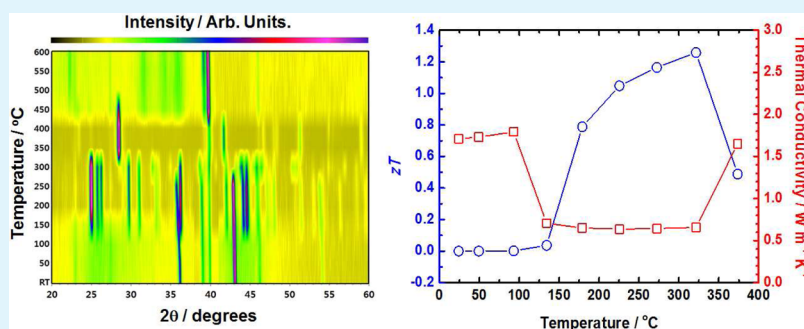


Thermal Cycling Behavior of Zinc Antimonide Thin Films for High Temperature Thermoelectric Power Generation Applications

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Supporting Information



ABSTRACT: The zinc antimonide compound Zn_xSb_y is one of the most efficient thermoelectric materials known at high temperatures due to its exceptional low thermal conductivity. For this reason, it continues to be the focus of active research, especially regarding its glass-like atomic structure. However, before practical use in actual surroundings, such as near a vehicle manifold, it is imperative to analyze the thermal reliability of these materials. Herein, we present the thermal cycling behavior of Zn_xSb_y thin films in nitrogen (N_2) purged or ambient atmosphere. Zn_xSb_y thin films were prepared by cosputtering and reached a power factor of $1.39 \text{ mW m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-2}$ at 321°C . We found maximum power factor values gradually decreased in N_2 atmosphere due to increasing resistivity with repeated cycling, whereas the specimen in air kept its performance. X-ray diffraction and electron microscopy observations revealed that fluidity of Zn atoms leads to nanoprecipitates, porous morphologies, and even growth of a coating layer or fiber structures on the surface of Zn_xSb_y after repetitive heating and cooling cycles. With this in mind, our results indicate that proper encapsulation of the Zn_xSb_y surface would reduce these unwanted side reactions and the resulting degradation of thermoelectric performance.

KEYWORDS: zinc antimonide, thermoelectric thin film, thermal cycle, thermoelectric properties and measurement, RF magnetron cosputtering

INTRODUCTION

Recently, as an attempt to address growing environmental problems, research on energy alternatives to conventional fossil fuels has been actively promoted. In particular, the rapid development of electric vehicles (EVs) is an indicator that this trend is in full swing. However, with current EV technology, long-distance travel on a single charge is difficult compared to gasoline vehicles. Moreover, in the winter and summer seasons, the distance EVs can travel without recharging is shorter because an additional load is applied by the air conditioning system, which further limits their commercial adoption. Meanwhile, as the need for an auxiliary power generation system has increased, and to increase the efficiency of vehicles using conventional fuels, thermoelectric (TE) power generation technology has been attracting attention among many candidates due to its ability to utilize waste heat from the vehicle.^{1,2} Generally, $\sim 60\%$ of the energy generated in a conventional car is discarded as waste heat;^{3,4} thus, it is possible to greatly improve the energy efficiency of the vehicle by taking

advantage of the waste exhaust gas. A TE power generation system mounted near the engine or the exhaust pipe of an automobile can deliver additional energy using the Seebeck effect based on the large temperature difference.^{1–4} BMW and Ford have reported that, in vehicle experiments involving such a TE power generation system, energy efficiency has been improved by $\sim 4\%$ or more.^{5,6}

Development of efficient TE materials is one of the key issues to building a thermoelectric power generation system because a material with good TE properties can produce additional power more effectively in a vehicle. The efficiency of TE materials, expressed as the value zT , is determined by $zT = \alpha^2 T \rho^{-1} \kappa^{-1}$, where α is the Seebeck coefficient, T is the absolute temperature, ρ is the electrical resistivity, and κ is the thermal conductivity. TE materials with a zT above 1.0 are

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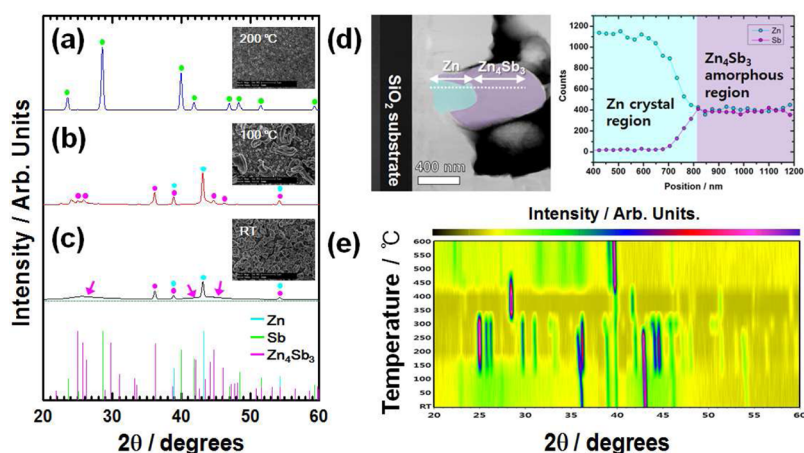


Figure 1. XRD patterns of samples deposited on the substrate at (a) 200 °C (Sb), (b) 100 °C (Zn + Zn₄Sb₃), and (c) room temperature (RT) (Zn + amorphous Zn₄Sb₃ (a-Zn₄Sb₃)). Top view FESEM images of the corresponding samples are presented in the inset of the figure. (d) STEM image and TEM-EDS line profile (from white dotted line on the STEM image) data of pristine sample (Zn + a-Zn₄Sb₃). (e) In situ high temperature XRD data from annealing of a Zn + a-Zn₄Sb₃ phase showing the phase transformation toward Zn₄Sb₃ from 130 to 350 °C, ZnSb from 350 to 450 °C, and Sb at >450 °C.

typically required for a TE device to achieve a reasonable efficiency for commercial application.¹ In most cases, due to the low efficiency of the TE material, the development rate of TE systems has been very slow. In recent years, however, as it has become possible to control phonon scattering with nanostructures, the development of high-efficiency TE materials has accelerated.^{7,8} Among developed TE materials with a high zT value, bismuth telluride (Bi₂Te₃)-based systems have superior efficiency when operating near room temperature.^{9–13} However, a TE material used for vehicle power generation must be able to perform well at high temperatures because the temperature at the manifold or engine block fluctuates around 300 °C.^{1–6} Under those conditions, materials such as lead telluride (PbTe) or zinc antimonide (Zn_xSb_y) are more suitable for TE power generation than the conventional Bi₂Te₃-based systems, which have high efficiency at room temperature.^{14–17} Among the high temperature materials, the zT value of Zn_xSb_y is very high compared to other substances due to the exceptionally low thermal conductivity of the material, which is associated with its glass-like structure.¹⁶ There are experimental reports of an outstanding zT of ~ 1.3 at around 670 K,^{18,19} moreover, Zn_xSb_y compounds have a number of additional advantages, including being an environmentally friendly material that is relatively abundant, low cost, and less toxic than PbTe materials.²⁰ However, Zn_xSb_y undergoes structural changes in response to temperature, which has produced continuous stability problems.^{21–23} Moreover, when the materials described above have been applied to real vehicle systems, their stability has not been evaluated properly, although they can be exposed to an ambient condition, not to an inert environment, with severe repetitive rapid changes at high temperature.

In this paper, we investigated the TE properties of Zn_xSb_y thin films under repetitive thermal cycling. In addition, we also measured the TE properties of Zn_xSb_y films under different atmospheric environments. We discovered that, as the number of thermal cycles increases, the power factor of Zn_xSb_y is reduced, and this degradation is more pronounced in an inert gas atmosphere than in ambient surroundings. The main cause of this degradation is closely related to the reduction in the electrical conductivity of the Zn_xSb_y thin film, which is

associated with thermal decomposition, and this phenomenon was confirmed by various characterizations using X-ray diffraction (XRD) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analyses.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Thin Film Deposition. Zn_xSb_y thin films were prepared by codeposition with high purity zinc and antimony (LTS chemical, 99.999%) on silicon dioxide (SiO₂) substrates in a radio frequency (RF) magnetron sputtering system (ATC ORION 5 UHV, AJA international, Inc.) at room temperature (RT) to 200 °C. The chamber base pressure was $\sim 2 \times 10^{-7}$ Torr. Argon (Ar) was used as sputter-gas at a flow rate of 12 sccm, and the pressure in the chamber was fixed at 3.6 mTorr. To control the thin film growth, different RF powers of 28–60 W and a deposition time of 2 h were applied.

Characterization. The deposited thin films were then characterized using various methods. The thin film morphologies were studied using FE-SEM (Magellan400, FEI) and TEM (Tecnai F20 G², FEI). The TEM samples were prepared using focused ion beam (Nova 600 NanoLab, FEI) and a precision ion polishing system (PIPS). The diffraction patterns of the thin film samples were collected at 0.01° step widths over a 2θ range from 10° to 90° with an X-ray diffractometer (D/MAX-2500, RIGAKU) using Cu K α radiation. The in situ high temperature X-ray diffraction patterns were collected at temperatures from RT to 600 °C with a heating rate of 5 °C/min in Ar-purged atmosphere. The in-plane Seebeck coefficient and electrical resistivity were simultaneously measured from RT to 500 °C under N₂ and air atmosphere using thermoelectric property measurement systems (SEPEL Co., Ltd.).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Panels a–c in Figure 1 show different XRD patterns of the Zn_xSb_y thin film deposited with varying substrate temperatures at fixed sputtering power conditions of 65 (Zn) and 30 (Sb) Watt (W) for 120 min. In addition, FESEM images, located at the right corner of each of the XRD patterns, show the top-view surface morphologies of the thin films.

In the XRD pattern in Figure 1c, the thin film deposited at room temperature (RT, type A) shows an almost amorphous Zn₄Sb₃ component with some reflections from Zn crystal. From the FESEM morphologies, we also observed that many round-shaped particles were embedded in the Zn₄Sb₃ matrix deposited at RT. These particles exhibit an interesting compositional

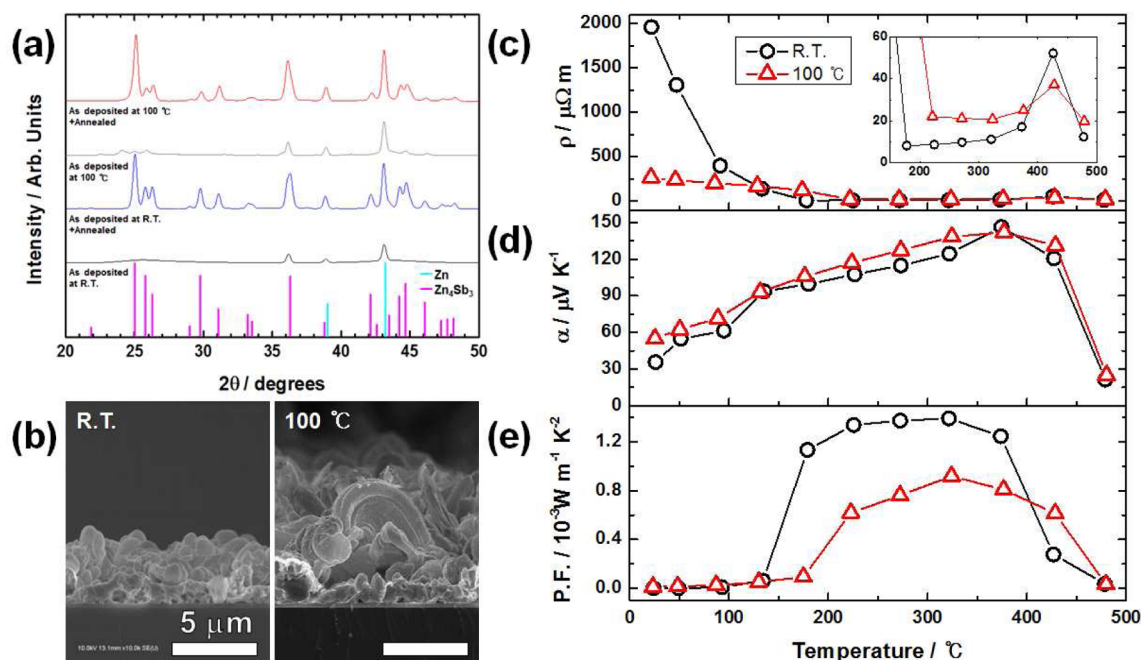


Figure 2. XRD patterns of samples deposited on the substrate at (a) room temperature (type A, gray line, Zn + amorphous Zn₄Sb₃ (a-Zn₄Sb₃)) and 100 °C (type B, light gray line, Zn + Zn₄Sb₃). The blue and red lines indicate the XRD patterns of type A and B samples, respectively, after annealing. (b) Cross-sectional FESEM images of type A (left) and B (right) samples. Thermoelectric properties of Zn_xSb₃ thin film samples as a function of temperature for (c) resistivity (ρ), (d) Seebeck coefficient (α), and (e) power factor (P.F.) data.

segregation between Zn and Zn₄Sb₃, as shown in the cross sectional scanning TEM (STEM) image and TEM-energy dispersive spectroscopy (TEM-EDS) line profiling analysis (Figure 1d). The Zn does not exist as a solid solution form in the thin film matrix but is embedded as a segregated crystal structure in the amorphous Zn₄Sb₃ particles. This segregation could be induced by the relatively lower solubility of Zn than that of Sb at high temperature²⁴ or the growth of Zn precipitates from nucleation due to inhomogeneity of the substrate temperature.²⁵ At a substrate temperature of 100 °C, the Zn (101) peak was more developed, and amorphous Zn₄Sb₃ components were crystallized. The sharper Zn (101) peak can be related to not only the more crystallized Zn components in the Zn-rich Zn₄Sb₃ particles but also the noticeable growth of some chunks on the thin film, possibly reflecting the size reduction of Zn-rich Zn₄Sb₃ particles from around 2–3 μm to <1 μm (Figure 1b). These unusual residual chunks on the surface of the thin film were identified by SEM-EDS analysis as being comprised mostly of Zn (~97.22 atomic %).

As mentioned above, the solubility of Zn in Zn₄Sb₃ decreases with increasing temperature;²⁴ hence, the insoluble Zn component formed some islands on the thin film due to their limited solubility at 100 °C. Moreover, from the SEM-EDS analysis, the total atomic % of Zn in the Zn-rich Zn₄Sb₃ particle also decreased by ~7.87% as compared to that in the particles formed at RT. Therefore, it is possible to speculate that at high temperature the insoluble Zn component might form some Zn chunks on the thin film, and consequently, lead to a relative Zn deficiency in the Zn-rich Zn₄Sb₃ particles, in contrast to the case at RT.

Finally, we characterized thin films that were deposited at a substrate temperature of 200 °C. The XRD and SEM-EDS data showed only the Sb component in the thin film. Thus, for further measurement of thermoelectric properties, we chose the

thin film samples that were deposited on the substrate at a temperature under 200 °C.

Generally, bulk β -Zn₄Sb₃ is known to be stable in the temperature range between 263 and 765 K;²⁸ however, this can be changed depending on impurity contents, dimensionality, and so forth.^{29–32} Thus, before we investigated the phase transition of the Zn_xSb₃ thin film with increasing temperature, we utilized the in situ high temperature X-ray diffractometer at a temperature range from RT to 600 °C in Ar-purged atmosphere. The 2D XRD patterns in Figure 1e show the clear phase evolution of the type A sample with increasing temperature. At a temperature less than ~130 °C, the Zn (101) peak near 43° dominates the XRD patterns, and the β -Zn₄Sb₃ phase including the (030) peak starts to develop above 150 °C. The Zn (101) peak was nearly smeared above 300 °C, whereas the β -Zn₄Sb₃ phase still remained, and its phase stability was maintained around 350 °C.

However, its phase suddenly changed toward ZnSb at a temperature >350 °C, and finally, only the Sb component remained over 470 °C. Conversely, the thin film grown at a substrate temperature of 100 °C (type B) showed β -Zn₄Sb₃ evolution at a starting temperature ~50 °C higher than that of type A (Figure S1a). Moreover, the quantitative XRD analysis showed that the weight % composition of β -Zn₄Sb₃ in type B thin films over all temperature ranges was also ~12.5% lower than that of type A (Figure 1b), suggesting that the excessive Zn component in type B may be hindered in phase transition toward β -Zn₄Sb₃. Eventually, the experimental results for thin films at the different substrate temperatures mirrored their thermoelectric (TE) properties, which will be discussed later (Figure 2c–e). Another factor to be addressed is related to the upper thermal stability limit of the β -Zn₄Sb₃ thin film, which was much lower than that of the bulk material (~492 °C), suggesting dimensionality has a considerable effect on the thermal stability of the material. From that point of view, the

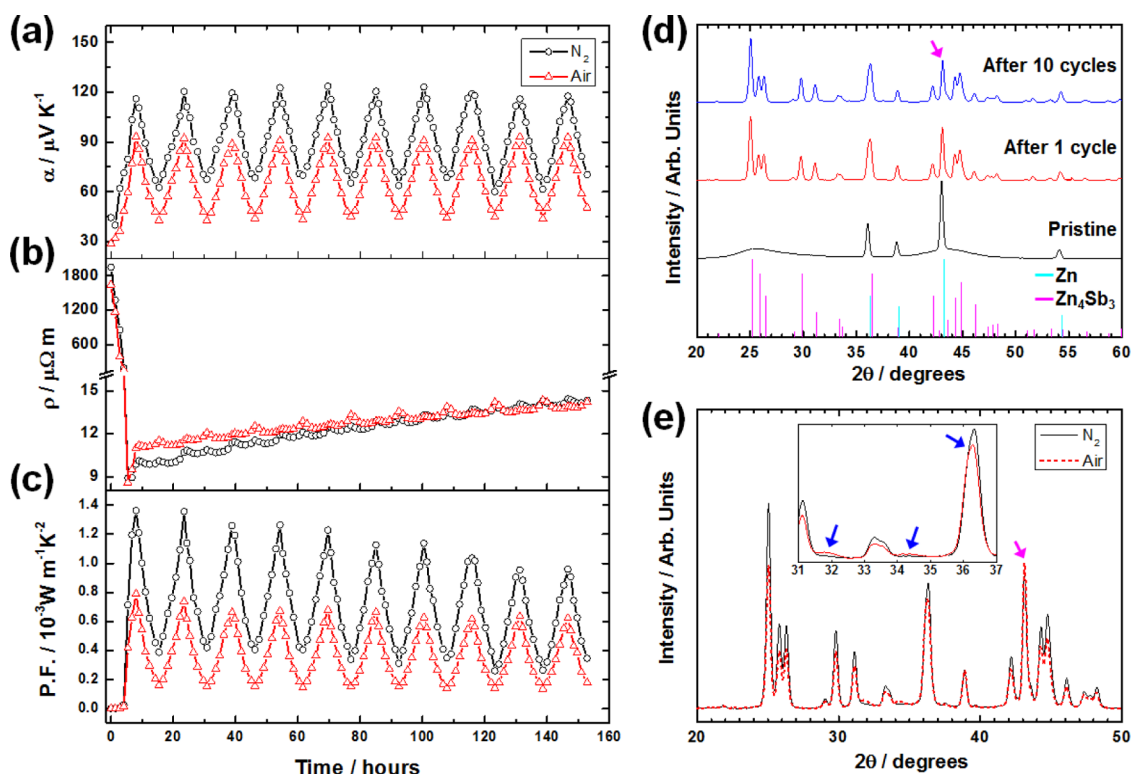


Figure 3. (a) Seebeck coefficient (α), (b) resistivity (ρ), and (c) power factor (P.F.) of the Zn_xSb_y thin film of a type A sample ($\text{Zn} + \alpha\text{-Zn}_4\text{Sb}_3$). Ten measurement cycles in the temperature range of RT to 300 °C were performed in N_2 (black) or air (red). (d) XRD patterns of the type A pristine sample (black line) after the first thermal cycle (red line) and after 10 cycles (blue line). The pink arrow shows the decrease in the Zn (101) peak after 10 thermal cycles due to Zn deficiency by thermal decomposition. (e) XRD patterns of the type A sample after 10 thermal cycles in N_2 (black line) and air (red dotted line). Specifically, the blue and pink arrows reflect the ZnO and Zn (101) peaks, respectively. The increase in the Zn (101) peak of a type A sample after 10 thermal cycles in air due to the growth of Zn precipitates, in contrast to when the sample was subjected to thermal cycling in N_2 atmosphere, which produces a decrease in the Zn (101) peak, as shown in (d).

experimental conditions of the post treatment process have to be very carefully considered when dealing with a low dimensional material instead of conventional bulk TE materials. Thus, we decided the temperature range for a thermal cycling test of the Zn_xSb_y thin film should be from RT to 300 °C based on the in situ high temperature XRD data.

Figure 2a shows the XRD pattern that was extracted from the in situ high temperature XRD data between RT and 270 °C (Figure 1e). After heat treatment, even with the different sputtering condition of substrate temperature at RT and 100 °C, they show very similar XRD patterns, unlike the XRD patterns of the as deposited film. However, according to a quantitative analysis based on XRD data, the proportion of Zn in the type B thin film is $\sim 2.6\times$ higher than that of type A. As mentioned before, this excessive Zn component hampered the phase transition toward $\beta\text{-Zn}_4\text{Sb}_3$, and it may mirror the increased resistivity (ρ) of the thin film over 200 °C (Figure 2c). Actually, in the temperature range between RT and 133 °C, the measured ρ of type B is much lower than that of RT because of excessive Zn chunks on the thin film, as we mentioned in Figure 1b. However, above 178 °C, these Zn residuals negatively influence the conductivity of the thin film. As shown in Figure 2b, the as grown Zn chunks break the thin film, which might lead to a decrease in the conductivity of the thin film with increasing temperature. Consequently, type B shows a lower power factor (P.F.) value of $0.92 \text{ mW m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-2}$ compared to that of type A, which has a P.F. of $1.39 \text{ mW m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-2}$ due to its lower conductivity at 321 °C, even though it has a slightly higher Seebeck coefficient (α) value than type A.

Moreover, as shown in the in situ high temperature XRD pattern, type B contains less $\beta\text{-Zn}_4\text{Sb}_3$ component than type A (Figure S1b), and the thermoelectric efficiency is also poor due to its higher thermal conductivity (κ), which is related to the excessive Zn component. Actually, because we estimated zT values versus temperature for the type A thin film based on κ values of the corresponding bulk materials,^{16,33,34} the samples of course indicate a maximum zT value of 1.26 at 321 °C, which is associated with the maximum content of $\beta\text{-Zn}_4\text{Sb}_3$ in the thin film, and a minimum zT value of 2.64×10^{-4} at 24 °C when it had the maximum Zn content (Figure S2b). However, the P.F. value of type B above 427 °C is higher than that at RT. This is related to the interesting sudden ρ drop above 426 °C, which is possibly due to melted Zn (the melting point of Zn is ~ 420 °C) connected to percolating paths along the grain boundaries.²⁸ The porous morphologies along the grain boundaries are shown in the TEM image in Figure S2a, which was obtained after measurement of TE properties and also supports the likelihood of this phenomenon.

Panels a–c in Figure 3 show the TE properties of type A measured after being subjected to thermal cycling 10 times. The thermal cycling temperature range was from RT to 300 °C, and based on the in situ high temperature XRD data, the maximum temperature was limited to <300 °C to impede the phase transition from $\beta\text{-Zn}_4\text{Sb}_3$ to other materials, such as ZnSb or Sb alone. The sample was heated with a heating rate of 2 °C min^{-1} and cooled to RT naturally in air or a nitrogen (N_2)-purged atmosphere. With increasing temperature, the α was increased and ρ decreased, which is general p-type semi-

conducting behavior.¹⁸ During the first thermal cycle in N₂, ρ quickly dropped from 1944.1 to 8.9 $\mu\Omega$ m, and then gradually increased with the number of cycles. The apparent decrease of ρ value during the first heating process in N₂ could be associated with crystallization followed by an annealing effect. We also believe that the gradual increase of ρ after the first cycle is possibly related to Zn deficiency. As shown in the XRD pattern in Figure 3d, the dominating Zn (101) peak in the Zn_xSb_y thin film decreases after 10 thermal cycles. This suggests that Zn is removed from the thin film matrix as thermal cycling occurs, and this can be related to the increasing ρ value in Figure 3b. However, as shown in Figure 3a, there are few changes in the α value according to the thermal cycling with identical fluctuations with temperature variation. For this reason, the P.F. of the Zn_xSb_y thin film gradually decreases with the number of cycles.

Another possible cause for this P.F. value degradation is the development of internal defects, such as nano voids, and crack propagation during thermal cycling. Figure 4a displays the cross

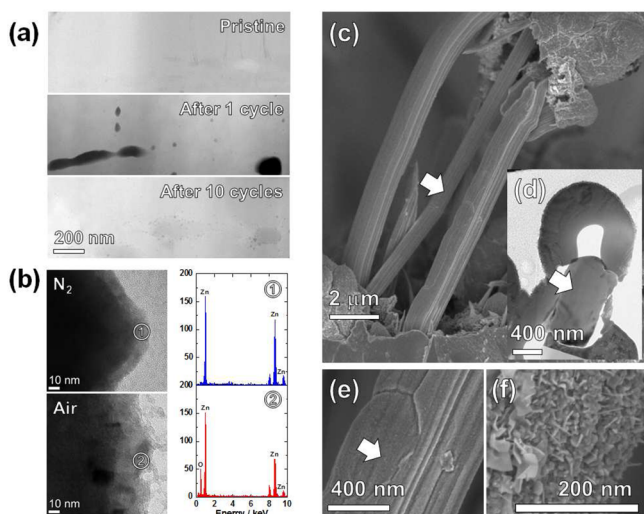


Figure 4. (a) STEM images of the type A sample (top) after the first thermal cycle (middle) and after 10 cycles (bottom). (b) TEM images of the type A sample after 10 thermal cycles in N₂ (top) and air (bottom). The TEM-EDS spectra was obtained from zone (1) (Zn) and zone (2) (Zn and O). (c) FESEM and (d) TEM image of Zn fiber (white arrow) on the type A sample after 5 thermal cycles in air. (e) Magnified FESEM image of the Zn fiber shown in (c). (f) FESEM image of a mixture of nano rod- and plate-like shaped ZnO, which was grown at the surface of a Zn fiber after 10 thermal cycles in air.

sectional STEM images of the Zn_xSb_y thin film after thermal cycling in N₂. After the first heating and quenching process, we observed many voids with sizes of 10–200 nm inside the thin film. These voids were generated from the Zn precipitate inside of the Zn₄Sb₃ matrix.

Actually, the location of the segregated Zn component in a Zn-rich Zn₄Sb₃ particle was almost identical to the position of the void in the particle (Figure S3a). It is well-known that Zn has a very high diffusion rate in β -Zn₄Sb₃, as Zn moves easily from one interstitial site to the other.^{24,26,35} Therefore, at maximum temperature during the heating process, zinc atoms with high mobility are able to escape to the surface of the Zn₄Sb₃ matrix, leaving the voids.^{24,26–28} TEM images and TEM-EDS analysis in Figure 4b confirm this phenomenon, as the escaped zinc atoms form a Zn coating layer of 10 nm on the

surface of the Zn₄Sb₃ thin film. Moreover, this is also supported by SEM-EDS analysis (Figure 5d), which shows a gradual increase of the Zn composition at the surface, whereas it is reduced inside the thin film sample with increasing numbers of thermal cycles.

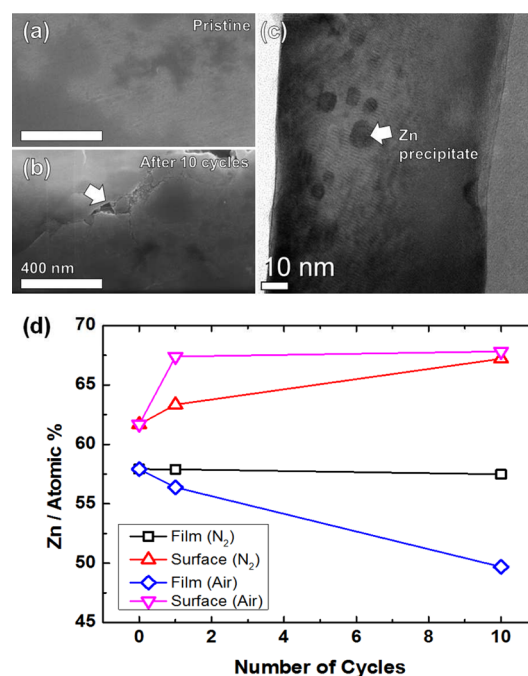


Figure 5. Cross-sectional FESEM image of type A (a) pristine thin film and (b) after 10 thermal cycles in N₂. The white arrow shows the growth of internal cracks of the thin film due to thermal stress during the measurement cycling. (c) TEM image of type A sample after 10 thermal cycles in air. The repetitive heating and quenching cycles lead the mobile Zn atoms to form aggregates and Zn precipitates (white arrow) inside of the thin film. (d) SEM-EDS results of the type A thin film according to the number of thermal cycles. “Film” and “Surface” mean that the EDS spot is located at the middle and near the surface of the cross-sectional thin film, respectively.

Interestingly, after 10 cycles, the size of these voids decreased to <10 nm, and their positions were rearranged along the grain boundaries as shown in the TEM image of Figure 4a. This can be explained as follows: when the sample is subsequently heated upon annealing, the Zn solubility is higher, and Zn can re-enter the Zn₄Sb₃ phase from the inclusions.^{24,26,27} Thus, the Zn in the Zn_xSb_y, with its higher solubility, can move around easily in the thin film matrix after the second cycle because it was already annealed during the first cycle. For this reason, the voids of a few hundred nanometers might be reduced by filling with re-entered Zn or be shrunk by the crystal growth of neighboring grains during the repetitive heating process.

In addition, the Zn prefers to diffuse along the grain boundaries in an attempt to minimize energy, and this could be proposed as the main mechanism for the rearrangement of many nano voids along the grain boundaries after 10 thermal cycles. These nano voids might block the carrier flow of the Zn_xSb_y thin film, which could induce the increasing resistivity of the sample. Also, repetitive annealing and quenching could apply thermal stress to the inside of the thin film. Actually, we observed many cracks on the inside of the thin film after thermal cycling (Figure 5b), and they could be produced by the difference in thermal coefficient value between the TE thin

material and SiO₂/Si substrate.³⁹ Therefore, besides the removal of the Zn component from the sample through thermal decomposition (See Figure S4), the generation of nano voids and cracks induced by thermal stress could also be responsible for the gradual decrease in the power factor value of the Zn_xSb_y thin film under repetitive heating and quenching treatment, as shown in Figure 3c.

The thin film heated in air also showed a similar reduction in ρ during the first heating cycle but gave rise to higher ρ during the quenching process, as compared to that heated in N₂. This could be attributed to the generation of zinc oxide (ZnO), which could be formed when Zn, removed from the thin film matrix, was exposed to oxygen (O₂) in air. Actually, after thermal cycling in air, there was a slight emergence of small XRD peaks that reflect the ZnO (100), (002), and (101) at 31.8°, 34.4°, and 36.3°, respectively, as shown in the inset to Figure 3e.

Similarly, after 10 thermal cycles, we also observed that the surface of a sample heated in air was covered with a ZnO layer, as shown in Figure 4b, which is in good agreement with the presence of ZnO peaks in the XRD patterns of Figure 3e. In addition, as compared with a sample heated and quenched in N₂, the XRD peaks reflecting Zn₄Sb₃ were reduced overall after atmospheric thermal cycling. Whereas the Zn (101) peak is rather to be increased after thermal cycling relative to the as deposited thin film, mirroring very strong thermal decomposition of Zn₄Sb₃ that can have a relatively low α value in air, as shown in Figure 3a.

However, the ZnO layer at the surface of the thermoelectric thin film might lead to the retention of a higher P.F. value during thermal cycling. As shown in Figure 3c, on the basis of the maximum P.F. value, when the thin film was subjected to the ambient process, 78.6% of the initial P.F. value was maintained after 10 cycles, whereas the sample in N₂ retained 70.4% of its initial P.F. value (see Figure S7). Of course, with further cycling, the sample under the ambient process would fail because it would have a more rapid and stronger thermal decomposition of the Zn_xSb_y thin film than the sample processed in the N₂ atmosphere. This thermal decomposition leads to vibrant morphological changes inside the Zn_xSb_y thin film during the thermal cycling, which can be associated with film destruction.

Panels c–f in Figure 4 exhibit noticeable morphological changes in the Zn_xSb_y thin film after 10 thermal cycles in air. The zinc columns break through the thin film during the thermal cycle in air (Figure 4d) and even grow to a few micrometer scale. Moreover, as the thermal cycling proceeds in air, the plate-shaped ZnO additionally grows at the surface of the Zn columns (Figure 4f). We believe that the growth of fiber-like Zn structures is possibly related to stress relaxation of the thin film during the thermal cycling, followed by the generation of a ZnO layer at the surface of Zn_xSb_y. The main cause of increasing compressive stress might be the difference in thermal conductivity between the substrate (SiO₂/Si) and thin film (Zn_xSb_y), such that the Zn fiber grows on the thin film to relieve stress when it cools down.³⁹ In addition, the ZnO layer might accelerate this kind of side reaction that leads to the growth of the Zn fiber. Actually, we observed many Zn precipitates or segregated Zn regions (see Figures S5 and S6) after ambient thermal cycling, which never occurred in pristine or after the first thermal cycle (Figure 5c). However, when the thin films were subjected to thermal cycles in N₂, there was no Zn fiber, unlike that in the ambient conditions. These

phenomena can be explained as follows: in N₂ atmosphere, the movable Zn atoms were able to evaporate out from the sample when they were heated and to form the amorphous Zn layer at the surface, as shown in Figure 3b. Consequently, the Zn component at the surface of the Zn_xSb_y thin film during thermal cycling in N₂ shows a gradual increase with an increasing number of cycles, as depicted in Figure 5d. Conversely, in an ambient environment, even though the sample was subjected to 10 thermal cycles, once the Zn component has increased at the surface, Zn quantities do not increase further. This is because once the evaporated Zn reacts with oxygen in air a ZnO layer is formed that possibly makes it difficult for further Zn to escape from the surface of the thin film matrix due to size exclusion given the atomic radius of O (0.140 nm) relative to Zn (0.074 nm).³⁸ Moreover, on the inside of the thin film, the ambient thermal cycle process leads to a rapid decrease in Zn quantity as compared to a sample in N₂ (Figure 5d). According to previous research, the thermal decomposition of Zn₄Sb₃ can generate ZnSb and Zn, or Zn and Sb, and the former degradation process is known to be intrinsic to the structure, whereas the latter is a faster and more common reaction for samples heated in air.^{31,35–37} For this reason, the Zn thermally decomposed in air might drive the aggregation and growth of Zn precipitates on the inside of the thin film, and finally, growths of fiber-like Zn column structures can burst out from the matrix, relieving the compressive stress,³⁹ as shown in Figure 4d. Therefore, side effects, such as the oxidation of the thermoelectric thin film during thermal cycling, can give rise to the destruction of the device or severe degradation of thermoelectric performance with respect to thermal reliability.

Therefore, reducing residual thermal stress or blocking further internal agglomeration of the Zn component by using the layer-by-layer deposition (coating layer-thermoelectric layer-coating layer...) technique would be helpful to prevent sample destruction under ambient thermal cycling. With this in mind, our conclusion is that proper surface coating or activation of the surface of the thermoelectric thin film material would reduce these unwanted side reactions and thermoelectric performance loss during repetitive thermal cycling, and this step is essential for the application of thermoelectric materials in actual surroundings, not just in a laboratory environment, which has a simple thermal profile.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we investigate the thermoelectric performance and microstructure evolution of Zn_xSb_y thin films subjected to thermal cycling. The high temperature in situ XRD patterns and TEM results show that the degradation in thermoelectric performance of the Zn_xSb_y thin film with an increasing number of thermal cycles comes from structural, morphological, and compositional changes. In particular, the fluidity of Zn atoms in the Zn_xSb_y thin film matrix during thermal cycling give rise to morphological and compositional changes, such as nano inclusions or voids, which leads to degradation of the thermoelectric performance over increasing thermal cycles. Moreover, these changes are more developed under atmospheric measurement conditions, which generate thermally decomposed Zn or other impurity phases. For instance, the ZnO coating layer, which comes from oxidation of thermally decomposed Zn from the Zn_xSb_y thin film, maintains the thermoelectric performance for some time by blocking Zn evaporation from the Zn_xSb_y thin film. However, the Zn_xSb_y thin film was eventually broken by growth of the Zn fiber to

relieve the thermal stress, which was followed by Zn agglomeration with further atmospheric thermal cycling. These results provide insight for the needs for the proper encapsulation of the Zn_xSb_y surface that does not degrade thermoelectric performance with repeated thermal cycling.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

● Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsami.5b04291.

Additional in situ high temperature XRD data, quantitative analysis from XRD data, STEM images, TEM images, and SAD patterns of zinc antimonide thin film (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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