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Scalable, ultra-resistant structural colors based on network metamaterials

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Abstract

Structural colors have drawn wide attention for their potential as a future printing technology for various applications, ranging from biomimetic tissues to adaptive camouflage materials. However, an efficient approach to realize robust colors with a scalable fabrication technique is still lacking, hampering the realization of practical applications with this platform. Here, we develop a new approach based on large-scale network metamaterials that combine dealloyed subwavelength structures at the nanoscale with lossless, ultra-thin dielectric coatings. By using theory and experiments, we show how subwavelength dielectric coatings control a mechanism of resonant light coupling with epsilon-near-zero (ENZ) regions generated in the metallic network, generating the formation of saturated structural colors that cover a wide portion of the spectrum. Ellipsometry measurements support the efficient observation of these colors, even at angles of 70 degrees. The network-like architecture of these nanomaterials allows for high mechanical resistance, which is quantified in a series of nano-scratch tests. With such remarkable properties, these metastructures represent a robust design technology for real-world, large-scale commercial applications.

Keywords: nanophotonics; plasmonics; structural colors

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1 INTRODUCTION

2
3
4 Billions of years ago, green algae originated life, changing the face of the earth from gray to
5 green and paving the way for the life forms we see today ¹. Since then, living organisms
6 have extensively used color for a variety of purposes, ranging from communication to self-
7 defense, from reproduction to camouflage ². The enormous variety of colors, such as the
8 sapphire blue wings of the Morpho butterfly ^{3, 4} and the thermochromic coloration of the
9 chameleon ⁵, has stimulated the interest of researchers dating back to the 17th century, when
10 Hooke theorized about the origin of color in the brilliant feathers of peacocks and ducks ⁶. Many
11 of these colors do not originate from pigments or dyes but are ‘structural’, resulting from the
12 interaction of light with self-assembled structures of living organisms ^{4,7,8}.

13 The engineering of structural colors from artificial photonic structures has attracted
14 conspicuous interest in research due to the many applications that can potentially be opened
15 by this technology ^{5, 9-17}. Structural colors based on photonic crystals and metamaterials have
16 been explored, showing very promising results, including the possibility to create colors at the
17 diffraction limit ¹⁵. A major challenge is overcoming the problems of limited scalability and
18 lack of robustness, which affect the real-world applicability of photonic crystals and classical
19 metamaterials. It is therefore highly desirable to investigate new approaches that can transform
20 these initial breakthroughs into real world applications.

21 In the following, we describe a new biomimetic material that overcomes the
22 aforementioned challenges, introducing a new type of structural coloration that is highly
23 scalable and extremely robust. This nanomaterial takes inspiration from subwavelength
24 nanoscale networks identified in the feathers of *Cotinga maynana*, a South
25 American bird ¹⁸. The non-iridescent blue color of the feathers is produced by an aperiodic
26 nanoporous keratin network with a typical feature size smaller than 200 nm. This lightweight
27 network has extraordinary optical properties that cannot be explained by classical
28 Rayleigh/Mie scattering and are strongly related to the short-range order of the nano-
29 network of the barbs ¹⁹. The interaction of light waves with complex materials has already
30 been reported to have a series of fascinating dynamics, ranging from energy harvesting to
31 ultra-dark nanomaterials and beyond ^{7, 11, 20-27}. Taking inspiration from the *Cotinga maynana*
32 feathers as an example in nature of a network-based optical nanomaterial, we create complex
33 nano-photonic structures that combine a cellular metallic network ^{28, 29} with subwavelength

1 coatings made by lossless dielectrics. This material combination provides significant advantages
2 for real world applications: it is suited for large-scale fabrication and is lightweight and
3 mechanically robust, combining the high yield strength to low density ratio of a cellular
4 metallic network with the resistance to wear that alumina offers³⁰. Optically, the interface of
5 such a metallic nanoscale network and the lossless dielectric can be considered as
6 electromagnetically “weakly” rough and an inhomogeneous mixture of dielectric/metal and
7 dielectric/air regions. In this scenario, the component of the wavevector parallel to the
8 interface is not conserved, resulting in a highly spatially dependent electromagnetic response.
9 Taking advantage of such a complex light-matter interaction, we illustrate here how to create
10 colors with remarkable properties.

13 MATERIALS AND METHODS

16 Sample Preparation and Characterization

18 PtYAl layers of 300 nm thickness were deposited at room temperature by magnetron co-
19 sputtering onto SiN_x/Si substrates that were pre-cleaned using isopropanol and acetone.
20 Subsequently, the films were dealloyed in 4 M NaOH at room temperature for 60 s and then
21 rinsed with deionized water. The morphological analysis of the samples was studied via scanning
22 electron microscopy (SEM) assisted by focused ion beam etching (FIB). The compositional
23 analysis was performed by Rutherford backscattering spectrometry. Detailed information is
24 given in the Supplementary Information. In this work, the Savannah atomic layer deposition
25 (ALD) from Ultratech/Cambridge NanoTech (Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) was used to deposit
26 Al₂O₃ coatings on the dealloyed metal nanowire networks. During the ALD deposition of
27 Al₂O₃, a pulse time of 0.15 s and a purge time of 30 s for both TMA and water were used. The
28 base pressure was 500 mTorr, and the working temperature was 250°C. The growth rate was
29 approximately 0.1 nm per cycle. For creating colored graphic arts, the 60 nm thick Al₂O₃
30 film was deposited via radio frequency (RF) sputtering at room temperature using a sputtering
31 tool (AJA International, Scituate, MA, USA). The electromagnetic reflectance of the coated
32 samples was measured using a variable-angle spectroscopic ellipsometer from J.A. Woollam Co
33 (Lincoln, NE, USA) and a NanoCalc thin film reflectometry setup (Ocean Optics Inc.,

1 Dunedin, FL, USA). The dielectric constant of the Al_2O_3 coating deposited by ALD was
2 determined using a Cauchy model by analyzing a 53 nm thick Al_2O_3 coating deposited on a Si
3 wafer. The scratch tests were performed using an Anton Paar TriTec Nano Scratch Tester
4 (Anton Paar TriTec SA, Peseux, Switzerland).

6 **Finite-Difference Time-Domain (FDTD) simulations.**

7 Numerical simulations were carried out using our parallel code NANOCPP, which is a highly
8 scalable (up to hundreds of thousands CPU) Maxwell equation solver, able to include
9 dispersive materials with arbitrary dispersion curves²⁰. To build a realistic model for our
10 sample, we considered a metallic structure whose profile was extracted from the
11 morphological analysis of the samples (FIB) shown in Fig. 1a. The dispersion parameters
12 of the various materials were taken from direct measurements. Light impinging on the
13 sample was simulated within the Transmitted Field/Scattered Field formulation²⁰, which
14 allows the detailed modelling of plane wave input excitations on the samples.

16 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

19 **Material design and color characterization**

21 We selected dealloying to assemble a nanoscale metallic network with controllable features.
22 This method, first proposed by Raney to synthesize metal catalysts³¹, utilizes the selective
23 dissolution of the less noble constituent of an alloy during wet etching. In our experiments, 300
24 nm thick Pt₁₄Y_{0.06}Al₈₀ thin films were deposited on an amorphous Si₃N₄/Si substrate.
25 While immersing the film in a 4 M aqueous solution of NaOH for 60 s, the less noble Al in the
26 Pt-alloy thin film is subsequently removed, and the remaining metal reorganizes into a
27 network with an open porosity. Characteristic geometrical features of the network can be
28 altered by changing the etching time, the etchant concentration or the initial composition of the
29 thin film³²⁻³⁶.

30 In a second step, the nanomaterial is coated with an ultra-thin layer of Al_2O_3 using ALD. The
31 coating thickness is increased stepwise in a range from 7 to 53 nm. We characterized the
32 growth of the subwavelength Al_2O_3 coatings by Rutherford backscattering spectroscopy and

1 FIB assisted SEM (see Supplementary Information). A three-dimensional image of the
2 Pt₅₆Y₂₆Al₁₈ network, experimentally obtained using FIB thin film tomography, is displayed
3 in Fig. 1a.

4 In a final series of experiments, we characterized the optical response of the network
5 metamaterial for different thicknesses of the dielectric layer Al₂O₃. These experiments
6 unveiled a very interesting mechanism of structural coloration from the nanowire network, as
7 shown in Fig. 1b. By changing the coating thickness, we observed the formation of a multitude
8 of colors spanning from yellow, orange, and red to, finally, blue. The same physical
9 effect with the optical response blue-shifted and smaller color range
10 was observed for a Pt-Al network (see Supplementary Information and
11 Supplementary Fig. S 9). Conversely, when the same coatings were deposited on a dense
12 PtYAl metal thin film, no particular color was produced (see Supplementary Information and
13 Supplementary Fig. S 5). The colors observed in the metallic network were saturated and go
14 even slightly beyond the Red Green Blue (RGB) gamut in the CIE chromaticity diagram (Fig.
15 1c).

16 To illustrate that these colors were consistently observed by varying Al₂O₃ layer thickness,
17 we compared experimental results with theoretical predictions based on Finite Difference
18 Time-Domain (FDTD) simulations. For the latter, we used a 2D section of the FIB
19 tomography of the sample illustrated in Fig. 1a. Our FDTD simulations, shown in Fig. 1c
20 as a dotted line, reproduced the experimental results well, confirming the possibility of
21 achieving such a large variety of colors by tuning the thickness of the Al₂O₃ layer. Figure 1b
22 shows experimental images of samples characterized by different thicknesses of Al₂O₃.
23 Remarkably, despite the existence of the metallic nanoscale network below the Al₂O₃ layer,
24 the samples demonstrated a highly uniform color in all different configurations. A comparison
25 with FDTD calculations is provided in Fig. 1d, which illustrates the color palette that can be
26 observed when the thickness of Al₂O₃ increases.

27 To emphasize that the structural coloration in these nanoplasmonic structures can be achieved
28 by various deposition techniques, we also fabricated a structural colored graphic arts by using
29 physical vapor deposition. Figure 2 depicts an example created by combining a dealloyed
30 network metamaterial with an RF-sputtered 60 nm thick Al₂O₃ coating and photolithography
31 using a Heidelberg μ PG501 optical direct writing system. The bicolored graphic art combines a
32 highly uniform structural color (blue) with a metallic white color (dense film). The material

1 choice for the coating layer is not limited to Al_2O_3 a lossless dielectric. Dielectric coatings with
2 and without losses could, in principle, be used to alter the plasmonic response and finally change
3 the structural coloration. Another approach to altering the color impression, especially its
4 saturation, is to change the number of trapping sites within the network metamaterial, for example,
5 by reducing the metamaterial thickness.

7 **Robustness of structural colors from metamaterial networks**

8
9
10 To quantify the mechanical robustness of these colors, we resort to nano-scratch resistance
11 testing (Fig. 3a), which is an ideal technique to characterize the adhesion failure of coatings. A
12 detailed description of the experimental procedure we used is given in the supplemental
13 material. Figure 3b reports optical micrographs of four representative nano-scratch tests. The
14 wear resistance of a dense PtYAl film with and without a 28 nm thick Al_2O_3 coating is
15 compared to a porous nanoscale Pt network coated with 28 nm and 53 nm of Al_2O_3 ,
16 respectively. The critical load causing delamination of the coated network metamaterial is
17 almost 2 times higher than the corresponding dense metallic film (Fig. 2b) and 20% higher
18 than the dense metallic film coated with 28 nm thick Al_2O_3 . Considering the 53% porosity in
19 the nanoscale network, the observed increase in wear resistance is remarkable and indicates an
20 enhanced strength-to-density ratio³⁷ corresponding to a significant reduction of overall weight
21 of the coating. Figure 4 illustrates s-polarized reflectivity spectra at normal (Fig. 4a) and
22 oblique (Fig. 4b-e) incidence for different alumina coating thickness. Figure 4a demonstrates
23 that the formation of colors originates from a large red shift of the reflectivity response of the
24 nanomaterial, observed when the Al_2O_3 layer changes thickness. The corresponding FDTD
25 results are reported in Fig. 4f. FDTD simulations quantitatively reproduce well the
26 experimental results, confirming the principal role of the Al_2O_3 coating layer in red-shifting the
27 spectral response of the material. A small variation of only 30 nm in the Al_2O_3 thickness shifts
28 the reflectivity minimum of approximately 350 nm. Reflectivity spectra of the material are
29 stable and do not show significant variations up to incident angles of 70° , which still provide
30 reflectivity minima as low as $< 1\%$ (Fig. 4b-e). The mean angular dispersion of the reflectance
31 minimum has been determined from the reflectance spectra obtained by ellipsometry. The
32 mean angular dispersion is independent of the coating thickness and the reflectance minimum blue

1 shifts with $-1.0 \pm 0.3 \text{ nm}/^\circ$. These experiments show that the structural colors observed in Fig. 1
2 are non-iridescent, that is, robust against large changes of the incident angle.

5 **Structural coloration from localized surface states in complex epsilon-near-zero (ENZ)** 6 **materials**

7
8
9 In this section, we analyze in more detail the mechanisms by which structural colors are
10 created and observed in the metallic network of Fig. 1. When polychromatic light impinges on
11 the structure of Fig. 1a, the interaction between light and matter generates surface plasmon
12 polaritons (SPP)³⁸, which are surface waves localized at the metal-dielectric interface of the
13 structure⁷. In our samples (Fig. 5a), the motion of SPP develops along complex trajectories in
14 space due to a strongly disordered metallic profile, (Fig. 5a, inset). It is convenient to study
15 this motion in a new curvilinear system, whose axes are parallel to the spatial trajectories of
16 SPP. To this extent, we introduce a new set of coordinates, (ψ, φ) , which are conformal to
17 the disordered surface of the metal. Figure 5a shows how these coordinates appear in the
18 original space, (x, y) , whereas Fig. 5b shows how the original structure appears in the space
19 (ψ, φ) , which we identify as the ‘plasmonic reference.’ In the plasmonic reference, the
20 motion of the surface plasmons is extremely simple and composed of straight lines at $\psi = 0$
21 (Fig. 5b, inset). When we change spatial coordinates in any electromagnetic system,
22 Maxwell equations remain invariant if we introduce an inhomogeneous refractive index
23 distribution that makes the two reference systems equivalent^{39, 40}. The pseudocolor plot in Fig.
24 5b shows the spatial distribution of the inhomogeneous index, $n(\psi, \varphi)$, computed by using
25 transformation optics (see Supplementary Information). The index, $n(\psi, \varphi)$, is
26 associated with the coordinate transformation introduced in Fig. 5b and acts as a counterpart
27 of the metallic geometry of Fig. 5a, which does not exist in Fig. 5b, as the metal surface is
28 flattened out. The two structures of Fig. 5a and Fig. 5b are exactly equivalent: when light
29 propagates in one or another, it follows the same dynamics. This is an exact result of Maxwell
30 equations that contains no approximation. This result also implies that when light impinges on
31 the structure of Fig. 5a, it happens to propagate in the medium of Fig. 5b. The calculation of a
32 conformal grid for the disordered surface of Fig. 5a requires a new formulation of optical

1 conformal mapping, which we recently developed, and allows for the generation of conformal
2 grids for arbitrary structures with arbitrary-large numerical precision. This approach is
3 relatively involved, and it will be discussed in a future work.

4 The plasmonic reference of Fig. 5b illustrates in clear form the effects of disorder, which
5 introduce a strong modulation of the refractive index in the proximity of the metallic surface
6 at $\psi = 0$, generating a network of epsilon-near-zero (ENZ) regions, separated by areas of
7 high refractive index (Fig. 5b). As observed in the insets of Fig. 5a and Fig. 5b (dashed lines),
8 ENZ regions are created in the points where the metallic surface is convex, whereas high
9 dielectric permittivities originate in the points where the surface is concave. When waves
10 propagate into an ENZ material, the phase velocity diverges, thus creating standing waves
11 with infinite wavelengths⁴¹⁻⁴³. When SPP waves propagate in the nanowire network of Fig.
12 5a, they ‘see’ the equivalent medium illustrated in Fig. 5b and become trapped in the ENZ
13 regions, thereby generating a set of quasi-localized states. We illustrated these dynamics by a
14 series of FDTD simulations. Figure 6a presents a magnified version of Fig. 4a, showing
15 FDTD-calculated reflectivity spectra for different thicknesses of the Al₂O₃ layer. FDTD
16 results corresponding to different combinations of alumina thicknesses and input wavelengths
17 are summarized in Figs. 6b-l. When light impinges on the disordered metallic structure (Fig.
18 6b), some energy is scattered back, generating components along all directions in space,
19 whereas the remainder is coupled into SPP waves. As illustrated in Figs. 6c-e, which show
20 FDTD-calculated electromagnetic energy density distributions, SPP waves are completely
21 localized in the proximity of different convex points of the surface, exactly where the ENZ
22 regions are formed. FDTD simulations show that different wavelengths are trapped in
23 different ENZ regions of the metal, demonstrating that the ENZ network formed in Fig. 5b
24 does not possess a particular length scale and that it traps equivalently all input wavelengths.
25 The absence of a characteristic scale is expected from the strongly disordered surface
26 modulation of the sample, which possesses an abundant variety of different curvatures (Fig. 5a)
27 and therefore of ENZ regions with different extensions (Fig. 5b). The combinations of all of these
28 ENZ regions traps polychromatic light very efficiently, as observed from the flat reflectivity
29 response of Fig. 6a (solid green line). To further characterize the energy propagation in the
30 structure, we also plotted the flow of electromagnetic energy in the structure, computed from the
31 Poynting vector of the electromagnetic field (Fig. 6f). This is represented with a specific line
32 integral convolution (LIC) technique, which clearly visualizes the energy flow, characterized by
33 complex patterns with a nontrivial vorticity.

1 When we deposited a small layer of Al₂O₃ on top of the metal, the scattering dynamics
 2 changed abruptly (Fig. 6g). In this situation, a portion of scattered wavevectors were reflected
 3 inside the alumina layer, thus generating a series of additional scattering events in the Al₂O₃.

4 Wavevectors propagating at an angle, θ , (see Fig. 6g) larger than the critical angle,

5 $\theta_c = \arcsin\left(\frac{n_{AIR}}{n_{Al_2O_3}}\right)$, formed by the interface of air and alumina were totally reflected back and

6 do not radiate energy outside the alumina, surviving the dynamics for many scattering
 7 events. These components existed at any given thickness of alumina, as the critical angle depends
 8 only on the difference in the refractive index between alumina and air. Reflected wavevectors
 9 create a flow of energy in the layer of Al₂O₃, inducing a preferential localization of SPP
 10 inside ENZ regions that exists within the film of Al₂O₃. This process is clearly illustrated in
 11 Figs. 6h-i, which show the presence of a resonant coupling around the wavelength of 425 nm
 12 (Fig. 6l). Resonant light localization in ENZ regions within the alumina layer is observed in
 13 Fig. 6i, which demonstrates light trapping at the wavelength of 425 nm at different points of
 14 convex metallic curvature located inside the Al₂O₃. Figure 6h-i and
 15 supplementary Fig. S7 show electromagnetic energy
 16 distributions calculated from the resonance, demonstrating
 17 that outside the reflectivity minimum located around the
 18 wavelength of 450 nm, no surface localization is formed, and no energy is
 19 trapped in the alumina layer. Figure 6m presents LIC images of the Poynting flux clearly
 20 showing the flux of energy originated inside the Al₂O₃, from the light backscattered from the
 21 random metallic surface of the sample. By using arguments from wave theory and scale
 22 invariance of Maxwell equations (see Supplementary Information), we obtained a simple
 23 relationship for the wavelength shift, $\Delta\lambda(\Delta d)$, as a function of the thickness variation of
 24 alumina, $\Delta\lambda$,

$$\Delta\lambda = \frac{\lambda_0}{d_0} \Delta d, \quad (1)$$

25 where λ_0 is the wavelength of a reflectivity minimum corresponding to a coating thickness, d_0 .
 26 Figure 6n compares experimental measures with the results of Eq. (1). By applying
 27 experimental values for both λ_0 and d_0 , we obtained a coefficient $\lambda_0/d_0 \cong 12$, which implies a
 28 wavelength shift of 12 nm for every 1 nm increment of coating thickness. The results of Eq.
 29 (1) show a good agreement with experimental results, predicting the large red shift that is

1 the basis of the structural colors formed in the system.

4 CONCLUSIONS

5
6 We have experimentally demonstrated a new design concept to create robust and
7 saturated structural colors in metasurfaces composed of metallic nanowire networks with
8 ultra-thin, lossless dielectric coatings. Using a combination of analytical and numerical
9 techniques, we illustrated that these colors are the result of the resonant coupling of light
10 with surface plasmons that are localized in equivalent epsilon-near-zero regions formed in the
11 metallic network. This mechanism is not constrained for large angles as high as 70° , allowing
12 for efficient trapping of light over a broad wavelength range in the visible region. The
13 combination of mechanical robustness and color saturation in an extremely lightweight
14 structure makes these structural colors suitable for real world industrial applications, such as
15 automotive vehicles or airplanes, for which the weight is directly related to the fuel economy.
16 As discussed in the introduction, achieving a scalable fabrication is a key problem in structural
17 color printing. On the basis of our experiments, it is evident that our metasurfaces have
18 shown a wide color capability without the need for electron beam lithography (EBL) or other
19 complex fabrication procedures. Our structures, in fact, are based on simple wet-chemistry and
20 coating technologies, which can produce robust colors on large spatial scales. In addition to
21 such fundamental advances, our design concept has the potential to enrich the application of
22 metasurfaces to areas in which large active regions are mandatory, such as efficient light
23 trapping layers in photovoltaic cells. Although a deeper discussion of this topic is beyond the
24 scope of this paper, we can introduce some important points. On the basis of our theory and
25 experiments, we demonstrated that it is possible to control the response of an optical material
26 by ‘engineering’ the connectivity of a network of ENZ nanostructures created in a random
27 metallic structure. From the results of Fig. 6, we observed that this approach allows for
28 strong localization of optical radiation in nanoscale regions located well outside the metal,
29 completely absorbing incoming optical photons in a specific bandwidth (Fig. 6l-m). This
30 approach can potentially enhance the absorption power of ultra-thin absorbers, which can
31 take advantage of the formation of localized spots and harvest a significant portion of light
32 energy in nm-thick film structures. The current photovoltaic technology employs Si absorbers
33 of approximately $100\ \mu\text{m}$ thickness, whereas other solution-processed materials with high

1 manufacturability and low cost, such as quantum dots, require film thickness larger than 1
2 μm to efficiently absorb all incoming photons. Our metastructures can considerably scale down
3 these thicknesses, stimulating new research aimed at developing innovative materials for
4 renewable energy harvesting.

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8
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20 Schindler Foundation (Switzerland).

24 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

25
26
27 **Fig. 1. Observation of structural colors in random metallic networks with**
28 **subwavelength dielectric coatings. (a)** Schematic illustration of an Al_2O_3 coated PtYAl
29 nanomaterial, based on a 3D reconstruction of a completely dealloyed PtYAl thin film
30 obtained via FIB assisted thin film tomography. **(b)** Photographs of deposited, dealloyed, and
31 Al_2O_3 coated PtYAl metamaterial networks, illustrating the formation of vibrant colors and the
32 continuous color change with increasing coating thickness. The photographs were taken under
33 illumination from ceiling lights. Each image is $2 \times 2 \text{ mm}^2$. **(c)** Experimental and FDTD
34 simulated structural color reported in a standard CIE 1931 (x, y) space, depicting the

1 chromaticity visible to the average person. The RGB color space is marked by the triangle
 2 area. The chromaticity is calculated directly from reflectance spectra obtained either
 3 experimentally (circles markers) or by FDTD simulations (dashed line). The edges of the
 4 tongue-shaped plane correspond to color values of maximal saturation. d, Color palette
 5 calculated by FDTD simulations for increasing thickness of Al_2O_3 .

6
 7 **Fig. 2. Examples of different graphic arts designs with structural colors from**
 8 **metamaterial networks.** Photograph and optical micrograph of a colored graphic art
 9 designed by combining a RF-sputtered Al_2O_3 coated network metamaterial and photolithography.
 10 The inset shows an optical micrograph illustrating a detail of the graphic art and the
 11 uniformity of the color.

12
 13 **Fig. 3. Wear properties of the structural colors.** (a) Schematic illustration of the basic
 14 principle of the scratch testing technique. A diamond stylus is used to scratch the film with
 15 progressively increasing load. (b) Optical micrographs of progressive load scratches (0.4–15
 16 mN) on a dense PtYAl thin film with and without coating, and PtYAl nanoscale networks
 17 coated with 28 and 53 nm thick Al_2O_3 , respectively. The critical load characterizing the
 18 adhesion failure of the films is indicated by a pink arrow.

19
 20 **Fig. 4. Optical properties of the network metamaterials: reflectivity spectra.** (a)
 21 Experimental normal incidence reflectance spectra as a function of the Al_2O_3 coating thickness,
 22 d . (b-e) Experimental reflectance spectra of nanoporous PtYAl thin films coated with 18 nm,
 23 28 nm, 45 nm, and 53 nm Al_2O_3 , respectively, as a function of the incidence angle (20° – 85°).
 24 The value of reflectance is indicated by the color bar. (f) FDTD-calculated normal incidence
 25 reflectance spectra as function of the Al_2O_3 coating thickness, d .

26
 27 **Fig. 5. Generation of an equivalent ENZ material in the metallic nanowire network of**
 28 **Fig. 1a.** (a) 2D cross section profile of the metallic nanowire network, as obtained from
 29 experimental FIB images of polished samples (Fig. 1a). When light impinges on this structure,
 30 it excites the propagation of surface plasmon polariton waves (SPP), which move along the
 31 complex surface of the metal (Panel a, inset). This motion is conveniently described in a

1 curvilinear reference (φ, ψ) , which provides a conformal map of the metallic surface of the
 2 sample (solid red line). In the transformed space, (φ, ψ) (panel b), SPP waves appear to
 3 propagate inside an inhomogeneous material with refractive index, $n(\varphi, \psi)$, on the line at
 4 $\psi=0$ (c, inset). The material, $n(\varphi, \psi)$, models the effects of the metallic geometry of
 5 panel (a), which is flattened out in transformed space, (φ, ψ) . The two systems of panels (a-b)
 6 are exactly the same for light propagation. The equivalent structure of (b) demonstrates a
 7 complex network of ENZ structures (panel b, dark blue area), which are created by points of
 8 convex metallic curvature (right inset).

10 **Fig. 6. Mechanisms of structural color formation in the PtYAl cellular network.** (a)
 11 Normal incidence reflectance spectra obtained from FDTD simulations of the nanoscale Pt
 12 network of Fig. 1a with different thickness of Al_2O_3 . Panels (b-f) analyze the case with no
 13 Al_2O_3 deposited on top of the metal, while panels (g-m) summarize the results for an Al_2O_3
 14 layer of 33 nm. Panels (b,g) provide a pictorial illustration of light-matter interactions with
 15 the sample, without (b) and with (g) Al_2O_3 . In the presence of Al_2O_3 , a portion of scattered
 16 waves are reflected back in the Al_2O_3 layer, thus creating an energy flow in the coating layer
 17 and a resonant coupling with ENZ regions located in the Al_2O_3 . Panels (c-e) and (h-l) present
 18 FDTD-calculated spatial energy distributions in the structure by considering an input
 19 wavelength indicated by the corresponding letter in panel (a). Energy distributions are
 20 averaged over one optical cycle at steady state. Panel (f,m), conversely, provides a zoomed
 21 view of the pink area of panel (e,l) and illustrates the electromagnetic energy flow in the
 22 structure (arrow colored lines). The flow is superimposed with the corresponding averaged
 23 spatial energy distribution. Panel (n), finally, compares the reflectivity minimum shift observed
 24 in experiments (Fig. 4) with theoretical predictions based on the model illustrated in panel (g).

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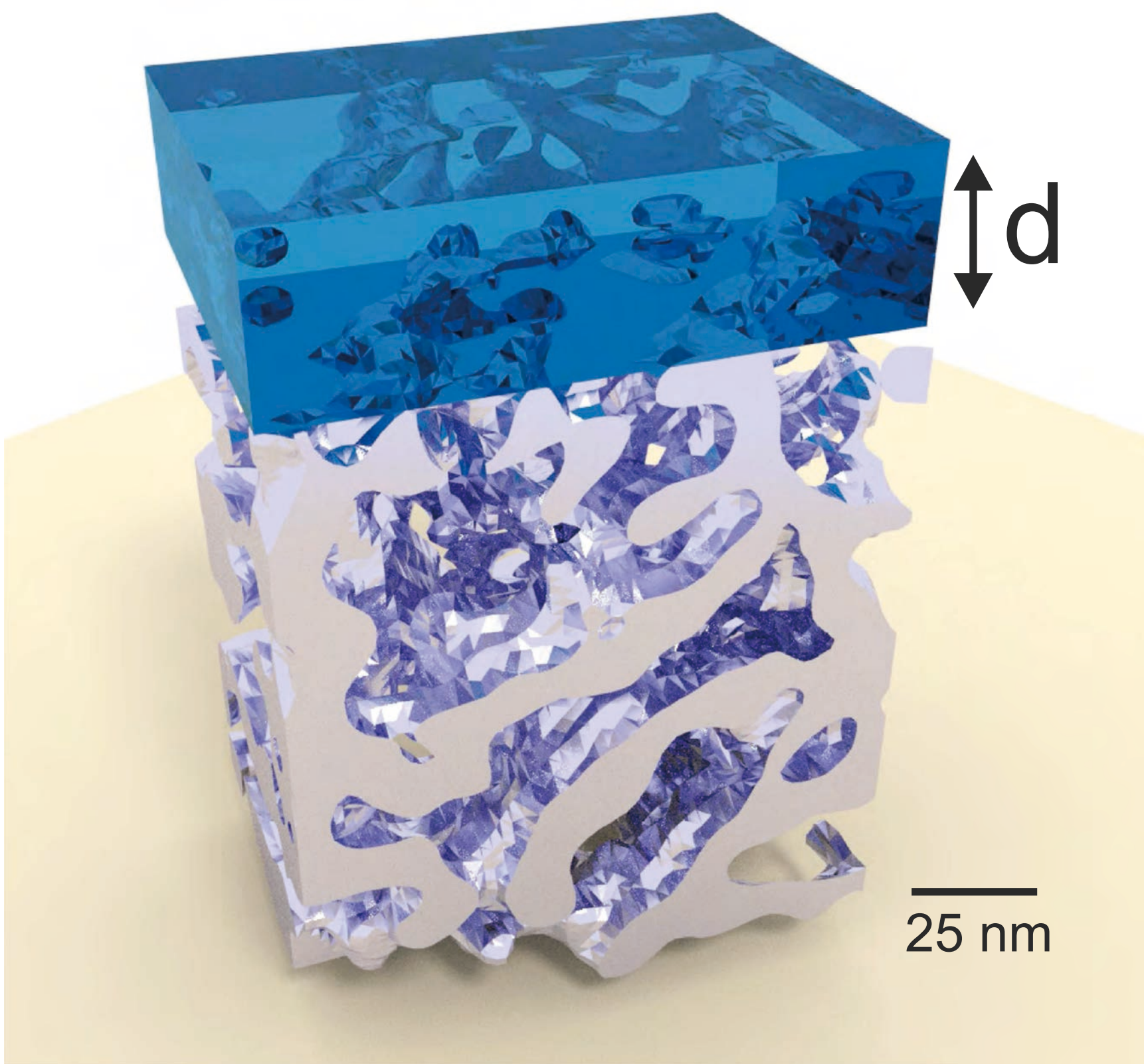
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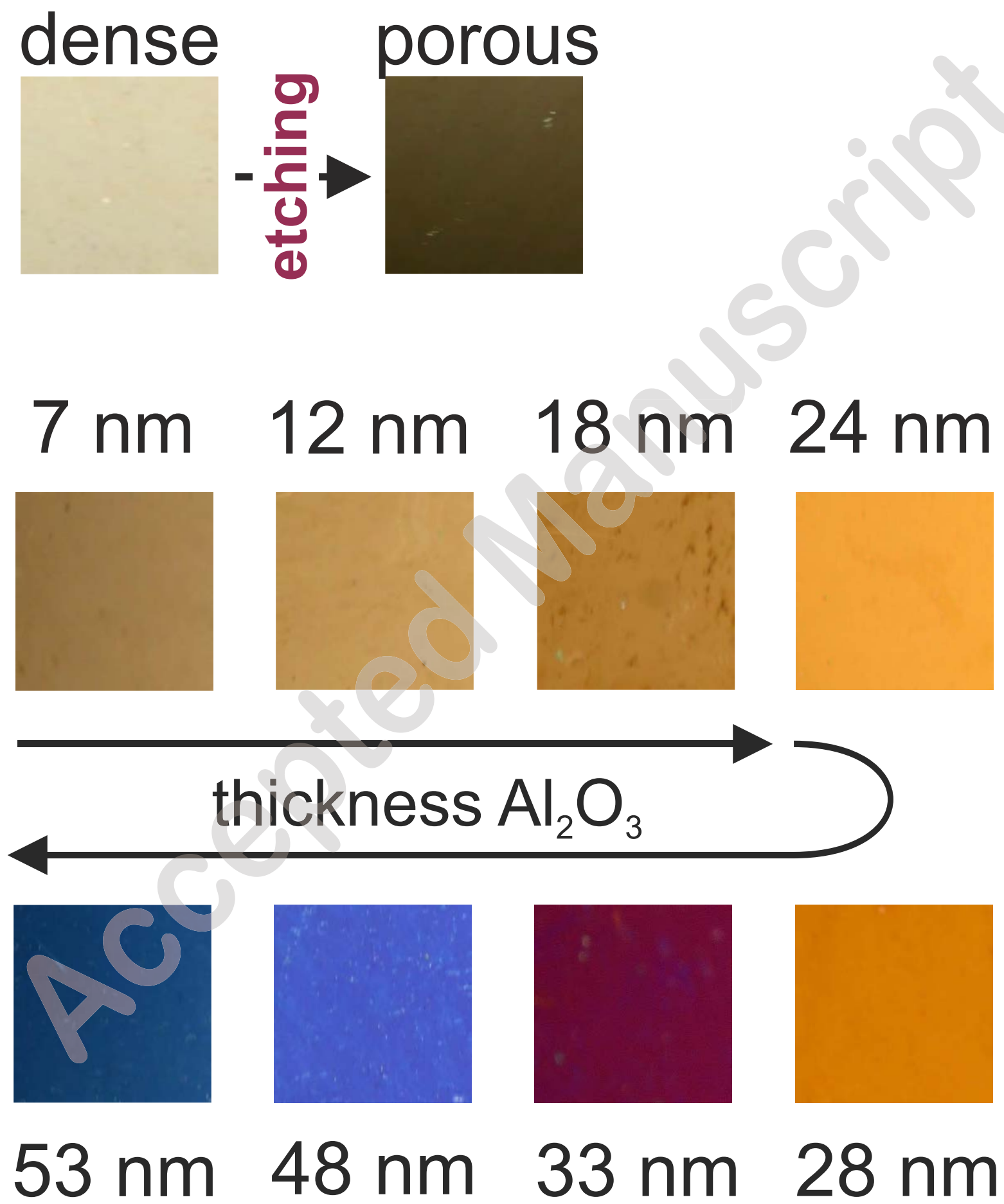
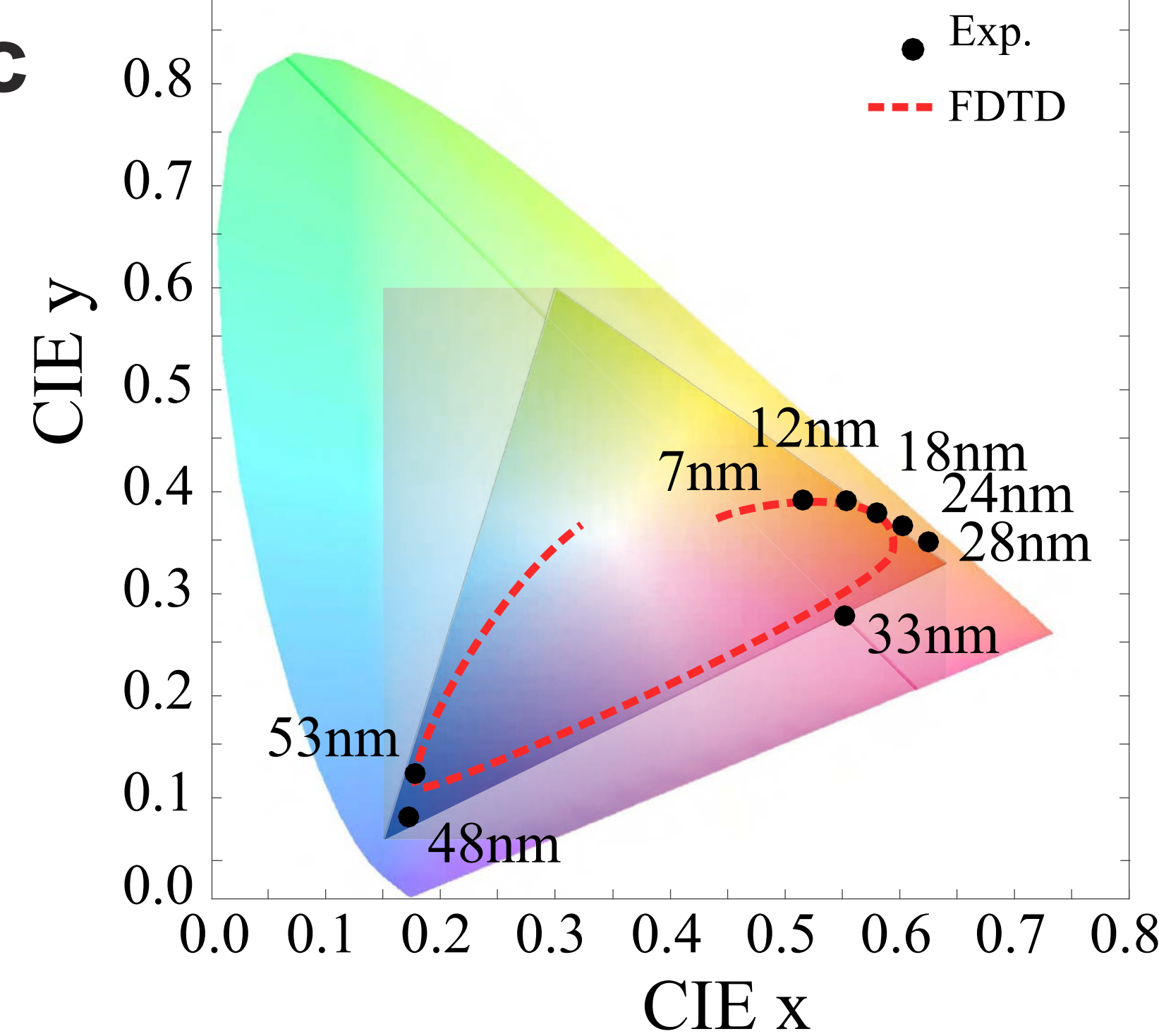
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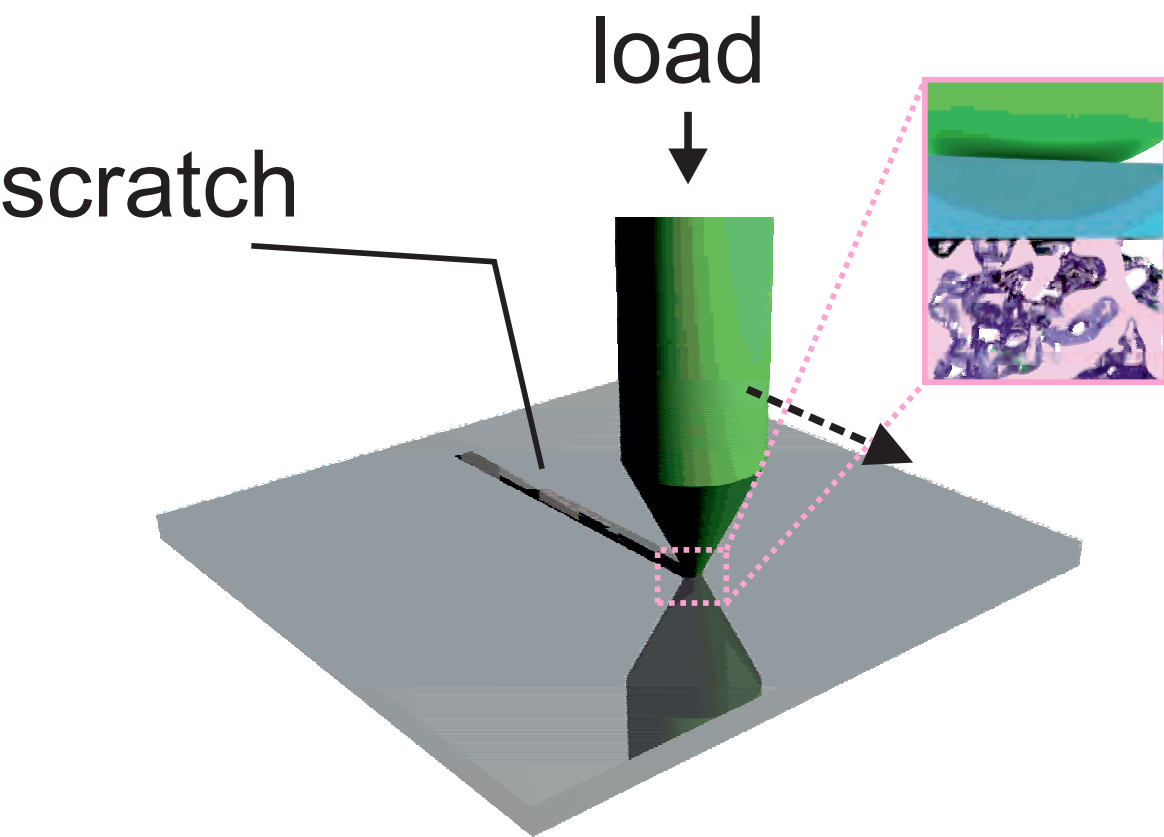
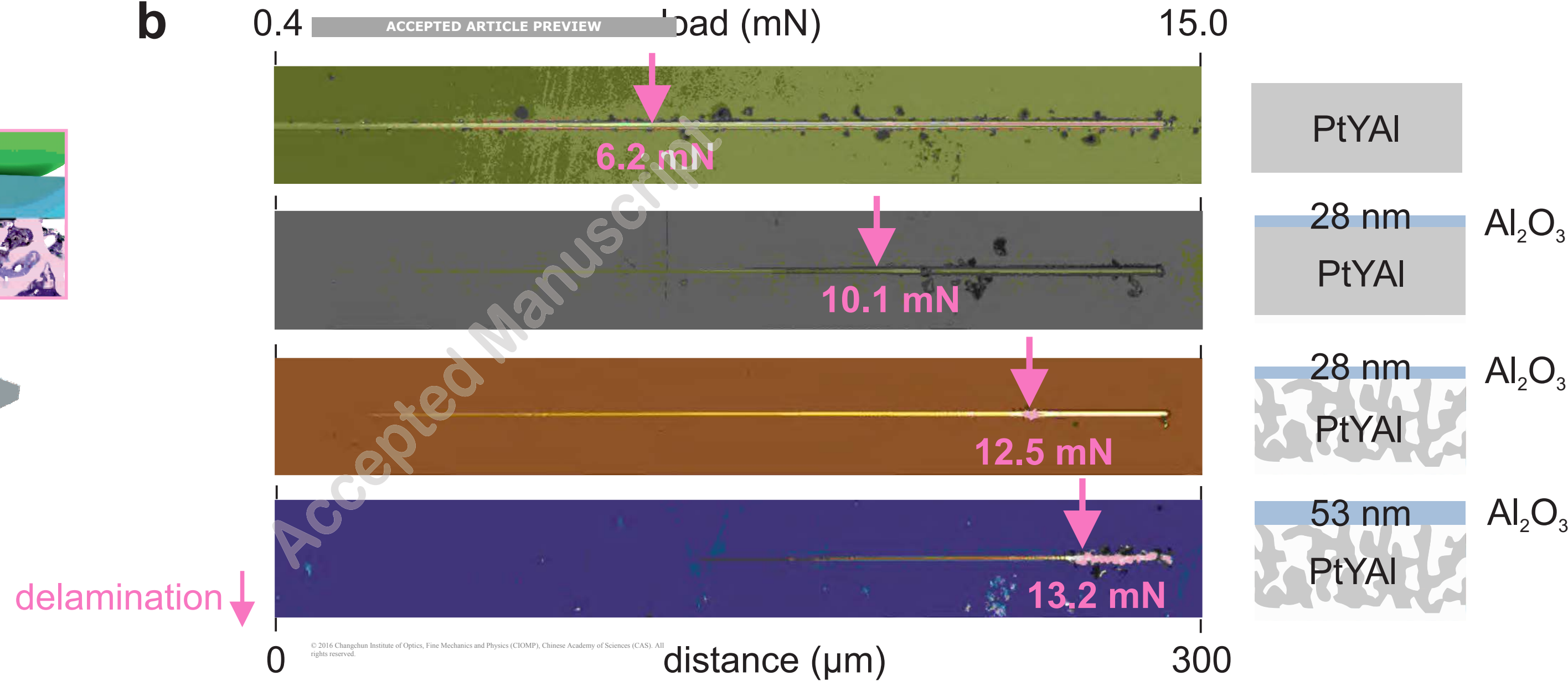
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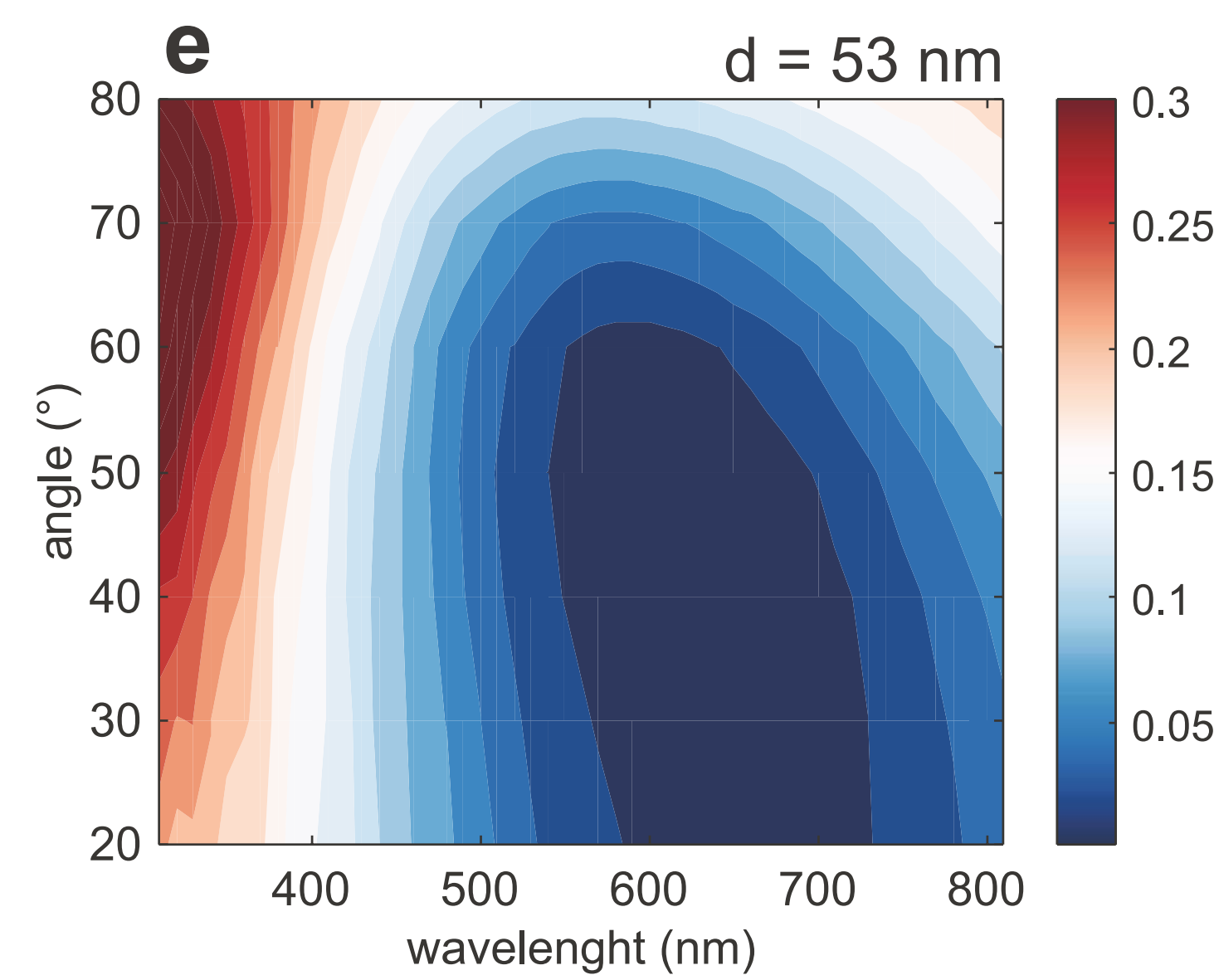
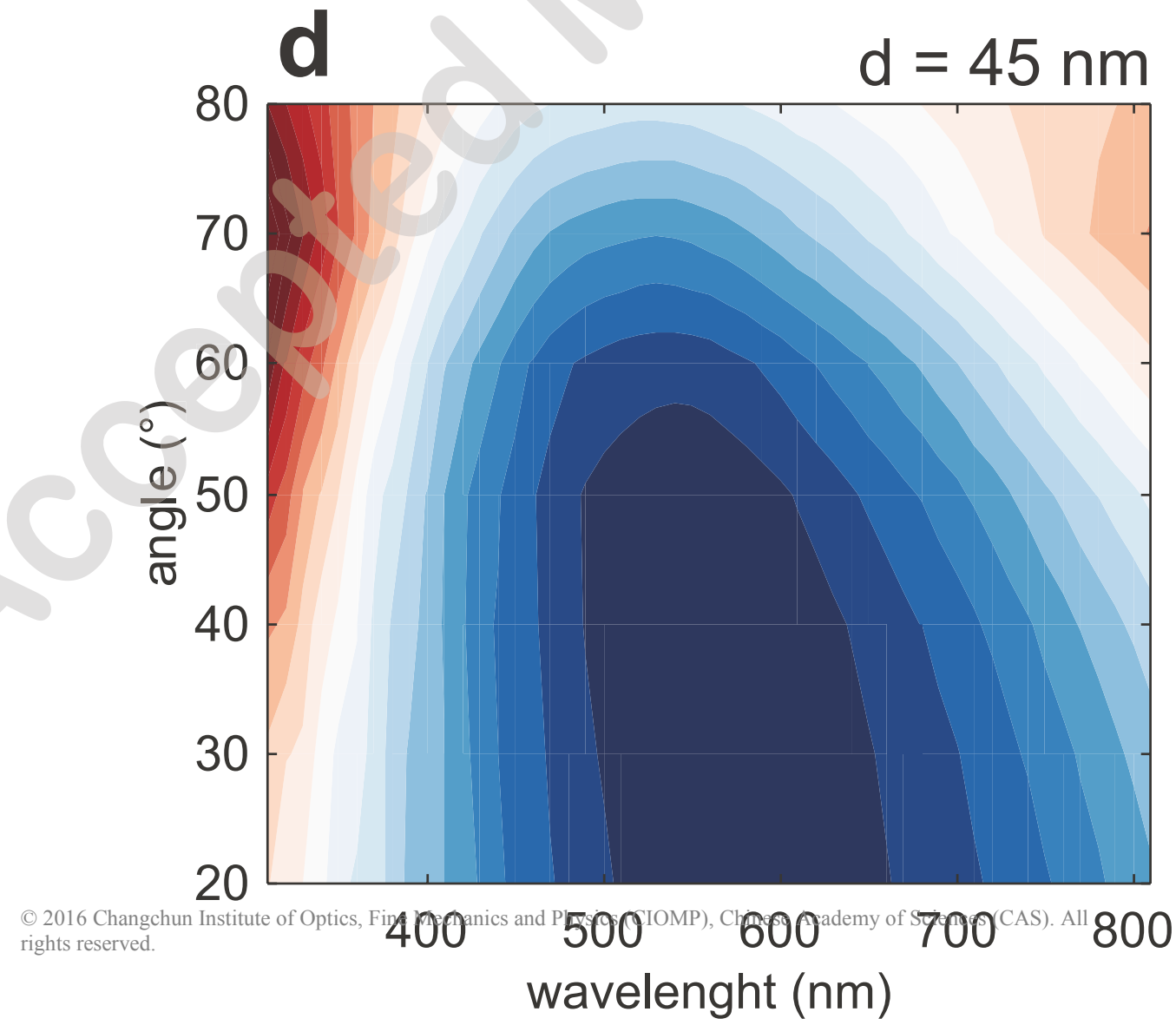
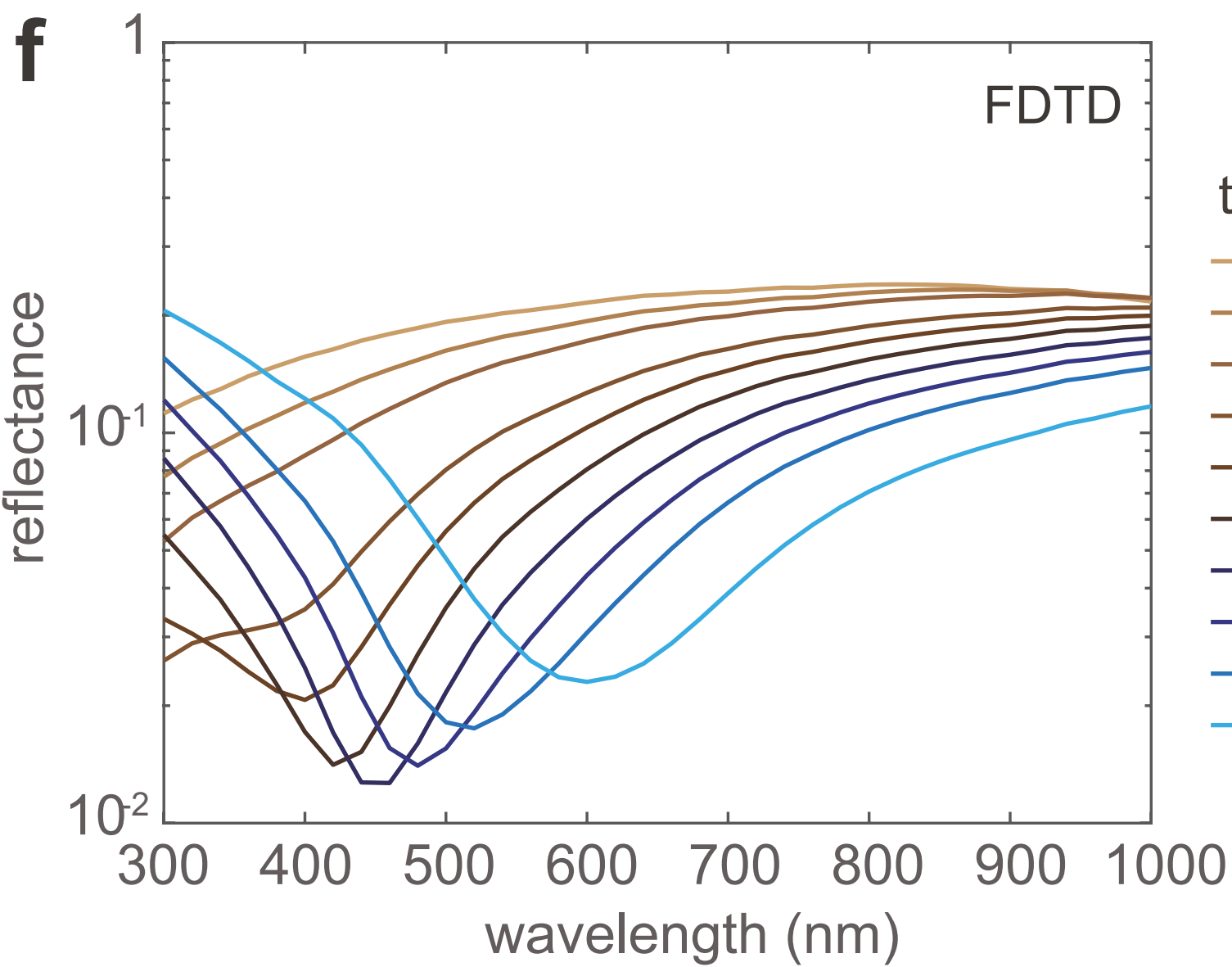
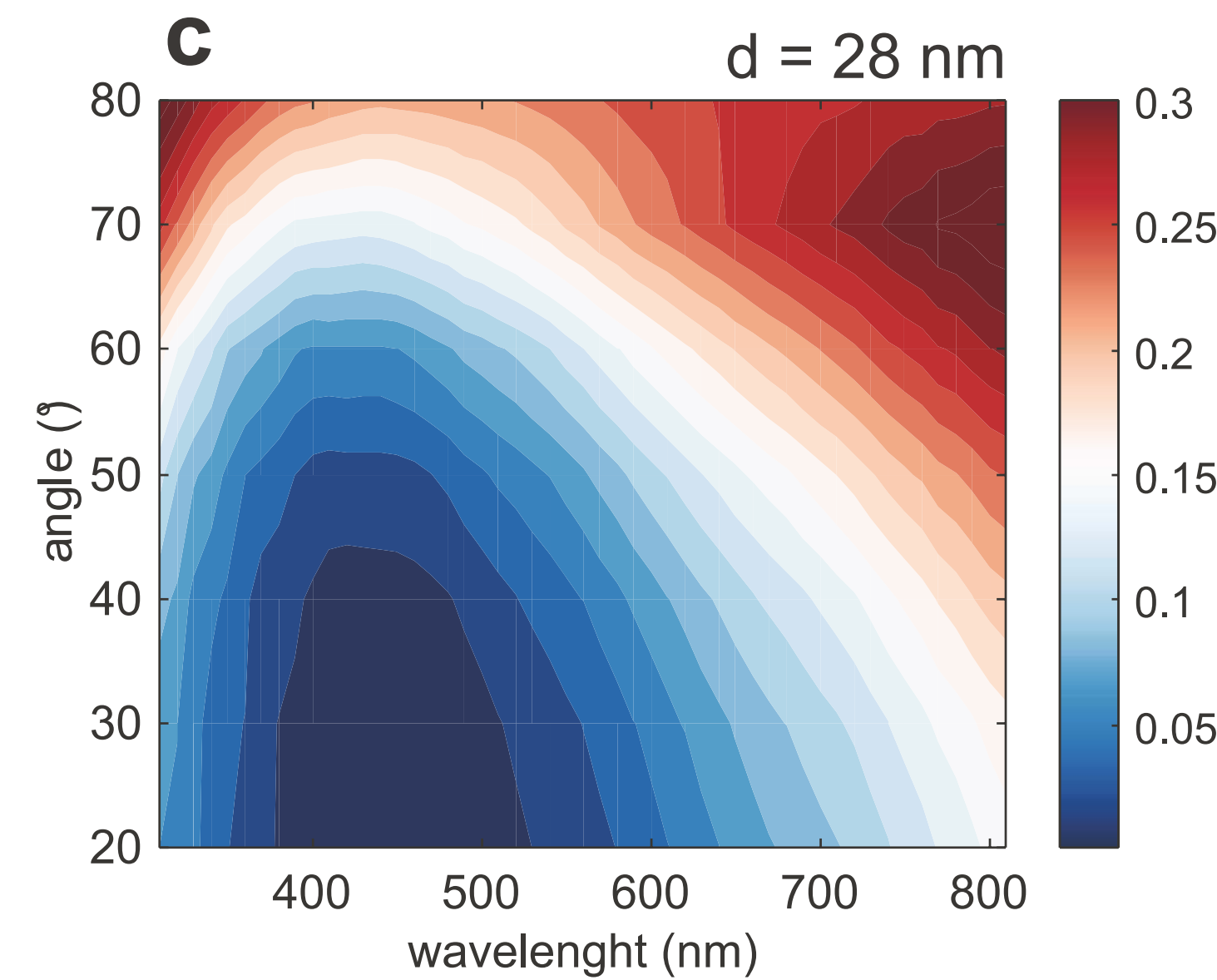
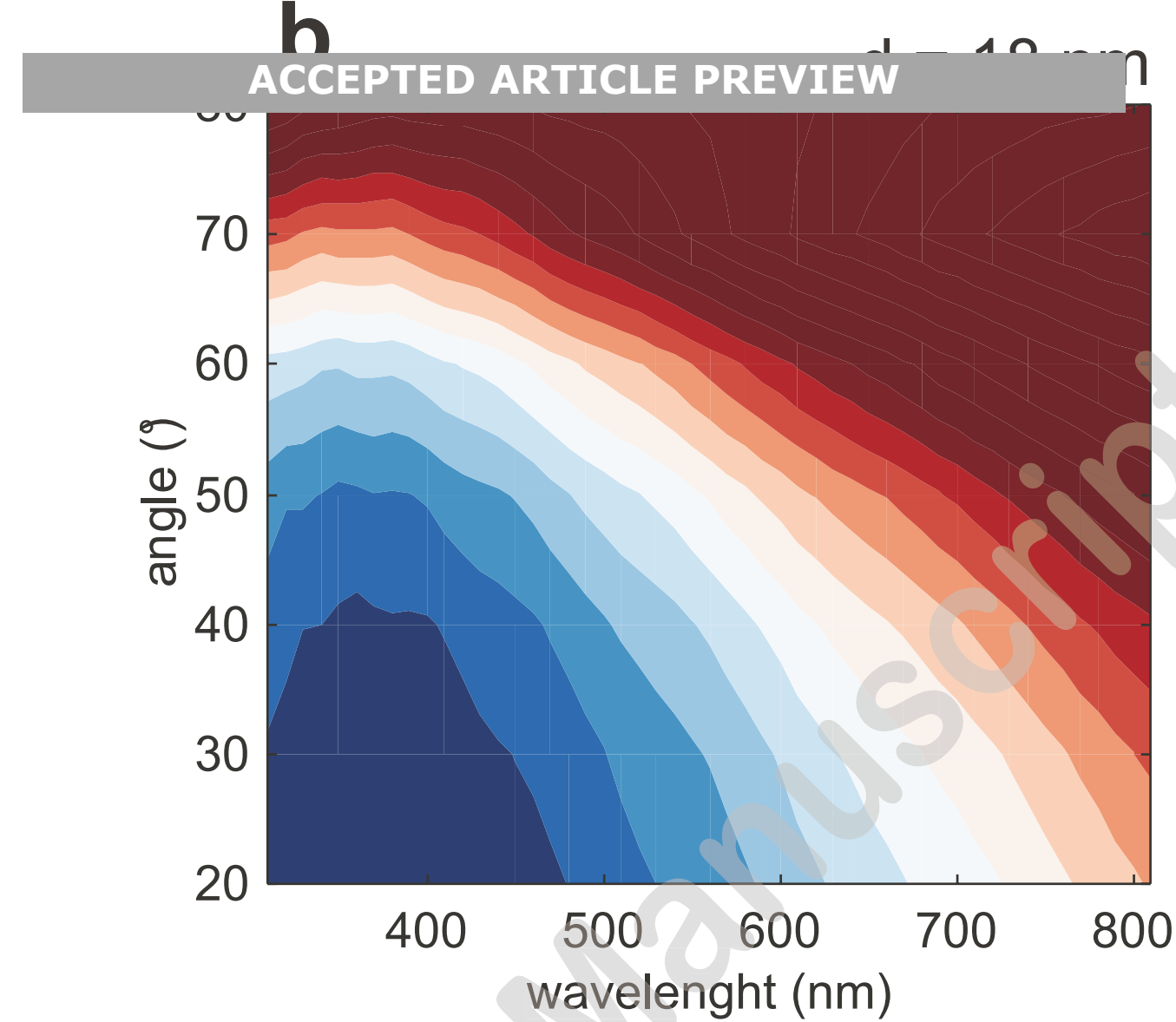
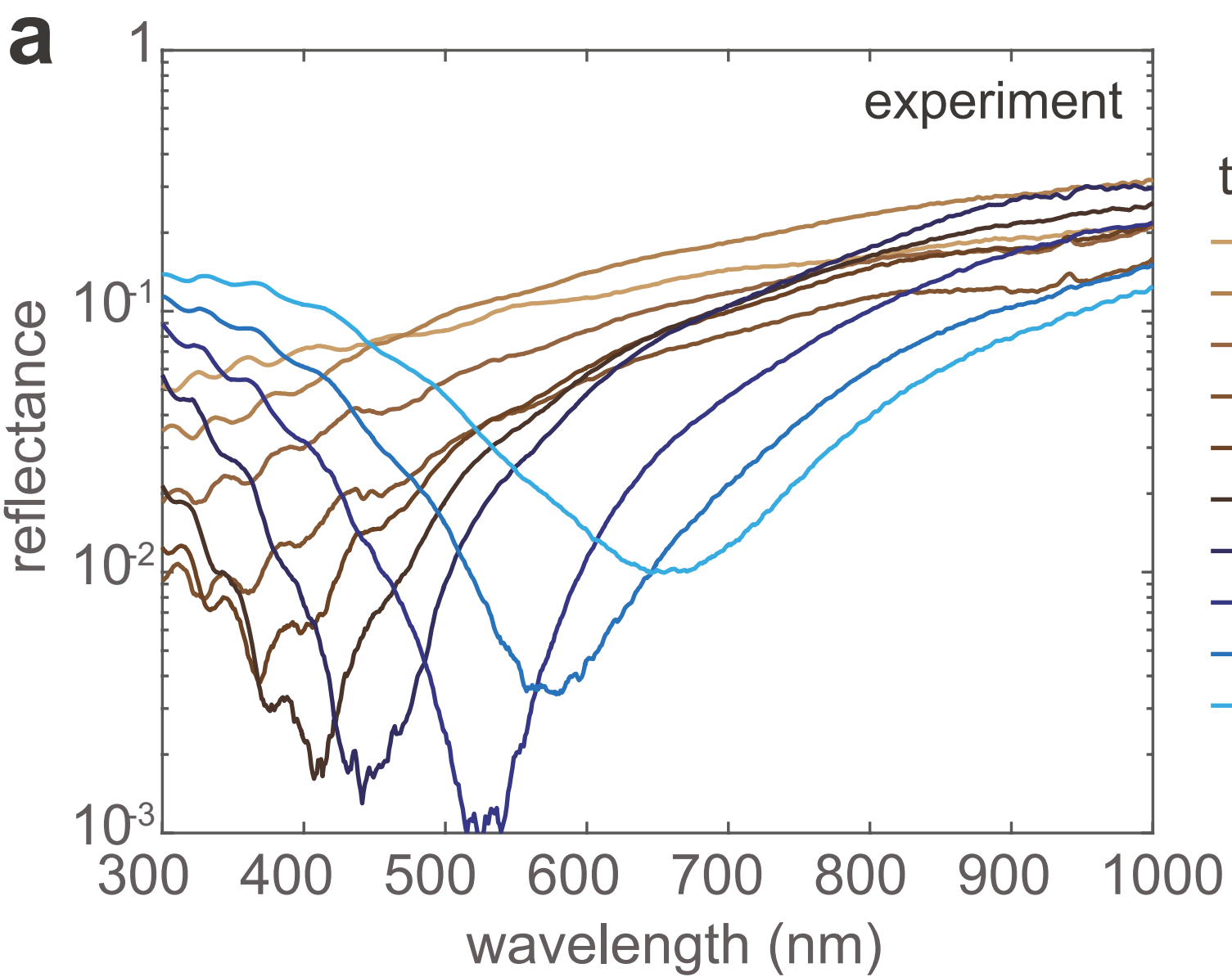
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**c****d**



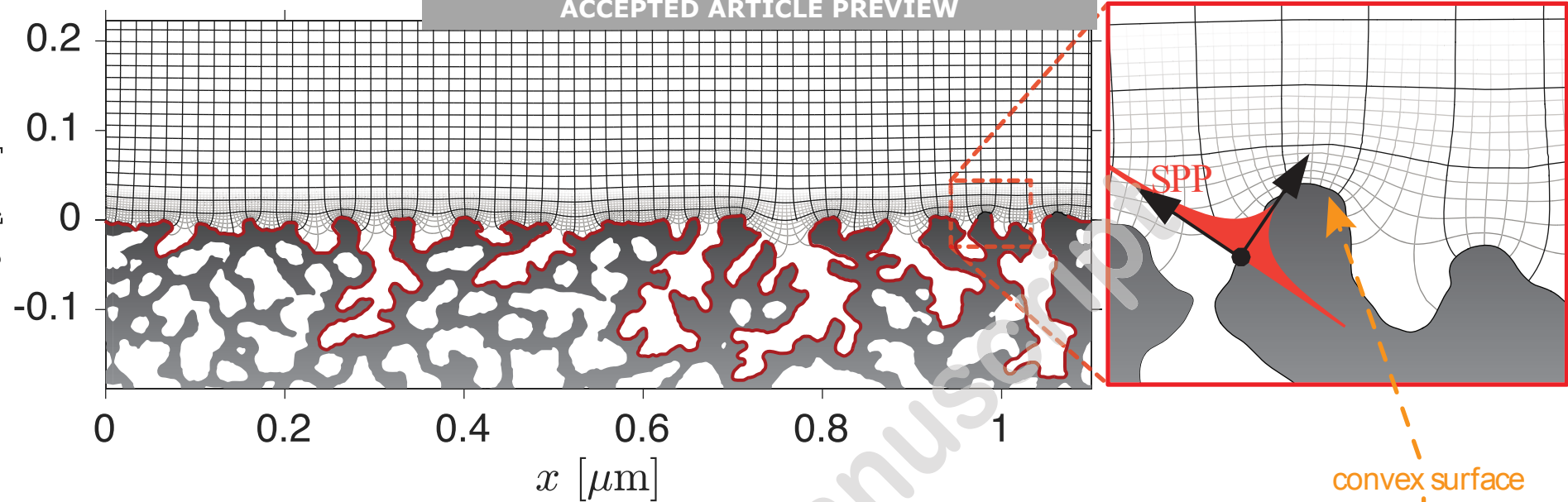
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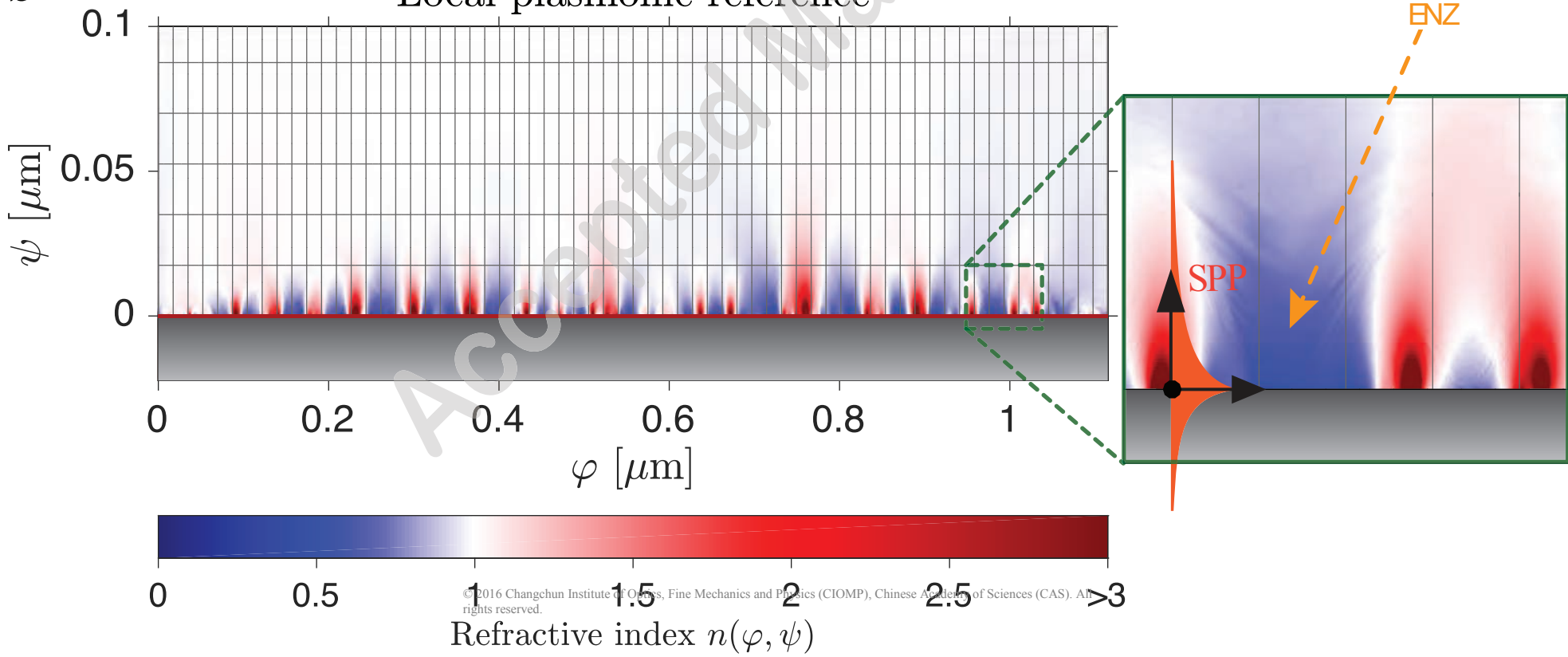
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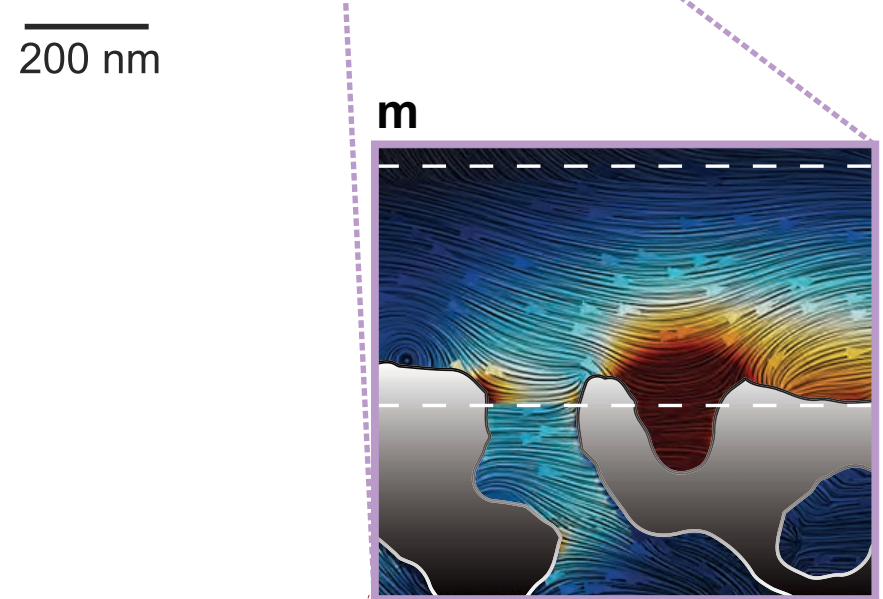
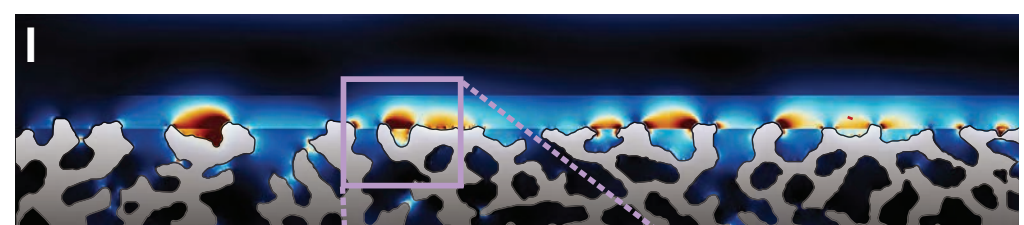
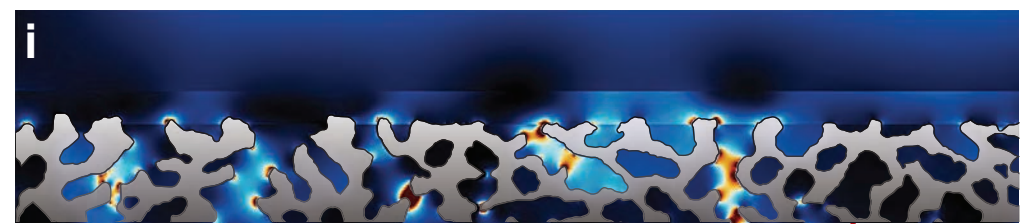
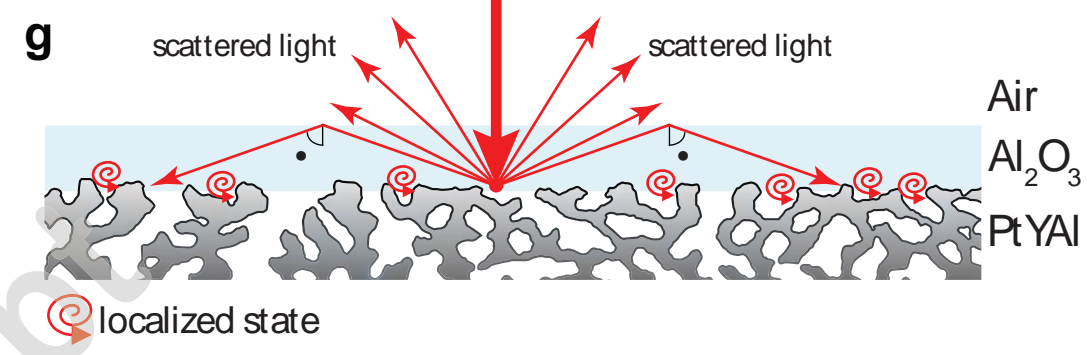
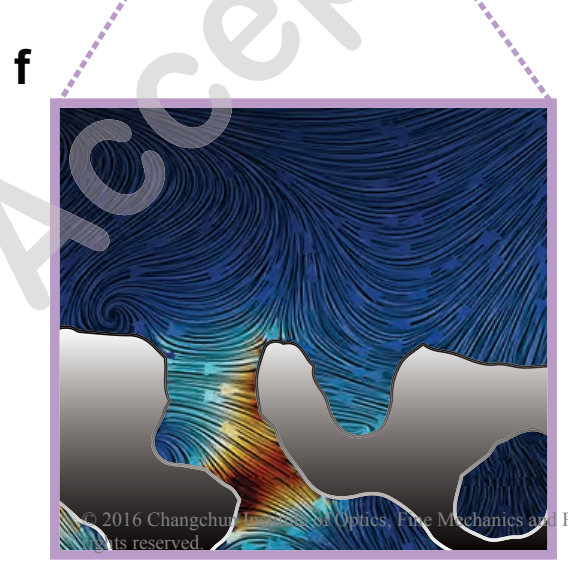
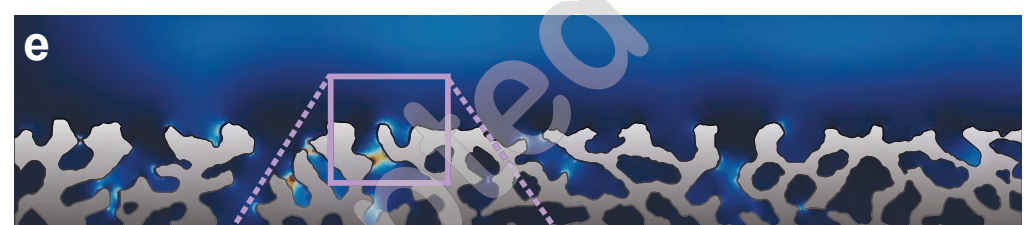
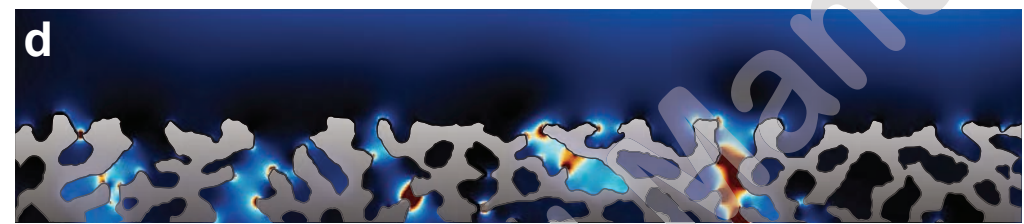
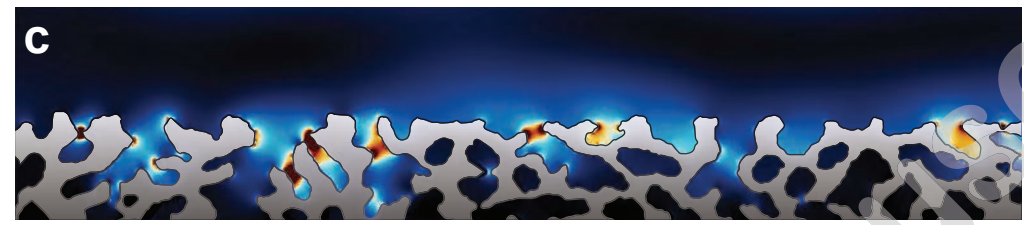
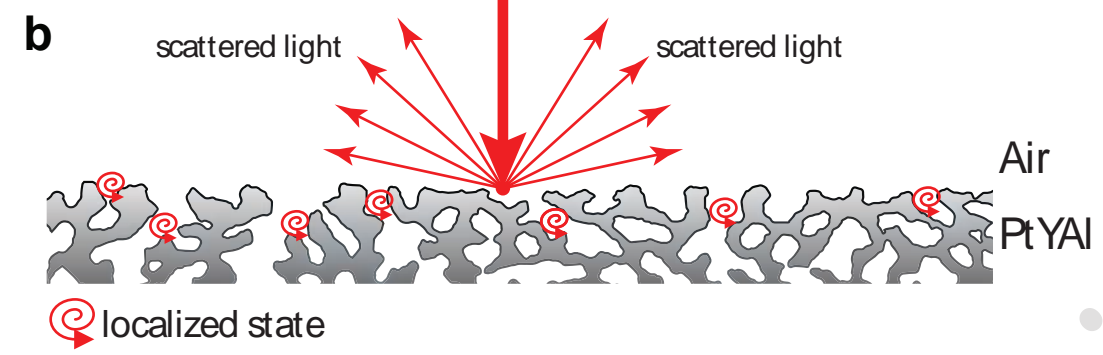
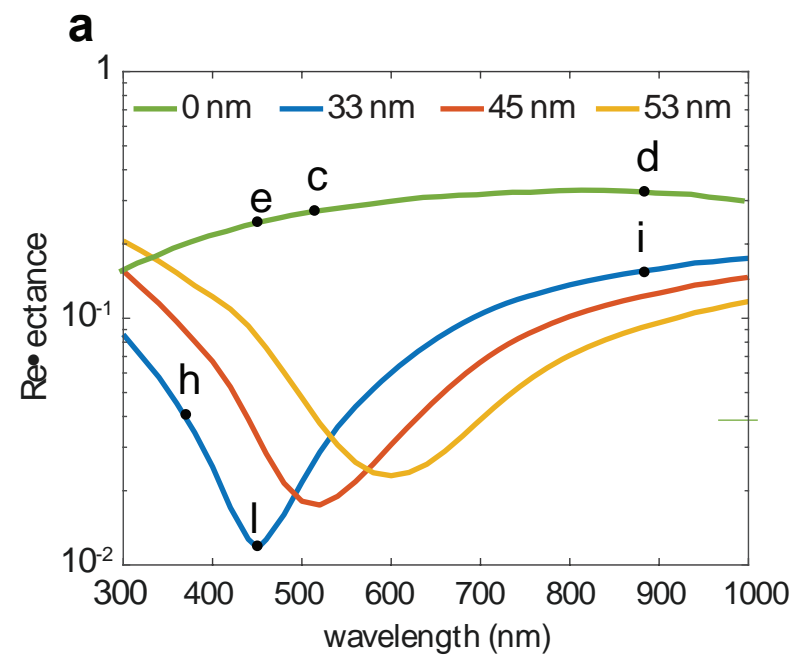
Original reference

ACCEPTED ARTICLE PREVIEW

**b**

Local plasmonic reference





200 nm

