# Hydrogen Sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) Sensor: A Concept of Physical Versus Virtual Sensing

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### I. INTRODUCTION

Abstract-Hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) presents many hazardous traits such as corrosive, explosive, toxic, and flammable. It is slightly denser than air, and a mixture of H<sub>2</sub>S and air can be volatile. Therefore, a reliable and robust measurement system is required to effectively detect and quantify H<sub>2</sub>S in many applications, such as oil and gas industries. There are several methods available in the literature to quantify H<sub>2</sub>S in fuel gases; however, only a few are available in case of air samples. Furthermore, array-based sensors are more reliable in the detection of volatile organic compounds (VOCs); however, sensor arrays are more expensive and challenging to produce. To overcome the limitations of producing physical sensor arrays, this article proposes a concept of virtual sensing that enables to augment a single sensing platform into a virtual array, thus, increasing the detection accuracy at no extra cost of producing a large physical sensors array. The merits of the proposed system are as follows: 1) a virtual sensing concept is combined with a physical sensing platform to enhance the proposed model's estimation power in quantifying H<sub>2</sub>S in air samples; 2) a new feature extraction method based on fractional derivatives is proposed to further enhance the model's learning capabilities; 3) an array of four gas sensors is fabricated in the in-house foundry to record and analyze the signature of H<sub>2</sub>S at various concentration levels; 4) a shallow neural network (NN) model is trained and tested on the recorded data, and based on the NN's input-output relation, a mathematical model is presented for the quantification of  $H_2S$ ; and 5) the proposed model is a highly sensitive and reliable H<sub>2</sub>S gas sensing scheme with the ability to detect the gas instantaneously. The proposed gas quantification model has the advantages of being low cost, easy to implement, and fast operation compared with the analytical solutions. Furthermore, it is extensively tested and validated using real gas data.

*Index Terms*—Electronic nose, gas estimation, mathematical modeling, neural networks (NNs), sensors, virtual sensing.

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Khaled M. Saoud is with Liberal Arts and Science Program, Virginia Commonwealth University in Doha, Doha, Qatar (e-mail: s2kmsaou@vcu.edu). Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TIM.2021.3120150 **H** YDROGEN sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) is a highly toxic colorless gas which possesses a characteristic odor of rotten eggs. Health effects due to the exposure of H<sub>2</sub>S remain negative in the majority of the well-documented studies, especially if the levels of H<sub>2</sub>S are above 1 ppm in air [1]. The human nervous system and the respiratory tract remain most sensitive to the exposure of H<sub>2</sub>S. Although the odor of H<sub>2</sub>S becomes detectable at 0.0005 ppm by a human nose, at higher concentrations (100 ppm), the sense of smell is lost after an exposure of 2–15 min [2]. Therefore, the odor of gas remains an ineffective warning toward the presence and detection of the respective gas.

Gas chromatography (GC)-based methods have been frequently employed to monitor the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S in different scenarios with high precision [3]-[5]. However, the applicability of these methods in real scenarios, especially in environmental monitoring, is not very simple and requires a multistage protocol starting from sampling till the final quantification [6]. Besides chromatography [GC/high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)], there exist a variety of other analytical approaches for the detection of H<sub>2</sub>S. These approaches include fluorimetry and colorimetry, electrochemistry, and inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) [7]-[14]. Among these, GC and ICP-OES also perform a nonstatic type of detection and require a tedious procedure of sample pretreatment, and incur high cost [15], [16]. Besides these analytical approaches, there are studies based on optical approaches [17]-[19] and nanoparticle sensors [20]–[22]. Although these approaches exhibit high sensitivity, the opaque solution of metrices and colored interferents limit their detection accuracy [15].

In comparison with approaches based on chromatography, optical, and acoustic gas sensing, electrochemical gas sensing has remained popular due to: 1) being more inexpensive as compared with others; 2) high selectivity and reproducibility; 3) low energy linear output; and 4) ppm-level detection with high accuracy [23]. However, electrochemical sensors have a low shelf life and remain highly sensitive to temperature fluctuations [24].

Mostly used chemical sensors for monitoring harmful pollutants in real time are either electrochemical sensors [25], metal-oxide semiconducting sensors [26]–[29], optical sensors [30], piezoelectric sensors [31], or sensors' array [32], [33]. These sensor-based devices have several advantages, such as low cost, high sensitivity, easy operation,

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and fast response [6]. Among these, metal oxide gas sensors have demonstrated a capability to detect more than 150 gases with an added advantage of low cost, ease of use, portability, compact size, low power consumption, and high sensitivity [34]. A complete review on the recent advances and use of metal oxide gas sensors for the detection of  $H_2S$  is provided in [34]. In terms of sensing  $H_2S$  using a metal-oxide sensor, the most important material is an n-type WO<sub>3</sub> due to its structural simplicity, high sensitivity, and low cost, especially in nanosize structures [35]. Moreover, there are studies in existing literature suggesting that the Ag-doped WO<sub>3</sub> has better sensing performance and shorter recovery time as compared with the pure WO<sub>3</sub> sensor [36]–[38].

Furthermore, an approach known as *smart gas sensing* combines a sensing array with a machine learning model. This combination enhances the prediction accuracy of the system [39]. There are several existing studies based on smart sensing incorporating artificial intelligence/machine learning models for enhancing the prediction accuracy of the system for quantification and identification of gases [40]–[42]. Electronic noses are devices built on the concept of *smart sensing* for various applications, including the monitoring of toxic gases [43], [44]. Although, these systems require training data to train the ML model, but once the model is trained, the system can predict and quantify the gases with high accuracy. Furthermore, these systems have already demonstrated robustness against the sensors' long-term drift problem, which makes them feasible for long-term real operations [45], [46].

Keeping in view the demonstrated advantages of electronic nose systems, metal oxide gas sensors, and limitations of producing large sensor arrays, this work proposes a system based on the concept of virtual sensing, which enables to augment a single sensing platform into a virtual array, and thus increases the prediction accuracy of the system. In order to build a virtual sensors array, an array of four physical gas sensors is used and is operated at four different temperatures. By operating the four sensors array at four different temperatures, a virtual response of 16 sensors array is recorded and analyzed for estimation of H<sub>2</sub>S in air samples. The four sensors array is built in the in-house foundry using tungsten oxide  $(WO_3)$  and silver with different weight percentages (0%, 1%, 1%)3%, and 5%). The virtual sensors array is used to acquire different signatures of H<sub>2</sub>S at different concentration values. The collected data are used to define a mathematical model based on the input-output relation of a shallow NN, and to further enhance the estimation performance of the proposed model, a new set of fractional derivative features (FDFs) are proposed. The newly proposed feature extraction scheme is based on fractional calculus, which is a branch of calculus that generalizes the differentiation and integration to a fundamental noninteger-order operator. Thus, it enables to provide a better realization of complex systems where details provided by integer order operator are not sufficient. The newly proposed FDF extraction scheme has enabled to significantly improve the performance of the overall system in terms of estimating the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S in air samples.

After extensive experimentation, some useful recommendations are drawn from the study to quantify  $H_2S$  in different



Fig. 1. Cross-sectional SEM image of 3% Ag/WO\_3 thin film deposited on silicon substrate.

scenarios. A comparison of performance based on actual versus virtual sensors and a comparison based on the performance of actual response versus the proposed FDFs is provided in detail, highlighting the benefits and limitations of the proposed system.

The rest of this article is organized as follows. Section II (Experimental Setup), Section III (Methodology), Section IV (Performance Evaluation), and Section V (Conclusion).

### II. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

# A. Sensor Fabrication

Gold interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) with a gap of 200  $\mu$ m between the electrodes are used to fabricate the sensor. A platinum heating layer on the back of the electrodes is used to control the temperature through the highly conductive ceramic substrate. Two 5-cm-long wires were soldered on the electrodes to perform electrical measurements. For creating a homogeneously deposited layer on the gold IDE, an ultrasonic spray pyrolysis machine is used to spray the electrodes with a mixed solution of tungsten oxide (WO<sub>3</sub>) and silver with different weight percentages (0%, 1%, 3%, and 5%). The uniformity of the layer is controlled by using an ultrasonic spray pyrolysis machine for deposition of the material. The method used ensures that the thickness is from few nanometers to micrometers by adjusting the number of deposition cycles. Fig. 1 shows the scanning electron microscope (SEM) cross section image of the surface of 3% Ag/WO<sub>3</sub> thin film with 15 deposition cycles. The thickness of the thin film was on average between 1 and 2  $\mu$ m.

To control the moisture effect, a flow of zero (dry) air was flushed into the gas testing chamber which contains the sensor. This was done before and after each gas testing to ensure that the effect of humidity was minimum. The gas is diluted with the same synthesized pure dry air with 99.999%, and this ensures the elimination of moisture. Moreover, the gas generator device is provided with moisture traps that eliminate any moisture. Another experiment was done where humidity was introduced inside the gas testing chamber.

To study the tungsten oxide doped silver  $(Ag/WO_3)$  microstructure, transmission electron microscope (TEM) was used to explore the variations in the nanoparticles of tungsten and to detect the presence of Ag species. TEM micrographs of tungsten oxide-doped silver oxide  $(Ag/WO_3)$  are shown in Fig. 2. The micrographs show that there are sheet-like



Fig. 2. TEM micrograph of Ag/WO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles with different scales. (a) 500 nm. (b) 100 nm. (c) 10 nm.

nanoparticles of WO<sub>3</sub> with sizes varying from 20 to 60 nm. The particles are agglomerated together and exist in coalescences of nanosheets. The Ag nanoparticles are well dispersed on the edges of the surface of the WO<sub>3</sub> particles in sizes that vary between 5 and 15 nm, as can be seen in Fig. 2(c).

### B. Data Acquisition System

The sensor is mounted inside a testing chamber that encompasses a heating plate for temperature control of the sensor. A gas generator (Dynacalibrator VICI 340) that includes a permeation tube with concentrated gas (a liquid phase of  $H_2S$ ) is used to generate precise gas concentrations. The concentration is controlled by varying the temperature and dilution gas flow, which is supplied from the synthetic air cylinder. It generates gas vapor from heating a permeation tube, and the concentration is controlled by changing the diluting airflow. To measure the concentration, a mathematical equation is provided in the user manual of VICI 340 Dynacalibrator. Keithley 2450 source meter is used to obtain the voltage and current variations in the sensor signal due to gas exposure, and the data are transferred and analyzed through a computer. The sampling rate to store the response is kept at 600 samples/min, and a normalized response is recorded as

$$R = \left| \frac{\Delta I}{I_A} \right|, \quad \Delta I = I_G - I_A \tag{1}$$

where  $I_G$  is the current flow recorded when the gas is exposed to the sensor,  $I_A$  is the current flow recorded on the exposure of dry air, and  $\Delta I$  represents the change in response of the sensor. The response of sensors is recorded at four varying temperatures (T = 25 °C, 80 °C, 150 °C, 200 °C). This occurs due to the fact that upon exposure to ambient air, the nanomaterial absorbs oxygen on its surface by capturing free electrons. This creates a depletion region on the surface of oxidized material which affects the conductivity of the sensor and varies with operating temperature. Due to this change in conductivity of the sensor, operating the sensor at different temperatures provides different responses toward the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S. Therefore, the combined change in response by different sensors operating at different temperatures can be used as a unique signature by a pattern recognition algorithm to estimate different concentration levels of H<sub>2</sub>S. Fig. 3 provides an overview of the experimental setup and the in-house fabricated gas sensors.

### III. METHODOLOGY

The proposed methodology is based on a virtual sensing concept which employs a shallow NN model to quantify  $H_2S$  in air samples. The performance of the model is further enhanced by proposing new FDFs. The details of the proposed model are given below:

### A. Feature Extraction

Features play a vital role in the recognition accuracy of a machine/deep learning model. The state-of-the-art feature extraction and selection methods like principal component analysis (PCA), linear discriminant analysis (LDA), and particle swarm optimization (PSO) have been successfully used in the literature for gas identification and quantification [47]–[50]. In order to effectively utilize a neural network (NN) for the estimation of  $H_2S$ , a new set of features based on the fractional derivatives is proposed for learning an NN in this study.

Fractional order differential equations are generalized noninteger-order differential equations that may be generated in time and space using the nonlocal relationships' power law memory kernel. They are a useful tool for describing the memory of various substances as well as the nature of heredity. A noninteger differentiation/integration operator is used in fractional calculus to investigate various possible ways of defining real number powers or complex number powers of the operator. Based on the real number powers of the differentiation operator, the fractional derivative models are able to provide details that are not provided by the integertype operator or by other linear transformation methods. PCA (unsupervised method) and LDA (supervised method), on the other hand, are both linear transformation methods that decompose matrices of eigenvalues and eigenvectors. Compared with PCA and LDA, FDFs have shown significant performance in terms of estimation of H<sub>2</sub>S in air samples.

For fractional calculus, suppose a noninteger-order operator  ${}_{a}\mathcal{D}_{t}^{\alpha}$ , where  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and the bounds of operation are *a* and *t*. A continuous  ${}_{a}\mathcal{D}_{t}^{\alpha}$  operator can be defined as

$${}_{a}\mathcal{D}_{t}^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} \frac{d^{\alpha}}{dt^{\alpha}}, & \alpha > 0\\ 1, & \alpha = 0\\ \int_{a}^{t} (d\tau)^{\alpha}, & \alpha < 0. \end{cases}$$
(2)

The most commonly used definition of general differintegral is Grünwald–Letnikov [51], defined as

$${}_{a}\mathcal{D}_{t}^{\alpha}f(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} h^{-\alpha} \sum_{j=0}^{\left\lfloor \frac{t-\alpha}{h} \right\rfloor} (-1)^{j} {\binom{\alpha}{j}} f(t-jh).$$
(3)

For the calculation of fractional-order derivative, a relation derived from (3) can be used which is defined as

$${}_{\left(k-\frac{L_{m}}{h}\right)} \mathcal{D}_{t_{k}}^{q} f(t) \approx h^{-q} \sum_{j=0}^{k} (-1)^{j} {\binom{q}{j}} f(t_{k}-j)$$

$$= h^{-q} \sum_{j=0}^{k} c_{j}^{(q)} f(t_{k}-j)$$

$$(4)$$

where  $t_k = kh$ , *h* is the time step,  $L_m$  is the "memory length," and  $c_i^{(q)}(j = 0, 1, ..., k)$  are binomial coefficients calculated



Fig. 3. Experimental setup. (a) Data acquisition system. (b) Sensors built in the inhouse foundry.

as

$$c_0^{(q)} = 1, \quad c_j^{(q)} = \left(1 - \frac{1+q}{j}\right)c_{j-1}^{(q)}.$$
 (5)

The generalization of binomial coefficients to noninteger values can be made if the factorial is written as a *gamma* function [52]

$$(-1)^{j} \binom{q}{j} = (-1)^{j} \frac{\Gamma(q+1)}{\Gamma(j+1)\Gamma(q-j+1)}$$
$$= \frac{\Gamma(j-q)}{\Gamma(-q)\Gamma(j+1)}$$
(6)

where  $\Gamma$  is the *gamma* function defined as

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)! \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{R}.$$
(7)

The above Grünwald–Letnikov definition of fractional derivate is used to extract different features from the response curve of sensors and a feature vector is recorded. Ten values of fractional order derivative between  $0 < \alpha < 1$  are used to extract the features for each sensor response. An array of four sensors is used to record the response at four different operating temperatures, and for each response, ten additional FDFs are extracted. MATLAB code to compute fractional derivatives using the above Grünwald–Letnikov definition and  $\alpha$  values is given in [53].

### B. Mathematical Model

The estimation of  $H_2S$  is mathematically modeled by employing a shallow NN model. Different experimentations were carried out by varying the number of neurons and layers of an NN and based on the performance of different architectures in terms of estimation accuracy and computational complexity, a shallow network of ten hidden neurons is recommended to derive a final mathematical model. Fig. 4 describes a general feedforward NN architecture used for mathematical modeling where *i* represents the number of inputs, *j* represents the number of hidden neurons, and *k* represents the number of



Fig. 4. Architecture of shallow NN used for mathematical modeling of  $H_2S$  concentration estimation, *i* represents the number of inputs, *j* represents the number of hidden neurons, and *k* represents the number of outputs.

outputs. In this case study, the value of k = 1 remains constant to estimate the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S.

Five different values of j = 5, 10, 15, 20, and 30 with one and two hidden layers were tested before finalizing the estimation model. The results for this experimentation using an array of four sensors array operating at 25 °C are provided in Table I and are visually analyzed in Fig. 5. From the results provided, it can be seen that the estimation accuracy of H<sub>2</sub>S increases with an increase in the number of neurons and hidden layers. However, increasing the number of hidden layers and

 TABLE I

 NN Simulation Results for Four Sensors Array Operating at 25 °C With Different Number of Neurons and Hidden Layers

	Single layer	Single layer	Single layer	Single layer	Single layer
	5 neurons	10 neurons	15 neurons	20 neurons	30 neurons
MSE	1622.52	993.85	749.61	709.10	682.10
R (Validation)	0.9159	0.9512	0.9627	0.9658	0.9686
R (Testing)	0.9138	0.9562	0.9600	0.9664	0.9723
R (Training)	0.9133	0.9582	0.9646	0.9667	0.9713
R (All)	0.9137	0.9569	0.9626	0.9665	0.9710
	Two layers	Two layers	Two layers	Two layers	Two layers
	5 neurons each	10 neurons each	15 neurons each	20 neurons each	30 neurons each
MSE	803.65	553.73	478.82	453.24	451.48
R (Validation)	0.9477	0.9725	0.9772	0.9791	0.9781
R (Testing)	0.9392	0.9767	0.9745	0.9775	0.9853
R (Training)	0.9495	0.9751	0.9759	0.9808	0.9828
R (All)	0.9477	0.9750	0.9758	0.9800	0.9825



Fig. 5. Performance analysis with respect to an increase in number of neurons and hidden layers.

the number of neurons brings more computational complexity, thus requiring more computational resources. Therefore, to limit the number of hidden layers and the number of neurons, the concept of virtual sensing enhanced with FDFs is proposed. The proposed idea enables to limit the number of hidden neurons to ten with only one hidden layer making the proposed architecture computationally less expensive.

In the case of inputs, a comprehensive analysis is performed to evaluate different sensors, different sensors operating at different temperatures, and the combined effect of sensors as a special case of virtual sensing.

After extensive experimentation and testing, the following mathematical model is proposed for the estimation of  $H_2S$  in air samples:

$$y = \sum_{n=1}^{j} W_n^{(2)} \left( \operatorname{tansig}\left( \sum_{m=1}^{i} W_m^{(1)} X_m + B_{1j}^{(1)} \right) \right) + B_{1k}^{(2)}$$
(8)

which can be further expanded as

$$y = \sum_{n=1}^{j} W_n^{(2)} \times \left( \frac{2}{1 + e^{-2 \times \sum_{m=1}^{i} W_m^{(1)} X_m + B_{1j}^{(1)}}} - 1 \right) + B_{1k}^{(2)}$$
(9)

where  $W_n^{(2)}$  is the hidden layer weights,  $W_m^{(1)}$  is the input layer weights,  $B_{1k}^{(2)}$  is the output bias,  $B_{1j}^{(1)}$  is the hidden layer biases,



Fig. 6. Shallow NN architecture for a single sensor evaluation.

 $X_m$  is the input vector of length m, n is the number of hidden neurons, and y is the output representing the estimated value of H<sub>2</sub>S.

### **IV. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION**

The evaluation of the proposed system is performed in four different ways: 1) evaluation of a single sensor operating at different temperatures; 2) evaluation of four sensors array operating at different temperatures; 3) evaluation of proposed FDFs; and 4) evaluation of virtual sensors array. The sampling rate for data acquisition is kept at 600 samples/min, and the normalized response for 26833 samples at seven different concentration levels is used for experimentation. The total data size for four different evaluations varies based on the evaluation. The data size for the evaluation of a single WO<sub>3</sub> sensor at four different temperatures is  $26833 \times 4$ . The data size for the evaluation of four sensors array operating at four different temperatures is  $26833 \times 16$ , whereas, for the evaluation with



Fig. 7. Response of sensors toward seven different concentration levels of H<sub>2</sub>S. Sensors operating at (a) 25 °C, (b) 80 °C, (c) 150 °C, and (d) 200 °C.

FDFs, ten extra features are calculated for each response variable which makes a maximum data size of  $26833 \times 176$ . Out of these 176 response variables, 16 correspond to the 16 virtual sensors, whereas the remaining 160 correspond to the FDF features. All these evaluations are provided in detail, as follows.

# *A. Evaluation of a Single WO*<sub>3</sub> *Sensor Operating at Different Temperatures*

The NN architecture employed for a single sensor evaluation is shown in Fig. 6. The architecture used for the evaluation of a sensor has the ability to estimate the concentration of  $H_2S$  at any given instance. The sensor's response is directly fed to the network and there is no requirement to wait until the steadystate response of the sensor. As soon as the network receives a response value from the sensor, it gives an estimation of the concentration of  $H_2S$ .

The actual response of individual sensors operating at different temperatures toward an increase in the concentration of  $H_2S$  is shown in Fig. 7(a–d). The concentration levels of  $H_2S$  exposed to the sensors are 10, 15, 20, 50, 100, 200, and 400 ppm. It can be seen from the response curves in Fig. 7 that



Fig. 8. Ag 3-D XPS spectra of Ag/WO<sub>3</sub> in room temperature (red) and when annealed to 200  $^{\circ}$ C (blue).

the  $WO_3$  sensor has a low sensitivity toward the concentration of  $H_2S$  while operating at low temperatures. In contrast, the sensors doped with Ag remain more stable toward the change



Fig. 9. Performance of a shallow NN for prediction of  $H_2S$  using a single WO<sub>3</sub> sensor operating at 25 °C. (a) Performance based on mean square error. (b) Training state and validation checks. (c) Error histogram. (d) Regression.

in operating temperature. Moreover, the response of Ag-doped sensors reduces at higher temperatures. This happens because Ag nanoparticles work as active catalytic sites that increase the conductivity of the material. The depletion layer width is reduced when Ag is added to WO<sub>3</sub> due to the transfer of electrons from Ag. However, at higher temperatures, the rate of oxidation of Ag nanoparticles results in an increase of depletion region and, hence, reduces the conductivity of the sensor. This result is supported by the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) shown in Fig. 8. At room temperature, the Ag 3-D spectrum shows a mixture state: a metallic state at 368 eV appearing at the shoulder of the Ag 3-D, and a main oxidation state signal at 367.4 eV. This indicates that at RT, the Ag is partially oxidized. While after annealing at 200 °C, the metallic signal disappears completely, leaving only a sharp oxidation state. The results indicate that annealing has increased significantly the oxidation rate of the Ag surface in the sample.

Total 26833 sampling points are used to train, test, and validate a shallow NN with one hidden layer and ten hidden neurons. The estimation performance of the NN-based only on a single WO<sub>3</sub> sensor operating at 25 °C is given

in Fig. 9, where the mean squared error (mse) observed is quite high and the best validation performance achieved is 8233.91 after six validation checks. As the response of the sensor while operating at 25 °C is not very sensitive toward the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S, the performance of the NN is also weak.

Furthermore, as the response of the sensor becomes more sensitive while operating at higher temperatures, as shown in Fig. 7, the performance of the NN model is also observed to achieve high prediction accuracy. The actual and estimated concentration values of H<sub>2</sub>S using the response of sensor at four different temperatures (T = 25 °C, 80 °C, 150 °C, 200 °C) are shown in Fig. 10(a–d). It can be seen from the results in Fig. 10 that the model is able to estimate the concentration of gas more accurately at higher temperatures, while the performance remains weak at lower operating temperatures. Table II enlists some performance evaluation parameters for the single WO<sub>3</sub> sensor operating at different temperatures.

In order to further enhance the performance of the model, the response of four sensors is combined and is tested for estimation of  $H_2S$ . The performance of an array of four sensors toward the prediction of  $H_2S$  is given in detail in Section IV-B.





Fig. 10. Actual versus estimated concentration using a single pure WO3 sensor response. Sensor operating at (a) 25 °C, (b) 80 °C, (c) 150 °C, and (d) 200 °C.

TABLE II PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF A SINGLE WO $_3$  Sensor

	Performance			
Temperature	$25^{\circ}C$	$80^{0}C$	150°C	$200^{\circ}C$
MSE	8233.9	4577.8	3811.2	2116.1
R (Validation)	0.4907	0.7688	0.8199	0.9044
R (Testing)	0.5425	0.8113	0.8230	0.8959
R (Training)	0.5015	0.8076	0.8376	0.8941
R (All Data)	0.5060	0.8025	0.8327	0.8960

# TABLE III Performance Evaluation of Four Sensors Arrays

	Performance			
Temperature	25°C	$80^{\circ}C$	150°C	200°C
MSE	993.85	718.09	159.80	498.57
R	0.9512	0.9670	0.9930	0.9773
(Validation)				
R (Testing)	0.9562	0.9720	0.9930	0.9788
R (Training)	0.9582	0.9651	0.9924	0.9796
R (All Data)	0.9569	0.9665	0.9926	0.9791

# *B. Performance of Four Sensors Array Operating at Different Temperatures*

The prediction performance of the sensors array is shown in Fig. 11, where the concentration of  $H_2S$  is estimated using the sensors array operating at four different temperatures. From the prediction results, it can be seen that there is a significant improvement as compared with the results of a single sensor operating at the same temperatures, specifically at 25 °C. This shows that an array of different sensors has a powerful discriminatory power as compared with a single sensor operating

at lower temperatures. However, a comparable performance is observed at higher operating temperatures. Table III enlists the performance evaluation parameters for the array of sensors operating at four different temperatures.

## C. Performance of FDFs

FDFs are proposed as a new set of features for the estimation of the concentration of gases. The performance of the proposed features extracted from the response of a single sensor is shown in Fig. 12. It can be seen from the



Fig. 11. Actual versus estimated concentration using an array of four sensors. Sensor operating at (a) 25 °C, (b) 80 °C, (c) 150 °C, and (d) 200 °C.

TABLE IV Performance Evaluation With FDF of a Single Sensor

TABLE V Performance Evaluation With FDF of Four Sensors Array

	Performance			
Temperature	25°C	$80^{0}$ C	150°C	$200^{\circ}C$
MSE	644.50	470.78	746.44	258.50
R	0.9686	0.9780	0.9659	0.9888
(Validation)				
R (Testing)	0.8799	0.9841	0.9643	0.9890
R (Training)	0.9681	0.9847	0.9661	0.9876
R (All Data)	0.9541	0.9837	0.9658	0.9880

	Performance			
Temperature	25°C	$80^{0}C$	$150^{0}C$	200°C
MSE	286.13	74.90	8.99	18.23
R	0.9866	0.9968	0.9996	0.9991
(Validation)				
R (Testing)	0.9875	0.9960	0.9994	0.9992
R (Training)	0.9877	0.9965	0.9996	0.9994
R (All Data)	0.9875	0 9964	0.0005	0 0003

estimation results reported in Fig. 12 that the proposed features are powerful enough to estimate the concentration of  $H_2S$ using only a single sensor operating at 25 °C. However, the estimation of low concentration values is not as good as the estimation of higher concentration values. The results shown in Fig. 12 clearly demonstrate the ability of proposed features to estimate the concentration of  $H_2S$ . Table IV enlists the performance evaluation parameters of FDFs extracted from a single sensor response, operating at different temperatures.

Furthermore, to make the feature vector stronger toward the estimation of gas, the features extracted from the response of the sensors array is also used. The results of features extracted from the response of array of four sensors operating at different temperatures are shown in Fig. 13. The visual results depicted in Fig. 13 further strengthen the concept of employing fractional derivate features for the estimation of H<sub>2</sub>S as the performance is greatly improved at all operating temperatures, specifically at 25 °C. Table V enlists the performance evaluation parameters of FDF extracted from an array of sensors responses operating at different temperatures.

### D. Performance of Virtual Sensors Array

When four physical sensors are operated at four different temperatures, a maximum of 16 virtual sensors array is created. The 16-channel response of this virtual sensors array is



Fig. 12. Actual versus estimated concentration using fractional derivative computed from a single sensor response. Sensor operating at (a) 25 °C, (b) 80 °C, (c) 150 °C, and (d) 200 °C.

TABLE VI Performance Evaluation of Virtual Sensors Array

Performance	2 virtual sensors	4 virtual sensors	8 virtual sensors	12 virtual sensors	16 virtual sensors	FDF of 16 virtual sensors
No. of sensors	1	1	2	3	4	4
Sensor Type(s)	$WO_3$	WO <sub>3</sub>	$WO_3$ , and	WO <sub>3</sub> , WO <sub>3</sub> $@_{1\%Ag}$ ,	WO <sub>3</sub> , WO <sub>3</sub> $@_{1\%Ag}$	WO <sub>3</sub> , WO <sub>3</sub> @ <sub>1%Ag,</sub>
Operating temperatures	25°C, 80°C	25°C, 80°C, 150°C, 200°C	$WO_3(a)_{1\%Ag}$ 25°C, 80°C, 150°C, 200°C	and $WO_3(@_{3\%Ag})$ 25°C, 80°C, 150°C, 200°C	$WO_3(a_{3\%Ag}, and WO_3(a_{5\%Ag}, 25^{\circ}C, 80^{\circ}C, 150^{\circ}C, 200^{\circ}C)$	$WO_3(@_{3\%Ag}, and WO_3(@_{5\%Ag}) = 25^{\circ}C, 80^{\circ}C, 150^{\circ}C, 200^{\circ}C$
MSE	1759.86	31.21	8.33	6.31	4.61	0.9076
R (Validation)	0.9060	0.9984	0.9996	0.9997	0.9997	0.9999
R (Testing)	0.9101	0.9985	0.9996	0.9997	0.9997	0.9999
R (Training)	0.8947	0.9985	0.9996	0.9997	0.9997	0.9999
R (All)	0.8988	0.9985	0.9996	0.9997	0.9997	0.9999

recorded and analyzed for estimation of  $H_2S$  in air samples. The estimation results of this 16 virtual sensors array are shown in Fig. 14. The estimation results using the concept of virtual sensing are the most promising results as the concept has clearly demonstrated the highly accurate estimation of  $H_2S$ . However, to practically implement the concept, an operation of sensors at high temperatures is required, whereas a good estimation is also possible using the newly proposed FDF concept and operating the sensors at 25 °C. Table VI enlists the performance evaluation of virtual sensing with different lengths and the performance evaluation of virtual sensing with associated FDF. From the results reported in Table VI, it can be seen that with an increase in the amount of virtual sensors,

# TABLE VII Performance Comparison

Performance	PCA Virtual array	LDA Virtual array	FDF Virtual array
MSE	5.0366	11.6089	0.9076
R (Validation)	0.9997	0.9994	0.9999
R (Testing)	0.9997	0.9994	0.9999
R (Training)	0.9997	0.9995	0.9999
R (All)	0.9997	0.9995	0.9999

the estimation accuracy of  $H_2S$  is increased. This shows that the variation in sensors response caused by different operating temperatures can result in unique signatures for different



Fig. 13. Actual versus estimated concentration using fractional derivative computed from sensors array response. Sensor operating at (a) 25 °C, (b) 80 °C, (c) 150 °C, and (d) 200 °C.



Fig. 14. Estimation using the concept of virtual sensing: combined response of four different sensors operating at four different temperatures.

concentration levels of  $H_2S$ . Thus, more variations recorded result in more accurate estimation. Furthermore, it can also be seen that the addition of FDF further enhances the estimation performance of the proposed system.

In order to better realize the effectiveness of the proposed FDF features, the performance comparison results with the two

most commonly used state-of-the-art methods PCA and LDA are provided in Table VII. The two types of feature extraction methods are used to extract features from the virtual sensing array and the results are compared with the proposed FDF features extracted from the same virtual sensing array. From the results in Table VII, it is clearly seen that the proposed FDF features contain powerful discriminatory information as compared with the PCA and the LDA.

## V. CONCLUSION

A highly precise and robust system to estimate the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S in air samples is proposed. The proposed system is based on a virtual sensing concept that employs WO<sub>3</sub> sensors developed in the in-house foundry and a shallow NN model enhanced with FDFs. The mse value for estimation of H<sub>2</sub>S dropped from 159.80 [best performance in case of four physical sensors array operating at 1500C (see Table III)] to 4.61 [in case of 16 virtual sensors array (see Table VI)]. The use of FDF along with virtual sensors array further decreased the mse value to 0.9076, resulting in best performance for estimation of H<sub>2</sub>S in air samples. However, to implement the concept demonstrated by virtual sensing in real scenarios, it requires an operation of sensors at higher temperatures. Contrary to the virtual sensing concept, the newly proposed feature extraction technique called FDF also resulted in high precision estimation of H<sub>2</sub>S with sensors operating at 25 °C. Therefore, features derived from fractional derivatives are

highly recommended for scenarios where the operation of sensors at high temperatures is not feasible, whereas the results drawn from virtual sensing provide a strong recommendation to use a combined response of different sensors operating at different temperatures to estimate the concentration of  $H_2S$  in scenarios where the operation of sensors at higher temperatures is feasible.

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