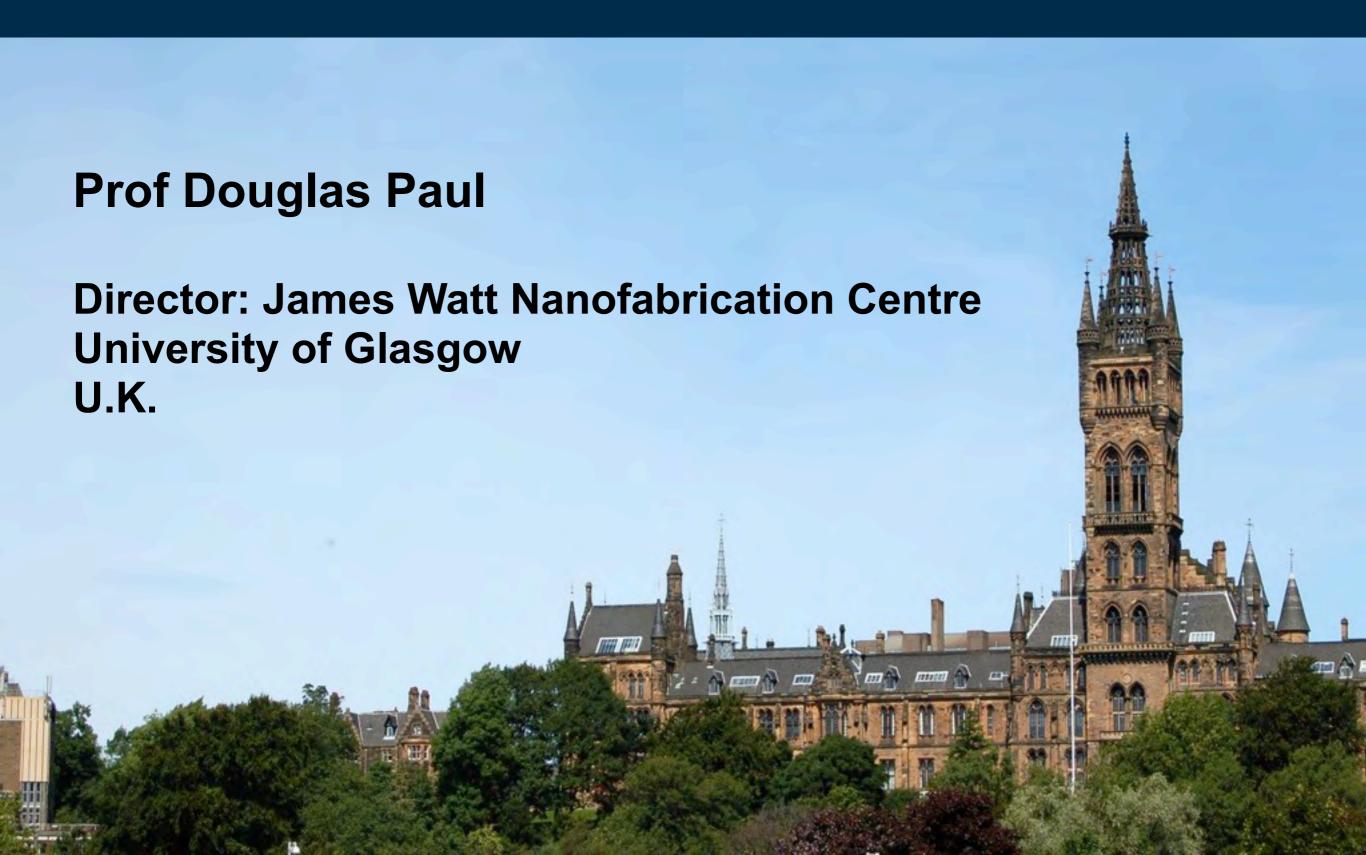


Thermoelectric Energy Harvesting





The University of Glasgow

- Established in 1451
- 7 Nobel Laureates, 2 SI units, ultrasound, television, etc.....
- 16,500 undergraduates, 5,000 graduates and 5,000 adult students
- **£186M** research income pa

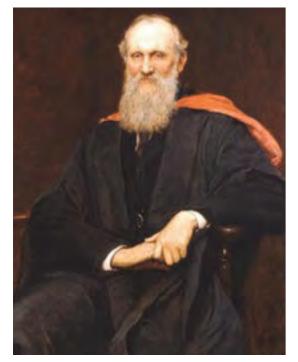


400 years in High Street

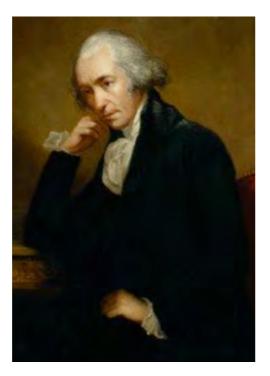
- Moved to Gilmorehill in 1870
- Neo-gothic buildings by Gilbert Scott



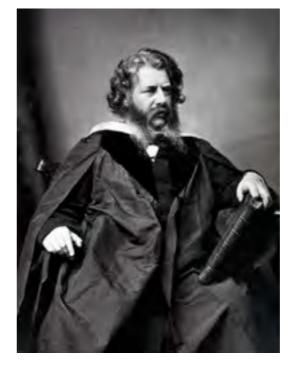
Famous Glasgow Scholars



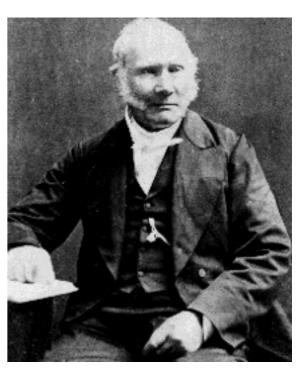
William Thomson (Lord Kelvin)



James Watt



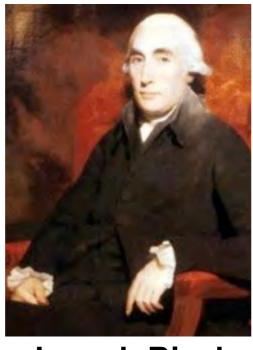
William John Macquorn Rankine



Rev Robert Stirling



Rev John Kerr



Joseph Black



John Logie Baird



Adam Smith



Vistec VB6



E-beam lithography



Süss MA6 optical lith

14 RIE / PECVD / ALD



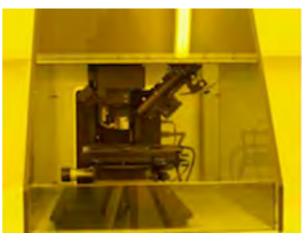
James Watt Nanofabrication Centre @Glasgow

- 900 m² cleanroom pseudo-industrial operation
- 14 technicians + 4 PhD research technologists
- Processes include: MMICs, III-V, Si/SiGe/Ge, integrated photonics, metamaterials, MEMS (microfluidics)
- Part of EPSRC III-V National Facility & STFC Kelvin-Rutherford Facility
- Commercial access through Kelvin NanoTechnology
- http://www.jwnc.gla.ac.uk/

6 Metal dep tools 4 SEMs: Hitachi S4700 **Veeco: AFMs**





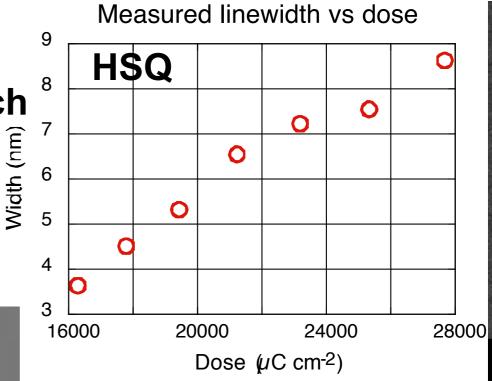




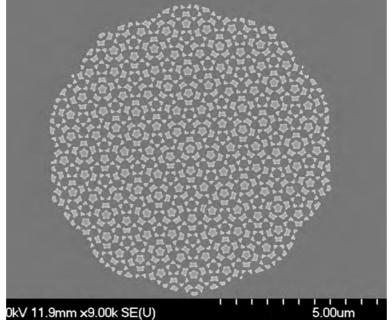
Electron Beam Lithography Capability

30 years experience of e-beam lithography

Sub-5 nm single-line lithography for research



Vistec VB6



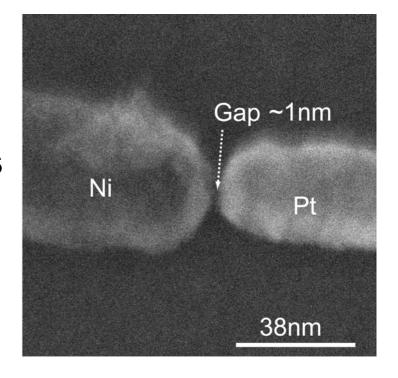
Penrose tile: layer-to-layer alignment 0.46 nm rms



Vistec EBPG5

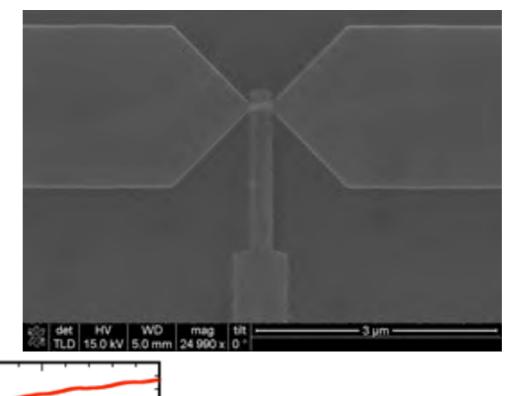
Alignment allows 1 nm gaps between different layers:

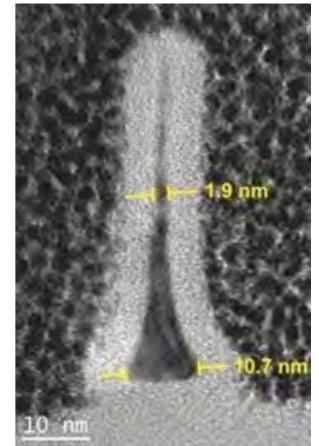
-> nanoscience: single molecule metrology

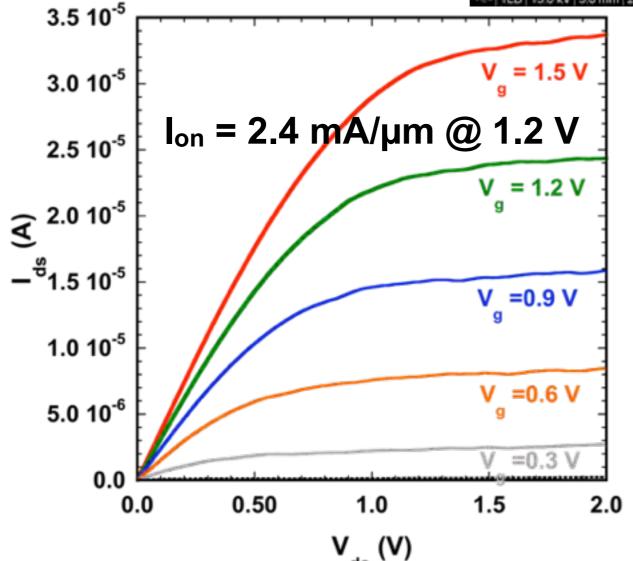


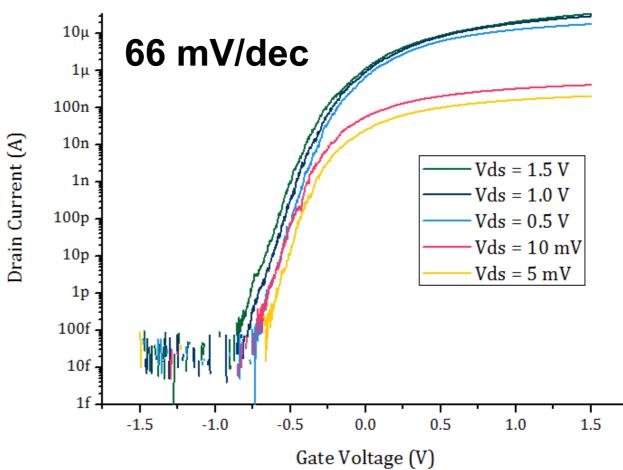
10 nm Width Si Nanowire FET





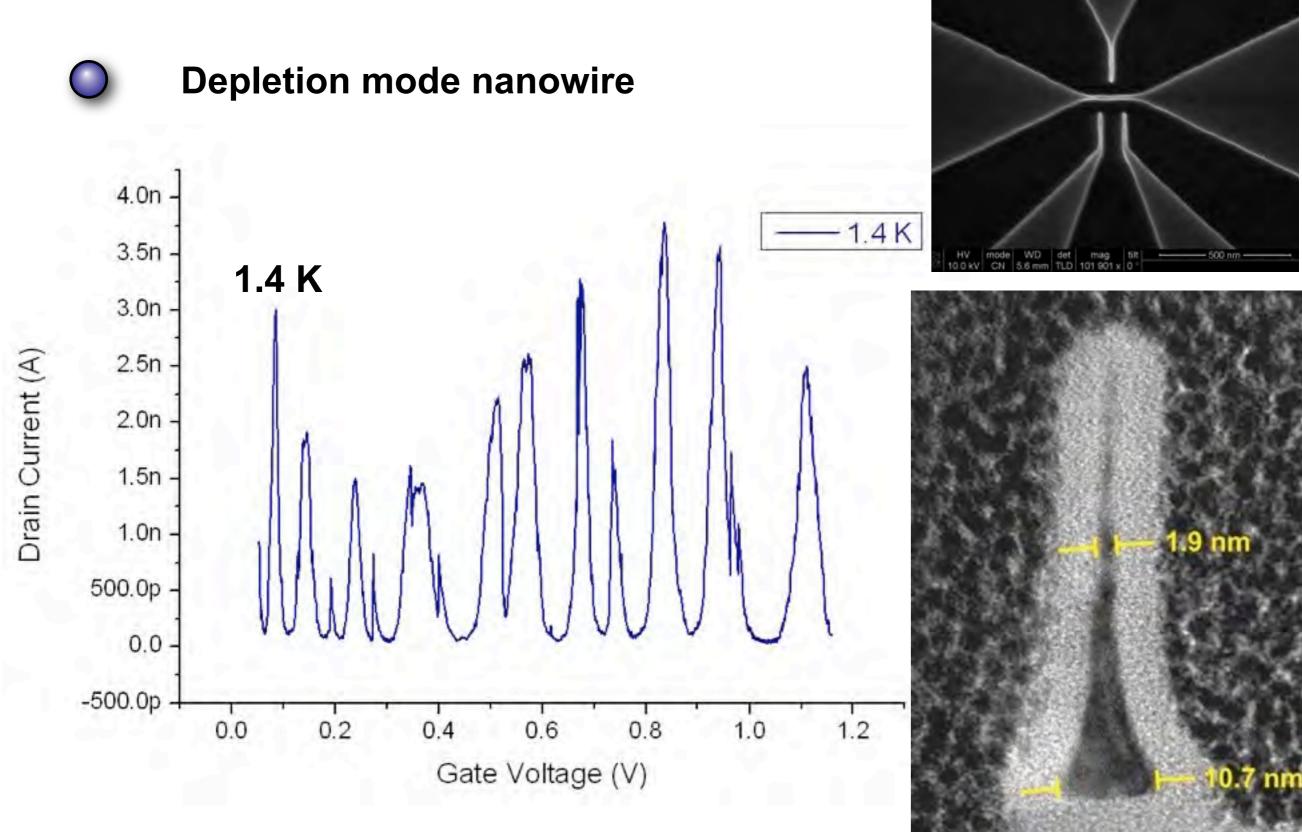






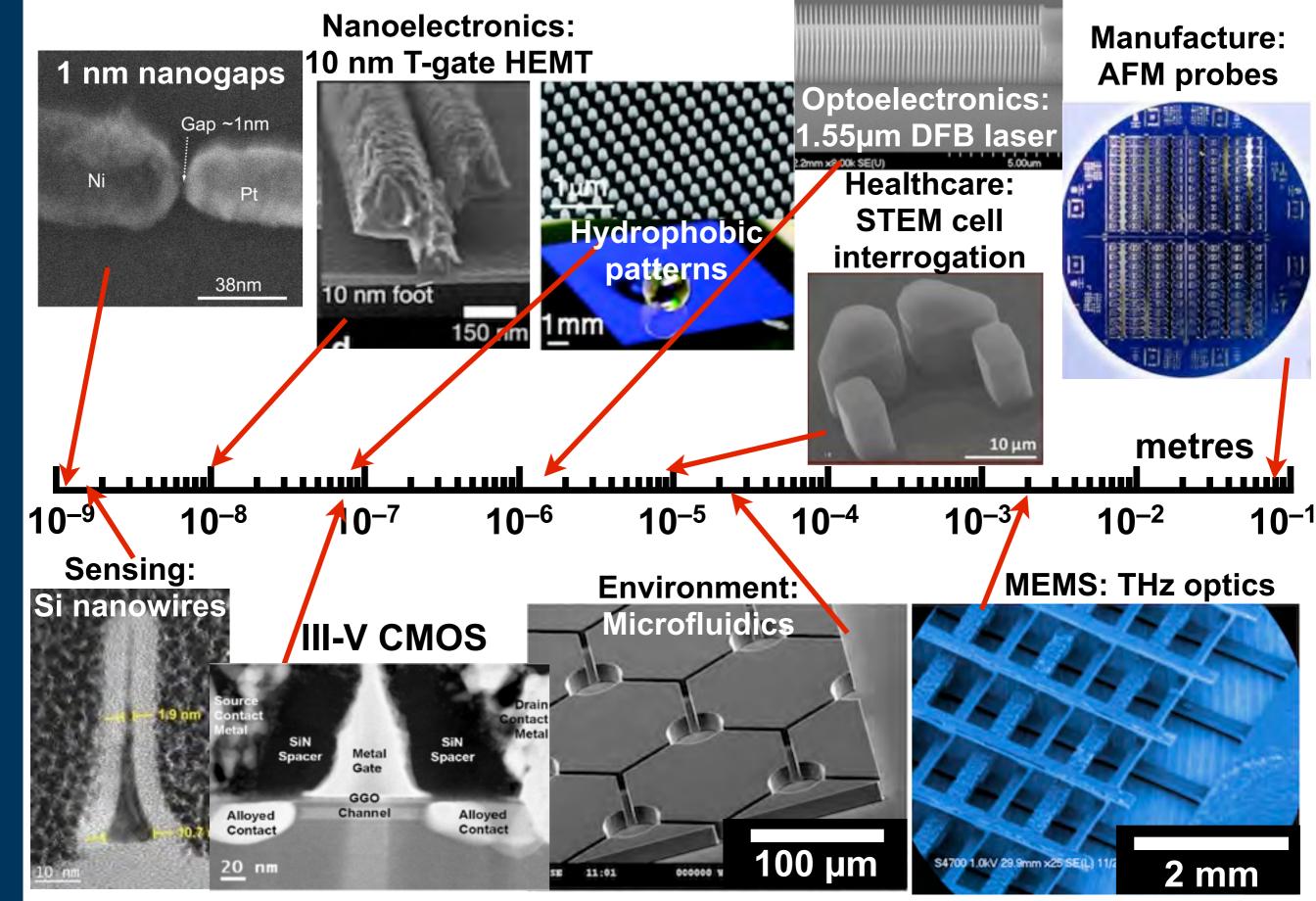


10 nm Wide Si Nanowire SET





Micro and Nanotechnology from Glasgow





Thermoelectrics History

History: Seebeck effect 1822



heat -> electric current



Peltier (1834): current -> cooling

Thomson effect: Thomson (Lord Kelvin) 1852



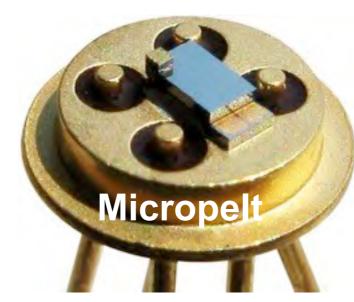


Thermoelectric Applications

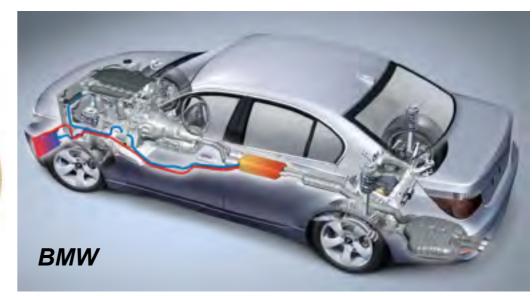
NASA Voyager I & II



Peltier cooler: telecoms lasers



Cars: replace alternator





Temperature control for CO₂ sequestration



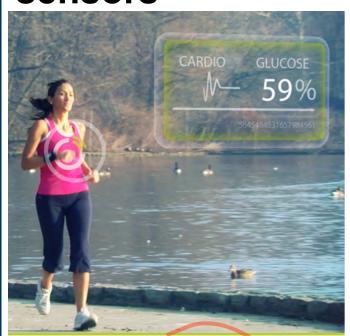


Buildings / industry temperature control – autonomous sensing



Energy Harvesting for Remote Sensing

Sports performance sensors



Energy

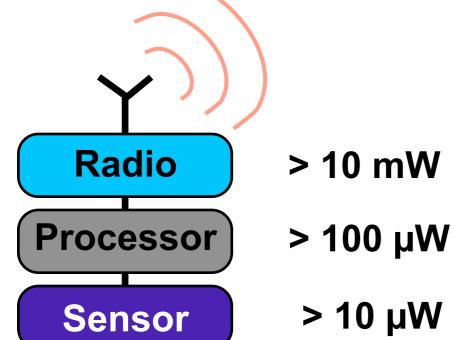
harvester

Flood sensors



Weather monitoring





< 100 µW/cm² !!!



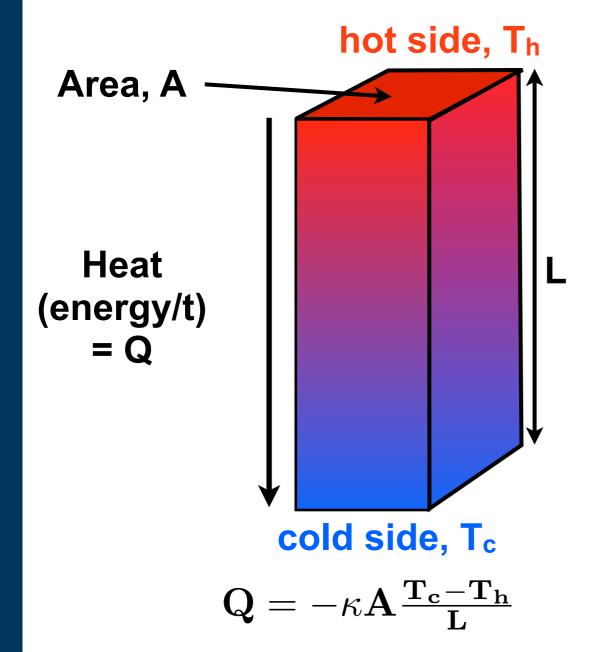
Battery free autonomous sensors: ECG, blood pressure, etc.



Background Thermal Physics

Fourier thermal transport

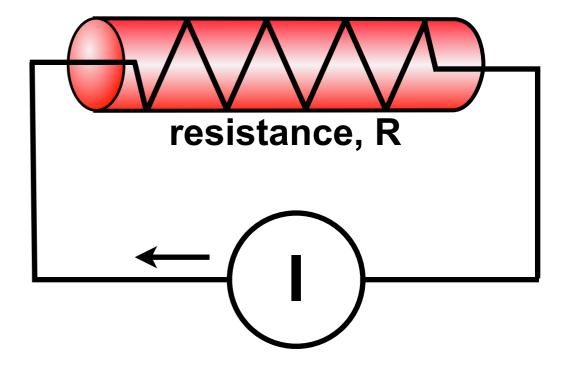
$$\mathbf{Q} = -\kappa \mathbf{A} \nabla \mathbf{T}$$



Joule heating

$$Q = I^2R$$

Q = heat (power i.e energy / time)





Background Physics

Fourier thermal transport

$$\mathbf{Q} = -\kappa \mathbf{A} \nabla \mathbf{T}$$

Q = heat (power i.e energy / time)

 E_F = chemical potential

V = voltage

A = area

q = electron charge

g(E) = density of states

k_B = Boltzmann's constant

Joule heating

$$Q = I^2R$$

R = resistance

I = current (J = I/A)

 κ = thermal conductivity

 σ = electrical conductivity

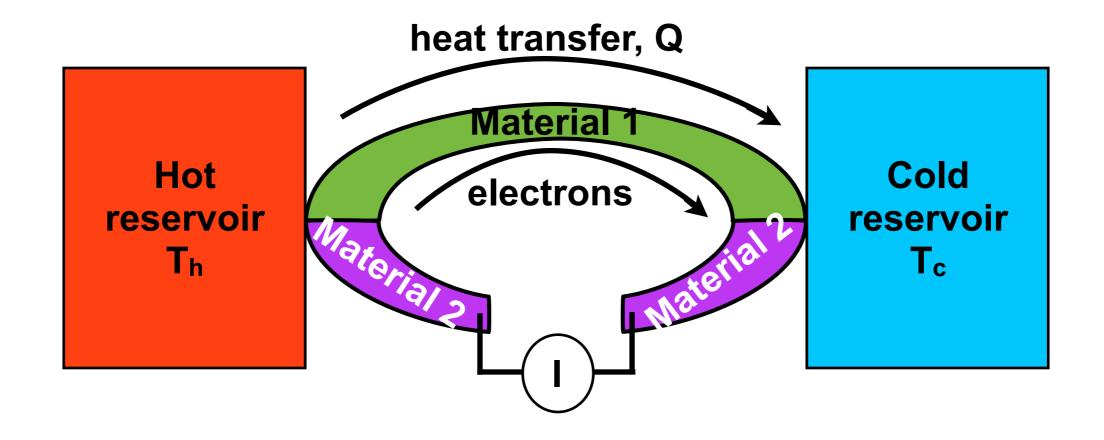
 α = Seebeck coefficient

f(E) = Fermi function

 $\mu(E) = mobility$



The Peltier Effect



Peltier coefficient,
$$\ \Pi = rac{Q}{I}$$

units: W/A = V



Peltier coefficient is the heat energy carried by each electron per unit charge & time



The Peltier Coefficient

Full derivation uses relaxation time approximation & Boltzmann equation

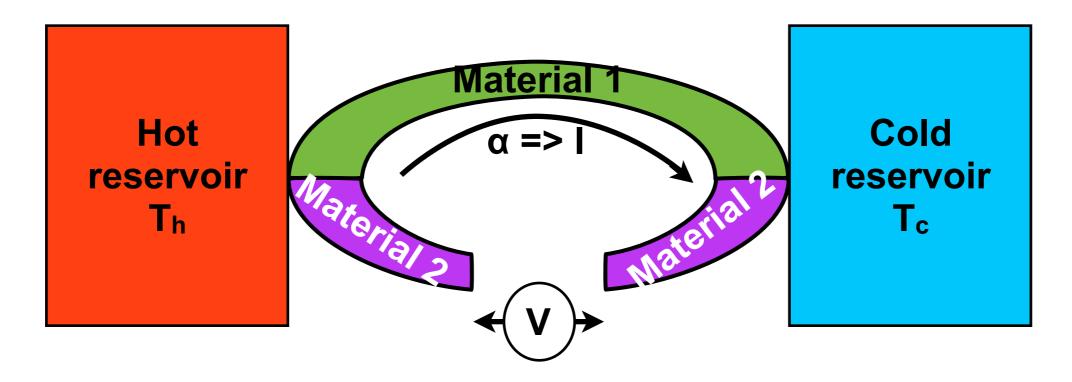
$$\mathbf{O} \quad \mathbf{\Pi} = -\frac{1}{\mathbf{q}} \int (\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}) \frac{\sigma(\mathbf{E})}{\sigma} \mathbf{dE}$$

$$\mathbf{O} \qquad \sigma = \int \sigma(\mathbf{E}) d\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{q} \int \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{E}) \mu(\mathbf{E}) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}) [\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E})] d\mathbf{E}$$

This derivation works well for high temperatures (> 100 K)

At low temperatures phonon drag effects must be added

The Seebeck Effect



Open circuit voltage, $V = \alpha (T_h - T_c) = \alpha \Delta T$

Seebeck coefficient,
$$\alpha = \frac{dV}{dT}$$

units: V/K

Seebeck coefficient =
$$\frac{1}{q}$$
x entropy $(\frac{Q}{T})$ transported with electron

The Seebeck Coefficient

Full derivation uses relaxation time approximation, Boltzmann equation

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\mathbf{qT}} \left[\frac{\langle \mathbf{E}\tau \rangle}{\langle \tau \rangle} - \mathbf{E_F} \right]$$

au = momentum relaxation time

$$\alpha = -\frac{\mathbf{k_B}}{\mathbf{q}} \int \frac{(\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{E_F})}{\mathbf{k_B} \mathbf{T}} \frac{\sigma(\mathbf{E})}{\sigma} d\mathbf{E}$$

$$\sigma = \int \sigma(\mathbf{E}) d\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{q} \int \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{E}) \mu(\mathbf{E}) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}) [\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E})] d\mathbf{E}$$

For electrons in the conduction band, E_c of a semiconductor

The Seebeck Coefficient for Metals

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{f}) = -\mathbf{k_B} \mathbf{T} \frac{\mathbf{df}}{\mathbf{dE}}$$

Expand $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{E})\mu(\mathbf{E})$ in Taylor's series at $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{F}}$

$$\alpha = -\frac{\pi^2}{3q} k_B^2 T \left[\frac{d \ln(\mu(E)g(E))}{dE} \right]_{E=E_F}$$

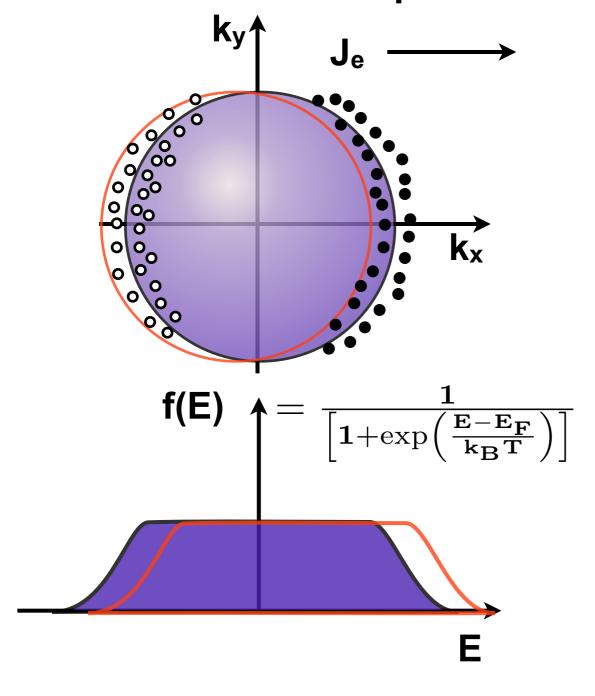
(Mott's formula for metals)

M. Cutler & N.F. Mott, Phys. Rev. 181, 1336 (1969)

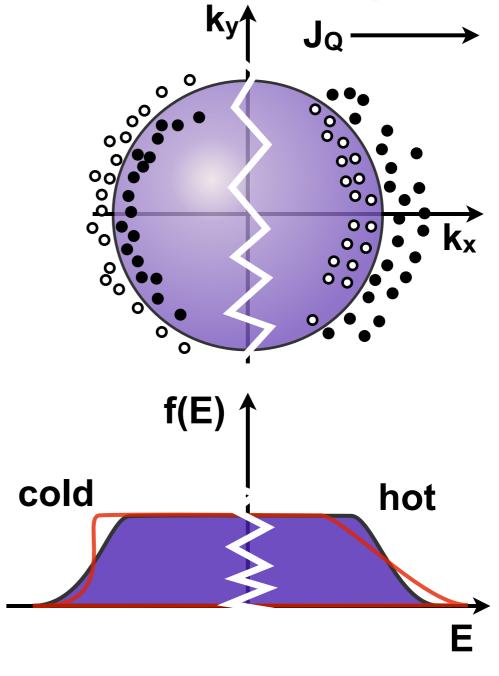
i.e. Seebeck coefficient depends on the asymmetry of the current contributions above and below E_F

3D Electronic and Thermal Transport

3D electronic transport



3D thermal transport



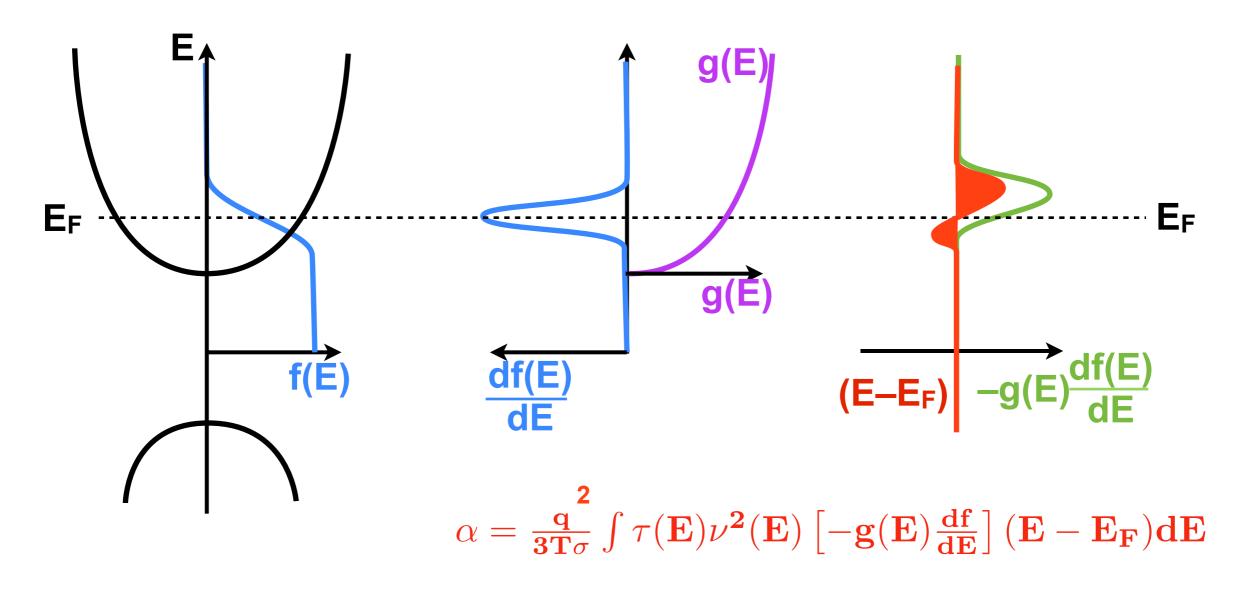


The Physics of the Thermoelectric Effect



If we ignore energy dependent scattering (i.e. τ = τ(E)) then from J.M. Ziman

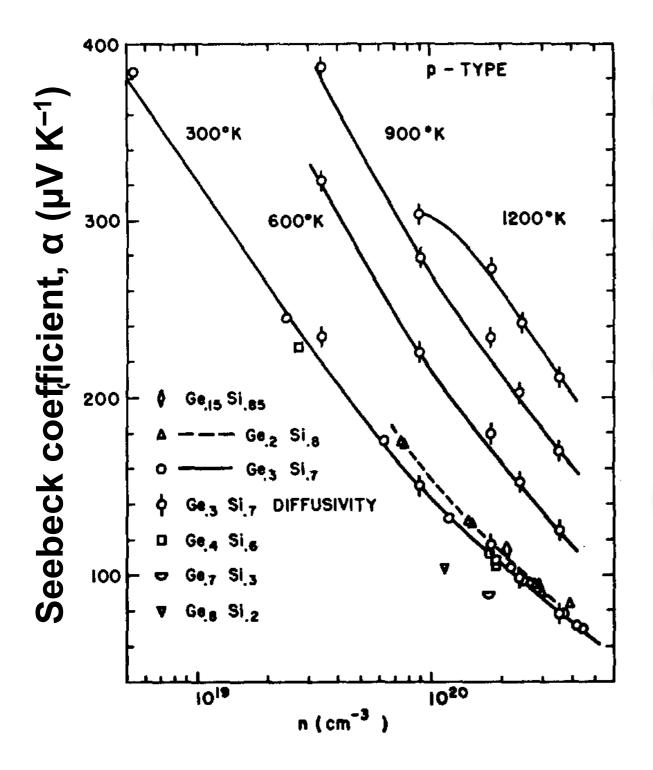
$$\sigma = \frac{\mathbf{q^2}}{3} \int \tau(\mathbf{E}) \nu^2(\mathbf{E}) \left[-\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{E}) \frac{\mathbf{df}}{\mathbf{dE}} \right] \mathbf{dE}$$





Thermoelectric power requires asymmetry in red area under curve

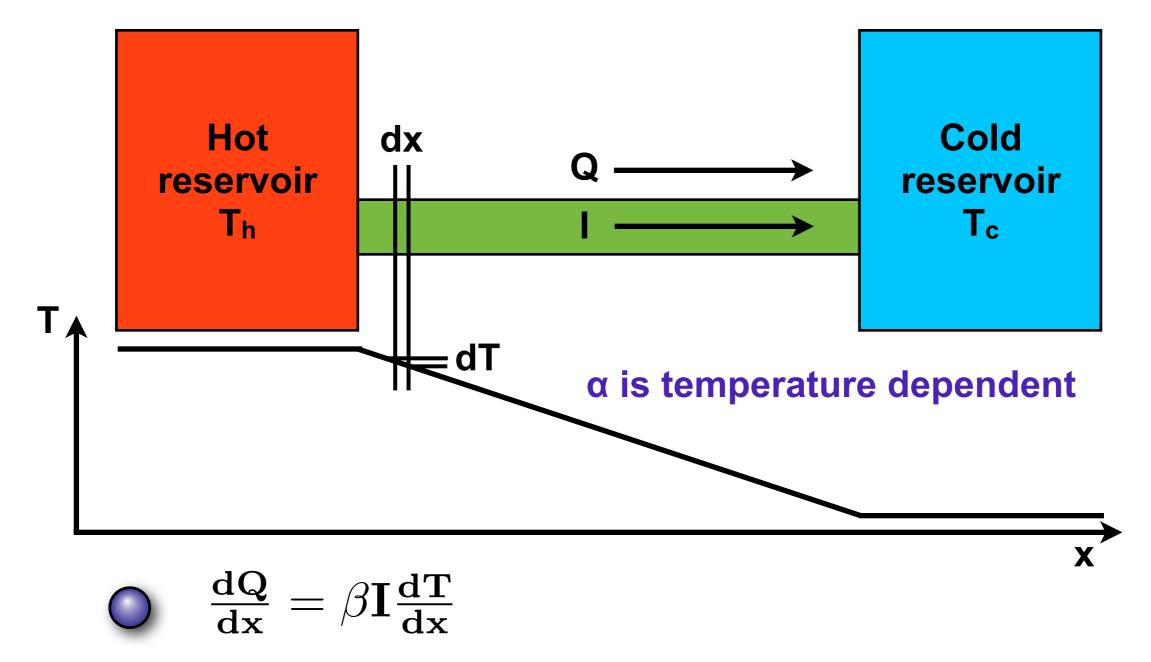
Semiconductor Example: SiGe Alloys



- Mott criteria ~ 2 x 10¹⁸ cm⁻³
- Degenerately doped p-Si_{0.7}Ge_{0.3}
- α decreases for higher n
- For SiGe, α increases with T

$$\alpha = \frac{8\pi^2 k_B^2}{3eh^2} m^* T \left(\frac{\pi}{3n}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

The Thomson Effect



Thomson coefficient, β : $dQ = \beta IdT$

units: V/K

The Kelvin Relationships

Derived using irreversible thermodynamics

$$\Pi = \alpha T$$

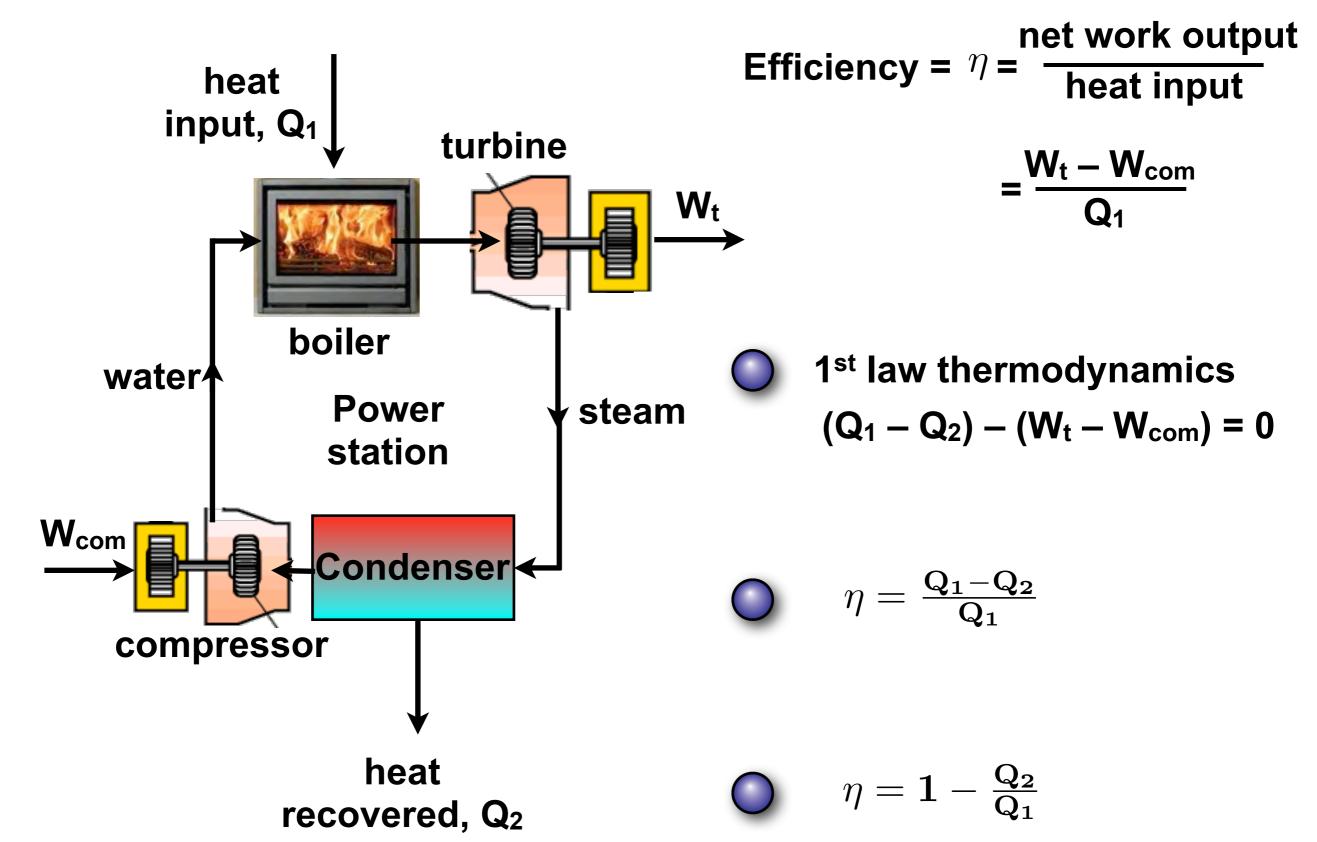
$$\beta = \mathbf{T} \frac{\mathbf{d}\alpha}{\mathbf{dT}}$$

These relationships hold for all materials

Seebeck, α is easy to measure experimentally

Therefore measure α to obtain Π and β

Carnot Efficiency for Thermal Engines



Carnot Efficiency

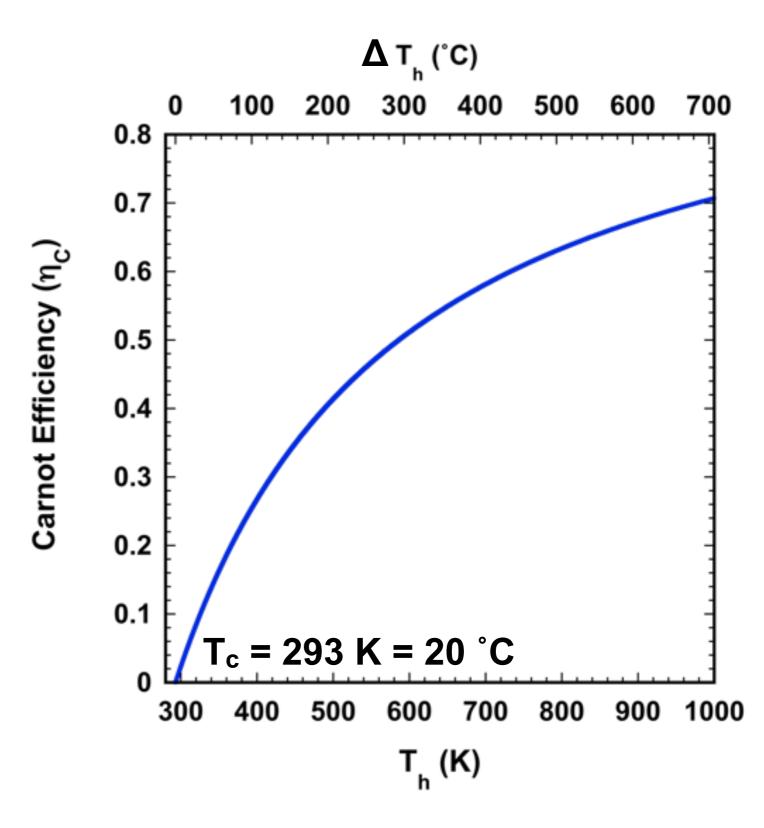
Efficiency =

$$\eta = \frac{\text{net work output}}{\text{heat input}}$$

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{\mathbf{Q_2}}{\mathbf{Q_1}}$$

Carnot: maximum η only depends on T_c and T_h

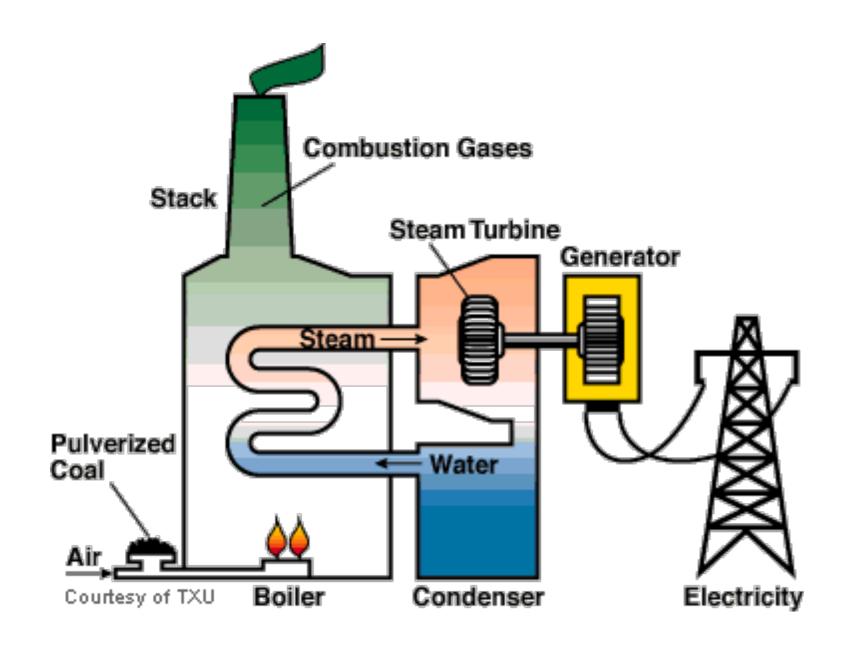
$$\eta_{\mathbf{c}} = 1 - \frac{\mathbf{T_c}}{\mathbf{T_h}}$$



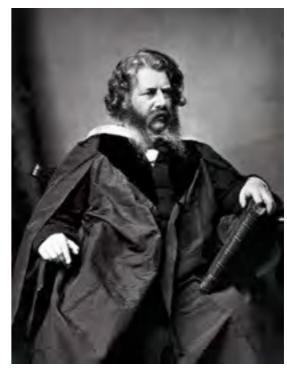
Higher temperatures give higher efficiencies



Energy Conversion: Electricity



The Rankine Cycle

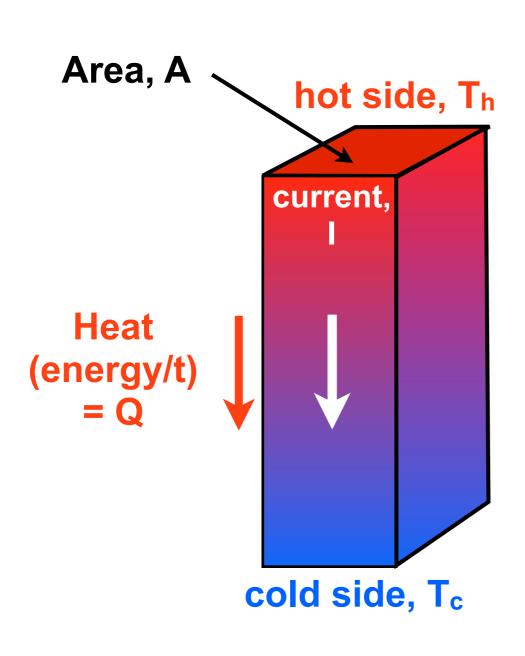


William John Macquorn Rankine

Energy stored in fuel --- heat --- kinetic energy --- electric energy

Peltier Effect, Heat Flux and Temperature

If a current of I flows through a thermoelectric material between hot and cold reservoirs:



Heat flux per unit area = (= Peltier + Fourier)

 $\mathbf{O} \quad \frac{\mathbf{Q}}{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{\Pi} \mathbf{J} - \kappa \nabla \mathbf{T}$

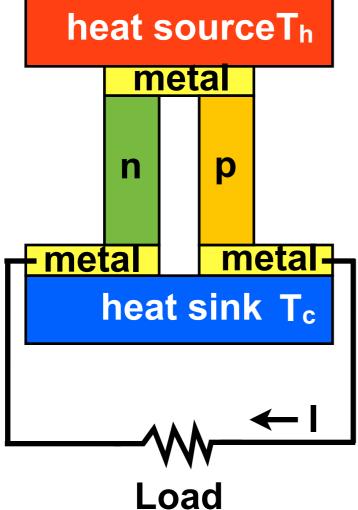
but
$$\Pi = \alpha T$$
 and $J = \frac{I}{A}$

$$\mathbf{Q} = \alpha \mathbf{I} \mathbf{T} - \kappa \mathbf{A} \nabla \mathbf{T}$$

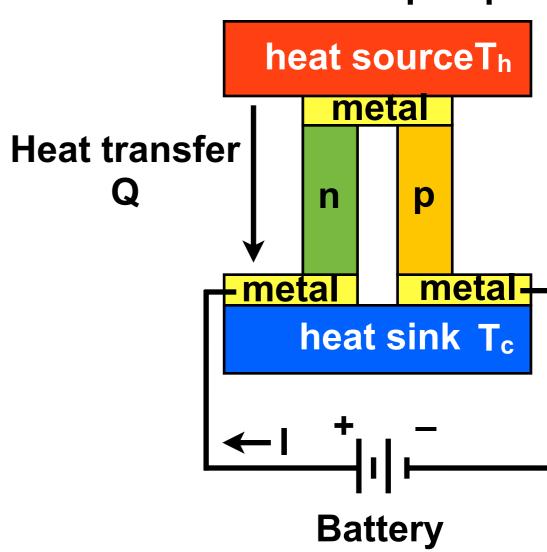


Semiconductors and Thermoelectrics

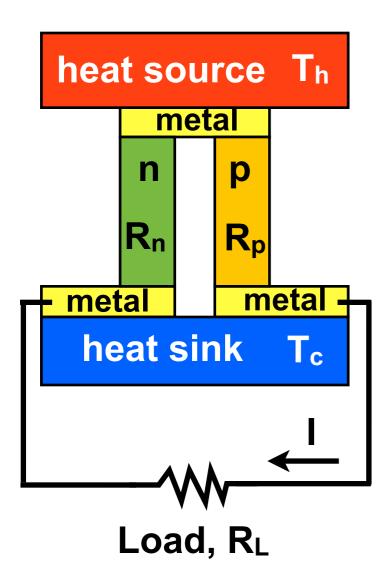
Seebeck effect: electricity generation heat sourceT_h



Peltier effect: electrical cooling i.e. heat pump



Conversion Efficiency



 $R = R_n + R_p$

- $\eta = \frac{\text{power supplied to load}}{\text{heat absorbed at hot junction}}$
- Power to load (Joule heating) = I²R_L
- Heat absorbed at hot junction = Peltier heat+ heat withdrawn from hot junction
- Peltier heat $= \Pi I = \alpha I T_h$
- $\mathbf{O} \quad \mathbf{I} = \frac{\alpha (\mathbf{T_h} \mathbf{T_c})}{\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{R_L}}$ (Ohms Law)
- Heat withdrawn from hot junction $= \kappa \mathbf{A} \left(\mathbf{T_h} \mathbf{T_c} \right) \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{I_c^2} \mathbf{R}$

NB half Joule heat returned to hot junction



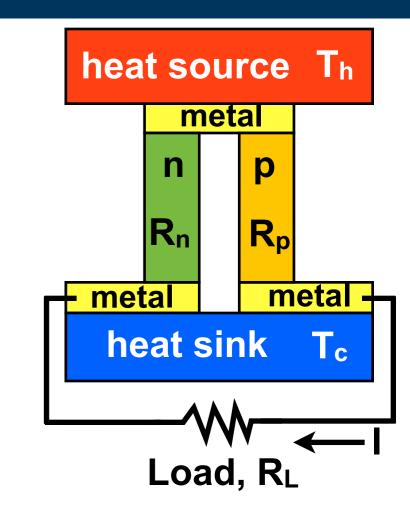
Thermoelectric Conversion Efficiency

- - = power supplied to load Peltier + heat withdrawn

$$\eta = \frac{\mathbf{I^2 R_L}}{\alpha \mathbf{I T_h} + \kappa \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{T_h} - \mathbf{T_c}) - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{I^2 R}}$$



$$\eta_{ extbf{max}} = rac{ extbf{T}_{ extbf{h}} - extbf{T}_{ extbf{c}}}{ extbf{T}_{ extbf{h}}} \, rac{\sqrt{1 + extbf{Z} extbf{T}} - 1}{\sqrt{1 + extbf{Z} extbf{T}} + rac{ extbf{T}_{ extbf{c}}}{ extbf{T}_{ extbf{h}}}}$$



$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{T_h} + \mathbf{T_c})$$

where
$$\mathbf{Z} = rac{lpha^2}{\mathbf{R}\kappa\mathbf{A}} = rac{lpha^2\sigma}{\kappa}$$

= Carnot x Joule losses and irreversible processes



Thermoelectric Power Generating Efficiency

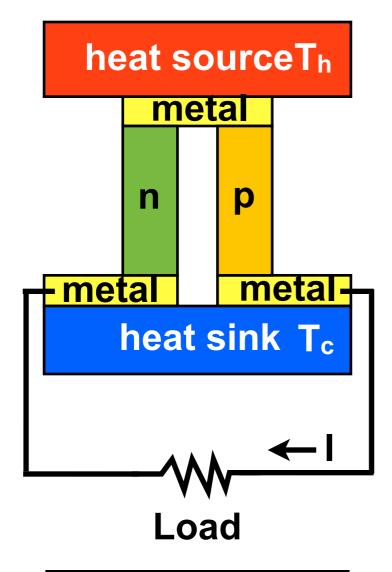
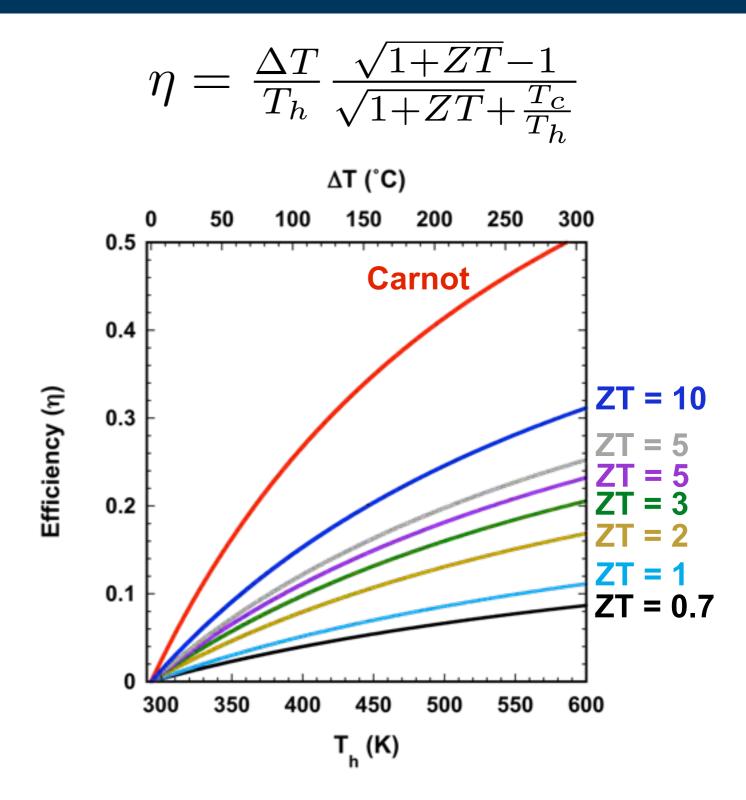


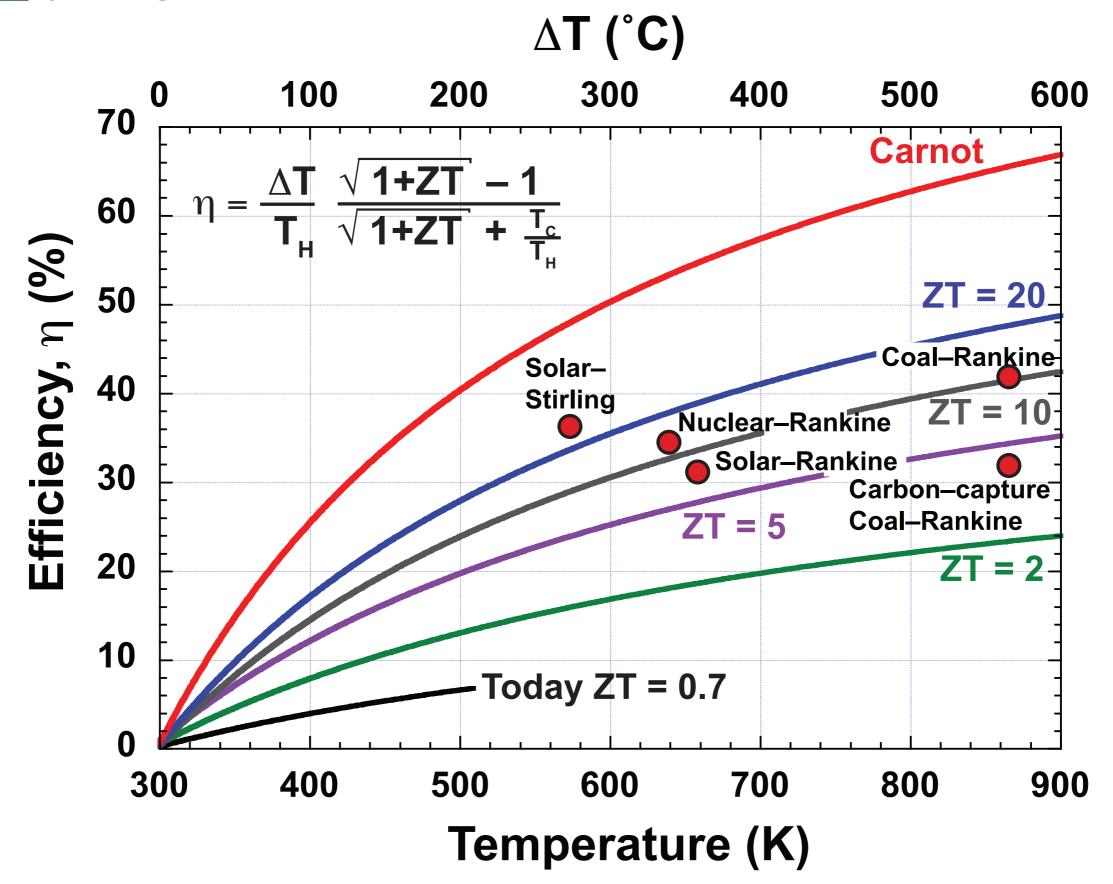
Figure of merit
$$\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{T}=rac{lpha^{\mathbf{2}}\sigma}{\kappa}\mathbf{T}$$



Power factor = $\alpha^2 \sigma$

Impedance matching and maximum power point tracking are key for thermoelectrics

Thermodynamic Efficiency





Energy Quality

Hig	hest	Qual	lity
		•	

Electromagnetic

Mechanical (kinetic)

Photon (light)

Chemical

Heat (thermal)

Lowest Quality

First proposed as availability by Kelvin in 1851 refined by Ohta

Energy quality describes the ease (i.e. η) with which energy can be transformed

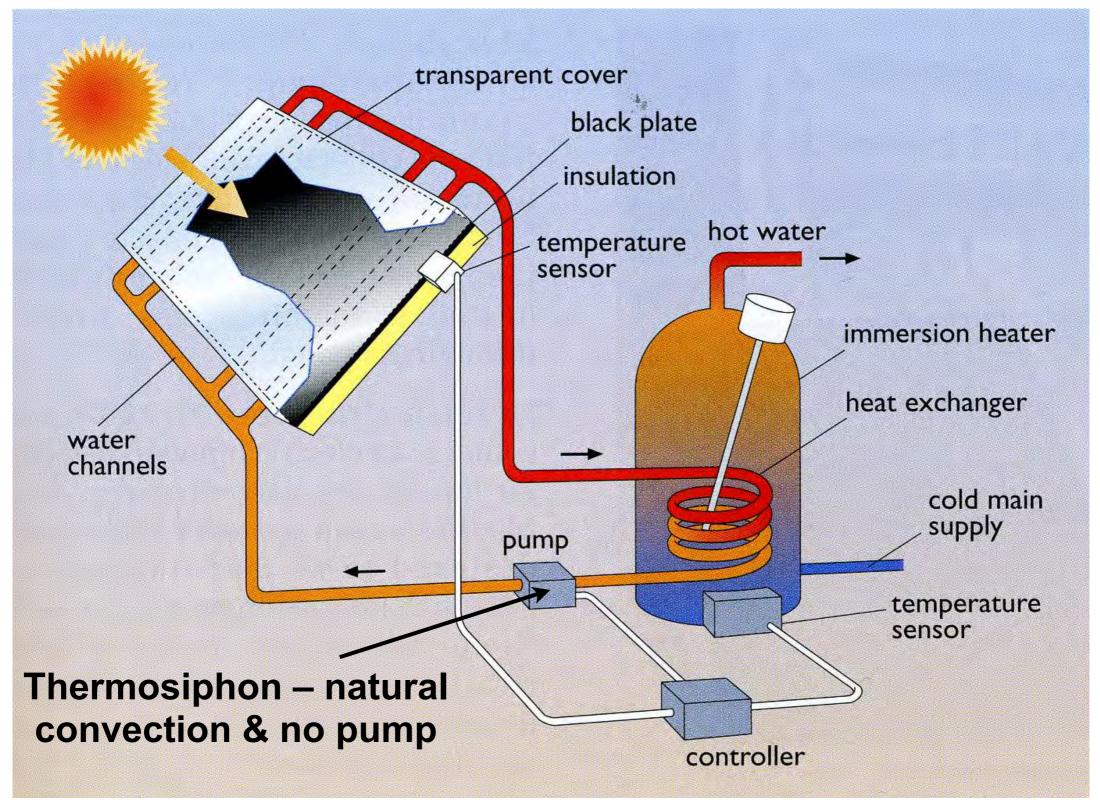
A transition down the table will be more efficient than moving up the table

Therefore solar heating is more efficient than photovoltaic electrical generation

Expanded version from chemistry developed by Odum



Solar Thermal Water Heating System





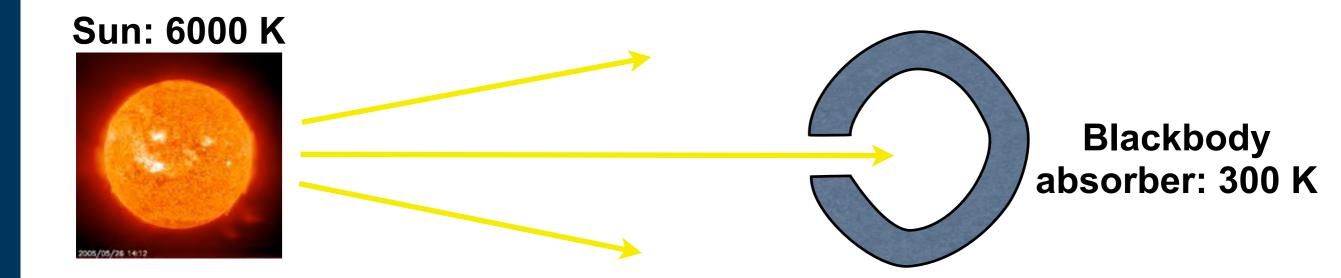
46% to 74% η for solar energy -> heat conversion are typical



Carnot Limit for Radiative Absorption



Thermal limit i.e. heating for the sun as a 6000 K black body emitter with a 300 K solar cell black body absorber

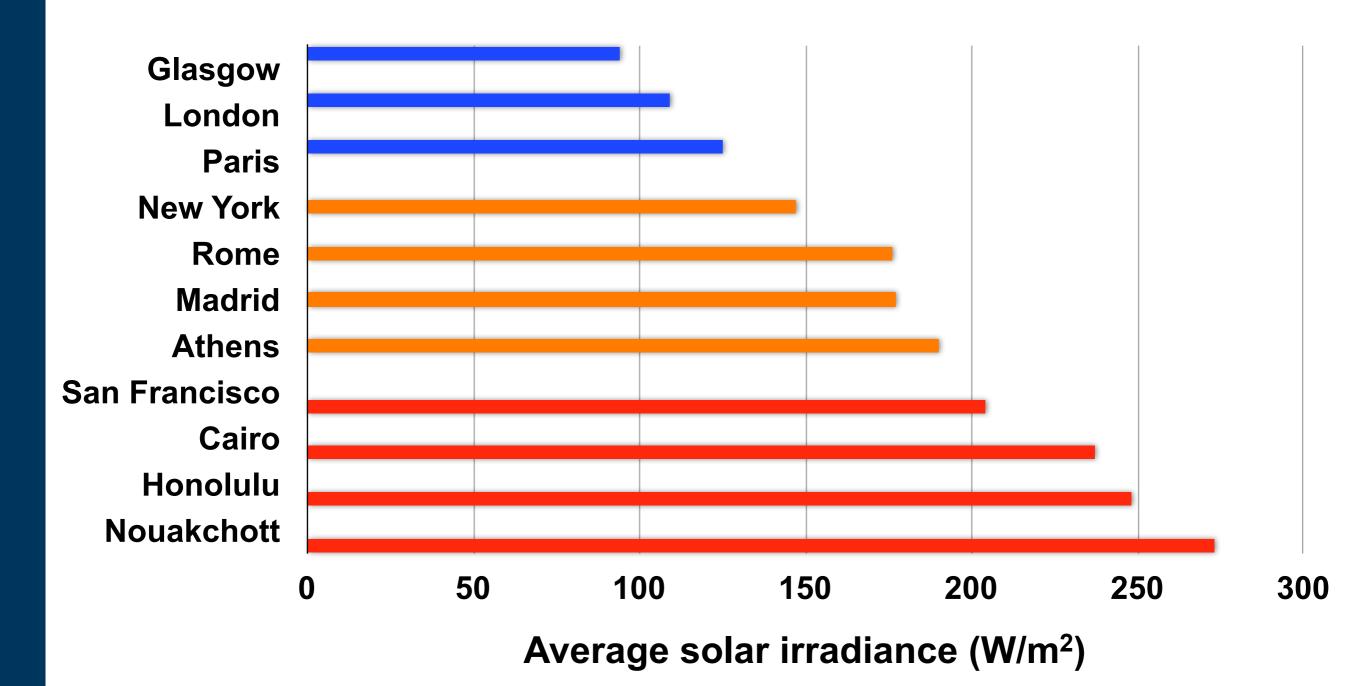




Actual efficiencies for a room temperature absorber are < 85%

How Much Continuous Solar Energy?

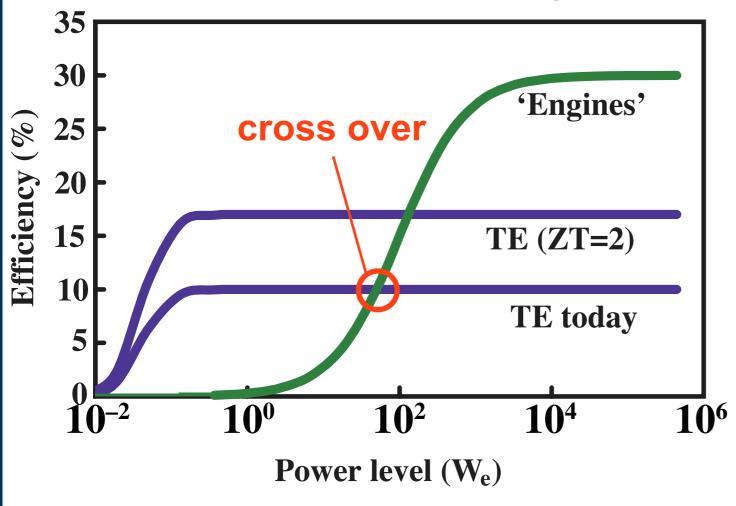
- Due to clouds, day/night & seasons, average energy << peak energy</p>
- Available energy needs to be averaged over 365 days and 24 hours





Power Generation From Macro to Micro

Illustrative schematic diagram



At large scale, thermodynamic engines more efficient than TE

ZT average for both n and p over all temperature range

Diagram assumes high ΔT

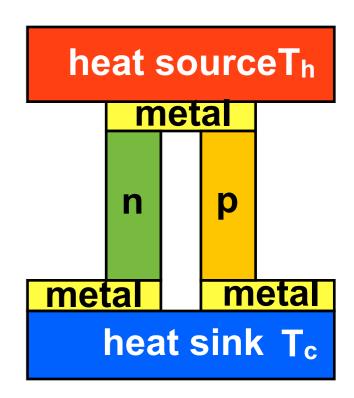
At the mm and µm scale with powers << 1W, thermoelectrics are more efficient than thermodynamic engines (Reynolds no. etc..)



Maximum Temperature Drop

- As the system has thermal conductivity κ a maximum ΔT can be sustained across a module limited by heat transport
- $\mathbf{O} \quad \mathbf{\Delta} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{max}} = \tfrac{1}{2} \mathbf{Z} \mathrm{T}_{\mathbf{c}}^{\mathbf{2}}$

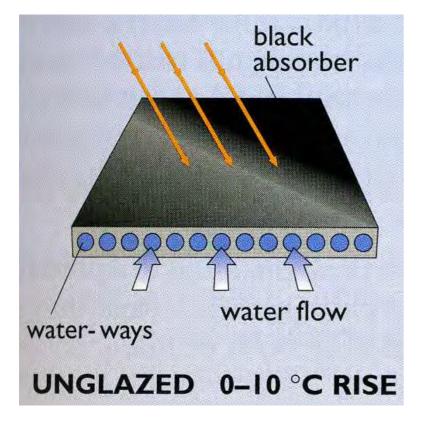
- The efficiency cannot be increased indefinitely by increasing T_h
- The thermal conductivity also limits maximum ΔT in Peltier coolers

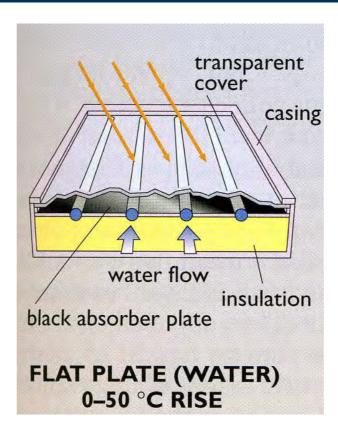


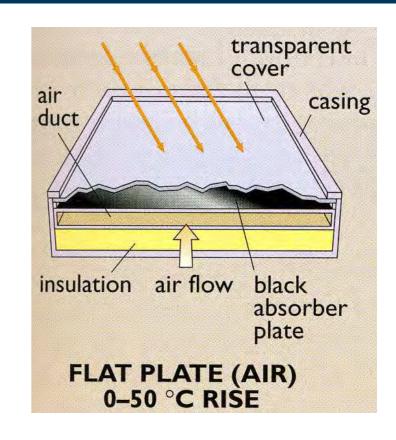
Higher ΔT_{max} requires better Z materials



Solar Thermal Water Heating







- Efficiency can be high as η is dominated by absorption of photons
- Optimisation is all about maximum photon absorption and minimum heat loss
- 46% to 74% η for solar energy -> heat conversion are typical
- η heavily dependent on amount of solar energy available and required hot water temperature

Application Reality Check

NASA with finite Pu fuel for RTG requires high efficiency

Automotive requires high power (heat is abundant)

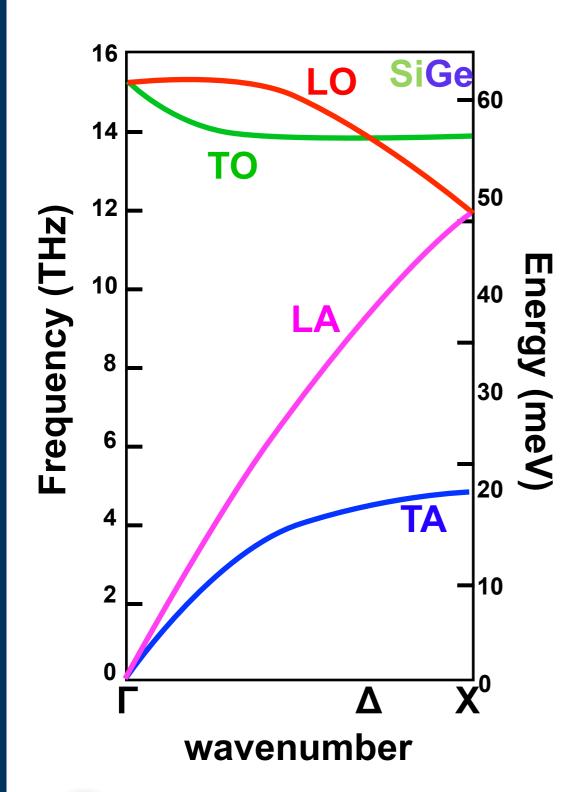
Industrial sensing requires high power (heat is abundant)

Autonomous sensing requires high power (heat is abundant)

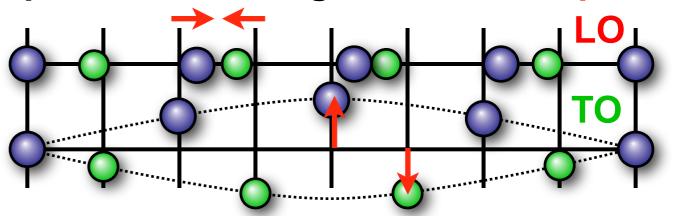
As heat is abundant the issue is how to maximise power output NOT efficiency for most applications

Power $\propto \alpha^2 \sigma$

Phonons: Lattice Vibration Heat Transfer

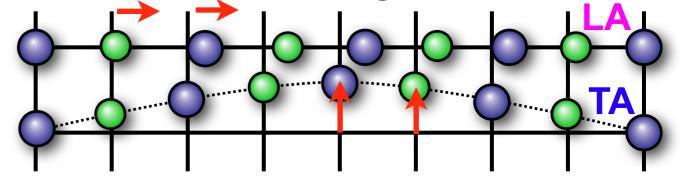


optic modes - neighbours in antiphase



NB acoustic phonons transmit most thermal energy

acoustic modes - neighbours in phase





The majority of heat in solids is transported by acoustic phonons



Thermal Conductivity

Lattice contribution:

$$\mathbf{O} \quad \kappa_{\mathbf{ph}} = \frac{\mathbf{k_B}}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{\mathbf{k_B}}{\hbar}\right)^3 \mathbf{T^3} \int_{\mathbf{0}}^{\frac{\theta_{\mathbf{D}}}{\mathbf{T}}} \frac{\tau_{\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{x^4} \mathbf{e^x}}{v(\mathbf{x}) (\mathbf{e^x} - 1)^2} d\mathbf{x}$$

 θ_D = Debye temperature (640 K for Si)

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{\hbar\omega}{\mathbf{k_B}\mathbf{T}}$$

 τ_c = combined phonon scattering time

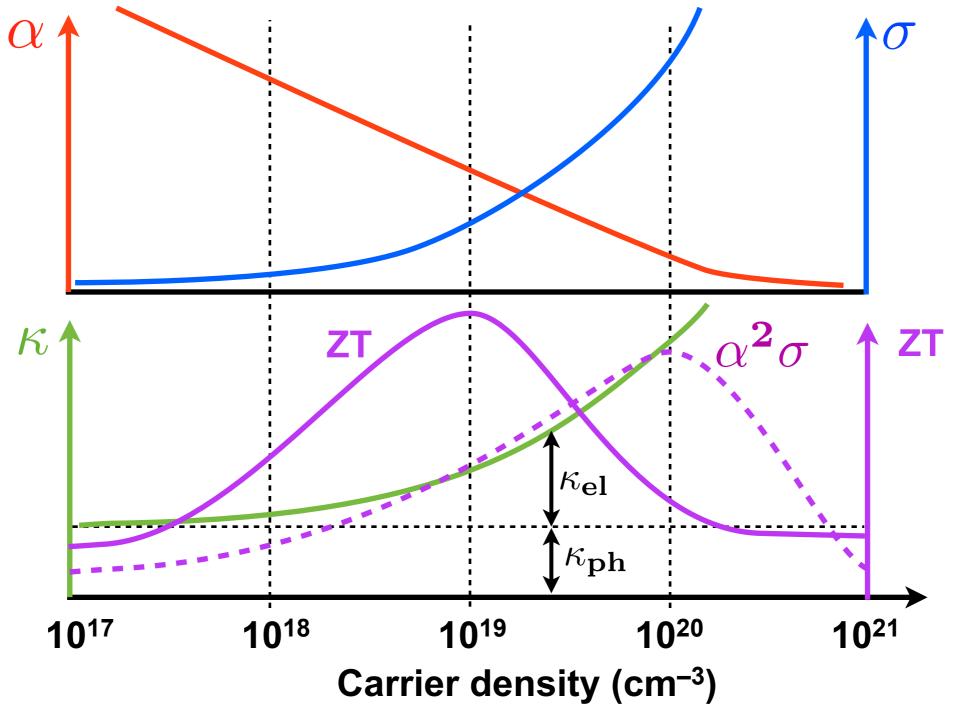
$$v(\mathbf{x})$$
 = velocity

J. Callaway, Phys. Rev. 113, 1046 (1959)

Electron (hole) contribution:

 $\tau(E)$ = total electron momentum relaxation time

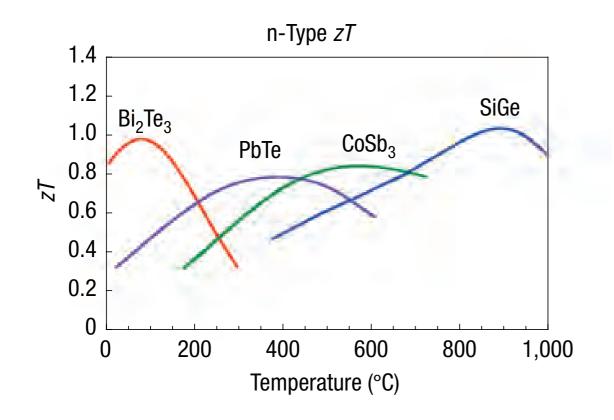
Thermoelectric vs Doping of Semiconductors

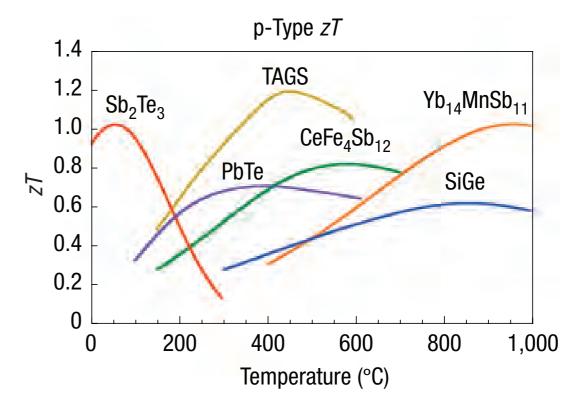


- Electrical and thermal conductivities are not independent
- Wiedemann Franz rule: electrical conductivity

 conductivity at high doping

Bulk Thermoelectric Materials Performance





Nature Materials 7, 105 (2008)

- Bulk n-Bi₂Te₃ and p-Sb₂Te₃ used in most commercial thermoelectrics & Peltier coolers
- But tellurium is 9th rarest element on earth !!!
- Bulk Si_{1-x}Ge_x (x~0.2 to 0.3) used for high temperature satellite applications

Main Strategies for Optimising ZT

Reducing thermal conductivity faster than electrical conductivity:

e.g. skutterudite structure: filling voids with heavy atoms

Low-dimensional structures:

- Increase α by enhanced DOS ($\alpha = -\frac{\pi^2}{3q} k_B^2 T \left[\frac{d \ln(\mu(E)g(E))}{dE} \right]_{E=E_E}$)
- Make κ and σ almost independent
- Reduce κ through phonon scattering on heterointerfaces

Energy filtering:

$$\alpha = -\frac{\mathbf{k_B}}{\mathbf{q}} \left[\frac{\mathbf{E_c - E_F}}{\mathbf{k_B T}} + \frac{\int_0^\infty \frac{(\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{E_C})}{\mathbf{k_B T}} \sigma(\mathbf{E}) d\mathbf{E}}{\int_0^\infty \sigma(\mathbf{E}) d\mathbf{E}} \right] \qquad \text{Y.I. Ravich et al., Phys. Stat. Sol. (b)}$$

$$43,453 (1971)$$

_enhance

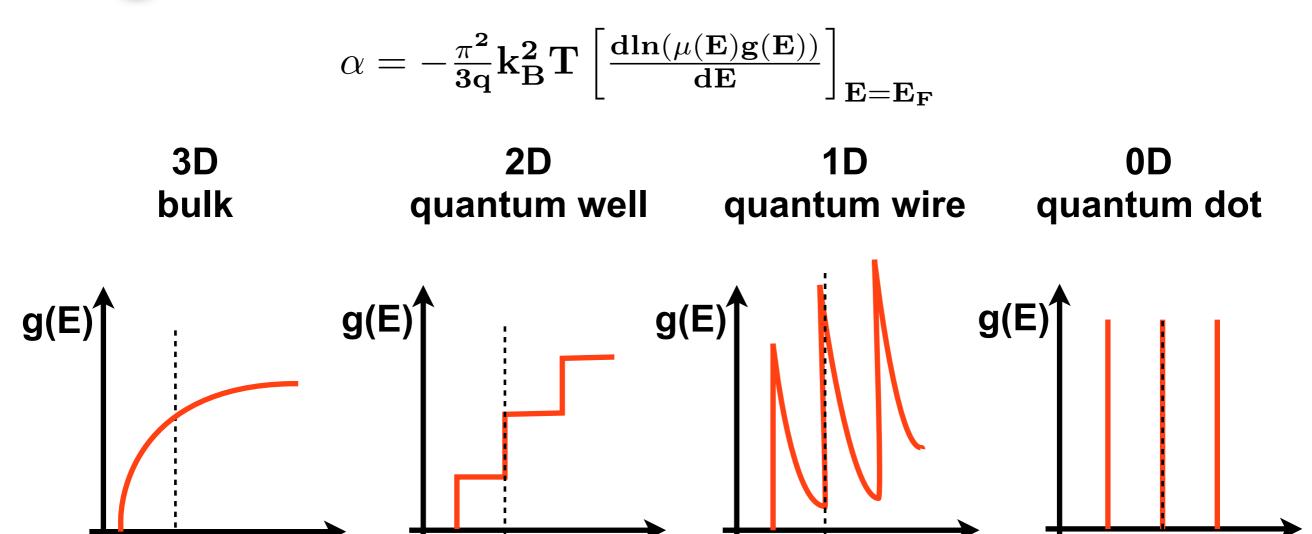
Seebeck Enhancement at Low Dimensions



ĖF

Increase α through enhanced DOS:

 E_{F}



-α increasing ——

 E_F

Length Scales: Mean Free Paths

3D electron mean free path
$$\ell = v_F \tau_m = \frac{\hbar}{m^*} (3\pi^2 n)^{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{\mu m^*}{q}$$

$$\ell = \frac{\hbar\mu}{\mathbf{q}} (\mathbf{3}\pi^2 \mathbf{n})^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

3D phonon mean free path

$$oldsymbol{\Lambda_{\mathrm{ph}}} = rac{3\kappa_{\mathrm{ph}}}{\mathrm{C_{v}}\langle \mathrm{v_{t}}
angle
ho}$$

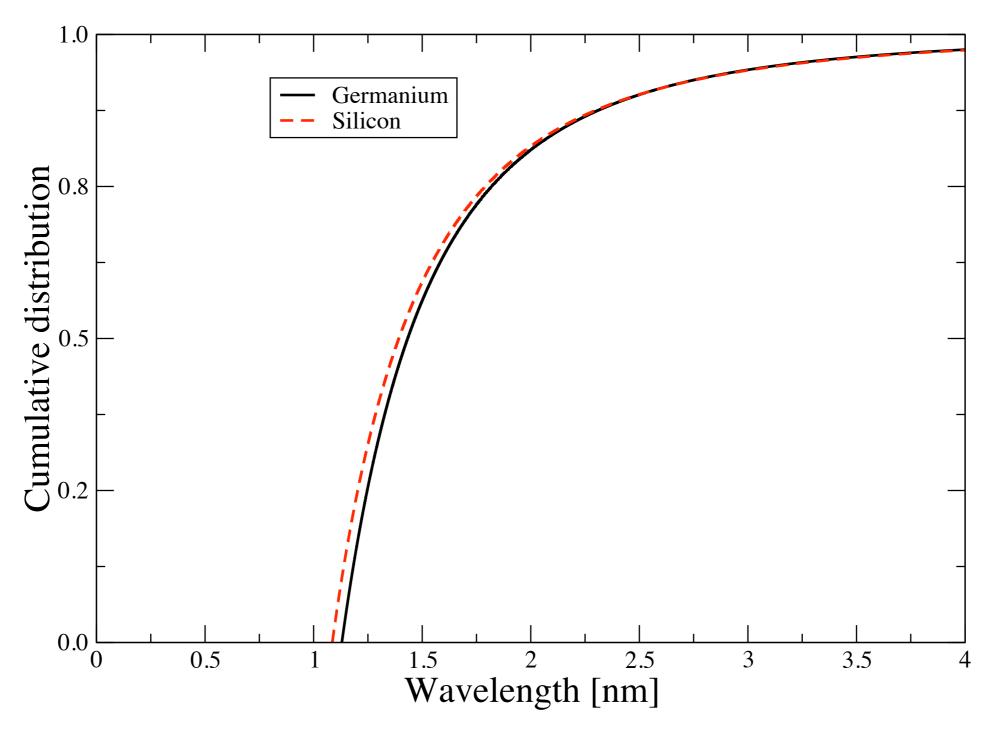
- C_v = specific heat capacity
- <v_t> = average phonon velocity
- ρ = density of phonons
- A structure may be 2D or 3D for electrons but 1 D for phonons (or vice versa!)



Phonon Mean Free Paths

Material	Model	Specific Heat (x10 ⁶ Jm ⁻³ K ⁻¹)	Group velocity (ms ⁻¹)	Phonon mean free path, Λ_{ph} (nm)
Si	Debye	1.66	6400	40.9
Si	Dispersion	0.93	1804	260.4
Ge	Debye	1.67	3900	27.5
Ge	Dispersion	0.87	1042	198.6

Phonon Wavelengths that Carry Heat





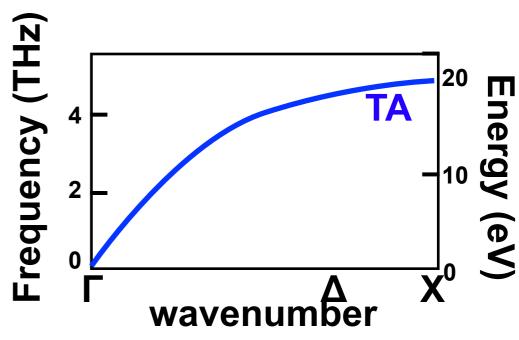
Phonon Enhancements

Phonon scattering:

Require structures below the phonon mean free path (10s nm)

Phonon Bandgaps:

- Change the acoustic phonon dispersion –> stationary phonons or bandgaps
- Require structures with features at the phonon wavelength (< 5 nm)
- Phonon group velocity $\propto \frac{dE}{dk_q}$

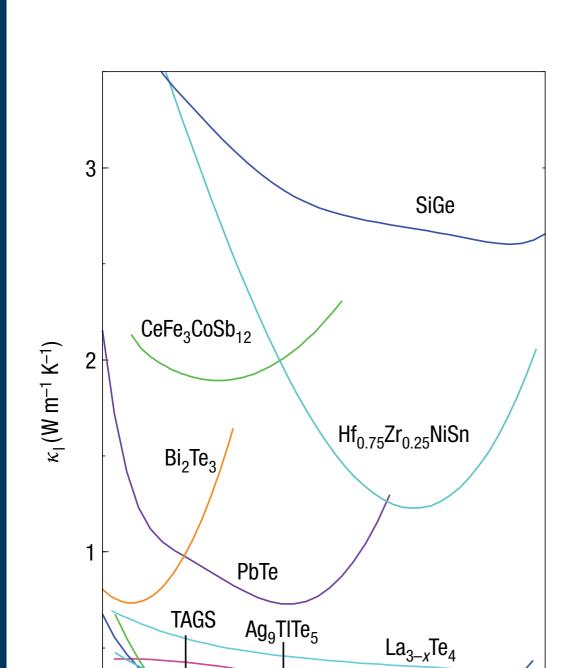




 Zn_4Sb_3

200

Complex Crystal Structures: Reducing κ_{ph}



400

Temperature °C

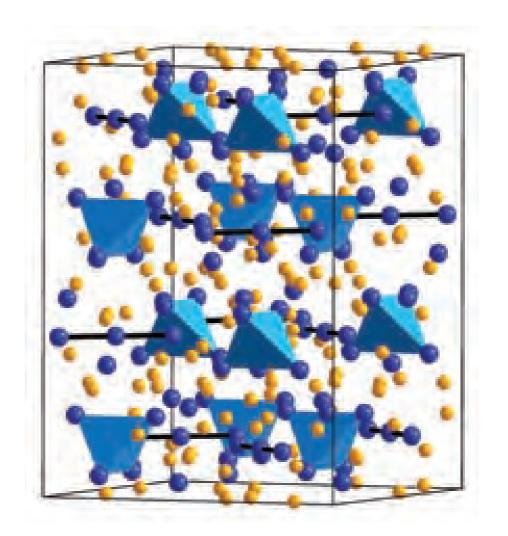
Yb₁₄MnSb₁₁

Ba₈Ga₁₆Ge₃₀

600

800

Skutterudite structure: filling voids with heavy atoms

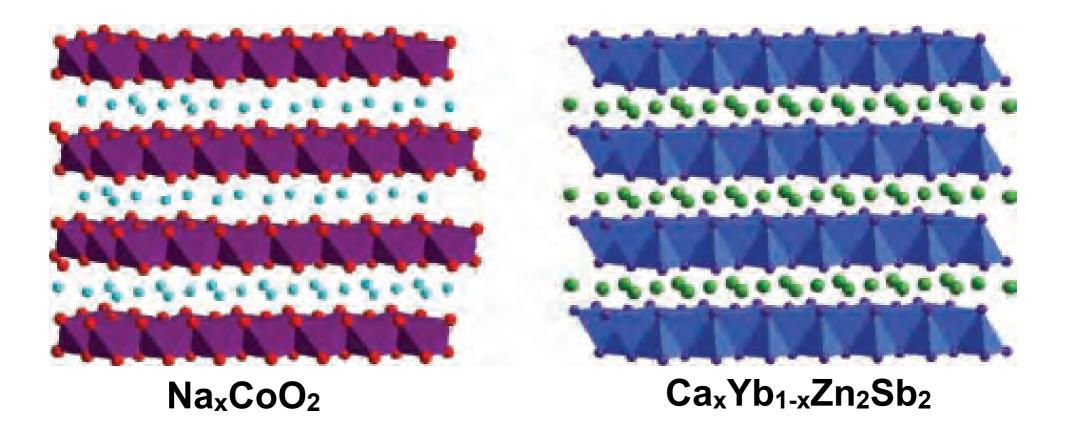


 $p-Yb_{14}MnSb_{11} - ZT \sim 1 @ 900 °C$



Electron Crystal – Phonon Glass Materials

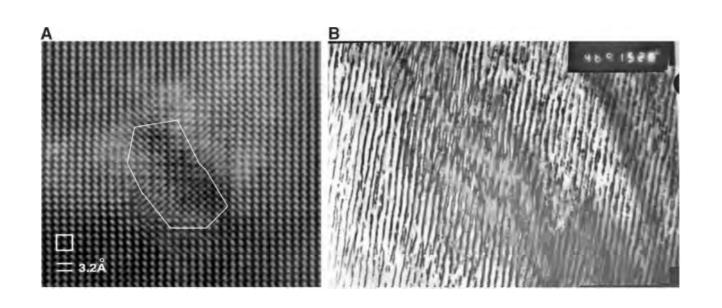
- Principle: trying to copy "High T_c" superconductor structures
- Heavy ion / atom layers for phonon scattering
- High mobility electron layers for high electrical conductivity

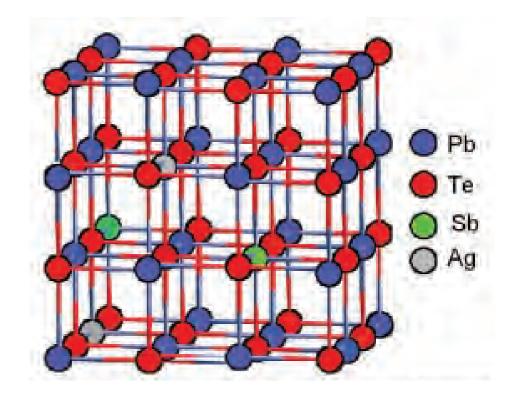


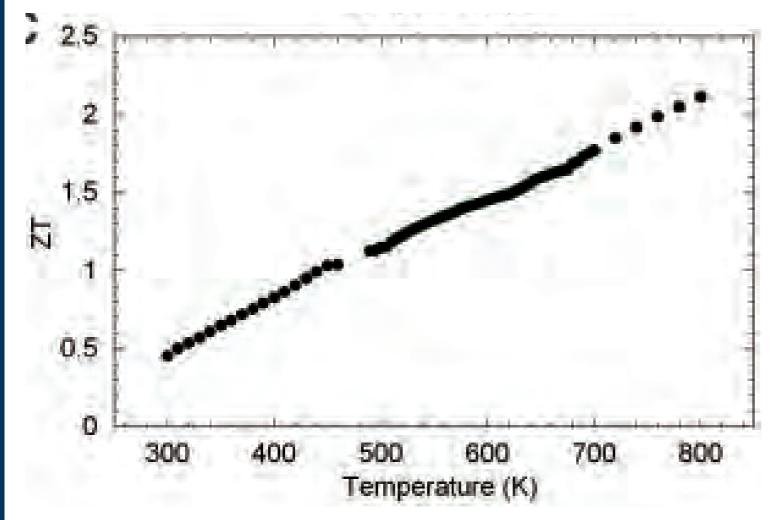
Only small improvements to ZT observed



AgPb₁₈SbTe₂₀ – Nanoparticle Scattering?



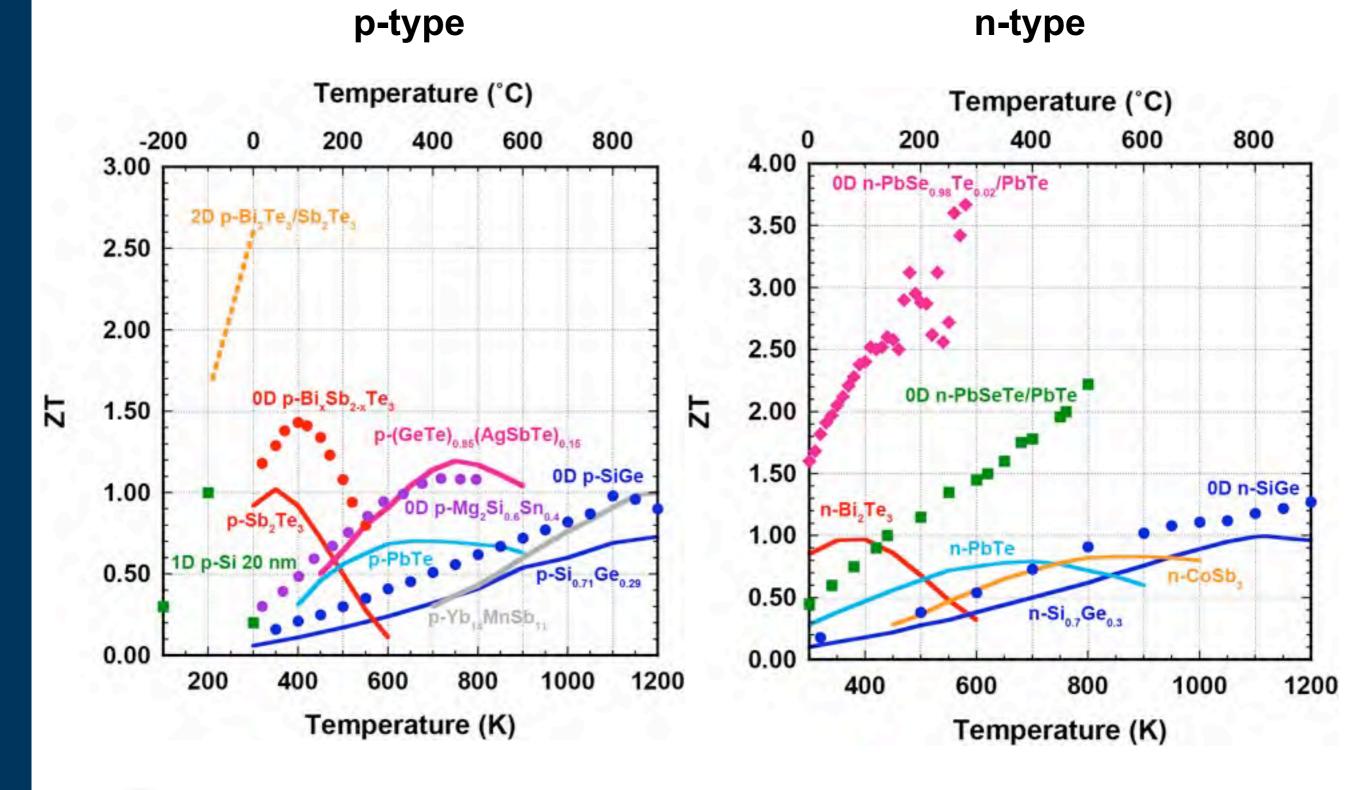




 α = -335 μ VK⁻¹ σ = 30,000 S/m κ = 1.1 Wm⁻¹K⁻¹ at 700 K



ZT versus Temperature







GREEN Silicon Approach

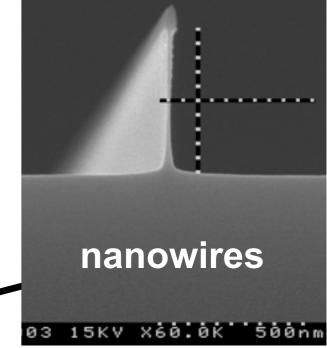
Low dimension technology

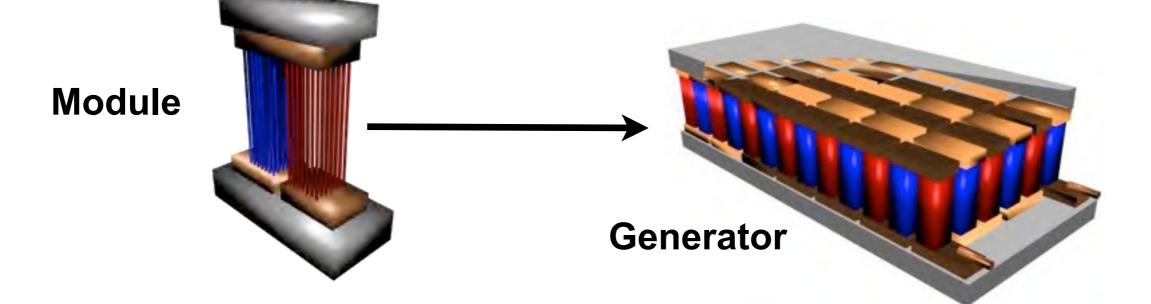
superlattices

quantum dots

150 nm

quantum dots







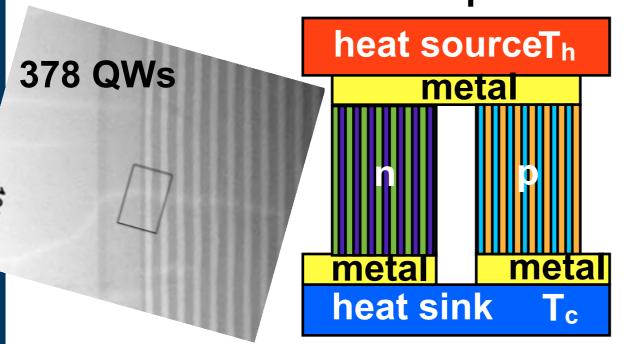
Si/SiGe technology -> cheap and back end of line compatible

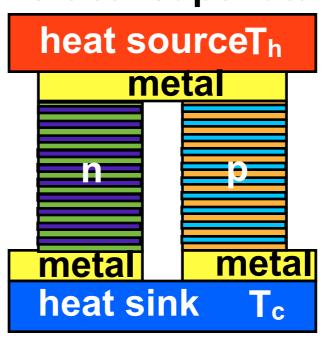


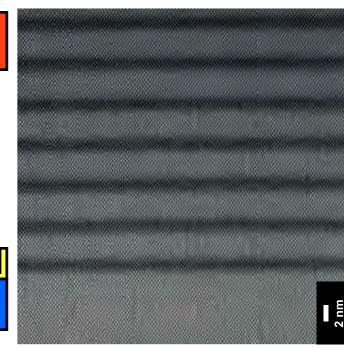
10 nm

Thermoelectric Low Dimensional Structures

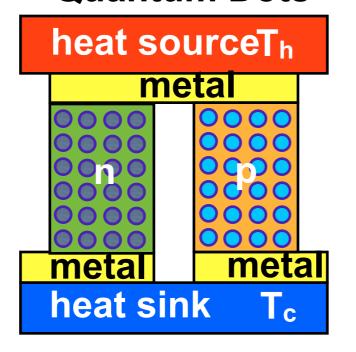
Lateral superlattice Vertical superlattice



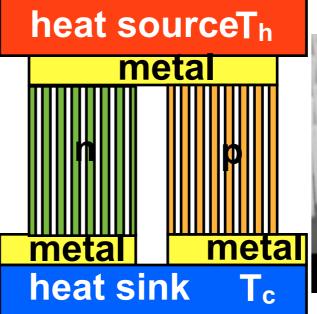


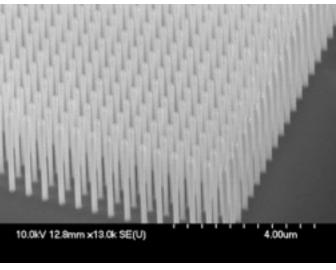


Quantum Dots



Nanowires





Vertical (Cross-plane) Superlattice TEs

- Use of transport perpendicular to superlattice quantum wells
- Higher α from the higher density of states
- Lower electron conductivity from tunnelling
- O Lower $\kappa_{\mathbf{ph}}$ from phonon scattering at heterointerfaces
- O Able to engineer lower κ_{ph} with phononic bandgaps
- Overall Z and ZT should increase

Vertical superlattice

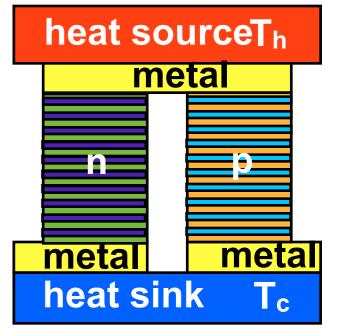


Figure of merit $\mathbf{ZT} = \frac{\alpha^2 \sigma}{2\pi} \mathbf{T}$



p-type Wafer Designs

SL1 to SL4: 922 x

2.85 ± 1.5 nm p-Ge QW

1.1 ± 0.6 nm p-Si_{0.5}Ge_{0.5}

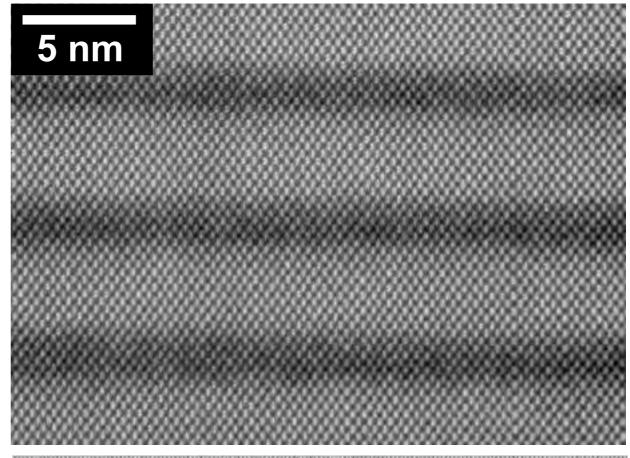
Si_{0.175}Ge_{0.825}

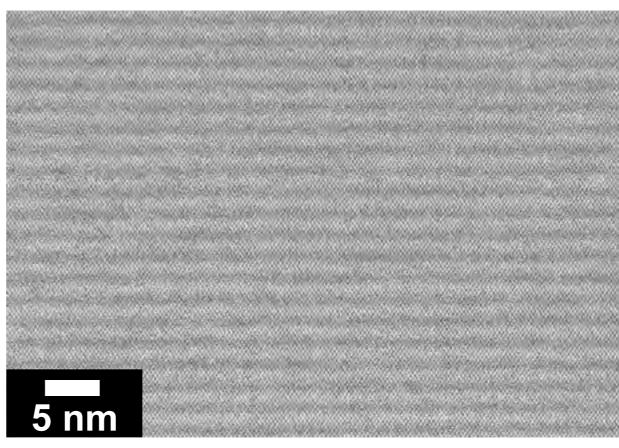
SL5: 2338 x

1.1 ± 0.2 nm p-Ge QW

 $0.5 \pm 0.1 \text{ nm p-Si}_{0.5}\text{Ge}_{0.5}$

Si_{0.175}Ge_{0.825}





Rytov 1D Continuum Model for Layered Materials

Superlattice N →∞

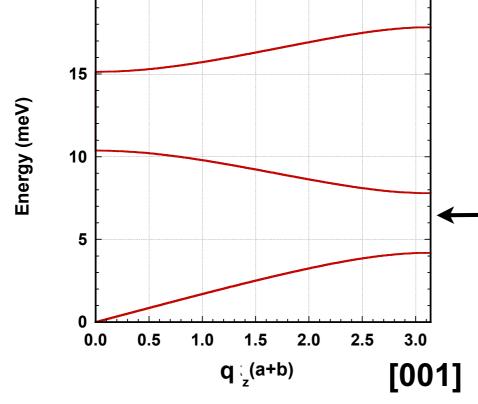
QW: mass density ρ_a, phase velocity v_a

barrier, pb, vb

Acoustic mismatch: $\eta = \frac{\rho_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{b}}}{\rho_{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{a}}}$

Superlattice zone boundaries: $\mathbf{q_z} = \frac{\mathbf{n}\pi}{\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}}$

$$\cos \mathbf{q_z}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \cos \mathbf{q_a} \mathbf{a} \cos \mathbf{q_b} \mathbf{b} - \left[\frac{\mathbf{1} + \eta^2}{2\eta}\right] \sin \mathbf{q_a} \mathbf{a} \sin \mathbf{q_b} \mathbf{b}$$



acoustic phonon bandgap

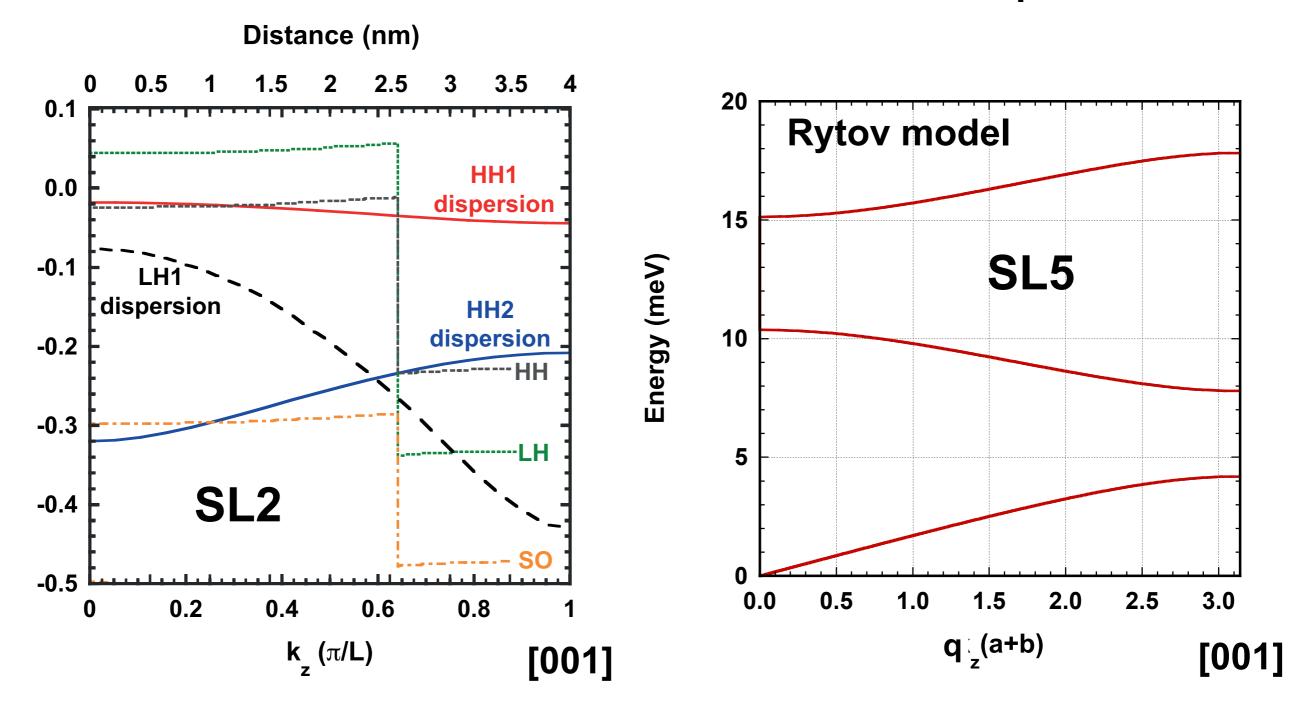
S.V. Rytov, Sov. Phys. Acoustics 2, 67 (1956)



Electron and Phonon Dispersion

Holes (Electronic Dispersion)

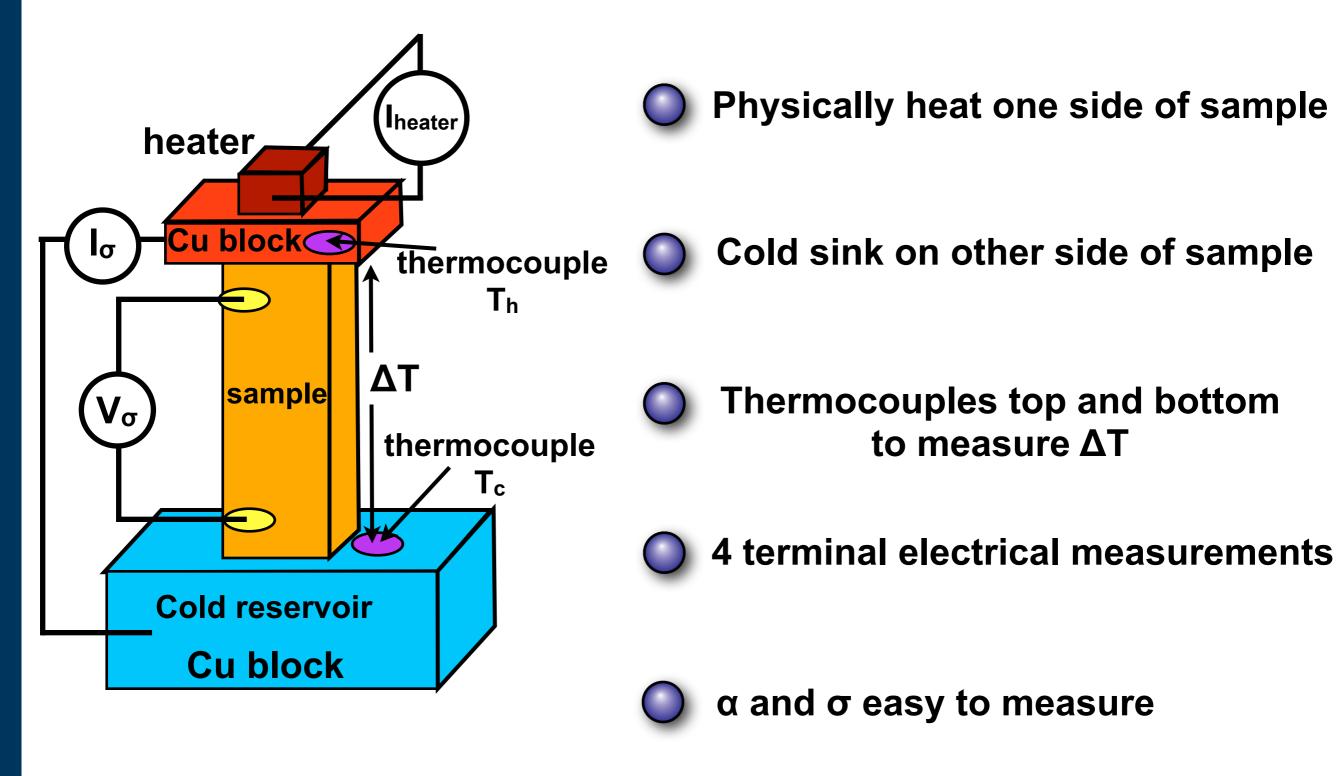
Phonon Dispersion



S.V. Rytov, Sov. Phys. Acoustics 2, 67 (1956)



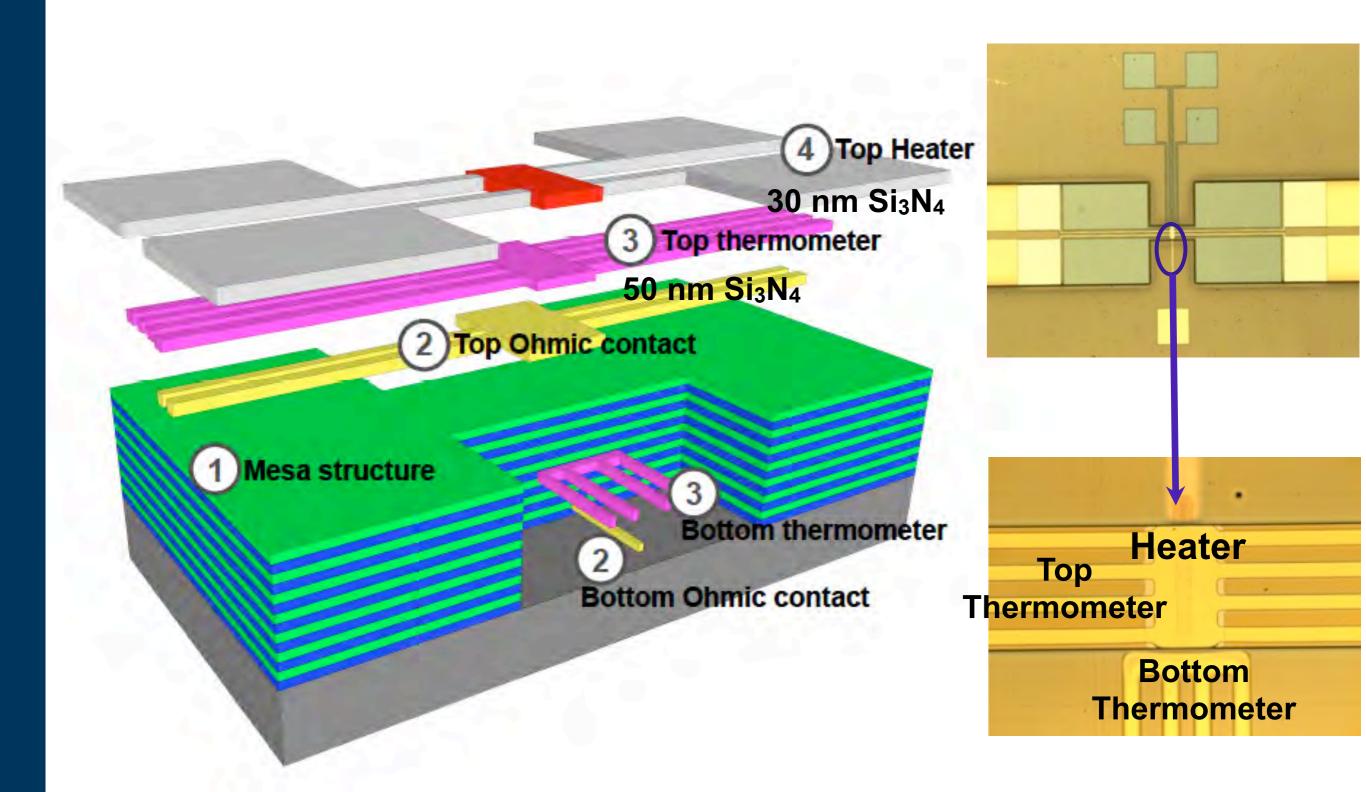
Measuring Seebeck Coefficient



Thermal conductivity, κ very difficult to measure

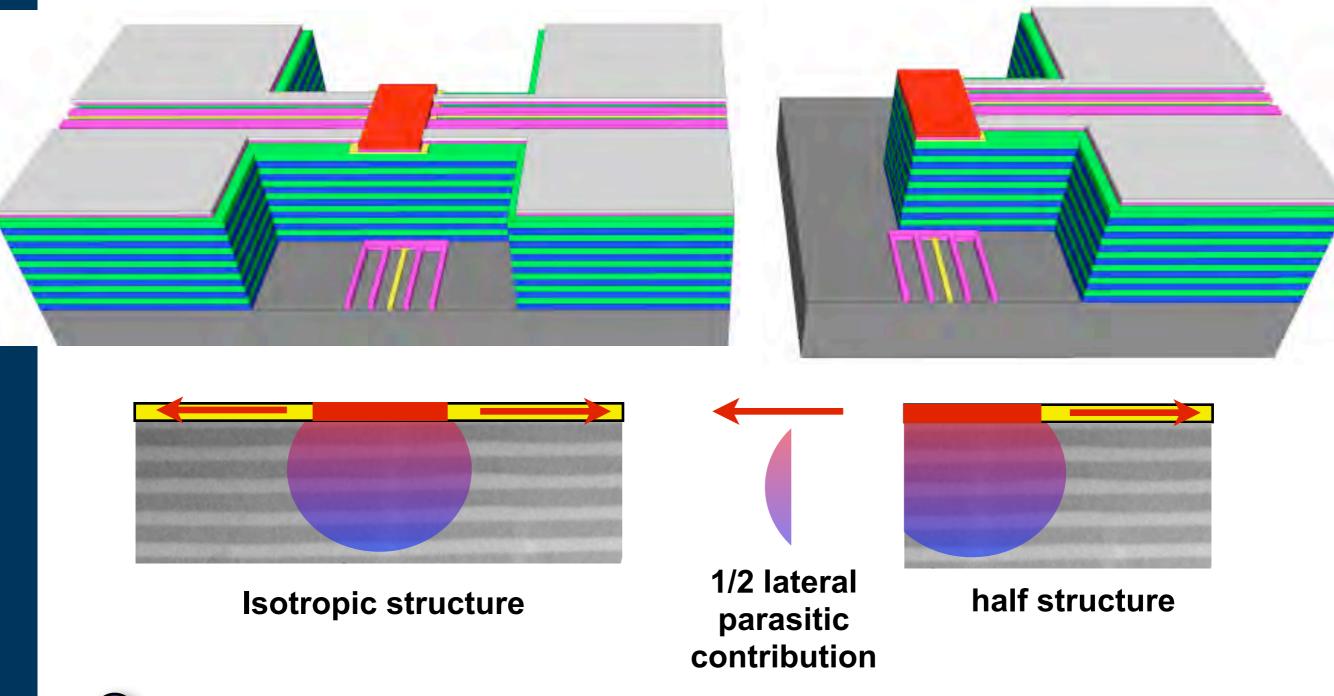


Vertical structure characterisation device





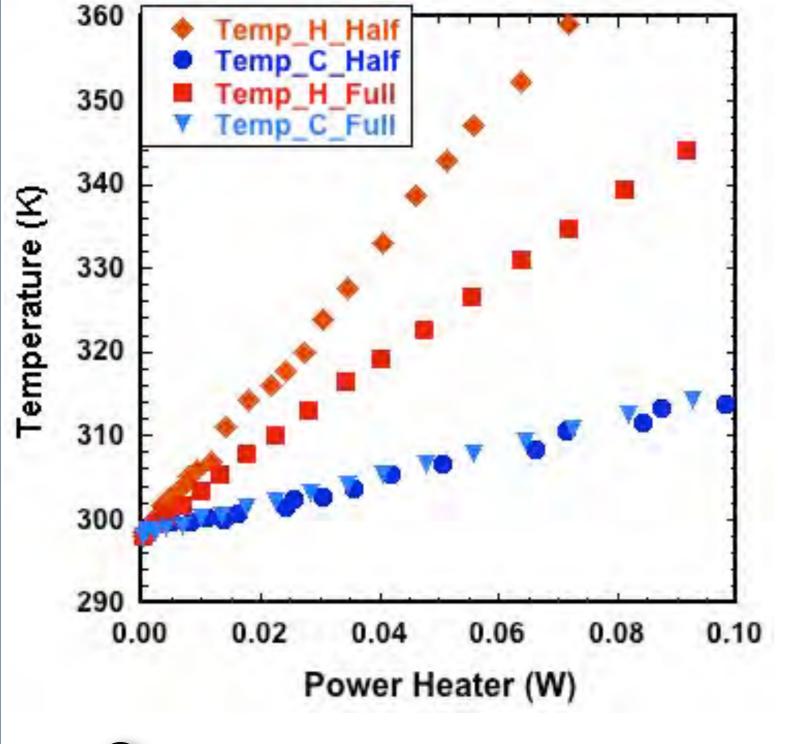
Thermal Parasitic Removal

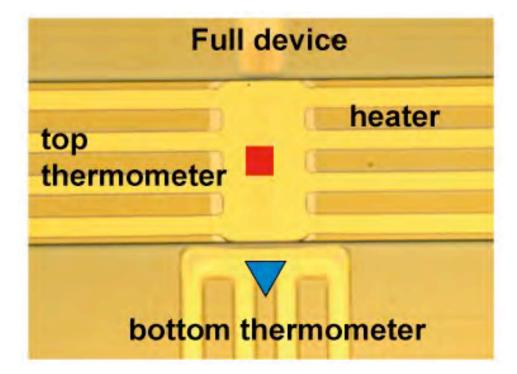


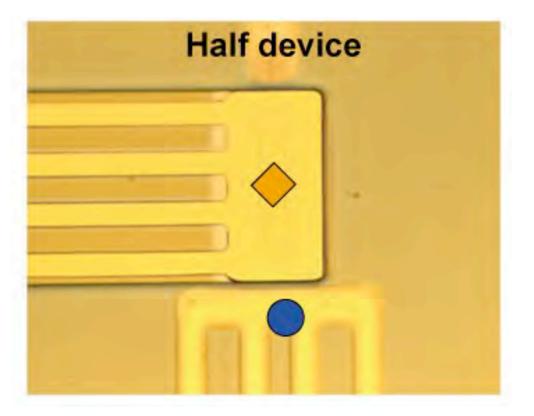
Half structure allows parasitics to be measured and removed for more accurate heat flux determination



Thermal Measurements

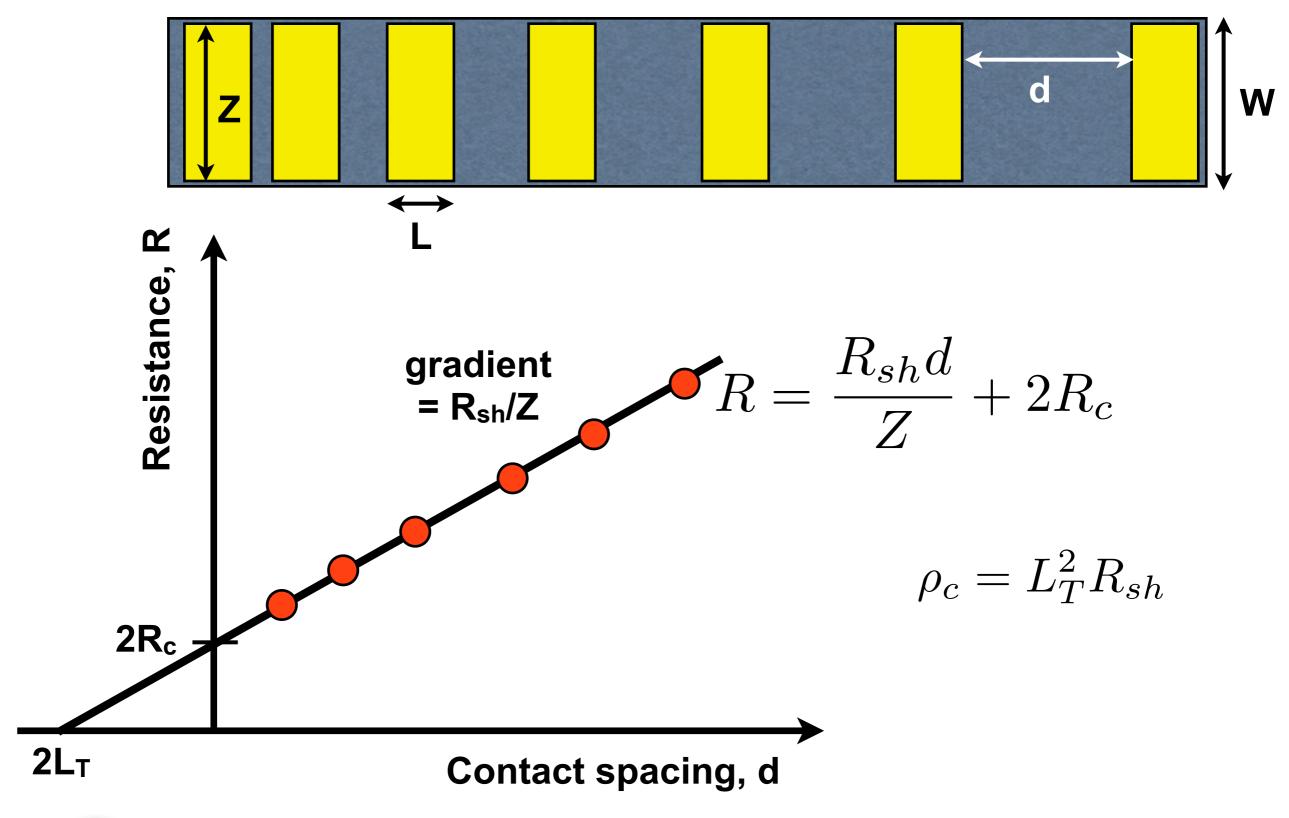






Measured 41% of heat in vertical transport

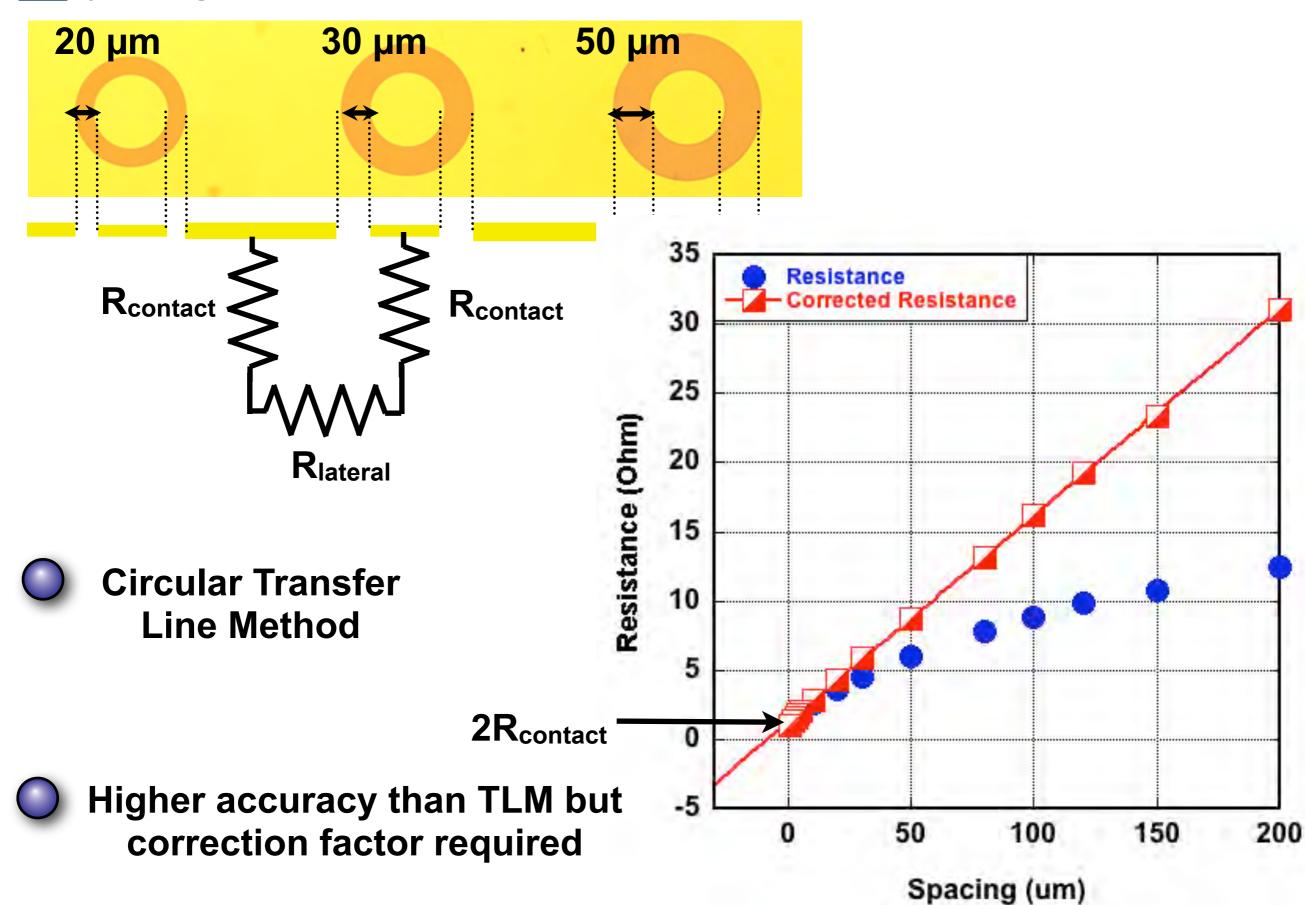
Transfer Line Measurements (TLMs)





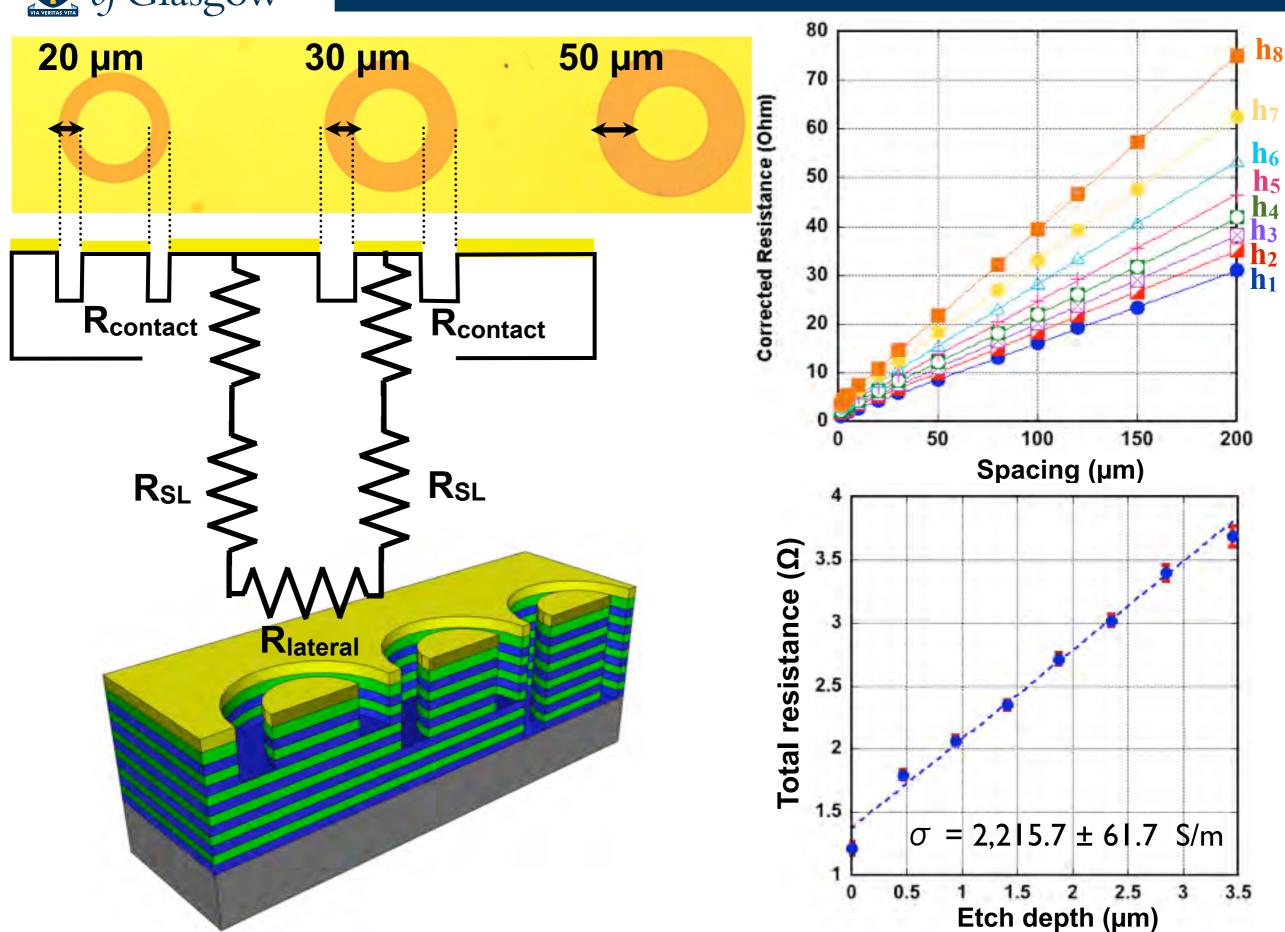
Any misalignment or gaps results in errors -> circular TLMs

Vertical Electrical Conductivity I





Vertical Electrical Conductivity II



The Uncertainty in Measuring ZT

- Many materials with ZT > 1.5 reported but few confirmed by others (!)
- No modules demonstrated with such high efficiencies

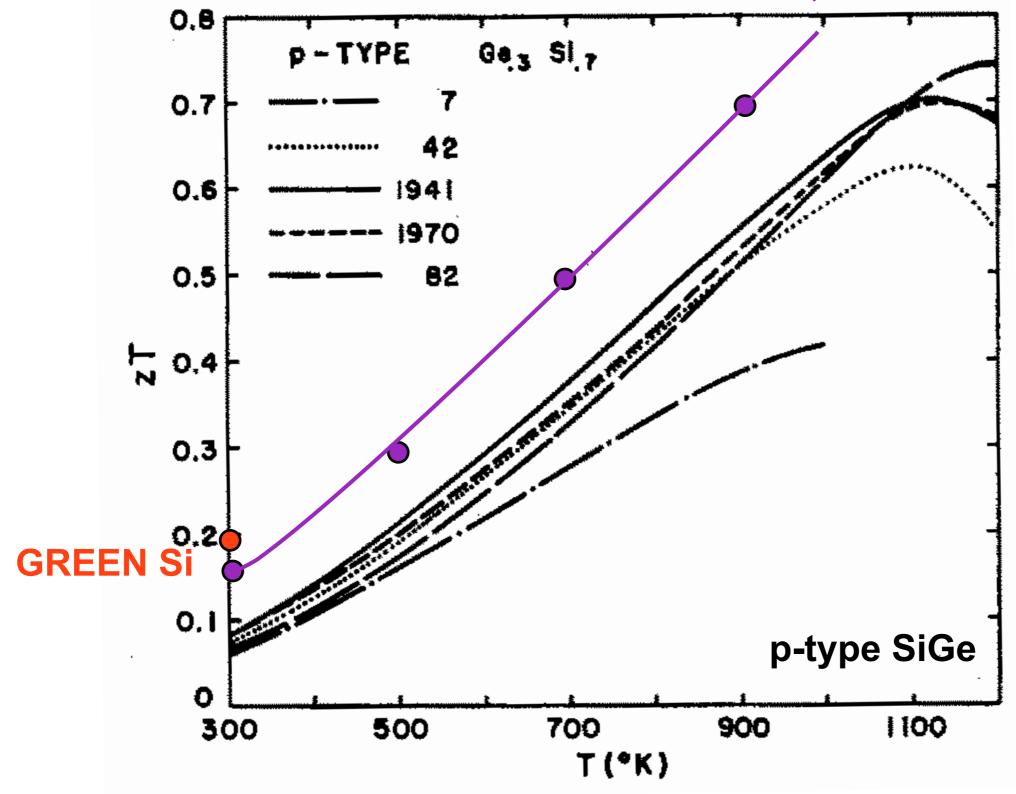
Due to: measurement uncertainty & complexity of fabricating devices

 Δx = uncertainty in x = standard deviation in x

- Measurements are conceptually simple but results vary considerably due to thermal gradients in the measurements –> systematic inaccuracies
- Total ZT uncertainty can be between 25% to 50%

Bulk SiGe ZT Comparisons

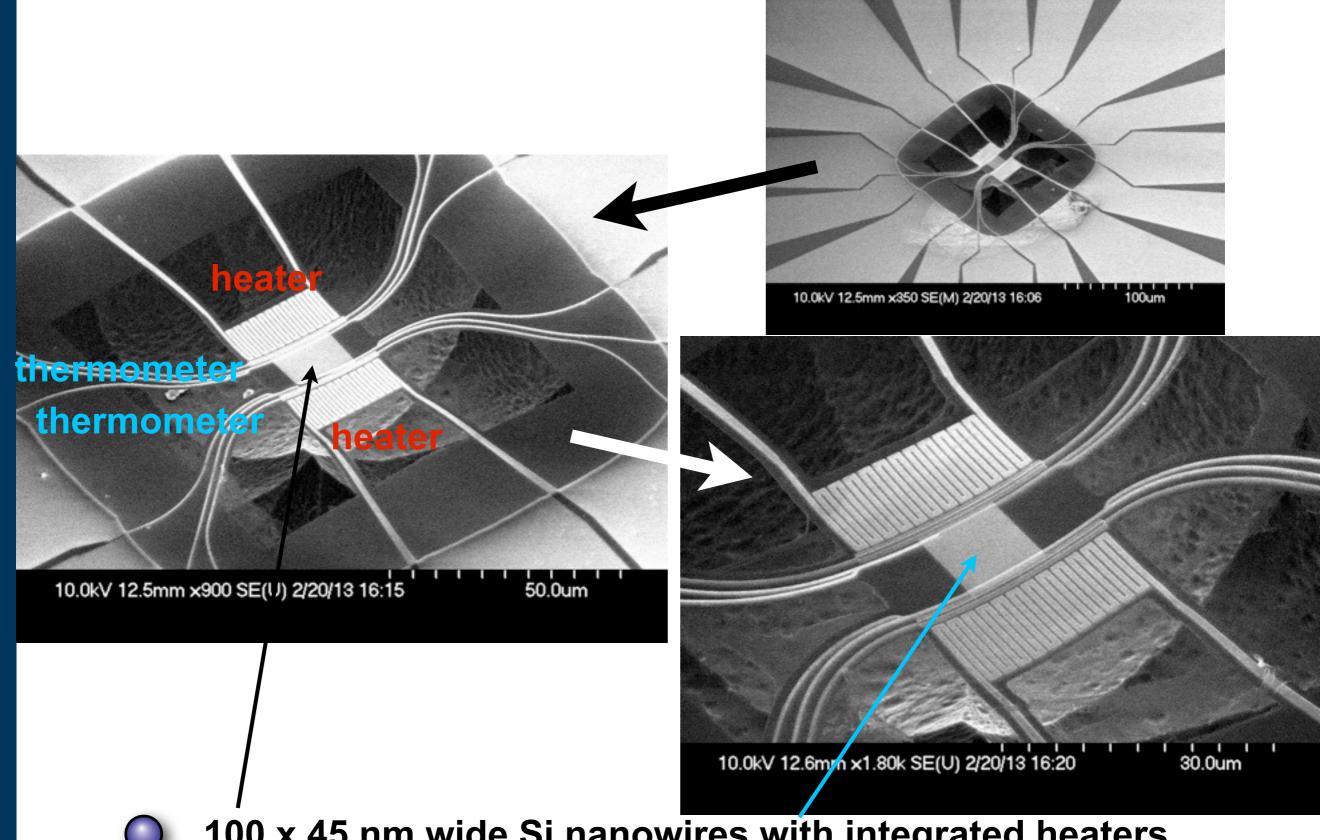
MIT, Nano Lett. 8, 4670 (2008)



J.P. Dismukes et al., J. Appl. Phys. 35, 2899 (1964)



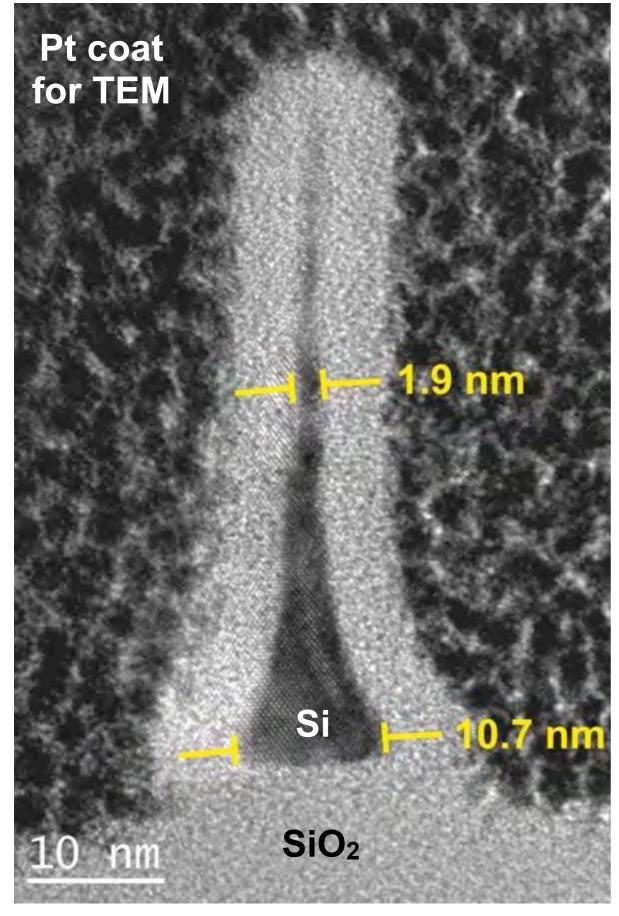
Nanowire Fabrication on Suspended Hall Bar

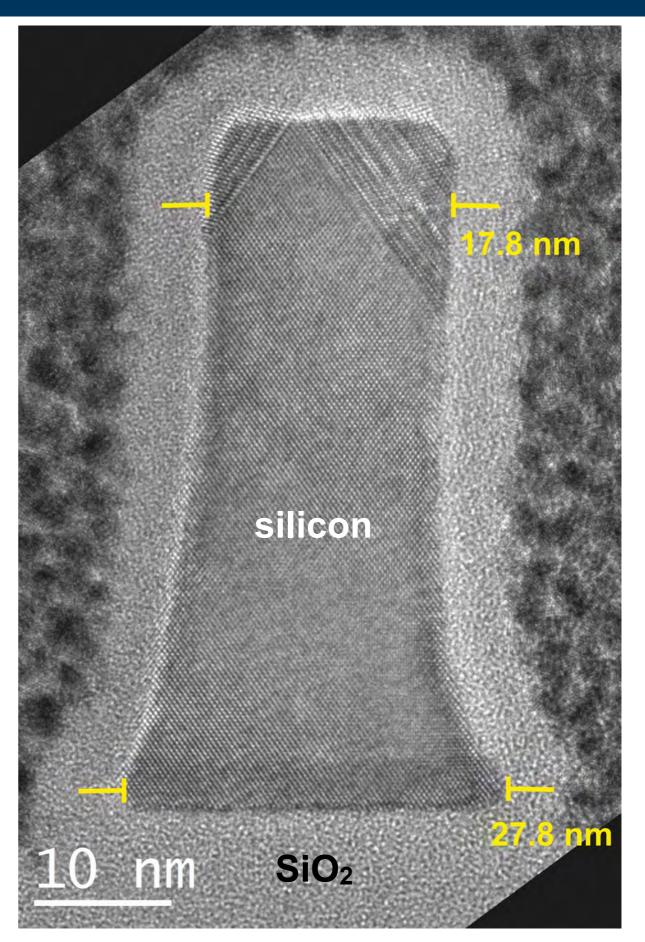


100 x 45 nm wide Si nanowires with integrated heaters, thermometers and electrical probes



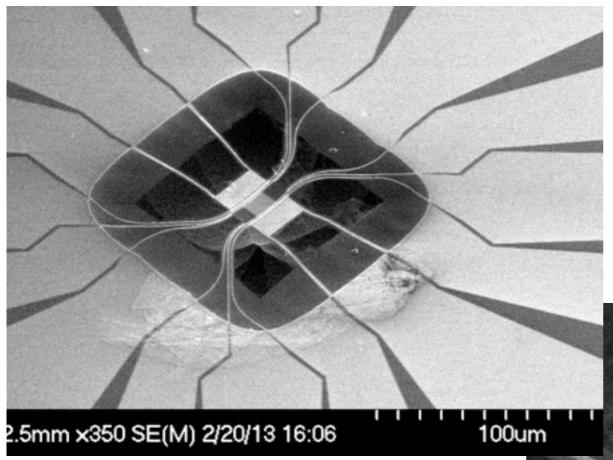
Si Nanowires: How many atoms wide?







45 nm Wide n-Silicon Nanowires



@ 300 K:

σ = 20,300 S/m 4 terminal

 κ = 7.78 W/mK

 $\alpha = -271 \,\mu\text{V/K}$

ZT = 0.057

ZT enhanced by x117

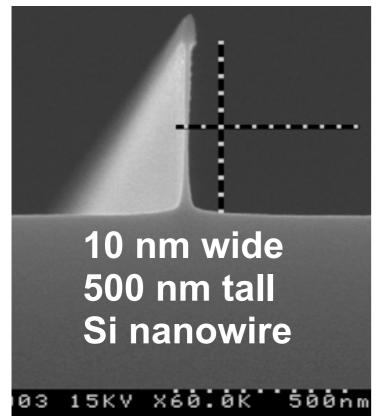
 $\alpha^2 \sigma = 1.49 \text{ mW m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-2}$

What enhancements with SiGe ?



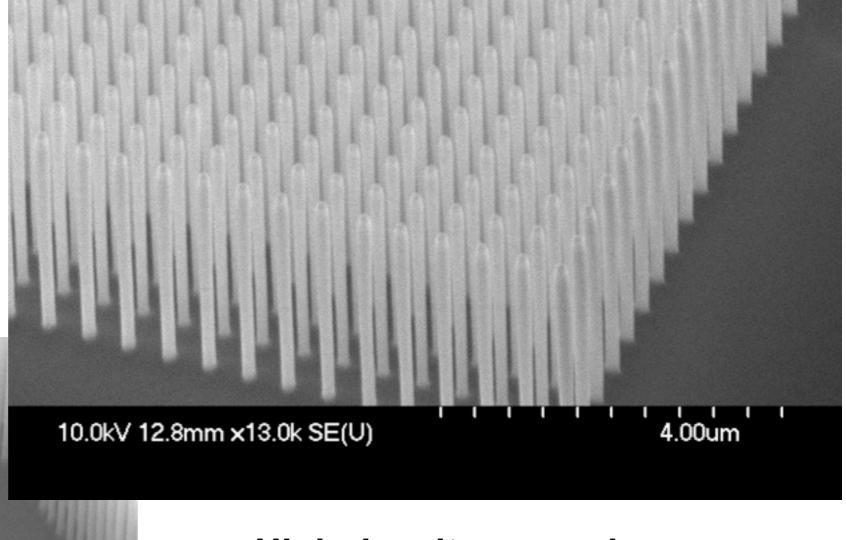


Nanowire Module Development



Si etch

20.0kV 12.7mm x20.0k SE(U) 2/7/13 11:54

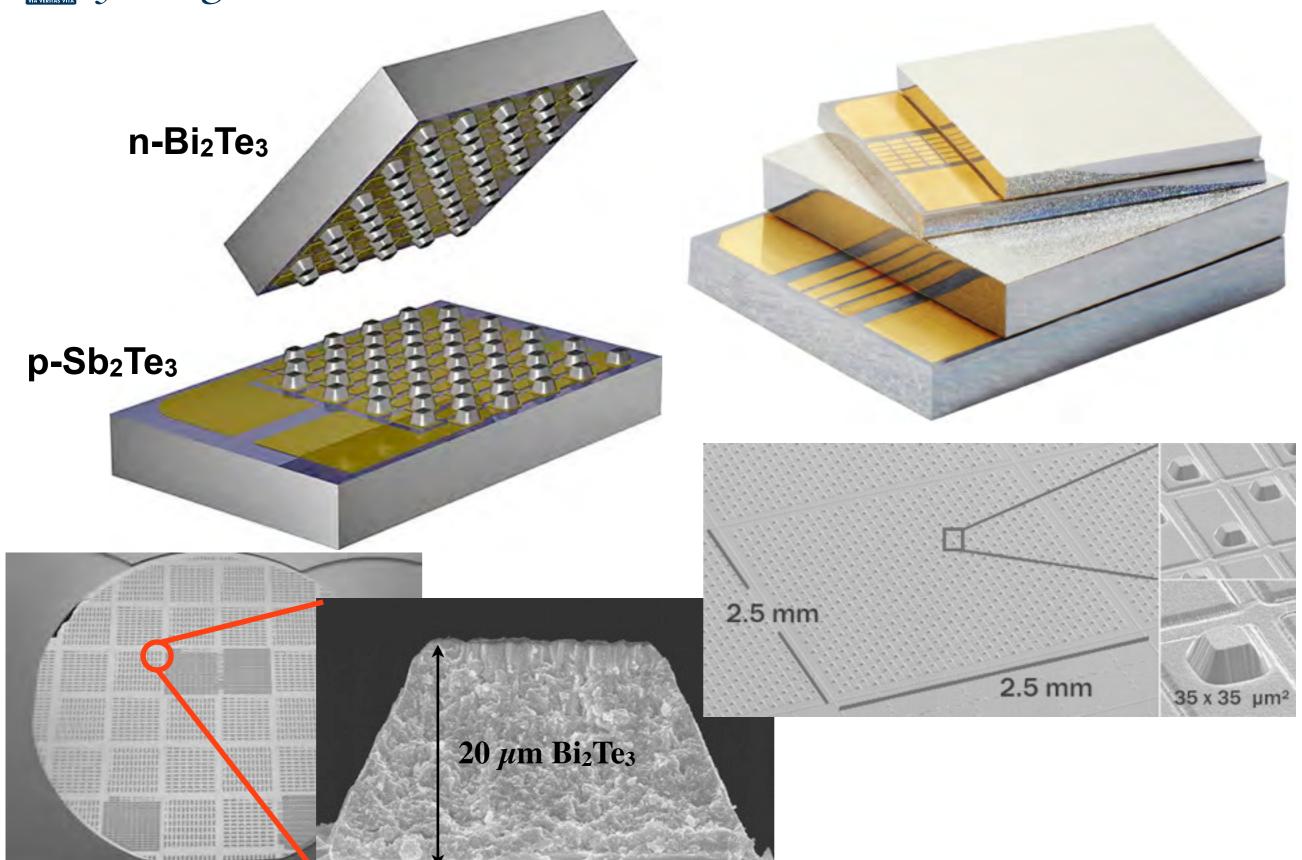


High density nanowires

50 nm Ge/SiGe nanowires 4 µm deep etched

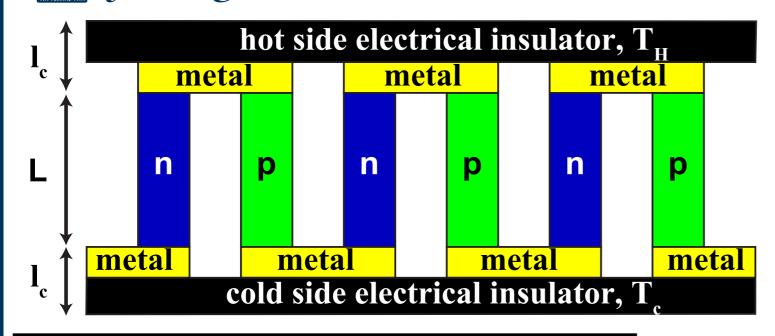


Micropelt Microfabrication of BiTe Alloys



http://www.micropelt.com/

System Design: Power Output



A = module leg area

L = module leg length

N = number of modules

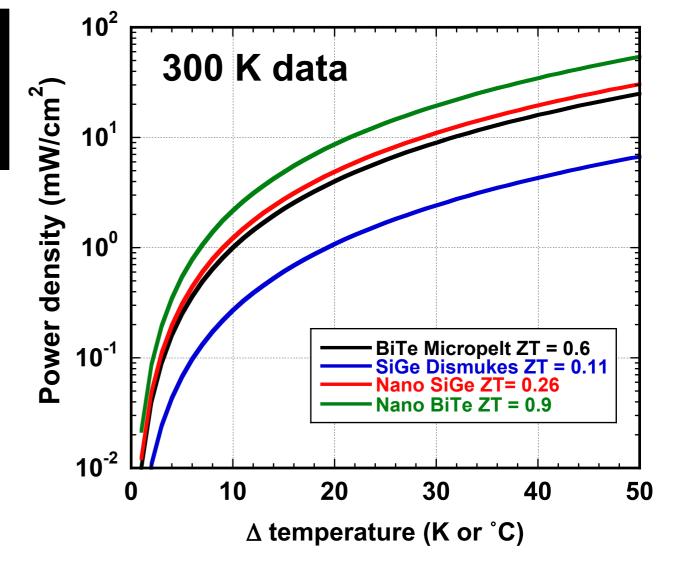
 κ_c = thermal contact conductivity

 ρ_c = electrical contact resistivity

$$\mathbf{P} = \frac{\alpha^2 \sigma \mathbf{A} \mathbf{N} \Delta \mathbf{T^2}}{2(\rho_{\mathbf{c}} \sigma + \mathbf{L}) (1 + 2 \frac{\kappa \mathbf{l_c}}{\kappa_{\mathbf{c}} \mathbf{L}})^2}$$

D.M. Rowe & M. Gao, IEE Proc. Sci. Meas. Technol. 143, 351 (1996)

- System: power in BiTe alloys limited by Ohmic contacts
- ρ_c (Bi₂Te₃) \approx 1 x 10⁻⁷ Ω-cm²
- ρ_c (Si_{1-x}Ge_x) = 1.2 x 10⁻⁸ Ω-cm²



Thermoelectric References

D.M. Rowe (Ed.), "Thermoelectrics Handbook: Macro to Nano" CRC Taylor and Francis (2006) ISBN 0-8494-2264-2

G.S. Nolas, J. Sharp and H.J. Goldsmid "Thermoelectrics: Basic Principles and New Materials Development" (2001) ISBN 3-540-41245-X

M.S. Dresselhaus et al. "New directions for low-dimensional thermoelectric materials" Adv. Mat. 19, 1043 (2007)

D.J. Paul, "Thermoelectric Energy Harvesting" Intech Open Access from "ICT - Energy - Concepts Towards Zero - Power Information & Communication Technology " (2014) - DOI: 10.5772/57347



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http://www.greensilicon.eu/GREENSilicon/index.html