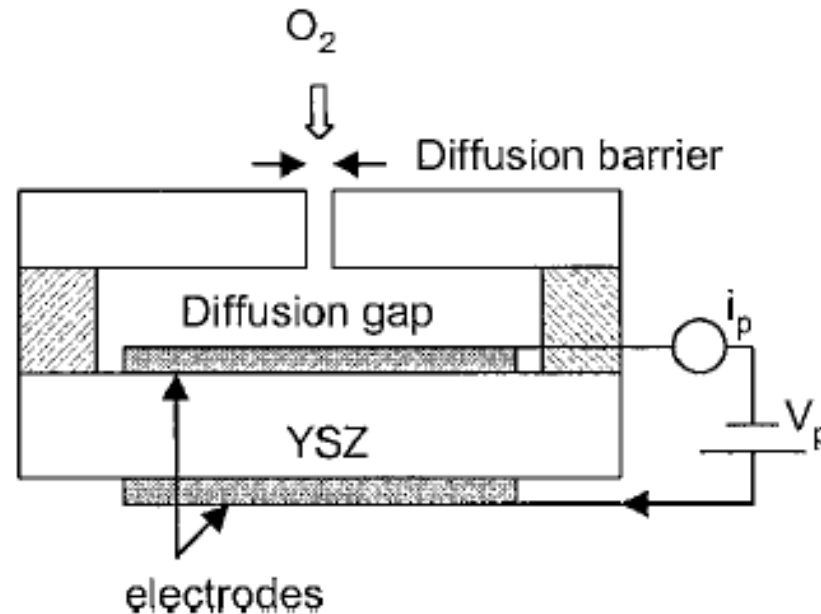
Typical sensor response curve of a thimble type YSZ based potentiometric oxygen sensor. Inset: semi-logarithmic variation of the sensor output with PO_2



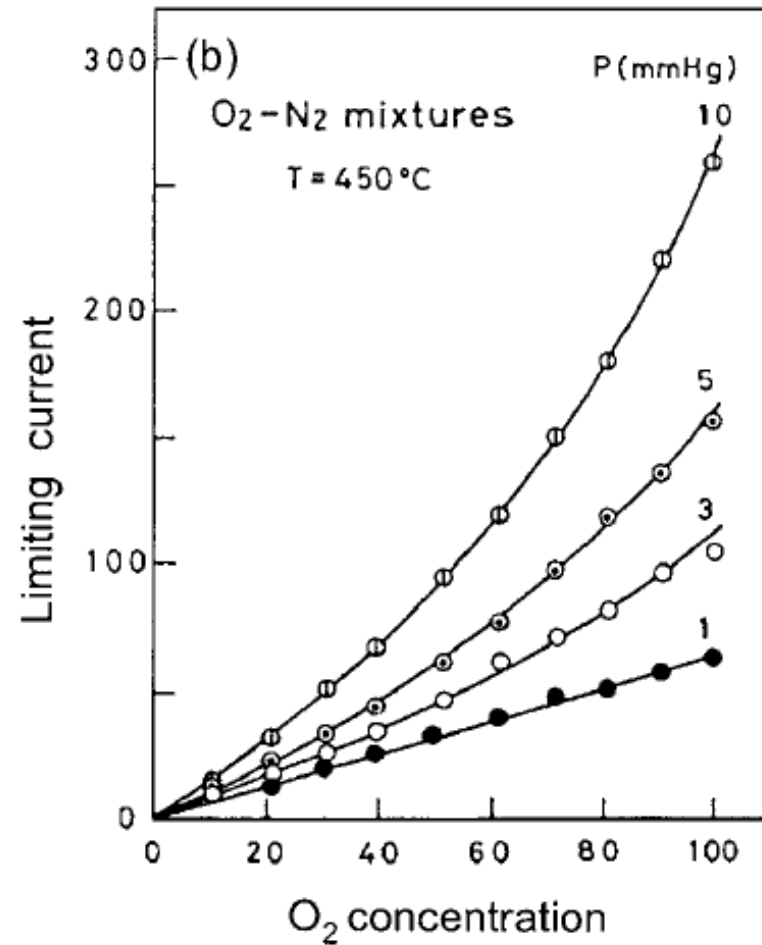
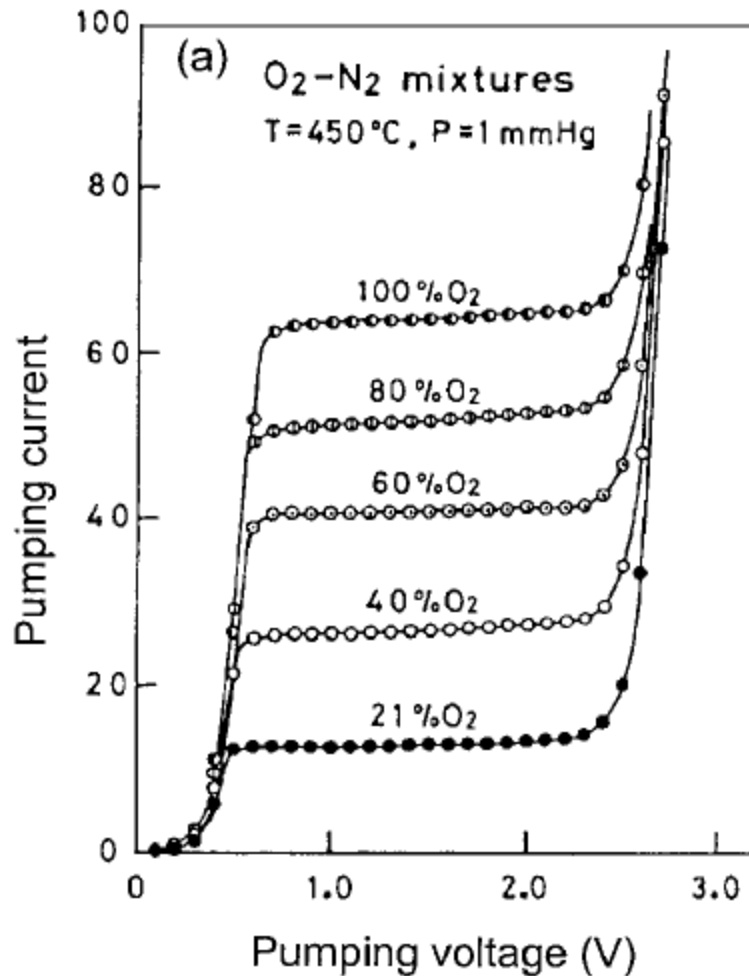
Typical response of a commercial ZrO_2 oxygen sensor to changes in A/F of an engine

In the amperometric sensing mode, oxygen is pumped from one side of the electrolyte to the other by the application of an external potential to the cell. The resulting ionic current flowing through the electrolyte is a function of the oxygen concentration. The amperometric gas sensing mechanism is well known for measuring dissolved oxygen in liquids.

In order to limit the current for a given concentration of oxygen, a diffusion barrier for oxygen is introduced ahead of the cathode. The diffusion barrier can either be a small aperture or a porous material on top of the cathode. Figure::



A current limiting diffusion barrier amperometric oxygen sensor based on YSZ electrolyte.



Limiting current-voltage characteristics of an amperometric oxygen sensor for varying: (a) pumping voltage and oxygen concentration and (b) oxygen concentration and total pressure