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Enhancing magneto-ionic effects in magnetic nanostructured films via conformal deposition of nanolayers with oxygen getter/donor capabilities

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ABSTRACT

Effective electric-field manipulation of the magnetic properties of nanostructured metallic alloys exhibiting inter-grain porosity (i.e., channels) conformally coated with insulating oxide nanolayers is demonstrated. Nanostructured Co–Pt films are prepared by electrodeposition (ED) and subsequently coated with either AlO_x or HfO_x by atomic layer deposition (ALD) to promote magneto-ionic effects (i.e., voltage-driven ion migration) during electrolyte-gating. Pronounced variations in coercivity (H_C) and magnetic moment at saturation (m_S) are observed at room temperature after biasing the heterostructures. The application of a negative voltage results in a decrease of H_C and an increase of m_S, whereas the opposite trend is achieved for positive voltages. Although magneto-ionic phenomena are already observed in uncoated Co-Pt films (due to the inherent presence of oxygen), the ALD oxide nanocoatings serve to drastically enhance the magneto-ionic effects due to partially reversible voltage-driven oxygen migration across the interface between AlO_x or HfO_x and the nanostructured Co–Pt film. Co–Pt/HfO_x heterostructures exhibit the most significant magnetoelectric response at negative voltages, with an increase of m_S up to 76% and a decrease of H_C by 58%. The combination of a nanostructured magnetic alloy and a skin-like insulating oxide nanocoating is shown to be appealing to enhance magneto-ionic effects, potentially enabling electrolyte-gated magneto-ionic technology.

**Keywords:** magneto-ionic effects, ion migration, voltage control of magnetism, Co-Pt, nanostructured material
INTRODUCTION

Over the last decades, a great deal of effort has been made towards the development of energy-efficient materials and processes in the field of digital communication and information. Spintronics, which makes use of the electronic charge and spin degrees of freedom, has contributed to this progress with novel devices such as spin-transfer torque magnetic random-access memories (STT-MRAM), giant magnetoresistance sensors (GMR) or tunnel magnetoresistance sensors (TMR), among others.\textsuperscript{1,2} So far, the aforementioned devices and technologies have required of electric currents for their operation, which involves an important energy dissipation in the form of heat (Joule effect). To overcome this drawback, a flurry of research has focused, in recent years, on the voltage control of magnetism (\textit{i.e.}, replacing electric currents by electric fields whenever possible, therefore minimizing Joule heating effects and improving energy efficiency in these magnetoelectronic devices).\textsuperscript{3–5}

Magnetoelectric effects have been accomplished by different strategies, which include: (i) strain-mediated magnetoelectric coupling in piezoelectric-magnetostrictive composite materials,\textsuperscript{6–8} (ii) single-phase multiferroics materials with intrinsic coupling between ferroelectric and ferromagnetic order parameters\textsuperscript{8–10} and (iii) charge carrier electronic band modulation in certain metallic ferromagnetic materials, typically Fe–Pd, Fe–Pt, Cu–Ni or Co–Pt systems.\textsuperscript{11–15} Unfortunately, these approaches suffer from some drawbacks: piezoelectric response in piezoelectric/magnetostrictive devices is affected by clamping effects with the substrate and its endurance is in any case limited by fatigue-induced mechanical failure; single-phase multiferroic materials exhibit weak magnetoelectric coupling and only very few of them exhibit multiferroic properties at room temperature\textsuperscript{10}; electric charge accumulation in metallic materials occurs within the first nanometers from the metal surface due to the short electric-field screening length (the Thomas-Fermi screening length is $\lambda_{TF} \sim 0.5$ nm), limiting magnetoelectric effects to a few nm from the surface, thereby restricting this effect to ultrathin films\textsuperscript{12} and nanoporous magnetic alloys.\textsuperscript{11,14}
Alternatively, magneto-ionics is emerging as a novel pathway to tailor magnetism with voltage, which averts the above-mentioned drawbacks. Magneto-ionics relies on the motion of ions (e.g. $O^{2-}$, $Li^+$ or $Li^{2+}$), driven by an electric field, as an effective mechanism for controlling the oxidation-reduction processes of the ferromagnetic material. Interestingly, magnetic properties such as saturation magnetization ($M_S$), magnetic anisotropy, coercivity ($H_C$), or Dzyaloshinskii–Moriya interaction (DMI) can be successfully manipulated by electrical means taking advantage of ion diffusion. Contrary to the other magnetoelectric mechanisms, magneto-ionic effects are not limited to the electric-field screening length and can be significant even in relatively thick films. Nonetheless, thermal treatments are often required since ion migration is a thermally-activated phenomenon.

Within magneto-ionics, most studies have focused so far on metal/metal-oxide flat layers, where the voltage-induced $O^{2-}$ migration is used to tailor magnetism. Commonly, such heterostructures comprise a magnetic material (e.g. Fe, Co or Ni) in direct contact to a gate oxide that acts as the oxygen source/sink (e.g. $GdO_x$, $HfO_2$). The applied gate voltage can displace the $O^{2-}$ ions from the metal oxide to the ferromagnetic layer, consequently inducing changes in $H_C$, $M_S$, magnetic anisotropy or domain wall velocity, among others. Interestingly, some of these works use liquid electrolytes (e.g. ionic liquids) to achieve large electric fields at the surface of the target material. Upon voltage application, an electric double layer (EDL) is formed at the interface between the oxide layer and the electrolyte, generating reasonably high electric fields (due to the very narrow thickness of the EDL, which is around 0.5 nm), thus promoting the oxygen migration through the gate oxide/metal layer. Similarly, recent studies have reported changes in different magnetic parameters (magnetic anisotropy, $M_S$, $H_C$ and even magnetic phase transitions) through direct non-aqueous electrolyte gating, i.e., without assistance of gate oxides layers. In such cases, the source of oxygen is the magnetic material itself (either containing oxygen in its bulk structure or as a surface passivation layer).
In general, all magnetoelectric phenomena are interface-driven, being thin films the most utilized materials in voltage control of magnetism. Nevertheless, in the last decade, tremendous progress has been made in the synthesis of nanoporous materials for widespread applications in chemistry (adsorption and separation of gas molecules, chemoresistive gas sensors, energy conversion and storage, heterogeneous catalysis, etc.).\textsuperscript{35–37} This has triggered the idea of using nanoporous materials, which exhibit very large surface-to-volume ratios, as potential candidates for maximizing magnetoelectric effects.\textsuperscript{11,14,25,31,38–41} Considering that magneto-ionics is an interfacial effect, where the metal/metal oxide or metal/ionic liquid interface plays a crucial role in the ionic migration, nanoporous morphologies are expected to promote the diffusion of ions; notwithstanding, there are only a few reports on magneto-ionics in nanoporous/mesoporous materials and only a small fraction of them are focused on voltage-induced oxygen migration.\textsuperscript{25,31,38,41}

In a previous study, we demonstrated that the magnetic properties of nanoporous Co–Pt/CoO micro-disks, prepared by electrodeposition (ED), can be easily modulated at room temperature upon voltage application using an anhydrous electrolyte.\textsuperscript{31} The electric charge accumulation at the surface of the ultra-narrow pore walls and the concomitant voltage-driven oxygen migration (magneto-ionic effect) were mainly responsible for the observed effects. However, the amount of available oxygen was limited, since it comprised only the CoO contained in the micro-disks. As a result, only a reduction of $H_C$ and an increase of the Kerr amplitude after applying negative voltage were observed, followed by the recovery of the original values at positive voltages.\textsuperscript{31}

In this article, we explore the enhanced voltage-induced oxygen motion in nanostructured Co–Pt/AlO$_x$ and Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ heterostructured films gated using an anhydrous electrolyte. First, nanostructured Co–Pt films (with inter-grain porosity and a certain amount of oxygen) are prepared by micelle-assisted ED\textsuperscript{14,31,42,43} from a solution free from pH buffering and complexing agents to allow the formation of cobalt oxides.\textsuperscript{31} Subsequently, atomic layer deposition (ALD) is used to conformally coat with high accuracy the nanoroughenened surface and the nanochannels of the Co–Pt
film either with AlOₓ or HfOₓ nanolayers (two oxides with oxygen vacancy mobility and dissimilar oxygen affinity44–47). In fact, ALD is the most suitable deposition technique to fill the inter-grain nanochannels of the ferromagnetic layer with the aforementioned oxides, thus maximizing the available interface between the ferromagnetic material and the oxide. This strategy is expected to enhance the magneto-ionic effects on the Co–Pt film, where the incorporation of an adjacent oxide nanolayer enables the control of the oxygen content in the ferromagnetic layer. Our work shows that the combination of micelle-assisted ED of a ferromagnetic nanostructured alloy with ALD of suitable oxide nanocoatings is an appealing synthesis pathway to boost magneto-ionic phenomena. The idea is applicable not only to liquid electrolyte gating but also to solid state devices, for example to flexible electronics (e.g., filling porous scaffolds with ionic liquid gels).48–50

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The fabrication of the heterostructured films was conducted in two steps. First, nanostructured Co–Pt films (with some degree of inter-grain porosity) were fabricated by micelle-assisted ED. This synthesis approach is employed to prepare mesoporous metals by taking advantage of micelles as a soft template (see Experimental Section for details). Figure 1a,b shows a top-view scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the as-prepared nanostructured Co–Pt film. The film exhibits a homogeneous nanoparticulate morphology composed by nanometer-sized grains with a visible nanostructuration inside each grain which provides a great nano-roughness along the surface (Figure 1b). Further structural analysis was performed by scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM), where a characteristic columnar-like film growth and the presence of inter-grains nanochannels can be appreciated (Figure 1c). STEM measurements also show that the overall film thickness is around 150 nm. Energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy shows that the O, Co, and Pt contents are approximately 38±3, 48±2 and 14±1 at.%, respectively, with an average composition around Co₇₇Pt₂₃ considering only the metallic fraction, revealing the growth of a Co-rich alloy.
Figure 1. Top-view SEM image of the nanostructured Co–Pt film at (a) low, (b) high magnifications. In panel (b) nanoroughnened surface and inter-grain porosity of nanometer size are visible. (c) STEM image of a cross-section of the film. (d,e) Top-view SEM images of (d) Co–Pt/AlOₓ and (e) Co–Pt/HfOₓ films.

Subsequently, AlOₓ and HfOₓ nanolayers, with thicknesses of 10 nm, were directly deposited onto the nanostructured Co–Pt films by ALD. Top-view SEM images of the Co–Pt/AlOₓ and Co–Pt/HfOₓ composite nanostructured films are shown in Figure 1d,e respectively. For comparison, the SEM image of the uncoated nanostructured Co–Pt film is also shown. It can be seen that the morphology of the Co–Pt films was preserved after 10 nm AlOₓ and HfOₓ deposition suggesting that, as expected, the ALD proceeded conformally conformally covering the nanoroughnened surface and penetrating into the inter-grain channels (Figure 1d,e). Thicker coatings (20 and 80 nm) were also obtained (Figure S1a,b). As can been seen in Figure S1b, 80 nm-thick coatings cause a sort of flattening of the Co–Pt films morphology probably due to the sealing of the inter-grain channels. The thinnest coatings (10 nm) were selected for magnetoelectric measurements since the insertion of HfOₓ and AlOₓ adds to the original thickness of the EDL, thus progressively weakening the achievable electric field for a given voltage. To confirm the conformal coating of the nanostructure with the ALD
nanolayer, electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) mappings were conducted on a Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ film (Figure 2). STEM images of a cross section of a Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ film are shown in Figure 2, together with the corresponding Co (red) and Hf (green) EELS mapping in the interfacial area enclosed within the orange box. The EELS mappings reveal the presence of Hf inside the channels of the Co–Pt film, indicating that HfO$_x$ coating has penetrated several tens of nm towards the interior of the Co–Pt film. EELS analyses also show the presence of both Co and Hf at the interfaces between Co–Pt and HfO$_x$, suggesting that mixed cobalt/hafnium oxides may co-exist within these regions. These results prove that ALD is suitable to conformally coat and fill the inter-grain nanochannels of Co–Pt film, enhancing the interface area between the Co–Pt and the HfO$_x$ nanocoating, thus maximizing magneto-ionic effects.

![Figure 2](image_url)

**Figure 2.** STEM images and corresponding Co and Hf EELS mapping of the area enclosed in the orange box of two regions of a Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ film. Co is in red while Hf is in green.

The crystallographic structure of the uncoated and ALD-coated nanostructured Co–Pt films was characterized by grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD). The diffraction pattern of the uncoated film indicates the coexistence of several phases: hexagonal close-packed (hcp) Co, face-centered cubic (fcc) Co, cubic Co$_3$O$_4$ and cubic CoO phases (black curve, Figure 3). The presence of
these cobalt oxides phases was also detected by EELS mappings, where the co-existence of oxygen and cobalt-rich regions was observed at the inter-grains (Figure S2). Note that a slight angular shift in the hcp- and fcc-Co peaks is observed towards small angles compared to the tabulated patterns, indicating an increase in the lattice cell parameter, which is compatible with a dissolution of Pt into the hcp- and fcc-Co lattices. The same crystallographic structure is seen in the patterns of the Co–Pt/AlOₓ and Co–Pt/HfOₓ heterostructured films (red and blue curves in Figure 3). No additional peaks attributed to Al₂O₃ or HfO₂ are observed, likely because their amorphous-like nature.

Figure 3. Grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) patterns of the uncoated Co–Pt (black curve) Co–Pt/AlOₓ (10 nm) (red curve) and Co–Pt/HfOₓ (10 nm) (blue curve) films.

Magnetic properties were measured prior to voltage application in a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) at room temperature. A decrease of mₛ accompanied by a small increase of Hᵥ was observed after coating the Co–Pt film (See Supporting Information, Figure S3). Such changes are ascribed to the partial oxidation of Co–Pt during the ALD process, likely occurring at interfacial level, because the coating process involves high temperature (200 °C) for both AlOₓ and HfOₓ depositions and,
additionally, ozone gas for the AlO₅ growth. To investigate the electric-field effect on the magnetic properties, hysteresis loops were measured in-plane (always in the same direction) while the films were subjected to different constant negative and positive voltages in an electrolyte. The voltage was applied by using a home-made electrolytic cell containing the films as working electrode, a Pt wire as counter electrode and anhydrous propylene carbonate (PC) with dissolved Na⁺ and OH⁻ ions, as electrolyte (See Experimental Section).

For the magnetoelectric experiments, the hysteresis loops of uncoated Co–Pt, Co–Pt/AlOₓ and Co–Pt/HfOₓ films were recorded by applying different negative voltages ranging from 0 to −100 V after a waiting time of 90 min at each voltage (Figure 4a, b and c, respectively). For the sake of clarity, representative loops at selected voltages are shown (see Figure S4, Supporting Information, for additional data). Note that differences in the initial magnetic moment among the three samples is due to their dissimilar lateral size. As can be seen in Figure 4a, b and c, the loops at 0 V and −3 V are virtually overlapped (black and red loops), indicating that no significant magnetoelectric effects are induced at small voltages. This suggests the existence of an onset voltage, in agreement with previous results. Conversely, significant variations were observed for all three samples after overcoming the threshold voltage (−7 V, blue loop, Figure 4a, b and c), where mₛ increases and Hₐ decreases as the applied voltage is made progressively more negative. The origin of this threshold voltage is probably related to the bond-dissociation energy between O and Co. This threshold is the minimum energy required for creating O²⁻ ions and inducing the migration of the ions through the film.

After having applied negative voltages, the voltage was removed, and the system was left for a “relaxation period” of 8 h (brown loops, Figure 4d, e and f). Subsequently, hysteresis loops were taken at different positive voltages ranging from 0 to +100 V (again waiting 90 min at each voltage) and selected loops are plotted in Figure 4d, e and f (see all measured loops in Figure S4, Supporting Information). When positive voltages are applied, mₛ decreases for the three samples (Figure 4d, e and f), and even beyond the initial mₛ value for the uncoated Co–Pt (initial mₛ = 5.7·10⁻⁴ emu and
\( m_s (+100 \text{ V}) = 2.1 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ emu} \), and, particularly, for Co–Pt/AlO\(_x\) films (initial \( m_s = 16.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ emu} \) and \( m_s (+50 \text{ V}) = 3.9 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ emu} \)) (Figure S4a,b). This already suggests that AlO\(_x\) may act as oxygen donor. In contrast, \( H_C \) increases slightly upon applying positive voltages (Figure 4d,e and f), but does not completely return to the initial values for Co–Pt and Co–Pt/HfO\(_x\) films (Figure S4a,c). On the contrary, \( H_C \) increases almost back to its initial value at +50 V for the Co–Pt/AlO\(_x\) films (dark blue loop, Figure S4b). Thus, Co–Pt/HfO\(_x\) films did not recover the initial state, showing only slight variations in \( H_C \) and \( m_S \) values (Figure 4f and Figure S4c). Conversely, as can be seen in Figure 4e, the Co–Pt/AlO\(_x\) film polarized at +50 V shows an open loop since the induced magnetoelectric response could not reach a stationary value in spite of the 90 min waiting time at this voltage prior to the hysteresis loop acquisition. In other words, the magnetic properties of this sample kept changing over time while the loop was recorded (approximately 40 min). It should be noted that the Co–Pt/AlO\(_x\) film detached from the substrate at larger positive voltages (+75 and +100 V). Delamination was not observed in the uncoated Co–Pt and Co–Pt/HfO\(_x\) films, indicating that the Co–Pt/AlO\(_x\) coating is less stable at high positive voltages.
Figure 4. Room temperature in-plane VSM measurements of (a,d) uncoated Co–Pt, (b,e) Co–Pt/AlOₓ and (c,f) Co–Pt/HfOₓ samples after applying 0, −3, −7, −50, −100 V and 0, +3, +7, +50, +100 V for 90 min, respectively.

The results indicate that the relative variations on magnetic properties induced by the applied voltage (i.e., magneto-ionic effects) in each sample differ from one another. For the sake of better understanding, Figure 5 shows the relative changes in Hₓ, mₛ and remanence to saturation ratio (mᵣ/mₛ) as a function of the applied voltage for the three studied samples. Remarkably, the largest variation of Hₓ, mₛ and mᵣ/mₛ at negative voltages is achieved for Co–Pt/HfOₓ, with a 58% reduction, 76% and 11% increases, respectively (blue curve, Figure 5a,b and c). Also remarkable is that, for negative voltages, a plateau is observed for the three magnetic parameters at a value between −20 V and −50 V, suggesting that the voltage effect tends to saturate beyond that applied voltage. In contrast, Co–Pt/AlOₓ exhibits the lowest relative variations of Hₓ, mₛ and mᵣ/mₛ. Conversely, for positive voltages, Co–Pt/AlOₓ shows the largest variation of Hₓ (25% increase), mₛ (81% decrease) and mᵣ/mₛ (10% decrease) (red curve, Figure 5d,e and f). Note that these values have been obtained considering the range from 0 V to +50 V (i.e., excluding the +75 V and +100 V points), since the sample Co–Pt/AlOₓ damaged at the upper positive voltages.
Figure 5. Dependence of the relative variation (%) of (a,d) coercivity ($H_C$), (b,e) magnetic moment at saturation ($m_S$) and (c,f) remanence to saturation ratio ($m_R/m_S$) as a function of the applied negative (a-c) and positive (d-f) voltages. Dashed vertical lines denote film detachment.

In general, the same trends are observed for the three systems, *i.e.*, uncoated Co–Pt, Co–Pt/AlO$_x$ and Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ films. The observed modulation in the magnetic behavior of the Co–Pt is attributed to voltage-driven oxygen migration. Indeed, changes are in the same direction as those reported in the literature for the same gating polarity (note that, in our work, the Co–Pt based films act as the gate).$^{16,17,19,20,55}$ Negative voltages cause a decrease of $H_C$ and an increase of $m_S$. The latter is consistent with a partial reduction of the Co oxides already present in the as-deposited nanostructured Co–Pt layer to metallic Co.$^{31}$ Subsequently, when positive voltages are applied, the re-oxidation of the previously formed metallic Co takes place, resulting in a decrease of $m_S$. For the uncoated Co–Pt film, such variations originate from voltage-driven O and Co redistributions, as previously reported.$^{31}$ In contrast, for ALD-coated Co–Pt films, the presence of the HfO$_x$ and AlO$_x$ nanolayers has a strong influence on the O$^{2-}$ migration through the Co–Pt/oxide interface depending on the voltage polarity. Namely, for negative applied voltages, the relative change in $H_C$, $m_S$ and $m_R/m_S$ is the largest for the
Co–Pt/HfOₓ, whereas smaller variations are observed in Co–Pt and Co–Pt/AlOₓ (Figure 5a,b and c). Conversely, Co–Pt/AlOₓ is the one that exhibits more pronounced magnetoelectric effects for positive voltages. In other words, the ALD-coated Co–Pt films exhibit higher relative variations than its uncoated counterpart, but to achieve such enhancement, the voltage sign needs to be selected depending on the type of oxide nanocoating. This indicates that the ALD coatings enhance the O²⁻ migration somehow within the Co–Pt layer. Therefore, the role of these ALD nanocoatings as oxygen acceptor/donor materials is important to understand the enhancement of the magneto-ionic effects. Considering that the origin of the observed changes relies on the reduction of the CoO and Co₃O₄ to Co, the HfOₓ coating seems to facilitate the reduction of cobalt oxides upon negative voltage application (i.e., it plays an oxygen getter role). Conversely, AlOₓ coating boosts the oxidation of Co at positive voltage (i.e., oxygen donor role). Thus, the results suggest that HfOₓ is prone to accept oxygen from the Co–Pt layer, while AlOₓ is instead an oxygen donor. In fact, HfOₓ have been extensively used as gate oxide material for electrical control of magnetism, where oxygen migration can occur upon voltage application. However only a few works have reported magneto-ionic effects using AlOₓ, where instead of oxygen, Al³⁺ ions could migrate from AlOₓ to the ferromagnetic film. The magneto-electric changes observed for the three samples are attributed to variations in the Co oxidation state in the Co–Pt film; notwithstanding, a possible contribution from Pt could still take place and should not to be completely ruled out. Recent studies have reported changes on the induced magnetic moment of Pt biased by an electric field, nonetheless, such variations in our work are expected to be minor compared to the induced changes on the Co.

To shed light on the voltage-driven O migration mechanism through the Co–Pt layer, X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) was performed on the uncoated Co–Pt and Co–Pt/HfOₓ films at the Cobalt L₂,₃-edges (black curves, Figure 6a,c and 6b,d respectively). For clarity, the L₂ data have been omitted from Figure 6, but it is available in the Supporting Information (Figure S5), and also the XAS measurements of the Co–Pt/AlOₓ films have been omitted, due to their aforementioned poor
stability when subject to positive voltages. Nevertheless, they can be found in Figure S6. X-ray magnetic circular dichroism (XMCD), which refers to the difference in absorption for right-handed ($\mu^+$) and left-handed ($\mu^-$) circularly polarized X-rays, was also performed in order to probe the magnetic moment of Co on the uncoated Co–Pt and Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ films (Figure S7 and Figure 7). It should be noted that the detection depth probed by XAS in total electron yield mode when using soft X-rays is limited to the outermost nanometers from the surface, while VSM probes the whole film volume because it is an integrating technique.

The XAS spectrum prior to voltage application of the uncoated Co–Pt film exhibits a multiplet structure consisting of four peaks (777.4, 778.7, 779.1 and 780 eV) at the L$_3$ edge and a broad peak (794 eV) at the L$_2$ edge (black curves, Figure 6a and Figure S5a). The pattern matches the CoO reference XAS spectrum (green curve, Figure 6a and Figure S5a), although the three main peaks at 778.7, 779.1 and 780 eV are less pronounced in the uncoated Co–Pt film. This sample shows XMCD signal, thus also indicating the presence of ferromagnetic metallic Co (black curve, Figure S7). Overall, the results indicate the presence of CoO and metallic Co in the uncoated Co–Pt films, in agreement with its GIXRD pattern (black curve, Figure 3). Nonetheless, the presence of small amounts of Co$_3$O$_4$ cannot be fully ruled out from XAS and actually, a contribution from this phase in amorphous form is envisaged in the GIXRD pattern (Figure 3). After subjecting the uncoated Co–Pt sample to –100 V (XAS was carried out ex situ, 30 min elapsed before starting XAS analysis), the four peaks previously observed (776.4, 778.7, 779.1 and 780.5 eV) become more pronounced at the L$_3$ edge (red curve, Figure 6c), while the main peak at L$_2$ edge is slightly shifted towards higher photon energies (red curve, Figure S5c). This, together with the decrease on the dichroic signal (red curve, Figure S7), suggests that the amount of CoO increases whereas that of metallic Co decreases upon negative voltage application in the probed volume. When a positive voltage is applied (+100 V), the XAS exhibits a decrease of the shoulder at 776.4 eV and the two peaks at 778.7 and 779.1 eV, which are characteristic of CoO, at the L$_3$ edge. Moreover, a new peak at 780.6 eV is observed at
the L₃ edge, while the main peak at L₂ edge becomes sharper (blue curve, Figure S5c). These features suggest the presence of traces of Co₃O₄ (see orange curve of the Co₃O₄ XAS reference, Figure 6a and Figure S5a). The results, together with the absence of dichroism in the XMCD signal (blue curve, Figure S7), indicate that the sample consists of a mixture of CoO and Co₃O₄ after application of a strong positive voltage.

The observed changes on the XAS data for the uncoated Co–Pt films after negative voltage application seem contradictory with the obtained macroscopic magnetic measurements (Figures 4 and 5), where the value of mₛ is found to increase (rather than decrease). The XAS results can be understood on the basis of an O migration towards the surface of the nanostructured alloy from Co₃O₄- and CoO-rich regions. First, when negative voltage is applied, O²⁻ ions from CoO and Co₃O₄ phases migrate towards the surface driven by the electric field. As a result, inner CoO is partially reduced to Co, eventual Co₃O₄ is reduced to CoO and the outmost metallic Co clusters are partially oxidized to CoO. This scenario is schematically depicted in Figure 8a,b. Thereby, the redistribution of O across the film leads to the formation of Co-rich inner regions, which is consistent with the increase in mₛ (Figure 4a and Figure 5b), and CoO-rich regions at the surface, which is consistent with the XAS pattern (red curve, Figure 6c). Afterwards, when the voltage polarity is reversed (+100 V), O²⁻ ions from the Co₃O₄ are prone to migrate towards the Co/CoO, oxidizing the metallic Co to CoO (Figure 8c). The decrease of the metallic Co fraction is consistent with the reduction of mₛ shown in Figure 4d and Figure 5e. Nevertheless, the XAS pattern acquired after positive voltage application shows greater presence of Co₃O₄ at the film’s surface (blue curve, Figure 6c). This, together with the fact that mₛ decreases even beyond its initial value (Figure S4a), suggests that an external source of oxygen coming from the PC could be plausible, since the amount of O within the film is limited. The origin of this excess of oxygen could be the inherent oxygen gas dissolved on the PC together with the OH⁻ ions formed during the electrolyte preparation (see Experimental Section)” This would support the increase of Co₃O₄ at the surface after applying +100 V. As noted, XAS detection depth is
limited to outermost nanometers from the surface, while VSM is an integrating technique, probing the whole film. This explains why the results gathered by both techniques seem to be contradictory, although they are not. Moreover, the increased amount of CoO and Co$_3$O$_4$ phases implies a more insulating surface, which further limits the XAS detection.

Regarding the Co–Pt/AlO$_x$ film, the XAS spectrum of the untreated sample exhibits three main peaks (778.6, 779.2 and 779.9 eV) and a shoulder (777.6 eV) at the L$_3$ edge (black curve, Figure S6a), while a broad peak (794.4 eV) is observed at the L$_2$ edge (black curve, Figure S6b). The XAS pattern is consistent with a mixture of metallic Co, CoO and Co$_3$O$_4$, in agreement with the GIXRD results (Figure 3). No significant changes in the XAS spectrum are observed after subjecting the film to a negative voltage (blue curve, Figure S6). As mentioned earlier, the surface sensitivity of XAS technique is limited to the first nanometers from the surface while VSM-assisted magnetoelectric measurements involve the whole film volume. In this case, however, only small variations in the magnetic response were observed upon negative voltage application (Figure 4b), hence it is not surprising that no drastic changes are observed by XAS either. Moreover, according to previous works, magnetoelectric effects observed after applying negative voltage could arise from Al$^{3+}$ diffusion into the Co–Pt film.$^{58}$ XAS provides information about Co in a metallic environment or in an oxide form. This means that Co in a metallic environment would be either Co-Co, Co-Pt, or Co-Al. Considering the fact that metallic Co and Co-Al would give almost indistinguishable spectra, this explains why the XAS spectrum remains unaltered after –100 V biasing. The Co–Pt/AlO$_x$ film was not studied by XAS after positive voltage application because it was unstable (Figure 5d, e and f).
Figure 6. Zoom-in of the Cobalt L$_3$-edge X-ray absorption spectra (XAS) of the as-prepared (0 V, black curve) (a) uncoated Co–Pt and (b) Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ films, together with the spectra of reference samples (pink: Co; green: CoO; orange: Co$_3$O$_4$). Evolution of the Cobalt L$_3$-edge XAS after applying –100 V (red curve) and +100 V (blue curve) for (c) uncoated Co–Pt and (d) Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ films.

As for the Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ film is concerned, the XAS spectrum of the pristine sample at 0 V exhibits a multiplet structure consisting of four peaks (777.5, 778.7, 779.1 and 780 eV) at the L$_3$ edge and a peak (794.7 eV) at the L$_2$ edge (black curves, Figure 6b and Figure S5b). The multiplet is rather broad, especially the peak at 780 eV, which possesses higher intensity compared to the peaks at 777.5, 778.7 and 779.1 eV. This, together with the small intensity of the XMCD signal (black curve, Figure 7), indicates that the outermost surface of Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ film consists of a mixture of CoO, Co$_3$O$_4$ and some traces of metallic Co, in agreement with the GIXRD analysis (blue curve, Figure 3). When negative voltage is applied, the intensity of the shoulder (777.5 eV) and the two peaks at 778.7 and 779.1 eV on the L$_3$ edge slightly decrease, while the peak at 778 eV is shifted towards higher photon
energies (red curve, Figure 6d). The XAS spectrum also shows a new peak at 780.7 eV at the L₃ edge, while the main peak at the L₂ edge becomes sharpened. The latter matches the main peak of Co₃O₄ reference XAS (orange curve, Figure 6b and Figure S5d). Moreover, after subjecting the Co–Pt/HfOₓ film to –100 V, the XMCD signal exhibits higher dichroism compared to the initial state (i.e. 0 V) (red curve, Figure 7). These results suggest the coexistence of Co₃O₄ and metallic Co at the surface of Co–Pt/HfOₓ after applying negative voltage. When positive voltage is applied, the XAS spectrum exhibits a pattern similar to the initial state (0 V) at L₃ and L₂ edges (blue and black curves respectively, Figure 6d and Figure S5d), as well as a slight narrowing of the multiplet and a small intensity increase of the shoulder at 777.5 eV at the L₃ edge. Additionally, XMCD shows a decrease of the dichroic signal, almost recovering the initial state (blue curve, Figure 7). These results confirm that after applying positive voltage, the surface of Co–Pt/HfOₓ films comprise CoO, metallic Co and some traces of Co₃O₄ in a proportion which differs only slightly from the pristine state (0 V). Note that the amount of surface oxides in the Co–Pt/HfOₓ film after applying –100 V is clearly lower than for uncoated Co–Pt, thus corroborating the role of HfOₓ as a good oxygen getter (poorer oxygen donor). Since HfOₓ is prone to accept oxygen (for negative voltages) rather than to donate it back to Co–Pt (for positive voltages), the magneto-ionic effects are more pronounced under negative biasing for Co–Pt/HfOₓ.
Figure 7. Zoom-in of the Cobalt L₃- and L₂-edge XMCD signal for the Co–Pt/HfOₓ film in the pristine state (0V, black curve) and after applying −100 V (red curve) and +100 V (blue curve).

More specifically, as depicted in Figure 8d,e, the application of negative voltage to the Co–Pt/HfOₓ system triggers the diffusion of O²⁻ ions from Co–Pt film towards the HfOₓ layer, resulting in the partial reduction of Co₃O₄ to CoO and the reduction of CoO to metallic Co. Unlike the uncoated Co–Pt films, for which the O²⁻ migration was limited to the surface, oxygen ions can diffuse here within the HfOₓ layer owing to the presence of oxygen vacancies in the HfOₓ.⁶⁰–⁶³ Nevertheless, HfOₓ is able to accept oxygen only to some extent. Oxygen anions not able to enter the HfOₓ lattice are involved in the oxidation of a fraction of CoO to Co₃O₄ (Figure 8e). Thus, after applying negative voltages, the Co–Pt film shows a higher presence of metallic Co and some traces of Co₃O₄. This scenario is in accordance with the increase of mₛ (Figure 4c and Figure 5b), the changes on the XAS
spectra (red curve, **Figure 6d**) and the increase of the dichroism in the XMCD signal (red curve, **Figure 7**). Conversely, when the electric field polarity is reversed, the sense of O$^{2-}$ migration is inverted. Oxygen anions are partially released from the HfO$_x$ towards the Co–Pt film, oxidizing part of the metallic Co to CoO and CoO to Co$_3$O$_4$ (**Figure 8f**). In this manner, the initial state (0 V) of the Co–Pt film tends to be recovered upon positive voltage application, although not entirely. This can be inferred from the decrease of $m_S$ (**Figure S4c**), which does not reach the initial state (0 V), and the slight differences on the XAS spectra (black and blue curves, **Figure 6d**). The results indicate that amount of oxygen involved in the diffusion event under negative biasing does not completely diffuse back, even for large positive voltage. It is noteworthy that the observed changes in magnetism depending on the electric field polarity are in accordance with previous results reported for Co$^{17,19,20}$ and with several studies devoted to O$^{2-}$ migration in HfO$_x$ under an electric field.$^{64,65}$
Figure 8. Schematic drawing of the distribution of cobalt phases in (a-c) uncoated Co–Pt and (d-f) Co–Pt/HfOₓ films in (a,d) the pristine state (0 V), (b,e) when subject to −ΔV and (c,f) when subject to +ΔV in propylene carbonate (depicted as light blue medium).

The increase (and subsequent decrease) of Hₑ in the three systems investigated can also be related to the reduction of CoO to Co (and the subsequent oxidation to CoO), as reported in a previous study of ours on Co–Pt/CoO composite micro-disks. During negative voltage application, metallic Co regions might expand in size (Figure 8b,e). Considering that Hₑ is inversely proportional to the particle size within the multi-domain regime, it is expected that Hₑ will decrease with the increase of Co(Pt) regions size. Conversely, the decrease of Co grain size (due to oxidation) (Figure 8c,f) would induce an increase of Hₑ. Dipolar interactions between de Co clusters must also be considered, since Hₑ can be reduced (enlarged) by enhancing (diminishing) the dipolar interactions. As the size of Co regions increases (−ΔV), the distance between clusters is presumably reduced and Co(Pt)
clusters could even merge with each other (Figure 8e). Consequently, dipolar interactions would become stronger, leading to a decrease of $H_C$. The opposite would occur for positive voltages (Figure 8c,e). Finally, the opposite voltage-induced modulation trends for $H_C$ and $m_S$ could also be related to the relative influence of voltage on the effective magnetic anisotropy ($K$) and the saturation magnetization. Since $H_C$ is proportional to $K$ and inversely proportional to $M_S$ (Stoner-Wolfarth model in the limiting case of non-interacting single domain particles), if $M_S$ decreases faster than $K$ for positive voltage polarity, this would cause an increase of $H_C$. In our case, this seems to be the case since, although we do not analyze $K$, there is marginal change in $m_R/m_S$ (which is highly related to $K$) for the Co–Pt and Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ systems at positive voltage. These effects have actually been reported in the literature. Finally, if metallic Co produced from the reduction of CoO ($-\Delta V$) does not contain Pt (presumably opposite to the initial Co–Pt metallic regions in the as-deposited film), this is expected to also cause a reduction of $H_C$ compared to the pristine hcp Co–Pt clusters.

**CONCLUSIONS**

In contrast to Co–Pt films, magneto-ionic effects in Co–Pt/AlO$_x$ and Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ heterostructures are enhanced due to the oxygen getter/donor capabilities of the adjacent oxide nanolayers. Large variations in $H_C$, $m_S$ and $m_R/m_S$ are obtained under negative and subsequent positive biasing. The electric field-driven migration of oxygen anions through the Co–Pt/oxide gate interface causes, in turn, variations in the Co oxidation state. These results demonstrate that coating nanostructured magnetic materials together with suitable insulating oxide nanolayers is an appealing strategy for boosting voltage-driven effects in magneto-ionic devices. In the future, we plan to operate the Co–Pt/AlO$_x$ and Co–Pt/HfO$_x$ in solid state by paying special attention to the occurrence of pinholes in the ALD layers. An investigation on the correlation between the thickness of the insulating layer and the probability of pinholes could be carried out in view of the optimum performance of the device.
Likewise, the concentration of oxygen vacancies in the non-stoichiometric HfO$_x$ should be experimentally determined and its change correlated with the applied voltage.

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EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials
HCl (Hydrochloric acid, 37 wt. %), isopropyl alcohol (C$_3$H$_8$O, 99.9%), acetone (99.0%), absolute ethanol (99.8%), Na$_2$PtCl$_6$ ·6H$_2$O (sodium hexachloroplatinate (IV) hexahydrate, 98.0%), CoCl$_2$ (cobalt(II) chloride anhydrous, ≥98.0%), and Pluronic P-123 (HO(CH$_2$CH$_2$O)$_{20}$(CH$_2$CH(CH$_3$)O)$_{70}$(CH$_2$CH$_2$O)$_{20}$H) block copolymer, propylene carbonate (PC) (anhydrous, 99.7% purity, 0.002% or 20 ppm H$_2$O), trimethylaluminum, TMA [(CH$_3$)$_3$Al] and tetrakis(dimethylamido)hafnium, TDMAH [((CH$_3$)$_2$N)$_4$Hf] were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Unless otherwise stated, the reagents were used as received without further purification. Deionized water was obtained through an EMD Millipore Simplicity™ Water Purification System (Millipore S.A.S., Molsheim 67120, France).
Samples fabrication

Nanostructured Co–Pt films were electrodeposited (ED) on Cu (70 nm)/Ti (10 nm)/Si substrates. ED was carried out in a three-electrode single-compartment cell connected to a PGSTAT302N Autolab potentiostat/galvanostat (Methrohm-Autolab). An Ag|AgCl double junction (E = +0.210 V SHE) with 3 M KCl inner solution and 1 M NaCl outer solution, was employed as reference electrode and a Pt spiral served as counter electrode. The films were deposited potentiostatically at −1.0 V during 600 s, under mild agitation (ω = 100 rpm). The bath temperature was set at 25 °C. The electrolyte was prepared with Milli-Q water and contained 2.8 mM CoCl₂, 1.3 mM Na₂PtCl₆·6H₂O, and 1 mg·mL⁻¹ (1 wt%) of Pluronic P-123. The pH was adjusted to 2.1 by adding 1 M HCl solution. The concentration of P-123 was chosen to be above its critical micellar concentration (c.m.c) to induce the formation of P-123 micelles in the aqueous electrolyte. During the ED process, P-123 micelles get progressively in contact with the metal ions in solution and tend to get adsorbed on the cathode (working electrode) acting as a ‘structure directing agent’, and hence inducing the formation of tiny pores. No pH buffering agent was added to the bath so as not to preclude the incorporation of oxygen in the film, and therefore the resulting nanostructured films consisted of metallic Co–Pt and Co oxide phases. The thickness of the nanostructured Co–Pt films were measured to be around 150 nm.

AlOₓ and HfOₓ were deposited on the nanostructured Co–Pt films by atomic layer deposition (ALD) using a Cambridge NanoTech Savannah 100 reactor. AlOₓ coatings were obtained by alternate pulsing of TMA and ozone in the reaction chamber in exposure mode, that is, by closing the gas exit valve for a certain amount of time to allow the precursors to diffuse into the pores and inter-grain channels of the Co–Pt films. Alternatively, HfOₓ deposits were prepared by combining TDMAH (heated at 75-80 °C) and deionized water as co-reactant. High purity nitrogen gas was used as carrier and purging gas (40 and 20 sccm, respectively). In both cases, the chamber temperature was set at
200 °C. Film thickness was varied from 10 to 80 nm by modifying the number of the ALD cycles and was validated by X-ray reflectivity measurements on silicon (100) reference samples.

**Morphology and structural characterization**

Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) imaging and energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analyses were performed on a Zeiss MERLIN operated at 5 kV and 15 kV, respectively. Scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) images and electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) analyses were performed on a Tecnai F20 HRTEM/STEM microscope. The crystal structure was investigated by means of grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) using a Bruker-AXS, model A25 D8 Discover equipped with a LinxEye XE-T detector using Cu Kα radiation and a grazing incidence angle of 1°.

**X-ray absorption spectroscopy and X-ray magnetic circular dichroism characterization**

The oxidation state of the nanostructured Co–Pt films were determined by X-ray absorption spectra (XAS) (Co L$_{3,2}$ edges), measured in total electron yield (TEY) mode using linearly polarized light, at the UE46_PGM1 beamline (High-Field Diffractometer station of the synchrotron radiation source BESSY II, Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin). To compare with reference XAS patterns, Co L$_{3,2}$ edge XAS spectra of Co (20 nm-thick Co thin film, capped with 2 nm of Ta, grown by molecular beam epitaxy on top of a $<$100>-oriented MgO single crystal), CoO (Cobalt(II) oxide, 95%, powders from Alfa Aesar®) and sputtered Co$_3$O$_4$ film samples were also measured. X-ray magnetic circular dichroism (XMCD) was performed for further magnetic characterization, which records the difference in core-level absorption spectra (Co L$_{3,2}$ edge) between right-handed ($\mu^+$) and left-handed ($\mu^-$) circularly polarized X-rays. XMCD measurements were carried out at room (300 K) under the applied magnetic fields of 20 and −20 kOe.
Magnetoelectric measurements

Magnetic measurements were performed in a Micro Sense (LOT-Quantum Design) Vibrating Sample Magnetometer (VSM) at room temperature with a magnetic moment uncertainty of 0.5% and a coercivity uncertainty of ±5 Oe. For in situ magneto-electric measurements, a homemade electrochemical cell was attached at the end of the VSM holder. The Co–Pt based films acted as the working electrode, a Pt wire as the counter electrode, and anhydrous propylene carbonate (PC) with a small amount of solvated Na⁺ and OH⁻ species as the electrolyte (i.e. non-oxidative media). These were obtained upon treating the as-purchased PC with metallic sodium in order to remove any traces of residual water, thus minimizing corrosion events in the samples due to the electrolyte during magnetoelectric measurements. Consequently, Na⁺ and OH⁻ ions are formed which promote the formation electric double layer (EDL) and enhance the magnitude of the electric field in the samples.¹¹,¹⁴,²⁵,³¹,³² In-plane hysteresis loops were recorded applying different DC voltages ranging from 0 V to −100 V and 0 V to +100 V after waiting for 90 min at each voltage value, using an Agilent B2902A power supply as voltage source. Note that the voltage was maintained during the VSM measurements. Between the two series of voltage values, the electrolyte was restored to ensure optimized performance. Relative variation in $H_C$, $m_S$ and $m_R/m_S$ were determined as:

$$\Delta y (\%) = \frac{y_f - y_i}{y_i} \times 100$$

where $y$ is the magnetic parameter under evaluation, $y_i$ is its value at 0 V and $y_f$ is the value at a given voltage. Note that $y_i$ is different for the two series of voltage values ($0 \rightarrow -100 \text{ V}; 0 \rightarrow +100$).

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information.

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI:
This material includes SEM images, VSM measurements and XAS data.

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