Thermopower Enhancement of Rutile-type SnO$_2$ Nanocrystalline Using Facile Co-Precipitation Method

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Abstract

Metal oxide semiconductor has attracted so much attention due to its high carrier mobility. Herein, thermoelectric study of nanocrystalline SnO$_2$ through a simple co-precipitation method is conducted to enhance the Seebeck coefficient (S). X-ray diffraction, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), resistivity ($\rho$), Seebeck coefficient ($S$), and power factor (PF) measurements are conducted to analyze the thermoelectric properties of the material. The measurements show that there are two interesting results, which are the unusual resistivity behavior and the high value of the $S$. Resistivity behavior shows a non-reflective intermediate semiconductor-metals behavior where the turning point occurs at 250 °C. This behavior is strongly correlated to the surface oxide reaction due to annealing temperature. The maximum $S$ likely occurs at 250 °C, since the curve shows a slight thermopower peak at 250 °C. The value of the $S$ is quite high with around twenty times higher than other publications about SnO$_2$ thermoelectric material, this happens due to the bandgap broadening. The energy gap of SnO$_2$ calculated using density functional theory (DFT), which was performed by Quantum Espresso 6.6. The result shows that there is a broadening energy gap at different momentum or wave factor. Nanocrystalline semiconductors material is giving an impact to increase the width of bandgap due to quantum confinement and could enhance the thermopower especially in SnO$_2$ nanocrystalline.

Keywords: nanocrystalline, metal-oxide, thermoelectric, tin-dioxide, Seebeck, co-precipitation.

I. INTRODUCTION

Thermoelectric materials are promising candidates as harvesting energy devices for converting waste heat into electricity [1]. Thermoelectric could be applied as solid-state refrigerators or heat pumps. One advantage of thermoelectric is it does not use any moving parts and environmentally harmful fluids. Due to their high reliability and simplicity, thermoelectric materials are used extensively in fields such as space power generation and a variety of cooling applications [2]. Thermoelectric performance is determined by the dimensionless figure of merit ($ZT$) [2], [3], which is denoted by (1).

$$ZT = \frac{S^2 \sigma T}{\kappa}$$

where $S$ is Seebeck coefficient representing a significant temperature difference which is required to generate electrical energy, $\sigma$ is electrical conductivity, $\kappa$ is thermal conductivity, and $T$ is the absolute temperature. In order to increase thermoelectric material performance, elevating the optimization of the $ZT$ value is required. To maximize $ZT$ value, the $S$, large $\sigma$, and low $\kappa$ are needed simultaneously. However, there are conflicting parameters in optimizing $ZT$, since the $S$, $\sigma$, and $\kappa$ are strongly coupled by carrier concentration ($n$), and difficult to control those variables independently following Wiedemann-Franz Law [4], [5].

Based on (1), to achieve a high $ZT$ value, the enhancement of the $S$ is needed. There are two conventional strategies to optimize the $ZT$ values, which are: (1) enhancing the power factor (PF) by point defect engineering, and band engineering; (2) independently reducing the lattice thermal conductivity ($\kappa_L$) by structural nano-crystalization, interface engineering, and hierarchical architecting, or designing novel thermoelectric materials with intrinsically low $\kappa$[6], [7].

A semiconductor material is a good candidate as a thermoelectric application since it can be doped to achieve a single n-type or p-type carrier for enhancing the $S$. A mixture of n-type and the p-type carrier will lead to lowering the $S$ [8]. In other words, both low $n$ and high $n$ of semiconductor behavior can obtain large $S$.

Several material types attracted so much attention in the thermoelectric application, such as chalcogenide metals [9], SiGe alloy [10], [11], silicon based thermoelectric materials [12], and skutterudites [13]. There are several thermoelectric materials commercially provided from low to high temperature, which are Bi$_2$Te$_3$ (300–500 K) [14], PbTe (500–600 K) [15], and SiGe (600–800 K) [11]. The progress of thermoelectric material is still limited for practical application since

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their applications are largely restricted by the toxicity, limited element resources, and material degradation at high temperatures because of the temperature limitation due to phase transformation at high temperatures [2], [16].

Metal oxide-based material is one of the candidates for thermoelectric application, since it has low-mobility materials properties, primarily because of its highly ionic characters, abundance in nature, and non-toxicity [16], [17]. However, the lower mobility in metal oxide thermoelectric leads to larger lattice thermal conductivity and thus, it is quite difficult to achieve high ZT [5].

SnO as one of the metal-oxide group that is a candidate of an n-type semiconductor material due to its electrical conductivity simultaneously with optical properties and high-temperature stability [18], [19]. SnO has a wide-bandgap (3.6 eV) and the value of bandgap width is a fundamental property in semiconductor material [8], [20] to achieve desired properties such as elevating the S to enhance the ZT. Fonstad et al. reported the Hall mobility (μH) value of SnO single-crystal was one-order larger than the drift mobility (μD) of copper [21].

SnO as thermoelectric material has been synthesized using several techniques and showed a nearly similar S coefficient value. Ferreira et al did SnO n-type thermoelectric thin-film synthesis by radio frequency (rf) sputtering and showed S of -225 μV/K, ρ below 10⁻³ Ω.m, and around 10⁻³ W/m.K² for PF [22]. Bagheri et al also did SnO thin films synthesis using spray pyrolysis technique and showed n-type thermoelectric. The S effect showed -255 μV/K with n-type thermoelectric material and resistivity 1.3 × 10⁻³ Ω.cm [23]. SnO has been synthesized using a solid-state method by Paulson et al [18]. The results showed the S was between -220 and -230 μV/K, the crystallite size was 83.6 nm, and the PF was between 6 and 7 × 10⁻⁶ W/m.K². However, the PF of each result showed big different values due to the σ for each material could be different due to the size of the bandgap. The limiting point of SnO as a thermoelectric application was low thermoelectric performance due to large thermal conductivity around 40 Wm⁻¹K⁻¹. Kerrami et al. published a simulation about enhanced ZT of SnO by modulating the energy band structure through an applied strain [19].

In order to enhance the S coefficient, nanostructured materials are required. Nanostructured material often shows different properties with the bulk material due to strong surface interactions between closely packed nanoparticles, a large surface to volume ratio, and quantum confinement effects due to the tiny size. Decreasing particle size will reduce the κ and preserve n due to confining electron motion into a specified energy level. The electron motion confinement makes discreteness of level energy and widens up the bandgap. Increasing the bandgap width generating enhancement of the κ and could elevate the effectiveness of PF of thermoelectric material [8], [20], [24].

This paper aims to characterize the thermoelectric properties of undoped SnO nanocrystalline. The co-precipitation method is used as a synthesis method to obtain nanocrystalline materials to increase the bandgap width to enhancing the S. This method used since the published papers about the synthesis SnO co-precipitation method are rare to find because of the majority used for gas sensing and photovoltaic application. The method is commonly used to synthesized nanocrystalline materials [25]. Moreover, the co-precipitation method is facile, low energy, and practicable in reproducibility.

II. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

A. Materials

SnCl₂·2H₂O (Merck) and ammonia (Merck) were used as starting materials with a concentration of 0.22 M and 2 M, respectively, using deionized (DI) water as a solution to synthesize SnO powder using a simple co-precipitation method. A magnetic stirrer with a hot plate was equipped to dissolve the SnCl₂·2H₂O in DI water at low-speed stirring under ambient temperature. The temperature of the solution was increased to 40 °C while the ammonia slowly dropped into the solution until the pH reached 10 - 11. Then the temperature was raised to 90 °C and the solution was stirred for 2 h.

The solution was let cool down to room temperature, then the precipitation was collected and cleansed for several times using DI water. The white powder was dried at 60 °C for 24 h and annealed at 800 °C for 2 h under ambient pressure.

B. Characterization

The phase of powder SnO₂ was determined by using Bruker D8-Advance X-ray powder diffractometer with 0.02 angle steps between 20° to 90° of 2θ using Cu Kα radiation. The results were then refined using Rietveld analysis to obtain the lattice and structure parameter. The crystallite size and strain were calculated manually in python from the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern perspective using the Williamson-Hall (W-H) plot method [26], [27]. Grain size, morphology, and elemental composition of SnO₂ were determined using a scanning electron microscope with an energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM/EDS) JEOL-JSM IT 300.

Thermoelectric properties of SnO₂ were examined using Linseis LSR-4 in the range of 150 to 450 °C of temperature. That range was obtained from thermogravimetry analysis (TGA) characterization using NETZSCH TG 209 F1 Libra TGA209F1E-00 with the heat rate 10°/min in the range 30 - 600 °C under an oxygen atmosphere. The band structure of SnO₂ nanocrystalline was analyzed by using theoretical calculation using Density Functional Theory (DFT) method and performed by Quantum Espresso 6.6.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

X-ray powder diffraction pattern of SnO₂ is shown in Figure 1, where all the peaks belong to SnO₂ structure with space group P42/m n m and there is no peak belonging to other elements indexed to the Powder Diffraction File (PDF) cassiterite tetragonal SnO₂ (PDF-96-900-7434) [28]. The refinement was done using the Rietveld method [29] and obtained 1.6, 2.46, 8.61, and 5.49 for the Goodness of Fitting (GoF) index; Chi², Rwp, and Rf, respectively.
The crystallography structure is shown in Figure 2. The Sn-atom is surrounded by six oxygens and resulted in rutile phase that has a tetragonal crystal structure. All refined parameters are shown in Table 1.

The peak broadening from X-Ray powder diffraction is attributed by the crystallite size and microstrain, which represents the displacement of atoms from their original positions and instrumental broadening. Indirect crystallite size and microstrain determination could be done using the XRD pattern perspective. The Williamson-Hall (W-H) plot is used since the Scherrer equation gives a rough estimation of a crystallite size where the line broadening is only from crystallite size contribution and neglecting other parameters i.e. strain, instrumental broadening, preferred orientation, and shape factor. The small crystallite size is causing the crystal growth limitation and change to imperfect crystal which leads to broadening in the diffraction peak [26]. Williamson-Hall (W-H) plot is a technique to separate the contributions of crystallite size and microstrain to the peak broadening in X-Ray powder diffraction patterns with Lorentzian profiles, which is denoted by (2) [27].

\[
\beta = \beta_D + \beta_e
\]  

(2)

Table 1: Crystal Data and Refinement Result from SnO<sub>2</sub>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Atom</th>
<th>x</th>
<th>y</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>Ue</th>
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<td>0.00000</td>
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<td>O</td>
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<th>β</th>
<th>γ</th>
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<td>4.7377 Å</td>
<td>3.1864 Å</td>
<td>90°</td>
<td>90°</td>
<td>90°</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Figure 1. X-ray Diffraction Refinement.

Table 2: Williamson-Hall Plot Data Result

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Strain</th>
<th>Crystallite Size (nm)</th>
<th>Grain Size from SEM (nm)</th>
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<td>SnO₂</td>
<td>-0.00033</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>71.1</td>
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</table>

Figure 2. Structure of Rutile SnO<sub>2</sub>.

Figure 3. Williamson-Hall Plot from SnO<sub>2</sub>.
Thermopower Enhancement of Rutile-type SnO$_2$ Nanocrystalline using Facile Co-Precipitation Method

The temperature range of SnO$_2$ thermoelectric properties is determined by TGA measurement to observe the decomposition of the sample based on the temperature, so that heat induced sample loss could be avoided during thermoelectric measurement. Figure 5 shows the TGA result and its differential curve.

The decreasing peak on the differential curve at 36.1 °C possibly indicated the evaporation of some solvents. As shown in Table 3, the changing mass of the sample occurred at four temperature ranges. Overall, the curve shows that the sample undergoes multistage decomposition progress, however, there is an uncommon increasing weight at 113.2 – 286.3 °C due to oxidation [34], [35] since the measurement was conducted under oxygen atmosphere [29], [30]. After being transformed into metal oxide material, as the temperature increases, the material attracts electrons from oxygen which leads to increased weight due to surface oxide reaction. Then, the weight of SnO$_2$ decreased slowly after 600 °C [36].

The electrical resistivity curve in Figure 6(a) shows two-phase of conductivity behavior. As the temperature increases, charge carriers were thermally activated, which increased their drift mobility ($\mu_d$) and decreased $\rho$ from 150 – 260 °C. This shows a typical semiconductor behavior. Then, the $\rho$ started to increase from 250 °C, which indicates conductivity from the characteristic of metal. From the curve, it could be said that the character of SnO$_2$ conductivity exhibits non-reflective intermediate properties between semiconductor and metal.

This notable change could be strongly related to the TGA curve which has a slight increase in weight percentage around 113.2 – 286.3 °C, while temperature increases after 113.2 - 286.3 °C range, the oxygen seems to be excited at a higher temperature and the SnO$_2$ tends to have metal resistivity behavior. These properties are also found in CuO$_2$ [37] due to annealing temperature and the material phases formed are calculated using Lichteneker’s formula for resistivity of two-phase alloys.

The $S$ curve is shown in Figure 6(b), the negative sign indicates that SnO$_2$ nanocrystalline is an n-type semiconductor. The $S$ is approximately ten times higher than any other publication about SnO$_2$. This is caused by the Sn in semiconductor will be much larger than it is in metals due to the presence of a bandgap which breaks the symmetry between electron and hole [38]. The $S$ curve did not show a clear thermopower peak, but the point at 250 °C is noteworthy, which shows $-5.79 \times 10^3 \, \mu V/K$.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Mass Change (%)</th>
<th>Temperature Range (°C)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Min</td>
<td>Max</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>112.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>286.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>362.5</td>
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<tr>
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<td>599.9</td>
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</table>

Figure 4. (a). SEM Image of SnO$_2$ Nanocrystalline (b). Histogram and Distribution Curve of the Grain Size Diameter of SnO$_2$ Nanocrystals (in nm).

Figure 5. TGA Diagram and Differential Curve from TGA Diagram of SnO$_2$ Nanocrystalline.
estimating the energy gap through temperature dependence $S$ measurement value [24].

Theoretical computation of band structure is employed as an explanation about the broadening band gap which occurs in SnO$_2$ nanocrystalline using density functional theory (DFT). The gap energy of material has different values for each wave factor or momentum, hence, all the Brillouin Zone (BZ) should be included in reciprocal space. To determine the energy gap and correct the charge-charge and spin-spin interaction, an exchange-correlation function is needed. There are a lot of exchange-correlation function types and the property is unique for each material structure.

In this paper, a band structure and density of state (DOS) were performed using Quantum Espresso 6.6 [40] with Projector Augmented Wave (PAW) [41] and Perdew-Burke-Emzerhof for solids (PBEsol) exchange-correlation which is generally used to determine the energy gap [42]. Band structure and DOS are calculated using lattice constant from the experiment result and compared with the optimized structure to represent the bulk structure ($a = 4.7690, c=3.2295$).

The PBEsol exchange-correlation method is used to explain the gap energy broadening phenomena, however, to obtain the gap energy near to the exact value needs another exchange-correlation method which is more complex than PBEsol [43]. In this paper, the use of the PBEsol exchange-correlation method is proper enough to explain the broadening of the energy gap phenomena. The calculation result is shown in Figure 7, the energy gap minimum at $\Gamma$ position has 1.114 eV from the experiment structure and 0.781 eV from the optimized structure, and all energy gap calculation results at each position are summarized in Table 4.

The absolute $S$ at temperature ($T$) < 250 °C drops significantly followed by conductivity as well, this is typically semiconductor behavior since the Fermi level is moving into the valence band [38]. The $S$ at $T > 250$ °C, the curve decreases slowly and shows metals behavior due to increasing conductivity.

The relation between the energy gap and the $S$ in a semiconductor. Goldsmid and Sharp developed an analytical expression on the bandgap and the maximum Seebeck coefficient through Goldsmid-Sharp in (6) [24], [39].

$$E_g = 2e|S|_{\text{max}}T_{\text{max}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

where $E_g$ is the energy gap, $|S|_{\text{max}}$ is Seebeck coefficient maximum, and $T_{\text{max}}$ is the temperature where the $S$ maximum occurs. Goldsmid-Sharp is a useful tool for calculating energy gap, $E_g$, from Seebeck coefficient, $S$.

The theoretical calculation of energy gap is compared with the experiment result using Quantum Espresso 6.6 and Projector Augmented Wave (PAW) and Perdew-Burke-Emzerhof for solids (PBEsol). The energy gap calculation results at each position are summarized in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Energy Gap (eV)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma$</td>
<td>0.781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>4.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>4.852</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>6.504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>6.273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>4.921</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Energy Gap Result for Each Position

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Figure 6. Thermoelectric Properties Result (a) Resistivity (b) Absolute Seebeck Coefficient, and (c) Power Factor.

Figure 7. Band Structure and DOS of SnO$_2$ Nanocrystalline Calculation using DFT.
It can be clearly seen that the SnO$_2$ nanocrystalline shows a broadening of the energy gap at each position. This result is in good agreement with Zhou et al. publication which exhibits a similar result with this paper for energy gap broadening compared to the optimized structure and the experiment structure at $\Gamma$ position [44]. The broadening value of the energy gap from the experiment at $\Gamma$ position occurs due to lattice compression [44] which is shown in Table 5. The lattice compression is also exhibited in the W-H plot calculation and shows a negative strain value due to decreasing crystalline size [30], [45].

The nanocrystalline structure in SnO$_2$ semiconductor has most likely gave an impact to the increase in the width of the bandgap due to quantum confinement and the effect of the internal strain. The nanostructuring makes the particle too small to be comparable with the wavelength of the electron, the motion of the electron is restricted to the specified energy through quantum confinement.

The confinement of moving electrons is making the valence and conduction band split and discrete due to restricted the electron movement into specified energy, which results in widening up the bandgap [8], [20], [46]. Sahana et al. [20] increased the SnO$_2$ bandgap from 3.89 to 4.5 eV through nanostructuring by a controlled choice of composition and annealing temperature. The enhancement of thermopower due to quantum confinement is also giving an impact on lowering the $\kappa$ [8], [47].

Figure 6(c) shows SnO$_2$ reaches the maximum PF at 171 °C with the value of 15.03 x 10$^{-2}$ W/m.K$^2$. This value is much related to the $S$ and $\sigma$. When the temperature is rising, the charge carrier conductivity also increases.

Nonetheless, the high $S$ value cannot meet the clarity yet since many things could affect the materials. However, the strong one which is correlated to the enhancement of the $S$ is the bandgap of the materials with temperature influences. Both resistivity behavior and the interesting $S$ in SnO$_2$ nanocrystalline need further investigation using a comprehensive bandgap measurement and theoretical approach relating to the oxygen occupancy and the temperature influence to the bandgap modification.

**CONCLUSION**

In summary, nanocrystalline SnO$_2$ was synthesized using the facile co-precipitation method. The thermoelectric properties were examined and showing two interesting results, which are the electrical resistivity ($\rho$) behavior to the increasing temperature due to surface oxide reaction and the high Seebeck coefficient ($S$) around twenty times higher than other publications. The relationship between the $S$ and nanostructuring is strongly correlated to the bandgap broadening due to the quantum confinement process. However, those arguments need further investigation by energy gap characterization and a comprehensive theoretical approach.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENT**

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**REFERENCES**


[19] Z. Kerrami, A. Sibari, O. Mounkachi, A. Benyoussef, and M. **TABLE 5**

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