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4 5 6	1	MoS <sub>2</sub> /Epitaxial graphene layered electrodes for
7 8 9 10	2	solid-state supercapacitors
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33 34	15	Keywords
36 37	16	quasi-solid-state supercapacitors, epitaxial graphene, MoS2, 3C-SiC
38 39 40	17	Abstract
41 42 43	18	The potential of transition metal dichalcogenides such as MoS <sub>2</sub> for energy storage has been
44 45	19	significantly limited so far by the lack of conductivity and structural stability. Employing highly
40 47 48	20	conductive, graphitic materials in combination with transition metal dichalcogenides can address
49 50	21	this gap. Here, we explore the use of a layered electrode structure for solid-state supercapacitors,
51 52 53	22	made of MoS <sub>2</sub> and epitaxial graphene on cubic silicon carbide for on-silicon energy storage. We
54 55	23	show that the energy storage of the solid-state supercapacitors can be significantly increased by
56 57	24	creating layered MoS <sub>2</sub> /graphene electrodes, yielding a substantial improvement as compared to

electrodes using either epitaxial graphene or MoS<sub>2</sub> alone. We conclude that the conductivity of
 epitaxial graphene and the growth morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> on graphene play an enabling role in the
 successful use of transition metal dichalcogenides for on-chip energy storage.

### 1. Introduction

5 Electrochemical supercapacitors are key components of advanced energy storage systems. Their 6 long life cycle, low maintenance requirements, and capability to deliver high power densities make 7 supercapacitors complementary to conventional batteries [1-6]. Charge storage in electrochemical 8 supercapacitors relies principally on the presence of an electrical double layer at the 9 electrode/electrolyte interface [4, 7]. Redox reactions or pseudocapacitance can also contribute to 10 charge storage [4, 7, 8].

Two-dimensional transition metal sulfide (TMS) materials have recently emerged, holding, among others, high promise for energy storage applications [9-14]. These advanced layered materials present outstanding double-layer performance thanks to their high surface area and the presence of interlaminar sites for charge storage [14-18]. However, their implementation in energy storage systems has been challenged by the lack of structural stability and low conductivity [19, 20]. One of the possible ways to overcome these limitations is the combination of TMS with a material like graphene [16, 19-23]. Graphenic materials could contribute to the missing structural stability and high electrical conductivity to the thin-layered electrodes [19, 20, 24]. The efficient and scalable fabrication of graphene and TMS hybrid structures could determine the future applications of TMS materials in energy storage.

To date, graphene oxide (GO) and graphene flakes have been explored in combination with TMS
for composite structures for energy storage applications [19, 22, 24-29]. Da Silveira Firmiano et

al. [19] proposed MoS<sub>2</sub>/GO composite electrodes and demonstrated that the composite structure
leads to a significant capacitance performance improvement. Ji et al. [22] fabricated a flexible
supercapacitor based on MoS<sub>2</sub>/GO composite electrodes using ball milling of bulk MoS<sub>2</sub> and GO
powders. They demonstrated that the composite electrodes improve the capacitance by up to 50%
(at 0.5 Ag<sup>-1</sup>) compared to the bulk MoS<sub>2</sub> ones [22].

While GO and graphene flakes provide a promising platform for flexible energy storage device fabrication [1, 22], epitaxial graphene (EG) directly grown on silicon substrates offer substantial advantages for on-chip supercapacitors [7, 30-36]. The EG on silicon technology is underpinned by a metal-based catalytic wafer-scale growth of graphene using cubic silicon carbide on silicon, which can be compatible with the current semiconductor manufacturing [31, 35, 37-41]. This binder-free method is capable of producing EG with tunable characteristics and high adhesion to the substrate, which also has the potentials for miniaturization and wafer-level production [39, 40]. Pradeepkumar et al. [40] have recently demonstrated that the alloy-mediated graphitization approach maintains an epitaxial relation of graphene with the substrate; it also leads to a large area epitaxial graphene coverage. No data is available to date on the use of layered TMS/EG electrodes for miniaturized, integrated energy storage applications. In the present study, we explore the electrochemical performance of MoS<sub>2</sub>/EG layered electrodes directly grown on a silicon substrate.

- 18 2. Experimental methods
- 19 2.1 Materials preparation

3C-SiC (cubic polytype) films epitaxially grown on Si (100) substrates have been acquired from
NOVASiC. The films underwent a chemical - mechanical polishing procedure (StepSiC<sup>®</sup> by
NOVASIC (France)) [42, 43]. The final SiC epi layer thickness is ~500 nm. A catalytic alloy

method was employed to grow EG on the SiC films [37, 38]. A combination of a Ni layer (~10 nm) followed by a Cu layer (~ 20 nm) was used to fabricate epitaxial graphene. A Cryopump deposition chamber operating with CD Ar<sup>+</sup> ion and 200 mA current was employed for sputtering the metallic layers. Annealing the metal-coated samples at ~1100 °C for an hour under vacuum condition ( $\sim 10^{-5}$  mbar) leads to breaking of the Si-C bonds and the release of the carbon atoms which can form epitaxial graphene on the surface. Ni silicides are the by-product of this procedure, which were later removed with any metal residues on the surface using chemical wet etching for about nine hours (Freckle solution) [37, 38].

MoS<sub>2</sub> was grown by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) directly on the EG/3C-SiC/Si(100) substrates. The substrates were placed in a horizontal quartz tube furnace, 3 cm downstream from an alumina boat with 30 mg of MoO<sub>3</sub> powder. Another crucible with 1.5 g of sulfur powder was placed 20 cm upstream in a separate heating zone. Prior to the growth, the tube was pumped to  $\sim$ 70 Torr under 600 sccm Ar and purged for 1 hour to remove residual air. At the beginning of the growth process, the Ar flow rate was reduced to 200 sccm. The MoO<sub>3</sub> was first heated at 150 °C for 20 minutes to remove any adsorbed water, before ramping to 800 °C to evaporate the MoO<sub>3</sub> precursor. The sulfur precursor was heated simultaneously to 280 °C with a similar ramp. Both zones were held at their respective temperatures for a growth time of 20 min before cooling naturally under Ar flow.

19 2.2 Device fabrication

A sandwich cell design using two electrodes ( $\sim 2 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ ) with a gel electrolyte in between the electrodes was used to fabricate the quasi-solid-state supercapacitors [44]. PVA+H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> gel electrolyte was prepared by mixing 1 g PVA molecule (108K molecular weight) and 10 mL deionized water followed by the addition of 1g H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (98%). The mixture was vigorously stirred at 80 °C for a few hours to become completely transparent. Kapton tape was used to seal the cells
 obtaining a typical gel electrolyte thickness of ~300 μm.

3 2.3 Characterization

A Zeiss Supra 55VP scanning electron microscope (SEM) and Park XE7 atomic force microscope (AFM) were employed for imaging the surface. Raman spectra were collected by a WiTec Raman microscope using a 532 nm green laser; the spectra presented in this paper are obtained by averaging 2500 single spectra collected over a 100  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> area map. X-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were acquired using a Kratos Axis Supra instrument with a monochromated Al K<sub>a</sub> X-ray source (hv = 1486.7 eV).

10 An electrochemical workstation (CH Instruments, 660 E Model) was used to assess the 11 electrochemical performance of the cells operating in a two-probe configuration. Galvanostatic 12 charge/discharge (CD) measurements were conducted with 1 V potential window and 1-5  $\mu$ A 13 current. The stability of the cells over long cycles was assessed using the CD test over 10000 cycles 14 by 10  $\mu$ A current and 1 V potential window. The electrode areal specific capacitance (C) was 15 calculated based on the CD test results using the equation

 $C = 4I\Delta t / \Delta U, \tag{1}$ 

17 where C is the areal specific capacitance in ( $\mu$ Fcm<sup>-2</sup>), I represents the current density ( $\mu$ Acm<sup>-2</sup>),  $\Delta$ t 18 is the discharge time (s), and  $\Delta$ U is the potential window (V). Data reported here are the averaged 19 values calculated from 5 to 10 charge/discharge cycles. Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy 20 measurement conducted in the 0.01 Hz to 100 kHz frequency range with a signal amplitude of 5 21 mV.

#### 3. Results and discussion

MoS<sub>2</sub> has been synthesized on two different surfaces: bare 3C-SiC/Si and EG grown on 3C-SiC/Si. Figure 1 shows the SEM images of the samples before and after the MoS<sub>2</sub> growth. Pristine SiC presents a flat surface with a roughness root mean square (RMS) value of ~5 nm (Figure 1a & S3a), while the EG growth using the catalytic alloy method increases the roughness RMS to  $\sim 25$ nm (Figure 1c & S3c). The MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesis on both of these surfaces leads to the formation of the MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals evident in the SEM micrographs (Figure 1b & d). As a result, the surface roughness increases substantially in both cases after MoS<sub>2</sub> growth. The AFM measurements indicate ~44 nm RMS for the growth on bare 3C-SiC and ~54 nm RMS for the growth on EG; however, we anticipate that those values may not reflect the actual roughness of the final surfaces as the radius of curvature of the AFM tip (~30 nm) would substantially distort (Figure S3b & d) the morphology of the MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figure S1a & b). The SEM micrographs clearly indicate that the MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals grown on the EG surface are denser. Also, the MoS<sub>2</sub> tends to grow with a rather random crystal orientation on the bare SiC substrate (Figure 1b and S1a), while the MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals appear predominantly standing vertically on the EG surface (Figure 1d and S1b). The estimated thickness of grown MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals from Figure S1b is 30-50 nm.

Fei et al. [45] had illustrated the effect of the growth temperature on the orientation of the  $MoS_2$ crystals, indicating that the low-temperature growth of  $MoS_2$  results predominantly in a vertical alignment. The surface energy and template of the substrate used for the  $MoS_2$  growth are expected to have a significant effect on the morphology of the  $MoS_2$  layer as well [46-48]. Here we believe that the low surface energy of the EG layer leads to the vertical alignment of the  $MoS_2$  crystals. In fact, when the growth of  $MoS_2$  takes place on a defective EG surface, the  $MoS_2$  layer does not



## 2 is poor (**Figure S2**).



**Figure 1**. SEM images of (a) pristine 3C-SiC/Si substrate, (b) MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized on the 3C-SiC/Si, (c) EG grown on 3C-SiC/Si substrate, (d) MoS<sub>2</sub> grown on the EG electrodes.

**Figure 2a** shows the Raman spectra of the pristine 3C-SiC/Si substrate; two main notable peaks are the Si peak at ~520 cm<sup>-1</sup> and the LO peak of SiC at ~970 cm<sup>-1</sup> [49, 50]. After MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesis on the SiC surface, two dominant peaks  $E_{2g}$  at ~378 cm<sup>-1</sup> and  $A_{1g}$  at ~404 cm<sup>-1</sup> appear (**Figure 2b**), which correspond to in-plane and out-of-plane vibrational modes of hexagonal MoS<sub>2</sub> crystal, respectively [51, 52]. The Raman spectra of the EG sample have three extra peaks, which originate from graphene lattice: D peak at ~1340 cm<sup>-1</sup>, G peak at ~1580 cm<sup>-1</sup>, and 2D peak at ~2680 cm<sup>-1</sup>

1	(Figure 2c) [53, 54]. The D peak arises from defects within graphene lattice. The intensity ratio
2	between D and G peaks has been widely used as a measure to compare defect density for graphene-
3	based materials [53, 54]. The intensity ratio of $I_{LO}/I_{2D}$ also indicates the graphene coverage over
4	the 3C-SiC/Si substrate; lower values correspond to higher coverage. Here $I_D/I_G$ is ~0.2, and $I_{LO}/I_{2D}$
5	is $\sim$ 0.2, which shows the presence of good quality graphene with excellent surface coverage and
6	low sheet resistance, as we have recently reported [40]. The Raman spectra of the EG surface after
7	$MoS_2$ synthesis show the appearance of $E_{2g}$ and $A_{1g}$ peaks while the graphene peaks are visible,
8	demonstrating the presence of graphene under the $MoS_2$ layer (Figure 2d). $I_D/I_G$ has appeared
9	unchanged after MoS <sub>2</sub> growth, indicating that no significant new defects are formed during this
10	process. However, $I_{LO}/I_{2D}$ has increased slightly to ~0.26, indicating some loss of graphene (Figure
11	<b>S5a</b> ). The Raman wavenumber difference between $E_{2g}$ and $A_{1g}$ peaks can be used as an indicator
12	for assessing the number of $MoS_2$ layers [51, 55]. Here on both surfaces, the $E_{2g}$ and $A_{1g}$ peak
13	distance is ~25 cm <sup>-1</sup> , corresponding to multi layers (Figure S5b) [51, 55]. The alignment of the
14	$MoS_2$ crystals affects the intensity ratio of $E_{2g}/A_{1g}$ peaks; the out-of-plane mode (A <sub>1g</sub> ) is
15	pronounced when the MoS <sub>2</sub> crystals are vertical due to higher exposure of the edges [56-58]. Here,
16	the $E_{2g}/A_{1g}$ ratio is higher for the MoS <sub>2</sub> /SiC electrodes (0.45) compared to the MoS <sub>2</sub> /EG (0.37),
17	indicating that MoS <sub>2</sub> crystals are more vertically aligned on the EG surface, which is in agreement
18	with the SEM images. This fact, along with some etching of graphene occurring during the $MoS_2$
19	growth, explains also the higher intensity of the Si and SiC peaks.



Figure 2. Raman spectra of (a) pristine 3C-SiC/Si substrate, (b) MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized on the 3C-SiC/Si, (c)
EG grown on 3C-SiC/Si substrate, (d) MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized on the EG electrodes.

High-resolution XPS C 1s spectra of the EG sample show a C-C peak (attributed to graphene) at ~284.7 eV, SiC at ~283 eV, and C-O at ~286 eV (Figure 3a). XPS C 1s spectra of the epitaxial graphene sample after the MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesis show the presence of the C-C and Si-C peaks, but the C-O peak has been removed during the MoS<sub>2</sub> growth (Figure 3b). We also observe that the intensity of the C-C peak decreases after the MoS<sub>2</sub> growth. Specifically, the ratio of the intensities of the C-C and Si-C peaks decreases by a factor of  $\sim 6$ , which indicates that some graphene has been etched away during the growth process. This is in agreement with the ILO/I2D increase observed in the Raman measurements. Mo XPS 3d spectra show two intense peaks of Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub>

1 (~228 eV) and Mo  $3d_{3/2}$  (~231.2 eV), which relate to the Mo (IV) oxydation state of MoS<sub>2</sub>, while 2 the less intense peak at ~225.2 eV corresponds to S 2s of MoS<sub>2</sub> (**Figure 3c**) [59]. A less intense 3 doublet at ~231.2/233.8 eV corresponds to the Mo (VI) oxidation state in MoO<sub>3</sub>, attributed to some 4 residual oxide present on the surface after MoS<sub>2</sub> growth. The S 2p region indicates the presence of 5 two peaks, S  $2p_{3/2}$  (~160.6 eV) and S  $2p_{1/2}$  (~162.1 eV), which are characteristic of the Mo-S 6 bonding (**Figure 3d**) [59].



Figure 3. XPS C 1s spectra of (a) EG/3C-SiC/Si, (b) after MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesis. (c) Mo 3d spectra of the electrode
after MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesis, (d) S 2p spectra of the same sample.

The CV curve of the cells fabricated with the bare 3C-SiC/Si electrodes shows a quasi-rectangular shape, which is characteristic of double-layer charge storage (Figure 4a). The CV tests of the cell with MoS<sub>2</sub>/3C-SiC electrodes show a minor improvement in capacitance (Figure 4b) compared to the 3C-SiC/Si cell as the area enclosed by the curve is indicative of the charge storage capacity. The CV curves of the cell fabricated using MoS<sub>2</sub>/EG hybrid electrodes demonstrate a significant improvement in charge storage, with a more than six-fold increase in the area (Figure d). Particularly, the importance of graphene for harnessing the MoS<sub>2</sub> energy storage capabilities becomes evident when comparing the CV test results of the cell fabricated with MoS<sub>2</sub>/3C-SiC electrodes with the MoS<sub>2</sub>/EG ones (Figure 4b & d).



Figure 4. CV curves of the cells fabricated with (a) pristine 3C-SiC/Si, (b) MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized on the 3C-SiC/Si, (c) EG grown on 3C-SiC/Si, (d) MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized on the EG. All the CV curves are presented on the same scale to help the comparison. The vertical range in panel d is 5 times that of panel b and c, and 12 times that of panel a, demonstrating the large increase in efficiency.

Figure 5 shows the galvanostatic charge/discharge test results of the cells, and table 1 presents the electrodes' areal specific capacitance calculated based on the charge/discharge test results. The bare 3C-SiC electrodes yield the smallest capacitance. The capacitance of the electrodes made of MoS<sub>2</sub> alone on 3C-SiC (no EG) does not show substantial improvement. However, the cell with electrodes of MoS<sub>2</sub> coupled with EG on 3C-SiC yields a remarkable increase in areal capacitance, from 24  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> to 554  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> at 1  $\mu$ A (**Table 1**). The energy densities (E) are estimated using the relationship  $E = \frac{1}{2} C (\Delta U)^2$ . It is interesting to note that although the MoS<sub>2</sub>/3C-SiC electrodes offer a significantly higher surface area compared to the EG only electrodes, they show lower capacitance. This indicates the importance of electrode conductivity in charge storage applications of TMS materials. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy measurement data also indicates that MoS<sub>2</sub>/EG electrodes have lower impedance, as expected, compared to MoS<sub>2</sub>/3C-SiC electrodes (Figure S6). This improvement of the electrode/electrolyte interface impedance has a beneficial effect on the capacitance performance, as seen from the CV and CD data. Having said that, the vertical alignment of the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets on the EG surface drastically limits the total contact area of each MoS<sub>2</sub> with graphene, slowing down charging and charge collection processes at the interface of the two materials. We expect this factor to be a possible reason for the observed distortion in the charge/discharge curves. This hypothesis is corroborated by the fact that the distortion is very pronounced for the cells containing  $MoS_2$  (Figure 5b and d), particularly for the MoS<sub>2</sub> on EG cells (Figure 5d), where most of the crystals are indeed vertically aligned.



Figure 5. Galvanostatic charge/discharge test result of the cells fabricated with (a) pristine 3C-SiC/Si, (b)
MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized on the 3C-SiC/Si, (c) EG grown on 3C-SiC/Si, (d) MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized on the EG.

4 Table 1. The electrodes' specific capacitance calculated from galvanostatic charge/discharge tests and
5 their corresponding energy densities.

	Ι (μΑ)	Electrode Type			
Electrode Type		SiC/Si	MoS₂/SiC/Si	Epitaxial Graphene	MoS₂/Epitaxial Graphene
	1	2.5	24	32	554
C (μF/cm²)	3	1.2	18	11	275
	5	1	4	7	190
	1	3.5	33.3	44.4	769.4
E(µWh/m²)	3	1.7	25	15.3	381.9
	5	1.4	5.6	9.7	263.9

The best performing cell, made of MoS<sub>2</sub>/EG hybrid electrodes, has been further tested for long cycling charge/discharge. **Figure 6** indicates that the MoS<sub>2</sub>/EG electrodes tend to drop about 30% of their performance over 10000 cycles. The capacitance drops by 20% after 2000 cycles, and it only drops further 10% after 8000 cycles (**Figure 6a**). Such retention drop has also been reported for the MoS<sub>2</sub>/reduced graphene oxide composite electrodes [11, 20, 60]. However, note that the CV tests of the cell in the initial condition and after 10000 cycles of charge/discharge does not show a significant performance change (**Figure 6b**).



Figure 6. (a) Long cycling galvanostatic charge/discharge test result of the cell fabricated with MoS<sub>2</sub>/EG hybrid electrodes, (b) CV curves with 50 mV/s scan rate of the cell at the initial condition and after 10000 charge/discharge tests.

Finally, it should be noted that defective graphenic material is generally superior to low-defect graphene as an electrode for supercapacitors, being more chemically active and providing a higher amount of charge storage sites [8, 41, 44]. However, a highly defective graphenic layer is not efficient in combination with MoS<sub>2</sub> (**Figure S2 and S7**), because of the lack of a highly conductive

medium. When used in combination with MoS<sub>2</sub>, a highly-conductive and low-defect graphene is
 necessary to complement the MoS<sub>2</sub> capabilities for energy storage.

# 4. Conclusions

In summary, we have shown that epitaxial graphene on cubic silicon carbide can complement well the use of transition metal sulfides for miniaturized, on-chip supercapacitors. Epitaxial graphene provides a highly conductive medium for the  $MoS_2$  layer leading to a capacitance improvement of more than 20 times, as compared to electrodes made of  $MoS_2$  alone. A graphene layer with good coverage and low-defect density is key for enabling the charge storage capabilities of the  $MoS_2$ layer. In addition, the epitaxial graphene surface provides a template for prevalently vertical growth of MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals, which also increases the total accessible and active area for energy storage. On the other hand, the vertical alignment of the crystals also limits the contact surface between MoS<sub>2</sub> and graphene, slowing down the charging and charge collection at the interface. We believe that further tuning of the TMS growth temperature could lead to the improvement of the growth orientation achieving a trade-off between an increase in capacitance and responsivity of the system, according to the specific final application.

17 These insights offer a new path to develop further miniaturized on-chip energy storage systems 18 compatible with silicon electronics based on layered materials, which can support the power 19 demand to operate integrated smart systems.

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6	
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