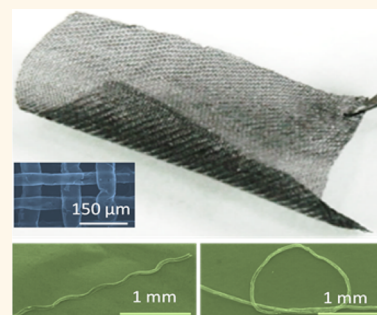


Macroscopic, Freestanding, and Tubular Graphene Architectures Fabricated *via* Thermal Annealing

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ABSTRACT Manipulation of individual graphene sheets/films into specific architectures at macroscopic scales is crucially important for practical uses of graphene. We present herein a versatile and robust method based on annealing of solid carbon precursors on nickel templates and thermo-assisted removal of poly(methyl methacrylate) under low vacuum of ~ 0.6 Pa for fabrication of macroscopic, freestanding, and tubular graphene (TG) architectures. Specifically, the TG architectures can be obtained as individual and woven tubes with a diameter of ~ 50 μm , a wall thickness in the range of 2.1–2.9 nm, a density of ~ 1.53 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$, a thermal stability up to 600 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in air, an electrical conductivity of $\sim 1.48 \times 10^6$ $\text{S}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$, and field emission current densities on the order of 10^4 $\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ at low applied electrical fields of 0.6–0.7 $\text{V}\cdot\mu\text{m}^{-1}$. These properties show great promise for applications in flexible and lightweight electronics, electron guns, or X-ray tube sources.



KEYWORDS: macroscopic graphene · graphene tubes · field electron emission · thermal annealing · liquid–liquid separation

Graphene and its derivatives, consisting of fewer than 10 stacked layers of carbon atoms arranged in a honeycomb lattice,¹ possess intriguing thermal, mechanical, and electrical properties.^{2–7} Integration of these fascinating properties from individual graphene sheets/films into novel macroscopic architectures is highly imperative for practical uses and opening/exploring their new functions.^{8–14} Owing to the advantages of well-developed synthesis, facile processing, and mass production at low cost, chemically converted graphene (CG) nanosheets have been assembled into ingenious configurations such as ultratough papers,¹⁵ transparent conductive films,^{16,17} fibers,^{18–20} and microtubules^{21,22} to expand their uses and achieve advanced applications. Among these, the microtubules prepared by geometric confinement of CG nanosheets under hydrothermal treatment exhibit great benefits of light weight, high strength, good flexibility, and adjustable cavities, which open new potential applications in microfluidics, catalysis, purification, separation, and sensing.^{21,22} Nevertheless,

the low conductivity nature of CG nanosheets and the large contact resistance induced by intersheet junctions within the assemblies limit their further uses where high electrical performance is required.^{8,23} Alternative efforts to obtain a microtubule network, aerographite,²⁴ by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) using inorganic oxide templates have yielded promising ultralightweight and robust structures. However, these structures are found to be composed of richly disordered sp^2 carbons, that is, low electrical conductivity. In addition, long growth time and massive precipitation of metallic byproduct inside the CVD system may restrict its practical use at an industrial scale. Accordingly, large-area, high-quality, and superior performance graphene films, generally synthesized by thermal annealing or CVD on metal catalytic substrates,^{25–28} are obviously desired. However, scalable, sustainable, and controllable construction of these high-performance graphene films into freestanding and tubular architectures at macroscopic scales remains a great challenge.

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Received for review January 14, 2015 and accepted March 4, 2015.

Published online March 04, 2015
10.1021/acs.nano.5b00292

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In this study, we present for the first time a versatile and robust method based on rapid annealing of solid carbon precursors on nickel (Ni) templates and thermo-assisted removal of poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) for fabrication of freestanding, tubular graphene (TG) architectures at macroscopic scales. Contrary to structures assembled from tiny and stacked CG nanosheets, our macroscopic TG is a monolith of continuous, large-domain, and high-quality graphene; therefore, superior physical properties are expected. Specifically, the TG architectures can be obtained as individual and woven tubes with a diameter of $\sim 50\ \mu\text{m}$, a wall thickness in the range of 2.1–2.9 nm, a density of $\sim 1.53\ \text{mg}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$, a thermal stability up to 600 °C in air, an electrical conductivity of $\sim 1.48 \times 10^6\ \text{S}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$, and field emission current densities on the order of $10^4\ \text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ at low applied electrical fields (E) of 0.6–0.7 $\text{V}\cdot\mu\text{m}^{-1}$. These properties show great promise for applications in flexible and lightweight electronics, electron guns, or X-ray tube sources.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Our versatile and robust method relies on the surface precipitation of carbon on Ni^{29-33} in combination with thermo-assisted PMMA removal under low-vacuum conditions. The method has advantages of

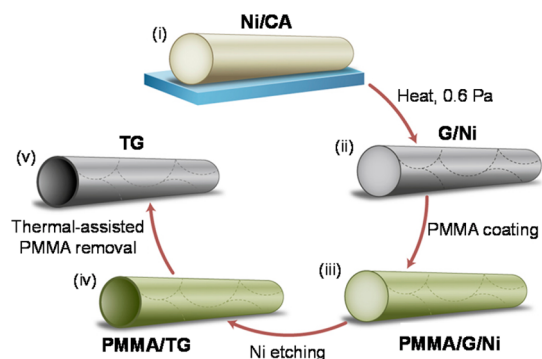


Figure 1. Illustration of the fabrication of a TG structure: (i) Ni wire mechanically pressed with CA membrane (Ni/CA); (ii) graphene sheath formed on Ni core wire (G/Ni) via annealing; (iii) PMMA coated on graphene sheath/Ni core wire (PMMA/G/Ni); (iv) PMMA-coated TG (PMMA/TG) produced when etching Ni; (v) freestanding TG achieved after thermal removal of PMMA.

rapid processing, low power consumption, and avoidance of explosive gaseous materials and toxic chemicals. Figure 1 illustrates a procedure for the fabrication processes. In short, a mechanically pressed Ni/cellulose acetate (CA) sample is rapidly heated to a desired temperature under low vacuum. At elevated temperatures, CA-derived carbon atoms/species diffuse into the Ni and subsequently precipitate as graphene on the Ni surfaces during annealing/cooling processes. Through analysis of Raman characteristics of samples annealed at various temperatures, films produced at 950 °C possess few-layer graphene features with the highest degree of graphitic crystallinity (Supporting Information Figure S1) and is thus selected for the TG fabrication processes thereafter. The films on the Ni comprise continuous graphene domains with sizes up to few tens of micrometers; wrinkles and ripples induced by the difference between thermal coefficients of Ni and graphene can be verified by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) observation (Figure S2). In order to obtain the TG, a thin PMMA film is coated on the graphene/Ni wire and serves to maintain the tubular graphene sheath during wet etching of the Ni core wire. Finally, the PMMA film is thermally removed, leading to the formation of TG, a freestanding, extremely large diameter, and ultra-thin-walled graphene tube. It is worth mentioning that the thermo-assisted PMMA removal presented herein is critically important. Employment of conventional acetone-based removal of PMMA^{8,27,29} absolutely results in collapsed, unstable, and fragile structures (Figure S3), which are possibly attributed to the liquid capillary force caused by acetone evaporation.³⁴ On the contrary, using thermal removal helps to avoid the liquid capillary effect, consequently establishing the TG architectures. In addition, this route of PMMA removal could be extensively applied for conventional CVD-derived graphene/Ni wires instead of the annealing-derived graphene/Ni wires in the present study.

The TG can be morphologically designed in various configurations including cantilever-like (Figure 2a), wavy (Figure 2b), and tie-able (Figure 2c) tubes without severe alteration of the tubular structure, suggesting the high mechanical stability. Therefore, specific structures

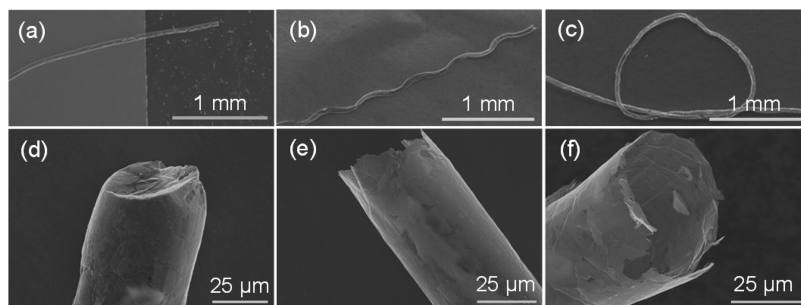


Figure 2. SEM images of individual TGs in various configurations: (a) cantilever-like, (b) wavy, (c) tie-able, (d) closed, and (e,f) open-ended tubes.

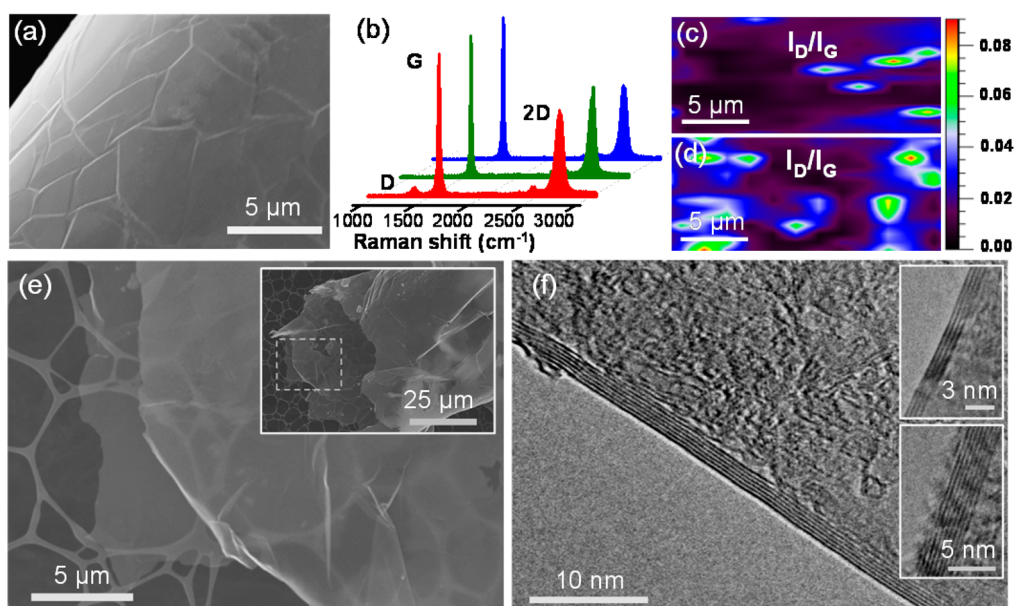


Figure 3. (a) SEM image of the lateral surface of the TG. (b) Typical Raman spectra acquired on the TG surface at different positions. Raman maps of I_D/I_G ratio of the (c) graphene/Ni and (d) TG. (e) SEM image of the tubular edges of a TG on a TEM grid; inset represents an SEM image of the open-ended TG, with the dashed-box area corresponding to part (e) at low magnification. HRTEM images (f and its insets) on the wall edges of the TG.

on demand can be easily conquered *via* manipulation of Ni templates into predetermined shapes followed by the aforementioned fabrication processes. Microscopic SEM examination and energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) and Raman analyses indicate that inside the TG architectures there exists a carbon whisker, which is probably induced by carbon atoms/species trapped by either cavities or grain grooves inside the Ni during the annealing (Supporting Information Figures S4 and S5). However, this object can be conceptually referred to as a type of impurity as found in carbon nanotube (CNT) materials. Most noteworthy are the graphene-ended caps (Figure 2d), which can be effortlessly opened *via* mechanically cutting the ends of the graphene/Ni wire prior to the Ni etching. Thereby, hollow TG with extremely sharp wall edges are generated (Figure 2e,f), implying numerous potential applications such as electron emitters, microscopic cavities for storing and filling with expedient materials toward multifunctional composites, and high surface area catalyst/supports.^{35–41} Furthermore, the TG diameter is finely controlled by Ni wires (Figure S6), while longitudinal regulation of the TG is reliant on the template length. It is envisioned that by utilizing Ni wires with controllable diameters/lengths, a new type of graphene tube with well-defined and predetermined dimensions can be fabricated, consequently providing key materials for advanced technology of graphitic tubes ranging from nanoscopic to macroscopic scales.

The SEM image in Figure 3a shows that lateral surface of the TG consists of continuous micron-sized graphene domains, resembling those of its prototype, the graphene/Ni wire. Raman spectra (Figure 3b)

acquired on these domains exhibit features for few-layer graphene, identified as three characteristic peaks, including a D peak at $\sim 1348\text{ cm}^{-1}$, which is associated with sp^3 -hybridized carbon as found in defects or impurities in carbon materials; a G peak at $\sim 1580\text{ cm}^{-1}$, which results from the E_{2g} vibrational mode of sp^2 carbon; and the 2D peak at $\sim 2704\text{ cm}^{-1}$, which is the second-order vibration caused by the scattering of phonons at the zone boundary.^{30,42,43} The weak intensity of the D peak suggests that the highly graphitic crystallinity of its prototype is thoroughly preserved. This can be further confirmed by a comparison of a D to G peak intensity ratio I_D/I_G , an indication of the degree of graphitic crystallinity. There is no significant increase in the mapped I_D/I_G ratio as the graphene/Ni wire (Figure 3c) evolved to the TG (Figure 3d), implying negligible defects introduced during the fabrication process.

The ultra-thin-wall nature of the TG is obviously proved by the high electron transparency, as revealed by SEM imaging on a tubular edge of an open-ended tube on a copper grid (Figure 3e and its inset). High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) imaging on the wall-edge areas allows observation of layered structure and determination of the number of graphene layers. As shown in Figure 3f and its insets, the TG wall consists of few (4–8) layers of graphene, which is consistent with the Raman features. Additionally, atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements on an unzipped TG statistically indicate that the wall thickness is mainly distributed in the range of 2.1–2.9 nm, that is, fewer than 10 layers (Supporting Information Figure S7). The variation in thickness

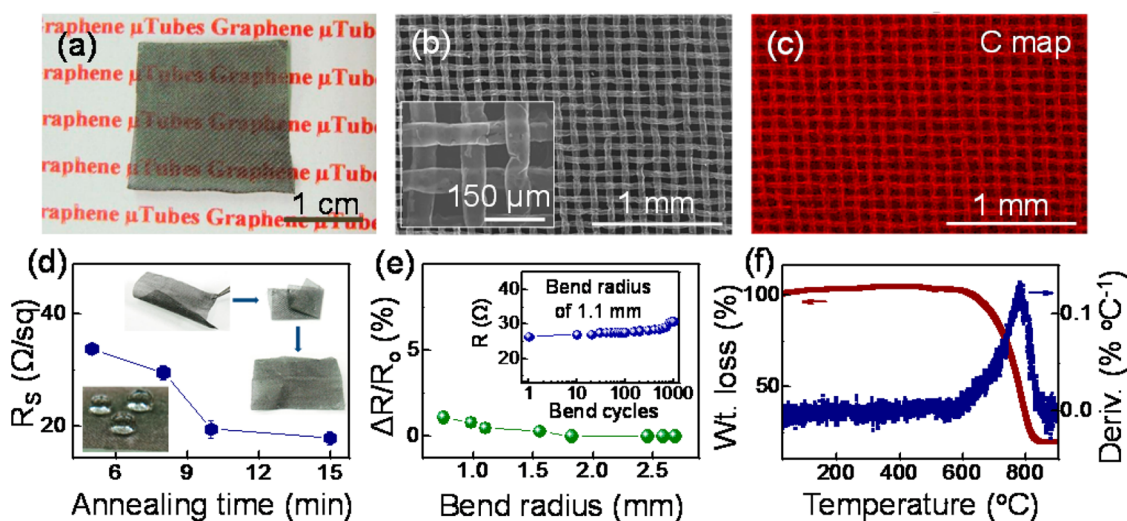


Figure 4. (a) Photograph of a freestanding woven sheet of TGs. (b) SEM image of the woven sheet; inset is a higher-magnification image. (c) EDX map of C element, acquired on the area shown in part (b). (d) Dependence of sheet resistance of the woven TGs on annealing time. In part (d), the lower-left inset is a photograph of water droplets on the woven sheet, and the top-right insets demonstrate the flexibility of the woven TGs. (e) Deviation of electrical resistance of the TG woven sheet under various bend radii; inset shows the deviation under bending cycles. (f) TGA and its first derivative acquired from the woven TGs.

distribution of the TG wall is plausibly attributed to the polycrystalline characteristics of the Ni templates, with which graphene growth on individual Ni grains is self-governing while more layers tend to form nearby grain boundaries.²⁹ Taking the averaged wall thickness of ~ 2.4 nm, we determined an electrical conductivity of the TG to be $\sim 1.48 \times 10^6 \text{ S} \cdot \text{m}^{-1}$, which is comparable to that of CVD few-layer graphene films⁴⁴ and is several orders of magnitude higher than those of CG and CNT fibers.^{19,45–47}

Notably, the fabrication approach can be extensively employed for construction of macroscopic sheets of woven TGs. The woven sheets are extremely lightweight, mechanically stable, highly conductive, strongly hydrophobic, and vigorously thermo-oxidatively resistant. Similar to the fabrication of individual TGs, the freestanding sheets of woven TGs can be achieved only through the thermo-assisted PMMA removal process; otherwise, collapsed woven structures could be formed (Figure S8). Nevertheless, these collapsed woven structures could be beneficial for use as flexible electrodes when incorporated with or supported by an additional matter.⁴⁸

Figure 4a shows a photograph of a semitransparent, freestanding woven sheet of TGs with a density of $\sim 1.53 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$, among those of the lightest materials.^{8,11,24} SEM images shown in Figure 4b and its inset indicate that the sheet comprises woven, hollow TGs arranged in a mesh-like structure, mimicking that of the Ni template. Elemental analysis by EDX reveals that the TG woven sheet is mainly composed of carbon (94.0 wt %), as shown in Figure 4c and Supporting Information Figure S9a. Minor quantities of oxygen (4.9 wt %) and iron (1.1 wt %) are probably induced

during the low-vacuum annealing and wet Ni etching, respectively (Figure S9b,c). Raman study further confirms that there is no difference in graphitic crystallinity between the individual and woven TGs, thus the woven sheets are anticipated to hold intriguing properties.

As shown in Figure 4d, the woven sheets possess low electrical sheet resistance in the range of $17\text{--}40 \text{ } \Omega \cdot \text{sq}^{-1}$, slightly dependent on the annealing time with which the longer time results in more graphene layers added, consequently decreasing the electrical resistance.²⁷ Interestingly, the woven sheet exhibits strongly hydrophobic behavior, as signified by water droplets attained in virtually spherical shapes on its surface (lower left inset of Figure 4d). This is attributed to the water-repellent nature of carbon materials and solely microscopic roughness induced by the mesh structure.⁹ More importantly, the conducting woven sheets are greatly flexible, bendable, and foldable, as demonstrated in the upper right insets of Figure 4d. In order to evaluate their mechano-electrical durability, a TG woven sheet glued on a polyethylene terephthalate substrate is inspected under bend radii of $0.75\text{--}2.68$ mm (Figure 4e) and cycle test at a bend radius of 1.10 mm for 1000 times (inset of Figure 4e). When the electrical resistances of the sheet under such bending regimes were probed, there was a slight deviation of $\sim 1\%$ at the bend radius of 0.75 mm and an increase from 26.4 to $30.8 \text{ } \Omega$ after 1000 cycles, suggesting a great mechanical flexibility of the conducting TG woven sheets.

Thermogravimetric analyses (TGA) reveal that the TG woven sheets are exceedingly resistant to thermal oxidation. Figure 4f shows the TGA curves obtained by heating the woven sheets to $900 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$ in dehydrated air and simultaneously recording their weight loss.

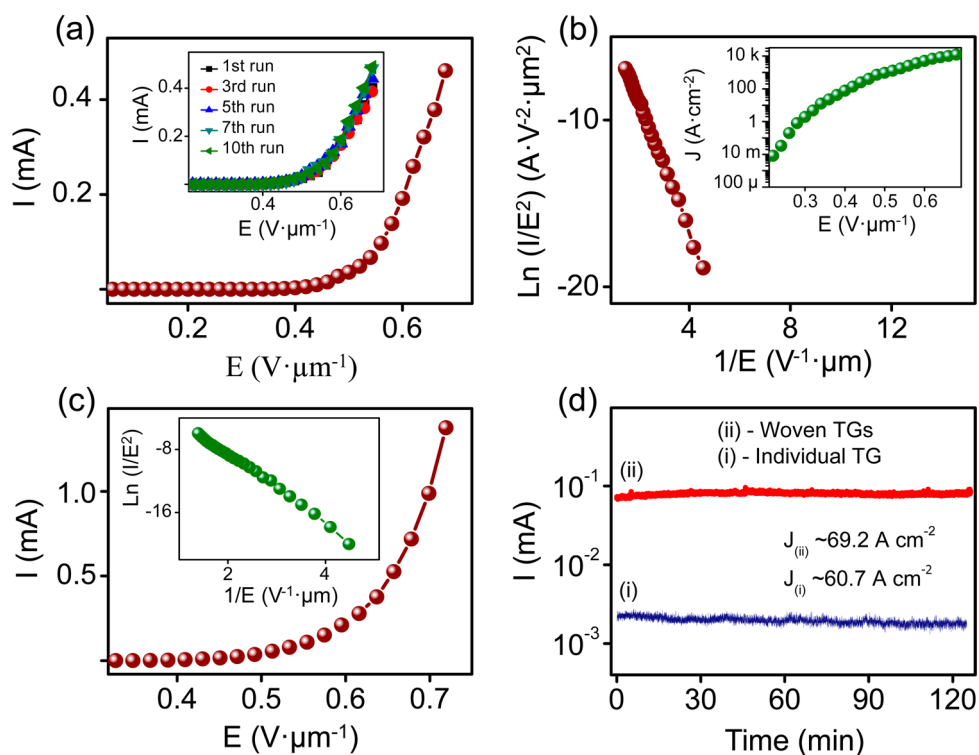


Figure 5. Field electron emission characteristics of the TGs. (a) I – E curve of the individual TG emitter; inset indicates selected I – E curves at different cycles. (b) F – N plot of the individual TG emitter; inset is the dependence of current density on applied field. (c) I – E curve of the woven TG emitter and its corresponding F – N plot (inset). (d) Current stability of the individual and woven TG emitters.

The sheets are stable up to a temperature of ~ 600 °C and predominantly oxidized at ~ 785 °C, proving the highly graphitic material. These values of thermo-oxidative resistance are comparable to those of graphite and outperform those of multiwalled CNTs and diamond.^{49,50} Raman study also shows that the graphitic crystallinity of the TG woven sheets remains unchanged regardless of being heated at 580 °C in air for hours. The outstanding thermo-oxidative resistance achieved here is ascribed to the high-quality graphene integrated into the very large diameter tubes, that is, low degree of strain, subsequently less reactivity toward oxygen.⁴⁹ The woven sheets are thus anticipated to be useful for development of thin composite films, including thermally stable and mechanically flexible conductors, hydrophobic and conductive coatings, and electromagnetic interference shielding sheets for portable electronic devices.

One of the remarkable advantages of the TG architectures is their ultrathin edges on the macroscopically and monolithically graphitic walls, which possess ultra-high aspect ratio (the ratio of wall lateral size to wall thickness) and a considerably greater number of field electron emitting sites as compared to their analogues on nanoscopic walls (*e.g.*, on CNT walls). Another benefit of the macroscopic TGs is ease of development of highly efficient field emitters. Generally, preparation of an individual nanoscopic emitter is labor-intensive and requires uses of microscopic

manipulators/apparatuses for mounting such a tiny tip on a macroscopic electrode *via* a trace of conductive organic glue,⁵¹ that is, high contact resistance. In contrast, due to the macroscopic and freestanding shapes, the preparation of TG emitters with good electrical contact to external electrodes can be effortlessly manipulated and handled without any microscopic tools (Supporting Information Figures S10a,b and S11). With the abundance of emitting sites, large aspect ratio, high electrical conductivity, good mechanical stability, and facile preparation, the macroscopic TG architectures are therefore expected to be promising candidates for field emission sources.

As a proof of concept, the current-applied field characteristics of the TG architectures were investigated under vacuum to evaluate how they would respond as efficient field emitters. Figure 5a presents a typical electron emission current as a function of applied field (I – E curve), recorded from the individual TG emitter. At a low applied field of $0.68 \text{ V} \cdot \mu\text{m}^{-1}$, a very high emission current of $\sim 0.46 \text{ mA}$ can be reached, revealing superior performance as compared to that of other remarkable individual emitters, including CNTs (0.1 mA , $\sim 40.0 \text{ V} \cdot \mu\text{m}^{-1}$)⁵² and tungsten oxide/tungsten hybrid wires (0.17 mA , $\sim 1.5 \text{ V} \cdot \mu\text{m}^{-1}$).⁵³ To the best of our knowledge, this is the highest reported value for an individual emitting tip at such a low field. The outstanding performance of the individual TG emitter is possibly attributed to the extreme sharpness

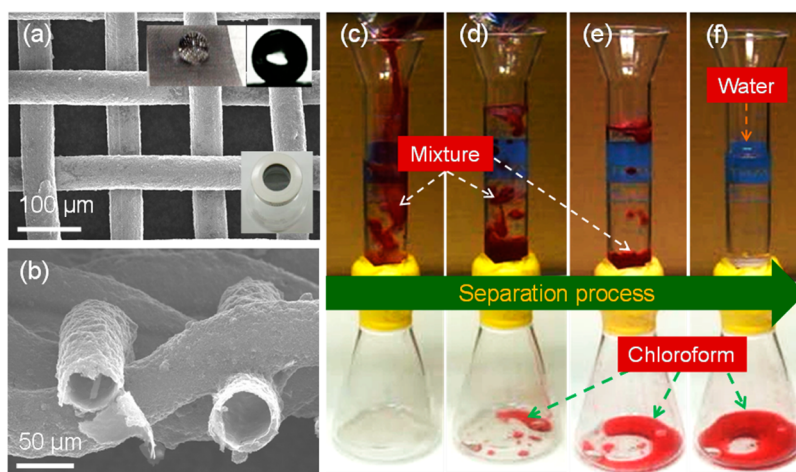


Figure 6. Typical SEM images of (a) a superhydrophobic CNT–graphene/Ni mesh and (b) a tubular CNT–graphene mesh achieved after Ni etching. In part (a), the top-left inset is a photograph of a water droplet attained in a spherical shape on the mesh; the top-right inset is an optical image of a water droplet at a contact angle of 154° , demonstrating the superhydrophobic property. Bottom inset is a photograph indicating the mesh as a separation membrane of a homemade apparatus. (c–f) Snapshots of the water–chloroform (red dyed) separation process.

of the macroscopic wall edge of the monolithic, robust, and highly crystalline graphene tube. This provides an enormous number of effectively emitting sites. Specifically, emitting sites on the tubular wall edge of the TG emitter (wall thickness of $\sim 2.1\text{--}2.9$ nm, diameter of $50\ \mu\text{m}$) approximately equal the sum of those from 1000 open-ended, few-walled (~ 8 -walled) CNTs with a diameter of 50 nm. Moreover, these emitting sites are covalently bonded within the monolithic wall, thus much greater emission current can be achieved for the individual TG emitter when compared to either the CNT or a bundle of 1000 CNTs, where intertube junction resistance probably degrades their emission performance. Additionally, good electrical contact could greatly facilitate electron transport from the external electrode (Ni wire) to the graphene wall edge. The inset in Figure 5a shows selected I – E curves obtained at different cycles, proving the highly repeatable field emission characteristics. As shown in Figure 5b, the linear nature of the Fowler–Nordheim (F – N) plot of $\ln(I/E^2)$ versus $1/E$ from the individual TG emitter confirms that the emission process is the tunneling of electrons.⁵⁴ Considering that the average wall thickness of the TG emitter is ~ 2.4 nm, the dependence of current density on the applied field is included in the inset of Figure 5b, where high values on the order of $10^4\ \text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ were obtained at low E of $0.60\text{--}0.70\ \text{V}\cdot\mu\text{m}^{-1}$.

In order to achieve greater emission currents, a combination of individual TGs into an integrated emitter, such as a woven TG emitter, is judiciously reasonable. As expected, the I – E curve obtained from the woven TG emitter (Figure 5c) indicates that a superior emission current of ~ 1.38 mA can be achieved. The corresponding F – N plot in the inset of Figure 5c and selected I – E curves (Figure S10c) confirm the genuine

field emitter based on the woven TGs with decent repeatability of emission currents. Further I – E measurements revealed that no emission current could be detected from lateral surfaces of the woven TGs even though E increased up to $\sim 8.0\ \text{V}\cdot\mu\text{m}^{-1}$ (data not shown), confirming that the high emission current only originated from tubular wall edges.

The threshold field, defined as an applied field at which current density reaches $10\ \text{mA}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$, of the TG emitters is $0.21\text{--}0.27\ \text{V}\cdot\mu\text{m}^{-1}$. By assuming that the work function of the TGs was the same as that of graphite, that is 5.0 eV, we determined the field enhancement factor (β) of the TG-based emitters to be $(1.7\text{--}1.9) \times 10^4$. It is worth revealing that field emission performances of the TG emitters are highly competitive with those of the best reported emitters including CNTs, graphene, CNT/graphene hybrids, diamond nanorods, and tungsten oxide nanowires (Table S1).^{55–64} Additionally, the TG emitters exhibit good current stability as signified by slight fluctuations surrounding their initial emitting currents of $\sim 0.23 \times 10^{-2}$ mA (individual TG) and $\sim 0.79 \times 10^{-1}$ mA (woven TGs), which correspond to current densities in the range of $\sim 60\text{--}70\ \text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$, as shown in Figure 5d. The current stability is also maintainable when the testing time is extended for days (Figure S10d).

In addition, flexible, conductive, and superhydrophobic meshes composed of CNTs and graphene could be fabricated using our annealing method (Figures S12–S15 and section 3 in the Supporting Information). A potential application of these meshes is separation of the hydrophobic solvents from water. Surface morphology of the CNT–graphene meshes before and after etching the Ni template is revealed using SEM examination (Figure 6a,b and Supporting Information Figures S13 and S14). A dually roughened

surface derived from woven graphene tubes (micro-roughness) and CNT clumps (nano-roughness) can be clearly seen, implying a superhydrophobic surface.⁹ Spherical water droplets shown in the top insets of Figure 6a further prove the superhydrophobic behavior; the bottom inset of Figure 6a indicates the location of the mesh, which serves as a liquid–liquid separation membrane of a homemade apparatus. Figure 6c–f shows the snapshots taken during a liquid–liquid separation process. Briefly, a mixture of water/chloroform, where chloroform is dyed red for clearer observation, is poured into the glass funnel of the separation apparatus. Since chloroform has greater density than water, it gradually deposits at the funnel bottom, at which the separation membrane is located. Due to the superhydrophobic nature of the membrane, the chloroform is allowed to flow through and is subsequently collected in the flask below, while water stably stands over the membrane in the funnel; that is, the two liquids are completely separated. This separation membrane is therefore promising for addressing industrial organic pollutants in water for environmental protection.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Fabrication of Macroscopic, Freestanding, and Tubular Graphene Architectures. Ni wires and mesh (NI-311085/NI-311107 and NI-318200, Nilaco) served as catalytic templates for the formation of individual and woven TG architectures. First, the Ni template was cleaned in an acetone bath with ultrasonication for 10 min to eliminate contaminants residing on its surface. Second, the template was rolling-pressed with a cellulose acetate membrane (C045A047A, Advantec), a solid carbon precursor. The resultant sample was then placed in a quartz container, which was located inside a chamber of an infrared lamp annealing system (Mila 5000, Ulvac). At a base vacuum level of ~ 0.6 Pa, the sample was heated to desired temperatures with a heating rate of 15.0 °C·s⁻¹. After being held at the annealing temperature for 8 min, the sample was cooled to 500 °C at a rate of ~ 16 °C·s⁻¹ and to room temperature within 10 min. Subsequently, the as-annealed sample was immersed in a solution of PMMA (950 A9, MicroChem) in acetone (PMMA/acetone, v/v = 3/5) for 90 min followed by drying overnight at room temperature in a fume hood. This helped to form a thin PMMA film on the annealed sample, consequently serving to maintain the tubular graphene sheath when its Ni core was dissolved by an etching solution of FeCl₃/HCl (1 M/1 M). The PMMA-coated tubular graphene sheath was immersed in deionized water several times to thoroughly wash out residues caused by the etchant. Finally, the PMMA film was thermally removed at a temperature of 450 °C and a pressure of ~ 0.6 Pa for 30 min; consequently, the freestanding TG could be obtained.

Microscopy Characterization. The microscopic morphologies and structures of the TG samples were investigated by field emission scanning electron microscopy (Hitachi S4700 and SU 3500), atomic force microscopy (Multimode 8, Bruker), Raman spectroscopy (Renishaw with a 532 nm laser excitation), and transmission electron microscopy (JEOL JEM-2100). Elemental mapping analysis of the TG samples was performed using an energy-dispersive Hitachi SU 3500 spectroscope. Wall thickness of the TG was characterized using the AFM operated in peak force tapping mode on an unzipped tube, which was prepared by etching the top half of the graphene

CONCLUSION

In summary, we have developed a versatile and robust method for the fabrication of macroscopic, freestanding, and tubular graphene architectures with predetermined configurations. The fabrication procedure is facile, sustainable, and forceful to scale up for mass production based on the standard annealing or CVD techniques. As-fabricated architectures possess good mechanical stability, ultralight weight, high electrical conductivity, strong/superhydrophobicity, outstanding thermo-oxidative resistance, and exceptional field emission performance. These properties show great promise for exploring new functions and advancing potential applications of the tubular graphene in flexible and portable electronics, sensors, electron microscopes, X-ray tube sources, and environmental protection. Moreover, using the thermo-assisted PMMA removal presented herein, we strongly believe that a variety of other novel, macro/microscopic, freestanding, hollow graphene structures such as sponges, spheres, cubes, needles, or combined structures can be created for advanced applications.

sheath on a Ni wire using oxygen plasma followed by removal of the Ni.

Property Measurement. Thermo-oxidative resistance of the TGs was studied with a thermogravimetric analysis apparatus (Shimadzu, DTG-60H) using hydrated air at flow rate of 100 mL·min⁻¹ and a heating rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹. Electrical sheet resistances of the TG samples were measured via a four-probe method using a dual-channel sourcemeter (Keithley 2636). To measure the electrical resistance under mechanical bending, a two-probe technique was employed. Field electron emission properties of individual and woven open-ended TGs were characterized in a chamber with a base pressure of $\sim 3.0 \times 10^{-6}$ Pa. The spacing between TG emitters and a planar stainless steel anode was 2.5 mm. Emission current was detected using a digital electrometer (8240 ADCMT) connected to a grounded cathode. Before field emission characteristics were recorded, an electrical aging process (voltage swept to 1.0–1.2 kV and held for several minutes) was applied to remove emission noise and instabilities.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no competing financial interest.

Acknowledgment. This study was supported in part by a grant of the Support Program for Forming Strategic Research Infrastructure for Private Universities from Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology, Japan (MEXT).

Supporting Information Available: Details regarding SEM images, EDX/AFM/Raman data, additional field emission results, and development of superhydrophobic CNT–graphene-based meshes. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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