FABRICATION, PERFORMANCE AND THERMOELECTRIC PROPERTIES OF MONOLITHIC β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO THERMOELECTRIC GENERATOR MODULES



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วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิทยาศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาฟิสิกส์ มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุรนารี ปีการศึกษา 2566

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Suranaree University of Technology has approved this thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy. Thesis Examining Committee

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ทัชกฤษ แจ่มปรีชา : การประดิษฐ์ สภาพการทำงาน และคุณสมบัติทางเทอร์โมอิเล็กทริกของ อุปกรณ์โมดูลกำเนิดไฟฟ้า โมโนลิทิก บีต้า–ซิงก์แอนติโมนายด์/ซิงค์ออกไซด์ (FABRICATION, PERFORMANCE AND THERMOELECTRIC PROPERTIES OF MONOLITHIC β– Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO THERMOELECTRIC GENERATOR MODULES) อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : ศาสตราจารย์ ดร.สันติ แม้นศิริ, 117 หน้า.

คำสำคัญ: โทเมอร์อิเล็กทริก, โมโนลิทิก, โมดูลกำเนิดไฟฟ้าเทอร์โมอิเล็กทริก, บีต้า–ซิงก์แอนติโม นายด์

งานวิจัยนี้ได้ศึกษาคุณสมบัติทางเทอร์โมอิเล็กทริกของวัสดุเทอร์โมอิเล็กทริกบีต้า–ซิงก์แอนติ โมนายด์ (β–Zn₄Sb₃) รวมถึงได้ทำการสร้างโมดูลกำเนิดไฟฟ้าแบบโมโนลิท บีต้า–ซิงก์แอนติโมนายด์ (β–Zn₄Sb₃)/ซิงค์ออกไซด์ (ZnO) จากวัสดุ β–Zn₄Sb₃ ที่สังเคราะห์ขึ้นมาเอง อีกทั้งได้ทำการทดสอบ สภาพการทำงานของโมดูลที่วัดโดยใช้เครื่องวัด IV และพาวเวอร์เอาต์พุตที่พัฒนาขึ้นมาเอง ซึ่ง กระบวนการสังเคราะห์ การวิเคราะห์ การประดิษฐ์และการประเมินผลการทำงานของวัสดุบีต้า–ซิงก์ แอนติโมนายด์และโมดูลกำเนิดไฟฟ้าเทอร์โมอิเล็กทริก ได้อธิบายโดยลำดับดังนี้

้ วัสดุ β-Zn4Sb3 ถูกสังเครา<mark>ะ</mark>ห์ขึ้นโดยการสังเ<mark>ค</mark>ราะห์แบบปฏิกิริยาในสถานะของแข็ง "จาก ้ วัสดุตั้งต้นคือผงสังกะสีและผงพ<mark>ลวงใ</mark>นอัตราส่วน 4:3 แล<mark>ะเพิ่</mark>มผงสังกะสีส่วนเกินเพื่อชดเชยในส่วนที่ ้จะพร่องไปเนื่องจากการระเหิดของผงสังกะสีอันเกิดขึ้นโดยธรรมชาติที่สภาวะอุณหภูมิสูง ค่าการ ชดเชยที่ดีที่สุดคือ 12 at.% Zn หลังจากนั้นสารผสมตั้งต้นจะถูกนำไปเผาที่ 400 ℃ เป็นเวลา 3 ้ชั่วโมง ภายใต้ระบบแก๊<mark>สอา</mark>ร์ก<mark>อนเพื่อป้องกันไม่ให้เกิดโค</mark>รงสร้างทางออกไซด์ในสารสังเคราะห์ หลังจากทำการสังเคราะ<mark>ห์เสร็</mark>จสิ้นแล้ว วัสด*ุβ*-Zn₄Sb₃ ที่สังเคราะห์ขึ้นถูกนำไปตรวจสอบโครงสร้าง ทางผลึกโดยเทคนิคการเลี<mark>้ยวเบนของร</mark>ังสีเอกซ์ จากการตรวจสอบพ</mark>บว่าวัสดุ $m{eta}$ –Zn4Sb3 ที่สังเคราะห์ ขึ้นนั้นมีรูปแบบการเลี้ยวเบน<mark>ของรังสีเอกซ์สอดคล้องกับฐานข้อ</mark>มูลและโมเดลผลึก $m{eta}$ –Zn4Sb3 ของ Mozharivskyj และมีความบริสุทธิ์ค่อนข้างสูงแต่ก็มีโครงสร้างของ ZnSb, Zn, Sb เจือปนอยู่เล็กน้อย เพราะอุณหภูมิที่ใช้ในการเผามีการกวัดแกว่งเนื่องจากการพาความร้อนของแก๊สอาร์กอนที่ไหลผ่าน ระบบตลอดเวลา นอกจากนี้ วัสดุ eta–Zn4Sb3 ที่สังเคราะห์ขึ้นยังถูกนำไปตรวจสอบด้วยเทคนิคการ ดูดกลืนรังสีเอกซ์ที่ขอบเขตการดูดกลืนระดับพลังงานใกล้เคียงกับระดับพลังงานไอออไนเซชันของ อิเล็กตรอนในชั้นพลังงานระดับลึกในโครงสร้างของอะตอมธาตุหลัก ผลการตรวจสอบพบว่าวัสดุ eta-Zn4Sb3 ที่สังเคราะห์ขึ้นมานั้นมีการดูดกลืนพลังงานของไอออไนเซชันของอิเล็กตรอนในชั้นพลังงาน ระดับ (Normalized XANES) K ของอะตอมธาตุ Zn มีการดูดกลื่นพลังงานหลักที่ 9,659 eV โดย ยืนยันการดูดกลืนพลังงานหลักด้วยกราฟผลต่างการดูดกลืนค่าพลังงาน (Derivation of normalized XANES) ส่วนผล Normalized XANES ของชั้นพลังงานระดับ L3 L2 และ L1 ของอะตอมธาตุ Sb มี การดูดกลืนพลังงานหลักที่ 4,132 eV, 4,380 eV และ 4,698 eV ตามลำดับโดยยืนยันการดูดกลืน พลังงานหลักด้วยกราฟผลต่างการดูดกลืนค่าพลังงาน จากผลการตรวจสอบการดูดกลืนค่าพลังงาน ้จากรังสีเอกซ์สามารถวิเคราะห์ได้ว่าสถานะไอออไนเซชันของอิเล็กตรอนในชั้นพลังงานระดับลึกของ ระดับพลังาน K ของอะตอมธาตุ Zn และ ระดับพลังาน L1, L2 และ L3 ของอะตอมธาตุ Sb มีสถานะ ออกซิเดชันเป็น Zn⁰ และ Sb⁰ หลังการตรวจสอบโครงสร้างทางผลึกวัสดุ β –Zn₄Sb₃ ที่สังเคราะห์ขึ้น ได้ถูกนำไปอัดเม็ดที่ความดัน 700 MPa และเผาหลอมผลึกที่อุณหภูมิ 500 °C เป็นเวลา 6 ชั่วโมง ภายใต้ระบบแก๊สอาร์กอนเพื่อป้องกันไม่ให้เกิดโครงสร้างทางออกไซด์ที่ผิวของเม็ดเซรามิค หลังจาก ทำการเผาหลอมผลึกเสร็จแล้วเม็ดเซรามิค β –Zn₄Sb₃ ได้ถูกนำไปทดสอบวัดคุณสมบัติทางเทอร์โมอิ เล็กทริก ผลการทดสอบพบว่าเม็ดเซรามิค β –Zn₄Sb₃ ได้ถูกนำไปทดสอบวัดคุณสมบัติทางเทอร์โมอิ เล็กทริก ผลการทดสอบพบว่าเม็ดเซรามิค β –Zn₄Sb₃ มีค่าสัมประสิทธิ์ซีเบคที่สูงอย่างเด่นชัดที่ 255 μ V/°C ที่อุณหภูมิทดสอบ 320 °C อีกทั้งยังมีค่าความต้านทานไฟฟ้าที่ต่ำและเสถียรที่ 8×10⁻⁵ Ω .m ระหว่างช่วงอุณหภูมิทดสอบ 250–400 °C ค่าสัมประสิทธิ์ซีเบคที่สูงและค่าความต้านทานไฟฟ้าที่ต่ำ บ่งบอกถึงการเป็นวัสดุเทอร์โมอิเล็กทริกที่ดีตามนิยามของสัมประสิทธิ์ฟิกเกอร์ออฟเมอร์ริท (ZT) ในขณะที่ค่าเพาเวอร์แฟคเตอร์ที่บ่งบอกถึงสภาพการทำงานที่ดีตามกำลังไฟฟ้ามีค่าสูงที่ ~ 0.56 mW/m°C² ที่อุณหภูมิทดสอบ 220–240 °C จากผลการทดสอบคุณสมบัติทางเทอร์โมอิเล็กทริกของ เม็ดเซรามิค β –Zn₄Sb₃ นั้นมีคุณสมบัติที่ดีพอสำหรับการประดิษฐ์อุปกรณ์โมดูลกำเนิดไฟฟ้าเทอร์โมอิเล็กทริกของ เล็กทริก

้อุปกรณ์โมดูลกำเนิดไฟฟ้าแบบโมโนลิก β–Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO ถูกสร้างขึ้นตามกระบวนการดังนี้ เริ่มต้นน้ำผง meta–Zn4Sb3 และ ZnO มาทำการอัดแบบเบาสลับกันโดยแม่พิมพ์โมลสี่เหลี่ยมขนาด 1×1 cm ที่ความดัน 100 MPa จากนั้นนำไป<mark>ท</mark>ำการอัดรว<mark>มเม็</mark>ดหลายชั้นด้วยความดัน 700 MPa เป็นเวลา 15 นาที นำเม็ด β−Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO ที่ไ<mark>ด้ไป</mark>เผาหลอมผลึกที่อุณหภูมิ 500 °C เป็นเวลา 6 ชั่วโมง ภายใต้ ระบบแก๊สอาร์กอน จากนั้นนำเม็<mark>ดเซ</mark>รามิค **β**-Zn₄Sb₃⁄ Z<mark>nO</mark> ทำการเชื่อมขั้วบวกและขั้วลบ อุปกรณ์ โมดูลกำเนิดไฟฟ้าแบบโมโนลิก <mark>β-</mark>Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO ถูกทำขึ้นสำเร็จแล้ว จากนั้นนำโมลดูลที่ทำได้ไปทำ การทดสอบวัด IV และพาวเว<mark>อ</mark>ร์เอาต์พุต ด้วยอุปกรณ์ควบคุมอุณหภูมิร้อน/เย็นที่พัฒนาขึ้นเองโดย ้กำหนดให้อุณหภูมิการทำงาน (T_b) 100 °C, 200 °C และ 300 °C กับเกรเดียนต์ของอุณหภูมิ (∆T) 50 °C และ 100 °C จากการทดสอบพบว่ากราฟ Ⅳ มีลักษณะเป็นเส้นตรงแบบขาลงซึ่งตรงตามผล การทดสอบที่ถูกรายงาน<mark>ไว้ใน</mark>วารสารวิชาการ โดยค่าความต่างศั<mark>กย์เริ่</mark>มต้นหรือแรงดันไฟฟ้าวงจรเปิด (Open-circuit voltage ; V_{oc}) มีค่าเพิ่มขึ้นเมื่ออุณหภูมิการทำงานและเกรเดียนต์ของอุณหภูมิ เพิ่มขึ้นโดยเงื่อนไขที่ทำให้ได้ค่า V_{oc} สู<mark>งที่สุดที่ 73.1 mV และค่</mark>าพาวเวอร์เอาต์พุตสูงสุดที่ประมาณ 550 μW ที่อุณหภูมิการทำงานที่ T_h=300 ℃ และ ∆T=100 ℃ ตามลำดับ อย่างไรก็ตามการทำงานที่ อุณหภูมิการทำงาน T_h=200 °C กับ ∆T=50 °C และ ∆T=100 °C ของโมดูลนั้นเหมาะสมกว่าเพราะ กราฟพาวเวอร์เอาต์พุต curves ที่กว้างและมีลักษณะคล้ายคลึงกันซึ่งสามารถอธิบายได้ด้วยค่า เพาเวอร์แฟคเตอร์ที่บ่งบอกถึงการทำงานที่ดีของโมดูล

ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา

สาขาวิชาฟิสิกส์ ปีการศึกษา 2566 TACHGISS JAMPREECHA : FABRICATION, PERFORMANCE AND THERMOELECTRIC PROPERTIES OF MONOLITHIC β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO THERMOELECTIC GENERTOR MODULES. THESIS ADVISOR : PROF. SANTI MAENSIRI, D. Phil. 117 PP.

Keyword: THERMOELECTRIC, MOLOLITHIC, THERMOELECTRIC GENERATOR MODULE (TEGs), ZINC ANTIMONIDE

In this research, the processes synthesis and thermoelectric properties of thermoelectric materials of zinc antimony alloy beta phase (β -Zn₄Sb₃) powders were studied before the β -Zn₄Sb₃ powder before using these powders to fabricate monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO thermoelectric generator module (TEG). The performance of the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules were evaluated using self-made heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities. The characterization of processes, structural analysis, fabrication processes and performance evaluation were described in a detailed, step by step.

Initially, β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were synthesized through solid state reaction process. Zn and Sb powder were combined in a stoichiometric ratio 4:3, with additional Zn added to compensate for evaporation during high temperature calcination. The optimal amount of added Zn was 12 at.% Zn. The precursor mixture of of Zn–Sb powders was calcined at 450 °C for 3 hours under Ar gas flow. The synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were analyzed using X-ray diffraction (XRD) technique. The XRD pattern results showed dominant crystalline structure pure phase of β -Zn₄Sb₃ and correspondingly Mozharivskyj's model. However, slight diffraction pattern of secondary phase of ZnSb, Zn, and Sb, were also observed due to temperature stability limitations during calcination under Ar gas flow. Additionally, the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were also investigated ionization energy of exciting core electrons at Zn K-edge and Sb L-edges using normalized X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy (XANES) and derivative of normalized XANES. The normalized XANES spectrum result of Zn K-edge revealed main absorption edge at 9,659 eV. The main absorption edge of Zn K-edge was confirmed by derivation of normalized XANES spectrum result. For Sb L3, L2 and L1-edges, the main absorption edges were observed at 4,132 eV, 4,380 eV and 4,698 eV, respectively, also confirmed by the derivative. The normalized XANES spectra and derivation of normalized XANES spectra results of Zn K-edge and Sb L-edges, indicate that the ionization energy of exciting core electrons corresponds to the oxidation state of Zn^0 and Sb^0 . The synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were pressed into ceramic pellets using circular compression mold. The powders were pressed at 700 MPa. Then the pressed β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets were sintered under Ar gas flow at 500 °C, and held for 6 hours. Afterwards, thermoelectric properties of the ceramic pellets were investigated. The measurement of the ceramic β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets revealed a notable Seebeck coefficient of approximately 255 μ V/°C at 320 °C. Moreover, the electrical resistivity of the ceramic pellets remained consistently poor across the temperature range of 250–400 °C, with a value about 8x10⁻⁵ Ω .m. The high Seebeck coefficient and poor electrical resistivity suggest that the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets have excellent thermoelectric properties, as indicated by the figure of merit (ZT). Additionally, the maximum power factor of the ceramic pellets about 0.56 mW/m°C² was observed at the optimal performance temperature range of 220–240 °C. Fortunately, the good thermoelectric properties of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders are preferable for fabrication of monolithic TEG modules.

The monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZO TEGs were fabricated using cyclical compression process. The synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were first filled into a square compression mold size 1×1 cm, and softly pressed at 100 MPa for a while. Next, the commercial ZO powders also were filled into the same compression mold, and softly pressed. The soft compression was performed cyclically. Multi-stack of β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO pellets were firmly hard pressed at 700 MPa for 15 minutes. The pressed multi-stacks pellets were sintered under Ar gas flow at 500 °C for 6 hours. The β -Zn₄Sb₃ components of the multi-stacks pellet was connected in series with positive and negative terminal. The monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs were evaluated IV-curves and electrical output power curves using custom-built heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities. The measurement temperatures were conducted at operating temperature (Th) of 100 °C, 200 °C and 300 °C, with gradient temperature (Δ T) of 50 °C and 100 °C. The results revealed an increase in open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) with higher T_h and ΔT . The highest maximum electrical power output of 550 μ W, and the highest V_{oc} of 73.1 mV were achieved at T_n=300 °C with Δ T=100 °C. However, the optimal operating conditions for the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG was found to be $T_h=200$ °C with $\Delta T=50$ °C and $\Delta T=100$ °C, as these conditions demonstrate a wide and prominent electrical power output curves, indicating good performance of the module.

School of Physics Academic Year 2023 Student's Signature ____ Advisor's Signature ____

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XIV

CHAPTER I

1.1 Background and motivation

The global demand for energy usage is rising significantly, which the electricity consumption is a major problem. Additionally, the crisis of using energy from crude oil, natural gas and nuclear power contributes to global warming, and emits radioactive pollutants that harm the environment. Therefore, it is crucial to explore and utilize alternative energy sources such as hydropower, wind energy, solar energy and geothermal energy. Research and innovation are essential for converting these alternative energies into electricity. For example, such as converting solar energy can be converted into electricity using solar cell devices, while hydropower and wind energy can be converted into electricity using dynamo, and Thermoelectric generators can generate electricity from natural heat sources and solar thermal energy.

Thermoelectric generator (TEG) modules are components used in electronic devices to directly convert heat to electrical current, serving as an electrical power source for the electronic devices. The heat to electricity conversion is known as the "Thermoelectric effect", first discovered by Thomas Johann Seebeck (Goldsmid, 2010). Normally, conventional TEGs, or longitudinal TEGs are typically constructed using a dual-leg model, which incorporates a couple of thermoelectric materials P-type and N-type. This dual-leg model allow for parallel flow of electric and heat transport with isotropic properties (Crawford, 2014). In contrast, a single leg model uses only one type of thermoelectric materials, either P-type or N-type. Both TEG model require alternative materials for electrical insulation materials for separating TEG cells and electrical conduction materials, i.e., ZO, SiO₂, Ag, Ag₂S-alloy (Lai *et al.*, 2022). To evaluate the efficiency of the initial thermoelectric materials use in fabricating TEGs, the dimensionless parameter known as the "the figure of merit (ZT is commonly employed. This parameter is given by the equation of $ZT = \frac{\alpha^2 \sigma T}{\kappa}$ where ZT, T, α , κ and σ are dimensionless figure of merit, operating temperature (K), Seebeck coefficient (V/K), thermal conductivity (W/Km) and electrical conductivity (S/m or $\Omega^{-1}m^{-1}$), respectively. This equation was defined and conceptualized by Edmund Altenkirch

(Saini *et al.*, 2021). Due to most industrials waste heat is released at temperatures of about 200–400°C (Minea, 2007). It presents a valuable opportunity as a recyclable energy source. This waste heat can generate electrical power through the use of high-temperature TEGs. A literatures survey of thermoelectric materials suitable for these temperatures includes β -Zn₄Sb₃, NaPb₂₀SbTe₂₂ (salt), PbTe, PbTe-PbS, AgSbTe₂-GeTe (TAGS), Ba_{0.08}La_{0.05}Yb_{0.04}Co₄Sb₁₂ (skutterudite) and AgPb₁₈SbTe₂₀ (LAST) (Caillat *et al.*, 1997; Poudeu *et al.*, 2006; Biswas *et al.*, 2012; Levin *et al.*, 2012; Shi *et al.*, 2011; Hsu *et al.*, 2004; Rull-Bravo *et al.*, 2015). Among these materials, β -Zn₄Sb₃ is considered the most effective due to its high ZT at value at waste heat temperatures, inexpensive materials, and uncomplicated crystalline structure. Originally, Zn₄Sb₃ has three polymorphs: α -Zn₄Sb₃, β -Zn₄Sb₃ and γ -Zn₄Sb₃, each with unique thermoelectric properties (Seebeck, 1895; Mönkemeyer, 1905; Beer and Cochran, 1952; Mayer *et al.*, 1978). However, the β -Zn₄Sb₃ polymorph in space group R $\overline{3}$ c is the most efficient, exhibiting a significant Seebeck coefficient at operating temperature about 200–400 °C, with a maximum figure of merit (ZT) of approximately 1.3 (Caillat *et al.*, 1997).

The monolithic architecture of TEG modules offers an all-in-one structural design that simplifies fabrication processes. A monolithic Ag₂S_{0.2}Se_{0.8}/ Ag₂S /Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃ TEG module and fabrication process were reported by Huajun L. and research team. This dual leg series TEG module comprises three alloys materials: Ag₂S_{0.2}Se_{0.8}, Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃, Ag₂S as n-type, p-type and insulator materials respectively (Lai *et al.*, 2022; Dreßler *et al.*, 2015). However, this TEG module is limited to low-temperature applications due to the properties of Ag₂S_{0.2}Se_{0.8} and Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃ (Mansouri *et al.*, 2021; Singh *et al.*, 2020). Additionally, the Ag₂S components are prepared separately to create Ag₂S spacer layers, which adds complexity to the fabrication process.

This report presents the fabrication of single-leg series monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules, designed for easier manufacturing processes and the recycling of industrial waste heat. The design incorporates a modified zigzag electrical connection circuit. In this configuration, β -Zn₄Sb₃ is used as the p-type thermoelectric materials, while ZnO serves as the insulator materials (Jantrasee *et al.*, 2016). The β -Zn₄Sb₃ powers were synthesized by solid-state reaction and calcination under Ar gas flow. The prepared powders were characterized and then used to produce sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets. Then, thermoelectric properties of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets were evaluated. The performance efficiency of the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules was assessed based on their electrical power output. This was calculated using the

equation of $P_{out} = NI^2 R_L = N \left[\frac{S(T_h - T_c)}{R_g + R_L} \right]^2 R_L$ where P_{out}, N, S, T_h, T_c, I, R_g and R_L are

electrical power output, number of TEG cells, Seebeck coefficient, temperature of the hot side, temperature of the cold side, electrical current, thermal resistance and load resistance (Goldsmid, 2010), respectively.

1.2 Objectives of the research

1.2.1 To synthesize zinc antimony alloy beta phase (β –Zn₄Sb₃) powders using solid state reaction and calcination under Ar gas flow.

1.2.2 To characterize the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders using advanced X-ray measurement techniques (XRD-D8), X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectra, and derivative of normalized XANES techniques.

1.2.3 To study and analyze thermoelectric properties of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders (Seebeck coefficient, electrical resistivity and power factor) using Linseis LSR-3 equipment.

1.2.4 To fabricate monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO thermoelectric generator (TEG) modules.

1.2.5 To develop custom-built heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities for evaluating the performance of the fabricated monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules.

1.2.6 To evaluate IV characteristics and electrical power output of the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules.

1.2.7 To analyze the performance of the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules by varying operating temperature.

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1.3 Scope and limitation

1.3.1 The research focuses on synthesis zinc antimony alloy beta phase (β -Zn₄Sb₃) powders using solid state reaction and calcination under Ar gas flow. It also includes fabricating monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO thermoelectric generator modules base on the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders and developing custom-built heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities to evaluate its performance.

1.3.2 The crystalline structure phase and ionization energy of core electrons in the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were analyzed using a literatures review and compared with standard data and model.

1.3.3 Thermoelectric properties of sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets and the performance of the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules were investigated and evaluated.

1.4 Location of the research

1.4.1 Advanced Materials Physics Laboratory (AMP), School of Physics, Institute of Science, Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand.

1.4.2 Facility Building 10 (F10), Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand.

1.4.3 Synchrotron Light Research Institute (BL 5.2), Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand.

1.4.4 Department of Physics, Faculty of Science, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand.

1.5 Outline of thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters. The first chapter introduces the background and motivation for this research. Chapter II represents literatures reports, providing information on zinc antimony materials, the theory of thermoelectric effect and relevant equations, process synthesis, characterization techniques, fabrication methods for thermoelectric generator modules, and development of a custom-built heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities. It also covers the investigation and evaluation of thermoelectric properties and the performance of thermoelectric generator modules respectively. Chapter III describes the preparation of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders and sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets, characterization techniques, investigation methods, and the fabrication of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO thermoelectric generator modules. Chapter IV presents experimental results and discussions. Finally, Chapter V summarized the conclusion and offers suggestion.

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Thermoelectricity

2.1.1 Introduction

Thermoelectric technology, a renewable energy, has been used to directly convert heat into electricity current since 19th century. The first discovery of the thermal effect was found by Thomas Johann Seebeck in 1821. This phenomenon exposed that an electromotive current could be generated by heating a junction between different metals, this phenomenon is known as "Seebeck effect" (Goldsmid, 2010). A few years later, Jean Charles Athanase Peltier's experiment demonstrated that heating and cooling could be induced by applying electrical current through metallic thermocouples. This phenomenon became known as the "Peltier effect" (Crawford, 2014). In 1855, W. Thomson (Lord Kelvin) described correlation between Seebeck effect and Peltier effect, which become known as "Kelvin relation" (applied with Onsager relation). Furthermore, W. Thomson also defined "Thomson effect" by applying thermodynamic theory to describe reversible heating and cooling along with the flow of electrical current and temperature gradient. Then, Edmund Altenkirch was the first one who derived the maximal efficiency of thermoelectric generator using constant properties of heat supply and output power per unit time. Edmund Altenkirch also provided the first correct calculation of thermoelectric power generator and defined concept of "figure of merit" which indicates that optimal thermoelectric materials should expressed a high Seebeck coefficient, high electrical conductivity and low thermal conductivity. Later in 1949, Abram Fedorovich loffe developed the modern dimensionless parameter of "figure of merit (ZT)" which approximates constant thermoelectric properties to indicating performance of thermoelectric materials (Saini et al., 2021). Nowadays, thermoelectric properties have been developed in semiconductor materials (p-type and n-type), alloy materials, and oxide materials for use in electrical devices and industrials engines.

2.1.2 Theoretical background

As well known, Thomas Johann Seebeck was the first one who found

the phenomenon of electromotive current occurring at the junctions of two different conductor metals (A–B junctions). This phenomenon occurred when the junctions were subjected to a temperature difference, with one end being heated and the other cooled. The phenomena, known as "Seebeck effect" (Goldsmid, 2010). The Seebeck effect is illustrated in Figure 1. The mathematical parameters of the Seebeck effect relations describe temperature gradient across the junctions (A–B junctions) (ΔT or $T_H - T_C$), the potential difference between the end of the junctions (ΔV), and a parameter called "Seebeck coefficient" (α). The Seebeck effect relations is represented by the equation below.



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Jean Charles Athanase Peltier's experiment demonstrated a slight change in temperature in a thermocouple when an electrical current was passed through it. The effect is associated with the heat transfer that occurs when electrical current was applied to the conductor metals junctions (A–B junctions), causing heating at one junction and cooling at the other. This phenomenon, known as the "Peltier effect," is illustrated in Figure 2. The mathematical parameters of Peltier effect relations describe release/absorption rate at the junctions (Q), electrical current supply (I) and a parameter named "Peltier coefficient" (Π). Peltier coefficient relations is represented by equation (2).



Figure 2 Illustration of Peltier effect, adapted from Saini et al., 2021.

W. Thomson, also known as Lord Kelvin, established a connection between relation of the Seebeck coefficient and the Peltier coefficient using thermodynamic theory, a correlation known as the "Kelvin relation", as shown in equation below.

$$\Pi = \alpha T \tag{3}$$

Moreover, W. Thomson defined the "Thomson effect", which explains the rate of heat absorption and release in a conductor materials ($\dot{Q} = -\kappa \Delta^2 T$) as a function of temperature gradient (ΔT) and electrical current density (J). The Thomson effect is illustrated in Figure 3. The mathematical expression of Thomson effect is derived in the equation below (Saini *et al.*, 2021).

$$\dot{Q} = \frac{J^2}{\sigma} - J \left(\frac{T\partial\alpha}{\partial T}\right) \Delta T \tag{4}$$

Here, the term $\frac{T\partial \alpha}{\partial T}$ defined as "Thomson coefficient" μ . Consequently, the Thomson coefficient can be derived as shown in equation (5).

$$\mu = \frac{T\partial\alpha}{\partial T} \tag{5}$$

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Figure 3 Illustration to demonstrate Thomson effect (Morrison and Dejene, 2020).

The key coupled transport equations of electrons and heat, based on thermodynamic theory, were derived using the Boltzmann transport equation, diffusion approximations, the Fermi–Dirac distribution, Ohm's law, Fourier law, and Onsager's reciprocal relations. This derivation process of the couple transport equations follows the methodology outlined in the book of "Nanoscale energy transport and conversion" by Gang Chen (Chen, 2005). The transport equation originates from the generalization of the continuity equation. When applied with the conservation of mass, this is referred to as "convection–diffusion equation" ($\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot j = S$) such as Boltzmann transport equation. Then Boltzmann transport equation is used to describe changes in microscopy quantities, such as electrons and heat, within a thermodynamic system. The Boltzmann transport equation is shown in equation below (6) (Crawford, 2014).

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + v \cdot \nabla_r f + F \cdot \Delta_p f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \Big|_{colid} + s(r, p, t)$$
(6)

Where;

f is a scalar quantity in the control volume.

 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$ is the time dependent variant term of quantity f in the control volume.

 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\Big|_{collid}$ is the time dependent collision term when f is a quantity of particles

 $v \cdot \nabla_r f + F \cdot \Delta_p f$ is net balance quantity that enters or exits and the control volume.

r is real space.

p is momentum space.

F is force that influential in changing momentum space.

s(r, p, t) is source term that represent amount of scalar quantity increase and decrease.

Due to the unidentified or absent source of the scalar quantity "s(r, p, t) = 0" and the relaxation time approximation $(\tau, \frac{1}{\tau} = \sum_{i} \frac{1}{\tau_i})$ is applied to obtain

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\Big|_{collid} = \frac{f - f_0}{\tau}$$
, as shown in equation (7).

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_r f + \mathbf{F} \cdot \Delta_p f = \frac{f - f_0}{\tau} \tag{7}$$

Where;

 f_0 is a symmetric in momentum with average velocity is zero (Indeed, f_0 is a distribution function).

 τ is the relaxation time approximation that is inverse of all scattering process

of particles in the control volume as $\frac{1}{\tau} = \sum_{i} \frac{1}{\tau_{i}}$.

Then, the diffusion approximation is used to determine the appropriate distribution function for f. A deviation function g is defined by applying perturbation method for f. The function g is shown in equation (8).

$$g = f - f_0 \tag{8}$$

Then, substituted equation (8) in equation (7).

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + v \cdot \nabla_r f_0 + v \cdot \nabla_r g + F \cdot \Delta_p f_0 + F \cdot \Delta_p g = \frac{g}{\tau}$$
(9)

Due to the process stay in "steady state", the variable f_0 is unchanged in time, $\frac{\partial g}{\partial t}$ and $\nabla_r g$ too smaller than f and f_0 (diffusion law). Therefore, the equation (9) is changed. $g = \tau \left(v \cdot \nabla_r f_0 + F \cdot \Delta_n f_0 \right)$ (10)

Substituted equation (10) in equation (8).

$$f = f_0 + \tau \left(v \cdot \nabla_r f_0 + F \cdot \Delta_p f_0 \right) \tag{11}$$

The distribution function of f can be extended using Fermi–Dirac distribution, which applied to fermions/particles with half–integer spin, including electrons. The Fermi–Dirac distribution is demonstrated equation (12).

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{(E-E_f)}{k_B T}} + 1}$$
(12)

For electrons, the energy of state E is defined as $E = E_c + E_f$ where E_c is the conduction energy and E_f is Femi level energy (the absolute different energy above the conduction energy). Then, to define the force acting which interacted on the flow of electrons in the presence of an electric field, Ohm's law and the Wiedemann–Franz law are applied.

$$F = -e\overline{E}$$
(13)
$$-e\overline{E} = e\nabla\Phi$$
(14)

Where;

F is force which interacted on electrons

e is electrons charge

$$\overline{E}$$
 is electric field ($\overline{E} = \frac{\partial V_{external}}{\partial r}$)

 Φ is electrical potential

Then, the energy of electron conduction energy and Femi–level energy are derived in equation (15) and (16).

$$E = E_c + E_f \tag{15}$$

$$E = E_c + \frac{1}{2}m^*(v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2)$$
(16)

Where;

 m^* is electrons mass. v_x, v_y, v_z is electrons velocity on xyz axes.

When consider the electrons and heat transport direction along *x*-axis, consequently E and T dependents on *x*-axis. Thus, gradient of Fermi–Dirac distribution along x-axis ($\nabla_r f_0$) are derived in equation (24).

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} \frac{\partial E}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} \frac{\partial E}{\partial T} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$$
(17)

Defining;

$$y = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{E-E_f}{kT}} + 1}$$
(18)

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$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial T} = \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial y} \left(-\frac{E - E_f}{kT^2} \right) \tag{19}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} = \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial y} \left(\frac{1}{kT}\right) \tag{20}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E_f} = \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial y} \left(-\frac{1}{kT} \right)$$
(21)

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial T} = \frac{E - E_f}{T} \tag{22}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} = -\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E_f}$$
(23)

Thus;

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} \frac{\partial E_f}{\partial x} + \frac{E - E_f}{T} \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$$
(24)

The current density of the electron is calculated by summing all the charges, velocities and distribution of electron states as shown in equation (25)

$$J_{e} = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{k_{x}} \sum_{k_{y}} \sum_{k_{z}} (-e) v_{x} f$$
(25)

Where;

V is volume per all of state electrons $V = \frac{1}{L^3}$.

- J_e is current density or current flux of electrons.
- *k* is direction axes of electrons wave.

The summation equation is transformed into its integral form, following Fourier's law, using spherical coordinates, as shown in equation (27).

$$J_{e} = -\frac{1}{(L)^{3}} \int_{k_{x}=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{k_{y}=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{k_{z}=-\infty}^{\infty} ev_{x} f \frac{dk_{x}}{2\pi} \frac{dk_{y}}{L} \frac{dk_{z}}{2\pi} \frac{dk_{z}}{L}$$
(26)

$$J_e = -\int_{k_x = -\infty}^{\infty} \int_{k_y = -\infty}^{\infty} \int_{k_z = -\infty}^{\infty} ev_x f \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} dk_x dk_y dk_z$$
(27)

Defining;

$$dk_{x}dk_{y}dk_{z} = k^{2}\sin\theta d\theta d\varphi dk \tag{28}$$

$$V_1 = (\frac{2\pi}{L})^3$$
(29)

$$dN = \frac{4\pi k^2 dk}{V_1} = \frac{Vk^2 dk}{2\pi}$$
(30)

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$$dN = \frac{4\pi k^2 dk}{V_1} = \frac{Vk^2 dk}{2\pi^2}$$
(31)

$$D(E) = \frac{dN}{VdE} = \frac{k^2 dk}{2\pi^2 dE}$$
(32)

Thus;

$$D(E)dE = \frac{k^2 dk}{2\pi^2}$$
(33)

$$\frac{D(E)}{4\pi}dE = \frac{k^2 dk}{\left(2\pi\right)^3} \tag{34}$$

Where;

 θ, φ is spherical coordinate vertical and horizontal angles.

dN is different of number states (N) between spherical shield of k and k + dk per unit volume of a state.

D(E) is density state of electrons.

From equation (28) and (34), the equation (27) can be written as equation (35).

$$J_{e} = -\int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} e(v \cos\theta) f \frac{D(E)}{4\pi} \sin\theta d\theta d\phi dE$$
(35)

Then substituted equation (11) (f term) and (24) (F term) to equation (35).

$$J_{e} = -\int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi\pi} e(v\cos\theta)(f_{0} + \tau \left(v\cos\theta\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial x} + e\overline{E}\frac{dE}{dp}\frac{df_{0}}{dE}\right))\frac{D(E)}{4\pi}\sin\theta d\theta d\varphi dE$$
(36)

From equation (15) and defining dp = mdv.

$$J_{e} = -\int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi\pi} e(v\cos\theta)(f_{0} + \tau v\cos\theta) \left(\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial x} + e\overline{E}\frac{df_{0}}{dE}\right) \frac{D(E)}{4\pi} \sin\theta d\theta d\phi dE$$
(37)

$$J_{e} = -e \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi\pi} \left\{ v \cos\theta \sin\theta f_{0} + \tau v^{2} \cos^{2}\theta \sin\theta \left(\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial x} + e\overline{E}\frac{df_{0}}{dE}\right) \right\} \frac{D(E)}{4\pi} d\theta d\varphi dE$$
(38)

Then, integrated θ term. End and the second seco

$$J_{e} = -e \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \left\{ v f_{0} \left(-\frac{\cos^{2} \theta}{2} \right) \Big|_{0}^{\pi} + \tau v^{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial x} + e\overline{E} \frac{df_{0}}{dE} \right) \left(-\frac{\cos^{3} \theta}{3} \right) \Big|_{0}^{\pi} \right\} \frac{D(E)}{4\pi} d\varphi dE$$
(39)

$$J_{e} = -\frac{e}{6\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \pi v^{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial x} + e\overline{E} \frac{df_{0}}{dE} \right) D(E) d\varphi dE$$
(40)

Then, integrated φ term.

$$J_{e} = -\frac{e}{6\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} \tau v^{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial x} + e\overline{E} \frac{df_{0}}{dE} \right) D(E) (\varphi) \Big|_{0}^{2\pi} dE$$
(40)

$$J_{e} = -\frac{e}{3}\int_{0}^{\infty} \tau v^{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial x} + e\overline{E} \frac{df_{0}}{dE}\right) D(E) dE$$
(41)

Then, substituted equation (24) in the equation (41).

$$J_{e} = -\frac{e}{3} \int_{0}^{\infty} \pi v^{2} \left(\left(-\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} \frac{\partial E_{f}}{\partial x} + \frac{E - E_{f}}{T} \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) + e\overline{E} \frac{df_{0}}{dE} \right) D(E) dE$$
(42)

$$J_{e} = -\frac{e}{3} \int_{0}^{\infty} \pi v^{2} \left(-\frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} \frac{\partial E_{f}}{\partial x} + \frac{E - E_{f}}{T} \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + e\overline{E} \frac{df_{0}}{dE} \right) D(E) dE$$
(43)

Separated the equation (43) to couple term of temperature gradient and potential gradient as equation (44).

$$J_{e} = \frac{e}{3} \int_{0}^{\infty} \tau v^{2} \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} D(E) dE \left(\frac{\partial E_{f}}{\partial x} - e\overline{E} \right) + \frac{e}{3T} \int_{0}^{\infty} \tau v^{2} \left(E - E_{f} \right) \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} D(E) dE \left(-\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)$$
(44)

Due to electrochemical potential is defined as equation (45).

$$\Phi = \frac{E_f}{q} - V_{external} = -\left(\frac{E_f}{e} - V_{external}\right)$$
(45)

The current density of the electron can rewrite as equation (47).

$$J_{e} = \frac{e^{2}}{3} \int_{0}^{\infty} \pi v^{2} \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} D(E) dE \left(-\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{e}{3T} \int_{0}^{\infty} \pi v^{2} \left(E - E_{f} \right) \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} D(E) dE \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$$
(46)

$$J_{e} = L_{11} \left(-\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \right) + L_{12} \left(-\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)$$
(47)

Defining;

$$L_{11} = \frac{e^2}{3} \int_0^\infty \pi v^2 \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} D(E) dE$$
(48)

$$L_{12} = \frac{e}{3T} \int_{0}^{\infty} \tau v^{2} \left(E - E_{f} \right) \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} D(E) dE$$
(49)

Defining;

$$L_{12} = \frac{e}{3T} \int_{0}^{\infty} \pi v^{2} \left(E - E_{f} \right) \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} D(E) dE$$

$$\sigma = L_{11} = \frac{e^{2}}{3} \int_{0}^{\infty} \pi v^{2} \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial E} D(E) dE$$
(49)
(50)

Where;

 σ is electrical conductivity.

The Seebeck coefficient is evaluated using equation (47) when the system is in a steady state as $J_e = 0$ (open circuit condition).

$$0 = L_{11} \left(-\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \right) + L_{12} \left(-\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)$$
(51)

$$\alpha = -\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial T} = \frac{L_{12}}{L_{11}}$$
(52)

The electron current transport equation can be rewritten to incorporate electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient along equation (47), (50) and (52) as equation (53).

$$J_{e} = \sigma \left(-\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \right) - \alpha \sigma \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$$
(53)

For r space;

$$J_e = \sigma(-\Delta\Phi) - \alpha\sigma\Delta T \tag{54}$$

Based on equations (50) and (52), the equation can be used to predict electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient of thermoelectric materials.

The equation descripted electron flow along Boltzmann transport equation and the Fermi–Dirac distribution. Similarly, heat flow is derived using the same process as for the electron current density. The heat flow is derived from the first law of thermodynamic, as shown in equation (55).

$$dU = dQ + E_f dn \tag{55}$$

$$dQ = dU - E_f dn \tag{56}$$

$$dJ_Q = dJ_U - dJ_n \tag{57}$$

Where;

- U is energy of system
- Q is heat of system
- *n* is number of particles
- J_{Q} is heat flux
- J_U is energy flux
- J_n is particles flux

The energy density can be calculated by integrating of all energy E along x-axis direction, as shown in equation (58).

$$J_{U} = \int_{-\infty-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} Ev_{x} f dv_{x} dv_{y} dv_{z}$$
(58)

The particle density can be calculated by integrating of all energy E_f along x-axis direction, as shown in equation equation (59).

$$J_{n} = \int_{-\infty-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} E_{f} v_{x} f dv_{x} dv_{y} dv_{z}$$
(59)

Thus, the heat density consists of energy and particle density integration is shown in equation (60).

$$J_Q = \int_{-\infty-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} (E - E_f) v_x f dv_x dv_y dv_z$$
(60)

The heat density for thermoelectric system is determined by the electron carrier, the distribution function J and Fermi–Dirac distribution. Consequently, equation (60) is derived using equation (11) to (46). The heat density J_{o} is expressed in equation (61).

$$J_{Q} = L_{21} \left(-\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \right) + L_{22} \left(-\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)$$
(61)

Defining;

$$L_{21} = \frac{e}{3} \int_{0}^{\infty} \pi v^2 \left(E - E_f \right) \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} D(E) dE$$
(62)

$$L_{22} = -\frac{e}{3T} \int_{0}^{\infty} \tau v^2 \left(E - E_f \right)^2 \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial E} D(E) dE$$
(63)

The relation between L_{12} and L_{22} connection originally described by Lars Ongsagor, known as the "Onsager relations".

$$L_{21} = TL_{12}$$
 (64)

When the chemical potential term is eliminated, the current density and heat density equation reveal the correlation of heat flow, as shown in equation (65).

$$J_{Q} = \frac{L_{21}}{L_{12}} J_{e} + (L_{22} - \frac{L_{12}L_{21}}{L_{11}})(-\frac{\partial T}{\partial x})$$
(65)

Defining;

Where;

 κ is thermal conductivity

 $\Pi = \frac{L_{21}}{L_{11}}$

The heat transport equation due to electron carrier can be rewritten to include thermal conductivity and the Peltier coefficient, as show in equation (65), (66) and (67), and is expressed in equation (68).

$$J_{Q} = \Pi J_{e} - \kappa (\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}) \tag{68}$$

For *r* space;

 $J_e = \prod J_e - \kappa \Delta T$ (69)

Based on equation (66) and (67), the Peltier coefficient and thermal conductivity of thermoelectric materials can be calculated. The coupled transport processes of the thermoelectric effect and the associated coefficient parameters have been derived and defined. The efficiency of thermoelectric materials and devices was then

calculated to optimize the maximal performance of electrical generators and cooling systems. Thomson effect (4) was considered in determining the maximal performance of thermoelectric materials, using the Domenicali equation (Thomson relations $\dot{Q} = -\kappa\Delta^2 T$) (Rowe, 2018; Zlatic and Monnier, 2014).

$$\dot{Q} = -\kappa \Delta^2 T = \frac{J^2}{\sigma} - J \left(\frac{T \partial \alpha}{\partial T}\right) \Delta T$$
(70)

It is assumed that heat transfer occurs along the x-axis, with the cold side of the materials at $x_0 = 0$, T_0 and the hot side end at $x_1 = l$, T_1 . As a result, the term of $J\left(\frac{T\partial\alpha}{\partial T}\right)\Delta T$ is eliminated because α don't change within a material. The equation

(70) can be rewritte as equation (71).

$$-\kappa \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial^2 x} = \frac{J^2}{\sigma}$$
(71)

$$-\int \kappa \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial^2 x} \partial x = \int \frac{J^2}{\sigma} \partial x \tag{72}$$

$$-\kappa \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{J^2}{\sigma} x + F$$
(73)

$$-\int \kappa \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \partial x = \int \left(\frac{J^2}{\sigma} x + F \right) \partial x \tag{74}$$

$$-\kappa T(x) = \frac{J^2 x^2}{2\sigma} + Fx + G \tag{75}$$

At condition $x_0 = 0$, T_0 , the parameter G is shown in equation (76).

$$G = -\kappa T_0 \tag{76}$$

Thus;

$$-\kappa T(x) = \frac{J^2 x^2}{2\sigma} + Fx - \kappa T_0$$
(77)

At condition $x_1 = l$, T_1 the parameter F is shown in equation (78).

$$F = -\frac{J^2 l}{2\sigma} - \frac{\kappa}{l} (T_1 - T_0)$$
(78)

Thus;

$$-\kappa T(x) = \frac{J^2 x^2}{2\sigma} - \frac{J^2 lx}{2\sigma} - \frac{\kappa}{l} (T_1 - T_0) x - \kappa T_0$$
(79)

Defining;

$$K = \frac{\kappa A}{l} \tag{80}$$

$$R = \frac{l}{\sigma A}$$
(81)

$$J = \frac{I}{A} \tag{82}$$

Where;

- F is thermal conductance
- G is electrical resistance
- K is thermos conductance
- **R** is electrical resistance
- A is surface area of the materials
- l is length of the materials

Substituted equation (80), (81) and (82) in equation (79);

$$T(x) = -\frac{I^2 R x^2}{2K l^2} + \frac{I^2 R x}{2K l} + \left(\frac{T_1 - T_0}{l}\right) x + T_0$$
(83)

Then;

$$\frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x} = \frac{RI^2}{2Kl} \left(1 - \frac{2x}{l} \right) + \frac{T_1 - T_0}{l}$$
(84)

Substituted equation (83) in equation (68) to get heat transport.

$$J = \prod J - \kappa \Delta T \tag{85}$$

$$J_Q = T\alpha J_e - \kappa \Delta T \tag{86}$$

At condition heat transfer along in x-axis, $x_0 = 0$, T_0 , the equation (86) is changed.

 $Q_0 = \alpha I T_0 - K (T_1 - T_0) - \frac{RI^2}{2}$ (87)

Defining;

$$J_{\varrho} = \frac{Q}{A} \tag{88}$$

The maximal heat transfer depended on current I, Then optimal current that yields maximal heat transfer is determined by taking the derivative of equation (87) with dI

$$\frac{\partial Q_0}{\partial I} = \frac{\partial \left(\alpha I T_0 - K \left(T_1 - T_0\right) - \frac{RI^2}{2}\right)}{\partial I}$$
(89)

$$0 = \alpha T_0 - RI \tag{90}$$

$$I_{otp} = \frac{\alpha T_0}{R} \tag{91}$$

Substituted I_{otp} in equation (87).

C

$$Q_0 = \frac{\alpha^2 T_0^2}{2R} - K(T_1 - T_0)$$
(92)

Under this condition, the heat source will transfer until reach $Q_0 = 0$. The maximum possible different temperature $(T_1 - T_0)$ at the other end of a materials is shown in equation (95).

$$(T_1 - T_0)_{\text{max}} = \frac{\alpha^2}{2RK} T_0^2$$
(93)

$$\left(T_{1}-T_{0}\right)_{\max}=\frac{\alpha^{2}\sigma}{2\kappa}T_{0}^{2}$$
(94)

$$(T_1 - T_0)_{\text{max}} = ZT_0^2$$
(95)

Defining;

$$Z = \frac{\sigma \alpha^2}{\kappa}$$
(96)

Where;

Z is the figure of merit.

The figure of merit is a widely used parameter to indicate the performance of thermoelectric materials.

2.1.3 Effects in a magnetic field

Normally, electrical charges are horizontal forced as move through in magnetic field. As a result, the properties of thermoelectric effects can change when a magnetic field is applied. The influence of magnetic field on thermoelectric effects is known as "Thermogalvanomagnetic effects", which impact the performance of thermoelectric module. The thermogalvanomagnetic effects is illustrated in Figure 4. The variation in Seebeck coefficient when the magnetic field is reversed is referred to as the "Umkehr effect". The Umkehr effect is deployed by equation (97).

$$\Pi(\mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{T}\boldsymbol{\alpha}(\mathbf{B}) \tag{97}$$

Where;

B is a magnetic field

When a magnetic field is applied to a system, an electric field will appear perpendicular to both electrical current and magnetic field. This phenomenon is known as "Hall effect". However, the transverse voltage that arises in a magnetic field due to a longitudinal temperature gradient or heat flow is called "Nernst effect". Unlike the Hall effect, the Nernst effect is independent of whether the charge carriers are positive or negative. The Nernst coefficient (N) is defined by equation (98).

$$\left|\mathbf{N}\right| = \frac{d\mathbf{V}/d\mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{B}_{z}d\mathbf{T}/d\mathbf{x}} \tag{98}$$

Where;

N is Nernst coefficient.

 $dV\!/dy$ is a derivative of transverse electric field.

x, y and z are Cartesian coordinate system.

Moreover, Ettingshausen refers to the generation of a transverse temperature gradient in the presence of a transverse magnetic field and a longitudinal electric current. The Ettingshausen coefficient (E_p) is defined by equation (99).

$$E_{p} = \frac{\mathrm{dT/dy}}{\mathrm{i}_{x}\mathrm{B}_{z}} \tag{99}$$

Where;

E_p is Ettingshausen coefficient.

dT/dy is a derivative of temperature.

The correlation between Ettingshausen effect and Nernst effect is represented in equation (100).



Figure 4 The thermogalvanomagnetic effects with different directions of involved parameters (Goldsmid, 2010).

$$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{p}}\boldsymbol{\kappa} = \mathbf{N}\mathbf{T} \tag{100}$$

The final thermogalvanomagnetic effects is "Righi–Leduc effect" which refers to transverse temperature gradient generated by perpendicular heat flow. The Righi–Leduc coefficient (R_s) is defined by equation (101).
$$R_{s} = \frac{dT/dy}{B_{z}dT/dx}$$
(101)

Where;

R_s is Righi–Leduc coefficient.

2.1.4 Transport effects

The thermoelectric phenomena are reversible process according to thermodynamics principles, but thermoelectric parameters, such as electrical resistance and thermal conduction, are irreversible. However, reversibility can be expressed in terms of the derivatives of Seebeck coefficient, thermal conduction, and electrical resistances. The electrical current depend on electrical conductivity, electrical voltage and the ratios of length to cross–sectional area, as shown in equation (102).

$$I = \frac{\sigma V A}{L}$$
(102)

Where;

A is cross-sectional area.

L is length

V is applied voltage

Moreover, the thermal conductivity is defined by the equation (103).

$$\frac{1}{L} = \frac{\kappa A \Delta T}{L}$$
(103)

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Where;

q is rate of heat flow.

The thermoelectric coefficients, along with electrical and thermal conductivities, are considered key transport properties of a materials. These properties are typically temperature–dependent, and the variation temperature has a significant impact on thermoelectric generation.

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2.1.5 Thermoelectric refrigerators

The performance of a refrigerators involves applying an external electrical voltage to the end of a thermoelectric couple subsequent occur heat source (T_h) and cold source or heat pump (T_c). A thermoelectric refrigerator consisting of p–n couple is demonstrated in Figure 5.



Figure 5 Illustration of model a couple p-n pair refrigerator (Goldsmid, 2010).

When an electrical current is applied to thermoelectric refrigerator, or in the case of Peltier cooling, subsequent heat flow through the p-n couple $(\alpha_p - \alpha_n)IT_h$, which using Kelvin relation in equation (3) eliminate Peltier coefficient in equation (2). Heat conduction creates resistance to the heat pump as $(T_h - T_c)(\kappa_p + \kappa_n)$. The heat pump is also opposed by half of Joule heating, similar to a Carnot cycle as $I^2(R_p + R_n)/2$. The rate of the heat pump can be express in equation (104).

$$q = (\alpha_{p} - \alpha_{n})IT_{h} - (T_{h} - T_{c})(\kappa_{p} + \kappa_{n}) - \frac{I^{2}(R_{p} + R_{n})}{2}$$
(104)

The rate of electrical power usage also expresses in equation (105).

$$\mathbf{P}_{\text{out}} = \left(\alpha_{\text{p}} - \alpha_{\text{n}}\right) \mathbf{I} \left(\mathbf{T}_{\text{h}} - \mathbf{T}_{\text{c}}\right) - \mathbf{I}^{2} \left(\mathbf{R}_{\text{p}} + \mathbf{R}_{\text{n}}\right)$$
(105)

Where;

P_{out} is electrical power.

Therefore, the performance of a refrigerator, measured as the coefficient of performance (COP), can be determined by dividing the heat flow described in equation (104) by electrical power usage give in equation (105). The COP is represented in equation (106).

$$\phi = \frac{(\alpha_{p} - \alpha_{n})IT_{h} - (T_{h} - T_{c})(\kappa_{p} + \kappa_{n}) - \frac{I^{2}(R_{p} + R_{n})}{2}}{(\alpha_{p} - \alpha_{n})I(T_{h} - T_{c}) - I^{2}(R_{p} + R_{n})}$$
(106)

Where;

 ϕ is coefficient of performance (COP).

2.1.6 Thermoelectric generators

Thermoelectric generators, based on Seebeck effect, are used to directly convert heat into electrical current. These thermoelectric generators operate using a model of a p-n couple generator, as shown in Figure 6. The couple p-n generator is connected to a load resistance $\mathbf{R}_{\rm L}$, generating electricity through the temperature difference between the two end of the generator. The generated electrical power is delivered to the load resistance, and the efficiency η is calculated as the ratio of the electrical output power to the rate of heat drawn. The heat drawn is flowing of heat due to thermal conduction along the p-n couple generator. Total rate of heat flow is expressed in equation (107).

$$\mathbf{q} = \left(\alpha_{\rm p} - \alpha_{\rm n}\right)\mathbf{I}\mathbf{T}_{\rm h} + \left(\mathbf{T}_{\rm h} - \mathbf{T}_{\rm c}\right)\left(\kappa_{\rm p} + \kappa_{\rm n}\right)$$
(107)

While the electromotive force (EMF) give electrical current following equation (108).

$$I = \frac{\left(\alpha_{p} - \alpha_{n}\right)\left(T_{h} - T_{c}\right)}{R_{p} + R_{n} + R_{L}}$$
(108)

Then, the electrical output power is;

$$\mathbf{P}_{\text{out}} = I^2 R_L = \left[\frac{\left(\alpha_p - \alpha_n\right)\left(\mathbf{T}_h - \mathbf{T}_c\right)}{\mathbf{R}_p + \mathbf{R}_n + \mathbf{R}_L}\right]^2 R_L$$
(109)

The efficiency η is the ratio of electrical output power to the rate of heat drawn, equation (109) divide by equation (107).

$$\eta = \frac{\left[\frac{\left(\alpha_{\rm p} - \alpha_{\rm n}\right)\left(T_{\rm h} - T_{\rm c}\right)}{R_{\rm p} + R_{\rm n} + R_{\rm L}}\right]^2 R_L}{\left(\alpha_{\rm p} - \alpha_{\rm n}\right)\left[T_{\rm h} + \left(T_{\rm h} - T_{\rm c}\right)\left(\kappa_{\rm p} + \kappa_{\rm n}\right)\right]}$$
(110)

$$\mathbf{M} = \frac{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{L}}}{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{p}} + \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{n}}} \tag{111}$$

When;

Finally, the efficiency η can be deploy by equation (112).





2.2 Thermoelectric materials

2.2.1 Thermoelectric materials

Normally, thermoelectric materials are typically classified into n-type and p-type materials, based on its charge carrier and ability to generate heat and cold at

the couple end of the materials. For n-type thermoelectric materials, there is a temperature difference between the two ends, an electric field is induced, with the direction from the hot side (+) to the cold side (-) and subsequent in a high density of electron at cold side and a low density of electrons at hot side. Conversely, in p-type thermoelectric materials, the electric field is induced in the opposite direction, from the cold side (+) to the hot side (-) and subsequent in a high density of holes (low density of electron) at cold side and a low density of hole at hot side (high density of electrons). The behaviour of n-type and p-type of thermoelectric materials is shown in Figure 7.



Figure 7 Illumination of n-type and p-type of thermoelectric materials behaviour (Nabilasamiron, 2012).

The optimal thermoelectric materials for converting heat into electrical current at various operating temperature are evaluated based on thermoelectric properties, such as Seebeck coefficient, thermal conductivity, electrical conductivity, as well as the dimensionless figure of merit (ZT) described in equation(96). According to Marta Rull's report, a summary of the performance of p-type and n-type of thermoelectric materials across different operating temperatures is shown in Figure 8 (Rull-Bravo *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, Table 1 lists various thermoelectric materials, operating temperatures, power factor, synthesis method and ZT. The excellent thermoelectric materials, characterized by a high ZT (>1) and great power factor, i. e., $Bi_xSb_{2-x}Te_3$, β -Zn₄Sb₃, β -Cu₄Se, (GeTe)_{0.85}(ASbTe₂)_{0.15}, Na-Pb-Sb-Te, PbTe-rTe-Na, Yb₁₄Mn_{1-x}Al_xSb₁₁,

Bi₂Te_{3-x}Se_x, Mg₂Si–Mg₂Sn, AgPb_mSbTe_{2+m}, PbTe–Ag₂Te–La_{0.08}La_{0.05}Yb, P–doped SiGe, Bi_{0.92}Pb_{0.08}CuSeO, Bi_{0.875}Ba_{0.125}CuSeO, SnS, SnSe and Ag₂Se. However, in light of the global energy crisis and the motivation discussed in the chapter I to recycle industrials waste heat, the most suitable thermoelectric materials for temperatures corresponding to waste heat about 200–400 °C (Minea, 2007) include β –Zn₄Sb₃ (Caillat *et al.*, 1997), SnSe (Gainza *et al.*, 2020), Na–Pb–Sb–Te (salt) (Poudeu *et al.*, 2006), SnS (Asfandiyar *et al.*, 2017), PbTe–SrTe–Na (Biswas *et al.*, 2012), (GeTe)_{0.85}(AgSbTe₂)_{0.15} + 2%Dy (Levin *et al.*, 2012) in p–type thermoelectric materials, and Ba_{0.08}La_{0.05}Yb_{0.04}Co₄Sb₁₂ (skutterudite) (Shi *et al.*, 2011), Mg₂Si_{1-x}Sn_x (Liu *et al.*, 2012), AgPb₁₈SbTe₂₀ (LAST) (Hsu *et al.*, 2020), ZnAl₂O₄ (Jood *et al.*, 2011), In_{2-x}Ce_xO₃ (Lan *et al.*, 2015), Ca₃Co₄O₉ (Zhang *et al.*, 2020), Bi_{0.875}Ba_{0.125}CuSeO (Sui *et al.*, 2013), Bi_{0.92}Pb_{0.08}CuSeO (Wang *et al.*, 2016) in n–type thermoelectric materials.





Figure 8 Summary of ZT as a functional temperature of p-type and n-type of thermoelectric materials, a) p-type thermoelectric materials and b) n-type thermoelectric materials (Rull-Bravo *et al.*, 2015).

Materials	ZT	Туре	Temp.(K)	Power Factor (µWcm ⁻¹ K ⁻²)	Synthesis Method	Reference
Ag ₂ Se	1.2	Ν	273	24.4	Magnetron sputtering	(Perez - Taborda <i>et al.,</i> 2018)
Ag ₂ Se _{1.06}	0.84	Ν	300	30.1	Spark plasma sintering	(Mi <i>et al.,</i> 2014)
Ag ₂ S _{0.5} Se _{0.5}	0.44	Ν	300	dh -	Spark plasma sintering	(Liang <i>et al.,</i> 2019)
Ag _{1.9} Sn _{0.1} Se	0.9	Ν	300	4.5	Wet chemical process	(Tee <i>et al.,</i> 2022)
Bi ₂ Te ₃	0.4	Ρ	300	- 4	_	(Zhang <i>et al.,</i> 2013)
Bi ₂ Te ₃	0.7	P	400		Arc melting method	(Gharsallah <i>et</i> <i>al.,</i> 2016)
Zn ₄ Sb ₃	0.81	Р	600	B	Mechanical Alloying	(Lee and Lin, 2018)
Zn ₄ Sb ₃	1.36	Р	600	HAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA	Hot pressing	(Kunioka <i>et al.,</i> 2018)
SnSe	1.57	ph	300-700	ทคโนโลยี่	Arc melting method	(Gainza <i>et al.,</i> 2020)
SnS	2.6	Ρ	900	0.75	Mechanical Alloying	(Asfandiyar <i>et</i> <i>al.,</i> 2017)
ZnAl ₂ O ₄	0.44	Ν	1000	0.18	Microwave– stimulated	(Jood <i>et al.,</i> 2011)
In _{2-x} Ce _x O ₃	0.47	Ν	1200	2.5	Spark plasma sintering	(Lan <i>et al.,</i> 2015)

 Table 1 List of thermoelectric materials versus operating temperatures, power factor,

 synthesis method and ZT.

Materials	ZT	Туре	Temp.(K)	Power Factor (µWcm ⁻¹ K ⁻²)	Synthesis Method	Reference
Ca ₃ Co ₄ O ₉	0.40	Ρ	900	_	Spark plasma sintering	(Zhang <i>et al.,</i> 2020)
Bi _{0.875} Ba _{0.125} CuSeO	1.4	Ρ	900	6.3	Solid state reaction route	(Sui <i>et al.,</i> 2013)
Bi _{0.92} Pb _{0.08} C uSeO	1.1	Ρ	800	7.3	Solid state reaction route	(Wang <i>et al.,</i> 2016)

 Table 2 list of thermoelectric materials versus operating temperatures, power factor,

 synthesis method and ZT. (Continued)

Among the materials mentioned, β -Zn₄Sb₃ stands out as an excellent thermoelectric material in the temperature range of 200 – 400 °C (473.15 – 673.15 K) due to its high ZT value, availability of inexpensive elemental sources, low toxicity, and simple crystalline structure. The thermoelectric materials of Zn-Sb system include ZnSb, Zn₃Sb₂ and Zn₄Sb₃, each exhibiting unique thermoelectric properties. The study of the Zn-Sb system of the Zn-Sb system in thermoelectric itinerary began when T. J. Seebeck surveyed elements and alloy materials, include correlation of electrical production (potential voltage) and temperatures differences in various materials, including ZnSb alloy (Seebeck, 1895). Later, Zn₃Sb₂ were reported an optimal ratio of Zn:Sb for maximizing Zn₃Sb₂ crystalline (Mönkemeyer, 1905), and its thermoelectric properties were further explored (Beer and Cochran, 1952). The phase diagram and structural polymorphs of Zn₄Sb₃ namely α -Zn₄Sb₃, β -Zn₄Sb₃ and γ -Zn₄Sb₃, were studied by Mayer K. W. in 1978 (Mayer *et al.*, 1978). The thermoelectric properties of β -Zn₄Sb₃ have been invested since the 19th century, as report by Tapiero M., Spitzer D., and Ugai Ya. (Tapiero et al., 1985; Spitzer, 1970; Ugai et al., 1963). Among the Zn-Sb system materials, the β -Zn₄Sb₃ is particularly noteworthy for its excellent thermoelectric performance in the intermediate temperature range about 200-400 °C (473.15-673.15 K), achieving a maximum figure of merit (ZT) approximately 1.3 (Caillat et al., 1997).



2.2.2 Process synthesis

The thermoelectric materials were synthesized using various process depending on the structural materials involved. For example, oxide materials were prepared using the sol–gel method (a wet chemical process) (Tee *et al.*, 2022), alloy materials were synthesized via solid–state reaction, mechanical alloying, and quenching methods (Lee and Lin, 2018; Mirela *et al.*, 2015), thin films were created using magnetron sputtering (Perez-Taborda *et al.*, 2018), ceramic bulk materials were produced through hot pressing (Kunioka *et al.*, 2018).

Sol-gel method

Sol-gel method is a chemical process used to synthesis a wide range of oxide materials, including thermoelectric materials with oxide structure like $Ca_3Co_4O_9$, $In_{2-x}Ce_xO_3$ and $ZnAl_2O_4$. In this method, the initial materials are dissolved in a liquid solvent, and the solution is then heated and stirred to form a gel. Once the gel has dried, the resulting powders is calcined under optimal conditions specific to each material. This process successfully produces the desired materials. Figure 9 illustrates a schematic of sol-gel method.



Figure 9 Schematic of sol-gel method step by step (Bokov et al., 2021).

Hot pressing technique

Hot pressing technique combines synthesis and sintering into a single process. In this method, the starting materials are prepared in the optimal stoichiometric ratio before being placed into a graphite mold. The mold is then subjected to suitable pressure using a hydraulic system and heated to an optimal temperature, allowing crystallites to form and the material to be sintered into a bulk pellet. Lately, the sintered ceramic pellet of the desired materials is done. A Schematic diagram illustrating of the hot pressing technique is shown in Figure 10.



Figure 10 Schematic diagram illustrating the hot pressing technique (Moustafa *et al.,* 2011).

Magnetron sputtering

Magnetron sputtering is widely used to fabricate film for coating substrate. This technique operates in a vacuum environment to facilitate plasma formation, utilizing gas ions such as Ar, N2, O2, He, or H2. In this process, a bulk materials (target) is subjected to high-energy ionized gas, which bombards the target materials, causing its atoms to be ejected. These ejected ions are then deposited onto the substrate, forming a thin film, guided by the electric field between the anode and cathode. Magnetron sputtering is typically categorized into DC magnetron sputtering and Pulse-DC magnetron sputtering, as illustrated in Figure 11.



Figure 11 DC magnetron sputtering and. Pulsed DC magnetron sputtering (Vaccoat, 2024).

Spark plasma sintering

Spark plasma sintering (SPS) is similar to the hot pressing technique. However, instead of conventional heating, SPS directly heats the material powders using a pulsed direct electrical current at low voltage. An illustration of SPS technique is shown in Figure 12.





Figure 12 Illustration of Spark plasma sintering technique (Max Planck Institutes).

Quenching process

The Quenching process involves rapidly cooling a material after melting or calcination. First, the precursor is sealed in a quartz tube and then subjected to melting or calcined at an optimal temperature. Afterward, the quartz tube is quickly submerged in water to cool the sample rapidly. This process prevents the recrystallization of polymorph phases during the cooling phase of calcination process. The general overview of the quenching process is illustrated in Figure 13.



Figure 13 Illustration of quenching process after melting process.

Mechanical alloying

Mechanical alloying (MA) is a key step in solid state reaction process, involving the cyclical welding, fracturing, and re-welding of powders particles in a ball mill or a highenergy ball mill chamber. Typically, the MA process is used to mix initial sample powders, flatten and crack bulk sample, and weld powders particles together. This technique is widely used in the preparation of alloy materials. An illustration of the mechanical alloying (MA) is shown in Figure 14.





Figure 14 Mechanical alloying with flat and crack bulk sample (Kumar et al., 2022).

Solid-state reaction

Solid-state reaction is a synthesis method used to produce polycrystalline materials. The reaction typically occurs at high temperatures, depending on the crystallization conditions of each material. Firstly, the MA is used to mix the initial powers. Following this, calcination is applied to form the crystallite phase, and the materials powders is compressed into bulk pellets. Finally, these bulk pellets are sintered to create ceramic pellets. An example of the solid-state reaction process is illustrated in Figure 15.





Figure 15 Schematic representation of solid-state reaction method (Sodhiya *et al.*, 2021).

2.2.3 Beta zinc antimonide β -Zn₄Sb₃

In the Zn–Sb system, the commonly studied crystalline phases include ZnSb, Zn₃Sb₂ and Zn₄Sb₃ (Adjadj *et al.*, 2006). The Zn₄Sb₃ which has polymorphs of α –Zn₄Sb₃, β –Zn₄Sb₃ and γ –Zn₄Sb₃, was investigated in terms of its phase diagram by Mayer K. W. in 1978 (Mayer *et al.*, 1978). Among these polymorphs, The β –Zn₄Sb₃ stands out as an excellent thermoelectric material, particularly in the intermediate temperature range of 200–400 °C (473.15–673.15 K), with a maximum figure of merit (ZT) of approximately 1.3 at 400 °C (Caillat *et al.*, 1997; Ur *et al.*, 2003). The crystalline structure of β –Zn₄Sb₃ contains 30 Sb atoms and 36 Zn atoms per a unit cell (Snyder *et al.*, 2004; Mayer *et al.*, 1978). Zn atoms are partial occupied at the positions 36 Zn(1) site(f) and interstitial positions 36 Zn(1, 2, 3, 4) site(e, f), with varying occupancy percentages (%). Similarly, Sb atoms are partially occupied at the positions 18 Sb(1) site(e) and 12 Sb(2) site(c), also with different occupancy percentages (%). The current issue is determining the accurate model for β –Zn₄Sb₃ among the proposed models of Zn₃Sb₃₀, Zn₆Sb₅ and Zn₁₃Sb₁₀ (Nylén *et al.*, 2004; Bokii and Klevtsova, 1965; Snyder *et al.*, 2004; Bokii and Klevtsova, 1965; Sn

al., 2004). Models for $Zn_{39}Sb_{30}$ and $Zn_{13}Sb_{10}$ are shown in Figure 16 while the Zn_6Sb_5 model is depicted in Figure 17.



Figure 16 (a) Crystalline structure model of Zn₃₉Sb₃₀ and (b) Crystalline structure model of Zn₁₃Sb₁₀ (Zou *et al.*, 2015).



Figure 17 Crystalline structure model of Zn₆Sb₅ (Mayer *et al.*, 1978).

In the Zn₆Sb₅ model or Mayer model, Zn atoms occupy the position 36 Zn(1) site(f) at 100% and 18 Zn(1) site(e) at 11% while Sb atoms are positioned at the position 18 Sb(1) site(e) at 89% and 12 Sb(2) site(c) at 100% occupancy. In the Zn₃₉Sb₃₀ or three interstitial model, Zn atoms are found the position 36 Zn(1) site(f) at 90% occupancy, interstitial positions 36 Zn(2) site(f) with approximately 5%, and 36 Zn(3) site(f) with around 6% occupancy. Sb atoms are located at the position 18 Sb(1) site(e) and 12 Sb(2) site(c) at 100% occupancy each. The full occupancy model, closely matches the experimental X-ray diffraction results for β -Zn₄Sb₃ (Qiu *et al.*, 2010). In this model, Zn atoms occupy the positions 36 Zn(1) site(f) at 100% and have no occupancy at interstitial positions, while Sb atoms occupy the position 18 Sb(1) site(e) at 100% and 12 Sb(2) site(c) at 100%. A comparison of the structural models for β -Zn₄Sb₃ is presented in Table 3.



	Site occupancy (fraction)			
Cita multiplicity	Zn(1)	Sb(1)	Sb(2)	Zn Interstitial
Site multiplicity	(36f)	(18e)	(12c)	(36f)
Mayer Model	1	0.89 Sb 0.11 Zn	0	1
Full occupancy Model	1	1	1	0
Three interstitial Model	0.9	1	1	0.17

Table 3 Comparison of structure model β –Zn₄Sb₃ with intermediate step to interstitial model (Snyder *et al.,* 2004).

The calculated X-ray diffraction pattern for the Zn₃₉Sb₃₀, Zn₆Sb₅ and Zn₁₃Sb₁₀ models appear very similar, with nearly identical diffraction peaks. This research, the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were compared with Mayer's model of Zn₆Sb₅ because of Mayer's model of Zn₆Sb₅ was refined based on calculations and experiment. he Xray diffraction (XRD) patterns for the Zn₃₉Sb₃₀, Zn₆Sb₅ and Zn₁₃Sb₁₀ models are shown in Figure 18, Figure 19 and Figure 20, respectively.



Figure 18 Calculated X–ray diffraction pattern yields of Zn₃₉Sb₃₀ model by using Boru's CIF– 7040405 (Borup *et al.*, 2016).



Figure 19 Calculated X–ray diffraction pattern yields of Zn₆Sb₅ model by using Jeffrey Snyder's CIF–cm0515505_si_001(Snyder *et al.*, 2004).



Figure 20 Calculated X–ray diffraction pattern yields of Zn₁₃Sb₁₀ model by using Yurij's CIF– 4001474 (Mozharivskyj *et al.*, 2006).

The most popular method for synthesizing high-purity β -Zn₄Sb₃ materials is quenching. This process involves placing powdered Zn and Sb elements into a sealed quartz tube filled with argon gas, heating the mixture to 700–750°C to melt it into ingot of β -Zn₄Sb₃ (Lin *et al.*, 2014; Böttger *et al.*, 2011). The ingot is crushed into powder using a ceramic mortar and pestle. The XRD patterns of the β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders amples produced by both Lin and Böttger's research groups were found to match the calculated XRD patterns of the Zn₃₉Sb₃₀, Zn₆Sb₅ and Zn₁₃Sb₁₀ models. XRD pattern of quenched β -Zn₄Sb₃ materials are displayed in Figure 21 (Böttger *et al.*, 2011). Although, high pure β -Zn₄Sb₃ materials can be synthesized using the quenching method, it is not optimal for producing large quantities due to the challenges associated with filling the quartz tube with precursors and crushing the material into fine β -Zn₄Sb₃.



Figure 21 XRD yields of ZnSd (top) and Zn₄Sb₃ (bottom) were prepares by quenching method (Böttger *et al.*, 2011).

The Mechanical alloying method is also used to prepare β -Zn₄Sb₃, making it suitable for conventional production and large-scale synthesis (Lee and Lin, 2018). The β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders synthesized using this method exhibit an XRD pattern similar to those produced by the quenching method. The XRD pattern of the β - powders synthesized through mechanical alloying is shown in Figure 22. As well known, Zn element can evaporate at temperature of 350 °C. Therefore, when using the calcination method, it is important to compensate for this by adding extra Zn powder to the sample precursors to ensure optimal synthesis (Ueno *et al.*, 2006; Ito *et al.*, 2003; Shim *et al.*, 2015).



Figure 22 XRD pattern of β -Zn₄Sb₃ with 0.6 at. % Zn rich via different sintered temper- atures in vacuum (Lee and Lin, 2018).

The mechanical alloying (MA) method is a materials synthesis technique that uses a ball mill to grind and mix initial precursor elements, forming crystalline phase and homogeneous mixture. However, since the crystalline phase is often incomplete after milling, the precursors are further calcined and sintered to fully develop the crystalline structure, a process known as the "solid-state reaction method". This thesis employs the solid-state reaction process to synthesis β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders. According to the MA method, the precursor powders formed small crystalline phase of β -Zn₄Sb₃, ZnSb, Sb and Zn phases as shown in the XRD results in Figure 23. SEM images of the precursor powders before and after using MA method are shown are Figure 24. Generally, the thermoelectric materials are typically pressed into ceramic pellets to study its thermoelectric properties and for use usage in modules. Therefore, the compression and sintering processes were studied to determine the optimal conditions for fabricating β -Zn₄Sb₃ ceramic with homogeneous surfaces and minimal porosity (Ahn *et al.*, 2011). The surfaces of the β -Zn₄Sb₃ ceramic pellet were influenced by temperature and pressure that presented in Figure 25 and Figure 26.



Figure 23 XRD pattern of milled β -Zn₄Sb₃ with different at. % Zn rich (Lee and Lin, 2018).



Figure 24 SEM images of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powder; (a) Before mechanical allying method and (b) After mechanical allying method (Ur *et al.*, 2003).



Figure 25 SEM images of hot–pressed β –Zn₄Sb₃ ceramic at temperatures of 373 K, 473 K, 573 K and 673 K with pressure 0.98 GPa (Lee and Lin, 2018).



Figure 26 SEM images of hot–pressed β –Zn₄Sb₃ ceramic with pressing pressures of 100 MPa (a) and 200 MPa (b) at 673 K (Ahn *et al.*, 2011).

Based on the experimental results, applying high pressing pressure and sintering at elevated temperatures leads to reduced porosity and a smooth surface on β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellet ceramic. Additionally, these conditions result in higher density, which significantly affects the Seebeck coefficient, thermal conductivity, and electrical conductivity. According to the research by Ahn J.H. and colleagues, they observed that

applying a high pressure of 250 MPa during the compression of β -Zn₄Sb₃ ceramic pellets resulted in an improved Seebeck coefficient of 200 μ V/K at 673 K, stable thermal conductivity ranging from 0.7–0.6 W/mK at 473–673 K, and low electrical resistivity (indicating good electrical conductivity) of 115 $\mu\Omega$ m across the same temperature range (Ahn *et al.*, 2011). The effects of pressing pressure on the Seebeck coefficient, thermal conductivity, and electrical conductivity are illustrated in Figure 27. This thesis, high pressing pressure and elevated sintering temperatures were employed to fabricate β -Zn₄Sb₃ ceramic pellets.



Figure 27 Seebeck coefficient, thermal conductivity and electrical conductivity of hotpressed β -Zn₄Sb₃ ceramic pellets via different temperatures and pressure (Ahn *et al.*, 2011).

2.3 Thermoelectric generator modules

Thermoelectric generators modules are key components in electronic devices, used to directly convert heat into electrical current since the 19th century. The thermoelectric effect, first discovered by Thomas Johann Seebeck in 1821, Typically, thermoelectric generators (TEGs), also known as longitudinal TEGs, are constructed

using either dual-leg or single-leg designs. In the dual-leg TEGs, both P-type and N-type thermoelectric materials are used, with electric and heat transport occurring parallel to each other along isotropic properties (Crawford, 2014). In contrast, single-leg TEGs are made with either P-type or N-type thermoelectric materials, as shown in Figure 28 and Figure 29, respectively. On the other hand, transverse thermoelectric (TTE) modules, where the directions of electric and heat transport are perpendicular, are primarily used in applications like thermal radiation detectors, thermocouples, and cooling systems. The transverse thermoelectric modules often feature serpentine or tilted arrangements with anisotropic properties, as illustrated in Figure 30.



Figure 28 Schematic of a dual leg TEG module and dual leg series TEG device with isotropic properties (Crawford, 2014).





Figure 29 Schematic of single leg TEG module with isotropic properties (Crawford, 2014).



Figure 30 Schematic of serpentine and tilted–multilayer TTE module with anisotropic thermoelectric properties (Goldsmid, 2017).

TTE modules have gained popularity since the 19th century, with developments in tilted ceramic block TTE and artificially tilted TTE films (Zahner *et al.*, 1998; Kyarad and Lengfellner, 2006; Reitmaier *et al.*, 2010; Dreßler *et al.*, 2015; Kanno, 2016; Mu *et al.*, 2019; Li *et al.*, 2022; Uchida, 2022). Mostly, the studies have focused on improving the performance of TTE modules to make them suitable as TEG modules for powering microelectronic devices (Bathen and Linder, 2017; Jaworski *et al.*, 2010; Kim *et al.*, 2021; Uchida, 2022; Mu *et al.*, 2019). The TTE films module and TTE ceramic pellet module are shown in Figure 31 and Figure 32. However, TE modules have not yet matched the performance of TEG modules due to limitations such as electrical current loss and high electrical resistivity. These issues are primarily caused by the tilted angle of the TTE module, which leads to the formation of self-resistance barriers within the module (Goldsmid, 2017).



Figure 31 (a) Photograph of misaligned make assembly equipment for sputtering Bi/Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃ TTE device, (b) Illustration of layer by layer stacking of Bi/Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃ (Mu *et al.*, 2019).



Figure 32 Tilted ceramic block TTE device prepared by La_{1.97}Sr_{0.03}CuO₄ with silver paste connector (Dreßler *et al.*, 2015).

Recently, a new TEG model known as the monolithic TEG module has been developed. This all-in-one TEG module features a structural design that simplifies fabrication processes. Various thermoelectric configurations can be applied to the monolithic TEG module, as shown in Figure 33. A key aspect of all monolithic TEG modules is the use of alternative resistive materials to separate TEG cells and conductive materials for electrical connections, such as ZO, SiO2, Ag, Ag₂S–alloy (Lai et al., 2022). The terminal positions of electrical charges for different monolithic TEG module designs, such as single leg, dual leg, unileg, and transverse are illustrated in Figure 34. Huajun L. and his research team reported on the fabrication process of monolithic Ag₂S_{0.2}Se_{0.8}/ Ag₂S /Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃ TEG modules, which are dual-leg TEG models consisting of three alloy materials of Ag₂S_{0.2}Se_{0.8}, Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃, Ag₂S as n-type, p-type and insulator materials, respectively (Lai et al., 2022) (Dreßler et al., 2015). However, this monolithic TEG module is limited to low-temperature applications due to the material constraints of Ag₂S_{0.2}Se_{0.8} and Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃ materials (Mansouri *et al.*, 2021; Singh et al., 2020). The monolithic Ag₂S_{0.2}Se_{0.8}/ Ag₂S /Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃ TEG modules is shows in Figure 35.



Figure 33 Schematic of dual leg, unileg and transverse series monolithic TEG device (Dreßler *et al.*, 2015).

P-type - TE N-type	-TE Insulator Met	alu:	
Single legs series	Dual legs series	thillegs series	Transverse series
Hot	Hot	Hot	Hot
Cool	Cool	Cool	* Cool
Figure 34 Illustration	of charge positions of a	all monolithic TEGs	model.



Figure 35 Monolithic Ag₂S_{0.2}Se_{0.8}/ Ag₂S /Bi_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}Te₃ TEG modules.

To simplify the fabrication processes of TEG modules and enhance for using in industrials waste heat recycling, in this thesis presents the development of novel single leg series monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules with a modified zigzag electrical connection. Synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ and commercial ZnO were used as p-type thermoelectric material and insulator material, respectively (Jantrasee *et al.*, 2016). The β -Zn₄Sb₃ powers were synthesized through solid-state reaction and calcination under a flow of Ar gas flow. These powders were characterized and used to prepare sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets, which thermoelectric properties were evaluated. Efficient performance of the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules was assessed by measuring the electrical power output, calculated deploying equation of $P_{out} = NI^2R_L = N\left[\frac{S(T_h - T_c)}{R_g + R_L}\right]^2R_L$ (109) (Goldsmid, 2010).

CHAPTER III EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

Chapter III presents the experimental procedures of this research. The detailed steps are outlined in the following sections.

3.1 Synthesis of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders

The β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were prepared through a solid-state reaction and calcination under a flow of Ar gas. Initially, elemental powders of Zn [99.9%, Alfa AesarTM] and Sb [99.5%, Sigma-Aldrich] were prepared in a stoichiometric ratio 4:3 with with excess Zn powders conditions. The premixed powders were weighted to 10 g for each Zn-rich condition. The excess Zn rich was added to compensate for any losses of Zn elements due to evaporation during high temperatures calcination (Ur et al., 2003). The premixed powders, along with 2 mm zirconia balls, were placed into a 125 ml polypropylene (PP) cylindrical bottle, with zirconia balls filling approximately 75% of the PP bottle's volume. Then, the filled PP bottle was rotated at a maximum speed of 700 rpm using a roller milling machine for 24 hours. After milling, the Zn-Sb powder mixture was calcined under an Ar gas flow, which was passed through a water jar serving as an air barrier. The heating rate was set to 10 °C/min until the target temperature was reached, where it was then held steady for specified time conditions. Finally, the mixture was allowed to cool to room temperature. An illustration of the process synthesis is shown in Figure 36. The series of synthesis conditions of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders is presented in Table 4. These conditions were tested to compare the crystallite phases of β -Zn₄Sb₃ in order to determine the optimal synthesis conditions.



Figure 36 Process synthesis of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders: a) Premixed powders with zirconia balls were filled into a PP bottle, b) The filled PP bottle was rotated using roller milling machine, c) The mixture powders were calcined under Ar gas flow, and d) Synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders.



Excess Zn (at.% Zn)	Calcination Temp.	Holding time (hour)
0	Non cal., 300 °C, 400°C, 500°C	3
0, 5, 10, 15, 20	400 °C	3
10	400 °C	1, 3, 5
10	350 °C, 400 °C, 450 °C	3
10-14	400 °C	3
10-14	450 °C	3
10-14	500 °C	3

Table 4 Series conditions of process synthesis of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders versus excess Zn, calcination temperature and calcination holding time.

3.2 Fabrication of sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets

The synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were filled into a circular compression mould with a hole diameter of 1 cm. The mold was pressed to pressures of 500 MPa and 700 MPa, held for 15 minutes. The high compression pressure directly increased the density of the pellets, as shown in Table 5 (Lee and Lin, 2018). The maximum pressure of our hydraulic equipment is 700 MPa with 500 MPa used for comparison. As shows in Figure 37, the pressed β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets were sintered under Ar gas flow at a heating rate 1 °C/min until the target temperatures of 500 °C, 550 °C, 575 °C and 600 °C were reached. The pellets were held at these temperatures for 6 hours and then allowed to cool to room temperature. Finally, the successfully sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets are depicted in Figure 38.
Materials	Diameter (cm)	Pressure (tons/MPa)	Thickness (cm)	Density % (g/cm ³)				
$m{eta}$ –Zn ₄ Sb ₃	1.0	4.6/500	3.7	83				
eta–Zn ₄ Sb ₃	1.0	5.6/700	3.6	86				
	500	MPa 7	00 MPa					
Figure 37 ⁻	The β -Zn ₄ Sb ₃ b	ulk pellets after were	e pressed at	500 and 700 MPa.				

Table 5 Pressure in compression process with calculation density of pressed β –Zn₄Sb₃ pellets.

Figure 37 The β -Zn₄Sb₃ bulk pellets after were pressed at 500 and 700 MPa, respectively.





Based on the experimental results, the optimal condition for fabricating the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets is a compression pressure of 700 MPa. The pellets sintered at compression pressure 700 MPa and a temperature of 550 °C showed good durability, although some swelling was observed at the rims. To refine the process further, sintering at 525 °C was also explored under the same 700 MPa compression. As a result, sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets were produced under condition of 700 MPa with sintering temperature at 500 °C, 525 °C and 550 °C.

3.3 Fabrication of test cells monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃ /ZnO TEG module

Innitially, the synthesized β –Zn₄Sb₃ powders were filled into a square compression mold size 1x1 cm with a weight of 0.2 g and gently pressed at 100 MPa. Next commercial ZnO powders [99.9%, KemAus™] were added into the same mold for 0.2 g and gently pressed. The ZnO powders layers served as insulating plates due to the high electrical resistivity of ZnO materials (Jantrasee *et al.*, 2016). The soft compression process for the β -Zn₄Sb₃ and ZnO powders was repeated twice. Afterward, the combined β -Zn₄Sb₃ and ZnO powders was firmly hard pressed at 700 MPa for 15 minutes. The compression process is depicted in Figure 39. The pressed β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO pellets were sintered by gradually increasing the temperature at a rate of 1 °C/min under Ar gas flow until reaching 500 °C, and held for 6 hours. Following the sintering process, the pellets were coated with ethyl cyanoacetate to strengthen the multi-stack structure. Electrical wires were then used to connect the two β -Zn₄Sb₃ layers in a zigzag configuration, forming a series circuit between the positive and negative terminals. To protect against lead solder melting during operation at 300 °C, the top and bottom of the test cells were covered with a cement filler. The above process was repeated using different initial weights of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders for 0.5 g, 1 g, 2 g and 4 g, to compare the open-circuit voltage, IV characteristics, and electrical power output, with the goal of identifying the optimal starting weight for the fabrication of monolithic multi-stack β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules. Finally, the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG test cells were successfully fabricated, as shown in Figure 40.





Figure 39 The cyclical compression process for preparing β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO pellets.



Figure 40 The test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃ /ZnO TEGs versus weight size of β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets part.

3.4 Fabrication of monolithic multi-stack β -Zn₄Sb_{3/}ZnO TEG module

This fabrication process is similar to that of the test cells, but with the soft compression method of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders and ZnO powders repeated multiple times. Afterward, the multi-stack layers of multi-stack of β -Zn₄Sb₃ and ZnO powders was firmly hard pressed at 700 MPa for 15 minutes. The compression processes is depicted in Figure 39. The pressed multi-stacks β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO pellets were sintered by gradually increasing the temperature at a rate of 1 °C/min under Ar gas flow until reaching 500 °C, and held for 6 hours. After sintering, the multi-stacks β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO pellets were coated by ethyl cyanoacetate to enhance its strength. Then the β -Zn₄Sb₃ layers of the multi-stack pellet were then connected with electrical wires in a zigzag configuration to form a series circuit between the positive and negative terminals. To protect against lead solder melting during operation at 300 °C, the top and bottom of the multi-stack β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs were successfully fabricated, as shows in Figure 41.



Figure 41 Fabrication processes of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs: a) compressed multi-stacks β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO pellet, b) sintered multi-stacks β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO pellet, c) connected electrical wire with zigzags connection of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs, and d) monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃ TEGs was plastered with cement filler.

3.5 Materials characterization

In this work, the β -Zn₄Sb₃ sample was analyzed crystallite structure, local oxidation of component elements, and the binding energy of materials elements. The details of the technical characterizations and methods are outlined in the following subtopics.

3.5.1 X-ray diffraction

The crystallite structure of β -Zn₄Sb₃ was investigated using X-ray diffraction technique (D8-Bruker). The X-ray diffraction technique (D8-Bruker) is shown in Figure 43. The XRD technique was employed to determine the crystallite structure pattern of β -Zn₄Sb₃, and the resulting diffraction patterns were compared with Mozharivskyj's model (Mozharivskyj *et al.*, 2006). However, the X-ray diffraction for all samples revealed the presence of a secondary phase. The fundamental principle of X-ray diffraction is based on Bragg's law scattering, which describes how X-rays interfere through constructive and destructive interference with each other beam, depending on the diffraction angles. This correlation are explained by following equation.

$$2d\sin\theta = n\lambda \tag{113}$$

Where *d* is space between crystallite plan, θ is an angle of incident X–ray beam, λ is X–ray wavelength, which the wavelength is 0.15406 nm, and n is the order of the X-ray interference beam, along with destruction and construction.

the intensity and width of the X-ray diffraction patterns can be used to calculate the crystallite sizes of the samples. However, this study did not focus on crystallite size. Crystallite sizes are typically calculated using the Debye-Scherrer equation, as shows in equations (114).

$$D = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta\cos\theta} \tag{114}$$

Where;

D is a crystallite size

k is a spherical factor, which the factor is $k \approx 0.9$

eta is a full width half maximum (FWHM) intensity of x–ray diffraction peaks.



Figure 42 Shows x–ray incident and diffraction, according to Bragg's law (www.didak tik .physik.uni–muenchen.de/elektronenbahnen/en/index.php).



Figure 43 Shows X-ray diffraction machine, D8-Bruker, SUT.

3.5.2 X-ray absorption spectroscopy

X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) is a technique used to studied nearedge structure of materials elements by analyzing X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectra. This method investigates the ionization energy for exciting core electrons. The transmission intensities of the X-ray beam are measured to determine the ionization energy of core electrons, which reveals the oxidation state of local elements within the sample. Each electron orbital and absorption edge absorb specific X-ray energies, as illustrated in Figure 44. Therefore, the X-ray absorption spectra of the electron orbitals provide insight into the material's structure. Typically, the X-ray absorption measurement are conducted in transmission mode for bulk samples, as shown in Figure 45. The intensity of the transmitted X-ray beam relative to the incident X-ray beam intensity is expressed as a function of the X-ray absorption coefficient $\mu(E)$, represented by the following (115).

$$\mu(E)t = -\ln\frac{I}{I_0} \tag{115}$$

Where;

 $\mu_{\scriptscriptstyle E}$ is absorption coefficient.

- *I* is x-ray transmission intensity
- I_0 is x-ray incident intensity.
- t is sample thickness.

The XANES measurement technique as transmission mode is shown in Figure 45.



Figure 44 Illustration of a x-ray absorption energies of K edge, L edges and M edges (Chem.libretexts, 2000).



Figure 45 Illustration of x-ray absorption transmission mode (Mit.edu, 2004).

3.6 Thermoelectric properties

The thermoelectric properties of materials include the Seebeck coefficient, electrical conductivity, electrical power factor, and thermal conductivity. In this research, the commercial Linseis LSR–3 equipment was used to measure these properties. This equipment operates based on the principle of thermoelectric measurement (Goldsmid, 2010), where it measures the voltage (V) as a function of the temperature gradient across the sample, as you know Figure 46.



Figure 46 Illustration of Seebeck coefficient and electrical resistivity (Linseis, 2024).



Figure 47 LINSEIS LSR-3 Seebeck type resistivity measurement system.

3.7 Module evaluation

Due to limitations of commercial equipment for evaluating IV–curves and electrical output power curves of the TEG modules, a custom-built heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities was developed. The system is controlled by a temperature controller board, while the IV–curve was measured using a commercial current/voltage meter and a potentiometer. The setup is illustrated in Figure 48.





Figure 48 The self-made heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities.

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CHAPTER IV RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter IV presents the complete experimental results, including the structural characterization of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders and the thermoelectric properties of sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets. This chapter also includes the analysis and evaluation of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules. he results are presented according to scientific hypotheses and specific theories. This chapter is divided into five sections: X-ray diffraction, X-ray absorption, thermoelectric properties, module analysis and evaluation, respectively.

4.1 X–ray diffraction

According to the synthesis of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders, the process synthesis of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were investigated using comparative X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders, along with calculated XRD pattern of β -Zn₄Sb₃ of Mayer's model. Initially, the optimal calcination temperature for the synthesis of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders without excess Zn powder was determined by comparing temperatures of non-calcined, 300 °C, 400 °C and 500 °C, and held for 3 hours. The experimental results indicate that the optimal calcination temperature for synthesis β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders without excessing of Zn powder is condition of calcination temperature at 400 °C, as it produced essential 3 peaks around 2 θ ~ 25° in the XRD pattern of β -Zn₄Sb₃ materials. Comparative XRD patterns of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders without excessing of Zn powder for calcination temperature of non-calcined, 300 °C, 400 °C and 500 °C, 400 °C and 500 °C are shown in Figure 49.



Figure 49 X–ray diffraction patterns of the synthesized β –Zn₄Sb₃ powders under conditions of calcination temperature non–calcined, 300 °C, 400 °C and 500 °C without excess of Zn.

The optimal calcination temperature for synthesizing β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders without excessing of Zn powder is 400 °C. To investigate the effects of varying amounts of excess Zn, different conditions were tested by adding 0, 5, 10, 15 and 20 at.% Zn to the premixed powders. The XRD pattern results indicate that the optimal amount of excess Zn powder is 10 at.% because the XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders with this addition closely resembles of Mayer's model. The comparison XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under varying excessed Zn conditions at a calcination temperature of 400 °C for 3 hours are shown in Figure 50.



Figure 50 The comparison XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under varying excessed Zn condition via calcination temperature 400 °C and held for 3 hours.

The optimal conditions for synthesizing β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders is usage excess of 10 at.% Zn powder and calcination at 400 °C for 3 hours. The calcination holding time was then for 1, 3 and 5 hours. The XRD pattern results show that calcination holding time for 3 hours produces the best XRD pattern for the synthesized β -Zn4Sb3 powders, closely matching XRD pattern of β -Zn₄Sb₃ of Mayer's model and outperforming other conditions. Although the XRD pattern under calcination holding time for 3 hours resembles under calcination holding time for 3 hours. Indeed, the XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb powders under calcination holding time for 3 hours has clearer peaks and higher intensity. The comparison XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under varying holding time, using excess Zn of 10 at.% and calcination temperature of 400 °C are shown in Figure 51.



Figure 51 XRD pattern of varying holding time via excessing Zn of 10 at.% Zn and calcination temperature 400 °C.

Currently, the optimal conditions for synthesizing β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders is excess 10 at.% Zn and calcination temperature of 400 °C for 3 hours. To further refine these conditions, calcination temperature 350 °C, 400 °C and 450 °C were investigated. The XRD pattern results indicate that a calcination temperature condition of 450 °C yields a better XRD pattern for β -Zn₄Sb₃ materials better compared to 400 °C, due to reduced impurity phases of ZnSb, Zn and Sb. The comparison of XRD pattern for the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under conditions of calcination temperature at 350 °C, 400 °C and 450 °C is shown in Figure 52.



Figure 52 The comparison XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under varying calcination temperature at 350 °C, 400 °C and 450 °C via adding 10 at.% Zn and calcination holding time for 3 hour.

Under the current conditions, the optimal synthesis for β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders involves using excess Zn powders 10 at.% and calculating at 450 °C for 3 hours. To further refine, conditions of excess Zn powders as 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 at.% were subjected to the same calcination process. As depicted in Figure 53, the XRD diffraction pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under 12 at.% Zn rich at calcination temperature at 450 °C for 3 hours produced the best results, with minimal impurity phases of ZnSb, Zn and Sb.



Figure 53 Comparison XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under excessing Zn for 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 at.% Zn and calcination at 450 °C for 3 hours.

Additionally, calcination temperature of 400 °C and 425 °C were investigated with excess Zn powders as 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 at.%. As shown in Figure 54 and Figure 55, the XRD diffraction pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under calcination temperature at 400 °C and 425 °C with excess Zn powders as 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 at.% Zn, indicate that the best results for both 400 °C and 425 °C were obtained with excess Zn powders 13 at.%, as depict in Figure 54 and Figure 55. Finally, Figure 56 compares the XRD patterns for the best synthesis conditions: 400 °C with 13 at.% Zn, 425 °C with 13 at.% Zn and 450 °C with 12 at.% Zn, all with a holding time of 3 hours. Among these, the optimal condition for synthesizing β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders is excess Zn powders 12 at.% under calcination temperature 450 °C for 3 hours, as it results in the least amount of impurity phases



Figure 54 Comparison XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under excessing Zn for 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 at.% Zn and calcination at 400 °C for 3 hours.





Figure 55 Comparison XRD pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders under excessing Zn for 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 at.% Zn and calcination at 425 °C for 3 hours.





Figure 56 Comparison of the synthesis series of excessing Zn for 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 at.% Zn and calcination at 400 °C, 425 °C, 450 °C for 3 hours.

4.2 X-ray absorption spectroscopy

The purest β -Zn₄Sb₃, synthesized with excessing 12 at.% Zn rich at a calcination temperature of 450 °C for 3 hours, were investigated using x-rays absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectra at the Zn K-edge and Sb L-edges. This analysis was conducted at SUT-NANOTEC-SLRI XAS beamline (BL 5.2) using synchrotron. The exciting core electrons as oxidation states of Zn atoms in the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powder were measured at level K (Zn K-edge) across energy range 9,550–9800 eV, as shown in Figure 57. The normalized XANES spectrum of the Zn K-edge reveals a rising energy edge range of 9,640–9,667, with the main absorption edge at 9,659 eV. Then, the derivation of normalized XANES spectrum of the Zn K-edge of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders further confirms the main absorption edge at 9,659 eV, as expressed in Figure 58.



Figure 57 Normalized XANES of Zn K-edge of the high pure synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powder.





Figure 58 Derivative normalized XANES of Zn K–edge of the high pure synthesized β – Zn₄Sb₃ powder.

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The exciting core electrons as oxidation states of Sb atoms in the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were measured at level L (Sb L-edges) across energy range 4,000–4,750 eV, as shown in Figure 59. The normalized XANES spectrum for the Sb L3, L2 and L1-edge reveal rising energy edges range of 4,100–4,150 eV, 4,377–4,397 eV and 4,690–4,700 eV, with the main absorption edges at 4,132 eV, 4,380 eV and 4,698 eV, respectively. Then, the derivation of normalized XANES spectrum for the Sb L3, L2 and L1–edge of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders further confirms these main absorption, as shown in Figure 60.



Figure 59 Normalized XANES of Sb L3, L2 and L1–edge of the high pure synthesized β –Zn₄Sb₃ powder.





Figure 60 Derivative normalized XANES of Sb L3, L2 and L1–edge of the high pure synthesized β –Zn₄Sb₃ powder.

Originally, β -Zn₄Sb₃ is an alloy material with characteristic ionization energies of exciting core electrons as oxidation states of Zn⁰ and Sb⁰. Based on the experimental results from the normalized XANES and derivative normalized XANES spectra of the Zn K-edge and Sb L-edges for the high pure synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders, it is confirmed that the ionization energy of exciting core electrons as oxidation state correspond to the Zn⁰ and Sb⁰ oxidation states. This finding aligns with the absorption edge database of the Hephaestus program (Ravel and Newville, 2005) and further confirms that the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders is devoid of existing ionic bonding and oxides.

4.3 Thermoelectric properties

The high pure synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powder were used to fabricate the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets. The thermoelectric properties of these sintered pellets, including Seebeck coefficient, electrical resistivity and electrical power factor, were measured using Linseis LSR-3 equipment. The Seebeck coefficient of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets, under produced under pressing pressure of 700 MPa and sintering temperature at 500 °C, 525 °C and 550 °C were measured across varying operating temperature. A comparison of the Seebeck coefficient is shown in Figure 61. The Seebeck coefficient of all sample increased with rising operating temperature up to 300 °C, after which the Seebeck coefficient continued decreased. The experimental results are consistent with literature reports (Lee and Lin, 2018; Kunioka et al., 2018). The Seebeck coefficients of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets at sintering temperatures of 500 °C, 525 °C and 550 °C are 255 μ V/°C, 216 μ V/°C and 191 μ V/°C, respectively. The positive Seebeck coefficient values of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets confirms that the sintered pellets are p-type thermoelectric materials. The sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets under condition of pressing pressure 700 MPa and sintering temperature at 500 °C showed the highest Seebeck coefficient at an operating temperature of 320 °C, as shown in Figure 61.

In addition to the Seebeck coefficient, the electrical resistivity was also measured. As depicted in Figure 62, the electrical resistivity of all sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets samples gradually decreased with increasing operating temperature until reaching 200 °C.

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Figure 61 Seebeck coefficient of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets versus varying temperature.

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The electrical resistivity of all samples remains constant across the operating temperature range of 200–480 °C. The electrical resistivity of the sintered β –Zn₄Sb₃ pellets within this temperature range is approximately 1.25x10⁻⁶ Ω .m for the sample sintered at 500 °C, 1.60x10⁻⁶ Ω .m for the sample sintered at 500 °C, and 1.90 x10⁻⁶ Ω .m for the sample sintered at 500 °C. Although the electrical resistivity curves of all samples are similar, the pellet sintered under a condition of pressing pressure of 700 MPa with sintering temperature of 500 °C stands out, exhibiting the lowest electrical resistivity and thus the highest electrical conductivity. High electrical conductivity positively impacts the figure of merit, as indicated by Equation (96), which reflects superior thermoelectric properties.



Figure 62 Electrical resistivity of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets versus varying temperature.

The performance of thermoelectric materials is evaluated by electrical power factor. The electrical power factor of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets was measured across varying operating temperature. As shown in Figure 63, the electrical power factor exhibits significant fluctuations, which may be attributed to the inherent properties of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets and potential issues with the measurement equipment. Despite this, the results suggest that the optimal operating temperature for all sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets is approximately across temperature range 200–300 °C.

Consequently, a monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module were fabricated under condition of pressing pressure of 700 MPa and sintering temperature at 500 °C. This module was tested for performance at operating temperature at 200 °C and 300 °C, corresponding to the highest Seebeck coefficient of 255 μ V/°C at 320 °C and the optimal operating temperature range (high power factor) of 200–300 °C.



Figure 63 Electrical power factor of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets versus varying temperature.

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4.4 Module analysis and evaluation

The performance of test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules and monolithic multi-stack β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules was evaluated using a custombuilt heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities. Initially, the test cells of the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules were assessed for IV characteristics and electrical power output curves. Based on the results, the monolithic multi-stack β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules were fabricated under the condition of the test cells that expressed the best IV-characteristics and electrical power output curves. The test cells were investigated under different conditions, with varying weights of β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders : 0.2 g, 0.5 g, 1 g, 2 g and 4 g applied to each side of the β -Zn₄Sb₃ component (Figure 40). Open-circuit voltage (V_{op}) and short circuit current (I_{sc}) were measured, representing the maximum potential difference and current between the charge terminals of the modules, respectively. The V_{op} and I_{sc} measurements of the test cells under condition of weight 0.2 g, 0.5 g, 1 g, 2 g and 4 g were conducted under operating conditions with a hot side temperature (T_h) of 100 °C and gradient temperature (Δ T) of 50 °C, T_h=200 °C – Δ T=50 °C, T_h=200 °C – Δ T=100 °C, T_h=300 °C – Δ T=50 °C and T_h=300 °C – Δ T=100 °C. The V_{op} and I_{sc} results of all the test cells of monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules under these conditions are presented in Table 6. The V_{op} and I_{sc} values showed an increase with rising hot side temperature and temperature gradient. The maximum V_{op} and I_{sc} values for the test cells under condition weight of 0.2 g, 0.5 g, 1.0 g, 2.0 g, 4.0 g are 23.1 mV, 38.1 mV, 45.4 mV, 39.5 mV 41.2 mV, and 8.81 mA, 16.71 mA, 19.87 mA, 16.25 mA, 11.26 mA, respectively at T_h=300 °C – Δ T=100 °C. Although the maximum V_{op} and I_{sc} for the test cells under condition weight of 0.5 g, 1.0 g, 2.0 g and 4.0 g were quite good, the test cells under condition of 1 g was the best, achieving the highest maximum electrical power output of 595 μ W (Figure 65) and the highest V_{op} of 45.4 V at the operating hot side temperature of 300°C – Δ T=100 °C.



Table 6 List of open-circuit voltage (V_{op}) and short circuit current (I_{sc}) versus varying operating condition temperature of the test cells of monolithic couple β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs with condition of 0.5 g, 1.0 g, 2.0 g and 4.0 g.

Test cells conditions (g)	100°C, ∆ <i>T</i> 50°C		200°C,∆ <i>T</i> 50°C		200°⊂, ∆ <i>T</i> 100°⊂		300°C, Δ <i>T</i> 50°C		300°C, Δ <i>T</i> 100°C	
	V _{op} (mV)	I _{sc} (mA)	V _{op} (mV)	I _{sc} (mA)	V _{op} (mV)	l _{sc} (mA)	V _{op} (mV)	I _{sc} (mA)	V _{op} (mV)	I _{sc} (mA)
0.2	5.4	2.12	10.7	4.11	13.7	5.33	12.4	5.11	23.1	8.81
0.5	8.8	1.74	13.8	5.09	28.9	9.62	20.8	8.86	38.1	16.71
1	16.2	6.07	24.1	11.50	31.8	15.61	24.7	11.87	45.4	19.87
2	11.3	4.00	20.9	8.43	un 29.6 a	12.02	27.7	11.09	39.5	16.29
4	9.3	1.60	18.9	4.67	23.1	6.55	18.4	4.30	41.2	11.26

Therefore, test cells condition of 1.0 g was selected to applied in fabrication of the multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules. Moreover, the IV–curve and electrical power output curve of the test cells of monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of 1.0 g are shown in Figure 64 and Figure 65, respectively.



Figure 64 IV–curve of the test cells of monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs under condition of weight 1.0 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.

The IV-curve of the test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition weight of 1.0 g reveals a significant area under the curve at operating conditions of T_h=300 °C - Δ T=100 °C and T_h=200 °C - Δ T=100 °C. Moreover, the maximum power output of these test cells is approximately 595 μ W at T_h=300 °C - Δ T=100 °C. A comparison of the maximum electrical power output (P_{out}) under operating temperatures is presented in Table 7.



Figure 65 Electrical power output curves of the test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 1.0 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.

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The IV-curves, electrical power output curves and comparative tables of the test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules under conditions of weight 0.2 g, 0.5 g, 2.0 g and 4.0 g are shown in <u>appendix figure and table part</u>.

Table 7 Comparison of maximum electrical power output of test cell of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 1.0 g for different conditions of T_h and Δ T.

Hot-side			Gradient		Maximum D	
Ter	nperature	temperature (∆T)		ľ	Maximum Fout	
	100 °C		50 ℃		87 μW	
	200 °C		50 ℃		204 µW	
	200 °C		100 °C		502 µ W	
	300 °C		50 °C		186 µ W	
	300 °C		100 °C		595 µ W	

The monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module was measured V_{op} and I_{sc} across its charge terminals. The V_{op} and I_{sc} of the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module were measured under various operating condition, with a hot side temperature (T_h) of 100 °C and gradient temperature (Δ T) of 50 °C, as well as T_h=200 °C– Δ T=50 °C, T_h=200 °C– Δ T=100 °C, T_h=300 °C– Δ T=50 °C and T_h=300 °C– Δ T=100 °C. The results of V_{op} and I_{sc} of the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under all operating conditions are listed in Table 8, as illustrated in Figure 62 and Figure 63.

Table 8 The V_{op} and I_{sc} values for the monolithic multi-stack β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module were found to be 11.6 mV, 36.0 mV, 45.3 mV 47.5 mV, 73.1 mV and 5.11 mA, 14.83 mA, 18.07 mA, 13.53 mA, 18.36 mA, respectively, for T_h=100 °C - Δ T=50 °C, T_h=200 °C - Δ T=50 °C, T_h=200 °C - Δ T=50 °C, T_h=300 °C - Δ T=50 °C and 300°C - Δ T 100 °C, respectively. The results showed an increasing trend in both V_{op} and I_{sc} as T_h and Δ T increased. As depicted in Figure 66, the IV-curves of the multi-stack β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module at operating temperature of T_h=300 °C exhibit a similar steep slope under condition of Δ T=50 °C and Δ T=100 °C, while the intercepts on the current axis differ significantly between these two conditions. Conversely, the IV-curve results at T_h=200 °C appear quite similar to each other, likely due to the effects of low electrical resistivity and the enhanced power factor of the β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets at an operating temperature of 200 °C, as illustrated in Figure 62 and Figure 63.

Hot-side	Gradient	Open-circuit	Short circuit
Temperature	temperature (∆T)	voltage (V _{op}) mV	current (I _{sc}) mA
100 °C	50 °C	11.6	5.11
200 °C	50 °C	36.0	14.83
200 °C	100 °C	45.3	18.07
300 ℃	50 °C	47.5	13.53
300 °C	100 °C	73.1	18.36

Table 8 List of open-circuit voltage (V_{op}) and short circuit current (I_{sc}) versus varying operating condition temperature of the monolithic multi-stack β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs.



Figure 66 IV characteristics of the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs versus varying operation hot side temperature and temperature gradients Δ T.

As depicted in Figure 67, the operating condition that produced the highest maximum electrical power output (P_{out}) of 550 μ W was T_h =300 °C– Δ T=100 °C, while the lowest P_{out} of 38 μ W was observed under the condition of T_h =100 °C– Δ T=50 °C. A comparison of maximum electrical power output (P_{out}) under different operating conditions is provided in Table 9. Although, the maximum electrical power output was achieved under the operating temperature of T_h =300 °C– Δ T=100 °C, the optimal operating temperature for the monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module is T_h =200 °C. This is because the electrical power output curves at T_h =200 °C of the monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules demonstrate remarkably consistent behaviour under both Δ T=50 °C and Δ T=100 °C conditions. The broad and consistent IV–curves and electrical power output curves at T_h =200 °C at an operate under fluctuation Δ T conditions, specifically within the range of Δ T 50–100 °C at an operating temperature of 200 °C.

Hot-side	Gradient	Maximum P	
Temperature	temperature (∆T)		
100 °C	50 ℃	38 µW	
200 °C	50 ℃	370 µ W	
200 °C	100 °C	418 µ W	
300 °C	50 ℃	250 µW	
300 °C 818	Tem 100 class	550 µW	

Table 9 Results of the maximum electrical power output for different conditions of hot–side temperature and ΔT of the monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs.



Figure 67 Electrical power output curves of the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs versus varying operation hot side temperature and temperature gradients ΔT .

Based on the maximum electrical power output of 550 μ W, the monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules are comparable to other monolithic TEG modules that reported in the literature. A comparison of the maximum electrical power output from this work with of other reports is shown in Table 10.
TE-materials	N-pairs	N–cells	T _h (°C)	∆T (°C)	P _{out} (μW)	Ref.
Single walled carbon nanotube (SWCNT)	8	16	70	50	7.19	(Hasan <i>et al.,</i> 2024)
Bi _{0.5} Sb _{1.5} Te ₃ & Ag ₂ S _{0.2} Se _{0.8}	3	6	130	50	2,350	(Lai <i>et al.,</i> 2022)
Ni _{0.9} MO _{0.1} & La _{0.035} Sr _{0.965} TiO ₃	50	100	30	10	100	(Funahashi <i>et al.,</i> 2011)
Cu _{2.075} Se & Ag ₂ S _{0.55} Se _{0.45}	1	2 473	60 101 1 2 5 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	30	310	(Ang <i>et al.</i> , 2023)
$m{eta}$ –Zn ₄ Sb ₃	0	4	300	100	550	this work

Table 10 Comparison of the maximum electrical power output versus variant monolithic TEG modules of this work and literaturereports.

CHAPTER V CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

In this research, the β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders was successfully synthesized using solid state reaction method via mechanical alloying technique. The crystallite structure was analyzed through X-ray diffraction technique. The oxidation states of Zn and Sb elements in the local structure of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powder were investigated using X-ray absorption near-edge structure spectra at the Zn K-edge and Sb-L edges. The sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets were fabricated through a compression and sintering process under Ar gas flow system. Thermoelectric properties, including the Seebeck coefficient, electrical resistivity and power factor of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets were measured using Linseis LSR-3 equipment. The test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules, with conditions β -Zn₄Sb₃ weight of 0.2 g, 0.5 g, 1 g, 2 g and 4 g were successfully fabricated using cyclical compression process, calcination method, and electrical connection method. Additionally, the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module was fabricated using the same procedures as the test cells. The electrical power output curves and IV-curves of both the test cells and the monolithic multistack β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module were evaluated and analyzed using a custom-built heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities. The conclusions of this research are divided into four sections: structure and characterization, thermoelectric properties, module analysis and evaluation, and suggestions for future work.

5.1 Structure and characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders, produced under conditions of excess Zn powders, were analyzed using XRD technique. The XRD patterns results indicated that optimal synthesis condition is adding 12 at.% Zn rich and calcination temperature of 450 °C for 3 hours. Under these conditions, the XRD patterns revealed a dominant crystalline phase of β -Zn₄Sb₃ with minor secondary phases of ZnSb, Zn and Sb. The XRD patterns of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders, with excess Zn powders 12 at.% and calcined at 450 °C for 3 hours, corresponds to the calculated XRD patterns β -Zn₄Sb₃ of Mozharivskyj's model (Mozharivskyj *et al.*, 2006). The observed secondary phases of ZnSb, Zn and Sb are probably due to the limited temperature stability during calcination under argon gas flow, including the inversion of the crystalline phase of ZnSb during cooling process, resulting in the formation of crystalline phase ZnSb at across temperature of 100–200 °C (Zhang *et al.*, 2016).

The ionization energy of exciting core electrons for Zn and Sb elements in the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were investigated using X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectroscopy. The ionization energies of exciting core electrons for Zn and Sb elements in local atoms structure of the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders were measured at level K (Zn K-edge) and level L (Sb L-edges), respectively. The primary absorption edges at the Zn K-edge and Sb L-edges indicate that the ionization energies of the core electrons correspond to oxidation states of Zn⁰ and Sb⁰. The normalized XANES and derivative of normalized XANES spectra confirm that the synthesized β -Zn₄Sb₃ powders have an alloy structure, demonstrating the absence of ionic bonding and oxides.

5.2 Thermoelectric properties

The Seebeck coefficient, electrical resistivity, and power factor of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets were measured. The Seebeck coefficient of all sample increase with rising operating temperature, peaking around 300 °C, before gradually decreasing. Among the samples, the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellet pressed at 700 MPa and sintered at 500 °C exhibited the highest Seebeck coefficient of 255 µV/°C at an operating temperature of 320 °C. The positive Seebeck coefficient confirms that the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets are p-type thermoelectric materials. The electrical resistivity of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets decreased steadily up to around 200 °C, after which it remained constant across the temperature range of 200-480 °C. While the electrical resistivity feature of all sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets were similar, the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets under conditions of pressing pressure of 700 MPa with sintering temperature of 500 °C showed the lowest resistivity, making it the most favorable. The electrical power factor of all sample exhibited considerable fluctuations, likely due to inherent variations in the properties of the sintered β -Zn₄Sb₃ pellets or possible sensor issues with the measurement equipment. Despite these fluctuations, the results suggest that the optimal operating temperature for all sintered β –Zn₄Sb₃ pellets is across between 200-300 °C.

5.3 Module analysis and evaluation

The evaluation and performance of test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module was revealed using a custom-built heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities. The V_{op} and I_{sc} of test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module, with condition monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃ weight of 0.5 g, 1.0 g, 2.0 g and 4.0 g revealed significant potential results. However, the 1 g test cell of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module was the most efficient in terms of mass usage and produced the highest maximum electrical power output off 595 μ W and the highest V_{op} of 45.4 V at an operating hot side temperature of 300°C - Δ T=100 °C.

The evaluation and performance of the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module also was revealed using a custom-built heating/cooling system with IV measurement capabilities. The V_{op} and I_{sc} of monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module revealed that both incremental V_{oc} and I_{sc} increased with rising operating temperatures and Δ T. The IV–curve results of the multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module at operating temperature of 300 °C shows the highest maximum electrical power output (P_{out}) of 550 µW and the highest V_{op} of 73.2 V, with similar steep slope under both T_h=300 °C– Δ T=50 °C and T_h=300 °C– Δ T=100 °C conditions. However, the optimal operating temperature for the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module was found to be the T_h=200 °C– Δ T=50–100 °C, as the electrical power output curves of the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module was found to use in electrical consistent of IV–curves and electrical power output curves of the monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules suggest their potential for use in electrical generators that can withstand temperature fluctuations at an operating temperature of 200 °C with Δ T 50–100 °C.

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5.4 Suggestion

This work presents the invention of a thermoelectric generators module designed to recycle energy from industrial waste heat in industrial activities and public utilities, as mentioned in chapter I. The author aimed to use low cost materials and a simple fabrication method to invent a thermoelectric generators module that others can easily replicate. The author expected that the initial goal was for fabricated thermoelectric generator module to achieve at least V_{op} ~1 volt and I_{sc} ~0.1 A. hile the results of this work did not meet these expectations. However, the author hoped that the fabrication of monolithic multi–stack β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG modules will contribute

valuable insights and inspire future applications. Finally, the author would like to thank all readers and welcome any comments or suggestions.





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APPENDIX A PUBLICATION AND PRESENTATION

List of presentation

Jampreecha, T., Sawangprom, A., Chanlek, N., Pinitsoontorn, S., Meevasana, W. and Maensiri, S. (2023). Fabrication and Performance of Monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO Thermoelectric Generator Module. Materials Research Meeting/ IUMRS-Internatio nal Conference in Asia (MRM2023/IUMRS-ICA2023), Kyoto, Japan.

Jampreecha, T., Sawangprom, A., Chanlek, N., Pinitsoontorn, S., Meevasana, W. and Maensiri, S. (2024). Synthesis and characterizations of β –Zn₄Sb₃ powders by mechanical alloying method and calcination under Ar atmosphere flowing. The 22nd International Symposium on Eco-materials Processing and Design (ISEPD 2024), Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand.





APPENDIX B

Figure 68 IV–curve of the test cells of monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs under condition of weight 0.2 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.



Figure 69 IV–curve of the test cells of monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs under condition of weight 0.5 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.



Figure 70 IV–curve of the test cells of monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs under condition of weight 2.0 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.





Figure 71 IV–curve of the test cells of monolithic β –Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEGs under condition of weight 4.0 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.





Figure 72 Electrical power output curves of the test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 0.2 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.





Figure 73 Electrical power output curves of the test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 0.5 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.





Figure 74 Electrical power output curves of the test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 2.0 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.





Figure 75 Electrical power output curves of the test cells of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 4.0 g versus different operating T_h and Δ T.



Table 11 Comparison of maximum electrical power output of test cell of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 0.2 g for different conditions of T_h and Δ T.

Hot-side	Gradient	Maximum P _{out}
Temperature	temperature (∆T)	
100 °C	50 ℃	6 µW
200 °C	50 °C	22 µ W
200 °C	100 ℃	31 µ W
300 °C	50 °C	20 μ W
300 °C	100 °⊂	95 μ W

Table 12 Comparison of maximum electrical power output of test cell of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 0.5 g for different conditions of T_h and Δ T.

Hot-side	Gradient	Maximum P
Temperature	temperature (△T)	Maximum Pout
100 °C	50 ℃	5 μW
200 °C	50 °C	28 µW
200 °C	100 °C	63 μW
300 ℃	agin 50°C lag	69 µW
300 ℃	100 °C	227 μW

Table 13 Comparison of maximum electrical power output of test cell of monolithic β -Zn4Sb3/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 2.0 g for different conditions ofTh and Δ T.

Hot-side	Gradient	Maximum P _{out}
Temperature	temperature (∆T)	
100 °C	50 ℃	25 μW
200 °C	50 °C	97 μW
200 °C	100 ℃	166 µ W
300 °C	50 °C	142 µ W
300 °C	100 °⊂	366 µ W

Table 14 Comparison of maximum electrical power output of test cell of monolithic β -Zn₄Sb₃/ZnO TEG module under condition of weight 4.0 g for different conditions of T_h and Δ T.

Hot-side	Gradient	Maximum P
Temperature	temperature (∆T)	Maximum Pout
100 °C	50 °C	3 μW
200 °C	50 °C	21 µW
200 °C	100 °C	37 μW
300 ℃	agin 50 °C la 9 °C	23 µW
300 °C	100 °C	115 μ W

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