

## Thermoelectric Generators and the Seebeck Effect

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World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews, 2022, 16(03), 1448-1455

Publication history: Received on 08 December 2022; revised on 19 December 2022; accepted on 26 December 2022

Article DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjarr.2022.16.3.1409>

### Abstract

Thermoelectric generators (TEGs) represent a promising technology for direct thermal-to-electrical energy conversion based on the Seebeck effect. This paper explores the fundamental physics underlying thermoelectric phenomena, examines the materials and design considerations for practical TEG devices, and discusses current applications and future prospects. The efficiency limitations imposed by the figure of merit (ZT) and strategies for optimization are analyzed. Despite current limitations in conversion efficiency, thermoelectric generators offer unique advantages for waste heat recovery and remote power generation applications.

**Keywords:** Thermoelectric effect; Seebeck effect; Waste heat recovery; ZT figure of merit; Thermoelectric materials

### 1 Introduction

The escalating global energy crisis, coupled with mounting environmental concerns, has spurred an urgent search for innovative and sustainable energy conversion technologies. Among these, thermoelectric generators (TEGs) have emerged as a promising solid-state solution capable of transforming thermal energy directly into electrical energy, all without the need for moving mechanical components. This unique characteristic not only enhances their operational reliability and durability but also makes TEGs particularly appealing for a wide spectrum of applications. These range from harnessing waste heat in large-scale industrial processes, to providing autonomous power in remote and inaccessible locations, and even powering equipment on space missions where maintenance is impractical or impossible.

The operational foundation of TEGs is rooted in the Seebeck effect, a phenomenon first observed by Thomas Johann Seebeck in 1821. When a temperature gradient is established across certain conductive or semiconductive materials, an electromotive force (EMF) is generated, resulting in the direct conversion of heat into electricity. This effect forms the core of thermoelectric energy conversion, setting TEGs apart from conventional heat engines that rely on complex mechanical cycles.

Despite their relatively modest conversion efficiencies compared to traditional heat engines, TEGs offer a suite of advantages that can be critical in specific contexts. Their solid-state nature ensures silent operation, high reliability, low maintenance requirements, and the ability to scale across a broad range of power outputs. These attributes have opened up new avenues for energy harvesting, especially in scenarios where traditional technologies fall short.

This paper aims to provide a comprehensive overview of thermoelectric generator technology. It will delve into the fundamental physical principles that govern thermoelectric energy conversion, examine the material properties that are pivotal for optimizing efficiency, and discuss practical considerations in device design. Furthermore, it will explore

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both current and emerging applications, highlighting how advances in materials science and engineering are pushing the boundaries of what TEGs can achieve in the ongoing transition to more sustainable energy solutions.

## 2 Theoretical Background

### 2.1 The Seebeck Effect

The Seebeck effect is a thermoelectric phenomenon in which a temperature difference between two dissimilar electrical conductors or semiconductors produces a voltage difference between them. When one junction of two dissimilar conductors is heated relative to the other junction, charge carriers (electrons or holes) diffuse from the hot side to the cold side, creating an electrical potential (Rowe, 2018).

The Seebeck coefficient ( $S$ ), also called thermopower, quantifies this effect and is defined as:

$$S = -\Delta V / \Delta T$$

where  $\Delta V$  is the voltage difference generated and  $\Delta T$  is the temperature difference applied. The Seebeck coefficient is typically expressed in units of  $\mu\text{V}/\text{K}$  or  $\mu\text{V}/^\circ\text{C}$ .

The sign of the Seebeck coefficient indicates the type of charge carrier: negative for n-type materials (electron conductors) and positive for p-type materials (hole conductors). The magnitude of  $S$  varies significantly among materials, ranging from a few  $\mu\text{V}/\text{K}$  for metals to several hundred  $\mu\text{V}/\text{K}$  for semiconductors (Goldsmid, 2016).

### 2.2 Related Thermoelectric Effects

The Seebeck effect is part of a group of interrelated thermoelectric phenomena:

- Peltier Effect: The inverse of the Seebeck effect, where passing an electric current through a junction of two dissimilar materials causes heat absorption or generation at the junction.
- Thomson Effect: The absorption or generation of heat when an electric current flows through a material with a temperature gradient.
- These three effects are fundamentally connected through thermodynamic relationships known as the Kelvin relations (DiSalvo, 1999).

### 2.3 Figure of Merit (ZT)

The efficiency of thermoelectric materials is characterized by the dimensionless figure of merit, ZT:

$$ZT = (S^2 \sigma T) / \kappa$$

where:

$S$  = Seebeck coefficient ( $\text{V}/\text{K}$ )

$\sigma$  = electrical conductivity ( $\text{S}/\text{m}$ )

$T$  = absolute temperature ( $\text{K}$ )

$\kappa$  = thermal conductivity ( $\text{W}/\text{m}\cdot\text{K}$ )

A higher ZT value indicates better thermoelectric performance. The numerator ( $S^2 \sigma$ ), called the power factor, should be maximized, while the thermal conductivity  $\kappa$  should be minimized. However, these parameters are interdependent, making optimization challenging (Snyder & Toberer, 2008).

For practical thermoelectric generators, ZT values above 1.0 are generally considered good, with values above 2.0 representing excellent performance. Current commercial materials typically exhibit ZT values between 0.8 and 1.2 at their operating temperatures.

## 3 Thermoelectric Materials

### 3.1 Material Requirements

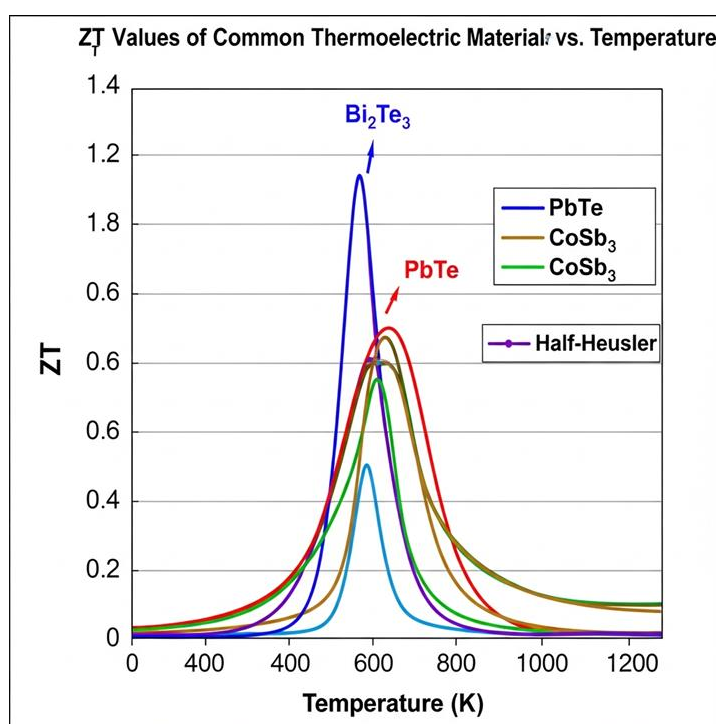
Effective thermoelectric materials must satisfy several competing requirements (Table 1):

**Table 1** Key Properties for Thermoelectric Materials

Property	Desired Value	Reason
Seebeck Coefficient	High ( $>200 \mu\text{V/K}$ )	Maximizes voltage generation
Electrical Conductivity	High ( $>10^4 \text{ S/m}$ )	Minimizes resistive losses
Thermal Conductivity	Low ( $<2 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$ )	Maintains temperature gradient
Thermal Stability	High	Ensures long-term operation
Mechanical Strength	Adequate	Withstands thermal cycling
Abundance/Cost	Favorable	Economic viability

### 3.2 Common Thermoelectric Materials

Different materials are optimized for specific temperature ranges (Figure 1):

**Figure 1** ZT Values of Common Thermoelectric Materials vs. Temperature

**Low Temperature (200-400K):** Bismuth telluride ( $\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_3$ ) and its alloys dominate this range, with ZT values approaching 1.0. These materials are widely used in commercial applications such as portable coolers and waste heat recovery from automobile exhaust (Poudel et al., 2008).

**Mid Temperature (400-700K):** Lead telluride (PbTe) compounds show excellent performance in this range. While lead's toxicity raises environmental concerns, PbTe remains important for mid-temperature applications. Recent advances with nanostructuring have pushed ZT values above 1.5 (Heremans et al., 2008).

**High Temperature (700-1200K):** Silicon-germanium alloys, skutterudites ( $\text{CoSb}_3$ ), and half-Heusler compounds are candidates for high-temperature applications. These materials are particularly relevant for industrial waste heat recovery and space applications (Dresselhaus et al., 2007).

### 3.3 Advanced Materials and Nanostructuring

Recent research has focused on nanostructured materials to enhance ZT by reducing lattice thermal conductivity while maintaining electrical conductivity. Approaches include:

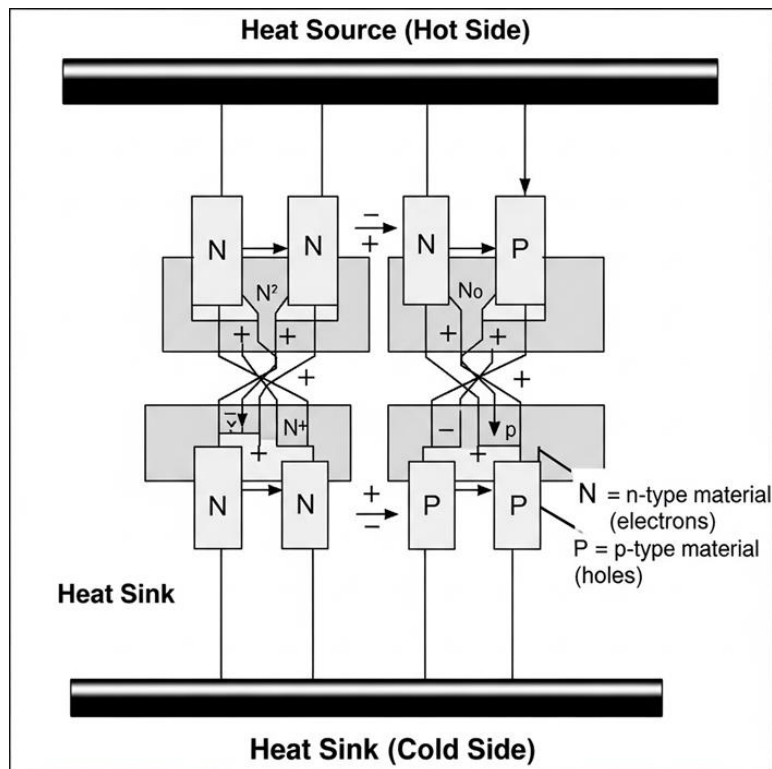
- Quantum dot superlattices
- Nanowire arrays
- Phonon-glass electron-crystal (PGEC) materials
- Complex crystal structures with intrinsically low thermal conductivity

These strategies have successfully increased ZT values above 2.0 in laboratory settings, though commercial implementation remains challenging (Vineis et al., 2010).

## 4 Thermoelectric Generator Design

### 4.1 Basic TEG Architecture

A practical thermoelectric generator consists of multiple thermocouples connected electrically in series and thermally in parallel (Figure 2). Each thermocouple comprises one n-type and one p-type semiconductor element.



**Figure 2** Schematic of a Thermoelectric Generator Module

Key components include:

- Thermoelectric elements: P-type and n-type semiconductor legs
- Electrical interconnects: Typically copper strips providing electrical connection
- Ceramic plates: Alumina or aluminum nitride substrates for electrical insulation and heat transfer
- Heat exchangers: Hot side heat source interface and cold side heat sink

### 4.2 Electrical Configuration

The electrical arrangement significantly impacts performance. Thermocouples are connected in series to increase output voltage while maintaining manageable current levels. The number of couples (N) determines the overall voltage:

$$V_{\text{total}} = N \times S_{\text{avg}} \times \Delta T$$

where  $S_{\text{avg}}$  is the average Seebeck coefficient of the p-n couple.

### 4.3 Thermal Management

Effective thermal management is critical for TEG performance. Key considerations include:

**Hot Side Interface:** Must efficiently transfer heat from the source to the TEG module. Contact resistance should be minimized using thermal interface materials.

**Cold Side Cooling:** Removing heat from the cold side is essential for maintaining the temperature gradient. Common approaches include:

- Air cooling with heat sinks and fans
- Liquid cooling systems
- Natural convection designs
- Thermal Bypass: Heat flowing around (rather than through) the thermoelectric elements represents parasitic losses that reduce efficiency.

### 4.4 Performance Parameters

Several metrics characterize TEG performance (Table 2):

**Table 2** TEG Performance Metrics

Parameter	Typical Range	Description
Conversion Efficiency	3-8%	Electrical output / Heat input
Power Density	0.1-1 W/cm <sup>2</sup>	Power per module area
Operating Temperature	50-600°C	Hot side temperature range
Temperature Difference	50-300°C	ΔT across module
Module Voltage	1-10 V	Open circuit voltage
Fill Factor	0.4-0.7	Ratio of active to total area

The maximum power output from a TEG occurs when the load resistance matches the internal resistance of the device. The conversion efficiency ( $\eta$ ) is related to ZT by:

$$\eta = (\Delta T / T_h) \times [(\sqrt{1 + ZT_{avg}} - 1) / (\sqrt{1 + ZT_{avg}} + T_c / T_h)]$$

where  $T_h$  is the hot side temperature and  $T_c$  is the cold side temperature. This relationship shows that efficiency improves with both larger temperature differences and higher ZT values (Rowe, 2018).

## 5 Applications of Thermoelectric Generators

### 5.1 Waste Heat Recovery

Industrial processes reject vast amounts of waste heat that could be recovered using TEGs. Applications include:

- **Automotive Applications:** Vehicle exhaust systems waste 60-70% of fuel energy as heat. TEGs installed in exhaust systems can recover a portion of this energy, improving overall fuel efficiency by 3-5%. Major automotive manufacturers have tested TEG systems generating 200-500W of electrical power (Yang & Stabler, 2009).
- **Industrial Processes:** Steel mills, glass furnaces, and chemical plants generate substantial waste heat. TEG installations can provide on-site power generation while reducing cooling requirements.
- **Power Plant Condensers:** Low-grade heat from power plant cooling systems represents an opportunity for incremental efficiency improvements.

### 5.2 Remote and Off-Grid Power

TEGs excel in applications requiring reliable, maintenance-free power in remote locations:

- Radioisotope Thermoelectric Generators (RTGs): Space missions to the outer planets rely on RTGs, which use heat from radioactive decay (typically plutonium-238) to generate electricity. The Voyager spacecraft, launched in 1977, continue to operate using RTG power after over 40 years (Schmidt et al., 2009).
- Pipeline Monitoring: Natural gas pipelines use TEGs powered by small amounts of gas combustion to operate monitoring and control equipment in remote locations.
- Remote Sensors: Environmental monitoring stations in harsh or inaccessible environments benefit from TEG-powered autonomous operation.

### 5.3 Consumer and Portable Applications

- Camping Stoves: Portable TEG-powered stoves convert campfire heat into electricity for charging phones and electronic devices.
- Wearable Electronics: Body heat-powered TEGs can extend battery life for wearable devices, though current power outputs ( $\mu\text{W}$  to  $\text{mW}$  range) limit practical applications (Leonov, 2013).
- Hybrid Systems: Combining TEGs with other energy harvesting technologies (solar, vibration) provides more reliable power for wireless sensor networks.

### 5.4 Emerging Applications

Research continues into novel TEG applications:

- Building Integration: Incorporating TEGs into building structures to harvest heat from solar radiation or temperature differentials
- Ocean Thermal Energy: Exploiting temperature differences in ocean water layers
- Geothermal Systems: Direct conversion of geothermal heat to electricity for small-scale applications

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## 6 Advantages and Limitations

### 6.1 Advantages

- Solid-State Operation: No moving parts, resulting in silent operation and high reliability
- Scalability: Devices range from milliwatts to kilowatts
- Long Lifetime: Can operate for decades without maintenance
- Environmentally Friendly: No emissions during operation, no working fluids
- Flexible Siting: Can be integrated into existing systems

Fast Response: Rapid startup and shutdown capabilities

### 6.2 Limitations

- Low Efficiency: Current devices typically achieve 5-8% conversion efficiency, far below Carnot efficiency limits
- Material Cost: High-performance thermoelectric materials can be expensive and contain scarce or toxic elements
- High Thermal Conductivity: Maintaining temperature gradients requires significant heat flow
- Temperature Limitations: Material degradation and sublimation limit maximum operating temperatures
- Thermal Stress: Repeated thermal cycling can cause mechanical failure at interfaces
- Competing Technologies: Often face competition from more efficient conventional heat engines for large-scale applications

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## 7 Future Prospects and Research Directions

### 7.1 Material Development

Ongoing research aims to achieve ZT values exceeding 2-3 through:

- Advanced nanostructuring techniques to reduce lattice thermal conductivity
- Band structure engineering to optimize electronic properties
- Discovery of new material systems with inherently favorable properties

- Organic and hybrid thermoelectric materials for low-temperature applications

## 7.2 System Integration

Improving overall system efficiency requires advances beyond materials:

- Thermal Management: Better heat exchangers and thermal interface materials
- Power Electronics: Efficient DC-DC conversion and maximum power point tracking
- Hybrid Systems: Combining TEGs with other energy conversion technologies
- Smart Systems: Adaptive control strategies optimizing performance across varying conditions

## 7.3 Manufacturing and Cost Reduction

Widespread adoption requires manufacturing innovations:

- Scalable production techniques for nanostructured materials
- Automated assembly processes reducing labor costs
- Alternative materials reducing dependence on expensive or toxic elements
- Standardized module designs facilitating system integration

## 7.4 Target Performance Metrics

For TEGs to compete with conventional technologies in more applications, researchers target:

- Module efficiency: >15% (currently 5-8%)
- Cost: <\$0.50/W (currently \$2-5/W)
- Operating life: >100,000 hours
- ZT values: >2.0 at operating temperatures

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## 8 Conclusion

Thermoelectric generators based on the Seebeck effect offer unique advantages for direct thermal-to-electrical energy conversion. While current conversion efficiencies remain modest compared to conventional heat engines, TEGs excel in applications valuing reliability, silent operation, scalability, and ability to utilize waste heat or operate in remote environments. The fundamental challenge of thermoelectric materials—simultaneously achieving high Seebeck coefficient, high electrical conductivity, and low thermal conductivity—has driven decades of research. Recent advances in nanostructuring and material science have pushed laboratory ZT values above 2.0, though translating these improvements to commercial devices remains challenging. TEGs have proven their worth in specialized applications from space exploration to remote power generation. As materials improve and manufacturing costs decrease, thermoelectric generators are poised to play an expanding role in waste heat recovery and distributed power generation. The technology represents an important tool in the broader portfolio of sustainable energy solutions. Future success depends on continued materials research, improved system integration, and cost reduction through manufacturing innovations. While TEGs are unlikely to replace conventional heat engines for large-scale power generation, they will increasingly fill niches where their unique advantages outweigh efficiency limitations.

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## Compliance with ethical standards

### *Disclosure of conflict of interest*

No conflict of interest to be disclosed.

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