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Realizing and Adjusting the Thermoelectric Application of MoO₃ Monolayer via Oxygen Vacancies

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Abstract

We have investigated the thermoelectric properties of pristine MoO₃ monolayer and its defective structures with different oxygen vacancies by using first-principles method combined with Boltzmann transport theory. Our results show that the thermoelectric properties of MoO₃ monolayer exhibit an

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evident anisotropic behavior which is caused by the similar anisotropic phenomenon of electronic conductivity and thermal conductivity. The ZT values along x-axis and y-axis directions are 0.72 and 0.08 at 300K, respectively. Moreover, the creation of oxygen vacancies proves to be an effective way to enhance the ZT values of MoO₃ monolayer which is caused by the sharp peak near the Fermi level in density of states. The increased ZT values can reach 0.84 (x-axis) and 0.12 (y-axis) at 300K.

Keywords: molybdenum trioxides, thermoelectric, oxygen vacancy

1. Introduction

Thermoelectric materials which can directly convert temperature gradient to voltage gradient and *vice versa* provide a valid strategy for global energy crisis. Owing to its unique ability of utilizing waste heat without generating any greenhouse gas, thermoelectric technology has attracted increasing attention.¹ Nevertheless, the application of thermoelectric materials is limited by its low energy conversion efficiency. The performance of thermoelectric materials is usually measured by a figures of merit (*ZT*) defined as $ZT = S^2 \sigma T / \kappa$, where *S*, σ , *T*, and κ represent Seebeck coefficient, electronic conductivity, temperature, and thermal conductivity, respectively.^{2,3} In the past decade, great efforts have been made to boost the capability of thermoelectric materials.⁴ Unfortunately, the application of conventional thermoelectric materials is still limited on account of inefficiency, high-cost, stability and toxicity problems.

As a promising candidate to address these severe challenges, transition metal oxides (TMOs) contain a vast family of low-cost and environmentally friendly materials. From insulating to

semiconducting and conducting, TMOs exhibit wide-ranging electronic and magnetic characteristics which depend on their geometric structure, doping concentration and stoichiometry ratio.⁵ TMOs have been used in many fields as Li-ion battery, electrochemical capacitors and fuel cells.⁶ Meanwhile, the thermoelectric application of TMOs-based materials has been explored and their poor efficiency is still the major difficulty.⁷

Among these TMOs, layered molybdenum trioxide (MoO₃) has attracted extensive attention as a potential electrode material in electrochemical products⁸ and Li-ion battery⁹⁻¹². Like most TMOs, bulk MoO₃ owns a wide band gap (about 3.0 eV) and low electronic conductivity, which seems inappropriate for thermoelectric devices. However, the electronic properties (including band gap and conductivity) of MoO₃ are strongly dependent on oxygen vacancy concentrations. Many ionic intercalation approaches as hydrogen-ion¹³ and solar-light irradiation¹⁴ can turn MoO₃ into MoO_{3-x} and hence raise its electronic conductivity. Understanding the effect of oxygen vacancies in MoO₃ is very beneficial to its thermoelectric applications. Besides, the low-dimensional materials exhibit better thermoelectric performance than bulk materials.¹⁵ In view of its layered structure, few-layer MoO₃ nanosheets have been synthesized already in experiment like graphene.^{13,14,16,17} Theoretical research has proved that few-layer MoO₃ possesses a markedly high carrier mobility above 3000 cm²V⁻¹s⁻¹.¹⁸ Therefore, it is of profound significance to explore the thermoelectric properties of MoO₃ monolayer and discuss the effect of oxygen vacancies on it.

2. Method

In this work, we evaluate the thermoelectric properties of MoO₃ monolayer by the Boltzmann transport theory and first-principles calculations. The calculations on electronic properties of MoO₃ monolayer are performed by density functional theory (DFT) as implemented in Vienna Ab Inito Simulation Package (VASP) code ^{19,20}. We utilize the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) of Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE)²¹ pseudopotentials without the spin-orbit interaction. Since PBE functional fails to capture the electronic and optical properties of bulk MoO₃ by a large margin (band gap less than half of experimental measurement), we also employ Heyd–Scuseria-Ernzerhof (HSE06) hybrid functional potential ^{22,23} to obtain a more accurate band sturcture. The vacuum distance is set to 15 Å to avoid the interactions between the MoO₃ monolayer and its periodic images. A plane-wave basis set with a cutoff of 520 eV and the k-mesh is tested to be 10×10×1 for the purpose of convergence.

Based on the results of the electronic structure, the electronic transport properties can be obtained by the Boltzmann transport theory and constant scattering time approximation as implemented in the BoltzTraP code²⁴. To get reliable electronic transport coefficients, a denser k-point mesh as $40 \times 40 \times 1$ is used to obtain converged results. Based on the framework of Boltzmann transport theory, the electrical conductivity σ and the Seebeck coefficient *S* can be expressed as:

$$\sigma = e^2 \int d\varepsilon \left(-\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \varepsilon} \right) \Sigma(\varepsilon) , (1)$$

$$S = \frac{ek_B}{\sigma} \int d\varepsilon \left(-\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \varepsilon} \right) \Sigma(\varepsilon) \frac{\varepsilon - u}{k_B T}, (2)$$
$$\left(-\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \varepsilon} \right) = \frac{1}{k_B T} \frac{e^{\left(\frac{\varepsilon - u}{k_B T}\right)}}{\left(e^{\left(\frac{\varepsilon - u}{k_B T}\right)} + 1\right)^2}, (3)$$

where the *u* is the chemical potential (corresponds to the carrier concentration), k_B is the Boltzmann constant, *e* is the electron charge and *T* is the he absolute temperature. $\Sigma(\varepsilon)$ is the so-called transport distribution function ²⁵:

$$\Sigma(\varepsilon) = \sum_{\vec{k}} v(\vec{k})^2 \tau(\vec{k}) \delta(\varepsilon - \varepsilon(\vec{k})), (4)$$

where $v(\vec{k})$ is the group velocity of the carriers and $\tau(\vec{k})$ is the relaxation time, respectively. The electronic thermal conductivity κ_e is obtained by the Wiedemann-Franz law: $\kappa_e = L\sigma T$, where L is the Lorenz number. For the calculation of the relaxation time τ , we apply the deformation potential theory ²⁶ where τ is estimated by $\tau = \mu m^* / e$ and the carrier mobility μ is given by $\mu = \frac{e\hbar^3 C_{2D}}{k_B T m^* m_d E_1^2}$. All the corresponding parameters of carrier mobility and effective mass are taken from ref. 18 as summarized in Tab. 1.

As for phononic transport properties, we calculate the lattice thermal conductivity by the Boltzmann transport theory as implemented in the Quantum ESPRESSO (QE) package^{27,28} and ShengBTE code²⁹. The pseudopotential files are obtained from the Standard Solid-State Pseudopotentials library³⁰ and kinetic energy cutoff is set to be 80 Ry. The density functional

perturbation theory (DFPT) is adopted for the calculation of second-order (harmonic) interatomic force constants (IFCs) from the QE package²⁷ and third-order (anharmonic) IFCs are obtained from ShengBTE code²⁹ with the maximum atomic interaction distance of the sixth neighbor in the $4\times4\times1$ supercell. Here, a dense phonon *q*-grid of $52\times52\times1$ is used to compute the lattice thermal conductivity of MoO₃ and the scale parameter for smearing is set to 0.1.

3. Results and discussion

As shown in Fig. 1(a), the MoO₃ monolayer is cut from orthorhombic α -MoO₃ bulk structure (space group *Pbnm*) and the primitive cell contains 8 atoms. Apparently, there are three distinguishable oxygen atoms which are connected to different molybdenum atoms and they are labeled by different colors. The relaxed lattice constants of MoO₃ monolayer are a=3.68 Å and b=3.93 Å, which are similar to the bulk experimental data of 3.70 and 3.96 Å³¹. In Fig. 1(b), we give the electronic band structure of the MoO₃ monolayer PBE potential and HSE06 hybrid functional potential. One can see clearly that both the two different potentials exhibit similar electronic band structures for the larger energy gaps. The minimum point of the first conduction band (CBM) appears at the Γ point, while the maximum of the first valence band (VBM) appears at a point along the S point. The indirect bandgap of MoO₃ monolayer is 1.79 eV for PBE and 2.85 eV for HSE06 which is consistent with previous studies^{18,32}. Since MoO₃ monolayer is a wide-gap semiconductor, it is likely to exhibit a giant Seebeck coefficient and low electronic conductivity. The discrepancies between PBE potential and HSE06 hybrid functional are inconspicuous when computing the Seebeck coefficient and electronic conductivity. Considering the extremely slow speed of HSE06 hybrid functional potential, we use PBE potential to get the electronic transport properties of MoO_3 monolayer in the following work.

As for the phononic properties, the phonon dispersion in the high-symmetry directions of the first Brillouin zone for MoO₃ monolayer is plotted in Figs. 1(c). There is no imaginary frequency which ensures the stability of MoO₃ monolayer. It is well known that the acoustical phonon branches possess large group velocities and the mainly decide lattice thermal conductivity.³³ As the dashed lines pointed out in Figs. 1(c), the acoustic phonon group velocity along Γ -Y direction is larger than that along Γ -X direction, which is an indication of anisotropic phonon transport. The lattice thermal conductivity κ_{ph} along different directions as a function of temperature is depicted in Fig. 1(d). It is obvious that the thermal transport property of MoO₃ monolayer presents an anisotropic behavior, where the lattice thermal conductivity along the x-axis direction is higher than that along the y-axis direction. At room temperature, κ_{ph} is 5.38 W/mK and 3.07 W/mK along the x-axis and y-axis direction, respectively. As a result of the intrinsic enhancement in phonon-phonon scattering with temperature, the lattice thermal conductivity of MoO₃ monolayer decreases gradually with temperature increasing which follows a 1/*T* dependence like most crystalline materials.

In Figs. 2(a)-2(c), we demonstrate the electronic transport properties of MoO₃ monolayer as a function of carrier concentration at three typical temperatures (T =300, 500, and 700 K). It should be noted that the *n*-type and *p*-type transport properties of MoO₃ monolayer are uniform. Therefore, only

p-type cases are exhibited here. In Fig. 2(a), the Seebeck coefficient S of MoO₃ monolayer along the x-axis and y-axis directions possesses the same value. With temperature increasing from 300 K to 700 K, the Seebeck coefficient of MoO₃ monolayer decreases gradually which coincides with the relation: $S \propto (1/n)^{2/3}$.³ The maximum value of S for MoO₃ monolayer can achieve 1.69 mV/K at room temperature. Such huge S value can be explained by the proportional relationship between Seebeck coefficient and bandgap.³⁴ Unlike the phenomenon of Seebeck coefficient, the electronic conductivity and electronic thermal conductivity exhibit a clear anisotropic behavior which is contributed to the anisotropic relaxation time.¹⁸ Fig. 2(b) reveals that the electronic conductivity along the x-axis direction is obviously much higher than that along the y-axis direction. For example, we have $\sigma = 8268$ S/m along x-axis direction, while $\sigma = 338$ S/m along y-axis direction at room temperature and $n = 10^{13}$ cm⁻². The electronic thermal conductivity of MoO₃ monolayer equally exhibits an evident anisotropic behavior and boots gradually as temperature increases in Fig. 2(c). Particularly, $\kappa_e = 1.29$ W/mK and 0.032 W/mK for x-axis and y-axis at room temperature and n = 10^{13} cm⁻². By combining the phononic and electronic transport properties presented above, we can obtain the ZT value of MoO₃ monolayer as a function of carrier concentration in Fig. 2(d). It is found that the ZT value along x-axis direction is much higher than that along y-axis direction. The maximum ZT value along x-axis can reach 0.84 at 700K which is nearly four times than the value along y-axis. The carrier concentration needed to attain the maximum ZT value in the n-type MoO₃ monolayer is about 1.16×10^{13} cm⁻² (x-axis) and 6.67×10^{13} cm⁻² (y-axis).

In order to strengthen the thermoelectric performance of MoO₃ monolayer, we decided to introduce oxygen vacancies in it. We remove one oxygen atom in the $3 \times 3 \times 1$ supercell (72 atoms) to construct charge neutral defect and the stoichiometric proportion is MoO_{2.94}. Since there are three types of oxygen atoms in the primitive cell, we named the three defective structures by V₀₁, V₀₂ and E_f of a charge neutral formation defect is V_{O3} . The energy defined as: $E_f = E_{tot}(defect) - E_{tot}(supercll) + \frac{1}{2}E_{tot}(O_2)$, where $E_{tot}(defect)$ is total energy of the supercell containing the defect, E_{tot} (supercll) is total energy of the perfect supercell and $E_{tot}(O_2)$ is the total energy of the oxygen molecules. Then we calculate the formation energies and band gaps of these defect structures. The absolute values of formation energy are 2.074 eV (Vo1), 2.076 eV (Vo2) and 4.108 eV (V₀₃) while the band gaps are 0.837 eV (V₀₁), 0.797 eV (V₀₂) and 0.831 eV (V₀₃). Different from the results of bulk MoO3, the three defected structures finally lead to only two stable sturctures after relaxation which is contributed the absence of interlayer van der Waals forces.

It is a hard work to calculate the lattice thermal conductivity and electronic relaxation time of 71 atoms primitive cell by Boltzmann transport theory. So, we assume that the lattice thermal conductivity and electronic relaxation time remains unchanged. In fact, these oxygen vacancies can result in the reduction of the lattice thermal conductivity due to phonon scattering at the vacancies and the final ZT values will be higher. For briefness and clarity, we just display the maximum ZT values in Fig. 3. It can be noted clearly that when vacancies are induced, the ZT values along x-axis increase immediately, especially around low temperature region. However, the cases along y-axis are distinguishing. In Fig. 3(b), the ZT values of V_{O3} along y-axis are obviously higher than

other cases at usual working temperature 300K~600K. The conclusion is that generating the V₀₃ will be the best way to enhance thermoelectric properties of MoO₃ monolayer. The maximum *ZT* values along x-axis and y-axis are 0.83 and 0.12 at room temperature which indicates that defective MoO₃ monolayer is indeed a promising candidate for good thermoelectric materials.

To make clear reason of the strengthening in the thermoelectric properties, we give the electronic density of states (DOS) of these structures in Fig. 4. With the import of oxygen vacancies, the Fermi level has moved closer to the conduction band and an asymmetric sharp peak occurs around the bottom of the conduction band as pointed out in Fig. 4(a). The sharp peak in DOS mainly comes from the Mo atom through the projected DOS for Mo and O atoms presented in Fig. 4(b) and (c). Additionally, the values for V₀₁ and V₀₂ are almost the same which means they lead to the same structure. The structural dependency of defective MoO₃ monolayer can be reflected by the insets of Fig. 4(b) and (c). Previous theoretical research shows that a narrow and sharp peaks in the electronic density of states around Fermi level will generate a great transport distribution function and maximize the power factor $S^2 \sigma$.^{25,35} Especially for V₀₃, the sharp peak is more clear than other structures which makes for the best thermoelectric performance among them. Oxygen vacancies can act as shallow donors and destroy the crystal symmetry, thereby enlarging the carrier concentration.

4. Conclusions

In summary, we have presented a comprehensive study of the thermoelectric properties of MoO₃ monolayer by first-principles calculations and Boltzmann theory. Results indicate that MoO₃

monolayer exhibit better thermoelectric performance along x-axis than that along y-axis because of the strong anisotropic behavior of electronic conductivity and thermal conductivity. The ZT value along x-axis can reach 0.72 at 300K which is much higher than other oxides. On the other hand, we find that the introduction of oxygen vacancy is an efficient way to improve the thermoelectric performance of MoO₃ monolayer. Such improvement can be attributed to a sharp peak in electronic density of states which leads to a large transport distribution function. The structure with O3 vacancies possesses a maximum room temperature ZT value of 0.84 (x-axis) and 0.12 (y-axis). Our work provides helpful theoretical guidance on the thermoelectric applications of two-dimensional TMOs.

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Figures & Tables

Table 1. The effective mass (m^*) , carrier mobility (μ) and relaxation time (τ) along the x and y directions of MoO₃ monolayer at 300 K.

Carriers	m_x^* / m_0	m_y^* / m_0	$\mu_x(\mathrm{cm}^2\mathrm{V}^{-1}\mathrm{s}^{-1})$	μ_y (cm ² V ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	τ_x (ps)	$ au_y$ (ps)	
PBE							
Electron	0.873	0.594	1608.81	37.52	0.786	0.012	
Hole	2.064	0.974	800.57	25.56	0.925	0.013	
HSE06							
Electron	1.056	0.588	793.59	33.60	0.469	0.011	
Hole	1.669	0.910	396.35	19.99	0.370	0.010	



Figure 1. (a) Crystal structures of MoO₃ monolayer ($3 \times 3 \times 1$ supercell): top and side views. (b) The electronic band structure and (c) phonon dispersion of MoO₃ monolayer along the high-symmetry path. (d) The lattice thermal conductivity κ_{ph} of MoO₃ monolayer along different directions as a function of temperature.



Figure 2. Transport and thermoelectric properties of MoO₃ monolayer. (a) Seebeck coefficient S, (b) electronic conductivity σ , (c) electronic thermal conductivity κ_e and (d) ZT values as a function of the carrier concentration.



Figure 3. The maximum ZT values as a function of temperatures along (a) x-axis and (b) y-axis.



Figure 4. Calculated (a) total electronic density of states (DOS) and projected DOS for (b) Mo and (c) O atoms of MoO₃ monolayer. The insets of (b) and (c) denote the total charge density from different views.