**Optimization of the Thermoelectric Figure of Merit in Crystalline C$_{60}$ with Intercalation Chemistry**

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<th>Kim, Jeong Yun, and Grossman, Jeffrey C. “Optimization of the Thermoelectric Figure of Merit in Crystalline C$_{60}$ with Intercalation Chemistry.” Nano Letters 16, 7 (July 2016): 4203–4209 © 2016 American Chemical Society</th>
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<td>As Published</td>
<td><a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/ACS.NANOLETT.6B01073">http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/ACS.NANOLETT.6B01073</a></td>
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Optimization of the Thermoelectric Figure of Merit in Crystalline C_{60} with Intercalation Chemistry

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Crystalline C_{60} is an appealing candidate material for thermoelectric (TE) applications due to its extremely low thermal conductivity and potentially high electrical conductivity with metal atom intercalation. We investigate the TE properties of crystalline C_{60} intercalated with alkali and alkaline earth metals using both classical and quantum mechanical calculations. For the electronic structure, our results show that variation of intercalated metal atoms has a large impact on energy dispersions, which leads to broad tunability of the power factor. For the thermal transport, we show that dopants introduce strong phonon scattering into crystalline C_{60}, leading to considerably lower thermal conductivity. Taking both into account, our calculations suggest that appropriate choice of metal atom intercalation in crystalline C_{60} could yield figures of merit near 1 at room temperature.

KEYWORDS: Crystalline C_{60}, intercalation chemistry, organic thermoelectric materials, charge transport, thermal transport

There is a growing interest in developing organic thermoelectric (TE) materials owing to their flexibility, low cost, and straightforward processing, offering new opportunities for flexible thermoelectric devices. Organic materials exhibit a naturally low thermal conductivity (\(\kappa\)) because of the weak bonding between constituents, which enhances the thermoelectric conversion efficiency as determined by its figure of merit, \(ZT = S^2\sigma T/(\kappa_e + \kappa_l)\), where \(S\) is the Seebeck coefficient, \(\sigma\) the electrical conductivity, \(T\) the absolute temperature, \(\kappa_e\) the electronic thermal conductivity, and \(\kappa_l\) the lattice thermal conductivity. Recent experimental studies show great progress in organic TE materials, especially p-type polymers, with the highest \(ZT\) reported to be 0.42 at room temperature.\(^1-3\) The majority of organic TE materials reported to date are based on p-type conductive polymers, such as poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) polystyrenesulfonate (PEDOT:PSS), whose power factor \((S^2\sigma)\) is maximized with optimization of carrier concentration and microscopic morphologies via chemical doping.\(^1,2,4\) In contrast, small molecule structures, such as those based on a fullerene or pentacene molecule, have received less attention regarding their potential for thermoelectric applications, despite benefits such as lower thermal conductivity and ease of purification and crystallization.\(^4\)

Here, we focus on C_{60} as a possible building block for bulk organic thermoelectric materials. Due to the relatively large diameter (\(\sim 7\) Å) of the C_{60} molecule, solid C_{60} contains voids that can accommodate small ions, atoms, or even molecules, which in turn can have a large impact on properties. For example, metal-atom intercalation can be employed to tune broadly both thermal and electronic transport in crystalline C_{60} due to modification of the electronic structure, phonon modes, and conformation of the host molecular crystal itself.

Since the discovery of superconductivity in potassium-doped crystalline C_{60}, much attention has been given to understanding the role of dopants in alkali-doped C_{60}. It is well-known that doping with larger alkali atoms gives rise to an increase in the superconducting transition temperature due to the lattice constant expansion of the crystal, which leads to a larger density of states at the Fermi level. In contrast, the thermoelectric properties of metal-doped C_{60} have received little attention, despite its potentially high electrical conductivity and low thermal conductivity (\(\sim 0.4 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}\)).\(^5\) Recent measurements of \(S^2\sigma\) in crystalline C_{60} samples with cesium carbonate (Cs_{2}CO_{3}) doping have yielded very low values (20–30 \(\mu\text{W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-2}\)) due to low values of \(\sigma\) (\(\sim 5 \text{ S cm}^{-1}\)) at low carrier concentrations,\(^7,8\) although a systematic investigation of optimal doping conditions is needed in order to maximize the power factor and determine the potential of C_{60} as an efficient thermoelectric material.

In this work, a combination of first-principles electronic structure calculations and the Boltzmann transport approach are used to determine the role of dopants on the electrical transport properties, including the electrical conductivity \((\sigma)\), Seebeck coefficient \((S)\), and electronic thermal conductivity \((\kappa_e)\). In addition, the lattice thermal conductivity \(\kappa_l\) is computed.

Received: March 11, 2016
Revised: June 18, 2016

DOI: 10.1021/acs.nanolett.6b01073
Nano Lett. XXXX, XXX, XXX–XXX

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using classical molecular dynamics simulations. Taken together, our results show that optimizing the type and concentration of doping in crystalline C60 can yield ZT \sim 1.

**Crystal and Electronic Structure of Crystalline C60.** In solid undoped C60, face-centered cubic (fcc) packing is adopted with C60 molecules bonded via van der Waals interactions. The molecular states form Bloch states in the solid, with \pi-orbitals from the 5-fold degenerate molecular \pi levels forming the valence band, and the 3-fold degenerate \tau\alpha levels forming the conduction band. The lattice and electronic structure of solid C60 are calculated using density functional theory (DFT) as implemented in the plane-wave basis VASP code.9 We used the projected augmented wave pseudopotentials10 with the Ceperley-Alder exchange-correlation potential in the local density approximation (LDA).11 For fulleride samples, we first used experimentally determined C and metal positions and optimized the geometry by using the conjugate gradient scheme until force components on every atom are less than 0.01 eV Å⁻¹. The fully relaxed structures are used to compute the electronic band structure. Our computed equilibrium lattice constant for fcc-C60 is 13.9 Å, in reasonable agreement with the experimental value of 14.13 Å.12 The voids in the crystal can accommodate a host of impurity atoms, such as alkali metals, which in turn play an important role in the electronic properties of the solid, providing a wide range of accessible electronic states.

**Thermoelectric Properties of Crystalline C60.** We first investigate the effect of doping on thermoelectric properties (\sigma, \kappa_e, and S) of crystalline C60 by employing semiclassical Boltzmann theory in the constant relaxation time approximation, as implemented in the BOLTZTRAP code.13,14 The electrical conductivity, Seebeck coefficient, and electronic thermal conductivity are calculated through \sigma = L^{(0)}, S = -1/\epsilon T (L^{(0)})^{-1}L^{(1)}, and \kappa_e = 1/\epsilon^2 T (L^{(2)} - L^{(1)})^{-1}L^{(1)}, where L^{(n)} is defined as

\[
L^{(n)} = \epsilon^2 \sum_n \int \frac{dk}{4\pi} \epsilon_n (\epsilon_n (k)) \tau_{\epsilon_n (k)} (\epsilon_n (k) - \mu)^n \left( \frac{-\partial f}{\partial \epsilon} \right) \delta (\epsilon - \epsilon_n (k))
\]

Here, \epsilon is the electronic charge, \tau_{\epsilon_n (k)} the energy-dependent relaxation time, \mu(\epsilon) = (1/\hbar) \int V(\epsilon) d\epsilon the group velocity in the nth band at k, \epsilon_n (k) the energy eigenvalues obtained from DFT, \mu the chemical potential, and f the Fermi–Dirac function at a given temperature T. The converged values of \sigma, S, and \kappa_e are obtained using a dense k-point mesh of 21 \times 21 \times 21 points. All simulations are carried out at 300 K and a carrier concentration range of 0–10²² cm⁻³.

In order to predict accurate transport coefficients over a wide range of doping concentrations, we computed the energy-dependent relaxation time (\tau), generally depending on the density of states (N(\epsilon)). The charge transport in solid C60 can be determined by different types of carrier scattering processes. One of the most important scattering mechanism near room temperature is electron–phonon scattering, resulting in a linear temperature dependence of the resistivity.13,16 Two other sources of scattering are the electron–electron scattering, leading to the presence of T²-like dependence, and the scattering originated from orientational disorder, resulting in a large residual resistivity.13,17 Accordingly, the overall relaxation time can be determined through

\[
\frac{1}{\tau_{\text{total}}} = \frac{1}{\tau_0} + \frac{1}{\tau_{\text{e-e}}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{\text{e-phonon}}}
\]

where 1/\tau_0(1/\tau_{\text{e-e}} and 1/\tau_{\text{e-phonon}}) is the scattering rate arising from orientational disorder (electron–electron and electron–phonon scattering, respectively). Here, all three terms are proportional to N(\epsilon), and accordingly the total scattering rate

Figure 1. (a) Density of states (DOS) per unit cell of solid C_{60}. The red (blue and green) dot indicates the estimated Fermi level of A_{1}C_{60} (A_{3}C_{60} and AE_{1}C_{60}) sample, where 1 (3 and 6) electron is doped in the primitive fcc unit cell (A = alkali metal and AE = alkaline earth metal). Calculated electrical conductivity, electronic thermal conductivity (b), Seebeck coefficient (c), power factor and ZT values (d) of crystalline C_{60} as a function of doping concentration (\kappa_e). Red (blue and green) dot shows thermoelectric properties of crystalline C_{60} at doping concentration corresponding to 1 (3 and 6) electron doping in the primitive unit cell. The Seebeck coefficient for the case of doping with 6 electrons (green dot) is not shown since the S value of this sample is beyond the range in panel c (|S| \sim 500 \mu V K⁻¹).

DOI: 10.1021/acs.nanolett.6b01073
Figure 2. Electronic band structures and density of states (DOS) per unit cell of K$_x$C$_{60}$ samples as a function of doping concentration ($x$) (upper). Discrete energy levels of isolated C$_{60}$ molecule are shown at the left side of the graph. The unit cell of K$_x$C$_{60}$ samples at each doping concentration ($x = 0, 3,$ and $6$) (lower). C and intercalated K atoms are represented by gray and purple spheres, respectively, and the yellow box represents the cubic unit cell of K$_x$C$_{60}$. Energy bands derived from the $h_\omega$ $t_{1u}$ and $t_{1g}$ energy levels of C$_{60}$ molecules are shown.

can be expressed as $1/\tau_{\text{total}}(e) = A \times N(e)$, where $A = 5.68 \times 10^{13}$ eV s$^{-1}$ (see Supporting Information).

For calculations of the thermal transport, we perform equilibrium molecular dynamics (MD) simulations employed within the LAMMPS package.$^{18}$ The lattice thermal conductivity ($\kappa$) is computed from the fluctuations of the heat current, using the Einstein relation (see Supporting Information)$^{19-21}$ To describe the covalent bonding interactions between C atoms and the long-range van der Waals interactions for C, K, and C – K, we used the Goddard force field (GFF)$^{12,22}$ which has been successfully applied to the study of K-intercalated fullerenes.$^{23}$ All simulations are carried out at 300 K with a time step of 0.2 fs. To obtain converged results, 15 separate simulations are averaged for each system, each with different uncorrelated starting configurations. In each run, after a 200 ps equilibration period, the microscopic heat flux is recorded for $2 \times 10^7$ MD steps (4 ns) in order to obtain a converged thermal conductivity value. On the basis of convergence tests, we choose the size of the C$_{60}$ lattice to be 40 Å (corresponding to 4000 atoms in the simulation cell) for all subsequent simulations. The lattice constants optimized with this force field are $a = 14.13$ and 14.18 Å for C$_{60}$ and K$_3$C$_{60}$ respectively, which have the fcc crystal structure, and $a = 11.39$ Å for K$_6$C$_{60}$ which has the bcc crystal structure. We used these values as fixed lattice parameters during the MD simulations.

In this work, we focus only on n-type doping, where the Fermi level lies within the $t_{1u}$-band (see Figure 1a). The electrical conductivity, electronic thermal conductivity, and Seebeck coefficient are computed as a function of carrier concentration ($n_i$) at room temperature (see Figure 1b and c). By combining these properties with our computed lattice thermal conductivity ($\kappa_i \sim 0.7$ W m$^{-1}$ K$^{-1}$), the power factor, and ZT of solid C$_{60}$ as a function of doping concentration are predicted in Figure 1d, showing several peak values within the doping range $n_i < 9 \times 10^{21}$ cm$^{-3}$ (corresponding to doping with six electrons in the primitive unit cell, the maximum number of electrons that can be occupied in the $t_{1u}$ band). Our computed $S^2\sigma$ for solid C$_{60}$ without doping is 0.006 mW m$^{-1}$ K$^{-2}$ (corresponding to ZT $\sim 0.002$) at room temperature. When solid C$_{60}$ is doped with three alkali metals (A) in the primitive unit cell, the doping concentration is $n_i \sim 4.48 \times 10^{21}$ cm$^{-3}$, and $S^2\sigma$ at this doping concentration is 0.017 mW m$^{-1}$ K$^{-2}$ (corresponding to ZT $\sim 0.006$). These estimated thermoelectric properties of A$_x$C$_{60}$ are in good agreement with experimental measurements for K$_x$C$_{60}$.$^{16,17}$ The peaks in $S^2\sigma$ are achieved with doping concentrations $n_i \sim 2.3 \times 10^{21}$ cm$^{-3}$ and $8.9 \times 10^{21}$ cm$^{-3}$ corresponding to the bottom and top of the $t_{1u}$ band edge, resulting in ZT $\sim 0.12$ and 0.18, respectively. These results illustrate the usefulness of quantum mechanical calculations for predicting thermoelectric properties of solid C$_{60}$ over a wide range of doping concentrations, and in turn predict optimal doping concentrations that maximize $S^2\sigma$. Next, we investigate the effects of intercalated dopants on the thermoelectric properties of solid C$_{60}$ with the aim of understanding the interplay between doping concentration, structural and electron structure changes, and the corresponding impact on TE properties.

**Crystal and Electronic Structure of Alkali Metal-Doped C$_{60}$.** The presence of alkali metal atoms at interstitial sites donates electrons to the $t_{1u}$-derived conduction band (or higher energy $t_{1g}$-band), depending on doping concentration. In the case of A$_x$C$_{60}$, the $t_{1u}$ band is half-filled and metallic behavior is observed.$^3$ Further doping of metal atoms gives rise to a change of the C$_{60}$ lattice structure from closed-packed fcc to a more open, body-centered lattice (bcc), with six equivalent distorted tetrahedral sites per C$_{60}$. The K$_x$C$_{60}$ compounds are insulators as the $t_{1u}$-band is completely filled. Figure 2 shows the crystal structures and electronic band structures of C$_{60}$, K$_3$C$_{60}$, and K$_6$C$_{60}$ computed within DFT. Our results show these different behaviors, with K$_x$C$_{60}$ metallic and K$_6$C$_{60}$ possessing an indirect gap (Γ → N) of 0.5 eV, in good agreement with previous work.$^{24}$ In this work, we examine these two different compositions, fcc-A$_x$C$_{60}$ and bcc-A$_x$C$_{60}$ and consider a range of combinations of alkali metals and alkaline earth elements as dopants.

**Thermoelectric Properties of K$_x$C$_{60}$.** We use K$_x$C$_{60}$ as a model to investigate the effects of metal intercalation concentration on thermoelectric properties. Among three different K doping concentrations ($x = 0, 3,$ and $6$) in the primitive C$_{60}$ unit cell, we predict both the intrinsic and maximum power factor ($S^2\sigma$), corresponding to the intrinsic and optimal doping levels, respectively (see Figure 3a). The maximum $S^2\sigma$ values are achieved at the edge of the $t_{1u}$-band for undoped C$_{60}$ and K$_3$C$_{60}$, and the edge of the $t_{1g}$-band for K$_6$C$_{60}$.
higher density of rattling atoms in the unit cell. The order of magnitude, as can be seen in Figure 3b. The total κ within the range we are interested are smaller than C60 due to the disorder introduced by the rattling K atoms, showing more than a 2-fold reduction from that of undoped van der Waals interactions linking C60 molecules, resulting in a less dispersive t1u band and larger density of states.

Key electronic structure properties for A3C60 are shown in Figure 4. The lattice parameter ranges from 13.7 Å (Na3C60) to 14.4 Å (Cs3C60), and A1C60 samples with smaller lattice parameter show lower density of states of the t1u band, expected to suppress S according to Mahan-Sofo theory.25 In contrast, σ is expected to increase with decreasing lattice constant owing to more dispersive electronic bands. Our transport coefficient calculations confirm these trends as shown in Figure 4c–d. Between these two competing thermoelectric properties, σ is more influenced by the lattice variation than S, resulting in a maximum value of Sσ for the Na3C60 sample (see Figure 4e). Although κe decreases with increasing lattice parameter as well, its role in our calculated ZT is negligible given the lower κl values by an order of magnitude compared to Sσ.

In our calculations of ZT, we take the κl value for K3C60 (0.32 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹) for all of the A1C60 samples since the variation in mass of the intercalated ion has a negligible effect on thermal transport. Among these samples, the Na3C60 case exhibits the highest ZT ∼ 0.4 at room temperature, implying that a smaller lattice parameter is more favorable for thermoelectric applications, opposite to the case of C60-based superconductivity.

Body-Centered Cubic (bcc) Fullerides: A6C60. Next, we consider the effects of different dopant atoms on TE properties by comparing A6C60 (A = alkali metals Na, K, Rb, and Cs). The lattice parameter of these materials varies with dopant, with larger lattice constants leading to weaker overlap between electronic states of C60 molecules, resulting in a less dispersive t1u band and larger density of states.

This high ZT value, compared with other organic TE materials, suggests the potential of alkali metal-doped C60 in the bcc lattice as a candidate material for thermoelectric applications. Here, it should be noted that our predicted values of ZT for K6C60 samples are underestimated possibly by a factor of 2, arising from the overestimated κl values from MD simulations. Further, our calculations suggest that the experimentally improved power factor of C60 with Cs3CCO3 doping (≈20 μW m⁻¹ K⁻²)6 could still be improved by an order of magnitude with the ability to access the optimal doping level.

Figure 3. (a) Calculated power factors of C60, K3C60, and K6C60 at optimal doping (filled square) and intrinsic doping (empty square) concentrations. C60 and K3C60 are in an fcc lattice, and K6C60 is in a bcc lattice. (b) Calculated electronic (green), lattice (light blue), and total (dark blue) thermal conductivities of K6C60 samples as a function of doping composition. Labels indicate computed lattice thermal conductivity values in each doping composition. The horizontal dashed line indicates the measured thermal conductivity of fcc-C60 (κ ~ 0.4 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹).6 (c) Figure of merit ZT at room temperature.
between the C60 and ion states than A intercalation, leading to a wider bandwidth.26

As can be seen in Figure 5c, the t1g-bandwidth of bcc A6−xAExC60 (x = 0, 3 and 6) fullerides decreases with lattice parameter within the samples with the same composition, similar to the fcc A3C60 fulleride cases. However, samples with the same lattice parameter do not always result in the same bandwidth. Fulleride samples (A6−xAExC60) with higher AE ion composition (x) exhibit larger bandwidths than the samples with lower AE ion composition even with the same lattice parameter: W (x = 6) > W (x = 3) > W (x = 0). We note that this bandwidth gap arises from the different hybridization of each dopant, and stronger hybridization is generated with AE ions. This trend can be explained by the previous valence-electron density study of the K3Ba3C60 fulleride,26 demonstrating that considerable electron densities remain around both the Ba and K sites, with larger density around Ba compared to K, implying stronger hybridization with Ba ions.

Our calculated thermoelectric properties for A6−xAExC60 (x = 0, 3, 6) are shown in Figure 5d–f. As expected, σ increases with bandwidth, while S decreases, leading to a maximum in the power factor as a function of bandwidth at W ~ 0.9 eV for Ba6C60. Below this bandwidth, S2σ increases with W, as in the case of the fcc lattice, mostly due to the increase in σ. Significant S2σ reduction beyond its maximum point arises from considerably reduced S values, by a factor of 7, compared with other A6−xAExC60 samples, despite the increased σ values (see Supporting Information). This decrease in the Seebeck coefficient can be explained by the strong hybridization between C60 and AE states, inducing an overlap between valence and conduction bands that makes these fullerides semimetallic.28 κe increases with bandwidth, owing to more dispersive electronic bands with larger bandwidth, as in the case of σ. These results demonstrate that the hybridization between C60 and dopant metal states plays an important role in the charge transport of crystalline C60 in the bcc lattice, and optimization of dopants could lead to further improvement of the electronic properties in crystalline C60.

Combining these power factors with our computed lattice thermal conductivity of K6C60 (κt = 0.21 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹) allows us
to predict ZT for the bcc fullerides (Figure 5f). Among these samples, a ZT as large as 1 can be achieved in the case of K$_3$S$_r$C$_{60}$ at room temperature. These high theoretical ZT values (60 times higher than the maximum measured ZT $\sim$ 0.015 for crystalline C$_{60}$) are achieved mainly due to a careful exploration of optimal doping conditions, with access to the optimal doping concentration giving an order of magnitude increase and optimizing the intercalation chemistry providing another factor of 7 according to our calculations. Significant ZT enhancement in the K$_3$S$_r$C$_{60}$ sample, by a factor of $\sim$7 with respect to the crystalline C$_{60}$ case, is due to a combination of a reduction in $\kappa$ and enhancement in $S^2\sigma$. As we noted earlier, for solid C$_{60}$ our computed lattice thermal conductivity is overestimated by a factor of 1.8 with respect to the measured value, which if taken into account implies that our computed ZT for the fullerides are underestimated. These results highlight the importance of optimizing intercalating dopants in crystalline C$_{60}$ and show that suitable choices could lead to efficient TE by simultaneously improving the properties constituting ZT.

In this work, we investigated the thermoelectric properties of crystalline C$_{60}$ intercalated with alkali and alkaline earth metals using both classical and quantum mechanical calculations. The intercalation of metal atoms plays an important role in controlling both thermal and charge transport. Introduction of dopants generates strong phonon scattering in crystalline C$_{60}$ and thermal transport in such materials can be tuned by dopant composition. These results also demonstrate that dopant variation broadly tailors the charge transport in fullerides, introducing different effects on the bandwidths, which play a dominant role in determining the charge transport in crystalline C$_{60}$. Our results suggest that tailored introduction of metal atoms in crystalline C$_{60}$ could be an important route to designing high-efficiency fullerene-based thermoelectric materials.

### ASSOCIATED CONTENT

* Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.nanolett.6b01073.

Additional simulation details on thermal conductivity (molecular dynamics simulations), electronic structure (quantum mechanical simulations), and relaxation time calculations. Optimal doping levels of fullerides samples (PDF)
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Notes
The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research used resources of the National Energy Research Scientific Computing Center, a DOE Office of Science User Facility supported by the Office of Science of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231. This work was partially supported by the Eni Solar Frontiers Center at MIT.

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