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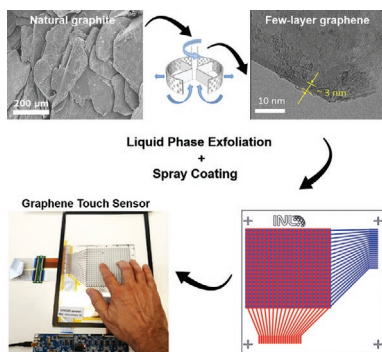
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**Environmentally-Friendly Graphene Inks
for Touch Screen Sensors**



An efficient, inexpensive, and green strategy to produce graphene dispersions by liquid-phase exfoliation with high concentration is proposed. By a combination of shear mixing and tip sonication techniques in cyrene solvent, a graphene-based ink is made and spray-coated to fabricate a touch screen sensor prototype with a high signal-to-noise ratio (14 dB) and multi-touch functionality.

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Environmentally-Friendly Graphene Inks for Touch Screen Sensors

Sergey Tkachev, Miguel Monteiro, João Santos, Ernesto Placidi, Mohamed Ben Hassine, Pedro Marques, Paulo Ferreira, Pedro Alpuim,* and Andrea Capasso*

Graphene-based materials have attracted significant attention in many technological fields, but scaling up graphene-based technologies still faces substantial challenges. High-throughput top-down methods generally require hazardous, toxic, and high-boiling-point solvents. Here, an efficient and inexpensive strategy is proposed to produce graphene dispersions by liquid-phase exfoliation (LPE) through a combination of shear-mixing (SM) and tip sonication (TS) techniques, yielding highly concentrated graphene inks compatible with spray coating. The quality of graphene flakes (e.g., lateral size and thickness) and their concentration in the dispersions are discussed and compared using different spectroscopic and microscopy techniques. Several approaches (individual SM and TS, and their combination) are tested in three solvents (*N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone, dimethylformamide, and cyrene). Interestingly, the combination of SM and TS in cyrene yields high-quality graphene dispersions, overcoming the environmental issues linked to the other two solvents. Starting for the cyrene dispersion, a graphene-based ink is prepared to spray-coat flexible electrodes and assemble a touch screen prototype. The electrodes feature a low sheet resistance ($290 \Omega \square^{-1}$) and high optical transmittance (78%), which provide the prototype with a high signal-to-noise ratio (14 dB) and multi-touch functionality (up to four simultaneous touches). These results illustrate a potential pathway toward the integration of LPE-graphene in commercial flexible electronics.

1. Introduction

Graphene, the archetypal 2D material, is a single layer of covalently bonded carbon atoms arranged in a honeycomb lattice with a thickness of 0.34 nm.^[1] Since its isolation and study in

2004, graphene has become a pivotal subject of research due to many extraordinary properties, such as strength (between 100–300 times stronger than steel), lightweight, flexibility, transparency, high electrical and thermal conductivity.^[2–4] With these motivations, graphene-based materials (GBM) has been heralded to impact a broad range of technological fields, such as electronics,^[5] optoelectronics,^[6] energy storage,^[7] medicine,^{[8]–[10]} and environmental safety.^[3] GBMs could replace several well-established materials in many areas,^[2,11–14] particularly in composites,^[15] energy storage devices,^[16] and flexible electronics.^[17,18] In six years (from 2009 to 2015), GBMs' production increased from 14 tons to 120 tons, with production reaching 1800 tons at the end of 2020.^[14,19,20] The global graphene market size was valued at \$875 million in 2019 and is projected to reach \$876.8 million by 2027, growing at a CAGR% of 40.2% from 2020 to 2027.^[21] To date, graphene-based applications include organic light-emitting diodes, field-effect transistors, flexible and wearable devices,^[11,22–24] photonic devices, electrodes for batteries, printed thin-film

transistors, photodetectors, photovoltaic cells, sensors, and touch sensors.^[22,25,26] Despite these advances, bringing a new material to the market is usually a challenging task. The innovation rooted in new materials is a challenging, long, and expensive pursuit, often unsuccessful since it requires the integration

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of the new materials in existent production lines and technology.^[14] In the case of GBMs, several technological challenges have delayed mass production and the development of devices for the consumer market. However, many graphene synthesis techniques are currently available,^[3,27,28] and some of those are compatible with an industrial setting. In this context, one of the most effective methods is liquid-phase exfoliation (LPE), which was initially reported in 1989 for MoS₂ and WSe₂.^[29,30] For graphene, LPE was first demonstrated in 2008, opening the way to an intense research effort.^[31] Since then, LPE has attracted considerable attention as a cost-effective and up-scalable method for the production of liquid dispersions of defect-free graphene flakes, which in turn may enable the fabrication of large-area, flexible, transparent, and printable electronics.^[32,33]

In general, LPE refers to a group of techniques able to exfoliate a bulk van der Waals solid into its corresponding isolated layers by applying energy to disrupt the weak inter-layer bonds in a liquid medium.^[33,34] LPE techniques can be classified into electro-chemical and physical exfoliation. Physical exfoliation encompasses processes such as ultrasonic exfoliation^[31] and several shear exfoliation approaches,^[35] which can be realized by high shear mixing, wet ball milling,^[36] micro-fluidization,^[37] homogenization,^[38] and wet jet milling.^[39] Physical exfoliation techniques can be performed using various solvents such as water, surfactants, organic solvents, ionic liquids, oils, and salts.^[33,40,41] The choice of an appropriate solvent hinges on several factors that are either inherent to the solvent's fluidic properties or related to the processing method, such as potential solvent toxicity, too high a boiling point, or limited substrate compatibility. Research on conductive graphene-based dispersions has been progressing steadily. Paton et al. recently demonstrated a scalable production method to obtain large quantities of dispersed graphene nanosheets by shear-mixing. The group reported exfoliation with shear rates of $\approx 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$, achievable by simple setups and compatible with other layered materials, such as MoS₂ and BN.^[38] Arao and Kubouchi proposed high-power probe-sonication with optimized processing conditions to obtain a few-layer graphene production rate over 1 g h^{-1} in *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP), ideal for mass production at a low cost.^[42] Durge et al. obtained $\approx 1.2 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ of graphene nanosheets after a 120-min probe sonication in dimethylformamide (DMF)—ten times higher a concentration than that obtained by bath sonication in the same solvent.^[43] To replace these two dipolar aprotic solvents (NMP and DMF), abundantly used in this field but toxic and presenting severe health risks, Salavagione et al. conducted a systematic study on alternative solvents. The authors concluded that the green solvent cyrene had excellent properties, namely an optimum solvent polarity and a high viscosity.^[32] Graphene dispersions in cyrene were an order of magnitude more concentrated than those achieved in NMP. Pan et al. have also used cyrene as LPE solvent to produce graphene inks compatible with screen-printing technology, fabricating devices with high electrical conductivity such as antennas.^[44]

Touch screen sensors are an ubiquitous part of modern electronic technology, granting users a direct way to interact with devices. Nowadays, several touch surfaces can be found in consumer electronics, like drawing tablets,^[45] keyboards with touch surfaces,^[46] and other touch-sensitive user interfaces.^[47]

In display technology, the sensors are usually placed in front or embedded in the device's display, allowing direct interaction with the screen's information. Capacitive sensors are one of the most commonly used touch sensor types due to their durability, performance, high sensitivity, and multitouch capabilities. In capacitive sensing, the touch location is determined by capacitance variation across the sensor. Electrode arrays are typically arranged in two layers (isolated by a dielectric), one for rows and the other columns (*X* and *Y* axes), used as driving (or transmitter) and sensing (or receiver) electrodes, respectively. For transparent touch sensors, transparent conductive oxides (TCO) such as indium tin oxide (ITO) or aluminum-doped zinc oxide (AZO) are widely used as electrodes.^[48] In 2020, a flexible capacitive touch sensor based on ITO could reach a sheet resistance of $\approx 6 \text{ } \Omega \square^{-1}$ with an optical transmittance of $\approx 91\%$ (at 550 nm).^[49] Although these oxides can grant high-performance, they are quite expensive and not environmentally friendly (e.g., they are not easily recyclable, and ITO in particular relies on a critical material, In).^[25,50] These characteristics, combined with a general brittleness, make ITO and AZO unsuitable for application in stretchable and conformal devices, such as wearable electronics and bendable displays. As such, these limitations have motivated an increased research effort toward alternative solutions, based on Ag-based materials^[51,52] and GBM.^[25] A wide range of GBMs have been proposed. Kang et al. developed a flexible touch sensor based on tri-layer, trifluoromethanesulfonic acid (TSFA)-doped, CVD-grown graphene electrodes with a sheet resistance of $\approx 320 \text{ } \Omega \square^{-1}$ and an optical transmittance of $\approx 85\%$.^[25] Despite graphene-based sensors have yet to achieve the performance reached by TCO-based ones, the flexibility granted by the GBM production techniques allows for several routes toward significant improvements. Prospective techniques to produce and process technology over large scales should focus not only on performance achievements but also on cost-related factors and sustainability.

Our work explores a novel and highly effective LPE approach to produce graphene that consists of high-speed shear mixing (SM) and tip sonication (TS). Our approach simultaneously improves the production yield (in terms of concentration) and the exfoliated flakes' quality, that is, granting thinner flakes with a specific lateral size. We study the performance of a combination of SM+TS processes for exfoliating graphite in NMP, comparing with the results obtained by individual TS and SM processes. We estimated the yield (by measuring the concentration) and the graphene flake quality (i.e., thickness, lateral size, and defect level) granted by each process. Building on this knowledge, we explored and optimized the exfoliation by a combination of SM+TS processes in cyrene, a biocompatible solvent: we were able to produce highly concentrated dispersions (up to 3.70 g L^{-1}) of graphene flakes with average lateral size of $\approx 200 \text{ nm}$. Our LPE approach in cyrene is an up-scalable, cost-effective, and environmentally friendly route toward the industrial adoption of graphene in various fields, such as electronics. To demonstrate this, we further processed the cyrene dispersions into functional graphene inks by a solvent exchange technique, in order to re-disperse the graphene flakes in low-boiling-point ethanol and make them compatible with spray coating deposition. With these graphene-based inks, we designed and fabricated transparent conductive electrodes

1 suitable for a wide range of electronic devices. We explored
2 these electrodes in an industrial framework by fabricating a
3 prototype of a semi-transparent projected capacitive field touch
4 screen sensor. The graphene-based electrodes had suitable
5 characteristics to grant the graphene-based touch sensor with a
6 high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR = 14 dB) and multi-touch func-
7 tionality, while keeping a high optical transmittance ($\approx 78\%$).
8 Remarkably, the sensor featured multi-touch functionality
9 (up to four simultaneous touches). Overall, our experimental
10 approach provides a solution to the concerning issues related
11 to standard LPE-graphene production, demonstrating a viable
12 and effective route to fabricate graphene-based technology in an
13 industrial framework.

16 2. Experimental Section

18 2.1. Materials

20 Natural graphite 332461 (NG), NMP anhydrous (99.5% purity),
21 DMF (99.8%), cyrene (98%), silver nitrate (AgNO_3 , 99.0%), eth-
22 anol (99.0%), ethylene glycol (EG, 99.0%), polyvinylpyrrolidone
23 (PVP, $M_w = 40\,000$) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and
24 used without further purification.

27 2.2. Liquid-Phase Exfoliation and Graphene Dispersion Preparation

29 For the LPE processing of NG, three different solvents were
30 used: NMP, DMF, and cyrene. 30 g of NG powder was dis-
31 persed in 600 mL of solvent. Three different LPE methodolo-
32 gies were used: A) TS (10 h); B) SM (10 h); and C) SM (10 h) and
33 TS (10 h). The TS process was performed using an ultrasonic
34 disruptor (Branson Digital Sonifier SFX 550, 0.55 kW of power
35 at 20 kHz frequency for high-volume processing, 1/2" disruptor
36 horn with 1/2" extension type tip). The SM process was car-
37 ried out using a high-shear laboratory mixer Silverson L5M
38 (standard mixing assembly with an emulsor screen and an axial
39 flow head). In each case, the SM process (10 h) consisted of two
40 steps: mixing with emulsor screen (8 h, 7500 rpm) and mixing
41 with emulsor screen and axial flow head (2 h, 5000 rpm). An
42 ultracentrifugation stage was carried out after each exfoliation
43 procedure to remove un-exfoliated bulk graphite and thicker
44 flakes: 3000 rpm for 40 min for dispersions in NMP and DMF;
45 9000 rpm for 40 min for dispersion in cyrene (due to the higher
46 viscosity of the solvent). After ultracentrifugation, the superna-
47 tant was extracted and collected in a bottle.

50 2.3. Ink Characterization

52 2.3.1. Thermogravimetric Analysis

54 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed to deter-
55 mine the concentration of graphene flakes in NMP, DMF, and
56 cyrene dispersions. A known volume of the graphene disper-
57 sion was previously sonicated for 5 min to guarantee that the
58 particles were well dispersed. A drop of the dispersion was cast
59 in a petri dish of known weight, then left to dry in an oven for

24 h (right below the boiling point temperature of each solvent).
Finally, the weight was measured.

5 2.3.2. Raman Spectroscopy

7 Dispersion samples were diluted with isopropyl alcohol to yield
8 a pale colloidal solution (0.005 g L^{-1}). 20 μL were then drop-
9 cast into a preheated ($120\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) $1 \times 1\text{ cm SiO}_2$ (300 nm) substrate
10 and left to dry 2 min and rinsed with 5 mL of isopropyl alcohol
11 (IPA). Raman spectra were collected with an Alpha300R Con-
12 focal Raman Microscope (WITec) using a 532 nm wavelength
13 laser (2.33 eV) focused with a 100 \times objective lens (Zeiss) and an
14 incident power of 1.2 mW. An acquisition time of 2 s was used,
15 together with a 600 g mm^{-1} grating. More than 30 points were
16 acquired for each sample. Lorentzian functions were used to fit
17 the peaks in the spectra.

20 2.3.3. Transmission Electron Microscopy

22 The flakes from each dispersion were characterized by trans-
23 mission electron microscopy (TEM) using a probe-corrected
24 FEI Titan 80–200 ChemiSTEM microscope operated at 80 kV.
25 For sample preparation, the flakes were dispersed in ethanol
26 with ultrasonication, drop-cast onto a holey carbon-coated
27 300 mesh Cu grid, and dried by a lamp. The bright field TEM
28 images were collected using a CCD Gatan UltraScan camera.
29 The lateral sizes of the flakes were measured as the longest dis-
30 tance of the flakes obtained by the TEM images.

33 2.3.4. Atomic Force Microscopy

35 The graphene flakes were analyzed by atomic force microscopy
36 (AFM) to measure size and thickness. Samples were prepared
37 by diluting the dispersions in isopropyl alcohol (0.005 g L^{-1}).
38 20 μL were then pipetted on a preheated ($120\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) $1 \times 1\text{ cm SiO}_2$
39 (300 nm) substrate, left to dry for 2 min, and finally rinsed
40 with 5 mL of IPA. AFM topographies were acquired with a
41 Veeco Multimode (Nanoscope IIIa) in AM mode (tapping
42 mode), employing Si tips with a nominal radius of curvature of
43 $\approx 7\text{ nm}$. The image analysis was performed with Gwyddion,^[53]
44 optimizing the graphene foils selection with a grain analysis
45 package. Measurements were taken from over 200 individual
46 flakes for each sample to get a reliable statistic of the lateral size
47 distribution.

50 2.3.5. X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy

52 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were acquired
53 with a hemispherical electron energy analyzer (PHOIBOS
54 150—SPECS). XPS characterization was performed in ultra-
55 high vacuum (base pressure of 10^{-8} Torr) with a twin Al anode
56 X-ray source XR50 (SPECS) operated at 12 keV. 100 W power
57 was used to excite the photoelectron spectra. The XPS spectra
58 were acquired in the fixed analyzer transmission mode with
59 pass energies of 20 and 100 eV (just for survey spectra) and

1 0.1 eV energy step for detecting elemental spectral lines with
2 high resolution. The calibration of the binding energy was
3 performed considering as reference the graphitic signal at
4 284.4 eV. The XPS spectra were peak-fitted using KolXPD data
5 processing software. The quantification used sensitivity factors
6 provided by the elemental library of the Avantage software.^[54]
7 The background was fitted with a Shirley curve. The sp^2 peak
8 was fitted with a convolution of a Doniach-Sunjic curve and a
9 Voigtian curve. The asymmetry parameter was determined by
10 the cleanest spectrum (cyrene-post) and kept fixed for all the
11 other fits. The Lorentzian width was constant for all the compo-
12 nents, while the Gaussian widths free to evolve. The chemical
13 shifts of all components relative to the sp^2 were kept fixed for
14 all the fittings.

17 2.4. Fabrication and Characterization of the Touch Screen

19 2.4.1. Materials

20 The SM+TS dispersions in NMP and cyrene were further
21 processed to produce two graphene-based inks suitable for
22 spray-coating—which were named “GNE” ink and “GCE”
23 ink, respectively. To prepare the GNE ink were employed a
24 solvent exchange method: first, 32 mL of the dispersion in
25 NMP was filtered (via a PFET filter, with 0.2 μm pore size)
26 using vacuum filtration.^[55] The flakes collected in the filter
27 were then recovered by ultrasonication in 100 mL of ethanol
28 (10 min, 37 kHz frequency, Elmasonic P by Elma), completing
29 the so-called solvent exchange method. After the sonication,
30 1 mL of PEDOT:PSS solution (1 wt%) was added to the 100 mL
31 ethanol dispersion, followed by 5 min sonication in a water
32 bath sonication and 15 min stirring at room temperature (the
33 minimal amount of PEDOT:PSS was meant to improve the
34 adhesion among flakes and the substrate, reducing the sheet
35 resistance). To prepare the GCE ink, 14 mL of the dispersion
36 in cyrene was filtered (via a PFET filter, with 0.2 μm pore size)
37 using vacuum filtration. The same steps as for the GNE ink
38 were thus followed.

39 Both GNE and GCE inks were designed to have a final
40 graphene flake concentration of 0.5 mg mL^{-1} . Ag nanopar-
41 ticle (NP) inks were prepared by reducing AgNO_3 in an eth-
42 ylene glycol (EG) solution with PVP. 1 g of PVP and 0.015 g
43 NaOH were dissolved in 100 mL EG in an oil bath at 60 °C
44 with continuous magnetic stirring for 1 h. A solution of
45 1.5 g of AgNO_3 in 10 mL of deionized water was added drop
46 by drop, keeping temperature constant. When the mixture
47 turned to light yellow-brown, the rest of the AgNO_3 solution
48 was injected slowly for 1 min while stirring. The solution
49 was further stirred for two hours at 60 °C. The mixture was
50 then heated up to different temperatures step by step while
51 stirring: 80 °C (2 h), 100 °C (2 h), 120 °C (2 h). Then 300 mL
52 of acetone was added to the mixtures to initiate the NPs sedi-
53 mentation, removing the PVP excess. The as-produced Ag NP
54 colloid was centrifuged at 9000 rpm for 10 min, washed again
55 by acetone, and dried gently under N_2 flow. The resulting Ag
56 NPs (≈ 33 nm, Figure S1, Supporting Information) were re-dis-
57 persed in 10 mL of ethanol to make the Ag ink used to fabri-
58 cate the conductive pads.

2.4.2. Electrode Fabrication and Measurements

20 mL of each GNE and GCE ink were used to spray-coat a
rectangular electrode ($2 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$) on a PET substrate using
an airbrush (Richpen 112B, Japan) with N_2 carrier gas (nozzle
diameter ≈ 0.2 mm, airbrush kept perpendicularly at 8 cm
from the substrate, flow rate $\approx 5 \text{ mL N}_2 \text{ min}^{-1}$, pressure 1 bar).
Profilometry (KLA—Tencor P-16 Surface Profiler) was used
to measure and control the electrode thickness. The sheet
resistance was measured with a 4-point probe station (Jandel,
RM3000) with a parameter analyzer (Keithley, 4200C). The
optical transmittance spectra (300–800 nm range, ten spectra
collected and averaged for each sample) were acquired with a
PerkinElmer LAMBDA 950 UV–vis–NIR spectrometer.

2.4.3. Touch Screen Fabrication

GCE was used to fabricate a semi-transparent projected capaci-
tive (pro-cap) touch sensor prototype, working in mutual capaci-
tance mode. Custom vinyl hard masks were designed and cut
using a Silhouette Cameo 2 to create the pattern for both the
graphene channel electrodes and Ag connection pads on a
 $17 \text{ cm} \times 17 \text{ cm}$ PET substrate. Two sheets with 20 graphene elec-
trodes for columns (top panel) and 20 for rows (bottom panel)
form the sensor area into a diamond-shaped mesh of nodes
(Figure 1). The graphene ink was sprayed onto the top and
bottom panels (same conditions described in Section 2.4.2).
The Ag inks were spray-coated on the PET/graphene sub-
strates through a custom vinyl mask (designed to protect the
previously fabricated graphene electrodes—i.e., the sensing ele-
ment) using an airbrush (nozzle diameter ≈ 0.2 mm, airbrush

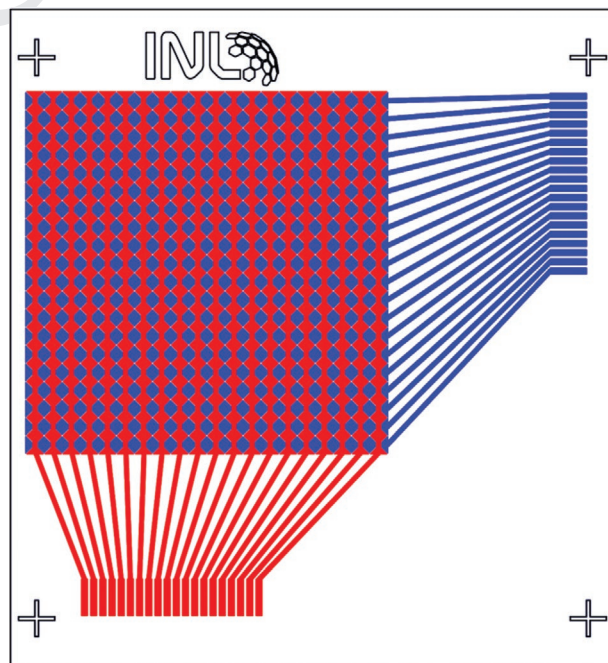


Figure 1. The developed design of a projected capacitive (pro-cap) touch screen. After characterization (Section 2.4.4), the top and bottom panels were laminated together with a dielectric spacer in between.

1 kept perpendicularly at 8 cm from the substrate) with N₂ (flow
2 rate ≈ 5 mL N₂ min⁻¹, pressure 1 bar).

3 After coating, the vinyl masks were carefully peeled off the
4 PET substrate, let dry at room temperature for 10 min, and
5 then at 100 °C for 10 min. The Ag conductive pads connected
6 to the graphene electrodes' edges in the top and bottom panels
7 (red and blue linear connections in Figure 1) served as external
8 contacts to the control electronics.

9

10

11 2.4.4. Electrical and Optical Characterization of the Touch Sensor

12

13 Electrode resistance measurements were performed using an
14 ohmmeter connected to both ends of each electrode. This con-
15 figuration allowed to check the electrical continuity and poten-
16 tial short-circuits between electrodes. The sensor transmittance
17 was measured with a Linshang Technology LS162 transmission
18 meter (accuracy higher than ±2%, 99.9% ultraviolet rejection
19 rate, and infrared rejection rate > 85%).

20 The sensor was electrically scanned using an electronic
21 controller. The controller **monitored** the capacitive charge on
22 each crossing (or node) between the vertical and horizontal
23 electrodes. The industry **referred** to this technique as mutual
24 capacitance scanning. The electronic controller applied an AC
25 current into each horizontal electrode (using an 18 V voltage
26 amplitude). The capacitive charges **were** received on the vertical
27 electrodes, measured differentially to remove any common-
28 mode electrical noise, and converted to digital information. If
29 the sensor **was** touched, the corresponding node **had** a different
30 charge value. Afterward, the controller's firmware **compared**
31 the charge values and, through specialized algorithm tech-
32 niques, **identified** the touched positions, and **reported** them via
33 USB HID protocol to the final host system (see also the discus-
34 sion relating to Figure S4, Supporting Information). The sensor's
35 optical transmittance was measured in the visible range
36 (380–760 nm) using a portable Linshang Technology LS162
37 transmission meter (Supporting Information).

38

39

40 3. Results and Discussion

41

42 3.1. Characterization of the Graphene Dispersions

43

44 We developed an optimized LPE approach to produce graphene
45 dispersions with flake size distribution compatible with spray
46 coating by combining SM and TS techniques. The characteris-
47 tics of the exfoliated graphene flakes in the dispersions depend
48 significantly on the solvents' surface energy. To facilitate the
49 exfoliation and obtain a stable dispersion of atomically thick
50 graphene flakes, the solvent's surface tension (γ) should approx-
51 imate graphite's surface energy ($\zeta \approx 55 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$).^[31,35,56] For this
52 reason, *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP, $\gamma \approx 68.2 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$) and
53 *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF, $\gamma \approx 65 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$) are commonly
54 used solvents since they allow to effectively exfoliate and sus-
55 pend the graphene flakes without any stabilization agents.^[32]
56 These solvents, however, require a post-process annealing (at
57 temperatures above 150 °C) to remove residues after the deposi-
58 tion of the graphene flakes.^[30,57] In addition to toxicity issues,
59 the need for post-processing makes these solvents non-ideal

choices for production and commercialization. For the LPE of
1 graphite, green, and low-boiling-point solvents (such as alco-
2 hols, water, or mixtures of both) do not typically provide high
3 stability over time; besides, the amount of graphene flakes
4 obtained in dispersion is consistently lower than obtained with
5 high-boiling-point solvents.^[58] For these reasons, stable disper-
6 sions in low-boiling-point solvents generally require the addi-
7 tion of stabilizing agents, such as surfactants or polymers.
8 These additives, however, have been reported to produce unde-
9 sirable effects, such as reduced optical transmittance and elec-
10 trical conductivity in the deposited films, which consequently
11 require annealing treatments at high temperatures (>350 °C) or
12 chemical post-processing (Table S1, Supporting Information).^[17]
13

14 We explored a combination of SM and TS processes to i)
15 maximize the exfoliation yield in different solvents and ii)
16 understand the effect on the flake size. The TGA analysis of
17 the NMP dispersions showed that SM provided a higher exfo-
18 liation yield than TS does (0.44 and 0.29 mg mL⁻¹, respectively).
19 Remarkably, SM and TS's combination granted the highest
20 concentration among all exfoliation methods (1.6 mg mL⁻¹).
21 We characterized the graphene flakes produced by the different
22 exfoliation approaches. Raman spectroscopy is a nondestructive
23 technique that characterizes the graphene material's thickness,
24 lateral size, and electronic doping. The Raman spectrum pre-
25 sents three prominent bands at 1350 cm⁻¹ (D band), 1580 cm⁻¹
26 (G band), and 2700 cm⁻¹ (2D band, also called G').^[59–61] The
27 G band is due to the in-plane vibrational mode involving the
28 sp²-hybridized carbon atoms in the graphene lattice, corre-
29 sponding to the E_{2g} phonon at the Brillouin zone center.^[61] The
30 G band position is susceptible to the number of layers and can
31 be used to estimate thickness: the peak position downshifts
32 to ≈1581 cm⁻¹ in few-layer graphene compared to ≈1587 cm⁻¹
33 in monolayer graphene.^[62] The G band position (Pos_G) and
34 its width (FWHM_G) can infer the presence/level of defects in
35 the flakes,^[63] chemical doping,^[59,64,65] or strain.^[66] The D band
36 arises from the breathing mode of sp² bonded carbon rings and
37 requires the proximity of a defect for its activation by a double
38 resonance process. The defects activating the D band can be
39 either point defects in the basal plane or those due to unsatu-
40 rated bonds in a flake's edges.^[67] As such, I_D and the I_D/I_G ratio
41 usually provide information on the average lateral size of the
42 LPE graphene flakes: Smaller flakes have proportionally higher
43 ratios of carbon atoms in the proximity of boundaries, contrib-
44 uting to the D band intensity.^[61,68] The 2D band is the second
45 order/overtone of the D band. It originates from two phonon
46 lattice vibrational processes, but it is not necessarily activated
47 by the proximity to a defect, unlike the D band. As a result,
48 the 2D band is always prominent in the spectrum of crystal-
49 line monolayer graphene. The 2D band position (Pos_{2D}) in
50 graphene is generally ≈2675 cm⁻¹, and flakes with more layers
51 usually exhibit an upshift in position.^[69,70] Pos_{2D} and the I_{2D}/I_G
52 ratio are commonly used to estimate the number of layers in
53 graphene samples.^[71] Additionally, the position of the 2D peak
54 can be influenced by doping effects.^[72] The position and shape
55 of the 2D band can also provide information on graphene's
56 thickness: A monolayer should consist of a single Lorentzian
57 component, while multilayer graphene and graphite usually
58 require multiple Lorentzian components to be fitted.^[59,61,73]
59 It should be noted that the 2D band is a resonant band with

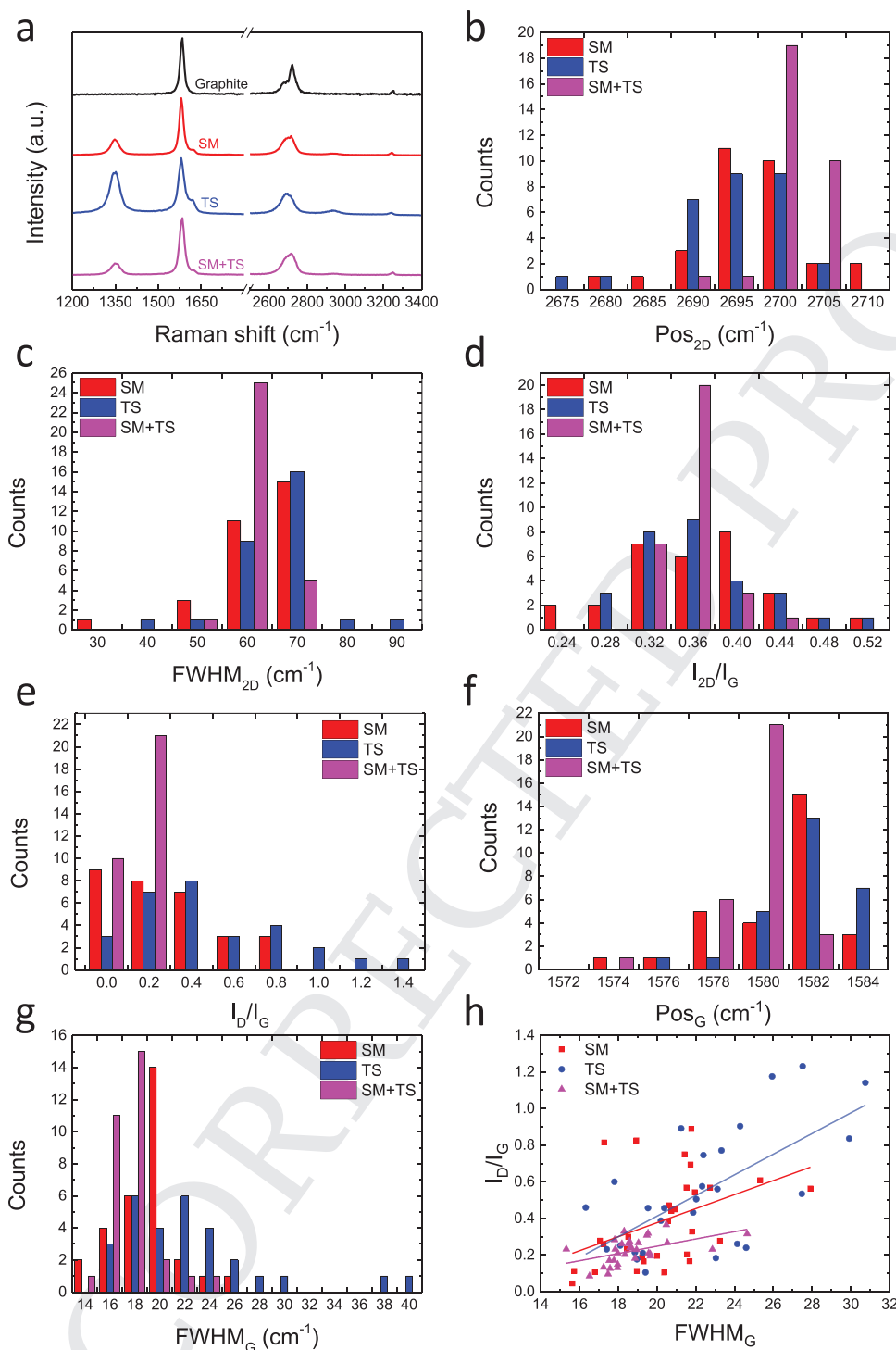


Figure 2. a) Raman spectra representative of graphene flakes obtained by the different LPE processes in NMP (exfoliated from NG bulk material) to a bulk graphite sample; Distribution of b) Pos_{2D}, c) FWHM_{2D}, d) I_{2D}/I_D ratio, e) I_D/I_G ratio, f) Pos_G, g) FWHM_G, and h) I_D/I_G ratios as a function of FWHM_G.

dispersive behavior, that is, the band position is dependent on the laser excitation wavelength.^[74]

Figure 2a compares the representative Raman spectra of graphene flakes obtained by the different LPE processes in NMP (exfoliated from NG bulk material) to a bulk graphite sample.

The three spectra corresponding to the three different processes show expected and similar features: The only apparent difference is a more intense D band for the TS sample. An accurate statistical analysis of the spectral features was performed by collecting multiple spectra on more than 30 flakes produced

1 by each of the three processes (see Experimental Section). We
2 find that the 2D band position ($\text{Pos}_{2\text{D}}$) is peaked at $\approx 2695\text{ cm}^{-1}$
3 for SM and TS flakes, while it is consistently upshifted at
4 $\approx 2700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for SM+TS flakes (Figure 2b). The full width at
5 half maximum of 2D ($\text{FWHM}_{2\text{D}}$) of the three sets is peaked at
6 $\approx 70\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for SM and TS flakes and at $\approx 60\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for SM+TS
7 flakes (Figure 2c), which would be the thinnest among the
8 three.^[73] The $I_{2\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratios are grouped predominantly between
9 ≈ 0.32 and ≈ 0.40 (Figure 2d), with SM+TS flakes having the nar-
10 rowest distribution. These spectral features indicate that all
11 three processes produce few- to multilayer graphene flakes.^[75]
12 The SM+TS flakes (having the narrowest $\text{FWHM}_{2\text{D}}$ distri-
13 bution) present the lowest variation in layer number.^[73] The
14 Raman spectra show significant D and D'' peaks intensity in
15 all cases, with $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ranging up to 0.8, 1.4, and 0.2 for SM, TS,
16 SM+TS flakes, respectively (Figure 2e). In LPE samples, a high
17 D band could be attributed to the edges of sub-micrometer
18 flakes^[76] rather than to a prevalence of structural defects within
19 their basal plane. Indeed, if any defects are present in the
20 graphene's basal plane, the G and D'' peaks become broader,
21 merging into a single wideband,^[77] which does not occur in
22 these spectra. The Pos_{G} of the three sets of samples is peaked
23 between $1580\text{--}1582\text{ cm}^{-1}$, as expected for a few- to multilayer
24 graphene. Here, the SM+TS flakes show the narrowest distribu-
25 tion once more, indicating the highest degree of control over
26 the thickness distribution (Figure 2f). FWHM_{G} is a measure of
27 the number of defects; an increased FWHM_{G} is a synonym with
28 a higher defect density.^[63] In Figure 2g, we observe that while
29 SM and SM+TS flakes show comparable FWHM_{G} values, TS
30 flakes exhibit higher FWHM_{G} values, which might be linked to
31 a higher defect density induced by this technique. Plots of the
32 $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratio versus FWHM_{G} can provide further information. As
33 mentioned, high $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratios suggest either a largely defected
34 sample or small flake sizes.^[78,67,79] When the $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratio and
35 FWHM_{G} are linearly correlated, the more defected samples
36 also show the higher $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratios. In Figure 2h, there is no clear
37 correlation between $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ and FWHM_{G} for any of the samples
38 exfoliated through the three techniques: The major contributor
39 to the D band must come from the flakes "edges rather than
40 from defects within the flakes" basal planes.^[11] Therefore, the
41 flakes produced by SM+TS, having the lowest $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratio range,
42 should have the largest lateral size of the lot, followed by those
43 produced by SM.^[80]

44 Dispersions in DMF and cyrene were also prepared using
45 the three different exfoliation approaches mentioned in Sec-
46 tion 2.2. Similar concentration trends were observed for DMF
47 and cyrene, as summarized in **Table 1**.

48 The graphene dispersions in DMF showed partial sedi-
49 mentation after a one-month shelf-life test. Remarkably, the

1 dispersions in cyrene showed the highest yield in all cases, 1
2 with the SM+TS having a 3.70 mg mL^{-1} concentration. For 2
3 this reason, and considering the large lateral size and narrow
4 thickness distribution evidenced by the Raman analysis, the
5 combination of SM+TS processes was selected for further
6 investigation in the three solvents.

7 **Figure 3a** shows the representative Raman spectra of gra- 7
8 phene flakes in NMP, DMF, cyrene. For DMF flakes, the $\text{Pos}_{2\text{D}}$ 8
9 peaks at $\approx 2705\text{ cm}^{-1}$ but is widely scattered, indicating poor
10 thickness control. For NMP flakes, $\text{Pos}_{2\text{D}}$ peaks at $\approx 2700\text{ cm}^{-1}$,
11 indicating thinner flakes than those exfoliated in cyrene, which
12 peaks at $\approx 2705\text{ cm}^{-1}$; both NMP and cyrene show a narrower dis-
13 tribution of $\text{Pos}_{2\text{D}}$, indicating a more controlled thickness dis-
14 tribution (Figure 3b). NMP and DMF flakes have an $\text{FWHM}_{2\text{D}}$
15 peaked at $\approx 65\text{ cm}^{-1}$, while cyrene flakes have it at $\approx 60\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (in
16 an overall lower range) (Figure 3c), which indicates that the
17 latter are typically thinner. The $I_{2\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratios are grouped differ-
18 ently for the three sets of samples (Figure 3d). NMP flakes have
19 the narrowest distribution with a marked peak at ≈ 0.36 . DMF
20 and cyrene flakes have overall broader distributions (between
21 $0.24\text{--}0.40$ and $0.24\text{--}0.48$, respectively). NMP flakes thus seem
22 to possess a narrow thickness distribution. Cyrene flakes have
23 the broadest $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratio distribution, up to 0.50, indicating the
24 occurrence of small lateral sizes (Figure 3e). Based on the Pos_{G}
25 band position (Figure 3f), all solvents seem to yield few- to mul-
26 tilayer graphene. For cyrene flakes, the Pos_{G} range is the nar-
27 rowest and peaked at the highest value ($\approx 1582\text{ cm}^{-1}$), indicating
28 the smallest thickness of the lot.^[62] In Figure 3g, we observe
29 comparable FWHM_{G} values for all samples, possibly indicating
30 comparable residual chemical doping levels. As evidenced in
31 Figure 2h, the lack of correlation between FWHM_{G} and $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$
32 suggests that $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ increments are due to the flakes' edges
33 (Figure 3h). Addition Raman data, in line with those described
34 above, can be found in Figure S2, Supporting Information.

35 TEM imaging revealed that the graphene flakes in NMP
36 and cyrene had various different thicknesses in the multi-layer
37 range. It also allowed to shed light on the lateral size of the
38 flakes. **Figure 4** shows typical bright-field TEM images of flakes
39 from NMP and cyrene dispersions. The graphene flakes show
40 a flat morphology. They easily agglomerate on the TEM grid (to
41 reduce their surface energy), making it difficult to locate indi-
42 vidual monolayer regions. A careful examination of the edge of
43 the flakes carried out by tilting the samples under the electron
44 beam shows that the flakes exhibit few-layer thickness. Yet, the
45 two solvents have a different effect on the thickness and lateral
46 size of the flakes. The SM+TS process in cyrene seems to lead
47 to smaller and thinner flakes than SM and SM+TS processes in
48 NMP. By measuring 40 flakes using several TEM images from
49 each sample, the average lateral size for both SM and SM+TS
50

51 **Table 1.** Concentration and stability of graphene dispersions prepared by exfoliating bulk NG. Three processes were tested by using three solvents
52 (NMP, DMF, cyrene). The concentration is calculated by the TMG method. The stability is evaluated as a shelf-life after one month.

LPE process	Graphene dispersions in NMP		Graphene dispersions in DMF		Graphene dispersions in cyrene	
	Conc. [mg mL^{-1}]	Stability	Conc. [mg mL^{-1}]	Stability	Conc. [mg mL^{-1}]	Stability
TS	0.29	+	0.10	partial sedimentation	1.22	minimal sedimentation
SM	0.44	+	0.20	partial sedimentation	2.24	+
SM+TS	1.61	+	0.30	partial sedimentation	3.70	+

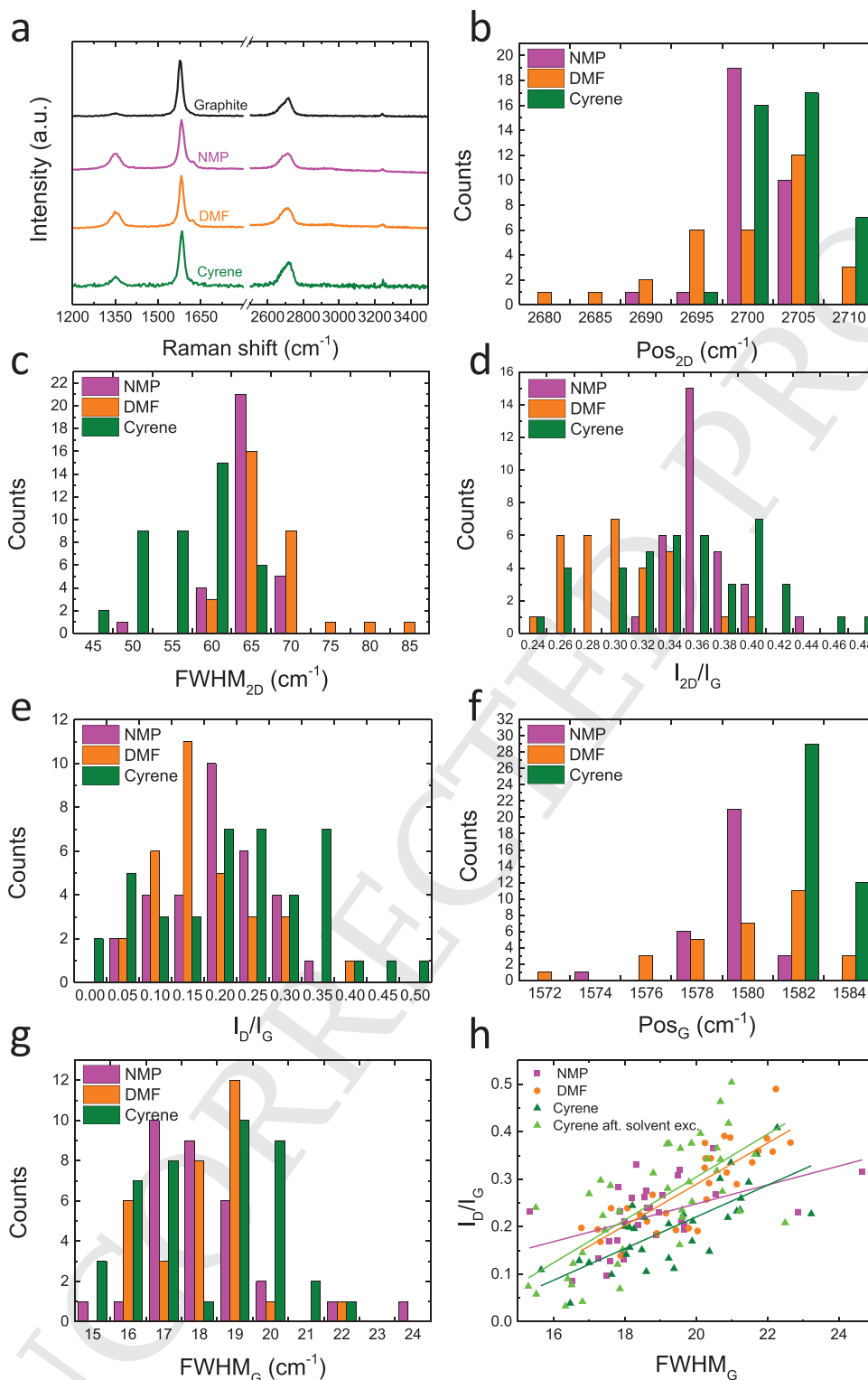


Figure 3. Raman analysis of graphene flakes exfoliated in different solvents by using process SM+TS. a) Representative Raman spectra; Distribution of b) Pos_{2D} , c) $FWHM_{2D}$, d) I_{2D}/I_D ratio, e) I_D/I_G ratio, f) Pos_G , g) $FWHM_G$, and h) I_D/I_G ratios as a function of $FWHM_G$.

flakes in NMP appeared in the order of ≈ 500 nm; while with cyrene it was ≈ 100 nm for SM flakes and ≈ 200 nm for SM+TS flakes. It should be noted that such measurements might be

overestimated due to the possible agglomeration of flakes on the TEM grids. Overall, the graphene flakes in NMP were consistently larger than those in cyrene.

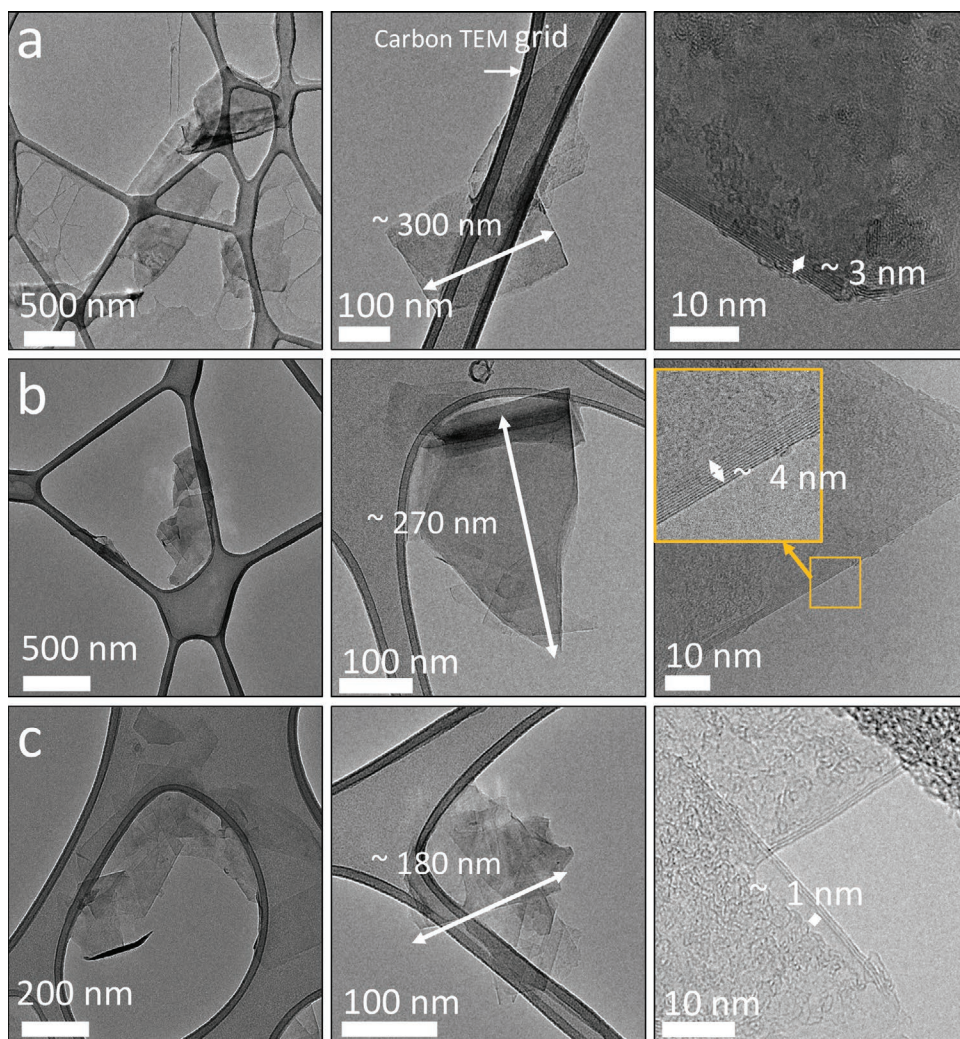


Figure 4. Bright-field TEM images of the graphene flakes at different magnifications (increasing from left to right). a) Flakes were processed by SM in NMP, b) SM+TS in NMP, and c) SM+TS in cyrene. The white arrows in the second column highlight the average lateral size of several flakes. The yellow arrows in the third column indicate the flake thickness, as observed edge-on of the folded graphene.

The SM+TS flakes obtained in NMP and cyrene were also analyzed by AFM (Figure 5). The graphs in Figure 5 plot the frequency of flakes (counts) in lateral size.

The lateral size histograms follow a log-normal distribution, peaking at ≈ 75 nm and ≈ 125 nm for flakes produced in NMP and cyrene, respectively. The flake sizes shown in AFM are smaller than those estimated by TEM image analysis, most likely due to the aggregation of flakes on the TEM grids. Overall, the SM+TS processes produce graphene flakes with lateral size within 500–600 nm. The SM+TS graphene flakes

in NMP and cyrene were selected to prepare semi-transparent and electrically conductive inks suitable for spray coating deposition. A solvent exchange approach was used to re-disperse the flakes in ethanol (see the Experimental Section 2.4.1). An XPS analysis was performed to evaluate the chemical composition and bonding states of the graphene flakes from dispersions in NMP, cyrene, and ethanol (after solvent exchange from original cyrene). The XPS C1s spectra of the graphene flakes cast on Si are shown in Figure 6. The oxygen-containing functional group content of graphene flakes and residues

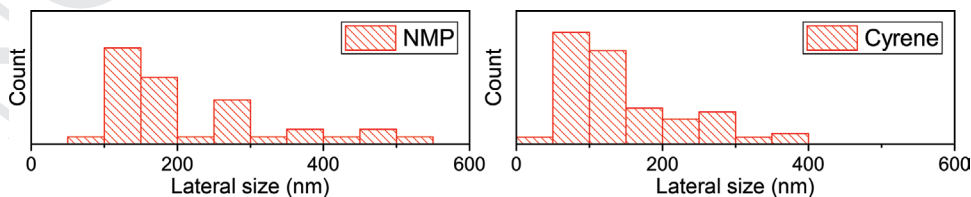


Figure 5. Histograms of lateral size obtained from the AFM analysis of graphene flakes produced by SM+TS in NMP (left) and cyrene (right) solvents.

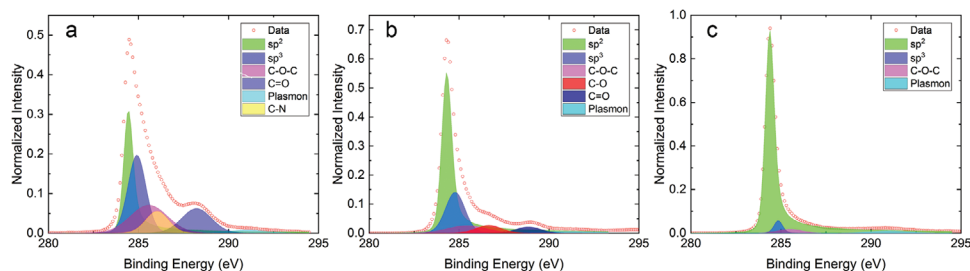


Figure 6. High-resolution C1s XPS spectra of graphene flakes in a) NMP, b) cyrene, and c) ethanol (after solvent exchange from cyrene). Additional data can be found in Table S2, Supporting Information.

from the cyrene solvent appears much lower after the solvent exchange to ethanol, that is, 4% instead of 19%. A carbon content of more than 95% after solvent exchange was observed, demonstrating that this processing step effectively removes cyrene residues.

C1s spectra show the typical asymmetric profiles of graphene materials. The C1s spectrum can be fitted into different components typical of graphite: a prominent peak at 284.4 eV for sp^2 carbon with the corresponding satellite peak due to $\pi-\pi^*$ (HOMO-LUMO) transition at 290.8 eV; a second peak around 285.0 eV related to sp^3 -hybridized carbon, typically due to the flake edges and defects. The sp^3 fraction reduces from $\approx 25\%$ to $\approx 5\%$ (Table 2) after the solvent exchange process, indicating that part of the sp^3 carbons peak could be attributed to the presence of cyrene, before the solvent exchange procedure.

All the samples mainly show the presence of carbon weakly bonded to oxygen (apart for small C=O components), most likely due to solvent residues on the substrate and the surface of the graphene flakes. Finally, a remarkable C–N component is found, consistently, in NMP.

3.2. Graphene-Based Touch Sensor Electrodes

The selected graphene dispersions in NMP and cyrene (produced by SM+TS) were further processed via a solvent exchange approach to prepare the spray-coating compatible inks GNE and GCE, as described in Section 2.4.1. Two rectangular transparent electrodes ($2 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$) were produced with each respective ink. Table 3 presents the parameters and performance of the two electrodes. The electrodes have a thickness of $\approx 150 \text{ nm}$ in both cases, as measured by profilometry. The GCE electrode has the best combination of electrical conductivity and transparency: $290 \Omega \square^{-1}$ and 78%. Such a performance is notable when considering that only green solvents (biodegradable cyrene and ethanol) were used to produce the GCE ink.

Table 2. XPS peak percentage weights as determined from the spectra in Figure 6.

	sp^2	sp^3	C–O–C	C–N	C–O	C=O
NMP	27.0%	28.1%	20.4%	10.1%	0.0%	14.5%
Pre-cyrene	56.3%	24.8%	9.2%	0.0%	6.4%	3.3%
Post-cyrene (after solvent exchange)	91.1%	4.9%	4.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Flexibility is one of the most interesting feature theoretically granted by graphene, in view of the many possibilities this opens in technology. To this end, we tested the electrical performance of our graphene-based electrodes when subject to intense bending (Figure 7). A series of 20 parallel diamond shaped electrodes were spray-coated on a $100 \mu\text{m}$ -thick PET substrate.

The resistance measurements were collected before, during and after bending on a cylindrical surface with curvature radius $r = 28 \text{ mm}$, as shown in Figure 7. The average resistance value over the 20 electrodes on the flat and bent substrate was 41.6 and 41.7 $\text{k}\Omega$, respectively. Remarkably, the resistance values in each electrode were basically unchanged upon bending. The values kept also stable when recovering to a flat position. These results show that with a bending radius of 28 mm and that the electrodes suffered no damage and did not lower their performance when operated under considerable strain ($\epsilon = 0.18\%$).

3.3. Graphene-Based Touch Sensor Prototype

As aforementioned, we teamed up with DISPLAY S.A. to test the use of our “green” graphene-based ink in an industrial context. We developed a graphene-based, semi-transparent touch sensor featuring 20 reception electrodes and 20 transmission electrodes with sub-micron thickness (as described in Section 2.4.3 and Figure S3, Supporting Information). The touch screen sensor consisted of top and bottom spray-coated graphene sheets laminated together with a dielectric layer in between, forming a capacitive diamond-patterned flexible sensor stack (Figure S4, Supporting Information). The stack was finally laminated on a glass sheet to ease the test procedures. Figure 8 illustrates the components and the final prototype under testing. The sensor was interfaced to a custom-made electronic controller and operated as a touch screen, having the detected touch input signal reported to a computer after analog-to-digital conversion.

Table 3. Spray-coated, transparent, conductive electrodes on PET substrate made with GNE and GCE inks. The fabrication was done at room temperature with no post-annealing treatments.

Ink	Original solvent	Final solvent	Fabrication of the graphene electrode: Condition and parameters				
			Drying temperature [°C]	Drying time [min]	Thickness [nm]	Sheet resistance [$\Omega \square^{-1}$]	Transmittance [%]
GNE	NMP	ethanol	25	10	150	370	65
GCE	cyrene	ethanol	25	10	150	290	78

The GCE ink was used to fabricate the final electrodes to be used in the touch sensor prototype.

The prototype was characterized in terms of industry-relevant parameters for touch-sensors and displays. As a first remark, the electrode thickness of ≈ 150 nm is well below the maximum trace height of $5 \mu\text{m}$ required by display manufacturers. Electrical resistance measurements were performed on the vertical and horizontal graphene electrodes—transmission (T_x) and reception (R_x). The electrode resistance is a critical parameter for this kind of device because it largely determines the signal attenuation and the overall sensor performance. The electrode resistance showed to be constant throughout the sensor: the average value is $30 \text{ k}\Omega$ for the rows, and $9.7 \text{ k}\Omega$ for the columns (Table S3, Supporting Information). The optical transmittance of the rows layer and columns layer is 78% and 75%, respectively. The sensor's overall transmittance, with laminated row, column, and dielectric layers, was 65.3%. High and low storage temperature, operation temperature, and humidity were also assessed. To that end, the touch-sensors were tested before and after storing at low ($\approx 5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and high temperatures ($\approx 60 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$). During these tests, no degradation of touch detection was observed, nor any structural damage. The sensor's performance at different temperatures was tested (i.e., immediately after heating in an oven at $60 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and after cooling to room temperature), indicating no changes in touch detection. The sensor was also tested for operation in humid ambient atmospheres from 20% to 100% humidity, without noticeable

behavior change, and spraying it with water droplets produced no performance loss.

Analog signals, resulting from accumulated charge at the nodes (see Figures S4, Supporting Information), were acquired from every row-column node. The signal to noise ratio (SNR) defined as:

$$\text{SNR (dB)} = 10 \log \left(\frac{V_{\text{signal}}}{V_{\text{noise}}} \right) \quad (2)$$

V_{signal} and V_{noise} are the signal and noise voltages measured in all the sensor nodes, showing a low and constant attenuation across the sensor area. The SNR is 14.0, 13.9, and 13.9 dB at nodes with coordinates 1×1 , 10×10 , and 20×20 , located in different sensor regions (Figure 8c). This feature is of great importance for a high-sensitivity, marketable product. The high-sensitivity allowed our graphene prototype to be operated in a multi-touch mode (up to four simultaneous finger touches—three shown in the figure) with constant attenuation across the sensor area (Figure 9).

According to industrial display requirements, a commercially competitive touch sensor should feature an R_s of $50 \Omega \square^{-1}$ with an optical transmittance of 86% at minimum (Table S4, Supporting Information). Comparing the results of our graphene-based prototype to these industrial requirements, it is apparent that further optimization of the current ratio of sheet resistance ($290 \Omega \square^{-1}$) and optical transmittance (78%) is required. As a prospective pathway toward better performance ratio, the spray-coated electrodes on PET could be hot-pressed to foster the interconnection between flakes in the film, thus reducing the sheet resistance while retaining approximately the same level of transparency. It should be noted, however, that our prototype relied on very thin electrodes (only 150 nm, well below the industrial requirement) and in turn showed remarkable results in mechanical flexibility that compete and surpass the industrial standard—withstanding a high bending radius without any change in functionality and performance. Besides, optical transparency is not a fixed requirement for touch surfaces (e.g., it is not necessary for drawing tablets^[45] keyboards with touch surfaces,^[46] and other touch-sensitive user interfaces^[47]), and so our graphene-based inks could already find application in this kind of devices, possibly exploiting the flexibility they can confer to the fabricated components.

In the current market for touch sensors, the primary factor is the production cost, as the profit margins are becoming increasingly thin. For a sensor to be competitive, the production method should be cost-efficient: All the fabrication steps such as the materials preparation, deposition and patterning, as well as the curing processes of the sensor layers, should be

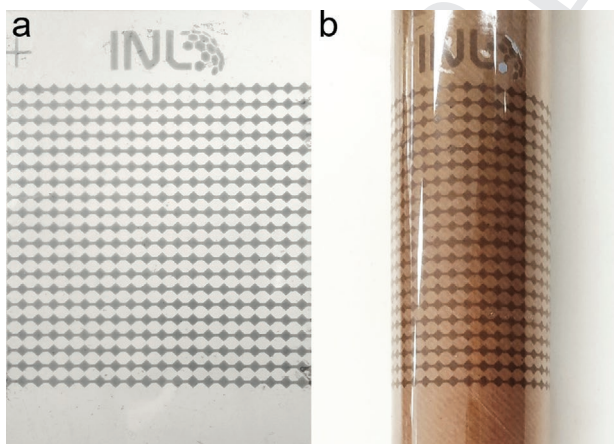


Figure 7. Graphene-based electrodes: a) before and b) after bending. The PET substrate was bent to the cylindrical surface shown in Figure 7, with a curvature radius of $r = 28$ mm. Disregarding the graphene electrode thickness (150 nm) compared with the PET substrate thickness, $t = 100 \mu\text{m}$, and assuming that the substrate's neutral plane is located in the middle of the PET sheet (which is reasonable since it is homogeneous with a constant thickness over the entire area), the strain induced in the bent graphene electrodes can be estimated as $\epsilon = \frac{t}{2r} = 0.18\%$.

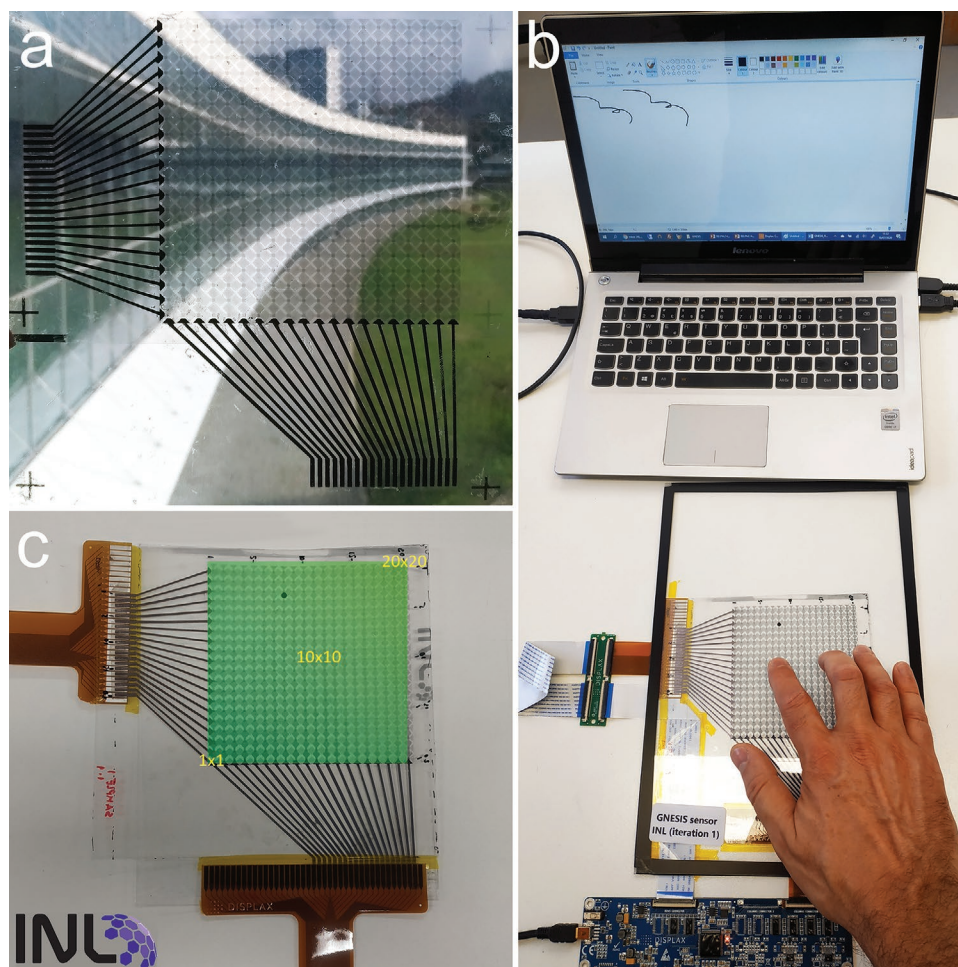


Figure 8. Graphene-based touch sensor prototype. a) Overlapped top and bottom PET panels with the spray-coated graphene row (T_x) and column (R_x) electrodes and conductive Ag pads. b) Complete system (touch sensor + controller + computer) operated in multi-touch mode. c) Complete touch sensor interfaced with external connections.

as simple as possible and realized with affordable equipment. In this context, material deposition techniques such as inkjet, screen printing, or spray coating—all suitable for GBMs—represent an optimal option for the sensor industry. Our results show that graphene is a viable option to answer the industry requests, as it can deliver suitable mechanical, visual, and electrical performance, while requiring simple and inexpensive deposition techniques. Overall, our green and cost-effective

approach may find fruitful application in consumer and flexible electronics.

4. Conclusions

We proposed a strategy for a highly effective liquid-phase exfoliation of graphite to produce graphene-based

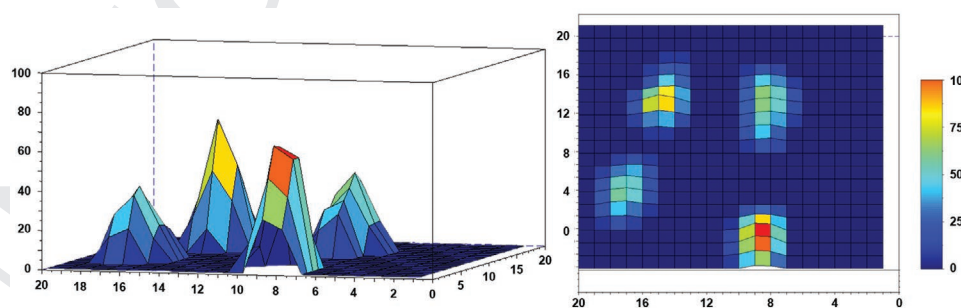


Figure 9. Touch peaks resulting from the graphene sensor operation with four fingers. Perspective-view on the left, matrix/frame top-view with color-coded peaks on the right. The vertical scale is in arbitrary units; the color code is the same in both figures.

1 dispersions. Different methods as shear-mixing, tip-sonica-
2 tion, and the combination of the two processes in various
3 solvents (NMP, DMF, and cyrene) were studied in detail to
4 evaluate their impact on the graphene flake size, thickness,
5 and overall concentration yield in the liquid dispersions. The
6 “green” solvent—cyrene—was identified and studied in com-
7 parison to NMP and DMF, which are typical solvents for the
8 LPE of graphite with known issues in terms of toxicity and
9 substrate compatibility. Raman, TEM, and AFM were used to
10 evaluate the crystalline quality and morphology of the gra-
11 phene flakes in the various dispersions. The graphene flakes
12 produced via shear-mixing demonstrated higher crystalline
13 quality, and smaller lateral size and thickness than those
14 obtained by tip-sonication. Remarkably, the combination of
15 the two processes generated stable graphene flake disper-
16 sions with much higher concentration than the individual
17 processes. The choice of solvent for the graphite exfoliation
18 into few-layer graphene flakes is crucial for any foreseeable
19 commercial production and application, and cyrene could
20 thus pave the way for a scalable production. The inks pro-
21 duced with cyrene had the highest graphene flake concen-
22 tration, smallest flake sizes, and a generally narrower flake
23 size distribution. According to these results, cyrene can
24 replace toxic and hazardous NMP and DMF solvents for this
25 purpose.

26 We used our eco-friendly graphene ink to fabricate elec-
27 trodes for a touch screen sensor prototype to demonstrate
28 cyrene processing’s viability for the fabrication of graphene-
29 based technology. The challenge in the fabrication of trans-
30 parent conductive electrodes pertains the balance among the
31 three main characteristics: electrical performance, visual per-
32 formance, and mechanical flexibility (high bending radius
33 with unmodified performance). Our touch sensor prototype
34 showed valuable performance across the board: optical trans-
35 mittance of 78%, sheet resistance of $290 \Omega \square^{-1}$, and no sig-
36 nificant change in sheet resistance when bent to a curvature
37 radius of 28 mm. Remarkably, given the low level of attenu-
38 ation and high SNR, the sensor could be operated in multi-
39 touch mode, with up to four simultaneous finger touches
40 detected. Our results showed that LPE graphene from a “green
41 solvent” could serve as the primary material for electrodes in
42 flexible devices with high electrical performance, in compli-
43 ance with the strain levels that a flexible device is expected to
44 accommodate. Both the graphene-based ink formulation and
45 the deposition techniques could be easily tuned to maximize
46 the electrical conductivity at the expense of the optical trans-
47 parency, which is not a requirement for several consumer
48 applications. Overall, the proposed LPE strategy approach can
49 produce graphene-based dispersions with desired characteris-
50 tics, low production cost (all processes occur at room tempera-
51 ture), and environmental compatibility, which can be excellent
52 candidates for the fabrication of a wide range of electronic
53 devices.

Supporting Information

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58 Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or
59 from the author.

Acknowledgements

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Research data are not shared.

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