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Research Article

## Phase modulation of $MoO_2$ - $MoO_3$ nanostructured thin films through W-Doping; utilizing UV photodetection and gas sensing applications

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
Article History	Gas sensing properties of metal oxide semiconductors draw high attention due to their simple fabricating methods,
Received 19 February 2022	and low cost, chemical, and physical properties. In general, a high bandgap (>2 eV) can cause them to react in the
Revised 15 April 2022	UV region through the electromagnetic spectrum. Controlling the UV-photodetection and gas sensing ability of
Accepted 16 April 2022	MoO <sub>2</sub> -MoO <sub>3</sub> thin film through tungsten (W) doping of different ratios have been reported here. The preparation of these films was grown using a reactive magnetron sputtering system with different power sputtering of W-content.
Keywords	The bandgap calculations showed that the samples have a wide bandgap value. A small particle size of 8nm was observed through high W doping concentration which enhanced these materials toward high efficient gas sensing
Photodetector	and UV photodetector applications. The UV optical sensor exhibits a high responsivity value of 2500A/W and an
Gas sensor	external quantum efficiency (EQE) value of 5x109 at 365nm. Also, an increase in the photocurrent gain value with
Thin-film	increasing the W amount with a maximum value of 0.13, while a photocurrent of 1mA was observed. On the other
Metal oxide	hand, a fast-response/recovery time-based CO2 gas sensor of less than 10 sec was observed. The thin-film sensors
Semiconductor	showed well-defined adsorption and desorption kinetics in a CO <sub>2</sub> environment with a p-type chemisorption
Nanostructure	

Araștırma Makalesi

# $MoO_2$ - $MoO_3$ nanoyapılı ince filmlerin W-Doping yoluyla faz modülasyonu; UV foto ve gaz algılama uygulamalarını kullanma

MAKALE BİLGİSİ	ÖZ
Makale Geçmişi	Metal oksit yarı iletkenlerin gaz algılama özellikleri, basit üretim yöntemleri ve düşük maliyeti, kimyasal ve fiziksel
Geliş 19 Şubat 2022 Revizyon 15 Nisan 2022 Kabul 16 Nisan 2022	özellikleri nedeniyle büyük ilgi görmektedir. Genel olarak, yüksek bir bant aralığı (>2 eV), elektromanyetik spektrum yoluyla UV bölgesinde reaksiyona girmelerine neden olabilir. Farklı oranlarda tungsten (W) dopingi yoluyla MoO2-MoO3 ince filmin UV foto algılama ve gaz algılama yeteneğinin kontrol edilmesi burada rapor edilmiştir. Bu filmlerin hazırlanması, W içeriğinin farklı güç püskürtmeli reaktif magnetron püskürtme sistemi
Anahtar Kelimeler Fotodedektör Gaz sensörü İnce tabaka	kullanılarak büyütüldü. Bant aralığı hesaplamaları, örneklerin geniş bir bant aralığı değerine sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu malzemeleri yüksek verimli gaz algılama ve UV fotodetektör uygulamalarına doğru geliştiren yüksek W katkı konsantrasyonu yoluyla 8 nm'lik küçük bir parçacık boyutu gözlemlendi. UV optik sensör, 365nm'de 2500A/W'lik yüksek bir duyarlılık değeri ve 5x109'luk bir harici kuantum verimliliği (EQE) değeri sergiler. Ayrıca, 1mA'lık bir fotoakım olurken, maksimum 0.13 değerinde W miktarı arttıkça fotoakım kazanç
Metal oksit	değerinde bir artış gözlemlendi. Öte yandan, 10 saniyeden kısa bir hızlı yanıt/kurtarma süresine dayalı CO2 gaz
Yarı iletken	sensörü gözlendi. İnce film sensörleri, p-tipi kimyasal adsorpsiyon davranışına sahip bir CO2 ortamında iyi
Nanoyapı	tanımlanmış adsorpsiyon ve desorpsiyon kinetiği gösterdi.

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#### 1. Introduction

Metal oxide semiconductors (MOSs) sensors, a type of thin-film sensor that changes resistance depending on the chemical environment (chemo-resistive sensor), have recently achieved high sensitivity levels, indicating that they could be used for both indoor and outdoor gas detection applications (M. A. Basyooni, Zaki, et al., 2020). Owing to the reliable sensitivity, low cost, low production, simplicity, and the gas detectivity, the MOSs nanostructures such as WO<sub>3</sub> (Jung et al., 2020; Zeb et al., 2019), MoO<sub>3</sub> (M. A. Basyooni, Zaki, et al., 2020), ZnO (Akdağ et al., 2016), Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Boström et al., 2004), SnO<sub>2</sub> (Haider et al., 2013; Shaban et al., 2014, 2015), Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Bashiri et al., 2020) and In<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>(Ma et al., 2019) are widely implemented. Among them,  $MoO_3$  and  $WO_3$  are reported to have promising electrical and optical properties for various applications such as solar cells, gas sensing (Z. Wei et al., 2018) smart windows application (Bin Li et al., 2019), display devices (Yeh et al., 2018), energy storage devices (Xu et al., 2019), electrodes (Yue et al., 2020), perovskite solar cells (B. S. Kim et al., 2015) and transistors (Sun et al., 2010), and also it is very common to use as sensing layer (Mohamed et al., 2019).

 $CO_2$  has recently emerged as the most significant greenhouse gas contributing to global warming and climate change. The detection of  $CO_2$ , which is a blackdamp, is also critical. Because of their advantages for CO<sub>2</sub> detection, MOSbased detection devices are one of the most promising gas sensors (Juang & Chen, 2020). Studies for sensitive and fastresponse gas sensors for the detection of toxic and greenhouse gases received high attention. Also, CO2 gas detection is important in different applications such as fire/air detection, food quality control, industrial processes, and medical diagnostics (Juang & Chen, 2020). Researchers reported on several CO2 gas sensors that are MOS-based such as ZnO (Çolak & Karaköse, 2019; Ghosh et al., 2019), CuO (N. Bin Tanvir et al., 2015; N. B. Tanvir et al., 2017), and SnO<sub>2</sub>(Hsu et al., 2020). Gas sensors and photodetectors based on MOSs are widely studied by many authors. Among many transition metal oxides, Molybdenum oxide (MoO<sub>3</sub>) is a wide bandgap semiconductor that implements high permission for gas sensor optoelectronic devices due to its controllable production, low cost, and fast response (Jiang et al., 2019). For instance, in previous studies, MoO<sub>3</sub> is sensitive to different gases such as SO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S (Çiftyürek et al., 2016), ethanol (T. Li et al., 2015; Mo et al., 2020; Touihri et al., 2017), H<sub>2</sub> (Shafieyan et al., 2019; S. Yang et al., 2019), and triethylamine (He et al., 2019; Q. Wei et al., 2019), NO2 (Mane & Moholkar, 2018),  $H_2O_2$ (Bo Li et al., 2019), and  $CO_2$  (M. A. Basyooni, Zaki, et al., 2020).

On the other hand, MoO<sub>3</sub> is important in photoelectric devices and their applications because of its optoelectronic and electrical properties. J. Kim et al., studied the photodetector behavior of MoO<sub>3</sub>/Si heterojunction under the infrared (IR) illumination with a fast response of 72.32ms and recovery time of 68.15ms. (Park et al., 2018). While, in a study by Q. Zheng et al., the MoO<sub>3</sub>-based flexible ultraviolet photodetector has been implemented with a high on/off switching ratio over two orders, a response time of less than 1sec, and high responsivity of 183 mAW<sup>-1</sup> (Zheng et al., 2015). Moreover, many studies have been reported before (Lee et al., 2019; Pal et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2015). The addition of specific extrinsic elements to MOS will affect many properties such as surface activity, electron mobility, defect and grain size,... etc. Among these additives, the W element draws great attention. Results of a study conducted by G. Lu et al., showed a gas sensing performance of W doping NiO is approximately 139 times higher than pristine NiO (Wang et al., 2015). P. Song *et al.*, reported high trimethylamine sensing performances towards W doped MoO<sub>3</sub> developed (Z. Li et al., 2017).

We used W doping to investigate the effect of MoO2 and MoO3 ratios. Controlling the O2 concentrations during the sputtering process was used to accomplish this. The major goal of this work was to understand the main role of the crucial amount of O2 and Mo through the deposited thin films utilizing XRD - Rietveld refinement analysis using the Fullproof tool. This work shows structural, morphology, topography, and optical characterizations of Mo-O through different concentrations of 0, 20, and 40% of W-doped. By focusing on the behavior of W on  $MoO_2$  -  $MoO_3$  lattice, gas sensing applications, the direct optoelectronic behavior, bandgap calculations, and UV photodetector have been examined.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1. Preparation of W doped Mo-O thin film

W-doped MoO<sub>2</sub>-MoO<sub>3</sub> composite nanostructured thin films of 0, 20, and 40 % that denoted by W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub>, respectively. The deposition process was conducted by using a magnetron sputtering system (3M1T VAKSIS MIDAS) based on 99.9% high purity Mo and W targets. Carrier gas of Argon (Ar) and reactive gas of Oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) are used to control the deposition of the oxide thin films. Under a vacuum condition of  $3x10^{-7}$ Torr, the sputtering temperature of 400° C, sputtering time of 90 min, the working pressure of  $5x10^{-3}$  Torr, and different W power intensity, the W-doped MoO<sub>3</sub>-MoO<sub>2</sub> formed. A gas flow meter was used to control the flow of O<sub>2</sub> and Ar gas. Fused silica and FTO on glass substrates are cleaned for 15 minutes in acetone and IPA in the ultrasonic bath, then rinsed with DI water and dried with N<sub>2</sub> gas.

#### 2.2 Characterization techniques

The structural and crystal characterizations were done by the APD2000 X-ray diffractometer, using  $\lambda = 1.54$  Å (CuK<sub>a</sub>) in the scanning range of 10-90° with 0.01° step. The recorded XRD data are analyzed using Fullproof Suite software based on the Rietveld structure refinements program of MoO<sub>3</sub> thin films [45]. Then, the calculated structure was visualized in a 3D view using VESTA software. Renishaw inVia confocal Raman spectroscopy system and TESCANMAIA3 XMU model were used for Raman and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) measurements, respectively. Raman measurements were conducted with a 532 nm laser beam. Quantitative analysis of the elements was carried out with Oxford 50Xmax by energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis. The surface topography and thickness of films were taken using Park XE6 Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM). The transmission (T) and absorption (A) spectrums were taken using Shimadzu UV-VIS Spectrophotometer. The bandgap  $(E_g)$  of the deposited thin films was calculated using the Tauc equation. The electrical, optoelectronic, and gas sensing measurements were measured based on Keithley SourceMeter with the help of a UV light source that emits 365 nm. Our previous studies show the details of the gas sensing measurement system (M. A. Basyooni, Eker, et al., 2020; M. A. Basyooni, Zaki, et al., 2020; M. A. M. A. Basyooni et al., 2017; Görmez et al., 2020; Zaki et al., 2019).

#### 3. Results and Discussions

#### 3.1. Structural properties

The XRD patterns of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> samples are shown in Fig. 1, 2, and 3. As shown in Fig. 1 and 2, a low concentration of W content contributes to the high crystallinity of the  $MoO_2$ - $MoO_3$ . However, the amorphous peak in Fig. 3 for  $W_4$  thin film could be due to a higher concentration of W. This phenomenon may get raised by the fact that the enthalpy of Mo-O (560.2 ± 20.9 kJ/mol) is lower than that of the enthalpy of W-O (672.0  $\pm$  41.8 kJ / mol), which means that Mo requires less energy to form a compound with oxygen ("CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics. 81st Edition Edited by David R. Lide (National Institute of Standards and Technology). CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL. 2000. 2556 Pp. \$129.95. ISBN 0-8493-0481-4," 2000). Due to the importance of oxygen vacancy calculations and refinement analysis in transition metal oxides, the XRD Rietveld refinement structure of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films are calculated and plotted as in Fig. 1, 2, and 3. For the  $W_0$  thin film, the R-factors;  $R_{wp}$ ,  $R_{exp}$ , and  $\chi^2$  are equal to 7.52, 3.26, and 5.31, respectively. The distribution of the unit cell and atoms of  $W_0$  are plotted and depicted in Fig. 1 (b) and summarized in Table 1.

Table 1							
Unit cell parameters of W <sub>0</sub> , W <sub>2</sub> , and W <sub>4</sub> thin films.							
Sample	Phase	a (Å)	b (Å)	c (Å)	α (°)	β (°)	γ (°)
	WO3	-	-	-	-	-	-
	$MoO_2$	9.788	8.604	4.714	90.00	90.00	90.00
W <sub>0</sub>							
	МоО₃	15.309	3.719	3.976	90.00	90.00	90.00
	WO3	18.272	3.818	14.070	90.00	115.02	90.00
$W_2$	$MoO_2$	9.828	8.639	4.677	90.00	90.00	90.00
	$MoO_3$	15.249	3.716	3.978	90.00	90.00	90.00
	$WO_3$	18.508	3.759	14.033	90.00	115.21	90.00
$W_4$	$MoO_2$	9.198	8.591	4.809	90.00	90.00	90.00
	МоОз	14.884	3.778	4.035	90.00	90.00	90.00



Figure 1. (a) and (b) show the XRD Rietveld structure refinement pattern and the unit cells of  $W_0$ -doped  $MoO_3$  thin film, respectively.



Figure 2. (a) and (b) show the XRD Rietveld structure refinement pattern and the unit cells of W2-doped Mo-O thin film, respectively.



Figure 3. (a) and (b) show the XRD Rietveld structure refinement pattern and the unit cells of W<sub>4</sub>-doped Mo-O thin film, respectively.

Table 2 also shows the W<sub>0</sub> sample's lattice characteristics, Mo-O<sub>2</sub> content, and phase percentages. The Rietveld structure refinements produced from XRD data and unit cells of the thin film structure are shown in Figures 1, 2, and 3. In the MoO<sub>2</sub> phase, W<sub>0</sub> had a crystal structure of 39.46 %, and in the MoO<sub>3</sub> phase, it had a crystal structure of 60.54%. R-factors of refined structures of samples show a decrease with an increase in the W doping concentration as shown in Fig. 1(a), 2(a), and 3(a). Both R factors and  $\chi^2$  values show that the refinement processes of samples are within acceptable limits. The percentage of MoO<sub>2</sub>, MoO<sub>3</sub>, and WO<sub>3</sub> structures are calculated based on XRD Rietveld refinement and indicated in Table 2 as 31.46%, 61.85%, and 2.69%, respectively. With the increase in W doping amount, an increase in the amount of MoO<sub>2</sub> in the structure was observed. The W-O compound formed in the structure is not exactly WO<sub>3</sub>, but it is more suitable for the WO<sub>2.72</sub> structure which is one of the sub-oxides of the W-O system. The unit cells of the Mo-O and W-O structures drawn from the VESTA program and whose parameters are derived from the Rietveld analysis are shown in Fig. 1(b), 2(b), and 3(b). Unit cell parameters for MoO<sub>2</sub>, MoO<sub>3</sub>, and WO<sub>3</sub> structure are indicated in Table 1, amount and phase percentage of W, Mo, and O<sub>2</sub> are shown in Table 2.

#### Table 2

Shows the XRD Rietveld refinement structure analysis of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films.

Sample	Phase	Amount of W	Amount of Mo	Amount of $O_2$	Ratio of O/W – O/Mo	Percent (%)
	$WO_3$	-	-	-	-	-
W <sub>0</sub>	$MoO_2$	-	1.837	3.836	2.088	39.46
	MoO <sub>3</sub>	-	1	3.012	3.012	60.54
	WO3	7.114	-	21.106	2.967	2.69
W <sub>2</sub>	$MoO_2$	-	1.816	3.767	2.074	31.46
	$MoO_3$	-	1.00	3.010	3.010	61.85
	WO3	9.00	-	26.69	2.970	9.86
$W_4$	MoO2	-	1.837	3.765	2.049	52.12
	MoO3	-	1.00	3.016	3.016	38.02

#### Table 3

Shows the crystallite size of W <sub>0</sub> , W <sub>2</sub> , and W <sub>4</sub> thin films.							
Sample	FWHM(°)	20(°)	Crystallite Size(nm)				
$W_0$	0.34422	23.25658	24.630				
W2 W4	0.35396 0.97084	23.31281 23.35093	23.954 8.734				

In comparison to the  $W_2$  thin film, the  $MoO_2$  phase grows as the number of W increases, whereas the  $MoO_3$  phase decreases. Estimating crystallite size is calculated using the Scherrer equation (Ingham & Toney, 2013; Patterson, 1939; Zsigmondy & Scherrer, 1912) and shown in Table 3 for  $W_0$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W_4$  thin films. The crystalline size of  $W_0$  and  $W_2$  thin films did not show a big difference. While for  $W_4$ , a sharp decrease in the crystalline size of 8.73nm was observed. XRD data showed that with the introduction of W into the structure, amorphization has also started in the film structure because the crystallization temperature of  $WO_3$  is high.



Figure 4. (a), (b), and (c) shows Raman spectra of W0, W2, and W4 doped Mo-O thin films, respectively.

The calculated crystallite sizes belong to the crystallized part of the structure and do not include the amorphous part. Raman spectra of  $W_0$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W_4$  samples are shown in Fig. 4 (a), (b) and (c), respectively. The main Raman is attributed to peaks at 770 cm<sup>-1</sup> to the stretching modes in the monoclinic  $WO_3$  in  $W_2$  and  $W_4$  thin films (Gurlo et al., 2004; Y. S. Kim et al., 2008). The main Raman peaks at 807, 845, and 845 cm<sup>-1</sup> are contributed to the stretching mode of the Mo-O bond.

#### 3.2. Morphological and surface characterizations

SEM was used to characterize the morphology of the W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> samples, as shown in Fig. 5. An uneven nanosheet with significant particle size may be seen in the W<sub>0</sub> thin film. More regular structures emerged as the amount of W grew. While, for W<sub>2</sub> thin film, there was a mixture of nanosheets and nanorods, but for  $W_4$  a shape like nanorods with a smooth surface and small crystallite size was observed. We thought also that the amount of W plays a meaningful role in the surface morphology of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films by controlling the amount of MoO<sub>2</sub>. Elemental analyzes and distributions of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films grown on the Si substrate were performed using EDX spectroscopy as shown in Fig. 6. The quantitative elemental analysis was summarized in Table 4. As seen in EDX results, it was determined that W was homogeneously distributed in the Mo-O matrix. Fig. 7 shows the AFM images, where the surface roughness was decreased from W<sub>0</sub> to W<sub>4</sub>. The high roughness and sharpness surface was owing to W<sub>4</sub> thin film which supports the high gas adsorption and optical sensing ability.

#### Table 4

Shows	the	quantitative	analyses,	weight,	and	atomic	ratios	in
percent	ages	for O (K serie	s), W (L sei	ries), and	Mo (	L series)	in W <sub>0</sub> ,	W2,
and W <sub>4</sub>	thin	films.						

		Thin Films		
Element	W <sub>0</sub>	W2	W4	
0	Weight%	75.97	76.68	77.14
(K series)	Atomic%	94.99	95.30	95.97
W	Weight%	0.00	1.38	7.23
(L series)	Atomic%	0.00	0.15	0.78
Мо	Weight%	24.03	21.95	15.64
(L series)	Atomic%	5.01	4.55	3.24

#### 3.3. Optical properties

Optical properties calculations are important to study the film transmission (T) and absorbance (A) spectra. T and A spectra of the W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films on a clean glass were conducted in the range of 300 to 1000 nm (Rodríguez-Carvajal, 1993). Fig. 8 (a) and (b) show the spectra of A and T, respectively. At 460 nm, a high transmission value of 97% was belonging to the W<sub>4</sub> thin film. In addition, W<sub>0</sub> and W<sub>2</sub> thin films show sharp edges of the basic absorption band close to  $\lambda$  = 400nm, while no peak was observed for the W<sub>4</sub> thin film. A slight blue shift in the optical absorption curve was observed by injecting W into the Mo-O<sub>2</sub> lattice which may relate to the electron transfer between Mo<sup>5+</sup> and W<sup>6+</sup> ions are being due to the electron gap transfer between Mo<sup>5+</sup> and W<sup>6+</sup> ions and to the quantum electron confinement in Mo. This result suggested that the absorption band in W<sub>2</sub> and W<sub>4</sub> thin film results from the discontinuous transfer of electrons (Hiruta et al., 1984; Schirmer et al., 1977).

The optical bandgap of the Mo-O compound can be changed by changing the W ratio, which affects photodetection and gas sensing ability (Taurino et al., 2003). To optical properties of these thin films, the optical bandgaps are calculated as below (Görmez et al., 2020). The optical absorption theory can be calculated from the equation with the association between the coefficient of absorption ( $\alpha$ ) and the photon energy (hv):  $\alpha = \frac{B(hv-E_g)^{\chi}}{hv}$ , where  $\alpha$  can be calculated from the spectrum of transmission using  $\alpha = \frac{1}{a} ln(\frac{1}{T})$  and B,  $E_g$ , h and x are a constant, the optical bandgap, the Planck's constant and 0.5 for the directly allowed

transitions while For indirect transitions, the x value is taken as 2, which also applies to the materials we investigate, respectively. The photon's energy is related to the direct bandgap  $E_g$  by the equation:  $(\alpha hv)^2(hv - E_g)$ . The  $E_g$  values were computed and plotted by extrapolating the linear component of  $(\alpha hv)^2$  vs. hv at  $\alpha$ =0. It is possible to obtain the  $E_g$  by extrapolating the linear component of the plot of  $(\alpha hv)^2$  vs. hv to  $\alpha$ =0. Fig. 9 (a), (b), and (c) display the computed band gaps of W0, W2 and W4 thin films. The bandgap of W0, W2 and W4 thin films was measured as 3.62, 3.31, and 3.97 eV, respectively.



Figure 5. (a), (b), and (c) show SEM images of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> doped Mo-O thin films, respectively.



Figure 6. Shows the EDX spectra and the surface mapping of the as-prepared samples. Figures (a), (b), and (c) are representing the amount of Mo L $\alpha$ 1, O k $\alpha$ 1, and W L $\alpha$ 1 on the Si substrate of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films, respectively. While, Figures (d), (e), and (f) are representing the surface mapping of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films, respectively. Where Si, O, W, and Mo are referring to green, red, aqua, and purple colors.



Figure 7. (a), (b), and (c) show AFM images of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> doped Mo-O thin films, respectively.



Figure 8. (a) and (b) show the transmission and absorption graphics of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> doped Mo-O thin films, respectively.



Figure 9. Shows the bandgap graphics of (a): W<sub>0</sub>, (b): W<sub>2</sub> and (c): W<sub>4</sub> thin films. The intercept of the solid line with the horizontal axis can define the value of the bandgap.

#### 3.4. Gas sensing measurements and parameters

#### 3.4.1. Electrical, dynamical, and, sensitivity measurements

The forward voltage-current (V-I) in N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> gas environments, respectively, is shown in Fig. 10 (a) and (b). Fig. 10 (c) and (d) exhibit the time-resistance (t-R) characterization of  $W_0$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W_4$  thin films in  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$ gas, respectively. The Ohmic contacts on the W<sub>0</sub> and W<sub>2</sub> thin films are visible, whereas the Schottky contacts on the  $W_{\rm 4}$ thin film are visible. Fig. 10 shows that the conductivity increased with increased W content. The total resistance of the films decreased with increasing W contents in the N2 and  $CO_2$  environment as seen in Fig. 10 (c) and (d). Due to the oxidation behavior of CO<sub>2</sub>, the resistance of the sensors was decreased by introducing CO<sub>2</sub> which confirms its p-type conductivity as in Fig. 10 (d). To understand the sensor behavior of  $W_{0, W2}$ , and  $W_4$  thin films, the transient kinetics, sensitivity, and sensing period are calculated in detail and defined here.

The sensor dynamics were evaluated at different CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from 5 to 30 sccm, as shown in Fig. 11 (a-c). The sensor resistance decreased by introducing CO<sub>2</sub> as a p-type behavior, while N<sub>2</sub> gas is re-stabilizing the sensor by increasing the resistance again as Fig. 11. The sensitivity of the sensor can be measured in percent as  $S(\%) = \frac{R_{CO_2} - R_{N_2}}{R_{N_2}} * 100$ , where  $R_{CO_2}$  and  $R_{N_2}$  are the sensor resistances of CO<sub>2</sub> and

 $N_2$ , respectively. Fig. 11 (d) shows the sensitivity of  $W_0$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W_4$  sensors with  $CO_2$  concentration. It seems that the sensitivity of the  $W_4$  sensor shows the highest value of 3.4% at 5sccm. While, at higher concentrations, the sensor shows a decrease in the recorded sensitivity, which makes this sensor works better at lower concentrations.



**Figure 10.** (a) and (b) show the current-voltage (I-V) graphics in the case of N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> environments of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and w<sub>4</sub>, respectively. While (c) and (d) represent the change of resistance with time (R-t) in the case of N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> environments of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub>, respectively.



Figure 11. (a), (b), and (c) show the transit curves of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> doped Mo-O thin films in a CO<sub>2</sub> environment, respectively. (d) shows the CO<sub>2</sub> gas sensitivity at different gas concentrations.

#### 3.4.2. Response and recovery time

The forward voltage-current (V-I) in  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  gas environments, respectively, is shown in Fig. 10 (a) and (b). Fig. 10 (c) and (d) exhibit the time-resistance (t-R) characterization of  $W_0$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W_4$  thin films in  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$ gas, respectively. The Ohmic contacts on the  $W_0$  and  $W_2$  thin films are visible, whereas the Schottky contacts on the  $W_4$ thin film are visible. The response time decreases with increasing W content as seen in Fig. 12 (a), with a very fast response time of less than 7 sec towards the  $W_4$  sample. Similarly, the recovery time of  $W_4$  thin film is reduced to 3sec at 30sccm.



#### 3.5. UV-Photodetector measurements and parameters

#### 3.5.1. Transient and optoelectronic response

Fig. 13 shows the optoelectronic applications of  $W_0$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W_4$  thin films. Fig 13 (a-c) shows the dynamic behavior of  $W_0$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W_4$  thin films under dark and 365nm UV illumination conditions, respectively. Each cycle has a switching time of 60sec and a bias voltage of 5V. The designed optical sensors were used to measure the time domain photoresponse in the case of ON/OFF and OFF/ON transitions of the UV light source, repeated many times for each 60sec at a bias voltage of 5V. A significant high photocurrent can be observed in the ON state at 5V, making the gate voltage lower the potential barriers at the contacts, resulting in highly efficient photogenerated carrier extraction and thus increasing the generated photocurrent. The gate voltage can affect the height of the Schottky barrier between the metal contact and film surface and thus shift the Fermi level (Das et al., 2013; Y. Yang et al., 2017). At a sweep voltage of +3 to -3V, the I-V curve has been plotted under dark and UV illumination for W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films as Fig. 13 (d-f), respectively. All curves show a linear Ohmic contact through +3 to -3V. Fig. 13 (g-i) shows the log-current curves under dark and UV illumination of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films, respectively. It is seen that W doping may shift the logarithmic I-V curve towards the negative voltage region. Might fix this behavior due to the induced strain effects or unidirectional charge transport mechanism from the W to  $MoO_2$ - $MoO_3$  due to the different electron concentrations (Reddy et al., 2014). It is observed that under UV illumination a higher generated photocurrent value may be attributed to enhancement through the band-to-band excitation and the recombination of the carrier in the W-doped MoO<sub>2</sub>-MoO<sub>3</sub> region. To test the long-term stability of all samples under both dark and UV illumination, a resistance-time (R-t) dynamic behavior over a long time was recorded and illustrated in Fig. 13 (j-n). All samples show symmetric kinetics through a 350sec period with remarkable differences in the generated photocurrent.

#### 3.5.2. Photocurrent gain and photoresponsivity measurements

The induced photocurrent lph is given by  $I_{ph} = I_{Light} - I_{Light}$  $I_{Dark}$ , where  $I_{ph}$  can be modulated and increased according to the applied voltage and the power intensity (Ko et al., 2017). While Photocurrent gain (Pg) can be calculated as  $P_a =$  $(I_{photo} - I_{dark})/I_{dark}$ , where  $I_{photo}$  and  $I_{dark}$  are current under light and dark conditions, respectively (Chao et al., 2016; Ko et al., 2017). While responsivity  $(R_{\lambda})$  can be presented as  $R_{\lambda} = \Delta I / (A \times P)$ , where  $\Delta I$  is the difference between the current in both light and dark conditions, A is the UV light illuminated area, and P is the light source power. Fig. 14 (a) shows the photocurrent and photocurrent gain of the  $W_0$ ,  $W_2$  and  $W_4$  thin films sensors under 365nm UV illumination source. The generated photocurrent is directly proportional to the W contents and directly with the MoO<sub>2</sub> phase in  $W_2$  and  $W_4$  thin films. While  $W_2$  thin film has the highest photocurrent gain of 0.13.

### 3.5.3. Responsivity, external quantum efficiency, and detective measurements

The responsivity of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films are in Fig. 14 (b). The responsivity of the W-doped MoO<sub>2</sub>-MoO<sub>3</sub> UV detector shows high values ranging from 500 to 2500 A/W for  $W_0$  and  $W_4$  sensors. These values are higher than the 2.4 mWcm<sup>-2</sup> reported by X. Li et al, (Zhuo et al., 2018). The responsivity values show a linear increase with W content. It is known that more efficient light absorption can be involving more electron-hole (e-h) pair generation, resulting in higher mobility and more detection ability. External Quantum Efficiency (EQE) can be calculated as  $EQE = \frac{hcR_{\lambda}}{e^{\lambda}}$ , where h is the Planck's constant ( $\sim 4.135 \times 10^{-15}$  eV.s), e is the charge of the electron ( $\sim$ 1.602x10<sup>-9</sup>C), c is the light velocity  $(\sim 3x10^8 \text{m/s}^{-1})$ , and  $\lambda$  is the shining wavelength (365 nm) (Wu & Chang, 2014). EQE can be used to generate the photocurrent I<sub>ph</sub> and the fraction of the free carriers that are extracted to the photo-flux  $\varphi_{in}$  that can be collected at a given energy Eph. The EQE values as a function of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> thin films are plotted in Fig. 14 (b), where EQE varies from  $1.3 \times 10^9$  to  $5.5 \times 10^9$  at 365nm which is considered higher than the mesoscopic multilayer MoS<sub>2</sub> as reported before (Saenz et al., 2018). Another significant indicator of a

photodetector's value is the sensor's detectable signal (Ko et al., 2017), which can be referred to by the specific detectivity (in Jones),  $D = \frac{(AB)^{0.5}R_{\lambda}}{i_n} \left( cmHz^{\frac{1}{2}}W^{-1} \right)$ , where *A* is the sensor area of the d in cm<sup>2</sup>, B is the bandwidth, and i<sub>n</sub> is the observed noise current. If the shot noise from the dark

current is the key source of noise, the particular detectivity can be simplified as  $D = \frac{R_{\lambda}A^{0.5}}{(2eI_{dark})^{0.5}}$  (Liu et al., 2014). The calculated D\* is depicted in Fig. 14 (c), where, the maximum D\* is ~ 1.45× 10<sup>8</sup> Jones attributed for W<sub>4</sub> thin films and applied voltage of 5V.



Figure 13. (a, b, and c), (d, e, and f), (g, h, and i), and (j, k, and n) show the optoelectronic characterizations of W<sub>0</sub>, W<sub>2</sub>, and W<sub>4</sub> doped Mo-O as an ON/OFF transit dynamic, linear current-voltage, semi-logarithmic scale current-voltage, and current-time steady-state curves in dark and under UV illumination, respectively.



Figure 14. (a) Shows the photocurrent and photocurrent gain as a function of the sample. It is observing an increase in photocurrent with increasing the W amount in Mo-O with maximum value for W<sub>2</sub>, while the photocurrent gain of W<sub>4</sub> shows the highest value. (b) Shows the change of EQE and responsivity as a function of W doped Mo-O samples. Increasing W content enhances the photoresponsivity and EQE values due to an increased photo-absorption observed. (c) Representing the Detectivity of the W-doped Mo-O photodetectors as a function of W contents in MoO<sub>2</sub>-MoO<sub>3</sub> lattice.

#### 4. Conclusion

The use of tungsten doping to modulate the surface of molybdenum oxide thin films has been reported. Using a reactive RF magnetron sputtering growth system with W and Mo targets, varied doping W contents into Mo may be prepared. The XRD Rietveld structure refinements have been carried out using the Fullproof Suite program to identify the crystallographic phases of the prepared samples. XRD analysis showed an increase in the MoO<sub>2</sub> content than MoO<sub>3</sub> in thin films by increasing the W doping. The films show a high transmission value. The W doping decreased the crystallite size from 24 nm to 8 nm which directly enhanced the UV photodetection and gas sensing ability at room temperature. The W doped MoO<sub>2</sub>-MoO<sub>3</sub> thin films with a ptype gas sensing behavior towards CO<sub>2</sub> at room temperature. The film with high W content shows 3.5% gas sensing ability towards CO<sub>2</sub> at room temperature and a fast response and recovery time of less than 10sec at 5sccm CO<sub>2</sub>. Meanwhile, the fabricated thin films show long-term stability as a UV photodetector. A high photocurrent and photocurrent gain of 1mA and 0.11 towards high W doping contents, respectively. The sensor was showing a high detectivity value of 1.41x10<sup>8</sup> Jones.

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