Rational Design of Hybrid Graphene Films for High-Performance Transparent Electrodes

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ABSTRACT  Transparent, flexible conducting films were fabricated by using a metallic grid and graphene hybrid film. Transparent electrodes using the hybrid film and transparent substrate such as glass or polyethylene terephthalate (PET) films were assembled. The sheet resistance of the fabricated transparent electrodes was as low as 3 Ω/□ with the transmittance at ~80%. At 90% transmittance, the sheet resistance was ~20 Ω/□. Both values are among the highest for transparent electrode materials to date. The materials used for the new hybrid electrode are earth-abundant stable elements, which increase their potential usefulness for replacement of indium tin oxide (ITO) in many applications.

KEYWORDS: graphene · transparent electrode · metal grid · flexible

Transparent conducting films have been widely used in applications such as solar cells, light-emitting devices, and electronic touch screens. Theoretical and experimental1–16 research indicates that graphene is a promising material for transparent electrodes. Monolayer graphene absorbs only 2.3% of visible light,16 rendering it one of the most transparent conductors available. Experimental results have demonstrated that graphene has a 230 000 cm2 V−1 s−1 electron mobility.17 The resistivity of pristine graphene has been estimated to be as low as 10−6 Ω·cm,18 which is a lower resistivity than silver. Generally the sheet resistance, Rs, is used to describe the electric conductivity of a two-dimensional transparent electrode. Rs has the following relationship to the mobility of materials:19

\[ R_s = \frac{t}{q n_m \mu_m} \]  

(1)

where \( n_m \) and \( \mu_m \) are the majority carrier density and mobility respectively, \( q \) is the unit charge, and \( t \) is the thickness. On the basis of the experimental mobility data, monolayer graphene with a transmittance (T) of 97.7% will have a theoretical minimum sheet resistance of ~30 Ω/□18 at a carrier density of 1012 cm−2. This predicted value is better than the present commercial transparent conducting material, indium tin oxide (ITO), whose sheet resistance is typically ~30–80 Ω/□ when the T = 90%. However, graphene’s extremely high mobility has only experimentally been observed on suspended graphene17 that is produced from mechanical exfoliation of highly ordered pyrolytic graphite (HOPG).17,20 Other scalable graphene-producing methods such as epitaxially grown graphene on silicon carbide21 and chemical vapor deposited graphene on metals such as Ni21,22 and Cu15 produce lower quality graphene. The highest mobility of synthesized graphene used in a large area transparent electrode is 5100 cm2 V−1 s−1 at room temperature,23 roughly 100× less than the highest reported mobility of mechanically exfoliated graphene.17 Therefore, the typical experimental sheet resistance of undoped synthesized graphene is between 2k Ω/□ to 5k Ω/□ (also roughly 100× larger than the theoretical minimum).10,15 For practical usage in transparent electrodes, a transmittance over 90% is required. This permits the assembly of up to four layers of graphene to reduce the sheet resistance while maintaining 90% transparency. However, the sheet resistance of four-layered undoped graphene is ~350 Ω/□,7 thereby falling 10-fold short of the desired sheet resistance of monolayered graphene.

Since the mobility of the graphene is limited by the scalable production process, increasing the carrier density becomes an alternative method for reducing the sheet resistance of graphene. Various doping methods6,23,24 have been suggested to make the graphene more conductive. As early as 2008, Blake et al.6 demonstrated polyvinyl alcohol (PVA)-coated graphene exhibiting a sheet resistance of 450 Ω/□ due to the doping effect of PVA. Systematic
studies have been reported recently for doped graphene-based transparent electrodes. Bae et al. demonstrated that monolayer graphene doped by nitric acid exhibits a sheet resistance as low as 125 Ω/□ (T = 97%), and the same four-layered graphene transparent electrode was reported with a sheet resistance of 30 Ω/□ (T = 90%). Kim et al. reported AuCl₃-doped graphene, which has a minimum sheet resistance of 150 Ω/□ (T = 87%). Güneş et al. proposed a method of layer-by-layer (LbL) doping of thin graphene films, which can reach a sheet resistance of 54 Ω/□ (T = 85%). In that work, graphene formed ion pairs with the dopant molecules. Although the performance of the transparent films produced using doped graphene have been similar to the performance of ITO, the stability of the graphene-dopant system is unknown. Similar doping effects have been studied in SWCNT films, and the doping enhancements had limited stability in air and under thermal loading. Although an additional gas barrier layer might extend the lifetime of the chemically doped film, doped graphene might remain less stable than pristine graphene, and the fabrication cost would likely increase. Considering that a major application for transparent electrodes is in solar cells where the commercial product’s lifetime is 25–30 years, and LED lamps having similar expected lifetimes, it is necessary to improve the graphene-based transparent electrode.

The practical limitations of the conventional methods for making graphene-based transparent electrodes can be overcome by assembling the transparent electrode in a way other than only using transparent materials. Instead, transparent electrodes can also be made using a nontransparent material such as metal nanowires or carbon nanotubes. Unlike transparent ITO, poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene)/poly(styrenesulfonate) (PEDOT/PSS), and graphene, those materials themselves are opaque; however, they can form thin transparent percolation networks. The network can conduct current and leave large empty spaces that render these films transparent. On this basis of the understanding of these two approaches for making transparent conducting film, in this paper we disclose a graphene hybrid structure to reduce the sheet resistance of these synthetic graphene-based transparent electrodes, and even exceed the theoretical limit of a graphene film. The idea is to use a nontransparent, highly conductive metal to make the grid structure, and monolayer graphene is then transferred on top of the grid to fill the uncovered area (Figure 1).

The integration of the metal grid has many advantages. First, unlike graphene, which is a two-dimensional material, metal is a three-dimensional material. Although the resistivity of metal is higher than that of graphene, it can have a smaller sheet resistance than monolayer graphene by using a thick film, based on

![Figure 1. Metal grid/graphene hybrid transparent electrode. The yellow lines in the figure represent the metal grid. The grid size and gridline width in the figure are only illustrative and are not scaled with the graphene molecular structure.](image)

the definition of sheet resistance:

\[ R = (\rho / t)(L/W) = R_s(L/W) \] (2)

Where \( R_s \) = sheet resistance, \( \rho \) = resistivity, \( R \) = resistance, \( t \) = thickness, \( W \) = width, \( L \) = length. A 100-nm silver film will have a sheet resistance of 0.16 Ω/□, ca. 200× smaller than the limited sheet resistance of graphene. Second, the graphene grown on copper or nickel substrates have inevitable defects induced by metal grain boundaries and the transferring techniques. For example, it is known that the grain size of crystalline copper is typically a few 100 μm and the defects have been found on the grain boundaries, which could be one reason for the high sheet resistance of synthesized graphene films (see also Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). By using a suitable grid size (~100 μm), the effects of those defects can be reduced (Supporting Information). Third, since monolayer graphene is almost transparent (it absorbs only 2.3% visible light), the transmittance of the hybrid film can be easily adjusted by modulating the metal grid size and gridline width. Lastly, the graphene film can be regarded as an enhancement to the grid-only structure as well. The metal grid-only structures used in this work, similar to nanotube and metal nanowire networks, are percolation-type electrodes. However, due to the size of the grid, they cannot be regarded as continuous electrodes for many applications. By applying a graphene overcoating to the metal grid structure, it is possible to make a continuous conducting film without increasing lithography cost.

The process sequence used in this work is as follows: the metal grids are first formed on the transparent substrate. Then, a graphene film is grown on a copper foil and isolated with a layer of sacrificial PMMA. The graphene film is transferred to the top of the grid and the sacrificial PMMA layer is removed to form the final hybrid transparent electrodes (see Methods and Scheme S1 in Supporting Information for detailed information). There are many ways to generate a metal grid structure on a transparent substrate. In this work, photolithography with wet-etching was applied to produce the metal grid structure (Methods). This procedure has the following advantages: First, photolithography is a
The metal films on glass substrate were prepared by sputtering. The metal films on PET substrate were prepared by thermal evaporation. When gold was used as the metal grid material, a thin layer of titanium (5 nm) was used as an adhesion layer. When copper was used as the metal grid material, a thin layer of aluminum (5 nm) was used as the adhesion layer. The thickness of the metal layer was 100 nm in all cases. The best results from published alternative transparent conducting electrode materials are in entries 11–19. Transmission of hybrid film on 550 nm, excluding substrate absorption which was subtracted using a blank substrate.

The reported transmittance was measured by a Shimadzu UV–vis–NIR spectrometer. The results are shown in Table 1.

As seen in Table 1, the graphene/metal grid hybrid transparent electrode can match or outperform all reported transparent electrode materials. The sheet resistance of the hybrid film was as low as 20 Ω/□ with transmittance over 90%; at lower transmittance (~80%) the sheet resistance can reach 3 Ω/□. We also listed the sheet resistance of the grid-only structure, which is slightly higher than the hybrid structure. However, the grid-only structures have large empty spaces on the substrate and the four-point probe cannot measure the sheet resistance correctly because the tip of the probe lands on empty spaces. Instead, the resistance was measured by a two-terminal method with a flat contact electrode and the sheet resistance was calculated based on the resistance and the shape of the electrode. There might be some contact resistance with the two-terminal measurement. Compared to the metal grid-only structure, the hybrid electrode is a continuous conductive film and has advantages in the area where continuous transparent conductive films are required, such as in photovoltaic applications.

To evaluate the performance of the transparent conducting electrode, it is necessary to consider both sheet resistance and transmittance. Unfortunately literature sheet resistance data are often taken under different transmittance values, making direct comparisons difficult. Recently, a theoretical model for few-layer graphene has been proposed, which gives the relationship between transmittance and sheet resistance. On the basis of the model of few-layered graphene, the transmittance and sheet resistance of graphene can be expressed by the following equation:

$$ T = \left(1 + \frac{2G_0}{G_0 + G_{2D}}\right)^{-2} $$

(3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>entry</th>
<th>name</th>
<th>grid size</th>
<th>grid line width</th>
<th>metal/substrate</th>
<th>sheet resistance (transmittance)(a) / Ω %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>hybrid transparent conducting electrode</td>
<td>100 μm × 100 μm</td>
<td>10 μm</td>
<td>Au/glass</td>
<td>4 ± 1 Ω/□ (79%) /5 ± 1 Ω/□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>200 μm × 200 μm</td>
<td>5 μm</td>
<td>Au/glass</td>
<td>20 ± 4 Ω/□ (91%) /22 ± 4 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>100 μm × 100 μm</td>
<td>10 μm</td>
<td>Al/glass</td>
<td>13 ± 2 Ω/□ (79%) /20 ± 4 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>200 μm × 200 μm</td>
<td>5 μm</td>
<td>Al/glass</td>
<td>45 ± 6 Ω/□ (91%) /52 ± 8 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>100 μm × 100 μm</td>
<td>10 μm</td>
<td>Cu/glass</td>
<td>3 ± 1 Ω/□ (79%) /4 ± 1 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>200 μm × 200 μm</td>
<td>5 μm</td>
<td>Cu/glass</td>
<td>22 ± 8 Ω/□ (91%) /26 ± 4 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>100 μm × 100 μm</td>
<td>10 μm</td>
<td>Al/PET</td>
<td>18 ± 9 Ω/□ (79%) /25 ± 6 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>200 μm × 200 μm</td>
<td>5 μm</td>
<td>Al/PET</td>
<td>60 ± 15 Ω/□ (91%) /73 ± 10 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>100 μm × 100 μm</td>
<td>10 μm</td>
<td>Cu/PET</td>
<td>8 ± 3 Ω/□ (79%) /10 ± 3 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>200 μm × 200 μm</td>
<td>5 μm</td>
<td>Cu/PET</td>
<td>30 ± 6 Ω/□ (91%) /30 ± 5 Ω/□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>ITO</td>
<td>glass</td>
<td>30–80 Ω/□ (90%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>PEDOT/PSS(^{31})</td>
<td>glass/PET</td>
<td>100 Ω/□ (with 5% DMF)(90%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>SWCNTs(^{32})</td>
<td>glass</td>
<td>150 Ω/□ (90%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>graphene(^{7})</td>
<td>glass</td>
<td>350 Ω/□ (90%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>graphene/SWCNTs(^{33})</td>
<td>glass</td>
<td>280 Ω/□ (86%)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>silver nanowires(^{37})</td>
<td>PET</td>
<td>110 Ω/□ (90%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>graphene(^{34}) (doped by AuCl₃)</td>
<td>glass</td>
<td>150 Ω/□ (87%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>graphene(^{35}) (doped by AuCl₃)</td>
<td>PET</td>
<td>54 Ω/□ (85%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>graphene(^{36}) (doped by HNO₃)</td>
<td>PET</td>
<td>30 Ω/□ (90%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(a\) The metal films on glass substrate were prepared by sputtering. The metal films on PET substrate were prepared by thermal evaporation. When gold was used as the metal grid material, a thin layer of titanium (5 nm) was used as an adhesion layer. When copper was used as the metal grid material, a thin layer of aluminum (5 nm) was used as the adhesion layer. The thickness of the metal layer was 100 nm in all cases. The best results from published alternative transparent conducting electrode materials are in entries 11–19. Transmission of hybrid film on 550 nm, excluding substrate absorption which was subtracted using a blank substrate.
Where \( Z_0 = 1/\varepsilon_0 c = 377 \Omega \) is the free-space impedance, \( \varepsilon_0 \) is the free-space electric constant and \( c \) is the speed of light. \( G_0 = 1.5\varepsilon_0/(4\varepsilon) \approx 9.12 \times 10^{-5} \Omega^{-1} \) is the optical conductivity. \( \sigma_{DC} = n\mu e \), where \( n \) is the number of charge carriers and \( \mu \) is the mobility. In general semiconductors, the mobility drops when the charge carrier density increases. However, experimental results show that the mobility of graphene is not affected by chemically induced ionized impurities in the graphene in concentrations as high as \( 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2} \) (where the dopants are less than 10 nm apart) until it reaches values of \( \sim 10^5 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1} \). At higher carrier concentrations, the mobility of graphene can be affected. For example, when the carrier density reaches \( 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2} \), the experimental observed mobility of graphene is between 2000 and 10000 cm\(^2\) V\(^{-1}\) s\(^{-1}\). As long as the graphene transparent electrodes are made by a scalable method such as chemical vapor deposition, they can reach mobilities of 4000–5000 cm\(^2\) V\(^{-1}\) s\(^{-1}\) at room temperature when placed on an insulating substrate. We assume chemical doping will not change this mobility when the carrier density is smaller than \( 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2} \).

On the basis of eq 3, the sheet resistance and transmittance of graphene are plotted in Figure 2a. The mesh surface in Figure 2a could be regarded as the limitation of the present graphene transparent electrode (according to the mobility of 5000 cm\(^2\) V\(^{-1}\) s\(^{-1}\)) and the shadowed region under the surface is achievable by present graphene transparent electrodes. The previously reported graphene transparent electrode data is plotted in Figure 2a as well (also available from Supporting Information Figure S12). The most heavily doped material results\(^23\) (red dots in Figure 2a) slightly exceed the calculation limit. Other undoped\(^15\) (black dots in Figure 2a) or doped graphene\(^23\) (purple dots in Figure 2a) show sheet resistances larger than the theoretical limit at the same transmittance (in the shadow region). In the hybrid electrode of this work, the graphene is not doped. Hence, we assume that they have similar carrier densities to pristine graphene.
which is \(<10^{12}\) cm\(^2\) at room temperature. It is clear that all hybrid electrode results in this work (orange dots in Figure 2a) outperformed the theoretical limit of present graphene (surface in Figure 2a). Considering the graphene used in this work has similar mobility as that from other reported scalable methods,\(^{15,23,30}\) the highly conductive metal network underneath should also contribute to the low sheet resistance recorded. The gold or copper grid-based hybrid transparent electrodes show better performance than all reported graphene transparent electrodes. The lower efficiency of the graphene aluminum grid electrode might originate from the surface oxide on the aluminum causing a higher contact resistance. The results of this work are also compared in Figure 2b with that of other types of transparent electrode. It is clear that the hybrid graphene transparent electrode is the best choice between the transmittance range of 70\(\%\) to 91\(\%\), which is enough for most transparent conducting electrode-based applications.

The broad absorbance spectra of the graphene/metal grid hybrid film are plotted in Figure 2c. The transmittances of the hybrid film are almost flat in the range of 400–1200 nm, in contrast to ITO, which has a transmittance maximum at 550 nm. The additional graphene layer introduced the expected 2–3% loss of transmittance compared with the original metal grid frame. Furthermore, the hybrid film adapts to both rigid (glass) and flexible (PET) substrates (Figure 2d), rendering it a general purpose transparent conducting electrode material.

The graphene film used in this work was predominantly composed of a monolayer as analysis using Raman spectroscopy indicated (Figure 3a). When Raman spectra were taken directly from the hybrid electrode, the metal enhancement was observed where there was a metal line underneath. Full coverage of graphene on the grid structure was confirmed by Raman mapping (Figure 3b) and SEM images (Figure 3c). Figure 3c shows the edges of the graphene film, where the contrast between the graphene covered and noncovered grid is clear. More optical images are shown in the Supporting Information (Figure S7–S11).

The flexibility of the electrode was tested for the samples fabricated using PET substrates. The hybrid electrode was bent multiple times to radii of 5 mm (according to tensile strain \(\sim 3\%\) when PET substrate thickness of 0.3 mm is counted). The results are shown in Figure 4b. The sheet resistances of the hybrid film increased 20%–30%; however, after the initial 50
bending cycles, the sheet resistances stabilized and did not have significant variations up to 500 bending cycles. The initial change of the sheet resistance may originate from the graphene film itself, which was also observed from the pure graphene electrodes. A possible explanation is that there are weak areas (such as grain boundaries or induced imperfections during the transferring process) on the graphene where the force is concentrated upon bending. Those areas might not survive at the bending angles tested and then change their form. After an initial number of cycles, all of those areas are stabilized and the sheet resistance becomes constant. The optical images in Figure 4c,d also indicate that there are no obvious cracks formed on the metal grid lines after the 500 bending cycles. The flexibility of the hybrid electrode is close to that of a recently published silver nanowire electrode. Similar tests on an ITO PET electrode demonstrated an increase of sheet resistance over 2 orders of magnitude. The pure graphene transparent electrode exhibits better flexibility, with a sheet resistance increase of 40% at tensile strain ~15%, however the better conductivity of the hybrid electrode could render it useful in several applications.

Another advantage of the hybrid electrode is that it uses nondoped graphene. Since no chemical doping was introduced to increase the carrier density of the graphene, the hybrid transparent electrodes are free of degradations originating from the dopant. The graphene/metal (including gold, copper, and aluminum) grid hybrid electrode was tested after exposure to ambient condition for 6 months and the sheet resistances were the same as the fresh samples; an indication of the stability of the electrode. Recent research shows that graphene acts as an oxidation resistance layer for metals and alloys, giving further basis for optimism in the stability here.

In summary, a new graphene/metal grid hybrid transparent electrode has been developed. On the basis of the available data, the transparent metal grid/graphene electrode outperformed all commercial and research transparent conducting films in the transmittance range of 70–91%. The hybrid film is stable under ambient temperature when a suitable metal is used. The hybrid film can also be integrated onto a flexible substrate, which renders this hybrid film a general purpose transparent electrode material.

METHODS

Fabrication of metal grid: The glass slides were cut into 1 in. × 1 in. square samples by a dicing saw. The square samples were cleaned in a fresh piranha solution (7:3 mixture of 98% H₂SO₄/30% H₂O₂. Caution: The mixture is strongly oxidizing and may detonate upon contact with organic material), and then rinsed with deionized water. The cleaned samples were sputtered with 5 nm Ti and 100 nm Au using a CrC-150 sputter coater. Photoresist (Shipley 1813) was spun onto the Au film (4000 rpm, 60 s). The samples were baked and then exposed using the prepared grid mask. After being developed by MICROPOSIT MF-319 developer (45 s), the films were baked again on a hot-plate (110 °C) for 10 min. The second bake is
important to obtain defect-free grid structures on the inch-sized samples. The samples were then etched by the Au etchant and then the Ti etchant. The residual photoresist was removed with hot acetone (see Scheme S1 in Supporting Information for detailed information).

Assembly of hybrid electrodes: Graphene was grown using a recently developed low temperature growth technique with solid carbon source.30 In some cases, the standard CVD method recently developed low temperature growth technique with detailed information). The residual photoresist was removed with the Ti etchant. The residual photoresist was removed with hot acetone (see Scheme S1 in Supporting Information for detailed information). The sacrificial PMMA was then removed with an acetone rinse at room temperature. The hybrid transparent electrode was dried in a vacuum oven overnight (see Supporting Information for detailed information).

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Supporting Information Available: Experimental procedures, optical images of graphene and hybrid transparent electrodes. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

REFERENCES AND NOTES


