

Anisotropic optical and magnetic response in self-assembled TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposites



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ABSTRACT

Transition metal nitrides (e.g., TiN) have shown tremendous promise in optical metamaterials for nanophotonic devices due to their plasmonic properties comparable to noble metals and superior high temperature stability. Vertically aligned nanocomposites (VANs) offer a great platform for combining two dissimilar functional materials with a one-step deposition technique toward multifunctionality integration and strong structural/property anisotropy. Here, we report a two-phase nanocomposite design combining ferromagnetic CoFe₂ nanosheets in the plasmonic TiN matrix as a new hybrid plasmonic metamaterial. The hybrid metamaterials exhibit anisotropic optical and magnetic responses, as well as a pronounced magneto-optical coupling response evidenced by Magneto-optic Kerr Effect measurement, owing to the novel vertically aligned structure. This work demonstrates a new TiN-based metamaterial with anisotropic properties and multifunctionality toward light polarization modulation, optical switching, and integrated optics.

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1. Introduction

Optical metamaterials consist of artificially designed nanostructured materials which generate unique optical properties that are not exhibited in natural materials. These novel optical properties, including negative refractive index [1,2], near-zero-index [3], and hyperbolic dispersion [4,5] and originate from the confinement of light propagation in nanostructured materials. Noble metals (e.g., Au and Ag) are widely used in forming nanostructured plasmonic metamaterials due to their strong surface plasmon resonance. However, plasmonic metals exhibit high optical loss in the visible to near-infrared (vis-NIR) region due to interband and intraband transitions [6]. In addition, other challenges in terms of fabrication and integration, as well as permittivity tuning of plasmonic metamaterials, greatly hinder their performances and applications [7]. Therefore, seeking alternative plasmonic materials is necessary to overcome these drawbacks. Transition metal nitrides (e.g., TiN, TaN,

ZrN) are promising candidates for plasmonic applications because of their metallic response in most optical wavelengths and high structural stability. Tailoring stoichiometry in nitrides allows tuning of optical properties easily [8]. Considering the fabrication and integration challenges of metals, transition metal nitrides are compatible with the complementary metal-oxide-semiconductor process and can be easily integrated on various substrates (e.g., MgO, STO, Si, sapphire) [9,10]. Besides, the high mechanical strength and high melting temperature enable them to be promising materials for future high-temperature plasmonic applications [11,12].

With the development of nanofabrication techniques, various nanostructured nitrides have been demonstrated for plasmonic applications, for example, periodic array of TiN nanoparticles [13], nanoantennas [14], nanotrenchs [15], and nanorings [16]. The integration of TiN with dielectric materials (e.g., AlN, MgO) into a multilayer structure has been explored exhibiting hyperbolic dispersion [17,18]. However, most of these TiN-based metamaterials rely on high-cost fabrication techniques, including e-beam lithography and focused ion-beam process. Compared to the

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conventional fabrication methods, a cost-effective self-assembly approach to growing hybrid materials into a vertically aligned nanocomposites (VANs) form has recently attracted tremendous interest. Multiple two-phase nitride-metal nanocomposites [19–21], such as TaN–Au, TiN–Au, and TiN–Ag, have been successfully demonstrated in VANs with enhanced surface plasmon resonance and nonlinear optical responses. Taking advantage of these simple self-assembly VAN platforms, other nitride-based nanostructures can be further derived by additional processes. For example, TiN nanohole arrays have been achieved by selectively etching away the Au nanopillars from TiN–Au VANs [22], and a 3D plasmonic framework is formed by alternating TiN–Au and TaN–Au layers [23]. Most of the prior demonstrations have been focusing on nitride-metal [19–21] or oxide-metal [24–29] systems as hybrid metamaterials.

Another opportunity brought by the designs of VANs is integrating different functionalities in one material system. Functional materials are a large material family with a wide selection of properties, such as plasmonic (e.g., Au [7]), superconductivity (e.g., $\text{YBa}_2\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_{7-\delta}$ [30]), ferromagnetic (e.g., CoFe_2O_4 [31], MnFe_2O_4 [32], CoFe_2 [33]), ferroelectricity (e.g., BaTiO_3 [34]), and multiferroicity (e.g., BiFeO_3 [35]). Multifunctionality, as well as coupling effects, has been demonstrated in oxide-based VANs, such as magneto-electric coupling [36–38] and magneto-optic coupling effects [25,39,40]. On the other hand, most of the previous nitride-based VANs focus on incorporating plasmonic metal nanopillars toward optical tunability. Therefore, incorporating a secondary functional phase into the nitride matrix could enormously broaden the nitride VAN designs with other functionality. However, such nitride-based nanocomposite demonstration is very limited due to the challenges in material design incompatibility and differences in growth parameters required for the different phases.

In this work, we report a new hybrid metamaterial system of TiN-based nanocomposite with ferromagnetic CoFe_2 in the VAN form with strong anisotropic optical and magnetic properties. Here, ferromagnetic CoFe_2 nanopillars were formed by reducing CoFe_2O_4 in the target material during the high vacuum condition required by TiN growth. The TiN– CoFe_2 VANs are expected to exhibit optical and magnetic anisotropy as well as potential magneto-optical (MO) coupling. Laser frequency is varied to be 2 Hz and 10 Hz to effectively tune the dimension of CoFe_2 pillars. This demonstration shows the potential of designing new nitride-based VAN systems with multifunctionalities, property coupling, as well as effective property tunability.

2. Results and discussion

The microstructure of TiN– CoFe_2 nanocomposites thin films was first characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis using θ – 2θ scans as shown in Fig. S1. An out-of-plane of TiN (002) and MgO (002) can be clearly observed in the 2 Hz and 10 Hz deposited samples. The peak at the right side of the substrate MgO peak ($2\theta = 43.254^\circ$) can be identified as CoFe_2 (011). The out-of-plane d-spacing of CoFe_2 (011) was determined by 2.09 Å, which is in 3.5% strain compared to its bulk value 2.02 Å. To reveal the detailed chemical distribution and 2-phase morphology in the system, a scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) analysis along with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) mapping was conducted on the samples in both cross-section and plan-view directions. As shown in the cross-sectional (Fig. 1b) and plan-view (Fig. 1d) STEM images, the two-phase nanocomposites exhibit a nanosheet-in-matrix structure. In the STEM images taken using the high angle annular dark field (HAADF) detector, the contrast is proportional to the atomic number (i.e., $-Z^{1.7}$) [41–43]. Therefore, the brighter nanosheet region is related to the higher

atomic number of Co ($Z = 26$) and Fe ($Z = 27$), compared to TiN (averaged $Z = 14.5$). The EDS maps in Fig. 1e further confirm the formation of ultrathin nanosheets made of Co and Fe, perpendicularly embedded in the TiN matrix. Furthermore, two high-resolution STEM images with higher magnifications from one of the nanosheet regions from the cross-sectional and plan-view images are shown in Fig. 1c and f respectively. Based on the lattices measured and symmetry identified, it determines that the nanosheets in the view area are metallic CoFe_2 with a body-centered-cubic (bcc) structure and a lattice constant of 2.86 Å and furthermore form an epitaxy with the TiN matrix.

Of additional interest is that the “pillars” shape is rectangular in-plane (shown in plan-view images Fig. 1d–f), that is, thin sheet-like nanopillars, which is very different from the circular shape in the previously reported TiN-based VAN structures [20,21,44,45]. To understand the mechanism behind the nanosheet formation, we also investigated the strain states around the nanosheet using geometric phase analysis (GPA) based on a high-resolution STEM (HRSTEM) image. The color maps, ϵ_{yy} (Fig. 1g) and ϵ_{xx} (Fig. 1f), are generated with x direction perpendicular to the plate, and y direction parallel to the plate. The strain maps are calculated with respect to the lattice plane spacings in the TiN matrix, with a displayed strain ranging from -30% to $+30\%$. A high compressive strain exists in the nanosheet area (i.e., white contrast area) in the ϵ_{xx} mapping, but a relatively neutral strain (i.e., green contrast) in the nanosheet area in the ϵ_{yy} . This suggests the higher strain in the x-direction (normal to plate of the pillars) than that in the y-direction (parallel to plate of the pillars). This anisotropic in-plane strain can also explain the anisotropic rectangular shapes of the nanosheets observed which is to minimize the overall strain energy in the entire system, that is, the longer edges present minimal strain (lattice-matched with the TiN matrix), while the shorter edges present large compressive strain to the TiN matrix. The anisotropic in-plane strain can also be confirmed by the intensity line profiles (Fig. S2 b1–b4) extracted from the plan-view HRSTEM image (Fig. 1f). Along the x-direction, the d-spacing of TiN and CoFe_2 phase are 2.12 Å and 1.43 Å separately which corresponds with a relatively large lattice strain of 32%. The lattice strain is relatively small along the y-direction because the two phases have comparable d-spacing (2.12 Å for TiN and 2.02 Å for CoFe_2). The in-plane orientation relationships can be identified as $\text{CoFe}_2[100]/\text{TiN}[200]$ and $\text{CoFe}_2[011]/\text{TiN}[020]$.

To further investigate the chemical compositions of the TiN– CoFe_2 nanocomposites, we conducted X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) depth-profiling measurements by alternately sputtering material off the surface and measuring the freshly exposed surface with XPS. Before any sputtering, the surface shows that Fe, Ti, and Co are mostly in the oxide phase, which is expected for films having been exposed to air. It is interesting to note that, as shown in Fig. S3 c–d, after sputtering off the adventitious carbon and oxygen the metallic CoFe_2 is revealed to be the dominant species. However, it is noted that the small oxygen peaks remain below the top surface of the nanocomposite sample, which suggests the Co–O and Fe–O bonds remain in the nanocomposites. This is likely due to Co and Fe bonding to oxygen atoms at the nanosheet/matrix interfaces. The XPS shows the coexistence of TiO_xNy and TiN peaks in Ti 2p spectra in the matrix, indicating minor oxidation of TiN.

The microstructure tunability was realized by tuning laser frequency from 2 Hz to 10 Hz as shown in Fig. 2b and d. Since the CoFe_2 nanosheets have a rectangular-shape cross area, we analyzed the length distribution of the short edge and long edge respectively and plotted them in Fig. 2c and f. As laser frequency increases, the dimension of CoFe_2 nanosheets decreases significantly. The average dimension of CoFe_2 sheets in the 2 Hz sample is $7.39\text{nm} \times 30.61\text{nm}$,

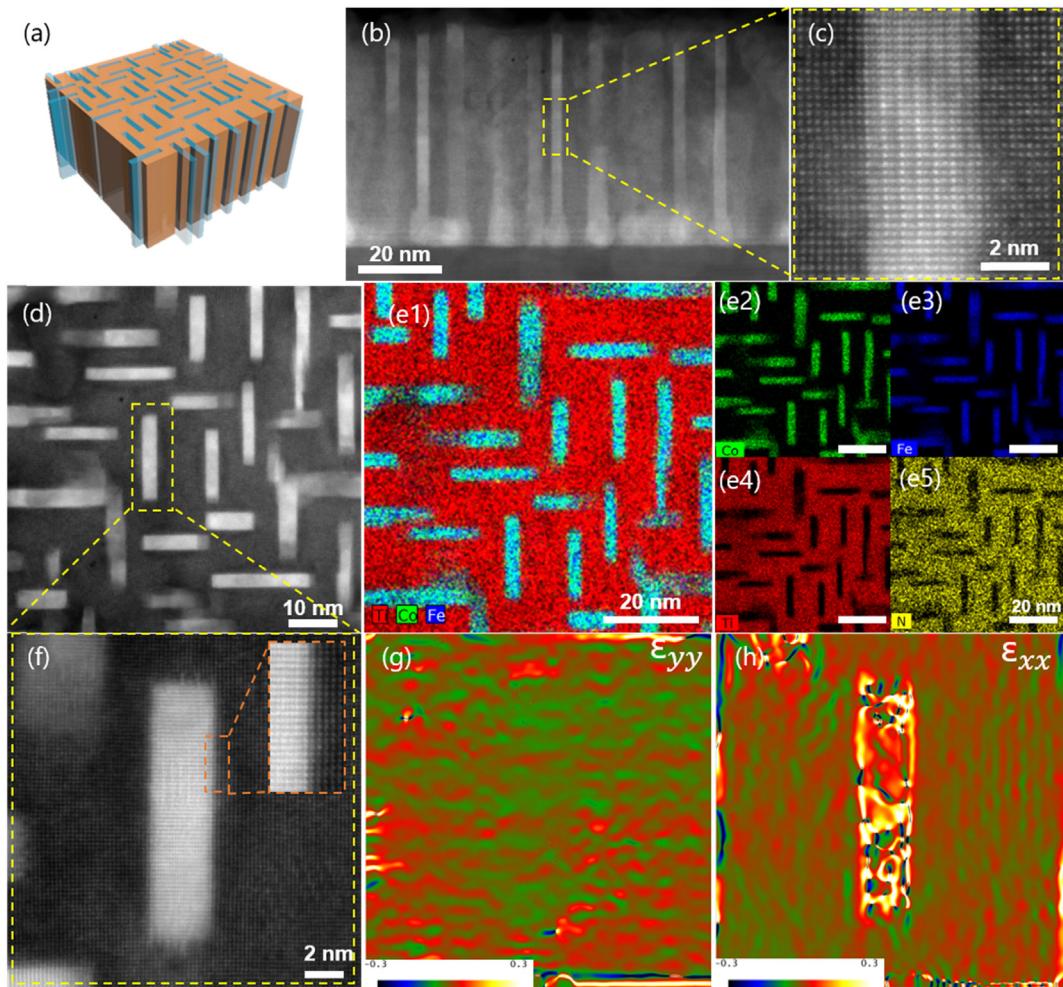


Fig. 1. | Microstructure of TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposite thin film. (a) Schematic drawing of TiN–CoFe₂ microstructure; (b) low magnification and (c) high magnification cross-sectional STEM images; (d) plan-view STEM images with (e) corresponding EDS mapping of Co, Fe, Ti, N; (f) high-resolution STEM images of one nanosheet region with ϵ_{yy} strain mapping (g) and ϵ_{xx} strain mapping (h). Abbreviations: STEM, scanning transmission electron microscopy; EDS, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy.

while it decreases to $3.14\text{nm} \times 16.73\text{nm}$ by increasing the laser frequency to 10 Hz. A detailed analysis of the dimension (e.g., maximum, minimum, and mean values) of CoFe₂ sheets for all the samples can be found in [Supplementary Table S1](#). The tunability in dimension can be explained by the shorter adatoms diffusion time during the deposition process with higher laser frequency. Besides laser frequency, the temperature-dependent study provides another approach to effectively tune the microstructure of TiN–CoFe₂ thin films ([Fig. S4](#)). Clearly, as the temperature increases from 500 °C to 700 °C, the CoFe₂ nanosheet dimensions increase from $1.45\text{nm} \times 4.69\text{nm}$ to $7.39\text{nm} \times 30.61\text{nm}$.

The optical properties of the two-phase TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposites were characterized by spectroscopic ellipsometry. The ellipsometry data ψ and Δ were collected on both 2 Hz and 10 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ films and compared with two reference samples, that is, a pure TiN film and a pure CoFe₂O₄ film. It is noted the reference single phase CoFe₂O₄ film was grown under vacuum condition, which may also have partial reduction and form CoFe₂ phase. To retrieve the dielectric permittivity, the data were fitted by applying general oscillator models. The real part of the dielectric permittivity ([Fig. 3a](#)) confirms pure TiN is metallic ($\epsilon' < 0$) and pure CoFe₂O₄ film is dielectric ($\epsilon' > 0$) for most wavelengths. Due to the anisotropic nature of two-phase VAN films, the permittivity of VAN films is fitted and plotted along out-of-plane (ϵ_{\perp}) in solid lines and in-plane (ϵ_{\parallel}) in dashed lines, respectively. It is clear that the out-of-plane

real permittivity (ϵ_{\perp}) of both 2 Hz and 10 Hz samples is positive but very close to 0 throughout all the measured wavelengths, while in-plane real permittivity (ϵ_{\parallel}) exhibits negative values throughout. The opposite sign in optical permittivity demonstrates a large Type-II hyperbolic dispersion regime (i.e., $\epsilon_{\perp} > 0$ and $\epsilon_{\parallel} < 0$) as the shaded area in [Fig. 3a](#)). Considering the metallic CoFe₂, it is possible that the CoFe₂ phase could also contribute to the overall negative permittivity in-plane. The remaining small amount of oxygen containing phase at the surface and partial oxidation of TiN matrix near interface could both contribute to the overall positive permittivity out-of-plane. Specifically, based on the effective medium theory for a nanowire system, the effective parallel ($\epsilon_{xx,yy}$) and perpendicular (ϵ_{zz}) permittivity values are given by [46]:

$$\epsilon_{xx,yy} = \frac{\epsilon_{TiN}[(1+f)\epsilon_{CF} + (1-f)\epsilon_{TiN}]}{(1+f)\epsilon_{TiN} + (1-f)\epsilon_{CF}}$$

$$\epsilon_{zz} = f\epsilon_{CF} + (1-f)\epsilon_{TiN}$$

where f is the volume fraction of the CoFe₂ (CF) nanosheets in the TiN host, ϵ_{TiN} and ϵ_{CF} are the permittivity of TiN and CoFe₂ phase, respectively. Note that we use the measured permittivity result of TiN film and vacuum growth CoFe₂O₄ (CFO) film (shown in [Fig. 3a](#)) here for this calculation. The calculated effective permittivity is

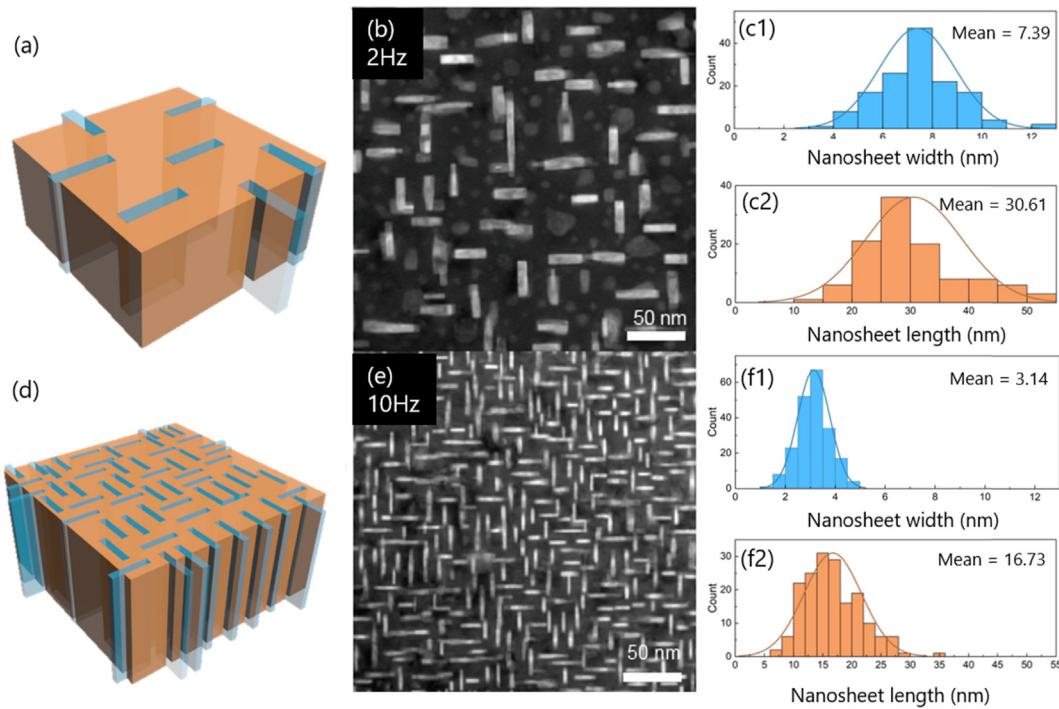


Fig. 2. | Microstructure turnability of TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposite thin films. (a) Schematic drawing of 2 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ VAN; (b) plan-view STEM images of 2 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ VAN; (c) dimension distribution (short edge width and long edge length) of CoFe₂ nanosheets in 2 Hz sample; (d) schematic drawing of 10 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ VAN; (e) plan-view STEM images of 10 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ VAN; (f) dimension distribution of CoFe₂ nanosheets in 10 Hz sample. Abbreviations: STEM, scanning transmission electron microscopy; VAN, vertically aligned nanocomposite.

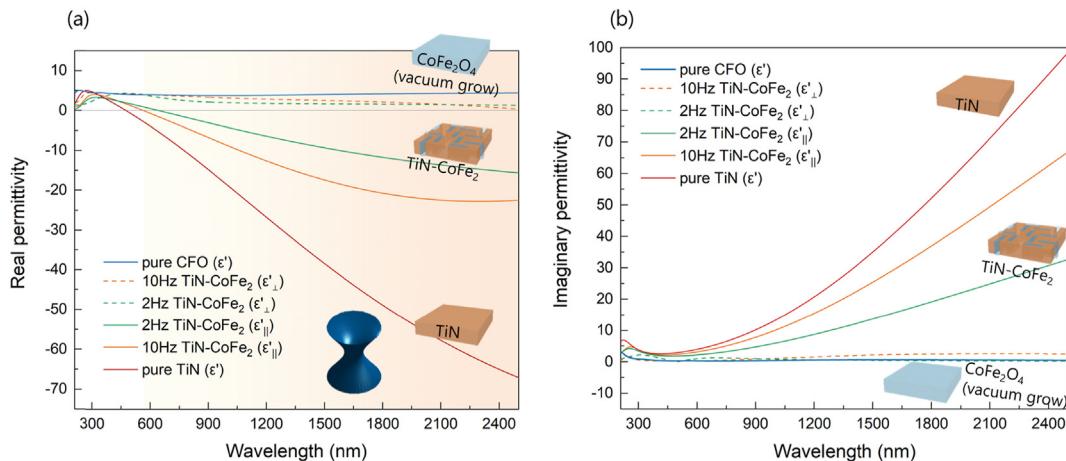


Fig. 3. | Optical properties of TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposite thin films. (a) Real part and (b) imaginary part of permittivity of 2 Hz TiN–CoFe₂, 10 Hz TiN–CoFe₂, pure TiN, and pure CoFe₂O₄ sample.

plotted in Fig. S5. Interestingly, these calculation results show negative ϵ_{zz} for both samples, which doesn't match very well with the experimental results. The calculation results suggest a metallic behavior in both in-plane and out-of-plane direction, while the experimental results show the samples behave like insulators or dielectric out-of-plane. This discrepancy between the experimental and calculation results is mainly attributed to the remaining oxide phase in the sample. As we discussed above, the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) depth-profiling measurements (Fig. S3) show oxygen-related peaks at the surface as well as in the remaining film. This suggests potential oxide phases remaining in the sample, for

example, CoFe₂O_x at the interface between the CF pillars and TiN matrix, which causes the sample to behave less metallic in the perpendicular direction. Note that the 10 Hz sample shows a larger negative value of $\epsilon_{||}'$ compared to the 2 Hz one, suggesting that higher density of the nanopillars and more vertical interfaces present stronger optical anisotropy in the system. Fig. 3b plots the imaginary permittivity as a function of wavelength. Both the 2 Hz and 10 Hz samples show small optical losses along the out-of-plane direction because of their more dielectric nature compared to the TiN alone. To further explore the plasmonic properties of the film, angular-dependent reflectivity measurements have been conducted on

2 Hz and 10 Hz nanocomposite film and compared with pure TiN and pure CoFe₂O₄ samples (Fig. S6). The reflectance spectra of both 2 Hz and 10 Hz nanocomposite samples first reach a minimum at $\lambda \sim 400$ nm then increase as wavelength increases. This observed characteristic of reflectance of the two nanocomposite samples is very similar to that of the pure TiN film with an obvious plasmonic absorption around 400 nm, confirming that our nanocomposite films are plasmonic.

To further study the magnetic behavior of TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposites, magnetization (M) versus magnetic field (H) was measured in in-plane and out-of-plane directions at room temperature using Quantum Design SQUID-VSM. As shown in Fig. 4a, the out-of-plane hysteresis loops of 2 Hz sample exhibits a saturation magnetization $M_{s\perp} = 329$ emu/cm³, and coercivity $H_{c\perp} = 1235$ Oe, while the magnetization and coercivity along in-plane direction are only $M_{s\parallel} = 257$ emu/cm³ and $H_{c\parallel} = 708$ Oe, respectively. The wider out-of-plane loop suggests a strong magnetic anisotropy with an out-of-plane easy axis, which result from the perpendicular elongated shape of CoFe₂(O) nanosheets. The magnetic behavior of 10 Hz sample shows a similar trend, with smaller coercivity $H_{c\perp} = 771$ Oe

and $H_{c\parallel} = 367$ Oe (Fig. 4b). This can be explained by the smaller dimension of CoFe₂ nanosheets. Considering the possibility of coupling effect between plasmonic TiN and ferromagnetic CoFe₂, it is worth to study their MO coupling properties. Magneto-optic Kerr Effect (MOKE) measurements were conducted on both 2 Hz and 10 Hz samples under room temperature and the results are plotted in Fig. 4c–f. Polar MOKE was measured with a normal incident laser ($\lambda = 632.8$ nm) and out-of-plane magnetic field, while a 30° laser and in-plane magnetic field were induced in longitudinal MOKE configuration. Due to the limitation of the equipment, the applied field in P-MOKE configuration is in the range of −3500 Oe to 3500 Oe. Therefore, the measured P-MOKE results are weaker than expected since the magnetic moment is not saturated at 3500 Oe. Perpendicular magnetic anisotropy is observed in both samples, which indicates a MO coupling effect. More specifically, the larger P-MOKE signal compared with L-MOKE arises from those vertical TiN/CoFe₂ interfaces where the coupling occurs. Furthermore, the 10 Hz sample shows a larger Kerr rotation signal compared to the 2 Hz sample, in both out-of-plane and in-plane directions. This can be explained by the enhanced coupling introduced by the higher

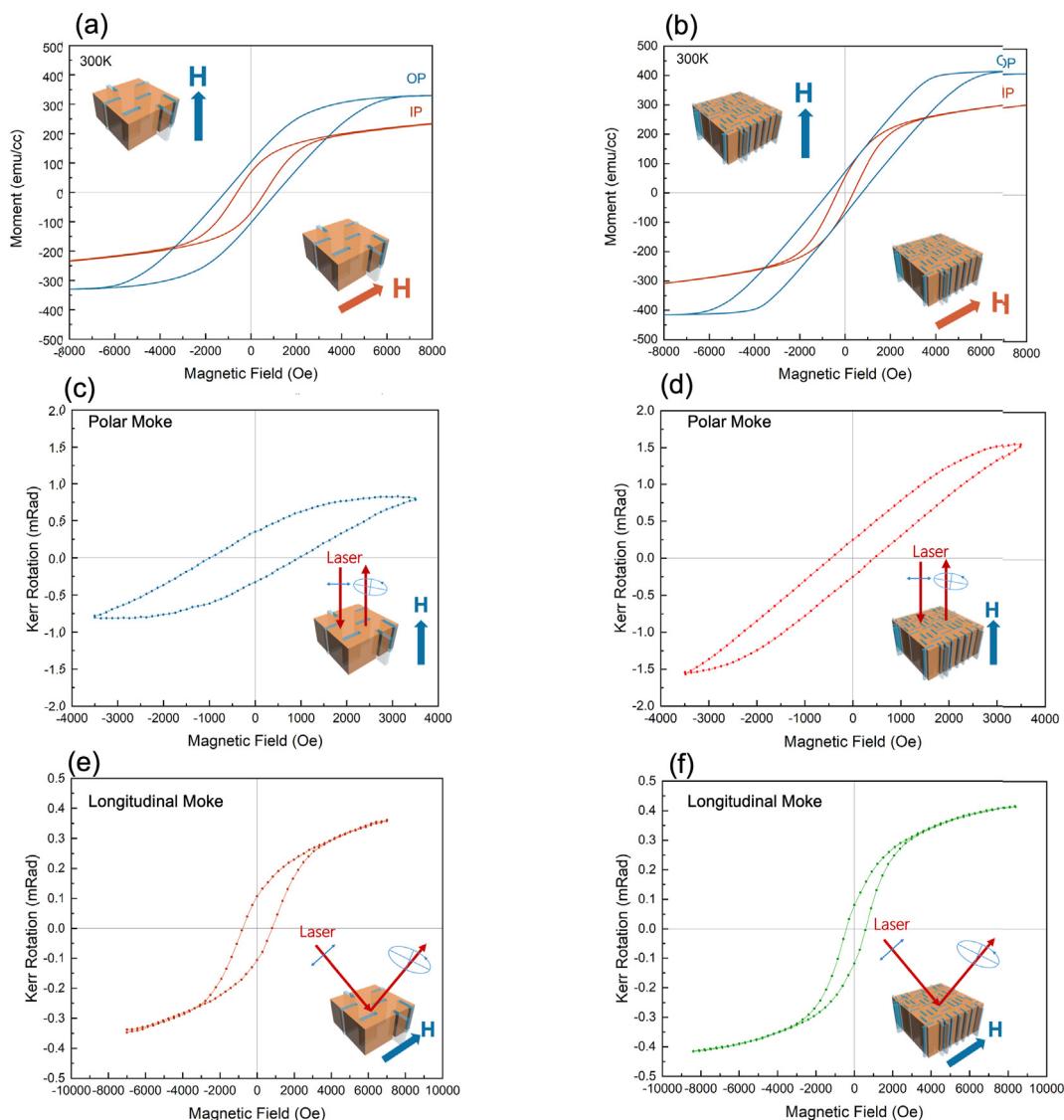


Fig. 4. | Magnetic properties and magneto-optical coupling effect in TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposite thin films. (a) Comparison of in-plane and out-of-plane M – H hysteresis loops of 2 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposites; (b) comparison of in-plane and out-of-plane M – H hysteresis loops of 10 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposites; (c) polar and (e) longitudinal Kerr rotation of 2 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposites; (d) polar and (f) longitudinal Kerr rotation of 10 Hz TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposites.

density of TiN–CoFe₂ interfaces in the 10 Hz sample compared to that in the 2 Hz sample. The MO coupling effect has been demonstrated in other TiN-based VANs, such as TiN–NiO [44] and TiN–Fe [47]. Compared with those systems, the MOKE response in this work is much stronger considering the stronger ferromagnetic response of CoFe₂.

The overall characteristics of the new TiN–CoFe₂ hybrid metamatteal are the anisotropic CoFe₂ nanosheets formed in the TiN matrix, high epitaxial film quality, anisotropic optical and magnetic properties, as well as unique MO coupling properties. Compared to the TiN–Au, TiN–Ag, and TaN–Au systems previously demonstrated [19–21], TiN–CoFe₂ opens up the potential of highly anisotropic metamaterials designs, that is, hyperbolic dispersion and perpendicular magnetic anisotropy, which can further enhance the MO coupling [48,49]. The unique MO coupling demonstrated at the TiN and CoFe₂ interfaces also presents opportunities in future designs of magnetoplasmonic nanostructures toward future light manipulation [50,51]. Most reported magnetoplasmonic nanostructures were fabricated by top-down approaches [49,52,53] including lithography, focused ion-beam milling, or bottom-up approaches [48] for example, template growth, which are tedious. This self-assembled approach allows a simple approach to combine plasmonic and magnetic materials into a nanoscale periodic structure. One of the major challenges is the interdiffusion between the oxide and the nitride in the system and the resultant reduction of the oxide phase. One of the major challenges is the interdiffusion between the oxide and the nitride in the system and the resultant reduction of the oxide phase. Selecting more stable oxides and minimizing interdiffusion by controlling the growth conditions will be critical for future exploration of nitride–oxide hybrid systems. Additional tunability can be achieved by other material combinations, novel three-phase system designs, and multilayer stacks of nitride–oxide VAN with other systems for integrated functionalities.

3. Conclusion

In summary, we have demonstrated self-assembled TiN–CoFe₂ nanocomposite thin films by using the one-step PLD technique. Microstructure characterizations by STEM and XPS show ultrathin nanosheets with metallic CoFe₂ phase growing vertically aligned in the TiN matrix. Both the deposition frequency study (2 Hz, 10 Hz) and temperature-dependent studies suggest effective tunability in the microstructure of the secondary phase as well as the resultant properties. Ellipsometry measurements reveal that the samples exhibit a Type-II hyperbolic dispersion in most optical wavelengths considering the highly anisotropic morphology of the TiN matrix, vertically aligned metallic CoFe₂ nanosheets, and interfacial oxides between the TiN matrix and the CoFe₂ nanosheets. The magnetic hysteresis loops reveal magnetic anisotropy owing to the highly aligned CoFe₂ nanosheets. The well-integrated plasmonic and ferromagnetic materials in the hybrid system enable a strong MO coupling effect at the pillar–matrix interfaces. This new nitride-based hybrid nanostructures demonstrated in this study effectively combine plasmonic nitride and ferromagnetic CoFe₂ toward future magnetic control of optics and potential optical isolation.

4. Methods

4.1. Thin film growth

The TiN–CoFe₂O₄ target consists of pie-shape CoFe₂O₄ and TiN targets. The nanocomposite thin films were deposited on MgO (001) substrates in Neocera pulsed laser deposition chamber with a KrF excimer laser (Lambda Physik Compex Pro 205, $\lambda = 248$ nm). The substrates were heated and maintained at 700 °C during

deposition and a high vacuum condition (2.0×10^{-6} mbar) was kept during deposition and cooling process.

4.2. Structural characterization

4.2.1. X-ray diffraction

The $\theta/2\theta$ XRD scans were measured by a Panalytical X'Pert X-ray diffractometer with a Cu K α 1 radiation source ($\lambda = 0.15406$ nm).

4.3. Transmission electron microscopy

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) (under a high angle annular dark field mode (HAADF)) were taken on a Thermo Fisher Scientific (FEI) Talos F200X system with a point-to-point resolution of 1.6 Å. High-resolution STEM images were collected on an aberration-corrected FEI Titan microscope equipped with a high-brightness Schottky field emission electron source operated at 300 kV. A FEI TitanTM G2 80–200 STEM with a Cs probe corrector and ChemiSTEMTM technology (X-FEGTM and SuperXTM EDS with four windowless silicon drift detectors) operated at 200 kV was used for HAADF-STEM imaging and EDS analysis. A Digital Micrograph plugin (DM 1.8.3 package, HRTEM Research Inc.) was used for geometric phase analysis (GPA). The cross-sectional TEM samples were prepared by a standard procedure, including manual grinding, polishing, dimpling, and a final ion milling step (PIPS 695 precision ion polishing system, Gatan Inc.).

4.3.1. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

XPS was performed using a Kratos Axis Supra XPS system with a monochromatic Al K α X-ray source. An initial spectrum was taken of the surface of every sample before a depth profile for 40 steps was performed with a gas cluster ion sputtering system at 10 keV 1000 clusters for 60 s with an incidence angle of 40° with respect to the horizontal direction. The size of the analyzed area was 110 μ m × 110 μ m, while the sputtered size was 2 mm × 2 mm (rastered). Base pressure during analysis was 1.2×10^{-9} torr and the electron emission angle was at 54.7° with an active charge neutralizer. XPS data were analyzed using CasaXPS software with the Kratos relative sensitivity factors set to F 1s at 1. The O 1s signal at 530.6 eV (MgO) was used as an internal reference for peak positions for all samples.

4.4. Optical characterization

Spectroscopic ellipsometry measurements were carried out with a spectroscopic ellipsometer (J.A. Woollam RC₂) with variable angles (55°, 65°, and 75°) and spectrum range from 210 nm to 2500 nm. The real and imaginary part of permittivity were obtained by fitting ellipsometer parameters psi (Ψ) and Delta(Δ) with Gen-Osc model in CompleteEASE software. Transmittance spectra were measured on UV–vis–NIR absorption spectrophotometer (Perkin Elmer Lambda 1050).

4.5. Magnetic characterization

The magnetic hysteresis loops were measured by a Quantum Design MPMS-3 SQUID Magnetometer with vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) mode. The magneto-optic Kerr effect (MOKE) measurements were carried out by a home-built system equipped with a photoelastic modulator with two polar (P) and longitudinal (L) configurations. A laser with a wavelength of 632 nm was applied as a source light and the magnetic field was in the range of –3500 Oe to 3500 Oe for P-MOKE and –7000 Oe to 7000 Oe for L-MOKE separately.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Jiawei Song: Writing – original draft, Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing – review and editing, Investigation. **Di Zhang:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – review and editing. **Ping Lu:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – review and editing. **Haohan Wang:** Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Writing – review and editing. **Xiaoshan Xu:** Supervision, Writing – review and editing. **Melissa L. Meyerson:** Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Writing – review and editing. **Samantha G. Rosenberg:** Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Writing – review and editing. **Julia Deitz:** Supervision, Writing – review and editing. **Juncheng Liu:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – review and editing. **Xuejing Wang:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – review and editing. **Xinghang Zhang:** Supervision, Writing – review and editing. **Haiyan Wang:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing – review and editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mtnano.2023.100316>.

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