


Sensors & New Techniques

Sensors and New Techniques

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In this lecture

- Sensor-based systems for VOC analysis
- Outline of sensor operation
- Sensors commonly found in electronic noses
- Sample handling, data analysis
- Illustration: Cranfield University “VapourGuard”

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Sensor-based systems

- Typical laboratory methods for air monitoring (e.g. TD-GC-MS) are laboratory-bound
- Potential of sensor-based systems
 - Field use
 - Cost-effective
 - Rapid
 - Less operator training
- However, still need to be referred to laboratory analytical techniques
- Electronic nose or “e-nose”

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What is e-nose?

- Instrument for monitoring volatile odour patterns
- Utilises one or more sensors
- Bench or portable
- Generates a pattern from the response of several component sensors to a (usually complex) odour
- Sensors typically have overlapping partial specificities to a wide range of compounds
- Not really an analysis method – no compound identification
- But useful for comparing different systems or samples and categorising them
- Responds to sample attributes to produce a “fingerprint” – useful for complex samples

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Electronic nose

- Sample delivery system
- Gas sensor array
- Signal acquisition system
- Data-logging capability
- Means of pattern recognition

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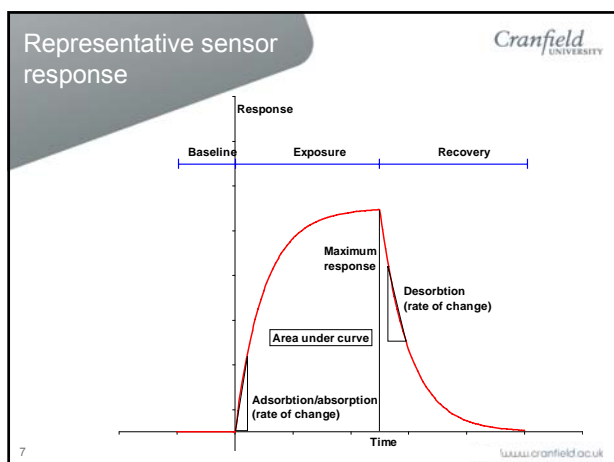
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Gas sensor

A chemical gas sensor can be described as a device, which upon exposure to a gaseous chemical compound or mixture of chemical compounds, alters one or more of its physical properties (e.g. mass, electrical conductivity, or capacitance) in a way that can be measured and quantified directly or indirectly.

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- ### Gas sensor types
- Electrochemical
 - Optical
 - Infrared
 - Coated fibre
 - Piezoelectric (gravimetric)
 - Bulk acoustic wave/quartz crystal microbalance (BAW/QCM)
 - Surface acoustic wave (SAW)
 - Conducting polymer
 - Intrinsically conducting polymer
 - Conducting polymer composite
 - Metal oxide semiconductor field-effect transistor (MOSFET)
 - Metal-oxide semiconductor (MOS)
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Conducting Polymer Sensors

- Typically polymers of pyrrole, aniline or aromatic and heteroaromatic materials
- Intrinsically conducting: linear backbone from unsaturated monomers which is then doped
- Conducting polymer composites: conducting particles (e.g. carbon) in insulating matrix
- Odorants diffuse into the polymer causing its properties to change – typically expansion
- This in turn causes a change in conductivity measurable as an electrical signal

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- ### Conducting polymer sensors
- | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Room temperature operation • Rapid response • Good baseline recovery • Sensitivity ppb/ppm range for a range of organic compounds (alcohols, aldehydes and ketones; fatty acids) • Can manipulate sensors to enhance selectivity | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very sensitive to water vapour • Prone to ageing and drift • Poor manufacturing reproducibility – variation between sensors • Short lifetime due to polymer oxidation |
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MOSFET sensors

- Metal-oxide semiconductor field-effect transistor (MOSFET) acts as an electronic switch – controlled by a “gate”
- Field-effect transistor with catalytic metal (e.g. Pt) as the gate contact
- Interaction of gas with the catalyst changes the operation of the MOSFET – typically changing the switching threshold
- Results in an electrical signal
- Operating temperature around 120 °C
- Sensitivity in the ppb range

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- ### MOSFET sensors
- | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Small • Good reproducibility • CMOS devices so easy to interface • Low cost | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drift • Baseline instability • Control of flow and operating temperature are critical |
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Metal oxide semiconductors

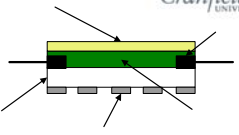
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- In 1953, found that adsorption of a gas onto the surface of a metal oxide semiconductor produced a large change in its electrical resistance
- Led to development of metal oxide semiconductor sensor (MOS) technology.
- Commercially exploited for only a few oxides due to the requirement for a unique combination of resistivity, magnitude of resistance change in gas (sensitivity) and humidity effects.
- Two types:
 - n-type – respond to reducing gases (e.g. tin oxide)
 - p-type – respond to oxidising gases (e.g. nickel oxide)
- Most common oxides for n-type: chromium, titanium, tungsten, tin

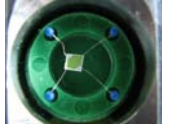
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Metal oxide sensors

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- Ceramic substrate
- Oxide doped onto the upper surface
- Intercalated platinum heating element (lower surface)
 - Operating temperatures 300 – 600°C
 - Optimum temperature for VapourGuard 420°C, determined using MiBE and benzene
- Sorption/desorption of volatiles changes resistance
 - Numerous reactions and processes
 - Compound-dependent
 - Resulting signal transduced and measured
- Major limitation is response time
 - Minutes to reach full-scale response
 - VapourGuard uses a different approach




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Metal oxide sensors

The CAP25

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- General-purpose air quality monitoring sensor
- (Was) commercially available, inexpensive
- Non-specific
- Chromium-titanium oxide - proprietary mixture
- Intended for hazardous solvent detection at 10ppm and above
- Integration of fluidics, electronics and chemometrics enable use at sub-ppm concentrations
- Used in the VapourGuard



≈10mm

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VapourGuard

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- Designed and built at Cranfield University
- Proof-of-concept device for fuel product discrimination
- Detection/speciation of leaks from underground storage tanks
- Mains-powered, portable
- Software controls and data logging

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Problems and advantages of MMOS sensors

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- High power requirement due to high operating temperature
- Can be fouled by some compounds, reducing sensitivity & lifespan
- Full-scale response can be measured in minutes

BUT:

- Can affect sensitivity/specificity by changing temperature
- Less sensitive to water vapour
- Sensitive to a wide range of compounds

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Sample handling and delivery

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- Sample handling directly affects observed sensor response
- Laboratory-based – headspace
- Field-based – pumps and pipes
- Temperature, flow rate and humidity may all be important

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VapourGuard sample handling

- Single sensor
- Two-channel device using two shuttle valves
 - Sample arm
 - Sensor arm
- Aspirates air sample – known volume; controlled rate
- Sample loop – sampling and sensing flow rates can be different
- Flow rate across sensor is constant
- Sample is never static (though its speed changes)
- Reference gas – atmospheric air drawn through hydrocarbon trap
- Inert materials for flow path – High-purity PTFE

VapourGuard sample handling

- Sensor chamber and “piggyback” circuit board
- Chamber is heated to 40°C
- Minimum dead volume
- Circuit board acts as top seal
- Proximity of pre-amplifier to sensor minimises EMI

Sample port

MFC
Sample MFC Pump
Sensor chamber
Sensor MFC

Data analysis

- Most commonly used is multivariate data analysis techniques
 - Principal Components Analysis (PCA)
 - Discriminant Function Analysis (DFA)
 - Artificial Neural Networks (ANN)
- Aim is to reduce data dimensionality
- Initial data reduction is often a prerequisite

Data analysis Normalisation

- Response of VapourGuard sensor to 100ppm gasoline in air, spiked with various amounts of the oxygenate methyl tertiary butyl ether (MtBE) (0 – 10% v/v)
- Clear visible difference between samples in left-hand graph
 - Different response amplitude
 - Probably related to relatively high volatility of MtBE compared to gasoline
 - Cannot easily control sample concentration in the field
- Process the data to remove the effect of absolute concentration
- Can we still tell these signals apart if we normalise them to zero baseline and unity amplitude?

Pump

Data analysis Data reduction by segmentation

- Divide into segments (first 20 seconds into 1-second segments)
- Mean amplitude of each segment
- Rate of change (slope) of each segment by linear regression
- Easy to implement
- Flexible
- No *a priori* assumptions
- Arbitrary but effective

MtBE in gasoline

- Labels show %MtBE in ULG-95
- Normalised data
- Clusters relate to MtBE content

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Fuel discrimination

Soil microcosms

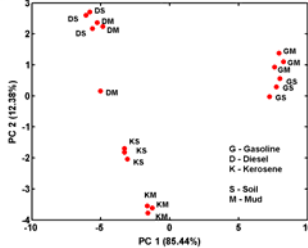


- Duran bottle (100 ml) with sample bag sealed to top
- Artificial soil: mix of clay, compost and sand
- Add water (20% of dry weight) for “artificial mud”
- Gasoline, diesel or kerosene (1000 mg/kg): 3 replicates
- Bag filled with zero-grade air
- Analysed after 24 hours

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Fuel discrimination

Soil microcosms



- Normalised data – blank samples not shown
- Clusters based on fuel type
- Presence of water makes little difference

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Conclusions

- Electronic noses can provide a cost-effective solution for measurement of VOCs in air
- Need to be referred to analytical techniques
- No one class of sensor is suitable for all applications
- General considerations for sensor selection
 - Cost
 - Power consumption
 - Susceptibility to ambient conditions and fouling
 - Stability and ageing
 - Reproducibility
 - Selectivity
- But sensitivity less likely to be an issue

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Conclusions

- To be useful, a sensor must form part of a system into which it must fit
- E-nose is a device for delivering a sample to a sensor
- Observed performance is strongly dependent on the system
 - Sample handling, sensor properties, data processing
- Sensors can be “persuaded” to do far more than they were designed to do (or less!)
- Trade-off between specificity and information?
- Arrays of cheap, highly-specific sensors?

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