Structural colors resulting from the interference between incident light and structures are ubiquitous in nature and daily life. In contrast to conventional chemical pigments and dyes, structural colors have the advantages of low consumption, environmental protection, and high durability. To reach higher resolutions beyond diffraction limits, structural colors based on metasurfaces consisting of artificially designed nanoresonators at subwavelength scale have been proposed in recent years. In this review, we classify structural colors into plasmonic colors and dielectric colors according to different mechanisms, summarizing the development and applications for a variety of color filters. Moreover, four significant methods of dynamically tunable colors are discussed, including mechanical stretching, chemical reaction, electrical control, and photon doping.

1. Introduction

Colors as important visual carriers in our daily lives have been widely studied since prehistoric times. 140 years ago, the discovery of mauveine by W. H. Perkin promoted development of the extensive synthetic dyes and pigments industry.1 So far, synthetic colorants have been used in decorations, synthetic fibers, printing inks and identification, for example.2–4 In particular, organic pigments are finding increasing use in high-technology industries, such as optoelectronic displays, optical data storage and photo-reprographics (Fig. 1a).4 However, from the perspective of recycling, chemical colorants are costly and environmentally damaging. In addition, their insufficient resolution and lack of durability invariably limit their practical applications in displays and images.5,6

To overcome these limitations, considerable attention has been paid to structural colors, which are an interference phenomenon between incident light and structures. Structural colors are ubiquitous in nature and daily life, such as in beetles, Pollia fruits, peacocks, hummingbirds, morpho butterflies...
and so on.\textsuperscript{7–10} For instance, reflected light from the complex
nanoridges and lamellae in the morpho rhetenor wings exhibits
bright metallic blue, as shown in Fig. 1b.\textsuperscript{11} Compared with
chemical pigments, structural colors have the advantages of
(1) showing brighter colors under sunlight, (2) higher resolutions,
(3) the ability of dynamic tuning by changing surface structures,
and (4) better durability under high-temperature and high-
intensity illumination.\textsuperscript{12–14} In general, structural colors are
generated from different bulk materials including light scattering,
photonic crystals and multilayer materials.\textsuperscript{12,15,16} Nevertheless,
owing to bulk effects, high-quality colors always require more
particles, larger periods and added layers, indicating that
the thickness of color structures is much greater than the
wavelength.\textsuperscript{11,15} As a result, there is still considerable room to
further improve the resolution of structural colors beyond the
diffraction limit.

In this context, a metasurface as a two-dimensional (2D)
artificial structure at a subwavelength scale is a good candidate for
the generation of high-resolution structural colors. Controlled
optical properties can be introduced by engineering the geometric
parameters of the periodic resonators array. According to the type
of material of the resonators, metasurfaces can be classified
into plasmonic and dielectric metasurfaces. For plasmonic
metasurfaces, optical responses are mainly driven by plasmonic
resonance based on a variety of metallic nanostructures.\textsuperscript{17–20} In
contrast, for dielectric metasurfaces, electric and magnetic-
dipole resonances generated from high-index dielectric materials
simultaneously simulate novel optical phenomena.\textsuperscript{21–23} So far,
with the development of micro-nano fabricated techniques, a
number of unprecedented optical properties based on meta-
surfaces have been demonstrated to control and guide electro-
magnetic waves from microwaves to the visible range, such as
the spin Hall effect,\textsuperscript{24,25} anomalous refraction,\textsuperscript{26,27} nonlinear
optics\textsuperscript{28–30} and, in particular, structural colors.

In this review article, we focus on the development of structural
colors generated from plasmonic and dielectric metasurfaces on the
basis of principle, design and applications. A variety of color filters
with different nanostructures and materials are systematically
analyzed and summarized from the static state to the dynamic
state. The methods of dynamically tunable colors are discussed,
including mechanical stretching, chemical reaction, electrical
control and photon doping. In addition, we also introduce practical
applications of color filters, such as high-end displays, encryption
and colorimetric sensing, indicating the wide prospects in real life.

2. Color generation from
metasurfaces

2.1 Colors from plasmonic metasurfaces

Surface plasmons (SPs), the collective oscillation of free electrons
and photons at the interfaces of metal and dielectric materials,
have shown the unprecedented properties of strongly enhanced
local field and in-plane momentum.\textsuperscript{31–33} SP generated from
plasmonic metasurfaces plays a vital role in many applications,
such as optical holograms,\textsuperscript{34,35} waveguides,\textsuperscript{36} flat lenses,\textsuperscript{37}
directional couplers,\textsuperscript{38} waveplates\textsuperscript{39,40} and so on. In particular,
one of the most intriguing areas of research in recent years is
the study of plasmonic structural colors. The plasmonic resonance
by coupling between SP and incident light can selectively filter
visible light in transmission or reflection mode. To date, many
plasmonic additive and subtractive color filters beyond the sub-
wavelength diffraction limit have been extensively reported due
to high resolution, ease of fabrication and high flexibility at the
subwavelength scale.\textsuperscript{49–50} In this section, some typical plasmonic
nanostructures composed of nanorings, nanoholes, disk-hole
coupling nanostructures and metal–insulator–metal (MIM)
structures are briefly discussed.
In its infancy, the study of plasmonic colors mainly concentrated on the transmission mode of the resonant spectra. Extraordinary optical transmission (EOT) based on SP in an optically-thick opaque film can filter light at a specific resonant wavelength and lead to additive colors. In contrast, the counter-intuitive extraordinary low transmission (ELT) phenomenon, realized by optically-thin semi-transparent metallic nanostructures, can selectively eliminate light at the resonant wavelength to generate subtractive colors. As shown in Fig. 2(a), a subtractive color filter based on 30 nm-thick Ag film deposited on glass slide, showing the word of “OPTICS”. (i) Measured transmission spectra of yellow, magenta and cyan grating with different periods. Insets show the corresponding SEM images of nanogratings. Reproduced from ref. 51, with permission from American Institute of Physics, Copyright 2011. (ii) Measured transmission spectra of red, green and blue filters at 0° and 30° polarization angle. Insets show the corresponding top-view schematic of plasmonic nanoholes. (iii) Optical microscopy images of color filters with round holes and triangular holes on hexagonal lattice and round holes on square lattice. Reproduced from ref. 55, with permission from American Institute of Physics, Copyright 2011. (iv) Measured colors palettes in (iii) transmission and (iv) reflection mode. Reproduced from ref. 61, with permission from American Chemical Society, Copyright 2017. (v) Full-color printing image composing of disk-hole unit cells with distinct geometric sizes. Insets show the enlarged region and corresponding SEM image. (vi) Resolution test pattern with array of 3×3 structures and 2×2 structures. Reproduced from ref. 66, with permission from American Institute of Physics, Copyright 2012.

In its infancy, the study of plasmonic colors mainly concentrated on the transmission mode of the resonant spectra. Extraordinary optical transmission (EOT) based on SP in an optically-thick opaque film can filter light at a specific resonant wavelength and lead to additive colors. In contrast, the counter-intuitive extraordinary low transmission (ELT) phenomenon, realized by optically-thin semi-transparent metallic nanostructures, can selectively eliminate light at the resonant wavelength to generate subtractive colors. As shown in Fig. 2(a), a subtractive color filter based on 30 nm Ag nanograting was designed to generate yellow, magenta and cyan with high efficiency (Fig. 2a(iii)). In the nanoslits, the hybridization between localized surface plasmon polaritons (LSPPs) and short-range surface plasmon polaritons (SRSPPs) leads to ELT resonance. Transmission minima can be arbitrarily tuned via varying geometric parameters across the entire visible range to control the colors. The pixel sizes of the nanograting are smaller than the commercial image sensors with the smallest pixels, which means that the plasmonic colors have higher resolutions. However, owing to the polarization sensitivity, the one-dimensional (1D) nanostructures are limited in use in imaging or sensing applications. To implement polarization-independent colors, 2D symmetrical nanostructures on a homogeneous substrate are proposed; for example, the color filter in ref. 51, where high-quality subtractive colors were realized by ultra-thin nanopatches under arbitrary polarization angles. Besides subtractive colors for printing, additive colors with a huge range are also important for displays and monitors. In Fig. 2b, additive colors in the transmission mode were realized by Al nanoholes on a quartz substrate. Compared with high-cost Au and oxidizing Ag materials, Al with an interband transition lying outside the visible range enables stronger resonance, lower cost and higher tolerance to fabrication. The periodic metallic hole array can support the momentum to convert incident light into SP modes, and lead to an EOT effect. The micrographs in Fig. 2b(iii) record the wide range that nanoholes can achieve.
In addition, plasmonic colors can be achieved in a reflection mode based on specific nanostructures and mechanisms, such as MIM structures. Generally speaking, MIM nanostructures composed of a thin dielectric layer between the metal nanoantennas and the metal film can exhibit strong standing-wave resonance where the incident light is confined into the metallic gap. The weak interaction between adjacent unit cells results in encoding color into an individual nanoantenna. A single reflected peak can be formed to contribute to slightly higher saturation and a full hue of colors. Nevertheless, there is still a need to pursue higher-saturation colors performed by reflection spectra with a narrower peak. In this context, another MIM nanostructure is proposed to generate full colors in Fig. 2c. As shown in the schematic presented in Fig. 2c(i), a dielectric Al₂O₃ nanodisk is sandwiched by metallic Ag layers, which can be regarded as MIM structures. The scattering cross-section spectra of a single nanodisk has two hybridized plasmonic resonances, at high frequency $\omega_t$ and low frequency $\omega_l$. The corresponding charge distribution is shown in Fig. 2c(ii), implying the magnetic field between adjacent nanodisks is enhanced. The hybridization between Wood’s anomaly and the in-phase electric mode gives rise to a narrower peak with high efficiency in the reflection mode and a lower valley in the transmission mode. As shown in Fig. 2c(iii), additive primary colors with higher saturation and brightness in the reflected field and subtractive primary colors (CMYK) in the transmissive field can be simultaneously generated by using MIM sandwich nanostructures.

Besides color saturation and hue, resolution is another crucial property for plasmonic structural colors in practical applications. As mentioned above, the pixels of nanodisks, nanoholes and gratings are approaching wavelength scale. In order to further improve resolution, disk-hole coupling nanostructures are introduced in Fig. 2(d). Each pixel consists of four nanodisks, where Ag disks and the Au capping layers are raised above equally sized nano-holes on a backreflector (Fig. 2d(i and ii)). The Fano resonance resulting from the interference between the sharp resonance of the surface mode and the broad resonance of the nanodisk–nano-hole coupling can lead to dips in the reflection spectra. Incident light flows around the nanodisks, through the nano-holes, and is absorbed by the backreflector. The interaction between Fano resonance and SP enables performing colors in a bright field. Furthermore, the resolution of pixels arranged in $250 \times 250$ nm units can reach 100,000 dpi. The resolution test pattern in Fig. 2d(iv) specifically shows the high resolution that the coupling nanostructures can reach. When the size of pixels is reduced to 250 nm, all colors in the chequerboard are preserved well, implying the resolution is approaching the optical diffraction limit.

Overall, high-quality structural colors both in reflection and transmission modes have been extensively generated by a variety of plasmonic metasurfaces. Compared with chemical pigments and dyes, plasmonic colors are preferable in terms of environment protection, high resolution, good durability, high flexibility and ease of fabrication. However, there are still drawbacks in plasmonic colors. The intrinsic ohmic loss resulting from free-electron scattering in metals leads to low efficiency and broad resonant peaks in the reflection spectra. This means that there is still huge potential to improve the saturation of the three primary colors.

2.2 Colors from all-dielectric metasurfaces

To tackle the limits of high loss in plasmonic structures, all-dielectric metasurfaces with a high refractive index and low loss have been proposed as candidates. The dielectric nanostructures that interact with electromagnetic waves by a displacement current can support not only electric-dipole resonance, but also a comparable magnetic-dipole resonance. Hence, all-dielectric metasurfaces, especially amorphous silicon (a-Si) nanostructures, have been extensively used to realize a range of phenomenal effects and functionalities in recent years. For instance, a magnetic reflector, Huygens’ effect, high-Q Fano resonance and wavefront control have been demonstrated in the infrared range. However, in the visible wavelength, dielectric color filters have been shown to be challenging due to the convenient dielectric materials with either high loss (such as a-Si) or relatively low refractive index (such as Si₃N₄ and SiO₂). To address this limitation, some skillfully designed all-dielectric metasurfaces with highly saturated colors have been proposed. In the following section, we will systematically discuss high-quality dielectric color filters.

For a-Si color filter, there are invariably two aspects limiting the saturation and range of structural colors, which are high loss and substrate effect. That is, compared with the presence of the substrate, nanostructures can exhibit narrower spectra transitions from zero backward to suppressed forward scattering in free space. Therefore, an Si color filter can perform improved saturation of structural colors by suppressing the substrate effect or reducing material loss. On one hand, as shown in Fig. 3a, a 70 nm-thick Si₃N₄ membrane as an antireflective layer was coated over the silicon substrate. The antireflective layer can create a substrateless environment that effectively suspends the Si nanodisks in free space. A direct correlation between the observed reflection and the particles’ backscattering associated with Kerker’s conditions is established based on the Si₃N₄ index matching layer. The multipolar decomposition in Fig. 3a(iii) indicates that the first Kerker’s condition can be fully met in the dip at longer wavelengths, where reflection can be totally suppressed. The second Kerker’s condition at shorter wavelengths is approximately satisfied since the phase difference is approximately $\pi$ when the magnetic and electric modes hold the same amplitude. As a result, highly saturated colors generated from this metasurface are able to occupy about 120% standard RGB (sRGB) space by mimicking the Si nanostructure in free space in the reflection mode. The color printing in Fig. 3a(iv) intuitively exhibits full-hue and high-saturation colors. On the other hand, reducing loss of a-Si in the visible range is another way to improve the quality of the colors. In this context, hydrogenated amorphous silicon (a-Si:H), which is obtained via thermal annealing a-Si, has a lower extinction coefficient under the premise of maintaining a high refractive index. Compared with polycrystalline silicon (p-Si) with comparable loss, a-Si:H nanostructures have the advantages of low cost,
efficient growth on substrates at relatively low temperatures and compatibility with the complementary metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS) process.\textsuperscript{90,91} Recently, three primary subtractive colors (CMY) with nearly 100% efficiency have been generated by all-dielectric metasurfaces incorporating a-Si:H nanodisks in transmission mode.\textsuperscript{91}

Besides a-Si and p-Si, monocrystalline silicon (c-Si) has lower loss in the visible wavelength. When the wavelength is fixed at 410 nm, the extinction coefficients for a-Si, p-Si and c-Si are 2.02, 0.752 and 0.269, respectively, implying c-Si is a kind of ideal material for color filters.\textsuperscript{92} Nonetheless, the c-Si nanostructure is difficult to fabricate due to the incompatibility with the CMOS process.\textsuperscript{84,93} Recently, this challenge has been addressed by utilizing electron beam lithography (EBL) to fabricate the c-Si sample. As shown in the fabricated process of c-Si nanoblocks presented in Fig. 3b(ii), 150 nm-thick chemical resist is spin coated on a c-Si layer on a silica substrate. A 30 nm-thick Cr hard mask is deposited by a resist lift-off process after the designed patterns are drawn by EBL. Finally, the Cr mask is removed by immersing in a Cr etching solution.\textsuperscript{94} By using the fabricated c-Si nanoblocks, various brilliant structural colors are realized via tuning of the geometric parameters. Moreover, due to the high refractive index of c-Si, the pixels composed of a single nanoblock can present high-quality three primary colors in Fig. 3b(iii), indicating that this all-dielectric metasurface processes high resolution of about 85 000 dpi.

Although a variety of Si metasurfaces have realized highly saturated colors, the invariably existing loss in Si materials still hampers higher saturation and higher efficiency. As a result, TiO\textsubscript{2} as an alternative dielectric material with negligible loss in the visible range is a superior substitute to improve the purity of structural colors. To date, TiO\textsubscript{2} nanostructures with a large aspect ratio have been successfully fabricated by atomic layer deposition or electron beam evaporation.\textsuperscript{95–97} Due to the fact that the refractive index of TiO\textsubscript{2} is lower than in Si materials, a periodic arranging array of TiO\textsubscript{2} unit cells can be an effective way to enhance Mie resonances. The coupling between photonic crystal radiation and electric dipole resonances will significantly increase efficiency and reduce the bandwidth of the reflected peak;
in other words, saturation of visible colors can be improved dramatically. For example, Fig. 3c shows a highly saturated color filter in reflection mode with nearly 100% efficiency based on TiO$_2$ nanopillars. $^{95}$ Fano resonance resulting from interference between the radiation waves of Mie resonance and directly reflected waves enables the generation of narrow-band spectra. In addition, the designed strategy of dependently varying periods along the $x$ and $y$ directions is utilized to simultaneously tune saturation and hue. By changing the polarization angle from 0° to 90°, three primary colors (RGB) with high saturation can be flexibly transformed, indicating that this color filter is anticipated to be applied in high-density optical data storage, hyperspectral microscopy and security encryption, for example.

Except for the all-dielectric nanostructures mentioned above, Si$_3$N$_4$ guided-mode resonant grating, $^{99,100}$ perovskite nanostructures $^{101,102}$ and SiGe resonator $^{103,104}$ have also been studied for structural colors in recent years. In particular, a kind of multi-dielectric nanostructure consisting of stacked SiO$_2$, TiO$_2$ and Si$_3$N$_4$ layers is proposed to realize ultra-highly saturated colors, as shown in Fig. 3d. $^{105}$ The index matching of SiO$_2$ capping layer between TiO$_2$ layer and air, and Si$_3$N$_4$ bottom layer between silica substrate and TiO$_2$ layer can significantly suppress higher order modes at shorter wavelengths, and further improve the monochromaticity of the reflection spectra (Fig. 3d(iii and iv)). More than 83% energy of reflected light is confined in reflected colors. Based on this novel design, 171% sRGB space and 127% Adobe RGB space are taken up in the 1931 CIE chromaticity diagram, which is the largest color space generated from nanostructures as far as we know.

In summary, structural colors generated from all-dielectric metasurfaces offer high saturation and high efficiency, which can be extensively used in high-end displays and imaging applications. $^{96,97,98,103}$ However, additive colors in the transmission mode are still rarely used within all-dielectric nanostructures. The urgent need now is to realize high-quality additive colors in transmission spectra.

3. Dynamically tunable structural colors

Having dynamically tunable colors in situ is essential for advanced displays with novel functionalities, such as color printing,
animations and security encryption. However, the tuning of most structural colors generated from plasmonic and dielectric metasurfaces is dependent on changing physical parameters, which is difficult in fabricated processes.\textsuperscript{106,107} To overcome this limitation, several methods have been used to realize dynamic tuning.\textsuperscript{108–110} For instance, changing the relative orientations of resonators to tune different resonant modes, or using phase-change materials, voltage-control coupling and thermal stimulus to tune metasurfaces.\textsuperscript{111–113} Here, four tunable methods of mechanical stretching, chemical reaction, electrical control and photon doping are reviewed.

Mechanical stretching is the most common way to realize dynamic tuning of near-field interaction \textit{via} varying period of lattice. In stretched technologies, polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), as an elastomeric matrix, holds the advantages of elasticity, inertia, nontoxicity and nonflammability.\textsuperscript{109,114} In recent years, mechanically stretched devices have been widely used in interactive LEDs,\textsuperscript{115} solar cells\textsuperscript{116} and tunable metalens.\textsuperscript{117} In particular, the full-color tunable filter by means of mechanical stretching is proposed across the entire visible range, as presented in Fig. 4a.\textsuperscript{118} The chemical transition is another way to realize dynamic tuning of structural colors; namely, tuning resonance \textit{via} changing components of nanostuctures, where Mg material with superior plasmonic properties is a perfect choice in the visible wavelength.\textsuperscript{119,120} In the field of solid-state hydrogen storage, Mg is one of the most promising candidates, because up to 7.6 wt% of hydrogen gas can be absorbed.\textsuperscript{119} Therefore, metallic-state Mg and dielectric-state MgH\textsubscript{2} are able to undergo chemical transition \textit{via} the processes of hydrogenation and dehydrogenation, respectively. Based on this unique property of catalytic Mg, Fig. 4b shows a dynamic color filter comprising an Mg layer sandwiched between Ti/Pd capping layers and a Ti adhesion layer.\textsuperscript{121} Upon hydrogen exposure, Mg nanoparticles will go through a series of complicated chemical processes, and the fraction of metal Mg will gradually decrease, rendering a dynamic change from plasmonic colors to dielectric colors. Due to the fact that the Mie resonances of MgH\textsubscript{2} nanoparticles are weak in the visible range, the colors can be erased after hydrogenation. More importantly, the erased process is reversible through dehydrogenation in the presence of oxygen (Fig. 4b(iii)). The flexible colors are promising to be used in dynamic color displays with functionalities of tunable colors, encryption and animations.

Besides physical and chemical tuning, electronic control is also a good way to tune colors due to ultra-thin, low-power-consuming and flexible merits.\textsuperscript{122,123} In electronic technology, the phase transition from the nematic to the isotropic state of liquid crystals (LC) can be used to tune resonance under an applied voltage.\textsuperscript{106,124,125} However, the high cost, lack of bistability and complicated fabrication of LC nanostructures still remain a challenge. Hence, several electrophoretic materials, such as conducting polymers and transition metal oxides, have been utilized to dynamically tune colors.\textsuperscript{126–128} For instance, Fig. 4c illustrates full-color electrochromic switching by use of polyaniline (PANI) and poly(2,2-dimethyl-3,4-propylenedioxythiophene) (PolyProDOT-Me\textsubscript{2}), which can both be conformally and controllable electrodeposited on Al nanoslits.\textsuperscript{129} To further improve the purity of colors, an Si\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4} waveguide as a buffer layer is set underneath the Al nanoslits to narrow the linewidth of the spectra (Fig. 4c(i)). By applying different voltages, oxidized and reductive PolyProDOT-Me\textsubscript{2} with changing refractive indices will be switched, as shown in Fig. 4c(i), which means switching colors can be realized at ON and OFF states by using different voltages. The electrochromic switching with fast speed and high-contrast colors has promising applications, ranging from catalysis to photovoltaics.

Finally, photon doping can be used to realize dynamically tunable \textit{in situ} structural colors. In addition to the extrinsic structural colors generated from light–matter interaction, the intrinsic emission colors caused by photoluminescence (PL) of the active materials is introduced in the photon-doping method.\textsuperscript{130,131} As shown in the schematic presented in Fig. 4d, methylammonium lead halide perovskite (MAPbBr\textsubscript{3}, where MA = CH\textsubscript{3}NH\textsubscript{3}) gratings are patterned on a glass substrate \textit{via} in situ processing.\textsuperscript{132} MAPbBr\textsubscript{3} material as a semiconductor possesses intrinsic emissions generated from the direct bandgap. The intensity of the intrinsic emission colors can be determined by the excitation; that is, the density of the pumping laser. Hence, mixing of the extrinsic structural colors and intrinsic emission colors leads to a new color. Based on Grassmann’s law, changing the intensity of intrinsic colors by use of a pumping laser enables the \textit{in situ} new color to be dynamically tuned. The dynamic tuning is reversible with decreasing pumping intensity. More significantly, the color-transition time is mainly determined by buildup, and ring down time of PL is of the order of nanoseconds, which is orders of magnitude faster than previous studies. The enlarged measured printing in Fig. 4d(iii) shows flexibly dynamic tuning from red to green by changing the intensity of pumping light.

4. Applications

As shown in the previous sections, static and dynamic structural colors have been widely realized in metasurfaces. Because of the ultra-thin, ultracompact, highly durable and environmentally benign properties of the nanostructures, the full-color filters with high saturation, high efficiency and high resolution are promising alternatives to replace conventional pigments in many practical applications. In the following section, displays, encryption and sensing applications based on structural colors are introduced.

To date, high-end and advanced displays have attracted the most attention in the study of structural colors. In Fig. 5a, a
Dynamic plasmonic nanostructure based on Au/Ag nanodomes is integrated into a designed matrix display covering the entire visible range. The method of electrodeposition can be utilized to dynamically alter the thickness of Ag shells on Au nanodomes by applying a voltage, and rendering a continuous color change based on a reversible redox reaction of Ag. During the process of redox, the colors will gradually change with the time of the oxidation/reduction reaction, which is consistent with the cyclic voltammogram measurement. In the design of a biomimetic chameleon (Fig. 5b(ii)), the chameleon covered with plasmonic nanodomes is equipped with color sensors to sense the environment’s color. And then the color information is automatically analyzed and delivered into the nanodomes so as to change the color of the chameleon accordingly. This implies that optical wearable devices are possible. In Fig. 5a(iii), rapid display with the responsive speed of a unit cell and static display, where the unit cells are operated by a line-by-line matrix-addressing technique, are respectively demonstrated, showing the potential of high-end displays and imaging applications.

Fig. 5 shows a dynamic cryptographic nanostructure based on asymmetric a-Si:H nanoblocks over silica substrate. Kerker’s conditions can be fully met, and lead to a narrowed resonant peak and suppression of unwanted light; that is, improved saturation of structural colors. More importantly, the polarization-dependent property resulting from the asymmetric structures gives rise to the possibility of storing different optical information in distinct polarization states. As presented in Fig. 5b(i), a fixed nanostructure shows different quickmark codes in 0° and 90° polarization angles. Hence, the nanostructure can be a possible design strategy to realize cryptographic nanoprints via controlling polarization angles, such as the test of cryptograph shown in Fig. 5b(ii). Four kinds of pixel with 0° and 90° rotated angles for “R, O, A” and 45° and 135° rotated angles for “H, L, B” are used to encrypt information in designated polarization angles. These cryptographic nanoprints can be compatible with a smartphone, security tag, payment, identification and anti-counterfeiting.

Moreover, colorimetric sensing based on plasmonic structural colors has been introduced to detect analytes by directly observing changes of visible colors. However, the broad resonant spectra caused by localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) generally leads to reduced colorimetric resolution due to the strong radiative damping. For example, the highest LSPR sensitivity of an Au sensor is focused on the near-infrared range. To overcome the...
limitation of LSPR sensing, a skillfully designed strategy is used to improve colorimetric capacity. For instance, 2D Al nanoclusters have been designed to provide Fano resonance with energies in the region from blue to green, which is the most sensitive part for human eyes. The detected colors can gradually change from blue to orange when the analytes are air \((n = 1.0)\), PDMS \((n = 1.4)\), poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) \((n = 1.5)\) and diphenyl ether \((n = 1.6)\), respectively. Furthermore, in the field of biosensing, quantitative colorimetric sensing of ricin is also reached in Fig. 5c based on nanopin-cavity resonator, by which bright-field structural colors are fully realized (Fig. 5c(ii)). The location of the resonant peak in the visible range can be flexibly tuned by changing the medium indices. As presented in Fig. 5c(iii), an antibody-functionalized biosensor with high sensitivity and fast response is fabricated to detect ricin. The antibody protein can be immobilized by use of the amide linkage formed by the reaction of the terminal succinimide group with the amine of protein. Based on the biosensor, the density of ricin can be observed by a dramatic color change at less than 10 min.

5. Summary and prospects

We have reviewed the development of structural colors based on plasmonic and dielectric metasurfaces to date. The plasmonic additive and subtractive colors caused by SPP resonance have been widely realized via nanogratings, nanoholes, disk-hole coupling and MIM nanostructures in both transmission and reflection modes. Although the inherent loss of metal materials hinders higher saturation and efficiency, remarkably high resolution approaching 100,000 dpi is possible by use of disk-hole coupling. While for dielectric colors, Mie resonances generated from high-index dielectric nanostructures lead to high-quality reflection spectra with narrow linewidth and high efficiency; namely highly saturated colors. Significantly, a multi-dielectric metasurface based on multipolar modulation has recently obtained a huge color space occupied 171% sRGB space. However, there is still the challenge of realizing additive colors in the transmission mode within all-dielectric metasurfaces. Based on these color filters, a number of methods of dynamically tunable colors, including mechanical stretching, chemical reaction, electrical control and photon doping, are systematically discussed in this paper. The ultra-thin thickness of the color filters has the potential to integrate on a chip, indicating that structural colors generated from metasurfaces are promising platform for additive structural colors in the transmission mode by meticulous design. On the other hand, possible approaches in terms of nanoimprint lithography, self-assembly technique and injection molding need to be developed in practice to realize mass production. Overall, there is still huge space to be explored in relation to structural colors before commercialization. We believe colors generated from metasurfaces can be extensively used to take the place of chemical pigments, and dramatically improve the quality of our daily life in the future.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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