

## DESIGN AND OPTIMIZATION OF HIGH-PERFORMANCE GETE-BASED THERMOELECTRIC MATERIALS

A Thesis submitted by

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#### ABSTRACT

Thermoelectric materials can achieve a conversion effect between heat energy and electricity. The conversion efficiency of thermoelectric materials is determined by the dimensionless figure of merit (zT),  $zT = S^2 \sigma T / \kappa_{tot}$ , where S,  $\sigma$ ,  $S^2\sigma$ , and  $\kappa_{tot}$  represent the Seebeck coefficient, electrical conductivity, power factor, and total thermal conductivity, respectively. The pristine GeTe has a high  $\sigma$  due to the high carrier concentration  $(n_p)$  induced by intrinsic Ge vacancies. This high  $n_p$  also led to a low S which obtained a relatively low  $S^2\sigma$ . Thus, combined with a relatively high  $\kappa_{tot}$ , a peak zTvalue of  $\sim 1$  was obtained in GeTe. Rare earth elements doping can affect the transport properties of GeTe thermoelectric materials with below advantages, including aliovalent elements doping to reduce  $n_p$ , the localized magnetic moments due to the unfilled 4f-electrons, the large mass fluctuation, and strain-field fluctuation effect on point defect scattering. All these features motivate us to investigate the rare earth elements doped GeTe system for the purpose of reducing the  $\kappa_{lat_r}$  exploring the effect of doping with local magnetic moment elements on the thermoelectric properties of GeTe. This project is conducted in the following parts: The thermoelectric performance of GeTe-based thermoelectric materials can be significantly enhanced by substituting REs (Eu, Gd, Er, and Tm) at the Ge site of GeTe. The *zT*<sub>ave</sub> are increased from 0.38 of pristine GeTe to  $\sim$  0.60 of Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te at the entire temperature range. Lu was found to have a relatively small radius and electronegativity difference with Ge compared with other rare earth elements, which can induce a high doping level in GeTe. A peak zT of 1.75 at 673 K and an average zT of 0.92 within the temperature range of 303-723 K are obtained in Ge<sub>0.9</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>Sb<sub>0.08</sub>Te. Rare earth Nd doping in the TAGS-85 (GeTe<sub>85</sub>(AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>15</sub>) system obtained the highest *zT* values of 1.65 at 727 K. Overall, several breakthroughs in GeTe thermoelectrics have been made and documented in journal papers. The challenges of high-performance n-type GeTe and the practical application of GeTe thermoelectric devices still need to be further investigated.

## **CERTIFICATION OF THESIS**

I Wanyu Lyu declare that the PhD Thesis entitled "Design and optimization of high-performance GeTe-based thermoelectric materials" is not more than 100,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references, and footnotes.

This Thesis is the work of Wanyu Lyu except where otherwise acknowledged, with the majority of the contribution to the papers presented as a Thesis by Publication undertaken by the student. The work is original and has not previously been submitted for any other award, except where acknowledged.



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The student **Wanyu Lyu** contributed 70% to this paper. Collectively Wei-Di Liu, Meng Li, Min Hong, Kai Guo, Jun Luo, Juanjuan Xing, Qiang Sun, Shengduo Xu, Jin Zou, Zhi-Gang Chen contributed the remainder.

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" Necessity, weight, and value are three concepts inextricably bound: only necessity is heavy, and only what is heavy has value."

- Milan Kundera, The Unbearable Lightness of Being

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT		. i
CERTIFICATI	ON OF THESIS	ii
STATEMENT (	OF CONTRIBUTION	iii
ACKNOWLED	GEMENTS	v
LIST OF FIGU	JRES	х
ABBREVIATIO	DNS x	(ii
CHAPTER 1:	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1.	Background	1
1.2.	Objective and scope	5
1.3.	Thesis outline	5
CHAPTER 2:	LITERATURE REVIEW	7
2.1.	A brief history of thermoelectric technology	7
2.1.1.	Seebeck effect	8
2.1.2.	Peltier effect	9
2.1.3.	Thomson effect1	0
2.1.4.	Thermoelectric theory and device1	0
2.2.	The evaluation parameters1	1
2.2.1.	Conversion efficiency1	1
2.2.2.	Figure of merit zT1	3
2.3.	Thermoelectric materials development 1	3
2.4.	The fundamental characteristics of GeTe1	4
2.4.1.	Crystal structure1	4
2.4.2.	Intrinsic Ge vacancies1	5
2.4.3.	Electrical band structure1	6
2.4.4.	Thermoelectric performance of pristine GeTe1	7
2.5.	Strategies of thermoelectric performance optimization on	
GeTe		8
2.5.1.	Carrier concentration engineering1	8
2.5.2.	Band engineering2	1
2.5.3.	Phonon scattering engineering2	3

2.5.4.	Decoupling electrical and thermal transport properti	es 24
2.6.	Summary and Research Gap	26
CHAPTER 3	: METHODOLOGIES	28
3.1.	Synthesis	28
3.1.1.	Preparation of powder samples by melting method.	28
3.1.2.	Preparation of bulk samples by SPS	29
3.2.	Characterization	31
3.2.1.	X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)	31
3.2.2.	Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)	32
3.2.3.	High-resolution transmission electron microscope	
(TEM)		33
3.3.	Thermoelectrical Properties	34
3.3.1.	Electrical transport property	34
3.3.2.	Thermal transport property	37
CHAPTER 4	: THE EFFECT OF RARE EARTH ELEMENT DOPING ON	
		20
THERMOEL	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE	39
THERMOELI 4.1.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction	39
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication	39 39 39
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion	39 39 39 46
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion : CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC	39 39 39 46 TRIC
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAI	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion : CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAI 5.1.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAI 5.1. 5.2.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction Publication	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 47
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAI 5.1. 5.2. 5.3.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 47 55
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAN 5.1. 5.2. 5.3. CHAPTER 6	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion E RARE-EARTH ND INDUCING RECORD-HIGH	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 47 55
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAN 5.1. 5.2. 5.3. CHAPTER 6 THERMOELI	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion ECONDUCING RECORD-HIGH ECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF (GeTe) <sub>85</sub> (AgSbTe <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>15</sub>	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 47 55
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAI 5.1. 5.2. 5.3. CHAPTER 6 THERMOELI 6.1.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion Conclusion RARE-EARTH ND INDUCING RECORD-HIGH ECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF (GeTe) <sub>85</sub> (AgSbTe <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>15</sub> Introduction	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 47 55 56 56
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAN 5.1. 5.2. 5.3. CHAPTER 6 THERMOELI 6.1. 6.2.	<ul> <li>ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE</li></ul>	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 55 56 56 56
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAN 5.1. 5.2. 5.3. CHAPTER 6 THERMOELI 6.1. 6.2. 6.3.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion RARE-EARTH ND INDUCING RECORD-HIGH ECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF (GeTe) <sub>85</sub> (AgSbTe <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>15</sub> Introduction Publication Publication	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 47 55 56 56 56 56
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAN 5.1. 5.2. 5.3. CHAPTER 6 THERMOELN 6.1. 6.2. 6.3. CHAPTER 7	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion RARE-EARTH ND INDUCING RECORD-HIGH ECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF (GeTe) <sub>85</sub> (AgSbTe <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>15</sub> Introduction Publication Conclusion	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 55 56 56 56 56 56 65
THERMOELI 4.1. 4.2. 4.3. CHAPTER 5 PERFORMAN 5.1. 5.2. 5.3. CHAPTER 6 THERMOELN 6.1. 6.2. 6.3. CHAPTER 7 7.1.	ECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELEC NCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE Introduction Publication Conclusion RARE-EARTH ND INDUCING RECORD-HIGH ECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF (GeTe)85(AgSbTe2)15 Introduction Publication Conclusion Conclusion Conclusion	39 39 39 46 TRIC 47 47 47 55 56 56 56 56 65 66 66

7.3.	Outlook
REFERENCES	69
APPENDIX A	
APPENDIX B	
APPENDIX C	

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Historical development of Thermoelectric technology7
Figure 2.2. The schematic diagram of (a) Seebeck effect, (b) Peltier effect, (c)
Thomson effect11
Figure 2.3. The efficiency comparison of thermoelectrics and other energy-
conversion technologies as a function of the heat-source temperature12
Figure 2.4. (a) The phase diagram of binary Ge-Te, (b) the XRD results
with different temperatures of undoped GeTe15
Figure 2.5. Defect formation energy of pristine GeTe as a function of
chemical potential of (a) Te, and (b) fermi level, (c) the carrier
concentration as a function of Ge vacancies content16
Figure 2.6. Band structures of (a) rhombohedral structured GeTe, (b)
cubic-structured GeTe17
Figure 2.7. (a) The schematic diagram of thermoelectric parameters as a
function of carrier concentration, (b) carrier concentration engineering of
different methods. (c) the $S^2\sigma$ as a function of $n_p$ of Bi/Sb doped GeTe20
Figure 2.8. Illustration of the different phonon scattering mechanism22
Figure 2.9. Quantum gap effect of GeTe based thermoelectric25
Figure 3.1. Methodology flow chart
Figure 3.2. The synthesis process of GeTe based materials
Figure 3.3. (a) SPS system configuration, (b) the Graphite dies32
Figure 3.4. (a) The principle of XRD, (b) the schematic configuration of
XRD instrument
Figure 3.5. (a) The principle of electronic signals released from sample
interaction regions in SEM, (b) the Schematic configuration of the SEM
microscope
Figure 3.6. (a) The principal diagram of the formed signals in TEM
imaging, (b) The schematic configuration of TEM
Figure 3.7. Schematic diagram of Seebeck coefficient and electrical
conductivity measuring system (ULVAC-ZEM-3)

Figure 3.8. Schematic diagram of the Hall system principal	38
Figure 3.9. (a) The mechanism of LFA 467 for the measurement of D, (b) the	
picture of LFA 467 equipment, (c) the schematic diagram of Archimedes'	
method determining sample density	.39

## ABBREVIATIONS

BSE: back-scattered electrons

BTE: boltzmann transport equation

CBM: conduction band minimum

DFT: density functional theory

DOS: density-of-states

DSC: differential scanning calorimetry

EBSD: electron back-scattered diffraction

EDS/EDX: energy dispersive (X-ray) spectroscope

FFT: fast fourier transform

FIB: focused ion beam

GGA: generalized gradient approximation

HAADF: high angle annular dark field

HOMO: the highest occupied molecular orbital

LDA: local density approximation

LFA: laser flash analysis

LUMO: the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital

PAW: projector augmented wave method

PBE: the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerh of exchange correlation functional

SAED: selected area electron diffraction

SE: secondary electrons

SEM: scanning electron microscope

SOC: spin-orbital coupling

SPS: spark plasma sintering

SPB: single parabolic band

TE: thermoelectric

TEC: thermoelectric cooler

TEG: thermoelectric generator

TEM: transmission electron microscope

VBM: valence band maximum

XRD: X-ray diffraction

XPS: X-ray photoelectron spectroscope

WQ: water quenching

#### **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

#### 1.1. Background

The population of the world has developed steadily over the last few decades, with rapidly increasing economic and industrial development. The oil crisis and environmental issues were also brought on. High fossil energy consumption has not only impeded business growth but has also contributed to many social difficulties. For instance, the oil rush, and rising prices, and the global energy dispute prevention. Fossil fuels are a nonclean source of carbon. When burnt and consumed, toxic gases are produced, the ozone layer is damaged, greenhouses are activated, and the human living condition is greatly threatened. Consequently, green and sustainable energy conversion materials are emerging and booming under the concurrent pressure of energy scarcity and environmental degradation. Wind power generation and the application of solar cells have fully alleviated energy exhaustion and environmental pollution caused by fossil fuel combustion. However, wind energy and solar energy are extensively used for commercial utilization which focuses on the efficiency of energy utilization. Besides, another way to improve energy efficiency is to recycle waste heat. Heating, vehicle exhaust, and manufacturing processes produce a large amount of waste heat that can be converted by using thermoelectricity into electricity. Because thermo-electric power generators are solid, stable, and portable units that do not have moving parts, they are perfect for small, distributed power generation. Efforts to replace the alternator in cars with a thermoelectric generator on the exhaust flow are now underway, which improves fuel efficiency. Progress in thermoelectric power could also allow the replacement of compression-based cooling by solid-state Peltier coolers.

Thermoelectric materials (TE) that can transform heat into electricity and vice versa draw much attention in terms of waste heat utilization (Kusrini

et al., 2018; Liebl, 2009; Park et al., 2018; James R. Salvador et al., 2012), including automobiles (General Motors and BMW), thermonuclear power space mission (Prilepo, Pustovalov, Sinyavskiy, Sudak, & Yatsenko, 2012), and solid-state refrigeration, such as conventional refrigeration for portable refrigerators and medicinal keeping (Lafaurie Ponce, Chejne, Ramirez Aristeguieta, Gómez, & Múnera Cano, 2019; Sharma, Dwivedi, & Pandit, 2014). With the development of thermoelectrical materials, researchers are now developing various flexible, wearable thermoelectric materials, including intelligent body temperature watches and power generation biomedical detectors (L. Huang et al., 2019; T. Sun et al., 2020). Given the great number of potential applications and significant academic and scientific effects, thermoelectric materials have received massive attention over the last few decades. Thermoelectric efficiency is evaluated by the dimensionless figure of merit  $zT = \frac{S^2 \sigma}{\kappa_{tot}}T$ , where *S*,  $\sigma$ ,  $\kappa_{tot}$  and *T* are the Seebeck coefficient, electrical conductivity, thermal conductivity, and absolute temperature, respectively. Among them, the first three parameters are coupled with each other. This property of TE limits the efficiency of thermoelectric materials. Such as, the change of the Seebeck coefficient with carrier concentration is opposite to the relationship between conductivity and carrier concentration. The  $S^2\sigma$  is defined as a power factor that can assess the electrical property in total. There are many methods focused on easing this restriction in thermoelectric materials, such as tuning the carrier concentration to an optimized level (Pei, LaLonde, et al., 2011; Pei, May, & Snyder, 2011), band engineering including resonance band level (M. Hong, Z. G. Chen, et al., 2018), decreasing the energy of light and heavy valence band (Pei, Wang, & Snyder, 2012; Tang, Gibbs, et al., 2015), band alinement (W. He et al., 2019), et al. Also, inducing the nanostructured materials to decrease the lattice thermal conductivity (Girard et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2015) and flexible thin-film preparation all push the development of thermoelectric (Y. Wang et al., 2019). Among them, the mid-temperature GeTe has been studied recently due to its multidegree of tuning performance and without the high toxicity lead as PbTe. Adopting the easily optimized carrier concentration and structure information, the GeTe-based materials have been extensively investigated.

The IV-VI chalcogenides AB (A = Ge, Sn, Pb, and B = Te) are the state-ofthe-art materials for thermoelectric applications in the temperature range of 400 K-800 K (H. L. Liu et al., 2012). PbTe has been studied comprehensively and extensively as one of the classical thermoelectric materials that also has high thermoelectric properties (Kim, Zhao, Kanatzidis, & Seidman, 2017). However, the high toxicity of Pb limited its practical application. GeTe with a high carrier concentration resulting from easily formed Ge vacancies was considered to be a low-efficiency thermoelectric material. The lower formation energy of Ge vacancies results in a high carrier concentration ( $\sim 10^{21}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>). This hole density is much higher than the optimal level, so that pristine GeTe shows high electrical conductivity and a lower Seebeck coefficient with the peak zT up to 0.8 at 720 K (Levin, Besser, & Hanus, 2013). Nevertheless, it is easy to decrease the carrier concentration by doping with aliovalent elements or alloying with another thermoelectric material. Such as, substituting Ge with Pb as a donor dopant, which can decrease the electrical conductivity and increase the Seebeck coefficient. The Sb substitute in the Ge site leads to the highest zT value of 2. GeTe crystallized in the cubic phase at high temperature and then underwent a phase transition to a rhombohedral structure when the temperature was reduced to low temperature. Due to the higher symmetry of the cubic phase, it can achieve higher performance. Therefore, some research focuses on decreasing the phase transition temperature to get higher performance. In addition, IV–VI chalcogenides usually have multiple valence-bands that favorably achieve band engineering optimization in thermoelectric materials. Thus, the improvement of power factors by decreasing the energy difference between light band valence and heavy band valence in GeTe were widely implemented. Considering these intrinsic properties and the degree of regulation freedom, GeTe has been extensively studied and has achieved considerable improvements.

#### 1.2. Objective and scope

This project aims to optimize the thermoelectric performance of GeTebased materials. So that the commercialization of GeTe-based materials can be pushed, as well as to alleviate energy stress and environmental pollution. To fulfil this goal, the specific objectives of the project are listed below:

1. Rare earth elements have a large mass and strain-field fluctuation which can enhance phonon scattering by point defect scattering. Rare earth elements, Eu, Gd, Er, and Tm, were used to investigate the doping effect on lattice thermal conductivity in GeTe system. And the local magnetic moments of rare earth elements affect *S* was also discussed.

2. The rare earth element doping successfully enhances the zT values of GeTe. However, it is limited by the solubility of rare earth elements. Thus, higher electronegativity Lu was used to further reduce the thermal conductivity in the GeTe system. In addition, the Sb alloying was used to further reduce  $n_p$ .

3. To improve the thermoelectric properties of the GeTe system by doping with rare earth elements in the alloyed TAGS-85 system (Tellurium Antimony Germanium Silver with composition (GeTe)<sub>85</sub>(AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>15</sub>). The TAGS system has been investigated during the last decades. Among them, the performance of TAGS-85 achieved the best properties both in electrical and thermal performance. This system not only improved the power factor due to the decreased carrier concentration, but also decreased the thermal conductivity. Thus, as a potential system of GeTe, we introduce Nd into the TAGS-85 system to further enhance its properties.

#### **1.3.** Thesis outline

This thesis is outlined in 7 chapters in the following sequence:

Chapter 1 is the introduction to this thesis.

Chapter 2 overviews the development history of thermoelectric technology, and the various widely studied thermoelectric materials. The current progress of GeTe-based thermoelectric materials is reviewed, as well as the research gap in GeTe-based thermoelectric materials.

Chapter 3 is the methodology and approach which provide experimental details.

Chapter 4 presents the effect of rare earth element doping on the thermoelectric properties of GeTe. The doping limit induced difference in electrical and thermal properties was highlighted.

Chapter 5 illustrates condensed point defects enhance thermoelectric performance of rare-earth Lu-doped GeTe. 2 mol.% Lu and 8 mol.% Sb codoping in GeTe achieve a high *zT* value of 1.75 at 673 K.

Chapter 6 shows that rare earth Nd Induced in  $(GeTe)_{85}(AgSbTe_2)_{15}$  can obtain high thermoelectric performance in TAGS-85.

Chapter 7 draws the conclusions of this thesis and points out the potential future directions.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

In this chapter, we will first overview the development history of thermoelectric technology, including the thermoelectric effect, thermoelectric materials, and applications. Then, the various widely studied thermoelectric materials will be enumerated. The related evaluation parameters of thermoelectric materials will be introduced. As well as the current progress of GeTe-based thermoelectric materials. At last, we clarify the research gap in GeTe-based thermoelectric materials, as well as the new possibilities for advancement in the below literature review.



Figure 2.1. Historical development of thermoelectric technology.

#### 2.1. A brief history of thermoelectric technology

Today, the development of thermoelectric materials and devices has entered a new era. Thermoelectric technology related theories have been developed and are gradually improving (Cao, Shi, & Chen, 2023; Davide Beretta et al., 2019; Shi, Zou, & Chen, 2020; Snyder et al., 2020; X. Zhang et al., 2020). The discovery of new thermoelectric materials and the performance improvement of classical materials are developing rapidly. The development of different dimensional materials, including one-dimensional, three-dimensional materials, two-dimensional, and provides new possibilities for thermoelectric materials (Burton, Howells, Atoyo, & Carnie, 2022; Dresselhaus et al., 2007; Jo, Choo, Kim, Heo, & Son, 2019). Thermoelectric devices are also booming in various fields, including medical devices (Ben Amar, Kouki, & Cao, 2015), on-chip device (W.-Y. Chen, Shi, Zou, & Chen, 2022), wearable devices (Kishore, Nozariasbmarz, Poudel, Sanghadasa, & Priya, 2019), etc (R. He, Schierning, & Nielsch, 2018). In this part, we will briefly introduce the development history of thermoelectricity, in order to have a comprehensive understanding of thermoelectric technology and open a window for the future.

#### 2.1.1. Seebeck effect

Thermoelectric effects stemming from a "false discovery" of magnetic deflection induced by temperature difference between two conductors were found by Thomas Johann Seebeck (German) in 1821 Th. J. Seebeck "Magnetische Polarisation der Metalle und Erze Durch Temperatur-Differenz"1822-23 in Ostwald's Klassiker der Exakten Wissenshaften Nr. 70 (1895). Seebeck Biography 1. Seebeck Biography 2.. This magnetic effect was later proved to be induced by an electric current generated from the temperature difference, which is known as the Seebeck effect. After that, Seebeck surveyed various materials to create his "Seebeck system" including simple substance elements, and alloy compounds as well as a qualitative ordering of their relative Seebeck effect. This research makes a big contribution to the following survey about thermoelectrics. In 1910, Werner Haken (Haken, 1910) characterized the Seebeck coefficient (S) and electrical conductivity ( $\sigma$ ) of many compounds, and identified the good thermoelectric materials including

Sb<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>3</sub>, Bi<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>3</sub>, SnTe, PbTe etc. The Seebeck effect explained by the latter scientist is shown in **Figure 2.2**a, a temperature change between joints 1 and 2 generates a current in the whole conductor, the voltage ( $\Delta V$ ) will be detected between these two conductors. As long as the  $\Delta T = T_h - T_c$  is small enough, the relative Seebeck effect (*S*) will be a constant, written as

$$S = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta T} \left( \Delta T \to 0 \right) \tag{2-1}$$

#### 2.1.2. Peltier effect

In 1834, Jean Charles Athanase Peltier discovered that an electrical current can generate a heating or cooling effect at the junction of two dissimilar metals (Peltier, 1834). Although Peltier tried to attribute this phenomenon to the theory of Joule heat dissipation, he inevitably failed to find out the physical origin of the effect. Until 1838, Heinrich Friedrich Emil Lenz proved that when current is forced to flow through different conductors, the junction between different conductors releases and absorbs additional heat with two different directions of current flow (Physik, 1838). This absorbed heat at the junction is proportional to the electrical current. Today, this phenomenon is called the Peltier effect, and the proportionality constant is known as the Peltier coefficient. As shown in **Figure 2.2**b, the Peltier coefficient can be expressed by the following formula:

$$\pi = \frac{Q}{I} \tag{2-2}$$

Q is the heat absorption and emission rate at the node; I represents the current in the circuit. At the junction of the two conductors, there will be a temperature change, that is, the heat release temperature at one joint will increase, and the heat absorption temperature at the other joint will decrease.

#### 2.1.3. Thomson effect

The above two effects focus on two different metals or conductors. Thomson creates the third effect named Thomson effect, which combined Seebeck and Peltier effect in 1855 (Thomson, 1851). That is a material that can achieve the convention between heat and electricity, as well as prove this effect in experimental results. As shown in **Figure 2.2**c, a current I flows through a uniform conductor was heated to form a temperature gradient  $\Delta T = T_2 - T_1$ , the endothermic or exothermic rate should be calculated as below:

$$Q = \beta I \Delta T \tag{2-3}$$

 $\beta$  is the Thomson coefficient, with the unit V/K, the formula can be transferred to

$$\beta = \frac{Q}{I\Delta T} \tag{2-4}$$

Thomason coefficient is positive with the same direction of current and temperature gradient and comes with an endothermic behavior in a conductor. Whereas it is negative with the reverse current direction. The microscopic physical nature of the Thomson effect is the potential energy difference of carriers under different temperature gradients.

Also, Thomason deduced the relation between these three-effects, known as the Kelvin relation,

$$S_{ab} = \frac{n_{ab}}{T}$$
(2-5)

$$\frac{dS_{ab}}{dT} = \frac{\beta_a - \beta_b}{T}$$
(2-6)

which has great significance for the study of thermoelectricity and has been proved correct by many experimental studies to date, including for metallic and semiconductor materials.

#### 2.1.4. Thermoelectric theory and device

These three effects positioned the foundation of the thermoelectric theory, but did not mention the comprehensive theory about thermoelectric devices (TED), like power generation and refrigeration. Thirty years later, Altenkirch (in 1909) solved this problem, He raised the three key factors related to the thermoelectric performance, which is Seebeck coefficient, electrical conductivity, and thermal conductivity (Altenkirch, 1909, 1911). It points the way to thermoelectric research. With the development of semiconductor physics in the 1930s, the research on thermoelectric materials turned to higher Seebeck coefficient semiconductors ( $\sim 100 \mu$ V/K) which favorably improved thermoelectric performance than metals. This results in a series of studies on investigating good semiconductors to be utilized as thermoelectric materials. Consequently, some traditional thermoelectric materials with high thermoelectric properties have been reported. Including Bi<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>3</sub>, PbTe, and SiGe, which achieved a breakthrough in performance compared with early metal materials (Biswas et al., 2012; Hong, Chen, Yang, & Zou, 2016; Hong, Chen, & Zou, 2018; Hu et al., 2015; Zhu, Hu, Zhao, & He, 2016). These materials still have great research potential.



**Figure 2.2**. The schematic diagram of (a) the Seebeck effect, (b) the Peltier effect, and (c) the Thomson effect.

#### 2.2. The evaluation parameters

#### 2.2.1. Conversion efficiency

The maximum efficiency of power generation for TE material is defined by the below formula:

$$\eta = \left(\frac{T_h - T_c}{T_h}\right) \left[\frac{\sqrt{1 + zT} - 1}{\sqrt{1 + zT} + \left(\frac{T_h}{T_c}\right)}\right]$$
(2-7)

In this equation,  $\eta$  is the efficiency of power generation,  $T_h$  is the hot side temperature,  $T_c$  is the cold side temperature, and zT represents the dimensionless figure of merit as mentioned in the formula. Among them,

$$\eta_{Carnot} = \left(\frac{T_h - T_c}{T_h}\right) \tag{2-8}$$

As we can see, the whole efficiency of power generation will be limited by the Carnot cycle, which depends on the temperature gradient between the hot and cold sides. Furthermore, the zT value is also determined  $\eta$ , so most of the research focuses on how to optimize the thermoelectric properties. **Figure 2.3** shows the efficiency comparison of thermoelectric materials and other energy-conversion technologies. So far, the power generation efficiency of thermoelectrics is lower than other sources because the highest zT value of thermoelectric is around 2. It is comparable with other sources when the zT value is improved up to 4.



**Figure 2.3.** The efficiency comparison of thermoelectrics and other energyconversion technologies as a function of the heat-source temperature (J. He & Tritt, 2017; Shakouri, 2011).

#### 2.2.2. Figure of merit zT

In 1911, German scientist Altenkirch established a theoretical model to explore better thermoelectric materials and determined the relationship among the Seebeck coefficient, electrical conductivity, and thermal conductivity.

$$z = \frac{S^2 \sigma}{\kappa_{tot}}$$
(2-9)

Thermoelectric conversion efficiency can be measured by a simple dimensionless parameter, *zT*.

$$zT = \frac{S^2 \sigma}{\kappa_{tot}} T \tag{2-10}$$

Where *S* is the Seebeck coefficient ( $\mu$ V K<sup>-1</sup>),  $\sigma$  is the electrical conductivity (S m<sup>-1</sup>),  $\kappa_{tot}$  is the total thermal conductivity (W m<sup>-1</sup>K<sup>-1</sup>). According to Manha-Sofo theory, the Seebeck effect can be expressed as:

$$S = \frac{8n^{2}k_{B}T}{3e^{2}h}m^{*}\left(\frac{n}{3n}\right)^{2/3}$$
 (2-11)

$$\sigma = ne\mu \tag{2-12}$$

The product of the Seebeck coefficient and electrical conductivity named Power factor  $PF=S^2\sigma$ . The total thermal conductivity is consisted of electrical thermal conductivity and lattice thermal conductivity.

$$k_{total} = k_e + k_l \tag{2-13}$$

#### 2.3. Thermoelectric materials development

There are three main types of thermoelectric materials classified by operation temperature in thermoelectric devices. The classical thermoelectric material  $Bi_2Te_3$  has decent thermoelectric properties at room temperature and is extensively applied to thermoelectric materials, so-called cryogenic material.  $Bi_2Te_3$  belongs to the R3m rhombohedral system, with a high pristine Seebeck coefficient and low thermal conductivity, the *zT* value of undoped samples is around 0.2. The thermoelectric performance could be improved by substituting, alloying, or using the solution method to synthesize nanoplates, the highest *zT* value reported so far is 1.56 at 300 K with nanostructured  $Bi_{0.52}Sb_{1.48}Te_3$  (Hong et al., 2016; Wenjie Xie, Tang, Yan, Zhang, & Tritt, 2009).  $Bi_2Te_3$  can be substituted with each other to prepare p-type and n-type thermoelectric

materials (Hu et al., 2015). Another thermoelectric material, widely investigated since the 19th century, PbTe is essentially utilized in the mesothermal region (400 K-700 K). PbTe adopts the NaCl crystal structure, empty group of  $Fm\overline{3}m$ with high-symmetry structure and stable chemical properties, as well as high melting point, thus PbTe based analogs are more suitable for middle temperature compared with Bi<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>3</sub>. Doping with other IV–VI chalcogenides such as SnTe, PbSe, GeTe by alloying can efficiently improve the property of PbTe. With the emerge of nanomaterials, solution preparation of nanomaterials and embedding of nanocrystals were used to increase the zT value by reducing thermal conductivity. K introduce in  $PbTe_{0.7}S_{0.3}$ system enhanced zT values up to 2.2 at 923K which generates abundant nano precipitates to decrease the thermal conductivity (H. J. Wu et al., 2014). In addition, doping 2mol% Na into the PbTe-4mol%SrTe system processing with SPS decreases the thermal conductivity by scattering long-wave phonons with mesoscale nanostructures. Thus, the overall zT values are 2.1 at 800 K (Kim, Zhao, Kanatzidis, & & Seidman, 2017). Furthermore, there are other mid temperature thermoelectric materials have been studied over a few decades. Such as CoSb<sub>3</sub> skutterudites, Mg-based alloys, Zintl phase materials, SnTe and SnSe (Brown, 2006; Z.-G. Chen, Shi, Zhao, & Zou, 2018; Liu, Zhang, Li, & Zhao, 2007; Santhanam, 1981; G. Tan et al., 2015; Tang, Hanus, Chen, & Snyder, 2015; Q. Zhang et al., 2013; Zhao, 2016). Speaking of hightemperature applications, SiGe (Dismukes, Ekstrom, Steigmeier, Kudman, & Beers, 1964; Joshi, 2008; X. W. Wang et al., 2008) and half-Heusler materials (Fu et al., 2015; W. Xie et al., 2012) are the most advanced.

#### 2.4. The fundamental characteristics of GeTe

#### 2.4.1. Crystal structure

The phase diagram of binary Ge-Te is shown in **Figure 2.4**a (A. Schlieper, Y. Feutelai, S.G. Fries, B. Legendre, & Blachnik, 1999). Ge and Te elements with a composition close to 1:1 undergo a solid-state melting process to form a GeTe compound with a melting point of 993 K. GeTe has two stable

phases: the high-temperature  $\beta$ -phase crystalize in cubic structure (C-GeTe, space group  $Fm\overline{3}m$ ) and the low temperature  $\alpha$ -phase with rhombohedral structure (R-GeTe, space group R3m). As can be seen form **Figure 2.4**b, the experiment XRD results show the indexed peak change from (024) and (220) of R-GeTe to (220) of C-GeTe at around 700 K (Levin et al., 2013). This phase change is caused by the thermal strain-induced displacement of Ge atoms (1/2, 1/2, 1/2) to (1/2-*x*, 1/2-*x*, 1/2-*x*), the Te atoms bending along the diagonal [111] direction.



**Figure 2.4**. (a) The phase diagram of binary Ge-Te, (b) the XRD results with different temperatures of undoped GeTe (A. Schlieper et al., 1999; Levin et al., 2013).

#### 2.4.2. Intrinsic Ge vacancies

GeTe is an intrinsic p-type thermoelectric material with a carrier concentration of ~ $10^{21}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> at room temperature. This is due to the lowest formation energy of Ge vacancies as shown in **Figure 2.5** a-b. The loss of Ge may be caused by the thermal strain induced the displacement of Ge during the phase change from C-GeTe to R-GeTe. This Ge vacancy was also reported to contribute to the formation of a displacement channel to facilitate the rearrangement of Te atoms (Edwards et al., 2006). The important role of Ge vacancy is also found in Ge-Sb-Te ternary compounds (GST), which drive a metal-insulator transition (Christian Pauly et al., 2013;

W. Zhang et al., 2012). Ge vacancies concentration were reported between 8%-10% on the Ge sublattice (A. V. Kolobov, J. Tominaga, P. Fons, & Uruga, 2003). Refer to J.E. Boschker's estimation in perfect crystal, a simple cubic 4×4 GeTe unit cell with parameter of 6Å contains  $18.4 \times 10^{21}$  unit cells, 8% Ge vacancies generated from this Ge sublattice site, the Ge vacancies theoretically can contribute a carrier concentration of  $\sim 3 \times 10^{21}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> (Boschker, Wang, & Calarco, 2017). However, the experimental carrier concentration is smaller than this estimated one. The experimental results show the composition of Ge vacancy is around 1%-3% **Figure 2.5**c (Hong & Chen, 2022). This result is reasonable considering the possible defects can trap or annihilate the carriers.



**Figure 2.5**. Defect formation energy of pristine GeTe as a function of the chemical potential of (a) Te, and (b) fermi level, and (c) the carrier concentration as a function of Ge vacancy content (Hong & Chen, 2022; B. Huang & Robertson, 2012).

#### 2.4.3. Electrical band structure

The electronic band structure and corresponding DOS of R-GeTe and C-GeTe are displayed in **Figure 2.6**a-b. R-GeTe is an indirect semiconductor with a band gap of 0.62 eV calculated from the maximum valence band

edge at the  $\Sigma$  point (VB<sub> $\Sigma$ </sub>) to the minimum conduction band edge at the L point (CB<sub>L</sub>). Ge 4p<sup>2</sup> and Te 4p<sup>2</sup> dominated the VB edge and CB edge, respectively. As GeTe is a p-type semiconductor with intrinsic hole concentration, element doping at the Ge site can achieve fermi level tuning and optimize carrier concentration ( $n_p$ ). C-GeTe has a direct band gap of 0.23 eV from the VB edge (VB<sub>L</sub>) to CB edge (CB<sub>L</sub>) at the L point. The maximum VB edge switch from the  $\Sigma$  point to the L point shows increased symmetry of C-GeTe. This enables GeTe to have multi freedom manipulation degree to achieve high band degeneracy.



**Figure 2.6.** Band structures of (a) rhombohedral structured GeTe, and (b) cubic structured GeTe.

#### 2.4.4. Thermoelectric performance of pristine GeTe

GeTe has outstanding thermoelectric performance at both low and mid temperatures and has attracted increased attention (Hong, Zou, & Chen, 2019b; Xinyue Zhang et al., 2020). GeTe crystalizes into the rhombohedral structure (R-GeTe, space group R3m) at low temperatures and transits into the cubic structure (C-GeTe, space group Fm3m) at 700 K due to the displacement of Ge atoms induced by thermal strain (Chatterji, Kumar, & Wdowik, 2015; Hong et al., 2019b). Pristine GeTe is a highly degenerate p-type semiconductor with a high hole concentration ( $n_p \sim 10^{21}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>) due to the Ge vacancies (S. Perumal, S. Roychowdhury, & K. Biswas, 2016). This

is caused by the low formation energy of Ge vacancy in the GeTe system (Damon, Lubell, & Mazelsky, 1967). The high  $n_p$  induces a large  $\sigma$  and in turn, a small *S*. Therefore, tuning  $n_p$  to optimization level (~5×10<sup>19</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>) should be the key to achieving high  $S^2\sigma$  (Shuai, Sun, Tan, & Mori, 2020; L. Yue et al., 2019). On the other hand, undoped pristine GeTe has a high  $\kappa_l$  (~3.2 W·m<sup>-1</sup>·K<sup>-1</sup>at room temperature), which is far above the minimum  $\kappa_l$  ( $\kappa_{min}$  of ~0.3 W·m<sup>-1</sup>·K<sup>-1</sup>). These factors have limited the peak *zT* value of pristine GeTe to ~0.8 at 720 K (S. Perumal et al., 2016).

# 2.5. Strategies of thermoelectric performance optimization on GeTe

#### 2.5.1. Carrier concentration engineering

The high *zT* values of good thermoelectric materials need to have large S and  $\sigma$ , and also a low  $\kappa_{tot}$  ( $\kappa_{ele}+\kappa_{lat}$ ). The dilemma of thermoelectric parameter regulation stems from the coupling effect between the electrical property parameter and the thermal property parameter. The schematic diagram displayed in **Figure 2.7**a shows the  $n_H$  dependent thermoelectric parameters including S,  $\sigma$ ,  $S^2\sigma$ ,  $\kappa_{tot}$ ,  $\kappa_{ele}$ , zT. S and  $\sigma$  cannot be optimized at the same time, so there is an optimal power factor as a function of  $n_H$ . In addition,  $\sigma$  also has a coupling relationship with the thermal performance parameter  $\kappa_{ele}$ , due to higher  $\sigma$  will lead to higher  $\kappa_{ele}$ , which is contrary to the requirement of lower thermal conductivity. Therefore, peak *zT* values correspond to slightly different optimal  $n_H$  values. Therefore, the regulation of carrier concentration is the most intuitive and effective method to optimize thermoelectric performance.

According to Ioffe's first empirical attempt in doped semiconductors, the carrier concentration "sweet spot" of good thermoelectrics is  $n_H$  between  $10^{18}-10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>, corresponding to degenerate semiconductors or semimetals. GeTe has an intrinsically high hole concentration  $n_p$  of ~10<sup>21</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> due to easily formed Ge vacancies. This results in a zT value of ~1 in pristine GeTe due to high  $\kappa_{e/e}$  and relatively low  $S^2\sigma$ . The theoretically

optimized  $n_p$  of GeTe based materials is  $5 \times 10^{19}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. Thus, adjusting  $n_p$  to this "sweet spot" is generally used to effectively regulate the thermoelectric parameters to increase zT value. There are many methods to reduce  $n_p$  in the GeTe system, including experiment-based chemical composition regulation, self-doping, aliovalent element doping, and alloying.

Since the composition of the GeTe compound itself is not strictly 1:1, defects are always inevitable in the process of compound synthesis. Therefore, the carrier concentration can be variable with different experiment conditions and also easily tuned by a Ge-rich environment. These are effective methods to adjust the carrier concentration without introducing a third element. Figure **2.7**b shows the  $n_p$  optimization as a function of experimental-based regulation, excess Ge doping, and other elemental doping. As shown in Figure 2.7b, K.S. Bayikadi reported an insitu vacancy control route using a post annealing process. With post annealing temperatures rising from 800 to 900 °C, the composition of Ge and Te is close to 1:1 with reduced Ge vacancies. The corresponded  $n_p$ decreases from  $9.01 \times 10^{20}$  to  $7.33 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. *zT* value increases from 0.7 to 1.37 at 773 K (Bayikadi et al., 2019). Ge<sub>1+x</sub>Te (x=-0.01-0.04) were designed to investigate excess Ge doping to inhibit the generation of Ge vacancy (Dong et al., 2019). This can decrease  $n_p$  from  $8 \times 10^{20}$  to  $3 \times 10^{20}$ cm<sup>-3</sup> due to the suppression of Ge vacancies. Together with increased mobility due to weakened carrier scattering, the electrical properties of  $Ge_{1+x}$ Te were pushed higher. The *zT* values can be enhanced up to 1.6. Element doping/alloying can reduce  $n_p$  by substituting aliovalent elements or introducing point defects. Srinivasan et al. (Srinivasan et al., 2019a) optimized  $n_p$  to  $6.35 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> with the composition Ge<sub>0.93</sub>Ga<sub>0.07</sub>Te. Shuai et al. (Shuai et al., 2020) reported that transition metal Cr doping in GeTe can reduce the  $n_p$  to  $3.82 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> by decreasing the Ge vacancy formation energy. Liu *et al.* (Z. Liu et al., 2020) observed that the  $n_p$  can be decreased from  $8.63 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> of pristine GeTe to  $2.09 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> of Ge<sub>0.94</sub>Sc<sub>0.06</sub>Te by Sc doping, leading to a significantly increased  $S^2\sigma$  from

10.4  $\mu$ W·cm<sup>-1</sup>·K<sup>-2</sup> to 23.3  $\mu$ W·cm<sup>-1</sup>·K<sup>-2</sup> at room temperature. Co-doping or alloying of two or more elements or compounds can further reduce  $n_p$ . Bu et al. [28] reported that alloying GeTe with 1.5 mol.% Cu<sub>2</sub>Te, 2 mol.% BiTe, and 8 mol.% PbTe can tune the  $n_p$  of GeTe-based thermoelectric materials close to the optimum level of ~5×10<sup>19</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>, leading to a high *zT* of 2.4 at 650 K (Bu et al., 2019). However, point defects induced by doping can decrease carrier mobility ( $\mu_p$ ) and in turn, deteriorate  $\sigma$ . Thus, most peak *zT* values are obtained within the doping range of 0.01 to 0.03 (Nshimyimana et al., 2020; Srinivasan et al., 2019a). Owing to the similar electronegativity between Sb/Bi and Ge, Sb and Bi are widely used as codoping elements to optimize  $n_p$  (Hong et al., 2020; Luo Yue et al., 2020).

The  $n_p$  dependent *S* of Sb and Bi doped GeTe was plotted in **Figure 2.7**c, the optimal  $n_p$  of GeTe is around  $2 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> in Sb/ Bi alloyed GeTe system. With the above optimization strategies of carrier concentration, the *zT* value can be improved due to the improved  $S^2\sigma$  and also largely decreased  $\kappa_{ele}$ .



**Figure 2.7**. (a) The schematic diagram of thermoelectric parameters as a function of carrier concentration, (b) carrier concentration engineering of different methods, and (c) the  $S^2\sigma$  as a function of  $n_p$  of Bi/Sb doped GeTe (Bayikadi et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2021; M. Hong, Y. Wang, et al., 2018; W. D. Liu et al., 2020; Suresh Perumal, Subhajit Roychowdhury, & Kanishka Biswas, 2016; Perunnal, Roychowdhury, Negi, Datta, & Biswas, 2015; Shuai et al., 2020; Shuai et al., 2019; Srinivasan et al., 2019b).

#### 2.5.2. Band engineering

Band engineering as an effective way to regulate electrical transport properties has been investigated by many researchers. As shown in **Figure 2.8**a-b, band engineering can achieve electrical transport properties by increasing band convergence  $N_{\nu}$ , introducing resonant energy, band flatten. For the IV–VI compounds PbTe and SnTe, The Group III elements Ga, In, and TI were reported to have a resonant level effect on IV-VI compounds due to the s-orbital energy level of doping elements are between s-orbital energy level of cation (Pb/Sn) and anion (Te) elements (X. Tan et al., 2018). The schematic diagram density of state of induce in resonant states is shown in Figure 2.8a. This is also suitable for IV-VI compound GeTe. As shown in Figure 2.8c, L. Wu examined the possible distortions of the electronic density of states (DOS) near the  $E_F$  of group IIIA elements (Ga, In, TI) in GeTe. Among them, In shows a large enhancement compared with Ga, TI. Thus, the increased S due to increased  $m^*(Figure 2.8d)$ together with the suppressed thermal conductivity, leads to a reasonably high zT of 1.3 at 628K of  $In_{0.02}Ge_{0.98}$ Te (L. Wu et al., 2017). In co-doping with Sb can also contribute to DOS distortion near the  $E_F$  and result in increased S in turn enhancing the thermoelectric performance (M. Hong, Z. G. Chen, et al., 2018). This is similar to the doping of other IV-VI chalcogenides like TI-doped PbTe (Heremans, 2008), and In-doped SnTe (Q. Zhang et al., 2013). In addition, B. Srinivasan reported that Ga doping induces in an resonant energy level and increase the effective mass  $m^*$ (Srinivasan et al., 2019b), as shown in **Figure 2.8**e.

The Group V elements As/Sb/Bi tend to have weak band convergence effects (X. Tan et al., 2018). The Sb/Pb/Bi doped GeTe is consistent with the theoretical situation of the carrier concentration variation. This indicates the effective mass may not change a lot (Hong, Zou, & Chen, 2019a). **Figure 2.8**b shows that the band structure does not change obviously

compared to undoped GeTe. The experiment results can also clarify this. Cd doping in GeTe can decrease  $\Delta E$  of VBs by inducing an impurity band. This impurity energy level is caused by the Cd\_5s<sup>2</sup> orbitals (M. Hong, Y. Wang, et al., 2018). Zn can also induce a strong band convergence effect in GeTe based materials and cause increased S as displayed in **Figure 2.8**f. D.K. Bhat, mentioned that Zn doping in GeTe can also induce a resonant energy level.



**Figure 2.8**. (a) The density of state diagram of band flattens and the resonant states, (b) the schematic diagram of band convergence, (c) the DOS of In doped GeTe, (d) the *S* of In doped GeTe as a function of carrier concentration  $n_p$ , (e) the effect mass  $m^*$  of Ga doped GeTe changes with doping content, and (f) S as a function of  $n_p$  of Zn and Bi co-doped GeTe
(Bhat & Shenoy, 2020; M. Hong, Z. G. Chen, et al., 2018; Srinivasan et al., 2019b; L. Wu et al., 2017).

#### 2.5.3. Phonon scattering engineering

Unlike the coupling effect of other evaluation parameters of thermoelectric performance,  $\kappa_{lat}$  can be individually adjusted to optimize thermoelectric performance. Many strategies have been used to decrease  $\kappa_{lat}$  (J. Q. Li et al., 2019; Roychowdhury, Samanta, Perumal, & Biswas, 2018; Samanta, Roychowdhury, Ghatak, Perumal, & Biswas, 2017; Siegert et al., 2015; H. Tan et al., 2019; D. Wu, Xie, Xu, & He, 2019). Such as, inducing diverse defects at different levels including point defects which affect highfrequency phonons, dislocations, and grain boundaries, mainly scattering low-frequency phonons. These crystal defects can accelerate the scattering rates of phonon waves, leading to the reduction of  $\kappa_{lat}$  (Z. Chen, Zhang, & Pei, 2018). A low  $\kappa_{lat}$  of 1.1 Wm<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> was achieved in Ge<sub>0.90</sub>Bi<sub>0.10</sub>Te due to collective phonon scattering from mesostructured grain boundaries, nanostructured precipitates, nano-structured defect layers, and solid solution point defects. In addition, the nano precipitate, as one of the low-frequency phonon scattering factors has an important impact on GeTe. The small number of intrinsic nanostructures in CoGe<sub>2</sub> synthesis into uniformity GST ((GeTe)<sub>n</sub>Sb<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>3</sub>) systems as additional precipitates can decrease the thermal conductivity. Therefore, the *zT* values were further enhanced up to 1.9 in the composition of (CoGe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>0.2</sub>(GeTe)<sub>17</sub>Sb<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>3</sub> (Fahrnbauer, Souchay, Wagner, & Oeckler, 2015).

In addition, alloying with other group compounds can effectively work on lattice thermal conductivity by producing the herringbone structure, which called structural modulation. Alloying with AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>/AgSbSe<sub>2</sub> /AgBiSe<sub>2</sub> systems can induce strong alloying scattering to reduce the thermal conductivity (J. R. Salvador, Yang, Shi, Wang, & Wereszczak, 2009; Samanta et al., 2017). As one of the alternatives, In<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>3</sub> alloyed GeTe to decrease the lattice thermal conductivity from 1.8 Wm<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> to 0.9 W m<sup>-1</sup>

K<sup>-1</sup> at 323 K, the 0.05% doped sample shows lower lattice thermal conductivity than the pristine one during the whole temperature area. This decline results from the strong phonon scattering caused by fluctuations both in mass and strain (H. Sun, Lu, Chi, Morelli, & Uher, 2014). The presence of PbTe precipitates strongly influences the thermoelectric properties as it increases the Seebeck coefficient and decreases the thermal conductivity, which collectively gives rise to a maximum *zT* of 0.81 for the composition of (GeTe)<sub>0.82</sub>(PbTe)<sub>0.18</sub> at 673 K.



**Figure 2.8**. (a) Illustration of the different phonon scattering mechanisms (Roychowdhury et al., 2018).

#### 2.5.4. Decoupling electrical and thermal transport properties

In the above, the strategies including carrier concentration engineering, band engineering, and phonon scattering engineering that can effectively optimize the *zT* values are overviewed. However, the element doping method that is used to achieve these strategies can also cause increased coherence of thermal and electrical properties when the doping scale increases for both materials and numbers. This is due to the increased doping scale, including dopant numbers and doping level, which will cause a large energy barrier and increased carrier scattering due to crystal mismatch. Or the electronic bands misalignment. This will affect the carrier

mobility and power factor. Thus, decoupling the electric and thermal transport properties to ensure a high carrier mobility becomes an important role in breaking this trade-off between electrical and thermal transport properties.

Li, N. *etc*. (N. Li et al., 2021) claim the importance of electronegativity in thermoelectric GeTe-based solid solutions and thus provides valuable guidance for designing novel thermoelectric materials. Yu, Y., et al reported the quantum gaps defined by a class of planar defects characterized by nano-potential well can decouple the carrier and phonon transport by selectively scattering phonons while allowing to pass effectively as shown in **Figure 2.9**. The other effective method is that induced in Cu or Cu based alloys can effectively enhance or compensate for the loss of carrier mobility (N. Li et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2021). This can raise a higher *zT* value compare with other elements. Li, N. reported that the Cu based GeTe–I–V–VI<sub>2</sub> solid solutions (GeTe)<sub>0.92</sub>(CuSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>0.08</sub> have achieved *zT* of 1.30 and 1.58 at 773 K higher than Na based GeTe–I–V–VI<sub>2</sub> alloys (N. Li et al., 2021).



**Figure 2.9**. Quantum gap effect of GeTe-based thermoelectric (Yu et al., 2022).

#### 2.6. Summary and Research Gap

In summary, we have reviewed the history of thermoelectric effects, the evaluation method of thermoelectric materials' performance, and the power generation. The figure of merit is mainly used to assess the properties of materials, and when combined with the control of temperature differences, it can determine the efficiency of generation. After that, we conclude the statues of some classic thermoelectric materials studied in the last decades. PbTe, as the extensively investigated material, shows a substantial position in the medium temperature application. GeTe, as another IV-VI chalcogenide, expresses the advanced performance recently eased by the limited utilization of toxic Pb. In addition, we detailed the crystal structure, band structure, and thermoelectric properties of GeTe to analyze the microstructure characteristics of the material itself.

GeTe crystallize in a rhombohedral structure at low temperatures and turns into a cubic structure when the temperature rises to 700K. Due to greater band degeneration and better intrinsic phono-phonon interaction, the hightemperature rack salt structure of GeTe results in a higher zT. As a result, the additional phase transition temperature reduction supports the zTimprovement over a large range of temperatures. Due to the easily formed cation vacancy, pristine GeTe with high hole concentration exhibits a lower Seebeck coefficient, high electrical conductivity, as well as the higher electrical thermal conductivity, which leads to a lower zT value. Consequently, the straightforward way to optimize the performance of GeTe is to decrease the hole density. By increasing annealing temperature, or doping with aliovalent elements like Sb, Bi, can achieve the reduction of carrier concentration effectively. Thus, the power factor was improved result from the decreased electrical conductivity and the increment of Seebeck coefficient. In addition, band engineering through the local distortion of the DOS and valence-band alignment leads to high *zT*. Lattice thermal conductivity reduction has been achieved by strengthening point defect scattering, inducing multi-scale defects. Even if noteworthy efforts have been made for the last few decades to boost the GeTe performance of materials, progress in high-performance GeTe research remains quite slow. In particular, the following research gaps have yet to be addressed:

1) Element doping, as one of the most efficient methods, can regulate both electrical and thermal transport properties. However, the rare earth elements doping in the GeTe system haven't been clarified. Considering the advantages of rare earth elements including large mass and radius which can favor point defect scattering, with high valence (+2, +3, +4) than Ge which can provide electron in GeTe system, local magnetic moment of most rare earth elements may contribute to Seebeck coefficient. The research on rare earth elements doping effect of GeTe is meaningful.

2) The doping limit or solubility of element substitution on GeTe system has been neglected. Carrier concentration tuning and point defect scattering effects rely on the doping content of elements. Thus, increasing solubility may can further modify the thermoelectric performance by strengthening the effect of these strategies.

3) TAGS-85, as one of the important materials, has been widely studied and have achieved good results. For now, the *zT* value of GeTe-based materials is higher than 2.5. Further tuning of TAGS-85 may can lead to new breakthrough that can be used in devices.

4) The *zT* value of GeTe has been increased to higher than 2.7. This is enough for the device application. However, the device design for GeTebased materials is still on the way to be researched. Thus, the device design investigation related parameters and also the suitable modules are important for future directions.

27

# **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGIES**

The research methodologies used in this project are introduced in this chapter. We summarize the experimental methods and data processing approach related to this research project. It includes a detailed introduction to the preparation method of GeTe-based thermoelectric materials, the characterization of crystal structure and microstructure, as well as thermoelectric performance measurement. The methodology flow chart is shown in Figure 3.1.



Figure 3.1. Methodology flow chart.

# 3.1. Synthesis

#### 3.1.1. Preparation of powder samples by melting method

With the continuous development of science and technology, there are various approaches for preparing thermoelectric materials. Conventional thermoelectric materials can be synthesized by melting, mechanical synthesis such as ball milling, hydrothermal, microwave, etc. Among them, the melting method is extensively used to prepare large-scale inorganic thermoelectric materials. Not only due to its advantages of feasibility and low cost, which can easily be synthesized, but also because the thermoelectric materials obtained by the melting method have higher performance. Thus, considering the advantages mentioned above and the feasibility of existing equipment in the laboratory, we decide to use the melting method to fabricate our GeTe system materials.

In this project, we use the muffle furnace to complete experimental synthesis. The particularized procedure for GeTe-based materials synthesis is shown in **Figure 3.2**, the details are: The high purity elemental materials were balanced according to the molar ratio. Then put all these pieces into a quartz tube and sealed with enough vacuum. The starting materials in a vacuum quartz tube into the muffle furnace, sintering for 24 hours at 950 °C, followed by water quenching. Then annealing for 72 hours with temperature 600 °C followed by water-quenching. Finally, carefully smash the quartz tube and take the resulting ingots out, then grind them into powder with agate mortar, and keep them in the properly labeled sample tube for future use.



Figure 3.2. The synthesis process of GeTe-based materials.

# 3.1.2. Preparation of bulk samples by SPS

The resulting samples from powder synthesis need to be compressed into bulk samples for characterization and thermoelectric performance assessment. Herein, we use the spark plasma sintering (SPS), also known as pulsed electric current sintering (PECS) method, to prepare disk materials. The principle of SPS is to obtain high-density block samples quickly by using current heating and pressure assistance. The SPS system configuration is shown in **Figure 3.3**a. It consists of a graphite die that holds the powder, a fixed electrode on the top, and a moving electrode on the bottom where the mechanical load is put, and the current goes through. The SPS system uses pulsed direct current (DC) as the power supply to heat samples which directly pass through the graphite die and the resulting powders to sintering temperature. This heating method favors it to get high density (>90% theoretical density) circular at a lower sintering temperature compared to conventional sintering techniques (Nisar, Zhang, Boesl, & Agarwal, 2021). In addition, the rapid sintering process resists grain size growth which is beneficial for electrical and thermal transport performance.





In this experiment, the high strength graphite die set was used to hold the sample powders. As shown in **Figure 3.3b**, the graphite die diameter was 12.5mm or 10mm with 35mm height, and there is a round hole in the middle of the die that is used to sense the inner temperature by inserting

a thermocouple. Two graphite punches have a size of  $\Phi$  12mm×5mm to keep the powder in the graphite die.

### 3.2. Characterization

In this part, X-ray diffraction (XRD) is used to characterize the phase structure and purity of prepared materials. The composition of the resulting bulk is determined by EDS analysis. In addition, the scanning electron microscope (SEM) and transmission electron microscope (TEM) are performed to examine the microstructure information. The detailed analysis of these characterization methods is listed below.

# 3.2.1. X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

X-Ray diffraction (XRD), as a fundamental technology that can determine the crystal structure information including atomic and molecular structure, as well as the cell parameters is widely used in TE materials analysis. During my research, the phase structure and purity of synthesized materials were indexed by XRD.

The schematic diagram of the principle of XRD based on the Bragg's law is displayed in **Figure 3.4**a. The corresponding equation is

 $2dsin\theta = n\lambda$  (3-1)

where *d* is the inter-planar distance,  $\theta$  is the incident angle,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of an X-ray and *n* is an arbitrary integer. The X-ray can be considered as electromagnetic wave generated by striking a metal target with a high energy electron beam. Then the diffraction pattern can be generated when X-rays interact with periodic atomic structures.



**Figure 3.4**. (a) The principle of XRD, (b) the schematic configuration of XRD instrument (https://letstalkacademy.com/x-ray-diffraction/, https://hust.com.vn/what-is-x-ray-diffraction-xrd.html).

#### 3.2.2. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

The scanning electron microscope (SEM) is a powerful tool to characterize the morphologies of TE materials. In SEM, the surface of the sample is scanned by a focused electron beam to generate signals that contribute to the formation of the image. As shown in **Figure 3.5**a, the high-energy electrons generated from the incident electron beams hit the sample, the signals are formed include secondary electrons (SE), backscattered electrons (BSE), energetic dispersive characteristic X-ray (EDS). Among them, SE and BSE are commonly applied for imaging samples, where SE is used for showing the morphology and topography of samples, and BSE is used for illustrating the contrasts in composition in multiphase samples. The field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, JSM-7001F, JEOL, Japan) was applied to explore the microstructures and composition of the resulting disks. The schematic configuration of SEM is displayed in **Figure 3.5**b.



**Figure 3.5.** (a) The principle of electronic signals released from sample interaction regions in SEM, (b) the schematic configuration of the SEM microscope (<u>https://emil.sites.unlv.edu/the-applications-of-epma-and-sem/</u>, <u>https://www.technologynetworks.com/analysis/articles/sem-vs-tem</u> 331262).

# *3.2.3. High-resolution transmission electron microscope (TEM)*

The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) technique is mainly used to obtain high-resolution images when the electrons interact with samples as the beam transmits through the specimen. As presented in **Figure 3.6**a, the accelerated electron beam is emitted from a filament and then modulated by lenses with respect to the spot size and brightness. The convergence angle and the intensity of the electron beam can therefore be adjusted by the condenser apertures. The signals, received from electron beam hitting samples, are selected and magnified by well--aligned lens system and presented by camera system. There are mainly two types of amplitude contrast, i.e., the mass-thickness contrast and the diffraction contrast, where the former is generated by the different Bragg condition by different crystallography. The schematic configuration of TEM is shown in **Figure 3.6**b. The cystography information of GeTe based materials were

characterized by the high-resolution transmission electron microscope (HR-TEM, Tacna F20, Philips, United States).



Figure 3.6. (a) The principle diagram of the formed signals in TEM imaging,(b) the schematic configuration of TEM(https://www.gatan.com/techniques/4d-stem,https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/physics-andastronomy/transmission-electron-microscopy).

# 3.3. Thermoelectrical Properties

As we have known, the quality of thermoelectric materials depends on their thermoelectric figure of merit *zT* which is determined by Seebeck coefficient (*S*), electrical conductivity ( $\sigma$ ) and thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_{tot}$ ). In this section, the experimental techniques for the above parameters will be introduced in detail. We will outline the principle of the ZEM-3, ULVAC which simultaneously measures the *S* and  $\sigma$ , the thermal diffusivity (*D*) measured by laser flash method (LFA 457, NETZSCH), the Hall system which can determine the carrier concentration, as well as the supported computational information to further analyze these parameters.

# 3.3.1. Electrical transport property

The electrical performance evaluated by Seebeck coefficient (S) and electrical conductivity ( $\sigma$ ) were concurrently recorded by ZEM-3 (ULVAC

Technologies, Inc., Japan) on a cuboid. **Figure 3.7** displays the ZEM-3 unit of Seebeck coefficient and electrical conductivity measuring system.

The electrical resistivity measurement is using the four-probe method, which is respectively distributed on the vertical two probes and the right side parallel two probes. At first, the bulk sample is loaded vertically in the middle of the upper and bottom current electrode, where the current went through. To ensure good contact, the sample surface needs to be smooth. After that, the two parallel thermocouples are set on the right side of bulks in order to detect the voltage. The electrical conductivity  $\sigma$  is calculated form measured electrical resistivity  $\rho$  with a formula  $\sigma=1/\rho$ , where the electrical resistivity is obtained by  $\rho=RS/I$ . The resistance *R* is achieved by the voltage *V* recorded by the right two parallel probes with a known distance I divided by current *I* given by a constant current power supply. *S* represents the cross-section area of the sample.

As shown in Figure 3.7, the whole sample and holders are put in a furnace, the lower block is the temperature setting heater to make a temperature alteration, and the parallel two thermocouples sense the temperature as well as the voltage variation. The Seebeck coefficient *S* is measured by a statistical DC method that measures the temperature gradient  $\Delta T$  from the upper and lower temperatures  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , After that, the thermal electromotive force *dE* is measured between the same two probes on the right side of the thermocouple.



**Figure 3.7**. Schematic diagram of the Seebeck coefficient and electrical conductivity measuring system (ULVAC-ZEM-3) (<u>https://showcase.ulvac.co.jp/en/products/heat-treatment-and-thermal-properties/thermoelectric-evaluation-device/thermoelectric</u> properties/zem-3series.html).

All the samples are prepared for SPS sectioning and polishing. This experiment is conducted in a temperature range from 300K to 800K separated by a temperature difference of 10, 20,30 respectively, with the entire setup under low-pressure helium gas to avoid sample oxidation.



Figure 3.8. Schematic diagram of the Hall system principal.

The Hall coefficient ( $R_H$ ) based on the Van der Pauw technique was utilized to obtain  $n_H$  and  $\mu_H$  through the equations  $n_H=1/(eR_H)$  and  $\mu_H=\sigma R_H$ , where e is the electron charge,  $n_H$  represents carrier concentration, and  $\mu_H$  denotes carrier mobility. **Figure 3.8** shows the principle of the Hall system, a specific magnetic stray field B (1.5T during this research) perpendicular to the direction of current flow I can generate a fixed voltage V<sub>H</sub>, so that R<sub>H</sub> is obtained by V<sub>H</sub>/I. All that is essential in evaluating the thermoelectric efficiency (*zT*) is the straightforward measurement of the resistivity, but additional information on the underlying transport and charging carrier scattering mechanisms is provided by the Hall carrier concentration and mobility.

#### 3.3.2. Thermal transport property

The thermal transport properties in this project were measured by a laser flash diffusivity apparatus (LFA 467, Netzsch, Japan) as shown in **Figure 3.9**a-b, the result of the thermal diffusivity coefficient *D* was obtained. The total thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_{tot}$ ) was calculated by the formula  $\kappa_{tot}=D\times C_{\rho}\times \rho$ , where  $C_{\rho}$  is the specific heat estimated from the Dulong-Petit approximation for heat capacity,  $\rho$  is the density of bulks acquired by applying Archimedes' law displayed in **Figure 3.9**c. To limit emissivity deviation, the sample was covered with a thin graphite layer.



**Figure 3.9**. (a) The mechanism of LFA 467 for the measurement of *D*, (b) the picture of LFA 467 equipment, (c) the schematic diagram of Archimedes' method determining sample density (Arvieu, Cassiopée Galy, Guen, & Lacoste, 2020) (https://analyzing testing.netzsch.com/en/products/thermal-diffusivity-and-conductivity/lfa-467-hyper-flash-light-flash-apparatus).

# CHAPTER 4: THE EFFECT OF RARE EARTH ELEMENT DOPING ON THERMOELECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE

#### 4.1. Introduction

As a promising medium-temperature thermoelectric material, GeTe shows high *zT*. Rare earth elements (REs) have a larger atomic mass (*M*) and radius (*R*) compared with Ge and can induce additional mass fluctuation and strain-field fluctuation, which can correspondingly strengthen phonon scattering to further reduce the  $\kappa_l$ . Correspondingly, in this study, the Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE = Eu, Gd, Er, Tm) was designed to investigate the effect of RE-substitution at the Ge site of GeTe on its thermoelectric performance.

#### 4.2. Publication

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#### 4.3. Conclusion

The RE-doped GeTe with composition  $Ge_{0.98}RE_{0.02}Te$  (RE = Eu, Gd, Er, Tm) was synthesized. RE doping effectively reduces the lattice thermal conductivity and enhances the power factor, which leads to increased *zT* values. However, the doping limit of REs on the GeTe system hinders the further enhancement of *zT* values. Hence, Lu with low electronegativity and a radius difference with Ge shows potential for further reduced lattice thermal conductivity and increased *zT* values. Thus, the Lu and Sb co-doped GeTe system was designed to achieve this purpose.

# CHAPTER 5: CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE

#### 5.1. Introduction

The strength of point defect phonon scattering induced by element doping is evaluated by mass and radius differences between host and guest atoms. Rare earth elements (REs) show both a higher mass and radius difference than other elements and can significantly reduce  $\kappa_l$ . Our previous study has proven that rare-earth elements, Eu, Gd, Er, and Tm, can effectively reduce the  $\kappa_l$  and enhance the average zT of GeTe-based thermoelectric materials. However, due to the large electronegativity difference between rare-earth elements and Ge, the small solubility of rare-earth elements in GeTe limits their capacity for further enhancing thermoelectric performance. Lu with a smaller radius and electronegativity difference than other rare elements, may have a higher doping limit, which can further push the zT value up.

#### 5.2. Publication

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#### 5.3. Conclusion

Lu doping effectively reduces the lattice thermal conductivity from 0.77  $W \cdot m^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$  of GeTe to 0.35  $W \cdot m^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$  of Ge<sub>0.98</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>Te at 673 K, and further induces a high *zT* value of 1.5 in Ge<sub>0.98</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>Te at 673 K. Extra Sb alloying optimizes the carrier concentration from  $1.02 \times 10^{21}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> of Ge<sub>0.98</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>Te to  $1.77 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> of Ge<sub>0.90</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>Sb<sub>0.08</sub>Te, which results in a reasonable power factor of 33.82 µW · cm<sup>-1</sup> · K<sup>-2</sup> and a low electrical thermal conductivity of 0.75 W · m<sup>-1</sup> · K<sup>-1</sup> at 673 K in Ge<sub>0.90</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>Sb<sub>0.08</sub>Te. Correspondingly, a peak *zT* of 1.75 at 673 K and an average *zT* of 0.92 within the temperature range of 303-723 K are obtained in Ge<sub>0.9</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>Sb<sub>0.08</sub>Te. The doping of rare earth elements can effectively optimize the thermoelectric performance of GeTe. In this circumstance, heavy rare earth elements were used in our projects. TAGS-85 as one of the promising GeTe-based alloys, has been used in devices and shows good performance. Considering this, the rare earth element Nd may show potential for further enhancing the *zT* values of the TAGS-85 system.

# CHAPTER 6: RARE-EARTH ND INDUCING RECORD-HIGH THERMOELECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF (GeTe)<sub>85</sub>(AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>15</sub>

#### 6.1. Introduction

As a rare-earth element, Nd as a dopant can affect the transport properties of thermoelectric materials in many ways: (a) Nd doping in TAGS-85 can result in local lattice distortion due to larger atomic size; (b) multielectron Nd<sup>3+</sup> can affect carrier concentration due to different valence electron counts or influence of the chemical bond; (c) different from the large localized magnetic moments of Ce  $(4f^{15}d^{16}s^2)$  and Yb  $(4f^{13}6s^2)$ , Nd  $(4f^{4}6s^2)$ has a small localized magnetic effect, which can induce an interesting change to S. Considering the complex crystal structure of TAGS-85, three cation sites (Ge, Ag, and Sb) can be substituted by Nd compares the formation energy of Nd substitution at different cation sites of TAGS-85. Nd can preferentially substitute for Sb due to the lowest formation energy. Here, we design the sample with a nominal composition of  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.13-x}Nd_{x}Te$  (x =0, 0.02, and 0.04) to optimize the thermoelectric performance.

#### 6.2. Publication

# Research Article

# **Rare-Earth Nd Inducing Record-High Thermoelectric Performance of (GeTe)**<sub>85</sub>(AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>15</sub>

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As a promising midtemperature thermoelectric material with both higher thermoelectric performance and mechanical property, Tellurium Antimony Germanium Silver (TAGS-*x*), written as  $(GeTe)_x(AgSbTe_2)_{1-x}$ , especially  $(GeTe)_{0.85}(AgSbTe_2)_{0.15}$  (TAGS-85), has attracted wide attention. Herein, we innovatively use Nd doping to synergistically decrease the carrier concentration to the optimal level leading to enhanced dimensionless figure of merit, zT. Our density-functional theory calculation results indicate that Nd-doping reduced carrier concentration should be attributed to the enlargement of band gap. The optimized carrier concentration results in an ultrahigh power factor of ~32  $\mu$ W cm<sup>-1</sup>K<sup>-2</sup> at 727 K in Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te. Simultaneously, the lattice thermal conductivity of Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te retained as low as ~0.5 at 727 K. Ultimately, a record-high zT of 1.65 at 727 K is observed in the Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te. This study indicates rare-earth Nd doping is effective in boosting the thermoelectric performance of TAGS-85 and approached a record-high level via synergistic effect.

#### 1. Introduction

Fossil fuel overexploitation and the corresponding environment pollution have called for growing development of sustainable energy-utilization technologies [1]. Thermoelectrics, which can achieve the reciprocal energy conversion between heat and electricity, are one promising candidate [2, 3]. However, the wide commercialization of thermoelectrics is limited by the low thermoelectric energy conversion efficiency, evaluated by the dimensionless figure of merit,  $zT = S^2 \sigma T / \kappa_{total}$ . Here, S is the Seebeck coefficient,  $\sigma$  is the electrical conductivity, and  $\kappa_{total}$  represents the total thermal conductivity (accumulation of electron ( $\kappa_e$ ) and lattice ( $\kappa_l$ ) parts) [4].  $S^2\sigma$  is defined as the power factor to evaluate the overall electrical performance. To enhance zT, both high  $S^2\sigma$  and low  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$  are required. Multiple strategies have been developed to enhance  $S^2 \sigma$  of thermoelectric materials, such as carrier concentration  $(n, n_p \text{ for holes})$  optimization [5, 6], resonance level engineering [7], band convergence [8-10], energy filtering [11], quantum confinement [12], and Rashba effect [13]. Alternatively, hierarchical phonon scattering centers, including point defects, dislocations, stacking faults, dense grain boundaries [14, 15], and phase interfaces, can effectively decrease  $\kappa_l$  and  $\kappa_{total}$  to achieve high *z*T values [16, 17].

IV-VI tellurides (Ge/Sn/Pb-Te) are promising midtemperature thermoelectric materials due to their relatively high zT values [5, 18-21]. For example, PbTe-based thermoelectric material has approached the high zT value of 2.2 at 915 K in PbTe-4 mol.% SrTe with 2 mol.% Na [18, 22]. However, the high toxicity of Pb limits its practical application. Alternatively,  $\kappa_l$  of SnTe is relatively higher which leads to lower zT value of only 1.51 at 800 K [23] comparing with PbTe [18] and GeTe [24]. Therefore, nontoxic and highperformance GeTe-based thermoelectric materials, with the peak zT values higher than 2 [24, 25], have attracted extensive attention. To boost the thermoelectric performance of GeTe with good mechanical property and make it suitable for application, rhombohedral GeTe is alloyed with cubic AgSbTe<sub>2</sub> and forms a continuous solid solution, called as Tellurium Antimony Germanium Silver (TAGS-x,



FIGURE 1: Experimental design and synthesis process. (a) Crystal structure of cubic TAGS-85; (b) calculated formation energy for Nd doping in Ag, Ge, and Sb sites of cubic TAGS-85, respectively; (c) schematic diagram of the experiment preparation process.

written as  $(GeTe)_x(AgSbTe_2)_{1-x}$ , where x ranges from 0.7 to 0.9) [26, 27]. TAGS-85, which can also be written as Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.13</sub>Te, has approached the highest peak zT (zT<sub>max</sub>) of 1.36 at 700 K with good mechanical properties (elastic modulus of 50 GPa and Poisson's ratio of 0.24) [27]. However, the thermoelectric performance of TAGS-85 is still lower than other state-of-the-art thermoelectric materials, such as PbTe [28]. Thus, recent studies of TAGS-85 focus on further improving the thermoelectric performance. Selfdoping achieved by tuning the ratio of Ag/Sb ratio can effectively enhance the  $zT_{max}$  value of TAGS-85 up to 1.6 at 750 K [29]. Levin et al. [30, 31] reported that the large atomic size and localized magnetic moment of rare-earth elements Dy, Yb, and Ce can increase zT values of TAGS-85. For example, 1% Ce and 1% Yb substitution in Te site can boost up S by 16% to  $205 \,\mu\text{V}\,\text{K}^{-1}$  [30], attributed to the localized paramagnetic moment, leading to an enhanced zT<sub>max</sub> of 1.5 at 700 K.

To better understand the influence of rare-earth element doping on thermoelectric performance of TAGS-85, we

selected Nd as the dopant to optimize thermoelectric performance of TAGS-85. As a rare-earth element, Nd as dopant can affect transport properties of thermoelectric materials in many ways: (a) Nd doping in TAGS-85 can result in local lattice distortion due to larger atomic size; (b) multielectron Nd<sup>3+</sup> can affect carrier concentration due to different valence electron counts or influence of the chemical bond [32]; (c) different with large localized magnetic moments of Ce  $(4f^{1}5d^{1}6s^{2})$  and Yb  $(4f^{1}36s^{2})$ , Nd  $(4f^{4}6s^{2})$  has small localized magnetic effect, which can induce interesting change to S [30, 31]. Considering the complex crystal structure of TAGS-85, three cation sites (Ge, Ag, and Sb) can be substitute by Nd (Figure 1(a)). Figure 1(b) compares the formation energy of Nd substitution at different cation sites of TAGS-85. As can be seen, Nd can preferentially substitute Sb due to the lowest formation energy. Here, we design the sample with nominal composition as  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.13-x}Nd_xTe$ (x = 0, 0.02, and 0.04). Figure 1(c) schematically shows the experiment process, where all samples are prepared by



FIGURE 2: Characterization of crystal structure and microstructure morphologies. (a) XRD patterns of as-sintered  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.13-x}Nd_xTe$ (x = 0, 0.02, and 0.04) pellets, (b) backscattered SEM images of corresponding EDS element maps of as-sintered  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.11}Nd_{0.02}Te$ pellet, (c) HRTEM image of as-sintered  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.11}Nd_{0.02}Te$  pellet (inset is the corresponding SAED pattern in [110] zone axis (Z.A.)), and (d) enlarged HRTEM of white square circled area in (c).

melting, quenching, annealing, and spark plasma sintering (SPS). Our results show that Nd doping can effectively reduce  $n_p$  of TAGS-85 close to the optimal level due to band gap enlargement. Correspondingly,  $zT_{max}$  can be boosted to as high as 1.65 in Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te.

#### 2. Experimental Methods

2.1. Synthesis. Polycrystalline Nd-doped TAGS-85 was prepared in the formulae of  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.13-x}Nd_xTe$  (x = 0, 0.02, and 0.04). Precursors, including Ge (99.999%, SigmaDownloaded from https://spj.science.org on February 26, 2023



FIGURE 3: Electrical property of the as-sintered  $\text{Ge}_{0.74}\text{Ag}_{0.13}\text{Sb}_{0.13-x}\text{Nd}_x\text{Te}$  (x = 0, 0.02, and 0.04) pellets. (a) Temperature-dependent  $\sigma$ , (b) room temperature  $n_p$ , (c) temperature-dependent *S*, and (d)  $S^2\sigma$  of the as-sintered  $\text{Ge}_{0.74}\text{Ag}_{0.13}\text{Sb}_{0.13-x}\text{Nd}_x\text{Te}$  (x = 0, 0.02, and 0.04) pellets.

Aldrich, Australia), Te (99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich, Australia), Ag (99.99%, Sigma-Aldrich, United States), Sb (99.999%, Alfa Aesar, United States), and Nd (99.999%, Alfa Aesar, United States), were weighed following the nominal compositions. The weighted precursors were sealed in quartz ampules and heated in 1223 K for 12 hours followed by water quenching. The obtained samples were further annealed at 873 K for 2 days and quenched again. This two-step quenching method is designed to reduce Ge vacancies and inhibit the formation of the second phase, Ag<sub>8</sub>GeTe<sub>6</sub> [33]. The resultant products were further ground into powders and sintered into pellets (SPS, 65 MPa and 673 K) for performance measurement.

2.2. Characterization. The crystal structures of as-prepared samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker, United States, Cu K<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> radiation with a wavelength of 1.5418 Å, 10°  $\leq 2\theta \leq 80^{\circ}$ , step with 0.02°). A field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, JSM-7001F, JEOL, Japan) equipped with energy-dispersive spectrum (EDS)



FIGURE 4: Calculated band structures of pristine TAGS-85 ( $Ge_{19}Ag_4Sb_4Te_{27}$ ) and Nd-doped TAGS-85 ( $Ge_{19}Ag_4Sb_3Nd_1Te_{27}$ ) in (a) low-temperature phase and (b) high-temperature phase.

detector was employed to explore the morphologies and compositions. To further understand the structural information, the  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.11}Nd_{0.02}Te$  sample was characterized by a transmission electron microscope (TEM, Tecnai F20, Philips, United States).

2.3. Thermoelectric Property Measurement. S and  $\sigma$  of the sintered pellets were simultaneously measured by ZEM-3 (ULVAC Technologies, Inc., Japan).  $\kappa_{total}$  is calculated by  $\kappa_{total} = D \times C_p \times \rho$ , where  $C_p$  is the specific heat estimated from the Dulong-Petit approximation [34],  $\rho$  is the pellet densities measured by Archimedes method, the densities are shown in supporting information Table S1, and *D* is the thermal diffusivity coefficient measured by the laser flash diffusivity apparatus (LFA 457, Netzsch, Germany). The Hall coefficient ( $R_H$ ) was measured based on the Van der Pauw technique [35].  $n_p$  and hole mobility ( $\mu$ ) were through the equation  $n_p = 1/(eR_H)$  and  $\mu = \sigma R_H$ , where *e* is the electron charge.

2.4. Density Functional Theory Calculations. Band structures were calculated by using the plane-wave self-consistent field code [36]. A uniform mesh of  $2 \times 2 \times 2k$ -points was used in sampling integrations over the Brillouin zone. The band structures of pristine TAGS-85 and Nd-doped TAGS-85 were calculated based on Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>4</sub>Te<sub>27</sub> and Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>3</sub>Nd<sub>1</sub>Te<sub>27</sub> with the uniform mesh of  $2 \times 2 \times 2k$ -points, respectively.

#### 3. Results and Discussions

Figure 2(a) shows room temperature X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the as-sintered ( $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.13-x}Nd_xTe$ ) (x = 0, 0.02, and 0.04) pellets. All main peaks can be indexed as R-

GeTe (space group R3m) whose structure is a slightly distorted rock-salt structure along the [111] direction [20]. Ge precipitates (purple triangle) were detected as normal due to the nature of easily formed Ge vacancies in GeTe-based thermoelectric materials [37-39]. When the Nd doping level reaches as high as x = 0.04, NdTe<sub>2</sub> (yellow diamond) and NdTe<sub>3</sub> (blue square) impurities can be found. Figure 2(b) shows the backscattered scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image and corresponding energy-dispersive spectrum (EDS) maps of the  $\rm Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.11}Nd_{0.02}Te$  sample. As can be seen, Ge, Te, Ag, Sb, and Nd are homogeneously distributed in the matrix, indicating that Nd has successfully doped into TAGS-85. Figures 2(c) and 2(d) show high-resolution (HR) transition electron microscopy (TEM) image of Ge<sub>0.74</sub>  $Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.11}Nd_{0.02}$ Te pellet along the [110] zone axis (indexed from the selected area electron diffraction (SEAD) pattern as shown in the inset of Figure 2(c)). Figure 2(d) shows its enlarged HRTEM image in the marked square area of Figure 2(c), where the dislocations caused by Nd dopinginduced dense point defects can be clearly observed.

Figure 3(a) shows temperature-dependent  $\sigma$  of the assintered Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.13-x</sub>Nd<sub>x</sub>Te pellets. All samples show degenerated semiconducting behavior, and  $\sigma$  of Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te decreases from 1178.10 at room temperature to 687.45 S cm<sup>-1</sup> at 673 K. With increasing the Nd doping level,  $\sigma$  at room temperature reduces from 1424.45 to 1108.89 S cm<sup>-1</sup>. The observed reduced  $\sigma$  should be attributed to reduced  $n_p$  as shown in Figure 3(b). Figure 3(c) shows temperature-dependent *S* of the as-sintered Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.13-x</sub>Nd<sub>x</sub>Te pellets. With increasing the Nd doping level, room temperature *S* of Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.13-x</sub>Nd<sub>x</sub>Te slightly increases from 92 to 104  $\mu$ V K<sup>-1</sup> due to the reduced  $n_p$ . *S* of Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.09</sub> Nd<sub>0.04</sub>Te can approach as high as 210  $\mu$ V K<sup>-1</sup> at 678 K.



FIGURE 5: Analysis of thermal performance and optimized zT values. (a) Temperature-dependent  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$ , (b)  $\kappa_e$ , (c)  $\kappa_l$ , and (d) zT values of the as-sintered Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.13-x</sub>Nd<sub>x</sub>Te (x = 0, 0.02, and 0.04). (e) Comparison of the obtained  $zT_{\text{max}}$  of Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te with other rare-earth element-doped TAGS-85 [30, 31] and (f) cycle test results for Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te.

Figure 3(d) illustrates temperature-dependent  $S^2\sigma$  of the assintered Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.13-x</sub>Nd<sub>x</sub>Te pellets. An enhanced  $S^2\sigma$  of 32  $\mu$ W cm<sup>-1</sup>K<sup>-2</sup> at 727 K can be observed in Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub> Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te.

To understand the change of electrical transport properties, we calculated the electronic band structure of pristine TAGS-85 (Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>4</sub>Te<sub>27</sub>) and Nd-doped TAGS-85 (Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>3</sub>Nd<sub>1</sub>Te<sub>27</sub>). Figure 4(a) compares the calculated electronic band structures of low-temperature (LT) Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>4</sub>Te<sub>27</sub> and Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>3</sub>Nd<sub>1</sub>Te<sub>27</sub>. After Nd doping, the valence band maximum (VBM) shifts result in changed band gap from indirect to direct type. The band gap increases from 0.18 eV of Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>4</sub>Te<sub>27</sub> to 0.26 eV of Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>3</sub>Nd<sub>1</sub>Te<sub>27</sub>. Nd doping also effectively enlarges the band gap of high-temperature (HT) TAGS-85 from 0.1 eV of Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>4</sub>Te<sub>27</sub> to 0.31 eV of Ge<sub>19</sub>Ag<sub>4</sub>Sb<sub>3</sub>Nd<sub>1</sub>Te<sub>27</sub>, as shown in Figure 4(b). The enlarged band gap of both LT and HT TAGS-85 after Nd doping can well explain the decrease of  $n_p$ .

Figures 5(a)-5(c) show temperature-dependent thermal transport properties of the as-sintered  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.13-x}$ Nd<sub>x</sub>Te pellets. As shown in Figure 5(a),  $\kappa_{total}$  of TAGS-85 slightly decreases after Nd doping. However, with increasing the content of Nd to 0.04, the room temperature  $\kappa_{\rm total}$ increases to 1.76 W m<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>. To better understand the effect of Nd doping on the thermal transport properties of TAGS-85,  $\kappa_e$  and  $\kappa_l$  were further calculated as shown in Figures 5(b) and 5(c).  $\kappa_l$  was estimated by subtracting  $\kappa_e$  from  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$ .  $\kappa_e$  and the Lorenz number (L) were calculated based on the classic single parabolic band model. As can be seen,  $\kappa_e$ decreases from 0.85 to 0.65 W m<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> at room temperature with increasing the Nd content due to reduced  $\sigma$ . With 2% Nd doping,  $\kappa_i$  shows no obvious change. When the Nd doping level further increases to 4% to surpass the solubility limit, the room temperature  $\kappa_l$  increases from 0.70 to 1.11 W m<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> due to additional impurity phases NdTe<sub>2</sub> and NdTe<sub>3</sub> [40]. Figure 5(d) plots temperature-dependent zT values of the as-sintered  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.13-x}Nd_xTe$  pellets and shows increased zT values with increasing temperature. The  $zT_{max}$  value of  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.11}Nd_{0.02}Te$  can reach 1.65 at 727 K. Figure 5(e) compares the  $zT_{max}$  values of this study with previously reported Ce-, Yb-, and Dy-doped TAGS-85 [30, 31]. In our study, Nd tends to substitute the Sb site, which is different from Ce, Yb (Te site), and Dy (Ge site). Different occupation sites can result in various effects on electrical and thermal properties. Thus, Nd doping in the Sb site can decrease both the carrier concentration and thermal conductivity. This results in the highest zT value of 1.65 at 727 K. Figure 5(f) presents the reproductivity of  $Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.11}Nd_{0.02}Te$  in three cycling tests, suggesting high stability of the Nd-doped TAGS-85.

#### 4. Conclusion

In this study, we achieve a record-high zT of 1.65 at 727 K in Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te mainly due to  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$  reduction while maintaining high  $S^2\sigma$ . Reduced  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$  should be attributed to reduced  $\sigma$  due to decreased  $n_p$ . Although reduced  $n_p$  deteriorates  $\sigma$ , reduced  $n_p$  also slightly increases *S*, leading to nearly unchanged  $S^2\sigma$ . Our DFT calculation suggests that reduced  $n_p$  is caused by the Nd doping-induced band gap enlargement. Comparing with other rare-earth elements, Nd is more effective in enhancing the thermoelectric performance of TAGS-85. The Nd-doped TAGS-85 also shows high stability.

#### **Data Availability**

All data required to support this study are presented in the paper and the supporting document. Additional data are available upon request from the authors.

#### **Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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#### **Supplementary Materials**

Figure S1: Hall mobility ( $\mu$ ) of the Nd-doped TAGS-85 at the room temperature. Table S1: the density of as-prepared samples. (*Supplementary Materials*)

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#### 6.3. Conclusion

Rare earth Nd doping in TAGS-85 (GeTe<sub>85</sub>(AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>15</sub>) obtained the highest *zT* values in this TAGS-85 system. In this study, a record-high *zT* of 1.65 at 727K in Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te was achieved due to  $\kappa_{tot}$  reduction and a maintained high  $S^2\sigma$  caused by the reduced  $n_p$ . The rare earth shows great potential for thermoelectric performance enhancement. Other optimization, including increasing the doping limit by tuning synthesis conditions, may strengthen the point defect scattering effect and also make a great contribution to *S* by further reducing carrier concentration.

# **CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

#### 7.1. Conclusion

GeTe thermoelectric materials have been one of the most promising thermoelectric materials in the medium temperature range, with a high zTvalue above 2. The current performance improvement strategies mostly use the doping of common elements, and the influence of the doping of rare earth elements and their own magnetic properties on thermoelectric performance remains to be studied. The reported  $\kappa_{lat}$  still higher than the theoretically minimal  $\kappa_{min}$ , rare earth elements theoretically have the largest mass and strain-field fluctuation effect on point defect scattering, which dominates the phonon scattering of the lattice. This motivates us to investigate the rare earth elements doped GeTe system for the purpose of reducing the  $\kappa_{latr}$  exploring the effect of doping with magnetic momentum elements on the thermoelectric properties of GeTe, providing a forward thrust for the thermoelectric properties of materials to advance the commercialization process, and filling knowledge gaps in elemental doping of thermoelectric materials. This project focuses on rare earth elements doped with GeTe. Firstly, the thermoelectric performance of GeTe-based thermoelectric materials can be significantly enhanced by introducing RE (Eu, Gd, Er, and Tm) substitutions at the Ge site of GeTe. The increased local magnetic moment of REs induces increased  $m^*$  and enhanced S, which correspondingly leads to overall enhanced  $S^2\sigma$  at the entire temperature range. The additional mass and radius fluctuations induced by RE substitutions also effectively increase the  $\Gamma_{EXP}$ , reduce the v, and correspondingly achieve the ultralow  $\kappa_{lat}$  as low as 0.07 W m<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>. Accordingly, the zT values at the entire temperature range are enhanced, leading to an increased  $zT_{ave}$  from 0.38 of pristine GeTe to ~ 0.60 of Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te. Our study demonstrates the effectiveness of RE substitutions at the Ge site in GeTe and can inspire the development of

GeTe thermoelectrics with enhanced thermoelectric properties. The thermoelectric performance of RE-doped GeTe can possibly be further enhanced by Sb or Bi co-doping. Secondly, rare earth Lu doping was conducted to examine the lattice thermal conductivity limited by doping content, and Sb/Bi co-doping was applied to further  $n_p$  optimization. Lu reduces lattice thermal conductivity by condensing point defect scattering. Sb co-doping optimizes the carrier concentration to  $1.77 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. The enhanced figure of merit of 1.75 was obtained for Ge<sub>0.9</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>Sb<sub>0.08</sub>Te at 673 K. TAGS-85 is one of the promising GeTe-based materials that have been used to achieve devices with high efficiency. Rare earth Nd doping in TAGS-85 (GeTe<sub>85</sub>(AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>15</sub>) obtained the highest *zT* values in this TAGS-85 system. In this study, a record-high *zT* of 1.65 at 727K was obtained in Ge<sub>0.74</sub>Ag<sub>0.13</sub>Sb<sub>0.11</sub>Nd<sub>0.02</sub>Te due to  $\kappa_{tot}$  reduction and a high  $S^2\sigma$  due to the reduced  $n_p$ . This is caused by the Nd doping-induced band gap enlargement.

#### 7.2. Contribution

- i. Academic contribution: Firstly, we may solve the remaining problems of thermoelectric materials in GeTe. We may find new ways to optimize efficiency to a higher level, which will push the application of thermoelectric effects. Furthermore, we may enrich the scientific knowledge tree and provide a reference for peers by contributing to the novel material optimization of the thermoelectric material GeTe.
- ii. Commercial benefit: Secondly, improving the figure of merit of GeTe may push the thermoelectric device into diversified thermoelectric products.
- iii. Environment and Energy: Therefore, the wide application of thermoelectric devices can effectively replace some fossil fuels, which will mitigate environmental pollution and energy shortages.

### 7.3. Outlook

With massive efforts and continuously optimized strategies, the above discussion clarifies the great potential of the thermoelectric material GeTe with high zT values larger than 2.5. However, there are still directions in which the GeTe system can make some breakthroughs:

1) Element doping enters the direction of multi-element high-entropy alloys, and the doping of high-entropy alloys is beneficial to optimizing the thermoelectric properties of GeTe in many aspects.

2) The doping of element types and components brings about the reduction of mobility caused by energy barriers and weakens the improvement of the power factor. Therefore, improving carrier mobility by decoupling electrical and thermal transport properties can be an effective way to further increase the *zT* value.

3) The research on material properties has tended to be saturated, and the research on GeTe-based thermoelectric devices is very urgent.

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# **APPENDIX A**

This appendix A is attached as the supporting information (published) for Paper 1 on Chapter 4: THE EFFECT OF RARE EARTH ELEMENT DOPING ON THERMOELECTRIC PROPERTIES OF GETE Supporting Information

#### The effect of rare earth element doping on thermoelectric properties of GeTe

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Key words: GeTe, rare earth elements, lattice thermal conductivity, zT

- 1. Experimental section
- 1.1 Synthesis

Melting and quenching method was mostly used to prepare thermoelectric materials in many systems. Raw materials, including Ge (99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich, Australia), Te (99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich, Australia), Eu (99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich, United States), Gd (99.999%, Alfa-Aesar, United States), Er (99.999%, Alfa-Aesar, United States), and Tm (99.999%, Alfa-Aesar, United States), were weighed following the nominal compositions GeTe and Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm). The mixtures were putted in quartz ampules marked 1 to 5 and then sealed in quartz ampules with high vacuum degree. These mixed-samples were heated in 1223 K at muffle furnace for 24 hours followed by water quenching. After that, the obtained samples were annealed at 873 K for 3 days. The resultant products were further ground into powders in an agate mortar and then sintered into pellets by SPS (Spark Plasma Sintering, 65 Mpa, 673K, 5min) for performance measurement. Thus, the high density (>97%, see Table S1 RE substituted GeTe bulks were obtained.

#### 1.2 Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker, United States, Cu K<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> radiation with a wavelength of 1.5418 Å, 10°≤2θ≤80°, step with 0.02°) was used to characterize the crystal structures of as-prepared samples. The morphologies and compositions of GeTe and Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm) was characterized by Field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, JSM-7001F, JEOL, Japan) equipped with energy dispersive spectrum (EDS) detector.

#### 1.3 Thermoelectrical Property Measurement

Electrical transport properties, including *S* and  $\sigma$ , of the sintered pellets were simultaneously measured by ZEM-3 (ULVAC Technologies, Inc., Japan). Thermal conductivity  $\kappa_{TOTAL}$  is calculated by  $\kappa_{TOTAL} = D \times C_p \times \rho$ , where *D* is the thermal diffusivity coefficient measured by the laser flash diffusivity apparatus (LFA 457, Netzsch, Gemany),  $C_p$  is the specific heat estimated from the Dulong-Petit approximation,  $\rho$  is the pellet densities measured by Archimedes method. The Hall coefficient ( $R_H$ ) was measured based on Van der Paw technique to further analysis the transport properties of GeTe and Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm). The  $n_H$  and  $\mu_H$  were obtained through the equation  $n_H=1/(eR_H)$ , and  $\mu_H=\sigma R_H$ , where *e* is the electron charge.

- 2. Basic characteristics of GeTe and Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm)
- 2.1. Composition and density of GeTe and Ge0.98RE0.02Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm)

As shown in **Table S1**, the composition of GeTe and Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm) was characterized by SEM-EDS mapping.

**Table S1**. The nominated composition, real composition confirmed by EDS mapping result, density and relative density of pristine GeTe and  $Ge_{0.98}RE_{0.02}Te$  (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm) at room temperature.

Nominated	Real composition (by	Density $(a \text{ cm}^{-3})$	Relative density (%)	
composition	EDS mapping data)	Density (g eni )		
GeTe	Ge <sub>1.02</sub> Te	6.0924	98%	
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Eu <sub>0.02</sub> Te	Ge <sub>1.02</sub> Eu <sub>0.008</sub> Te	6.1554	98.8%	
$Ge_{0.98}Gd_{0.02}Te$	$Ge_{1.02}Gd_{0.008}Te$	6.1077	97.8%	
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Er <sub>0.02</sub> Te	Ge <sub>1.02</sub> Er <sub>0.012</sub> Te	6.0546	97.1%	
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Tm <sub>0.02</sub> Te	Ge <sub>1.03</sub> Tm <sub>0.018</sub> Te	6.0991	97.8%	

Figure S1 shows the EDS maps of Ge and Te for  $Ge_{0.98}RE_{0.02}Te$  (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm), where small amount of Ge precipitates can be clearly observed.

RE elements	Eu	Gd	Но	Er
Te Mapping	<u>4μm</u>	<u>4μm</u>	<u>4μm</u>	<u>4µm</u>
Ge Mapping	<u>4μm</u>	• <u>4µ</u> т	<u>4μm</u>	<u>4μm</u>

Figure S1. the EDS mapping result of Ge and Te for Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm).

#### 2.2. Effective magnetic moment

The effective magnetic moment  $(\mu_I)$  of these rare earth elements was calculated below:

$$\mu_J = g_J \sqrt{J(J+1)} \mu_B \tag{1}$$

Where  $g_J$  means Landé factor, J represents total angular momentum,  $\mu_B$  is the Bohr magneton.

As shown in **Table S2**, the REs with unpaired 4f electrons have large local magnetic moment, which can contribute to higher *S* through the magnetic contribution from magnetic atoms.

Rare earth elements	$\mu_J(\mu_B)$	Experimental $\mu_J(\mu_B)$
Eu	0	3.4
Gd	7.94	8.0
Er	9.58	9.5
Tm	7.56	7.3

**Table S2**.  $\mu_J$ , and experimental  $\mu_J$  of rare earth elements Eu, Gd, Er, Tm.

#### 2.3. Electronegativity $(\chi)$ and atomic radius (R) of Ge, Eu, Gd, Er, Tm.



Figure S2.  $\chi$  and R of Ge, Eu, Gd, Er, Tm.

## 3. Electrical transport property

## 3.1. Electrical transport properties

**Table S3**. Electrical transport properties of pristine GeTe and Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm) at room temperature.

Nominated composition	$n_H (10^{21} \mathrm{cm}^{-3})$	$\mu_H ({ m cm}^2{ m V}^{-1}{ m s}^{-1})$	$\sigma$ (S cm <sup>-1</sup> )	S (μV K <sup>-1</sup> )	$m^*(\mathrm{m}_0)$
GeTe	1.45	30	7199	37.2	2.35
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Eu <sub>0.02</sub> Te	1.53	23	6849	43.4	2.82
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Gd <sub>0.02</sub> Te	1.58	18	6211	41.4	2.75
$Ge_{0.98}Er_{0.02}Te$	1.67	17	5494	43.2	2.98
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Tm <sub>0.02</sub> Te	1.49	19	5650	40.8	2.6

# 3.2. Piserokoline relationship



Figure S3. *n* dependent *S* of as-sintered GeTe, and Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm).

4. Lattice thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_L$ ) and electrical thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_E$ ) calculation The lattice thermal conductivity  $\kappa_L$  is estimated by deducting  $\kappa_E$  from measured  $\kappa_{TOTAL}$ :

$$\kappa_{\rm L} = \kappa_{\rm TOTAL} - \kappa_{\rm E} \tag{2}$$

The  $\kappa_E$  is calculated following the Wiedemann–Franz law formula:

$$\kappa_{\rm E} = L\sigma T \tag{3}$$

where L is the Lorenz number,  $\sigma$  represents the electrical conductivity, and T is the absolute temperature. The L is calculated using the following equation proposed by Kim *et al.* based on single parabolic band assumption[1]:

$$L = 1.5 + exp \frac{-|S|}{116} \tag{4}$$

where S is the Seebeck coefficient.

As shown in Figure S4,  $\kappa_{\rm E}$  was reduced with increasing atomic number due to decreased  $\sigma$ .



Figure S4.  $\kappa_E$  of pristine GeTe and Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm).

5. Comparation of  $zT_{ave}$ 

The  $zT_{ave}$  of different element doping in GeTe according to doping content was shown in **Figure S5**. Due to the different synthesis methods, and different  $\chi$  and R of different doping elements, the solid solubility of In, Cr, Cd, Ti, Sc doped GeTe are different, which presents different influence on  $zT_{ave}$ .



**Figure S5**. The  $zT_{ave}$  of single elements doped GeTe [2-6].

6. Theoretical  $\kappa_L$  of Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm)

Element substitution can cause lattice fluctuation and led to a disorder of the crystal matrix, which can be expressed by the Callaway[7] and Klmen[8] model, which has been used by many thermoelectric systems[9-11]. The lattice distribution can be evaluated by  $\kappa_L / \kappa_{L0}$ , which  $\kappa_{L0}$ represents the lattice thermal conductivity of pristine GeTe,  $\kappa_L$  is calculated lattice thermal conductivity of REs substituted GeTe.

$$\frac{\kappa_L}{\kappa_{L0}} = \frac{\tan^{-1}\left(u\right)}{u} \tag{5}$$

$$u^{2} = \frac{\pi^{2} \theta_{D} \Omega}{h v_{s}^{2}} \kappa_{L0} \Gamma_{tot}$$
(6)

where u,  $\Omega$ ,  $v_s$ ,  $\theta_D$ , and  $\Gamma_{TOT}$  are the disorder scaling parameter, the average volume per atom, the sound velocity, the Debye temperature, and the experimental disorder scattering parameter, respectively.  $\Gamma_{TOT}$  can be derived from measured  $\kappa_L$ . Total disorder parameter ( $\Gamma_{TOT}$ ) including strain-field fluctuation ( $\Gamma_s$ ), and mass fluctuation ( $\Gamma_M$ ) was calculated, where  $\Gamma_{TOT} = \Gamma_M + \Gamma_s$ . Where the scattering parameters  $\Gamma_M$  and  $\Gamma_s$  are due to mass fluctuation, and strain-field fluctuation, respectively. For the binary GeTe,  $\Gamma_M$  and  $\Gamma_s$  are given by equal (7-8), where, M1, M2, and M3 are the atomic mass of Ge, REs, and Te, respectively;  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are the atomic radius of Ge and REs, respectively; *x* is the content of RE; and  $\varepsilon$  is regarded as a phenomenological adjustable parameter.

$$\Gamma_{M} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\bar{M}}{\bar{M}}\right) x (1-x) \left(\frac{M_{1}-M_{2}}{\bar{M}}\right)^{2}$$
(7)

$$\Gamma_S = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\overline{M}}{\overline{M}}\right) x (1-x) \varepsilon \left(\frac{r_1 - r_2}{\overline{r}}\right)^2 \tag{8}$$

$$\overline{M} = M_1 x + M_2 (1 - x) \tag{9}$$

$$\overline{\overline{M}} = \frac{1}{2}(\overline{M} + M_3) \tag{10}$$

$$\bar{r} = r_1 x + r_2 (1 - x) \tag{11}$$

The experiment disorder scattering parameter,  $\Gamma_{EXP}$ , can also be calculated by the formula (5-6) with experiment lattice thermal conductivity  $\kappa_L$  of Ge<sub>0.98</sub>RE<sub>0.02</sub>Te (RE=Eu, Gd, Er, Tm). And the experiment  $\Gamma_S$  can be calculated according to the assumption

$$\Gamma_{EXP} = \Gamma_M + \Gamma_S \tag{12}$$

The results and calculation parameters were shown in Table S4 and Table S5

**Table S4**. Room temperature lattice thermal conductivity,  $\kappa_L$ , disorder scaling parameter, u,

d	lisorde	er scattering parameters	$\Gamma_{FYP}$	$\Gamma_M, \Gamma_S$	and a	the strain	field	related	adjustable	parameter	3
		5 5 5 5 5 F 11 5	- EAF,	- 101 9 - 10	,,			1010000		P	-

Samples	$\kappa_L (W/m/K)$	и	$\Gamma_{EXP}$	$\Gamma_M$	$\Gamma_S$	3
GeTe	3.37	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Eu <sub>0.02</sub> Te	2.99	0.67	0.0089	0.0055	0.0034	2.95
Ge0.98Gd0.02Te	2.73	0.91	0.0165	0.0062	0.0102	9.03
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Er <sub>0.02</sub> Te	2.08	1.66	0.0548	0.0078	0.0471	42.58
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Tm <sub>0.02</sub> Te	1.99	1.8	0.0645	0.008	0.0564	51.11

 Table S5. Parameters for phonon modeling calculation.

Parameter	Description	Values

$v_L$	Longitudinal phonon velocity (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	2930
$v_T$	Transverse phonon velocity (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	1780
$v_S$	Average phonon velocity	1967
$ heta_D$	Acoustic Debye temperature (K)	195
${\it \Omega}$	Average atomic volume (m <sup>-3</sup> )	2.708*10 <sup>-29</sup>
$\overline{M}$	Average atomic mass (kg)	1.66*10 <sup>-25</sup>
γ	Grüneisen parameter	1.56

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# **APPENDIX B**

This appendix B is attached as the supporting information (published) for Paper 2 on Chapter 5: CONDENSED POINT DEFECTS ENHANCE THERMOELECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF RARE EARTH LU-DOPED GETE **Supporting Information** 

# **Condensed Point Defects Enhance Thermoelectric Performance of Rare-Earth Lu-Doped GeTe**

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#### 1. Experimental section

#### 1.1. Synthesis

The single doping  $Ge_{1-x}Lu_xTe$  (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04) and co-doping  $Ge_{0.98-y}Lu_{0.02}M_yTe$  ( $M_y = Bi_{0.06}$ , Sb<sub>0.08</sub>) samples were prepared by melting and quenching method. Raw materials Ge (99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich, Australia), Te (99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich, Australia), Lu (99.99%, Sigma-Aldrich, United States), Bi (99.999%, Alfa-Aesar, United States), and Sb (99.999%, Alfa-Aesar, United States) were weighed following the designed stoichiometric ratio. These mixtures were put in quartz ampules and then sealed in quartz ampules with a high vacuum degree. These mixed samples were heated in 1223 K at a muffle furnace for 1 day and then followed by water quenching. After that, the obtained samples were annealed at 873 K for 3 days. The resultant products were further ground into powders in an agate mortar and then sintered into pellets by SPS (Spark Plasma Sintering, 65 MPa, 673 K, 5 min) for thermoelectric performance measurement.

#### 1.2 Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker, United States, Cu K<sub>a</sub> radiation with a wavelength of 1.5418 Å,  $10^{\circ} \le 2\theta \le 80^{\circ}$ , step with 0.02°) was used to characterize the crystal structures of as-prepared samples. The valence state of Ge<sub>1-x</sub>Lu<sub>x</sub>Te (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04) was characterized by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Kratos Axis ULTRA, Kratos Analytical Limited, Japan). The morphologies and compositions of Ge<sub>1-x</sub>Lu<sub>x</sub>Te (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04) and Ge<sub>0.98-y</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>M<sub>y</sub>Te (M<sub>y</sub> = Bi<sub>0.06</sub>, Sb<sub>0.08</sub>) were characterized by a

field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, JSM-7001F, JEOL, Japan) equipped with an energy dispersive spectrum (EDS) detector.

#### 1.3 Thermoelectrical Property Measurement

Electrical transport properties, including the Seebeck coefficient (*S*) and electrical conductivity ( $\sigma$ ), of the sintered pellets were simultaneously measured by ZEM-3 (ULVAC Technologies, Inc., Japan). Thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_{tot}$ ) is calculated by  $\kappa_{tot} = D \times C_p \times \rho$ , where *D* is the thermal diffusivity coefficient measured by the laser flash diffusivity apparatus (LFA 467, Netzsch, Germany),  $C_p$  is the specific heat estimated from the Dulong–Petit approximation,  $\rho$  is the pellet densities measured by Archimedes method. The Hall coefficient ( $R_H$ ) was measured based on the Van der Paw technique to further analyze the transport properties of Ge<sub>1-x</sub>Lu<sub>x</sub>Te (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04) and Ge<sub>0.98-y</sub>Lu<sub>0.02</sub>M<sub>y</sub>Te (M<sub>y</sub> = Bi<sub>0.06</sub>, Sb<sub>0.08</sub>). The  $n_H$  and  $\mu_H$  were obtained through the equation  $n_H = 1/(eR_H)$ , and  $\mu_H = \sigma R_H$ , where *e* is the electron charge.

#### 1.4 Band structure calculation

Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were used to calculate the energy band structure of Lu-doped GeTe. DFT calculations were performed based on a projector-augmented wave method as implemented in the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP) [1–3]. Fully relativistic Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof generalized gradient approximation functional (GGA-PBE) was adopted to tackle the exchange-correlation interactions [4]. A  $3 \times 3 \times 3$  supercell of Ge<sub>27</sub>Te<sub>27</sub> was built and substituted with one Lu element (Ge<sub>26</sub>Lu<sub>1</sub>Te<sub>27</sub>) for calculation simplicity, corresponding to a doping level of 3 mol.%–4 mol.% in GeTe. Then it was sampled by a  $7 \times 7 \times 7$  Monkhorst-Pack k-mesh for relaxation, based on a ve cut-off energy of 450 eV, and a convergence criterion of  $1 \times 10^{-7}$  eV per electron and  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  eV Å<sup>-1</sup> per atom. The band structures were calculated along a line-mode k-path consisting of the Brillouin path features of the AFLOW framework [5].

- 2. Basic characteristics of  $Ge_{1-x}Lu_xTe$  (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04) and  $Ge_{0.98-y}Lu_{0.02}M_yTe$ ( $M_y = Bi_{0.06}, Sb_{0.08}$ )
- 2.1. Composition and density of  $Ge_{1-x}Lu_xTe$  (x=0, 0.02, 0.04) and  $Ge_{0.98-y}Lu_{0.02}M_yTe$ ( $M_y=Bi_{0.06}$ ,  $Sb_{0.08}$ )

As shown in Table S1, the composition of  $Ge_{1-x}Lu_xTe$  (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04) and  $Ge_{0.98-y}Lu_{0.02}M_yTe$  ( $M_y = Bi_{0.06}, Sb_{0.08}$ ) was characterized by SEM-EDS mapping.

**Table S1.** Nominated composition, real composition confirmed by EDS mapping result, real composition confirmed by XPS result, density and relative density of  $Ge_{1-x}Lu_xTe$  (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04) and  $Ge_{0.98-y}Lu_{0.02}M_yTe$  ( $M_y = Bi_{0.06}, Sb_{0.08}$ ) at room temperature.

Nominated	Real composition (by	Real composition		Relative density
composition	EDS mapping data)	(by XPS results)	Density (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	(%)
GeTe	$Ge_{0.98}Te_{1}$	Ge0.97Te1	6.09	99%
Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Lu <sub>0.02</sub> Te	Ge <sub>0.98</sub> Lu <sub>0.01</sub> Te	$Ge_{0.98}Lu_{0.01}Te_1$	6.04	97%
Ge <sub>0.96</sub> Lu <sub>0.04</sub> Te	Ge <sub>0.96</sub> Lu <sub>0.01</sub> Te	$Ge_{0.95}Lu_{0.02}Te_1$	6.07	95%
Ge <sub>0.92</sub> Lu <sub>0.02</sub> Bi <sub>0.06</sub> Te	Ge <sub>0.9</sub> Lu <sub>0.01</sub> Bi <sub>0.06</sub> Te	NA	5.98	93%

Fig. S1 shows the EDS maps of Ge and Te for  $Ge_{1-x}Lu_xTe$  (x = 0.02, 0.04) and  $Ge_{0.98-y}Lu_{0.02}M_yTe$  ( $M_y = Bi_{0.06}$ , Sb<sub>0.08</sub>), where a small amount of Ge precipitates can be clearly observed.

Doping content	Lu <sub>0.02</sub>	Lu <sub>0.04</sub>	Lu <sub>0.02</sub> Bi <sub>0.06</sub>	$Lu_{0.02}Sb_{0.08}$
Te Mapping	5µm	5µm	5µm_	5µm
Ge Mapping	5µm	5µm	5µm	5µm

Fig. S1. EDS mapping results of Ge and Te for  $Ge_{1-x}Lu_xTe$  (x = 0.02, 0.04) and  $Ge_{0.98-y}Lu_{0.02}M_yTe$  ( $M_y = Bi_{0.06}, Sb_{0.08}$ ).

#### 3. Electrical transport property

#### 3.1. Electrical transport properties

The determination of effective mass  $m^*$  in this work is based on the single parabolic band (SPB) approximation with the acoustic phonon scattering [6].

$$m^* = \frac{h^2}{2k_{\rm B}T} \left[\frac{n}{4\pi F_{1/2}(\eta)}\right]^{2/3} \tag{1}$$

$$S = \pm \frac{k_{\rm B}}{\rm e} \left( \frac{2F_1(\eta)}{F_0(\eta)} - \eta \right) \tag{2}$$

$$F_n(\eta) = \int_0^\infty \frac{x^n \, \mathrm{d}x}{1 + \mathrm{e}^{x - \eta}} \tag{3}$$

$$\eta = \frac{E_{\rm f}}{k_{\rm B}T} \tag{4}$$

Where  $k_{\rm B}$  is the Boltzmann constant, e is the electron charge, h is the Planck constant,  $E_{\rm f}$  is the Fermi energy,  $\eta$  is the reduced Fermi energy, and  $F_n(\eta)$  is the n-th order Fermi integral. Based on the measured room temperature Seebeck coefficient (S) and carrier concentration (n),  $m^*$  can then be determined from Eqs. (1–4)."

**Table S2.** Electrical transport properties of pristine  $Ge_{1-x}Lu_xTe$  (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04) and  $Ge_{0.98-y}Lu_{0.02}M_yTe$  ( $M_y = Bi_{0.06}, Sb_{0.08}$ ) at room temperature.

$n_{\rm p} (10^{20} {\rm cm}^{-3})$	$u_{\rm p} ({\rm cm}^2 { m V}^{-1} { m s}^{-1}$	$\sigma (\mathrm{S~cm}^{-1})$	$S (\mu \mathrm{V}  \mathrm{K}^{-1})$	$m^*(\mathbf{m}_0)$
11.2	41	7463	43.5	2.27
10.2	33	5435	48.3	2.37
10.7	27	4608	32.2	1.64
2.7	29	1271	94.9	1.97
1.77	45	1276	106	1.70
	$n_{\rm p} (10^{20} {\rm cm}^{-3})$ 11.2 10.2 10.7 2.7 1.77	$n_{\rm p} (10^{20} {\rm cm}^{-3}) \ \mu_{\rm p} ({\rm cm}^2 {\rm V}^{-1} {\rm s}^{-1})$ $11.2 \qquad 41 \qquad 33$ $10.2 \qquad 33$ $10.7 \qquad 27 \qquad 29$ $1.77 \qquad 45$	$n_{p} (10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}) \mu_{p} (\text{cm}^{2} \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}) \sigma (\text{S} \text{ cm}^{-1})$ $11.2  41  7463$ $10.2  33  5435$ $10.7  27  4608$ $2.7  29  1271$ $1.77  45  1276$	$n_{p} (10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}) \mu_{p} (\text{cm}^{2} \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}) \sigma (\text{S} \text{ cm}^{-1}) S (\mu \text{V} \text{ K}^{-1})$ $11.2  41  7463  43.5$ $10.2  33  5435  48.3$ $10.7  27  4608  32.2$ $2.7  29  1271  94.9$ $1.77  45  1276  106$

# 4. Lattice thermal conductivity $(\kappa_1)$ and electrical thermal conductivity $(\kappa_e)$ calculation

The  $\kappa_l$  is estimated by deducting  $\kappa_e$  from measured  $\kappa_{tot}$ :

$$\kappa_{\rm l} = \kappa_{\rm tot} - \kappa_{\rm e} \tag{5}$$

The  $\kappa_e$  is calculated following the Wiedemann–Franz law formula:

$$\kappa_{\rm e} = L\sigma T \tag{6}$$

where L is the Lorenz number,  $\sigma$  represents the electrical conductivity, and T is the absolute temperature. The L is calculated using the following equation proposed by Kim *et al.* based on a single parabolic band assumption[7]:

$$L = 1.5 + \exp\frac{-|S|}{116} \tag{7}$$

where S is the Seebeck coefficient.

As shown in Fig. S2,  $\kappa_e$  was reduced with the increasing atomic number due to decreased  $\sigma$ .



**Fig. S2.**  $\kappa_e$  of Ge<sub>1-x</sub>Lu<sub>x</sub>Te (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04).

#### 5. Theoretical $\kappa_l$ of Ge<sub>1-x</sub>Lu<sub>x</sub>Te (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04)

Element substitution can cause lattice fluctuation and lead to a disorder of the crystal matrix, which can be expressed by the Callaway [8] and Klmen [9] model, which has been used by many thermoelectric systems [10–12]. The lattice distribution can be

evaluated by  $\kappa_1/\kappa_{10}$ , which  $\kappa_{10}$  represents the lattice thermal conductivity of pristine GeTe,  $\kappa_1$  is calculated lattice thermal conductivity of Lu substituted GeTe.

$$\frac{\kappa_{l}}{\kappa_{l0}} = \frac{\tan^{-1}\left(u\right)}{u} \tag{8}$$

$$u^{2} = \frac{\pi^{2} \theta_{\rm D} \Omega}{h v_{\rm s}^{2}} \kappa_{\rm l0} \Gamma_{\rm tot} \tag{9}$$

where u,  $\Omega$ ,  $v_s$ ,  $\theta_D$ , and  $\Gamma_{tot}$  are the disorder scaling parameter, the average volume per atom, the sound velocity, the Debye temperature, and the experimental disorder scattering parameter, respectively.  $\Gamma_{tot}$  can be derived from measured  $\kappa_l$ . Total disorder parameter ( $\Gamma_{tot}$ ) including strain-field fluctuation ( $\Gamma_S$ ) and mass fluctuation ( $\Gamma_M$ ) was calculated, where  $\Gamma_{tot} = \Gamma_M + \Gamma_S$ . Where the scattering parameters  $\Gamma_M$  and  $\Gamma_S$ are due to mass fluctuation, and strain-field fluctuation, respectively. For the binary GeTe,  $\Gamma_M$  and  $\Gamma_S$  are given by Eqs. (10) and (11), where, M1, M2, and M3 are the atomic mass of Ge, Lu, and Te, respectively;  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are the atomic radii of Ge and Lu, respectively; x is the content of Lu; and  $\varepsilon$  is regarded as a phenomenological adjustable parameter.

$$\Gamma_{\rm M} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\bar{M}}{\bar{M}}\right) x (1-x) \left(\frac{M_1 - M_2}{\bar{M}}\right)^2 \tag{10}$$

$$\Gamma_{\rm S} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\bar{M}}{\bar{M}}\right) x (1-x) \varepsilon \left(\frac{r_1 - r_2}{\bar{r}}\right)^2 \tag{11}$$

$$\overline{M} = M_1 x + M_2 (1 - x) \tag{12}$$

$$\overline{\overline{M}} = \frac{1}{2}(\overline{M} + M_3) \tag{13}$$

$$\bar{r} = r_1 x + r_2 (1 - x) \tag{14}$$

The experiment disorder scattering parameter,  $\Gamma_{exp}$ , can also be calculated by the Eqs. (8) and (9) with experiment lattice thermal conductivity  $\kappa_1$  of Ge<sub>1-x</sub>Lu<sub>x</sub>Te (x = 0, 0.02, 0.04). And the experiment  $\Gamma_S$  can be calculated according to the assumption

$$\Gamma_{\rm exp} = \Gamma_{\rm M} + \Gamma_{\rm S} \tag{15}$$

The results and calculation parameters were shown in Table S3.

Table S3. Parameters for phonon modeling calculation.

Parameter Description		Values
$v_{ m L}$	Longitudinal phonon velocity (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	2930
$v_{\mathrm{T}}$	Transverse phonon velocity (m s <sup><math>-1</math></sup> )	1780
$v_{ m S}$	Average phonon velocity	1967
$ heta_{ m D}$	Acoustic Debye temperature (K)	195
${\it \Omega}$	Average atomic volume (m <sup>-3</sup> )	2.708 × 10 <sup>-29</sup>
$\overline{M}$	Average atomic mass (kg)	1.66 × 10 <sup>-25</sup>
γ	Grüneisen parameter	1.56

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# **APPENDIX C**

This appendix C is attached as the supporting information (published) for Paper 3 on Chapter 6: RARE-EARTH ND INDUCING RECORD-HIGH THERMOELECTRIC PERFORMANCE OF (GeTe)<sub>85</sub>(AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>15</sub>

# Supporting Information

## Rare-earth Nd Inducing record-high thermoelectric performance of (GeTe)<sub>85</sub>(AgSbTe<sub>2</sub>)<sub>15</sub>

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1. Hall mobility ( $\mu$ ) of the Nd-doped TAGS-85

As shown in **Figure S1**,  $\mu$  decreases from 10.8 to 9.3 cm<sup>2</sup>V<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> and then increase to 10.3 cm<sup>2</sup>V<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> at 300 K with adding Nd content, which may attributed to the alloy defect scattering <sup>[1]</sup>.



Figure S1. Hall mobility ( $\mu$ ) of the Nd-doped TAGS-85 at the room temperature.

2. As shown in **Table S1**, high density values were obtained for all samples.

**Table S1.** The density of as-prepared samples.

Composition	Density (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )
$Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.13}Te$	6.3779
$Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.11}Nd_{0.02}Te$	6.4068
$Ge_{0.74}Ag_{0.13}Sb_{0.09}Nd_{0.04}Te$	6.3773

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