Ion Beam Milling as a Symmetry-Breaking Control in the Synthesis of Periodic Arrays of Identically Aligned Bimetallic Janus Nanocrystals

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ABSTRACT: Bimetallic Janus nanostructures represent a highly functional class of nanomaterials due to important physicochemical properties stemming from the union of two chemically distinct metal segments where each maintains a partially exposed surface. Essential to their synthesis is the incorporation of a symmetry-breaking control that is able to induce the regioselective deposition of a secondary metal onto a preexisting nanostructure even though such depositions are, more often than not, in opposition to the innate tendencies of heterogeneous growth modes. Numerous symmetry-breaking controls have been forwarded but the ensuing Janus structure syntheses have not yet achieved anywhere near the same level of control over nanostructure size, shape, and composition as their core−shell and single-element counterparts. Herein, a collimated ion beam is demonstrated as a symmetry-breaking control that allows for the selective removal of a passivating oxide shell from one side of a metal nanostructure to create a configuration that is transformable into a substrate-bound Au−Ag Janus nanostructure. Two different modalities are demonstrated for achieving Janus structures where in one case the oxide dissolves in the growth solution while in the other it remains affixed to form a three-component system. The devised procedures distinguish themselves in their ability to realize complex Janus architectures arranged in periodic arrays where each structure has the same alignment relative to the underlying substrate. The work, hence, provides an avenue for forming precisely tailored Janus structures and, in a broader sense, advances the use of oxides as an effective means for directing nanometal syntheses.

KEYWORDS: Janus nanoparticle, heterodimer, glancing angle ion milling, symmetry-breaking, regioselective growth, atomic layer deposition

The design space afforded to inorganic nanostructures has been greatly expanded by the advent of synthetic controls that break crystallographic symmetries and allow for the ordered arrangement of constituent materials.1−6 Dual-component nanostructure systems with well-defined and uninterrupted interfaces are especially intriguing in this regard in that they form a union between two distinct phases of matter to create single unit nanostructures having components that express different functional properties or which interact to obtain a coupled response that is otherwise unobtainable.7−12 With inorganic materials exhibiting almost every major physicochemical property, there is a seemingly endless number of opportunities. Within this realm, bimetallic nanostructures are of specific interest because the formation of a metal−metal interface not only combines the distinctive plasmonic, catalytic, and magnetic properties expressed by individual metals but also augments these properties through heteroepitaxial strain, charge transfer, and defect formation.7−10 When bimetallic nanostructures are formed such that the two metals are connected by a single interface but where each remains partially exposed to the surrounding environment, they are further classified as bimetallic Janus nanostructures.7−9,13−15 The distinction emphasizes the importance of having readily accessible surfaces in applications that require surface exposure

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to reactants in a catalytic reaction or to analytes in a sensing application. As such, Janus structures have emerged as highly attractive nanomaterials for applications with a scope that includes tandem catalysis, plasmon-enhanced catalysis, strain-induced catalysis, catalytic motors, chemical and biological sensors, bioimaging, theranostics, and anticounterfeiting tags.\(^7\)−\(^9,13\)−\(^{17}\)

Bimetallic Janus nanostructures have been produced as colloids using a diverse collection of techniques.\(^7\)−\(^9,14,15\) Many of these employ an overall strategy that sees single-component nanostructures separately synthesized and then introduced into a growth solution promoting the deposition of a second metal onto their surface where regioselective controls are put in place to promote the desired side-by-side metal−metal configuration. The strategy is reliant on heterogeneous nucleation onto the presynthesized structures being more favorable than homogeneous nucleation. Symmetry-breaking controls for achieving site-selective heterogeneous growth\(^2\) include the use of (i) slow reduction kinetics capable of triggering growth at a single site after which autocatalytic processes and diffusion ensure continued growth at just that site,\(^18\)−\(^21\) (ii) twin defects,\(^19,22\) (iii) lattice-mismatch-induced strain,\(^23\)−\(^25\) (iv) capping agents,\(^4,21,26\)−\(^28\) (v) nanostructure trapping sites formed at the interface between immiscible liquids where the reduction reaction occurs in just one of the liquids,\(^29,30\) (vi) controlling the reaction stoichiometry in galvanic replacement reactions,\(^31\) (vii) “soft” polymer masks that, when selectively applied, present a barrier to growth while allowing for growth elsewhere,\(^32\)−\(^37\) and (viii) “hard” inorganic masks that behave similarly.\(^16,38\)−\(^42\) Among these, the masking techniques provide a conceptually appealing approach and are, in principle, generally applicable. The primary obstacle in forwarding this approach is the application of the mask material in a site-selective manner. Demonstrations that have overcome this hurdle and then gone on to realize bimetallic Janus nanostructures have relied on polystyrene,\(^32\)−\(^34,38\) polyaniline,\(^35\) poly(Styrene−b-poly(acrylic acid)),\(^36,37\) and SiO\(_2\)\(^16,39\)−\(^42\) as masking materials. SiO\(_2\) notably stands out as the most widely used and the only one that falls under the category of a hard inorganic mask.

A parallel effort directed toward the formation of bimetallic Janus structures on substrate surfaces presents both opportunities and challenges. Opportunities stem from the integration of wafer-based processing tools into nanofabrication schemes.\(^43\) With a toolset that includes chemical and physical vapor phase depositions, self- and directed-assembly processes, and a wide variety of lithographic techniques, there exist additional avenues for gaining high-level control over nanostructure size, shape, composition, and orientation. Mirkin and co-workers have, for example, devised a scheme for generating periodic arrays of Janus nanostructures based on the coreduction of metal precursors that utilizes scanning-probe block copolymer lithography (SPBCL) in combination with a high-temperature assembly process carried out in a H\(_2\) atmosphere.\(^44\)−\(^46\) The formation of these substrate-based Janus structures is entirely reliant on phase separation occurring between immiscible components. As such, the procedure is confined to particular metal combinations where few controls exist over shape, the nature of the interface, and the directionalty of the structures relative to the underlying substrate. Chen et al.,\(^47\) using a similar growth pathway, examined the phase separation behavior needed to form Au−Rh Janus nanostructures. Other notable achievements include the fabrication of (i) polarization-dependent

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**Figure 1.** (a) Schematic of the procedure used to form periodic arrays of Au@Ag core–shell nanocubes on [0001]−oriented sapphire substrates. (b) SE and (c) BSE SEM images of the arrayed structures. High-resolution images showing a [111]-oriented nanocube taken from (d) top and (e) tilted views. (f) EDS elemental maps and (g) line scans of a core–shell structure.
patterns on glass substrates by forming Au−Ag Janus structures on magnetic nanorods, dispersing them in an acrylamide layer, and then assembling them in a magnetic field so as to simultaneously align both the nanorods and the longitudinal plasmon mode along a chosen direction, and (ii) vertically aligned Ag−M Janus structures (M = Au, Pt, Pd) using a microcontact printing method. Collectively, these demonstrations highlight the distinct nature of substrate-based processing as well as the nanomaterials formed.

With the understanding that seed-mediated colloidal synthesis routes can be practiced on substrate-bound structures, there is opportunity to extend these growth pathways to the formation of bimetallic Janus nanostructures where previously untapped capabilities originate from the use of wafer-based processing tools. Of high relevance are the growth modes utilizing inorganic masks since vapor phase deposition processes provide alternate methods for applying a variety of masking materials while the directional controls offered by ion beam milling possesses the characteristics needed to induce breaks in symmetry. Herein, we demonstrate a strategy for the fabrication of periodic arrays of identically aligned Janus nanostructures that capitalizes on symmetry-breaking capabilities of a collimated ion beam. The overall process sees an oxide mask applied to one side of a metal nanostructure that, when exposed to a suitably chosen liquid-state chemical environment, acts to transform an otherwise symmetric growth when exposed to a suitably chosen liquid-state chemical environment, acts as the Ag precursor and citrate, derived from trisodium citrate (Na₃C₆H₅O₇), plays the dual role of capping and reducing agent. Important from the perspective of this work is that the Au cores are incubated in the capping agent for 30 s prior to the onset of the reaction. Shell formation, which is initiated through the injection of aqueous AgNO₃, is fairly rapid, requiring only 4 min.

**RESULTS**

**Au@Ag Core−Shell Nanocubes as a Model System.** A previously reported Au@Ag core−shell nanocube synthesis is used in this study as a model system for demonstrating two routes that use inorganic masks to redirect its growth along a pathway yielding Au−Ag Janus nanostructures. The procedure for forming core−shell structures, which is shown schematically in Figure 1a, sees a periodic array of substrate-immobilized Au nanoparticles (NPs) formed and then subjected to a liquid-phase synthesis that heterogeneously deposits a (100)-faceted Ag shell onto each of the structures while leaving the exposed sapphire substrate bare. The Au NPs, which ultimately become the core, are formed using a templated dewetting process in which arrays of lithographically defined polycrystalline discs are assembled into {111}-oriented single-crystal structures at elevated temperatures. The Ag shells are formed using a two-reagent seed-mediated synthesis where AgNO₃ acts as the Ag⁺ precursor and citrate, derived from trisodium citrate (Na₃C₆H₅O₇), plays the dual role of capping and reducing agent. Important from the perspective of this work is that the Au cores are incubated in the capping agent for 30 s prior to the onset of the reaction. Shell formation, which is initiated through the injection of aqueous AgNO₃, is fairly rapid, requiring only 4 min.

**Figure 1** shows a secondary electron (SE) SEM image of a Au@Ag core−shell nanocube array. It shows uniformly sized structures where each is oriented in one of two possible in-plane orientations that differ by 180° (denoted by red arrows). The two orientations originate from two geometrically equivalent heteroepitaxial relationships formed between the (111) planes of Au and the (0001) surface of the sapphire substrate. The backscattered electron (BSE) image, shown in Figure 1c, provides the Z-contrast that clearly reveals the core−shell morphology. Top and tilted view high-magnification images of individual structures (Figure 1d,e) reveal crisp (100)-faceting and a nanocube orientation that has its [111]-axis perpendicular to the surface of the substrate. Also noteworthy is that the structure morphology is more accurately described as nanocube-like since it displays an apparent truncation at the Au-substrate interface resulting from the fact that Ag deposition onto the underside of the Au core is
impossible due to the steric barrier imposed by the substrate. Elemental mapping and the associated line scans (Figure 1f,g) derived from energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) measurements confirm the Au@Ag core–shell morphology. Taken together, these results provide an essential comparison when examining the devised pathways for generating Au–Ag Janus nanostructures.

**Janus Structure Growth Pathways.** Figure 2 shows two growth pathways by which inorganic oxide masks can be used to transform the growth pattern from a Au@Ag core–shell configuration to a Janus structure where the key difference is whether or not the mask dissolves in the growth solution. For both cases, Au NPs are first prepared that have an oxide shell covering half their surface (*vide infra*). They are then subjected to the four-stage progression shown in Figure 2a where the schematic below each (Figure 2b,c) shows a representation of the structures as they would appear at the end of that stage for the two growth pathways. For the first growth pathway (Figure 2b), the shell is designed to be sacrificial by choosing an oxide material that dissolves within the aqueous growth solution on time scales that are small when compared to the duration of the Au@Ag core–shell synthesis (*i.e.*, 3 1/2 min). The partially coated Au structure is first incubated in a growth solution lacking the Ag⁺ ion at a 9° glancing angle, and then etched in NaOH until half the Au surface is exposed. (g) Tilted view SE SEM image of Al₂O₃ shells after the Au component is removed with a selective etch (*i.e.*, *aqua regia*). (h) Time dependence of the percentage shift in the LSPR of Au NPs as a 10 nm thick Al₂O₃ is dissolved in a 10 mM solution of aqueous Na₃CA at 95 °C.
begins to dissolve but where it is sufficiently robust to withstand the incubation period. At the onset of the synthesis, brought about by the addition of the aqueous AgNO$_3$, Ag deposition onto the Au structure is inhibited on one side by the oxide and on the other side by the capping agent. This situation is, however, temporary because the dissolution of the oxide eventually exposes the underlying Au to create a surface that is highly favorable for a Ag nucleation event since it is initially free of capping agents. The final product of the reaction is a Au−Ag Janus structure with a side-by-side spatial arrangement where the Ag component expresses (100) facetting. For the second growth pathway (Figure 2c), the oxide shell material is chosen to be chemically inert to the growth solution. The partially coated Au structure is similarly incubated in the citrate capping agent, after which the Ag$^+$ precursor is added. In this case, Ag$^+$ reduction onto the Au surface is, once again, inhibited but where the capping agent eventually succumbs to a nucleation event that, in time, gives rise to Ag growth off one side of the structure. The structure is identical with that formed in the first pathway except that it is oppositely facing and exists as a three-component system since the oxide remains permanently affixed to Au. This pathway shares similarities with colloidal Janus structures synthesized utilizing hard inorganic masks.$^{16,36−42}$

**Growth Pathway #1 – Oxide Dissolves.** The primary challenge in executing the growth pathways presented in Figure 2b,c is the application of an inorganic mask material with the desired functionalities. The process devised for achieving this outcome, which is schematically shown in Figure 3a, begins with the complete encapsulation of the Au NP array within an ultrathin oxide coating. Atomic layer deposition (ALD) is ideally suited for this purpose since it is able to apply conformal pinhole-free oxides where the layer thickness is controlled with monolayer-scale precision.$^{57}$ The amorphous nature of these coatings is advantageous because it makes them far more susceptible to etching than their crystalline counterparts. Moreover, the removal of material over time is more uniform since facet-dependent etching processes are absent. Directional modification of the oxide shell is then carried out using a glancing angle milling process that uses a collimated Ar$^+$ ion beam to selectively thin the oxide on one side of the Au structure while leaving the other side unscathed due to a self-shadowing effect. The entire structure is then exposed to an aqueous etchant for a time interval that allows for the complete removal of the oxide from the milled side while still leaving an oxide shell on the side that is not milled. The overall process, therefore, gives rise to Au NPs that are exposed on one side but not on the other. It should be noted that the milling/etching combination is essential to the success of the
process because milling by itself is ineffective since complete oxide removal from one side of the NP gives rise to a damaged Au surface that proves unsatisfactory in the generation of Janus structures.

ALD-deposited Al₂O₃ was selected as the mask material for Janus structures fabricated using Growth Pathway #1. Figure 3b−d shows a progression of three BSE SEM images showing a Au NP array that has been (i) coated with a 10 nm layer of Al₂O₃, (ii) ion milled using a 1.5 keV Ar⁺ beam directed at a 9° glancing angle such that one side of the Al₂O₃ shell is selectively thinned, and (iii) exposed to an aqueous NaOH etch for a time interval that is optimized to remove the thinned portion of the Al₂O₃ shell so as to expose the Au NP surface on one side but not the other. Figure 3e shows a SE SEM image of partially encapsulated Au NPs. The application and selective removal of the Al₂O₃ layer was monitored using optical spectroscopy where the localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) of the Au structures acts as a built-in sensor responsive to changes in the dielectric environment. Figure 3f shows the extinction spectra taken at various stages of the process. The deposition of 10 nm of Al₂O₃ onto the Au structures causes the plasmon resonance to intensify and red shift from 588 to 620 nm, as is anticipated when the refractive index of the surrounding medium is increased. The milling/etching process leads to a blue shift as well as a significant weakening of the plasmon peak as the dielectric environment surrounding half the Au structure reverts to the uncoated state. Etch tests, which selectively remove the Au component while leaving the Al₂O₃ shell intact followed by SEM characterization, provide further confirmation of the half-shell geometry (Figure 3g and Figure S1). If Al₂O₃ is to act as a sacrificial material in the synthesis of Janus structures, then it is imperative that it dissolves in the Ag nanocube growth solution. Figure 3h provides evidence that this is indeed the case. It presents a plot of the percentage shift in the LSPR of Al₂O₃-coated Au NPs occurring when they are exposed to a growth solution lacking the AgNO₃ component for various time intervals. Here, 100% corresponds to the LSPR shift occurring when 10 nm of Al₂O₃ is applied to the Au NPs whereas 0% indicates that the Au NP is oxide-free. The data reveal that the LSPR reverts to its Al₂O₃-free value in approximately 30 s, a time span that is ideal in that it would result in a fresh Au surface being exposed to the growth solution just as the incubation period ends. Collectively, these results confirm that ALD-deposited Al₂O₃ meets the mechanistic requirements needed to enact the growth pathways presented in Figure 2b.

Figure 4a−c shows top and side view SEM images of the structures obtained when an array of Au NPs with sacrificial Al₂O₃ masks are subjected to the solution-based synthesis that yielded the Au@Ag core−shell nanocubes shown in Figure 1. Low-magnification images of larger areas are shown in Figure S2. It is immediately apparent from the SEM data that the mask has a profound influence upon the synthesis, transforming an otherwise symmetric growth pattern into a Au−Ag Janus structure displaying both morphological and compositional breaks in symmetry. Also essential to Janus structure
formation is the 30 s incubation period in the citrate capping agent prior to the injection of AgNO_3 as its elimination gives rise to a core−shell structure. In this scenario, Ag deposition is favorable on the uncapped Au surface (i.e., the milled/etched side) as it enters the reaction and then on masked surface once the Al_2O_3 dissolves.

The Ag component of the Janus structure appears as a nanocube fragment with (100) faceting that emanates in the direction from which the oxide mask was applied (i.e., opposite to the milled/etched side). Such structures have no colloidal analogue. The BSE and EDS elemental mapping, shown in Figure 4d,e, confirm that the Janus structures are composed of Au and Ag segments arranged in a side-by-side configuration with a well-defined interface. These measurements, however, are unable to establish whether the Al_2O_3 masks were, as expected, consumed in the synthesis. Etch tests, which selectively removed the metal components, established that this was indeed the case as no remnants of the oxide mask were observed. It is also important to appreciate that each structure is identically aligned relative to the underlying substrate where alignment is induced not by lithography but by the directional modification caused by the glancing angle milling process.

A close examination of Growth Pathway #1 reveals that it is dependent on a strong interplay between the (i) oxide thickness, (ii) Ar^+ ion milling time, (iii) incubation time, and (iv) growth parameters associated with the synthesis of the Ag component. Crucial to the pathway is that the milling step leads to a significant thickness difference between the milled and unmilled oxide surfaces. Upon entering into the Ag nanocube growth solution, it is this difference that sets the time interval in which the milled side becomes exposed to the Ag nanocube growth solution while leaving the thicker side temporarily protected. This time interval not only sets the duration of the incubation time but also must be of sufficient duration; otherwise, insufficient capping will occur and lead to Ag growth over the entire Au surface. The product of the reaction will, therefore, be a Au@Ag core−shell structure instead of a Janus structure. A core−shell structure will also emerge if the incubation time is too long because it will allow for both the removal of the entire oxide layer and the efficient capping of the completely exposed Au NP, a scenario that is...
equivalent to the Au@Ag nanocube synthesis presented in Figure 1. It should also be understood that the rate of removal of the oxide layer is dependent upon the citrate concentration and temperature used in the Ag synthesis. With these constraints in place, it is essential that the timing of the incubation period be accurately set for the chosen oxide thickness, milling time, and Ag growth parameters.

With the milling process allowing for the site-selective deposition of Ag onto Au NPs, it becomes possible to extend this synthetic strategy by using the milling direction as an adjustable control. In demonstration of this capability, Au–Ag Janus structures were produced using the procedure shown schematically in Figure 5a. It begins by producing sacrificial Al₂O₃ masks using the previously described procedure except that the milling direction is chosen to be normal to the surface of the substrate. The subsequent Al₂O₃ etch in NaOH, therefore, leaves exposed Au on just the top of the structure as is evidenced by etch tests that are analogous to those used to obtain Figure 3g that reveal an array of open-topped Al₂O₃ shells (Figure S3). When such structures are incubated in the aqueous Na₃CA, the exposed Au at the top of each structure becomes capped with citrate as the Al₂O₃ mask begins to dissolve. Complete dissolution, which occurs after the injection of aqueous AgNO₃, sees Ag deposited on all the freshly exposed Au surfaces from which the sacrificial mask dissolved but not on those capped by citrate. Figure 5b,c shows top and side view SEM images of the nanostructures produced. As anticipated, the round surface of the central Au structure protrudes from the top of a cube-like Ag shell that encapsulates the rest of the structure. The BSE images and EDS elemental line scans and maps shown in Figure 5d,e, once again, reveal that the Au and Ag components are spatially segregated within the structures. These structures also have no colloidal analogue.

**Growth Pathway #2 — Oxide Remains Intact.** ALD-deposited TiO₂ was selected as the mask material for forwarding the second growth pathway whereby the oxide remains permanently affixed to the Au–Ag Janus structure. Figure 6a shows a schematic of the stepwise procedure in which (i) a Au NP array is prepared, (ii) coated with a 10 nm thick layer of TiO₂, (iii) selectively thinned on one side by glancing angleAr⁺ ion milling, (iv) exposed to a NH₄OH–H₂O₂ etchant for a time interval that removes the TiO₂ remaining on the milled side, and (v) subjected to a Ag nanocube growth solution that allows for growth on the exposed Au surface but not on the areas masked by the TiO₂. Figure 6b shows a progression of BSE SEM images that validate the TiO₂ mask preparation process. They reveal a conformal layer of TiO₂ that is first thinned and then etched to expose the underlying Au. An etch test, which selectively removes the Au, was also carried out to confirm the TiO₂ half-shell geometry. Figures S4 and S5 present images of arrayed structures taken after each step in the progression. Spectroscopic characterization of the mask formation process, as expected, reveals a red shift in the Au plasmon when the TiO₂ layer is applied followed by a blue shift resulting from the TiO₂ milling/etching process (Figure 6c). The chemical stability of ALD-deposited TiO₂ within the Ag nanocube growth solution was verified by the strong spectral overlap occurring in the extinction for TiO₂-coated Au NPs before and after being exposed to a 95 °C growth solution lacking the AgNO₃ component (Figure 6f) for a time interval that is significantly longer (i.e., 30 min) than that needed for the synthesis of the Ag component (i.e., 4 min).

Figure 6d,e shows SE and BSE SEM images of the structures formed when the TiO₂-masked Au NPs are exposed to the Ag nanocube growth solution. Although these structures appear quite similar to those produced using the Al₂O₃ mask (Figure 4), there is a key difference in that none of the Au is exposed because it is completely encapsulated by a combination of Ag, TiO₂, and the underlying sapphire substrate (Figure 6f). It is also noteworthy that the Ag component forms on the milled side and requires a somewhat longer growth time (4 min as opposed to 3 1/2 min) since the citrate-capped Au surface must be breached. Elemental mapping and the associated line scans (Figure 6g,h) reveal the segmented nature of the Au and Ag components. Overall, these results validate Growth Pathway #2 as a viable route for fabricating Janus structures.

From a mechanistic standpoint, Growth Pathway #2 is far more straightforward. The Au NP enters the Ag nanocube growth with one of its sides exposed while the other is masked with a TiO₂ layer whose surface is chemically inert and unfavorable for Ag deposition. The citrate capping layer formed during the incubation period, while initially inhibiting growth, is eventually breached, after which a nanocube-like growth proceeds. It should be noted that the 30 s incubation step is not vital to this pathway. Eliminating it completely does, however, lead to a somewhat inferior reaction product because there is no time for the room temperature substrate to equilibrate with the 95 °C Ag nanocube growth solution. Incubation times between 10 and 30 s do, however, yield a near-equivalent product.

**DISCUSSION**

Taken together, the two growth pathways demonstrate the utility of depositing an oxide coating onto a metal NP followed by a directional milling process that results in the formation of an asymmetrically positioned active site for metal deposition. The overall process, referred to as GLAMER (i.e., glancing angle milling, etching, and regrowth), joins a group of substrate-based processing routes that induce nanostructure asymmetries by complimenting lithographic techniques with directed beams that either add or subtract material from the surface. The GLAMER route is distinct from other methods in that it gives rise to complex architectures with a single-crystal character as opposed to polycrystalline structures derived from the physical vapor deposition (PVD) techniques commonly associated with wafer-based processing (e.g., sputtering, evaporation). Other important aspects of the approach include the use of ALD-deposited materials in a manner that exploits differences in chemical stability when compared to metals, the use of an oxide shell as a sacrificial masking material that dissolves in a liquid-state chemical environment, and the integration of wet chemical syntheses into the overall processing route. When compared with leading-edge colloidial routes for preparing Janus structures, the GLAMER process realizes nanostructures that stand out as being among the most sophisticated in terms of architectural complexity. It does, however, have its drawbacks in that the process is somewhat involved, it requires the immobilization of one component of the Janus structure on the substrate surface, the array spacing must be large enough to avoid unwanted shadowing effects during the glancing angle milling process, and selective etch combinations must be established that remove the oxide while leaving the metal components intact. It
should also be noted that the GLAMER process currently yields milled areas of only 3 mm² but where this represents a limitation of the instrumentation used rather than an intrinsic constraint placed on the devised process. Notwithstanding, the approach provides a method for forming identically aligned single-crystal bimetallic Janus structures in periodic arrays and, hence, provides an avenue for advancing the synthesis and application of substrate-based nanostructures.

In addition to the formation of bimetallic Janus nanostructures, there exist opportunities to extend the GLAMER strategy beyond dual-component systems. The three-component system obtained using Growth Pathway #2 (Figure 2c), in which the TiO₂ layer remains affixed to the Au component of a Au–Ag Janus structure, provides an initial demonstration in that it combines an oxide material renowned for its light harvesting and photocatalytic capabilities with nanometals. In particular, it is the union of semiconducting and plasmonic components into a single nanostructure architecture that has generated the most interest. By using the GLAMER methodology, there is the potential to rationally design multicomponent antenna–reactor photocatalytic systems that, for example, combine semiconducting, plasmonic, and Pt-group metals into a single unit expressing sharp interfaces, facets, or even nanogaps supporting intense near-fields. Such capabilities could also prove complementary to an emerging set of techniques for forming periodic arrays of plasmonic dimers held together by molecular linkers that act as a tether between the two NP components. Even on the single-element nanostructure level, there exist possible pathways for redirecting otherwise symmetric growth modes with partial oxide shells. We believe that the GLAMER process could prove effective in realizing single element nanostructures that are bimorphic, have internal nanogaps, or express chirality. It could also prove possible to extend the capabilities and viability of this approach by adapting the process to (i) include glancing angle depositions, (ii) produce inorganic oxide shells using the more widely accessible Stöber method, or (iii) use polymer-based shells such as those that have already shown their effectiveness in colloidal syntheses.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have demonstrated that ion-beam-induced surface modifications to an oxide-encapsulated Au NP can act as a symmetry-breaking control capable of launching Ag growth trajectories in the deterministic directions needed to form bimetallic Au–Ag Janus nanostructures. The GLAMER process, which is specific to substrate-based structures, capitalizes on the (i) conformal oxide depositions available through the ALD technique, (ii) directional milling capabilities of a collimated ion beam, and (iii) chemically dissimilar properties exhibited by oxides and metals when exposed to etchants and the liquid-state chemical environments required for nanometal syntheses. The so-formed Janus structures distinguish themselves in that they are architecturally complex and formed in periodic arrays where each is identically aligned on the substrate surface. With competencies now demonstrated for the Au–Ag system, this work lays the foundation for advancing a host of regioselective synthetic schemes utilizing various metals and oxides in combination with the rich and diverse liquid-state chemistry dedicated to nanometal syntheses. The potential therefore exists for forming organized surfaces of asymmetric nanomaterials with photonic and chemical properties that are designed to express application-specific responses.

METHODS

Chemicals and Materials. Au NP arrays were fabricated on 10.5 mm × 10 mm × 0.65 mm substrates diced from 100 mm diameter two-sided polished wafers of single-crystal [0001]-oriented Al₂O₃ (MTI Corp). The nanoimprint lithography process used a (i) 7030R thermal resist (Micro Resist Technology, GmbH), (ii) PMGI SF 35 liftoff resist, (iii) tetramethylammonium hydroxide solution, 8, III, dioxolan (KayaKu Advanced Materials), (iv) Si nanoimprint lithography stamp (Lightsmyth Technologies), and (v) trichloro-(1H,1H,2H,2H-perfluoroctyl)silane antisticking layer (MilliporeSigma). Au was sputtered from a 19 mm diameter target that was fabricated from a 1.0 mm thick Au foil (99.9985% pure, Alfa Aesar) using a punch and die setup. Dewetting of the Au took place in an ultrahigh-purity Ar gas environment (Airgas). The deposition of the Al₂O₃ and TiO₂ mask materials used trimethylaluminium (TMA) and tetrakis-(dimethylamido)titanium (TDAT) precursors that were sourced from MilliporeSigma and SAFC Hitech, respectively. Oxide and Au etching solutions were produced from sodium hydroxide (NaOH, Sigma-Aldrich), ammonium hydroxide (28% NH₄OH, Alfa Aesar), hydrogen peroxide (30% H₂O₂, Supelco), nitric acid (HNO₃, Beantown Chemical), and hydrochloric acid (HCl, VWR). Ag cubes were synthesized using trisodium citrate dihydrate (Na₃C₆H₅O₇·2H₂O, 99% pure, Thermo Scientific) and silver nitrate (AgNO₃ reagent ACS, Ward’s Science). All solutes were dissolved in deionized (DI) H₂O obtained from a Milli-Q system with a resistivity of 18.2 Ω·cm.

Periodic Arrays of Au NPs. Arrays were fabricated using a modified version of a previously reported procedure that sees polycrystalline Au discs formed in arrays using nanoimprint lithography followed by a heat treatment that sees each disc assemble into a [111]-oriented single-crystal NP. The nanoimprint lithography process has, however, been modified to include the use of a bilayer resist (i.e., 7030R thermal resist/PMGI SF 35 liftoff resist) that consistently yields a superior product when compared to arrays derived from a single layer resist. The stamp used for nanoimprint lithography consists of an 8 mm × 8.3 mm hexagonal array of cylindrical pillars (350 nm tall, 240 nm diameter) with a center-to-center distance of 600 nm. Once produced, the arrays are typically divided into four pieces where each is used in a separate experiment.

Al₂O₃ Mask Fabrication. Periodic arrays of Au NPs were coated with a 10 nm thick conformal layer of Al₂O₃ using ALD. The deposition proceeds at 200 °C through the repetition of two self-limiting half-reactions brought about by the cyclic introduction of TMA and H₂O precursors into the reaction chamber. Each cycle sees the sequential introduction of two precursors for 20 ms intervals separated by a 7 s N₂ gas purge. Films produced in this manner are amorphous and possess a stoichiometry that is ill-defined. Additional details regarding the ALD depositions, film characterization, and the ellipsometry-based thickness calibration can be found elsewhere. Glancing angle milling was carried out at 9° for 10 s using a collimated 0.55 μA Ar⁺ ion beam generated using a 1.5 keV excitation voltage and a gas flow of 0.1 sccm. The remaining Al₂O₃ layer is etched for 4 min in 1 mM aqueous NaOH, rinsed in DI water, and dried in a N₂ gas flow.

TiO₂ Mask Fabrication. TiO₂ mask fabrication proceeded in much the same manner. ALD depositions produced 10 nm thick conformal coatings at 200 °C using TDMAT and H₂O precursors that were cyclically pulsed for 800 ms and 1 s, respectively, where each pulse was separated by a N₂ gas purge time of 7 s and a 3 s pumping interval. Glancing angle milling utilized the same milling angle but where the milling time is increased to 15 s and the excitation voltage is decreased to 0.75 keV. The remaining TiO₂ is etched for 15 s in a solution of 25% NH₄OH, 25% H₂O₂, and 50% DI (by volume).

Ag Synthesis. The Ag component for both the Au@Ag core–shell and Au–Ag Janus structures were produced using a synthesis described in detail elsewhere. It begins with the preparation of 95
C aqueous solutions of AgNO₃ (3 mL, 1 mM) and Na₂C₆H₆O₇ (1 mL, 10 mM). The substrate is then incubated in the Na₂C₆H₆O₇ for 30 s, after which AgNO₃ is added. The Ag nanocube growth is then allowed to proceed for 3 1/2 and 4 min when using the Al₂O₃ and TiO₂ mask, respectively. The substrate is then removed from the solution, sonicated for 5 s in DI water, and dried in air. The sonication step is carried out to remove any loosely bound Ag colloids that spontaneously formed in the growth solution and then inadvertently landed on the nanostructure array.

**Etch Tests.** Etch tests carried out in demonstration of the integrity of the oxide masks as well as to confirm that the sacrificial Al₂O₃ is consumed in the Ag synthesis placed the sample in aqua regia (Hazard: aqua regia is highly toxic and corrosive) for 10 min. The substrate is then removed and rinsed in DI H₂O, immediately transferred to acetone, removed, and then gently dried under an N₂ gas flow. Performing the drying step in acetone instead of water reduces the capillary forces that can cause damage to any oxide structures remaining on the substrate surface.

**Instrumentation.** Nano imprint lithography utilized a home-built imprinter,∗ a Laurell WS-650-23 B spin coater, and a Samco RIE-1C reactive ion etching system. Au sputter depositions were performed in a Savannah 100 ALD tube furnace equipped with a quartz tube and an Ar flow gas handling system. Al₂O₃ depositions were performed in a Savannah 100 ALD system while TiO₂ depositions were carried out in an Oxford Instrument FlexAL ALD system. A Gatan model 681 PECS II system was used for Ar⁺ ion milling. SEM imaging and EDS elemental analysis utilized a Helios G4 UX DualBeam system. Samples were coated with a thin AuPd layer prior to SEM characterization to reduce surface charging. Extinction spectra were taken in a V-730 UV–visible spectrophotometer.

**ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

**Supporting Information**

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/10.1021/acsnano.3c00149.

Figures of SEM images showing periodic arrays of Al₂O₃ and TiO₂ masks after the Au NP component is etched away, large-area SEM images of arrays of Au–Ag Janus structures, SEM and EDS line scans of Au NPs masked with TiO₂, and extinction spectra for standalone and TiO₂-coated Au NPs (PDF).

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**Notes**

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