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# Adaptive gold/vanadium dioxide periodic arrays for infrared optical modulation

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## Abstract

Localized surface plasmon resonances (LSPR) make systems capable of concentrating and amplifying light intensity at their near surface. Applications ranging from energy harvesting to biological sensors depend on the modulation of LSPR. Through the synthesis and shape modifications of Au quasi-triangular nanoplatelets (QTP) arrays, LSPR modulation from near- to mid- infrared ( $\sim 1.5\mu\text{m}$  to  $\sim 4.5\mu\text{m}$ ) is revealed. Au QTP arrays are then associated to a thermochromic vanadium dioxide ( $\text{VO}_2$ ) layer leading to a “smart” nanocomposite exhibiting modulated absorptions. The  $\text{VO}_2$  layer acts as a phase change material with a tunable dielectric function vs. temperature and represents an active matrix. The dynamics of the geometric changes in QTP arrays and the phase transition of the matrix are directly correlated to the shift of the LSPR position ( $\Delta\lambda_{\text{LSPR}} \sim 675\text{nm}$ ). The experimental data are supported by a theoretical approach via the finite difference time domain (FDTD) method that provides the LSPR characteristics in the various Au QTP array and nanocomposite configurations. The experimental and modelling investigations prove that the red-shift resonance modulation originates from the creation of a temperature-dependent core-shell structure of Au QTP (core) surrounded by a thin metallic  $\text{VO}_2$  layer (shell) and embedded into the  $\text{VO}_2$  dielectric matrix.

## 1. Introduction

When atoms and molecules are exposed to electromagnetic fields, resonances will emerge in spectra as narrow peaks of absorption, emission, or scattering [1] and gives information's about the condensed matter. In the visible and infrared regions of the electromagnetic spectrum, the collective oscillations of free charge carriers in metallic systems such as nanoparticles give rise to some of the strongest resonances [2]. For micro/nanoparticles, the resonant frequency, i.e., surface plasmons resonance, is determined by the opto-geometric parameters corresponding to the metallic structure, such as nature (of the metal), size, shape, and the relative permittivity of the surrounding environment [2,3]. During a resonant light excitation, the free charge oscillations in the plasmonic structure can generate an intense electromagnetic field confined at the interface formed between a metallic system and its surrounding dielectric environment [3,4]. Such collective oscillations are called Localized Surface Plasmon Resonances (LSPR) [4]. Many applications have emerged from the field enhancement of the LSPR of specific optoelectronic devices, applications ranging from energy harvesting to ultra-sensitive physical, chemical, and biological sensors [5-7]. For all of these applications, developing adapted systems with a tunable LSPR position is a challenge of paramount importance [8-16]. Significant steps have been made, predominantly in the visible part of the electromagnetic spectrum through the geometrical manipulation of rounded noble metallic nanoparticles of Au and Ag elements associated to different surrounding environments [17-27]. Studies of the resonance modulation in the Near-/Mid- InfraRed (N/Mid IR) electromagnetic spectrum are more limited [28] despite the huge number of applications. In this range, organization at a micrometric scale of metallic micro-objects in a periodic way constitute a pathway for developing tunable LSPR platforms. Nature, size, shape, and shape dispersions of the objects constitute a key point to adjust the band of the LSPR [29,30]. A narrowband resonant mode could be more suitable for improving application performances [31,32].

Moreover, the choice of the surrounding dielectric environment (the matrix can be a gas, liquid, or thin films) is an additional option to jointly modify LSPR. When the metallic periodical arrays are integrated into conventional oxide matrices as  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  [33] or  $\text{SiO}_2$ , the resonance position is modified but can no longer be adjusted. Integrating periodical micro-objects in a material with a variable permittivity will provide an interesting alternative to tune the LSPR.

In this article we propose to take benefit of the properties of a Phase Change/Transition Material (PC/TM), namely vanadium dioxide ( $\text{VO}_2$ ) to tune LSPR. This oxide material well-known for its first order Semiconductor to Metal transition (SMT) close to room temperature (341K), presents drastic physical variations and consequently huge modifications in its optical properties [34]. These characteristics will be combined here with those of metallic periodic arrays. The study begins by evaluating the geometric changes undergone by an array of gold (Au) quasi-triangular nanoplatelets (QTP) during thermal treatment from room temperature ( $R_T$ ) up to 1273K. The geometric changes are corroborated with an evolution of their plasmonic properties. The initial size of the Au QTP is tailored. The position of the LSPR peak is within the light transparent window of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  substrate (200 nm up to 5  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

The preliminary step of monitoring the temperature induced geometric changes is essential to further develop an Au-QTP/ $\text{VO}_2$  nanocomposite. Indeed, the synthesis of the  $\text{VO}_2$  matrix by Pulsed Laser Deposition under reactive oxygen requires a deposition temperature at around 773K. This heating will probably affect the QTP shape and the original metallic sketch. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) measurements is used to probe 'in situ' from  $R_T$  to 1273K the dynamics of QTP geometric changes versus temperature and examine phenomena of melting, nucleation, crystal growth and solid-state de-wetting. Moreover, High-Resolution X-Ray Diffraction (HR-XRD) furthers the study of the evolution of the crystallographic states. Major effects on the LSPR would be discussed.

Due to the variable dielectric function of  $\text{VO}_2$  in the temperature range 293K - 363K, the developed Au-QTP/ $\text{VO}_2$  nanocomposite could constitute an adaptable material with tunable peaks. To detail the properties of the nanocomposite architecture at the microscopic scale vs. temperature, particular attention is paid on their analyses using local Raman spectroscopy phase mapping in temperature. The experimental data are supported by a theoretical approach via the finite difference time domain (FDTD) method, which rigorously solves Maxwell's equations and allows to obtain the LSPR peak position in different configurations of QTP. Beyond their primary role of generating the LSPR, QTP are influenced by - or affect - the surrounding environment. So, the particles can be used as "live probes" to gather information about the surrounding material and probe for example the  $\text{VO}_2$  transition. Following a sensing strategy, this new adaptive composite material can present the unique advantage to act as an optical transmitter in emission or absorption. Infra-red wavelength spectral absorption would be adjusted, modulated, and fixed at the maximum of sensitivity for the different used systems. For example, composites can be adapted for Surface-Enhanced Raman Spectroscopy (SERS) or rapid photo-detection applications.

## 2. Materials and Methods

Periodic arrays of particles on a supporting substrate can be grown by two different paths, *i.e.*, the so-called top-down or bottom-up methods [19,35,36]. An alternative methodology is provided by Nano-/micro-Sphere colloidal Lithography (NSL), which couples these two approaches. NSL takes advantage of the excellent control of geometric parameters offered by the top-down method and the excellent quality of particles given by the bottom-up approach. In the NSL procedure, a 2D colloidal crystal made from colloidal nano-/micro-spheres is used as a mask for subsequent material deposition [37]. Note that nano-/micro-spheres can be kept and used as a 2D colloidal crystal directly in the fabricated systems [38]. The arrays of particles are produced following the three steps presented in **Figure 1**. A monolayer of assembled monodisperse microspheres self-organizes spontaneously at the surface of a liquid to form a 2D hexagonal colloidal crystal. This structure is then transferred to a substrate (**Figure 1a**) by NSL, a procedure based on the Langmuir-Blodgett technique. In this resulting 2D hexagonal close-packed arrangement, the polystyrene microspheres cover an area on the substrate equal to  $\pi/(2\sqrt{3})=90.7\%$ , independent of their diameter. This geometric invariance makes possible to down- or up-size the geometry while keeping the same coverage. In this work, NSL experiments were performed using 3  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter polystyrene microspheres (commercially available from *Microparticles GmbH* and *Micro Partikel Technologie GmbH*), deposited on *c*-oriented sapphire substrates, *i.e.*,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  (0001). Then 50nm of Au is deposited on/between the microspheres by Pulsed Laser Deposition (PLD) (**Figure 1b** and **Supplementary Material (A)**). The polymer microspheres used as a mask are then removed by dissolution with acetone (**Figure 1c**). The result is an array of Au quasi-triangular nanoplatelets (QTP) with a specific quasi-triangular based shape induced by a coupling of the colloidal mask shape given by NSL (initially seen by Fischer and Zingsheim [39]), and the high directional characteristics of the plasma plume (*i.e.*, the flux of atoms) due to PLD deposition technique (see **Figure 1**).

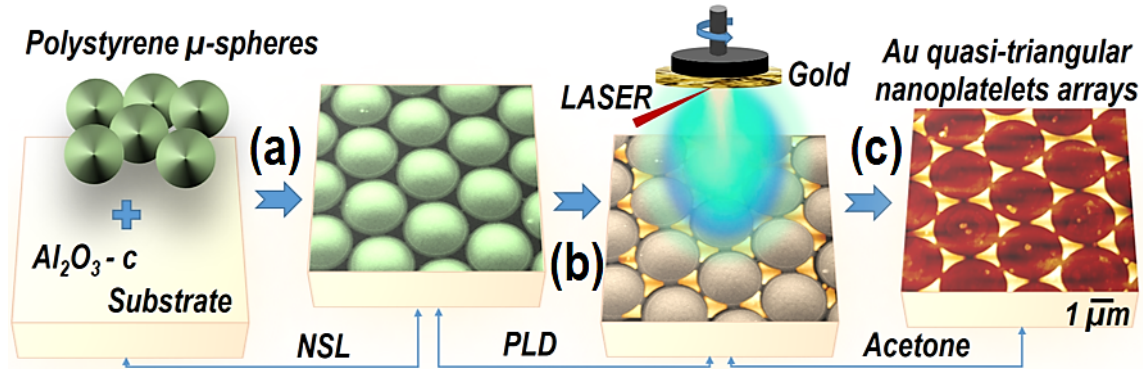
The resulting specific  $a$  parameter (*i.e.*, the perpendicular bisector of the resulting quasi-triangular nanoplatelets, as presented in the insert of **Figure 2a**) of the QTP is related only to the  $D$  diameter of the polystyrene microspheres used for the fabrication of QTP arrays by the following equation [7]:

$$a = 3/2 \cdot (\sqrt{3} - 1 - 1/\sqrt{3}) \cdot D \quad \text{Equation 1.}$$

For a 3  $\mu\text{m}$  polystyrene microsphere, this relation gives a specific size  $a$  equal to 700nm, while the experimentally measured  $a$  parameter is approximatively 900nm. The difference can be explained by the presence of few defects in the packing of the polystyrene microspheres, their slight polydispersity, and the shading effects and migration of Au atoms below the polystyrene microspheres during the Au deposition process.

The deposition of Au metallic material was carried out in vacuum ( $10^{-8}$  mbar) and at room temperature, while the deposition of  $\text{VO}_2$  was done in a reactive oxygen pressure of  $2.2 \cdot 10^{-2}$  mbar and a temperature of 773K. PLD is implemented using a KrF excimer laser (TuiLaser AG, model “Thin Film Star” / TFS 100-248nm-CT-T V2.0) operating at a wavelength of 248nm, 25ns pulse duration, 10Hz repetition rate, and a fluence of  $2\text{--}3\text{J}/\text{cm}^2$ . All the other equipments used in this study are listed and described in the **Supplementary Material (B)**.

The optical transmittance/absorbance of Au QTP arrays and Au QTP- $\text{VO}_2$  nanocomposites is measured by UV-VIS (0.8-3 $\mu\text{m}$ ) and FTIR (1.5-5.5 $\mu\text{m}$ ), using unpolarized light, and then modeled by a theoretical FDTD approach. The QTP arrays are simulated on an  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{-c}$  substrate from real AFM images of the samples. The surrounding medium considered in the FDTD model is air (permittivity equal to 1) or  $\text{VO}_2$ . The simulated region presents periodic conditions in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions, and the array of QTP is considered infinite.



**Figure 1.** Schematic pathway for developing micro/nano-structured metallic architectures and consequently tunable LSPR platforms. a) Nano/micro sphere lithography, b) Pulsed laser deposition of Gold, c) Arrays obtained after removing the nano/micro sphere.

### 3. Results and discussions

#### 3.1. Thermal treatments of Au QTP arrays

##### 3.1.1. Geometric changes of the Au QTP arrays from 298K to 1273K

Gold is a noble metal with a very low affinity for oxygen, and its vapor pressure remains relatively low up to its melting point [40]. Au is non-miscible with vanadium, so there is no possibility of alloys. Thereby, it constitutes the ideal candidate for evaluating the QTP geometric changes as a function of temperature [41] and for the development of a vanadium based nanocomposite.  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{-c}$  substrates are used due to their high chemical and thermal stability and their lack of reactivity with Au. Besides, these substrates are also very well suited for the growth of vanadium dioxide. The temperature at which the geometric characteristics of the particles are changed depends on various factors such as their size, their shape, the supporting substrate, etc. The nanometric dimensions lead to a decrease in the melting point of nanoparticles compared to melting temperature of Au bulk ( $\sim 900\text{K}$  vs  $1337\text{K}$ ) [18,42]. Furthermore, pristine QTP shapes present a geometry close to a 2D thin object and consequently a huge number of surface atoms (compare to bulk atoms) which have a greater amplitude of vibration. Amongst all shapes, spheres have the lowest surface to volume ratio. This implies that QTP may melt at a lower temperature than their spherical counterparts [19,40,43-46]. At this scale, solid-state de-wetting mechanisms may also be present and drive the evolution of the shape of a particle to a more energetically favorable state [47,48]. The equilibrium morphology depends on the relative ratio between the three interfacial energies: particle-vapor ( $\gamma_{pv}$ ), substrate-vapor or substrate surface energy ( $\gamma_{sv}$ ), and particle-substrate interfacial energy ( $\gamma_{ps}$ ). The expression of the thermodynamic equilibrium, given by Young equation, between the three phases is written as:  $\gamma_{sv} = \gamma_{ps} + \gamma_{pv} \cos \theta$ ; where  $\theta$  is the equilibrium contact angle at the three phases boundary [49]. The contact angle  $\theta$  is calculated between  $120^\circ$  to  $140^\circ$ , close to  $180^\circ$ , proof of a total de-wetting process. Consequently, the system will minimize the total energy by driving each Au QTP towards a quasi-spherical Au nanoparticle. This is confirmed experimentally by the thermally driven shape evolution presented in **Figure 2**, from a low-temperature QTP toward a high temperature spherical shaped nanoparticle. **Figure 2a-f** shows the *in-situ* SEM evolution of Au QTP as a function of the thermal treatment temperature, starting from 298K (25°C) and up to 1273K (1000°C), with an average heating rate of 10K/min. At this point, the possible driving

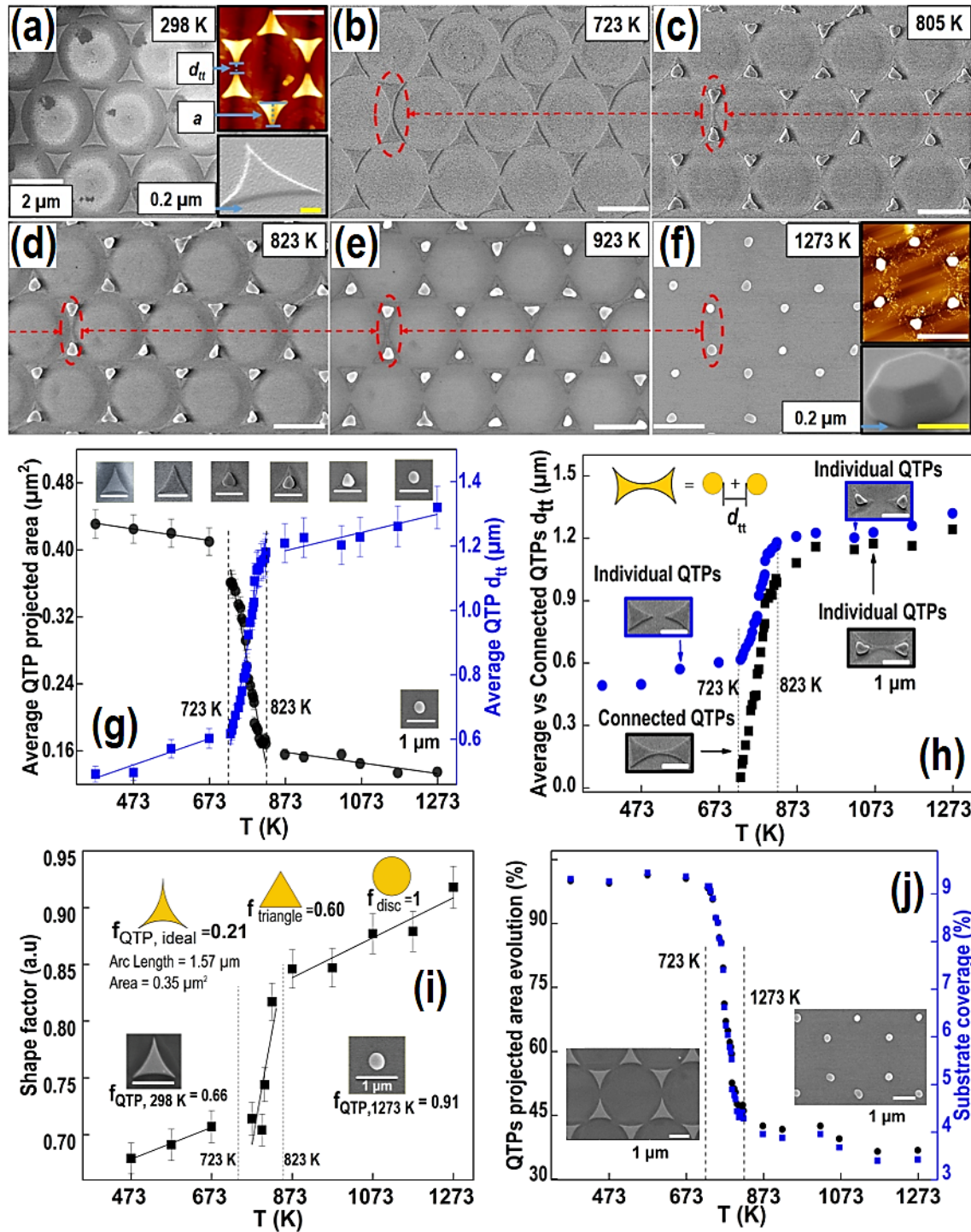
mechanisms that can induce the surface energy minimization are solid-state de-wetting or/and melting. Other surface energy minimization mechanisms that can lead to the shape evolution of QTP, such as Ostwald ripening by evaporation or surface diffusion [50] and the coalescence phenomenon, are challenging to assess but cannot be ignored. However, based on Au's low vapor pressure and a relatively short thermal treatment duration, we can assume that QTP cannot lose or collect atoms and preserve their volume. This assumption is confirmed by different QTP and nanoparticles measurements at different temperatures using AFM (not shown here). A constant volume of  $\sim 8 \cdot 10^{-3} \mu\text{m}^3$  is obtained. The geometrical evolution of Au QTP may be linked instead to the crystal growth induced by solid-state de-wetting.

From the SEM observation, it is possible to extract the step-by-step evolution of the Au QTP arrays towards Au nanoparticle arrays. During the thermal treatment process, different parameters are followed: the QTP projected area, the  $d_{tt}$  inter-QTP/nanoparticle distance, the substrate coverage ratio and the  $f$  shape factor defined as  $4\pi A/P^2$  where  $A$  is the QTP projected area, and  $P$  the perimeter (for theoretical QTP,  $f = 0.21$ , for spherical nanoparticles,  $f = 1$  (see insert **Figure 2i**)). All these markers show the presence of three temperature range regimes: 298K to 723K, 723K to 823K, and 823K to 1273K. For example, following the shape factor, the first regime implies small  $f$  modifications from 0.66 to 0.71. In the second regime, over a small temperature range (100K), the thermal treatment has a significant impact,  $f$  evolves from 0.71 to 0.84. Above 823K, the temperature effect on the geometric characteristics is less noticeable,  $f$  varies from 0.84 to 0.90 over more than 450K. Remarkably, most of the Au QTPs shape evolution is produced within a temperature interval of 100K, between 723K and 823K, after which the QTP arrays can be considered as a nanoparticle array.

A particular situation, pointed out in **Figure 2h**, presents two configurations, e.g., individual QTP vs connected QTP. As the temperature rises above 723K, the connected QTP split into two individual ones, additionally proving the QTP are not subjected to the coalescence effects.

Finally, the thermal treatment has a triple effect; it changes the QTP geometry, improves the QTP/nanoparticle array quality, and provides a way to slightly modulate the optical transmission amplitude (area coverage from 9.3% (at 298K) to only 3.5% (at 1273K)). Note that the effect of a conventional furnace produces the same geometric metallic sketch versus temperature (**Supplementary material (A)**).





**Figure 2.** Thermal treatments of Au QTP arrays. a-f) Thermal treatments imaging by *in-situ* SEM. The inserted images in a) and f) are made by AFM and SEM. The white scale bar (resp. yellow) is equal to 2 $\mu\text{m}$  (resp. 0.2 $\mu\text{m}$ ). g) Effects of thermal treatment on the QTP projected area and inter- QTP distance (tip-to-tip)  $d_{tt}$ . h) Evolution of inter- QTP average distance between the tips of non-connected/connected adjacent QTP before/after the thermal treatment. i) Shape factor of QTPs as a function of the thermal treatment temperature. j) QTP projected area and substrate coverage as a function of temperature. The data from g)-j) are extracted from the step by step *in-situ* SEM observation.

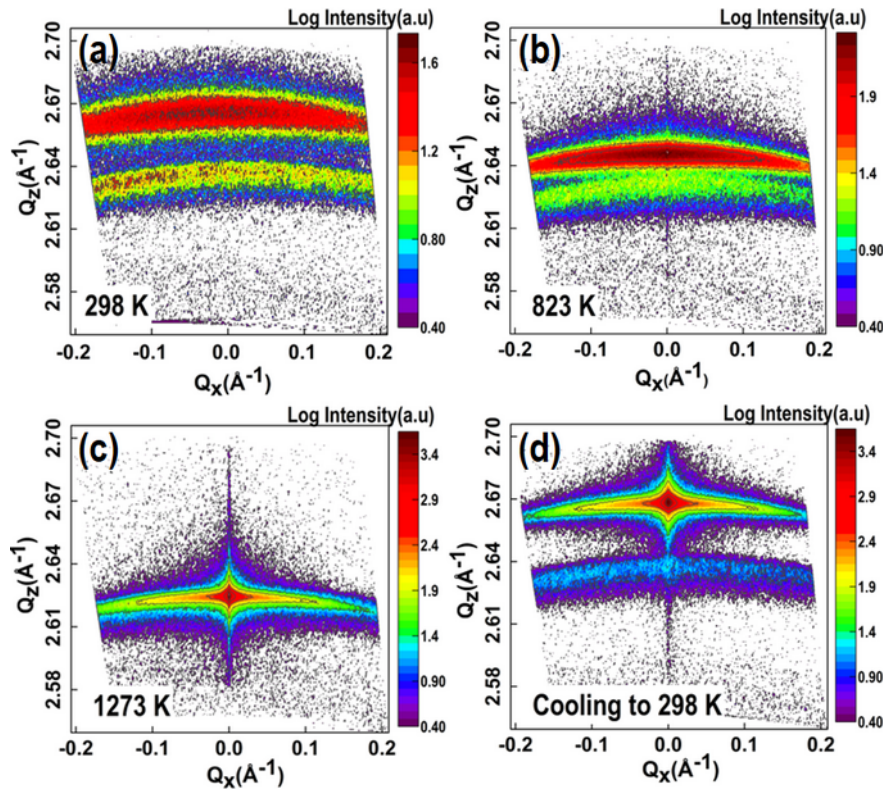
### 3.1.2. Crystallographic evolution of the Au QTP arrays from 298K to 1273K

To understand deeper the solid-state de-wetting process and the perfect atomic organization (Winterbottom construction [51,52]),  $\theta$ -2 $\theta$  X-ray patterns are performed at room temperature. It reveals that the Au QTP are crystalline and mono-oriented, having just a 111 reflection. However, this measurement is not sufficient to completely characterize the QTP. We therefore recorded XRD reciprocal space maps (RSMs) around the 111 reflection of Au in a 298K – 1273K temperature range.

**Figure 3a-d** shows the evolution of the 2D diffracted intensity around the 111 reflection of Au as a function of the thermal treatment temperature (heating and cooling). In **Figure 3a** the reflection located at  $Q_z = 2.66$  (red/black region) corresponds to the 111 reflection of Au, while the maximum centered around 2.63 (green region) comes from the 111 reflection of the tantalum holder used to secure the sample during the high-temperature measurement. At 298K the 111 reflection of Au exhibits a significant spreading and curvature perpendicular to the [111] surface normal. As  $\theta$ - $2\theta$  XRD characterizations, it indicates that, although a (111) preferred orientation exists. This orientation is far from perfect crystal and significant mosaicity is observed (**Supplementary material (C)**), a classical result obtained for fcc metallic PLD deposition at room temperature. With the annealing process, two distinct phenomena are observed. The 111 reflection shifts towards lower values (i.e., higher lattice spacings) because of thermal expansion. While cooling back to the initial state at  $R_T$ , the reflection recovers its initial position. Furthermore, the diffracted intensity significantly coalesces in the central region of the map (i.e.,  $Q_x = 0$ ) and forms a well-defined peak. The crystalline orientation of the QTP improves and reaches a single crystal-like quality. This is further attested by the formation of “streak” parallel to the  $Q_z$  direction, consecutive to the formation of surface facets at high temperatures.

In addition to the well-defined Bragg reflection, an elongated low intensity remains, proof of the presence of small misoriented crystallites. All these features are also clearly visible in the rocking-curve (RC) (**Supplementary material (C)**).

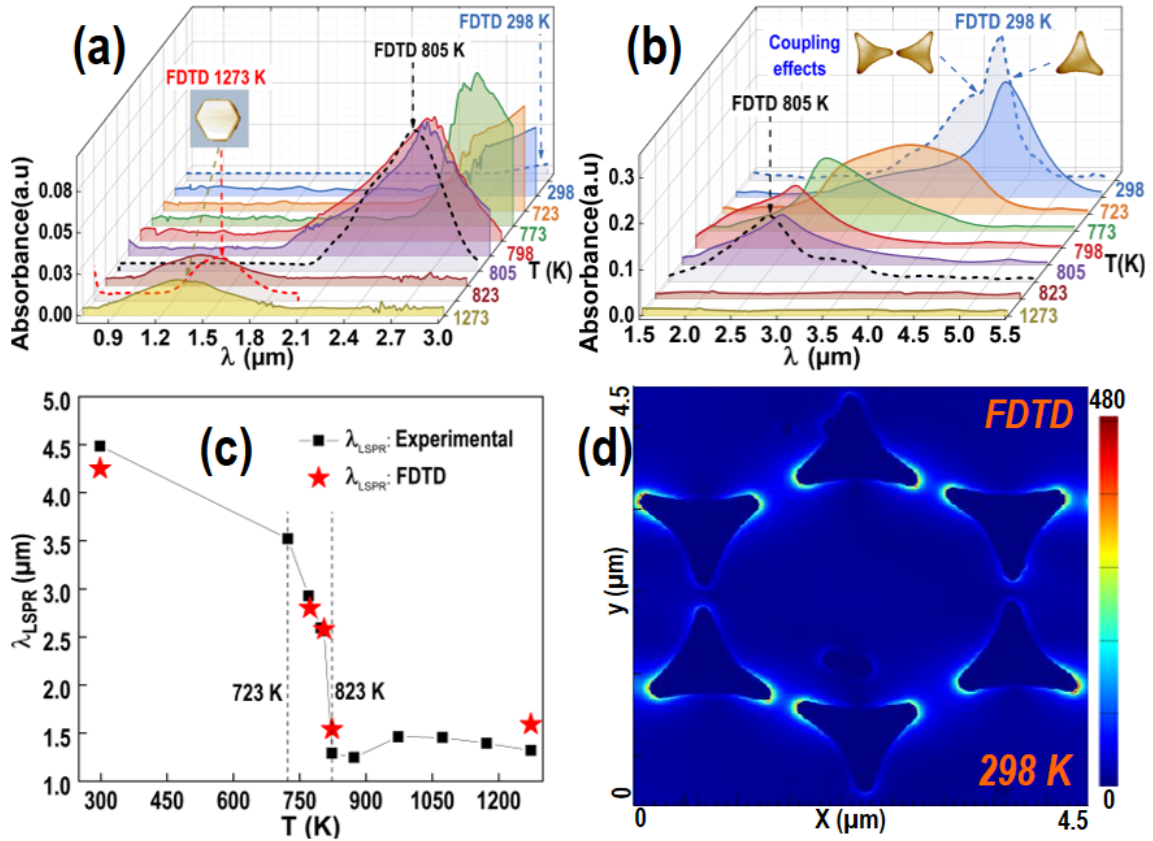
The existence of a critical temperature range, between 723K to 823K, where the significant Au QTP geometrical evolution occurs, coupled with the facet forming phenomenon seen at 823K (**Figure 2f, 3b**), tends to underline temperature as the main parameter to induce the following solid-state de-wetting scenario. In the early stages of the solid-state de-wetting, the morphology of Au QTP change via surface self-diffusion of Au atoms (up to 723K). Then, the thermal energy reaches a sufficiently high value so that the crystallites with low interfacial energy start to consume the ones that have higher interfacial energy, which results in the facet forming phenomenon observed at 823K. These facets will later evolve with temperature but do not strongly affect the morphology, as they do between 723K and 823K.



**Figure 3.** a-d): *in-situ* HR-XRD scan; Reciprocal space mapping of the 111 Au QTP reflection as a function of the thermal treatment temperature, heating/cooling cycle from 298K up to 1273K. The maps are plotted as a function of the diffraction space coordinates  $Q_z$  and  $Q_x$ , respectively corresponding to the out-of-plane and in-plane component of the scattering vector  $Q = 4 \pi \sin \theta / \lambda$ .

### 3.1.3. LSPR measurements and calculations of the thermally treated Au QTP arrays.

Absorbance is calculated and compared directly with the experimental measurements (see **Figure 4a-b**). In the model, the single cell composed by 6 QTP interacts with a circularly polarized light to get as close as possible the experimental conditions (unpolarized light). During a measurement, several monodomains ( $>200$ ), differently oriented, are illuminated. The experimental response of optical absorption results from an average over a set of randomly oriented mono-domains. It seems strongly probable that linear polarization effects of light could be present but, in that paper, the conditions are not met. The values of optical indices for Au were fitted in the spectral range extending from  $0.8\mu\text{m}$  up to  $5.5\mu\text{m}$  [53].



**Figure 4.** Localized Surface Plasmon Resonance (LSPR) of Gold Quasi-Triangular nano-Platelets (QTP) arrays. Absorbance measurements as a function of temperature: a) by UV-VIS and b) by FTIR. Continuous lines (resp. dotted lines) represent experimental measurements (resp. FDTD calculation). c) Comparison of the experimental and theoretical LSPR peak positions. The peaks are extracted from a fit with a Voigt function of the experimental absorbance spectra for each temperature from a)-b). d) Electric field cartography at  $\lambda = 4.45 \mu\text{m}$  corresponding to the Au QTP before thermal treatment. The Electric field cartography of the coupling effects between QTP and the Electric field cartography of QTP treated at (805K, 823K and 1273K) is reported in the **Supplementary Material (D)**.

Before thermal treatment, the Au QTP arrays has a strong resonance in the absorbance spectrum with a maximum located at  $\lambda_{\text{LSPR}} \approx 4.45 \mu\text{m}$  (see **Figure 4b**). The FDTD approach (**Figure 4d**) points out that for  $\lambda_{\text{LSPR}} \approx 4.25 \mu\text{m}$  the polarized electric field enhancements are located on QTP corners and correspond to the dipolar localized surface plasmon resonances (LSPR). The model and the experimental measurements are in good agreement, the slight differences can be attributed to Au's theoretical optical indices used in the simulation and the non-perfect compliance of the QTP on large area. Note that experimental measurements are made on  $20\text{mm}^2$ , calculations on only limited area of  $20\mu\text{m}^2$ .

At 298K, the smaller gap between QTP leads to plasmonic coupling effects highlighted by the intensity of the electric field distribution between the adjacent QTP that following the dipolar resonance (**Supplementary**



**Material (D)**). Coupling effects appear in the calculated optical absorbance spectrum of the sample at 298K as a shoulder ( $\lambda_{LSPR} \approx 3.7 \mu m$ ) (**Figure 4b**, blue dotted line). As the heating process increases, the resonance starts to blueshift in wavelength position (**Figure 4a-b**). After 823K, the resulting Au nanoparticle arrays have a resonance in the absorbance spectrum with a maximum located at  $\lambda_{LSPR} \approx 1.45 \mu m$ . This peak position remains unchanged by further thermal treatments up to 1273K.

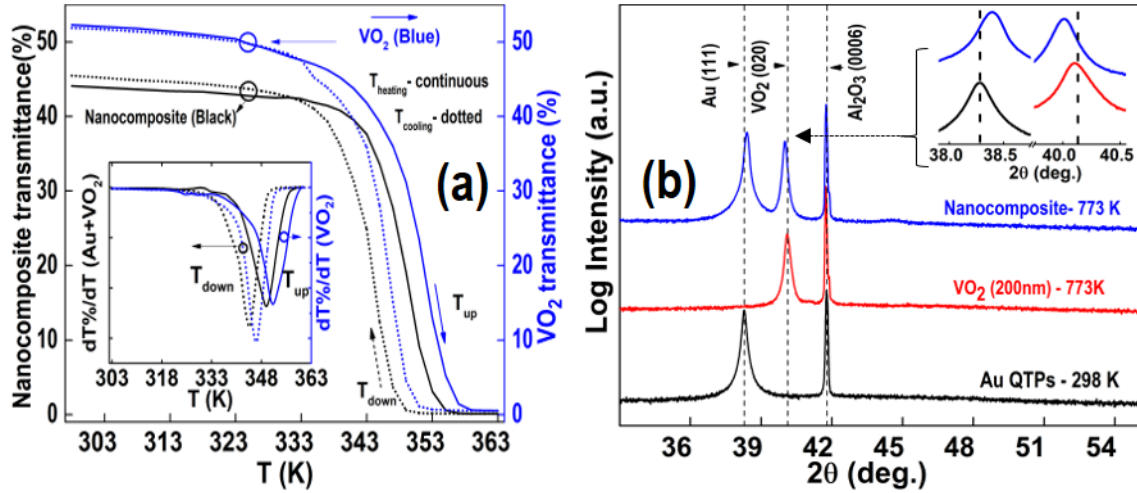
On Figure 4c, a sump-up of the comparison between the modeled and measured LSPR positions show good agreement. Small differences can be explained by the theoretical optical indices introduced in the model and the Au QTP size distribution [54].

At 805K, also appears an absorption peak in the visible part of the optical spectrum ( $\lambda_{LSPR} \approx 0.50 \mu m$ ) which is present in all the samples thermally treated beyond 805K. This LSPR (confirmed by FDTD) originates from the Au atomic residue left behind after the removal of the original polystyrene microspheres (**Supplementary Material (D)**). Indeed, upon thermal treatment, melting and coalescence effects occur and Au nanoparticles are formed with a diameter close to 10nm, giving the signal observed in the visible regime. As there is no physical interaction between the residual nanoparticles and the Au QTP (**Supplementary Material (D)**), these residual nanoparticles, involuntarily initially present, act as witness particles to justify the absence of the Ostwald ripening phenomenon.

### 3.2. LSPR modulation through adaptive metal-ceramic periodic arrays; Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite formation.

#### 3.2.1. Microstructural, structural, optical and STM characteristics of nanocomposites

A metallic-ceramic composite is fabricated by covering the Au-QTP by a VO<sub>2</sub> matrix. Inside this composite, as usual, interactions between the metallic QTP and the VO<sub>2</sub> layer can affected/degraded the behavior of each of entity. The microstructure, controlled by SEM and AFM of the VO<sub>2</sub> layer of the nanocomposite remains almost unchanged compared to a conventional thin film of VO<sub>2</sub> (not shown here). For the metallic inclusions, VO<sub>2</sub> layer acts as a ‘blanket’ (**Supplementary Material (E)**). As expected, and demonstrated in the first part of the paper, the morphology of the Au-QTP is mostly influenced by the temperature deposition of VO<sub>2</sub>. At 773K, the metallic inclusion shapes start to be modified but the global triangular shape remains (**Supplementary material (E)**). EDS investigation (Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy) provides complementary information about the spatial distribution of the different elements (V, O, Au). On one unit cell  $6 \times 6 \mu m^2$ , the three elements are distributed in accordance with the initial structure of the composite (**Supplementary Material (E)**). Diffusion processes during composite synthesis are probably weak. Chemical etching performed on the composite removes the VO<sub>2</sub> layer and reveals thermally affected Au-QTP but still recognizable. In addition to the microstructure, atomic structure and optical properties are of paramount importance to ensure the presence of a nanocomposites with preserved excellent SMT characteristics (**Supplementary Material (E)**). We compared the atomic structure and transmittance of a VO<sub>2</sub> thin film and the Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite of both 200nm in thickness ~~are investigated~~. **Figure 5a** reports the thermal hysteresis of the optical transmittance at a wavelength of  $3 \mu m$  of thin films of VO<sub>2</sub> with or without Au QTP. As a positive point, the two samples, deposited in the same conditions, have practically the same thermal hysteresis behavior and width ( $\sim 4K$  (insert **Figure 5a**)). The difference in the SMT temperature (**Figure 5 a**), 345K vs. 347K, for VO<sub>2</sub> thin film with or without QTP respectively, can be explained by the presence of the metallic inclusions, which may induce various physical phenomena like the electron injection from the metal to the oxide (electronic work function Au (4.8eV) vs. VO<sub>2monoclinic</sub> (5.4eV)), the creation of oxygen vacancies, the symmetry breaking at the Au/VO<sub>2</sub> interface and, most likely, the strain/stress development between QTP and VO<sub>2</sub>. All these phenomena are briefly discussed in the **Supplementary Material (F)**. The optical transmission contrast (**Figure 5a**) is approximately 7% lower for the sample containing Au QTP. The value of 7%, not so far from the 9% expected (see also **Figure 2j**), is a consequence of the beginning of solid-state de-wetting and the associated Au QTP shape modifications during VO<sub>2</sub> deposition.



**Figure 5:** a) Temperature dependence of the optical transmittance at 3 μm of the 200nm-nanocomposite (Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub>) vs. 200nm-VO<sub>2</sub> thin film. b) XRD patterns of Au QTP, VO<sub>2</sub> thin film, and nanocomposite.

**Figure 5b** shows the X-ray patterns recorded at room temperature of pristine Au QTPs and VO<sub>2</sub> thin film with or without Au QTP. As discussed earlier, the presence of the (111) orientation from Au reveals that the Au QTP are crystalline and mono-oriented, with a face-centered cubic (fcc) structure. Embedding QTP inside VO<sub>2</sub> does not change the XRD diagrams. In both cases, VO<sub>2</sub> is mono-orientated, having a monoclinic structure with a (020) orientation (**Figure 5b**).

**Table 1.** Crystallographic characteristics of the Au QTP, VO<sub>2</sub> thin film and the Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite

Sample	Au(111) <sub>FCC</sub> peak		VO <sub>2</sub> (020) <sub>M</sub> peak		Strain (%)	
	Position (2θ)	FWHM (°)	Position (2θ)	FWHM (°)	$e_{Au}$	$e_{VO_2}$
Au QTP	38.17	0.13	-	-	0	-
VO <sub>2</sub>	-	-	40.04	0.15	-	-0.354(5)
Au QTP + VO <sub>2</sub>	38.31	0.14	39.93	0.13	-0.270(1)	-0.284(2)

The peak position and FWHM of all the samples are extracted using a Voigt fit of the XRD data

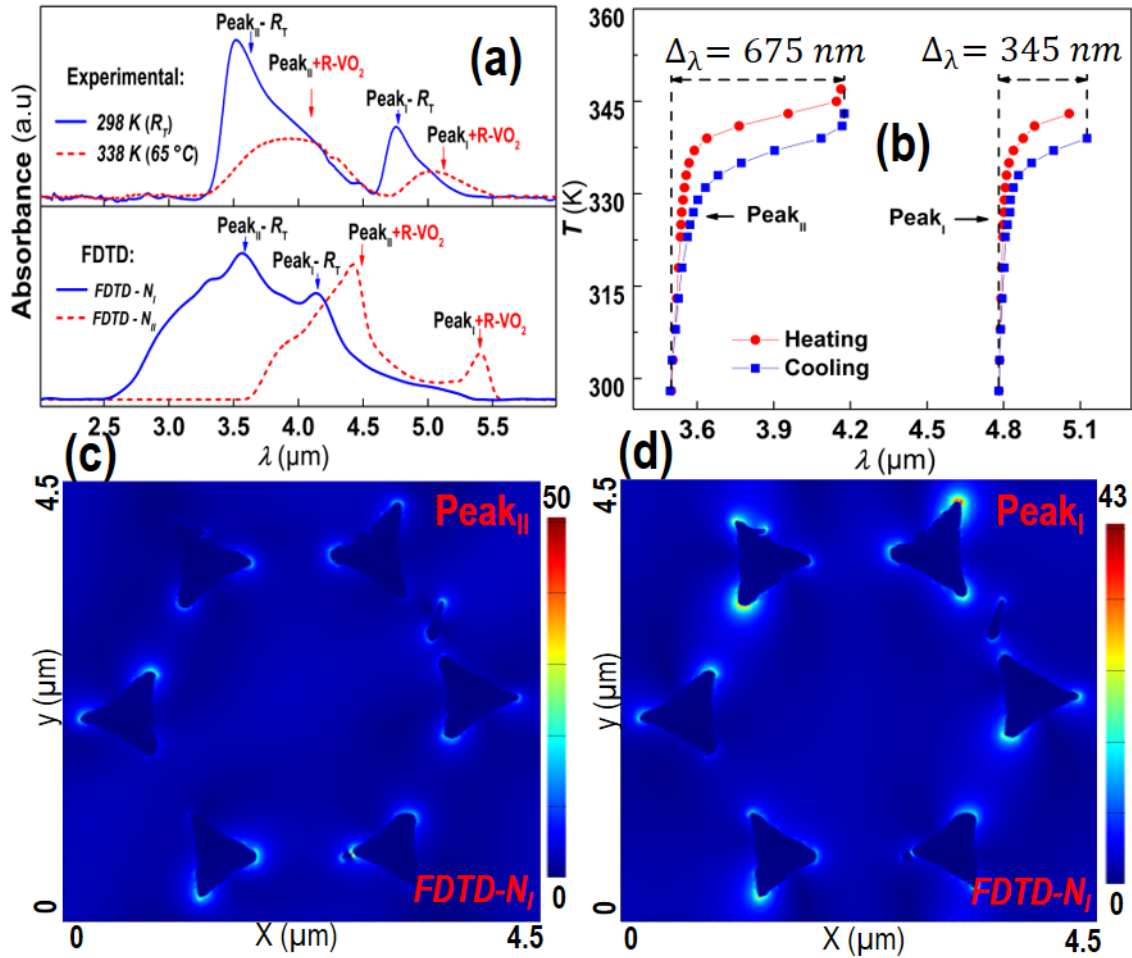
In both samples, VO<sub>2</sub> is epitaxial with the usual orientation corresponding to the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-c substrate:  $(010)_{VO_2} \parallel (001)_{Al_2O_3}$ ;  $[100]_{VO_2} \parallel [210]_{Al_2O_3}$ ;  $[100]_{VO_2} \parallel [-110]_{Al_2O_3}$  and  $[100]_{VO_2} \parallel [120]_{Al_2O_3}$ . Au QTP are not epitaxial with a (111) preferred orientation (with rocking curve width of roughly ~8.7°). The pristine Au QTP are strain-free on the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-c substrate. The 200nm VO<sub>2</sub> thin film is compressively strained in the out-of-plane (oop) direction because of the thermal expansion mismatch with the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-c substrate [55]. In the nanocomposite Au QTP-VO<sub>2</sub>, the VO<sub>2</sub> matrix exerts compressive strain on the QTP in the oop direction. The effect of strain is visible in the  $\theta$ -2 $\theta$  scan, where the Au (111) peak is shifted towards larger angles (**Figure 5b**). The diffraction peak position of (020) VO<sub>2</sub> in both cases differs from the theoretical value of  $2\theta = 39.76^\circ$ , because of the above-mentioned strain (see **Table 1** and **Figure 5b**). The decrease of the compressive strain, in the case of Au QTP-VO<sub>2</sub> thin film is consistent with a decrease in the SMT temperature compared to the SMT of VO<sub>2</sub> thin film alone [60]. In VO<sub>2</sub>, the strain alters the orbital occupancy near the Fermi energy level  $E_F$ . The higher compressive strain along the oop direction of the VO<sub>2</sub> thin film alone makes the  $d_{||}$  and  $\pi^*$  orbitals shift upward and the  $d_{\perp}^*$  orbital downward in rapport to the Au QTP-VO<sub>2</sub> sample [56]. Consequently, the higher oop compressive strain along the  $b_M$  direction in the 200 nm VO<sub>2</sub> thin film alone increases the size of the insulator state's band gap, leading to a higher energy barrier and a higher SMT temperature. Strain/stress probably plays an essential role [56] in these samples.

### 3.2.2. Optical properties of the Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite

**Figure 6** shows the experimental and calculated absorbance spectra of the Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite array, the temperature dependence of its resonance, and the results of the simulated  $E$ -field distributions upon light interaction. On **Figure 6a** (top panel), two resonance peaks (Peak<sub>I</sub> and Peak<sub>II</sub>) arising from nanocomposites (100nmVO<sub>2</sub>/Au-QTP) are clearly visible.

The double plasmonic peaks (compare to the previous single LSPR) may be linked to a selective E-field enhancement at different interfaces [57]. Considering the discussed nanocomposite, the presence of VO<sub>2</sub> obviously increases the number of interfaces (Au QTP-substrate, Au QTP-VO<sub>2</sub>, substrate-VO<sub>2</sub>) and may also explain the small difference in intensity between the two peaks. As a proof, the etching of the VO<sub>2</sub> layer makes it possible to obtain the original single peak (not shown here).

At  $R_T$ , experimental Peak<sub>I</sub> and Peak<sub>II</sub> are located respectively at  $4.78 \mu\text{m}$  and  $3.52 \mu\text{m}$ . A FDTD model is developed by starting from the AFM experimental image of the Au QTP revealed by chemically post-etching the VO<sub>2</sub> matrix. The FDTD model ( $FDTD-N_I$ ) of the absorbance spectra confirms the two peaks close to the measured values (Peak<sub>I</sub>, resp. Peak<sub>II</sub> located at  $4.15 \mu\text{m}$ , resp.  $3.55 \mu\text{m}$ ) (Figure 6a bottom panel). The difference between the experimental and calculated data are induced by the thickness of the VO<sub>2</sub> which must be limited to 50nm in the model (At 100nm, the metallic VO<sub>2</sub> matrix shunt entirely the signal) and by the incomplete reproducibility of the QTP geometry on large area. Nevertheless, the E-field distributions extracted for both peaks suggest plasmonic nature with dipolar characteristics (Figure 6c-d).



**Figure 6:** Localized Surface Plasmon Resonance (LSPR) of Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite. a) Absorbance spectra of nanocomposite at two temperatures (298K and 338K), experimental (top panel) vs theoretical (bottom panel) curves. b) Temperature dependence of the LSPR position measured during a heating/cooling cycle. c-d) Electric field cartography (Finite Difference Time Domain (FDTD)) for the two resonant peaks at:  $\lambda = 4.15 \mu\text{m}$  (Peak<sub>I</sub>) and  $\lambda = 3.55 \mu\text{m}$  (Peak<sub>II</sub>) (model  $FDTD-N_I$ ). The Electric field cartography corresponding to  $FDTD-N_{II}$  is reported in the **Supplementary material (D) - Figure S6**.

At higher temperature (338K) (Figure 6a, top panel), both peaks are red shifted compared to their  $R_T$  counterparts. Figure 6b shows the step-by-step evolution of the LSPR position during heating and cooling which correspond to the VO<sub>2</sub> matrix hysteresis behavior. Experimentally, the maximum modulation amplitude for Peak<sub>I</sub> and II are respectively  $\Delta\lambda = 345 \text{ nm}$  and  $\Delta\lambda = 675 \text{ nm}$  (Figure 6b), remarkable large range, largest than the visible spectrum ( $\sim 400 \text{ nm}$ ).

This strong active LSPR modulation can be induced by a change in the dielectric characteristics of VO<sub>2</sub> during SMT [58] or/and by a VO<sub>2</sub>-QTP coupling phenomenon. There are two possible types of QTP coupling that affect the LSPR peaks position through the near-field and far-field interactions [59]. On one hand, the far-field interaction at the long-range produces a red shift of the LSPR peaks as the distance between QTP increases. On the other hand, near-field interaction at short-range results in a blue shift of the LSPR peaks as the distance between QTP increases. Inside the nanocomposite discussed in this paper, the distance between QTP remains stable and constant and does not affect the coupling. Therefore, the red shift of LSPR peaks originate from the VO<sub>2</sub> component of the nanocomposite. A possible origin of the active wavelength red shift in LSPR peaks during SMT can be induced by the VO<sub>2</sub> transition at specific zones inside the nanocomposite. During heating, a thin shell of metallic VO<sub>2</sub> may be formed around the Au QTP while the rest of the VO<sub>2</sub> remains in the semiconductor-like state. This VO<sub>2</sub> metallic shell can “artificially” increase the size of the “metallic QTP zone”, leading to a red shift of the LSPR peaks (due to long-range plasmon coupling) based on the far-field interaction. And effectively, an increase of the metallic QTP size results in the red shift of the LSPR [60]. This is possible since, in the metallic VO<sub>2</sub>, the Fermi level is located in the t2g( $\pi^*$  orbital) level, which is partially overlapped with the t2g(d//orbital) level. In this configuration, the optical excitations of metallic VO<sub>2</sub> are governed by three interband transitions E<sub>1</sub>, E<sub>2</sub>, and E<sub>3</sub> occurring at around  $\sim 1.22\text{eV}$ ,  $\sim 3.37\text{eV}$ , and  $\sim 5.90\text{eV}$ , respectively [61]. The strain alters the orbital occupancy near the Fermi energy level, and since the E<sub>1</sub> transition corresponds to the optical excitation from the filled t2g(d//) to the empty t2g( $\pi^*$ ) bands, this transition broadly exists in the range 0.5–2eV [62]. Hence, the metallic VO<sub>2</sub> can also support plasmon resonances based on free carriers intraband excitations in the conduction band. This strengthens the hypothesis of a shell of metallic VO<sub>2</sub> increasing the size of the QTP can be the origin of the LSPR red shift through far-field interactions during SMT.

A second FDTD model (*FDTD-N<sub>II</sub>*) is developed to support the hypothesis of resonance peaks red shift and the metallic core-shell structure (**Figure 6a** bottom panel). *FDTD-N<sub>II</sub>* consists of Au QTP (core) enveloped by metallic VO<sub>2</sub> (shell) and embedded in 50nm of a semiconducting VO<sub>2</sub> matrix. The size of the metallic VO<sub>2</sub> shell is taken  $\sim 10\%$  larger (on the x-y directions) than the size of the Au QTP. For confirmation, the size of the pristine Au QTP was post-revealed experimentally by chemically removing the nanocomposite VO<sub>2</sub> component. As for the first model, the *FDTD-N<sub>II</sub>* model points out the presence of two resonance peaks. Both peaks being red shifted from their *FDTD-N<sub>I</sub>* equivalents (Peak<sub>I</sub>  $4.15\mu\text{m} \rightarrow 5.42\mu\text{m}$  and Peak<sub>II</sub>  $3.55\mu\text{m} \rightarrow 4.40\mu\text{m}$ ). The *E*-field distributions extracted from *FDTD-N<sub>II</sub>* model show that the plasmonic dipolar characteristics of both peaks are maintained after the introduction of the metallic VO<sub>2</sub> shell (**Supplementary Material (G)**). The FDTD approaches (*FDTD-N<sub>I</sub>* and *FDTD-N<sub>II</sub>*) show qualitatively that the nanocomposite Au QTP-VO<sub>2</sub> resonances have a plasmonic origin and the red shift during SMT is induced by the formation of an adaptive core-shell structure. The FDTD calculations are made on a limited area ( $4.5 \times 4.5 \mu\text{m}^2$  for *FDTD-N<sub>I</sub>* and  $1.5 \times 1.5 \mu\text{m}^2$  *FDTD-N<sub>II</sub>*) far smaller than the one used in experimental measurements ( $\approx 20 \text{ mm}^2$ ), explaining differences between the calculated and the experimental results. Moreover, some experimental details of the QTP that cannot be exactly captured by the FDTD models, cannot be considered. The experimental absorbance spectra must be thought as the envelop function of the response of multiple regions on which FDTD calculations are made.

### 3.2.3. Experimental investigation of the formation of core-shell structure within the nanocomposite.

To identify structural changes that can support the LSPR peaks red shift during SMT (**Figure 7**), temperature-dependent Raman point measurements are performed on the nanocomposite.

In the VO<sub>2</sub> material, the Raman peaks are attributed to V-V ( $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$ ) and to V-O ( $\omega_0$ ) vibrational modes [63]. Semiconductor VO<sub>2</sub> has the monoclinic M1 and M2 and triclinic T phases [64,65]. The M2 phase is distinguished from the M1 phase mainly by the red shift of the  $\omega_0$  frequency, whereas T demonstrates similar spectral features to the monoclinic ones [57,63]. The vibrations are assigned as follows: at  $575\text{cm}^{-1}$  to T phase,  $614\text{cm}^{-1}$  to M1 phase, and  $640\text{cm}^{-1}$  for M2 phase [63-67]. Special attention is paid to the V–O vibrations to identify the VO<sub>2</sub> phases in the nanocomposite. A fit of the Raman bands using a mix of Lorentz and Gaussian functions is used to identify and assign the Raman modes to the corresponding VO<sub>2</sub> phases. The temperature-dependent Raman signatures of VO<sub>2</sub> of two distinct positions (**Figure 7a**) on the nanocomposite are displayed in **Figure 7b**. The I- and II- zones correspond respectively to the top (close to) of Au QTP and zones free of metallic structures. To simplify, I-zone is associated to the core of the metallic QTP, II-zone is related to the matrix. As the temperature increases from  $R_T$  to 350K, the signatures of M1, M2, and T disappear, giving way to an absence of peak, proof of the rutile, R phase (**Figure 7b**).

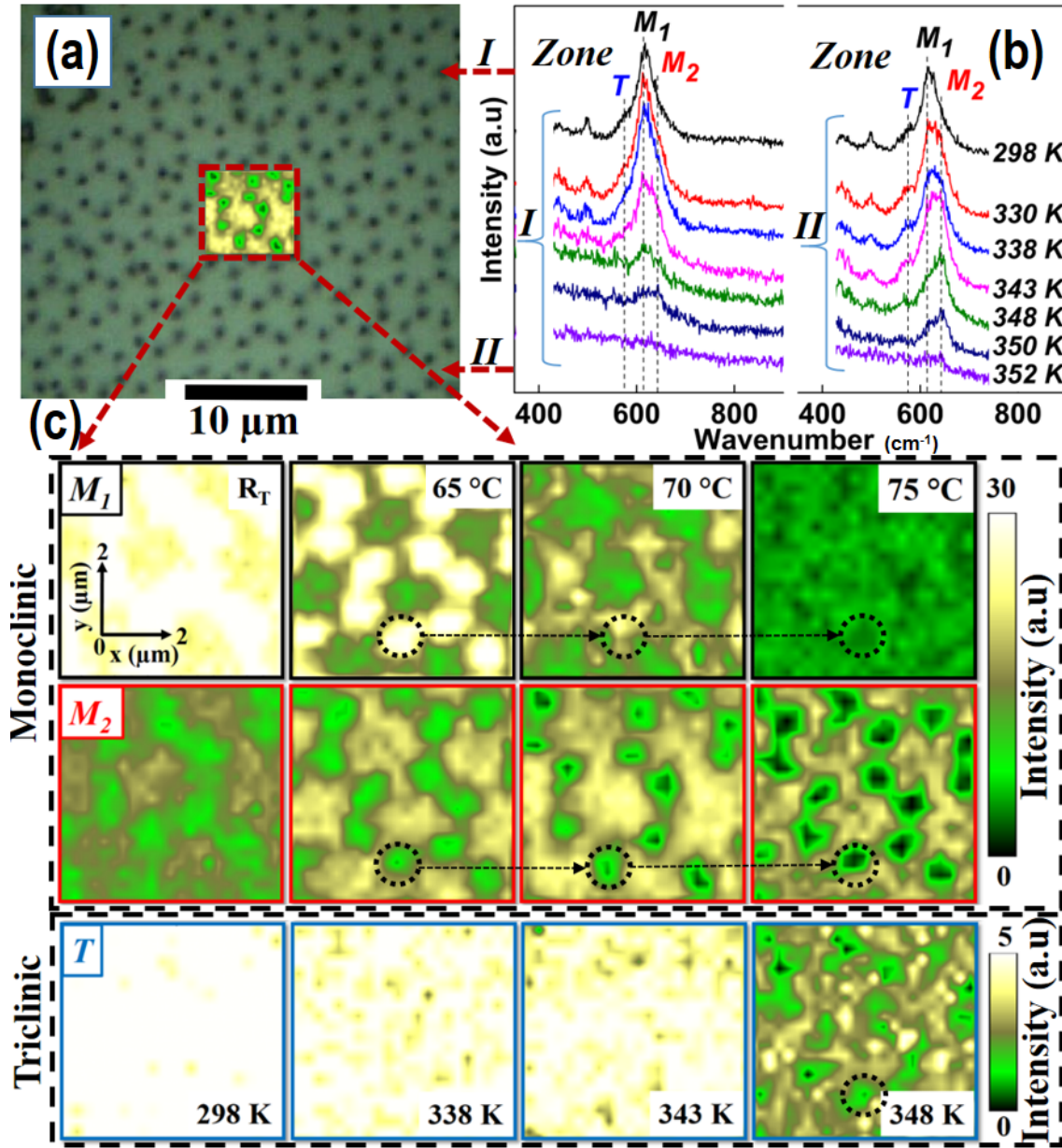
The semiconductor VO<sub>2</sub> in I-zone transforms into the R phase at a lower temperature compared to the II-zone, in good agreement with the core-shell structure suggested by previous investigations. To visualize the spatial 2D (x-y) distribution of the VO<sub>2</sub> phases and the core-shell structure, Raman spectroscopy mapping is performed (**Supplementary Material (H)**) on an area of approximately  $5 \times 5 \mu\text{m}^2$ , as a function of temperature

from  $R_T$  to 350K. The reconstructed Raman maps shown in **Figure 7c** give a spatial repartition of the phases M1, M2 and T.  $A_g$  mode at  $575\text{cm}^{-1}$  of T is less intense than  $A_g$  of M1 and M2 [63,68].

At  $R_T$ ,  $\text{VO}_2$  semiconductor phases, M1, M2 and T are spatially distributed everywhere. The intensity of the M1 is noticeably higher in the I-zone compared to the II-zone (**Figure 7c**). The opposite distribution is observed for the M2 phase. Spatial distribution of the T phase is homogeneous. As the temperature rises (338K), the M2 zone slightly increases (a part of  $\text{VO}_2$  transited from M1 to M2 phase). As the temperature rises more ( $\geq 343\text{K}$ ), the presence of the Rutile phase is identified through the lack of Raman response (metal characteristic). This transition is a gradual process. All the semiconductor phases (M1, M2, T) start to disappear first at the region corresponding to QTP ((**Figure 7c**, regions materialized by circles). Finally, when corroborating the intensities of the M1, M2 and T phases with spatial repartition, the co-existence of  $\text{VO}_2$  semiconductor and metallic structure within  $\text{VO}_2$  material is confirmed.

At a temperature closed to the SMT, the nanocomposite is composed by Gold QTP surrounded by  $\text{VO}_2$  thin metallic layers inside a  $\text{VO}_2$  semi-conductor matrix. This specific structure confirms the red shift LSPR previously observed.





**Figure 7.** Raman spectroscopy measurements of Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite. a) Optical image of the nanocomposite used for the measurements. b) Temperature-dependent Raman point measurements of the nanocomposite (zone I → top and close to the QTP and zone II → space between QTP). c) Nanocomposite Reconstructed Raman maps showing by color contrasts the variation of the intensities of each fitted mode (M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub> and T). The reconstructed maps give a spatial repartition of the M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub> and T phase in relation to the QTP position during a heating cycle.

#### 4. Conclusion

The association of Langmuir-Blodgett and Pulsed laser deposition processes is presented and allows to develop specific nanocomposites formed by micro-quasi-triangular nanoplatelets (QTP) arrays embedded in VO<sub>2</sub> matrix thin films.

Due to the fabrication temperature imposed for VO<sub>2</sub> synthesis (~773K), a necessarily and initial study on the QTP behavior versus temperature is first carried on. This investigation shows that the thermal treatment promotes shape and structure modifications of the metallic sketches. A specific temperature range (723K-823K) is identified where the major's transformations occur. The Au QTP evolve under a solid-state de-wetting process on Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-c substrates. The developed arrays exhibit strong Localized Surface Plasmon Resonance (LSPR) in the Near and Mid InfraRed regime (N/Mid- IR) between ~1.5μm to ~4.5μm adjustable with the continuous modifications of the QTP shape. These experimental results are corroborated by a theoretical Finite-Difference Time-Domain approach (FDTD). Moreover, during the heating process, the Au QTP evolve from systems with a weak crystallographic orientation to perfect crystals through thermal treatment.

As expected, the synthesis of a nanocomposite based on Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> allows the modulation of the LSPR amplitude and wavelength versus temperature in the N/Mid-IR regime, while keeping the optical properties of the VO<sub>2</sub> phase-change material matrix.

During the SMT transition of the VO<sub>2</sub> matrix, between 298K and 338K, the LSPR shift is at around  $\Delta\lambda=675\text{nm}$ . Based on rigorous investigations by FDTD modelling, spectroscopy and local Raman measurements, the origins of this red shift are identified. The nanocomposite resonances have a plasmonic base and the red shift during SMT transition of the matrix is explained by the formation of an adaptive core-shell metallic structure. The core is composed by the gold metal of the QTP, the shell by a thin metallic VO<sub>2</sub>(R-phase) layer starting at their interface, the whole embedded into a VO<sub>2</sub>(M1-phase, M2-phase, T-phase) semiconducting matrix. Indeed, as the temperature rises, a VO<sub>2</sub>(R-phase) shell starts to grow on and close to the Au QTP surface, while the rest of VO<sub>2</sub> follows normal transition pathways. This R-phase shell “increases the total volume” of the metallic QTP and induces the red shift of the wavelength position of the LSPR peaks.

The formation of the VO<sub>2</sub> metallic shell causes the Au-QTP/VO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite to behave like an adaptive periodic metal architecture. This new approach may be further adapted in other Mott-type insulating oxide systems towards implementing Mott-type practical applications for electronic and optics devices.

Moreover, QTP /VO<sub>2</sub> based system appears as ideal candidates readily tunable to specification to enhance the IR modes of specific chemical moieties/compounds for more straightforward sensing and detection. This nanocomposite should be helpful for the sustainable development of applications based on surface-enhanced infrared absorption spectroscopy, for analyzing of exceptionally low quantities of molecules.

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