**A BRIEF EXPLORATION OF THE EXCEPTIONAL POTENTIALS OF GRAPHENE**

**ABSTRACT**

*This chapter delves into the remarkable world of graphene, a revolutionary two-dimensional material in the world of nano science. Beginning with the Nobel Prize-winning discovery and its unique atomic structure, this chapter will explore the exceptional properties of graphene like strength, flexibility, electrical conductivity, thermal conductivity, and transparency. From electronics and energy storage to composite materials, biomedicine and environmental applications, we unravel the vast potential of graphene across various industries. Thus, through this chapter we will encapsulate the transformative power of graphene, poised to reshape scientific and technological landscapes in the pursuit of innovation and progress.*

**OUTLINE**

* 1. *The history*
  2. *The structural individuality*
  3. *The exceptionality*
  4. *The extensivity*

1. **THE HISTORY**

Although the term "graphene" was proposed in 1986 in connection with the nomenclature employed for graphite intercalation compounds, the actual story begins in 2004 at the University of Manchester, where Andre Geim and Konstantin Novoselov were conducting research. Seeking to explore the properties of graphite at the atomic level, they decided to isolate individual layers of graphite, with the hope of studying them more closely. They used the "Scotch tape technique” which involved repeated peeling off of the layers of graphite to obtain a thin layer that consisted of just one atom's thickness - graphene. Geim and Novoselov's discovery rapidly garnered attention within the scientific community, leading to their joint receipt of the Nobel Prize in Physics in 2010. The prestigious recognition not only elevated their research but also shone a global spotlight on graphene's extraordinary potential.[1]–[3]

In the years following their breakthrough, researchers around the world have made significant progress in various aspects of graphene research. This includes developments in improved methods for large-scale production of graphene, such as chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and epitaxial growth, enabling greater accessibility and scalability; development of graphene-based transistors, integrated circuits, sensors, optoelectronic devices, including photodetectors, light-emitting diodes (LEDs), and solar cells; development of graphene-based batteries, supercapacitors, and fuel cells with enhanced performance in terms of capacity, charging speed, and lifespan; development of graphene-based filters and membranes for efficient removal of contaminants, heavy metals, and pollutants from water sources.[4], [5]

* 1. **THE STRUCTURAL INDIVIDUALITY**

Graphene, characterized by hybridized C-C bonding and π electron clouds, possesses a distinctive combination of structural and electronic properties. Each carbon atom in graphene forms covalent bonds with three neighbouring carbon atoms, resulting in a robust and stable lattice structure. This single-layer arrangement creates a flat surface where every atom is easily accessible from both sides, facilitating enhanced interaction with surrounding molecules. Being bonded to only three atoms, carbon atoms in graphene retain the ability to form additional bonds, offering versatile bonding possibilities.[6], [7]

Graphene exists as a monolayer of carbon atoms, tightly arranged in a hexagonal honeycomb lattice. Its molecular bond length measures approximately 0.142 nm. Stacking multiple layers of graphene forms graphite, with an interplanar spacing of about 0.335 nm. The bonding between separate graphene layers in graphite is governed by van der Waals forces, which can be overcome during the exfoliation process to isolate graphene from graphite. [8], [9]

The electronic structure of graphene exhibits significant changes as the number of layers increases, gradually approaching the 3D characteristics observed in graphite when reaching around 10 layers. However, a bilayer of graphene provides a simpler electronic spectrum and can be considered a more accurate approximation. As the number of layers exceeds three, the electronic spectra become increasingly intricate. This distinction allows for the classification of single-layer, bilayer, and few-layer graphene (3 to less than 10 layers) as three distinct types of 2D crystals, collectively referred to as graphene. Thicker structures, beyond the few-layer range, can be treated as thin films of graphite. Importantly, the screening length in graphite is relatively short, measuring approximately 5Å, which is less than the thickness of two layers. This limited screening length has notable implications for the electronic properties and interactions within graphite and its layered structures.[6], [10]–[12]

The simplest approach for obtaining graphitic materials involves the exfoliation of bulk graphite into individual layers. Graphite, which consists of stacked graphene layers, can be processed to isolate these layers. While high-quality graphite typically requires growth temperatures above 3000 K, exfoliation can be achieved at room temperatures, significantly lower than the growth conditions. Exfoliation can be carried out using chemical or mechanical methods. One common chemical method involves treating graphite with acids to produce graphite oxide. Graphite oxide can be thought of as graphite intercalated with oxygen and hydroxyl groups, making it hydrophilic and easily dispersible in water. This technique yields ultra-thin flakes of graphite oxide, potentially even as monolayers, which can be subsequently reduced to obtain lower-quality graphene. Through iterative processes of exfoliation and purification, often involving centrifugation, it is possible to obtain suspensions with higher graphene fractions, reaching 50% or more.[13]–[16]

Alternatively, the pursuit of bottom-up techniques for synthesizing graphene directly from organic precursors has encountered obstacles in achieving uniform, large-scale single layers. Traditional methods of total organic synthesis face limitations as macromolecules become insoluble and side reactions become more prevalent with increasing molecular weight. In the realm of substrate-based growth, techniques such as chemical vapor deposition (CVD) or silicon carbide reduction prove to be challenging for obtaining single-layer graphene. Precise control of conditions is crucial to foster crystal growth while preventing the formation of additional layers or grain boundaries once nucleation occurs. [17]–[20]

Years of dedicated research on carbon nanotubes, fullerenes, and graphite have yielded a diverse array of chemical pathways for modifying sp2 carbon structures. These well-established pathways hold potential for functionalizing both the basal plane of graphene and its reactive edges. Drawing upon this wealth of knowledge, scientists are poised to adapt and refine these chemical strategies to effectively tailor the properties of graphene. These advancements in functionalization techniques have the potential to unlock new possibilities and applications for graphene across various domains.[21], [22]

* 1. **THE EXCEPTIONALITY**

Graphene, from a theoretical perspective, is a two-dimensional (2D) structure with an incredibly thin atomic layer consisting of carbon atoms arranged in a sp2 hybridized configuration. This arrangement grants graphene its aromatic nature, characterized by highly dense π-electron clouds both above and below the layer. The theoretical calculations estimate an impressive specific surface area of 2965 m2/g for infinite single-layer graphene. Notably, the size of the aromatic plane in graphene surpasses that of conventional aromatic compounds, providing ample room for interaction between its extended π-electron clouds and those of other aromatic compounds and cationic species. This unique feature enables graphene to engage in extensive interactions and holds significant potential for various applications across scientific and technological domains.[23], [24]

Graphene, including its variants rGO and GO, has garnered significant attention as a novel carbonaceous material for the efficient removal of various gaseous and aqueous pollutants. Extensive discussions in the literature have highlighted the remarkable potential of graphene-based materials in this regard. The adsorption mechanism of graphene and rGO relies predominantly on the π-π interaction between their graphene layers and the adsorbates. In contrast, GO primarily achieves adsorption through reactive interactions between its acidic negatively charged functionalities and cationic ions. Additionally, the adsorption performance of both graphene and GO can be further improved by functionalizing them with metal oxides and organic compounds. These functionalization strategies present exciting opportunities to enhance the adsorption capabilities of graphene-based materials and broaden their applications in the field of pollutant removal.[25]–[27]

Graphene possesses exceptional thermal conductivity, which can be attributed to several intrinsic properties of its structure and composition. Its two-dimensional lattice structure, consisting of a single layer of carbon atoms arranged in a hexagonal pattern, allows for uninterrupted thermal energy propagation without grain boundaries or defects that could impede heat transfer. The strong covalent carbon-carbon (C-C) bonds in graphene facilitate efficient thermal energy transmission. The sp2 hybridization of carbon atoms results in a delocalized electron cloud, enabling the rapid transfer of both heat and electrical energy. The large surface-to-volume ratio of graphene provides a higher density of thermal pathways for energy transfer, promoting efficient heat dissipation and dispersion. Additionally, graphene's lightweight nature allows thermal vibrations to propagate easily, facilitating the efficient transfer of heat throughout the material. These unique properties collectively contribute to graphene's exceptional thermal conductivity, making it an ideal material for various applications requiring efficient heat dissipation and improved thermal performance, spanning industries such as electronics, energy, and aerospace.[28], [29]

Graphene possesses remarkable electrical conductivity due to its distinctive electronic structure and high charge carrier mobility. The hexagonal lattice structure of graphene allows π-electrons to move freely, resulting in minimal scattering and efficient charge transport. This exceptional electrical conductivity makes graphene highly desirable for various applications in electronics, including conductive films, transparent electrodes, and interconnects. Graphene-based transistors offer high-speed performance, low power consumption, and excellent on-off ratios[30]. Additionally, graphene's high electrical conductivity enables its utilization in energy storage devices such as supercapacitors, enabling fast charge and discharge rates. Moreover, graphene's outstanding thermal conductivity makes it a promising material for advanced thermal management solutions in electronics, effectively dissipating heat from components and enhancing overall device performance. The combination of these exceptional properties positions graphene as a leading candidate for emerging technologies and drives continuous research and development efforts in diverse fields.[8], [31], [32]

Graphene possesses remarkable flexibility and transparency in addition to its outstanding properties of strength and conductivity. It can be bent, twisted, or stretched without losing its structural integrity, making it suitable for flexible electronics, transparent conductive films, and optoelectronic devices. The atomic-level thickness of graphene does not hinder its flexibility, allowing it to conform to curved or irregular surfaces. Furthermore, graphene's transparency enables light to pass through it with minimal absorption or scattering across a wide range of wavelengths. This makes it valuable in applications such as transparent conductive films for touch screens, solar cells, and flexible displays. Additionally, graphene's optoelectronic properties make it ideal for photodetectors, LEDs, and solar cells, where its transparency facilitates efficient light transmission, while its high electrical conductivity enables effective charge collection. Overall, graphene's exceptional flexibility and transparency, combined with its other remarkable attributes, position it as a highly versatile material for various technological advancements.[33], [34]

* 1. **THE EXTENSIVITY**

Graphene, with its remarkable properties encompassing lightweight characteristics, high electrical conductivity, exceptional mechanical strength, and outstanding thermal conductivity, has become a focal point for diverse applications across various industries. Its exceptional versatility has unlocked a multitude of possibilities and led to its integration into cutting-edge technologies. Furthermore, the remarkable transparency of graphene, along with its excellent optical properties, makes it a promising candidate for applications in transparent conductive coatings, optoelectronic devices, and flexible displays.[35], [36]

Graphene plays a pivotal role in the realm of energy storage devices, such as batteries and supercapacitors, primarily due to its remarkable surface area. This unique characteristic enables graphene-based energy storage systems to achieve enhanced charge storage capacity, making them highly efficient.[37] Moreover, the utilization of graphene in energy storage technologies leads to batteries that have a significantly longer lifespan and can be recharged in a matter of seconds, revolutionizing the field of rapid energy replenishment. The flexibility of graphene is another valuable attribute that has propelled its application in solid-state supercapacitor printed devices integrated into textiles, paving the way for wearable electronics with advanced energy storage capabilities.[38] This innovation allows for the seamless incorporation of energy storage directly into clothing, ensuring portable power for individuals.[39]–[42]

Graphene's exceptional properties have revolutionized solar energy applications. It enhances the efficiency of dye-sensitized solar cells when used as electrodes.[43] Incorporating graphene into metallic semiconductors improves photostability, increases reaction sites, and enhances light absorption capacity in solar cells. Graphene also serves as a transparent conductive electrode in perovskite solar cells, improving charge transport and collection efficiency. Moreover, graphene quantum dots (GQDs) exhibit unique light absorption and emission properties, making them promising materials for advanced solar cells. GQDs' tunable bandgaps enable efficient light harvesting, enhancing energy conversion efficiency and exploring novel optoelectronic applications. These findings drive the ongoing development of graphene-based materials for efficient and sustainable solar power generation.[44], [45, p. 12], [46], [47]

Graphene's remarkable properties, encompassing optical characteristics, electrical conductivity, thermal conductivity, and large surface-to-volume ratio, have revolutionized the field of biosensors.[48]–[50] Its unique attributes have enabled the development of highly accurate and sensitive biosensors with diverse applications. One notable application is the creation of affordable and portable biosensors, leveraging graphene's stability and enzyme sensitivity for point-of-care testing and remote sensing. Moreover, graphene-based biosensors exhibit remarkable selectivity, as functionalizing graphene surfaces with molecular receptors enables the specific capture and detection of target molecules. This selectivity opens doors for personalized medicine, disease diagnostics, and environmental monitoring. Additionally, the high electron mobility of graphene enables rapid and real-time detection, facilitating quick and accurate measurements for timely analysis of biological samples. Overall, graphene's exceptional properties drive the advancement of biosensors, delivering improved accuracy, sensitivity, affordability, selectivity, and rapid detection capabilities across various fields, from healthcare to environmental monitoring. [35], [51], [52]

The synthesis of graphene composites with transition metal-based electrocatalysts has garnered significant attention due to their exceptional conductivity and stability in hydrogen generation.[53], [54] Incorporating graphene with various transition metal-based electrocatalysts has shown excellent activity in both the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). However, to address the challenges of low conductivity and limited stability under static conditions, researchers are exploring additional strategies to further enhance their performance[55]. One key area of focus is improving the long-term stability of graphene composites under harsh operating conditions. This involves exploring surface functionalization techniques, doping approaches, and hybridization with other materials to enhance the composite's stability and durability[56]. By enhancing stability, these graphene composites can withstand prolonged electrocatalytic reactions, making them more practical for large-scale hydrogen production. Another important aspect is optimizing the catalytic activity of graphene composites in water splitting reactions. Researchers are investigating various parameters, including composition, morphology, and structure, to maximize their catalytic performance. This includes engineering the active sites, controlling the graphene-metal interaction, and optimizing charge transfer dynamics to enhance the efficiency of the OER and HER processes. Furthermore, efforts are being made to improve the overall efficiency and cost-effectiveness of graphene-based electrocatalysts. This involves exploring scalable synthesis methods, cost-efficient raw materials, and robust electrode designs. These advancements aim to make graphene composites with transition metal-based electrocatalysts more accessible for widespread application in hydrogen generation technologies. [57]–[60]

In previous studies, the performance of metal oxide semiconductors-based rGO composites has been hindered due to issues such as oxygen deficiencies and interfacial absorption-desorption processes, leading to instability in photocurrent (Ibrahim et al., 2017; Sung et al., 2021)[61]. To address these limitations and enhance optoelectronic applications, scientists have recently designed rGO composites incorporating metal chalcogenide semiconductors (Ibrahim et al., 2018). In a more recent study conducted by Dalal et al. in 2023, they successfully developed a novel composite material called ZnS embedded rGO. The synthesis of this composite was achieved using a straightforward precipitation method. The researchers then investigated its potential application in the sunlight-assisted degradation of azo dyes. This promising research demonstrates the potential of ZnS embedded rGO composites for efficient and sustainable dye degradation under solar illumination. This advancement may pave the way for improved performance and broader applications in the field of optoelectronics and environmental remediation.[62]

In light of the rapidly expanding global population, it is imperative for the scientific community to proactively develop novel materials, techniques, and devices to ensure the availability of safe drinking water.[63]–[65] Graphene-based nanomaterials have emerged as promising adsorbents in this pursuit. Extensive research has been conducted on the utilization of graphene-based catalysts for the photocatalytic degradation of wastewater, demonstrating their widespread applicability[66]. The incorporation of graphene into catalysts for air purification offers several noteworthy advantages.[67], [68] Firstly, in photocatalysis, the presence of graphene aids in the suppression of charge recombination by facilitating the transfer of excited electrons from catalytically active species to the graphene surface. Secondly, graphene contributes to the formation of new chemical bonds, effectively narrowing the band gap of the catalytically active species and extending the range of photo response.[69] Lastly, the inclusion of graphene in catalysts generally enhances the adsorption of target pollutants by fostering favourable interactions between the molecules and the aromatic regions of graphene. Through these advantageous mechanisms, graphene-based materials demonstrate their potential for addressing water purification challenges and promoting environmental sustainability. [56], [70], [71]

**CONCLUSION**

Graphene, an atomically thin carbon material with hybridized C-C bonding and π-electron clouds, possesses a unique combination of structural and electronic properties. Its robust lattice structure, formed by carbon atoms bonded to three neighbouring carbon atoms, allows for versatile bonding possibilities. Obtaining graphene involves exfoliating bulk graphite or synthesizing it from organic precursors, though challenges persist in achieving large-scale single-layer graphene. The exceptional properties of graphene, including flexibility and transparency, make it highly desirable for applications in flexible electronics, transparent conductive films, and optoelectronic devices. Its extensive surface area, remarkable electrical and thermal conductivity, and outstanding adsorption capabilities drive its use in energy storage, solar energy applications, and pollutant removal. Graphene-based biosensors offer accurate and sensitive detection, while graphene composites with transition metal-based electrocatalysts show promise in hydrogen generation. Additionally, graphene-based nanomaterials hold potential for water purification and promoting environmental sustainability. Overall, graphene's versatility and exceptional properties position it as a highly sought-after material across various scientific and technological domains, fuelling ongoing research and development efforts.

**REFERENCES**

[1] H. P. Boehm, R. Setton, and E. Stumpp, “Nomenclature and terminology of graphite intercalation compounds (IUPAC Recommendations 1994),” *Pure Appl. Chem.*, vol. 66, no. 9, pp. 1893–1901, 1994, doi: 10.1351/pac199466091893.

[2] “The Nobel Prize in Physics 2010,” *NobelPrize.org*. https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/physics/2010/press-release/ (accessed Jul. 01, 2023).

[3] “All in the graphene family – A recommended nomenclature for two-dimensional carbon materials,” *Materials Today*. https://www.materialstoday.com/carbon/features/all-in-the-graphene-family-a-recommended-nomenclat/ (accessed Jul. 01, 2023).

[4] A. K. Geim and K. S. Novoselov, “The rise of graphene,” *Nat. Mater.*, vol. 6, no. 3, Art. no. 3, Mar. 2007, doi: 10.1038/nmat1849.

[5] A. K. Geim, “Graphene: Status and Prospects,” *Science*, vol. 324, no. 5934, pp. 1530–1534, Jun. 2009, doi: 10.1126/science.1158877.

[6] S. V. Morozov, K. S. Novoselov, F. Schedin, D. Jiang, A. A. Firsov, and A. K. Geim, “Two-dimensional electron and hole gases at the surface of graphite,” *Phys. Rev. B*, vol. 72, no. 20, p. 201401, Nov. 2005, doi: 10.1103/PhysRevB.72.201401.

[7] S. Stankovich *et al.*, “Graphene-based composite materials,” *Nature*, vol. 442, no. 7100, Art. no. 7100, Jul. 2006, doi: 10.1038/nature04969.

[8] S. K. Tiwari, S. Sahoo, N. Wang, and A. Huczko, “Graphene research and their outputs: Status and prospect,” *J. Sci. Adv. Mater. Devices*, vol. 5, no. 1, pp. 10–29, Mar. 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.jsamd.2020.01.006.

[9] V. B. Mbayachi, E. Ndayiragije, T. Sammani, S. Taj, E. R. Mbuta, and A. ullah khan, “Graphene synthesis, characterization and its applications: A review,” *Results Chem.*, vol. 3, p. 100163, Jan. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.rechem.2021.100163.

[10] “Electric Field Effect in Atomically Thin Carbon Films | Science.” https://www.science.org/doi/10.1126/science.1102896 (accessed Jul. 01, 2023).

[11] B. Partoens and F. M. Peeters, “From graphene to graphite: Electronic structure around the $K$ point,” *Phys. Rev. B*, vol. 74, no. 7, p. 075404, Aug. 2006, doi: 10.1103/PhysRevB.74.075404.

[12] Y. Zhang, J. P. Small, M. E. S. Amori, and P. Kim, “Electric Field Modulation of Galvanomagnetic Properties of Mesoscopic Graphite,” *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, vol. 94, no. 17, p. 176803, May 2005, doi: 10.1103/PhysRevLett.94.176803.

[13] K. P. Loh, Q. Bao, P. K. Ang, and J. Yang, “The chemistry of graphene,” *J. Mater. Chem.*, vol. 20, no. 12, pp. 2277–2289, Mar. 2010, doi: 10.1039/B920539J.

[14] K. S. Novoselov, “Nobel Lecture: Graphene: Materials in the Flatland,” *Rev. Mod. Phys.*, vol. 83, no. 3, pp. 837–849, Aug. 2011, doi: 10.1103/RevModPhys.83.837.

[15] N. R. Wilson *et al.*, “On the structure and topography of free-standing chemically modified graphene,” *New J. Phys.*, vol. 12, no. 12, p. 125010, Dec. 2010, doi: 10.1088/1367-2630/12/12/125010.

[16] B. C. Brodie, “XIII. On the atomic weight of graphite,” *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond.*, vol. 149, pp. 249–259, Jan. 1997, doi: 10.1098/rstl.1859.0013.

[17] M. J. Allen, V. C. Tung, and R. B. Kaner, “Honeycomb carbon: a review of graphene,” *Chem. Rev.*, vol. 110, no. 1, pp. 132–145, Jan. 2010, doi: 10.1021/cr900070d.

[18] “Nonperturbative Chemical Modification of Graphene for Protein Micropatterning | Langmuir.” https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/la1033178 (accessed Jul. 01, 2023).

[19] K. S. Kim *et al.*, “Large-scale pattern growth of graphene films for stretchable transparent electrodes,” *Nature*, vol. 457, no. 7230, Art. no. 7230, Feb. 2009, doi: 10.1038/nature07719.

[20] N. W. S. Kam, Z. Liu, and H. Dai, “Functionalization of Carbon Nanotubes via Cleavable Disulfide Bonds for Efficient Intracellular Delivery of siRNA and Potent Gene Silencing,” *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, vol. 127, no. 36, pp. 12492–12493, Sep. 2005, doi: 10.1021/ja053962k.

[21] M. S. Strano, M. L. Usrey, P. W. Barone, D. A. Heller, and S. Baik, “The Selective Chemistry of Single Walled Carbon Nanotubes,” in *Applied Physics of Carbon Nanotubes: Fundamentals of Theory, Optics and Transport Devices*, S. V. Rotkin and S. Subramoney, Eds., in NanoScience and Technology. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer, 2005, pp. 151–180. doi: 10.1007/3-540-28075-8\_6.

[22] H. Hu, B. Zhao, M. A. Hamon, K. Kamaras, M. E. Itkis, and R. C. Haddon, “Sidewall Functionalization of Single-Walled Carbon Nanotubes by Addition of Dichlorocarbene,” *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, vol. 125, no. 48, pp. 14893–14900, Dec. 2003, doi: 10.1021/ja0356737.

[23] H. K. Chae *et al.*, “A route to high surface area, porosity and inclusion of large molecules in crystals,” *Nature*, vol. 427, no. 6974, Art. no. 6974, Feb. 2004, doi: 10.1038/nature02311.

[24] A. Armano and S. Agnello, “Two-Dimensional Carbon: A Review of Synthesis Methods, and Electronic, Optical, and Vibrational Properties of Single-Layer Graphene,” *C — J. Carbon Res.*, vol. 5, no. 4, p. 67, Nov. 2019, doi: 10.3390/c5040067.

[25] S. Wang, H. Sun, H. M. Ang, and M. O. Tadé, “Adsorptive remediation of environmental pollutants using novel graphene-based nanomaterials,” *Chem. Eng. J.*, vol. 226, pp. 336–347, Jun. 2013, doi: 10.1016/j.cej.2013.04.070.

[26] X. Ren, C. Chen, M. Nagatsu, and X. Wang, “Carbon nanotubes as adsorbents in environmental pollution management: A review,” *Chem. Eng. J.*, vol. 170, no. 2, pp. 395–410, Jun. 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.cej.2010.08.045.

[27] C.-H. Chen and C.-C. Huang, “Hydrogen adsorption in defective carbon nanotubes,” *Sep. Purif. Technol.*, vol. 65, no. 3, pp. 305–310, Mar. 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.seppur.2008.10.048.

[28] S. Ali *et al.*, “A review of graphene reinforced Cu matrix composites for thermal management of smart electronics,” *Compos. Part Appl. Sci. Manuf.*, vol. 144, p. 106357, May 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.compositesa.2021.106357.

[29] T. Wejrzanowski, M. Grybczuk, M. Chmielewski, K. Pietrzak, K. J. Kurzydlowski, and A. Strojny-Nedza, “Thermal conductivity of metal-graphene composites,” *Mater. Des.*, vol. 99, pp. 163–173, Jun. 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.matdes.2016.03.069.

[30] S. Hamzad *et al.*, “Boron doped RGO from discharged dry cells decorated Niobium pentoxide for enhanced visible light-induced hydrogen evolution and water decontamination,” *Surf. Interfaces*, vol. 36, p. 102544, Feb. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.surfin.2022.102544.

[31] “High Electrical Conductivity - an overview | ScienceDirect Topics.” https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/engineering/high-electrical-conductivity (accessed Jul. 02, 2023).

[32] K. I. Bolotin *et al.*, “Ultrahigh electron mobility in suspended graphene,” *Solid State Commun.*, vol. 146, no. 9, pp. 351–355, Jun. 2008, doi: 10.1016/j.ssc.2008.02.024.

[33] D. G. Papageorgiou, I. A. Kinloch, and R. J. Young, “Mechanical properties of graphene and graphene-based nanocomposites,” *Prog. Mater. Sci.*, vol. 90, pp. 75–127, Oct. 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.pmatsci.2017.07.004.

[34] “Transparent Conducting Film - an overview | ScienceDirect Topics.” https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/materials-science/transparent-conducting-film (accessed Jul. 02, 2023).

[35] G. Yildiz, M. Bolton-Warberg, and F. Awaja, “Graphene and graphene oxide for bio-sensing: General properties and the effects of graphene ripples,” *Acta Biomater.*, vol. 131, pp. 62–79, Sep. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.actbio.2021.06.047.

[36] Y. Song, W. Fang, R. Brenes, and J. Kong, “Challenges and opportunities for graphene as transparent conductors in optoelectronics,” *Nano Today*, vol. 10, no. 6, pp. 681–700, Dec. 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.nantod.2015.11.005.

[37] K. Y. Kumar *et al.*, “Green and facile synthesis of strontium doped Nb2O5/RGO photocatalyst: Efficacy towards H2 evolution, benzophenone-3 degradation and Cr (VI) reduction,” *Catal. Commun.*, vol. 173, p. 106560, 2023.

[38] W. Nabgan *et al.*, “A bibliometric examination and state-of-the-art overview of hydrogen generation from photoelectrochemical water splitting,” *Int. J. Hydrog. Energy*, Jun. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2023.05.162.

[39] S. Zhai and Y. Chen, “Graphene-Based Fiber Supercapacitors,” *Acc. Mater. Res.*, vol. 3, no. 9, pp. 922–934, Sep. 2022, doi: 10.1021/accountsmr.2c00087.

[40] “Graphene Fiber‐Based Wearable Supercapacitors: Recent Advances in Design, Construction, and Application - Cheng - 2021 - Small Methods - Wiley Online Library.” https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/smtd.202100502 (accessed Jul. 02, 2023).

[41] M. F. El-Kady, Y. Shao, and R. B. Kaner, “Graphene for batteries, supercapacitors and beyond,” *Nat. Rev. Mater.*, vol. 1, no. 7, Art. no. 7, May 2016, doi: 10.1038/natrevmats.2016.33.

[42] A. M. Abdelkader, N. Karim, C. Vallés, S. Afroj, K. S. Novoselov, and S. G. Yeates, “Ultraflexible and robust graphene supercapacitors printed on textiles for wearable electronics applications,” *2D Mater.*, vol. 4, no. 3, p. 035016, Jul. 2017, doi: 10.1088/2053-1583/aa7d71.

[43] S. Akshatha *et al.*, “Synergistic effect of hybrid Ce3+/Ce4+ doped Bi2O3 nano-sphere photocatalyst for enhanced photocatalytic degradation of alizarin red S dye and its NUV excited photoluminescence studies,” *J. Environ. Chem. Eng.*, vol. 7, no. 3, p. 103053, Jun. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.jece.2019.103053.

[44] J. Kim, B. Lee, Y. J. Kim, and S. W. Hwang, “Enhancement of Dye-sensitized Solar Cells Efficiency Using Graphene Quantum Dots as Photoanode,” *Bull. Korean Chem. Soc.*, vol. 40, no. 1, pp. 56–61, 2019, doi: 10.1002/bkcs.11664.

[45] C.-H. Hsu, J.-R. Wu, L.-C. Chen, P.-S. Chan, and C.-C. Chen, “Enhanced Performance of Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells with Nanostructure Graphene Electron Transfer Layer,” *Adv. Mater. Sci. Eng.*, vol. 2014, p. e107352, Mar. 2014, doi: 10.1155/2014/107352.

[46] S. Diao, X. Zhang, Z. Shao, K. Ding, J. Jie, and X. Zhang, “12.35% efficient graphene quantum dots/silicon heterojunction solar cells using graphene transparent electrode,” *Nano Energy*, vol. 31, pp. 359–366, Jan. 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.nanoen.2016.11.051.

[47] X. Hong, X. Wang, Y. Li, J. Fu, and B. Liang, “Progress in Graphene/Metal Oxide Composite Photocatalysts for Degradation of Organic Pollutants,” *Catalysts*, vol. 10, no. 8, Art. no. 8, Aug. 2020, doi: 10.3390/catal10080921.

[48] S. P. Kumar, L. Parashuram, D. P. Suhas, and P. Krishnaiah, “Carboxylated graphene-alcohol oxidase thin films modified graphite electrode as an electrochemical sensor for electro-catalytic detection of ethanol,” *Mater. Sci. Energy Technol.*, vol. 3, pp. 159–166, 2020.

[49] K. Yogesh Kumar *et al.*, “Gadolinium sesquisulfide anchored N-doped reduced graphene oxide for sensitive detection and degradation of carbendazim,” *Chemosphere*, vol. 296, p. 134030, Jun. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.134030.

[50] V. Adimule, B. C. Yallur, S. R. Batakurki, and P. Laxminarayana, “MORPHOLOGY, OPTICAL, AND PHOTOLUMINESCENCE PROPERTIES OF Sm DOPED TeO2 NANO CRYSTALLINE POWDERS,” *Nanosci. Technol. Int. J.*, vol. 14, no. 2, 2023, doi: 10.1615/NanoSciTechnolIntJ.2022042352.

[51] “Graphene-based biosensors | Interface Focus.” https://royalsocietypublishing.org/doi/10.1098/rsfs.2016.0132 (accessed Jul. 02, 2023).

[52] O. Akhavan and E. Ghaderi, “Graphene Nanomesh Promises Extremely Efficient In Vivo Photothermal Therapy,” *Small*, vol. 9, no. 21, pp. 3593–3601, 2013, doi: 10.1002/smll.201203106.

[53] K. Y. Kumar, H. Saini, D. Pandiarajan, M. K. Prashanth, L. Parashuram, and M. S. Raghu, “Controllable synthesis of TiO2 chemically bonded graphene for photocatalytic hydrogen evolution and dye degradation,” *Catal. Today*, vol. 340, pp. 170–177, Jan. 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.cattod.2018.10.042.

[54] S. Akshatha *et al.*, “Microwave assisted green synthesis of p-type Co3O4@Mesoporous carbon spheres for simultaneous degradation of dyes and photocatalytic hydrogen evolution reaction,” *Mater. Sci. Semicond. Process.*, vol. 121, p. 105432, Jan. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.mssp.2020.105432.

[55] B. C. Yallur *et al.*, “Solar-light-sensitive Zr/Cu-(H2BDC-BPD) metal organic framework for photocatalytic dye degradation and hydrogen evolution,” *Surf. Interfaces*, vol. 36, p. 102587, Feb. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.surfin.2022.102587.

[56] A. Mondal, A. Prabhakaran, S. Gupta, and V. R. Subramanian, “Boosting Photocatalytic Activity Using Reduced Graphene Oxide (RGO)/Semiconductor Nanocomposites: Issues and Future Scope,” *ACS Omega*, vol. 6, no. 13, pp. 8734–8743, Apr. 2021, doi: 10.1021/acsomega.0c06045.

[57] H. Jung, A. Karmakar, A. Adhikari, R. Patel, and S. Kundu, “Graphene-based materials as electrocatalysts for the oxygen evolution reaction: a review,” *Sustain. Energy Fuels*, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 640–663, Feb. 2022, doi: 10.1039/D1SE01716K.

[58] J. X. Flores-Lasluisa, F. Huerta, D. Cazorla-Amorós, and E. Morallón, “Transition metal oxides with perovskite and spinel structures for electrochemical energy production applications,” *Environ. Res.*, vol. 214, p. 113731, Nov. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.envres.2022.113731.

[59] N. Asim *et al.*, “Application of graphene-based materials in developing sustainable infrastructure: An overview,” *Compos. Part B Eng.*, vol. 245, p. 110188, Oct. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.compositesb.2022.110188.

[60] S. P. Lonkar, V. V. Pillai, and S. M. Alhassan, “Direct acidic graphene oxide enabled fabrication of three-dimensional molybdenum trisulfide and reduced graphene oxide nanohybrid aerogels with simultaneous energy storage and electrocatalytic capability,” *J. Energy Storage*, vol. 50, p. 104296, Jun. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.est.2022.104296.

[61] S. Ibrahim, S. Chakrabarty, S. Ghosh, and T. Pal, “Reduced Graphene Oxide – Zinc Sulfide Composite for Solar Light Responsive Photo Current Generation and Photocatalytic 4-Nitrophenol Reduction,” *ChemistrySelect*, vol. 2, no. 1, pp. 537–545, 2017, doi: 10.1002/slct.201601999.

[62] C. Dalal *et al.*, “Sunlight-assisted photocatalytic degradation of azo-dye using zinc-sulfide embedded reduced graphene oxide,” *Sol. Energy*, vol. 251, pp. 315–324, Feb. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.solener.2023.01.017.

[63] W. Nabgan, A. A. Jalil, B. Nabgan, M. Ikram, M. W. Ali, and P. Lakshminarayana, “A state of the art overview of carbon-based composites applications for detecting and eliminating pharmaceuticals containing wastewater,” *Chemosphere*, vol. 288, p. 132535, 2022.

[64] M. S. Raghu, L. Parashuram, M. K. Prashanth, K. Y. Kumar, C. B. P. Kumar, and H. Alrobei, “Simple in-situ functionalization of polyaniline with boroncarbonitride as potential multipurpose photocatalyst: Generation of hydrogen, organic and inorganic pollutant detoxification,” *Nano-Struct. Nano-Objects*, vol. 25, p. 100667, Feb. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.nanoso.2021.100667.

[65] A. G. Alhamzani *et al.*, “Fabrication of layered In2S3/WS2 heterostructure for enhanced and efficient photocatalytic CO2 reduction and various paraben degradation in water,” *Chemosphere*, vol. 322, p. 138235, May 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2023.138235.

[66] A. S. Alkorbi *et al.*, “Samarium vanadate affixed sulfur self doped g-C3N4 heterojunction; photocatalytic, photoelectrocatalytic hydrogen evolution and dye degradation,” *Int. J. Hydrog. Energy*, vol. 47, no. 26, pp. 12988–13003, 2022.

[67] K. Yogesh Kumar *et al.*, “N-doped reduced graphene oxide anchored with δTa2O5 for energy and environmental remediation: Efficient light-driven hydrogen evolution and simultaneous degradation of textile dyes,” *Adv. Powder Technol.*, vol. 32, no. 7, pp. 2202–2212, Jul. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.apt.2021.04.031.

[68] V. Adimule *et al.*, “Promoting the photocatalytic reduction of CO2 and dye degradation via multi metallic Smx modified CuCo2O4 Reverse spinel hybrid catalyst,” *Ceram. Int.*, vol. 49, no. 2, pp. 1742–1755, Jan. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.ceramint.2022.09.138.

[69] S. lal *et al.*, “NrGO wrapped Cu-ZrO2 as a multifunctional visible-light-sensitive catalyst for advanced oxidation of pollutants and CO2 reduction.,” *J. Environ. Chem. Eng.*, vol. 10, no. 3, p. 107679, Jun. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.jece.2022.107679.

[70] S. Manikandan *et al.*, “Emerging nano-structured innovative materials as adsorbents in wastewater treatment,” *Bioresour. Technol.*, vol. 320, p. 124394, Jan. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2020.124394.

[71] “Graphene and Graphene‐Based Composites: A Rising Star in Water Purification ‐ A Comprehensive Overview - Gandhi - 2016 - ChemistrySelect - Wiley Online Library.” https://chemistry-europe.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/slct.201600693 (accessed Jul. 02, 2023).