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Enhanced thermoelectric performance of two dimensional MS₂ (M = Mo, W) through phase engineering

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A B S T R A C T

The potential application of monolayer MS₂ (M = Mo, W) as thermoelectric material has been widely studied since the first report of successful fabrication. However, their performances are hindered by the considerable band gap and the large lattice thermal conductivity in the pristine 2H phase. Recent discoveries of polymorphism in MS₂ provide new opportunities for materials engineering. In this work, phonon and electron transport properties of both 2H and 1T phases were investigated by first-principle calculations. It is found that upon the phase transition from 2H to 1T in MS₂, the electron transport is greatly enhanced, while the lattice thermal conductivity is reduced by several times. These features lead to a significant enhancement of power factor by one order of magnitude in MoS₂ and by three times in WS₂. Meanwhile, the figure of merit can reach up to 0.33 for 1T–MoS₂ and 0.68 for 1T–WS₂ at low temperature. These findings indicate that monolayer MS₂ in the 1T phase can be promising materials for thermoelectric devices application. Meanwhile, this work demonstrates that phase engineering techniques can bring in one important control parameter in materials design.

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1. Introduction

Monolayer MS₂ (M = Mo or W) stand out of the emerging two dimensional materials majorly due to their unique electronic properties, which have inspired various applications in optoelectronics [1–6], valleytronics [7–10], and piezoelectrics [11–13]. More recently, the thermoelectric (TE) properties of monolayer MS₂ (2D-MS₂) have also been studied theoretically [8,14–22] and the results show that they may be potential thermoelectric materials [8,14–22], in spite of a relatively large thermal conductivity (TC).

However, the figure-of-merit in 2D-MS₂ needs to be further improved to be competitive with the concurrent bulk thermoelectric materials, e.g. Bi₂Te₃ [23,24], SnSe [25,26] and PbTe [27,28]. On one hand, the electronic band gap of 2D-MS₂ is larger than 1.5 eV [6,29] which is too large for thermoelectric application. On the other hand, the lattice TC of 2D-MS₂ should be further reduced to further improve the figure-of-merit.

More recently, the probing of polymorphism [30–34] yields a new opportunity to optimize the thermoelectric performance of MS₂. The 2H → T structural phase transition can be triggered and stabilized through either defect engineering [33,35–38], intercalation [32,39,40] or strain engineering [31,41,42]. Previous studies suggested that 1T-MS₂ is metallic but not stable as free standing, and a Mott transition accompanied by lattice distortion occurs.

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resulting in a 1T phase with a narrow band gap [43–45]. The small electronic band gap in 1T-MS2 could be beneficial for electron transport due to small activation energy. Besides, the 1T phase has a lower symmetry than the 2H phase [31], thus possibly leading to significant reductions in lattice TC. All these properties indicate that 2D MS2 with 1T phase could have improved thermoelectric properties compared to the 2H phase, thus might be better for energy harvesting or sensing.

Nevertheless, quantitative studies about the thermal and electron transport properties of 1T-MS2 are still lacking. It is then necessary to perform a systematic investigation on the thermoelectric performance of 2D MS2 in 1T phase. In this study, we unravel the influence of the 2H→1T phase transition on the thermoelectric performance of MS2 by first principles calculations. We find that the lattice TC is greatly decreased while the electron transport properties are largely enhanced in 1T-MS2 compared with 2H-MS2, thus promoting about one order of magnitude enhancement of figure of merit in 1T-MS2 compared with 2H-MS2 at room temperature. Specifically, the maximum figure of merit can reach 0.68 for 1T-WS2 at the temperature of 200 K. Our theoretical findings demonstrate that 1T—MoS2 and 1T—WS2 are viable candidates for thermoelectric applications. Moreover, with various phase engineering techniques available, low dimensional thermoelectric devices with flexible and controllable properties can be achieved.

2. Methodology

2.1. Density functional theory calculations

First-principles density functional theory (DFT) calculations employing the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional and projector augmented-wave (PAW) [46–50] method were performed using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [51]. For electronic self-consistent calculations on electronic structure, a 47×47×1 k-grid is used for obtained eigenvalues. In order to guarantee accuracy of the calculations, an energy cutoff of 800 eV is used in all calculations. The vacuum space between the monolayer and its neighboring periodic image is set to 20 Å (along the direction perpendicular to the monolayer), which is sufficient to eliminate image interactions.

2.2. Lattice thermal conductivity calculations

We use density-functional perturbation theory (DFPT) [52] as implemented in Quantum Espresso package [53] to calculate harmonic second order interatomic force constants (IFCs) with 10×10×1 k-point grid and 10×10×1 q-point mesh (corresponding to 10×10×1 supercell) for 2H phases, and 8×16×1 k-point grid and 8×8×1 q-point mesh (corresponding to 8×8×1 supercell) for 1T phases. Anharmonic third order force constants for the calculation of lattice thermal conductivity are computed by finite differences (∆l = 0.01 Å), in a 5×5×1 supercell containing 75 atoms for 2H phase and in a 4×4×1 supercell containing 96 atoms for 1T phase, with a cutoff interatomic distance larger than 8 t nearest neighbor. Translational invariance is enforced using the Lagrangian approach [54]. The linearized phonon Boltzmann equation (LBTE) was solved self-consistently using ShengBTE code [54–56]. It is necessary to take iterative self-consistent (SCF) calculations, since relaxation time approximation (RTA) underestimates the thermal conductivity.

The lattice TC tensor can then be written as:

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{Nv_0} \sum_{\lambda} C_{\lambda} v_\lambda \otimes v_\lambda \tau_\lambda$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $v_0$ is the volume of the unit cell, $C_{\lambda}$ is the mode dependent heat capacity, $v_\lambda$ and $\tau_\lambda$ are the group velocity and the relaxation time of the phonon mode $\lambda$ respectively.

The convergence thresholds for electronic self-consistent calculation and for ionic relaxation are $10^{-6}$ Ry and $10^{-10}$ Ry/au, respectively. The convergence of thermal conductivity with q-point grids was carefully checked up to 151×151×1, 27×55×1, 201×201×1 and 51×101×1 respectively for 2H—MoS2, 1T—MoS2, 2H—WS2 and 1T—WS2. (Detailed convergence tests in supporting information.)

2.3. Semi-classical Boltzmann transport theory

Semi-classical Boltzmann transport theory with constant relaxation time approximation has been employed to evaluate the electron transport properties. As implemented in BOLTZTRAP code [57], the electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient are calculated by defining the following Fermi integrals [57]:

$$L^{(a)} = e^2 \sum_{n, \nu} \int \frac{dk}{4\pi^3} \left( \frac{\partial f(e_{nk})}{\partial e_{nk}} \right) v_{n\nu}(e_{nk} - \mu)^a$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

Where $e$ is the charge of electrons and $\mu$ is the electron chemical potential, $\tau_n$ refers to the averaged relaxation time of electrons averaged by wavevector $k$, $v_{n\nu}$, $f(e_{nk})$ and $\mu$ represent the group velocity, energy eigenvalues and Fermi–Dirac function of nth band at the wavevector $k$. A dense k-point mesh of 47×47×1 has been adopted to obtain the Kohn-Sham energies to evaluate the transport coefficients.

2.4. Electron relaxation time calculations

The relaxation time in either armchair (AC) or zigzag (ZZ) direction can be modeled according to the Shockley’s deformation potential theory:

$$\tau_{XX} = \frac{2\hbar^3 C_{XX}}{3\pi k_B T |m_{eff}| D_{XX}^2}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

While in equation (3) $C_{XX}$ and $D_{XX}$ corresponding to the stretching modulus and deformation potential constant in direction $XX$, respectively. The stretching modulus $C_{XX}$ can be obtained according to the linear elastic mechanics. While $D_{XX}$ can be computed on base on the method proposed by Bardeen and Shockley [6,8,58,59], i.e., the deformation potential tensor $D_{XX} = \Delta E / (\epsilon_{XX})$ is determined by band energy shifting $\Delta E$ and lattice strain $\epsilon_{XX}$. Meanwhile, $k_B$ and $\hbar$ correspond to the Boltzmann constant and reduced Planck constant respectively, while $T$ represents the temperature and $m^*$ refers to the effective mass of electrons.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structure, vibrational properties and lattice TC

The atomic configurations of 2H and 1T phases are illustrated in Fig. 1a-(b), the two-dimensional 2H-MS2 monolayers possess a hexagonal lattice so that the optimized geometries give $a_0 = a_\rho$. After transition from 2H phase into 1T phase, the symmetry will break down: the top layer of S atom slides into the center of original MoS2 hexagonal lattice, while the two adjacent Mo atoms are...
dimerized to form a $2 \times 1$ supercell.

Due to the structural transition from 2H to 1T, the phonon dispersion curves of both compounds are modified dramatically. In the 2H phases, the acoustic and optical branches are separated by a gap: especially in the 2H-WS$_2$ structure, the phonon band gap is as large as 108 cm$^{-1}$. Such a large band gap limits the energy and momentum conserving phonon-phonon scattering processes, resulting in a relatively large lattice TC of 2H-WS$_2$. While in the 1T phases, due to the lower symmetry and the larger number of atoms in the unit cells, the phonon band gap between optical and acoustic modes disappears completely, thus providing many more phonon scattering channels.

The vanishing of phonon band gaps enhances the density of scattering channels among acoustic and optical phonons, leading to a major reduction of phonon lifetimes. Such reduced phonon lifetimes lead to huge reduction of both $\kappa_{AC}^{\text{latt}}$ and $\kappa_{ZZ}^{\text{latt}}$ at 300 K (Table 1). The $\kappa_{AC}^{\text{latt}}$ values obtained in 1T phases (27.9 W/mK for $\kappa_{AC}^{\text{latt}}$ and 32.2 W/mK for $\kappa_{ZZ}^{\text{latt}}$ in MoS$_2$ and 32.8 W/mK for $\kappa_{AC}^{\text{latt}}$ and 38.9 W/mK for $\kappa_{ZZ}^{\text{latt}}$ in WS$_2$) are around four times smaller than the corresponding 2H phase. The $\kappa_{XX}^{\text{latt}}$ cumulative functions with frequency (Fig. 1c–f) demonstrate that the acoustic phonons are the major contributors to the total $\kappa_{XX}^{\text{latt}}$ in 2H phases: the optical phonons contribute less than 1% to the overall $\kappa_{XX}^{\text{latt}}$. With the reduction of total $\kappa_{XX}^{\text{latt}}$ in 1T phase, the optical contribution increases to ~20% to the overall $\kappa_{XX}^{\text{latt}}$. It is worth mentioning that our calculated TCs for both materials are in good agreement with experimental results [15,16,18,21,60–64]. It is also worth mention that the force field based molecular dynamic simulations, will either fail to predict the metastable 1T phase [14,65] or underestimate the thermal conductivity (Tab. S1).

Another significant difference between the 2H and 1T phases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Properties</th>
<th>$\kappa_{AC}^{\text{latt}}$</th>
<th>$\kappa_{ZZ}^{\text{latt}}$</th>
<th>$\kappa_{AC}^{\text{opt}}$</th>
<th>$\kappa_{ZZ}^{\text{opt}}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2H–MoS$_2$</td>
<td>130.3 (82 [60])</td>
<td>130.3 (82 [60])</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1T–MoS$_2$</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>8.24</td>
<td>8.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2H–WS$_2$</td>
<td>136.0 (120 [60])</td>
<td>136.0 (120 [60])</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1T–WS$_2$</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>9.15</td>
<td>9.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
is that 2H phase shows no anisotropy in TC along zigzag and armchair directions, due to the hexagonal symmetry. However, when the structure changes to 1T phase, the $k_{\text{latt}}^{\text{ZZ}}$ of 1T phase is larger than that of $k_{\text{latt}}^{\text{AC}}$, which makes it possible to further engineer the thermoelectric performance of 1T-MS$_2$s with lattice orientations.

3.2. Electronic structure and transport properties

The electronic band structure is calculated by considering the spin-orbit coupling and the band structures of MS$_2$ in both 2H and 1T phases are shown in Fig. 2. Consistent with previous calculations [6], the 2H phases exhibit large band gaps around 1.6 eV, which lead to small electrical conductivity without doping and thus make it less efficient for TE energy conversion. However, the large electronic band gaps are reduced to be smaller than 0.1 eV associating with the structural transition from 2H to 1T phase, which are consistent with previous theoretical predictions [45] as well as experimental observations [66]. The narrowed band gaps in 1T phase lead to dramatic enhancement of electrical conductivity, which is beneficial for TE applications. Meanwhile, the original direct band gap will transform into indirect ones.

To get more details on the electronic transport properties, the effective mass $m_{\text{eff}}$, $\tau_{\text{XX}}$ ($\text{XX} = \text{AC}, \text{ZZ}$) together with the deformation potentials $D_{\text{XX}}$, are calculated based on the electronic band structure. As indicated in Table 2, with the transition from 2H to 1T phase, both the effective mass and deformation potential are reduced, demonstrating that the charge carriers can travel faster and have weaker interactions with phonons in 1T phase. As a result, the relaxation time is enhanced dramatically in both zigzag and armchair directions of both 1T-MoS$_2$ and 1T-WS$_2$. For the 2H phase, our calculated results are comparable to the literature results, indicating the validity of our calculations on 2H phases. While for the 1T phase, there is no report on the effective mass, deformation potential and electron relaxation time. We realize that the relaxation times of 1T phases are enhanced by more than one order of magnitude compared to that of the 2H phases except the zigzag direction of 1T-WS$_2$. Experimental measurements demonstrated that 1T phases are very good electrical conductor [45,67,68], however, computing the charge relaxation time for such phases using the deformation potential approach is prone to large uncertainty, due to the very narrow gap and the shape of the conduction valley. To safely estimate the electrical conductivity, we will then adopt the relaxation time of 2H phases also for the 1T phases, which provides a conservative estimate of their electrical conductivity.

To obtain the thermoelectric properties, we calculated the electrical conductivity $\Sigma_{\text{XX}}$ based on the commonly used semiclassical Boltzmann transport theory, and the results are shown in Fig. 3. Due to the 2D nature of the monolayer materials we are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Properties</th>
<th>$m_{\text{eff}}$ (me)</th>
<th>$D_{\text{AC}}$(eV)</th>
<th>$D_{\text{ZZ}}$(eV)</th>
<th>$C_{\text{AC}}$(N/m)</th>
<th>$C_{\text{ZZ}}$(N/m)</th>
<th>$\tau_{\text{AC}}$(fs)</th>
<th>$\tau_{\text{ZZ}}$(fs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2H-MoS$_2$</td>
<td>0.44 (0.45 [70])</td>
<td>8.61</td>
<td>8.61</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>40.9 (51.7 [14])</td>
<td>40.9 (51.7 [14])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1T-MoS$_2$</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>866</td>
<td>455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2H-WS$_2$</td>
<td>0.36 (0.37 [71])</td>
<td>9.01</td>
<td>9.01</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1T-WS$_2$</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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discussing, the doping concentration is set as the dopant number per unit area, which takes the unit of cm\(^{-2}\). The upper limit of doping concentration is set well below the experimental achievability \((4 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2})\) in 2D materials [69].

The constant relaxation times obtained from DFT calculations are used to evaluate the electrical conductivity. As mentioned above, the relaxation time of the corresponding 2H phases are adopted for the electrical conductivity calculation of 1T phase as a very conservative estimation. As illustrated in Fig. 3, \(\sigma_{XX}\) increases with the increase of doping concentration in 2H-MS\(_2\)s, and the obtained values agree with previous reports [14]. The 2H→1T phase transition significantly changes the electrical conductivity, which varies non-monotonically with doping concentration. However, in general, the electrical conductivity in 1T phase is greatly enhanced compared to that of the 2H phase. Such improvement can be attributed to the shrinkage of band gap and reduction of effective mass since the same relaxation time is adopted.

Meanwhile, the Seebeck coefficient of the two compounds is slightly reduced at low doping concentrations due to the 2H→1T phase transition. Such reduction of \(S\) stems from the narrowed band gap of 1T-MS\(_2\)s, which makes them behave similar to metals. However, with the increase of doping concentration, the \(S_{XX}\) of 2H-MS\(_2\)s will be comparable with those of 1T-MS\(_2\)s. This indicates that the power factor \((\varepsilon S^2)\) should be considerably enhanced at optimized doping concentrations.

### 3.3. Power factor and figure of merit

With all the values obtained above, the thermoelectric performance of 1T-MS\(_2\)s and 2H-MS\(_2\)s can be evaluated. The power factor (PF) taking the form \(PF_{XX} = \sigma_{XX} S_{XX}^2\) and the figure of merit \(ZT_{XX} = \sigma_{XX} S_{XX}^2 T / (\kappa_{XX} + \kappa_{Latt})\) are calculated and the obtained results are demonstrated in Fig. 4. Being consistent with previous theoretical calculations [14,19,70], \(PF_{XX}\) and \(ZT_{XX}\) for 2H-MoS\(_2\) are no more than 0.005 Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\) and 0.012 respectively at 300 K (Fig. 4a), which is quite low to serve as ideal thermoelectric materials. Similarly, 2H-WS\(_2\) (Fig. 4b) possesses \(PF_{XX}\) no more than 0.12 Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\) and \(ZT_{XX}\) smaller than 0.05. However, with the phase transition from 2H→1T, both \(PF_{XX}\) and \(ZT_{XX}\) are greatly improved for both p-type and n-type doping. Particularly, \(PF_{XX}\) for n-type doped 1T-MoS\(_2\) reaches the maximum of around 0.053 Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\) while the peak \(ZT\) can be as large as 0.27. Those values turn out to be 10 times and 23 times higher than those of 2H phase. For p-type doped 1T-MoS\(_2\), the peak \(ZT\) can also reach around 0.1 in both AC and ZZ directions. The large \(ZT\) value of n-type doped 1T-MoS\(_2\) indicates that it is a good n-type TE material. For n-type doped 1T-WS\(_2\), similar with 1T-MoS\(_2\), the peak power factor is much higher than for p-type. Nevertheless, the peak \(ZT\) of p-type doped 1T-WS\(_2\) in the AC direction is

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**Fig. 3.** Electrical conductivity \(\sigma_{XX}\) and Seebeck Coefficient \(S_{XX}\) as the function of the doping concentration for (a) 2H-MoS\(_2\); (b) 1T-MoS\(_2\); (c) 2H-WS\(_2\); (d) 1T-WS\(_2\).
comparable to that of n-type doped. And the best $ZT$ can reach up to 0.65, 13 times larger than that of 2H-WS$_2$ and comparable to many state-of-art TE materials [72–74]. This result also indicates that 1T–WS$_2$ can be good TE material for both n-type and p-type applications, but when used for p-type TE material, one should specifically choose the AC direction to maximize the energy conversion efficiency. This large anisotropy of $ZT$ value in AC and ZZ direction also gives the possibility for further enhance the TE figure-of-merit, e.g., fabricate nanoribbons in the AC direction. It is also worth mentioning that the significant improvements of thermoelectric efficiency not only origin from the decrease of lattice thermal conductivity, but also come from the great enhancement of electron transport. The significant enhancement of electron transport in two-dimensional transition metal chalcogenides have already been reported and demonstrated both experimentally and theoretically in the literature [45,67,68].

Since TE materials are served in a temperature range, we have also studied the temperature effect of $ZT$ for both 2H-MoS$_2$ and 1T–MS$_2$. The $ZT$ value in the temperature range from 200 K to 800 K is evaluated in Fig. 5(b)–(e). The doping concentration with highest $ZT_{XX}$ under 300 K are chosen to illustrate the limit of performance. It is shown in Fig. 5(b) that the maximum $ZT_{XX}$ stays 0.02 at 400 K for 2H–MoS$_2$ and further elevation of temperature will reduce $ZT_{XX}$. On the other hand, the $ZT_{XX}$ of 2H–WS$_2$ will be monotonically elevated at the temperature region studied (Fig. 5c) with the highest value of 0.16 at 800 K. Different from 2H-MoS$_2$, by increasing temperature, the values of $ZT_{XX}$ will generally drop except for a bit increase after 480 K for $ZT_{zz}$ of 1T–MoS$_2$ (Fig. 5c). Meanwhile, the maximum $ZT_{XX}$ can be reached is 0.33 and 0.68 for 1T–MoS$_2$ and 1T–WS$_2$ respectively. Those results indicate that the 1T–MS$_2$ are good candidates for low temperature TE performance.

Furthermore, another interesting phenomenon should be mentioned with Figs. 4 and 5 is that the improvement of performance due to 2H–1T transition is always greater in WS$_2$ rather than MoS$_2$; meanwhile, 1T–WS$_2$ usually shows higher $ZT_{XX}$ value when compared with 1T–MoS$_2$. To be more specific, with the change of temperature, the highest $ZT_{XX}$ value can reach around 0.33 for 1T–MoS$_2$ and 0.68 for 1T–WS$_2$. All those observations reveal the fact that 1T–WS$_2$ yields better potential serving in thermoelectric devices.

**4. Summary**

To conclude, the thermal properties and thermoelectric performance of MS$_2$ (M = Mo, W) through phase engineering, J Materiomics (2018), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmat.2018.08.001
significantly lower lattice TC, and much higher electrical conductivity, which lead to enhanced thermoelectric performance in 1T' phase. With optimized doping concentration, the TE figure of merit in MoS\(_2\) and WS\(_2\) can reach to 0.33 and 0.68 respectively. With the state-of-the-art techniques to control phase transformation, our studies suggest a new application within 1T' phase of MS\(_2\) and proposes two new candidates (1T'–MoS\(_2\) and 1T'–WS\(_2\)) as potential thermoelectric materials. All these theoretical insights will provide valuable information for the design of new efficient low-dimensional thermoelectric devices employing 2D-MS\(_2\).

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**Appendix A. Supplementary data**

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmat.2018.08.001.

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Prof. Shiyun Xiong is currently an associate Professor of the Institute of Functional Nano and Soft Materials at Soochow University. Prof. Xiong’s main research interests include but not limited to theoretical studies on nanoscale heat transfer, charge transport in optoelectronics. He received his BS and MS degrees in materials physics and chemistry from Central South University (China) in 2009 and 2011, respectively. Afterwards, he joined Ecole Centrale Paris in France and obtained his Ph.D degree in physics engineering in 2014. After his Ph.D studies, Prof. Xiong joined the Max-Planck Institute for Polymer Research as a postdoc research fellow and was sponsored by the Alexander von Humboldt foundation for his postdoc research. Since 2017, Prof. Xiong has been working at the Institute of Functional Nano and Soft Materials at Soochow University, Soochow University.