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Towards High-Performance Polymer-based Thermoelectric Materials

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⁵ Thermoelectric materials have garnered considerable attention due to their unique ability to directly convert heat to electricity and vice versa. Polymers carry many intrinsic advantages such as low thermal conductivity, solution processability, and roll-to-roll production for fabricating high-performance, light-weight, and flexible thermoelectric modules. In this Review, we highlight recent advances on the preparation, modification and optimization of polymer thermoelectric materials, focusing especially on the current state-of-the-art strategies to minimize the thermal conductivity and maximize the power factor, and finally provide an outlook on the future development ¹⁰ of this field.

1. Introduction

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Thermoelectric materials that enable the direct conversion between heat and electricity have received much attention as a promising route to developing power generation and cooling 15 refrigeration without any moving parts or bulk fluids.¹⁻⁶ The working principle of thermoelectricity is associated with three fundamental effects, including: (1) the Seebeck effect, also referred to as the thermopower, in which an electrical potential is produced within a single conductor that is subjected to a 20 temperature gradient; (2) the Peltier effect, in which a temperature difference is created at the junctions of two dissimilar conductors when an electric current crosses; and (3) the Thomson effect, in which the heat content within a single conductor is changed in a temperature gradient while an electric 25 current passes through it.⁷⁻⁸ Although these thermoelectric effects were independently discovered, they can be correlated through the Kelvin relation that describes the basic thermoelectric behaviors as follows:9-11

$$\vec{\iota} = \sigma \left(\vec{E} - \alpha \vec{\nabla} T \right) \vec{q} = \alpha T \vec{\iota} - \lambda \vec{\nabla} T$$

where *i* is the electric current density, *q* is the heat current density, ³⁰ *E* is the electric field, σ is the electrical conductivity, α is the Seebeck coefficient, λ is the thermal conductivity at zero electric field, and *T* is the absolute temperature. The coefficients (*i.e.*, α ,

Broader Context

The growth of global industry and population has been demanding for enormous energy, but the supply of conventional energy sources such as fossil oil, coal and natural gas is limited. One route to relieving the energy pressure caused by the increasing combustion of fossil fuels is to recycle waste heat by converting it into electricity. To this end, thermoelectric materials have been widely recognized as a simple and eco-friendly energy conversion means due to their unique ability to directly convert heat to electricity without any moving parts or bulk fluids. A good thermoelectric material requires a high Seebeck coefficient, high electrical conductivity and low thermal conductivity. In addition to inorganic semiconductors, polymers are a potential candidate for high-performance thermoelectric applications due to their intrinsically low thermal conductivity, flexibility, light weight, roll-to-roll production and large area, which are beneficial for the development of personal, portable, and flexible thermoelectric modules. In this Review, recent advances on the preparation, modification and optimization of polymer thermoelectric materials are highlighted, and an outlook on the future development of this field is provided.

 σ , and λ) in the Kelvin relation connect the electric and heat current changes with the electric field and temperature gradient,¹² ⁶⁰ in which the Seebeck effect α acts as the driving force for electric currents to generate the Peltier and Thomson effects in electrical circuits.^{7, 13}

The energy conversion efficiency of thermoelectric materials is quantified by the dimensionless figure-of-merit $ZT = \sigma \alpha^2 T / \kappa$, ¹³⁰ where σ is the electrical conductivity, α is the Seebeck coefficient, κ is the thermal conductivity and T is the absolute temperature. The thermoelectric power factor P is calculated from the electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient where $P = \sigma \alpha^2$. A high-performance thermoelectric material requires (1) a high 135 Seebeck coefficient to push the energy conversion of heat to electricity or electricity to cooling, $^{14\cdot17}$ (2) a high electrical conductivity to reduce Joule heating, $^{18\cdot20}$ and (3) a low thermal conductivity to prevent thermal shorting.²¹⁻²⁴ However, the strong interdependence of these three parameters (*i.e.*, increasing σ is ¹⁴⁰ usually accompanied with an increased κ and a decreased α) imposes restrictions on maximizing ZT in homogeneous bulk materials.²⁵ To date, the bulk thermoelectric materials only exhibit the best ZT of ~1 at 300 K, corresponding to the Carnot efficiency of ~10%. The ZT of at least 4 operating at the Carnot 145 efficiency of ~30% is, however, needed for household

appliances.26

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Recent advances on the preparation and engineering of inorganic nanostructures greatly render the improvement of ZT by utilizing nanostructured inorganics such as phonon-⁵ blocking/electron-transmitting thin-film superlattices,²⁷⁻³⁰ quantum-dot superlattices,³¹⁻³⁴ and nanoscale inclusions in bulk materials.³⁵⁻³⁶ To date, most high ZT values have been achieved

- by preferentially reducing the thermal conductivity through the phonon scattering within superlattices or nanoinclusions, which ¹⁰ removes localized heat fluxes without the loss of power factor, ³⁷ ³⁹ resulting in a low thermal conductivity (*i.e.*, 1.1~1.5 WK⁻¹m⁻¹) comparable with that of amorphous solids, and thus the ZT > 2 at ~300 K.²⁷ Moreover, the energy-filtering effect within inorganic
- nanostructures can independently increase the Seebeck ¹⁵ coefficient without greatly suppressing electrical conductivity,^{40-⁴⁴ providing additional strategy to improve the ZT. However, these complex inorganic nanostructures are generally prepared by either the ball-milling, melt-spinning or molecular beam epitaxy method that involves high-temperature, long-term and high-cost ²⁰ fabrication processes.}

The intrinsically low thermal conductivity of polymers, which is about 1-3 orders of magnitude lower than that of inorganics,⁴⁵⁻⁴⁶ make polymers to stand out as a potential candidate for highperformance thermoelectric applications. More importantly, the thermal conductivity of polymers depends marginally on chemical compositions, and typically lies in the range of 0.1-1 Wm⁻¹K⁻¹ in both conductive and insulating polymers,⁴⁶⁻⁵⁰ thereby offering the expanded flexibility for realizing high-performance thermoelectric architectures via tuning power factor without ³⁰ heavily influencing thermal conductivity. In addition, these thermoelectric materials capitalize on the advantages peculiar to polymers, such as low cost, solution processability, flexibility, light weight, large area and roll-to-roll production, coinciding well with the requirements of future electronics that gear toward ³⁵ personal and portable polymer-based flexible electronics.⁵¹⁻⁵⁶

Despite the low thermal conductivity, the electrical conductivity of polymer thermoelectric materials spans a very broad range from 10^{-8} S/cm to 10^4 S/cm, and the Seebeck coefficient covers from $10 \ \mu\text{V/K}$ to $1 \times 10^3 \ \mu\text{V/K}$.⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹ Similar to ⁴⁰ their inorganic counterparts, the electric conductivity and the Seebeck coefficient of polymers are strongly correlated by the general tradeoff relation, in which a higher electrical conductivity usually accompanies a lower Seebeck coefficient.⁶⁰ This can be explained by the position of the Fermi level in the energy band: a ⁴⁵ high doping level is believed to move the Fermi level close to the

- conduction band edge, thus reducing the transport energy of charge carriers.^{9, 61} The ability to balance the tradeoff relation of electric conductivity and Seebeck coefficient is therefore crucial for promoting the power factor and thus the ZT of thermoelectric
- ⁵⁰ materials. For more details on the theoretical analysis and mechanism of polymer thermoelectric materials, the reader is referred to two recent Perspectives in *Energy & Environmental Science*.^{9, 62}

In this Review, we aim to summarize recent progresses on the ⁵⁵ preparation, modification and optimization of polymer thermoelectric materials from an experimental viewpoint; highlight the current state-of-the-art strategies to minimize the thermal conductivity, maximize the power factor, and consequently improve the ZT; and finally provide an outlook on 60 the future development of polymer thermoelectric materials. View Article Online

2. Conductive polymers

2.1 Doping for an enhanced power factor

The increase of power factor has been recognized as the key strategy to enhancing the ZT of conductive polymers given that ⁶⁵ their thermal conductivities are usually as low as those of amorphous solids. Pristine conductive polymers often possess a high Seebeck coefficient in the range of 1×10^2 - $5 \times 10^3 \mu V/K$,⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹ which due possibly to the electron-phonon scattering in the crystalline grains and the electron-phonon coupling in the ⁷⁰ insulating regime of conductive polymers.^{9, 57} The Seebeck coefficient originated from the electron-phonon coupling in pristine pentacene was estimated to be $265\pm40 \mu V/K$.⁶³ On the other hand, the carrier concentration in pristine conductive polymers is too low to form an effective charge transport, usually ⁷⁵ leading to poor electrical conductivity below 10^{-8} S/cm and power factor below 1 μ Wm⁻¹K⁻².

In this context, doping conductive polymers to yield an increased electrical conductivity are widely employed.⁶⁴⁻⁶⁵ For pristine conductive polymers, the charge transport is mostly ⁸⁰ dominated by phonon-assisted hopping between polymer chains, leading to intrinsically a very low carrier concentration and thus a poor electrical conductivity. In a doping process, extra charge carriers are introduced into the polymer chains, resulting in the formation of solitons, polarons and dipolarons responsible for 85 charge transport along intra- or inter-chains.⁶⁶ The introduction of extra charge carriers can be realized by either chemical or electrochemical doping methods. A series of doping agents (e.g., iodine, ferric trichloride, benzenesulfonic, camphor sulfonic acid, etc.) have been well explored.⁶⁷ As a representative conductive 90 polymer, polyacetylene has been greatly studied since it was discovered in 1977.68 For iodine-doped polyacetylenes, the electrical conductivity can reach as high as $\sim 1.0 \times 10^4$ S/cm with a Seebeck coefficient of $\sim 20 \,\mu V/K$, and thus a highest power factor of 400 μ Wm⁻¹K⁻² at 300 K.^{58, 69} However, further attempts to 95 improve the power factor are restricted by this relatively low Seebeck coefficient as the value of 1.0×10^4 S/cm is almost the maximum electrical conductivity for polyacetylenes. Although an extremely high Seebeck coefficient of 1077 µV/K was obtained in MoCl₅-doped polyacetylenes, the electrical conductivity was 100 found to be very low (i.e., ~0.001 S/cm) due to the tradeoff relation.⁷⁰ This competing trend of electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient can be ascribed to the move of the Fermi level close to the conduction band gap due to doping, which reduces the transport energy of charge carriers, and in turn a ¹⁰⁵ reduced Seebeck coefficient.⁹ Due to the disorder structures of conductive polymers, their density of states (DOS) is Gaussian, and progressively filled upon doping.⁷¹ Therefore, the Seebeck coefficient that describes the ability of heat drives charge carriers from a hot region to a cool region must be expressed from the 110 weighted average of energy difference between the conduction band and the Fermi level.⁶² The extra carrier concentrations introduced by doping is accompanied by the displacement of Fermi level moving close to the conduction band, resulting in the decrease of Seebeck coefficient. Therefore, it is clearly that the 115 doping level has to be delicately controlled to balance the

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electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient for a maximum power factor. Similar to inorganic thermoelectric materials, the nanostructure of conductive polymers may also provide new opportunities to overcome the trade-off relation benefiting from 5 the quantum-confinement effect and the DOS change.²⁵

2.2 Synthesis of new complex polymers

It is noteworthy that other conventional conductive polymers such as polyaniline, polypyrrole, polythiophene, and polyphenylene typically exhibit an even lower power factor than

- ¹⁰ that of heavily-doped polyacetylenes.⁵⁹ New conjugated polymers and copolymers were then explored to challenge the thermoelectric performance limit of polymers. A series of carbazole-based polymers with the donor-acceptor nature were synthesized by the Suzuki coupling, exhibiting an electrical ¹⁵ conductivity up to 500 S/cm and a relatively high Seebeck coefficient up to 70 μ V/K in the doped films; a maximum power factor of 19 μ Wm⁻¹K⁻² was obtained by compromising these two parameters (*i.e.*, electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient).⁷²
- Poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) (PEDOT)-doped with polystyrene sulphonic acid (PSS) has been largely utilized as the electrode film in organic electronics due to its excellent electrical conductivity, solution processability, and environmental stability.⁷³⁻⁷⁷ The ZT of pure PEDOT:PSS (*i.e.*, 0.0017) is comparable to that of conventional conductive polymers;⁷⁸ it can be improved up to 0.024 by the addition of high-boiling solvents (*i.e.*, dimethyl formamide, dimethyl sulfoxide, urea) to increase the electrical conductivity from ~10 S/cm to ~400 S/cm without



Fig. 1 (a) Sketch of the oxidative polymerization of EDOT by iron tosylate that creates the oxidized form of PEDOT. When exposed to TDAE vapor, the tosylate-doped PEDOT can be reduced into neutral ones. (b) Seebeck coefficient α (filled triangles), electrical conductivity σ ³⁵ (open triangles) and corresponding power factor $\sigma \alpha^2$ (red squares) as a

function of the oxidation level. Adapted with permission from ref. 83, Copyright© 2011 Nature Publishing Group.

- changing the Seebeck coefficient too much.⁷⁹⁻⁸² The breakthrough 40 was then achieved by replacing the polymer anion (*i.e.*, PSS) with a small-molecular anion (*i.e.*, tosylate), resulting in an enhanced electrical conductivity over 1000 S/cm due to the reduction of insulating polyanion phases (**Figure 1a**).⁸³ The electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient of PEDOT:tosylate can be 45 optimized by controlling the oxidation level during the
- ¹⁵ optimized by controlling the oxidation level during the polymerization. A highest ZT of 0.25 was obtained at room temperature, which is the highest ZT value ever reported in polymer thermoelectric materials (**Figures 1b**).⁸³
- Very recently, the thermoelectric properties of poly[A_x(A-ett)]s ⁵⁰ (ett=1,1,2,2-ethenetetrathiolate) have been studied (Figure 2a): the p-type poly[Cu_x(Cu-ett) exhibited a best ZT of 0.014 at 380 K with an electrical conductivity of ~15 S/cm, Seebeck coefficient of 80 μ V/K and thermal conductivity of 0.45 WK⁻¹m⁻¹; the n-type poly[Kx(Ni-ett) showed a best ZT of 0.2 at 440 K with an 55 electrical conductivity of ~60 S/cm, Seebeck coefficient of -150 μ V/K and thermal conductivity of 0.25 WK⁻¹m⁻¹.⁸⁴ Moreover, the thermoelectric module based on the p-type $poly[Cu_x(Cu-ett)]$ and n-type poly[Nax(Ni-ett) (i.e., ZT of 0.1 at 440 K) was built (Figures 2b and 2c). The module worked very well as a power 60 generator; an open voltage of 0.26 V and short-circuit current of 10.1 mA were produced when the temperature gradient reached 82 K (Figure 2d). A maximum output power of 1.2 μ Wcm⁻² was obtained at the temperature gradient of 30 K when the temperature of cold side was maintained at room temperature 65 (Figure 2e).⁸⁴

a



⁷⁰ **Fig. 2** (a) Scheme of the synthetic route to poly[A_x (M-ett)]s (ett=1,1,2,2ethenetetrathiolate). (b) Module structure. (c) Photograph of the module and the measurement system with a hot plane and cooling fan. (d) The output voltage and short-circuit current at various hot side temperatures (T_{hot}) and temperature gradient (ΔT). (e) Maximum power output per area ⁷⁵ of the module. Adapted with permission from ref. 84, Copyright© 2012 Wiley-VCH.

2.3 Tuning molecular conformations

It is well known that the semiconductor properties of conductive polymers also depend crucially on the physical conformation of polymer chains, which can self-assemble into various molecular-

- s stacking structures such as nanowires, nanorings, and nanosheets via the $\pi \sim \pi$ interactions.⁸⁵ In particular, one-dimensional (1D) stacking of conductive-polymer chains is probably beneficial for a low thermal conductivity due to the interface-phonon scattering, an excellent electrical conductivity due to the highly-oriented
- ¹⁰ chain alignment, and a large Seebeck coefficient due to the enhanced density of state near the conduction band edge.⁸⁶⁻⁸⁸ The PEDOT nanowires with the width of 150-580 nm, the thickness of 40-90 nm and the length of 200 μm were prepared using the lithographically-patterned electrodeposition process. These n-type
- ¹⁵ semiconductor nanowire arrays displayed a high Seebeck coefficient of -74 μ V with a high electrical conductivity of 16.8 S/cm, in comparison to the Seebeck coefficient of -48 μ V and an electrical conductivity of 11.1 S/cm in the conventional PEDOT films.⁸⁹

20 3. Polymer Nanocomposites

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3.1 Polymer/carbon nanotube thermoelectric nanocomposites

Polymer-based thermoelectric nanocomposites are complimented by the combination of an extensive set of advantageous characteristics from polymers and nanofillers, that is, low thermal ²⁵ conductivity, solution processability, and flexibility of polymers, in conjunction with high power factor of nanofillers. Among various nanofillers, carbon nanotubes (CNTs) are widely recognized as one of the most effective fillers to enhance the electrical conductivity of polymer matrix due to their extremely



Fig. 3 (a) Schematic illustration of the junctions of carbon nanotubes coated by PEDOT:PSS particles. (b) Electrical conductivities σ and Seebeck coefficient α of the composites at different nanotube ³⁵ concentrations. The inset shows the thermoelectric power factor $\sigma \alpha^2$. Adapted with permission from ref. 96, Copyright© 2011 American Chemical Society.



Fig. 4 (a) Seebeck coefficient as a function of temperature for polyaniline/CNT nanocomposites. (b) Thermal conductivity of polyaniline/CNT nanocomposites as a function of polyaniline content. (c) Seebeck coefficient α , electrical conductivity σ (open triangles) and (d) 45 corresponding power factor $\sigma \alpha^2$ as a function of polyaniline content. Adapted with permission from ref. 102, Copyright© 2010 Wiley-VCH.

high charge transport over long lengths without significant interruption.⁹⁰⁻⁹¹ Two strategies are often utilized to prepare polymer/CNT nanocomposites, namely, mixing nanofillers with ⁵⁰ polymer matrix, and confining polymer chains on CNT templates via $\pi \sim \pi$ interactions.⁹²

A low mixing content of CNTs is crucial to realize a high electrical conductivity without inducing a high thermal conductivity in polymer matrix.⁹³ Through a very slow drying ⁵⁵ process under ambient condition, CNTs can form a threedimensional (3D) network structure within insulating poly(vinyl acetate) (PVAc) emulsion matrix, in which CNTs were wrapped by the PVAc particles rather than randomly distributed in the nanocomposites.⁹⁴ The electrical conductivity of resulting nanocomposites increased with the addition of more CNTs, yielding a maximum of ~48 S/cm, which was much higher than that of conventional polymer/CNT nanocomposites at similar CNT concentrations. Quite intriguingly, the Seebeck coefficient (*i.e.*, 40-50 μV/K) and thermal conductivity (*i.e.*, 0.2~0.3 Wm⁻¹K⁻

⁶⁵ ¹) were nearly constant with the addition of CNTs, thus resulting in the best ZT of ~0.006 at a CNT concentration of 20 wt% at 300 K.⁹⁴ Moreover, the thermal conductivity of polymer/CNT nanocomposites can be reduced to be lower than that of polymer matrix by using a 3D porous sponge-like multiwall CNTs as the ⁷⁰ nanofillers, which was synthesized by chemical vapor deposition and possessed the lowest thermal conductivity of 0.035 Wm⁻¹K⁻¹ among all kinds of CNTs.⁹⁵

The connecting junctions between CNTs in nanocomposites was found to play an important role in enhancing the electrical ⁷⁵ conductivity without increasing the thermal conductivity of polymer/CNT nanocomposites (**Figure 3a**).⁹⁶ When blended in polymer matrix, CNTs were connected in series by Van der Waals' force due to the presence of conductive polymer particles at the junctions, whose molecular vibrational spectra are ⁸⁰ mismatched with that of CNTs, thereby impeding the phonon transport at the junctions.^{94, 96-97} The replacement of insulating PVAc matrix with conductive polymer PEDOT:PSS increased

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the maximum electrical conductivity of nanocomposites from ~48 S/cm in PVAc/CNT nanocomposites to ~1350 S/cm in PEDOT:PSS/CNT nanocomposites, while the Seebeck coefficient and thermal conductivity were retained at ~30 μ V/K and ~0.4

- ⁵ Wm⁻¹K⁻¹, respectively (**Figure 3b**), suggesting that these strongly correlated thermoelectric parameters may be decoupled in polymer nanocomposites.⁹⁶ It is worth noting that the electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient are often strongly correlated in conventional thermoelectric bulk materials, and the decoupling
- ¹⁰ of these two parameters has only been observed in few complex inorganic nanostructures via the carrier-pocket engineering,⁹⁸⁻⁹⁹ carrier energy-filtering effect,^{41, 44, 100-101} and semimetal– semiconductor transition.²⁵
- In addition to PEDOT:PSS/CNT nanocomposites, the 15 decoupling effect associated with the enhancement of Seebeck polyaniline/CNT also observed in coefficient was nanocomposites, in which the Seebeck coefficient of nanocomposites was remarkably increased to a maximum value of 28.6 μ V/K at 350 K as compared to those of polyaniline (*i.e.*, 20 2.74 µV/K) and CNT (i.e., 12.2 µV/K) bulk samples (Figure 4).¹⁰² This unexpected increase of Seebeck coefficient was due to possible energy-filtering effect at the polyaniline/CNT interface, where appropriate potential boundary barriers preferentially allowed the carriers with higher energy to pass, thereby 25 increasing the mean carrier energy in the flow and thus an increased Seebeck coefficient.102

The attempt to simultaneously increase the electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient in polymer thermoelectric nanocomposites may also be realized by improving the carrier ³⁰ mobility while maintaining the carrier concentration of nanocomposites, in which CNTs were used as a template to guide the self-assembly of conductive polymers into more ordered



³⁵ Fig. 5 (a) and (b) TEM images of polyaniline/single-walled nanotubes (SWNT) composites with 25 wt% SWNT. Inset of (a) is the top view SEM of nanocomposite. (c) Seebeck coefficient, electrical conductivity, and (d) power factor of polyaniline/SWNT composites at different SWNT content. The dashed line is the calculated electrical conductivity based on 40 the particle mixture rule. Adapted with permission from ref. 103,

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crystalline alignments via the $\pi \sim \pi$ interactions (**Figures 5a** and **5b**).¹⁰³⁻¹⁰⁵ For example, in comparison with pure polyanilines, ordered polyaniline structures attached on the CNT surfaces rendered the increase of carrier mobility from 0.18 cm²V⁻¹s⁻¹ to $0.97 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$, while the carrier concentration was retained in the range of $3 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3} \sim 7 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Obviously, the increased carrier mobility was responsible for the improvement of electrical conductivity from ~10 S/cm to 125 S/cm and Seebeck coefficient from 11 to 40 μ V/K (**Figures 5c** and **5d**), leading to the highest ⁶⁰ power factor of ~20 μ Wm⁻¹K⁻² at the CNT concentration of 40 wt%.

3.2 Polymer/inorganic thermoelectric nanocomposites

The fabrication of inorganic thermoelectric materials into largearea modules involves high-temperature, long-term and high-cost 65 processes. Moreover, it is a grand challenge to integrate these rigid inorganic materials into unusual topologies to fit the geometrical requirements for an enhanced practical efficiency.¹⁰⁶ One of the most particularly attractive features of polymerinorganic thermoelectric nanocomposites lies in the synergetic 70 combination of the easy processability of polymers and the thermoelectric performance excellent of inorganic semiconductors. Among a variety of nanostructured inorganic thermoelectrics, Bi, Te, and Bi₂Te₃ nanostructures are highly favorable for mixing with polymer matrix due to their high power 75 factor at room temperature, facile synthesis, and solutionprocessed dispersion.¹⁰⁷⁻¹¹⁰ Recently, the highest ZT of polymer/inorganic thermoelectric nanocomposites have been demonstrated in PEDOT:PSS/Te nanorod composites (i.e., ZT of ~0.1 at 300 K).¹¹¹ The *in-situ* prepared nanocomposites exhibited

⁸⁰ a higher power factor than those of individual constituents, and



Fig. 7 (a) The correlation between the Seebeck coefficient α and the electrical conductivity σ in P3HT and P3HT/Bi₂Te₃ nanocomposites; the ⁵ inset shows the close-up in the range of low electrical conductivity (*i.e.*, σ <200 S/m). (b) The band diagram of P3HT/Bi₂Te₃ interface based on the heavily-doped P3HT matrix. (c) The band diagram of P3HT/Bi₂Te₃ interface based on the lightly-doped P3HT matrix. Adapted with permission from ref. 113, Copyright© 2012 Royal Society of Chemistry.

¹⁰ possessed a low thermal conductivity comparable with that of polymer matrix (Figure 6a).¹¹¹ The nancomposite film contained continuous electrical network of nanoscale PEDOT:PSS/Te organic/inorganic interfaces (Figure 6b), yielding the electrical conductivity of ~19 S/cm, as compared to that of 1.32 S/cm and ¹⁵ 0.08 S/cm in pure PEDOT:PSS and Te, respectively. The improved power factor in PEDOT:PSS/Te nanocomposites was also attributed to the possibility of energy-filtering effect at the Te nanorod surface passivated with PEDOT:PSS (Figure 6c).

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Notably, the energy-filtering approach was originally proposed ²⁰ for superlattices in inorganic thermoelectric materials where alternate energy barrier layers act as energy filters to substantially scatter low-energy carriers;¹¹² this concept was then extended to three-dimensional bulk inorganics where either nanoparticles or grain boundary interfaces play the role of energy filter.^{43, 100} ²⁵ Recently, it has been demonstrated that the organic/inorganic

- semiconductor interface in polymer/inorganic nanocomposites can also act as an energy filter, which was verified by characterizing the energy-dependent scattering parameter and energy band structure of nanocomposites.¹¹³ Figure 7a shows a ³⁰ representative correlation between electrical conductivity and
- Seebeck coefficient in both P3HT and P3HT/Bi₂Te₃ nanocomposites, in which the P3HT matrix was doped by FeCl₃. In light of the tradeoff relation noted above, the Seebeck coefficients of P3HT and P3HT/Bi₂Te₃ after doping progressively
- $_{35}$ decreased from 450 $\mu V/K$ to below 100 $\mu V/K$ with the increased electrical conductivity. Interestingly, P3HT/Bi₂Te₃ nanocomposites readily displayed higher Seebeck coefficients than those of P3HT films in the range of high electrical

conductivity (*i.e.*, $\sigma > 200$ S/m, **Figure 7a**), thereby leading to ⁴⁰ markedly improved power factors in nanocomposites as compared to those of P3HT films. We note that the enfhancement of Seebeck coefficient and power factor in P3HT/Bi₂Te₃ nanocomposites did not appear in the range of low electrical conductivity, indicating that a more complex mechanism rather ⁴⁵ than the tradeoff between these two parameters was responsible for the improved Seebeck coefficient in P3HT/Bi₂Te₃

nanocomposites. By combining theoretical calculation and experimental characterization, a series of thermoelectric transport parameters 50 (i.e., the Fermi level, band gap, effective mass, carrier concentration, and energy-dependent scattering parameter) can be derived from the experimentally measured electrical conductivity, Seebeck coefficient and Hall coefficient, 14, 31, 114-115 clearly revealing the carrier energy-filtering effect at the P3HT/Bi2Te3 55 semiconductor interfaces (Figures 7b and 7c). For heavily-doped P3HT matrix, an interfacial potential barrier of below 0.1 eV formed at the P3HT/Bi2Te3 interface to selectively scatter lowenergy carriers rather than high-energy carriers; while the P3HT/Bi2Te3 interfaces in lightly-doped system probably acted as 60 an energy barrier without the energy-filtering effect due to the large potential barrier and incompatible bandgaps of P3HT/Bi2Te3 nanocomposites.113

4. Conclusions and outlook

Despite recent exciting progress described above, the 65 development of polymer thermoelectric materials is still in its infancy. To date, the maximum ZT of polymers (i.e., 0.25) was obtained in tosylate-doped PEDOT at room temperature,⁸³ but it was only comparable to that of inorganic bulk thermoelectric materials. Promoting the ZT over 4 is still a grand challenging 70 issue for all kinds of thermoelectric materials, at which the advantageous characteristics of polymer thermoelectric materials including low cost, solution processability, flexibility, light weight, and roll-to-roll production can be fully benefited and executed. We note that polymer thermoelectric materials will 75 compete in future with inorganic thermoelectric materials mainly in cooling systems and low-temperature power generators, owing to a limited thermal stability of polymers (i.e., roughly below 400 K). As for the high-temperature applications, polymers will hardly substitute for inorganic materials, such as Si/Ge alloy or 80 recently discovered Yb14MnSb11.116-117 Polymer thermoelectric materials are more likely an extension of the application of thermoelectric phenomenon rather than replace the inorganic counterparts.

The efficiency of polymer thermoelectric materials is mainly restricted by the relatively low power factor in comparison to that of inorganics. In particular, the low Seebeck coefficient (below 20 μ V/K in heavily-doped conductive polymers) compromises the enhancement of electrical conductivity. An increased carrier mobility is regarded as the most promising route to improving the 90 power factor.¹¹⁸ Recent progress in the design of functional conductive polymers has rendered a high carrier mobility at definite energy levels by delicately tailoring molecular structures and device configurations.¹¹⁹ Furthermore, the creation of additional energy states in polymer blends by doping with an 95 additive can also probably generate more regimes between the

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Fermi level and the conduction band edge,¹¹⁹ leading to the simultaneous increase of electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient. The coupling effect of electrical and thermal conductivity is not beneficial to increasing the Seebeck ⁵ coefficient, as a high thermal conductivity will reduce the entropy difference, which is the driving force for charge transport under thermal diffusion, through the electron-phonon interaction between the hot and cold regions. A high electrical conductivity but low thermal conductivity is favorable for an enhanced ¹⁰ Seebeck coefficient, which recently has been realized in hybrid metal/polymer/metal thin-film devices, wherein the Ohmic

- metal/polymer/metal thin-film devices, wherein the Ohmic metal/polymer contacts allow the formation of good electrical conductivity while the phonon scattering at metal/polymer interfaces minimizes the thermal conductivity.¹²⁰
- ¹⁵ Crafting nanostructured inorganic thermoelectric materials has emerged as a general approach to enhance ZT,⁵ and this should also be readily applicable to organic thermoelectric materials. An extremely high power factor was obtained in quasi-onedimensional self-assembled organic molecular nanowires based
- ²⁰ on a rigorous theoretical evaluation, suggesting that the use of low-dimensional structures of conductive polymers can indeed be a promising direction to achieve high thermoelectric performance.⁸⁶ Moreover, rationally engineering the polymer/inorganic interface offers alternative potentially viable
- ²⁵ route to improved thermoelectric performance; some of the concepts in inorganic nanostructures such as phonon scattering, carrier-energy-filtering, and carrier-pocket engineering may also be adopted in polymer thermoelectric materials. Several important principles for constructing energy-filtering interface in ³⁰ polymer-inorganic nanocomposites can be suggested:^{40, 102, 111, 121}
- (1) intimate contact between polymers and nanoparticles to establish a well-controlled organic/inorganic interface, (2) similar work functions of polymers and nanoparticles to facilitate high-energy carriers transferring cross the interface, (3) interfacial
 ³⁵ barrier height below 0.1 eV to selectively scatter low-energy carriers rather than high-energy carriers, (4) one-dimensional nanostructures to build effective potential barriers in a low filler concentration as compared to that of zero-dimensional
- nanoparticles.
 ⁴⁰ Given the complexity of thermoelectric research, the judicious combination of experiments, theory and simulation is expected to be capable of suggesting feasible strategies for the optimization of polymer thermoelectric materials. To this end, studies on the thermoelectric mechanisms of polymers need be strengthened.
- ⁴⁵ Further elucidation on the electrical conductivity, thermal transport, and thermoelectric behavior of polymers will be beneficial to explore new concepts to promote the performance of organic thermoelectricity. Nonetheless, with the rapid progress being made in organic synthesis, polymer engineering, device
- ⁵⁰ fabrication, and theoretical modeling, polymer thermoelectric materials will remain as an extraordinarily active area for thermoelectric exploration and application.

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Notes and references

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Recent advances on the preparation, modification and optimization of polymer thermoelectric materials are reviewed.