

Large area defrosting windows based on electrothermal heating of highly conducting and transmitting Ag wire mesh

Journal:	RSC Advances
Manuscript ID:	RA-ART-07-2014-006811.R1
Article Type:	Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	10-Sep-2014
Complete List of Authors:	Shanmugam, Kiruthika; JNCASR, CPMU Gupta, Ritu; Jawaharlal Nehru Centre for Advanced Scientific Research, CPMU Kulkarni, G U; JNCASR, CPMU

SCHOLARONE[™] Manuscripts

ARTICLE

Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

Received ooth January 2012, Accepted ooth January 2012

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/

Large area defrosting windows based on electrothermal heating of highly conducting and transmitting Ag wire mesh

S. Kiruthika, Ritu Gupta[#] and Giridhar U. Kulkarni^{*}

Highly interconnected crackles were obtained by spreading commercially available low cost crackle wall paint based precursor by the drop coating technique. An interconnected Ag mesh was fabricated by depositing metal over the crackle network followed by removal of the template. The metal network is well conducting $(1 \ \Omega/\Box)$ with transmittance of ~ 77% over the fabricated area, $18 \times 15 \text{ cm}^2$. By joule heating using few volts, uniform temperatures up to 170 °C were achieved on the electrode area and a high thermal resistance of 255.2 °C cm² W⁻¹ was obtained. The electrode was tested for defrosting application by exposing it to liquid nitrogen (LN₂) vapors at ~ -60 °C while applying 8.5 V for 2 min, when the frost disappeared making the display board below visible. The transparent heater could successfully withstand ultrasonication test as well as many defrosting cycles.

Introduction

The changes in climatic condition often result in frosting and icing that severely hit human life, especially in cold countries.¹ The frost formation and icing pose serious safety issues for aircrafts, telecommunication and road safety signals by blocking the displays and thus leading to traffic failure and severe accidents.^{2,3} Therefore, increasing efforts have been made towards designing of anti-icing and defrosting surfaces by texturing, chemical coatings etc.^{4,5} The patterning and structuring of a surface is usually done to biomimick lotus and rice leaf type nanostructures.^{6,7} However, these methods need optimization in terms of processing and scalability for practical applications. The superhydrophobic chemical coatings such as polymers and their nanocomposites are used to prevent frost formation however not all superhydrophobic surfaces are icephobic in nature.^{7,8} In this context, electrothermal or joule heating is considered to be one of the most efficient approaches.⁹ The de-icing of conducting transmission lines by joule heating is adopted universally. Similarly, printed metal grids are highly efficient for defrosting applications but being visibly thick, they obstruct ~50% of the total view which is certainly undesired.¹⁰ Several devices such as outdoor displays, avionic displays, automobile windows as well in periscopes require clear view irrespective of the weather conditions and thus development of visibly transparent heaters is a necessity.11,12

Transparent conducting oxide, tin doped indium oxide (ITO) has been the obvious choice as heating element due to its proven performance in optoelectronics, namely high transmittance in the visible region, low sheet resistance and stability in environmental conditions.¹³⁻¹⁵ However, due to indium scarcity and the associated cost, ITO is considered prohibitive particularly in large area applications.16-18 Moreover, high power consumption and slow thermal response associated with ITO based heaters have limited its usage. With major developments in optoelectronics in the last two decades, new alternative transparent conductors such as graphene,¹⁹ carbon nanotube (CNT) network,^{20,21} metal nanowire,^{22,23} metal mesh network,²⁴ PEDOT²⁵ as well as hybrid films²⁶⁻²⁸ have been developed and there has been an increasing interest in using these non-ITO based alternatives in electrothermal applications. Thus, attempts have been made recently to fabricate transparent heaters with graphene,^{11,29-31} CNT,^{12,32-36} nanocrystalline diamond,³⁷ metallic nanowires³⁸ sometimes involving their hybrids.³⁹ CNT and graphene based heaters have shown excellent heating performance with uniform heat distribution although the operating voltage and the power required for their operation are usually high, ^{11,29,35} as in general, they possess high sheet resistance. A good heater should give uniform thermal distribution over the heating area and achieve higher temperature with low power. Highly conducting metal nanostructures, on the other hand, can work with lower operating voltages with better response time but the nanowire junctions are prone to oxidation and failure at temperatures

typically above 50 °C.²² To improve the junction resistance and thus the overall performance of the heater, several postsynthesis treatment and hybrid structuring methods have been reported.³⁸ While these remedies may bring down the sheet resistance to suit optoelectronic applications (typically few Ω/\Box), the overall resistance for a large area can be still high (few tens or hundreds of Ω) requiring high power for electrothermal applications.⁴¹ Further, the well-known trade-off between transmittance and sheet resistance in a transparent conductor is an added constraint.^{39,40} Sheet resistance even with new generation alternatives. What is highly desirable is extremely low sheet resistance (~ 1 Ω/\Box) obtained without sacrificing transmittance much, which is rather challenging.

The fabrication of transparent electrodes using template based methods is becoming popular.⁴⁰⁻⁴² Recently, we have developed a crackle templating method of fabricating metal wire networks devoid of crossbar junctions and shown that their performance parameters are close to those of ITO.⁴³⁻⁴⁶ In this templating method, the wire thickness could be increased to lower the sheet resistance but without sacrificing transmittance. Due to low resistance, the wire mesh could be employed as a joule heater to reach annealing temperatures of few hundred degree Celsius over cm² areas.⁴³ In this study, we examine their efficacy as transparent heaters, especially in the context of defrosting over large area. For this purpose, we have explored a simpler template formation method unlike before, involving only a dropper or a brush, which requires minimal effort and no instrumentation. This way, the fabrication should be scalable to large areas with only a linear increase in cost. The prepared Ag mesh based transparent heaters have shown stability in defrosting even at sub-zero temperatures.

Results and discussion

Coating of the crackle template deserves some detailed mention. In our earlier study,⁴⁵ the crackle precursor, a colloidal dispersion of SiO₂ nanoparticles (see ESI, Fig. S1), was spread over A4 sized substrates by the rod coating method to obtain the crackle template. Here in this study, the precursor after some optimisation is examined for its ability to extend over even larger areas by simple drop coating technique, which does not require any instrumentation or infrastructure. The primary requirement for drop coating a precursor is that the drops should effortlessly merge to form a uniformly thick wet layer all over. The uniformity in the layer thickness is important as it decides the properties of the crack network^{47,48} namely the crack width, crack spacing, interconnectivity etc. In order to examine this aspect, two drops of the crackle precursor were positioned closely but separated (Fig. 1a). As the precursor wets the glass substrate with low contact angle (inset of Fig. 1a), the drops gradually spread and merge to form a dumbbell shaped layer as drying sets in. Optical profiler images from the different marked regions (see Fig. 1b) show cracks of similar widths indicating uniform thickness of the precursor layer. The drying process is rather slow (Fig. 1c), which is clearly an advantage for extending drop coating to large areas. Under optimized conditions (ESI, Fig. S2), the crackle precursor was drop coated over a big glass substrate as shown in Fig. 1d (also see ESI, Fig. S3), which upon drying in air produced a crackle network shown in Fig. 1d and ESI, Fig. S4a. A magnified view in SEM image (ESI, Fig. S4b) shows ~ 40 - 50 μ m wide crackles that are deep down to the substrate except few little



Fig. 1 (a) shows spreading of the two drops of the crackle precursor leading to a uniform film. Inset is contact angle measured between crackle precursor and glass substrate. The completely dried and crackled film was obtained after 20 min. (b) The optical profiler images taken at areas marked in (a) are shown in I, II and III. Scale bar is 200 μ m and thickness of the crackle precursor is ~ 75 μ m. (c) Change in weight of crackle precursor coated on glass substrate versus time. Photographs taken (d) while drop coating crackle precursor over 37 × 25 cm² area glass substrate and after drying leading to crackle network formation. Fill factor of crackle network (the black trace refers to crackle network and white region corresponds to crackle precursor) from marked region in dried film and (e) histogram of fill factor calculated from different positions of sample shown in (d). (f) The histogram representation of fill factor calculated from six samples.

left over precursor in the grooves. The uniformity of crackle network formed over large area glass substrate was evidenced from the fill factor analysis, done from various locations (see Fig. 1d and ESI, Fig. S5). From the histogram shown in Fig. 1e, the fill factor of the network (black regions) is found to be nearly 20% from various locations, which is easily reproducible over many samples (Fig. 1f and ESI, Fig. S6). As is done during wall painting, a brush can aid to evenly spread the drying layer over ultra large areas (ESI, Fig. S7).

Following Ag deposition by physical evaporation method, the template layer was washed away in acetone to leave behind Ag mesh on the substrate (see schematic). The optical image in Fig. 2a shows interconnected Ag wires in the network with ~ 300 nm thickness, as measured using optical profiler (inset in Fig. 2a). SEM image and EDS mapping of Ag mesh (ESI, Fig. S8) show continuous Ag signal in the form of an interconnected junctionless wire with only slight defects due to unwashed crack precursor. This crackle templating method is scalable as seen with the network formed over 18×15 cm² area. A two probe measurement across 18 cm using a multimeter showed resistance of 3.68 Ω (Fig. 2b). The sheet resistance of Ag mesh is ~ 1 Ω/\Box . Obviously, such low sheet resistance is achieved due to seamless junctions and high thickness (300 nm) of the mesh.



Fig. 2 Schematic for TCE fabrication is shown. (a) Optical image of the Ag mesh on glass. Inset is optical profiler image (thickness ~ 300 nm). (b) The photograph of the transparent conductor connected to a multimeter. (c) Transmittance spectra measured from 10 different locations and (d) the transmittance map. The bright yellow and blue coloured regions correspond to 80% and 72% transmittance, respectively with other intermediate colours representing transmittance in between. Contact angle of water on Ag mesh/glass, (e) before and (f) after coating with 1-hexadecanethiol. The wire network is seen in reflection within the drop. Insets are schematic representations.

The transmittance spectra measured from 10 different regions of the network are shown in Fig. 2c and an average transmittance value of ~ $77 \pm 2.1\%$ was obtained over the entire spectrum (see ESI, Fig S9). A typical transmission map over $2.5 \times 2.5 \text{ cm}^2$ area is shown in Fig. 2d. This value of transmittance is commendable given the low sheet resistance value. Thus, with the mesh structure, one can lower the resistance by increasing thickness without affecting the transmittance. From transmittance and sheet resistance values, the figure of merit (FoM) was estimated for the transparent conductor, using the equation (1)

$$\sigma_{\rm DC}/\sigma_{\rm OD} = Z_0/2R_s \, (T^{-1/2}-1)....(1)$$

The estimated FoM value is 1350, which is significant compared to literature values.⁴² Further, the surface property of the metal mesh can be exploited by chemically modifying it. By adsorbing a monolayer of 1-hexadecanethiol on Ag mesh surface, the water contact angle was enhanced from 35° (Fig. 2e) to ~ 55° (Fig. 2f).⁴⁹ Higher contact angle is beneficial in self-cleaning of the transparent electrode.



Fig. 3 Performance of Ag mesh/glass as defrosting window panel. (a) Transparent electrode was allowed to freeze by placing it over the LN_2 container. (b) After applying 8.5 V for 1 min, the bottom display board was partially visible and at 2 min (c), the view becomes completely clear.

The performance of the Ag mesh as a transparent defrosting panel is demonstrated by joule-heating it under frosting conditions. First, the frost was allowed to form on the glass panel by placing it over a liquid nitrogen (LN₂) container. The panel appeared opaque as its temperature dropped to \sim -60 °C (measured using thermocouple) due to frost formation (Fig. 3a). Upon applying 8.5 V to the end terminals made of Ag epoxy, the frost began to melt leading to a clear view in ~ 2 min even in the presence of LN₂ vapors (Fig. 3b and c and ESI, Movie 1 (speed, 6X)). A clear view of the display board from beneath was possible following defrosting (see bottom photographs in Fig. 3). To the best of our knowledge, defrosting from such low temperatures has not been reported hitherto. Most literature results pertain to near zero degrees Celsius (see Table 1). Importantly in this study, transparent heater was tested while it continued to be placed in frosting conditions just like real-life application. Another notable point is that it works at nominal power/voltage (see Table 1), thanks to its low sheet resistance. The water droplets retaining over Ag mesh would be avoided by holding the display board in vertical position rather than horizontal. Further, by coating with thiol molecules, the contact angle can be increased to assist the water removal.

In the literature, defrosting transparent heaters have been fabricated using carbon derivatives (CNTs, 12,33,34 graphene oxide (GO),^{11,50} graphene³¹), Ag nanowire,^{38,51} composite of GO and Ag nanowire,⁵² ITO,^{14,15} etc. Carbon based heaters with typically high sheet resistances require higher power to melt away the frost,^{11,31} compared to the results shown above. Ag nanowire based heaters, although exhibit lower sheet resistance and operate at relatively lower voltages,^{38,52} their outdoor stability is rather poor due to innumerable wire junctions. Zhang et al. used large sized graphene microsheets as protective layer for Ag nanowires.⁵² Moreover, in most literature examples,^{11,12,31,33,34,38,50-52} the frost load on the heater is kept only nominal with common refrigerator temperatures (~ -5 °C). Often, the frost load is taken off prior to heating which makes it difficult to assess the efficacy of the heater. ITO based heaters, however, have been demonstrated live in dry ice conditions.^{14,15} As evident, we have addressed these issues in the present study. Another advantage of the present method is that the thickness of the metal mesh can be tuned to enhance the performance of defrosting action as shown below.

Material	TCE		Temperature achieved (°C)	Area (cm ²)	Frost creating	Power/ Voltage	Time (s)	Reference number
	T (%)	$R_s(\Omega/\Box)$			conditions			
SWCNT	91	1190	120	2.5×2.5	Freezer	0.12 W	60	12
MWCNT	85	NA	37	2.5×2.1	Freezer	10 V	18	33
MWCNT	50	172	42	NA	Freezer	10 V	10	34
GO	45	5370	NA	NA	Freezer	10 V	80	50
RGO	81	6079	45	2×1.4	Freezer	60 V	120	11
Graphene	85	750	55	NA	Freezer	30 V	30	31
Ag nanowires	92	10	NA	2.5×2.5	Freezer	10 V	40	51
Ag nanowires	90	10	NA	NA	Freezer	12 V	60	38
RGO/Ag	80	27	150	2.5×2.5	Freezer	10 V	40	52
hybrid								
ITO	90	NA	180	NA	Dry-ice	50 V	10	15
ITO	80	NA	163	NA	Dry-ice	20 V	10	14
Ag mesh	77	1	170	10×8	-60 °C, LN ₂	8.5 V	120	Present
					vapors			study

 Table 1. Literature comparison of TCE parameters, maximum temperature achieved, area of the TCE, applied voltages/power and defrosting response time. (NA- not available from manuscript)



Fig. 4 Performance of Ag mesh/glass based transparent heater. (a) Temperature rise and fall curves for different applied voltages. Inset is the thermal image collected from backside of the TCE at 9 V. Scale bar is 1 cm. (b) Temperature versus power plot for the transparent heater.

The electrothermal performance of the Ag mesh/glass was examined quantitatively in detail using IR imaging under ambient conditions (Fig. 4 and ESI, Fig. S10). By applying a DC voltage across the two Ag epoxy contact pads, the mesh was heated and from the IR images the surface temperature was derived. The surface temperature was found to increase gradually to reach a steady state value, which increased with applied voltage. A thermal image obtained with 9 V (see inset of Fig. 4a) shows that the temperature distribution in heater area. The temperature uniformity as seen from the back of the glass substrate could have been better, if a thinner substrate was used (in the present study, 1.5 mm). The edges of the substrate however, show lower temperatures due to radiative dissipation. Leaving the contact lines and the edges, the active area as marked in inset of Fig. 4a shows 128 ± 43.5 °C (see marked rectangular region and ESI, Fig. S10c), which can be improved by using thinner substrates and also by defining electrodes all around. With increase in input voltage from 3 to 9 V, the temperature rise became as steep as shown in Fig. 4a. The response times can be further improved by the above considerations. The steady state temperature of the heater is found to vary linearly with applied power, as shown in Fig. 4b. The slope of this plot, which represents the thermal resistance of the heater, is estimated to be 255.2 °C cm² W⁻¹. Greater the thermal resistance value, superior is the performance of the heater. This value is indeed appreciable; for example, it is 53% higher than SWCNT based heaters.³⁵ The thermal resistance value does depend on the mesh thickness; higher thickness will result in lower resistance of the heater; however, the thermal mass will increase.43 Moderate thicknesses (~ 100 nm) exhibit high thermal resistance values favouring defrosting action.



Fig. 5 Temperature vs time plot of the frost and defrost cycles. Each time V_{ON} of 3V was applied for nearly 60 s. The cycles were conducted by placing the transparent heater over a LN_2 container such that the heater was bathed in the cold vapors constantly (see photographs and IR images in Fig. S11). The first cycle was started after 2700 s of placing the panel over LN_2 vapors.

The reliability of our Ag mesh based defrosting window panel was examined by performing many frost cycles. The electrode $(2.5 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2)$ was placed over a LN₂ container and allowed to form a thick frost (see ESI, Fig. S11). By applying 3 V for 60 s, the frost could be melted altogether to provide a clear view. The temperature of electrode was measured using an IR camera. Once the frost disappeared, the voltage was turned off till a thick frost layer developed again. The electrode was tested for 5 cycles of frost-defrost conditions (see Fig. 5 and ESI, Fig. S11) and the performance were nearly repetitive. It may be noted that this test was done without any encapsulation. After 6 h of exposure to LN₂ vapors and frost conditions and warming to room temperature, the Ag mesh showed no signs of change in XRD (ESI, Fig. S12).

The practical applicability of the electrodes is further established by examining the robustness of the electrodes. To mimic harsh weather conditions, a Ag mesh/glass electrode was immersed in an ultrasonic water bath (30 kHz) while the resistance was continuously recorded (Fig. 6a). The mesh was hardly affected due to sonication (see Fig. 6b and c and ESI, Movie 2). As shown in Fig. 6d, the resistance change in bath was irregular but within 6%, which may have contribution from the electronic noise from the sonicator. As soon as sonication was turned off, the resistance reverted back to the normal value. Ag mesh adhesion on glass may be further enhanced by first depositing few nm thick Ti/Cr prior to Ag, as is conventionally done for thin films. Encapsulation is also expected to enhance its stability and make it scratch resistant.



Fig. 6 Robustness of the Ag mesh on glass. (a) Photograph showing the ultrasonication set up to test the adhesion of the Ag mesh electrode. Optical microscope images of the fabricated Ag electrode (b) before and (c) after ultrasonication test. (d) Relative variation in resistance with time recorded during ultrasonication test.

Conclusions

In this study, we have fabricated transparent conducting electrodes by depositing metal (Ag) over spontaneously formed crackle network as a template made using commercially available crackle paint. The template was produced by simple drop coating technique. Importantly, no external heating or power input was required and the method is therefore suitable for low cost production. Thus formed electrode is highly conducting (1 Ω/\Box) over large area with transmittance of ~ 77% which was used as a transparent heater. The thermal performance of the heater was examined by applying different voltages and a high thermal resistance of 255.2 °C cm² W⁻¹ was obtained. The efficacy of the transparent heater $(10 \times 8 \text{ cm}^2)$ was demonstrated by conducting a defrosting experiment, wherein the frost formed by exposing to LN₂ vapors could be completely removed by joule heating at 8.5 V for 2 min. Thus, the fabricated electrodes can be used in practical applications as defrosting window panels even when the external temperature is close to polar temperatures (-60 °C). The power required is nominal. The heater is quite robust as evidenced by the ultrasonication test. The efficacy of the transparent heater for outdoor stability was further demonstrated by continuously operating for many defrosting cycles.

Experimental

Fabrication of crackled template

Commercially available crackle paint (Premium Coatings & Chemicals, India) was used as crackling precursor for these experiments. The crackle precursor was diluted with the diluter (0.65 to 1 g/mL) to get interconnected crackle network. The glass substrates (1.5 mm thickness) were cleaned with water, acetone and IPA prior to template formation. The crackle precursor was drop coated on the substrates and allowed to spread. The presence of film forming agents (ethyl acetate and pentyl acetate) in crackle precursor enables the spreading and leveling leading to uniform film coating over large area (vide infra). The wet film was allowed to dry under room temperature conditions without any disturbance. Ag metal was physically deposited in the crackle grooves using a resistive thermal evaporator (Hind Hivac, India) at a base pressure of 10^{-6} torr and the template was lifted off neatly by gently rinsing it in acetone resulting in a chemically clean metal network. For surface modification, Ag mesh/glass was dipped in 10 mM solution of 1-hexadecanethiol in ethanol for overnight.

Characterization

Thickness of the metal network was measured using Wyko NT9100 Optical Profiling System (Bruker, USA). Scanning electron microscopic (SEM) images were taken using a Nova NanoSEM 600 instrument (FEI Co., The Netherlands). Energydispersive spectroscopy (EDS) analysis of Ag mesh was done with an EDAX Genesis instrument (Mahwah, NJ) attached to the SEM column. ImageJ software was used to perform fill factor analysis of crackle and metal mesh. Transmittance spectra were taken using a Perkin-Elmer Lambda 900 UV/visible/near-IR spectrophotometer from 400- 1300 nm. The resistance was measured using a 4-Point Probe Station (Techno Science Instruments, India). Ultrasonication test was performed using a sonicator (Elmasonic P) at frequency of 30 kHz and at maximum power. DMM viewer software was used to record the resistance change during ultrasonication test by interfacing a multimeter with a computer. Thermal images were captured using Testo thermal imager (Testo 885). For joule heating the mesh, silver epoxy contacts were made at the two sides of the electrode and thermal images were captured from backside of the TCE. Later, the images were analyzed using the offline software. The optical images were acquired with the microscope of Laben, India. The weight loss of crackle precursor while drying was carried out using a weighing balance from Shimadzu (AUW 220D). The transmittance mapping was done by scanning the sample in scanner (hp Scanjet 2400) and intensity distribution was analysed using ImageJ software. XRD measurements were performed on a Miniflex (Rigaku, Japan).

Acknowledgements

Authors thank Prof. C. N. R. Rao for his encouragement. The financial support from DST, India is gratefully acknowledged. SK acknowledges DST-INSPIRE for fellowship and K. D. M. Rao for assistance and his suggestions on the manuscript.

Notes and references

Corresponding Author * Address Correspondence to Prof. Giridhar U. Kulkarni Chemistry & Physics of Materials Unit and Thematic Unit of Excellence in Nanochemistry, Jawaharlal Nehru Centre for Advanced Scientific Research, Jakkur P.O., Bangalore 560 064, India. E-mail: kulkarni@jncasr.ac.in

[#]Author's Present Address:

Birck Nanotechnology Centre, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana-47907, USA.

Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: SEM, infrared spectrum and TGA of crackle precursor, optical microscopic images of different crackle widths, fill factor analysis, establishing crackle network over large area PET substrate, EDS mapping, transmittance spectrum thermal images and XRD of Ag mesh. The video clips of demonstrating defrost experiment and the stability of Ag mesh under ultrasonication tests was provided as Movie 1 and Movie 2 respectively. See DOI: 10.1039/b000000x/

References

- 1 J. Andrey, R. Olley, Clim. Bull., 1990, 24, 123-136.
- 2 S. K. Thomas, R. P. Cassoni, C. D. MacArthur, J. Aircraft, 1996, 33, 841–854.
- 3 J. Laforte, M. Allaire, J. Laflamme, Atmos. Res., 1998, 46, 143-158.
- 4 P. Guo, Y. Zheng, M. Wen, C. Song, Y. Lin, and L. Jiang, *Adv. Mater.*, 2012, **24**, 2642–2648.
- 5 X. Chen, R. Ma, H. Zhou, X. Zhou, L.Che, S.Yao and Z.Wang Sci. Rep., 2013, 3, 2515.
- 6 J. Lv, Y. Song, L. Jiang and J. Wang, ACS Nano, 2014, 8, 3152-3169.
- 7 B. Radha, S. H. Lim, M. S. M. Saifullah and G. U. Kulkarni, *Sci. Rep.*, 2013, **3**, 1078.
- 8 H. A. Stone, ACS Nano, 2012, 6, 6536-6540.
- 9 D. S. Hecht, L. Hu and G. Irvin, Adv. Mater., 2011, 23, 1482-1513
- 10 R. Gupta, S. Walia, M. Hösel, J. Jensen, D. Angmo, F. C. Krebs and G.U. Kulkarni, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2014, 2, 10930-10937.
- 11 D. Sui, Y. Huang, L. Huang, J. Liang, Y. Ma and Y. Chen, *Small*, 2011, **7**, 3186-3192.
- 12 Y. H. Yoon, J. W. Song, D. Kim, J. Kim, J. K. Park, S. K. Oh and C. S. Han, *Adv Mater.*, 2007, **19**, 4284-4287.
- 13 J. Ederth, G. A. Niklasson, A.Hultåker, P. Heszler, C. G. Granqvist, A. R. van Doorn, M. J. Jongerius and D. Burgard, *J. Appl. Phys.*, 2003, **93**, 984-988.

Page 7 of 7

RSC Advances

RSC Advances

- 14 K. Im, K. Cho, J. Kim, and S. Kim, *Thin Solid Films*, 2010, **518**, 3960-3963.
- 15 K. Im, K. Cho, K. Kwak, J. Kim and S. Kim, J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol., 2013, 13, 3519-3521.
- 16 R. Po, C. Carbonera, A. Bernardi, F. Tinti and N. Camaioni, Sol. Energy Mater. Sol. Cells, 2012, 10, 97–114.
- 17 A. Kumar and C. Zhou, ACS Nano, 2010, 4, 11-14.
- 18 S. Pang, Y. Hernandez, X. Feng and K. Müllen, Adv. Mater., 2011, 23, 2779-2795.
- 19 X. Wang , L. J. Zhi and K. Mullen, Nano Lett., 2008 , 8, 323-327 .
- 20 R. M. Osuna, V. Hernández, J. T. López Navarrete, E. I. Kauppinen, and V. Ruiz, J. Phys. Chem. Lett., 2010, 1, 1367–1371.
- 21 C. Feng, K. Liu, J.-S. Wu, L. Liu, J.-S. Cheng, Y. Zhang, Y.Sun, Q. Li, S. Fan, and K. Jiang, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2010, **20**, 885–891.
- 22 H. Guo, N. Lin, Y. Chen, Z. Wang, Q. Xie, T. Zheng, N. Gao, S. Li, J. Kang, D. Cai and D.-L. Peng, *Sci. Rep.*, 2013, 3, 2323.
- 23 S. De, T. M. Higgins, P. E. Lyons, E. M. Doherty, P. N. Nirmalraj, W. J. Blau, J. J. Boland and J. N. Coleman, *ACS Nano*, 2009, **3**, 1767–1774.
- 24 M. G. Kang, L. J. Guo, Adv. Mater., 2007, 19, 1391-1396.
- 25 M. Vosgueritchian, D. J. Lipomi, and Z. Bao, Adv. Funct. Mater., 2012, 22, 421–428.
- 26 S. B. Yang, B.-S. Kong, D.-H. Jung, Y.-K. Baek, C.-S. Han, S.-K. Ohe and H.-T. Jung, *Nanoscale*, 2011, **3**, 1361-1373.
- 27 M.-S. Lee, K. Lee, S.-Y. Kim, H. Lee, J. Park, K.-H. Choi, H.-K. Kim, D.-G. Kim, D.-Y. Lee, S. W. Nam, and J.-U. Park, *Nano Lett.*, 2013, 13, 2814–2821.
- 28 H. Chang, G. Wang, A. Yang, X. Tao, X. Liu, Y. Shen, and Z. Zheng, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2010, 20, 2893–2902.
- 29 J. J. Bae, S. C. Lim, G. H. Han, Y. W. Jo, D. L. Doung, E. S. Kim, S. J. Chae, T. Q. Huy, N. Van Luan and Y. H. Lee, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2012, **22**, 4819-4826.
- 30 J. Kang, H. Kim, K. S. Kim, S.-K. Lee, S. Bae, J.-H. Ahn, Y.-J. Kim, J.-B. Choi and B. H. Hong, *Nano Lett.*, 2011, **11**, 5154-5158.
- 31 B.-J. Lee and G.-H. Jeong, Curr. Appl Phys. 2012, 12, S113-S117.
- 32 D. Janas, A. Cabrero-Vilatela, J. Bulmer, L. Kurzepa and K. K. Koziol, *Carbon*, 2013, 64, 305-314.
- 33 H.-S. Jang, S. K. Jeon and S. H. Nahm, Carbon, 2011, 49, 111-116.
- 34 D. Jung, D. Kim, K. H. Lee, L. J. Overzet and G. S. Lee, Sens. Actuators, A, 2013, 199, 176-180.
- 35 T. J. Kang, T. Kim, S. M. Seo, Y. J. Park and Y. H. Kim, *Carbon*, 2011, **49**, 1087-1093.
- 36 Z. P. Wu and J. N. Wang, Physica E, 2009, 42, 77-81.
- 37 T. H. Kim, W. M. Choi, D.H. Kim, M. A. Meitl, E. Menard, H. Jiang, J. A. Carlisle and J. A. Rogers, *Adv. Mater.*, 2008, **20**, 2171-2176.
- 38 T. Y. Kim, Y. W. Kim, H. S. Lee, H. Kim, W. S. Yang and K. S. Suh, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2013, 23, 1250-1255.
- 39 D. Kim, L. Zhu, D.-J. Jeong, K. Chun, Y.-Y. Bang, S.-R. Kim, J.-H. Kim and S.-K. Oh, *Carbon*, 2013, 63, 530-536.
- 40 T. Tokuno, M. Nogi, J. Jiu, T. Sugahara and K. Suganuma, *Langmuir*, 2012, 28, 9298–9302.
- 41 D. E. Lee, S.J. Go, G. S. Hwang, B. D. Chin and D. H. Lee. *Langmuir*, 2013, 29, 12259–12265.
- 42 B. Han et al. Adv. Mater., 2014, 26, 873-877.
- 43 K. D. M. Rao and G. U. Kulkarni, Nanoscale, 2014, 6, 5645-5651.

- 44 K. D. M. Rao, R. Gupta and G.U. Kulkarni, Adv. Mater. Interface., 2014, DOI:10.1002/admi.201400090.
- 45 S. Kiruthika, R. Gupta, K. D. M. Rao, S. Chakraborty, N. Padmavathy and G. U. Kulkarni, J. Mater. Chem.C, 2014, 2, 2089-2094.
- 46 S. Kiruthika, K. D. M. Rao, K. Ankush, R. Gupta and G. U. Kulkarni, *Mater. Res. Express*, 2014, 1, 026301.
- 47 M. S. Tirumkudulu and W. B. Russel, *Langmuir*, 2005, **21**, 4938-4948.
- 48 W. P. Lee and A. F. Routh, Langmuir, 2004, 20, 9885-9888.
- 49 J. C. Love, L. A. Estroff, J. K. Kriebel, R. G. Nuzzo and G. M. Whitesides, *Chem. Rev.*, 2005, **105**, 1103-1169.
- 50 J. Wang, Z. Fang, H. Zhu, B. Gao, S. Garner, P. Cimo, Z. Barcikowski, A. Mignerey and L. Hu, *Thin Solid Films*, 2014, 556, 13-17.
- 51 S. Wang, X. Zhang and W. Zhao, J. Nanomater., 2013, Article ID 456098, 6 pages.
- 52 X. Zhang, X. Yan, J. Chen and J. Zhao, Carbon, 2014, 69, 437-443.