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Optical anisotropy of nanostructured vanadium dioxide thermochromic thin films synthesized by reactive magnetron sputtering combined with glancing angle deposition

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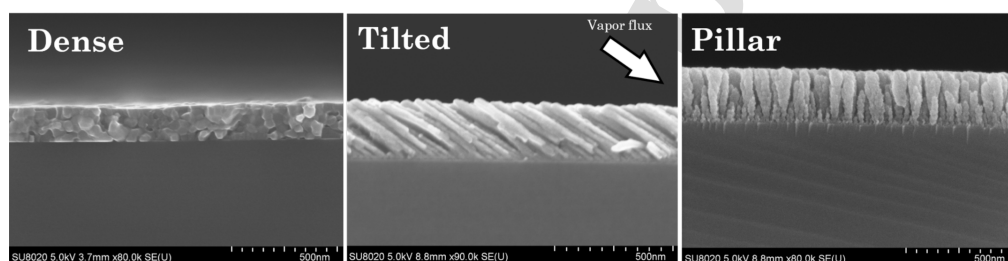
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1 Graphical Abstract

2 **Optical anisotropy of nanostructured vanadium dioxide thermochromic thin**
3 **films synthesized by reactive magnetron sputtering combined with glancing**
4 **angle deposition**

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1 Highlights

2 **Optical anisotropy of nanostructured vanadium dioxide thermochromic thin** 3 **films synthesized by reactive magnetron sputtering combined with glancing** 4 **angle deposition**

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- 7 • High purity anisotropic and thermochromic VO₂ nanostructured thin films,
8 including tilted and pillar-like morphologies, were prepared by GLAD tech-
9 nique
- 10 • These tilted and pillar-like morphologies markedly enhance the thermochromic
11 behaviour of the films
- 12 • Optical characterization using azimuthal Mueller matrix measurements re-
13 veals a strong correlation between nanostructure geometry and optical anisotropy
- 14 • Finite element simulations and modelling approaches such as the Berreman
15 4x4 transfer matrix method provide valuable insights into the behaviour of
16 these nanostructures.

1 Optical anisotropy of nanostructured vanadium dioxide
2 thermochromic thin films synthesized by reactive
3 magnetron sputtering combined with glancing angle
4 deposition

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7 **Abstract**

8 In this study, we explore the optical and thermochromic properties of monoclinic
9 vanadium dioxide (VO₂) nanostructures, which undergo a reversible phase transi-
10 tion from an insulating to a metallic state at around 68 °C. This phase transition
11 is crucial for applications such as photonic devices, tunable optical filters, and
12 energy-efficient windows. While the performance of VO₂ can be optimized by
13 tailoring its nanostructure and film morphology, to the best of our knowledge, no
14 prior work in the literature has successfully synthesized VO₂ nanostructures with
15 well-defined morphology and high VO₂ purity using the Glancing Angle Deposi-
16 tion (GLAD) technique.

 In this work, by combining reactive magnetron sputtering of a vanadium tar-
 get in an Argon-Oxygen atmosphere with GLancing Angle Deposition (GLAD),

we synthesized thin films of VO₂, followed by post-deposition annealing in an oxygen-rich environment. Through GLAD we elaborate anisotropic nanostructures, including tilted and straight columns morphologies. Optical characterization techniques, such as ellipsometric measurements and grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD), were employed to evaluate the crystalline phase and dielectric functions of the films in both their metallic and insulating states. For the tilted nanocolumns, azimuthal Mueller matrix measurements reveal pronounced anisotropic effects. Optical transmission studies show that nanostructured films, particularly those with pillar morphologies, display superior thermochromic performance, with increased transmission, enhanced infrared modulation, and broader hysteresis compared to dense films. The influence of nanostructure porosity on the optical response is also confirmed through simulations using both COMSOL and the Berreman matrix methods, which demonstrate strong agreement in reflectivity predictions. Our work represents a significant advancement in the synthesis of well-defined VO₂ nanostructures, opening new pathways for optimizing the material properties for advanced optical and thermochromic applications.

¹ *Keywords:* keyword Vanadium dioxide, Thermochromism, Thin films, Glancing
² angle deposition, Mueller matrix ellipsometry, Optical simulation, COMSOL

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Vanadium dioxide (VO_2) is a well-known material with exceptional thermochromic
3 properties, exhibiting a reversible phase transition around $68\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ [1]. This transi-
4 tion, which sees the material change from an insulating monoclinic to a metallic
5 tetragonal state, is accompanied by a significant change in its optical and electri-
6 cal properties. Because of this behavior, VO_2 is widely studied for applications
7 in photonic devices [2], tunable optical filters [3, 4], and energy-saving windows
8 [5, 6]. Research in this area has demonstrated that the thermochromic properties
9 of VO_2 can be tuned by a variety of techniques, including chemical doping and
10 mechanical stress.

11 Magnetron sputtering is a widely used deposition method for the synthesis of
12 VO_2 thin films. This process allows precise control of film thickness and chemi-
13 cal composition, crucial elements for optimizing their thermochromic properties.
14 However, to induce anisotropy on the VO_2 thin film, it is necessary to shape the
15 film morphology with nanoscale precision. Glancing Angle Deposition (GLAD)
16 technique is ideal for this purpose. By controlling the angle of incidence of the
17 particle flux during deposition, GLAD method can be used to produce a variety
18 of nanostructures, such as tilted columns patterns, or vertical pillars. These struc-
19 tures, because of their unique geometry, significantly influence the optical and
20 electrical properties of materials, paving the way for advanced VO_2 functional-
21 ities. Many optical applications, such as broadband anti-reflection coatings [7],
22 Bragg reflectors [8], and light-emitting diodes [9], depend on tailored effective
23 optical constants achieved by controlling the porosity and morphology of nanos-
24 tructured films. The nanostructured films obtained by GLAD are particularly use-
25 ful for applications in sensors and optical devices, thanks to their large specific

1 surface area and their ability to modulate optical [10–14] and electrical [15–19]
2 properties.

3 However, this technique for synthesizing VO₂ films presents a number of dif-
4 ficulties, particularly in terms of the structural stability and the chemical compo-
5 sition. Y. Sun et al. investigated an alternative technique in which they attempted
6 to reduce nanostructured V₂O₅ by annealing in a hydrogen environment in order
7 to create monoclinic VO₂ nanostructures. While the production of nanostructures
8 was successfully achieved with this approach, the annealing resulted in the coa-
9 lesence of neighboring columns, making the columnar structure non-visible [20].
10 A.J. Santos et al. observed similar results after studying vanadium nanostructures
11 during quick annealing in ambient air. Here again, column coalescence was ob-
12 served [21]. To our knowledge, annealing a vanadium thin film in an oxygen
13 environment has only been used in one study by A.M. Alcaide et al. [22] Unfor-
14 tunately, results indicated that the film began to coalesce and the nanostructures
15 were poorly defined. Furthermore, many other oxidation states were detected by
16 Raman spectroscopy, suggesting that the film is still mainly composed of oxida-
17 tion phases other than monoclinic VO₂. As a result, the film exhibits insufficient
18 metal-insulator transition behavior on temperature-dependent transmission spec-
19 tra.

20 The study of the optical properties of nanostructured materials, such as those
21 obtained by GLAD, requires advanced analytical tools. Spectroscopic ellipsome-
22 try, and in particular the Mueller formalism, is a powerful method for character-
23 izing these complex structures [23]. The Mueller formalism permits a complete
24 description of the polarization state of light reflected from a material, giving de-
25 tailed information on the optical anisotropy and birefringent properties of nanos-

1 structures. In the context of the analysis of nanostructured VO₂ films, this approach
2 offers a better understanding of light-matter interactions within these systems,
3 which is essential for optimizing their performance for specific applications.

4 **2. Materials and Methods**

5 *2.1. Monoclinic VO₂ deposition*

6 Reactive DC (direct-current) magnetron sputtering with low pressure plasma
7 was employed for the deposition process. A 2 in diameter and 0.25 in thick target
8 made of metallic vanadium with a purity of 99.99% was utilized. A turbomolecu-
9 lar pump driven by a dry main pump reached a residual pressure of 1.33×10^{-6} Pa
10 before deposition. **The target-to-substrate distance was 9 cm and the magnetron**
11 **cathode was placed above the substrate holder. Substrates have a size of $\simeq 2 \times 2$**
12 **cm².** A mixture of oxygen and argon was added to the chamber at a constant work-
13 ing pressure of 1 mTorr (0.13 Pa). The argon flux was held constant at 8 standard
14 cubic centimeters per minute (sccm) during the deposition. A constant discharge
15 current of 0.3 A was applied in order to deposit the vanadium oxide layer. The
16 VO₂ monoclinic phase was produced by annealing the sample in a pure oxygen
17 environment (about 400 Pa) within the same chamber after deposition. This pro-
18 cess induced film crystallization and oxidation. (100) crystal silicon wafers, or
19 BK7, constitute the substrate.

20 *2.2. Characterization tools*

21 High magnification pictures of the materials were obtained using a field emis-
22 sion gun scanning electron microscope (FEG-SEM Hitachi SU8020) using a 5
23 kV acceleration voltage. Grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) study was

1 performed by using a Panalytical Empyrean with a Cu $K\alpha$ source at 1.5406 Å
2 to identify the crystalline structure. The X-ray beam's angle of incidence was
3 kept constant at 1° with respect to the surface of the sample holder. Grain size
4 is calculated using the Scherrer equation $D = (0.9\lambda)/(\alpha \cos \theta)$, where θ is the
5 Bragg diffraction angle, λ the X-ray wavelength, α the line broadening at half
6 the maximum intensity (FWHM) in radians, and D the mean size of the crys-
7 talline domains. A Bruker Senterra spectrometer equipped with a CCD detector
8 and a HeNe laser (532 nm) generating at 20 mW was employed to perform Ra-
9 man spectroscopy analysis. A Cary 5000 UV-Vis-NIR spectrometer was used to
10 acquire transmission spectra in the 200–2500 nm range. Additionally, using a
11 PerkinElmer Lambda 900 UV/Vis/NIR spectrometer, transmission spectroscopy
12 was used to analyze the behavior of the optical transmittance of films deposited
13 on glass. For transmission spectra, the temperature is set up to 25 °C and 100
14 °C thanks to a metal ceramic heater HT19R from Thorlabs with 4 mm-diameter
15 holes to let the light pass through. This heater is connected to a power supply
16 allowing to fix the temperature at 25 °C and 100 °C, respectively. In contrast,
17 for the hysteresis measurement, a temperature range of 1 °C/min is managed with
18 the THMS600 Linkam heating/cooling stage. Using a Horiba phase modulated
19 UVISEL ellipsometer, the optical responses of thin films were investigated in the
20 0.6–4.76 eV spectral region at angles of incidence of 70°. Here again, a THMS600
21 Linkam stage is used to control the temperature at 25°C and 100°C.

22 2.3. *Simulation tools*

23 We used COMSOL Multiphysics to simulate electromagnetic fields and cal-
24 culate reflection and transmission spectra. Our nanostructures are arranged in
25 an infinite square lattice. To model this, we applied Floquet periodic boundary

1 conditions to the left and right sides of the domain. A Port boundary condition
2 at the top launches a plane wave at a specified incidence angle and computes
3 the reflected light, while another at the bottom calculates the transmitted light.
4 The electric field within each tetrahedral mesh element is approximated using a
5 quadratic shape function. We employed 5 mesh elements per wavelength, and the
6 refractive indices of VO₂ were determined via ellipsometry, as described in the
7 previous section.

8 **3. Dense and nanostructured VO₂ synthesis and characterization**

9 In this section, we explore the synthesis of thermochromic VO₂ thin films,
10 both dense and nanostructured, exhibiting open porosities. The substrate holder
11 allows for two types of rotational movements: tilting the substrate from 0° to 90°
12 relative to the cathode axis along the α tilt angle and continuously rotating the
13 substrate with a speed ϕ_s . Depositing films with α angle superior to 80 ° creates a
14 significant shadowing effect behind the initial nuclei of atoms and is the so-called
15 GLAD (Glancing Angle Deposition) configuration. The shadowing results in thin
16 film deposition where certain regions are inaccessible to the incoming atomic flux,
17 leading to a highly porous structure. In the case of dense film, the substrate is
18 parallel to the target plane and no rotation speed is used.

19 In this study, a specific angle $\alpha < 87$ was chosen accordingly and owing to
20 previously reported data in the literature related to Glancing Angle Deposition of
21 films, including our own works [15–22, 24, 25]. Various azimuthal substrate ro-
22 tation speeds ϕ_s were employed: 0 and 1°/s. Knowing that monoclinic VO₂ is
23 highly sensitive to oxidation, the porosity within the layer complicates the depo-
24 sition process further. Consequently, deposition parameters such as oxygen flux

1 and annealing duration had to be adjusted according to the desired morphology.
 2 Table 1 summarizes the deposition parameters used to develop both dense and
 3 structured monoclinic VO₂ films. The deposition time is calibrated to achieve a
 4 thickness of 200 nm. Our findings indicate that producing monoclinic VO₂ with
 5 higher porosity requires lower oxygen flux and shorter annealing times to achieve
 6 the same composition as a dense film. The increased porosity facilitates oxidation,
 7 thereby reducing the amount of oxygen needed to obtain comparable results.

Table 1: Deposition process parameters to synthesize a 200 nm-thick dense or nanostructured monoclinic VO₂.

	Dense	Tilted	Pillar
Rotation speed ϕ_s [°/s]	/	0	1
Angle of deposition α [°]	0	87	87
Deposition oxygen flux [sccm]	1.2	1	0.7
Annealing duration [min]	45	30	30
Annealing temperature [°C]	500	500	500
Deposition time [min]	13	60	30

8 The Raman spectra and GIXRD diffractogram for a dense and nanostructured
 9 thin film are displayed in Figures 1. The film shows 139, 193, 224, 264, 307, 389,
 10 499, 613, and 825 cm⁻¹ as monoclinic VO₂ vibration modes. At 973 cm⁻¹, a
 11 single peak that corresponds to V₇O₁₆ emerges. The crystalline phase of our 1.2
 12 sccm is next evaluated using GIXRD (Figure 1 b). It is apparent that there are
 13 no other oxidation states present, which is consistent with the findings of Raman
 14 analysis. In addition, the film looks strongly orientated with different crystalline
 15 orientation. The crystalline size, determined by using the Scherrer equation on

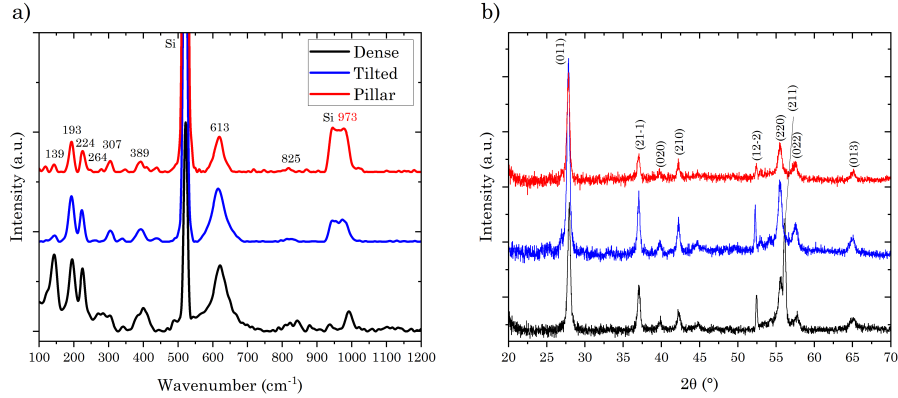


Figure 1: Raman spectra (a) and GIXRD diffractograms (b) of the 200 nm vanadium oxide thin films as measured at room temperature. Black and red label on Raman spectra refer to monoclinic VO₂ [26] and triclinic V₇O₁₆ [27], respectively. GIXRD diffracted signals correspond to the monoclinic VO₂ phase, coming from JCPD 00-009-0142 card and [28]. Si notation concerns the silicon substrate signal.

1 three peaks, equals 20.1 ± 1.7 nm. Moreover, the chemical composition and crys-
 2 talline structure of dense and nanostructured films are almost identical. Neverthe-
 3 less, a difference is observed in the second Si peak at 950 cm^{-1} , which appears in
 4 nanostructured films due to their porosity.

5 Figure 2 focuses on the (011) diffraction peak, revealing a shift due to the
 6 presence of tensile strain in the nanostructured films compared to the dense films.
 7 With a uniform strain, the spacing of diffracted planes becomes larger and the
 8 diffraction peak shifts to the lower angles [29]. Additionally, the crystalline grain
 9 size decreases with increasing rotation speed, from 20.1 nm for dense VO₂ to 18.6
 10 nm and 18.9 nm for tilted and pillar structures, respectively.

11 SEM images for dense and nanostructured VO₂ film are presented in Figure
 12 3. In the same Figure, the morphologies are studied in terms of the column width

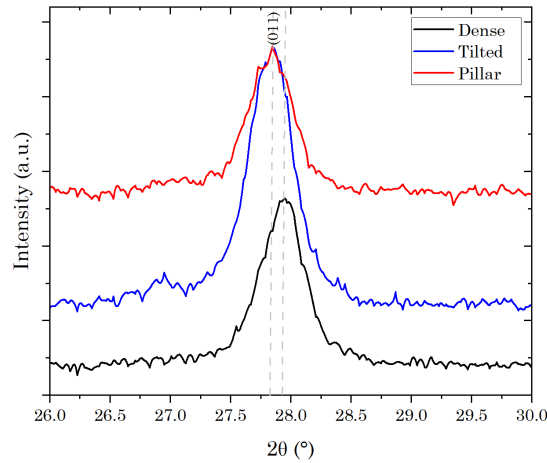


Figure 2: Shift of (011) monoclinic VO₂ X-ray diffraction peak for different film morphologies.

1 and the inter-columnar space. For dense film, the result shows a polycrystalline
 2 structure with grain-like surface topography typical of thin films grown by mag-
 3 netron sputter deposition processes [30–32]. The structure of the films is greatly
 4 influenced by the deposition angle α and the rotation speed ϕ_s . Without rota-
 5 tion and with $\alpha = 87^\circ$, tilted columns (referred to as "tilted") are produced. The
 6 straight pillars are well defined at $1^\circ/s$ (referred to as "pillar"), although in that
 7 case, the pillar width increases along the film height. This phenomenon is also
 8 present with TiO₂ [24] and Al₂O₃ [25] GLAD films. Tilted columns have a spac-
 9 ing of around 105 nm, with a variation between 80 and 120 nm. Pillar-shaped
 10 columns, on the other hand, have a slightly smaller spacing of around 90 nm, with
 11 a range between 75 and 100 nm. Concerning the column width, inclined columns
 12 have a width of around 55 nm, with a result fluctuating between 45 and 65 nm.
 13 Pillar-shaped columns are wider, with a dimension of around 65 nm and an uncer-

- 1 tainty that ranges from 50 to 80 nm. In summary, inclined columns show greater
- 2 intercolumn spacing than pillar-shaped columns, while the latter are wider.

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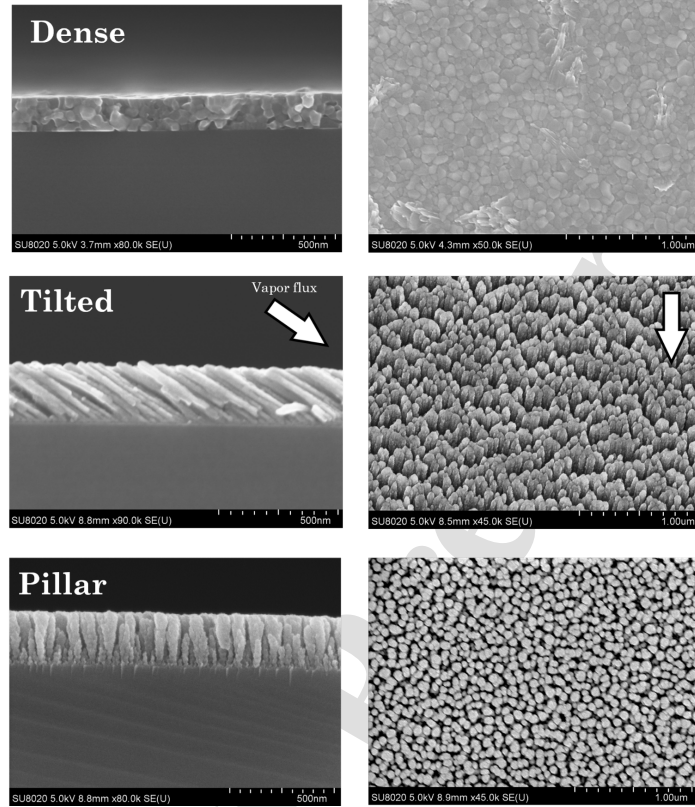


Figure 3: Cross-sectional and top-view SEM images of monoclinic VO_2 deposited according to the Table 1 parameters. All images are obtained for film directly after the annealing procedure. The arrow represents the direction of the incoming vapor flux.

1 Figures 1 and 3 illustrate that our synthesis procedure, utilizing 0.7 sccm of
 2 O_2 and post-deposition annealing at 500 °C for 30 minutes, successfully produces
 3 well-defined nanostructures of pure monoclinic VO_2 .

4 Our nanostructured films were characterized in terms of their optical proper-
 5 ties. Figure 4 presents transmission spectra and hysteresis for dense and nanos-
 6 tructured films at 25 °C and 100 °C. This demonstrates that the gaps between the
 7 cold and hot state spectra are significantly enhanced when the films are structured

1 at the nanoscale. At a wavelength of 2500 nm (Figure 4b), the transmission vari-
 2 ation for dense film is around 20%. The value is improved for pillar and tilted
 3 films, with gaps of 37.2%, and 47.9%, respectively. Additionally, pillar morphol-
 4 ogy results in a 10% increase in visible transmission compared to tilted, resulting
 5 in no change in transmission. Based on the VO₂ phase change, we presume that
 6 these improvements are caused by the larger porosity of the nanostructured films.
 7 This will enhance light sensitivity and boost light transmission through the layer.

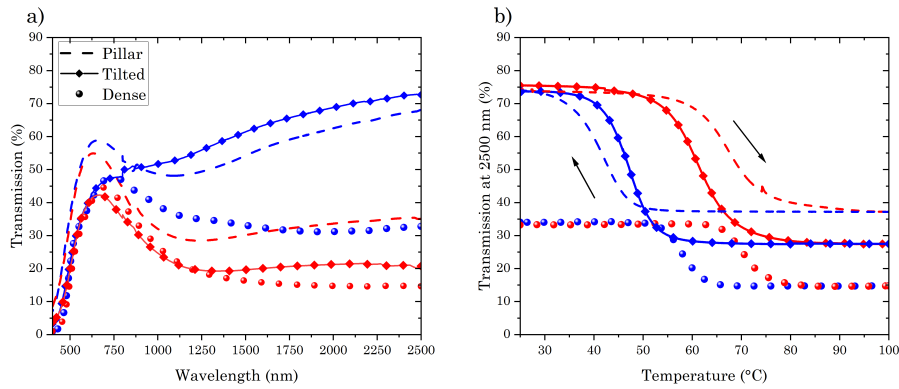


Figure 4: Experimental transmission spectra (a) and hysteresis loops (b) at 2500 nm for dense, tilted and straight pillars at 25 °C (blue) and 100 °C (red).

8 To further emphasize the insulator to metal transition of the deposited VO₂
 9 films, in-plane resistivity measurements were carried out. Data are reported in Fig.
 10 5 and evidence the variation of the electrical properties of the deposited "dense"
 11 and "tilted" films as a function of the temperature. The pillar nanostructure is not
 12 shown because the measurement failed to give results due to technical limitations.
 13 As the film resistivity is too high, the current source and ampere meter are not
 14 sensitive enough for accurate measurements.

15 The hysteresis characteristics of dense and nanostructured VO₂ films are com-

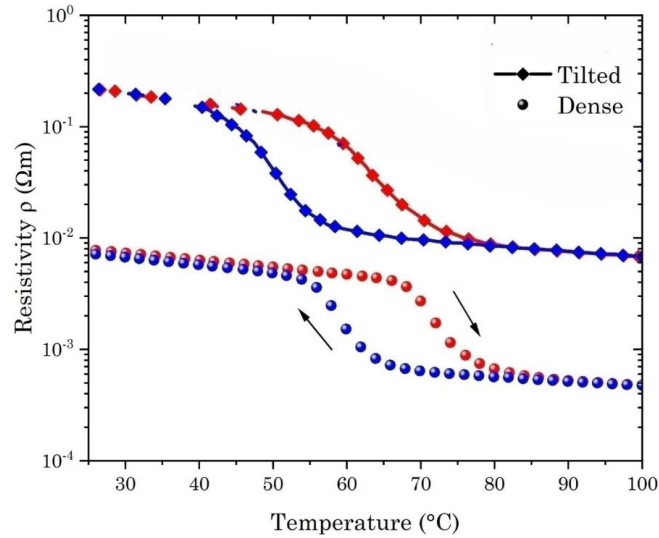


Figure 5: Resistivity hysteresis loops for the dense films (filled circles) and the tilted pillars (filled losange).

1 pared in Table 2. The critical temperature during the heating and cooling ramp,
 2 the transition amplitude, and the hysteresis width are the reported parameters. The
 3 values representing the critical temperature are obtained at the middle point of the
 4 total amplitude. Compared to dense films, nanostructured films exhibit larger hys-
 5 teresis widths and lower average critical temperatures. This phenomenon is po-
 6 tentially due to the stress observable in nanostructured thin films in Figure 2. The
 7 relationship between stress and changes in the hysteresis width and critical tem-
 8 perature is documented in recent research [33–35]. Furthermore, a considerable
 9 rise in hysteresis width, indicating a delayed phase transition, is seen for the films
 10 made of straight pillars suggesting that an increase in inter-column spacing (see
 11 Fig. 3 for film morphologies) might play a role in this effect. It is hypothesized
 12 that an increase in porosity will delay the "hot" phase propagation throughout the

1 layer. Finally, films having a higher volume proportion of VO₂ in the layer, tend
2 to have stronger light attenuation.

Table 2: Hysteresis parameters of the dense and nanostructured films, deposited with different rotation speeds ϕ_s .

ϕ_s (°/s)	Critical Temperature (°C)			Width (°C)	Amplitude (%)
	Heating	Cooling	Average		
/ (Dense)	70	57.4	63.7	12.6	18.4
0 (Tilted)	61.3	47.2	54.2	14.1	47.9
1 (Pillar)	67.7	41.1	54.4	26.6	37.2

3 4. Ellipsometric study of dense and tilted structures

4 In this section, ellipsometric measurements of I_s and I_c intensities (defined in
5 supporting information in Eq. 1 in *Supporting information*) have been carried out
6 for both metallic and insulating VO₂ states as a function of wavelength in order
7 to determine the dielectric functions of dense, tilted films. Concerning the dense
8 film, two measurements are performed with different angles of incidence (AOI)
9 at 60 ° and 70 °. The experimental and modeled data from the fitting model are
10 shown by the continuous and dotted lines, respectively, in Figure SI-1 in *Support-*
11 *ing information*, demonstrating a good match between experiment and model. For
12 the latter, the sample is represented as a three-layer film composed of a rough top
13 layer, a dense VO₂ layer and a semi-infinite silicon substrate, with air as ambient
14 material (Figure 6a). The surface roughness is mandatory because ellipsometry
15 measurements are highly sensitive to the surface characteristics. This layer is

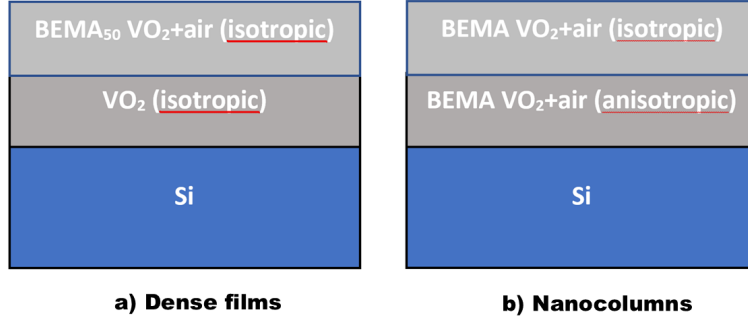


Figure 6: Ellipsometric model for a) the dense films and b) the tilted nanocolumns.

1 modeled by a Bruggeman effective medium approximation with a 50%:50% mix-
 2 ture of VO₂ and air (BEMA₅₀) given by

$$\frac{\epsilon_{VO_2} - \epsilon_{eff}}{\epsilon_{VO_2} + 2\epsilon_{eff}} + \frac{1 - \epsilon_{eff}}{1 + 2\epsilon_{eff}} = 0 \quad (1)$$

3 where ϵ_{eff} is the effective dielectric function. At room temperature, the VO₂
 4 dielectric function is modeled as a sum of three Lorentz oscillators, as explained
 5 hereafter, and a static dielectric term. A Drude term is added at 100 °C to model
 6 the metallic behavior.

7 Several authors used 3 Lorentzian oscillators to model the dispersion law
 8 VO₂ at room temperature [36–38]. According to calculation made with the Full-
 9 Potential Linear-Muffin-Tin Orbital Method [39], the Lorentz oscillators located
 10 at low-energy, mid-range and high-energy can be attributed to the $d-d$ transitions
 11 to unoccupied t_{2g} states, the $d-d$ transitions to the unoccupied $d_{||*}$ band and the
 12 $d-d$ transitions to unoccupied e_g states of VO₂.

13 The corresponding dielectric function for dense and tilted samples is plotted
 14 in Figure 7.

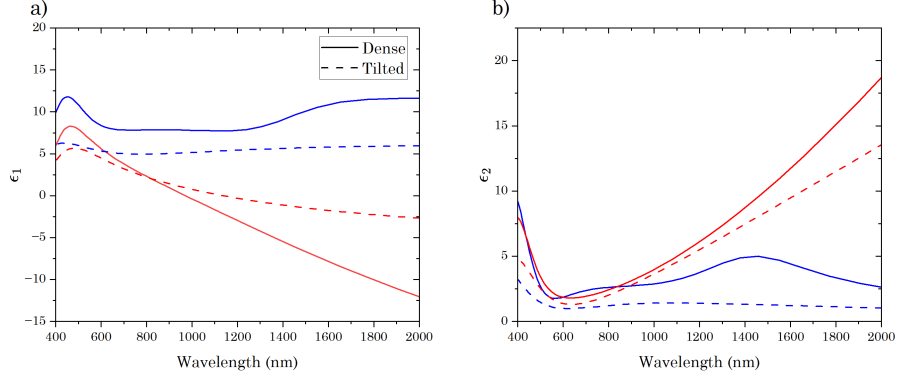


Figure 7: (a) Real ϵ_1 and (b) imaginary ϵ_2 part of permittivity part for dense, tilted films at 25 °C (blue) and 100 °C (red).

1 In the case of tilted columns, the measurements have been performed at two
 2 distinct sample azimuthal angles, 0 ° and 90 °. The angles 0 ° and 90 ° mean
 3 that the nanocolumns are parallel and perpendicular to the incidence plane, re-
 4 spectively. Here, the fitting model consists of two Bruggeman layers describing
 5 mixtures of air and VO₂. The first one is isotropic and corresponds to the rough-
 6 ness layer at the top of the sample. The second one is anisotropic with an uniaxial
 7 optical axis tilted at 55 ° with respect to the normal of incidence (i.e. with 35 °
 8 with respect to the silicon substrate; angle calculated using Figure 3) to simulate
 9 columns (Figure 6b). For the roughness layer with a f_{VO_2} fraction, the effective
 10 dielectric function ϵ_{eff} is given by

$$f_{VO_2} \frac{\epsilon_{VO_2} - \epsilon_{eff}}{\epsilon_{VO_2} + 2\epsilon_{eff}} + (1 - f_{VO_2}) \frac{1 - \epsilon_{eff}}{1 + 2\epsilon_{eff}} = 0 \quad (2)$$

11 For the anisotropic layer, characterized by a effective dielectric tensor and a
 12 f_{VO_2} fraction, the effective medium approximations for the ordinary $\epsilon_{eff,o}$ dielec-
 13 tric function is given by the same equation as Eq. 2 (with a different volume

1 fraction) while the extraordinary $\epsilon_{eff,e}$ dielectric function is

$$\epsilon_{eff,e} = f_{VO_2}\epsilon_{VO_2} + (1 - f_{VO_2}) \quad (3)$$

2 The model has been adjusted based on the VO₂ volume fraction of the anisotropic
 3 and the roughness layer, but also on the intrinsic dielectric function of VO₂ itself.
 4 The VO₂ volume fraction given by the model is 84% and 54% for the anisotropic
 5 layer and the roughness, respectively. The experimental and simulated results are
 6 presented in Figure SI-2 in *Supporting information*.

7 A Mueller matrix ellipsometer can be used to study the structural anisotropy
 8 of "tilted" samples. To do this, the light angle of incidence and the wavelength
 9 are fixed at 70 ° and 470 nm, respectively. Concerning the tilted nanocolumns,
 10 the measurement of the Mueller matrix in Figure 8 is performed according to
 11 the sample azimuth rotation at each step of 10 °. The most comprehensive kind
 12 of ellipsometry measurement is the Mueller matrix ellipsometry, which may be
 13 used to access cross-polarization optical signals. As explained before, generalized
 14 ellipsometry analysis characterizes samples where cross-polarization is present.
 15 With a more general definition, cross-polarization is defined by a light-sample
 16 interaction that results in a mixed-polarization state response when the incoming
 17 light is totally polarized (linearly or circularly). A description of the Mueller
 18 matrix elements is provided in the supporting information.

19 The starting value, when azimuth = 0 °, is configured for tilted nanocolumns
 20 oriented in the direction of the incoming light and parallel to the incidence plane.
 21 It is important to note that the last columns of the matrix composed of M₁₄, M₂₄,
 22 M₃₄, and M₄₄ are not measured because we work with an ellipsometer configura-
 23 tion where a photoelastic modulator is placed after the sample. The tilted sample is

1 the only one that was analyzed according to the sample azimuth angle because, in
2 view of its morphology, it is expected to show an optical signal largely influenced
3 by sample orientation. In contrast to helices and pillars, where the orientation of
4 nanostructures will be less responsive to rotation.

5 Firstly, we clearly see that the azimuth angle has a strong influence on the
6 Mueller matrix elements. In addition, the off-diagonal 2x2 block data (M_{31} , M_{32} ,
7 M_{41} , M_{42} , M_{13} and M_{23}) equal 0 and M_{22} equals 1 for azimuth 0° and 180° , which
8 coincide with the orientations of the sample when the tilted columns are parallel
9 to the plane of incidence. At this special orientation, the sample is considered as
10 pseudo-isotropic, where no p -polarization light is converted into s -polarized light
11 and vice versa [23]. At this orientation, the Mueller matrix is similar to the one
12 expressed for isotropic samples. We also remark that the off-diagonal blocks are
13 not, or slightly, impacted by heating compared to other elements.

14 Secondly, we can interpret all elements of the Mueller matrix [40]. For ex-
15 ample, the first row is interpreted as the diattenuation elements. About vertical
16 and horizontal polarization, negative M_{12} means that the total reflected intensity
17 is higher when the incident light is polarized vertically compared to horizontally.
18 Nevertheless, $M_{12} \neq -1$, so the sample also interacts with horizontal polariza-
19 tion. For M_{13} it is more complicated, because the values are negative before 180°
20 $^\circ$ of sample rotation, and positive after 180° . This means that the reflected light
21 intensity is maximized when the incoming light is polarized at -45° or $+45^\circ$,
22 depending on whether the column orientation is 90° or 270° , respectively. We
23 suppose that this is because the sample is composed of tilted nanocolumns, and
24 at a specific orientation, the columns are parallel or perpendicular to the polariza-
25 tion direction. With a polarization of $+45^\circ$, the columns are parallel to the light

1 direction when the sample is rotated by 90° . On the other hand, the columns are
2 perpendicular to the light when the sample is rotated by 180° . Note here that they
3 are not exactly parallel and perpendicular because the nanocolumns are tilted by
4 55° and not 45° (Fig. 3).

5 By focusing on the first column of the matrix, the elements are now related
6 to the polarizance effect. M_{21} presents the same behavior as M_{12} , but here, the
7 interpretation says that when an unpolarized light is sent to the sample, the re-
8 sulting light is mostly vertically polarized. In addition, M_{31} corresponds to the
9 ability of the sample to polarize linearly at $+45^\circ$ (for positive values) or -45° (for
10 negative values) when unpolarized light interacts with the sample. In our case,
11 nanocolumns rotated by 90° transform unpolarized light into -45° linear polar-
12 ization, and, in contrast, when they are rotated by 270° , the final polarization is
13 $+45^\circ$ linear. Regarding M_{31} , the interpretation is the same as except that now,
14 unpolarized light becomes right circularly polarized by 90° of azimuthal rotation
15 and left circularly polarized by 270° of rotation. Finally, $M_{22} = 1$ for a sample that
16 is rotated by 0° and 180° . The result means that at this orientation, horizontally
17 and vertically polarized light stay in the same polarization state after reflection.

18 **5. Optical characterization and simulation**

19 In this section, the optical response of the nanostructured samples, both straight
20 and tilted pillars, is rigorously calculated using finite-element simulations of the
21 Maxwell equations by the software COMSOL Multiphysics.

22 The straight pillars are modeled as conical shapes, see Fig. 9(a), with a spheri-
23 cal top, according to the SEM image analysis (Fig. 3). The intercolumnar space is
24 fixed at 10 nm, and the column width is 80 nm at the top and 25 nm at the bottom.

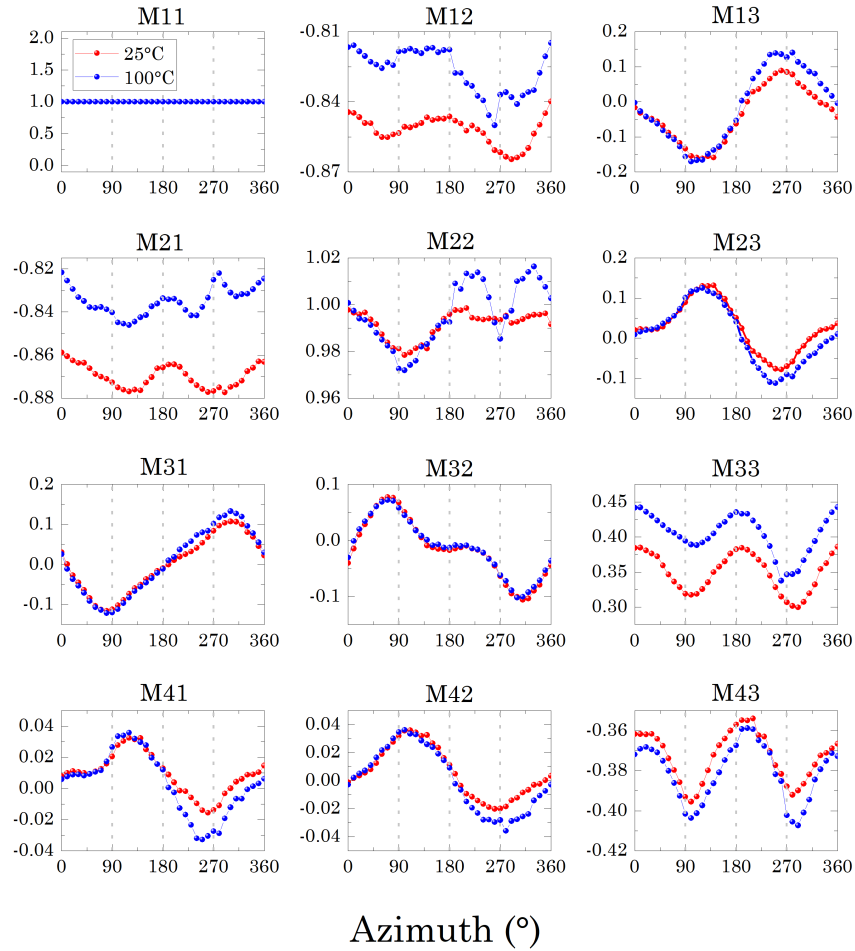


Figure 8: Experimental Mueller matrix data of a monoclinic VO_2 tilted columnar thin film versus sample azimuth angle at $\lambda = 470$ nm. The light incidence angle is fixed at 70° . The temperature samples are 25°C (blue) and 100°C (red). Vertical lines are put at 90° , 180° and 270° of azimuth. All elements are normalized by the M_{11} value.

- 1 The total height of the structure is 270 nm. The substrate is glass with a thin 5 nm
- 2 VO_2 overlayer. The pillars are 3D, set in a 2D square lattice with period 90 nm.

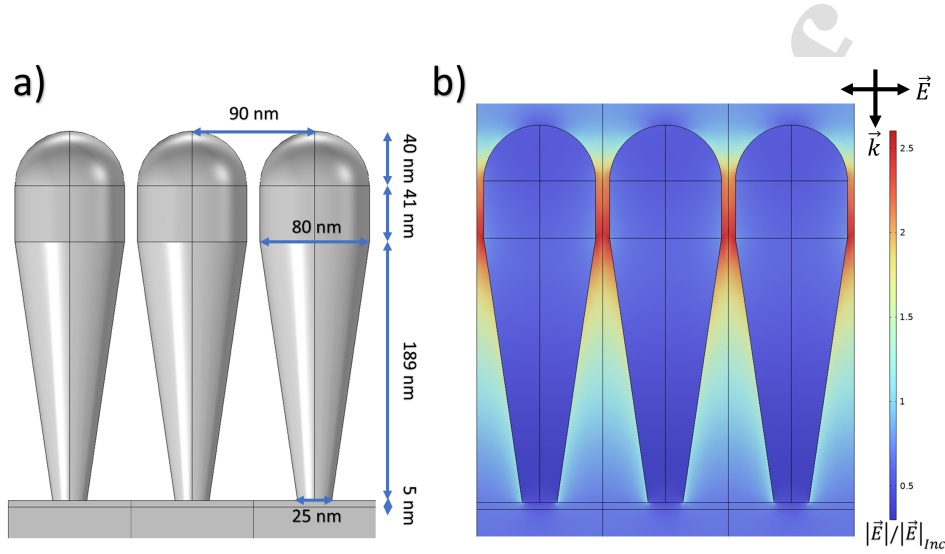


Figure 9: a) Simulation model. For visualization three periods are shown side by side, but only one period needs to be simulated. b) Plot of the electric field enhancement for pillars in the hot state at wavelength 700 nm.

1 For this model, a representative electrical field profile at wavelength 700 nm,
 2 for VO₂ in the hot state, is shown in Fig. 9(b). The arrow \vec{E} indicates the po-
 3 larization direction of the incident electric field, while \vec{k} shows the perpendic-
 4 ular incidence. The color scale is normalized with respect to the incident am-
 5 plitude, showing an interestingly strong light concentration in the narrow region
 6 between the straight cylinder sections. This behavior can be understood via the
 7 ‘slot waveguide’ effect, stemming from the perpendicular boundary condition for
 8 electric fields at an interface: $\epsilon_{VO_2} E_{n,VO_2} = \epsilon_{air} E_{n,air}$, with E_n the component
 9 normal to the interface. Since $\epsilon_{VO_2} > \epsilon_{air}$, there is a higher normal electric field
 10 component just outside the two nearby interfaces, leading to notable field concen-
 11 tration.

12 The transmission spectra for cold and hot VO₂ were simulated, see Figure 10.

1 For this structure, the cold transmission (blue) is around 57% at a wavelength of
2 500 nm. This curve nearly continuously increases, leveling off beyond 1500 nm,
3 reaching about 90 % near 2000 nm. By comparing with Figure 4a (dashed blue
4 and red curves), the pillar follow a similar trend, starting around 30 % at 500 nm,
5 rising to ~ 50 % at 1000 nm, leveling off to ~ 70 % at 2500 nm.

6 The simulations obtain higher transmission (90 % at 2000 nm) compared to
7 experiment, mainly at higher wavelengths. A potential, but probably limited, dif-
8 ference is the refractive index used in the simulation, which is the one measured
9 for a sample on silicon (for ellipsometry measurements), and not for the sample
10 on glass (for transmission measurements). However, previous research [41] shows
11 only marginal variations in VO₂ refractive indices between silicon and glass sub-
12 strates. A more important difference factor is the arrangement of the nanostruc-
13 tures on the substrate. In the simulations, the nanostructures are modeled in a
14 perfectly ordered lattice, whereas in the experiment the nanostructures are quite
15 randomly distributed on the substrate, which influences the transmission. It turns
16 out that for simulations a major factor is the filling factor of the pillars (width of
17 pillars versus period), whereas the precise shape (e.g., conical radius) is of lesser
18 importance.

19 Next, Figure 11a illustrates the geometry of the model to simulate the opti-
20 cal properties of slanted VO₂ nanocolumns. The setup consists of nanocolumns
21 composed of a rod radius of 32.5 nm and a spherical top, inclined at an angle to
22 the silicon substrate of 35 °. The nanocolumns are 3D, set in a 2D square lattice
23 with period (intercolumn distance) 64.5 nm. Since this distance is less than twice
24 the radius of the columns, they exhibit an overlap in both the x (horizontal) and
25 y (in-plane) directions. This choice was motivated by the analysis of the SEM

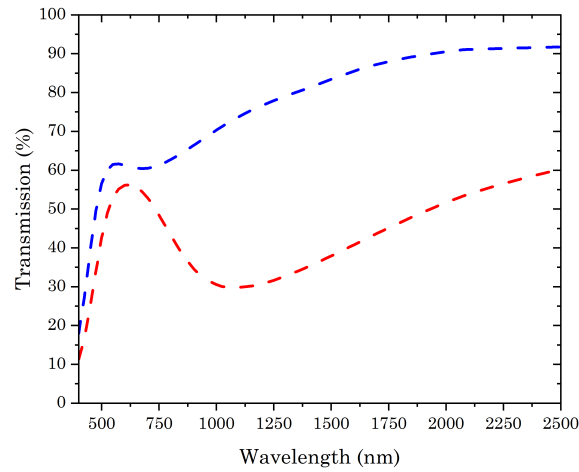


Figure 10: Simulated transmission spectra in cold (blue) and hot (red) state of straight pillar morphology represented in Figure 9.

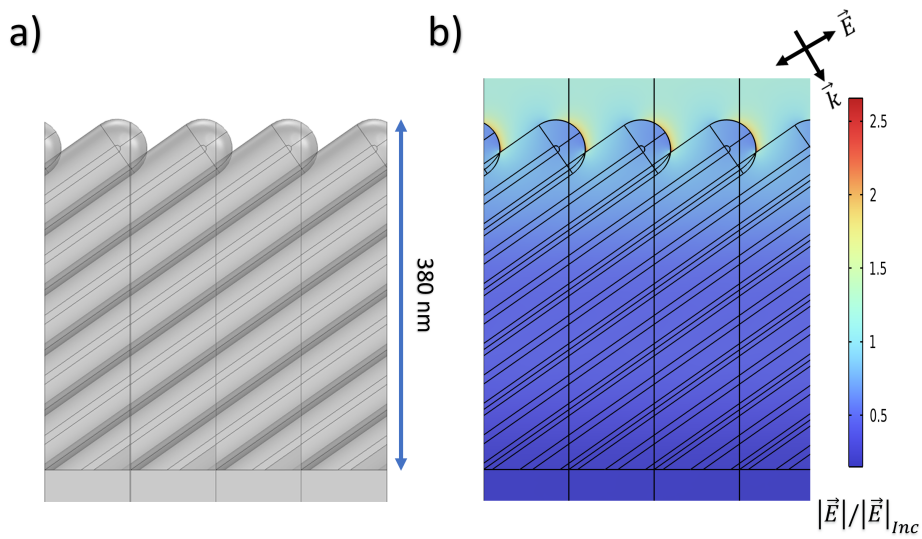


Figure 11: a) Simulation model of tilted nanocolumn morphology. For visualization four periods are shown side by side, but only one period needs to be simulated. b) Plot of the electric field enhancement for tilted nanocolumns in the hot state at wavelength 700 nm.

1 images (Fig. 3), which are quite dense. Note that there are still important air pores
2 between the pillars. This setup thus allows for the investigation of reflectivity and
3 transmittance by modeling the structure's anisotropic response to incident light.

4 The field plot in Fig. 11 (b) displays the electrical field profile, at wavelength
5 700 nm, within this tilted nanocolumn morphology when VO_2 is in the hot state.
6 The area of electric field enhancement on the spherical top can also be explained
7 by the discontinuity of the electric field perpendicular to the interface, as already
8 noticed for the straight nanopillars.

9 We examine and compare the reflectivity with two distinct simulation tech-
10 niques, Figure 12 shows results obtained using COMSOL (orange curves) and a
11 Berreman 4x4 matrix transfer method (green curves) at incident angles of 0° , 30° ,
12 and 60° . The left and right columns represent the cold and hot states of VO_2 ,
13 respectively.

14 In the COMSOL simulation approach, the slanted nanocolumn structure is
15 modeled three-dimensionally, capturing the precise shape, orientation, and ar-
16 rangement of individual nanocolumns, which provides a detailed representation
17 of the *porous*, nanostructured surface. In contrast, the Berreman 4x4 matrix trans-
18 fer method models the nanocolumn system as an *anisotropic* bulk material with a
19 tilted optical axis. This technique simplifies the structure by treating the material
20 as a layered medium with an inclined optical axis, thus accounting for the overall
21 anisotropy without explicitly simulating each column. The Berreman method cal-
22 culates a transfer matrix for each layer, which encapsulates how light is reflected
23 and transmitted within that layer, allowing for the derivation of the overall optical
24 response of the material across multiple layers.

25 Both methods demonstrate strong agreement in the reflectivity results. Despite

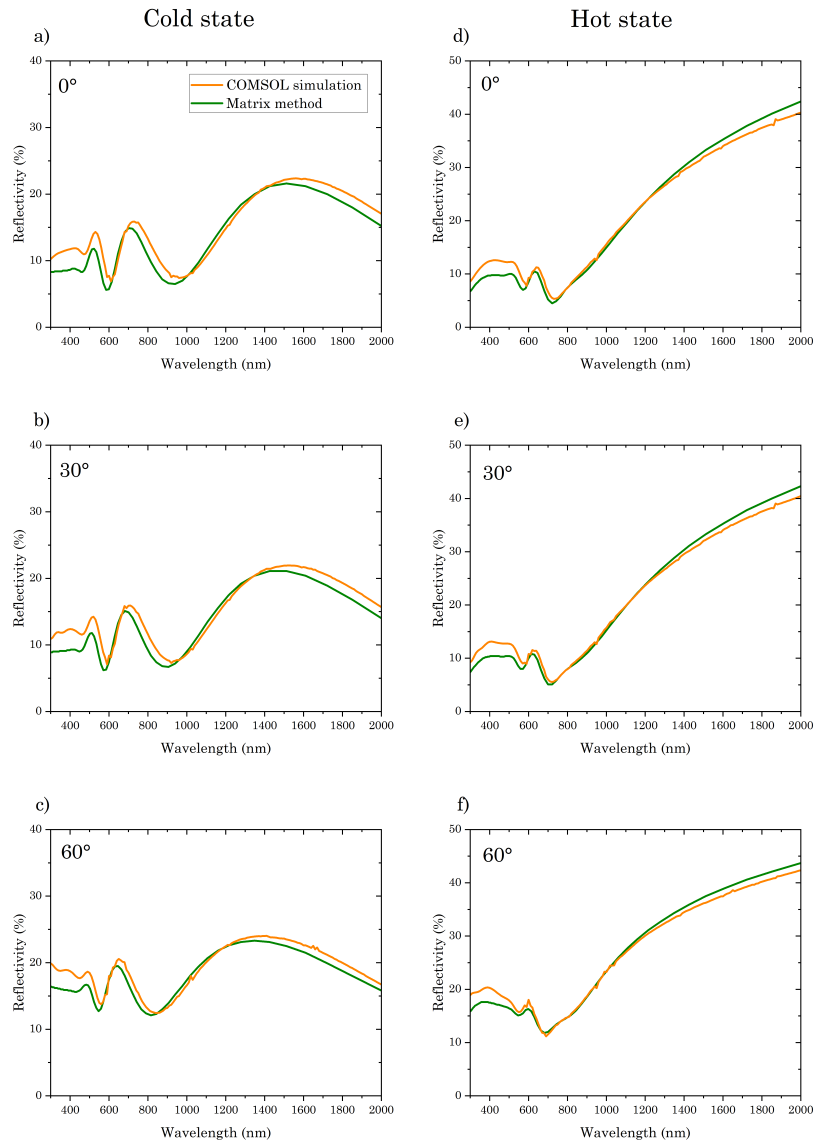


Figure 12: Reflectivity simulation for tilted nanocolumns using COMSOL (orange lines) and the Berreman matrix technique (green lines) at 0°, 30° and 60° of angle of incidence. The left and right columns represents the cold and hot states, respectively.

1 the modeling differences—where COMSOL provides detailed 3D simulation and
2 Berreman simplifies the system as a bulk material—the reflectivity spectra at var-
3 ious angles of incidence (0° , 30° , and 60°) and in both thermal states of VO_2 align
4 closely. This comparison illustrates that the Berreman matrix transfer method
5 offers a practical, less complex alternative to COMSOL for simulating optical
6 properties of this slanted nanocolumn systems, while still yielding comparable
7 results.

8 **6. Conclusion**

9 This study demonstrates the significant impact of nanostructure morphology
10 on the optical and thermochromic properties of monoclinic vanadium dioxide thin
11 films. By utilizing the Glancing Angle Deposition (GLAD) technique, we suc-
12 cessfully synthesized anisotropic VO_2 nanostructures, including tilted and pillar-
13 like morphologies, which markedly enhance the thermochromic performance of
14 the films.

15 In particular, the pillar morphology exhibits larger transmission variation and
16 broader hysteresis, making them especially promising for applications requiring
17 tunable optical properties such as energy-efficient smart windows. Optical char-
18 acterization using azimuthal Mueller matrix measurements reveal a strong cor-
19 relation between nanostructure geometry and optical anisotropy, with the tilted
20 nanocolumns showing pronounced polarization effects depending on the sample's
21 rotation.

22 Finite element simulations and modeling approaches such as the Berreman
23 4×4 transfer matrix method provide valuable insights into the behavior of these
24 nanostructures. The results highlight the critical role that the porosity of VO_2

1 plays in its optical response, suggesting new opportunities for optimizing these
2 materials in photonic devices, sensors and tunable optical filters. Overall, our
3 findings significantly advance the understanding of VO₂ nanostructures and open
4 new ways for their application in cutting-edge optical technologies.

5 **CrediT authorship contribution statement**

6 G. Savorianakis: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft. C.
7 Rousseau: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft. A. En Naciri:
8 Writing – review & editing, Conceptualization. Y. Battie: Investigation, Formal
9 analysis, Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing. B. Maes: Supervision,
10 Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing. M. Voué: Supervision, Conceptu-
11 alization, Writing – review & editing. S. Konstantinidis: Supervision, Conceptu-
12 alization, Writing – review & editing.

13 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

17 **Data availability**

18 Experimental and simulation data are available upon request to the corre-
19 sponding author.

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7 Appendix A. Supporting information

8 Supporting information to this article can be found online at ...

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Highlights

Optical anisotropy of nanostructured vanadium dioxide thermochromic thin films synthesized by reactive magnetron sputtering combined with glancing angle deposition

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- High purity anisotropic and thermochromic VO₂ nanostructured thin films, including tilted and pillar-like morphologies, were prepared by GLAD technique
- These tilted and pillar-like morphologies markedly enhance the thermochromic behaviour of the films
- Optical characterization using azimuthal Mueller matrix measurements reveals a strong correlation between nanostructure geometry and optical anisotropy
- Finite element simulations and modelling approaches such as the Berreman 4x4 transfer matrix method provide valuable insights into the behaviour of these nanostructures.

Declaration of interests

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.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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