

# Effects of aluminium doping on structural and photoluminescence properties of ZnO nanoparticles

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## Abstract

Structural and optical properties of Al doped ZnO nanoparticles prepared by the thermal decomposition method are presented. X-ray diffraction studies confirmed the substitution of Al on Zn sites without changing the hexagonal structure of ZnO. Also, lattice parameters, the crystallite size and other physical parameters such as strain, stress and energy density were calculated from various modified forms of W–H equation and their variation with the doping of Al is discussed. A blue shift in the energy band gap attributed to increase in carrier concentration (Burstein Moss Effect) is observed by absorption spectra. Photoluminescence studies show a strong and dominant peak corresponding to the near band edge emission in ultraviolet range and a broad band in the range 420–520 nm corresponding to defects and oxygen vacancies. Phonon modes were studied by FTIR measurements. The tunability of the band gap of ZnO nanoparticles could eventually be useful for potential optoelectronic applications.

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## 1. Introduction

Zinc oxide has attracted the scientific community because of its versatile applications in short wavelength light emitting diodes and lasers owing to its wide direct band gap (3.37 eV) at room temperature, large exciton binding energy (60 meV), excellent chemical and thermal stability and low cost [1,2]. Several recent studies have examined for the fabrication and properties of ZnO thin films having potential applications in solar cells, gas sensors, piezoelectric transducers, varistors and photocatalysts with high chemical activity [3,4].

Due to the quantum confinement, doped ZnO nanoparticles exhibit unique and novel properties as compared to bulk counterparts [3]. Nevertheless, properties of doped ZnO nanoparticles are closely associated with structural parameters. In the past few years, several groups have studied doped ZnO systems for various properties having potential applications in spintronics and optoelectronic devices [5–12]. It was observed that Al is one of the most efficient materials for enhancement of optical and electrical properties of ZnO. Kadam et al. [10] studied the

grain size related optical band gap changes in ZnO nanocrystals synthesised by wet chemical route, Lo et al. [11] presented a detailed Raman scattering and studied band gap variations with lattice defects of Al doped ZnO nanoparticles synthesised by chemical colloid process and Godani et al. [12] studied the structure dependent optical and electrical properties of Al doped ZnO nanostructures. Moreover, the particle size and shape can be controlled by using suitable precursor solution with appropriate surfactant. There is no significant reports available in the literature on the detailed structural analysis of Al doped ZnO nanoparticles up to high level of doping concentration. Under this scenario, we prepared diethanolamine (DEA) assisted Al doped ZnO nanoparticles by thermal decomposition method and carefully studied the role of Al doping on the structural, vibrational and optical properties.

## 2. Experimental details

Al doped ZnO nanopowders were synthesised by the thermal decomposition method by using chemicals of analytical grade. Initially, 0.16 mol  $C_2H_5O_4 \cdot 2H_2O$  (oxalic acid) was dissolved in 100 ml of deionised (DI) water with vigorous

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stirring. Then, 0.02 mol DEA is added to get homogenous DEA/C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (A) solution. Now, 0.02 mol zinc acetate dihydrate (Zn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O) was dissolved in 100 ml of DI water. The appropriate amount of aluminium chloride hexahydrate (AlCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O) was added to get the solution B. Finally, B was added dropwise in the aqueous A solution. White precipitates were formed and the suspension was continuously stirred at room temperature and put for 12 h to settle down. Then, precipitates were filtered, washed with DI water and ethanol water several times, dried at room temperature and calcined at 600 °C for 1 h.

The crystalline structure and the phase purity of samples were confirmed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements (Shimadzu XRD-6000 with CuKα (λ = 1.5406 Å) radiation). Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) measurements were done by using a Perkin Elmer BX-IV spectrophotometer through KBr pellet technique in the range 400–4000 cm<sup>−1</sup>. Absorption spectra were carried out by a Perkin Elmer Lambda-35 UV–visible spectrometer in the wave-length range 300–800 nm. Photoluminescence (PL) spectra of samples were acquired using xenon flash lamp laser as excitation source by a Perkin Elmer Lambda luminescence spectrophotometer (LS-55).

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Structural analysis

Fig. 1(a) shows the XRD pattern of Zn<sub>1−x</sub>Al<sub>x</sub>O (x = 0.02, 0.04, 0.06, 0.08 and 0.1) nanoparticles for various doping levels in which diffraction peaks are indexed to the wurtzite structure of ZnO (space group P6<sub>3</sub>mc). There is no indication of any secondary phases or clusters, confirming the single phase of samples. It also confirms that dopants have not altered the basic wurtzite crystal structure of samples.

Diffraction peak positions of XRD signals show a slight shift towards higher angles up to the doping levels x = 0.10. The shift towards the higher angles may be due to the shrinkage caused by the substitution of Al<sup>3+</sup> (radius 0.53 Å) on Zn<sup>2+</sup> sites (0.60 Å) [13]. Furthermore, the observed broadening of peaks may be due to the formation of smaller grains as a result of an increase in disorder by aluminium doping as shown in Fig. 1(b). Variation of lattice parameters ‘a’ and ‘c’ and the unit cell volume decreases with Al doping concentration is shown in Fig. 1(c) and (d).

XRD can also be utilised to evaluate the peak broadening with crystallite size and the lattice strain due to dislocations [14]. The average crystallite size of Al doped ZnO nanoparticles was determined by the broadening in the XRD pattern by using the Scherrer formula:  $d_{\text{hkl}} = k\lambda/(\beta_{\text{hkl}} \cos \theta_{\text{hkl}})$ , where  $d_{\text{hkl}}$  is the crystallite size,  $k$  is the shape factor (0.9),  $\beta_{\text{hkl}}$  is the full width of half maxima of the instrumental corrected broadening,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of radiation (1.5403 Å) and  $\theta_{\text{hkl}}$  is the peak position. Calculated average crystallite sizes are concluded in Table 1.

The instrumental corrected broadening ( $\beta_{\text{hkl}}$ ) is corrected for each peak of Al doped ZnO nanostructure by using the relation:

$$\beta_{\text{hkl}} = \sqrt{(\beta_{\text{hkl}}^2_{\text{measured}} - (\beta_{\text{hkl}}^2_{\text{instrumental}}))}$$

The strain induced broadening in nanoparticles due to crystal imperfections and distortions is given by  $\beta_{\text{hkl}} = 4\epsilon \tan \theta_{\text{hkl}}$ , where ‘ $\epsilon$ ’ is the microstrain.

Williamson [15] proposed the dependency of the diffraction line broadening on the crystallite size and strain contribution as:  $\beta_{\text{hkl}} = (K\lambda/d_{\text{hkl}} \cos \theta_{\text{hkl}}) + (4\epsilon \tan \theta_{\text{hkl}})$ . This may be further simplified to  $\beta_{\text{hkl}} \cos \theta_{\text{hkl}} = (K\lambda/d_{\text{hkl}}) + (4\epsilon \sin \theta_{\text{hkl}})$ , which is called Williamson Hall (W–H) equation. Now,  $\beta_{\text{hkl}} \cos \theta_{\text{hkl}}$  is plotted as a function of  $4 \sin \theta_{\text{hkl}}$  (as shown in Fig. 2(a)) as a straight line and the slope is calculated which is microstrain  $\epsilon$  and y-intercept of the fit gives the crystallite size. This method was applied to all samples and calculated microstrains and crystallite sizes are shown in Table 1. A clear increase in the strain is observed with increase in Al doping concentration (Fig. 2(d)), which may be due to lattice mismatch with increase in the concentration [15]. The above model of strain calculation is called uniform deformation model (UDM), in which the strain is assumed to be uniform in all crystallographic directions. But, as material properties are anisotropic; so, the assumption of UDM is no longer valid.

In uniform stress deformation model (USDM), uniform stress deformation ( $\sigma$ ) is expressed in terms of the strain ( $\epsilon$ ) as  $\sigma = E_{\text{hkl}}\epsilon_{\text{hkl}}$ , where  $E_{\text{hkl}}$  is young's modulus in the direction perpendicular to the plane, which has the form

$$E_{\text{hkl}} = \frac{[h^2 + ((h+2k)^2/3) + (a/c)^2]}{S_{11}(h^2 + (h+2k)^2/3) + S_{33}(a/c)^4 + (4S_{13} + S_{44})(h^2(h+2k)^2/3)(a/c)^2}$$

for the present hexagonal crystals [16], where  $a$  and  $c$  are lattice parameters and  $S_{11}$ ,  $S_{22}$ ,  $S_{33}$  and  $S_{44}$  are elastic compliances of ZnO and their values are  $7.858 \times 10^{-12}$ ,  $-2.206 \times 10^{-12}$ ,  $6.940 \times 10^{-12}$  and  $23.57 \times 10^{-12}$ , respectively [17,18]. Now, the W–H equation will be of the form  $\beta_{\text{hkl}} \cos \theta_{\text{hkl}} = (K\lambda/d_{\text{hkl}}) + (4\sigma \sin \theta_{\text{hkl}}/E_{\text{hkl}})$  [19]. Now,  $\beta_{\text{hkl}} \cos \theta_{\text{hkl}}$  is plotted against  $4 \sin \theta_{\text{hkl}}/E_{\text{hkl}}$  for all samples (Fig. 2(b)). Slopes of linear fits are the stress ( $\sigma$ ) and intercepts of fitted lines give the crystallite size ( $d_{\text{hkl}}$ ). Calculated values of crystallite size and stress are shown in Table 1. An increase in the stress is obtained with increase in Al concentration (Fig. 2(d)).

For an elastic system that follows Hooke's law, the young modulus  $E_{\text{hkl}}$  and strain  $\epsilon_{\text{hkl}}$  are connected to the deformation energy density ‘ $u$ ’ by the relation  $u = \epsilon^2 E_{\text{hkl}}/2$  [13]. So, the modified W–H equation can be written in the form of energy and strain as:  $\beta_{\text{hkl}} \cos \theta_{\text{hkl}} = (k\lambda/D) + (4 \sin \theta_{\text{hkl}}(2u/E_{\text{hkl}})^{1/2})$ . The uniform deformation energy density can be calculated from the slope of the fitted line between the  $\beta_{\text{hkl}} \cos \theta_{\text{hkl}}$  and  $2^{5/2} \sin \theta_{\text{hkl}} E_{\text{hkl}}^{-1/2}$  and the crystallite size  $d_{\text{hkl}}$  from the y-intercept as shown in Fig. 2(c). This model is called uniform deformation energy density model (UDEM). Variations of stress and deformation energy density with the Al concentration are shown in Fig. 2(d). Also, we can see from Table 1 that the crystallite sizes calculated from various models are approximately same.

#### 3.2. Optical properties

Optical absorbance spectra were recorded by dispersing the nanopowder in spectroscopic grade ethanol, which was also

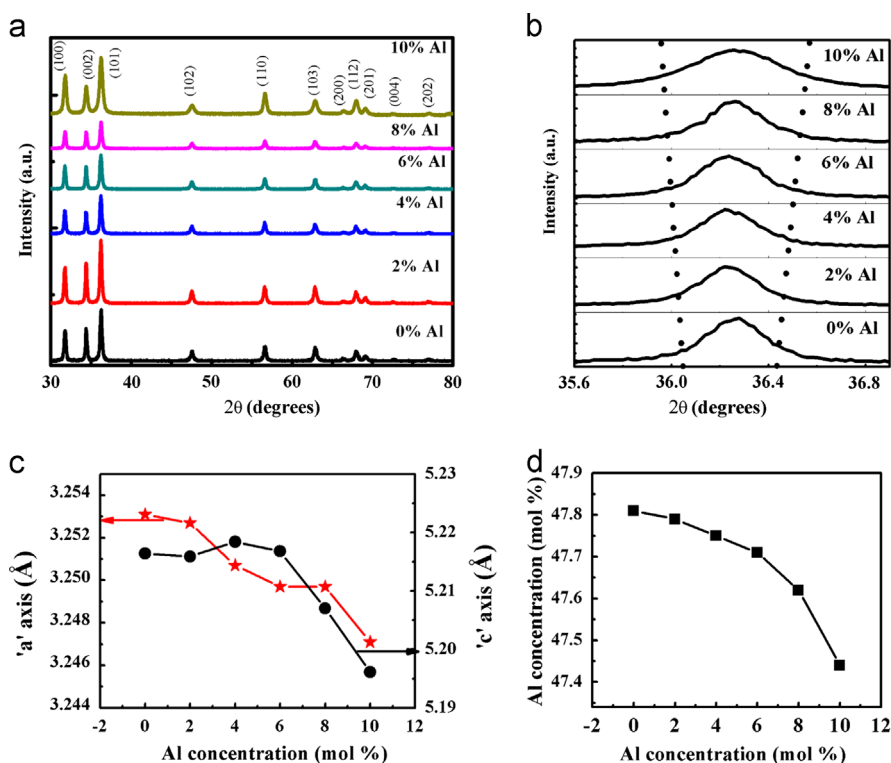


Fig. 1. (a) X-ray diffraction patterns of the prepared nanoparticles. (b) Doping-induced peak shift. (c) Variation of lattice parameter 'a' and 'c' with Al concentration. (d) Variation of unit cell volume with Al concentration.

Table 1  
Geometric parameters of  $\text{Zn}_{1-x}\text{Al}_x\text{O}$  nanoparticles by Williamson–Hall analysis.

Al concentration x	Crystallite size (nm) by Scherrer formula	Williamson–Hall analysis					
		UDM		USDM		UEDM	
		Crystallite size (nm)	Strain $\times 10^{-4}$	Crystallite size (nm)	Stress (MPa)	Crystallite size (nm)	Energy density ( $\text{J m}^{-3}$ )
0	39	30	3.2	29	38	30	6414
0.02	37	29	1.3	29	15.63	29	1069
0.04	36	28	1.9	28	21.85	28	2199
0.06	34	28	3.4	27	39.3	28	6822
0.08	32	27	3.6	27	40.45	27	7225
0.1	31	26	3.8	26	41.09	27	7903

used as reference. Optical absorbance spectra of pure and Al doped ZnO nanoparticles are shown in Fig. 3(a). It can be clearly observed that the absorption edge shifted towards the lower wavelength with increase in the Al concentration.

According to the theory of the optical absorption, the absorption coefficient  $\alpha$  and the photon energy  $h\nu$  for direct allowed transitions are related as:  $(\alpha h\nu)^2 = A(h\nu - E_g)$ , where the constant A is a constant function. The direct energy gap is determined by extrapolating the straight line portion of the  $(\alpha h\nu)^2$  versus  $h\nu$  plot (Tauc plot) to intersect the energy axis at  $\alpha=0$  (Fig. 3(b)).

The energy band gap of nanoparticles shows the clear dependence of Al doping concentration. The effect of Al

concentration on the absorption edge of ZnO nanoparticles results in a blue shift in the cut-off wavelength and this observed shift is proportional to the amount of Al present in the sample (Fig. 3(c)). The optical band gap of the samples has been calculated and found to increase in band gap with Al concentration is observed up to 10% Al doping. The blue shift behaviour in the band gap can be attributed to an increase in the carrier concentration that blocks the lowest states in the conduction band, known as the Burstein–Moss effect [20], which is frequently observed in naturally n-type semiconductors. An increase in the carrier concentration in Al doped ZnO will cause the Fermi level to move into the conduction band.

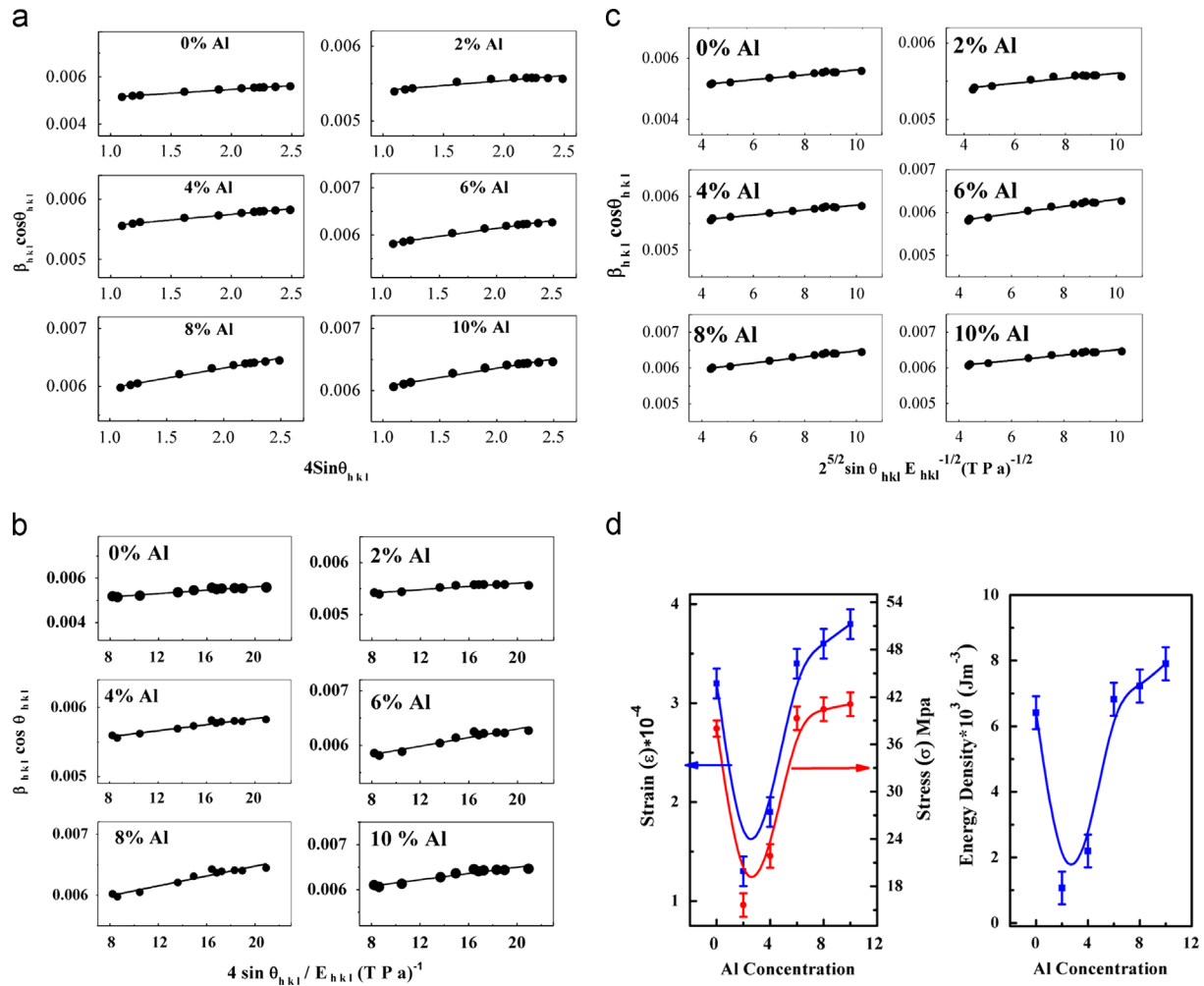


Fig. 2. (a) The W–H analysis assuming UDM. (b) The modified form of W–H analysis assuming USDM. (c) The modified form of W–H analysis assuming UEDM. (d) Variation of calculated parameters with Al concentration.

Thus, the low energy transitions are blocked [21,22]. The filling of the conduction band by electrons generally causes a blue shift in the band gap.

Room temperature PL spectra of Al doped ZnO samples are shown in Fig. 4, which were taken by using an excitation wavelength of 325 nm. Typically, two bands have appeared in the spectra, the near band edge (NBE) emission in the UV region (A) originated due to the recombination of free excitons and broad deep level emission in the visible region caused by impurities and structural defects of crystals [23]. A blue shift in NBE emission (around 375 nm) in emission spectra is observed which is similar to the blue shift in the band edge in the absorption spectra.

The inset (a) of Fig. 4 shows the broad emission band corresponding to defect states. It can be clearly seen that the intensity of defect states continuously increases with Al concentration which can be understood by considering the Al incorporation process in nanoparticles. The  $Al^{3+}$  ions can incorporate into the ZnO nanostructures in two different ways creating oxygen vacancies or incorporating as interstitials, while at low doping concentration (2%), most of the  $Al^{3+}$

ions are substituted. For the higher doping concentration, the excess  $Al^{3+}$  ZnO nanoparticles incorporate interstitially, creating large amount of lattice defects.

The broad visible emission band could be deconvoluted into Gaussian shaped components shown in the inset (b) of Fig. 4, which corresponds to the blue and green emission. The blue emission peaks are at around 452 and 480 nm assigned to the energy of transition of electron from interstitial Zn ( $Zn_i$ ) to Zn vacancies ( $V_{Zn}$ ) [24] and to the transition between the oxygen vacancy and interstitial oxygen ( $O_i$ ) respectively [24]. The green emission peak around 505 nm could be due to the transition from  $Zn_i$  levels to  $O_i$ . The emission around 529 nm is debatable and may be due to several types of defects such as  $V_O$  (oxygen vacancies),  $Zn_i$ ,  $V_{Zn}$  and  $O_i$  [25,26]. On the other hand component bands appeared at about 580 and 640 nm are frequently assigned as yellow and orange emissions in ZnO, respectively, and associated with the excess oxygen and  $Zn_i$  [27]. It can be clearly seen in Fig. 4 that the intensity of yellow emission clearly increases with doping concentration and shows the sharp peak for 10% Al doped ZnO nanoparticles. The intensity of near band edge UV emission is highest, accompanied

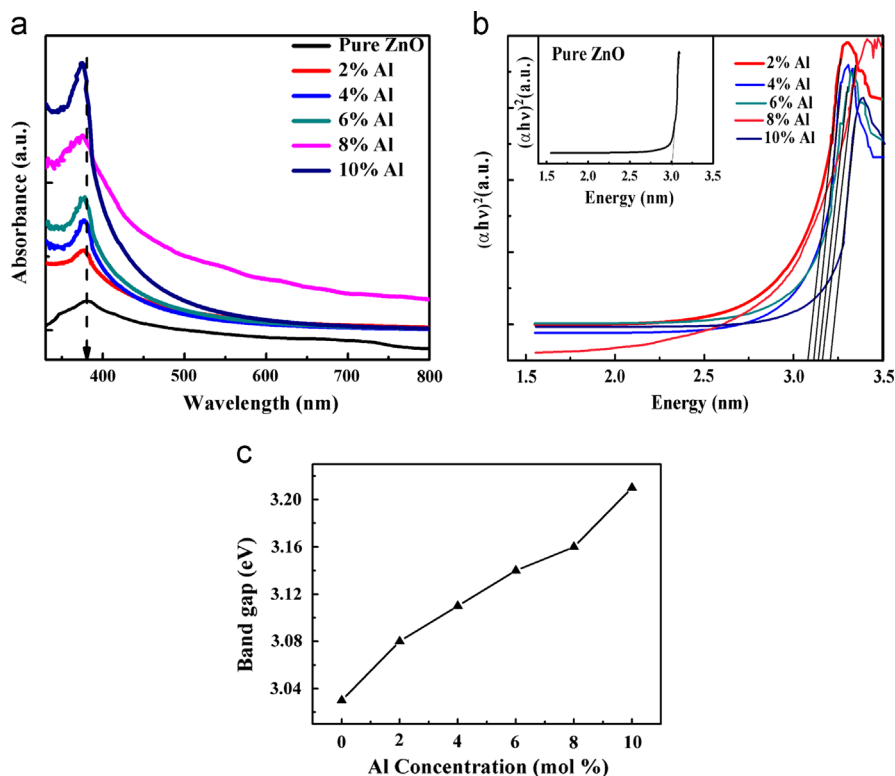


Fig. 3. (a) UV-vis spectra of the Al-doped ZnO nanoparticles. (b) Plot of the absorption coefficient versus photon energy. (c) Variation of the band gap with Al concentration.

by broad visible emission bands. Thus, we conclude that the Al-doping leads to a blue shift in NBE and increase in the intrinsic defects such as  $V_O$  and  $O_{Zn}$  density [28].

### 3.3. Phonon properties

FTIR measurements were performed in the range 400–4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and are displayed in Fig. 5. Absorption peaks observed around 2365  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are assigned to the  $\text{CO}_2$  mode, which may be due to the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  in the atmosphere [23]. Two absorption peaks at 1560 and 1435  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are corresponding to the asymmetric  $\nu_{as}(\text{COO}^-)$  and symmetric stretching  $\nu_s(\text{COO}^-)$  vibrations of acetate species [29]. The band at 1635  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  has been allotted to the first overtone of the crucial stretching mode of OH which indicates the presence of bound  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  on the surface of the sample [30]. The IR active characteristic broad band (optical phonon modes) of ZnO is observed in the spectral range 400–600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Absorption bands are found to blue shift up to 8% of Al and red shift for 10% Al doped ZnO nanoparticles.

The observed change in the peak positions of the ZnO absorption bands reflects that the Zn–O–Zn network is perturbed by the presence of Al in its environment. For the exact positions of the Zn–O bands, IR band in the region 400–600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is shown in Fig. 6(a). These bands are fitted by Gaussian and show the three bands  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$  and  $A_3$  (inset of Fig. 6(a)). According to the previous literature [20,31], the band  $A_1$  around 435  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to the  $E_1(\text{TO})$  mode. Bands centred at 493  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $A_2$ ) and 540  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $A_3$ ) are

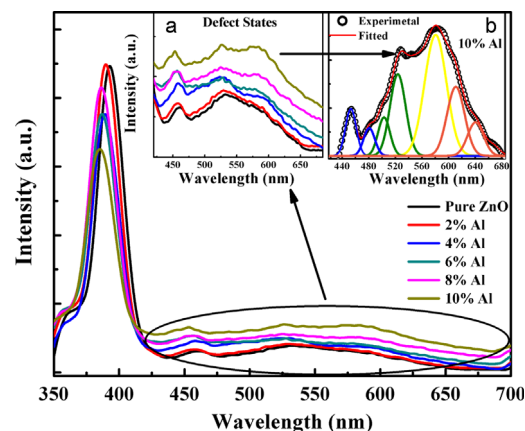


Fig. 4. PL spectra of  $\text{Zn}_{1-x}\text{Al}_x\text{O}$  nanoparticles. Inset (a) variation of defect states with doping and (b) defect state of 10% Al doped ZnO nanoparticles fitted with Gaussian.

surface phonon modes (SPM) and named as SPM [ $A_1(\text{TO})$ ] and SPM [ $E_1(\text{TO})$ ], respectively, which normally appear when the prepared particles are smaller than the incident IR wavelength [31]. The IR bands correspond to Zn showing a variation in the vibrational frequencies with increase in the doping concentration of Al, as shown in Fig. 6(b). The shift in the band position on doping of Al may be due to the difference in ionic radii of Zn and Al as well the structural changes induced due to the doping [32]. The average bond length of Zn(Al)–O in  $\text{Zn}_{1-x}\text{Al}_x\text{O}$  can be determined from the band position of  $E_1(\text{TO})$  and by the relation  $\nu = (1/2\pi c)(k/\mu)^{1/2}$ ,

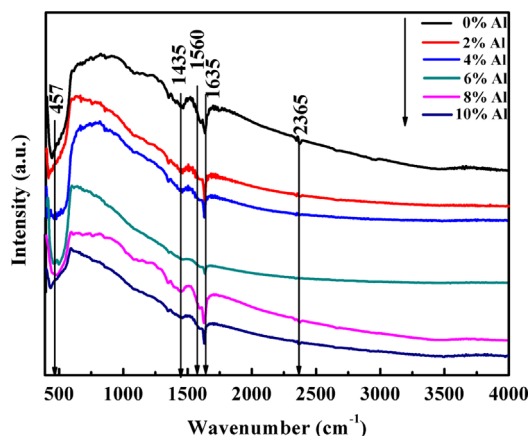


Fig. 5. The FTIR full scan transmittance spectra of  $\text{Zn}_{1-x}\text{Al}_x\text{O}$  nanoparticles.

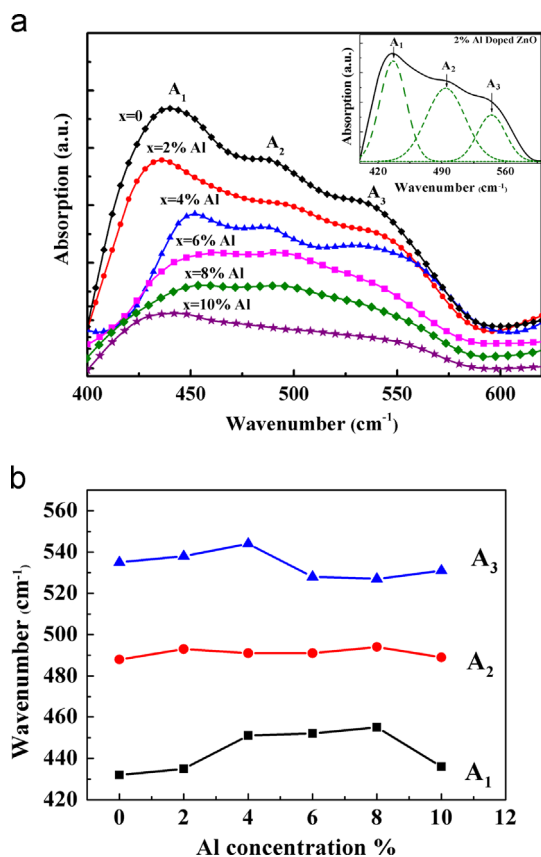


Fig. 6. (a) FTIR spectra corresponding to Zn–O bonds (inset shows Zn–O bonds with gaussian fitting for a typical sample). (b) Variation of peak wavenumber with Al concentration.

where  $\nu$  is the wavenumber,  $c$  is the velocity of light,  $k$  is the average force constant of the  $\text{Zn}(\text{Al})\text{--O}$  bond and  $\mu$  is the effective mass of the bond which is given by the relation:

$$\mu = \frac{M_{\text{O}}[xM_{\text{Al}} + (1-x)M_{\text{Zn}}]}{M_{\text{O}} + [xM_{\text{Al}} + (1-x)M_{\text{Zn}}]}$$

where  $M_{\text{O}}$ ,  $M_{\text{Zn}}$  and  $M_{\text{Al}}$  are the atomic weights of the O, Zn and Al, respectively and force constant is related to the average  $\text{Zn}(\text{Al})\text{--O}$  bond length ( $\text{\AA}$ ) by the equation  $k = 17/r^3$  [33].

Table 2

The IR band and local structure data of  $\text{Zn}(\text{Al})\text{--O}$  bonds of  $\text{Zn}_{1-x}\text{Al}_x\text{O}$  nanoparticles.

Samples ( $\text{Zn}_{1-x}\text{Al}_x\text{O}$ )	Wavenumber ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	Effective mass (atomic weight)	Force constant ( $\text{N m}^{-1}$ )	Bond length ( $\text{\AA}$ )
$x=0$	432	12.608	134.49	2.3068
$x=0.02$	435	12.8179	143.0769	2.2819
$x=0.04$	451	12.7874	153.40	2.2295
$x=0.06$	452	12.7548	153.69	2.2280
$x=0.08$	455	12.7245	155.37	2.2175
$x=0.10$	436	12.6922	142.35	2.286

Calculated values of effective mass, force constant and bond length are listed in Table 2.

It can be observed that the effective mass of  $\text{Zn}(\text{Al})\text{--O}$  bond decreased with Al substitution because of lower atomic weight of Al than that of Zn. Also the average force constant decreased with Al substitution which results an increment in the average  $\text{Zn}(\text{Al})\text{--O}$  bond length.

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, phase pure Al doped ZnO nanoparticles were successfully prepared by the DEA assisted thermal decomposition method. The substitution of Zn sites by  $\text{Al}^{3+}$  ions in wurtzite ZnO was confirmed by XRD. The line broadening due to small crystallite size and strain was analysed by various modified forms of W–H equation. It was observed that the strain, stress and energy density increased with Al doping. FTIR spectroscopic measurements show a broad band in the range  $600\text{--}400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , composed of three distinct peaks assigned to  $\text{E}_1(\text{TO})$ , SPM  $\text{A}_1(\text{TO})$  and SPM  $\text{E}_1(\text{TO})$  modes. The calculated effective mass of  $\text{Zn}(\text{Al})\text{--O}$  bond decreased with Al substitution because of lower atomic weight of Al than that of Zn. Also, the average force constant decreased with Al substitution which results in an increment in the average  $\text{Zn}(\text{Al})\text{--O}$  bond length. The energy band gap of samples shows the variation from 3.03 to 3.21 eV; increase in the band gap is attributed to the Burstein–Moss shift caused by the Al doping of the ZnO. Room temperature PL measurements illustrate strong NBE emissions, followed by a broad band in the range  $450\text{--}650\text{ nm}$  attributed to defects and vacancies. The tunability of optical properties of ZnO nanoparticles by Al doping could be useful for potential optoelectronic applications.

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