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On the effects of substitution, intercalation, non-stoichiometry and block layer concept in TiS2 based thermoelectrics

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Abstract

TiS2 based layered sulfides have recently received increasing interest from the thermoelectric community. Due to its layered structure, TiS₂ compound with its enormous capacity for chemical substitution and intercalation offers different means to optimize the thermoelectric response through concomitant tuning of carrier concentration and decrease of the lattice thermal conductivity. In this review, we first discuss and summarize the crystal structures and physical/chemical properties of $TiS₂$ based layered sulfides. Then, the approaches that successfully enhanced the thermoelectric performances in the $TiS₂$ ceramic samples densified by Spark Plasma sintering are outlined, which include intercalation, non-stoichiometry, cationic substitution, and block layer concept.

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A. Introduction

Over the last decade, the increase in global interest in research and development of thermoelectric (TE) materials has been partly due to the soaring short-term demand for energy and partly due to the need to find a sustainable future source of energy. Indeed, several sectors, such as automotive or industrial, could take advantage of thermoelectric materials capacity to directly convert the waste-heat into electrical energy, irrespective of source size and without the use of moving parts or the production of environmentally deleterious wastes. Moreover, thermoelectric generation systems offer the most viable method of exploiting the waste heat from automobiles, factories and similar sources. The efficiency and performance of thermoelectric energy conversion is related to the dimensionless figure of merit (*ZT*) of the thermoelectric materials, given by $ZT = S^2 T/\kappa \rho$, where *T* is the absolute temperature, *S* is the Seebeck coefficient or thermoelectric power, ρ is the electrical resistivity, and κ is the total thermal conductivity.¹ To date, for low and medium temperature range applications (*i.e.* below 700 K), best performances are currently obtained by the well-known $Bi₂Te₃$ compound with maximum *ZT* values around 1 (or higher) at 400 K, or AgPb_mSbTe_{2+m}, Zn₄Sb₃, and $Yb_{0.19}Co_4Sb_{12}$ for temperatures between 400 K and 700 K.² However, it is well known that tellurium is toxic, scarce and expensive, preventing the use of $Bi₂Te₃$ for large scale applications. This has led to increasing efforts to find new environmentally-friendly, light and efficient thermoelectric materials in low and medium temperature ranges.

In the 2000's, Imai *et al.* have reported a large value of the Seebeck coefficient in TiS₂ ($S = -$ 250 μ V/K at 300K) combined with a relatively low and metallic-like resistivity (ρ = 1.7 m Ω .cm at 300K).³ In the following years, no great efforts have been devoted to this compound regarding thermoelectric applications and only recently, several studies have demonstrated its great potential as thermoelectric material.⁴⁻⁸ In addition, $TiS₂$ offers several advantages for practical applications such as low toxicity, low cost and low density (3.25 $g.cm^{-3}$).

Unfortunately, the rather simple structure of $TiS₂$ composed of light elements is unfavorable for phonon scattering. Thermal conductivity is usually found above 4 W/mK at *RT* in pristine single crystals or bulk materials. One of the main strategies for developing $TiS₂$ compounds with enhanced ZT values is then to reduce κ whilst keeping high electrical performances. Due to its layered structure, $TiS₂$ compound offers the enormous capacity for chemical substitution and intercalation to provide a mechanism for optimizing the thermoelectric response through tuning of the transport properties and in the same time decreasing the lattice thermal

conductivity. The Seebeck coefficient and the electrical conductivity of the $TiS₂$ layered compounds can then be optimized through change in charge carrier concentration, so the power factor can be potentially increased in a specified temperature range. Also the intercalated layer or substituted element in the structure can potentially create disorder and phonon scattering reducing the lattice thermal conductivity. The overall *ZT* value of the material can be then potentially increased using intercalation and substitution approaches.

Structurally, TiS_2 also offers the possibility to intercalate full block layers between the CdI₂ layers forming the so-called misfit compounds. These natural superlattices with general formula $(MX)_{1+x}(TX_2)_n$, $(M = Pb, Bi, Sn, Sb$, rare-earth elements; $T = Ti, V, Cr, Nb, Ta; X = S$, Se; n = 1, 2, 3) are built by intercalating a *M*S layer into the van der Waals gap of layered $TiS₂$ ⁹ The intercalated block layer was proved to suppress phonon transport, which is attributed to softening of the transverse sound velocities due to weakened interlayer bonding. The thermoelectric properties are then enhanced making these natural superlattice structures as possible candidate high-performance thermoelectric materials.

Based on the above cited approaches, we show in this review how the thermoelectric properties can be modified in crystallographic structures based on $TiS₂$ type layer, by playing with 1) intercalation, 2) substitution, 3) non-stoichiometry and 4) block layer concept. From these different studies, $TiS₂$ appears as a model structure for the study of the mechanisms, which govern the electrical and thermal transport properties of materials for thermoelectric applications.

B. Crystal structure and electrical properties

TiS2 belongs to the layered transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDC's) *MX*2 (*M* is a transition metal atom from the group IVb, Vb or VIb columns of the periodic table, $X = S$, Se, or Te) which have been attractive compounds over a long term of years due to the rich variety of the physical properties.¹⁰⁻¹² Depending on the structure type and constituting elements, the TMDC compounds can exhibit either insulating (HfS_2) , semiconductor (ZrS_2) , or metal like behavior ($NbS₂$, TaS₂). The question, of whether TiS₂ is intrinsically semiconducting or semimetallic, has been intensively investigated for more than four decades. It has presented a challenge study to both experimental and theoretical techniques which is still under debate.¹³⁻²¹ It is nevertheless well accepted that the main explanation of discrepancies in terms of physical properties originates from non-stoichiometry in the so-called $Ti_{1+x}S_2$. The effect of nonstoichiometry on the thermoelectric properties will be presented in paragraph D.2.

In its most common form (1*T*), bulk titanium disulphide (TiS₂) crystallizes in a hexagonal layered structure $(P\overline{3}m-1)$ consisting of one hexagonally packed sheet of metal atoms contained between two hexagonal sheets of chalcogens for each layer, where atoms within a layer are bound by strong covalent forces. This structural arrangement leads to metal atoms surrounded by six chalcogen atoms in an octahedral environment (Fig. 1a), resulting in weak chalcogen-chalcogen van der Waals interactions between adjacent layers with S-Ti-S slabs stacked along the *c* axis. $(c = 5.6912 \text{ Å})$

As shown in Figure 2, the crystal structure of misfit $(MS)_{1+x}$ (TiS₂)₂ compounds is composed of a *M*S layer sandwiched by paired TiS₂ layers separated by a van der Waals gap.⁹ The atomic structure of a $(PbS)_{1.18}(TiS_2)_2$ single crystal has been previously refined.²² The Pb and S(1) atoms of the PbS subsystem are on the 4(*i*) sites of space group C2/m; each Pb atom is coordinated by five S atoms located at the corners of a slightly distorted square pyramid (NaCl structure). As Pb atoms protrude from the sulfur planes on both sides, each Pb atom is also bonded to the S atoms of the TiS₂ slabs by weak covalent force. The atoms of the $(Tis_2)_2$ subsystem are on $2(e)$ sites of space group C_2/m . Each Ti atom is coordinated by six S atoms in a trigonal antiprismatic arrangement. The TiS₂ slab is slightly distorted compared with 1T- $TiS₂$ in which Ti is octahedrally coordinated.

C. Experimental details

All of the $TiS₂$ series were synthesized in a two steps process including sealed tube synthesis and Spark Plasma Sintering. For the $Cu_xTiS₂$ series, $TiS₂$ powder was first synthesized in sealed silica tube at 923K/12h from the stoichiometric mixture of pure elements. Then, this powder was ground and mixed with Cu in stoichiometric amounts (Details in Ref. ⁵). For the Ag_xTiS₂ series, silver, titanium and sulfur were mixed together and synthesized in sealed silica tube at 923K/12h (Details in Ref. ²³). For the $Ti_{1-x}Ta_{x}S_2$ series, the powders were synthesized by two successive heating steps in sealed fused silica tubes.²⁴ The powders were first heated at 1223K, then grinded, pelletized and heated again at 1273K for 48h. For the Ti₁₋ *x*Nb*x*S₂ series, pure elements were mixed and synthesized in sealed silica tubes at 905K for 12h.²⁵ The non-stoichiometric $Ti_{1+x}S_2$ series was synthesized in sealed silica tubes at 905K for 12h. All the as-synthesized powders were agglomerated and composed of plate-like grains of

1-10 µm (in the *ab* plane) depending of the heating temperature. The powders were ground and sieved down to 200 µm.

 $Cu_xTiS₂$, Ag_xTiS₂, and T_{1-x}Ta_xS₂ powders were placed in graphite dies of 15 mm diameter and densified by Spark Plasma Sintering (SPS) (FCT HPD 25) at 1073-1173K for 10-30 min under a pressure of 50 MPa. $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$ and $Ti_{1+x}S_2$ powders were placed in tungsten carbide (WC) dies of 10 mm diameter and densified by the same SPS machine at 873K for 30 min under a pressure of 300 MPa. The use of WC dies at low sintering temperature (873K) prevents from sulfur volatilization; this will be discussed latter.

After SPS, the final dimensions of the pellets are around 7 mm in thickness and 10-15 mm in diameter. The geometrical densities range between 95% and 100% of the theoretical ones.

The $(MS)_{1+x}(TiS_2)_2$ ($M = Bi$, Sn, Pb) powders were prepared using a solid-liquid-vapor reaction method. For each composition, the *M*, S, Ti powders were mixed in the molar ratio of 1:2:5 and then sealed in an evacuated silica tube. The silica tube was then fired in an electric furnace at 773K for 12 h, then at 1073K for 48 h and finally cooled down to room temperature. The obtained powders with luster were ground and sieved. SPS method (SPS-1050, Sumitomo Mining Coal Mining Co. Ltd.) was also used to densify the powders at 973K for 10 min under the pressure of 50 MPa into a pellet with diameter of 15 mm and thickness of 6 mm.

Since the microstructures of all the samples in the present review are anisotropic, these latter were deliberately machined for thermoelectric properties measurements in the direction perpendicular to the pressure.

 Thermoelectric property measurements have been performed on samples extracted from the same pellet. For section D.1, D.2 and D.3, Seebeck coefficient and electrical resistivity were measured from RT to 700K on an Ulvac Riko ZEM3 system under partial pressure of helium. Similarly, a Netzsch 457 microflash laser flash system was used to assess the thermal diffusivity under dynamic N_2 flow. Thermal conductivity was calculated from the product of thermal diffusivity, density and heat capacity. The latter was measured using a commercial Netzsch DSC STA 449 F3 Jupiter. The values were found to be very close to those obtained by using the Dulong-Petit approximation $(0.42 \text{ J.g}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1})$. Hall-effect experiments were carried out at 300K using a Physical Properties Measurement System (PPMS Quantum Design) in a magnetic field up to 7 T. For section D.4, the Seebeck coefficient and electrical conductivity were measured simultaneously by a conventional steady-state method and a four-probe method, respectively, in an Ar atmosphere at 300 K to 773 K (RZ-2001K;Ozawa Science). The carrier concentration was determined by Hall-effect measurements with a van der Pauw electrode configuration under a vacuum of 10^{-3} Pa over the same temperature range (Resi Test 8300; Toyo Technica). The heat capacity and thermal diffusivity were measured by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC-2910; TA Instruments) and a laser-flash method (TC-9000V; ULVAC-RIKO), respectively. The thermal conductivity was calculated as the product of density, heat capacity, and thermal diffusivity.

From these measurements, the average zT uncertainty is about 15-20%.

Details on the structural characterizations are given in the respective cited references.

D. Results and Discussion

D. 1. Intercalation and staging effect in $\mathbf{Ag}_x \mathbf{TiS}_2$ **and** $\mathbf{Cu}_x \mathbf{TiS}_2$

 $TiS₂$ is one of the most well-known intercalation compounds. Its van der Waals gap can be filled by various types of chemical moieties such as molecules.²⁶ structural blocks made of a stacking of several atomic layers in the case of "misfit" TiS_2 phases, $4,27,28$ or metallic atoms such as the 3*d* Ti metal (self-intercalation according to $Ti_{1+x}S_2$, see the non-stoichiometry section), Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and heavier metals such as Ag and Bi or alkaline cations (Na, Li).²⁹⁻³⁶ The intercalants act on both crystallographic and electronic structures. On the one hand, depending on the size of the intercalants and the degree of its covalency to the neighboring S layers, the distance between two successive $TiS₂$ layers can be increased or decreased. For instance, the c unit-cell parameter decreases as Co is intercalated in $TiS₂$ from 5.70 Å for stoichiometric TiS₂ down to 5.62 Å for Co_{0.57}TiS₂,^{37,38} whereas *c* increases rapidly with Cu, to reach 5.76 Å for $Cu_{0.1}TiS₂⁵$. The *c* contraction in the case of Co is explained by the very covalent character of the Co-S bonding.³⁷ On the other hand, depending on the electronic transfer between the intercalates and the $TiS₂$ layer, more or less charges are transferred in the empty 3*d* orbitals of titanium, indicating that through these species, the doping level of the " $TiS₂$ " can be tuned.

Interestingly, intercalations can induce also complex in-plane superstructures, as for Co or Ag with ordering of the metal cations occupation into the crystallographic sites of the van der Waals gap: in the case of Ag_xTiS₂, the *a* $\sqrt{3} \times a \sqrt{3}$ superlattice has been evidenced for temperatures just below room temperature.³⁹ In addition, silver is a peculiar intercalant as it favors staging, *i.e.* out-of-plane ordering phenomena. In the following, a comparison between

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 $Cu_xTiS₂$ and $Ag_xTiS₂$ is made to illustrate the different effect of these intercalations on the crystallographic structure and a comparison of their thermoelectric properties is also given.

Copper intercalation leads to the so-called stage 1 structure of $M_xTiS₂$, where *M* is a metal, at least for small amounts ($x \le 0.1$ in ref. ⁵). In that case, as for all 3*d M* intercalants, a continuous *x* variable content of *M* cations is randomly distributed into the successive van der Waals gaps (Fig. 1b). Accordingly, the c unit-cell parameter for $Cu_xTiS₂$ increases monotonously from 5.707(1) Å to 5.759(1) Å as *x* increases from $x=0$ to $x=0.1$ (Fig. 3). The veracity of the intercalation is also confirmed by EDS analysis coupled to electron diffraction within a transmission electron microscope.

This monotonous evolution is in marked contrast with the situation encountered in the Ag_xTiS₂ case, a series for which dense ceramics can be also obtained by SPS.²³ In fact, for $x =$ 0.2, a large fraction of the sample (about 85%) crystallizes in the so-called stage 2 form (Fig. 1c): this structure, ideally written Ag_{1/6}TiS₂, consists in the 1:1 stacking of empty or one third filled van der Waals gaps. The crystallographic space group is $\overline{P3m-1}$ with $a = 3.416(4)$ Å and $c = 12.100(2)$ Å. The structural refinement of the "Ag_{0.2}TiS₂" nominal composition leads to a 85%-15% mixture of stage 2, with $a = 3.416(1)$ Å and $c = 12.110(1)$ Å, *i.e.* values very close to those just mentioned for $Ag_{1/6}TiS₂$, coexisting with a stage 1 $Ag_xTiS₂$ phase. The latter corresponds to random distribution of Ag over the crystallographic sites in every successive van der Waals gaps (Fig. 1b) as in the case of Cu_xTiS₂. Nevertheless, in this stage 1 phase, the *c* cell-unit parameter (6.053(1) Å) is much larger than in the case of $Cu_xTiS₂$ ($x=0.1$, Table1). It is clear that this stage 1 phase corresponds to a Ag rich phase, consistently with the nominal content beyond the ideal $x=1/6$ value of the stage 2. Thus, this $Ag_xTiS₂$ ceramic series can be described as composites. In fact they are all made of a mixture of stage 1 and stage 2 phases. Even by starting from " $Ag_{0.05}TiS₂$ ", a phase mixture of a majority (95%) of stage 1, with $a =$ 3.408(1) Å and $c = 5.710(1)$ Å, and a stage 2 phase (5%), with $a = 3.409(1)$ Å, and $c =$ 11.570(2) Å, is obtained. For the $\text{Ag}_x \text{TiS}_2$, the *c* unit-cell parameter increases with *x* (Fig. 3), confirming the Ag content intercalated between the layers increases in both stage 1 and stage 2 phases. When compared to $Cu_xTiS₂$, the *c* unit-cell parameter values for the stage 1 are significantly lower with $c=5.759$ Å and $c=5.717(2)$ Å for Cu_{0.1}TiS₂ and Ag_{0.1}TiS₂, respectively. This is in fair agreement with the formation of Ag rich stage 2 phase in Ag_xTiS₂.

The presence of a majority of either stage 2 or stage 1 phase in " $Ag_{0.2}TiS_2$ " and " $Ag_{0.05}TiS₂$ ", is confirmed by the [010] electron diffraction patterns (Fig. 4b) which show the

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presence of additional spots along the [001] direction for the former corresponding to the *c* doubling. Accordingly, the presence of the two different phases in $Ag_xTiS₂$ induces an important local atomic disorder as illustrated by the high resolution TEM image of " $Ag_{0.1}TiS₂$ " with the presence of local regions of stage 2 in the stage 1 matrix (Fig. 4c). The presence of streaks on the main spots in the [010] electron diffraction pattern (Inset Fig. 4c) indicates the presence of stacking faults. The elongations of the (00*l*) spots are consistent with local variations of the *c* axis values as a result of the closeness of the *c* parameter for the stage 1 and *c*/2 for the stage 2 phase. It supports that the distance between two successive layers is spontaneously increased or decreased, which confirms that the silver cations are randomly distributed in the TiS₂ host structure. In Ag_{0.05}TiS₂ (Fig 4a), the absence of diffuse line along the [001] direction indicates the structure is less disordered as compared to the silver rich samples.

Although, the structural features of $Cu_xTiS₂$ and $Ag_xTiS₂$ differ, it is remarkable that their physical properties (ρ , *S*) are very similar (Fig. 5). At 700K and for *x*=0.10 in *M_x*TiS₂, the electrical resistivity and Seebeck coefficient are equal to 1.4 m Ω .cm and -125 µV/K for Cu, and 2.1 mΩ.cm and -154 μ V/K for Ag. This leads to very similar *PF* values, *PF*_{700K}=1.09 mW/mK^2 and PF_{700K} =1.12 mW/mK² for Cu_{0.1}TiS₂ and Ag_{0.1}TiS₂, respectively (Table 1). These results support the fact that both types of intercalating cations provide charges to the neighboring $TiS₂$ slabs which is confirmed by the Hall measurements at 300K performed to estimate the electron concentration, with $n = 3.7 \times 10^{21}$ cm⁻³ for Cu_{0.1}TiS₂ to be compared to $n =$ $0.65x10^{21}$ cm⁻³ in the "TiS₂" ceramic prepared by using the same SPS conditions (Table 1).

For both Ag and Cu, it is found that these cations are very efficient to increase the phonon scattering through structural disorder, described above. The thermal conductivity (x) , and the lattice part (κ_L) deduced by subtracting the electronic part (κ_e) to κ , are given in Fig. 6. For $Ag_{0.1}TiS_2$ and $Cu_{0.1}TiS_2$, κ values at 700K are close to 1.8 to 2 W/mK. It must be emphasized that such κ values are very similar to those reported for TiS₂ prepared with the same process, *i.e.* $\kappa \sim 2.0$ -2.1 W/mK. Taking into account the ρ decrease as *x* increases in M_xTiS_2 with $M=Ag$ or Cu, this demonstrates that these intercalations are very efficient to reduce the lattice part of the thermal conductivity (κ_L). At 700K, κ_L decreases from ~1.8 W/mK in TiS₂ down to 0.8-0.9 W/mK in M_0 ₁TiS₂ (M=Ag or Cu). Accordingly, the *ZT* values are relatively close at 700K with $ZT=0.46$ for $Ag_{0.1}TiS₂$ against $ZT=0.38$ for $Cu_{0.1}TiS₂$ (Table 1).

D.2. Role of non-Stoichiometry

The $TiS₂$ layered structure offers as well a great flexibility, with large non stoichiometry range (*i.e.* $Ti_{1+x}S_2$). Ti S_2 is a Pauli paramagnet, but its electronic structure has been debated for several decades to determine if $TiS₂$ is a semimetal or semiconductor. This debate is directly linked to the $TiS₂$ stoichiometry, in which defects and doping are difficult to control. The existence of stoichiometric $TiS₂$ is still controversial. In fact, it is well known and accepted that $TiS₂$ tends to grow metal rich and that the excess Ti atoms intercalate into the Van der Waals gap, leading to Ti_{1+x}S₂. Each excess Ti atom is assumed to be donor of four electrons to the conduction band. This off-stoichiometry is the main explanation of discrepancies in terms of physical and thermoelectric properties of the so-called $TiS₂$. Despite its rather simple composition, the synthesis of stoichiometric $TiS₂$ is complex. Atmosphere, pressure, temperature and synthesis conditions are among many factors which can affect sulfur volatilization. For example, Jeannin *et al.* firstly reported it was not possible to synthesize stoichiometric TiS_2 ^{40,41} Later, Mikkelsen *et al.*⁴² reported that the ideal temperature for stabilizing stoichiometric T_iS_2 is 632°C. Above this temperature, the offstoichiometry is inherent due to the sulfur loss.

In the view point of thermoelectric properties, a wide range of Seebeck coefficient, electrical resistivity, and thermal conductivity values can be found for the so-called $TiS₂$, $3,4,18,21,24,25,43-47$ Thermoelectric properties are greatly dependent on the off-stoichiometry, which controls the charge carrier concentration. As a result, a spread range of Seebeck coefficient values can be found in $1T-Ti_{1+x}S_2$. For example, Thompson *et al.*¹⁷ reported the highest Seebeck coefficient for TiS₂ around -270 μ V/K whereas this coefficient is divided by around five $(-60\mu\text{V/K})$ in Ti_{1.05}S₂.

It appeared then of fundamental importance to understand the influence of Ti/S stoichiometry on the thermoelectric properties of $TiS₂$. If optimization of the power factor is possible by controlling the off-stoichiometry, *i.e.* the carrier concentration, the above results obtained on $A_{\alpha}TIS_2$ and $Cu_{x}TiS_2$ suggest that the thermal conductivity could be reduced in the same time through structural disorder induced by the self-intercalation of Ti atoms in $TiS₂$ layers, even in a small amount. Based on this concept, we have investigated in details the effect of nonstoichiometry on the electrical and thermal properties in the $Ti_{1+x}S_2$ series.⁶

From a structural point of view, XRD patterns confirm that, for all *x* values in the range 0 $\leq x \leq 0.05$, a single phase derived from TiS₂ is obtained. All XRD patterns were well

described in the trigonal space group $\overline{P3}ml$ of the TiS₂ host structure. Intercalation results in a systematic expansion of the unit-cell axis along the stacking direction and of the unit-cell volume. The *c* parameter increases from 5.678(1) Å for $x = 0$ to 5.715(1) Å for $x=0.05$ (Table 1).

The temperature dependence of the electrical resistivity in the $Ti_{1+x}S_2$ series is displayed in Figure 7. The electrical resistivity curves demonstrate a general tendency towards more conducting behavior as the Ti interstitial atom content increases. We note that the electrical resistivity of the heavily doped compound $Ti_{1.05}S₂$ is almost independent with temperature. The present results show some similarities with the behavior of alkali or metal intercalated TiS2, where a charge-transfer mechanism is classically used to account for the observed phenomena. As discussed above, it is reasonable to assume here that the valence electrons of the intercalated metallic titanium atoms transfer to the Ti 3*d* band of the host, leading to an increase of electron concentration (Table 1) and enhancement of the metallic behavior of $Ti_{1+x}S₂$. This suggestion is also consistent with the decreased Seebeck coefficient (300K) when increasing x content (Figure 8). If we compare our data with previous studies, our results are closest to those reported by Thompson *et al.* in 1975.¹⁷ As we can observe from Fig. 8, a wide range of Seebeck coefficient values ranging from -38 μ V/K for Li *et al.*⁴⁶ to -270 μ V/K for Thompson *et al.* have been reported for the so-called TiS₂, whilst intermediate values of *ca*. -160 μ V/K and -80 μ V/K were obtained by Guilmeau *et al.*⁵ and Wan *et al.*⁴ respectively. Of course, the main explanation of such a large variation in Seebeck coefficient values comes from differences in sample preparation that leads to different Ti/S ratios due to sulphur loss.

It must be also pointed out that the magnitudes of the Seebeck coefficient and electrical resistivity are rather comparable between the three first members of our series (*i.e.* $x=0$, $x=0.005$ and $x=0.01$). This repeatable behavior is mainly explained by the slight oxidation of TiS₂ into TiO₂ which occurs during SPS treatment. If TiO_{2- ν} traces have not been systematically detected in the XRD patterns of our samples (usually in the detection limit), the oxidation most probably originates from hydroxide or H_2O adsorption on the powder after sealed tube synthesis. As a consequence, the Ti content between the layers decreases due to the oxidation reaction during SPS and induces a decrease in carrier concentration, corresponding to an increase in Seebeck coefficient and electrical resistivity. Therefore, the slight increase in carrier concentration induced by off-stoichiometry is balanced by the titanium de-intercalation during SPS (decrease in carrier concentration). The first three

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members of the series have then quite similar properties when measured after SPS. It is also interesting to note that the absolute value of the Seebeck coefficient measured before SPS (on pressed powders) is lower as compared to SPS samples, which supports the idea that few Ti cations de-intercalate during oxidation reaction in SPS. Such behaviour was never observed before and confirms the high sensibility of TiS_2 to oxidation. Finally, the saturation of $|S|$ close to 300 μ V/K in powder or bulk specimens also indicates that the stoichiometric composition is certainly achieved (or very close). To our knowledge, such value was never reported on $TiS₂$ before.

As for other intercalated TiS₂ compounds like Ag_xTiS_2 , Cu_xTiS_2 and Nd_xTiS_2 ,⁴⁵ the presence of titanium in the intercalation sites decreases the lattice part of the thermal conductivity. The Ti intercalation between the TiS₂ layers generates disorder and phonon scattering even for a small excess of titanium. As shown in Figure 9, the lattice and total thermal conductivity respectively decrease with Ti off-stoichiometry. As reported recently by Wan *et al.*⁴ in $(MS)_{1+x}(TiS_2)_{2}$ (M=Pb, Bi, Sn) misfit layer compounds, the decrease in the lattice thermal conductivity may be linked to the weak interlayer bonding and disruption of periodicity of the TiS2 layers in the direction perpendicular to the layers by the intercalated Ti layers. HRTEM study of the $Ti_{1.05}S₂$ sample (Figure 10) supports the existence of local disordering forming a "wavy" structure related to local intercalation of Ti between successive $TiS₂$ slabs. The magnitude of the κ_L reduction (54% in the present study from $x = 0$ to $x = 0.025$ at 300 K) through Ti intercalation is in good agreement with intercalated $Cu_xTiS₂$, Nd_xTiS₂ and misfit $(SnS)_{1.2}(TiS₂)₂$ compounds which exhibit a substantial decrease of between 30% and 50%.^{4,5,45} The decrease with *x* appears more important in this series as compared to Ag_xTiS_2 and $Cu_xTiS₂$ (Figure 6). This is mainly explained by the more stoichiometric nature of the pristine $x=0$ compound in the $Ti_{1+x}S_2$ series. This result suggests that the creation of an intermediate layer even composed of few intercalated metal cations is a highly efficient approach to decrease the thermal conductivity of $TiS₂$. In summary, controlled Ti/S stoichiometry allowed optimization of the electrical properties with optimum power factors of ~1.7 mW/mK² at 300 K and 1.04 mW/mK² at 700 K achieved for $x = 0.015$ and $x = 0.02$, respectively. The thermal conductivity being drastically reduced by effective phonon scattering through Ti intercalation in off-stoichiometric compounds, the resulting *ZT* is enhanced up to 0.48 at 700 K for *x*=0.025.

D.3. Solid solutions $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$, $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$

First proposed by Ioffe in 1956,⁴⁸ the formation of solid solution from isotructural compounds (alloying effect) is a time-honored technique of reducing lattice thermal conductivity that has been used in the development of all state of the art thermoelectric materials.⁴⁹ Solid solutions are archetypes examples of point defects scattering where both mass and strain fluctuations tend to effectively scatter high frequency phonons. Mass fluctuations scattering is probably the easier chemical way to deal with, and in fact, might be the major contribution in many semiconductor solid solutions. A particular solid solution will be benefit to thermoelectricity (improvement in *ZT*) provided the ratio of its mobility to its lattice thermal conductivity is larger than for pristine compounds constituting solid solution.

From the literature, few papers have been devoted to the study of solid solutions in TiS₂. Most of them concerns $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$, $50-53$ $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$, 54 $Ti_{1-x}Cr_xS_2$, $55-56$ $Ti_{1-x}V_xS_2$, 57 $Ti_{1-x}Zr_xS_2$, 58 From fundamental aspects, this type of substitution offers various possibilities for the manipulation of the *d* electron concentration and the examination of the effects of that concentration on the electrical, magnetic, and thermal properties of the system. In fact, for thermoelectric properties, such chemical approach offers the possibility to tune the carrier concentration of $TiS₂$, while, in the same time, to scatter phonons through structural disorder, point defects and/or mass fluctuations effects. Also, if electrical properties of the above solid solutions have been solely studied at low temperature, it is wise to determine both the electrical and thermal properties at higher temperatures. We have deemed appropriate to revisit the synthesis of Ti₁. $_xTa_xS₂$ and Ti_{1-x}Nb_{*x*}S₂ series and to examine their thermoelectric properties.</sub>

TiS₂ and TaS₂ are known to exhibit different crystal symmetries related to the layered MX_2 dichalcogenide structure type. While $TiS₂$ crystallizes mainly in the 1*T* form, $TaS₂$ can adopt several forms, referred as 1*T*, 2*H*, 3*R*, 4*H*, 6*R* phases, and $NbS₂$ only 2*H* and 3*R* forms. For 1*T*-TiS₂, CdI₂ layer is composed of edge-shared octahedra of TiS₆ that form infinite layers perpendicular to the c axis. Differently, in $3R$ -TaS₂ and $3R$ -NbS₂, metal atoms are in trigonal prismatic coordination typical from some *MX*2 phases.

All the structure of the series $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$ (for $x \le 0.4$) were well refined in the aristotype space group $P\overline{3}ml$, which implies a statistic distribution of the titanium and tantalum atoms over the same crystallographic site (Ti/Ta 1a: 0, 0, 0 and S 2d : $1/3$, $2/3$, *z*). Above $x = 0.4$, the XRD pattern can be refined as a mixture of $1T$ -TiS₂ and $3R$ -TaS₂ phases. This result differs from previous studies where the substitution replacement of Ta for Ti seems to stabilize the octahedral 1*T* phase on the full range of the solid solution ($0 \le x \le 1$). Shorten annealing dwell time in our study is probably the main explanation to such difference. Nevertheless, $3R-TaS₂$ showing a metallic-like behavior with low Seebeck coefficient,^{10,11} our study remained focused on only the single phases with $x \le 0.4$. The existence of this $Ti_{1-x}Ta_{x}S_2$ solid solution (for $x \leq 0.4$) was confirmed by the linear evolution of cell parameters that follows Vegard's law with *x* varying from 0 to 0.4 (Table 1).²⁴ Indeed, between the two end members from $x =$ 0 to $x = 0.4$, the average spacing between TiS₂ layers (*c* parameter) expands linearly from 5.704(1) Å to 5.781(1) Å as Ta content increases; correspondingly, the *a* parameter decreases slightly from 3.407(1) Å to 3.388(1) Å. These results confirm the MS_6 octahedron distortion along the 3-fold axis due to the different ionic radius (0.605 Å for Ti^{4+} and 0.68 Å for Ta⁴⁺), as suggested in $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$ solid solution.⁵³ Such behaviour of lattice parameters *a* and *c* is also found in our $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$ series $(0 \le x \le 0.05)$,²⁵ as also previously observed in $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$ series $(0 \le x \le 1)^{54}$ and $W_{1-x}M_{0x}S_2$ $(0 \le x \le 1)$ solid solution.⁵⁹ The evolution of the cell parameters is given in table 1. In the $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$ series, to prevent from any sulfur loss during synthesis, single phase with 1T crystallographic form was obtained at lower temperature (905K). The solid solution then exists only for $x \le 0.05$, the 3R-NbS₂ phase being present above this value. On the other hand, the decrease in *a* parameter indicates that Ta/Nb for Ti substitution takes place in the structure and that intercalation between $TiS₂$ slabs unlikely occurs. This assumption is confirmed by HRTEM observations in which no structural defects or "wavy" layers are observed (Figure 11).

The temperature dependence of the electrical resistivity in the $Ti_{1-x}Ta_{x}S_{2}$ and Ti_{1} . *^x*Nb*x*S2 series is displayed in Figure 12a. A difference of one order of magnitude is observed between the two series which is due to the drastic sulphur volatilization occurring during the process at high temperature requested for the formation of the Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS₂ solid solution (*i.e.* 1223-1273K, see experimental part, against $905-923K$ in the other series). In addition, $Ti₁$ $xNb_xS₂$ compounds were densified using WC dies at 873K (like in Ti_{1+*x*}S₂ series), which also helps in preventing from sulfur loss. As mentioned above, sulfur volatilization generates excess titanium atoms which intercalates into the van der Waals gap. This generates conduction electrons in the Ti *3d* band by charge transfer, and increases the carrier concentration (table 1), as confirmed by the low Seebeck values measured in the $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$ series (Figure 12b). The *c* cell parameters for $x=0$ and $x=0.05$ are also found higher in Ti₁. $_{x}Ta_{x}S_{2}$ than in $Ti_{1-x}Nb_{x}S_{2}$, which is in good agreement with significant Ti self-intercalation in $Ti_{1-x}Ta_{x}S_2$

 As an overall trend for both series, the electrical resistivity and Seebeck coefficient curves demonstrate a clear tendency towards more conducting behavior as the Ta/Nb content

increases. This more metallic behavior is also confirmed by the decreasing magnitude of the slope of the electrical resistivity as a function of temperature when Ta content increases. Such behavior is explained by the increase of the overlap between the atomic orbitals of the metal, when the titanium atoms are gradually replaced by tantalum or niobium ones. As a consequence, the binding character of the metal/metal interaction increases in the $Ti₁$ $x(Ta,Nb)xS_2$ series when *x* content increases. In addition, Y. Tison *et al.*⁵³ have clearly shown that energetic dispersion of the t_{2g} levels is higher for TaS₂ (4.1 eV) than for TiS₂ (2.1 eV), in agreement with the literature. This band dispersion can directly be correlated to the binding metal-metal interactions which takes part in a non-negligible way in cohesion of tantalum disulphide while such metallic bonds are less considered in titanium disulphide. Such effect is also valid in Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS₂ series. Finally, because of the different electronic configuration of the metal atoms in their sulfur environment $(Ti^{+}(d^0), Ta^{+}, Nb^{+}(d^1))$, the conduction band is empty for $TiS₂$ and partially filled when Ta/Nb for Ti substitution takes place, increasing the carrier concentration in each series. Furthermore, as expected, the Hall mobility decreases with Ta/Nb content as seen in Table 1. This is in good agreement with previous papers $50,51$ and confirms increased scattering effect due to an increase in charge carrier concentration. The power factor does not exceed 0.7 mW/mK² in both series (Table 1), and is significantly lower than in $Cu_xTiS₂$, $Ag_xTiS₂$, and $Ti_{1+x}S₂$ series. Since the optimum carrier concentration in TiS₂ was determined between 0.5 and 3×10^{21} cm⁻³ (bold numbers in table 1), these low *PF* values are mainly related to the carrier concentration which is too low in Nb-substituted compounds $(n < 0.5 \times 10^{21} \text{ cm}^3)$ and too high in Ta-substituted series $(n > 3 \times 10^{21} \text{ cm}^3)$. In addition, the increased electron scattering in substituted compounds (higher *x* content) generates lower mobilities. It highlights the crucial role of non-stoichiometry in $TiS₂$, and the importance of process conditions to control the Ti/S ratio in the final product and to optimize the electrical properties.

The temperature dependences of the total thermal conductivity κ and lattice contribution κ_L for $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$ and $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$ series are respectively displayed in Figure 13 and 14. It can be seen that, in both series, κ does not significantly increase with x content whereas the electronic contribution increases significantly with *x* due to charge carriers doping. In addition, it is obvious that the total and lattice thermal conductivity are significantly larger in the $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$ series than in the $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$ one. Such difference is mainly explained by two effects: 1) Ta-substituted compounds are self-intercalated by Ti cations which induces phonon scattering due to structural disorder (See paragraph on non-stoichiometry), 2) the relative

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densities are higher in $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$ series (close to 100%) than in the $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$ (>95%), due to higher SPS pressure (300 MPa against 50 MPa).

Regarding the evolution of the lattice thermal conductvity with *x*, it can be seen that κ_L decreases significantly with Ta/Nb content. As expected, the partial substitution of heavy elements (tantalum, niobium) for constituent elements (titanium) reduces the lattice thermal conductivity. The origin of this behaviour may be due to two principal effects, namely structural disorder/deformation due to octahedral distortion and/or mass fluctuation effect. For a quantitative and better understanding of this change in lattice thermal conductivity in this system, we have analyzed its temperature dependence by Debye-Callaway model.⁶⁰ The strain effect was analyzed based on the observed lattice volume change with Ta/Nb amount, and was found to be negligible compared with mass effect. Structural disorder/deformation from octahedral distorsion, as discussed before, in the layers due to the higher tantalum radius compared to titanium radius may be then excluded as a major contribution for the decrease in the lattice thermal conductivity. The mass difference between Ti and Ta/Nb then effectively depresses the κ_L in this system.

As shown in Table 1, the *ZT* is enhanced by Ta/Nb substitution in TiS₂ below $x=0.05$. Since the carrier concentration and power factor are not optimized, the figure of merit *ZT* remains lower than in the other studied systems. Control of Ti/S ratio in the final product is then required to enhance the thermoelectric properties. Other substitution (Zr, Cr, V) may be an alternative approach to control the carrier concentration in $TiS₂$ based solid solutions for better thermoelectric performances.

D.4. Block layer concept

In order to maintain the high power factor of the layered $TiS₂$ while reducing the thermal conductivity, we propose a natural superlattice structure by intercalating one layer of *M*S $(M=Pb, Sn, Bi)$ into the van der Waals gap of TiS₂, forming misfit layer compounds $(MS)_{1+x}$ (TiS₂)₂. The electron path inside the TiS₂ layers would not be destroyed and the intercalated MS layer could behave as a phonon-blocking layer which can significantly reduce the thermal conductivity.^{4,27,28}

In the "in-plane" direction, the electrical conductivities of all $(MS)_{1+x}$ (TiS₂)₂ compounds are higher than that of $TiS₂$ and the Hall measurement confirms the higher carrier concentrations in the former compounds (Fig. 15). It has been realized there electron transfer

from the MX layer to the $TiS₂$ layers and additional covalent bonding between the M atoms and the sulfur atoms in the MX layer are formed. 9 From the carrier concentrations and the lattice parameters, we can estimate the number of electrons received per Ti atom for $(BiS)_{1.2}(TiS_2)_2$, $(SnS)_{1.2}(TiS_2)_2$ and $(PbS)_{1.18}(TiS_2)_2$ is 0.45, 0.16 and 0.2, respectively. Much more electron transfer takes place in $(BiS)_{1,2}(TiS_2)_2$ than the other two compositions, because the nominal valence of bismuth is 3+ here and the BiS layer could have one more electron transferred to the $TiS₂$ layers. Despite the increase of carrier concentration, the mobility of the misfit layer compound is almost maintained compared with that of $TiS₂$, as the electron transport path inside the $TiS₂$ layers is not destroyed. The Seebeck coefficients of $(MS)_{1+x}$ (TiS₂)₂ are decreased compared with that of TiS₂. In $(MS)_{1+x}$ (TiS₂)₂, a rigid band model can hold and the band structure is a superposition of those of *M*S and TiS₂ subsystem. The *d* orbitals of Ti play a dominant role in determining the transport properties. Therefore, the electron transfer from the *M*S layer could increase the degree of band filling and consequent upward shift of the Fermi level in the 3*d* orbital. As a result, the Seebeck coefficients of all the misfit layer compounds were all lower than that of TiS2.

All the $(MS)_{1+x}(TIS_2)_{2}$ compositions have lower thermal conductivities than TiS₂ in the inplane direction in the whole temperature range. The thermal conductivity is contributed by both phonons and electrons, where the electronic thermal conductivity could be estimated by the Wiedemann-Franz law. Compared with pure TiS₂, the misfit compounds also have much lower lattice thermal conductivities, which is related with their complex layered structure. As indicated by the kinetic theory, $k=1/3C_vVI$, where C_v , *V* and *l* represent the heat capacity, sound velocity, and phonon mean free path respectively. The sound velocity has three polarization modes, including one longitudinal mode and two transverse modes. In the inplane direction, the two transverse velocities are not equal because of the layered structure. Compared with pure $TiS₂$, the longitudinal velocities of the misfit layer compounds are slightly decreased, which can be attributed to the density increase. In contrast, the transverse sound velocities, especially V_{T1} , with its polarization vertical to the layers are remarkably reduced, as a result of weakened interlayer coupling in the misfit layer compounds.²⁷

Besides the sound velocity, various planar defects in the misfit layer compounds may also reduce the lattice thermal conductivity.⁶¹ As shown in Figure 16, $(PbS)_{1.18}(TiS_2)_2$ shows an ordered structure, where the paired TiS₂ layers and PbS layer are stacked periodically. In contrast, in $(SnS)_{1,2}(TiS_2)_{2}$ some of the SnS layers show a displacement of b/4 along the baxis, forming translational disorder. In $(BiS)_{1,2}(TiS_2)_2$, a mixture of staging-1 and staging-2

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compounds was found with extensive planar defects. The degree of disordering increases in the order of $(PbS)_{1.18}(TiS_2)_2$, $(SnS)_{1.2}(TiS_2)_2$, and $(BiS)_{1.2}(TiS_2)_2$, which can be confirmed by the increasingly diffused electron diffraction patterns. As shown in Figure 15c, the lattice thermal conductivity also decreases with increasing disorder.

All the misfit layer compounds show relatively high *ZT* values in the in-plane direction (Fig. 15d). However, compared with pure TiS_2 , only $(SnS)_{1.2}(TiS_2)_2$ shows a higher *ZT* value. The intercalation of *M*S layer does reduce the lattice thermal conductivity significantly, but the electron transfer effect in $(PbS)_{1.18}(TiS_2)_2$ and $(BiS)_{1.2}(TiS_2)_2$ is too strong, leading to a reduction in the power factor and an increase in the electronic thermal conductivity. It is required to reduce the carrier concentrations of the misfit layer compounds to optimize the thermoelectric performances.

E. Conclusion:

The thermoelectric properties of TiS_2 based materials have been reviewed here. Due to the great flexibility of this structure, lattice part of thermal conductivity can be strongly reduced by inserting cations or block-layer between the CdI2 type layers or by cationic substitutions. By these different chemical approaches, enhanced *ZT* values up to 0.5 at 700K have been reported, which remains low as compared to best thermoelectric materials. Ti S_2 is then seen more as a model structure for the study of the mechanisms which govern the electrical and thermal transport properties, than an efficient thermoelectric material. Nevertheless, the gained knowledge on $TiS₂$ should serve other layered systems (chalcogenides, oxides) where similar chemical strategies might be applied. In this sense, recent fabrication of hybrid superlattices of alternating inorganic TiS_2 monolayers and organic cations²⁶ with ultra low thermal conductivity (*ZT*=0.28 at 373K) is an attractive synthesis route that could lead to the discovery of new high efficiency thermoelectric materials. Transition metal layered lighter chalcogenides might then represent a replacement solution to the long known and used bismuth telluride that seems to suffer from the somewhat erratic price of the tellurium, but also from its relatively high density.

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Figure captions:

Figure 1: Schematic representations of a) TiS_2 , b) $(Ag,Cu)_xTiS_2$, stage 1 and c) $Ag_{0.167}TiS₂$, stage 2.

Figure 2: Crystal structure of $(PbS)_{1.18}(TiS_2)_2$ along the incommensurate direction

Figure 3: Evolution of the c cell-unit parameter in $Cu_xTiS₂$ and $Ag_xTiS₂$ series

Figure 4: ED patterns of a) $Ag_{0.05}TiS₂$ and b) $Ag_{0.2}TiS₂$ taken along [010] zone axis, c) [010] HRTEM image of $Ag_{0.1}TiS₂$ sample. Local incorporation of stage 2 structure in form of defects is marked with white arrows. The [010] ED pattern is given as an inset.

Figure 5: Electrical resistivity and Seebeck coefficient (700K) as a function of *x* in Cu_xTiS₂ and $\text{Ag}_x \text{TiS}_2$ series.

Figure 6: Thermal conductivity and its lattice component as a function of x in $Cu_xTiS₂$ and $Ag_xTiS₂$ series.

Figure 7: Temperature dependence of the electrical resistivity in the $Ti_{1+x}S_2$ series

Figure 8: Seebeck coefficient as a function of *x* in $Ti_{1+x}S_2$ at 300 K of our study, along with those previsously reported.

Figure 9: Thermal conductivity and its lattice component as a function of *x* in $Ti_{1+x}S_2$ series.

Figure 10: [010] HRTEM image of $Ti_{0.025}S_2$ sample. Local intercalation of Ti forming "wavy" defects are marked with white arrows.

Figure 11: [110] HRTEM image of $Ti_{0.9}Ta_{0.1}S_2$ sample.

Figure 12: Temperature dependence of a) electrical resistivity and b) Seebeck coefficient in the $Ti_{1-x}Ta_xS_2$ and $Ti_{1-x}Nb_xS_2$ series.

Figure 13: Temperature dependence of the thermal conductivity and its lattice component (κ_L) in the series $Ti_{1-x}Ta_{x}S_{2}$.

Figure 14: Temperature dependence of the thermal conductivity and its lattice component (κ_L) in the series $Ti_{1-x}Nb_{x}S_{2}$.

Figure 15 Seebeck coefficients (a), electrical conductivities (b),lattice thermal conductivities (c), and *ZT* values (d) of TiS₂ and $(MS)_{1+x}(TIS_2)_2$.

Figure 16: TEM images and electron diffraction patterns (left), simulated crystal structure (right) of $(PbS)_{1.18}(TiS_2)_2$ (a), $(SnS)_{1.2}(TiS_2)_2$ (b) and $(BiS)_{1.2}(TiS_2)_2$ (c) along the [100] zone axis.

Figure 1

Figure 2 560x776mm (72 x 72 DPI)

Figure 3 1147x806mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 4 132x188mm (300 x 300 DPI)

418x367mm (150 x 150 DPI)

413x360mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 7 360x358mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 8 384x367mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 10 74x49mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Figure 11

Figure 12a 367x369mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 12b 389x378mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 13 573x403mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 14 806x1147mm (150 x 150 DPI)

Figure 15 186x410mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Figure 16 209x424mm (150 x 150 DPI)