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# Enabling Oxidation Protection and Carrier-Type Switching for Bismuth Telluride Nanoribbons via *in Situ* Organic Molecule Coating

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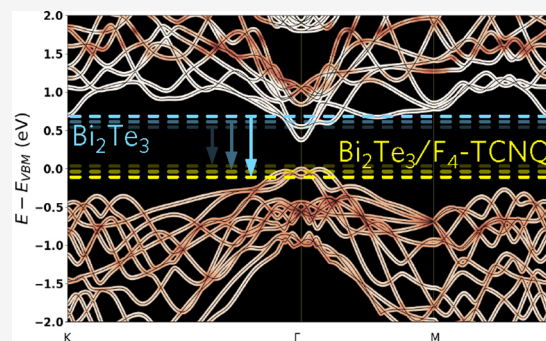
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**ABSTRACT:** Thermoelectric materials with high electrical conductivity and low thermal conductivity (e.g.,  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ ) can efficiently convert waste heat into electricity; however, in spite of favorable theoretical predictions, individual  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanostructures tend to perform less efficiently than bulk  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ . We report a greater-than-order-of-magnitude enhancement in the thermoelectric properties of suspended  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbons, coated *in situ* to form a  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core–shell nanoribbon without oxidizing the core–shell interface. The shell serves as an oxidation barrier but also directly functions as a strong electron acceptor and p-type carrier donor, switching the majority carriers from a dominant n-type carrier concentration ( $\sim 10^{21} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) to a dominant p-type carrier concentration ( $\sim 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ). Compared to uncoated  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbons, our  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core–shell nanoribbon demonstrates an effective chemical potential dramatically shifted toward the valence band (by 300–640 meV), robustly increased



Seebeck coefficient ( $\sim 6\times$  at 250 K), and improved thermoelectric performance (10–20 $\times$  at 250 K).

**KEYWORDS:** surface doping, air-sensitive nanomaterials, thermoelectric, thermal conductivity,  $\text{F}_4\text{TCNQ}$ ,  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$

In recent years, thermoelectric materials with high electrical conductivity and low thermal conductivity have been developed to efficiently convert waste heat into electricity,<sup>1–3</sup> ideally at near or above room temperature.<sup>4–6</sup> In particular,  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  efficiently generates electrical energy from heat<sup>6</sup> and converts thermal energy to electricity.<sup>7,8</sup> Nanostructured  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  has even been shown to exhibit topologically protected electronic surface states and enhanced thermoelectric characteristics.<sup>9</sup> Intriguingly, theoretical models have predicted that reducing the thickness of the nanostructures could lead to a significant increase in the thermoelectric figure of merit ( $zT$ ).<sup>10</sup> However, in practice, the performance of nanostructured  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  is often lower than the performance of bulk  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ ,<sup>2,3</sup> most likely due to a combination of defects and impurities in the crystal structure (introduced during material growth) and surface oxidation (incurred postgrowth), which inhibit control over the chemical potential and thus the nanostructured material's thermoelectric characteristics.

Long-lasting, high-performance thermoelectric materials and devices require a manufacturing process that precisely controls the chemical potential of the nanostructured surface.<sup>11</sup> Consequently, researchers have explored many techniques for engineering the surface of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ <sup>12</sup> by either generating a preoxidized surface less vulnerable to air exposure (oxygen plasma treatment),<sup>13</sup> improving material homogeneity and limiting surface oxidation (nonoxidizing superacid treatment,<sup>14</sup>

applying an  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coating via atomic layer deposition, ALD),<sup>12,15</sup> or modulating the carrier concentration and chemical potential of the surface states (extrinsic doping by hole-injecting organic molecules).<sup>16–18</sup> While the ALD method seems to be most effective for mitigating oxidation, hole-injection of a strong p-type doping material with a high electron affinity (e.g., tetrafluorotetracyanoquinodimethane,  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$ ) has been most effective at controlling the surface potential of low-dimensional materials (e.g., ultrathin  $\text{FASnI}_3$ ,<sup>19</sup>  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Se}_3$ ,<sup>20</sup>  $\text{WSe}_2$ ,<sup>21</sup> and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ <sup>22</sup>). At present, the challenge is to combine these benefits and improve the performance of individual  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanostructures to match or exceed the performance of the bulk material.

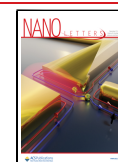
Here, we report a novel synthesis technique for preparing  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core–shell nanoribbons that can recover the thermoelectric performance of the bulk material; our *in situ* application of a  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  organic barrier to a  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon flips the major carrier from n-type to p-type (dramatically enhancing the Seebeck coefficient and  $zT$ ) and

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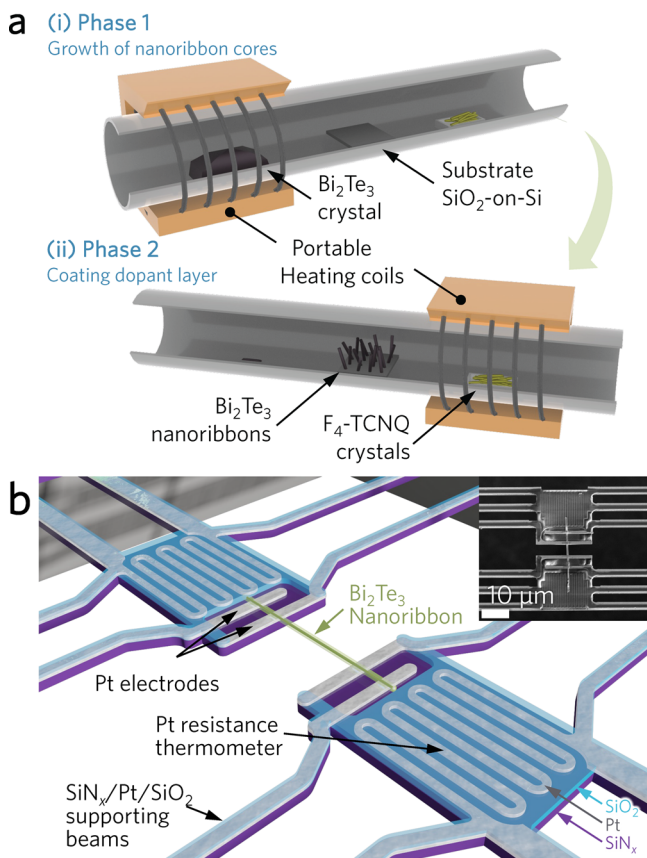
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effectively protects the core from oxidation (no surface oxidation or loss of thermoelectric properties observed after one month in air).

Our  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core–shell nanoribbons are synthesized using a four-step modification of an established catalyst-free chemical vapor deposition (CVD) method,<sup>9,22</sup> but without carrier gas and in near ultrahigh vacuum, and using a modified furnace system for the *in situ* coating (Figure 1a). (1) In a



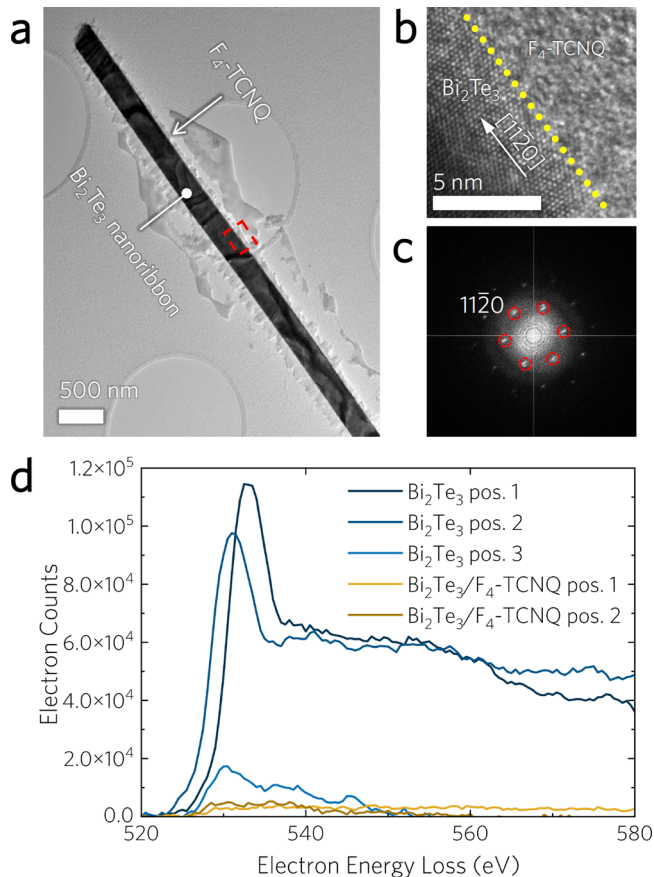
**Figure 1.** (a) Schematic illustration of the catalyst-free growth of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core–shell nanoribbons. (i) Growth of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  cores on a  $\text{SiO}_2$ -coated silicon substrate in high vacuum and (ii) *in situ* surface coating with highly electronegative molecules, achieved by reorienting the quartz tube inside the furnace without environmental exposure. (b) Schematic illustration of a nanoribbon integrated with a thermoelectric characterization device. (Inset) Top-view scanning electron microscope image of the integrated device.

quartz tube, the growth substrate is placed roughly halfway between a bulk  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  source crystal and  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  powder. (2) The tube is sealed and pumped to slightly better than  $10^{-8}$  mbar. (3) To form the nanoribbon core, portable heating coils are used to heat the tube around the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  source crystal, which grows vertical nanoribbons from the growth substrate. (4) To form the shell without oxidizing the core–shell interface, near ultrahigh vacuum is maintained while the portable heating coils are moved to the  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  powder, which evenly coats the surface of the nanoribbons. (For additional synthesis details, see Supporting Information.)

To assess their respective performance,  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons are transferred by hand (via an electrochemically sharpened tungsten probe under an optical microscope in air) to thermoelectric characterization devices (Figure 1b, inset). In each device, individual nanoribbons

bridge two  $\text{SiN}_x$  membranes; both membranes are comprised of exposed Pt electrodes which connect to the nanoribbon and an insulated Pt heater/resistance thermometer (with an  $\text{SiO}_2$  film to prevent electrical flow to the nanoribbon), and each membrane is supported by six  $\text{SiN}_x$  beams. To maximize sample contact and minimize contact resistance, top Pt–C electrodes are deposited using electron-beam-induced metal deposition inside of a scanning electron microscope (SEM). Because the transport characteristics of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  are driven by a combination of bulk conduction and surface transport, we selected nanoribbons with similar thicknesses and widths to minimize the surface transport variability and better reveal the effective chemical potential change enabled by the shell.

We begin characterization by assessing the general morphology of the nanoribbons via transmission electron microscopy (TEM, image-corrected FEI Titan 80-300, operating at 300 kV), using established experimental and computational postprocessing routines<sup>23–25</sup> to show that the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons are completely coated and that both the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons are straight single crystals (Figure 2a). Atomic force microscopy (AFM, Bruker Dimension Icon) is used to measure rectangular cross sections and suspended lengths of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  ( $632 \text{ nm} \times 53 \pm 2 \text{ nm} \times 3.89 \mu\text{m}$ ) and the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  ( $794 \text{ nm} \times 269 \pm 42 \text{ nm} \times 4.44 \mu\text{m}$ ) core–shell nanoribbons (Figure S1,



**Figure 2.** TEM analysis of a  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core–shell interface shows (a) a thin  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  shell layer fully covering the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbons and (b) indication of an oxide-free  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  interface in the region indicated by the red box in panel a. (c) FFT of panel b. (d) Electron energy loss spectroscopy at the O K-edge for the uncoated (blue lines) and coated (tan lines) nanoribbons.

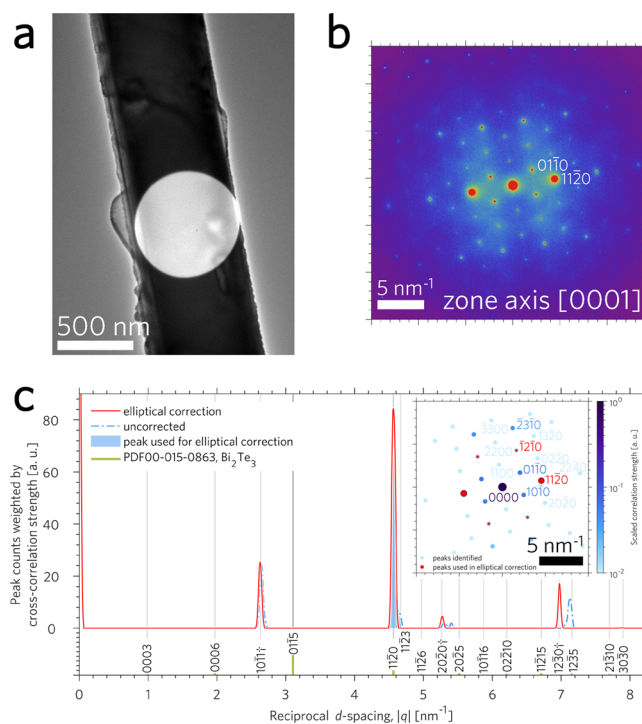


Supporting Information). The TEM image of the interfacial region shows a clean structural contrast between the atomically ordered  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  core and amorphous  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  shell (Figure 2b), with no evidence of unintentional interface oxidation (as reported for previous synthesis methods).<sup>26</sup> The corresponding fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern confirms that the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon has a clear  $[11\bar{2}0]$  crystal growth orientation (Figure 2c).

A precise thickness measurement is required for modeling transport characteristics (e.g., electrical and thermal conductivity), but the thick  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  coating prevents us from directly obtaining the thickness of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  via AFM. Therefore, we estimate sample thickness using the log-ratio technique, where  $\lambda$  is the inelastic mean free path (in this case, of Bi and Te),<sup>27</sup> and  $t/\lambda$  represents the mean number of scattering events. To calculate the thickness of the coating, we substituted organic compounds (Kapton and adenine) with mass densities similar to  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  and estimated the thickness of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon ( $40 \pm 6$  nm) and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon ( $116 \pm 13$  nm  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  core,  $203 \pm 30$  nm  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core-shell), achieving relatively good agreement with the AFM measurements. (We use this total thickness for conductivity calculations, except where noted.)

After the samples have been exposed to air for more than a month, we use electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) to look for oxygen and fluorine, respectively. EELS spectra obtained from several locations on the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons reveals that the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbons have a greater oxygen presence (Figure 2d), which we attribute to surface oxidation in the uncoated sample. Additional EELS spectra (Figure S2, Supporting Information) show a greater oxygen K-edge peak present for the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon than the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core-shell nanoribbon, which is indicative of the effectiveness of the latter's oxidation barrier shell. EDS spectra confirm the presence of fluorine from the shell (Figure S3, Supporting Information).

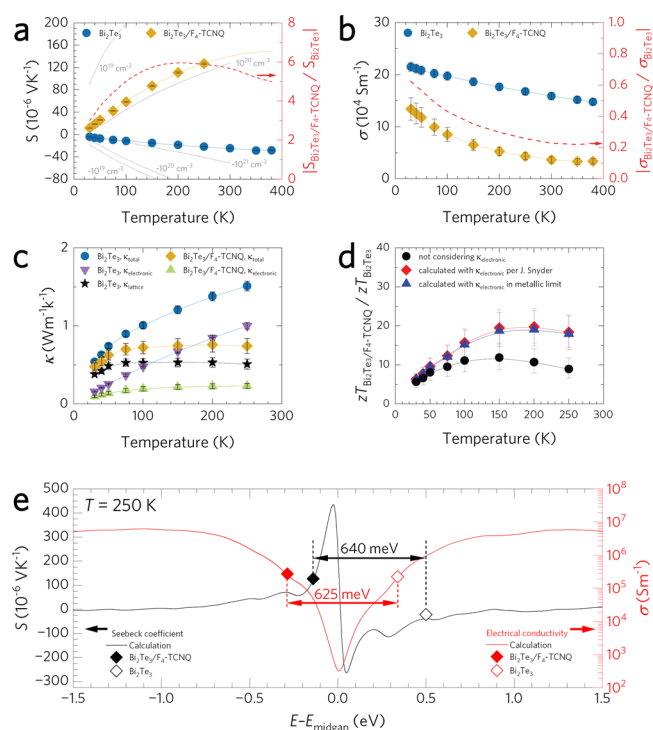
To quantitatively evaluate the crystal quality of the core-shell nanostructure over a larger length scale and discover whether it is free from precipitate phases, we also performed quantitative electron diffraction. Our TEM analysis of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons' microstructural characteristics shows a bright field (BF) image captured near the middle of the core-shell nanoribbon, clearly showing the conformal  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  shell ( $\sim 55$  nm-thick) coating the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  core (Figure 3a). The ordered selected area electron diffraction pattern (Figure 3b) confirms that the nanoribbon crystal orientation is clearly aligned to the  $[11\bar{2}0]$  direction, the zone axis is along  $[0001]$ , and there are no unwanted crystal structures within the nanoribbon. (Note: we compensate for imperfect alignment of the condenser, objective, and projector lens systems by performing elliptical correction). Figure 3c presents the weighted radial histogram of the found Bragg peaks, the reciprocal space scattering vector  $q$ , and (for reference) the expected positions of the peaks for  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ .<sup>28</sup> The sharp  $(11\bar{2}0)$  peak clearly matches the database value, providing strong evidence that our  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons are highly oriented. The only unexpected peaks are the forbidden reflections caused by point defects in the nanoribbon core (as calculated from the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$   $(30\bar{3}0)$  reflection and marked with a † in Figure 3c), indicating that our coating process generates no unintended crystalline phases, minimizing the risk



**Figure 3.** Quantitative electron diffraction analysis of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core-shell nanoribbon on a thermoelectric characterization device. (a) Double-exposure TEM image, indicating the diffraction collection region. (b) Selected area electron diffraction pattern. (c) Weighted radial histogram of the peak positions before (blue dash-dot line) and after (red solid line) elliptical correction; for comparison, the expected histogram for bulk  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  is included (vertical solid lines);<sup>28</sup> † indicates X-ray-forbidden reflections derived from the  $(30\bar{3}0)$  reflection. (c, inset) Peak location map aligned to the  $[1010]$  reflection, indicating the peaks used in the elliptical correction algorithm (red circles) to correct for inherent slight misalignments in the condenser, objective, and projector lens systems.

of unpredictable transport behavior or thermoelectric properties.<sup>15</sup> (For the angular histogram, see Figure S4, Supporting Information.)

We then experimentally assess the Seebeck coefficient and electrical conductivity of each nanoribbon as a function of the temperature (Figure 4a,b). The  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon exhibits a negative Seebeck coefficient that decreases steadily ( $-4$  to  $-22$   $\mu\text{V K}^{-1}$ ) as temperatures increase ( $30$ – $250$  K); in contrast, the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon shows a dramatically positive Seebeck coefficient ( $12$ – $127$   $\mu\text{V K}^{-1}$ ) over the same interval, strongly suggesting a conversion of the main carrier from n-type to p-type. We are able to validate that finding computationally, showing that, whereas the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon has high n-type carrier concentration ( $\sim 10^{21}$   $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ), the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon has a high p-type carrier concentration of ( $\sim 10^{20}$   $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ) and outperforms the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon by at least  $3.0\times$  over the entire measured temperature range ( $30$ – $250$  K) and  $5.8$ – $6.0\times$  at  $150$ – $250$  K [for the full range plot of  $S(T)$  versus carrier concentration, see Figure S5, Supporting Information]. As the temperature rises from  $7$ – $380$  K, the electrical conductivity of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon decreases [ $(2.3$ – $1.5) \times 10^5$   $\text{S m}^{-1}$ ]; because the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon has an order-of-magnitude lower carrier concentration, the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon's highest electrical conductivity [ $(0.76$ – $0.12) \times 10^5$  S



**Figure 4.** Temperature-dependent thermoelectric properties of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons. (a) Comparison of theoretical calculation and measured Seebeck coefficient  $S$ . (b) Measured electrical conductivity  $\sigma$  as a function of temperature. For comparison, the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}:\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  ratios are shown as dashed red lines in both panels. (c) Plots of total ( $\kappa_{\text{total}}$ ), lattice ( $\kappa_{\text{lattice}}$ ), and electronic ( $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$ ) thermal conductivity of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons. The  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$  of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon was experimentally obtained and separated into  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$  (the mean values obtained using Snyder's formula<sup>30</sup> and the metallic limit for Lorenz number) and  $\kappa_{\text{lattice}}$ . Then, the  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$  of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon was similarly calculated, and  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$  was estimated assuming  $\kappa_{\text{lattice}}$  obtained for the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon and the total  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  cross sectional area. (d) Plots of three different estimations for the enhancement ratio of thermoelectric figure of merit,  $zT = (S^2\sigma/\kappa_{\text{total}})T$ , for both the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons: (1) the ratio of  $zT$  assumes the same  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$  for both the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  (black circles); (2, 3) the  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$  is estimated with a Lorenz number calculated either by using Snyder's model<sup>30</sup> (red diamonds) or assuming the metallic limit (blue triangles). (e) Intersections of the measured  $S$  (black diamonds) and  $\sigma$  (red diamonds) at 250 K with the calculated  $S$  (black line) and  $\sigma$  (red line) as a function of chemical potential with respect to the middle of the electronic band gap.

$\text{m}^{-1}$ ] is comparable to the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon's lowest electrical conductivity.

The thermoelectric figure of merit  $zT = [S^2\sigma/(\kappa_{\text{lattice}} + \kappa_{\text{electronic}})]T$  is more challenging to compare, but we begin by calculating the total thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_{\text{total}}$ ) of the uncoated  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon following an established bipolar direct current reversal technique<sup>29</sup> and then determined the electronic contribution via the Wiedemann–Franz law  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}} = \sigma LT$ :

$$\kappa_{\text{total}} = \kappa_{\text{lattice}} + \kappa_{\text{electronic}} \quad (1a)$$

$$= \kappa_{\text{lattice}} + \sigma LT \quad (1b)$$

$$\kappa_{\text{lattice}} = \kappa_{\text{total}} - \sigma LT \quad (1c)$$

where  $T$  is the absolute temperature,  $L$  is the Lorenz number,  $\kappa_{\text{lattice}}$  is the lattice contribution to the thermal conductivity, and  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$  is the electronic contribution to the thermal conductivity. To assess the validity of our  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$  calculation and allow us to better quantify the uncertainty in  $zT$ , we use three different methods for calculating  $L$  (each based on somewhat different assumptions). The first two calculate approximations of  $L$  based on the state of electrons in the material: the free electron model (i.e., the metallic limit) system uses the Sommerfeld value  $L_0 = \pi^2 k_B^2 / (3e^2) = 2.44 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W } \Omega \text{ K}^{-2}$ , which approximates well in the highly doped regime;<sup>9</sup> whereas the Snyder method<sup>30</sup> uses the Seebeck coefficient,  $L = (1.5 + \exp[|S|/116]) \times 10^{-8} \text{ W } \Omega \text{ K}^{-2}$ , with  $S$  given in units of  $\mu\text{V K}^{-1}$ , and approximates well for nondegenerate semiconductors. For this work, we also obtain a more precise  $zT$  by running a DFT simulation to calculate  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$  using the chemical potential corresponding to the measured electrical conductivity:  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}(T = 250 \text{ K})$ . The DFT calculated  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$  ( $1.13 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ) is somewhat higher than the metallic limit ( $1.02 \pm 0.04$ ) and Snyder model ( $0.98 \pm 0.04 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ) results, which suggest that both common approximations may slightly underestimate  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$ . Unfortunately, we cannot directly calculate the  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$  of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon. However, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy analysis indicates that  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  molecules with a thickness exceeding 2 nm do not have a significant impact on charge transfer;<sup>31,32</sup> thus, in the future, if the shell can be synthesized to be  $\leq 2$  nm, we will be able to estimate the  $\kappa_{\text{total}}$  of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon conservatively by using the cross-sectional area of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ , plus the cross-sectional area of the  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  shell. We can then calculate  $\kappa_{\text{lattice}}$  of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon and then adding  $\kappa_{\text{lattice}}$  to the calculated  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$  of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon. Even so, the preliminary data suggest that even the relatively thick shell

**Table 1.** Summary of the  $zT$  Enhancement of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  Nanoribbons<sup>a</sup>

model for $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}$	maximum $zT$ enhancement ( $T = 150\text{--}200 \text{ K}$ )			$zT$ enhancement ( $T = 250 \text{ K}$ )		
	$zT$ of $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$	$zT$ of $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}^b$	$zT$ ratio at temp	$zT$ of $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$	$zT$ of $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}^b$	$zT$ ratio
Metallic limit, $L = 2.44 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W } \Omega \text{ K}^{-2}$	$8.8 \times 10^{-3}$ $\pm 9.3 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.7 \times 10^{-1}$ $\pm 0.4 \times 10^{-2}$	$19.1 \pm 6.6,$ 200 K	$1.3 \times 10^{-2}$ $\pm 1.4 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.3 \times 10^{-1}$ $\pm 5.7 \times 10^{-2}$	$18.0 \pm 6.2$
Snyder's method, <sup>40</sup> $L = (1.5 + \exp[ S /116]) \times 10^{-8} \text{ W } \Omega \text{ K}^{-2}$	$8.8 \times 10^{-3}$ $\pm 9.3 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.7 \times 10^{-1}$ $\pm 3.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$19.8 \pm 6.6,$ 200 K	$1.3 \times 10^{-2}$ $\pm 1.4 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.4 \times 10^{-1}$ $\pm 5.4 \times 10^{-2}$	$18.4 \pm 6.2$
Negligible electronic contribution, $1 \gg \kappa_{\text{electronic}} / \kappa_{\text{lattice}}$	$5.2 \times 10^{-3}$ $\pm 5.5 \times 10^{-4}$	$6.2 \times 10^{-2}$ $\pm 1.1 \times 10^{-2}$	$11.9 \pm 3.4,$ 150 K	$1.3 \times 10^{-2}$ $\pm 1.4 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.2 \times 10^{-1}$ $\pm 2.1 \times 10^{-2}$	$8.9 \pm 2.6$

<sup>a</sup>The lattice contribution to the thermal conductivity has been calculated as  $\kappa - \sigma LT$ , where  $L$  is obtained with two different models based on the measured thermoelectric properties. The maximum  $zT$  (between 150 and 200 K) is shown for each sample, alongside their respective  $zT$  at 250 K. <sup>b</sup>Estimated from measurement values.

( $\sim 55$  nm) of our  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon can be modeled as having the same properties as the nanostructured core.<sup>19,33</sup>

To estimate the potential utility of this material for thermoelectric applications, we also plot the thermal conductivities (separated according to the mean value of the metallic limit and Snyder model results<sup>9,30</sup> in Figure 4c; full calculations in Figure S7, Supporting Information). To better assess the confidence bounds, we also plot the enhancement ratio of the  $zT$  of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon, calculated via the metallic limit, Snyder model, and our DFT method (assuming  $\kappa_{\text{electronic}}/\kappa_{\text{lattice}} \ll 1$ ) (Figure 4d). The  $zT$  ratio enhancement is calculated as

$$\frac{zT_2}{zT_1} = \frac{\frac{S_2^2 \sigma_2}{\kappa_{\text{lattice}} + \kappa_{\text{electronic},2}}}{\frac{S_1^2 \sigma_1}{\kappa_{\text{lattice}} + \kappa_{\text{electronic},1}}} \quad (2a)$$

$$= \frac{S_2^2 \sigma_2 / (1 + \sigma_2 L_2 T / \kappa_{\text{lattice}})}{S_1^2 \sigma_1 / (1 + \sigma_1 L_1 T / \kappa_{\text{lattice}})} \quad (2b)$$

$$\approx \frac{S_2^2 \sigma_2}{S_1^2 \sigma_1}, \text{ when } \frac{\kappa_{\text{electronic}}}{\kappa_{\text{lattice}}} \ll 1 \quad (3)$$

The individual  $zT$  calculations for the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons are plotted in Table 1; notably, all methods show significantly (10–20 $\times$ ) higher  $zT$  values for  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$ . Together, these data give us a reasonable estimate of the lower confidence bound.

To get the higher confidence bound, we also estimate the upper limit of  $zT$  enhancements using the EELS-estimated thickness of the nanoribbon core. Assuming a negligibly thin  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  shell, we predict that an optimized  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon will outperform the  $zT$  of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon by 20–33 $\times$  (Figure S8, Supporting Information). We attribute this gain to the fact that while the negligibly thin  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  shell will still lower the electrical conductivity of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  nanoribbon,<sup>34</sup> the slimmer shell profile maintains the surface charge transport (and, thus, surface doping), while still preventing oxidation. Previous attempts to significantly enhance the  $zT$  of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  by other methods<sup>35,22</sup> consistently yielded low ( $<0.2$ )  $zT$  values below room temperature, with similarly low  $zT$  outcomes reported for the optimized  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  samples at (or below) room temperature.<sup>2,36</sup> However, preliminary calculations suggest that an optimized  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbon will achieve  $zT \sim 0.25$  at 250 K.

We then push further into the fundamental physics that govern the performance of the nanoribbons. Since the position of the chemical potential governs thermoelectric performance, we compare the quantitative effective chemical potential calculations and the measured thermoelectric properties of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons (Figure 4e; orbital projected electronic band structure and density of states, Figure S5, Supporting Information). We also used our calculation results to approximate the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons assuming the rigid band approximation. We can now leverage the calculation of the electronic bandstructure to calculate the shift from n-type to p-type carrier donors between the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons. Figure 4e plots the intersections of the experimental Seebeck coefficient and electrical conductivity measured at 250 K from  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons with the theoretically obtained

curves. Using these measured values, we can estimate the range of effective surface potential shift by extrinsic p-type dopant coating to be between 625–640 meV.

To further understand variation of *ab initio* models on the chemical potential shift due to  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$ , we compare our experimental results with a previously reported calculation based on the Landauer formalism,<sup>9</sup> which indicates a very different effective chemical potential shift of 300–355 meV (Figure S8, Supporting Information). We note that multiple challenges also remain: the damage caused by surface oxidation is subtle and may only be detectible with precision techniques, such as angle-resolved photoemission spectroscopy (ARPES),<sup>12</sup> and research on the effects of thermoelectric transport in one-dimensional materials is still in its early stage.<sup>21,35,37</sup> Additionally, the fact that two different first-principles models produce two very different values of effective chemical potential shift means that these models are not fully capturing the exact interfacial mechanisms that lead to experimental observables, and thus, the models need further improvements by the theory community.

In conclusion, we report a novel method for synthesizing  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  core-shell nanoribbons *in situ* using catalyst-free high vacuum synthesis to enhance oxidation resistance and improve thermoelectric properties. Extensive characterization of the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  core showed highly oriented crystal structures with growth along the [1120] direction, without the diffraction peak position change or broadening that would indicate reaction with the amorphous  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  shell. Even after a month-long exposure to air, the  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  interface showed no observable oxide shell formation. Experimental thermoelectric assessment of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3/\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  nanoribbons demonstrate an improvement in Seebeck coefficient from  $\sim 20$  to  $\sim 125 \mu\text{V K}^{-1}$  at 250 K and more than an order of magnitude higher  $zT$ . A combination of simulation and experimental measurement suggests that the  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$  shell shifts the nanoribbon to a dominantly p-type majority carrier, enhancing the surface potential of the nanoribbon by 625–640 and 300–355 meV when calculated by two different *ab initio* models. Our *in situ* growth technique enables the synthesis of enhanced, long-lasting thermoelectric nanoribbons, with numerous potential applications in micro-electronic and thermoelectric devices. Critically, this technique is also generalizable for surface doping other air-sensitive nanomaterials. We note that additional characterization techniques (e.g., infrared spectroscopy near the  $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$  peak of  $\text{F}_4\text{-TCNQ}$ ) have the potential to yield additional information about the oxidation state of the coating<sup>38</sup> in future work in this field. Together these characterizations and calculations provide strong evidence for a path to high performance thermoelectric nanostructures through the use of *in situ* organic molecule coatings, which is valuable for future 1D-based thermoelectric and microelectronics applications.<sup>23,39–41</sup>

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Data Availability Statement

The data that support the plots in the manuscript are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.nanolett.3c02000>.



Additional characterization and analysis results for atomic force microscopy, transmission electron microscopy, additional theoretical calculations, additional thermoelectric and transport data, and comparison of data with an additional theoretical model based on the Landauer approach (PDF)

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### Author Contributions

<sup>#</sup>J.B.P. and W.W. contributed equally. M.T.P. conceived and led the project. M.T.P., W.W., K.C.B., M.S., and C.O. performed TEM and computational microscopy analysis. W.W., J.Y.W., and M.T.P. performed sample synthesis and sample measurement. J.B.P. and T.M.K. performed AFM measurements. J.B.P., R.K., and M.T.P. performed data

analysis. R.K. and D.A.S. designed and performed all theoretical calculations and modeling. The manuscript was written by J.B.P. and M.T.P. with input and intellectual contributions from all coauthors.

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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