

# A Review on Silicide-Based Materials: Thermoelectric and Mechanical Properties

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### Abstract

Silicide-based thermoelectric (TE) materials are promising candidates for automotive TE generators, which can collect wasted heat and convert it into electricity. Adequate strategies should be used to manufacture highly efficient silicide-based TE devices. This review summarizes novel strategies for obtaining materials that feature excellent TE properties and mechanical reliability. Controlling the carrier concentration and band structure could increase their electronic transport properties, while nanostructure engineering could effectively reduce their lattice thermal conductivity. Moreover, well designed microstructures are required to obtain mechanically reliable TE materials, which indicates that precisely controlling their nanostructure is essential for the improved trade-off relationship between TE and mechanical properties. While many challenges should still be overcome, the development of highly efficient TE materials and devices could represent new solutions for the global energy crisis.

Keywords Thermoelectric materials  $\cdot$  Silicide  $\cdot$  Mg<sub>2</sub>Si  $\cdot$  Higher manganese silicide

# 1 Introduction

# 1.1 Thermoelectricity

Renewable energy is a research area that is gaining global attention owing to environmental pollution concerns and the exhaustion of fossil fuel resources. Particularly, air pollution from fossil fuel used for fueling vehicles and in industries is a concerning global problem. The thermoelectric (TE) technology involves the direct and reversible conversion between thermal energy and electrical energy that is generated as electrons or holes move owing to temperature differences. Given that more than 60% of energy is wasted as heat during the energy generation and consumption process, thermoelectric power generation (TEG) is a promising energy generating technology. TEG devices present great advantages, including long life and high degree of environmental friendliness. Moreover, they can be manufactured in various areas from local to large areas. However, TEG devices are still difficult to commercialize owing to their low energy

Wooyoung Lee wooyoung@yonsei.ac.kr efficiency and mechanical reliability, and also their price competitiveness. The efficiency of TEG devices can be calculated as follows:

$$\eta = \frac{T_h - T_c}{T_h} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{1 + Z\overline{T}} - 1}{\sqrt{1 + Z\overline{T}} + \frac{T_c}{T_h}},\tag{1}$$

where  $T_h$  and  $T_c$  are the temperatures of the hot and cold sides, respectively,  $\overline{T}$  is the average of  $T_h$  and  $T_c$ , and ZT is a dimensionless figure of merit. This dimensionless figure of merit can be used to evaluate TE materials and has been defined as:

$$ZT = \sigma S^2 / \kappa \tag{2}$$

where  $\sigma$ , *S*, *T*, and  $\kappa$  are the electrical conductivity, Seebeck coefficient, absolute temperature, and total thermal conductivity of the material, respectively. TEG devices consist of a TE material, electrodes, paste materials, and diffusion barriers. Among these, the TE material is the most important component that determines their efficiency. Therefore, various strategies should be established to allow researchers to obtain materials with high *ZT* and excellent mechanical reliability and to develop inexpensive manufacturing processes [1].

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### 1.2 Silicide-Based TE Materials

Recently, various TE materials featuring high ZT values have been researched, including skutterudites, half-Heusler alloys, silicides, and chalcogenides (Fig. 1 and Table 1) [2–23]. The ZT value of  $Bi_{0.52}Sb_{1.48}Te_3$ , which presented dense dislocations, was ~ 2.0 at low temperature [2], while those of PbTe-, Ag-Pb-Sb-Te-, and SnSe-based TE materials were as high as  $\sim 2.5$  at mid-to-high temperature [14, 16, 21, 22]. However, most TE materials that present very high ZT values contain expensive and toxic elements, and therefore, can be difficult to commercialize. Because Bi and Te are very rare, they are also very expensive. Moreover, the use of Pb and Se has been gradually reduced worldwide owing to their toxicity. Therefore, cost and toxicity considerations are essential when developing TE materials. Consequently, silicide-based materials could be promising candidates for TE materials and devices. Silicide-based TE materials have received significant attention as automotive thermoelectric generators (ATEGs) owing to their low density, low cost, and non-toxicity.

Magnesium silicide (Mg<sub>2</sub>Si) and higher manganese silicide (HMS) are representative *n*- and *p*-type silicide-based TE materials, respectively. Mg<sub>2</sub>Si presents cubic structure (Fm3m space group) and a narrow bandgap ( $\sim 0.77 \text{ eV}$ ) [4]. Generally, the ZT of un-doped Mg<sub>2</sub>Si is lower than 0.1 owing to its very low electrical conductivity. However, the ZT of doped Mg<sub>2</sub>Si could reach 1.0 at 873 K [4]. Moreover, the maximum ZT of ~1.5 was attributed to its high S and low  $\kappa$  values in Mg<sub>2</sub>(Si, Sn) solid solution [24]. Additionally, controlling the Mg/Si ratio and the secondary phases, such as Si and MgO are effective route for enhancing the TE properties and ensure the thermal and chemical stability of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si [25, 26]. Despite its high ZT values, the applications of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si have been limited owing to its low mechanical reliability (fracture toughness,  $K_{\rm Ic}$ , value of ~0.82 MPa m<sup>1/2</sup>), which suggested that more research into the mechanical reliability of TE materials is required to fabricate efficient TEG devices [27].

Unlike Mg<sub>2</sub>Si, HMS exhibits complex tetragonal crystal structure (Mn sub-lattices (chimneys) and interpenetrating helical Si sub-lattices (ladders)) known as the Nowotny Chimney Ladder (NCL) structure [28]. Moreover, depending on their Mn-to-Si atomic ratio, HMS presents different phases, including Mn<sub>4</sub>Si<sub>7</sub>, Mn<sub>11</sub>Si<sub>19</sub>, Mn<sub>15</sub>Si<sub>26</sub>, and Mn<sub>27</sub>Si<sub>47</sub>, which are NCL phases of various stoichiometry [28]. Although HMS phases exhibited the different lattice parameters (a = b = 5.52 - 5.53 Å and c = 17.46 - 117.90 Å) and space groups (P4c2, P4 n2, I42d, and P 4n2), their electronic band structure (0.76–0.78 eV) and intrinsic TE properties (ZT = ~0.4 at 700–800 K) are similar [29–32]. The MnSi and Si secondary phases of HMS negatively affect



Fig. 1 Figure of merit, ZT, as function of temperature for typical thermoelectric materials. Here, NWs nanowires and CNT carbon nanotube

their TE properties. Therefore, suppressing the secondary phases generation is essential for achieving good TE properties by optimizing the fabrication process and performing compositional tuning [33–35]. The ZT values of HMS doped at the Mn- and Si-sites have been reported to be as high as 0.6. Furthermore, nanocomposite engineering strategies have been used to improve the TE properties of doped HMS by manipulating their electronic and thermal transport properties [8]. Despite their low ZT values compared with those of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si, HMS exhibits excellent mechanical, chemical, and thermal stability, and therefore, novel strategies for improving their TE properties are required.

Herein, we summarize the strategies for improving the TE properties and mechanical reliability of silicide-based TE materials. We also demonstrate the importance of microstructure and band structure control to obtain the high TE properties and mechanical reliability of silicide-based TE materials. Lastly, we suggest development directions and provide material design guidelines for silicide-based TE materials to obtain highly efficient TEG devices.

# 2 Increasing ZT of Silicide Bulk Materials

### 2.1 Compositional Tuning and Optimizing n<sub>c</sub>

The individual relationships between S,  $\sigma$ , and  $\kappa$  and  $n_c$ , can be expressed using the following equations:

$$S = \frac{8\pi^2 k_B^2}{3eh^2} m^* T \left(\frac{\pi}{3n_c}\right)^{2/3},$$
(3)

Table 1 Thermoelectric properties of state-of-art thermoelectric materials

Material	Carrier type	$PF$ $(\mu W cm^{-1} K^{-2})$	$ \begin{array}{c} \kappa_{\rm tot} \\ (W  {\rm m}^{-1} \\ {\rm K}^{-1}) \end{array} $	$(W m^{-1} K^{-1})$	<i>T</i> (K)	ZT	Synthetic method <sup>a</sup>	References
Bi <sub>0.5</sub> Sb <sub>1.5</sub> Te <sub>3</sub>	р	37.79	0.65	0.34	320	1.86	MS-SPS	[2]
Cu <sub>0.01</sub> Bi <sub>2</sub> Te <sub>2.7</sub> Se <sub>0.3</sub>	n	29.71	1.12		398	1.06	BM-HP	[3]
$Al_{0.04}Mg_{0.96}Si_{0.97}Bi_{0.03}$	n	28.8	2.45	0.88	873	1.02	SSR-SPS	[4]
$Mg_{2.15}Si_{0.28}Sn_{0.71}Sb_{0.006}$	n	44.32	2.33		700	1.30	SSR-SPS	[5]
Sb doped Mg <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>0.5</sub> Sn <sub>0.5</sub>	n	25.81	0.98	0.49	615	1.63	Melting-SPS (press-less sintering)	[ <mark>6</mark> ]
$Mg_{2}Li_{0.025}Si_{0.4}Sn_{0.6}$	р	14.31	1.30		675	0.70	Melting-PECS	[ <b>7</b> ]
MnSi <sub>1.746</sub> Te <sub>0.003</sub> (Te NWs)	р	15.88	1.87	1.47	823	0.70	Wet BM-SPS	[8]
Re <sub>6.0</sub> Mn <sub>30.4</sub> Si <sub>63.6</sub>	р	23.10	2.09	1.01	920	1.04	SSR-BM-SPS	[ <mark>9</mark> ]
Hf <sub>0.5</sub> Zr <sub>0.5</sub> NiSn <sub>0.99</sub> Sb <sub>0.01</sub>	n	49.27	4.47	2.04	873	1.00	AM-BM-HP	[10]
xCo/Ba <sub>0.3</sub> In <sub>0.3</sub> Co <sub>4</sub> Sb <sub>12</sub>	n	51.98	2.53	0.71	850	1.75	Melting-SPS	[11]
(Sr, Ba, Yb) <sub>y</sub> Co <sub>4</sub> Sb <sub>12</sub>	n	44.42	2.06		835	1.80	SSR-HP	[12]
PbTe/PbSe nanoparticles	n	26.61	0.87	0.40	623	1.85	Solution based reaction + SPS	[13]
PbTe <sub>0.85</sub> Se <sub>0.15</sub> -2% Na-4% SrTe	р	23.50	0.96	0.46	923	2.30	Melting-SPS	[14]
PbTe–SrTe doped with Na <sub>2</sub> Te (2 mol%)	р	19.28	0.94	0.46	800	1.70	Melting	[15]
PbTe–SrTe doped with 2 mol% Na	р	23.88	0.97	0.53	915	2.20	Melting-SPS	[ <mark>16</mark> ]
PbSe+3% CdS	р	16.96	0.99	0.64	923	1.60	Melting-SPS	[ <mark>17</mark> ]
$Cu_2Se + CNT$	р	8.79	0.37		1000	2.40	BM-SPS	[ <mark>18</mark> ]
$Yb_{14}Mn_{1-x}Al_xSb_{11}$	р	5.55	0.52		1223	1.30	Flux method	[ <b>19</b> ]
AgPb <sub>m</sub> SbTe <sub>m+2</sub>	n	15.35	0.72		723	1.54	BM-SPS	[20]
$SnSe_{1-x}Br_x$ crystal	n	8.98	0.25	0.20	773	2.80	Bridgman method	[21]
SnSe single crystal	р	9.90	0.35		923	2.60	Bridgman method	[22]

<sup>a</sup>*MS* melt spinning, *SPS* spark plasma sintering, *BM* ball milling, *HP* hot pressing, *SSR* solid state reaction, *IM* induction melting, *PECS* pulsed electric current sintering, and *AM* arc melting

$$\sigma = n_c e \mu_{Hall},\tag{4}$$

and

$$\kappa = L\sigma T = Ln_c e\mu_{Hall}T,\tag{5}$$

where  $m^*$ ,  $\rho$ , and  $\mu_{\text{Hall}}$  are the effective mass, electric resistivity, and Hall mobility, respectively, e is the electron charge,  $k_{\rm B}$  is the Boltzmann constant, and L is the Lorenz number. These relationships indicate that control of  $n_c$  is a key strategy for achieving high ZT values. The optimization of  $n_c$ via doping is essential for improving the TE properties of silicide-based TE materials, owing to their low ZT values (~0.1 and ~0.4 for Mg<sub>2</sub>Si and HMS, respectively) [33, 36]. Sb and Bi are the main *n*-type doping elements that replace the Si sites, and Al is another *n*-type doping element that substitutes the Mg sites of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based compounds [4, 36–40]. Various other dopants, such as Y, Te, and Pb were also used, however, the increase in the TE properties of the Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based materials was insufficient (Fig. 2 and Table 2) [41–44]. Sb and Bi doping caused  $n_c$  to increase, which led to the increase in  $\sigma$  and decrease in the lattice thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_{lat}$ ) via point defect phonon scattering [36–38].

Kim et al. were able to obtain a Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based material featuring the ZT value of 1.0 at 873 K by optimizing its  $n_c$  $(0.9 \times 10^{20} - 1.2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3})$  and controlling the solubility of Bi via a co-doping strategy [4].

Using doping element control, it is possible to obtain Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based compounds that feature *p*-type characteristics. Li, Na, and Ga are representative *p*-type doping elements. Among them, Li and Na are substitutional dopants at the Mg site, and Ga is a dopant at the Si site (Fig. 3 and Table 3) [7, 45–52]. The *p*-type Mg<sub>2</sub>Si comprises doped Mg<sub>2</sub>Si–Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn and Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn-Mg<sub>2</sub>Ge solid solutions. The presence of these solid solutions increased the *S* value of the *p*-type Mg<sub>2</sub>Si owing to band convergence and decreased its  $\kappa_{lat}$  value owing to intensified phonon scattering [7, 45–49]. The *ZT* value of the *p*-type Mg<sub>2</sub>Si was 0.7 at 675 K, which was still lower than that of the *n*-type Mg<sub>2</sub>Si [7].

Typically, HMS is generally known to be the *p*-type counterparts of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based TE materials. The TE properties of the undoped HMS are poor  $(ZT \sim 0.4)$  [33] and their  $n_c$  are relatively high  $(1.1 \times 10^{21} - 2.7 \times 10^{21} \text{ cm}^{-3})$  [53]. V, Cr, Fe, Co, W, and Re were investigated as doping elements at the Mn sites, and Al and Ge were studied as doping elements



Fig.2 Figure of merit, ZT, as function of temperature for *n*-type doped  $Mg_2Si$ 

at the Si sites of HMS (Table 4) [9, 35, 54–67]. Chen et al. obtained HMS that presented the *ZT* value of 0.57 at 800 K via intensified phonon scattering. This high *ZT* value was attributed to the presence of point defects and the formation of ReSi<sub>1.75</sub> nanoinclusions, which were induced by Re doping [35]. She et al. reported Ge-doped HMS that presented the *ZT* value of 0.62 at 840 K by optimizing  $n_c$ , increasing  $m^*$ , and reducing  $\kappa_{lat}$  [64]. However, because  $n_c$  optimization strategies are limited owing to the doping solubility limit, novel processes such as gas atomization, rapid solidification, and shock wave were used to improve the TE properties of doped HMS by rapidly decreasing  $\kappa_{lat}$  [9, 55, 57, 66, 67]. Ge and Re co-doping combined with the shock wave process generated high density dislocations, which resulted in the high *ZT* value (~ 1.0) of the co-doped HMS (Fig. 4) [67].

Controlling the  $n_c$  of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si and HMS by controlling their Mg and Si contents, respectively, has been studied. However, the increase in their TE properties obtained by controlling  $n_c$  was insufficient. Therefore, manipulating the electronic and thermal transport properties of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si and HMS by controlling their band structure and nanostructure should be considered to achieve materials with significantly improved TE properties.

### 2.2 Nanostructure Engineering

Nanostructure engineering is a conventional strategy for improving TE properties by decreasing  $\kappa_{lat}$ . Nanograins, heterostructures, nanophases, and nanoinclusions are effective for reducing  $\kappa_{lat}$  by controlling the interface properties of materials (Fig. 5a–c) [1, 68]. According to calculation

Material	Dopant	$n_{\rm c} \ (10^{20} \ {\rm cm}^{-3})$	$\sigma$ (S cm <sup>-1</sup> )	<i>S</i> (μV K <sup>-1</sup> )	$\begin{array}{c} PF \\ (\mu W \ cm^{-1} \\ K^{-2}) \end{array}$	$rac{\kappa_{ m tot}}{ m K^{-1}}$ (W m <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup> )	$rac{K_{ m lat}}{ m K^{-1}}$ (W m <sup>-1</sup>	$T(\mathbf{K})$	ZT	Synthesis method <sup>a</sup>	References
$Al_{0.04}Mg_{0.96}Si_{0.97}Bi_{0.03}$	Al, Bi	1.14	766.87	- 193.86	28.80	2.45	0.88	873	1.02	SSR-SPS	[4]
$Mg_2Si_{0.98}Pb_{0.01}Sb_{0.01}$	Sb, Pb		719.99	-202.21	29.44	3.19	1.86	823	0.76	BM-SPS	[41]
$Mg_2Si_{0.98}Pb_{0.01}Bi_{0.01}$	Pb, Bi		527.56	-224.63	26.62	3.14	2.00	873	0.74	BM-SPS	[41]
$Mg_2Si_{0.98}Sb_{0.01}Bi_{0.01}$	Sb, Bi		580.62	-205.75	24.58	2.82	1.59	873	0.76	BM-SPS	[41]
$Mg_{2.1}Si_{0.96}Bi_{0.02}Se_{0.02}$	Se, Bi	0.96	925.926	- 183.33	31.12	3.43		673	0.61	IM-induction assisted hot uniaxial press	[42]
Al0.01-doped $Mg_2Si$	AI		309.69	-248.15	19.07	3.33		873	0.50	BM-SPS	[39]
$Mg_2Si:Sb = 1:0.02$	Sb	1.50	585.75	-203.45	24.25	3.73		862	0.56	SPS	[37]
$Mg_2Si + Bi 0.15 at.\%$	Bi	0.78	540.54	232.80	29.74	3.07	2.42	775	0.74	BM-HP	[38]
$Mg_2Si:Bi = 1:0.02$	Bi	1.10	548.88	-252.66	35.04	3.51		862	0.86	SPS	[36]
2 at.% Pb doped $Mg_2Si$	Pb		175.47	-285.98	14.35	2.11		823	0.56	BM-SPS	[43]
$Mg_2Si + 2000 ppm Y$	Y		175.00	-311.70	17.00	4.30		600	0.23	BM-FAPAS	[44]



Fig.3 Figure of merit, ZT, as function of temperature for p-type doped Mg<sub>2</sub>Si

results previously reported, the increase in interface density is accompanied by the decrease in  $\kappa_{lat}$  and  $\mu_{Hall}$  because for silicide-based TE materials the mean free paths of phonons and electrons are similar [69–71]. Therefore, nanocomposite engineering strategies, such as the introduction of nanophases and heterostructures, are more effective for manipulating the electronic and thermal transport properties of silicide-based TE materials.

SiC, multi-wall carbon nanotube (MWCNT), reduced graphene oxides (rGOs), metal nanoparticles (NPs), and Si were added to Mg<sub>2</sub>Si to increase its TE properties (Fig. 6 and Table 5) [27, 34, 68, 72–79]. However, the ZT values of all nanocomposites were lower than those of pristine samples. Kim et al. investigated the relationship between the TE and mechanical properties by introducing various nanophases, such as metal NPs, rGOs, and also via dual nanoinclusion. They reported that the TE properties of all nanocomposites decreased owing to the significant decrease in their  $\mu_{\text{Hall}}$  values, despite the decrease in thermal conductivity [27, 68, 77, 78]. Moreover, Yin et al. confirmed the decrease in the TE properties of Mg<sub>2.16</sub>(Si<sub>0.3</sub>Sn<sub>0.7</sub>)<sub>0.98</sub>Sb<sub>0.02</sub>/SiC nanowire or Mg<sub>2.16</sub>(Si<sub>0.3</sub>Sn<sub>0.7</sub>)<sub>0.98</sub>Sb<sub>0.02</sub>/SiC nanoparticles nanocomposites [72]. The power factors of  $Mg_2Si$  nanocomposites were low owing to their unfavorable band alignment induced by the low work function of  $Mg_2Si$  (3.59 eV) [80]. The decrease in  $\kappa_{lat}$  caused by the introduction of nanophases was insufficient because the main scattering centers of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based TE materials were point defects.

Conversely, HMS nanocomposites have been relatively effective in improving TE properties (Fig. 7 and Table 6) [8, 34, 81–85]. The *ZT* values of HMS nanocomposites with Te

Material	Dopant	$n_{\rm c} \ (10^{20} \ {\rm cm}^{-3})$	$\sigma$ (S cm <sup>-1</sup> )	<i>S</i> (μV K <sup>v1</sup> )	$\begin{array}{c} PF \\ (\mu W \ cm^{-1} \\ K^{-2}) \end{array}$	$\substack{\kappa_{\rm tot} \\ (W \ m^{-1}) \\ K^{-1})$	$\substack{\kappa_{\rm lat}\\(Wm^{-1})}$	$T(\mathbf{K})$	ZZ	Synthesis method <sup>a</sup>	References
$Mg_{1.98}Li_{0.02}Si_{0.4}Sn_{0.6}$	Li	0.86	304.42	204.24	12.90	1.55		650	0.54	BM-SPS	[45]
${ m Mg_2Li_{0.025}Si_{0.4}Sn_{0.6}}$	Li	0.80	303.66	216.68	14.26	1.30		675	0.70	SSR-PECS	[2]
$Mg_{1.86}Li_{0.14}Si_{0.4}Sn_{0.6}$	Li	2.70	488.37	178.13	15.47	2.04		760	0.58	SdS-SM	[46]
$Mg_{1.97}Li_{0.03}Ge_{0.4}Sn_{0.6}$	Li	1.26	595.95	167.24	16.57	2.25		700	0.52	BM-SPS	[47]
$Mg_{1.98}Li_{0.02}Si_{0.4}Sn_{0.6}$	Li	0.84	310.44	204.90	13.06	1.61		700	0.57	BM-SPS	[47]
$Mg_{1.96}Li_{0.04}Sn_{0.75}Ge_{0.25}$	Li	1.65	808.60	150.48	18.23	2.59		723	0.52	BM-HP	[48]
$Mg_2Si_{0.3}Sn_{0.7} + 0.5\%$ Li	Li	1.60	383.25	181.37	12.61		1.46	650	0.45	Melting-annealing	[49]
$Mg_{1.97}Na_{0.03}Sn_{0.75}Ge_{0.25}$	Na	0.59	334.82	181.12	11.04	1.79		723	0.45	BM-HP	[48]
${ m Mg_2Sn_{0.73}Ga_{0.02}Ge_{0.25}}$	Ga	1.52	603.18	158.16	15.03	2.42		623	0.39	BM-HP	[48]
$Mg_{2.10}(Si_{0.3}Sn_{0.7})_{0.95}Ga_{0.05}$	Ga	2.09	386.10	165.96	10.63	1.95		650	0.35	SSR-SPS	[50]
Ag <sub>0.01</sub> Mg <sub>1.99</sub> Si	Ag		486.09	179.22	15.61	3.45		770	0.35	BM-microwaving-SPS	[51]
Ag 3 mol. $\%$ -doped Mg <sub>2</sub> Sn	Ag	0.76	827.33	123.23	12.56	3.96		600	0.18	Melting-annealing-SPS	[52]
<sup>a</sup> <i>RM</i> hall milling <i>CD</i> C court	laema cintar	e DECC nulsed e	lectric current o	ntering MC me	alt eniming H	D hot pressing	r and CCP co	lid etata ra	action		

**Table 3** Thermoelectric properties and typical synthesis methods of the *p*-type doped Mg<sub>2</sub>Si

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Material	Dopant	$n_{\rm c}  (10^{21}  {\rm cm}^{-3})$	$\sigma$ (S cm <sup>-1</sup> )	<i>S</i> (μV K <sup>-1</sup> )	$PF \ (\mu W \ cm^{-1} \ K^{-2})$	$\stackrel{K_{\mathrm{tot}}}{(\mathrm{W}\mathrm{m}^{-1})} \mathrm{K}^{-1}$	$ \substack{\kappa_{lat} \\ (W \ m^{-1}) \\ K^{-1} ) } $	$T(\mathbf{K})$	ZT	Synthesis method <sup>a</sup>	References
MnSi <sub>1.73</sub> :Al <sub>0.005</sub>	Al		251.98	227.80	13.33	2.60		823	0.41	SSR-HP	[54]
1.9 at.% Al-doped $MnSi_{1.75}$	Al		345.00	230.00	18.20	2.00	1.35	773	0.70	GPA-SPS	[55]
5 at.% Al-doped MnSi <sub>1.73</sub>	Al		300.00	205.00	12.70	1.70	1.10	873	0.65	SPS	[56]
5 at.% Al-doped MnSi <sub>1.73</sub>	Al	1.90	240.00	250.00	15.00	1.50	1.10	800	0.80	SdS-SM	[57]
$Mn(Al_{0.0035}Ge_{0.015}Si_{0.9715})_{1.8}$	Al, Ge	2.38	353.23	223.74	17.63	2.57	2.17	823	0.57	SSR-BM-SPS	[58]
$Mn_{0.95}Fe_{0.05}Si_{1.662}Al_{0.1}$	Al, Fe	1.40	171.00	239.41	9.72	2.74	2.41	815	0.29	SdS-SM	[59]
$\mathrm{Mn}_{0.96}\mathrm{V}_{0.02}\mathrm{Si}_{1.74}$	>		708.70	181.11	23.30			800	0.59	AM-MG	[09]
$Mn_{0.98}Cr_{0.02}Si_{1.80}$	Cr	0.22	310.27	214.40	14.20	3.07	2.13	823	0.38	BM-SPS	[61]
$Mn_{0.96}Co_{0.04}Si_{1.74}$	Co	3.20	492.47	190.98	17.83	2.88	1.91	800	0.5	AM-MG	[62]
$\mathrm{MnSi}_{1.77}\mathrm{Ge}_{0.027}$	Ge	2.83	428.17	203.72	17.25	2.39	1.75	823	0.61	SSR-SPS	[63]
$Mn(Ge_{0.015}Si_{0.985})_{1.75}$	Ge	2.60	425.00	200.00	16.90	2.30	1.80	840	0.62	TE-PAS	[64]
$\mathrm{Mn}_{34.6}\mathrm{W}_{1.8}\mathrm{Si}_{63.6}$	W		370.51	188.98	13.23	1.85		700	0.50	AM-LQ-SPS	[65]
${ m Re}_{6.0}{ m Mn}_{30.4}{ m Si}_{63.6}$	Re		448.43	226.95	23.10	2.09	1.01	920	1.04	AM-MS-SPS	[9, 66]
${ m Re}_{0.04}{ m Mn}_{0.96}{ m Si}_{1.8}$	Re	1.70	275.00	240.00	16.00	2.25	1.90	800	0.57	SSR-BM-SPS	[35]
$Mn_{0.99}Re_{0.01}Si_{1.75}Ge_{0.025}$	Re, Ge	2.50	510.03	230.21	27.03	2.33	1.50	850	1.00	Melting-BM-SPS-shock wave	[67]

# $^{a}GPA$ gas phase atomization, LQ liquid quenching, MG melt grown, TE thermal explosion, and PAS plasma activated sintering



**Fig. 4** Figure of merit, *ZT*, as function of temperature for *p*-type doped higher manganese silicide. Here, *SSR* solid state reaction, *MS* melt spinning, *TE* thermal explosion, *BM* ball milling, *HP* hot pressing, *SPS* spark plasma sintering, and *PAS* plasma activated sintering

nanowires and MnS were high (~0.7 and 0.6, respectively at 823 K). These values were achieved by reducing  $\kappa_{lat}$  to the theoretical limit [8, 34]. Additionally, the power factor of the HMS nanocomposites could be increased by controlling their band alignment. Precisely controlling the band gap and work function of the matrix and nanophases, led to the minimization of the decrease in  $\mu_{\text{Hall}}$  at the interfaces; consequently, the power factor could be improved using the energy filtering and charge transfer effects. We fabricated metal NP-embedded HMS nanocomposites and HMS/metal silicide composites and determined that the increase in their power factors by the precise control of the band alignment and interfacial properties of these materials. Moreover, unexpected nanostructures (dislocations, precipitates, and secondary phases), induced by novel synthesis technique, led to the decrease in  $\kappa_{lat}$ , which, consequently, increased the ZT value [9, 55, 57, 66, 67, 84]. Nanostructure engineering, including the introduction of nanophases or heterostructures in HMS TE materials, is an effective route for increasing their power factors by controlling their interfacial properties, and also for decreasing  $\kappa_{lat}$  owing to the intensified phonon scattering at interfaces. Therefore, material design optimization should be implemented to maximize the increase in ZT.

# 2.3 Band Structure Modification

Band structure modification via the formation of point defects is an effective for increasing the power factor. Band structure modification strategies, including band convergence, band flattening, and resonant states, can increase the density of states near the Fermi level, which would result in the increase in S [86]. For Mg<sub>2</sub>S-based compounds, pseudo-binary (Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn, Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn-Mg<sub>2</sub>Ge, and Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn-Mg<sub>2</sub>Pb) and pseudo-ternary (Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn-Mg<sub>2</sub>Ge, Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn-Mg<sub>2</sub>Pb, and Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn-Mg<sub>2</sub>Ge-Mg<sub>2</sub>Pb) systems contributed to the band convergence effect [5, 6, 24, 87–99]. Moreover, alloying Mg<sub>2</sub>Si with Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn, Mg<sub>2</sub>Ge, or Mg<sub>2</sub>Pb reduced the  $\kappa_{lat}$  values of these Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based compounds owing to the intensified phonon scattering by point defects and nanoparticles. Therefore, the convergence of the conduction bands could lead to high ZT values. Figure 8 and Table 7 show the ZT values of the above-mentioned doped pseudo-binary and pseudo-ternary systems [5, 6, 24, 87-102]. The ZT values of these systems were higher (>1.0) than those of doped Mg<sub>2</sub>Si (Fig. 2).

The TE quality factor, B, was introduced to elucidate the mechanism of the increase in ZT via band convergence. The B factor, which depends on the thermal and electronic transport properties of materials, and also on ZT, can be expressed as follows [86]:

$$B = \frac{2k_Bh}{3\pi} \frac{N_\nu C_l}{m_l^* \Xi^2 \kappa_{lat}} T,$$
(6)

where *h* is the reduced Planck constant,  $N_v$  is the number of degenerated valleys of the band,  $C_l$  is the average longitudinal elastic moduli,  $m_l^*$  is the inertial effective mass, and  $\Xi$  is the deformation potential coefficient. The increase in  $N_v$  owing to the small energy separation ( $\Delta E$ ) between the light and heavy conduction bands (Fig. 9) led to the increase in *B*, which indicated that *ZT* could also be increased.

The Sb or Bi doped Mg<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>1-x</sub>Sn<sub>x</sub> ( $0.4 \le x \le 0.7$ ) has a high *ZT* (> 1.0) owing to the decrease in  $\kappa_{lat}$  and the increase in *S* [5, 6, 24, 87–95, 99]. Yin et al. determined that an increase in Ge content in pseudo-ternary Mg<sub>2</sub>Si–Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn–Mg<sub>2</sub>Ge system caused the improved *ZT* owing to smaller  $\Delta E$  and the intensified phonon scattering [95]. Liu et al. investigated the pseudo-binary Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn–Mg<sub>2</sub>Ge system [96, 97]. The *ZT* value of Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn<sub>0.73</sub>Ge<sub>0.25</sub>Sb<sub>0.02</sub> was higher than those of Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn systems owing to band convergence and Ge alloying. Moreover, they determined that Ge alloying caused the weighted mobility to increase, band gap to widen, and  $\kappa_{lat}$  to decrease [96].

According to Eq. (3), if  $m^*$  is high, S will also be high. Increasing  $m^*$  via doping could be caused by the increase in  $m_b^*$ . However,  $m_b^*$  is related to the  $\mu_{\text{Hall}}$  as follows:

$$m^* = N_v^{2/3} m_b^*, (7)$$

where  $m_h^*$  is the band effective mass of a single valley.



Fig. 5 Schematic, scanning electron microscopy, transmission electron microscopy, and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy images of microstructure of silicide-based thermoelectric nanocomposites:

**a** heterostructure, **b** nanoparticles/nanoinclusions, and **c** nanosheets/ nanowires. Here, rGO reduced graphene oxide. Reprinted with permission from [1]. Copyright 2019 J. Korean Ceram. Soc.)

$$\mu_{Hall} \propto \frac{1}{m_b^{*5/2}}.$$
(8)

of HMS by tuning  $m^*$  using a new fabrication process: the rapid solidification and shock wave process.

Therefore, increasing  $m^*$  via doping would not cause the power factor to increase owing to the decrease in  $\sigma$ , which was, in turn, caused by the decrease in  $\mu_{\text{Hall}}$  [103]. Kim et al. [4] and Lee et al. [63] increased  $m^*$  by doping Mg<sub>2</sub>Si and controlling the Si contents in HMS, and consequently, the power factor increased owing to the synergistic effect of the increase in  $n_c$  and  $m^*$  (Fig. 10a, b). Moreover, Gao et al. [67] and Shi et al. [104] increased the *S* value and power factor

Band structure modifications require precisely controlled cause the doping strategies to achieve high TE properties. Therefore, it is important to systematically control the composition of Kim et al. TE materials, because precisely manipulating their band structure could lead to the increase in their TE properties.



Fig.6 Figure of merit, ZT, as function of temperature for *n*-type  $Mg_2Si$  nanocomposites. Here, *NWs* nanowires, *NPs* nanoparticles, *MWCNT* multi-wall carbon nanotube, and *rGO* reduced graphene oxide

# 3 Improving Mechanical Properties of Silicide Bulk Materials

Evaluating the chemical and thermal stability, and also the mechanical reliability of TE materials is essential for the fabrication and commercialization of TE modules. The mechanical reliability of TE materials is the most important factor because thermal stress, which is induced by the temperature differences between the hot and cold sides, could cause the fracture of TE materials, and consequently the breakdown of all electric circuits of TE modules. Moreover, ATEG systems should be reliable and should be able to withstand the vibrations and shocks that occur during vehicle operation. However, Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based compounds can be easily fractured owing to their inherent brittle fracture characteristics compared with those of other TE materials. Therefore, improving the mechanical reliability of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si-based compounds should be pursued before fabricating silicide-based TE modules.

Fracture toughness ( $K_{\rm Ic}$ ) is an important factor for evaluating the mechanical reliability of materials. Materials that present high  $K_{\rm Ic}$  exhibit high mechanical reliability because crack propagation does not occur actively when cracks form. Therefore, the introduction of secondary phases into materials is an effective strategy for enhancing their  $K_{\rm Ic}$  by preventing the crack propagation.

Three representative mechanisms: crack propagation deflection, crack bridging, and sheet pull-out, could be used to increase  $K_{\rm Ic}$  [105]. When cracks propagate, propagation is interrupted when a secondary phase that presents high

Material	Nanophase	$n_{\rm c} \ (10^{20} \ {\rm cm}^{-3})$	$\sigma$ (S cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$S (\mu V K^{-1})$	PF	$K_{ m tot}$	$K_{\text{lat}}$	$T(\mathbf{K}) \ \mathbf{Z}$	T Synthesis method <sup>a</sup>	References
					$(\mu W \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-2})$	(W m <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup> )	(W m <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup> )			
$Mg_{2,16}(Si_{0,3}Sn_{0,7})_{0.98}Sb_{0,02} + 0.008 SiC_W$	SiC nanowires	2.35	1152.56	-198.82	45.55	2.85		750 1	20 SSR-SPS	[72]
Al-doped Mg <sub>2</sub> Si + 0.1% CaO	CaO		372.99	-224.22	18.75	2.08	1.26	873 0	76 SSR-BM-SPS	[73]
Al and Bi co-doped $Mg_2Si + NPs$	Al	0.90	623.22	-182.71	20.80	2.79	1.41	873 0	65 SSR-metal NPs decoration-SPS	[27]
Al and Bi co-doped $Mg_2Si + NPs$	Sn	0.95	575.43	- 190.44	20.87	2.61	1.35	873 0	70 SSR-metal NPs decoration-SPS	[27]
Al and Bi co-doped $Mg_2Si + NPs$	Cu	0.96	488.18	-193.14	18.21	2.63	1.57	873 0	61 SSR-metal NPs decoration-SPS	[27]
Sb-doped $Mg_2Si + Cu$ binder	Cu							873 0	81 PAS	[74]
Mg <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>0.676</sub> Ge <sub>0.3</sub> Bi <sub>0.024</sub> /0.5 wt% SiC	SiC	0.67	396.00	-212.00	17.80	1.82	1.31	773 0	75 SSR-mixer mill-HP	[75]
$Mg_2Si_{0.877}Ge_{0.1}Bi_{0.023}/0.5 wt\% MWCNT$	MWCNT	0.76	470.00	-200.00	18.80	2.20	1.60	773 0	67 SSR-annealing-mixer mill-HP	[92]
Al and Bi co doped $Mg_2Si + Sn NPs$	Sn	0.97	529.28	- 190.58	19.22	2.53	1.61	873 0	66 SSR-metal NPs decoration-SPS	[77]
Al and Bi co doped $Mg_2Si + rGO$	rGO	0.59	375.27	-195.57	14.35	2.14	1.34	873 0	59 SSR-wet chemical mixing-SPS	[68]
Al and Bi co doped $Mg_2Si + rGO + Sn$ NPs	rGO+Sn	0.71	346.58	- 198.08	13.60	2.10	1.46	873 0	<i>S7</i> SSR-wet chemical mixing- metal NPs decoration-SPS	[78]
1 mol% Bi doped $Mg_2Si + 2.5 mol\% Si$	Si	1.17	658.00	-204.00	27.38	3.10	2.00	775 0	68 BM-SSR-SPS	[79]
<sup>a</sup> <i>NPs</i> nanoparticles										

**Table 5** Thermoelectric properties and typical synthesis methods of n-type Mg<sub>2</sub>Si nanocomposites



**Fig.7** Figure of merit, *ZT*, as function of temperature for *p*-type higher manganese silicide nanocomposites. Here, *NWs* nanowires and *MWCNT* multi-wall carbon nanotube

 $K_{\rm Ic}$  is reached. This is the main mechanism for increasing  $K_{\rm Ic}$  and can be observed when nanophases are introduced in nanocomposites [27, 77]. Crack bridging and pull-out are mechanisms for increasing  $K_{\rm Ic}$  that occur mainly in nanocomposites with one-dimensional (1D) and two-dimensional (2D) nanophases. Low-dimensional nanophases can interfere with crack propagation by absorbing the crack propagation energy [68, 72]. Additionally, since the contact area of the 2D nanophase is wider than that of the 1D nanophase, crack propagation energy can be absorbed more effectively in nanocomposites with 2D nanophases [105]. Therefore, the contents, morphologies, and intrinsic properties of the nanophases should be precisely controlled, because  $K_{\rm Ic}$  highly depends on the microstructure of nancomposites.

Kim et al. demonstrated the relationship between the TE properties and  $K_{Ic}$  values when various nanophases, such as metal NPs, rGO, and dual nanoinclusions, were introduced into Mg<sub>2</sub>Si. They also reported the dependence of the TE and mechanical properties on the dimensions of the nanophases [27, 68, 77, 78]. Figure 11 shows the  $K_{Ic}$  values of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si nanocomposites. The  $K_{Ic}$  of the 3-dimensional nanophases (metal NPs) was 1.10 MPa m<sup>1/2</sup> and was achieved via crack propagation deflection; nonetheless, the effect was insufficient owing to interface density saturation. However, for 2D nanophases, all three  $K_{Ic}$  enhancement mechanisms were activated, and the highest achieved  $K_{Ic}$  was 1.88 MPa m<sup>1/2</sup> [68]. Moreover, the crack propagation deflection mechanism was strengthened by introducing dual nanoinclusions (metal NPs and rGO), which resulted

lable 6 Thermoelectric p	roperties and typical synth	nesis method of th	ie <i>p</i> -type HMS	nanocompos	ites						
Material	Nanophase <sup>a</sup>	$n_{\rm c}  (10^{20}  {\rm cm}^{-3})$	$\sigma$ (S cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$S (\mu V K^{-1})$	$\begin{array}{c} PF \\ (\mu W \ cm^{-1} \\ K^{-2}) \end{array}$	$\stackrel{K_{\mathrm{tot}}}{(\mathrm{W} \mathrm{m}^{-1})} \mathrm{K}^{-1}$	$\stackrel{K_{lat}}{(W m^{-1})} K^{-1}$	$T(\mathbf{K})$	ZT	Synthesis method	References
MnSi <sub>1.746</sub> Te <sub>0.003</sub>	Te nanowire	2.00	300.00	230.00	15.90	1.86	1.50	823	0.70	Wet BM-SPS	[8]
HMS+1 wt% MWCNT	MWCNT	3.00	271.17	211.94	12.23	2.62		850	0.40	BM-SPS	[81]
(HMS) <sub>0.99</sub> (MnS) <sub>0.01</sub>	MnS	1.87	295.97	224.67	14.94	2.09	1.49	823	0.59	BM-SPS	[34]
$MnSi_{1.73} + 5\% Mg_2Si$	$Mg_2Si$	1.21	326.68	222.56	16.15	2.69	2.39	773	0.47	Melting-BM-SPS	[82]
MnSi <sub>1.75</sub> +3% MnSi	In situ nanoscale MnSi	0.29	408.53	206.55	17.28	2.75	2.03	723	0.46	IM-quenching-SPS	[83]
${ m Re}_{0.04}{ m Mn}_{0.96}{ m Si}_{1.8}$	In situ nanoscale MnSi	2.30	375.81	227.92	19.11	2.49	2.00	823	0.64	Melting-quenching-BM-SPS	[84]
MnSi <sub>1.73</sub> +1% Yb	Yb	1.75	384.62	191.73	14.14	3.06		873	0.40	Wet BM-SPS	[85]
<sup>a</sup> <i>MWCNT</i> multi-walled ca	rbon nanotube										



Fig.8 Figure of merit, ZT, as function of temperature for *n*-type pseudo-binary ( $Mg_2Si-Mg_2Sn$ ,  $Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Ge$ , and  $Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Pb$ ) and pseudo-ternary ( $Mg_2Si-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Ge$ ,  $Mg_2Si-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Pb$ , and  $Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Ge-Mg_2Pb$ ) systems

in the high  $K_{\rm Ic}$  value of 2.26 MPa m<sup>1/2</sup> [78]. Additionally, Yin et al. achieved the  $K_{\rm Ic}$  value of 1.36 MPa m<sup>1/2</sup> by introducing SiC nanowires at the grain boundaries and studied the effect of the nanophase morphology (nanoparticles and nanowires) on the mechanical reliability behavior of materials [72].

However, a significant trade-off relationship exists between ZT and  $K_{Ic}$ . Figure 12 depicts the relationship between ZT and  $K_{Ic}$  for Mg<sub>2</sub>Si nanocomposites. The increase in interface density between the nanophase and the matrix caused the decrease in TE properties of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si nanocomposites due to the decrease in  $\mu_{Hall}$ . Therefore, it is important to identify an optimal nanophase that could improve the mechanical properties of materials while maintaining their TE properties. Moreover, it is important to design rule that can achieve a high trade-off relationship between the TE and mechanical properties of TE materials.

# 4 Summary and Perspective

Herein, we summarize the methods for increasing the TE and mechanical properties of silicide-based TE materials. Although silicide-based TE materials have received significant attention as ATEGs, their practical applications are still hindered by many limitations. Various strategies, such as composition tuning,  $n_c$  optimization, nanostructuring, nanocomposite engineering, band convergence, and effective mass tuning, have been used to overcome these limitations, and led to achieving ZT values of 1.6 and 1.0 for n-type Mg<sub>2</sub>Si and *p*-type HMS, respectively. Moreover, the high  $K_{\rm Lc}$  value of 2.26 MPa m<sup>1/2</sup> was achieved for Mg<sub>2</sub>Si via the introduction of nanophases to overcome its low mechanical reliability. However, researchers should continue to develop strategies for improving the TE properties and mechanical reliability of the silicide-bases TE materials. Band and nanostructure engineering were particularly important for overcoming the trade-off relationships between  $n_c$  and S,  $\mu_{Hall}$ and  $\kappa_{lat}$ , and ZT and  $K_{lc}$ . Moreover, the novel technique that enables us to design the material is a prerequisite. Hence, a systematic strategy that combines calculations and experimental results should be established to achieve the optimized composition and microstructure design.

Moreover, not only the development of TE materials but also the development of bonding, diffusion barrier, and electrode materials are required. Research on increasing the mechanical properties of TE materials, engineering surface coating and sealing technologies to improve the chemical stability of silicide-based materials, and developing diffusion barrier and bonding materials are important research areas for expanding the commercial applications of silicidebased TE modules.

Although researchers are still facing challenges in their attempts to improve the TE properties of silicide-based TE materials and to develop high-efficiency TE modules, systematic studies and efforts could lead to significant progress in this field.

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Mg <sub>2</sub> Sn–Mg <sub>2</sub> Ge, Mg <sub>2</sub> Si–Mg <sub>2</sub> Sn	-Mg <sub>2</sub> Pb,	and Mg <sub>2</sub> Sn–Mg <sub>2</sub> Ge–	Mg <sub>2</sub> Pb) systems		70	0 (70	70	70	· - 70-			70
Material	Dopant	Alloying elements	$n_{\rm c} \ (10^{20} \ {\rm cm}^{-3})$	τ (S cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$S (\mu V K^{-1})$	$\begin{array}{c} PF \\ (\mu W \ cm^{-1} \\ K^{-2}) \end{array}$	$ \substack{ K_{\rm tot} \\ (W \ m^{-1}) \\ K^{-1} ) } $	$rac{K_{ m lat}}{(W} { m m}^{-1} { m K}^{-1})$	$T(\mathbf{K})$	ZT	Synthesis method	References
${ m Mg_2Si_{0.677}Ge_{0.3}Bi_{0.023}}$	Bi	Si. Ge	0.69	396.00	-200.00	15.84	1.71	1.22	773	0.71	SSR-annealing-HP	[100]
$La_{0.01}Mg_{1.99}Si_{0.49}Ge_{0.5}Sb_{0.01}$	Sb, La	Si, Ge	0.70	859.26	-185.06	29.74	2.20	0.55	823	1.00	SSR-annealing-SPS	[101]
${\rm Al}_{0.05}{ m Mg}_2{ m Si}_{0.73}{ m Sn}_{0.27}$	AI	Si, Sn	1.16	215.18	-269.26	15.67	1.96		790	0.63	SSR-SPS	[102]
$Mg_2Si_{0.5875}Sn_{0.4}Sb_{0.0125}$	$\mathbf{Sb}$	Si, Sn	2.70	893.31	-211.55	39.93	2.19		783	1.40	3PA-SPS	[87]
Sb doped $Mg_2Si_{0.5}Sn_{0.5}$	Sb	Si, Sn		469.92	-234.89	25.81	0.98	0.49	615	1.63	Melting-SPS (press-less sintering)	[9]
$Mg_{2.2}Si_{0.49}Sn_{0.5}Sb_{0.01}$	Sb	Si, Sn	1.92	635.99	-226.58	32.65	2.08	1.15	800	1.25	SSR-SPS	[88]
$Mg_{2.16}Si_{0.45}Sn_{0.537}Sb_{0.013}$	$\mathbf{Sb}$	Si, Sn	2.03	785.60	-207.82	33.93	2.48	1.55	725	1.00	Flux method-HP	[68]
${\rm Mg}_2({\rm Si}_{0.4}{\rm Sn}_{0.6}){\rm Sb}_{0.018}$	Sb	Si, Sn	1.82	724.62	-230.50	38.50	1.85	0.66	673	1.40	3M-SPS	[06]
$Mg_{2.16}(Si_{0.4}Sn_{0.6})_{0.985}Sb_{0.015}$	Sb	Si, Sn	1.67	736.53	-221.94	36.46	2.06	1.97	740	1.30	SSR-SPS	[91]
$Mg_2Si_{1-x}Sn_xSb$	Sb	Si, Sn	1.70	778.74	-235.72	44.32	2.33		700	1.30	SSR-SPS	[ <mark>5</mark> ]
$Mg_{2.08}Si_{0.37}Sn_{0.6}Bi_{0.03}$	Bi	Si, Sn		1021.28	-207.14	44.18	2.18		773	1.55	Flux method-PECS	[24]
$Mg_2Si_{0.3}Sn_{0.665}Bi_{0.035}$	Bi	Si, Sn	3.00	1024.31	-205.94	43.44	2.40	0.99	773	1.40	SSR-BM-HP	[92]
$Mg_2(Si_{0.3}Sn_{0.7})_{0.985}Bi_{0.015}$	Bi	Si, Sn	2.05	938.93	-214.50	43.09	2.39	1.32	700	1.30	SSR-SPS	[93]
$Mg_2Si_{0.5375}Sn_{0.4}Ge_{0.05}Sb_{0.0125}$	$\mathbf{Sb}$	Si, Sn, Ge		667.93	-221.55	32.78	2.17	1.30	800	1.20	SSR-BM-annealing-HP	[94]
$\begin{array}{l} Mg_{2.16}(Si_{0.3}Ge_{0.05}Sn_{0.65})_{0.98}\\ Sb_{0.02} \end{array}$	Sb	Si, Sn, Ge		967.32	-215.52	45.00	2.35	1.85	750	1.45	SSR-SPS	[95]
${ m Mg_2Si_{0.53}Sn_{0.4}Ge_{0.05}Bi_{0.02}}$	Bi	Si, Sn, Ge		747.18	-215.51	34.70	1.98	1.04	800	1.40	SSR-BM-annealing-HP	[94]
$Mg_2Sn_{0.73}Ge_{0.25}Sb_{0.02}$	$\mathbf{Sb}$	Sn, Ge		994.29	-227.64	51.79	2.79		723	1.40	3M-HP	[96]
${ m Mg_2Sn_{0.73}Ge_{0.25}Sb_{0.02}}$	$\mathbf{Sb}$	Sn, Ge		1112.72	-220.09	53.93	2.74	1.20	723	1.40	3M-HP	[77]
${ m Mg_2Sn_{0.73}Ge_{0.25}Bi_{0.02}}$	Bi	Sn, Ge	1.63	1095.01	-217.84	51.54	2.50		673	1.40	3M-HP	[98]
$Mg_2Sn_{0.93}Pb_{0.05}Sb_{0.02}$	$\mathbf{Sb}$	Sn, Pb		1679.69	-170.81	48.06	4.29	2.41	676	0.77	3M-HP	[66]
$Mg_2Sn_{0.63}Si_{0.3}Pb_{0.05}Sb_{0.02}$	$\mathbf{Sb}$	Si, Sn, Pb	2.83	1102.21	-206.69	46.34	2.61	1.38	723	1.30	3M-HP	[66]
$Mg_2Sn_{0.68}Ge_{0.25}Pb_{0.05}Sb_{0.02}$	Sb	Sn, Ge, Pb	2.30	960.25	-212.11	43.59	2.55	1.52	673	1.20	3M-HP	[66]

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Mg <sub>2</sub> Sn–Mg <sub>2</sub> Pb) and pseud	Complexity mathed
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$[g_2Ge, Mg_2$	2
Mg <sub>2</sub> Si–M	2
Thermoelectric properties and typical synthetic method of the <i>n</i> -type pseudo-binary ( $Mg_2Si-Mg_2Sn$ , $Mg_2Ge$ , $Mg_2Si-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Ge$ , $Mg_2Si-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn$ , $Mg_2Ge$ , $Mg_2Si-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn$ , $Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn$ , $Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn-Mg_2Sn$ , $Mg_2Sn-Mg$	$\mathbf{D}_{max} = \mathbf{A}   1_{max} = \mathbf{A}   1$
Table 7 Mg <sub>2</sub> Sn–]	Matorial



**Fig. 9** Schematic electronic band structure of Mg<sub>2</sub>Si–Mg<sub>2</sub>Sn system as function of Sn content. Here,  $C_H$ =heavy conduction band,  $C_L$ =light conduction band,  $E_g$ =band gap,  $\Delta E$ =energy separation between  $C_L$  and  $C_H$ , and V=valence band. Reprinted with permission from [5]. Copyright 2012 American Physical Society)

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**Fig. 11** Fracture toughness,  $K_{Ic}$ , values of various Mg<sub>2</sub>Si nanocomposites. Here, *rGO* reduced graphene oxide,  $SiC_w$  SiC wire, and  $SiC_p$  SiC particle



**Fig. 12** Dependence of fracture toughness ( $K_{Ic}$ ) on figure of merit, ZT for various Mg<sub>2</sub>Si nanocomposites

Fig. 10 Seebeck coefficient, *S*, as function of carrier concentration,  $n_c$ , of a *n*-type Mg<sub>2</sub>Si at 873 K and b *p*-type higher manganese silicide at 300 K [4, 63]



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