# Measurement of the efFect of pretreatment and adsorption on the electrical properties of ZnO powders using a microwave-Hall-effect technique

Byung-Ki Na and M. Albert Vannice\*

Department of Chemical Engineering, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

Arden B.Walters

Florida Power and Light Company, P.O. Box 078768, West Palm Beach, Florida 33407-0768

(Received 27 January 1992)

Microwave-Hall-effect (MHE) and electrical conductivity measurement techniques can now be used to obtain absolute values of the electrical properties of semiconductor powders under different controlled conditions. A commercial ESR spectrometer was modified to conduct MHE experiments and a network analyzer was utilized to tune the microwave cavity and obtain  $Q$  factors. A sample of ultrahigh-purity ZnO powder (30 m<sup>2</sup>/g) was prepared and studied. Evacuation of ZnO at 673 K decreased the electron Hall mobility but increased the conductivity and electron density at 300 K, and typical values for this high-surface-area powder were  $\mu$  = 4 cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs,  $\sigma$  = 0.05  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>-1</sup>, and  $N_e$  = 2×10<sup>16</sup> e<sup>-</sup>/g. Oxygen chemisorption at 300 K increased the mobility but decreased the conductivity and electron density, and after this step typical values were  $\mu = 50 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V s}$ ,  $\sigma = 0.001 \Omega^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and  $N_e = 2 \times 10^{13} e^{-}/g$ . These changes were reversible. The  $\mu$  values varied more than an order of magnitude; therefore, the assumption of constant mobilities cannot be made safely even at these low carrier densities. Three different ZnO powders were studied to observe the effect of surface area (i.e., particle size) on electrical properties. Lattice scattering was the dominant mechanism determining electron mobility for large particles, where the particle radius was much greater than the electron mean free path; however, as the ZnO particle size approached that of the estimated electron mean free path, defect scattering in the surface region became the dominant controlling mechanism. On an evacuated ZnO surface, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption had a significant effect on the electrical properties while CO adsorption had little effect, whereas on an 0-covered ZnO surface CO adsorption had a noticeable effect but  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption produced a much smaller change. Hydrogen adsorption on either surface gave little change in electrical properties.

# INTRODUCTION

A small number of efforts have been made to measure the electrical properties of certain powder samples to better understand the role of catalyst charge carriers (electrons and holes) in certain heterogeneous reactions. Conventional methods of measuring mobility and conductivity use dc or low-frequency ac currents applied to a sample compressed between two metal plates; $1<sup>{-3}</sup>$  however, it was recognized early that dc electrical property measurements are complicated by induced metal contact electrode voltages and by the presence of grain boundaries and particle-particle contacts in powder samples. The ac-Hall-effect technique was developed in an attempt to overcome the intergrain and interparticle chargetransfer problems and allow a more accurate measurement of the mobility and absolute number of charge carriers. $4.5$  Unfortunately, the accuracy of this method is also suspect because metal electrode contacts were still required and because the ac frequencies used were still much too low to prevent charge transfer across grain boundaries and particle-particle contacts for the highsurface-area materials of catalytic interest.<sup>6</sup> Consequently, most researchers have restricted themselves to the measurement of changes in electrical behavior because accurate electrical property values could not be guaranteed.

However, these difficulties can be circumvented by using a microwave-Hall-effect (MHE) technique for mobility combined with microwave absorption measurements for conductivity. This approach provides quantitative bulk electrical property measurements of high-surfacearea powder samples because microwave cavities eliminate the need for electrode contacts and because the xband microwave frequency is high enough to essentially eliminate charge transfer across grain boundaries and particle-particle contacts. The MHE technique has been used to measure the charge-carrier mobilities of powder samples of semiconductors and biological materials,  $7-13$ and it offers the potential to provide these values for dispersed metal particles.<sup>14,15</sup> The MHE technique developed in this laboratory involved the design and construction of new bimodal cavities for use with a slightly modified x-band Bruker electron-spin-resonance (ESR) spectrometer.<sup>14,15</sup> The electrical conductivities of many materials can be measured in these same cavities by an x-band microwave absorption technique utilizing a netx-band microwave absorption technique utilizing a net<br>work analyzer.<sup>15,16</sup> The charge-carrier density is calcu lated from the measured mobility and conductivity values.

In this study zinc oxide was selected as a model powder sample because its electrical properties are known to change with pretreatment and cyclic adsorption and/or desorption. ZnO is an n-type semiconductor and its elec-

46 12 266 C 1992 The American Physical Society

trical properties are dependent upon the nonstoichiometry of the lattice, which is typically oxygen deficient and can be altered by both thermal pretreatment and exposure to oxygen. It is already known that conductivity increases as ZnO is heated in vacuum and it decreases after exposure to  $oxygen.$ <sup>1-3</sup> Furthermore, ZnC samples with high surface-to-volume ratios might be expected to exhibit significant changes in conductivity as gases are chemisorbed on their surfaces. ZnO is of additional interest because it was an early catalyst for methanol synthesis and is still used in Cu/ZnO methanol synthesis catalysts,  $\frac{17}{2}$  and it has also been used for CO oxi-<br>detical  $\frac{14.18.19}{2}$  Consequently the edeemtics of Co CO dation.<sup>1,4,18,19</sup> Consequently, the adsorption of  $O_2$ , CO,  $H<sub>2</sub>$ , and  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  on ZnO was measured and the influence of these gases on the electrical properties of a high-surfacearea zinc oxide was determined. For comparison, some dc conductivity data are available for both ZnO single crystals and powders, although the data for the latter represent relative changes rather than absolute values. The only MHE charge-carrier-mobility data reported for ZnO powder did not include variations in surface treatment.<sup>7</sup> This study presents MHE mobility measurements for zinc oxide under controlled environments on samples connected to an UHV adsorption system.

## EXPERIMENT

x-band microwave frequencies were used to measure Hall mobilities and conductivities by slightly modifying an ESR spectrometer (Bruker ER 200D); the ESR capability was fully retained. A new MHE bimodal cavity was constructed from free-cutting brass to replace the ESR cavity. The differences in the MHE and ESR cavities are the sample location, which is at the  $H$ -field antinode in an ESR cavity and at the E-field antinode in an MHE cavity, and the two microwave connections required for the dual-mode MHE cavity. Also, for the MHE measurements, source modulation with a PIN modulator (H-P 8734B) was used instead of magneticfield modulation. Instrument settings on the Bruker ESR console for the MHE measurements were microwave power = 5.0 mW, modulation frequency =  $100$  kHz, modulation amplitude=1.0 G, receiver gain= $5 \times 10^4$ , and dc magnetic field  $=$  5000 G. The Hall signal intensity was obtained from the analog output of the ESR bridge detector. A network analyzer (H-P 8720) was used to tune the bimodal cavity and to obtain  $Q$  factors and resonance frequencies. A diagram of the system is illustrated in Fig. 1, and details of the modification have been provided elsewhere.<sup>14,15</sup>

The sample tube for the MHE and microwave absorption measurements was made from a 5-mm outsidediameter quartz tube (Wilmad, 703-PQ) and a high vacuum valve (Ace Glass, 8195-45), as shown in Fig. 2. A quartz disk was located at the middle of the tube to support the powder sample, which was typically less than 10 mg. After evacuation the sample was cooled to room temperature and the Ace vacuum valve was closed. The sample tube was then placed in the MHE cavity and reconnected to the vacuum line. Gas adsorption and evacuation at 300 K were performed without altering the



FIG. 1. Schematic of the microwave-Hall-effect system. 1, 180-cm coaxial cable; 2, 60-cm coaxial cable; 3, PIN modulator; 4, circulator; 5, 10-dB directional coupler; 6, coaxial attenuator; 7, coaxial phase shifter; 8, waveguide; A,B,C,D, connections for different experiments; arrows, microwave path.

sample position inside the cavity, thus minimizing any error due to changes in the sample position. The Q factors and resonance frequencies needed for the microwave conductivity calculations were obtained during the cavity tuning procedure prior to the MHE measurements.



FIG. 2. Sample tube used for microwave-Hall-effect measurements. All dimensions are in inches unless otherwise noted.

A static UHV volumetric adsorption system, utilizing a turbomolecular pump (Balzers TSU 172), capable of providing a vacuum below  $10^{-8}$  Torr in the manifold, was used to measure gas adsorption and Ar Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (B.E.T.) surface areas at liquid-nitrogen temperature. Pressures during isotherm measurements were obtained using a Baratron sensor head (MKS, model 310). Additional experimental details have been given earlier.<sup>20</sup> An average particle diameter was calculated from the surface area by assuming spherical particles, i.e.,

$$
d(nm) = \frac{6 \times 10^3}{\rho A} \tag{1}
$$

where  $\rho$  is the density of the sample (g/cm<sup>3</sup>) and A is the surface area  $(m^2/g)$ .

Three different zinc oxides were used. An ultrahighpurity, high-surface-area ZnO sample (1) was prepared by adding a 1-M  $(NH_4)_2CO_3$  (Aesar, 99.999% purity) solution drop by drop to a 1-M  $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)$ , (Aesar, 99.999%) purity) solution while stirring to precipitate  $ZnCO<sub>3</sub>$ . Distilled, deionized water was used. The precipitate was filtered, dried at 393 K in air for a week, then stored in a desiccator. It was decomposed to ZnO inside a quartz cell by heating under vacuum at a rate of 2 K/min to 393 K and holding for 30 min at 393 K, then heating to 533 K and holding for 30 min, and finally heating to 673 K and holding for 4 h at this maximum temperature. To establish this procedure and verify surface area measurements, a high-surface-area ZnO sample was prepared using less pure (99%) reagents.<sup>15</sup> Other research group have used  $Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>$  instead of  $(NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>$  to form zinc carbonate, but the former method can leave a Na impurity in the resulting  $ZnO.<sup>21-23</sup>$  Zinc carbonate does have a low solubility in ammonium solutions, so the yield of zinc carbonate is smaller than that using sodium carbonate; however, the ammonium ion can be easily decomposed by heating, thus yielding an ultrahigh-purity zinc oxide free of sodium. X-ray-diffraction analysis showed the initial presence of  $ZnCO<sub>3</sub>$  and verified that  $ZnO$  was formed after the high-temperature evacuation step.<sup>15</sup> No residual  $ZnCO<sub>3</sub>$  peaks could be observed. The  $ZnO(II)$  (Alfa, 99.99% purity) and ZnO(III) (Aesar, 99.9995%) samples provided powders with lower surface areas.

X-ray-diffraction patterns were obtained on a Rigaku Model 4011B3 diffractometer. These were used to verify the formation of zinc oxide and also to calculate particle sizes. Each sample was lightly pressed into a hollow aluminum holder to avoid powder movement during the rotation of the sample over  $2\theta$  values from 65° to 20° at  $4^{\circ}/$ min. The three major peaks occur at  $2\theta$  values of 36.2°  $(I/I_1 = 100)$ , 34.4°  $(I/I_1 = 56)$ , and 31.8°  $(I/I_1 = 71)$ . For the x-ray line-broadening particle-size measurements, the samples were scanned again between 37° and 35° at 0.25°/min. The mean particle diameter  $d_R$ was calculated using the Scherrer equation

$$
d_B = \frac{K_s \lambda}{B_d \cos \theta} \tag{2}
$$

where  $\lambda$  is the x-ray wavelength (Cu  $K\alpha$  = 0.154 050 nm),  $K<sub>s</sub>$  is the Scherrer constant (0.89), and  $B<sub>d</sub>$  is the angular width at half maximum intensity expressed in terms of  $\Delta(2\theta)$ . Warren's correction was used to account for instrumental line broadening, i.e.,  $B_d = (B_M^2 - B_{\text{inst}}^2)^{1/2}$ , where  $B_M$  is the measured angular width and  $B_{inst}$  is 0. 17° at a  $2\theta$  value of 36. 2°.

#### RESULTS

The number of charge carriers per gram can be calculated from the equation

$$
N_c = \frac{\sigma}{\rho e \mu} (g^{-1}), \qquad (3)
$$

where  $\sigma$  is the conductivity in  $(\Omega \text{ cm})^{-1}$ ,  $\mu$  is the mobility in cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs, e is the charge of an electron  $(1.6 \times 10^{-19})$ Coulomb), and  $\rho$  is the density of zinc oxide (5.606  $g/cm^3$ ).

The microwave cavity  $Q$  factor (quality factor), i.e., the ratio of stored resonant energy to input energy, is very important in these microwave experiments as it determines the energy absorbed by the sample-cavity system as well as the electric- and magnetic-field strengths at the sample location.  $Q$  is defined as

$$
Q = \frac{f}{\Delta f_{3 \text{ dB}}}, \qquad (4)
$$

where  $f$  is the resonance frequency of the cavity and  $\Delta f_{3 dB}$  is the frequency difference at the 3-dB position from the baseline. Two typical sets of resonance spectra measured with the cavity connected to the network analyzer are shown in Fig. 3. Curve <sup>1</sup> represents the resonance spectrum of the cavity detected at the inlet port (port 1) of the network analyzer, and curve 2 represents the transmitted power detected at the port orthogonal to both the electric and magnetic fields (port 2}. Marker <sup>1</sup> gives the resonance frequency of the cavity, and the difference between markers 2 and 3 represents  $\Delta f_{3dB}$ . In Fig. 3(a), showing the spectra after evacuation of ZnO(I) at 673 K for 2 h, the baseline of curve 1 was at  $-5.5$  dB, so markers 2 and 3 were positioned at  $-8.5$  dB. Figure  $3(b)$  shows the same set of spectra after adsorption of  $O<sub>2</sub>$ at 300 K.

For MHE measurements the cavity was disconnected from the network analyzer and connected to the ESR spectrometer as shown in Fig. 1, with the cavity in the normal ESR position between the dc magnetic poles. The Hall mobility is calculated from the following equa $tion:$ <sup>14, 15</sup>

$$
\mu_H = \frac{2 \times 10^8}{B} \left[ \frac{Q_0}{Q_0 - Q_L} \right] \left[ \frac{P_H}{P_1} \right]^{1/2}, \tag{5}
$$

which can also be written as

$$
\mu_H = \frac{2 \times 10^8}{B} \left[ \frac{Q_0}{Q_0 - Q_L} \right] \left[ \frac{Y_C}{RG} \right],
$$
 (6)

where  $\mu$  is the mobility (cm<sup>2</sup>/V s), B is the dc magnetic field (Gauss), and  $P_H/P_1$  is the ratio of the Hall power (transferred to port 2} to the incident microwave power,  $Y_c$  is the signal intensity from the ESR detector after correcting for the empty cavity signal, RG is the receiver gain of the ESR spectrometer, and  $Q_0$  and  $Q_L$  are the unloaded and sample loaded cavity Q factors, respectively. Figure 4 shows a set of Hall signals for ZnO(I) after different treatment conditions. An ideal cavity with an empty sample holder system will give no Hall signal when an external magnetic field is applied; however, real cavities give a background Hall signal due to unavoidable mode coupling. This particular cavity with an empty quartz tube had a small background Hall signal intensity which had to be subtracted from the weaker signals; for which had to be subtracted from the weaker signals, for example, it represented about  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the signal in Fig. 4(c). High-mobility samples, such as a silicon semiconductor, give Hall signals so strong that the small background Hall signal can be neglected, but with zinc oxide the Hall signal is much smaller and a correction must be made for the empty cavity background signal. If it is assumed that the background signal is linearly proportional to the  $Q$ factor ratio, i.e., the ratio of the sample-loaded  $Q$  factor to the unloaded  $Q$  factor, the following relation can be obtained to get the corrected Hall signal  $Y_C$ .

$$
Y_C = Y_L - Y_0 \left[ \frac{Q_L}{Q_0} \right],\tag{7}
$$



FIG. 3. Resonance spectra of ZnO(I) at 300 K using a H-P network analyzer and a bimodal TE102 rectangular cavity. Curve 1, inlet port; curve 2, orthogonal port: (a) after evacuation at 673 K for 4 h, (b) after exposure to 20 Torr  $O_2$ .



FIG. 4. MHE signal intensities of ZnO(I) at 300 K using a modified ESR spectrometer. Measurement conditions:  $P = 5$ mW,  $MF = 100$  kHz,  $MA = 1.0$  G,  $B = 5000$  G,  $RG = 1 \times 10^5$ ; markers indicate when the  $B$  field was turned on and off: (a) AS IS, (b) after evacuation at 673 K for 4 h, (c) after  $O_2$  adsorption at 20 Torr, (d) after evacuation at 673 K for 2 h, (e) after next  $O_2$ adsorption at 20 Torr. These data provide the results for sample <sup>1</sup> in Table II. The signal intensity of peak (b) represents about  $2.5 \times 10^{-8}$  mW.

where  $Y_L$  is the measured Hall signal intensity with a sample and  $Y_0$  is the background Hall signal with the empty quartz tube.

The calculation of electrical conductivity from microwave measurements requires the use of different equations depending on which of three different conductivit regions apply.<sup>8,15</sup> The following equation for the low conductivity region [below 0.1  $(\Omega \text{ cm})^{-1}$ ] was used for zinc oxide:

$$
\sigma = 2.78 \times 10^{-13} f \left[ \frac{Q_0 - Q_L}{Q_0 - Q_L} \right] \frac{V_c}{2V_s} , \qquad (8)
$$

where  $\sigma$  is the conductivity in  $(\Omega \text{ cm})^{-1}$ ,  $V_c$  and  $V_s$  are the cavity and sample volumes, respectively, and  $f$  is the resonance frequency  $(Hz)$  of the cavity. The  $Q$  factors and resonance frequencies were obtained with the network analyzer.

The highest conductivity values for ZnO at 300 K, which were around 0.07  $(\Omega \text{ cm})^{-1}$ , were obtained after evacuation at 673 K, and the thinnest skin depth  $\delta$  was 24) using the following equation:

consequently calculated to be 2.0 mm at 9.5 GHz (Ref.  
\n24) using the following equation:  
\n
$$
\delta = \left(\frac{2}{\omega \mu_0 \sigma}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{2}{2\pi f \mu_0 \sigma}\right)^{1/2},
$$
\n(9)

where  $\mu_0$  is the permeability in a vacuum =4 $\pi \times 10^{-7}$ H/m. The particle sizes of all the ZnO samples in Table I were therefore much smaller than the skin depth. The inner radius of the quartz sample tube was 2.0 mm, so the microwave attenuation by the ZnO particles in the sam-

Sample	Weight $(g)$	Treatment	B.E.T. area	$d$ (nm)	
			$(m^2/g)$	<b>XRD</b>	B.E.T.
$ZnO(I)^a$	0.760	Evac. 4 h at $673 \text{ K}$	32	19	32
$(99.999\%)$		Evac. 2 h at $673 \text{ K}$			
		(after 4 cycles)	27		
ZnO(II)	0.980	Evac. 1 h at $673 \text{ K}$	3.4	$> 80^6$	320
$(A$ lfa, 99.99%)		Evac. 4 h at $673$ K	3.4		
ZnO(III)	9.865	Evac. 1 h at $673 \text{ K}$	$1.3 \times 10^{-2}$	> 80 <sup>b</sup>	71000
(Aesar, 99.9995%)		repeat measurement	$1.8 \times 10^{-2}$		

TABLE I. Crystallite size of ZnO samples measured by XRD and Ar B.E.T. methods.

<sup>a</sup>Prepared from ZnCO<sub>3</sub> precipitated from a solution of Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> using (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>.

<sup>b</sup>XRD peaks too narrow for accurate measurements.

pie bed can be neglected. In Fig. 5 the theoretical conductivity was calculated using the following assumed parameters for ZnO:  $Q_0 = 4400$ ,  $f_0 = 9.647$  GHz,  $f = 9.644$ GHz, and weight of 5.0 mg. The lower branch represents Eq. (8), which applies to the low conductivity region, and the upper plot represents the equation appropriate for the intermediate conductivity region:<sup>15</sup>

$$
\sigma = 1.112 \times 10^{-12} f \left[ \frac{\Delta f}{f} \right]^2 \left[ \frac{Q_0 Q_L}{Q_0 - Q_L} \right] \frac{V_c}{2V_s} , \quad (10)
$$

where  $\Delta f$  is the frequency difference between the empty and loaded cavity. The data are clearly accommodated extremely well by the low conductivity expression and the fit indicates that the surface effects associated with this high-surface-area ZnO do not result in unusually high overall  $\sigma$  values.

The surface area of zinc oxide is dependent upon the preparation method; Table I lists the B.E.T. surface areas of the three different zinc oxides used in this study.



FIG. 5. Conductivity of ZnO vs the quality factor  $Q_l$  of the loaded cavity using assumed parameters (solid line) and the data obtained for ZnO(I).

ZnO(I) had a surface area of  $30\pm 3$  m<sup>2</sup>/g after treatment at 673 K, but sintering occurred at 773 K which decreased the surface area to  $15 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ .<sup>15</sup> ZnO(II) and ZnO(III) had surface areas of 3.4 and  $0.015 \pm 0.003$  m<sup>2</sup>/g, respectively. Table I also lists average crystallite diameters calculated from x-ray-diffraction (XRD) and B.E.T. measurements. XRD line broadening is most applicable for particle sizes between 5 and 50 nm, which is the size range of ZnO(I), whereas the sharp peaks obtained for ZnO(II) and (III) provide only a minimum estimate.

Values of mobility, conductivity, and charge-carrier density for ZnO(I) after different treatment conditions were calculated using Eqs.  $(3)$ – $(8)$ , and are listed in Table II. For comparison, Table III gives literature values of 'mobility and conductivity for other  $ZnO$  samples.<sup>1,7,</sup> The fresh  $(AS \text{IS})$  sample of  $ZnCO_3$  contained enough moisture to interfere with microwave measurements even though it was dried at 393 K, so its mobility and conductivity could not be compared directly with the rest of the data. In order to remove all the moisture and decompose zinc carbonate to zinc oxide, the sample was given a heat treatment at 673 K, as described in the Experiment section. Only XRD peaks for ZnO were visible after this treatment.

The Hall mobility of this ZnO powder measured after the various treatment conditions is related to changes in carrier (i.e., electron) density of the semiconductor. Measurements after oxygen adsorption at 20 Torr on ZnO(I) gave mobilities between 20 and 67  $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}$  s with an average value of  $44\pm 19$  cm<sup>2</sup>/V s, which is about half the value of  $110\pm40$  cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs for ZnO powder reported by Trukhan<sup>7</sup> and is also somewhat lower than the range of values (90–200 cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs) cited for single crystals.<sup>25–29</sup> Evacuation of  $ZnO(I)$  at 673 K for 1–4 h lowered the mobility to  $3.9\pm0.8$  cm<sup>2</sup>/V s.

The conductivity measurements of ZnO(I) in Table II also show a significant effect of high-temperature evacuation and subsequent exposure to  $O_2$  at 300 K. The initial 4-h evacuation at 673 K to decompose the  $ZnCO<sub>3</sub>$  gave an average conductivity of  $3.8 \times 10^{-3}$  ( $\Omega$  cm)<sup>-1</sup>, which decreased to  $5.3 \times 10^{-4}$  ( $\Omega$  cm)<sup>-1</sup> following oxygen adsorption. An evacuation at 673 K for either <sup>1</sup> h or for 2 h following  $O_2$  adsorption increased the electrical conductivity to  $2.\overline{4} \times 10^{-2}$  ( $\Omega$  cm)<sup>-1</sup> or  $6.2 \times 10^{-2}$  ( $\Omega$  cm respectively. These values were higher than that after the initial evacuation, but readsorption of  $O<sub>2</sub>$  decreased the

	Treatment	(GHz)	$Q_L$	Signal intensity	$\rm (cm^2/Vs)$	σ $(10^{-3} \ \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1})$	$N_{c}$ $(10^{15} e^-/g)$
	AS IS $(ZnCO3)$	9.64340	3517	3.0	4.1	2.4	0.64
	673 K, evac. 4 h	9.644 50	3884	2.8	3.9	1.2	0.34
Sample 1	20 Torr $O2$	9.64478	4161	3.5	20	0.50	0.025
$(5.3 \text{ mg})^{\text{a}}$	673 K, evac. 2 h	9.641 00	593	3.0	2.5	62	28
	20 Torr $O2$	9.644 60	3933	10.5	67	1.0	0.017
	300 K, evac. 1 h	9.644 50	3770	9.3	42	1.5	0.040
	AS IS $(ZnCO3)$	9.64325	3225	3.0	2.4	3.3	1.5
	673 K, evac. 4 h	9.64400	2581	4.0	4.4	6.4	1.6
Sample 2	20 Torr $O2$	9.644 53	4104	7.0	59	0.56	0.011
$(5.6 \text{ mg})^{\text{a}}$	673 K, evac. 1 h	9.64270	1232	5.0	4.6	24	5.7
	$20$ Torr $O2$	9.644 44	3987	6.0	31	0.85	0.030
	300 K, evac. 0.5 h	9.64443	3990	5.5	27	0.84	0.035

TABLE II. The effect of oxygen adsorption at 300 K on the electrical properties of high-surface-area ZnO(I):  $f_0 = 9.64700$  GHz and  $Q_0 = 4351$ . All measurements were at 300 K.

'Weight of ZnO after decomposition.

conductivity back to about  $9.3 \times 10^{-4}$  ( $\Omega$  cm)<sup>-1</sup>. It is not clear why the second evacuation at 673 K following oxygen adsorption produced a higher conductivity than the first treatment, but it was principally due to an increase in electron density rather than an increase in mobility. There may have been a structural change in the zinc oxide during the second evacuation involving chemisorbed oxygen or a small residual amount of  $ZnCO<sub>3</sub>$  may have further decomposed.

Earlier studies used a conductivity cell in which the powder samples were compressed between metal electrodes,  $^{2,3,29}$  but only relative changes in conductivity were reported. Amigues and Teichner also used a dc conductivity cell and reported a conductivity value of  $7 \times 10^{-2}$  ( $\Omega$  cm)<sup>-1</sup> after heating Zn(OH)<sub>2</sub> in vacuum for 12 h at 623 K, and this value decreased to  $2 \times 10^{-3}$  $(\Omega \text{ cm})^{-1}$  under 3 Torr oxygen pressure at 298 K.<sup>1</sup> Literature values for the conductivity of ZnO are listed in Table III, and they show that ZnO single crystals have conductivities ranging from about 0.01 to 1.0  $(\Omega \text{ cm})^{-1}$ ,  $^{26-28}$ ,  $^{30-32}$  with the minimum value of  $7 \times 10^{-1}$  ${(\Omega \, \text{cm})}^{-1}$  being obtained after heating at 980 K under  $10^{-7}$  Torr of O<sub>2</sub> pressure. The range in conductivities for these ZnO single crystals indicates that defect formation

> Single crystal Single crystal Crystalline Powder Powder

can be significant during crystal growth and that the defect concentration can vary from batch to batch. $^{28}$ 

The electron densities after these various pretreatments, calculated using Eq. (3) with the measured values of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ , are also listed in Table II. After decomposition of  $ZnCO<sub>3</sub>$  under vacuum at 673 K for 4 h, the initial charge-carrier density was  $0.34 \times 10^{15}$  and  $1.6 \times 10^{15}$  $e^-$ /g for samples 1 and 2, respectively. Oxygen adsorption at 300 K decreased the charge-carrier density markedly to  $1.8 \pm 0.7 \times 10^{13} e^- / g$ . An electron density of  $3 \times 10^{14} e^-$ /g has been reported for a ZnO single crystal grown from the vapor phase.<sup>28</sup> For sample 1, a 2-h evacuation at 673 K decreased the mobility to 2.5  $\text{cm}^2/\text{V s}$ , but increased the conductivity to  $6.2 \times 10^{-2}$  ( $\Omega$  cm)<sup>-1</sup>. primarily because of the marked increase in electron density to  $28 \times 10^{15} e^-$ /g. Irreversible oxygen readsorptic at 300 K ( $\sim$  230 × 10<sup>15</sup> molecules/g) reproduced the same effect as the initial adsorption and very similar  $N_c$  values were obtained on both samples. A 1-h evacuation at 300 K changed the sample properties only slightly, which indicated that the oxygen was essentially irreversibly chemisorbed. A combined MHE-ESR study has shown that this chemisorbed oxygen can not only interact with conduction electrons to form  $O_2$ <sup>-</sup> species, thereby decreasing

> $0.13 - 0.01$ 1.0

 $\sim$  0.07<br> $\sim$  0.002



200

110+40

extremely high purity and crystallinity grown from vapor phase grown from vapor phase

decomposition of  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  at 623 K  $O_2$  adsorption at 298 K

TABLE III. Literature values for electron mobility and conductivity of ZnO at 300 K.



46

	Treatment	(GHz)	$Q_L$	Scale reading	$\rm (cm^2/Vs)$	$\sigma$ $(10^{-3} \ \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1})$	$N_c$ $(10^{15} \text{ g}^{-1})$
	AS IS	9.64495	3707	4.5	13	1.5	0.13
ZnO(II)	673 K evac. 2 h	9.64508	3693	3.0	4.6	1.5	0.37
$(6.0 \text{ mg})$	20 Torr $O2$	9.645 00	3878	3.5	9.4	1.1	0.13
	673 K evac. 2 h	9.64488	3493	3.0	4.0	2.1	0.59
	20 Torr $O_2$	9.64495	3810	4.5	15	1.2	0.093
	AS IS	9.644 08	2511	7.5	11	6.4	0.63
ZnO(III)	673 K evac. 2 h	9.64478	2524	7.0	10	6.4	0.68
$(4.8 \text{ mg})$	20 Torr $O_2$	9.64440	2670	5.0		5.5	0.87
	673 K evac. 2 h	9.64375	2428	10.0	15	7.0	0.50
	$20$ Torr $O2$	9.64380	2506	11.0	18	6.5	0.40

TABLE IV. Electrical properties of ZnO(II) and ZnO(III):  $f_0 = 9.64700$  GHz,  $Q_0 = 4351$  for ZnO(II);  $f_0 = 9.64541$  GHz and  $Q_0$  = 4271 for ZnO(III); O<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 300 K.

free electron density, but it can also interact with the unpaired electron at singly ionized oxygen vacancies to form additional  $O_2$ <sup>-</sup> species and it can remove oxygen vacancies completely by a bulk reoxidation process.<sup>16</sup> Consequently, the chemistry can be complex. The results in Table II show small differences in measured electrical properties for two different ZnO samples using slightly different experimental procedures, but the change in each property has the same trend for similar experimental sequences.

A ZnO(II) sample with a lower surface area of 3.4  $m^2/g$  showed the same trends as the higher-surface-area ZnO(I) but the variations in electrical properties were smaller, as shown in Table IV. This is undoubtedly due to the smaller surface-to-volume  $(S/V)$  ratio of ZnO(II). A sample of ZnO(III) with the lowest surface area of  $\sim$ 0.015 m<sup>2</sup>/g was also examined, and the results after pretreatments comparable to those used for the other two types of ZnO are also listed in Table IV so that the particle-size effect on electrical properties can be further determined. The carrier density of ZnO(III) also increased after an evacuation at 673 K and decreased after adsorption of oxygen at 300 K, but the relative changes were much smaller than those obtained with ZnO(I). The electron density of ZnO(III) was much more insensitive to pretreatment. Both the mobilities and conductivities of ZnO(III) were consistently higher than comparable values of ZnO(II); consequently, electron densities for ZnO(II) and ZnO(III) were about the same.

The effects of sequential CO and  $O_2$  adsorption on ZnO(I) are shown in Table V. After the measurements listed in Table II, sample I was evacuated at 673 K which increased electron density back to a high level of  $3.1 \times 10^{16}$  e  $^{-}/g$ . CO adsorption  $(1.0 \times 10^{17} \text{ molecule/g})$ at 300 K was completely reversible and had no significant effect on the electrical properties of high-temperature evacuated ZnO. This is consistent with the fact that CO adsorption on ZnO at low temperature is weak and reversible.<sup>15, 16, 33 - 35</sup> After evacuation at 300 K, oxygen was adsorbed, which decreased the carrier density as expected although not quite as much as before.

After reevacuation at 673 K, which again increased  $N_c$ , O<sub>2</sub> was adsorbed and then evacuated at 300 K leaving the ZnO surface covered with strongly adsorbed oxygen. Adsorption of CO onto this surface at 300 K increased the electron density almost two orders of magnitude and increased  $\mu$  more than tenfold, thus indicating that CO can react with adsorbed oxygen at 300 K in such a way as to release electrons to the zinc oxide. Such a reaction has been recently reported by Chiorino, Ghiotti, and Boccuz $zi.<sup>18</sup>$  Also, Hotan, Göpel, and Haul<sup>30</sup> have measured the dc conductivity of a ZnO single crystal which was an-

TABLE V. Electrical properties of ZnO(I) after adsorption of oxygen and carbon monoxide at 300 K: 5.3 mg,  $f_0 = 9.64700 \text{ GHz}$  and  $Q_0 = 4351$ . Experiments were continued with sample 1 from Table

Treatment	(GHz)	$Q_L$	Scale reading	$\mu$ $\rm (cm^2/Vs)$	$\sigma$ $(10^{-3} \ \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1})$	$N_c$ $(10^{15}$ $g^{-1}$
673 K, evac. 2 h	9.63873	548	3.0	2.5	68	31
2.0 Torr CO	9.641.50	652	3.0	2.5	56	25
20 Torr CO	9.64101	606	3.0	2.5	61	26
300 K, evac. 1 h; 20 Torr $O_2$	9.644 30	3682	5.8	19	1.8	0.11
673 K, evac. 2 h	9.641.62	602	3.0	2.5	61	28
$2.0$ Torr $O2$	9.64435	3484	11.0	36	2.4	0.076
20 Torr $O2$	9.644 48	3728	12.0	55	1.6	0.033
300 K, evac. 1 h	9.644 22	3585	6.8	21	2.1	0.11
2.0 Torr CO	9.64345	1929	3.0	2.7	12	5.1
20 Torr CO	9.642 65	1391	3.0	2.6	21	9.0

Treatment	(GHz)	$Q_L$	Scale reading		$\sigma$ $\rm (cm^2/V s)$ $\rm (10^{-3} \Omega^{-1} cm^{-1})$	$(10^{15} \text{ g}^{-1})$
673 K, evac. 2 h	9.64179	773	3.0	2.5	46	20
2.0 Torr $H_2$	9.64231	860	3.0	2.5	40	18
20 Torr $H_2$	9.64188	890	3.0	2.5	38	17
300 K, evac. 1 h; 20 Torr $O_2$	9.64427	3565	5.0	13	2.2	0.18
673 K, evac. 2 h	9.643 00	721	3.0	2.5	50	22
$20$ Torr $O2$	9.64448	3827	5.0	18	1.3	0.081
300 K, evac. 1 h; 20 Torr H <sub>2</sub>	9.64445	3745	5.0	16	1.6	0.11

TABLE VI. Electrical properties of ZnO(I) after the adsorption of oxygen and hydrogen at 300 K: 5.3 mg,  $f_0 = 9.64700 \text{ GHz}$  and  $Q_0 = 4351$ . Experiments were continued with sample 1 from Table V.

nealed under an oxygen pressure of  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa and then exposed to CO at 298 K. They found that  $\sigma$  increased and suggested that a chemical reduction of the surface occurred which donated charge to the ZnO conduction band. This result shows that the net effect of CO adsorption on the electron density of ZnO is extremely dependent on the state of the surface.

Measurements of the electrical properties of this ZnO(I) sample were also made after sequential hydrogen and oxygen adsorption, with the results given in Table VI. After evacuation at 673 K, irreversible hydrogen adsorption was low  $(19 \times 10^{17} \text{ molecule H}_2/\text{g})$  and had only a very small effect on the electrical properties. Hydrogen adsorbed at 300 K on a surface precovered with oxygen also caused no significant change in any electrical property. Unlike CO, hydrogen does not interact with adsorbed oxygen at 300 K to significantly affect the electrical properties of zinc oxide.

Sequential adsorption of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $O<sub>2</sub>$  gave the interesting results shown in Table VII. Irreversible  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption (95  $\mu$ mol/g) at 300 K after evacuation at 673 K was large (570 $\times$ 10<sup>17</sup> molecule/g) and decreased the carrier density from  $20 \times 10^{14}$  to  $1.5 \times 10^{14}$  e<sup>-</sup>/g, thus indicating that adsorbed  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  significantly reduced conduction electron density, but less than chemisorbed  $O<sub>2</sub>$ . This low ratio of electron transfer per adsorbed  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  molecule is consistent with previous work.<sup>30</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed on an oxygen-precovered surface at 300  $\overline{K}$  also decreased the charge-carrier density. dc conductivity measurements with a ZnO single crystal had previously indicated a decrease in conductivity after exposure to  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ .<sup>30</sup> Two explanations for the decrease in  $N_c$  for  $CO_2$  adsorption on the oxygen-covered surface are either  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  adsorption on

sites not available to  $O_2$  or  $CO_2$  interaction with chemisorbed oxygen in a manner that withdraws more conduction electrons from the zinc oxide. The chemistry associated with these interactions is also complex and is discussed in greater detail elsewhere.<sup>15,16</sup>

Finally, upon the completion of all of these runs, the sample of ZnO in Table VII was heated at 673 K for 2 h under 200 Torr oxygen to produce the most stoichiometric form of ZnO(I). This state of ZnO with the lowest defect density had a high mobility of 46 cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs, a low conductivity of  $0.6 \times 10^{-3}$  ( $\Omega$  cm)<sup>-1</sup>, and a low electron density of  $1.5 \times 10^{-13} e^{-}/g$ 

# DISCUSSION

Zinc oxide is an n-type semiconductor whose electrical properties can depend on the surface-to-volume  $(S/V)$  ratio and treatment conditions. Consistent with previous work, this study has shown that evacuation at 673 K increases the conductivity, decreases the mobility, and increases the carrier density of ZnO. However, the importance of the present study is that microwave techniques were employed to allow the characterization of ZnO powders, thus providing the opportunity to examine the influence of the surface region on absolute values of overall electrical properties. The oxygen vacancies generated by high-temperature evacuation are mostly near the surface because they can be almost completely removed by  $O_2$  chemisorption at 300 K. The defects present in ZnO after such a treatment are not yet completely understood, but the formation of oxygen vacancies  $V_0$  is known and there is also evidence of interstitial zinc atoms  $\sum n_i$ <sup>26,36,37</sup> Göpel and Lampe report the first

TABLE VII. Electrical properties of ZnO(I) after adsorption of oxygen and carbon dioxide at 300 K: 5.3 mg,  $f_0 = 9.64700$  GHz and  $Q_0 = 4351$ . Experiments were continued with sample 1 from Table VI.

Treatment	(GHz)	$Q_L$	Scale	$\boldsymbol{\mu}$	$\sigma$ reading $\rm (cm^2/V s)$ $(10^{-3} \Omega^{-1} cm^{-1})$ $(10^{15} \text{ g}^{-1})$	N.
673 K, evac. 2 h	9.639.76	594	4.0	3.4	62	20
20 Torr $CO2$	9.643 38 2472		4.5	5.7	7.5	1.5
673 K, evac. 2 h	9.639 63	535	4.0	3.4	70	23
20 Torr O <sub>2</sub> ; evac. 1 h at 300 K 9.643 85 3181			4.0	6.5	3.6	0.62
20 Torr $CO2$	9.64400	3748	4.0	11	1.6	0.17
673 K, 2 h under 200 Torr $O_2$ 9.644 18 4095			5.8	46	0.6	0.015

ionization level for oxygen vacancies, i.e.,  $(V_0)^{\dagger} \rightarrow (V_0^+)^{\dagger} + e^{\dagger}$ , to be 0.04 eV, and the second ionization level, i.e.,  $(V_0^+)^- \rightarrow (V_0^{2+})^0 + e^-$ , to be 0.2–0.4 eV.<sup>26</sup> Consequently, it should be easy to create surface  $(V_0^+)^-$  sites, but not  $(V_0^{2+})^0$  defects. (The superscript sign within the parentheses represents the net charge at the defect site and the sign outside the parentheses gives the number of electrons associated with the site.) Another source of conduction electrons could be interstitial  $\text{Zn}^+$ for  $Zn^{2+}$  ions, but it is not clear which interstitial zinc ion would be favored during evacuation. $38-40$ 

Mobility is a parameter describing the ease of carrier motion in an applied electric field. For zinc oxide, mobility is determined by the scattering mechanisms for con-'duction electrons.<sup>41,42</sup> Scattering mechanisms includ lattice scattering with optical, acoustical, and piezoelectric modes and defect scattering from ionized and neutral defects in the lattice.<sup>28,42-44</sup> Hagemark and Chacka<sup>42</sup> and Li and Hagemark<sup>43</sup> calculated the contribution from each electron scattering mode to the theoretical mobilities for doped ZnO single crystals and concluded that lattice scattering is the dominant mechanism at room temperature, whereas defect scattering dominates only at very low temperature (below 50 K). These conclusions may be valid for large single crystals, but as particle size decreases the electron mobility will be increasingly determined by surface conditions. The mobility of ZnO(I) decreased by an order of magnitude after evacuation at 673 K and significantly increased following adsorption of  $O_2$ . Because the bulk structure of ZnO should not be changed significantly by  $O_2$  adsorption at 300 K, lattice scattering should be unchanged. Consequently, the most probable explanation for the measured mobility changes is defectcaused scattering near the surface, which reduces electron mobilities for small particles with high  $S/V$  ratios. The mobility of a semiconductor is related to the mean free path of the charge carriers. For ZnO particle sizes much larger than the mean free path of conduction electrons, the condition of the surface has little effect on the mean free path because the number of scattering interactions in the bulk is much greater than at the surface. However, if the particle size becomes small enough to approach the mean free path, the electron motion will be limited by scattering in the surface region, thereby reducing the mobility. Oxygen removal during ZnO evacuation at 673 K is facilitated by higher surface areas, which resulted in a markedly higher concentration of oxygen vacancies,  $(V_0)^=$ , for ZnO(I). The higher surface defect concentration decreases the mobility and increases the carrier density to a greater extent than with lower surface area ZnO. The measured increases in electron density do not explain the measured mobility decreases at these low electron densities because the mean free path for electron-electron scattering is at least ten times greater than that for lattice scattering.<sup>45</sup> Thus we conclude that oxygen vacancies near the surface act as defect scattering centers for the electrons and decrease the mobility. Oxygen adsorption removes these oxygen vacancies and restores the mobility to a value near that for stoichiometric ZnO.

Another possible explanation for the mobility change

in ZnO powder is the presence of surface electron trapping sites that restrict the motion of electrons.<sup>46</sup> Such trapping sites would interact with an electron for a certain period of time before releasing it, thereby decreasing electron motion. However, if the holding time at the trapping site is comparable to or longer than the electron collision time  $\tau$ , the trapping centers would lower the measured value of electron density  $N_e$  rather than the measured value of mobility  $\mu$ . Therefore, an increase in defect scattering is the preferred explanation at this time for the mobility decrease.

The mobility of electrons is related to the mean free path  $\overline{l}$ , which can be calculated from a kinetic model similar to that for gases.  $24,47$  The mean thermal velocity of electrons inside a crystal  $v_{th}$  is given by the formul

$$
v_{\rm th}(\text{cm/s}) = \sqrt{3kT/m^*} \tag{11}
$$

where k is Boltzmann's constant  $(1.38 \times 10^{-16} \text{ erg/K})$ , T is the temperature  $(K)$ ,  $m^*$  is the effective mass  $(g)$ , which must be used instead of the free-electron mass  $m_0$  $(9.1 \times 10^{-28} \text{ g})$ . The mean free path is obtained by the relationship

$$
\bar{l} = \tau v_{\text{th}} \tag{12}
$$

where  $\tau$  is the collision time, which can be expressed in terms of the measured mobility as

$$
\tau = \frac{m^* \mu}{e} \tag{13}
$$

where e is the charge of an electron  $(1.6 \times 10^{-19})$ Coulomb) and  $\mu$  is the mobility (cm<sup>2</sup>/V s). Consequently, from these three equations the mean free path can be represented as

$$
\bar{l} = \frac{\mu}{e} (3m \cdot kT)^{1/2} \tag{14}
$$

Using the literature value of  $m*/m_0 = 0.27$  for electrons in ZnO (Refs. 29 and 48) and the largest literature value of  $\mu$  = 200 cm<sup>2</sup>/V s,<sup>29</sup> the longest mean free path for ZnO at 300 K is calculated to be about 7 nm. The XRD and B.E.T. results for ZnO(I) indicate average particle sizes of 20—30 nm after evacuation at 673 K, as listed in Table I; thus the radii of these particles (10—15 nm) are comparable to the mean free path, which provides a situation where electron motion could be strongly affected by the surface region of this high-surface-area powder.

The effect of particle size on the electrical properties is demonstrated by the three ZnO samples with different particle sizes. The mobility, conductivity, and carrier density for these ZnO samples are plotted against the S/V ratio in Figs. 6–8. Here  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$ , and N are the respective values after evacuation at 673 K, while  $\mu_0$ ,  $\sigma_0$ , and  $N_0$  represent the values after subsequent  $O_2$  adsorption at 300 K. The ranges of mobility and conductivity for ZnO single crystals are taken from Table III, and typically only the lowest of these reported values are near those measured for these powders. However, the range of electron density, particularly that after evacuation, falls within that reported previously for ZnO single crystals. Figure 9 shows the changes in the relative values of mo-



FIG. 6. Mobility at 300 K vs the surface-to-volume ratio for three different ZnO powders;  $\mu$  is the value after evacuation at 673 K and  $\mu_0$  is that after O<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 300 K. The mobility range for a single crystal is derived from Table III.

bility, conductivity, and carrier density after exposure to  $O_2$  as a function of the  $S/V$  ratio for the three zinc-oxide samples. For very small  $S/V$  ratios, i.e., for very large particles, the electrical properties are relatively insensitive to pretreatment. However, at much higher  $S/V$  ratios large changes occur, especially in regard to electron density. The consistent trends among all these parameters provide strong evidence that oxygen vacancies



FIG. 7. Conductivity at 300 K vs the  $S/V$  ratio for three different ZnO powders:  $\sigma$  is the value after evacuation at 673 K and  $\sigma_0$  is that after O<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 300 K. The conductivity range for a single crystal is obtained from Table III.



FIG. 8. Electron density at 300 K vs the  $S/V$  ratio for three different ZnO powders:  $N$  is the value after evacuation at 673 K and  $N_0$  is that after  $O_2$  adsorption at 300 K. The range of electron density for a single crystal is based on different doping concentrations (Ref. 26).

formed in the ZnO surface region play an important role in ZnO electrical properties. Since these microwave techniques measure overall electrical properties, which are determined by both bulk and surface contributions, the comparisons in Fig. 9 show that these methods become surface sensitive when the  $S/V$  ratio becomes very large.

Previous measurements using a conductivity cell have



FIG. 9. Relative values of mobility, conductivity, and electron density for ZnO vs the  $S/V$  ratio. The terms  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$ , and N are the values after evacuation at 673 K and  $\mu_0$ ,  $\sigma_0$ , and  $N_0$  are those after  $O_2$  adsorption at 300 K.

shown that high-temperature evacuation increases conductivity and oxygen adsorption decreases it. Two types of chemisorbed oxygen on zinc oxide at room temperature have been proposed—one is an adsorbed  $O^-$  ion formed by a reaction with conduction electrons<sup>2,3,</sup> and the other is an  $O_2$ <sup>-</sup> radical.<sup>51,54</sup> Both may even be formed simultaneously;<sup>55</sup> however, ESR and Fourier transform-infrared (FTIR) spectra support  $O_2$ <sup>-</sup> as the transform-infrared (FTIR) spectra support  $O_2$ <sup>-</sup> as the predominant adsorbed species on ZnO surfaces.<sup>15,16</sup> The matching of Fermi energy levels can be used to explain charge transfer for chemisorption of gases on semiconductors,<sup>56</sup> and the decrease in the charge-carrier density of ZnO during the adsorption of oxygen results from the transfer of conduction electrons from ZnO to the oxygen to form surface  $O_2$ <sup>-</sup> species.<sup>36</sup> This reaction continue until equilibrium is attained between adsorption and desorption.

Variations in electrical conductivity are often considered to be due only to changes in the concentration of charge carriers at low carrier densities, i.e., the mobility is assumed to be constant.<sup>57</sup> The results in this study clearly show that the mobility can change by an order of magnitude or more after different treatment conditions, even at relatively low electron densities of  $10^{13} - 10^{16}$  $e^-$ /g; therefore, this is a dangerous assumption. To better understand the influence of surface chemistry on electrical properties of small particles, mobility as we11 as conductivity must be measured.

### **SUMMARY**

This application of a microwave-Hall-effect technique has observed changes in electrical properties of powder samples under controlled treatment conditions. Chargecarrier mobility has been shown to be a critical parameter for a better understanding of the role of surface chemistry on electrical properties of small particles. Mobility cannot be assumed constant, even at low electron densities, because 20- to 30-fold increases can occur during  $O_2$ chemisorption at only 300 K following a hightemperature evacuation of a high-surface-area ZnO. The mobility of a high-surface-area ZnO decreased more than an order of magnitude after evacuation at 673 K, and this is attributed to the creation of oxygen vacancies in the surface region. These oxygen vacancies act as defect scattering centers for electrons, thus greatly decreasing their mobility. Bulk lattice scattering of electrons is the dominant mechanism in large ZnO particles (particle radius  $\gg$  electron mean free path), but as the particle size approaches the electron mean free path, surface defect scattering begins to dominate. Chemisorbed oxygen removes these surface defect centers.

The measured conductivities of ZnO samples after  $O_2$ exposure, i.e., at near stoichiometric Zn/0 ratios, were around  $10^{-2}$ - $10^{-3}$  ( $\Omega$  cm)<sup>-1</sup>, which is at the low end of the range of values reported for ZnO single crystals. This substantiates the statement that even carefully grown ZnO single crystals can contain substantial concentrations of bulk defects. As the  $S/V$  ratio increases, i.e., as the particle size becomes smaller, oxygen removal and adsorption is facilitated and the electrical properties can be changed significantly by heat treatment and subsequent oxygen adsorption. After evacuation at 673 K, the electron density of ZnO(I) increased 1000-fold from a value near  $2 \times 10^{-13} e^- / g$ , but it could be returned to its initial value by the irreversible adsorption of  $O_2$  at 300 K. CO adsorption had little effect on an evacuated surface, but CO adsorbed on an oxygen-precovered ZnO surface increased the electron number density significantly, thus indicating that the CO reacted with the chemisorbed oxygen and allowed electrons to be donated to the conduction band. In contrast,  $H_2$  adsorption had no effect on the electrical properties of the zinc oxide. The adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> lowered the electron density in both the high-temperature evacuated sample and the oxygenprecovered zinc oxide. This implies that some of the adsorption sites for  $CO_2$  are different from those for  $O_2$ . This study has demonstrated that microwave-Hall-effect and conductivity measurements can be used not only to characterize powders, but also to examine the influence of the surface on electrical properties.

# **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This research was partially supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF) under Contract No. CBT85- 14723, and by the Florida Power & Light Company. Funding for a NSF Equipment Grant (CBT-8505572) is also gratefully acknowledged.

- Author to whom correspondence should be sent.
- 'P. Amigues and S. J. Teichner, Discuss. Faraday Soc. 41, 362 (1966).
- $2R$ . Glemza and R. J. Kokes, J. Phys. Chem. 69, 3254 (1965).
- <sup>3</sup>R. Glemza and R. J. Kokes, J. Phys. Chem. 66, 566 (1962).
- <sup>4</sup>H. Chon and C. D. Prater, Discuss. Faraday Soc. 41, 380 (1966).
- 5H. Chon and J. Pajares, J.Catal. 14, 257 (1969).
- R. I. Holliday and M. Pitt, J. Catal. 17, 121 (1970).
- 7E. M. Trukhan, Prib. Tekh. Eksp. 4, 198 (1965) [Instrum. Exp. Tech. (USSR) 4, 947 (1965)].
- 8N. P. Ong, Ph.D. thesis, The University of California, Berkeley, 1976.
- <sup>9</sup>N. P. Ong, W. Bauhofer, and C. Wei, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 52, 1367 (1981).
- <sup>10</sup>D. D. Eley and R. Pethig, Discuss. Faraday Soc. 51, 164 (1971).
- $^{11}$ D. D. Eley and N. C. Lockhart, J. Phys. E 16, 47 (1983).
- <sup>12</sup>M. M. Sayed and C. R. Westgate, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 46, 1074 (1975).
- 13M. M. Sayed and C. R. Westgate, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 46, 1080 (1975).
- <sup>14</sup>B. K. Na, S. L. Kelly, M. A. Vannice, and A. B. Walters Meas. Sci. Technol. 2, 770 (1991).
- <sup>15</sup>B. K. Na, Ph.D. thesis, The Pennsylvania State Universit 1991.
- $^{16}$ B. K. Na, A. B. Walters, and M. A. Vanice (unpublished).
- $17$ T. Inoue, T. Iizuka, and K. Tanabe, Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 60, 2663 (1987).
- <sup>18</sup>A. Chiorino, G. Ghiotti, and F. Boccuzzi, Vacuum 41, 16 (1990).
- <sup>19</sup>V. M. Allen, W. E. Jones, and P. D. Pacey, Surf. Sci. 220, 193 (1989).
- <sup>20</sup>A. A. Chen, M. A. Vannice, and J. Phillips, J. Phys. Chem. 91, 6257 (1987).
- <sup>21</sup>R. G. Herman, K. Klier, G. W. Simmons, B. P. Finn, and J. B.Bulko, J.Catal. 56, 407 (1979).
- <sup>22</sup>M. Bowker, H. Houghton, K. C. Waugh, T. Giddings, and M. Green, J.Catal. 84, 252 (1983).
- <sup>23</sup>D. L. Roberts and G. L. Griffin, J. Catal. 110, 117 (1988).
- <sup>24</sup>L. Solymar and D. Walsh, Lectures on the Electrical Properties of Materials, 3rd ed. (Oxford University, New York, 1984).
- <sup>25</sup>H. Rupprecht, J. Phys. Chem. 6, 144 (1958).
- <sup>26</sup>W. Göpel and U. Lampe, Phys. Rev. B 22, 6447 (1980).
- <sup>27</sup>J. Lagowski, H. C. Gatos, R. Holmstrom, and C. L. Balestra, Surf. Sci. 76, L575 (1978).
- <sup>28</sup>A. R. Hutson, Phys. Rev. 108, 222 (1957).
- $29$ S. M. Sze, Physics of Semiconductor Devices (Wiley-Interscience, New York, 1969).
- <sup>30</sup>W. Hotan, W. Göpel, and R. Haul, Surf. Sci. 83, 162 (1979).
- $31$ U. Schwing and B. Hoffmann, in Grain Boundary Phenomena in Electronic Ceramics, edited by L. M. Levinson (American Ceramic Society, Columbus, OH, 1981), Vol. 1, p. 383.
- 32W. C. Richmond and M. A. Seitz, in Grain Boundary Phenomena in Electronic Ceramics (Ref. 31), p. 425.
- <sup>33</sup>R. R. Gay, M. H. Nodine, V. E. Henrich, H. J. Zeiger, and E. I. Solomon, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 102, 6752 (1980).
- ~4W. H. Cheng and H. H. Kung, Surf. Sci. 122, 21 (1982).
- M. R. McClellan, M. Trenary, N. D. Shinn, M. J. Sayers, K. L. D'Amico, E. I. Solomon, and F. R. McFeely, J. Chem. Phys. 74, 4726 (1981).
- 36T. I. Barry, F. S. Stone, Proc. R. Soc. London, Ser. A 255, 124 (1960).
- <sup>37</sup>A. Pöppel and G. Völkel, Phys. Status Solidi A 115, 247 (1989).
- 38J. O. Cope and I. D. Campbell, J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. I 69, <sup>1</sup> (1973).
- <sup>39</sup>V. Bolis, B. Fubini, E. Giamello, and A. Reller, J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. I 85, 855 (1989).
- 40M. Watanabe, Jpn. J. Appl. Phys. 19, 1853 (1980).
- <sup>41</sup>R. F. Pierret, Modular Series on Solid State Devices; Vol. 1, Semiconductor Fundamentals (Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, 1983).
- <sup>42</sup>K. I. Hagemark and L. C. Chacka, J. Solid State Chem. 15, 261 (1975).
- 43P. W. Li and K. I. Hagemark, J. Solid State Chem. 12, 371 (1975).
- 44J. D. Zook, Phys. Rev. 136, A869 (1964).
- 45C. Kittel, Introduction to Solid State Physics, 6th ed. (Wiley, New York, 1986).
- <sup>46</sup>K. C. Kao and W. Hwang, Electrical Transport in Solids (Pergamon, Oxford, 1981).
- $47K$ . W. Böer, Survey of Semiconductors Physics (Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, 1990).
- 48D. L. Rode, in Semiconductors and Semimetals: Vol. 10, Transport Phenomena, edited by R. K. Willardson and A. C. Beer (Academic, New York, 1975), p. 1.
- 49R. J. Kokes, J. Phys. Chem. 66, 99 (1962).
- <sup>5</sup> T. I. Barry and K. Klier, Discuss. Faraday Soc. 31,219 {1961).
- A. J. Tench and T. Lawson, Chem. Phys. Lett. 8, 177 (1971).
- 52J. H. Lunsford and J. P. Jayne, J. Chem. Phys. 44, 1487 (1966).
- 53R. D. Iyengar, V. V. Subba Rao, and A. C. Zettlemoyer, Surf. Sci. 13, 251 (1969).
- 54F. Boccuzzi, G. Ghiotti, and A. Chiorino, J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 2 79, 1779 (1983).
- 55J. H. C. van Hooff, J. Catal. 11, 277 (1968).
- s6F. S. Stone, in Chemistry of the Solid State, edited by W. E. Garner (Butterworths, London, 1955), p. 367.
- 578. N. Arghiropoulos and S. J. Teichner, J. Catal. 3, 477 (1964).



FIG. 2. Sample tube used for microwave-Hall-effect measurements. All dimensions are in inches unless otherwise noted.