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Insertion of an inorganic barrier layer as a method of improving the performance of quantum dot light-emitting diodes

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Abstract

Quantum dot light-emitting diodes (QLEDs) are expected to be the basis of next-generation displays and have consequently been extensively investigated with the aim of commercialization. Herein, QLED brightness, efficiency, and lifetime are significantly improved by insertion of an Al₂O₃ barrier layer via atomic layer deposition (ALD), which effectively suppresses the etching reaction with poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene):polystyrene sulfonate and prevents metal ion diffusion from ITO into the emission layer, thereby effectively reducing the effect of exciton quenching. The abovementioned suppression of exciton quenching is verified using time-resolved photoluminescence spectroscopy/energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, and a device prepared using four ALD cycles is shown to exhibit increased maximal luminance (39,410 cd/m²; two times the value achieved without the Al₂O₃ layer), current efficiency (47.89 cd/A; eight times the value achieved without the Al₂O₃ layer), and external quantum efficiency (12.89%). In addition, all Al₂O₃-

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4 containing QLEDs feature longer lifetimes than the QLED without Al₂O₃.

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6 **Keywords:** QLED, metal ion diffusion Al₂O₃, performance optimization, atomic layer deposition,
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11 Quantum dots (QDs) have been widely investigated as lighting materials because of their inherent
12 advantages, e.g., size-dependent emission color, narrow emission bandwidth, good photostability,
13 and compatibility with solution processing (1–4). Quantum dot light-emitting diodes (QLEDs),
14 featuring a structure and carrier injection mechanism similar to those of organic light-emitting
15 diodes (OLEDs), use QDs as an emissive layer (EML) instead of organic materials and exhibit high
16 brightness and a wide color gamut (5–7). However, despite the excellent electro-optical
17 characteristics of QLEDs, their commercialization is hindered by their low efficiency and lifetime.
18 The efficiency degradation of QLEDs and OLEDs has been shown to originate from metal ion
19 diffusion and migration (8), unbalanced rate of electron and hole injection (9–11), and Auger
20 recombination (12). To improve the performance of QLEDs, many researchers have tried to
21 balance the rates of electron and hole injection into the EML by inserting non-conductive
22 materials as a carrier-blocking layer (10, 11, 13) and attempted to enhance charge transfer within
23 the QD layer by shortening the length of QD-bound ligands to increase the QD packing density
24 (14). In addition, various approaches such as core-shell alloy (12)/gradient shell (15) formation and
25 change of shell thickness (3) have been adopted to reduce the amount of defects originating
26 from the lattice mismatch at the core-shell interface in core-shell-structured QDs. In this study, we
27 introduce a new approach to improving the performance of QLEDs and examine its practical
28 applicability. In conventional QLEDs, which have a transparent anode/hole injection layer
29 (HIL)/hole transport layer (HTL)/QD (EML)/electron transport layer (ETL)/high-reflectance low-work-
30 function cathode structure, efficiency deterioration is mainly caused by exciton quenching due to
31 anode-to-EML metal ion diffusion (8). For a typical combination of indium tin oxide (ITO) as an
32 anode and poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene):polystyrene sulfonate (PEDOT:PSS) as a HIL, metal ion
33 diffusion into the polymer layer is initiated already during device fabrication, because sulfur
34 contained in PEDOT:PSS etches the ITO anode (16). In addition, metal (i.e., In and Sn) ions easily
35 migrate into the EML upon QLED operation under a high electric field. Herein, we try to solve this
36 problem by inserting a barrier layer and thus preventing metal ion diffusion at the ITO-PEDOT:PSS
37 interface.
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53 Metal oxides have been widely investigated as barrier materials inhibiting the migration of In or
54 Sn in ITO anodes of QD solar cells (17). Among metal oxides, Al₂O₃, which can be easily and
55 quickly deposited through atomic layer deposition (ALD) at relatively low temperature using
56 trimethylaluminum (TMA) and H₂O as precursors (18, 19) is known to be the most effective
57 material for blocking metal ion migration. Moreover, the large band gap and deep valence band
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4 level of Al₂O₃ allow it to be used as an encapsulation material (20), exciton quenching suppressor
5 (21), and carrier blocking layer for hole/electron injection to balance the carrier injection rate in
6 OLEDs (11) or QLEDs (13). The band gap of Al₂O₃ has been experimentally determined as 8.8 eV
7 for α-Al₂O₃ (22), 7.1–8.7 eV for γ-Al₂O₃ (23, 24), and 5.1–7.1 eV for amorphous Al₂O₃ (24),
8 depending on the synthesis method. In particular, ALD-deposited amorphous Al₂O₃ films typically
9 exhibit band gaps of ~6.2 eV (25, 26). Conventional-structure QLEDs possess an excess of
10 electrons, since the injection rate of electrons is higher than that of holes because of the
11 difference of carrier mobility in the carrier transport layer. In a conventional QLED, the hole
12 mobility of poly(9-vinylcarbazole) (PVK; $2.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), a typical HTL material, is three
13 orders of magnitude lower than the electron mobility of ZnO ($\sim 1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), a typical
14 ETL material (10). So, the Al₂O₃ layer inserted at the ITO-PEDOT:PSS interface to hinder metal ion
15 migration should (a) be as thin as possible in order not to prevent the injection of holes and
16 allow their tunneling from ITO to PEDOT:PSS and (b) conformably cover the ITO surface to
17 prevent the presumed reaction between ITO and PEDOT:PSS. In addition, ultrathin ($\leq 1 \text{ nm}$)
18 amorphous Al₂O₃ films typically feature narrow band gaps of 2.6–2.9 eV (27) and can therefore
19 hardly act as a barrier to hole injection.

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21 Herein, QLEDs with Al₂O₃ layers of various thickness were fabricated by varying the number of
22 ALD cycles (n), and the greatest improvements in current efficiency and luminance were observed
23 for $n = 4$. The peak values of luminance and current efficiency of the corresponding QLED were
24 measured as 39,410 cd/m² and 47.89 cd/A, respectively, exceeding those of the Al₂O₃-free QLED
25 by factors of two and eight, respectively. Furthermore, the insertion of an Al₂O₃ barrier layer also
26 increased the lifetime of QLED devices.

40 **Materials and methods**

41 Before use, ITO-coated glass substrates were cleaned by sequential 15-min sonication in acetone,
42 isopropyl alcohol, and deionized water. During ALD, TMA reacts with the surface OH groups
43 through ligand exchange to produce O–Al bonds and release methane, and the high
44 concentration of OH groups on the ITO surface allows for conformal coating. The cleaned ITO
45 glass substrates were treated by UV-ozone for 20 min to increase the concentration of surface OH
46 groups, and an Al₂O₃ barrier layer was then deposited by ALD (Lucida™ D100 ALD system, NCD)
47 at 150 °C using TMA and H₂O as precursors. All subsequent layers except for the Al cathode were
48 deposited by spin coating. PEDOT:PSS (Clevios AI 4083), PVK, and QDs (CdSe/ZnS core/shell) were
49 purchased from Heraeus, Sigma-Aldrich, and ZEUS, respectively. A dispersion of ZnO nanoparticles
50 (NPs, ~13 nm in size) in butanol was synthesized as described elsewhere (28). The concentrations
51 of PVK (in chlorobenzene), QDs (in hexane), and ZnO NPs (in butanol) equaled 100, 10 and 20
52 mg/mL, respectively. Each layer was baked on a hot plate (130 °C, 30 min) to vaporize solvent and
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create homogeneous films after spin-coating. Finally, the Al electrode (width = 3 mm, length = 12 mm) was deposited on ZnO in a thermal evaporator and patterned using a metal mask. The thicknesses of PEDOT:PSS, PVK, QDs, ZnO, and Al layers were measured as 20, 20, 20, 25, and 150 nm, respectively. QLED characteristics were monitored by a system comprising a luminance meter (Photo Research, Spectra Scan PR-670) and a source meter (KEITHLEY, 2400). The surface of Al₂O₃-coated ITO was investigated by scanning Kelvin probe microscopy (SKPM; Park systems NX10). The work functions of bare and Al₂O₃-coated ITO were calculated from the relative values of SKPM data by comparison with the values of highly oriented pyrolytic graphite, which has a work function of ~4.6 eV. The dynamics of QLED photoluminescence (PL) decay was investigated by time-resolved photoluminescence (TR-PL) measurements using a pulsed diode-laser head (LDH-P-C-405, PicoQuant) as the excitation source (excitation wavelength = 400 nm, repetition frequency = 10 MHz). PL emission was spectrally resolved using collection optics and a monochromator (SP-2150i, Acton), and the corresponding time-resolved signal was recorded by a TR-PL module (PicoHarp 300, PicoQuant) equipped with a micro-channel plate photomultiplier tube (MCP-PMT, R3809U-50, Hamamatsu). The total instrument response function (IRF) was less than 140 ps, and temporal resolution equaled 16 ps. Deconvolution of the PL decay curve for separating the IRF from the actual PL decay signal was performed using FluoFit software (PicoQuant) to infer the time constant associated with each exponential decay curve.

Results and discussion

Figure 1 shows a schematic energy diagram of our green-emitting QLED with conventional structure, highlighting the presence of an Al₂O₃ layer at the ITO-PEDOT:PSS interface as a barrier to metal ion diffusion. To efficiently prevent metal ion diffusion at the above interface, the Al₂O₃ layer must satisfy two conditions. First, since Al₂O₃ has poor carrier injection properties in terms of QLED band alignment, this layer should be as thin as possible to allow for easy charge carrier injection through tunneling. Second, Al₂O₃ should fully cover the ITO electrode to prevent its surface from being etched by PEDOT:PSS during device fabrication. In view of the above, we tried to optimize the thickness of the Al₂O₃ layer by varying *n* to satisfy both conditions.

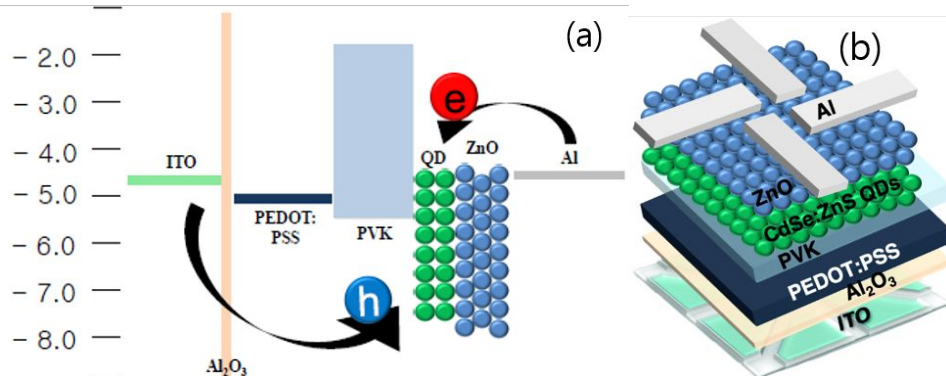


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of QLED (a) energy band alignment and (b) structure.

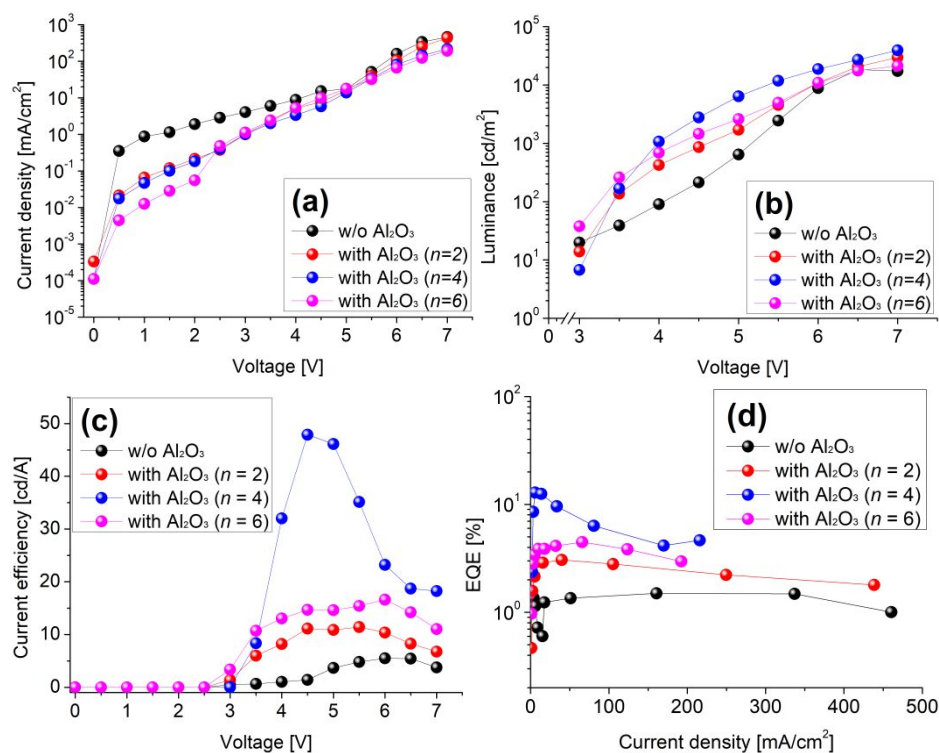


Figure 2. EL properties of QLEDs fabricated using $n = 2, 4,$ and 6 . (a) Voltage vs. current density, (b) voltage vs. luminance, (c) voltage vs. current efficiency, and (d) current density vs. external quantum efficiency (EQE) plots.

Figure 2(a) shows the current density vs. bias voltage (J - V) plots of QLEDs with different n , revealing that current density decreased with increasing n . This behavior was explained by the fact that the number of carriers injected into the EML decreased with increasing thickness of Al₂O₃, which acted as a charge carrier injection barrier. In the ALD process, the growth per cycle (GPC) is not constant but varies in each cycle depending on the growth conditions (i.e., occurrence of self-terminating reactions, growth temperature, and concentration of surface hydroxyl groups) (19). Assuming the commonly accepted GPC for Al₂O₃ of 1–1.5 Å/cycle (11, 13, 29), the deposited Al₂O₃ layer was calculated to be thinner than 1 nm, although the nm-scale surface roughness of ITO did not allow the barrier layer thickness to be measured experimentally. However, the decrease of current density with increasing n was attributed to the concomitant increase in the thickness of the insulating Al₂O₃. **Figure 2(b)** shows the luminance vs. voltage (L - V) plots for QLEDs with different n , demonstrating that the highest luminance (39,410 cd/m² at an applied voltage of 7 V) was observed for four cycles and exceeded that of an Al₂O₃-free device (18,300 cd/m²) by a factor of more than two. Devices fabricated using $n = 2$ and 6 also showed improved luminance characteristics compared with the QLED without Al₂O₃. In particular, the luminance of the Al₂O₃-free QLED at a bias of 7 V was less than that at a bias of 6.5 V, which was ascribed to external quantum efficiency (EQE) roll-off at high current density (**Figure S1**). On the contrary, as the bias was raised from 6.5 to 7 V, the luminance of QLEDs with Al₂O₃ continuously increased even in the

case of the $n = 2$ device, which featured a current density similar to that of the Al_2O_3 -free QLED in the bias range of 6.5–7 V. These results suggested that the incorporation of the Al_2O_3 layer can solve the problem of EQE reduction at high current densities.

Figure 2(c) shows the current efficiency of QLED devices as a function of applied voltage and n , revealing that the best performance was observed at $n = 4$. Current efficiency is closely related to the balance between electron and hole injection (4, 10). In view of the fact that conventional QLEDs with an Al/ZnO/QDs/PVK/PEDOT:PSS/ITO structure are characterized by the natural presence of excessive electrons, layers of insulators such as Al_2O_3 have generally been inserted between the cathode and EML to improve device efficiency by balancing charge carrier injection. Thus, the incorporation of an additional layer of Al_2O_3 between the anode and EML should block hole transfer from the electrode to the QD layer and hence decrease current efficiency. As expected, the QLED fabricated using $n > 50$ (Al_2O_3 layer thickness > 5 nm) did not emit any light. However, the charge blocking characteristics of the Al_2O_3 film were strikingly different in the ultra-thin regime, as highlighted by the fact that the current efficiency of QLEDs with an ultra-thin Al_2O_3 layer increased with increasing n (up to $n = 4$), i.e., the ultra-thin Al_2O_3 layer did not act as a hole-blocking layer.

Figure 2(d) shows the EQE of our QLEDs as a function of current density and n , revealing that the highest value of 12.89%, observed for $n = 4$, was about eight times higher than that of the Al_2O_3 -free QLED. This result shows that high EQE can be maintained at high current densities (> 200 mA/cm^2). In particular, although the four-cycle QLED featured a relatively high rate of EQE reduction with increasing current density compared to other devices, it still showed higher EQE.

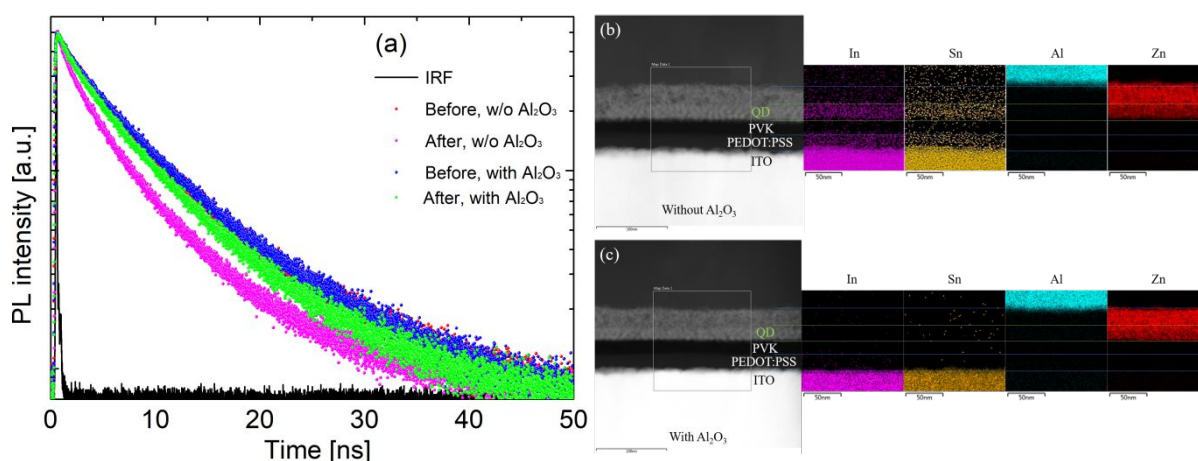
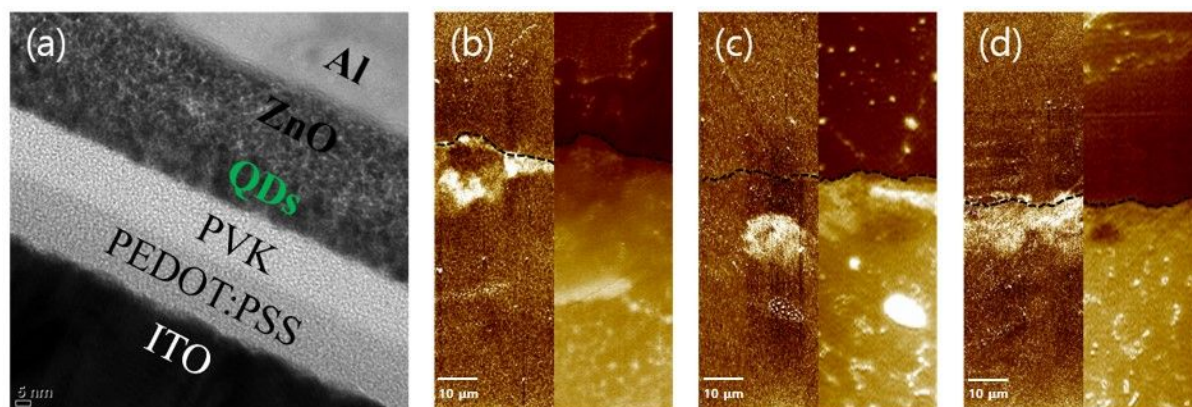


Figure 3. (a) PL decay dynamics observed before and after operation of QLEDs with or without an Al_2O_3 ($n = 4$) barrier layer. The black line represents the IRF. EDS mappings obtained after device operation for QLEDs without (b) and with (c) an Al_2O_3 barrier layer.

To verify the role of Al_2O_3 as a metal diffusion barrier during device operation, we used TR-PL

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4 spectroscopy to examine exciton quenching phenomena, which can be enforced by metal ion
5 diffusion. **Figure 3(a)** shows the PL decay dynamics observed before and after the operation of
6 QLEDs with or without an Al_2O_3 ($n = 4$) barrier layer, and Table S1 summarizes the corresponding
7 PL lifetimes and fractional intensities. Before operation, both devices showed similar PL lifetimes
8 of ~ 8.4 ns, while a noticeable PL lifetime difference was detected after 5-min operation at
9 maximum luminance. Under these conditions, the PL lifetime slightly dropped to 7.5 ns in the
10 QLED with an Al_2O_3 ($n = 4$) layer, the Al_2O_3 -free QLED exhibited a significantly shorter PL lifetime
11 of 6.4 ns.

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18 Subsequently, we examined the cross-sections of operated QLEDs by Energy-dispersive X-ray
19 spectroscopy (EDS). As shown in **Figure 3(b)**, pronounced signals of In and Sn were observed in
20 the QD EML as well as in the ITO electrode when no Al_2O_3 coating was applied. On the contrary,
21 only weak In and Sn signals randomly spread over the whole device were observed for the Al_2O_3 -
22 coated QLED (**Figure 3(c)**). These weak signals might reflect the presence of impurities scattered
23 by the ion beam during transmission electron microscopy (TEM) sample preparation. These results
24 showed that the Al_2O_3 barrier can effectively suppress the effect of exciton quenching during
25 device operation by blocking the migration of metal ions.



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Figure 4. (a) Cross-sectional TEM image of a QLED with an Al_2O_3 barrier layer, (b–d) Surface morphology (left) and corresponding SKPM (right) images obtained at the boundary (marked by black dashed lines) between ITO and Al_2O_3 -coated ITO for (b) $n = 2$, (c) $n = 4$, and (d) $n = 6$, respectively.

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Figure 4(a) is a cross-sectional transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of our QLED. We could not resolve each layer except for the Al_2O_3 layer, which was impossible to identify because of very low thickness and the high surface roughness of ITO. Fortunately, in a previous report, the work function of an ultra-thin Al_2O_3 layer was determined using SKPM, which thus proved to be an efficient technique of ultra-thin Al_2O_3 layer characterization.

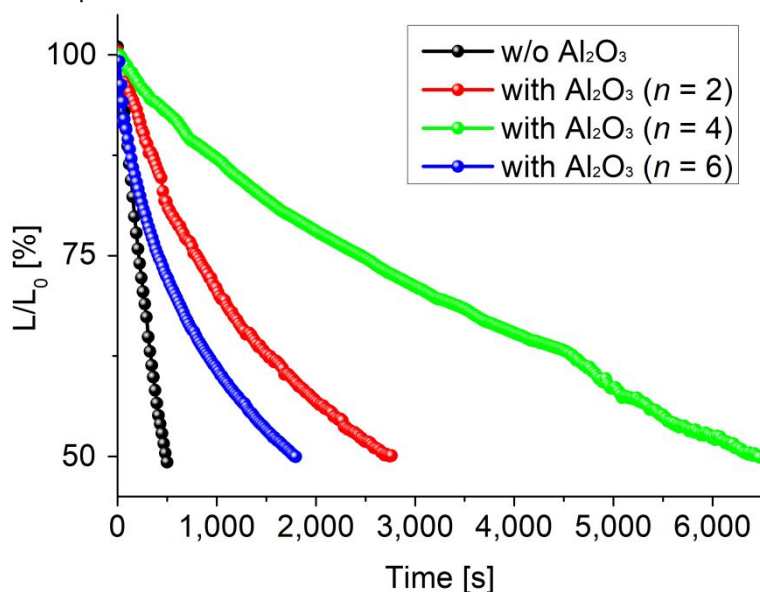
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Figure 4(b) shows the surface morphology and SKPM images of the boundary between Al_2O_3 -

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4 coated ITO (upper region) and the ITO substrate (lower region). The latter images express the
5 difference of surface potential, and the contrast between the area covered by Al_2O_3 and the ITO
6 substrate thus confirms that Al_2O_3 was well deposited. Differences between the work functions of
7 pristine ITO- and Al_2O_3 -covered areas for various n were calculated from SKPM data and are
8 shown in **Figure S2**. The above difference decreased with increasing n , in agreement with the
9 results of previous studies (11, 29).
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14 In addition, we used atomic force microscopy (AFM) to characterize the etching of PEDOT:PSS-
15 exposed bare and Al_2O_3 -coated ITO surfaces placed on a 130 °C hot plate (i.e., under conditions
16 identical to those used for device fabrication). **Figure S3** shows the obtained surface morphology
17 differences and surface roughness values before and after exposure to PEDOT:PSS, revealing that
18 the root-mean-square (RMS) surface roughness of ITO increased from 1.56 to 3.72 nm after
19 etching by PEDOT:PSS, whereas almost no surface roughness change was observed for Al_2O_3 -
20 covered surfaces (e.g., 1.66 and 1.74 nm, respectively, for $n = 4$). This behavior suggested that the
21 Al_2O_3 layer effectively suppressed the etching reaction with PEDOT:PSS.
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26 As stated above, the best QLED performance was obtained for $n = 4$, which was ascribed to the
27 mechanism of Al_2O_3 growth. During ALD, the first layer of Al_2O_3 forms Al–O bonds via OH groups
28 and defect sites on the surface. Although the ALD technology is known to achieve high coating
29 coverage, it is difficult to form a perfect two-dimensional (2D) layer with 100% coverage in one
30 cycle because of the complex growth conditions (19, 30). Therefore, during the initial few cycles,
31 Al_2O_3 layers were formed based on the island growth mechanism as a prelude to 2D layer
32 formation. Thus, the time when the thinnest Al_2O_3 2D layer begins to form was concluded to
33 correspond to $n = 4$.
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57 **Figure 5.** Performance degradation of QLEDs prepared using different n .

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59 **Figure 5** shows the results of lifetime measurements. In general, QLED lifetime is defined as the
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5 time required for the initial luminance of L_0 (1,000 cd/m² in our case) to decrease by a factor of
6 two during continuous operation at a constant bias. In these measurements, all devices without
7 any encapsulation were characterized under the same environmental conditions (temperature,
8 humidity, etc.) in an atmospheric dark box. Notably, all Al₂O₃-containing QLEDs featured longer
9 lifetimes than the QLED without Al₂O₃. Particularly, the $n = 4$ device had the longest lifetime of
10 6,472 s, which was ~13 times larger than that of the Al₂O₃-free QLED. At this point, it is worth
11 mentioning that no encapsulation process was applied in this study. Actually, we previously tried
12 to enhance the lifetime of our devices by simple glass encapsulation, but found that this method
13 is inadequate, since ZnO NPs used in our devices as the ETL might get damaged by UV light
14 during sealant UV-curing. However, we anticipate that device lifetime can be further increased if
15 an encapsulation method suitable for our device structure is developed.

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17 The enhancement of QLED luminance, current efficiency, and lifetime by application of an Al₂O₃
18 layer as a metal ion diffusion barrier is an interesting result that can possibly aid the
19 commercialization of QLEDs. In particular, the developed coating procedure can be performed at
20 a low temperature of ~150 °C and can therefore be applied not only to rigid ITO glass substrates
21 but also to flexible substrates such as polyethylene terephthalate (PET) and polyethylene
22 naphthalate (PEN). The typical characteristics of flexible QLEDs are shown in **Figure S4**, while
23 **Figures S5(a)** and **(b)** show the emission images of glass- and PEN-based QLEDs, respectively,
24 supporting the hypothesis that the Al₂O₃ layer deposition technique can be applied to flexible
25 substrates.
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36 37 **Conclusions**

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39 In this study, QLED characteristics were improved via ALD-based insertion of Al₂O₃ as a metal
40 diffusion barrier at the interface between PEDOT:PSS and the ITO anode of conventional-structure
41 green QLED. To determine whether the ultra-thin Al₂O₃ layer was well deposited on the ITO
42 surface, we confirmed the surface potential difference between bare and Al₂O₃-coated ITO by
43 SKPM and have further optimized the thickness of Al₂O₃, aiming to achieve a value that was as
44 small as possible but allowed for uniform ITO surface coverage. As a result, the best
45 characteristics (maximum luminance = 39,410 cd/m², maximum current efficiency = 47.89%,
46 maximum EQE = 12.89%) were observed for the QLED prepared using four Al₂O₃ deposition
47 cycles. The enhanced performance was primarily ascribed to the prevention of ITO etching by
48 PEDOT:PSS and the decreased extent of metal ion diffusion into the EML. The results of the
49 PEDOT:PSS etching test showed that the above etching increased the RMS roughness and
50 changed the surface morphology of bare ITO, while these effects were negligible in the case of
51 Al₂O₃-coated ITO. In addition, the effective blockage of metal ion migration during device
52 operation by Al₂O₃ was confirmed by (a) TR-PL measurements, which revealed that exciton
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4 quenching was suppressed in the device with Al₂O₃, and (b) the results of EDS analysis, which
5 showed that no signals of metal species were observed in the EML layer of Al₂O₃-coated QLEDs.
6 Thus, the adopted approach can aid QLED commercialization and is expected to be applicable to
7 next-generation flexible devices that can be used at low temperatures.
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12 **Supporting Information Available:** Additional characterization of as-fabricated QLEDs. This
13 material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.
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16 17 **Notes**

18 The authors declare no competing financial interest.
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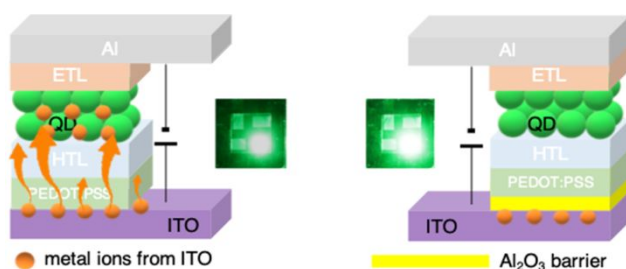
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For Table of Contents Use Only

Title: Insertion of an inorganic barrier layer as a method of improving the performance of quantum dot light-emitting diodes

Authors: Sang Hyun Yoon, Dham Gwak, Hong Hee Kim, Hwi Je Woo, Jinhee Cho, Jin Woo Choi, Won Kook Choi, Young Jae Song, Chang-Lyoul Lee, Jongnam Park, Kwang Heo, and Young Jin Choi



Enhanced performance of conventionally structured QLED by Insertion of Al₂O₃ layer as metal ion diffusion barrier between ITO and PEDOT:PSS