



Defect driven enhanced ferromagnetism in Sb-modified SnO₂ nanoparticles

H. K. Mallick¹, Batakrushna Santara², M. P. K. Sahoo^{1,*}, and A. K. Pattanaik^{1,*}

¹Department of Physics, Veer SurandraSai University of Technology, Burla, Odisha, India

²Department of Physics, Siddheswar College, Amarda Road, Balasore, Odisha, India

Received: 2 July 2022

Accepted: 2 November 2022

Published online:
12 January 2023

© The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2023

ABSTRACT

This work reports the tailoring of optical and magnetic properties in Sb-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles (NPs), i.e., Sn_{1-x}Sb_xO₂ (x = 0.0, 0.03, 0.06, 0.09) synthesized by gel-combustion technique. The structural properties of these nanoparticles are investigated by the X-ray diffraction (XRD) technique. Detailed structural analysis shows the crystallization of all these NPs in tetragonal rutile structure, as observed in pristine SnO₂ without any trace of the secondary phase. Nevertheless, the incorporation of Sb dopant was found to increase the lattice constant systematically. Investigation of surface morphology by scanning electron microscopy and particle size by transmission electron microscopy also indicates a systematic increase in the grain size and particle size with Sb doping. Intriguingly, bandgap and room-temperature ferromagnetism (RTFM) are found to be sensitive to particle size and oxygen vacancies. UV-visible absorption, Fourier transform infrared, photoluminescence, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopic measurements are carried out to explore the underlying physical mechanisms. Besides, the increase in RTFM and decrease in the bandgap witnessed in Sb-doped SnO₂ NPs can be exploited for magneto-optic and spintronic devices.

1 Introduction

Nanostructured tin dioxide (SnO₂) has been considered one of the most vital multifunctional materials displaying a diverse range of applications including in photocatalysis [1–4], gas sensors [5–9], Li-ion batteries [10–14], solar cells [15–18], optoelectronic devices [19–25], photothermal theragnosis agents [26, 27], spintronic devices [28, 29], and so on. The

nanostructured SnO₂ exhibits unprecedented chemical, optical, electrical, superior magnetic properties, and excellent thermal stability, which are strongly influenced by shape and size effects, morphologies of the nanostructures, intrinsic defects, and dopants incorporation. Nonetheless, SnO₂ with intrinsic and extrinsic defects introduced through dopants is found to be crucial in enhancing the optical and magnetic properties as well as device performance.

Address correspondence to E-mail: mpksiit@gmail.com; akpattanaik_phy@vssut.ac.in

The prominent intrinsic defects in SnO₂ nanostructures are oxygen vacancies (OVs) which form donor states inside the SnO₂ band gap, influencing its electronic structure and enhancing conductivity [30, 31]. Furthermore, the inclusion of OVs not only increases the absorption sites for the purpose of oxidation of gases, but also facilitates the gas sensing activity [32]. Besides, the formation of these OVs generates in-gap defect states of SnO₂ thereby reducing the band gap and extending the absorption to visible light which has a strong impact on the visible light photocatalytic activity, as well [33, 34], the OVs defect induced ferromagnetic ordering at room temperature in undoped SnO₂ nanostructures [35–38]. Moreover, suitable cation doping and the generation of intrinsic defects due to doping plays a pivotal role in enhancing the optical, electrical, and magnetic properties of SnO₂.

In recent decades, SnO₂-based nanostructures doped with special atoms into the host SnO₂ have garnered much attention for displaying enhanced optical and electronic properties. Among various dopants, Sb-doped SnO₂ has garnered much attention for its applications in gas sensors [39–41], solar cells [42], transparent electrodes for optoelectronic devices [43], smart windows for building energy management systems and automobiles [44], photothermal theragnosis agents [46, 47], and so on. Doping tin dioxide with electronic donors such as Sb⁵⁺ yields a high conductivity without significant changes in its optical transmittance [45]. It has been demonstrated by Ponja et al. [45] that the doping of donors like Sb⁵⁺ into SnO₂ generates OVs and accumulates these defects at the grain boundary. Such accumulation reduces the grain boundary barrier and improves electrical conductivity. So, as far as the band gap in Sb-modified SnO₂ is concerned, contradictory reports are found on the nature of the change in the band gap with doping of Sb. Some authors have reported an increase in band gap both experimentally [46–48], whereas some other experimental reports reveal a reduction in the band gap with Sb doping [49, 50]. Zhou et al. [51] demonstrate that strain induced decreased band gap in Sb-doped SnO₂ thin films. These reports suggest that dopant, particle size, and OVs played important role in tuning the band gap of Sb-doped SnO₂ nanostructures. More recently, Lv et al. [26] have reported a photothermal effect in Sb-doped SnO₂ with a conversion efficiency of 73.6%. It was demonstrated by these authors that

the Sb-modified SnO₂ is beneficial in killing cancer cells and computed tomography (CT) imaging.

Various research groups [35, 52–59] reported the enhancement in ferromagnetic ordering in Ni, Co, Fe, Zn, Mn, Al-doped SnO₂ nanostructures due to an increase in OVs concentrations. However, excess doping leads to a reduction of magnetization in doped SnO₂ nanostructures [35, 60]. Some reports [60, 61] suggested structure-dependent magnetic relationship in which lattice contraction favors the ferromagnetic ordering, while lattice expansion decreases the ferromagnetism in SnO₂ nanostructures doped with Co and Fe. Using DFT calculations, Villamagua et al. [62] observed no magnetic moment in Zn-doped SnO₂ structure. Recently, Paraguay-Delgado et al. [57] demonstrated the Zn_{Sn} defects-induced ferromagnetism in Zn-doped SnO₂, where the magnetic moment is localized at the surrounding oxygen atom instead of OVs. SaravanaKumar et al. [58] suggested that OVs alone cannot contribute to FM in Mn-doped SnO₂. Instead, exchange interaction between Mn and OVs enables such FM. On the other hand, Agrahari et al. [53] reported FM in undoped SnO₂ NPs, whereas Mn doping in it degrades the FM. The DFT calculation of Villamagua et al. [62] revealed that Sb-doped SnO₂ crystals cannot acquire magnetic moment, though the band gap width is decreased due to dopant incorporation. While Sb and Zn codoped SnO₂ crystal exhibit local magnetic moment, the Sb impurity contributes to the magnetic moment in the presence Zn impurity as Sb alone cannot induce any magnetic moment in the Sb-doped SnO₂ crystal [62]. These discussions indicate the inconsistency in the reports regarding the origin of ferromagnetism in doped SnO₂. Moreover, doping of Sb in SnO₂ results in a transparent conductive oxide (TCO) which exhibits high visible transmission. In addition, the nanoparticle of Sb-doped SnO₂ is suitable for Li-ion batteries, gas sensors, transparent electrodes, and electrochromic windows [20–24]. Though some studies report the optical and magnetic properties in Sb-doped SnO₂, however, these reports are highly inconsistent and contradictory. For instance, some authors have reported an increase in the band gap, whereas some other reports reveal a reduction in the band gap with Sb doping. Also, the reports on the origin of FM in Sb-doped SnO₂ are inconsistent. To the best of our knowledge, there are no experimental studies on the magnetic behavior of Sb-doped SnO₂ nanostructures so far.

This work reports the synthesis of Sb-doped SnO₂ Nanoparticles and studies the structural, morphological, optical, and magnetic properties of these samples. Since the defect plays a pivotal role in determining physical properties such as UV-Vis, PL, and magnetic properties, therefore, major emphasis has been given to understanding the influence of these defects in determining these outlined properties. Moreover, this work provides a design strategy to manipulate bandgap and improve optical and magnetic properties in SnO₂-based systems.

1.1 Experimental

Nanoparticles of Sb-modified SnO₂ with general formulae Sn_{1-x}Sb_xO₂ are prepared by the gel-combustion method. Here, the values of *x* are taken to be 0.0, 0.03, 0.06, and 0.09. High purity precursors of Sn-metal granules, SbCl₃, HNO₃, C₆H₈O₇, and NH₄OH are taken for the synthesis of Sn_{1-x}Sb_xO₂ nanoparticles. At first, stoichiometric amounts of Sn-granules are dissolved in concentrated HNO₃ in a pyrex beaker by constant stirring. For Sb doping, SbCl₃ of the desired amount was added to the prepared solution during constant stirring. Further, citric acid is mixed with the above solution to further activate the reaction process. To maintain the pH value of the solution ~ 7, NH₄OH was added dropwise. This process yields a transparent solution of a complex containing Sn-Sb-O-citric acid. It is to be noted that the pH adjustment in solution takes a vital role in the formation of the Sn-O/Sn-Sb-O and Citric acid complex. Moreover, in this step, the pH value of the solution was maintained to greater than 6.4. The prepared complex solution was slowly heated by maintaining a temperature of ~ 80 °C. The solution thus obtained was slowly condensed at 80–90 °C to transform the solution into a gel by eliminating leftover water. The obtained gel was further heated, auto-combustion started inside the gel, and gave desired powder. Finally, the obtained powder was ground and calcined at 750 °C to get the desired Sb-modified SnO₂ nanoparticles.

For the confirmation of room-temperature phase structure, XRD patterns were recorded by using Bruker Axs D8 diffractometer with Co K α radiation and 2 θ ranging from 20 to 80° with a step size of 0.02031°. The surface morphology of Sb-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles is recorded by using Sigma, Zeiss made scanning electron microscope (SEM) by depositing

Au coating at the sample surface. The EDS spectra of the synthesized nanoparticles were done by using Oxford Instruments (UK) X-ray detector attached to SEM. The particle size of the Sb-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles was studied by using a Phillips Tecnai-12 transmission electron microscope (TEM). The Carry 5000 (Agilent Technology, USA) UV-VIS spectrometer was used to record the absorption spectra of the samples. For the study of PL (photoluminescence) properties, Horiba scientific fluoromax-4 was used. For the identification of chemical states and possible composition, XPS (X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy) spectra are recorded at room temperature using PHI 5000 Versa Prob II. FTIR spectra are recorded in a range of 500–4000 cm⁻¹ using Perkin Elmer, Spectrum BX. Magnetic hysteresis loops are recorded by using PPMS-VSM (Quantum Design, USA) with maximum applied magnetic field of ~ 10 kOe.

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Structural characterization

Figure 1a elucidates the room-temperature XRD patterns (open circles) of Sb-doped SnO₂ samples. The peaks and the intensity distribution of peaks resemble that of SnO₂ (JCPDS#41-1445). Secondary or impurity peaks are not observed from the XRD patterns indicating the formation of an Sb-doped sample in the desired phase. A systematic shifting of the peaks toward the lower Bragg angle is witnessed with Sb doping in pristine SnO₂, as shown in Fig. 1b. The general shifting of the XRD peaks toward the lower 2 θ value is indicative of the expansion of the unit cell which can be explained as follows. The Sn⁴⁺ ion in its 6-coordinated octahedral site has an ionic radius of 0.69 Å. Upon substitution of Sb ions at the Sn⁴⁺ site will generate two possibilities owing to the multivalent states of Sb ions, i.e., Sb³⁺ and Sb⁵⁺. If Sb³⁺ ions with ionic radii of 0.76 Å occupy the 6-coordinates Sn⁴⁺ sites, then it will tend to expand the unit cell. However, if Sb⁵⁺ ions with ionic radii of 0.6 Å occupy the 6-coordinates Sn⁴⁺ sites, then this will lead to the contraction of the unit cell. Our XPS measurements (discussed later) confirm the presence of both these Sb³⁺ and Sb⁵⁺ ions in the doped sample. Thus, it can be presumed that though both the Sb³⁺ and Sb⁵⁺ ions are simultaneously present in the

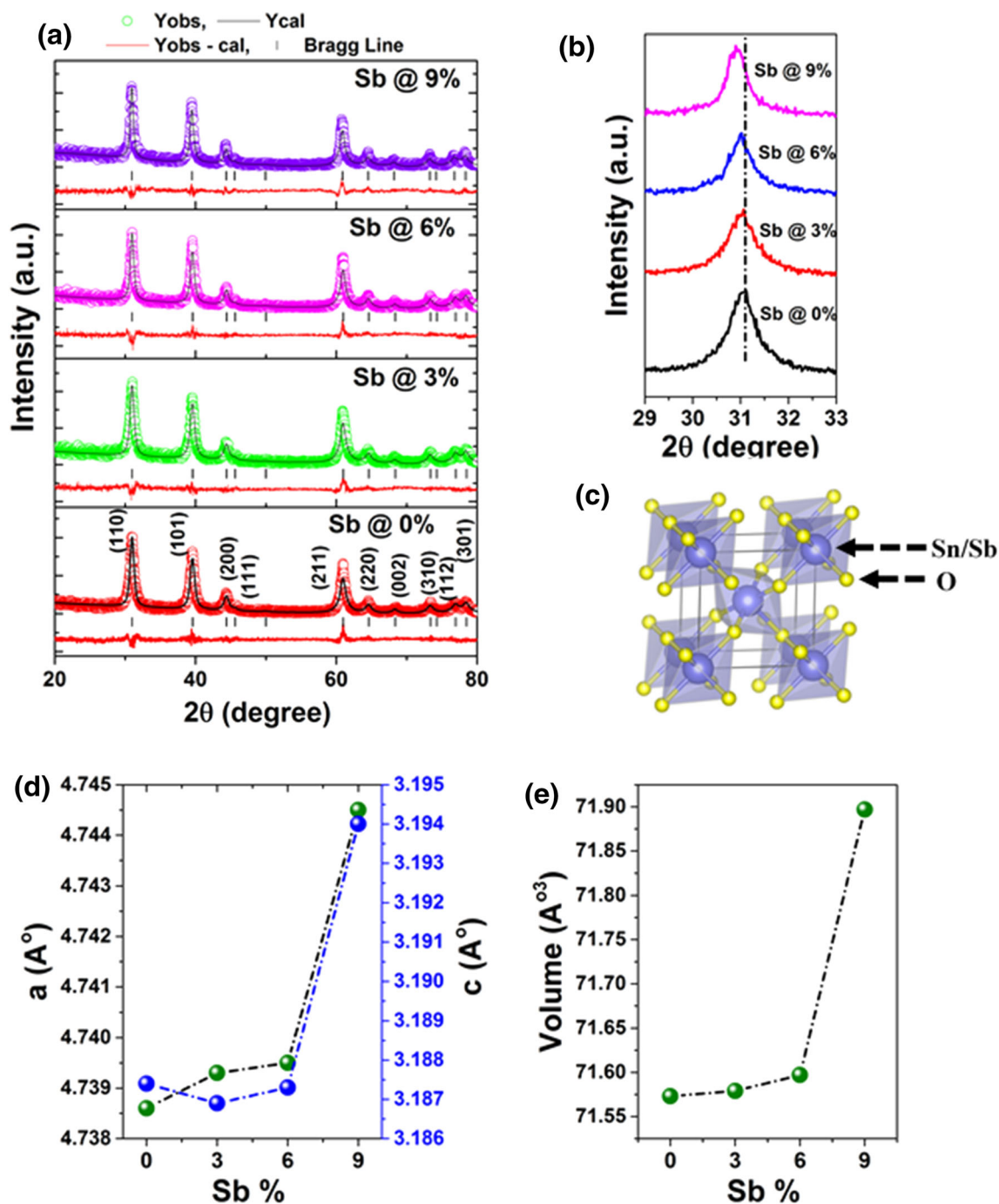


Fig. 1 (a) Rietveld refined room-temperature XRD patterns of Sb-doped SnO₂ samples. (b) The magnified view of (1 1 0) Bragg peak. (c) Unit cell of SnO₂ obtained through Rietveld refinement.

doped samples, quantitatively the Sb⁵⁺ ions are outnumbered by Sb³⁺ ions. Therefore, the effect of Sb³⁺ ions dominates and thereby leading to a net expansion of the unit cell.

For the precise estimation of lattice parameters, and crystallite size, Rietveld refinement of room-

(d) Variation of lattice parameters *a* and *c* with Sb doping concentration. (e) The change in lattice volume

temperature XRD patterns was carried out using Fullprof software. The parameters such as atomic position, site occupancy factor, and lattice parameters are taken into consideration. The background function is defined by 12 coefficient Fourier cosine series, and pseudo-Voigt function is used to acquire peak

broadening parameters U , V , and W . Nevertheless, the instrumental contribution to the pattern has been corrected by using an instrumental resolution file. For pristine and Sb-doped samples, the Rietveld refinement was carried out in the rutile phase with space group P42/mnm. The refined lattice parameters and crystallite size are presented in Table 1. Figure 1c shows polyhedra of SnO₂ generated from the Rietveld refinement. Figure 1d, e illustrates the variation of lattice parameters and volume as a function of Sb concentration. It is observed that the lattice parameters and volume increase with an increase in the Sb content. Also, from Table 1, a systematic increase in crystallite size is observed with an increase in Sb content. A systematic increase in the crystallite size infers a direct dependency on the dopant concentration. Similar dopant concentration-dependent crystallite size variation has been observed for Sb-doped SnO₂ thin film [63].

2.2 Morphological studies

2.2.1 SEM imaging

Figure 2 illustrates the room-temperature SEM micrographs of Sb-doped SnO₂ NPs. All the samples exhibit a dense packing with roughly spherical shaped grains and without any pores. It is further observed that the grain size increases with an increase in the doping concentration. The average grain size obtained is 45 nm, 58 nm, 69 nm, and 85 nm for undoped, 3%, 6%, and 9% Sb-doped samples, respectively. Grain size may consist of more number of nanoparticles/crystallites. The adopted

methodology of sample preparation for SEM imaging is that the samples are coated with gold prior to the observation of images to avoid the charging effect. Thus, there is the possibility of agglomeration of nanoparticles, and the average grain sizes observed in SEM are larger than the average crystallite sizes observed in XRD (listed in Table 1) in our samples as are mostly expected. The EDX spectrum (not shown) of undoped NPs reveals Sn and O elements, and doped samples show Sn, O, and Sb elements, indicating that no other contamination element was introduced during the sample preparation.

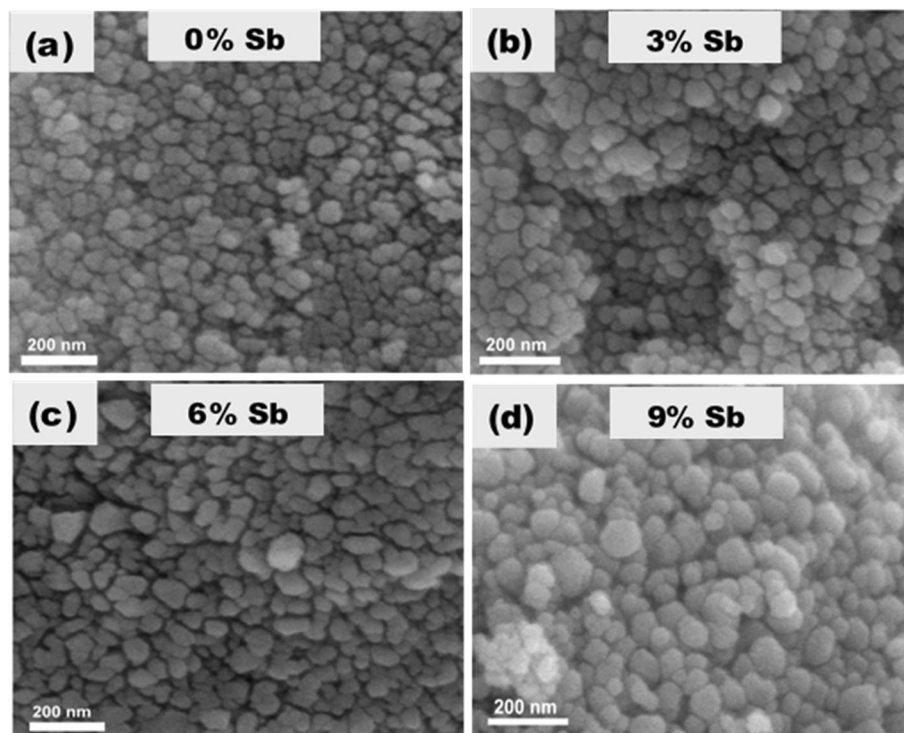
2.2.2 TEM imaging

The coating is avoided for TEM sample preparations, and the sample is well dispersed in DI water by ultrasonication and then drop casting on TEM grid, thus the agglomeration issue can be eliminated. Furthermore, TEM is preferred to analyze the size of nanoparticles of our samples owing to its higher resolution and to obtain microstructural information such as d-spacing and crystallinity. Figure 3 elucidates TEM micrographs of pristine and Sb-modified SnO₂ samples. From the micrographs, it is evident that both pristine SnO₂ and doped NPs are found to exhibit almost round-shaped morphologies. The average particle sizes, as presented in Table 1, systematically increase for doped samples which are consistent with the XRD and SEM results. Figure 3b–d shows the TEM images of 3%, 6%, and 9% Sb-doped NPs. It is important to note that the nanoparticle morphology is not affected by the Sb doping only except for a change in increase in the

Table 1 Details of lattice parameters (a , c), particle sizes and band gaps (calculated from absorption spectra) of undoped and Sb-doped SnO₂ NPs

Sb content in Sb:SnO ₂	Lattice parameters (Å)		Unit cell volume (Å ³) $a \times a \times c$	Crystallite size (nm)	Particle size (nm) from TEM	Bandgap (eV)
	a	c				
0%	4.7386 (2)	3.1874 (1)	71.573	9.7	9.88 ± 0.05	3.41
3%	4.7393 (3)	3.1869 (1)	71.579	11.2	12.63 ± 0.03	3.38
6%	4.7395 (4)	3.1873 (2)	71.597	13.5	14.75 ± 0.06	3.33
9%	4.7445 (2)	3.1940 (3)	71.897	15.1	17.72 ± 0.02	3.25

Fig. 2 SEM images of the morphology of SnO₂ samples: (a) undoped, (b) 3% Sb, (c) 6% Sb and (d) 9% Sb



particle size. This suggests the successful incorporation of Sb into SnO₂ matrix and thus nullifies the possibility of any secondary or impurity phase. Figure 3 inset shows the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern of corresponding undoped NPs indicating the polycrystalline nature of pristine and Sb-doped SnO₂ samples. Further, for reference, the diffraction rings are indexed as per the tetragonal rutile phase of SnO₂ (110), (101), (200), (211), and (301), as shown in Fig. 3b (inset). These SAED patterns also dictate that Sb is well incorporated into the SnO₂ crystal lattice. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) of the undoped sample is shown in Fig. 3b. The d-spacing of 0.332 nm corresponds to the (110) crystal plane of SnO₂, and the clear lattice fringe dictates that the as-grown NPs are highly crystalline. Figure 3e shows the lattice fringe of 6% doped NPs with d-spacing 0.334 nm corresponding to the (110) plane. The increase in d-spacing for the doped sample may be attributed to the incorporation of Sb atoms (larger ionic radii Sb³⁺ ions) into the SnO₂ crystal lattice.

2.3 XPS studies

To explore the possible involvement of surface defects and understand the chemical environment in

Sb-doped SnO₂ NPs, XPS has been used. The initial wide range XPS survey spectra (not shown) revealed no contamination and impurities other than dopant Sb in the as-grown undoped and Sb-doped SnO₂ NPs, respectively. Figure 4a–d illustrates the O 1s spectra of the pristine-doped SnO₂ samples. The broadened O 1s spectra at the higher binding energy side indicate the possible involvement of different oxygen species. To further shed light on the chemical states of oxygen in Sb-modified SnO₂, the asymmetric O 1s peaks are deconvoluted. The deconvolution indicates the involvement of three peaks around 530.5, 531.5, and 532.3 eV. These peaks are due to the presence of lattice oxygen, Oxygen vacancies, and chemisorbed oxygen [56]. The asymmetric nature relatively increases with increasing dopants concentration. It can be noticed that the peak area of OVs significantly increases with increasing Sb doping, suggesting the systematic increase of OVs concentrations in SnO₂ with Sb doping concentrations. From enclosed the peaks, the concentration of oxygen vacancies is calculated to be 6.04%, 11.2%, 16.23%, and 22.8%, respectively. Figure 4e illustrates the Sn 3d spectra of pristine and Sb-doped SnO₂ samples. From these spectra, the presence of peaks at 486.6 and 495.05 eV confirms the Sn with 3d_{5/2} and 3d_{3/2} states indicating the 4+ oxidation state of Sn in the

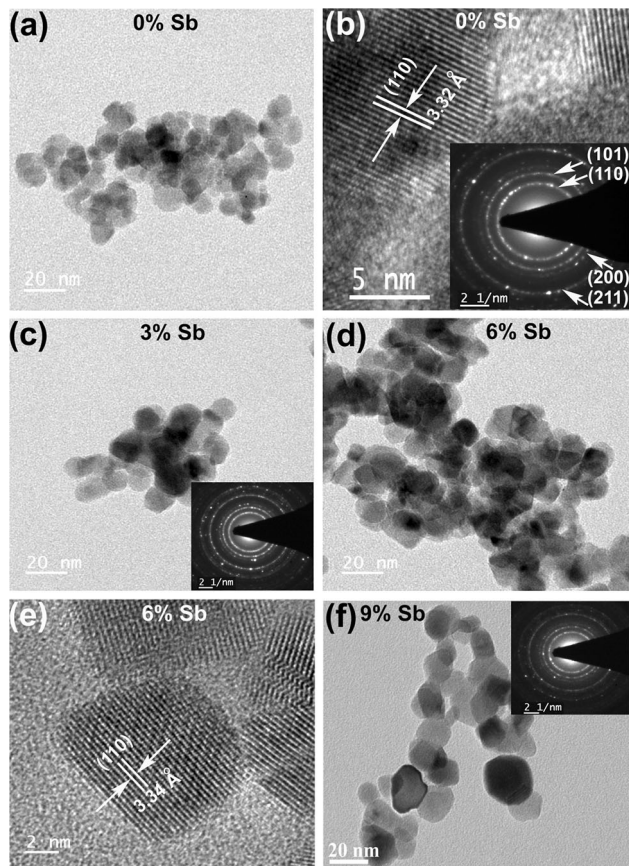


Fig. 3 TEM image of SnO₂ samples doped with (a) 0%, (c) 3% Sb, (d) 6% Sb and (f) 9% Sb. The inset in each case shows the corresponding SAED pattern

synthesized samples. Upon increase in Sb doping concentration, a systematic shift of these peaks toward the lower binding energy side supports the successful incorporation of Sb into SnO₂ lattice and formation of OV_s around Sn. Guan et al. [31] reported a similar low binding energy shift for N-doped SnO₂ NPs and suggested that the shift is due to the formation of OV_s. Figure 4f shows the Sb 3d core level spectra of the doped samples. The Sb 3d spectrum consists of two characteristic peaks for 3d_{5/2} and 3d_{3/2}, located at 530.5 and 539.90 eV, respectively, because of spin–orbit interactions [69]. The asymmetric nature of Sb 3d peaks suggests the presence of more than one oxidation state of Sb in the samples. Because of the overlapping of O 1s and Sb 3d_{5/2} peaks, it is tough to analyze the accurate chemical state of antimony by fitting the Sb 3d_{5/2} peak. Thus, in order to investigate the oxidation state of Sb in the samples, the Sb 3d_{3/2} peaks of 6% and 9% doped samples were fitted into the two peaks (shown in

Fig. 5a, b) centered at 539.89 and 541.21 eV corresponding to chemical states of Sb³⁺ and Sb⁵⁺, respectively [70]. From Fig. 5, it is noticed that almost all the Sb ions (about 92% in 6% Sb and 87% in 9% Sb-doped samples) are in the oxidation state + 3, which leads to a lattice expansion due to its much larger size compared with Sn⁴⁺ of the host lattice.

2.4 Optical absorption and PL studies

The particle sizes, OV_s, and dopant may play important role in the optical properties of the synthesized pristine and doped SnO₂ NPs. Figure 6a shows the optical absorption spectra of Sb-modified SnO₂ NPs. A slight red-shift in the absorption edge has been noticed with Sb doping. This red-shift can be attributed to the OV_s and/or size effect due to the incorporation of Sb dopant. For the estimation of the band gap, $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ is plotted against $h\nu$. This plot is known as Tauc plot and is shown in Fig. 6b. The band gap is calculated from the linear fits to the linear portion of the Tauc plot. The extrapolated lines fitted to the respective linear portions are shown in Fig. 6b. A systematic reduction in the band gap is noticed an increase in the Sb doping. The calculated band gaps are 3.41, 3.38, 3.33, and 3.25 eV for the pristine, 3%, 6%, and 9% doped samples, respectively. The decrease in the band gap can be correlated to the increase in crystallite size/grain size/ particle size with Sb doping, as is evident from XRD/SEM/TEM studies [64]. Besides, the OV_s can also contribute to the band gap. In fact, the increase in oxygen vacancy may lead to decrease in the band gap [34]. Thus, the net reduction in band gap in Sb-doped SnO₂ can be ascribed to both the increase in NP sizes and OV_s. Nevertheless, both XPS and PL (discussed later) studies confirm the presence of OV_s in the pristine and doped samples. A similar reduction in the band gap has also been demonstrated by Yang et al. [34]. Note that the OV_s concentrations increase (confirmed by XPS and PL studies) and the band gaps of doped samples decrease systematically with the increase in doping concentration. Generally, when a metal oxide is doped with impurities, its band gap reduces due to the introduction of either donor or acceptor levels into the original band gap [65]. Accordingly, the observed narrowing of the band gap in the doped samples may also be assigned to the doping of Sb within the SnO₂ host.

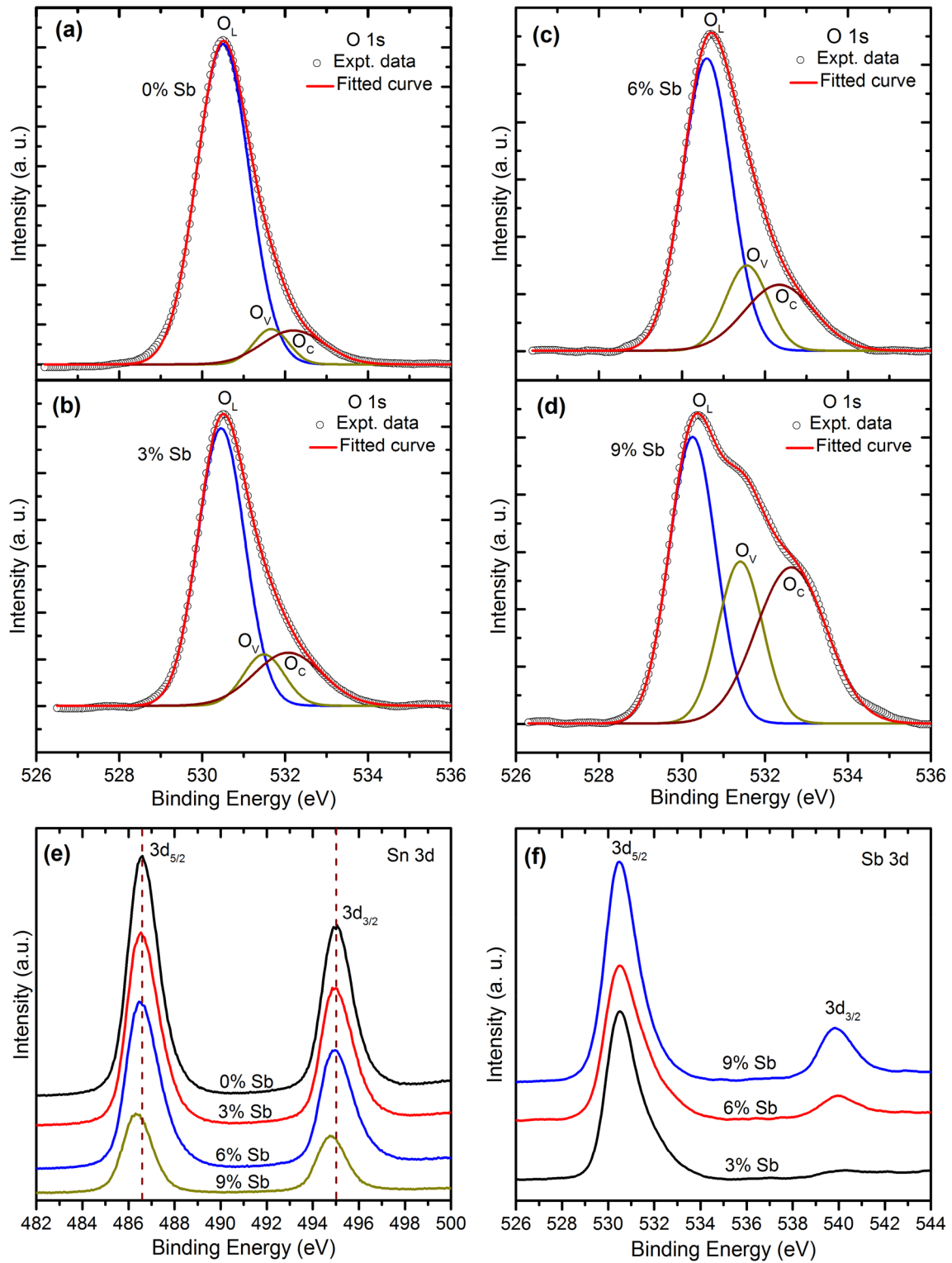


Fig. 4 XPS spectra: O 1s core level spectra of (a) undoped, (b) 3%Sb, (c) 6%Sb, and (d) 9%Sb-doped samples. The peaks are deconvoluted into three peaks showing the presence of three

components; (e) Sn 3d core level spectra of undoped and Sb-doped SnO_2 NPs and (f) Sb3d spectra of doped samples

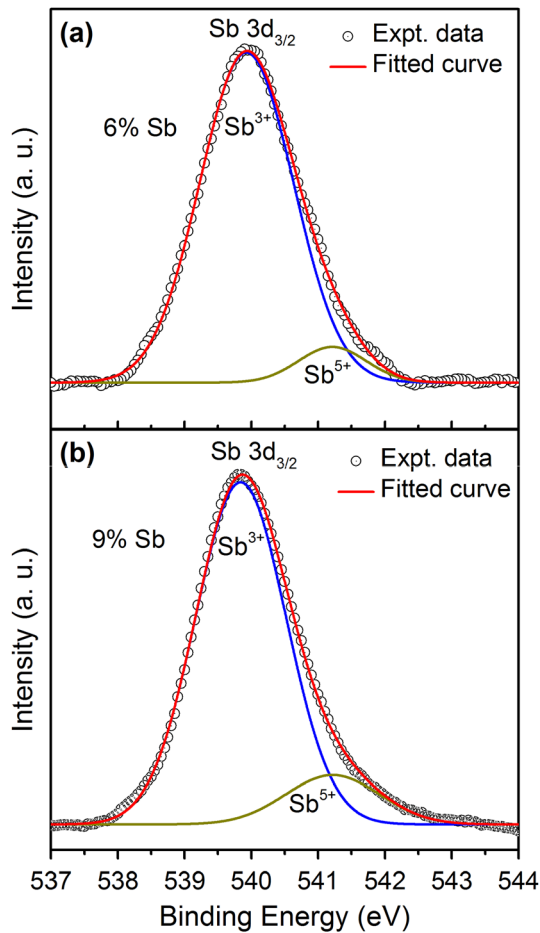


Fig. 5 Deconvolution of Sb 3d_{3/2} peak of XPS spectra of (a) 6% and (b) 9%Sb-doped samples, showing the presence of both Sb³⁺ and Sb⁵⁺ oxidation states in Sb-doped SnO₂ NPs

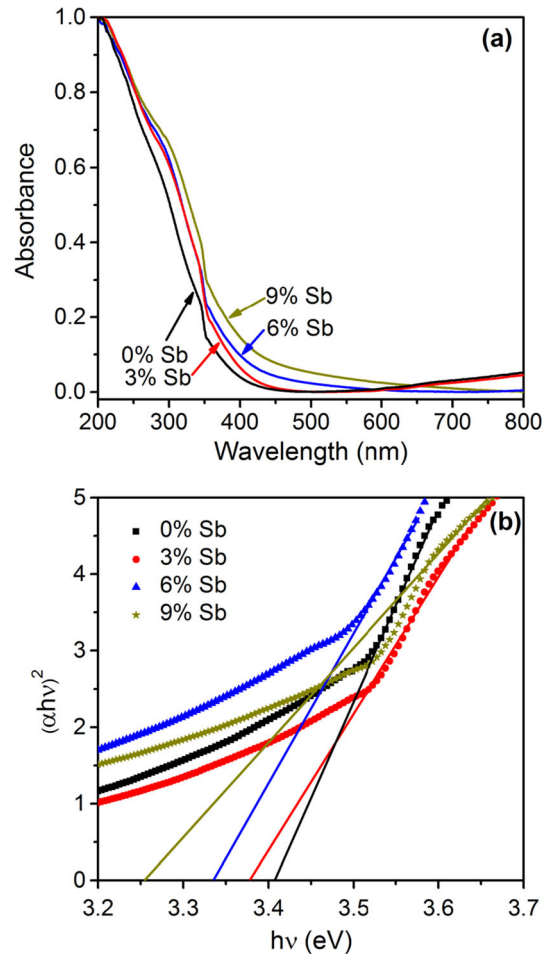


Fig. 6 UV–Vis absorption spectra: (a) undoped, 3%Sb, 6%Sb and 9%Sb-doped SnO₂ NPs; (b) $(\alpha hv)^2$ vs $h\nu$ plot

Photoluminescence is an essential tool to explore defects and trap states associated with NP systems. Figure 7a elucidates the PL spectra of Sb-modified SnO₂ NPs, recorded at room temperature. The inset in Fig. 8a shows the PL spectrum of undoped SnO₂ NPs. Preliminary inspection of the PL spectra reveals an evolution of emission peaks with Sb doping, and all the doped samples are found to be significantly different from that of the undoped sample. However, all the spectra are found to be broadened indicating the possibility of more than one emission peaks. To explore the contributing emission peaks, the PL spectra are deconvoluted using Gaussian peaks, as shown in Fig. 7b, c. Pristine SnO₂ involves three emission peaks centered on 367 nm, 436 nm, and 467 nm. Since the effective band gap of SnO₂ is 3.41 eV, therefore the first emission peak, i.e., 367 nm

(3.38 eV) can be attributed to the NBE (near band edge emission) [66]. Peaks 436 nm (2.84 eV) and 467 nm (2.65 eV) can be correlated to the blue emission and transition between defect states oxygen vacancy (V_o) and singly ionized oxygen vacancy (V_o⁺) [67]. In contrast to the pristine SnO₂, the Sb-doped SnO₂ involves five emission peaks. The additional two peaks at 398 (3.12 eV) nm and 485 (2.56 eV) nm may be ascribed to the electron transition associated with the defect levels formed due to doping of Sb⁵⁺ (donor state) and Sb³⁺ (acceptor state), respectively [68]. It is worthwhile to note that Sb can have the ability to generate shallow donor or shallow acceptor states or both depending on its oxidation states. The Sb⁵⁺ is considered a shallow donor when it replaces Sn⁴⁺, whereas Sb³⁺ considered as shallow acceptor when it replaces Sn⁴⁺. Interestingly, XPS studies confirm the

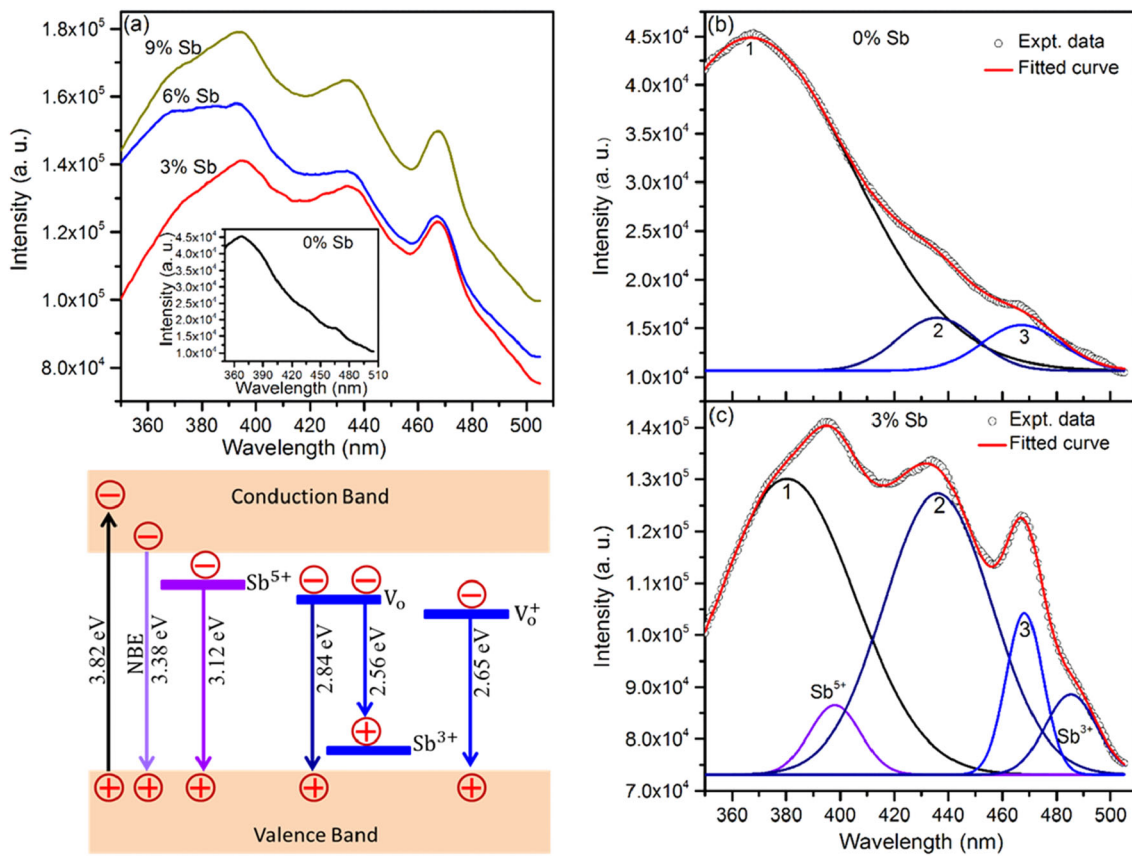


Fig. 7 Room-temperature PL spectra for (a) Sb-doped SnO₂ samples; inset is the undoped SnO₂ sample. Gaussian peak fitting of PL emission of (b) undoped and (c) 3%Sb-doped SnO₂

NPs; (d) Schematic diagram illustrating the physical origin of UV and visible PL emissions

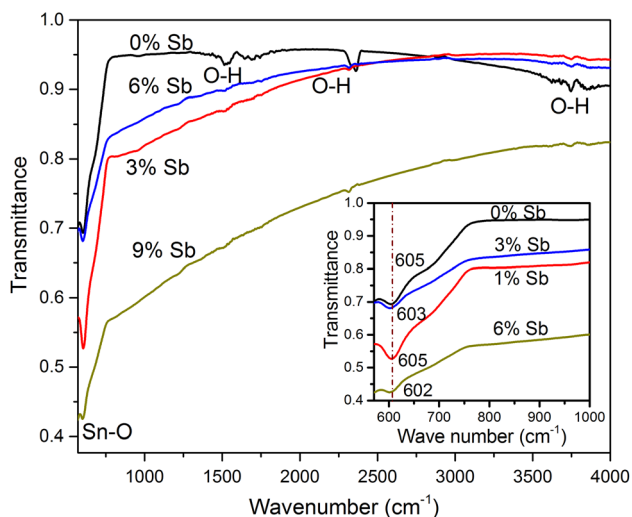


Fig. 8 FTIR transmittance spectra of undoped and Sb-doped SnO₂ samples. The inset is the magnified view of Sn–O stretching mode

presence of both Sb⁵⁺ and Sb³⁺ states. Besides an unprecedented increase in PL intensities of 436 nm and 467 nm peak suggests a drastic increase in OVs concentration. Furthermore, a schematic band diagram is shown in Fig. 7 to explain the contributions of trap states to the PL spectrum. In general, the loss of O-atom from SnO₂ lattice generates V₀ along with an electron pair. The trapping of the electron at the V₀ can produce V₀⁺. Moreover, these V₀ and V₀⁺ form shallow and deep trap donor levels, respectively, within the band gap of SnO₂ and are associated with PL emission processes. The visible (blue) PL emission at 436 nm (2.84 eV) and 467 nm (2.65 eV) can be attributed to electron transition from V₀ and V₀⁺ defect states to valence band, respectively. Emission peaks 398 (3.12 eV) and 485 (2.56 eV) reflect electron transition from the donor level formed by Sb⁵⁺ to the valence band and donor level formed by V₀ to the acceptor level formed by Sb³⁺.

2.5 FTIR studies

Figure 8 elucidates the FTIR spectra of pristine and Sb-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles. In general, the vibrational spectroscopic technique such as FTIR is employed to explore the impact of defects such as OV's/dopants on the vibrational modes in nanoparticles. The vibration mode at 605 cm⁻¹ is assigned to Sn–O stretching vibration of SnO₂ [71]. This peak position is slightly shifted to lower wave number with the increase in Sb doping. This type of shifting is attributed to the change in the bond length due to the replacement of heavier atoms such as Sb at relatively less heavy Sn atom site. This further confirms the successful substitution of Sn by Sb atoms in SnO₂ crystal lattice. The peaks appeared at 1521 cm⁻¹ and 2332 cm⁻¹ are related to the O–H bending and stretching vibrations due to the absorbed water on the surface when exposed to atmosphere [72]. The peak at 3745 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the stretching vibrations of O–H [72]. An additional peak observed at 2361 cm⁻¹ in undoped sample may be assigned to atmospheric CO₂ molecules [72]. No other vibration except the characteristic modes of Sn–O proving the samples are free from impurities.

2.6 Magnetic studies and origin of ferromagnetism

Figure 9a illustrates the ferromagnetic hysteresis behavior of Sb-modified SnO₂ samples, recorded at room temperature. All samples exhibit non-saturating hysteresis loops. For pristine SnO₂, the maximum magnetization observed is 0.18 memu/g. Interestingly, with the increase in Sb doping, the maximum value of magnetization systematically increases. For 3%, 6%, and 9% Sb-doped SnO₂ samples, the maximum values of the magnetization observed are 0.19, 0.26, and 0.33 memu/g, respectively. A magnified view close to the origin is presented in the inset of Fig. 9a which shows the non-zero coercivity in all the samples.

Though many authors have reported the existence of ferromagnetic like behavior in SnO₂, however, the physical origin of this behavior is still unclear. Some authors have suggested that the non-saturating magnetization in SnO₂ is due to the paramagnetic contribution of conduction electrons [73, 74]. Some authors suggested the contributions of oxygen and/or tin vacancies toward the observed magnetic moment [35–38, 52, 53]. Rahman et al. [52] suggested

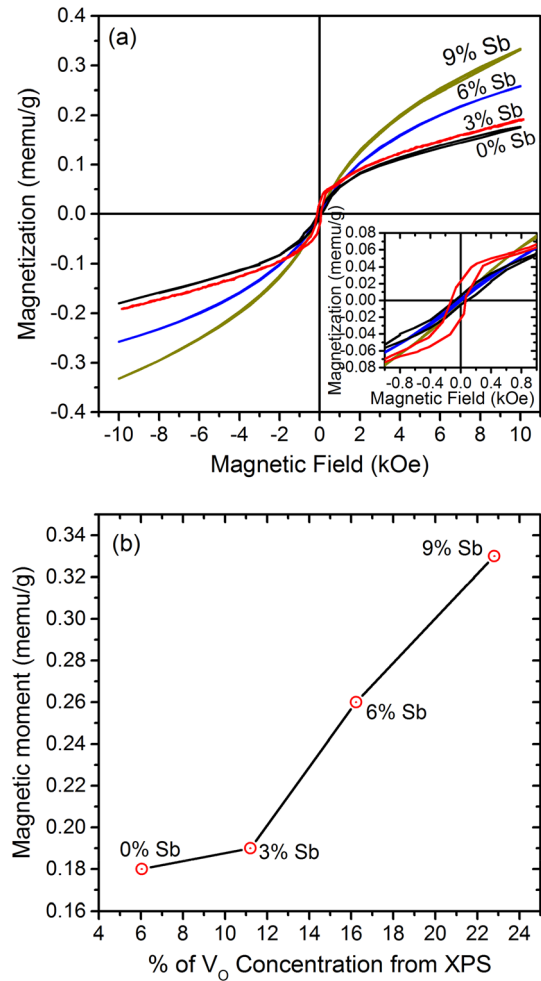


Fig. 9 Room-temperature $M-H$ loops Sb-doped samples, the inset shows a magnified view of $M-H$ loops close to origin; (b) Plot of magnetic moment versus calculated oxygen vacancy concentrations from XPS analysis for undoped and doped samples

that Sn vacancy favors ferromagnetic ordering in undoped SnO₂, while several other reports [35–38, 53] strongly supported the V_O-induced FM in SnO₂ nanostructures. The first-principles calculations of Kılıç and Zunger [54] suggest that Sn vacancies have high formation energy and hence they are unlikely to be formed in SnO₂. Several OV's-related features such as narrowing of the optical band gap, visible PL emissions, and asymmetry of O 1S XPS in undoped and Sb-doped samples provide strong evidence that the observed FM in our undoped and doped SnO₂ NPs is induced by OV's defects. We observed strong visible PL intensities in doped samples compared to undoped sample which reveals the presence of more concentration of OV's in doped samples. From our

XPS results, it is observed that more concentration of surface OVs is associated with the doped samples. In this study, a coherence between increase in OVs concentration and magnetization is observed with Sb doping is witnessed. The one-to-one correlation between concentration of OVs and magnetic moment suggest that surface OVs are mainly responsible for the ferromagnetic ordering in our samples. The exact linear relationship between surface OVs and magnetic moments is not observed in our samples (Fig. 9b). However, the relationship between surface OVs and magnetic moments for doped samples is almost linear. Besides, the V_o related defect environment with their proper distribution, the charge redistribution among the vacancies and/or dopants, and orbital overlapping/exchange interaction also play decisive role in bringing out magnetic behavior.

3 Summary

In summary, nanoparticles of Sb-modified SnO_2 are synthesized by a gel-combustion technique. Structural investigations reveal the crystallization of all the samples in tetragonal rutile phase. The SEM and TEM investigations explore an increase in grain size and particle size with the incorporation of Sb into SnO_2 host matrix. The investigation of band gap properties by UV-Vis spectroscopy suggests a decrease in the band gap. XPS investigations reveal the formation of doped Sb in both 5+ and 3+ oxidation states and an increase in the oxygen vacancy concentration with increase in Sb doping. The studies of magnetic hysteresis loop unfold a coherent increase in the maximum magnetization with Sb doping. The reduction in band gap and increase in the magnetic moment witnessed in the present work are attributed to the increase in particle size and oxygen vacancy concentration. The Sb modified with superior physical properties than its pristine counterpart can be exploited for spintronic applications and can stimulate the research community to explore new SnO_2 -based nanoparticles with elemental doping.

Author contributions

All authors contributed to the study's conception and design. Material preparation, data collection, and

analysis were performed by HKM, BS, MPKS, and AKP. The first draft of the manuscript was written by HKM and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

The authors declare that no funds, grants, or other support were received during the preparation of this manuscript.

Data availability

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

Ethical approval There are no conflicts of interest. There is no involvement of Animals in current research work.

References

1. M.A.H. Abdullah, S. Mika, B. Tanujjal, D. Joydeep, *Appl. Surf. Sci.* **370**, 229–236 (2016)
2. Morvarid Najjar, Hasan Ali Hosseini, Abdolhossen Masoudi, Zahra Sabouri, Asma Mostafapour, Mehrdad Khatami, Majid Darroudi, *Optik Int. J. Light. Electron. Optics* **242**, 167152 (2021)
3. S. Suthakaran, S. Dhanapandian, N. Krishnakumar, N. Ponpandian, *J. Phys. Chem. Solids* **141**, 109407 (2020)
4. A. Mamakhel, M. Søndergaard, K. Borup, Bo Brummerstedt Iversen. *J. Supercrit Fluids.* **166**, 105029 (2020)
5. P.G. Harrison, M.J. Willett, *Nature* **332**, 337–339 (1988)
6. S. Das, K.G. Girija, A.K. Debnath, R.K. Vatsa, *J. Alloys Compd.* **854**, 157276 (2021)
7. Myung Sik Choi, Jihye Ahn, Min Young Kim, Ali Mirzaei, Soon-Mok. Choi, Dong Won Chun, Changhyun Jin, Kyu Hyoung Lee, *Appl. Surf. Sci.* **565**, 150493 (2021)
8. N.M. Shaalan, T. Yamazaki, T. Kikuta, *Sens. Actuators B Chem.* **166**, 671–677 (2012)

9. Mc.C. Rameech, S. Nozomi, S. Umesh, D. Soumen, K. Amit, J.C. Hyoung, K. Ramki, S. Sudipta, *Nanoscale* **4**, 7256–7265 (2012)
10. S. Wang, J. Liu, X. Yu, Y. Zhang, J. Liu, Z. Zhong, Z. Zhan, M. Zhang, X. Yang, P. Dong, Y. Zhang, *Int. J. Electrochem. Sci.* **14**, 9112–9121 (2019)
11. L. Na, S. Huawei, C. Hao, C.I. Wang, *ElectrochimicaActa* **130**, 670–678 (2014)
12. Hu. Zhiqing, Xu. Xinfeng, X. Wan, Yu. Kaifeng, *Ce Liang. J. Alloys Compd.* **835**, 155446 (2020)
13. Ruo Chen Zhang, Ke. Lia, Shouzhen Ren, Jiafu Chen, Xiaojian Feng, Yingqiao Jiang, Zhangxing He, Lei Dai, Ling Wang, *Appl. Surf. Sci.* **526**, 146685 (2020)
14. Kuiming Liu, Shengming Zhu, Xufeng Dong, Hao Huang, Min Qi, *Adv. Mater. Interfaces.* **7**, 1901916 (2020)
15. L. Zhengdao, Z. Yong, S. Ruzhong, X. Yan, X. Haiquan, Z. Zhigang, *Chin. Sci. Bull.* **59**, 2122–2134 (2014)
16. H.J. Snaith, C. Ducati, *Nano Lett.* **5**, 1259–1265 (2010)
17. Young Wook Noh, Ju Ho. Lee, In Su. Jin, Sang Hyun Park, Jae Woong Jung, *Nano Energy.* **65**, 104014 (2019)
18. Zhenxing Li, Rui Wang Jingjing. Xue, Xiaofei Xing, Yu. Chengcheng, Tianyi Huang, Junmei Chu, Kai-Li. Wang, Chong Dong, Zhiting Wei, Yepin Zhao, Zhao-Kui. Wang, Yang Yang, *Am. Chem. Soc.* **141**, 17610–17616 (2019)
19. S.H. Mohamed, *J. Alloys Compd.* **510**, 119–124 (2012)
20. J.M. Xu, L. Li, S. Wang, H.L. Ding, Y.X. Zhang, G.H. Li, *CrystEngComm* **15**, 3296–3300 (2013)
21. Y.D. Wang, I. Djerdj, B. Smarsly, M. Antonietti, *Chem. Mater.* **21**, 3202–3209 (2009)
22. J.M. Wu, *Nanotechnology* **21**, 235501 (2010)
23. U. Zum Felde, M. Haase, H. Weller, *J. Phys. Chem. B* **104**, 9388–9395 (2000)
24. J. Lim, B.Y. Jeong, H.G. Yoon, S.N. Lee, J. Kim, *J. NanosciNanotechnol.* **12**, 1675–1678 (2012)
25. H. Ohta, H. Hosono, *Mater. Today* **7**, 42 (2004)
26. Z. Lv, J. Li, F. Yang, K. Cao, Q. Bao, Y. Sun, J. Yuan, *Front. Bioeng Biotechnol.* **8**, 673 (2020)
27. N. Yu, C. Peng, Z. Wang, Z. Liu, B. Zhu, Z. Yi, M. Zhu, X. Liu, Z. Chen, *Nanoscale* **10**, 2542–2554 (2018)
28. G.A. Prinz, *Science* **282**, 1660 (1998)
29. S. Picozzi, *Nat. Mater.* **3**, 349 (2004)
30. W.J. Dong, J.J. Xu, C. Wang, Y. Lu, X.Y. Liu, X. Wang, X.T. Yuan, Z. Wang, T.Q. Lin, M.L. Sui, I.W. Chen, F.Q. Huang, *Adv. Mater.* **29**, 1700136 (2017)
31. X. Guan, P. Luo, X. Li, Y. Yu, D. Chen, L. Zhang, *Int. J. Electrochem. Sci.* **13**, 5667–5680 (2018)
32. M. Epifani, J.D. Prades, E. Comini, E. Pellicer, M. Avella, P. Siciliano, G. Faglia, A. Cirera, R. Scotti, F. Morazzoni, J.R. Morante, *J. Phys. Chem. C* **112**, 19540–19546 (2008)
33. L. Yang, Y. Yang, T. Liu, X. Ma, S.W. Lee, Y. Wang, *New J. Chem.* **42**, 15253–15262 (2018)
34. Y. Yang, Y. Wang, S. Yin, *Appl. Surf. Sci.* **420**, 399–406 (2017)
35. F.H. Aragón, J.A.H. Coaquira, P. Hidalgo, S.L.M. Brito, D. Gouvêa, R.H.R. Castro, *J. Phys.: Condens. Matter.* **22**, 496003 (2010)
36. H. Wang, Y. Yan, K. Li, X. Du, Z. Lan, H. Jin, *Phys. Status Solidi B* **247**, 444–448 (2010)
37. V.B. Kamble, S.V. Bhat, A.M. Umarji, *J. Appl. Phys.* **113**, 244307 (2013)
38. G.S. Chang, J. Forrest, E.Z. Kurmaev, A.N. Morozovska, M.D. Glinchuk, J.A. McLeod, A. Moewes, T.P. Surkova, N.H. Hong, *Phys. Rev. B* **85**, 165319 (2012)
39. Z. Wang, M. Zhi, M. Xu, C. Guo, Z. Man, Z. Zhang, Q. Li, Y. Lv, W. Zhao, J. Yan, C. Zhai, *J. Mater. Sci.* **56**, 7348–7356 (2021)
40. K. Suematsu, M. Sasaki, N. Ma, M. Yuasa, K. Shimanoe, *ACS Sens.* **1**, 913–920 (2016)
41. A.R. Babar, S.S. Shinde, A.V. Moholkar, C.H. Bhosale, J.H. Kim, K.Y. Rajpure, *J. Alloys Compd.* **509**, 3108–3115 (2011)
42. K. Balasubramanian, G. Venkatachari, *Mater. Res. Express* **6**, 1250k6 (2019)
43. M. Esro, S. Georgakopoulos, H. Lu, G. Vourlias, A. Krier, W.I. Milne, W.P. Gillin, G. Adamopoulos, *J. Mater. Chem. C* **4**, 3563–3570 (2016)
44. K.S. Cho, H.K. Kim, *RSC Adv.* **8**, 2599–2609 (2018)
45. S.D. Ponja, B.A.D. Williamson, S. Sathasivam, D.O. Scanlon, I.P. Parkin, C.J. Carmalt, *J. Mater. Chem. C* **6**, 7257–7266 (2018)
46. J.I. Scott, R.F. Martinez-Gazoni, M.W. Allen, R.J. Reeves, *J. Appl. Phys.* **126**, 135702 (2019)
47. A.R. Babar, S.S. Shinde, A.V. Moholkar, C.H. Bhosale, J.H. Kim, K.Y. Rajpure, *J. Alloys Compd.* **505**, 416–422 (2010)
48. Z.Q. Li, Y.L. Yin, X.D. Liu, L.Y. Li, H. Liu, Q.G. Song, *J. Appl. Phys.* **106**, 083701 (2009)
49. R. Medhi, C.H. Li, S.H. Lee, M.D. Marquez, A.J. Jacobson, T.C. Lee, T.R. Lee, *A.C.S. Appl. Nano. Mater.* **2**, 6554–6564 (2019)
50. T. Jintakosol, *Appl. Mech. Mater.* **749**, 141–145 (2015)
51. W. Zhou, Y. Liu, Y. Yang, P. Wu, *J. Phys. Chem. C* **118**, 6448–6453 (2014)
52. G. Rahman, V.M. García-Suárez, S.C. Hong, *Phys. Rev. B* **78**, 184404 (2008)
53. V. Agrahari, A.K. Tripathi, M.C. Mathpal, A.C. Pandey, S.K. Mishra, R.K. Shukla, A. Agarwal, *J. Mater. Sci: Mater Electron.* **26**, 9571–9582 (2015)
54. Ç. Kılıç, A. Zunger, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **88**, 095501 (2002)
55. T. Zima, N. Bulina, *Mater. Res. Bull.* **117**, 48–55 (2019)
56. F. Xue, X. Liu, J. Liu, *J. Phys. Chem. C* **123**, 684–690 (2019)

57. F. Paraguay-Delgado, F.C. Vasquez, J.T. Holguín-Momaca, C.R. Santillán-Rodríguez, J.A. Matutes-Aquino, S.F. Olive-Méndez, J. Magn. Magn. Mater. **476**, 183–187 (2019)
58. M. Saravanakumar, S. Agilan, N. Muthukumarasamy, V. Rukkumani, A. Marusamy, A. Ranjith, Acta Phys. Pol. A **127**, 1656–1660 (2015)
59. H.K. Mallick, Y. Zhang, J. Pradhan, M.P.K. Sahoo, A.K. Pattanaik, J. Alloys Compd. **854**, 156067 (2021)
60. J. Hays, A. Punnoose, R. Baldner, M. Engelhard, J. Peloquin, K.M. Reddy, Phys. Rev. B **72**, 075203 (2005)
61. A. Punnoose, J. Hays, A. Thurber, M.H. Engelhard, R.K. Kukkadapu, C. Wang, V. Shutthanandan, S. Thevuthasan, Phys. Rev. B **72**, 054402 (2005)
62. L. Villamagua, R. Rivera, D. Castillo, M. Carini, AIP Adv. **7**, 105010 (2017)
63. E. Muhire, J. Yang, X. Huo, M. Gao, Mater. Sci. **25**, 21–27 (2019)
64. M.B. Sahana, C. Sudakar, G. Setzler, A. Dixit, J.S. Thakur, G. Lawes, R. Naik, V.M. Naik, P.P. Vaishnava, Appl. Phys. Lett. **93**, 231909 (2008)
65. N. Serpone, J. Phys. Chem. B **110**, 24287–24293 (2006)
66. B. Venugopal, B. Nandan, A. Ayyachamy, V. Balaji, S. Amirthapandian, B.K. Panigrahi, T. Paramasivam, RSC Adv. **4**, 6141–6150 (2014)
67. X. Wang, X. Wang, Q. Di, H. Zhao, B. Liang, J. Yang, Materials **10**, 1398 (2017)
68. A.R. Babar, S.S. Shinde, A.V. Moholkar, C.H. Bhosale, J.H. Kim, K.Y. Rajpure, J. Semicond. **32**, 053001 (2011)
69. S.M. Liu, W.Y. Ding, W.P. Chai, Phys. B Condens. Matter. **406**, 2303–2307 (2011)
70. S.G. Lee, S.B. Han, W.J. Lee, K.W. Park, Catalysts **10**, 866 (2020)
71. Y. Bouznit, A. Henni, Mater. Chem. Phys. **233**, 242–248 (2019)
72. V. Agraphari, M.C. Mathpal, S. Kumar, A. Agarwal, J. Mater. Sci: Mater Electron **27**, 3053–3064 (2016)
73. A. Sundaresan, R. Bhargvi, N. Rangarajan, U. Siddesh, C.N.R. Rao, Phys. Rev. B: Condens. Matter Mater. Phys. **74**, 161306(R) (2006)
74. B. Santara, P.K. Giri, K. Imakita, M. Fujii, Nanoscale **5**, 5476 (2013)

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.