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The Comparative Study of Thermoelectric Properties in Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆

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ABSTRACT: The charge carrier transport and corresponding thermoelectric properties are often affected by several parameters, necessitating a thorough comparative study for a profound understanding of the detailed conduction mechanism. Here, as a model system, we compare the electronic transport properties of two layered semiconductors, Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆. Both materials have similar grain sizes and morphologies, yet their conduction characteristics are significantly different. We found that phase-boundary scattering can be one of the main factors for in Bi₂Si₂Te₆ to experience significant charge carrier scattering whereas Sb₂Si₂Te₆ is relatively unaffected by the phenomenon. Furthermore, extensive point-defect scattering in Sb₂Si₂Te₆ significantly reduces its lattice thermal conductivity and results in high *zT* values across a broad temperature range. These findings provide novel insights into electron transport within these materials and should lead to strategies for further improving their thermoelectric performance.

1. Introduction

Recently, thermoelectric (TE) energy conversion technologies are attracting significant attention owing to the fact that the generation of electricity from conventional turbines results in undesirable CO₂ emissions as well as noise. ¹⁻³ Nevertheless, the efficiency of TE generators is markedly lower than those of other energy-harvesting technologies, and their market growth has stagnated for years. ⁴ The ideal efficiency of TE materials can be determined using the dimensionless figure of merit $zT = S^2 \sigma T/\kappa_{\text{tot}}$, where S, σ , T, and κ_{tot} are the Seebeck coefficient, electrical conductivity, absolute temperature, and total thermal conductivity of the TE material. ^{5,6} It is well known that materials with high zT values exhibit high conversion efficiencies. However, increasing zT is challenging because the various material properties are highly interdependent.

Therefore, researchers have focused on developing novel TE materials with high performance, such as Bi₂Te₃⁷⁻¹¹, GeTe¹²⁻¹⁶, PbTe¹⁷⁻²⁰, SnSe²¹⁻²⁴, AgBiSe₂²⁵⁻²⁷, Mg₃Sb₂^{3,28,29}, half-Heuslers³⁰, and metal silicides³²⁻³⁶. Among the various TE materials being explored, Sb₂Si₂Te₆ constitutes an emerging class of layered p-type TE materials.³⁷ Even when undoped, it has an intrinsically high hole concentration at 6×10^{19} /cm³ yet shows a reasonably high Seebeck coefficient at 120 μ V/K. Furthermore, its layered crystal structure and high Grüneisen parameter value

result in exceptionally low lattice thermal conductivity (κ_{latt}). These intriguing features make $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ suitable for use as a high-performance TE material.

The existence of its chemical family, $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$, has already been predicted by first-principles calculations. Similar to $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$, $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ is expected to have a layered crystal structure but a slightly smaller bandgap compared with that of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$. In terms of thermal properties, $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ is expected to exhibit a lower κ_{latt} value than that of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ owing to the substitution of Sb by the heavy Bi atoms, which may also result in high zT values. However, the electronic and thermal transport properties of polycrystalline $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ have not been investigated experimentally. Therefore, we synthesized $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ and evaluated its TE properties to elucidate the structure–property relationship for $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$.

In this work, we report, for the first time, the TE properties of polycrystalline Bi₂Si₂Te₆ and compare them with those of Sb₂Si₂Te₆. Through systematic characterization measurements, we were able to elucidate the complex microstructures of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ and evaluate the effects of their heterointerfaces. The electronic transport properties of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ are superior to those of Bi₂Si₂Te₆. This can be attributed to the suppression of phase-boundary scattering at the heterointerfaces in the former. Moreover, it was found that point-defect scattering is the principal mechanism responsible for the reduced lattice

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thermal conductivity of Sb₂Si₂Te₆. These findings emphasize the importance of understanding the phenomenon of electron transport at interfaces with respect to the development of high-performance TE materials.

2. Results and discussion

2.1. Phase and structural characterization

The phase purities and crystal structures of the synthesized samples were characterized using powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis. Figure 1c and 1d show the powder XRD patterns of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆, respectively. Both materials have a trigonal structure with space group R-3. In addition, all the diffraction peaks with the except of that at approximately θ = 42° could be indexed to either $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ or $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$. We found that this extra peak arises from the Sb₂Te₃ and Bi₂Te₃ secondary phases. The results of a quantitative analysis indicated that the volume fractions of Sb₂Te₃ and Bi₂Te₃ in the matrix were 22.9% and 9.32% for Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Te₂Te₆, respectively. Although we used the synthesis procedures reported by Luo et al., the volume fractions of the secondary phases were greater than reported values by Luo et al. (0.6 wt%).³⁷ Moreover, the difference in the phase purities was probably related to the differences in the processing conditions such as the ball-to-powder ratio, volume of the jar used, and annealing environment.

The presence of secondary phases was also confirmed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) imaging. The highangle annular dark-field scanning TEM (HAADF-STEM) images and corresponding elemental mapping by energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) in Figure 1a and 1b show that large Sb-Te-or Bi-Te-rich precipitates as well as Si and Te nanoprecipitates were present in the samples. The lateral size of the Sb-Te precipitates was as high as a few micrometers, which is almost double that of the Bi-Te precipitates. This is consistent with results of the XRD analysis, which suggested that the amount of Sb₂Te₃ was nearly twice that of Bi₂Te₃. Moreover, although Si and Te nanoprecipitates were also present, their contents were extremely low since related peaks could not be observed in the XRD patterns. Table 1 lists the experimentally measured lattice parameters of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ and compares them with those determined by density functional theory (DFT) calculations.³⁸ The measured value for Sb₂Si₂Te₆ is almost identical to that reported previously.³⁷ Moreover, the lattice parameter of Bi₂Si₂Te₆ was slightly higher compared with that of Sb₂Si₂Te₆. This is because the ionic radius of Bi³⁺ (103 pm) is larger than that of Sb³⁺ (76 pm).³⁹ Note that the lattice parameters as obtained from the DFT calculations may be overestimated when the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) exchange-correlation functional is implemented. 40 41

2.2. Electronic transport properties

Sb₂Si₂Te₆ exhibits superior electronic transport properties compared with those of Bi₂Si₂Te₆. Figure 2a and 2b show the temperature-dependent Seebeck coefficient (S) and the electrical conductivity (σ) of both materials. The S value of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ increased with increasing temperature, indicating that Sb₂Si₂Te₆ shows degenerate conduction characteristics. Similarly, the S value of Bi₂Si₂Te₆ increased till approximately 550 K and then decreased monotonically till 773 K. In

addition, the Seebeck coefficients of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ were positive, implying that for both materials, the conduction process is primarily governed by holes. The σ value of $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ increased with increasing temperature, starting at 673 K, suggesting that $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ shows nondegenerate conduction characteristics. The n-like shape of the curve for the Seebeck coefficient can be attributed to bipolar conduction, which can be expressed using the following equation:

$$S = \frac{S_p \sigma_p - S_n \sigma_n}{\sigma_p + \sigma_n}$$

where S_p , S_n , σ_p , and σ_n are the Seebeck coefficients of holes and electrons, and the electrical conductivities of holes and electrons, respectively.⁴² When the electron concentration is comparable to that of holes owing to thermal excitation, the magnitude of the Seebeck coefficient decreases because S_n compensates S_p .

It is known that TE properties of materials significantly vary due to several factors such as the electronic band structure, band gap, and even the spatial distribution and molar fraction of the secondary phases. Therefore, the aforementioned factors should be considered to understand the complex TE properties of the current samples. As both Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ exhibit a peak Seebeck coefficient at a certain temperature, their electronic bandgaps can be estimated using the Goldsmid–Sharp rule, which is given by the following equation:

$$E_{g,GS} = 2|S_{max}|T_{max},$$

where $S_{\rm max}$ is the maximum Seebeck coefficient and $T_{\rm max}$ is the temperature corresponding to $S_{\rm max}$. ^{43,44} The bandgap calculated using the Goldsmid–Sharp rule was 0.33 eV for Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and 0.21 eV for Bi₂Si₂Te₆. The calculated bandgap of 0.33 eV for Sb₂Si₂Te₆ is almost half of that reported by Luo et al. (optical bandgap of 0.6 eV). ³⁷ Therefore, we measured the optical absorption spectra of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ and determined their optical bandgaps, which were found to be 0.4 eV and 0.28 eV, respectively (Figure S1). Furthermore, the DFT-calculated bandgaps of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ are 0.15 eV and 0.07 eV, respectively. ³⁸ These results confirm that both materials have a narrow bandgap, which ranges from 0.2 to 0.4 eV. This is consistent with the electronic property measurement results, according to which Bi₂Si₂Te₆ exhibits bipolar conduction while Sb₂Si₂Te₆ does not.

We found that Sb₂Si₂Te₆ is also resistant to carrier scattering at the phase boundaries. Figure 2c shows the calculated weighted mobilities (μ_w) of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆. Similar to the Hall mobility, the temperature-dependent μ_w can be used to understand the charge-transport mechanism. 45 One can see that in the case of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$, μ_w is dependent on $T^{-1.5}$, suggesting that electron-phonon scattering (or deformation potential scattering) is the predominant scattering mechanism. 46,47 However, the $\mu_{\rm w}$ value of Bi₂Si₂Te₆ is not dependent on $T^{-1.5}$ for temperatures close to room temperature and those higher than 600 K. As discussed above, Bi₂Si₂Te₆ exhibits strong bipolar conduction at temperatures higher than 600 K owing to its small bandgap. Hence, the reason for the observed deviation at high temperatures is the bipolar effect of electrons and holes. Interestingly, at temperatures close to room temperature, $\mu_{\rm w}$ increased with increasing temperature. This behavior has also been observed in Mg₃Sb₂-based systems when a higher degree of grain-boundary scattering hinders electron transport.^{47, 4} The positive slope of μ_w can be attributed to the thermal activation of charge carriers, which helps overcome scattering in

certain media. ⁴⁹ However, in contrast to previous studies, we did not observe a significant difference in the grain morphologies of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ (Figure 2d and 2e). This is reasonable as both materials were synthesized and sintered under the same conditions. Hence, we suspect that the observed precipitates act as a phase boundary, resulting in a strong scattering effect similar to that of grain-boundary scattering. In the next section, we propose an explanation why phase-boundary scattering has no effect on the electronic transport properties of Sb₂Si₂Te₆.

2.3. Thermal properties and compositional analysis

It is known that Sb₂Si₂Te₆ exhibits ultralow thermal conductivity (κ) owing to its high Grüneisen parameter values and low phonon group velocity.³⁷ We expected that Bi₂Si₂Te₆ could exhibit an even lower κ value than Sb₂Si₂Te₆ because the atomic number (Z) of Bi is larger than for Sb. 50 However, both the total thermal conductivity (κ_{tot}) and lattice thermal conductivity (κ_{latt}) of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ were significantly lower than those of $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ (Figure 3a and 3b). The κ_{latt} value of Bi₂Si₂Te₆ decreases from 0.85 W m⁻¹K⁻¹ at 323 K to 0.60 Wm⁻¹ ${}^{1}K^{-1}$ at 773 K. Similarly, the κ_{latt} value of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ drops from $0.72~{\rm W}~{\rm m}^{\text{-}1}{\rm K}^{\text{-}1}$ at 323 K to $0.26~{\rm W}{\rm m}^{\text{-}1}{\rm K}^{\text{-}1}$ at 773 K. The κ_{latt} value of our sample is almost 30% lower than that reported by Luo et al. at temperatures close to room temperature.³⁷ We attribute this reduction in κ_{latt} to the presence of nano- and micro-sized precipitates shown in Figure 1. These micro-sized precipitates effectively scatter long-wavelength phonons at temperatures close to room temperature while the nano-sized precipitates consistently scatter short-wavelength phonons over the entire temperature range. 19

The observed low κ_{latt} value of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ can be explained by the results of the STEM-EDS compositional analysis and Hall measurements. As shown in Figure 3c and 3d, the Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ matrices are Si- and Te-deficient. This may be owing to the precipitated Si and Te secondary phases observed during XRD and STEM analyses. Luo et al. reported that Sb vacancies (V_{Sb}) are the reason for the high hole concentration of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ because V_{Sb} has the lowest DFT-calculated formation energy among all possible point defects.³⁷ However, it is also likely that Si vacancies act as acceptors to increase the hole concentration as the matrix is Sideficient. Interestingly, the measured hole concentration of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ was 10 times greater than that of Bi₂Si₂Te₆, although their constituent element ratios were similar. This implies that the formation energy of V_{Sb} is lower than that of V_{Bi} yielding the high concentration of point defects in Sb₂Si₂Te₆. Thus, point defects in Sb₂Si₂Te₆ can effectively scatter short-wavelength phonons and reduce the value of κ_{latt} at high temperatures. Indeed, the κ_{latt} value of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ is 15.2% lower than that of Bi₂Si₂Te₆ at 323 K but 56.6% lower at 773 K.

The intrinsic thermal properties of materials are mainly determined by the Grüneisen parameter, which is a degree of anharmonicity present in the phonon dispersion. The estimated Grüneisen parameters of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆, which have been deduced from the elastic properties, were 2.98 and 2.53, respectively (Table S3). The larger Grüneisen parameter of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ would lead to the much low κ_{latt} determined by Umklapp process. However, a theoretical calculation based on the modified Debye–Callaway model overestimates the lattice thermal conductivity of both materials if the Umklapp process is considered only (Figure S7). Thus, it can be inferred that the

principal reason for lower κ_{latt} values of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ than that of Bi₂Si₂Te₆ would mainly originate from the high Grüneisen parameter, as well as a combined effect of the strong point-defect scattering, and phase boundary scattering. Based on the EDS quantification results, we could evaluate the transport characteristics of the secondary phase in Bi₂Si₂Te₆. As the Bi₂Si₂Te₆ matrix is Bi-rich, its precipitate (Bi₂Te₃) would be Bi-poor. As a result, Bi₂Te₃ exhibits n-type conduction because of the Te_{Bi} antisite defects. ^{51, 52} Therefore, n-type Bi₂Te₃ precipitates form a highly resistive phase boundary within the p-type Bi₂Si₂Te₆ matrix. Similarly, the Sb₂Te₃ precipitates in Sb₂Si₂Te₆ are Sb-poor. However, Sb₂Te₃ always exhibits ptype conduction because of the significantly low formation energy of Sb_{Te}. 52, 53 As a result, the phase boundary between Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Sb₂Te₃ is less resistive to holes than that between Bi₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Te₃.

2.4. Mechanism responsible for high zT of Sb₂Si₂Te₆

The systematic investigations described above suggested that (i) the phenomena of strong phase-boundary scattering and (ii) significant point-defect scattering are responsible for the high zT values of Sb₂Si₂Te₆, as described in Figure 4a. Even though the volume fraction of the secondary phase of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ is approximately three times that of Bi₂Si₂Te₆, the former exhibits superior electronic transport properties owing to its homogeneous p-type phase boundary. However, Bi₂Si₂Te₆ experiences significant phase-boundary scattering at temperatures close to room temperature because of its resistive, n-type phase boundary (Figure 4b). This fact is further corroborated by transient potential Seebeck microscopy (T-PSM) measurements (Figure 4c and 4d). The spatial distribution of the Seebeck coefficient was uniformly p-type for Sb₂Si₂Te₆. However, Bi₂Si₂Te₆ shows distinctive p- and n-type regions, which consists of p-type matrix and n-type Bi₂Te₃ precipitates.

The above characteristics can be reasonably understood by the valence band offset (ΔE_{VB}), which acts as a barrier to hole transport. The ionization energy (IE) of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ as measured by ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) was 4.78 eV, which is consistent with the previous result of Luo et al. (Figure S4).³⁷ It is known that the IE of Sb₂Te₃ is 4.45 eV, yielding ΔE_{VB} of 0.33 eV.54 However, given that the Fermi level of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ lies 0.26 eV above that of Sb₂Te₃, the effective ΔE_{VB} would be 0.07 eV after Fermi level alignment (Figure S5). The measured IE value of $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ was 4.85 eV, giving an ΔE_{VB} value of 0.52 eV. However, this energy barrier does not decrease significantly after Fermi level alignment, and the effective ΔE_{VB} is approximately 0.37 eV, almost 5 times to that of the Sb₂Si₂Te₆–Sb₂Te₃ system. From this estimation of ΔE_{VB} , we can infer that the principal mechanism for the severe phase boundary scattering of Bi₂Si₂Te₆ stems from the misalignment of the valence band maximum. Similar observations have been made in various TE systems, where a small variation in $\Delta E_{\rm VB}$ between the matrix and secondary phase dramatically changes the electronic transport properties. 55-59 In addition, it is noteworthy that endotaxial nanostructures, i.e., secondary phases with a coherent interface to the matrix, can minimize the detrimental effects on carrier mobility. 55, 56, 59 Hence, crystal coherency between the matrix and secondary phases could affect the overall electronic transport properties in Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆.

We quantitatively evaluated the electronic transport properties of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ based on the electronic quality factor (B_e) .⁶⁰

As can be seen from Figure 4e and 4f, the fitted B_e value of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ is 1.8, which is slightly lower than that reported by Luo et al. ($B_e = 2.6$). This difference can be attributed to the scattering of holes in the secondary phases. However, one should also consider that the κ_{latt} value of our sample is almost 30% lower than that reported by Luo et al. This eventually yields a similar thermoelectric quality factor $(B \propto B_e T / \kappa_{latt})$. However, Bi₂Si₂Te₆ exhibits a maximum B_c of 0.7, and its B_c value is lower at temperatures close to room temperature as well as at high temperatures owing to additional scattering mechanisms. With its low B_e value, its relatively high κ_{latt} results in significantly lower zT values over both low- and hightemperature range. As illustrated above, a frequent scattering of charge carriers in Bi₂Si₂Te₆ results from several scattering centers: bipolar transport from narrow band gap and resistive phase boundary formed by Bi₂Te₃. This leads to the relatively small power factor and corresponding low B_e value. Moreover, the modest concentration of point defects and smaller Grüneisen parameter of Bi₂Si₂Te₆ compared to that of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ result in high κ_{latt} values. The calculated zT values in Figure 4f clearly highlight the detrimental effect of phase-boundary scattering in Bi₂Si₂Te₆ as well as that of its bipolar conduction characteristics. In contrast, Sb₂Si₂Te₆ exhibits a high zT value (>1) owing to the point-defect scattering of phonons but does not show significant bipolar scattering.

3. Conclusions

In summary, we successfully synthesized Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ by a solid-state reaction method and measured the TE properties of polycrystalline Bi₂Si₂Te₆ for the first time. We found that both, Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ contain several types of nanoscale precipitates within their matrices. However, these have an opposite effect on the electronic transport properties of both materials. Similar to the case for other high-performance TE materials, in Sb₂Si₂Te₆, hole carriers are mainly scattered because of electron-phonon scattering. However, Bi₂Si₂Te₆ experiences significant phase-boundary scattering and bipolar transport over nearly all operating temperature ranges and exhibits low zT values. Furthermore, we found that point-defect scattering plays a critical role in ensuring that the lattice thermal conductivity of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ is low. On the other hand, the formation of point defects is inhibited in Bi₂Si₂Te₆. The results of this work not only highlight the importance of understanding the fundamental scattering mechanism in TE materials but can also serve as guidelines for further improvement of the performance of other TE materials through interface engineering.

4. Experimental section

Reagents: Sb shots (99.999%, 5N Plus), Bi shots (99.999%, 5N Plus), Te shots (99.999%, 5N Plus), and Si granules (99.999%, 5N Plus) were used as received without further purification.

Synthesis: We synthesized $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ by ball milling and annealing as per the method described by Luo et al.³⁷ Stoichiometric amounts of the starting materials were added to a zirconia jar (70 mL) along with zirconia balls (diameter of 10 mm). The ball-to-powder ratio was 10:1. To prevent oxidation during the milling process, the jar was evacuated, filled with N_2 gas, and sealed. The milling process was performed using a planetary ball mill (Pulverisette 7, Fritsch)

at 450 rpm for 2 h. The obtained powder was pressed into a pellet using a hydraulic press under a uniaxial pressure of 200 MPa. The obtained pellet was placed in a tube furnace under a constant Ar gas flow (190 mL/min). The tube furnace was heated to 823 K for 2 h, annealed at this temperature for 48 h, and cooled to room temperature.

Densification: The obtained sample was ground into a powder using an agate mortar and placed in a graphite mold (diameter of 12.7 mm). Graphite punches of the same diameter were used during the densification process. The powder was densified by spark plasma sintering (Dr. SINTER SPS-211Lx, Fuji Electronic Industrial) in vacuum at 773 K for 10 min under a uniaxial pressure of 50 MPa.

Measurement of TE properties: The obtained sample was machined into a rectangular bar (3×3×8 mm³) and a cylinder $(\Phi 12.7 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3)$, which were used to measure the electrical and thermal properties, respectively. S and σ were measured simultaneously using a commercial apparatus (BS-1, Bluesys) with a four-probe setup under a weak He backpressure to minimize sample outgassing and improve the contact between the sample and the measuring electrodes. The temperature gradient between the heater electrode and heat sink electrode was set to 10, 20, and 30 K, and the actual temperature gradient across the sample was approximately 2 to 10 K. Before the measurements, we calibrated the equipment by using constantan as a reference material and performing measurements from 323 K to 773 K. We could confirm that the measured values lay within the standard error range of the S and σ values reported in the literature. The value of κ was calculated using the expression $\kappa = \rho \cdot C_p \cdot D$, where ρ is the bulk density, C_p is the specific heat capacity, and D is the thermal diffusivity. The value of ρ was measured by the Archimedes method, while C_p was calculated using the Dulong-Petit law. D was measured using a laser flash apparatus (LFA 457, Netzsch) in an Ar atmosphere. A thin graphite layer was coated on the sample surface to minimize sample evaporation and improve the emissivity of the sample. A pulse-corrected Cowan model was employed to calculate the D values.

XRD analysis: The XRD measurements were performed using an X-ray diffractometer (Smartlab, Rigaku) with a Cu-K α radiation source and a Ge(111) monochromator. Whole-powder pattern fitting (WPPF) was performed using the software PDXL2 (Rigaku). The diffraction planes and corresponding Bragg angles were calculated using the software VESTA.

SEM analysis: Fracture surface analysis was performed using a field-emission scanning electron microscopy (SEM) system (S-4800, Hitachi) at an acceleration voltage of 20 kV.

TEM analysis: Thin lamellae samples for the TEM analysis were prepared with a focused ion beam system (Helios G4, FEI) using liquid Ga metal as the ion source. HAADF-STEM imaging and EDS elemental mapping were performed using a TEM system (Talos F200X, FEI) equipped with a Super X EDS detector.

Measurement of optical properties: The optical absorption spectra of the samples were acquired using a Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (Nicolet iS50, Thermo Scientific). Their optical reflectances were measured by diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, and their absorption coefficients were calculated using the Kubelka–Munk equation. The optical bandgap was obtained by the linear interpolation of the absorption spectrum from the Tauc plot.

Hall measurements: The Hall coefficient was measured using a Hall effect measurement system (HMS-3000, Ecopia) with the van der Pauw configuration at room temperature. The carrier concentration was calculated from the Hall coefficient. The high-temperature Hall measurements were conducted using a high-temperature apparatus (HMS 8407, Lake Shore Cryotronics) under a magnetic field of 1 T.

UPS measurements: Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) was conducted using electron spectroscopy for chemical analysis (ESCA) apparatus (Axis Supra, Kratos) with a He I radiation source (photon energy = 21.2 eV) in an ultra-high vacuum chamber (base pressure < 5×10^{-10} Torr). The sample spectra were calibrated using a gold (Au) standard sample stored in the load lock chamber.

Kelvin probe force microscopy (KPFM): We utilized KPFM measurements to analyze the spatial distribution of the work function. This method has been exploited in various materials systems including metals, ceramics, and conducting polymers. 61-63 Topographic image and contact potential difference (CPD) values were simultaneously obtained using an atomic force microscope (AFM; NX10, Park Systems) and Au-coated cantilevers (PPP-NCSTAu, Nanosensors). We used noncontact mode for topographic imaging and CPD measurements with a tip resonance frequency of 157 kHz and vibration amplitude of 21.98 nm. The typical setpoint and scan speed were 9.5 nm and 0.5 Hz, respectively. For CPD measurements, an AC voltage of 5 V with 17 kHz frequency was applied to the tip, and the response signals were acquired using a lock-in amplifier integrated in the AFM. The work function of the tip (φ_{tip}) was determined using a highly oriented pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) standard sample. Then, the sample work function (φ_s) was determined by the following equation: $\varphi_s = \varphi_{tip} - qV_{CPD}$, where q is the charge of an electron and V_{CPD} is the contact potential difference.64

Measurement of sound velocity: The sound velocity of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ was measured by pulse-echo method, where a transducer first sends an initial pulse and acts as a receiver. A longitudinal transducer with a center frequency of 5 MHz (CMR-052, ndtXducer) and a normal incidence shear transducer of identical frequency (SM-052, ndtXducer) were used with an ultrasonic pulser/receiver system (DPR 300, JSR Ultrasonics). A resulting waveform was recorded by a digital oscilloscope (DSO-X 2022A, Keysight). The time delay of ultrasound reflections was determined by measuring time intervals between back wall echoes. Then, the speed of sound was calculated by the following equation: v=2h/t, where h is the sample thickness and t is the time delay.

Potential Seebeck microscope measurements: The Seebeck coefficient microprobe scanning was performed at room temperature and under vacuum on $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ samples using the transient Potential-Seebeck Microprobe (T-PSM). During the T-PSM measurement the sample surface is scanned by a heated tungsten carbide tip with a radius of curvature of $12~\mu m$. The tip carries a laser-welded type-T thermocouple and builds the apex of a fiber optical cable. The optical cable is connected to a laser module (VFM 1,5-25, Messtec Power Converter GmbH), which delivers a maximum pulse energy of 1600~mW at a wavelength of 450~nm for thermal excitation of an infinitesimal sample volume. The laser diode (OSRAM PLTB450B built into Thorlabs collimation kit) was operated in a constant mode with a continuous beam power of 300~mW for the measurements. The sample was mounted

within a sample holder on an encoder-controlled x-/y-motion stage from Micos (type: LS-110 52 VSS43 HV LIA) with a nanometer resolution. Another thermocouple of the same kind is attached to the sample holder, which is kept at room temperature during scanning by a passive heat sink. Once the tip contacts the sample surface, both thermocouples form two independent thermoelectric measurement circuits, which are fed to differential pre-amplifiers from Elsys Instruments (EL-LNA2) with high gain/bandwidth (100/5 MHz), low input noise (< 6µV_{ms}) and electric isolation between input channels. The amplifier outputs are connected to a TransCom transient recorder (MF-Instruments) with a high sampling rate (max. 80 MHz/channel). A vertical z-axis actuator sets a reproducible tip pressure by a control loop with a force sensor from ALTHEN GmbH (type: 31E-001N5-30b), which ensures the necessitated high repeatability of thermal contact resistance between the tip and the sample surface. Measurement of the spatially resolved Seebeck coefficient is accomplished by a laser-based excitation of a local temperature gradient in a microscopic sample volume in the vicinity of the tip. The underlying evaluation of generated thermovoltages is described in the previous work.65 The uncertainty of the measured Seebeck coefficient < 10%, which was determined against a reference value of FeSi₂ bulk reference material⁶⁶ with a certified uncertainty of the homogeneity of 2.4 μ V/K, which corresponds to 1.4% of the expectation value at room temperature. The ability to resolve differences in thermopower remains unaffected from the absolute accuracy, yielding distinguishable Seebeck contrasts around 1-2% within the limits of local resolution.⁶⁷ While the predecessor PSM offered a lateral resolution of maximal 10 μm, the T-PSM resolves the local Seebeck coefficient on a length scale of 1-3 µm by a fast data acquisition during the transient process of laser-induced thermal excitation of the sample volume.

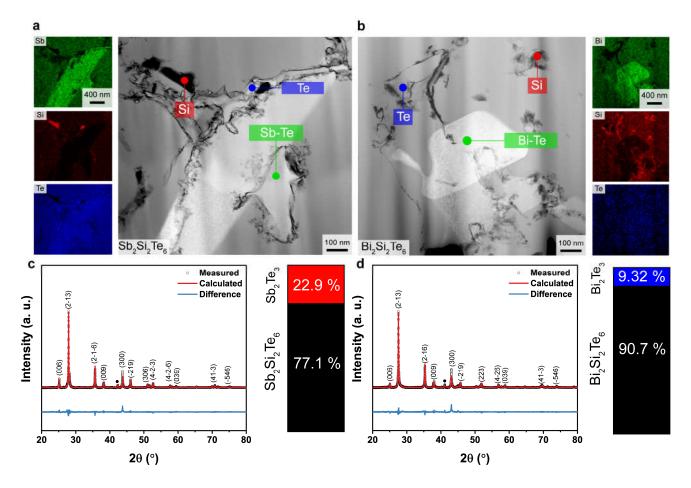


Figure 1. (a-b) HAADF-STEM images and corresponding EDS elemental maps of (a) Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and (b) Bi₂Si₂Te₆ indicating existence of several types of precipitates within matrix. (c-d) Refined powder XRD patterns and weight fractions of (c) Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and (d) Bi₂Si₂Te₆. Circles denote reflections from secondary phases (Sb₂Te₃ and Bi₂Te₃).

Table 1. DFT-calculated lattice parameters of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆ and experimentally measured values obtained after Rietveld refinement

Composition	a (calc/Å)	a (exp/Å)	c (calc/Å)	c (exp/Å)
Sb ₂ Si ₂ Te ₆	7.223	7.166	21.236	21.205
Bi ₂ Si ₂ Te ₆	7.316	7.270	21.438	21.311

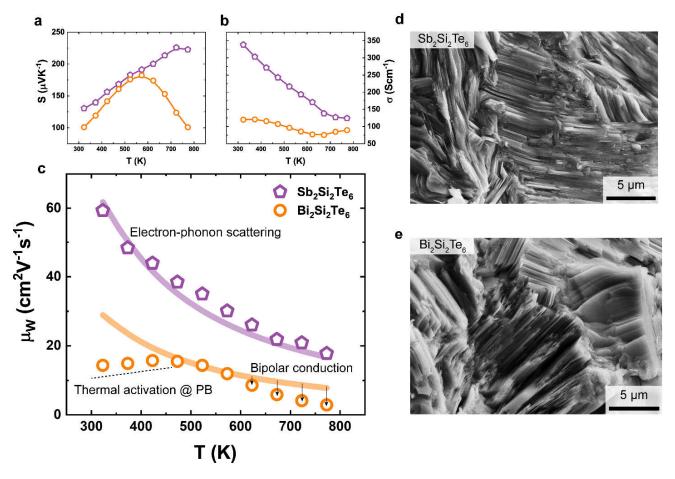


Figure 2. (a) Seebeck coefficient (S), (b) electrical conductivity (σ), and (c) weighted mobility (μ _w) values of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆. Solid lines in (c) show $T^{-1.5}$ dependence of μ _w where electron–phonon scattering is the predominant mechanism of hole transport. (d-e) Typical SEM images of fracture surfaces of (d) Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and (e) Bi₂Si₂Te₆ samples. Both samples show similar layered crystal structure and lateral grain size of approximately 20 μ m.

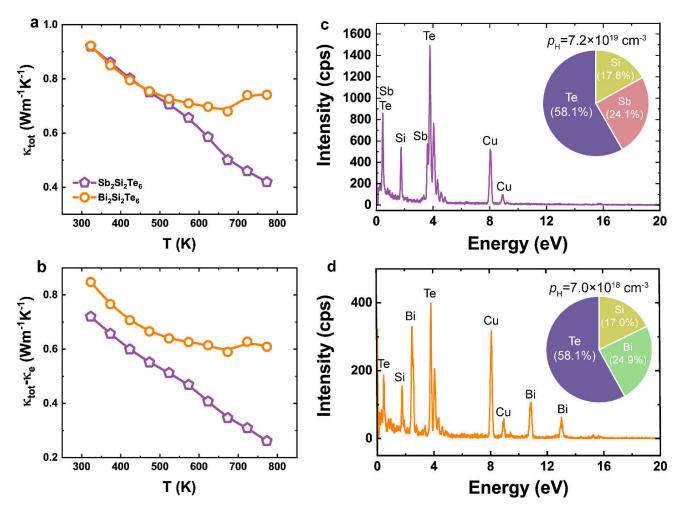


Figure 3. (a) Total thermal conductivity (κ_{tot}) and (b) lattice and bipolar components (κ_{tot} - κ_e) of Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and Bi₂Si₂Te₆. (c-d) STEM-EDS spectra and corresponding elemental components of (c) Sb₂Si₂Te₆ and (d) Bi₂Si₂Te₆ matrices along with measured Hall carrier concentrations. Cu peaks correspond to TEM grid.

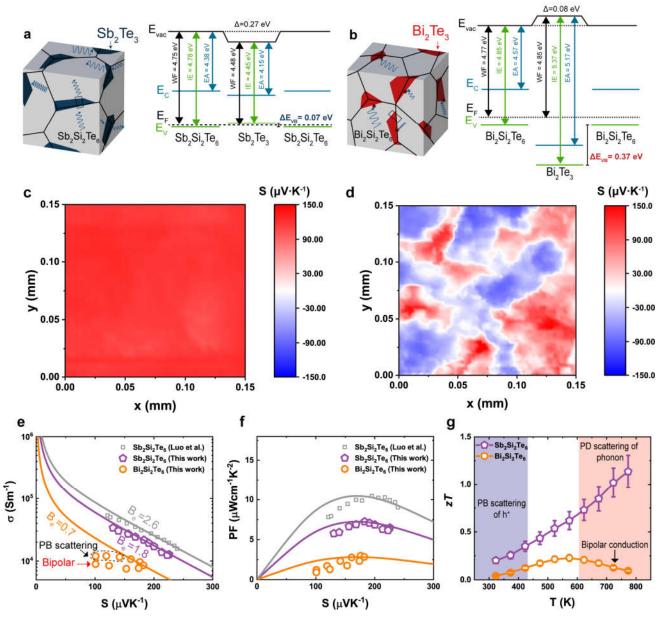


Figure 4. (a-b) Schematic drawing of hole transport and corresponding energy level diagram in (a) $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and (b) $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$ near precipitates. (c-d) Spatial distribution of Seebeck coefficient for (c) $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and (d) $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$. Negative Seebeck coefficient in (d) emerges from Bi_2Te_3 precipitates. (e-f) Curves of Seebeck coefficient (S)-dependent (e) electrical conductivity (σ) and (f) power factor (PF) fitted using certain electronic quality factor (Be). (g) Temperature-dependent dimensionless figures of merit (zT) of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. Optical absorption spectra of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$, additional EDX elemental mappings of $Sb_2Si_2Te_6$ and $Bi_2Si_2Te_6$, summary of UPS measurements, KPFM results, high-temperature Hall measurements, and characterization of samples annealed for 240 h.

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Author Contributions

H. Jang and M.-W. Oh conceived the idea. H. Jang, A. Stanley, and B. Frimpong synthesized and characterized the materials. H. Jang, C. V. Nguyen, J. Y. Song, and H. S. Shin densified the powders into pellets. H. Jang and M. Kim measured KPFM. P. Ziolkowski and G. Oppitz measured the spatial distribution of Seebeck coefficient using T-PSM. H. Jang wrote the manuscript from all input of the authors. Y. S. Jung and M.-W. Oh supervised the work.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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