

Trapping and Plasmon-Enhanced Emission from a Single Upconverting Nanocrystal

by

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B.Sc., Iran University of Science and Technology, 2013

M.Sc., Tarbiat Modares University, 2016

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of the Requirements for the Degree of

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University of Victoria

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Supervisory Committee

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Abstract

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Plasmonics has been used to increase the interaction of an emitter and light. This enhancement can be achieved by using plasmonic resonators at the emission and/or absorption wavelengths of the emitter. This dissertation is based on four projects which are mainly about the interaction of light and upconversion nanocrystals (UCNCs) using plasmonic resonators.

In the first project, rectangular apertures on a gold film are fabricated and used to trap and study single UCNC. These apertures are finely tuned to find the highest up-conversion emission enhancement. Results show significant up to $400\times$ enhancement along with many other interesting observations for trapped UCNCs. Finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) simulations show multiple plasmonic resonances at emissions and absorption UCNC wavelengths, which justify the experimental results. These

results could pave the way for understanding the interaction of light and UCNC at very subwavelength scales and can find the applications of UCNCs in photovoltaics, single-photon sources, and bio-imaging.

Single-photon sources are emission sources that can emit a single photon as demanded. One way to achieve a single-photon source at telecommunication wavelengths at 1550 nm is by using a single lanthanide ion inside a cavity with a huge emission enhancement factor. In the second project, using the already designed plasmonic resonator in the first project, the upconversion emission of very low erbium (Er) concentration is investigated. Results show discrete levels of emissions depending on the number of Er inside the UCNC. These results would be a great way to design a single-photon source working at 1550 nm wavelength using Er. Because it can solve two major problems of previous works in this field; First, increasing the low emission rate of Er and second, solving random distribution of ion emitters inside the cavity by trapping and isolating a particle contains a single Er emitter.

In the third project, the different upconverted lights from samples with gold nanoparticles on mono dielectric layers on top of the gold samples are investigated. Under 1550 nm pulsed laser illumination, we observe second and third harmonic generations, two-photon photoluminescence, and bright broadband upconverted emission, which we believe is due to light-induced inelastic tunneling emission. In the last project, we show dual-wavelength (1210 nm and 1520 nm) excitation upconversion with plasmonic enhancement, which can increase the efficiency of solar cells by upconverting

near-infrared wavelengths to shorter wavelengths.

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Acknowledgements

“Pour a jug of wine, since you’ll never know if this is your last breath or not!”

Omar Khayam, Persian mathematician, astronomer, and poet (1048-1131)

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Dedication

To my family

Glossary

Common Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning
APD	avalanche photodiode
CCD	charge-coupled device
CW	continuous wave
DAQ	data acquisition
DM	dichroic mirror
EM	electromagnetic
FDTD	finite-difference time-domain
FIB	focused ion beam
HWP	half-wave plate
IR	infrared
LP	linear polarizer
LSP	localized surface plasmon
NA	numerical aperture
NP	nanoparticle
LITE	light-induced inelastic tunneling emission
LPF	long pass filter
PML	perfectly matched layer
SAM	self assembled mono layer
SEM	scanning electron microscope
SHG	second harmonic generation
SPF	short pass filter
SPP	surface plasmon polariton
TE	transverse electric field
TFSF	total-field scattered-field
THG	third harmonic generation
TM	transverse magnetic field
TPPL	two photon photoluminescence
UCNC	upconversion nanocrystal

Glossary

Symbols

Symbol	Meaning
α	polarizability
β	propagation constant
ϵ	permittivity
ϵ_0	vacuum permittivity
$\epsilon(\omega)$	frequency dependent permittivity of metal
ω	angular frequency
ω_p	plasma frequency
λ	wavelength
τ	electron relaxation time
c	light speed in vacuum
E	electric field strength
H	magnetic field strength
F_{grad}	gradient force
F_{scat}	scattering force
I	light intensity
k	wavenumber
n	refractive index
L	electric field enhancement factor
p	dipole moment
P	polarization vector
P_{lum}	luminescence power
T	optical transmission
U	potential energy

Chapter 1

Introduction

The main goal of this dissertation is to investigate the interaction of light with metallic nanostructures, and lanthanide-doped upconversion nanocrystals. The motivations behind this dissertation, the reasons researchers are interested in plasmonics, and why UCNCs are useful are presented in this chapter. The organization of this dissertation is detailed here in section 1.2. This dissertation can be divided into four projects. The contribution of all the authors in each project is listed in the last section of this chapter.

1.1 Motivation

Electromagnetic (EM) waves play a key role in almost every modern device. EM waves are synchronized oscillations of electric and magnetic fields (classical physics) or quanta packages of energy called photons (quantum physics). Based on the energy of a photon, electromagnetic waves are classified into radio (very low energy), microwave, infrared (IR), visible, ultraviolet, X-ray, and gamma-ray (very high energy). Each class of this broadband spectrum has various applications including medical purposes, military weapons, communications, detecting, and energy conversion.

Human eyes are sensitive to EM waves with wavelengths from around 400 to 700 nm (visible light) with the highest sensitivity for green light (approximately 500 nm). This order of EM wavelengths is interesting since the main source power energy of the earth (Sun) has the highest spectrum power in these wavelengths. Due to evolution mechanisms, almost every single living cell in the earth operates or interacts in these wavelengths (some animals use near IR wavelengths which are also part of the solar spectrum) [4]. As a result, humans try to understand the interaction of light and matter in these wavelengths which let us design many devices operating in visible light including cameras, light sources, detectors, and solar cells.

Some metals like gold and silver, show interesting interactions with visible light; this phenomena is called plasmonics. In summary, conduction electrons of a metal (nega-

tive permittivity) at the interface with a dielectric (positive permittivity) can oscillate due to the interaction with visible light. The oscillations of a metal's free electrons can be coupled to incident electromagnetic fields and cause surface electromagnetic waves propagating on the interface of a metal and dielectric layers (evanescently confined in the normal direction of the interface). These propagating surface electromagnetic waves are called propagating surface plasmon polaritons. Also, conductive electrons of a subwavelength metallic nanoparticle can couple to electromagnetic excitation fields and cause non-propagating localized surface plasmons. Couplings of the incident electromagnetic field at the interface of negative and positive permittivity materials confine the light on the order or smaller than the light's wavelength. Depending on metal and dielectric permittivities, interfaces, temperature, shape, and size, plasmonic oscillation frequencies can change. For example, spherical gold nanoparticles with 20, 50 and 100 nm diameters show plasmonic resonances at 524, 535, and 572 nm while increasing the gold nanoparticle's diameter causes widening of the plasmonic absorption peak.

Developments in the fabrication processes help researchers to design and fabricate nonstructural metals to obtain desired plasmonic wavelengths for different applications including spectroscopy [5, 6], sensing [7, 8], solar cells [9] and single-photon sources[10].

The other interesting interaction of light and matter can be seen in optical tweezers, introduced by Arthur Ashkin [11]. Optical tweezers trap and manipulate small

objects by using the momentum of photons. Plasmonics could be very helpful here since it can confine the EM waves and increase the optical trapping probability.

Lanthanides are interesting materials since they are non-blinking stable emitters. Lanthanides can upconvert the IR wavelengths to the visible light. The upconversion efficiency of lanthanides is generally higher than other upconversion mechanisms like harmonic generation. Although the upconversion efficiency is usually higher than other non-linear optical processes, it's not great enough for practical applications. Plasmonics can be useful here by increasing the interaction of light and lanthanide electrons, which can increase the upconversion efficiency. This can ease the use of lanthanide in applications like bio-imaging [12, 13], solar cells [14, 12] and single-photon sources [15, 16].

In this dissertation, the goal is to trap a single lanthanide-doped upconversion nanocrystal to study the interaction of UCNCs and plasmonic structures and the ways that the upconversion emission can be increased for applications like single-photon sources and solar cells.

1.2 Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is written based on four manuscripts that have either been published or submitted to peer-reviewed journals. Below, the contribution of all authors

is listed. In the second chapter, the theory of plasmonics, UCNCs, and optical tweezers are presented. In chapter three, a summary of each manuscript is presented. The complete manuscripts are added to the appendix section (A-D). Summary, conclusion, and possible future works are presented in chapter four.

1.3 Major Contributions

1.3.1 Cascaded Plasmon-Enhanced Emission from a Single Upconverting Nanocrystal [1]

A. Alizadehkhalili performed the fabrication of the samples, trapping experiments, and simulations. A.L.F. and F.C.J.M.v.V. were responsible for nanocrystal synthesis and characterization. M.K.D. and S.H. provided a theory to interpret the experimental findings. R.G. conceived the experiment. All authors assisted in writing the manuscript.

1.3.2 Isolating Nanocrystals with an Individual Erbium Emitter: A Route to a Stable Single-Photon Source at 1550 nm wavelength [2]

A. Alizadehkhaledi performed the fabrication of the samples, and trapping experiments. A.L.F. and F.C.J.M.v.V. were responsible for nanocrystal synthesis and characterization. R.G. conceived the experiment. All authors assisted in writing the manuscript.

1.4 Minor Contributions

1.4.1 Bright Upconverted Emission from Light-Induced Inelastic Tunneling

A. Alizadehkhaledi contributed to this work by assisting in preparing the samples, measurements, and simulation. E.R. prepared and measured the samples and performed the simulation. G.H. assisted in the measurements. R.G. conceived the experiment. All authors contributed to writing the manuscript.

1.4.2 Harvesting Dual-Wavelength Excitation with Plasmon-Enhanced Emission from Upconverting Nanoparticles [3]

A. Alizadehkhalidi contributed to this work by assisting in upconversion measurements. M.S.S. prepared and measured the samples. A.K. assisted in the measurements. A.L.F. synthesized and characterized the nanoparticles under the supervision of F.v.V. R.G. supervised the project, providing ideas and facilities, and performed the simulations. All authors contributed to writing the manuscript.

Chapter 2

Methods and Review

The main goal of this project was to enhance UCNCs using plasmonic resonators for both emission and absorption processes by tailoring the local electric field. To do so, understanding three different branches of science is necessary. In this chapter, at first, a brief review of plasmonics and its applications are presented. Then, lanthanide-doped nanocrystals and the upconversion mechanisms are introduced. Optical tweezers as a method of studying and manipulating tiny particles is later discussed. Metallic sub-wavelength apertures are discussed as a tool for enhancing optical trapping. Optical nonlinearity, and harmonic generation of the gold are presented. In the last section, a brief review of the finite-difference time-domain method (FDTD) which yields approximate solutions for Maxwell's equations is presented.

2.1 Plasmonics

Visible light can be concentrated to nanometer dimensions smaller than its wavelength. This happens from an interesting phenomenon arising from the interaction of light and metal and is referred to broadly as plasmonics [17]. Concentrating light to smaller dimensions compared to its wavelength resulting in the increased local electric field has found many applications from solar energy conversion to sensing and detection methods [18, 19]. Both photon absorption and emission processes are dependant on the local electric field intensity. Using a plasmonic structure with resonant frequencies at desired wavelengths can enhance both absorption and emission processes. The increment of luminescence near a plasmonic resonator can scale as [17]:

$$P_{lum} \propto L(\lambda_{ext})^2 \times L(\lambda_{em})^2, \quad (2.1)$$

where λ_{ext} and λ_{em} are excitation and emission wavelength. L represents the enhancement of the electric field due to the plasmonic resonator. One of the practical applications for plasmonics is enhancing Raman scattering. In Raman scattering, molecules absorb the incident photon and re-emit with lower or higher energy. The difference in energy can be used as a fingerprint for these molecules. As it is shown in equation 2.1 both photon absorption and emission processes are dependants on the

local electric field intensity. Since the absorption and emission frequency in Raman are close to each other, a plasmonic resonator can cover both of them and as a result, enhance the Raman scattering significantly. This helps researchers to achieve Raman scattering with single-molecule sensitivity [5, 6].

One can conclude that, generally, any multi-photon processes can benefit from plasmonics. Many multi-photon processes require different wavelengths and subsequently different plasmonic resonances [20]. Plasmonic resonances are generally quite broadband, but still may not be enough to cover all desired wavelengths. Consequently, the aim is to design a plasmonic structure that can cover different wavelengths involved in multi-photon processes [21].

2.1.1 Metals: Drude Model

For understanding the plasmonic effect, let's begin with the Drude model for the metals. Free electrons in the metal can be considered as a plasma gas where electrons are moving against fixed positive ions. In the presence of EM fields, electrons oscillate as a response to EM fields, and these oscillations are damped via collisions occurring with the free electrons' relaxation time τ . The equation of moving electrons in the

presence of an applied electric field (E) can be written as;

$$mx'' + \frac{m}{\tau}x' = -eE \quad (2.2)$$

where x'' , x' are second and first derivative of x (electron position), e and m are the electron charge and mass. Assuming a harmonic electric field ($E(t) = E_0e^{-i\omega t}$), then the electron position, $x(t)$, can be written as;

$$x(t) = \frac{e}{m(\omega^2 + i\frac{\omega}{\tau})}E(t) \quad (2.3)$$

where ω is the electric field oscillation frequency. Considering microscopic polarization $P = -nex$, where n is the number of electrons, P can be derived from equation 2.3 as;

$$P = -\frac{ne^2}{m(\omega^2 + i\frac{\omega}{\tau})}E \quad (2.4)$$

In general, the polarization magnitude is defined as;

$$P = \chi\epsilon_0E \quad (2.5)$$

where the electric susceptibility (χ) is $\chi = \epsilon_r - 1$ and ϵ_r is the relative permittivity.

The real ($\epsilon_1(\omega)$) and imaginary ($\epsilon_2(\omega)$) parts of ϵ can be derived as;

$$\epsilon_1(\omega) = 1 - \frac{\omega_p^2 \tau^2}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} \quad (2.6)$$

$$\epsilon_2(\omega) = \frac{\omega_p^2 \tau}{\omega(1 + \omega^2 \tau^2)} \quad (2.7)$$

where $\omega_p^2 = \frac{n e^2}{\epsilon_0 m}$ is the plasma frequency of free electrons in the metal. Two different regimes for $\omega < \omega_p$ can be observed. First, if ω is large and close to ω_p and $\omega \tau \gg 1$; this makes the imaginary part of ϵ negligible (the inter-band transitions in metals change the imaginary part in this regime, and it's not negligible). Second, if the frequency is small, the imaginary part becomes a large value, and metals are behaving as significant absorbing materials. In these two regimes, the real part of ϵ is negative. If $\omega > \omega_p$ the electrons in metals can not follow the oscillations of the electric field and metals become transparent for large frequencies (usually in ultraviolet frequencies or even more).

2.1.2 Surface Plasmon Polaritons

Let's now consider a system with metal (negative ϵ) and a dielectric (positive ϵ) under the illumination of EM fields (2.1). To understand the physics of this system, we need

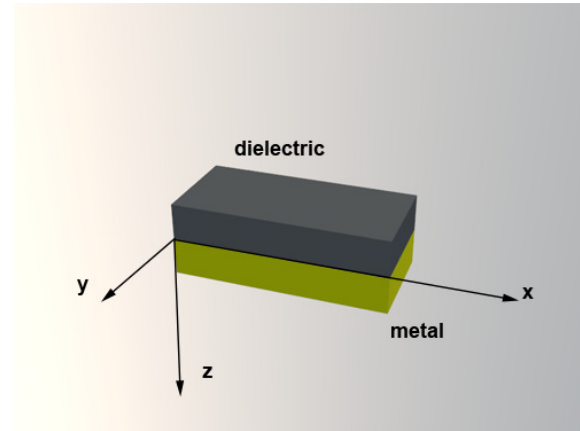


Figure 2.1: Surface plasmon propagation at the interface of a dielectric and metal.

to solve Maxwell's equations. After some assumptions, we can derive the equation below (Helmholtz's wave equation);

$$\nabla^2 E + k_0^2 \epsilon E = 0 \quad (2.8)$$

where $k_0 = \frac{\omega}{c}$ is the magnitude of wave vector in the vacuum. By solving this equation for two different mediums and applying boundary conditions, we can get two sets of answers, depend on the electric field polarization. Transverse magnetic field (TM) where there is no magnetic field component in the propagation direction (z) and transverse electric field (TE) where there is no electric field component in the propagation direction (z). Solving the equations for these conditions shows interface wave propagation (x) for TM mode and no propagation for TE mode. The complete set of equations can be found elsewhere [17].

The TM solutions show an evanescent decay electric field component ($\propto e^{-k_2 z}$)

perpendicular to the interface (z), and a propagation wave at the interface (x). The dispersion relation of the wave propagating at the interface can be found;

$$\beta = k_0 \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_m \epsilon_d}{\epsilon_m + \epsilon_d}} \quad (2.9)$$

where β is propagation constant, k_0 is the magnitude of free space wave vector, and ϵ_m and ϵ_d are the permittivities of metal and dielectric. It can be seen that if ϵ_m approaches $-\epsilon_d$, then β , the propagation constant, becomes very large and as a result, the wavelength becomes very small at the interface. Consequently, the electric field is confined to the surface and decays exponentially perpendicularly to the surface (z). These phenomena are called surface plasmon polaritons where the electric fields are confined and propagate at the surface of two materials with negative and positive epsilon.

2.1.3 Localized Surface Plasmons

The other fundamental plasmonic effect are localized surface plasmons where non-propagating excitations of the conduction electrons of a metallic nanostructure are coupled to the electromagnetic field. This happens when an oscillating electric field is applied to a subwavelength metallic nanoparticle. Let's consider a small nanoparticle

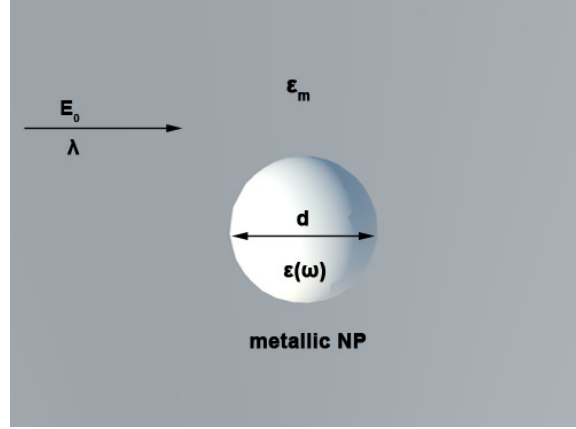


Figure 2.2: Localized surface plasmon. Spherical nanoparticle with permittivity $\epsilon(\omega)$ inside a dielectric medium with permittivity ϵ_m under the illumination of an electric field E_0 .

with diameter (d), under the illumination of an EM field with wavelength λ where $d \ll \lambda$. In this case, the phase of the harmonically oscillating EM field is constant over the volume of the particle. As a result, we can solve a quasi-static approximation of the Laplace equation ($\nabla^2\phi = 0$) where the electric field is applied to a tiny particle. The electric field inside (E_{in}) and outside (E_{out}) of the particle can be found by getting a gradient from the potential (ϕ);

$$E_{in} = \frac{3\epsilon_m}{\epsilon(\omega) + 2\epsilon_m} E_0 \quad (2.10)$$

$$E_{out} = E_0 + \frac{3n(n.p) - p}{4\pi\epsilon_0\epsilon_m r^3} \quad (2.11)$$

where p is the electric dipole moment ($p = \epsilon_0\epsilon_m\alpha E_0$) under illumination of E_0 , $\epsilon(\omega)$ and ϵ_m are metal nanoparticle and medium permittivities. As we can see in the

equations, the electric fields experience the resonance when $|\epsilon(w) + \epsilon_m|$ becomes minimum. Under this condition, the electric field inside a particle increases for the resonance frequency. This enhancement and confinement of the electric field inside a nanoparticle is called a localized surface plasmon.

2.2 Lanthanide-Doped Upconversion Nanocrystals

Lanthanide-doped upconversion is a multi-photon process that can benefit from plasmonics [22, 23]. Lanthanide-doped nanoparticles are made from a transparent host material usually NaYF_4 , NaGdF_4 , LiYF_4 , YF_3 or CaF_2 which is doped with lanthanide ions such as Er^{3+} , Yb^{3+} , Tm^{3+} or Yb^{3+} [24].

One of the popular combinations is Yb^{3+} and Er^{3+} . Figure 2.3 displays energy-transfer upconversion diagram for the Yb^{3+} and Er^{3+} codoped upconversion materials. First, Yb^{3+} acts as an antenna by absorbing the incident 980 nm wavelength and then transferring the energy to an Er^{3+} . This allows the Er^{3+} to emit either green (550 nm) or red (650 nm). As we see for 550 nm emission, two 980 nm photons are absorbed, and a 550 nm photon is emitted, which makes this upconversion process a three-photon process which has a great potential for improved plasmonic enhancement[25]. Based on equation 2.1, the enhancement of emission at 550 nm and 650 nm can scale as

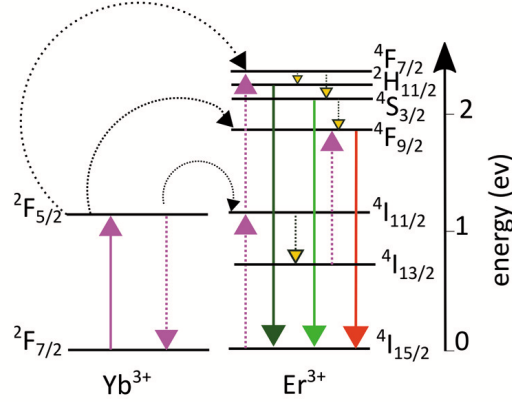


Figure 2.3: Energy transitions schematic of upconversion mechanism for the Er^{3+} , Yb^{3+} . Upconversion absorption (solid purple arrow), energy transfer (dashed purple arrows), nonradiative relaxation (dotted yellow arrows), and 520 nm, 550 nm, 650 nm emissions (dark green, light green and red arrows) are illustrated.

$$P_{lum@550} \propto L(980 \text{ nm})^4 \times L(550 \text{ nm})^2, \quad (2.12)$$

$$P_{lum@650} \propto L(980 \text{ nm})^4 \times L(650 \text{ nm})^2, \quad (2.13)$$

where $L(980 \text{ nm})$, $L(550 \text{ nm})$ and $L(650 \text{ nm})$ are the increment of the electric fields at 980 nm, 550 nm and 650 nm due to plasmonic resonances. It is worth mentioning that even though plasmonics can increase the absorption by increasing the local electric fields and increase the emission by increasing the radiative decay rate, it can also hinder the upconversion process by increasing the non-radiative decay rate [23]. This mainly happens due to energy transfer between the plasmonics structure and

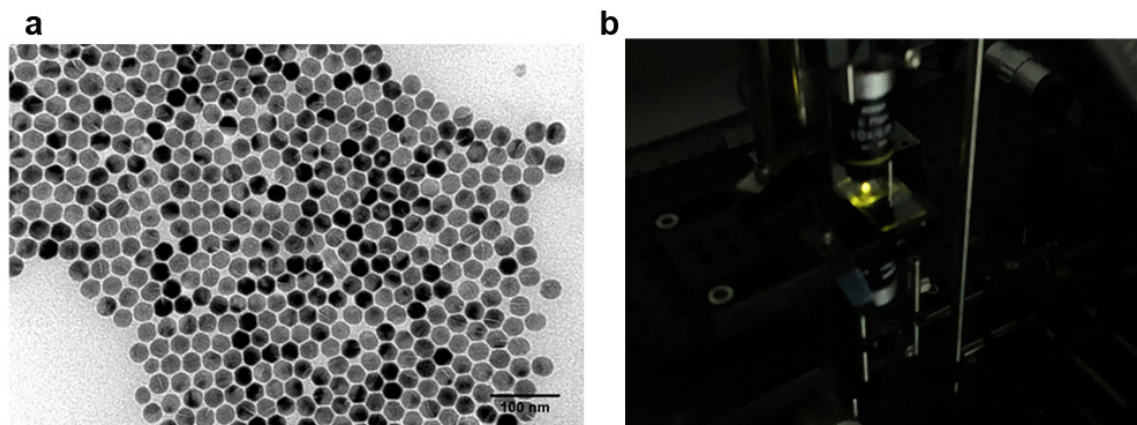


Figure 2.4: Upconversion nanocrystals. **(a)**, TEM image of hexagonal NaYF_4 UCNCs codoped with Er and Yb. **(b)**, UCNCs solvated in hexane under illumination of the 980 nm laser.

photoluminescence molecule at the nanoscale distance [26].

Figure 2.4 (a) shows the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of synthesized UCNCs with Er (2%) and Yb (18%) codoped in the host NaYF_4 nanocrystals. The UCNCs are hexagonal with a diameter of about 25 nm. Figure 2.4 (b) shows the upconversion emission of $8\mu\text{L}$ of these UCNCs dissolved in hexane (14 mg/mL) under the illumination of a continuous wave (CW) 980 nm laser. Under high illumination power with high concentration, the yellow upconversion emissions (mixed of green and red) can be seen with the naked eyes.

Although upconversion nanocrystals are stable materials, they suffer from weak conversion efficiency which limits their applications in improving solar energy harvesting [14, 12], photocatalysis [27], single photon sources [15, 16] and bio-imaging [28,

12, 13].

2.3 Optical Tweezers

Arthur Ashkin won the 2018 Nobel Prize in Physics for the invention of the optical trapping, and its' application in biological systems [29]. Optical tweezers make use of a highly focused electromagnetic wave incident on a particle to trap, hold, and manipulate it [30]. Ray optics can easily explain trapping of a particle in the Mie regime (where the particle's size is larger than the incident wavelength). Figure 2.5 shows a Gaussian incident beam on a particle. Arrows (a) and (b) represent two rays, where (b) has a higher intensity than (a) since it's closer to the middle of the Gaussian beam. Using the conservation of momentum, F_a and F_b can be drawn and separated into two components, which are generally referred to as scattering and gradient forces. Since the gradient component for ray (b) is greater than (a), the particle moves toward the center of the Gaussian beam where the gradient forces are symmetric and cause stable trapping of the particle in the middle of Gaussian beam. If the particle moves out of the trapping site, the gradient force moves it back to the center of the Gaussian beam.

In the Rayleigh regime (where the diameter of particle is much smaller than the incident wavelength), the scattering and gradient forces can be derived considering

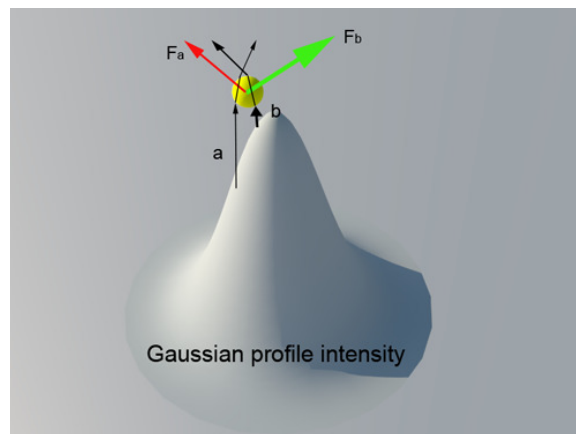


Figure 2.5: Incident EM with Gaussian profile over a particle. F_a and F_b are two force vectors in the result of incident optic rays a and b. Since $F_a > F_b$ the particle moves to the right (center of the Gaussian beam).

the particle as a point dipole interacting with the incident beam [31];

$$F_{scat} = \frac{I_0}{c} \frac{128\pi^2 \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^6}{3\lambda^4} \left(\frac{n_p^2 - n_m^2}{n_p^2 + 2n_m^2}\right)^2 n_m, \quad (2.14)$$

$$F_{grad} = \frac{1}{2} n_m \alpha \nabla |E|^2 = \frac{n_m^3 \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^3}{2} \left(\frac{n_p^2 - n_m^2}{n_p^2 + 2n_m^2}\right)^2 \nabla |E|^2 \quad (2.15)$$

where I_0 and λ are the beam intensity and wavelength. c and d are the speed of light and diameter of the particle. n_m and n_p are the refractive indexes of the surrounding medium and particle. α and E show the polarizability of the particle and the electric field. Equation 2.15 shows that the gradient force scales with the diameter of the particle, gradient of the electric field, difference and absolute value of the particle and medium refractive indexes. One can conclude that the feasibility of trapping usually becomes smaller for smaller particles since for example the polarizability of an object is proportional to the volume. As a result, for trapping small objects a large electric field is required [32]. This can also be shown by the potential energy of trapping (U) which can be derived by integrating of the trapping force; Equation 2.15 [31];

$$U = -\frac{2\pi n_m \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^3}{c} \left(\frac{n_p^2 - n_m^2}{n_p^2 + 2n_m^2}\right) I \quad (2.16)$$

where, I is the intensity of beam at trapping point and can be written as;

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 c E^2 \quad (2.17)$$

Equation 2.16 shows the dependence of potential energy to the third power of particle size and the second power of the electric field. For trapping of a particle, this potential energy should overcome the Brownian motion of the particle in the trapping medium. The thermal kinetic energy of the particles arising from Brownian motion is $k_B T$, where k_B is Boltzmann's constant and T is temperature. Here again, plasmonics could help trap tiny particles since it can enhance the local electric fields.

Nanoapertures in metal films would be a great way of using plasmonics for trapping objects [33]. Moreover, metal films have a high thermal conductivity, which is a vital point for trapping fragile tiny particles since we need a high electric field for trapping them, which can change the local temperature significantly[32]. The high temperature at the trapping site increases the Brownian motion, which demands more potential energy and more electric field. Moreover, this high temperature damages fragile biological particles like proteins and DNA.

Figure 2.6 shows the modified Thorlabs optical trapping setup used in this dissertation. A CW 980 nm single-beam laser was collimated and linearly polarized in the desired direction using a linear polarizer (LP) and a half-wave plate (HWP). Then, the beam area was expanded to nearly three times greater using two lenses. A white LED was used as a light source of optical microscopy to shine the sample and finding a subwavelength aperture through a charged-coupled device (CCD) camera. Two short pass dichroic mirrors (D1 and D2, 805 nm Thorlabs) were used to separate the path of 980 nm laser and LED light. The 980 nm laser beam was focused on

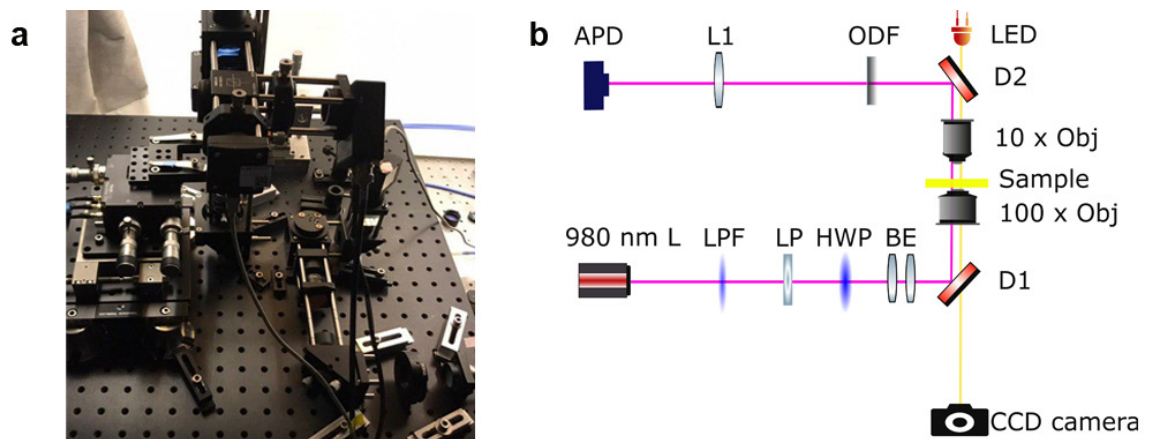


Figure 2.6: Optical trapping. **(a)**, Thorlabs optical trapping setup. **(b)**, schematic of optical trapping setup. Abbreviations used: CCD camera = charge-coupled device camera, LP = linear polarizer, L = lens, D = dichroic mirror, HWP = half-wave plate, BE = beam expander, 980 nm L = 980 nm laser, Obj = objective lens, ODF = optical density filter and APD = avalanche photo-detector.

the sample using a $100\times$ oil immersion microscope objective (1.25 numerical aperture). A $10\times$ condenser microscopic objective (0.25 numerical aperture) was used to collect the transmitted signal through the rectangle aperture and was measured by a silicon-based avalanche photodetector (Thorlabs APD110A). A piezoelectric controlled 3-axis sample stage was used to align the beam through the apertures with 20 nm positioning precision.

2.4 Sub-Wavelength Apertures

Many nanoaperture designs (double nanohole, circular, rectangular, bow-tie) have been used for trapping and manipulating small particles like proteins and DNA [34, 33, 35, 36, 37].

Rectangular apertures are interesting designs since they demonstrate stronger polarization dependence, higher transmittance, and supporting transmission resonances [38] comparing to circular and square apertures. Also, rectangular apertures help provide multiple plasmonic resonances due to the difference in the length of the axes. This can be very helpful for designing a plasmonic structure for multi-photon processes with different wavelengths.

Bethe calculated the transmission of a subwavelength circular hole aperture inside an infinitely thin, perfect conductor film [39]. The subwavelength aperture can be

modeled as a small magnetic dipole assuming the light intensity (I) is constant over the aperture for normal incidence. The transmission coefficient is then given by;

$$T = \frac{64}{27\pi^2}(kr)^4 \propto \left(\frac{r}{\lambda_0}\right)^4 \quad (2.18)$$

Equation 2.18 shows that the transmission for sub-wavelength aperture is very small and scales as $\left(\frac{r}{\lambda_0}\right)^4$. If the incident light excites the localized surface plasmon at the subwavelength aperture, then the transmission (T) is changing because of three important consequences;

- It increases the fundamental cut-off wavelength (λ_{max}) of the waveguide [40].
- Surface plasmon propagating modes can exist and assist the transmission even for the frequencies lower than the plasma frequency [41].
- The dimension and geometry of the sub-wavelength aperture can change the position and bandwidth of surface plasmon modes and as a result the transmission through the aperture [17].

Figure 2.7 shows the samples of fabricated rectangular (a) and double nanohole (b) apertures using focused ion beam (Hitachi FB-2100 FIB).

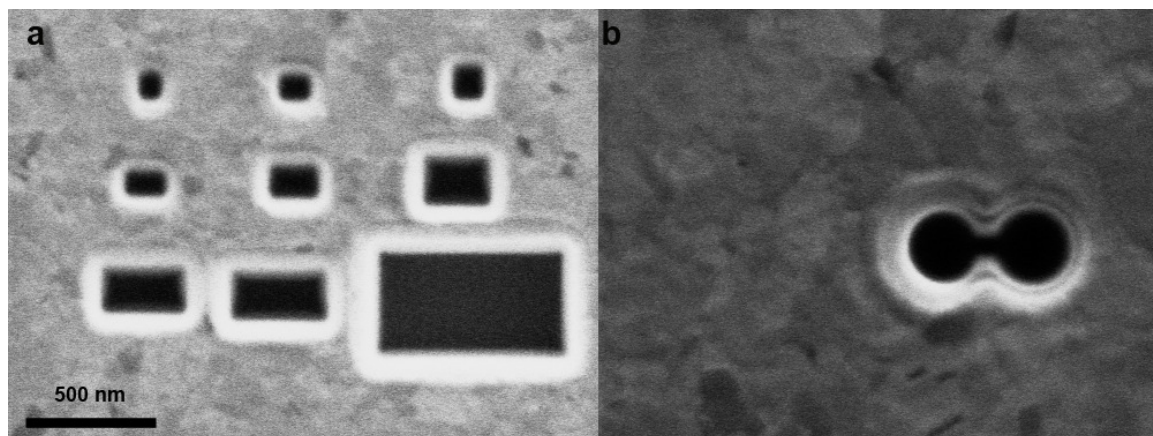


Figure 2.7: Focused ion beam image of fabricated rectangular (a) and double nanohole (b) apertures

2.5 Nonlinear Optics

We saw that the polarization vector linearly depends on the electric field, however, by increasing the electric field, the polarization eventually becomes saturated, and this saturation can be modelled by nonlinear susceptibility;

$$P = \epsilon_0\chi^{(1)}E + \epsilon_0\chi^{(2)}E^2 + \epsilon_0\chi^{(3)}E^3 + \dots \quad (2.19)$$

where χ^n is n th-order nonlinear susceptibility, E is the electric field, and ϵ_0 is the vacuum permittivity. Nonlinear optics can be used to produce upconverted light with twice (second harmonic [42, 43]), and three times (third harmonic [44, 45]) the incident EM's frequency. The nonlinear behavior occurs whenever the electric field is comparable to the binding energy between the electron and atom ($\sim 10^{10}$ - 10^{11} V/m). Any materials can show nonlinear behavior; however, a huge electric field is usually required. The nonlinear behavior can be achieved by a much smaller electric field using the phase matching condition [46]. Gold has inversion symmetry, which causes the even orders of χ^n to become zero, and consequently, there is no even harmonic generation. However, any broken symmetry in the gold structure like the gold surfaces can produce even orders of harmonic generation.

2.6 FDTD Method

The finite difference time domain (FDTD) method is a numerical method to find approximate solutions for two Maxwells' curl equations (Faraday's and Ampere's laws). In this method, the computational space is discretized using Yee's scheme (rectangular grid considering uniform electric fields at edges and magnetic fields at the surfaces of a grid) [47]. In addition, it uses the leapfrog method by sampling the electric fields at times $n\Delta t$ and magnetic fields at times $(n + \frac{1}{2})\Delta t$. The two Maxwells' curl equations (Faraday's and Ampere's laws) can be written as;

$$\nabla \times E = -\mu \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} \quad (2.20)$$

$$\nabla \times H = -\epsilon \frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + \sigma E \quad (2.21)$$

where E and H are electric and magnetic fields. μ and ϵ are permeability and permittivity. t and σ are time and electric conductivity. These two equations show that changing of the magnetic fields in time generates the electric fields and vice versa. Using finite-difference approximations, equations 2.20 and 2.21 can be written as;

$$\frac{H(t + \frac{\Delta t}{2}) - H(t - \frac{\Delta t}{2})}{\Delta t} = -\frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \times E(t) \quad (2.22)$$

$$\frac{E(t + \Delta t) - E(t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \nabla \times H(t + \frac{\Delta t}{2}) \quad (2.23)$$

Electric fields for a specific time step are calculated and stored in memory based on the previously calculated magnetic fields. Then, the magnetic fields are calculated and stored in memory based on previously calculated electric fields and so on. Using a single time-domain simulation (for example a pulse signal) can cover a wide range of frequency responses of the system.

Two important parameters in FDTD simulations are the grid size and time step (Δt). The grid size should be much smaller than the smallest wavelength, especially for plasmonic studies (since propagation constant becomes very large and reversely wavelength becomes very small). The other factor for choosing the grid size is the geometry of the structure. The grid size should be smaller than geometrical features of the structure which can result in a very long time for FDTD simulations for the rough surfaces.

When the electromagnetic field is moving across a discrete spatial grid in discrete time steps, the time steps should be smaller than the time it takes for the wave to go across a spatial grid. This leads to the Courant-Friedrichs-Lewy stability condition as it is written bellow [48];

$$\Delta t \leq (c \sqrt{\frac{1}{\Delta x^2 + \Delta y^2 + \Delta z^2}})^{-1} \quad (2.24)$$

where c is the largest EM wave propagation velocity in the problem, and Δx , Δy and Δz are spatial grid sizes.

The other important factor in FDTD simulation is the boundary condition which truncates the simulation area. The usual boundaries are Perfectly Matched Layer (PML), Perfect Electric Conductor (PEC), Perfect Magnetic Conductor (PMC) and Periodic Boundary Condition (PBC). PML boundaries absorb all EM waves incident on them (reflection-less). PEC and PMC are perfectly reflecting boundaries for electric and magnetic fields. PBC boundaries are used when both the structures and EM fields are periodic. The boundary condition in this dissertation is PML since we have open boundaries in experiments and PML absorb all EM and does not reflect EM waves to simulation area (ideally).

The Lumerical FDTD simulation is used for different projects in this dissertation. Figure 2.8 shows a sample of FDTD simulation of rectangular aperture ($100\text{ y} \times 200\text{ nm}$ (x)) inside a gold film with 100 nm thickness (z). The surrounding mediums are hexane (on top and inside the hole) and glass (bottom). A total-field scatter-field (TFSF) is used to illuminate the sample with 980 nm wavelength linearly polarized along the short axis y of the aperture. Figure 2.8 (a) shows the profile of the electric field at the surface of aperture $x - y$, and (b) shows the profile of the electric field at a cross-section view $y - z$. The electric field shows higher intensities along the long axis at the edges of the rectangular aperture where the trapping is happening. More information can be found in the simulation method of each paper (Appendix A-D).

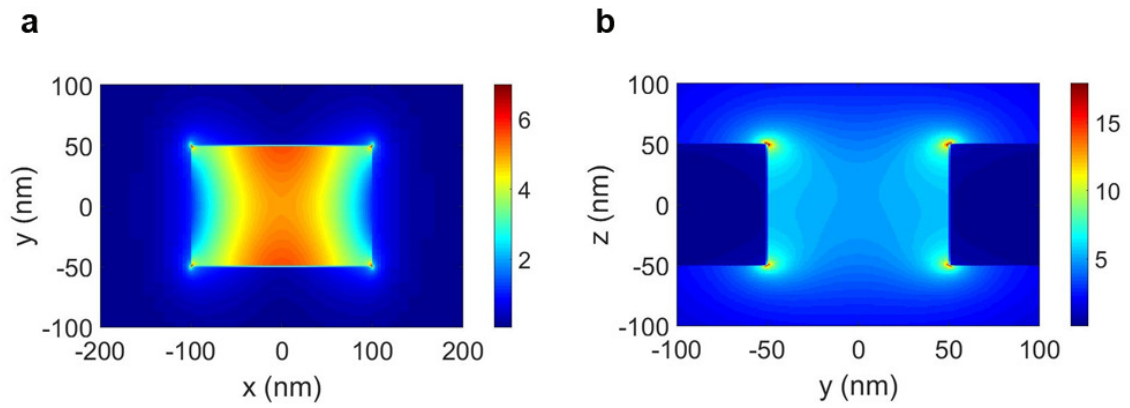


Figure 2.8: FDTD simulation of a rectangular aperture inside a gold film. **(a)**, electric field profile at the surface of the aperture $x - y$. **(b)**, electric field profile at the cross section of the aperture $y - z$.

Chapter 3

Contribution

In this chapter, a brief review of the theories and results of the four studies is presented. In appendix A through D, all these four studies presented as manuscripts with full details. In the first section, the fabrication of multiple rectangular apertures to achieve multiple plasmonic resonances for trapping and enhancing UCNCs is presented. In section 3.2, by using the already fabricated rectangular aperture with $410\times$ emission enhancement, the possibility of trapping and counting the number of active Er doped in an UCNC based on upconversion emission is described. In the section 3.3, the interactions of 1550 nm pulsed laser with gold nanoparticles on SAM on top of gold samples are explored. In the last section, the possibility of dual-band excitation of Er-doped UCNCs with plasmonic enhancements and the potential for solar cells enhancement is presented.

3.1 Cascaded Plasmon-Enhanced Emission from a Single Upconverting Nanocrystal (Appendix A)

The goal of this project is to enhance upconversion using plasmonics for both emission and absorption processes by tailoring the local electric field. There have been many reports using plasmonic enhancement for absorption [49, 50] and emission [51, 52] wavelengths of UCNCs. Also, using plasmonic enhancement for both excitation and emission wavelengths has been reported for aperture arrays in metals [53, 54]. There are also some other studies on plasmonic upconversion enhancement of a single upconversion nanocrystal [55, 56].

In these studies, nanorod-UCNC interactions have been explored due to the existence of multiple resonances in nanorod structures. However, using these kinds of structures would not be an accurate method to study upconversion-plasmonics interactions because of; first, finding the exactly matched plasmonic resonances with UCNCs is difficult since these structures are not well tunable. Second, the distance of plasmonic resonators and UCNCs also is not that much control-able. Here, we used a rectangular aperture on gold film for trapping a single UCNC since:

- Achieving multiple resonances for both emission and absorption wavelengths of

UCNC is possible.

- These apertures are made using a focused-ion beam method, which lets us tune the apertures to an accuracy of 2 nm.
- Trapping a single UCNC lets us have a better insight into plasmonics-upconversion interaction.
- Rectangular aperture shows strong polarization dependence, which can alter the UCNCs polarization emission.

In this study, after the fabrication of different rectangular apertures using a focused ion beam (FIB), 100 nm was chosen as a fixed axis, and the other axis was tuned from 100 nm to 226 nm with 2 nm fine steps (Analysing the FIB image of the rectangular apertures using ImageJ software shows the variation of of the rectangle's width between 97 and 104 nm). Adriaan L. Frencken, under the supervision of Prof. Frank C. J. M. van Veggel, synthesized and characterized UCNCs. These UCNCs were Er-Yb co-doped in NaYF_4 , which emit Green (550 nm) and Red (650 nm) lights by absorbing 980 nm. The synthesized UCNCs were diluted in hexane with 3×10^{10} UCNCs/ cm^3 concentration. Then, the fabricated rectangular apertures are used to trap a single UCNC by using 980 nm CW laser and the upconverted emission recorded using a fiber-coupled spectrometer at reflection side.

Results showed significant $100 \times$ enhancements from a single UCNC inside a 100×212 nm aperture comparing to other apertures. Moreover, comparing emission from

single UCNCs at this aperture to a free solution with approximately 30 particles at the focusing area gave us $400 \times$ enhancement.

Figure 3.1 (a) shows a schematic of the experimental setup. A 980 nm collimated laser is focused on a rectangular gold aperture on a gold film cause trapping and exciting single UCNC. The trapped excited UCNC emits green (550 nm) and red (650 nm) lights detected by a spectrometer on the reflection side. A focused ion beam image of a test pattern of all 64 rectangular apertures is shown in the figure 3.1. Figure 3.1 (b) displays the emission enhancement for 550 and 650 nm emission for different rectangular aperture lengths comparing to free solution. The other interesting observation was the emission ratio between 650 nm and 550 nm which was increasing with both plasmonics enhancements and incident power.

To explore more the impact of aperture plasmonics resonances on the upconversion emission, emission polarization dependence measurement was carried out by adding a linear polarizer before the spectrometer which gave us interesting results that the 650 nm and 550 nm emissions were perpendicularly polarized by factor of the 0.7. The 650 nm emission followed the polarization of incident 980 nm laser.

Mohsen Kamandar Dezfouli under the supervision of Prof. Stephen Hughes performed FDTD simulation which justified the experimental results showing the existence of plasmonics resonances at 550 nm, 650 nm, and 980 nm. Results were published in ACS Photonics (see Appendix A) [1].

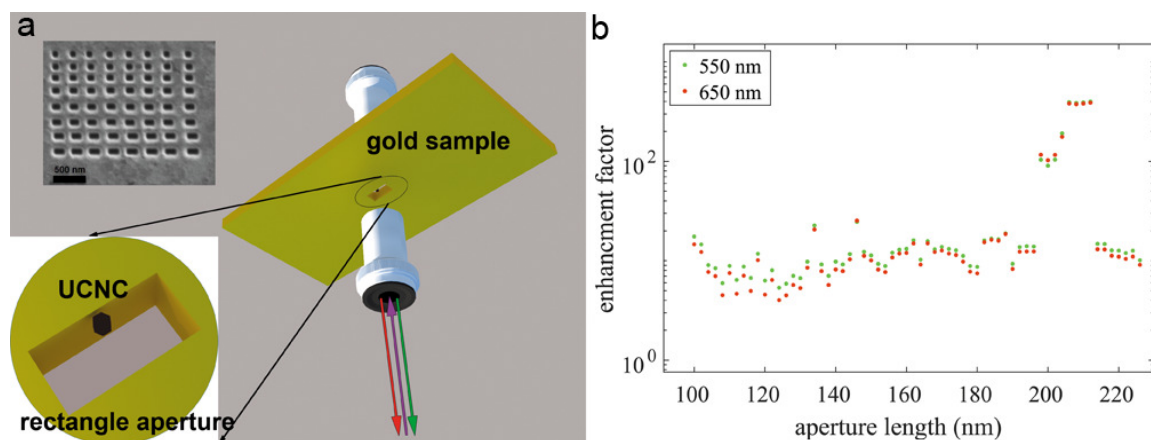


Figure 3.1: Plasmonic upconversion emission enhancement factor by tuning the aperture length. **(a)**, Schematic of a rectangular aperture in the gold film with a trapped UCNC placed at the highest electric field profile. Green, red, and purple arrows represent 550, 650, and 980 nm wavelengths. The focused ion beam image of a test pattern of the rectangular aperture is shown at the top left. The short axis of the aperture is fixed at 100 nm, and the long axis is varied from 100 to 226 nm in 2 nm steps. **(b)**, Enhancement factor for 550 and 650 nm upconversion emissions of a single trapped UCNC trapped in different rectangular apertures comparing to free solution measurement. © Reprinted, with permission, from American Chemical Society, 2019 [1]

3.2 Isolating Nanocrystals with an Individual Erbium Emitter: A Route to a Stable Single-Photon Source at 1550 nm Wavelength (Appendix B)

As it is presented in section 3.1, we designed a plasmonic cavity with approximately $400\times$ enhancement for trapping a UCNC contained approximately 2,000 erbium ions. This experiments showed that we can detect the single Er ion emission using the plasmonic cavity with enhancement factor.

Single lanthanide emitter in a crystal matrix would be a good candidate as a single-photon source since they are non-blinking stable emission. As a result, much research has been carried out to detect single lanthanide ions (praseodymium [57, 58, 59, 60], cerium [61, 62, 63], and erbium [64, 15]).

Erbium is an interesting case since it has a transition at fiber's low loss communication band (1530 nm); however, the problem arises from the low transition probability of Er at 1530 nm due to the shielding of 4f electrons, which reduces interaction of light and 4f electrons (4f orbitals are shielded from the outside crystal by optically active 6s orbital [46, 23]). Plasmonics is a useful approach to increase the interaction of

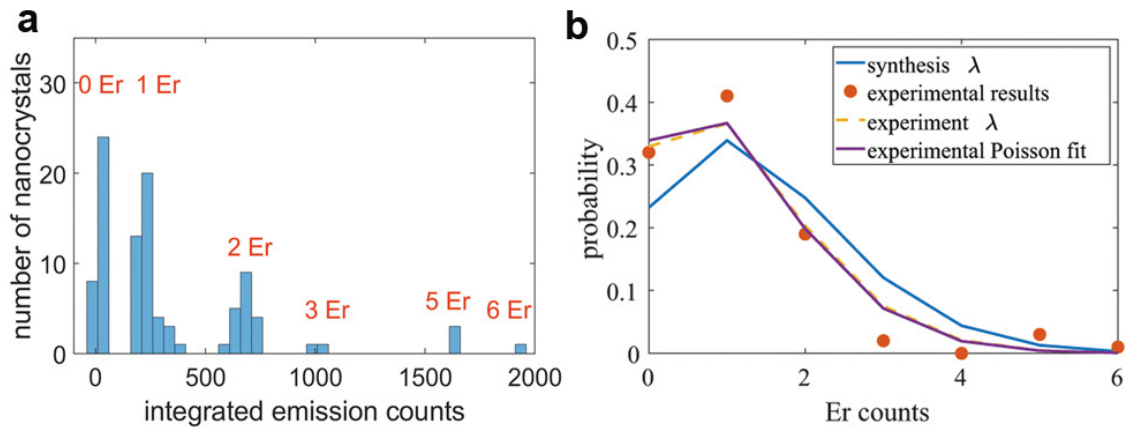


Figure 3.2: Poisson distribution of the number of active Er inside a UCNC. **(a)**, Schematic of optical trapping rectangular aperture with hexagonal UCNC placed at the highest intensity of the electric field. The hexagonal UCNC contains 0 to 3 Er ions. **(b)**, Probability of having 0 to 6 Er emitters based on upconversion emission for the experimental measurements (red dots). The dashed yellow line and blue line show the Poisson distribution using expected synthesis statistics having a mean Er count of 1.53 per particle and calculated experiment statistics with mean Er count of 1.11 per trapped particle. The purple line shows the fitting of experimental data using a Poisson distribution. The fitted mean value is 1.08 Er per UCNC.

light and 4f electrons of Er.

Another critical problem of these studies is that the distribution of emitters inside the cavity is random. To solve this problem, researchers recently reported on the ion-trap implantation method to implant as few as four ions at a single spot; however, about half of the implanted ions do not emit, which makes the emission yield 50% [65].

The plasmonics subwavelength aperture can solve both problems, low emission rate of Er and random distribution of ions' emitters. First, the plasmonic structure

can be designed to enhance the Er emission at the desired wavelengths. Second, it traps and isolates the single Er UCNC, which can be translocated to desired location later [35].

To detect the emission of single Er ion, at first, we need to decrease the number of Er ions inside a UCNC. Adriaan L. Frencken under the supervision of Prof. Frank C. J. M. van Veggel synthesized three different batches of UCNCs with the mean values of 1.53, 0.07573 and 0.00609 Er per UCNC.

Figure 3.2 (a) shows a schematic of the rectangular subwavelength aperture with a UCNC trapped at the highest electric field intensity. It also indicates hexagonal UCNCs with 0-3 Er ion emitters. We used the already fabricated plasmonic cavity with 410 times enhancement for trapping single UCNC. Figure 3.2 (a) shows the probability of having 0-6 Er in the trapped UCNCs (red dots) based on the upconversion emission. It also shows the Poisson distribution of experimental data (dashed yellow line) by using the experimental result's mean value. It is clear that the experimental results follow a Poisson distribution, and it is in agreement with the Poisson distribution of synthesizing results. In addition, the experimental data are fitted using a Poisson distribution. The fitted mean value is 1.08 Er per trapped particle.

Results show discrete levels of emission from trapped UCNCs based on the number of active emitters. The experimental and synthesized mean values for this batch are 1.11 and 1.53 Er per UCNC. The mean value for the trapping experiment shows 0.73% of the synthesized value. We attribute this lower value to quenching of Er ions close

to the surface which can reduce the emission by two orders of magnitudes [66, 67].

Results were published in Nano Letters [2].

3.3 Bright Upconverted Emission from Photon Induced Inelastic Tunneling (Appendix C)

Nonlinear optics in metallic nanostructures can produce upconverted lights in different processes including second harmonic generation [42, 43, 68], third harmonic generation [44, 45], two-photon photoluminescence [69, 70, 71, 72] and three-photon photoluminescence [69, 45]. These nonlinear effects are a very weak process even when using plasmonic resonators at desired wavelengths. The efficiency is usually less than a fraction of percent [73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78], and researchers mostly use pulsed lasers to observe these effects. Since pulsed lasers can deliver a huge amount of power in a very short time (femtoseconds) when the average power of the laser is so small compared to the pulse power.

With this huge power of the pulsed laser, the electron can eject from metal surfaces [79, 80, 81, 82, 83]. Also, the metal junction under DC bias can emit light due to tunneling-induced light emission [84, 85, 86]. Recently, high efficiency of 2% with the possibility to increase the efficiency has been reported for this effect [87, 88].

In this study the emission properties of different samples using 5, 20 and 60 nm gold nanoparticles on an amino-alkane-thiol self-assembled monolayer with varying carbon length (C2 – 30070 Sigma-Aldrich, C3 – 739294, Sigma-Aldrich, C6 – 733679 Sigma-Aldrich C8 – 745774 Sigma-Aldrich) on an 30 nm thick ultra-flat gold (template stripped off silicon) under the illumination of 1550 nm femtosecond pulsed laser have been studied.

Under the 1550 nm pulsed laser illumination, second harmonic generation (SHG), third harmonic generation (THG), two-photon photoluminescence (TPPL), and a bright broadband upconverted emission are observed. This bright upconverted emission shows a cut-off wavelength, which is blue shifting by increasing of the incident pulse power; this is a signature of tunneling effects. We attribute this broadband upconverted emission to light-induced inelastic tunneling emission (LITE). The FDTD simulations show that the voltage across the junction due to the electric field of incident pulse is comparable to the voltage of an unconverted emission at cut-off wavelength. Finding the exact cutoff wavelengths of the experiments are limited by the quantum efficiency of the silicon spectrometer. Figure 3.3 (a) shows the gold nanoparticle on a thin sub-nanometer SAM layer on the gold film sample. The red and blue arrows show the incident pulsed laser and the upconverted emission. The electron inside the gold nanoparticle can tunnel through the sub-nanometer SAM dielectric (black arrow) and emit a photon. Figure 3.3 (a) shows the cut-off wavelength (blue dots) of the bright broadband upconverted emission for different incident pow-

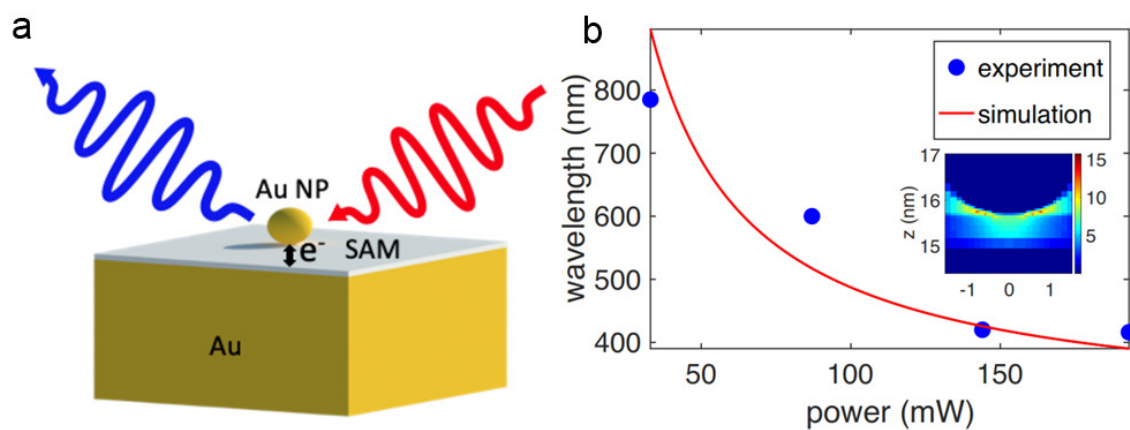


Figure 3.3: Light-induced inelastic tunneling emission. **(a)**, Schematic of the samples and incident (blue arrow) and emitted photon (red arrow). Sample contains gold nanoparticle on a SAM sub-nanometer layer on a gold film. **(b)**, The experimental and FDTD simulation cut-off wavelengths for different incident powers. The cut-off wavelength of simulation is calculated using the photon energy derived from the voltage across the junction.

ers. The red line shows the result of a simulation based on the electric field across the junction for different incident powers. As it is shown in the figure 3.3, the cut-off wavelength is blue shifting by increasing the incident power.

This LITE effect shows almost 10^5 greater magnitude comparing to SHG and THG. Besides, dark-field scattering of the samples is studied, and it shows plasmonics transverse resonance at around 550 nm, and longitudinal resonances depend on the thickness of the SAM layers.

3.4 Harvesting Dual-Wavelength Excitation with Plasmon-Enhanced Emission from Upconverting Nanoparticles (Appendix D)

Converting solar energy using photovoltaic cells is a promising way to substitute fossil fuels. Silicon-based solar cells are the dominant photovoltaic cells with above 26% efficiency [89, 90, 91]. The bandgap of silicon is 1.11 eV, which is equal to 1130 nm wavelength.

Figure 3.4 (a) shows the solar spectrum stretching from ultraviolet (300 nm) to infrared wavelength (2200 nm) with the peak of power in visible light (500 nm). Silicon is an appropriate material for solar technology because it absorbs the visible

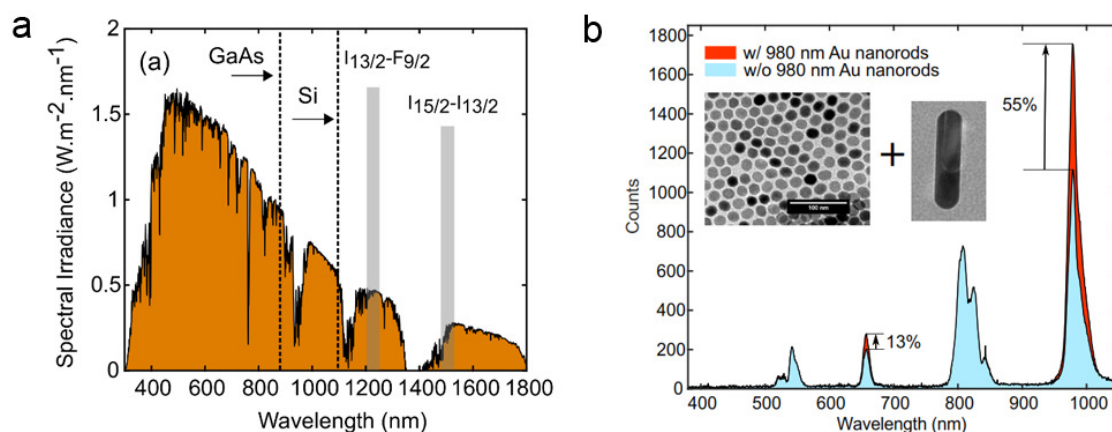


Figure 3.4: Dual wavelengths upconversion excitement. **(a)**, Solar spectrum power for different wavelengths. Gray lines show the Er transition at 1210 and 1520 nm. Silicon and Gallium Arsenide band gap cut-off wavelengths are shown by the dashed line (1130 nm, 870 nm). **(b)**, Upconversion emission of Er-doped UCNCs drop coated on gold film with (blue) and without gold nanorods (red) under the excitation of supercontinuum laser (wavelength > 1200 nm). TEM images of UCNC and gold nanorods. © Reprinted, with permission, from American Chemical Society, 2019 [3]

light. Still, since the silicon bandgap is 1.1 eV, it cannot absorb a photon with greater wavelengths than 1130 nm. As we can see in figure 3.4, there are two main peaks greater than 1130 nm (around 1200 nm and 1600 nm). By absorbing and converting these wavelengths, silicon solar efficiency can be increased further. Using lanthanides in the photovoltaic cell is a way to increase the solar cell efficiency by upconverting near IR wavelength to greater energy in the absorption spectrum of solar cell [14, 92, 93, 94, 95]. The problem arises from the low upconversion efficiency of lanthanides due to the shielding of 4f orbitals. One way to overcome this is by using a plasmonic resonator to enhance light and matter interaction.

Here, we show dual-wavelength (1210 nm and 1520 nm) excitation upconversion with plasmonic enhancement. We use Er-doped nanoparticles, which have bands at 1520, 1210, 980, 808, 650, and 550 nm wavelengths. The Er-doped UCNCs are drop-coated on the glass. Using both 1520 and 1210 nm wavelength, we observe upconversion emission at different wavelengths. Then, by drop coating UCNCs on gold film and by adding nanorods with plasmonic resonance at 808 and 980 nm, we observe selectively plasmonic enhanced upconversion emission.

Figure 3.4 (b) shows the upconversion plasmonic enhancement for the Er-doped UCNC under the excitation of the supercontinuum laser (wavelength > 1200 nm). The blue peaks show dual-wavelength upconversion of Er-doped UCNCs when they are drop coated on the gold film, and the red peaks show the upconversion when the gold nanorods with resonance at 980 nm was added to the sample. Figure 3.4 (b) shows the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of UCNCs and gold nanorods.

Since 1210 and 1520 nm are in the solar spectrum, Er can be used to absorb and then upconvert these two bands to greater photon energy, which can be absorbed by silicon or other absorbing materials used in solar cells.

Chapter 4

Conclusions and Future Works

4.1 Conclusions

In this dissertation, plasmonic nanostructures have been used to enhance the interaction of light and matter, especially for enhancing the UCNCs. In the first project, rectangular apertures on a gold film are fabricated and used to trap and study single UCNCs. These apertures are finely tuned to find the highest UCNC emission enhancements. Results show a significant enhancement up to $400 \times$ comparing to solution. The 550 nm and 650 nm upconversion wavelengths display polarization along the long and short axis perpendicularly. FDTD simulations show multiple plasmonics resonances at emission and absorption UCNCs wavelengths, which justify the emission enhancements.

In the second project, using the already designed plasmonic resonator in the first project, the UCNC emission of very low Erbium (Er) concentration is investigated. Results show discrete levels of emissions depending on the number of active Er inside the UCNC. This experiment displays that observing a single Er emitter is possible if the emission enhanced enough to overcome the spectroscopy noise. Moreover, using optical tweezers lets us isolate and translocate the trapped UCNC for a future application like single-photon sources.

In the third project, samples of gold NPs on SAMs on gold films are explored using the femtosecond pulse laser. The different upconverted lights are observed including second, third harmonic generations, two-photon photoluminescence, and bright broadband upconverted emission, which we believe is due to light-induced inelastic tunneling emission.

In the last project, dual-wavelength (1210 nm and 1520 nm) excitation has been used to observe upconversion in Er-doped UCNCs. The upconversion emissions are selectively enhanced using the nanorod plasmonic resonator at desired wavelengths.

To summarize, plasmonic subwavelength structures cause huge enhancement for the neighboring emitter, and it can increase the interaction of light and matter significantly if it is well designed.

4.2 Future Works

Single-photon sources and detectors are the major part of quantum technologies. Designing ideal or close to ideal single-photon sources operating at 1550 nm wavelengths is still challenging. Er-doped materials are one of the good candidates since they are non-blinking stable emitters that can emit at 1530 nm wavelength. The problem arises from the low emission rate of these emitters due to 4f orbital shielding. Many researchers try to solve this by using a photonic crystal or plasmonic cavity. Here, in this dissertation, we trapped single UCNCs with low Er doping inside a rectangular aperture with huge plasmonic enhancements. We designed these apertures for enhancing green and red light upconversion emission. However, it is possible to extend the size of the rectangular aperture to cover the desired wavelength (1530 nm). Now, by doing the same experiment (tuning the aperture size) and trapping with 980 nm laser, the downconversion emission from single UCNCs can be obtained at 1530 nm wavelength.

In the first experiment, we observe, the plasmonic aperture can alter the polarisation of emission. This could be very helpful in designing a single-photon source since one can obtain polarized single-photon sources. Also, changing the aperture size or using different apertures would be a great way to study this effect more.

We observe an interesting transmission signal on the APD, which was an oscillating

signal changing from high to low frequency. This may happen due to the low viscosity of hexane and electromagnetic radiation pressure on the surface of the liquid. Exploring this effect would give us insight to the interaction of light, plasmonic resonators, nanoparticles, and low viscosity solutions.

Another interesting project would be measuring the time decay of a trapped UCNC when it is interacting with the subwavelength aperture. This also can be done by observing time decay for different emission polarization directions.

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Appendix

**A Cascaded Plasmon-Enhanced Emission from a
Single Upconverting Nanocrystal**

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Cascaded plasmon-enhanced emission from a single upconverting nanocrystal

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Abstract

Plasmonics has been used to enhance light-matter interaction at the extreme subwavelength scale. Intriguingly, it is possible to achieve multiple plasmonic resonances from a single nanostructure and these can be used in combination to provide cascaded enhanced interactions. Here, we demonstrate three

distinct plasmon resonances for enhanced up-conversion emission from a single up-converting nanocrystal trapped in a metal nanoaperture optical tweezer. For apertures where the plasmonic resonances occur at the emission wavelengths only, a moderate enhancement of a factor of 4 is seen. However, by tuning the aperture to enhance the excitation laser as well, an *additional* factor of 100 enhancement in the emission is achieved. Since lanthanide doped nanocrystals are stable emitters, this approach of using multiple subwavelength resonances can improve applications including photovoltaics, photocatalysis and imaging. The nanocrystals can also contain only single ions, allowing for studying quantum emitter properties and applications to single photon sources.

Keywords

upconverting nanoparticles; plasmon enhanced emission; lanthanides, optical tweezer, rectangular aperture, single particle luminescence

Nanostructured metals concentrate light to the nanometer scale and this has been exploited in many applications to enhance light-matter interaction, in the field widely referred to as plasmonics. Generally speaking, the enhancement can appear in two ways: for the incident light and the emitted light. The ultimate goal would be to benefit from both simultaneously.^(A1) The greatest enhancements are expected for multi-photon processes where the plasmonic improvement occurs at an exponent greater than unity. Many applications require significantly different wavelengths for the incident and emitted photons, such that a single plasmonic resonance cannot enhance both simultaneously, even though they are broadband resonances. An obvious exception is for Raman scattering where the incident and emitted photons have almost the same wavelength and single molecule sensitivity has been achieved.^{(A2),(A3)} Therefore, it is desirable in general to have plasmonic structures with multiple resonances at the different wavelengths of interest, and all at the extreme subwavelength scale.^{(A4),(A5)}

A single UCNC contains many coupled lanthanide ions, which give rise to complicated kinetics within and between thousands of excited states. Plasmon resonances can influence UCNC efficiency in three different ways. First, by concentrating and increasing the incident field, which results in enhanced absorption. Second, by enhancing emission by increasing the radiative decay rate. Third, by increasing the non-radiative decay rate.^(A6) Consequently, plasmon resonances can both enhance and hinder UCNC efficiency.^(A7) If designed correctly, plasmonic enhancement in upconversion has potential for improving solar energy harvesting,^{(A8),(A9)} photocatalysis,^(A10) single photon sources^{(A11),(A12)} and subwavelength luminescence imaging with IR excitation.^{(A9),(A13)} While these emitters have excellent stability, their very weak conversion efficiency has been widely recognized as hindering any practical use.^{(A14),(A15)} This is exactly a case where multiple plasmonic resonances are desired, which has been achieved for excitation and emission wavelengths for aperture arrays

in metals;^{(A16),(A17)} however, achieving all of these resonances at the subwavelength scale and for a single upconverting nanocrystal (UCNC) and a single aperture remains a significant challenge. There have been efforts to explore the plasmonic enhancement from single nanorods. In one study, the individual nanorod-UCNC interaction was achieved by atomic force manipulation of the particles.^(A18) The nanorods used in that study only received a very small enhancement at the excitation wavelength, since the nanorods were not tuned to that wavelength. Others have explored nanorods with dual plasmonic resonances at the excitation and emission wavelengths; however, that work relied on the stochastic nature of the particles diffusing in solution and so there was a lot of variation in the emission reported.^(A19) The nanoapertures used here are tuned in fine steps about the plasmonic resonance, allowing for matching the resonance exactly and obtaining the maximum enhancement. The trapping used also allows for systematic study of a single UCNC interacting with a single aperture.

Here we present a nanoaperture optical tweezer platform^(A20) as a means to obtaining three separate resonances in a single subwavelength structure. By using this platform, we obtain bright emission from individual 26 nm UCNCs (The UCNCs are made of NaYF_4 doped with 18% Yb and 2% Er. No passivating shell has been used which allows for the closest spacing of the emitters to the gold) 400 times greater than the same measurements performed on a collection of these particles. While two of the plasmonic resonances are largely unaltered by changing the aperture dimensions, tuning the long axis of the aperture results in an additional 100 times increase in the already-enhanced emission. We also present a simple theoretical model to better understand these features, which exploits full 3D finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) simulations.

We synthesised 26 nm upconverting nanocrystals (UCNCs) and trapped them using a laser tweezer setup. The laser tweezer setup uses a rectangular aperture in a 100 nm thick gold film to allow for trapping single nanoparticles. The trapping

is measured by an abrupt jump in the transmission of light through the aperture, as shown in Fig. A1 (a,b). Trapping occurred consistently within 0.01 s of turning on the laser, as expected from diffusion considerations for the concentration of $3 \times 10^{10}/\text{cm}^3$ (see Supporting information, SI, Section C). In addition, we could image the luminescence from the UCNC at the time of trapping, as shown in Figs.A1(c)-(e). The transmission through the aperture consistently showed interesting dynamics over multiple timescales that we suspect are related to the interesting nanofluidics of this system. We do not investigate this behavior in the present work; however, multiple events are presented in the SI to show that this behaviour is highly reproducible.

To tune the plasmonic resonance, a variety of rectangular apertures of different dimensions were fabricated. One side-length of the apertures was varied from 100 nm to 226 nm. A test pattern containing all of the aperture sizes fabricated is shown in Fig. A2(a); however, it should be emphasized that trapping was done on one aperture at a time and they were separated by 40 microns. In addition, Fig. A2(a) shows a schematic of trapping UCNCs and their emission. The 980 nm laser traps the UCNC near a long axis of rectangle aperture. The 980 nm also act as an excitation source for UCNC, which emits at 550 nm and 650 nm. Figure A2(b) displays energy-transfer upconversion diagram for the Yb^{3+} and Er^{3+} codoped upconversion materials. Three phenomena in the emission process of UCNCs play roles: the light absorption by Yb^{3+} (980 nm), the energy transfer from Yb^{3+} to Er^{3+} and the emission of Er^{3+} (550 nm and 650 nm), which are all subject to plasmonic enhancement in this work. Figure A2(c) shows the upconversion emission collected by a spectrometer for an acquisition time of 10 seconds. To be sure that the collected emission was from a single trapped particle, several measurements were taken. When a single particle was trapped, the intensity was consistently lower by a factor of two (at least) (see SI, Section D). The normalized standard deviation over different measurements of a single particle for each aperture was 5.1 % and 5.6 % for the 550 nm and 650 nm emission.

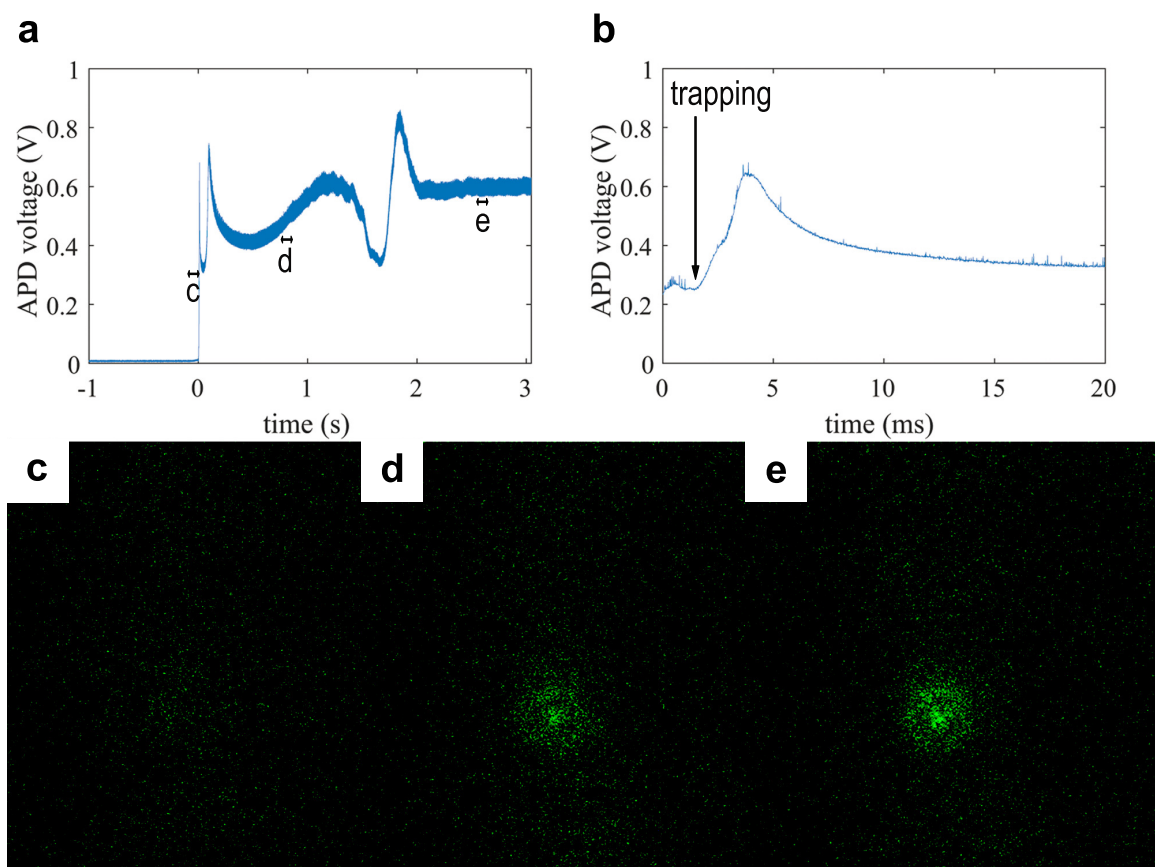


Figure A1: **Optical trapping and imaging of individual UCNCs.** **a**, Optical transmission through a $100 \text{ nm} \times 100 \text{ nm}$ aperture in a metal film. Laser is turned on at 0 s. **b**, Magnified region showing the jump at trapping shortly after laser is turned on. Trapping time is approximately 2 ms. **c, d, e**, luminescence images at different times shown in part (a). (c) shows when the laser is first turned on, (d) is when the UCNC is trapped, and (e) is after a few seconds when luminescence is brighter and more stable.

For the free solution, the concentration is 1000 times higher than the sample used for trapping. This gives us 30 particles per μm^3 (beam width of laser is approximately $1 \mu m$) which is a conservative linear estimate. Since the excitation is a nonlinear process, the actual count would be even smaller. To ensure consistency for comparison, the measurements were all carried out using solution based samples (trapping and free solution). The laser power is maintained at 30 mW for the trapping and the control (free solution) measurements. The nanoaperture increases the local intensity, so a direct comparison based on intensity cannot be made (and indeed, the plasmonic enhancement in the excitation is part of the enhancement obtained in this experiment). Figure A2(d) shows the enhancement factor (using the free-solution as a reference) of the upconversion at 550 nm and 650 nm as a function of aperture size, showing a 100 times increase in the enhancement factor when going from a 100×100 nm aperture to a 212×100 nm aperture. The overall enhancement factor is 400.

To help understanding the observed enhancement, we have performed electromagnetic analysis of the nanoapertures. Figure A3(a) shows the near-field (absolute value of electric field) distribution in the aperture for 980 nm wavelength as calculated by FDTD simulations. The units are normalized to the incident plane wave. We analyze the enhancement seen for a UCNC at the position shown in this plot (hexagonal outline), which is assumed to be the trapping location because it has the highest intensity.^(A20) Figure A3(b,c) show the Purcell enhancement factors (i.e., the enhanced emission rates) for a dipole at the position of trapping for polarization along the short axis, y , and long axis, x . This figure shows three spectral bands with enhanced emission coupling. The band at 530 nm does not show significant tuning with changes in aperture length. This band is expected from the surface plasmon resonance that arises simply from being near a metal surface.^(A21) This plasmonic resonance enhances the emission at 550 nm, seen for both polarizations. The band at 660 nm, seen for short axis polarization, shows a small amount of tuning with aperture size. This plasmonic

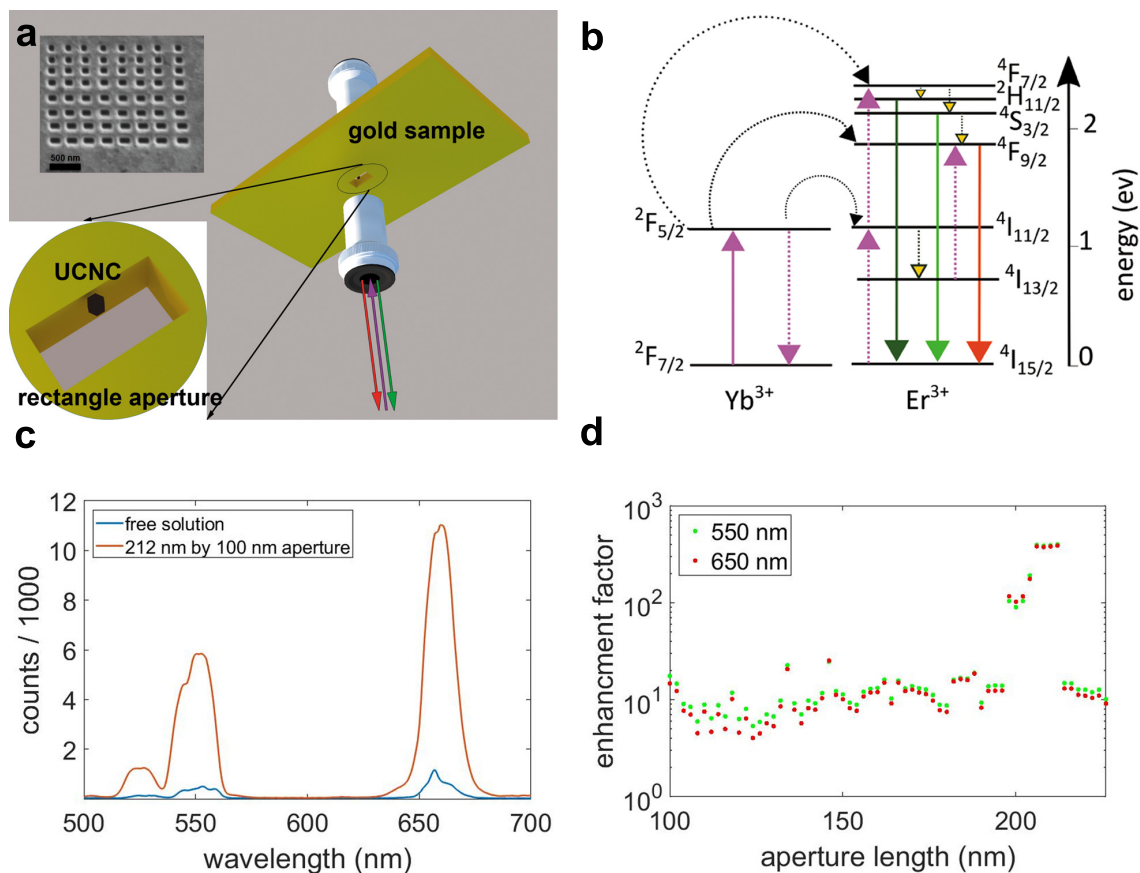


Figure A2: **Tuning the plasmonic upconversion emission enhancement.** **a**, Schematics of trapped UCNC in rectangle aperture on gold sample, and focused ion beam image of test pattern of all 64 fabricated rectangular aperture dimensions (although they were separated from one another in the actually trapping experiment). One of the dimensions of the aperture is fixed at 100 nm. The other dimension is varied from 100 nm to 226 nm in 2 nm steps. **b**, Energy transfer schematic of upconversion mechanism for the Er^{3+} , Yb^{3+} . Upconversion absorption (solid purple arrow), energy transfer (dashed purple arrows), nonradiative relaxation (dotted yellow arrows), and 520 nm, 550 nm, 650 nm emissions (dark green, light green and red arrows) are illustrated. **c**, Upconversion emission spectra for UCNCs in free solution (blue) at 1000 times higher concentration than UCNC emission of single particle in 212 nm \times 100 nm aperture (red). The incident power is 30 mW. **d**, Upconversion enhancement of 550 nm and 650 nm emission when varying the aperture length for the same excitation conditions.

resonance enhances the emission at 650 nm. The long wavelength band, which comes from the cut-off plasmonic resonance of the aperture as shown in Fig. A3(a), is seen to tune substantially with aperture size. This resonance overlaps with the excitation wavelength for lengths around 185 nm.

The observed geometry of enhancement is consistent with the increase in emission observed for apertures in this range in Fig. A2(c). To be more quantitative, we formulate an enhancement factor as the Purcell enhancement at the excitation wavelength squared (since it is a two photon process) times the enhancement at the emission wavelength, as shown in Fig. A3(d). The magnitude of enhancement is in reasonable agreement with the actual observed enhancement, especially considering that there are no free parameters in our model, there are clearly fabrication tolerances, and the UCNC will experience Brownian motion so that it will not be perfectly confined to the highest intensity region. We use the non-local Purcell factor, which removes the quenched part and only looks at the radiated part. The quenched part still exists and is accounted for by the theory, but we do not include in the calculation of the emission .

Several works have attempted to understand the detailed kinetics of upconversion. Here we focus only on the plasmonic enhancement. That said, it appears that the experiments are in the first order kinetics regime we are focusing high intensity onto a single UCNC. Certainly, the linear regime of power dependence seems to confirm this observation (see SI, Section E). We expect that future dynamic experimental studies will support a more comprehensive dynamic model, as has been done in the past.^{(A22),(A23)} We have also investigated the power dependence of the upconversion to explore the interaction between the 550 nm and 650 nm transitions. This “nonlinear” behavior goes beyond the simple modeling presented above and will likely require more complicated rate equation analysis (as well as benefit from time-domain studies not presently within our capability).^{(A24)–(A26)} As the pumping power at 980 nm increases,

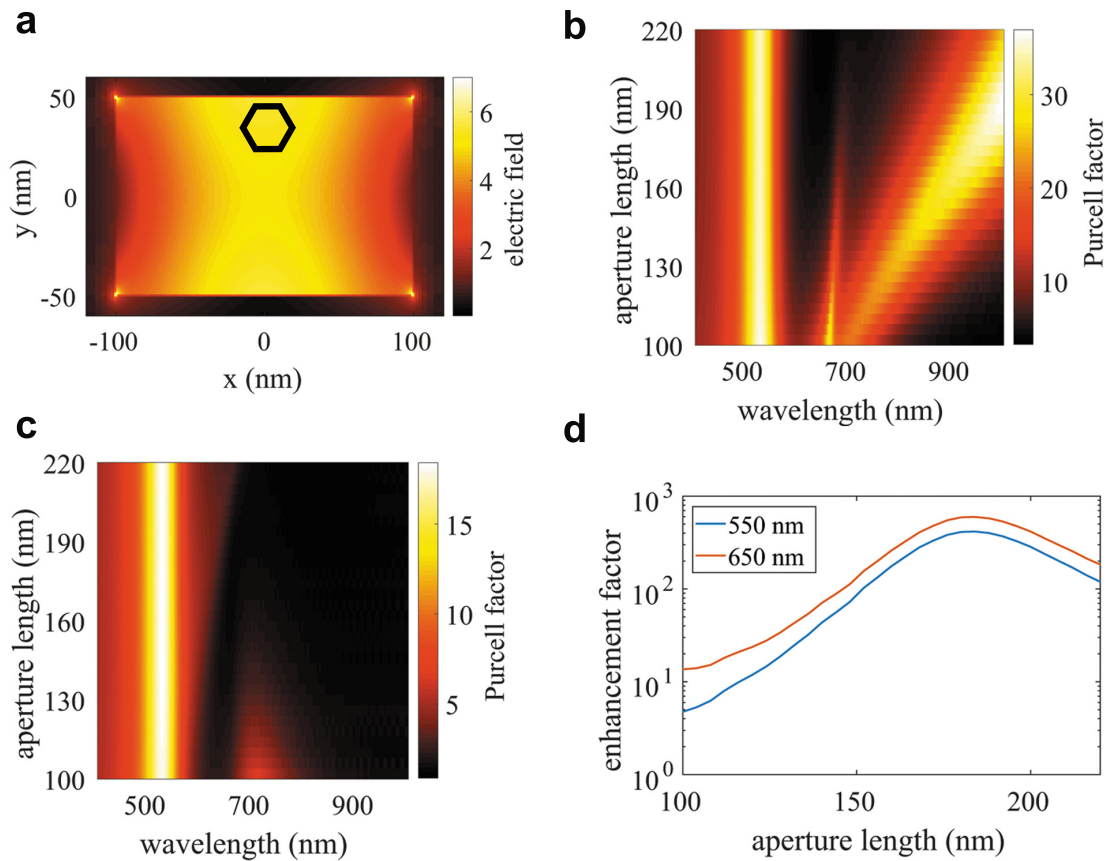


Figure A3: **Simulations of multiple plasmonic enhancement for UCNC trapped in a rectangular metal aperture.** **a** Simulation of electric field amplitude of 980 nm wavelength (normalized to incident field amplitude) in aperture for cross section at $z = 0$. Expected trapping location of UCNC is shown as hexagonal black line. **(b,c)** Purcell factor F_P at the position trapping (defined as the centre of UCNC in (a)) for polarization along the short axis (b) and long axis (c). **d** Enhancement factor, η expected by multiplying the Purcell factor at the excitation wavelength squared by the Purcell at the emission wavelength accounting for outcoupling efficiency as described in Methods.

the 650 nm emission increases with respect to the 550 nm (see SI, Figure S11). When the emission enhancement increases, the ratio between the 650 nm and 550 nm emission also increases (see SI, Figure S10). UCNCs generally exhibit increasing red to green emission ratio with increasing incident power, which can be understood in terms of several past studies.^{(A27),(A28)} The various relaxation processes that govern this ratio have been studied in detail elsewhere. Related to the interaction between the different transitions is the polarization of the output emission. We observe that the emission at 650 nm is polarized along the short axis of the aperture (the same polarization as the incident pump and the plasmon resonances), and the 550 nm emission is orthogonally polarized (see SI, Figure S12). This may be because the 650 nm transition is dominating the competition for the short-axis polarization, but the 550 nm dominates for the orthogonal polarization where there is no plasmonic mode for 650 nm (see Fig. A3(d)).

Other works have reported on the polarization for upconverters coupled to nanorods^(A29) which show orthogonal polarization. When we apply similar analysis to their work in our case, the emission would be polarized along the common short axis, so we believe that the competition between the transitions is necessary to fully understand this behavior. In the future, we hope to complete polarization resolved time-domain measurements to try to build a model to potentially explain these results.^(A30) However, we do not rule out anisotropy of the particle in the trapping potentially playing some role in the polarization.^(A31) We note that others have probed single and few UCNCs in optical tweezer systems in the past (without plasmonic enhancement); those works did not report on any polarization dependence.^{(A32),(A33)} The data reported here motivates investigation of using a 1550 nm plasmonic resonance by increasing the long axes of the rectangular aperture. This is of interest enhanced rates of emission at this interesting fiber optic communication wavelength. To achieve this goal, we will need to use a modified optical setup, which can detect up to 1550 nm wavelength.

Conclusions

In conclusion, we have demonstrated cascaded plasmonic resonances in a subwavelength aperture in a metal film can be used to enhance the upconversion of a single trapped UCNC. The use of multiple plasmonic resonances is a promising path to enhancing the emission of UCNCs for applications including photovoltaics, photocatalysis, single photon sources and biomedical imaging. While ultimately the aperture geometry we have chosen may not be used in those applications (it is definitely useful here for optical trapping), the principle of using multiple subwavelength plasmonic resonances, especially at the pump wavelength, has clear benefits. The main features are supported with full 3D FDTD simulations for the metallic apertures.

Methods

UCNC (NaYF₄:18% Yb, 2% Er UCNCs (102AF18)) synthesis and characterization

Chemicals

Yttrium(III) chloride hexahydrate (99.99%), ytterbium(III) chloride (99.998%), erbium(III) chloride hexahydrate (99.995%), ammonium fluoride (99.99%), tech grade oleic acid (90%), tech grade 1-octadecene (90%), and hexanes were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Anhydrous ethanol from Commercial Alcohols, methanol from Caledon, and sodium hydroxide from Bio Basic Canada inc. were used. All chemicals were used as received.

Synthesis

A synthesis was adapted from a previously reported procedure.^(A34) To a 3-neck roundbottom flask, 240.3 mg $\text{YCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$, 77.8 mg $\text{YbCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ and 8.7 mg $\text{ErCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ were added together with 15 mL octadecene and 5 mL oleic acid. The mixture was heated to 160 °C under vacuum and kept at that temperature for 30 minutes before cooling to room temperature. Once cooled, a solution of 107 mg NaOH and 152 mg NH_4F in 10 mL MeOH was added dropwise while stirring. The mixture was heated to 65 °C 120 minutes to evaporate the MeOH. The temperature was then raised to 298°C over 20 minutes (11.75°C/min.) Temperature was kept between 305 and 307°C for 90 minutes. The mixture was then cooled, washed with 20 mL EtOH, centrifuged at 1800 g for 10 min, and washed with excess EtOH again before redispersion in 20 mL hexane.

UCNCs Characterization

Transmission electron microscopy images were obtained using a JEOL JEM-1400 microscope operating at 80 kV. Hexane dispersions of the UCNCs were drop-cast on a Formvar carbon-coated grid (300 mesh Cu) and air-dried before imaging. Size analysis of NCs from the images was performed by measuring the surface area of at least 300 particles. X-ray diffractograms with a resolution of 0.0263 °2 θ were collected using a PANalytical Empyrean X-ray System with a Cu source (K α radiation, $\lambda = 1.54060 \text{ \AA}$) operating at 45 kV and 40 mA. See SI (Section A) for additional data.

Fabrication of rectangular aperture

The rectangular apertures were fabricated by focused ion beam milling (Hitachi FB-2100) of a commercially available slide with a 100 nm gold layer on a glass substrate (EMF Corp.) and a 5 nm Ti adhesion layer.

Optical trapping

A continuous wave 980 nm single-beam laser was collimated, expanded, and focused onto the sample using a 100 \times oil immersion microscope objective (1.25 numerical aperture). This beam serves both as trapping beam and the excitation source for UCNCs. A 10 \times condenser microscopic objective (0.25 numerical aperture) was used to collect the transmitted signal through the rectangle aperture and was measured by a silicon-based avalanche photodetector (Thorlabs APD110A). A piezoelectric controlled 3-axis sample stage was used to align the beam through the rectangle apertures with 20 nm positioning precision. A half-wave plate (HWP) and linear polarizer (LP) were used to orient the polarization of the pump beam. Measurements were obtained after altering the HWP and LP orientation for obtaining the highest transmission of laser beam through the aperture (the incident laser is made to be always linearly polarized along the short axes of the aperture). A 750 nm short pass filter (Thorlabs FES0750) was used on CCD camera and spectrometer to minimize the trapping beam intensity. Additionally, a 850 nm short pass filter (Thorlabs FES0850) was used to completely eliminate the 980 nm laser on CCD camera to view the particle coming into the aperture. The luminescence spectrum was measured using a QE65000 Ocean Optics spectrometer. In order to investigate the polarization of the upconverted emission a linear polarizer was placed before the spectrometer.

Numerical simulations

All numerical simulations were carried out using the 3D FDTD from the commercial package of Lumerical. Independent dipole excitations oriented along both the long axis (x) and the short axis (y) of the aperture were used at position $\mathbf{r} = (0, 33, 0)$ nm where the origin was placed in the middle of the aperture. A computational domain size of $6 \times 6 \times 2 \mu\text{m}^3$ was terminated with perfectly matched layers and a mesh of 2 nm was used over the aperture. Within each dipole simulation, both the generalized

Purcell factor (enhanced emission factor, projected onto the direction of interest) and the farfield emission was evaluated. The farfield emission in particular was measured over a z -normal plane above the aperture at the height of $z = 1 \mu m$. Data gathered from both x -dipole and y -dipole calculations was used to arrive at the enhancement factor, η presented in the main text, as we define below:

$$\eta = F_P^2(\lambda_i) \times \xi(\lambda_e), \quad (A1)$$

where $\lambda_i = 980 \text{ nm}$ is the incident wavelength, F_P is the Purcell factor for the x oriented dipole, λ_e is the emitted wavelength (either 550 nm or 650 nm), ξ is the outcoupling efficiency (including the local field enhancement); ξ is calculated using y -dipole for the 650 nm detection, or x -dipole for the 550 nm detection, to account for the emission anisotropy observed in experiment (see main text for discussion). To arrive at the field distribution inside the aperture, also shown in the main text, total-field scatter-field studies were performed on a smaller domain size of $2 \times 2 \times 2 \mu m^3$ using a y -polarized dipole source.

Associated content

Supporting information

Characterization of the UCNCs, description of the optical trapping setup with 9 additional trapping events, calculation for diffusion time to trap, the emission at 650 nm and 550 nm as a function of pump power, the ratio between 650 nm and 550 nm emission as function of aperture size and of pump power for a single aperture, and the polarization dependence of upconverted emission

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Author contributions

AA performed the trapping experiments. ALF and FCJMvV were responsible for nanocrystal synthesis and characterization. MKD and SH provided theory to interpret the experimental findings. RG conceived of the experiment. All authors assisted in writing the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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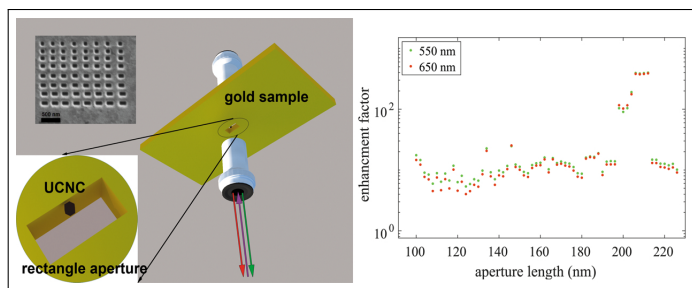
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Graphical TOC Entry



Title: Cascaded plasmon-enhanced emission from a single upconverting nanocrystal

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Various rectangular apertures in gold film used for trapping a single UCNC. The upconversion emission is tuned by varying the rectangular aperture dimensions to obtain up to 400 times enhancement.

Supporting information for: Cascaded plasmon-enhanced emission from a single upconverting nanocrystal

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A-S1. Upconverting nanocrystals (UCNCs)

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to characterize the morphological and structural properties of the UCNCs. Figure A-S1(a),(b) show TEM images of UCNCs with 50 k and 250 k magnification respectively.

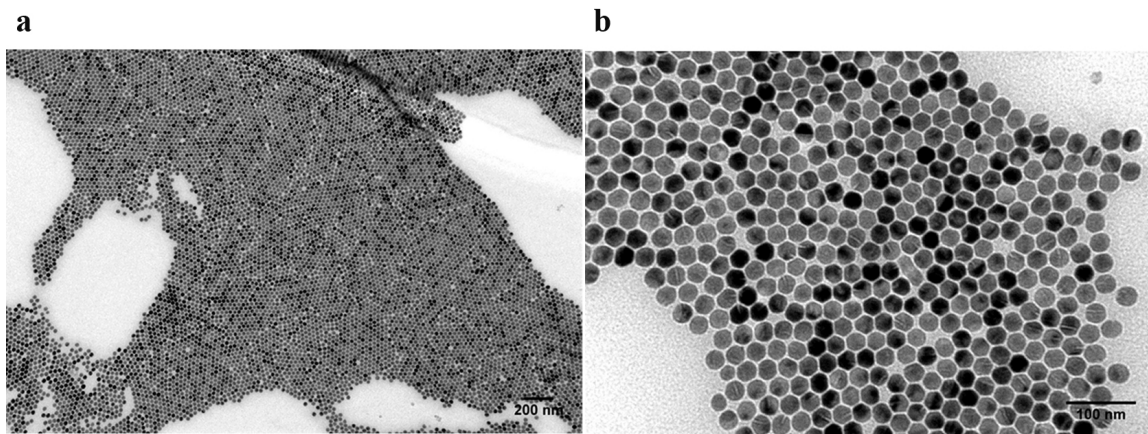


Figure A-S1: TEM images of NaYF₄: 2% Er nanoparticles magnified 50k times (a) and 250k times (b).

Figure A-S2 shows size analysis of UCNCs from the TEM images by measuring the surface area of at least 300 particles. The UCNCs mean diameter is 26.17 nm with standard deviation 2.65 nm.

Figure A-S3 shows an x-ray diffractogram of NaYF₄: 18 % Yb, 2% Er UCNCs comparing to a reference pattern of hexagonal NaYF₄.^(A-S1)

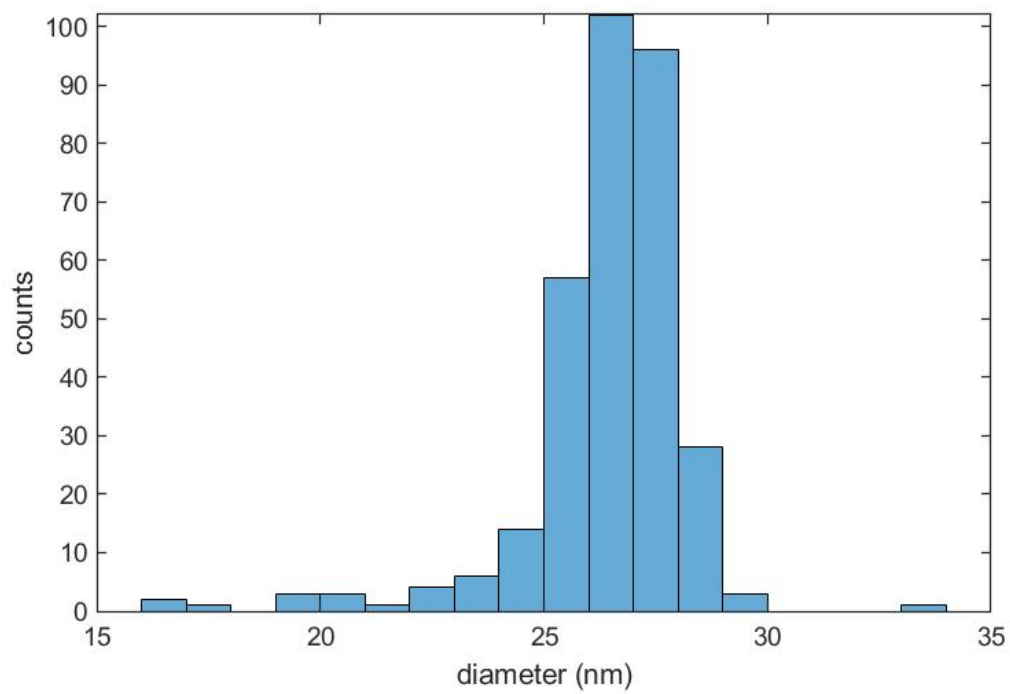


Figure A-S2: Size distribution of measured UCNCs.

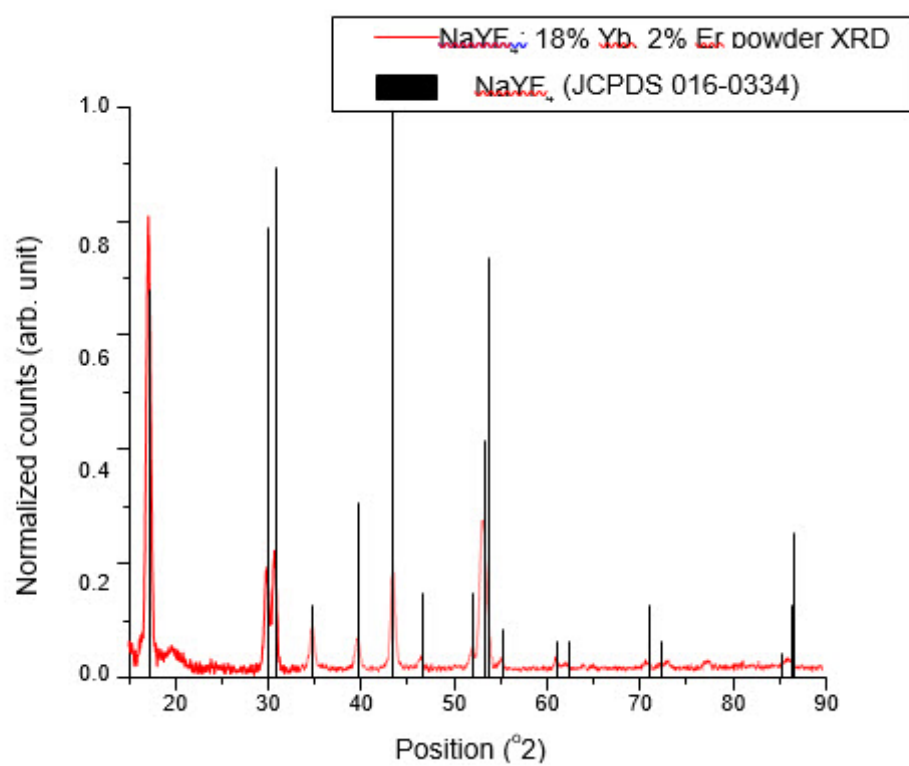


Figure A-S3: Experimental x-ray diffractogram of UCNCs and a reference pattern of hexagonal NaYF₄^(A-S1)

A-S2. Optical trapping setup

Figure A-S4 shows the schematic of optical trapping setup used for trapping UCNCs and detecting emission.

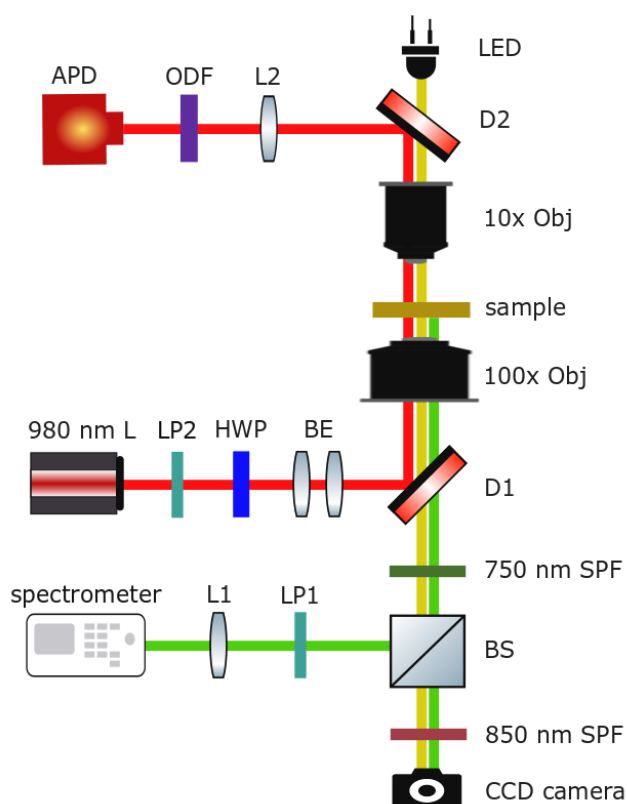


Figure A-S4: Schematic of the optical trapping setup. Abbreviations used: CCD camera = charge coupled device camera, SPF = short pass filter, BS= beam splitter, LP = linear polarizer, L=lens, D=dichroic mirror, HWP = half wave plate, BE = beam expander, 980 nm L=980 nm laser, Obj= objective lens ODF = optical density filter and APD = avalanche photodetector.

A-S3. Particle diffusion

Using the Stokes-Einstein equation, we estimate that the time for a 26 nm particle to diffuse to the trapping site in hexane for $3 \times 10^{10}/\text{cm}^3$ concentration is 140 ms. Figure A-S5 shows optical transmission through a $100 \text{ nm} \times 100 \text{ nm}$ aperture for several trapping events in one second. Laser is turned on at time $t = 0 \text{ s}$. Trapping occurred consistently within 0.01 s of turning on the laser. Figure A-S6 depicts the avalanche photodetector (APD) signal for the the first 0.1 s of the trapping event shown in Fig. A-S5.

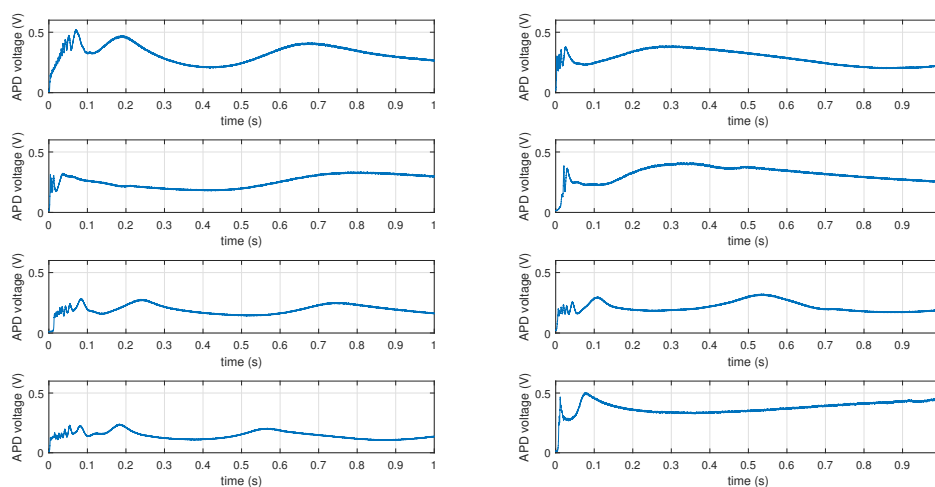


Figure A-S5: Optical transmission for several trapping events with one second interval (laser turned on at time zero).

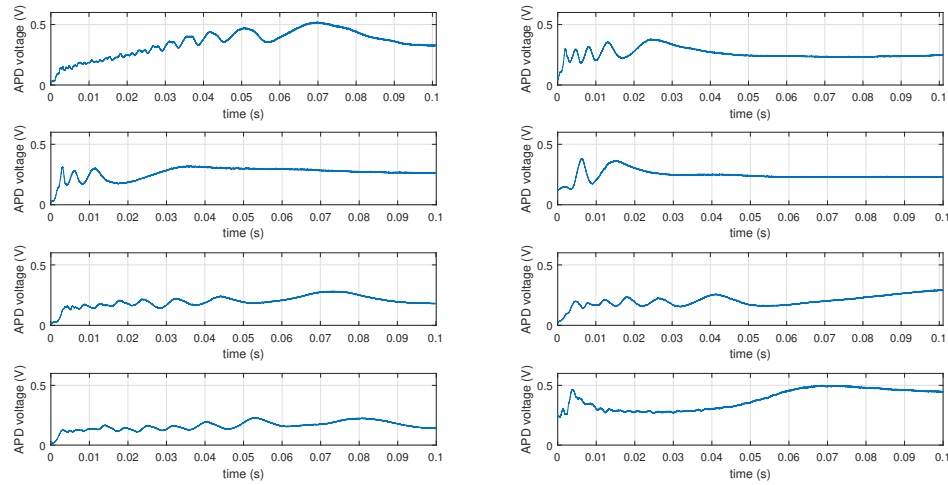


Figure A-S6: Optical transmission for several trapping events with 100 ms span (laser turned on at time zero).

A-S4. Single particle emission

Figure A-S7 shows upconversion emission for three different cases of single particle trapping, multiple particle trapping and no trapping, for the same aperture. When trapping multiple particles, the emission spectrum increases. To be sure that we measured a stable single particle emission, five separate emission spectrums were recorded from the sample from five separate trapping events. As we can see from Figure A-S8, all the measurements were approximately the same. The standard deviation of this measurement for 550 nm and 650 nm is 3.3 and 7.1 photons (3.1 % and 3.3 % normalized standard deviation).

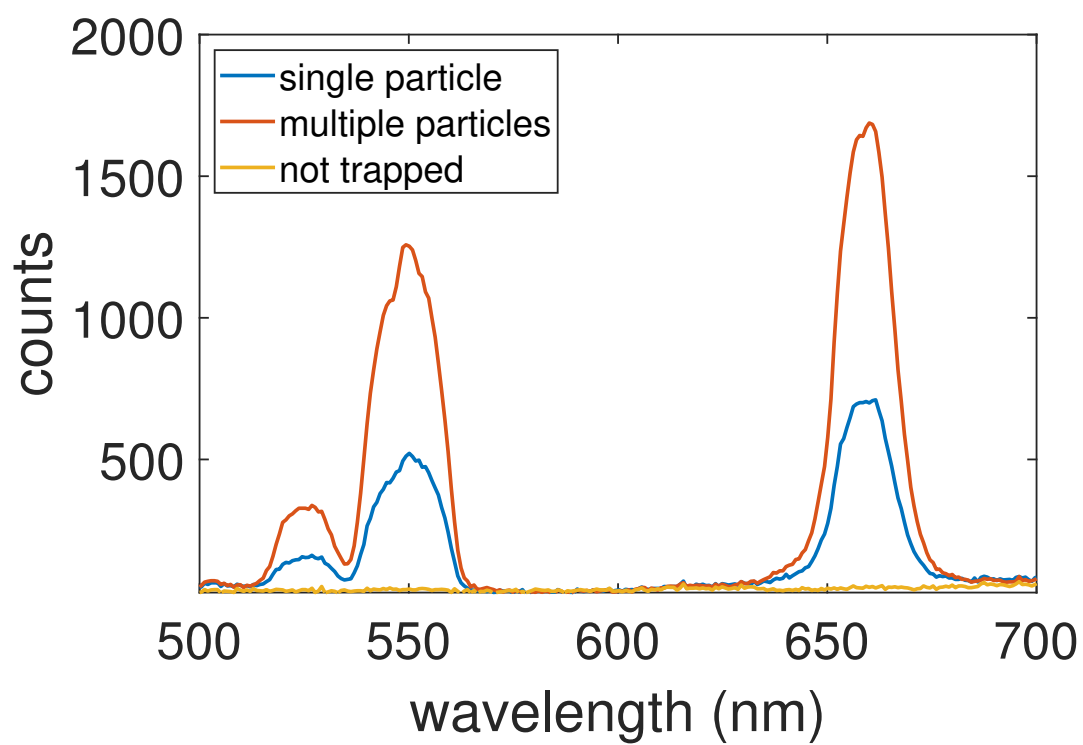


Figure A-S7: Luminescence emission spectrum from a single aperture for (blue) single particle trapping, (red) multiple particle trapping and (yellow) no particle trapping.

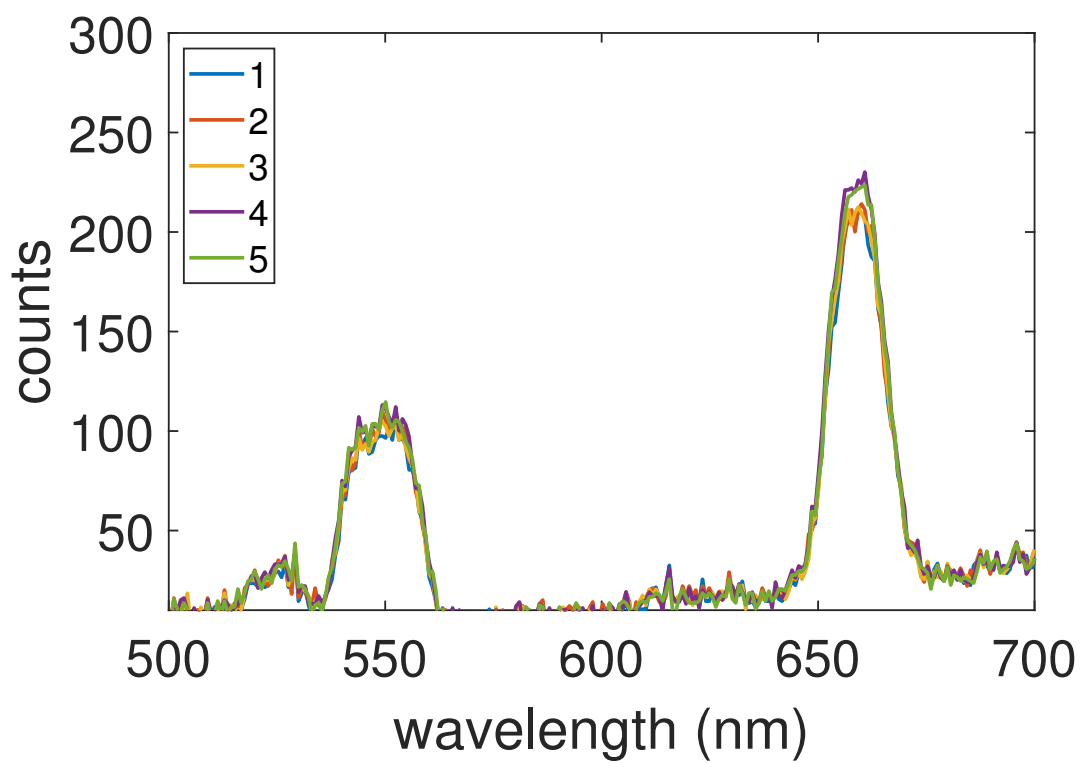


Figure A-S8: Luminescence emission spectrum from a single aperture for five different trapping events of single UCNCs.

A-S5. Power dependence

Figure A-S9 shows the 650 nm and 550 nm emission counts with varying the incident power. With high pumping power at 980 nm, the 650 nm and 550 nm increase linearly with the incident power. Since the incident power in this paper for all measurements is 30 mW, where we are in the linear regime. ^(A-S2)

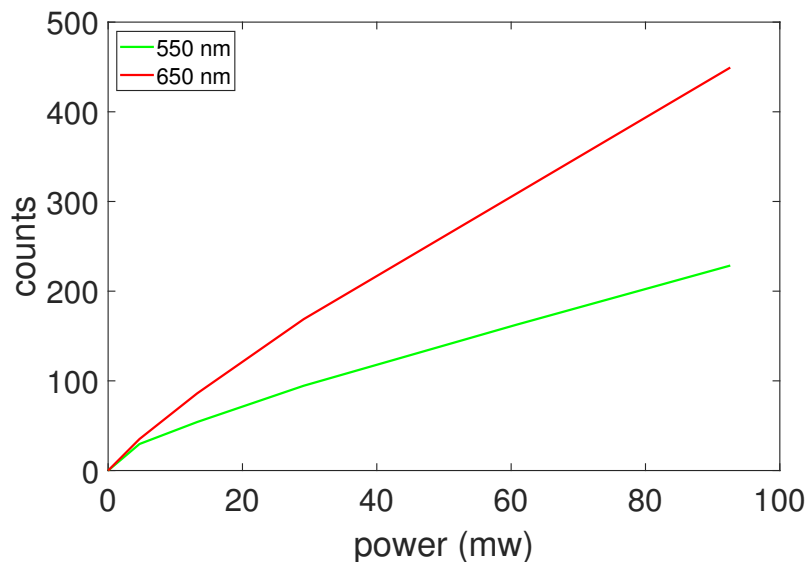


Figure A-S9: Upconversion emission of 650 nm and 550 nm when varying the incident power for $100 \text{ nm} \times 100 \text{ nm}$ aperture.

A-S6. Emission ratio

Figure A-S10 shows the 650 nm to 550 nm emission ratio when varying the length of rectangular aperture from 100 nm to 226 nm in steps of 2 nm. The ratio between the 650 nm and 550 nm emission increases as the plasmonic enhancement increases. Figure A-S11 shows the 650 nm to 550 nm emission ratio with varying incident power.

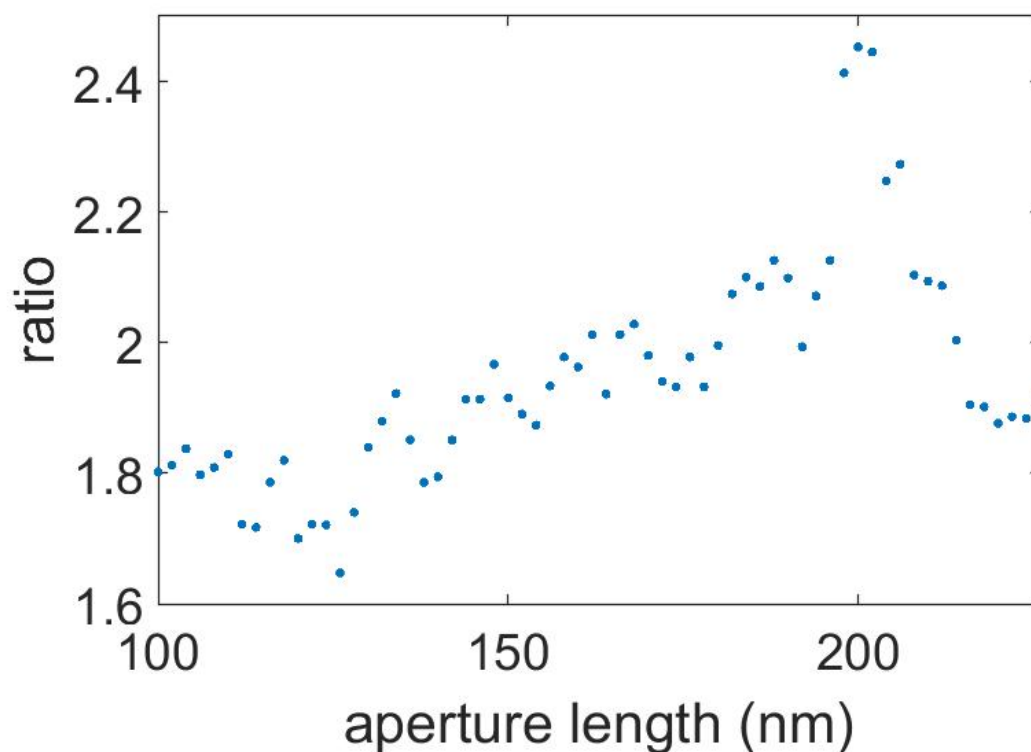


Figure A-S10: Upconversion ratio of 650 nm to 550 nm emission when varying the length of rectangular aperture from 100 nm to 226 nm.

As the pumping power at 980 nm increases, the 650 nm emission increases with respect to the 550 nm.

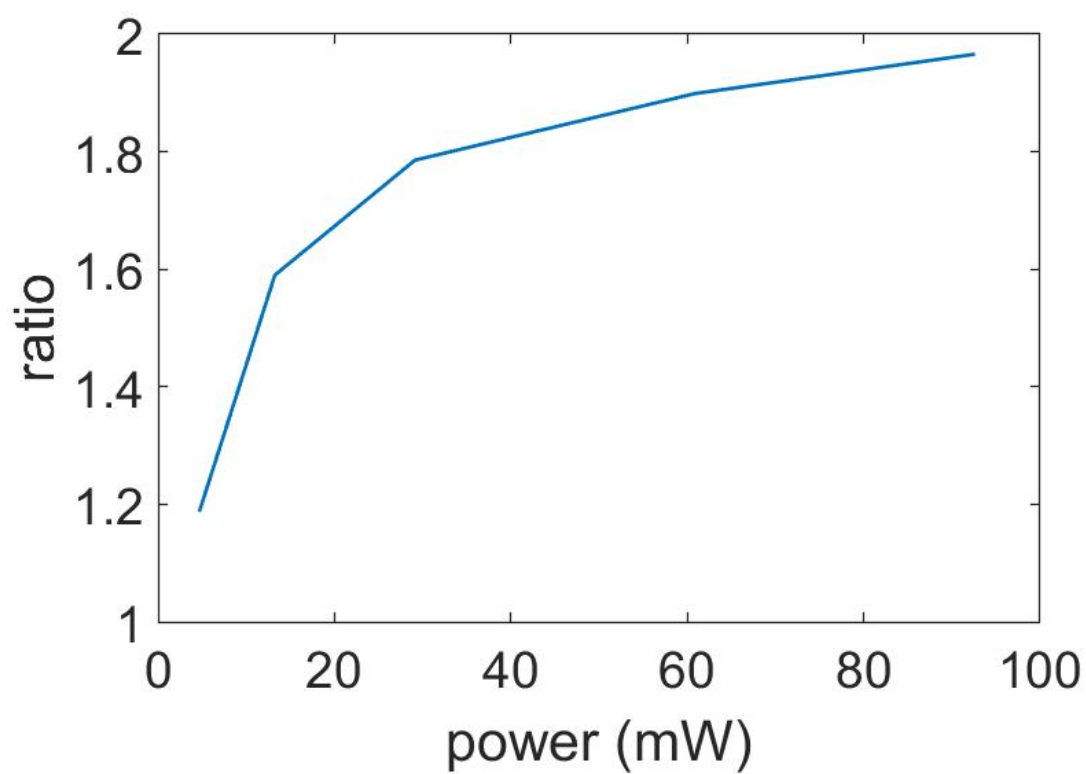


Figure A-S11: Upconversion ratio of 650 nm to 550 nm emission when varying the incident power for 100 nm \times 100 nm aperture.

A-S7. Polarization dependence

Fig. 3 shows the polarization dependence of upconversion emission of a trapped UCNC for 550 nm and 650 nm. Data obtained is for the 210 nm by 100 nm aperture, integrated over a period of 20 s with an incident power of 30 mW. The emission at 650 nm is polarized along the short axis of the aperture (the same polarization as the incident pump), and the 550 nm emission is along the short axis. The fit shows a degree of polarization of 0.72 for 550 nm and 0.7 for 650 nm.

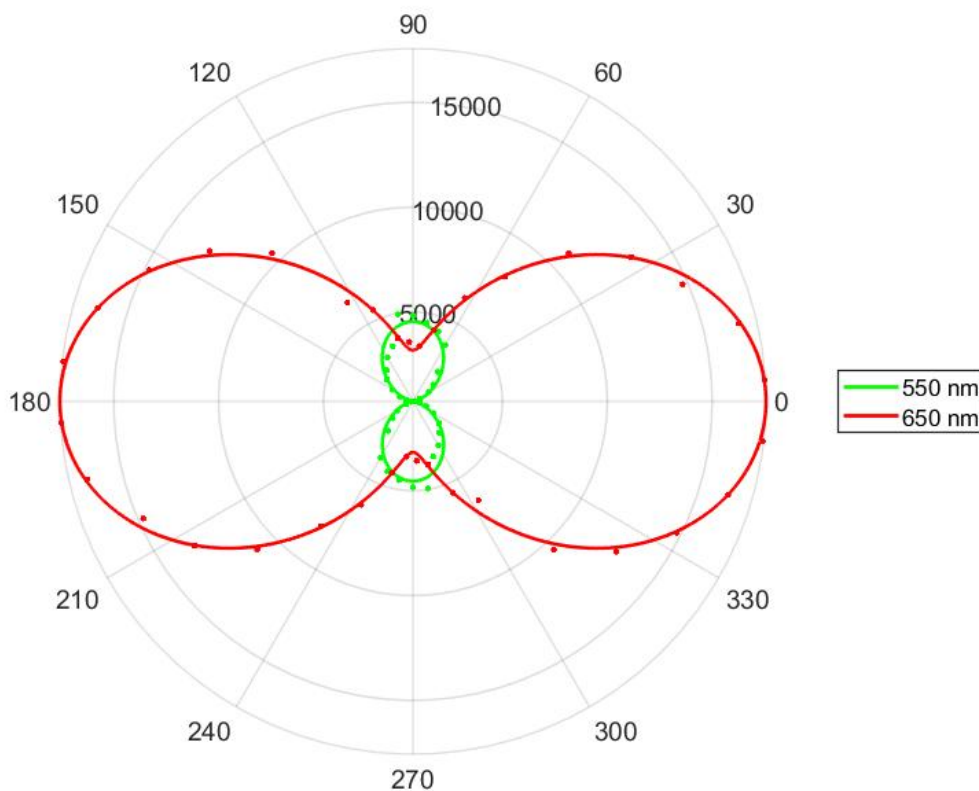


Figure A-S12: Polarization dependence of upconversion emission at 550 nm and 650 nm (counts). This data is for a single upconverting nanocrystal (26 nm diameter) trapped in a rectangular aperture.

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B Isolating Nanocrystals with an Individual Erbium Emitter: A Route to a Stable Single-Photon Source at 1550 nm Wavelength

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Isolating Nanocrystals with an Individual Erbium Emitter: A Route to a Stable Single-Photon Source at 1550 nm Wavelength

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Abstract

Single photon emitters based on individual atoms or individual atomic-like defects are highly sought-after components for future quantum technologies. A key challenge in this field is how to isolate just one such emitter; the best approaches still have an active emitter yield of only 50% so that deterministic integration of single active emitters is not yet possible. Here we demonstrate the ability to isolate individual erbium emitters embedded in 20 nm nanocrystals of NaYF₄ using plasmonic aperture optical tweezers. The optical tweezers capture

the nanocrystal, while the plasmonic aperture enhances the emission of the Er and allow the measurement of discrete emission rate values corresponding to different numbers of erbium ions. Three separate synthesis runs show near-Poissonian distribution in the discrete levels of emission yield that correspond to the expected ion concentrations, indicating that the yield of active emitters is approximately 80%. Fortunately, the trap allows for selecting the nanocrystals with only a single emitter, and so this gives a route to isolating and integrating single emitters in a deterministic way. This demonstration is a promising step towards single photon quantum information technologies that utilize single ions in a solid-state medium, particularly because Er emits in the low-loss fiber-optic 1550 nm telecom band.

Intrigued by the promise of single-photon quantum technologies, there has been a concerted effort to make use of single atoms or atom-like defects as discrete emitters. Several works have investigated single lanthanide emitters in a crystal matrix (praseodymium,^{(B1)–(B4)} cerium,^{(B5)–(B7)} and erbium^{(B8),(B9)}). The lanthanides provide stable emission that is protected from decoherence by shielding of the 4f electrons.^{(B10),(B11)} They also have spin degrees of freedom that may be harnessed for additional control of the quantum state.^(B7)

A major challenge remains of how to isolate only a single lanthanide emitter in a reliable way^{(B12),(B13)} and to use these emitters in an approach that is potentially scalable. Past works relied on randomly searching among nanocrystals,^(B2) or using low concentrations of implanted emitters.^(B1) A further challenge, particularly for erbium which emits in the desired low-loss fiber optic C-band, is to enhance the emission rates so that single emitters can be isolated. One strategy to do this has been to surround the emitters with an optical cavity.^{(B9),(B14)} A major drawback of all these approaches is that they rely on random distributions of emitters within the cavity, and several emitters are usually addressed in a single device by magnetic splitting.^(B9)

Recognizing this drawback, researchers have very recently developed ion-trap implantation methods that can implant as few as 4 ions at a single spot in a crystal with 50 nm precision.^(B15) The single spots show the signature of discrete emission levels; however, the emission yield is only 50%. About half of the implanted ions do not emit photons, so the overall yield is low. This is a particular drawback for photonic networks where several isolated ion emitters are desired on a single chip. Also, it is desirable to replace praseodymium with erbium for emission low loss optical fiber wavelengths.

Here we use plasmonic aperture optical tweezers as an alternative way to reliably isolate and effectively measure single erbium ion emitters in NaYF_4 nanocrystals. The plasmonic aperture solves two major problems: (1) it enhances the radiative rate so that single ions can be detected reliably in a short time at room temperature, and (2) it isolates the single Er containing nanocrystal from the other nanocrystals in solution. It should be noted that other works have seen enhanced single photon emission from nanoapertures in metals.^(B16)

In a previous work that allowed us to make this step forward, we reported on the rectangular aperture optical tweezer to enhance the upconversion emission of Yb-Er doped NaYF_4 upconversion nanocrystals (UCNCs).^(B17) In the aperture, the plasmonic enhancement was about $400\times$ and the nanocrystals each contained approximately 2000 Erbium ions. Considering that we could detect emission for even the case of no plasmonic enhancement, that experiment opened the door for the important next step of detecting single Er ion emitters, as will be described in this work for the first time.

Figure B1 (a) shows a schematic of the plasmonic tweezer optical setup used and (b) shows a representative trapping event for a rectangular aperture of 208 nm by 100 nm in a 100 nm thick gold film. This aperture was chosen because it provided an enhancement of 410 for the 660 nm emission (see Supporting Information, SI).

The trapping event is detected by a jump in the avalanche photodiode voltage for the 980 nm trapping laser photons transmitted through the aperture. There are oscillations after the initial jump that we do not fully understand (it is suspected that they are the result of convective instabilities driven by the trapping event). Consistent with the diffusion time for the concentration of nanocrystals in hexane solution, the mean time to trap a nanocrystal was 50 ms.

It is important to emphasize the particular advantage of the plasmonic aperture tweezer: it allows for detecting a trapped nanocrystal even without emission. Thereby, even particles containing no emitters can be detected and their statistics recorded. This allows for conveniently rejecting those particles with zero active emitters, as well as those with more than one emitter, as will be described below. Also, trapping predominantly occurs for only a single particle at a time since the particles repel each other to allow for solution without aggregation; multiple particle trapping is extremely rare (less than 1%) and can be readily dismissed based on the trapping laser characteristic.^(B17) Trapping of single upconverting nanoparticles can also be achieved by a single beam laser without the aperture.^(B18) In that work, multiple nanocrystals could enter the trap because the trapping diameter was relatively large compared to the particle size (even considering particle repulsion). We do not see increases in intensity over time as they did in that work and therefore the number of emitters in the trap is not increasing (see Supporting Information).

We prepared NaYF₄ nanocrystals with trace doping of Er to probe the emission of zero, single and few emitters (see Methods section). Three separate solutions were synthesized, where the mean value of Er particles per nanocrystal was 0.006, 0.076 and 1.53 (referred to as λ for a Poisson distribution). Trapping was conducted on these separate solutions with 200 trapping events for each of the first two batches, and 100 trapping events for the third (since there were significantly more events with emitters in that third batch).

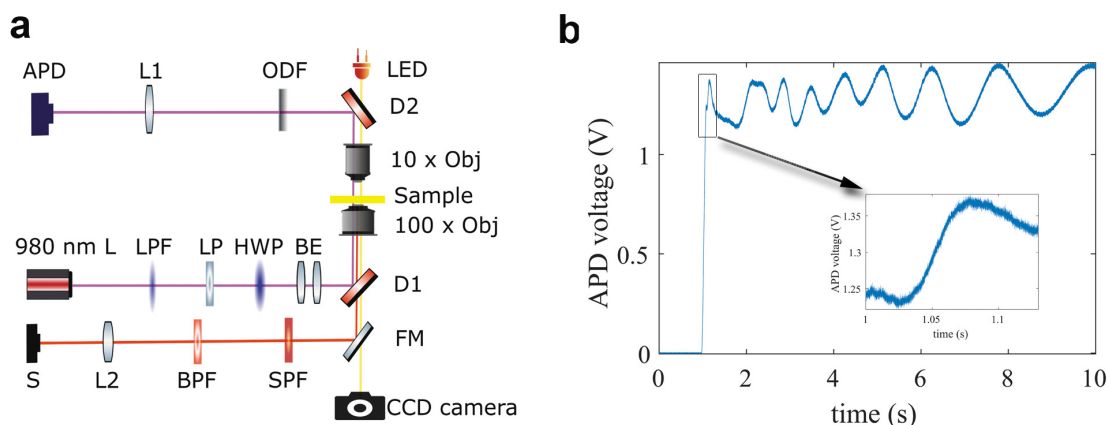


Figure B1: Optical trapping of nanocrystals containing trace Erbium concentration. (a) Schematic of optical trapping setup to allow for detection of Er containing nanocrystals down to a single Er emitter. Abbreviations used: CCD camera = charge coupled device camera, FM = flip mirror, SPF = short pass filter, BPF = band pass filter, LPF = long pass filter, LP = linear polarizer, L = lens, D = dichroic mirror, HWP = half wave plate, BE = beam expander, 980 nm L = 980 nm laser, Obj = objective lens, ODF = optical density filter and APD = avalanche photodiode. (b) Observed trapping event detected by a jump and oscillations in the transmitted 980 nm laser through the rectangular aperture.

Figure B2 (a) shows a schematic of the nanocrystals with zero to three emitters and their placement in the rectangular aperture, based on the location of the highest field intensity.^(B17) Figure B2 (b) shows the upconverted emission around 660 nm from the $^4F_{9/2}$ to $^4I_{15/2}$ transition for individual trapping events of the 1.53 mean Er per nanocrystal batch (see SI for Er transitions). For a single trapping event (i.e., for one nanocrystal) the spectrum reliably gave the same number of counts with repeated measurement (see SI).

It is clear from this figure that the emission intensity falls within discrete levels, which we attribute to zero, one, two three, five and six Er emitters. The 0.006 mean Erbium batch showed 199 events without any emission, and just a single event with emission (see SI). The 0.076 mean Er batch showed 190 events without any emission and 9 with a single Erbium emitter (see SI). As expected, emission was also observed for the $^4S_{3/2}$ to $^4I_{15/2}$ transition at 550 nm (see SI).

Figure B3 shows the counts for the 1.53 mean Erbium count per particle sample for

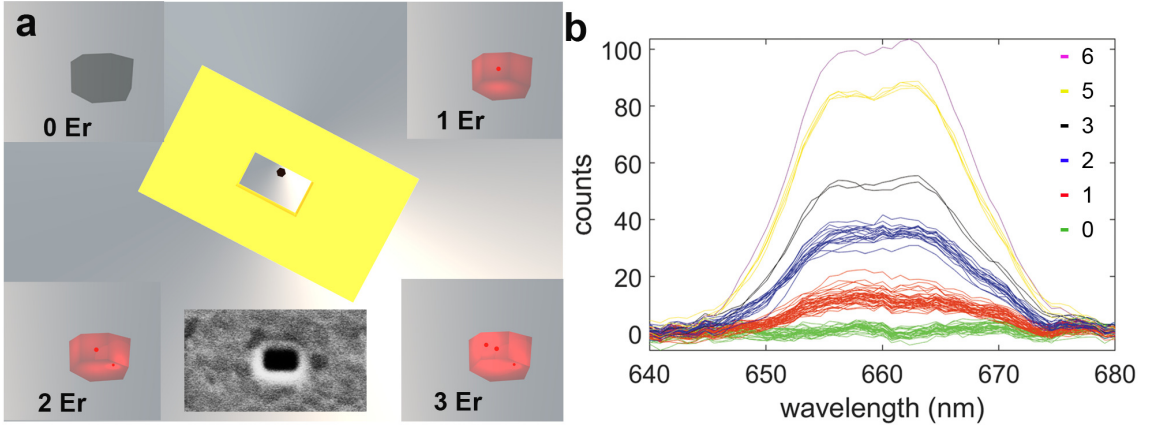


Figure B2: Discrete emitters in trapped NaYF_4 nanocrystals with trace Er defects. (a) Schematic of various nanocrystals with 0-3 Er ions present. Also depicted is the placement of the nanocrystal in the rectangular aperture plasmonic tweezer. $208 \text{ nm} \times 100 \text{ nm}$ rectangular aperture focused ion beam image. (b) Observed emission spectra for sample containing a mean number of 1.53 Er ions per nanocrystal particle. Discrete levels in the upconverted emission are observed corresponding to 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 Er emitters.

100 trapping events. Also shown is the expected Poisson distribution of the number of Er ions in each particle assuming that each Er can emit. The Er^{3+} ions can be expected to be statistically distributed due to their chemical similarity to Y^{3+} and the near identical effective radii of the ions (90 pm for Y^{3+} and 89 pm for Er^{3+} ^(B19)). While the observed distribution and the expected distribution are similar, the mean number of Er emitters was 1.11 per particle in the experiment whereas 1.53 was expected if all of the Er ions could emit. Similar results are found for the other batches, as presented in Table 1.

A possible explanation for the experiments yielding lower than expected Er emitters is that some of the emitters within the particle are quenched by being close to the surface which can reduce the emission by two orders of magnitude.^{(B20),(B21)} A simple analysis based on the volume of the particle and the volume of surface quenching layer (thickness of 1 nm) suggests that 25 % of the Er emitters are quenched. This is very close to the observed values considering statistical uncertainty, and so it appears to be a plausible explanation (see Table 1). We believe that it is possible then

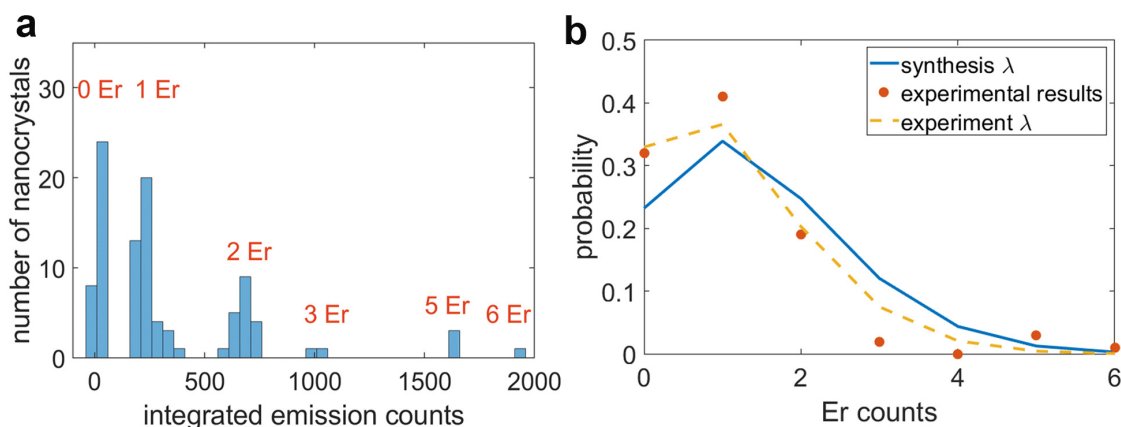


Figure B3: Statistics of emitters observed in experiment. (a) Histogram of integrated emission counts for 100 trapping events. (b) Probability of having 0 to 6 Er emitters based on experimental measurements (part (a)) and using a Poisson distribution using expected synthesis statistics having a mean Er count of 1.53 per particle and calculated experiment statics with mean Er count of 1.11 (see SI)

avoid quenching by creating core-shell nanocrystals, where the shell has no Erbium content.^(B22)

A simple calculation shows that the average distance between two, three, four and five Er ions are 14, 12, 11 and 10 nm (see SI). In this range of average distances, we expect negligible energy transfer and so this process is unlikely.^{(B23),(B24)}

Even though the yield of active emitters in the nanoparticles is less than 100%, the plasmonic tweezer allows for isolating individual particles and determining which ones have a single active (not-quenched) emitter. Therefore, if we use the optical tweezer to separate these particles (perhaps by fixing them to the surface with an attaching ligand or translating them with a fiber-based tweezer,^(B25) or separating them through a nanopore^(B26)) we can reliably and scalably obtain single emitters. Another intriguing possibility presented by this work is to obtain a nanocrystal with only two emitters, for studying possible quantum interactions.

In summary, we have demonstrated the isolation of NaYF_4 nanocrystals with single active Er emitters, as well as those with a few emitters and zero emitters. The number of active Er emitters is determined by discrete levels in the upconversion

Table 1: Distribution of synthesis and experiment λ values for three separate batches. Standard error is presented for experiment.

Er/Y Molar Ratio	Synthesis λ	Experiment λ	Experiment λ / Synthesis λ
0.98 $\mu\%$	0.00609	0.005 \pm 0.0003	0.82 \pm 0.06
19.59 $\mu\%$	0.07573	0.065 \pm 0.005	0.86 \pm 0.06
195.90 $\mu\%$	1.53	1.11 \pm 0.11	0.73 \pm 0.07

emission counts. The plasmonic aperture serves the dual purpose of isolating the individual nanocrystals and enhancing the emission such that even single emitters can be easily detected within the experimental sensitivity. In the future, it will be interesting to probe the single photon statistics of this system, possibly by coupling directly to an optical fiber to achieve single telecom-wavelength photons in fiber.^{(B25),(B27)} We did some preliminary measurements showing telecom-wavelength emission from the ensemble of these emitters, however our present setup does not have the required sensitivity in this range (see SI). It would also be of interest to use this setup for purification and translocation of single or two-emitter particles. For quantum applications such as quantum computing using linear optics, the indistinguishability of the emitters should also be probed.^{(B28)–(B30)}

Methods

UCNCs synthesis and characterization

Chemicals

Yttrium(III) chloride hexahydrate (99.99%), ytterbium(III) chloride (99.998%), erbium(III) chloride hexahydrate (99.995%), ammonium fluoride (99.99%), tech grade oleic acid (90%), tech grade 1-octadecene (90%), and hexanes were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Anhydrous ethanol from Commercial Alcohols, methanol from Cale-

don, and sodium hydroxide from Bio Basic Canada inc. were used. All chemicals were used as received.

Synthesis

Erbium oleate was prepared by adding 1 mmol $\text{ErCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ to a mixture of 15 mL 1-octadecene and 6 mL oleic acid. The mixture was heated to 160°C under vacuum (estimated to be 0.0 inch Hg) and kept at that temperature for 30 minutes before cooling to room temperature. For NaYF_4 doped with 0.98 $\mu\%$ Er molar ratio, in a 100 mL three-neck round-bottom flask, 1 mmol $\text{YCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ and 1 mL 0.1×10^{-6} mM $\text{ErCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ in 1-octadecene are added to 14 mL 1-octadecene and 6 mL oleic acid. For NaYF_4 doped with 19.59 $\mu\%$ Er molar ratio, in a 100 mL three-neck round-bottom flask, 1 mmol $\text{YCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ and 20 μL 0.1×10^{-3} mM $\text{ErCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ in 1-octadecene are added to 15 mL 1-octadecene and 6 mL oleic acid. For NaYF_4 doped with 195.90 $\mu\%$ Er molar ratio, in a 100 mL three-neck round-bottom flask, 1 mmol $\text{YCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ and 200 μL 0.1×10^{-3} mM $\text{ErCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ in 1-octadecene are added to 15 mL 1-octadecene and 6 mL oleic acid. The mixture was heated to 150°C under vacuum and kept at that temperature for 30 minutes before cooling to room temperature. Once cooled, a solution of 100 mg sodium hydroxide and 148 mg ammonium fluoride in 10 mL methanol is added dropwise while stirring. The mixture was heated to 70°C for 60 minutes to evaporate the methanol. The mixture was put under a blanket of argon and the temperature was raised to 300°C over 15 minutes. The temperature was kept at 300°C for 60 minutes, briefly spiking to 319°C. The reaction mixture was then cooled, washed with 20 mL ethanol, centrifuged at 1800 G for 10 min, and washed with 20 mL ethanol again before dispersing the particles in 20 mL hexane. Er-Yb co-doped NaYF_4 synthesized as reported before.^(B17)

UCNCs Characterization

Transmission electron microscopy images were obtained using a JEOL JEM-1400 microscope operating at 80 kV. Hexane dispersions of the UCNCs were drop-cast on a Formvar carbon-coated grid (300 mesh Cu) and air-dried before imaging. Size analysis of UCNCs from the images was performed by measuring the surface area of at least 1000 particles and calculating the corresponding diameter using ImageJ 1.51. X-ray diffractograms with a resolution of $0.0263^\circ 2\theta$ were collected using a PANalytical Empyrean X-ray System with a Cu source ($K\alpha$ radiation, $\lambda = 1.54060 \text{ \AA}$) operating at 45 kV and 40 mA. See SI for additional data.

Fabrication of rectangular aperture

The rectangular apertures were fabricated by focused ion beam milling (Hitachi FB-2100) of a commercially available slide with a 100 nm gold layer on a glass substrate (EMF Corp.) and a 5 nm Ti adhesion layer.

Optical trapping

A continuous wave 980 nm single-beam laser was filtered (780 nm long pass filter), collimated, expanded, and focused onto the sample using a $100\times$ oil immersion microscope objective (1.25 numerical aperture). This beam serves both as trapping beam and the excitation source for UCNCs. A $10\times$ condenser microscopic objective (0.25 numerical aperture) was used to collect the transmitted signal through the rectangle aperture and was measured by a silicon-based avalanche photodetector (Thorlabs APD110A). A piezoelectric controlled 3-axis sample stage was used to align the beam through the rectangle apertures with 20 nm positioning precision. A half-wave plate (HWP) and linear polarizer (LP) were used to orient the polarization of the pump beam. Measurements were obtained after altering the HWP and LP orienta-

tion for obtaining the highest transmission of laser beam through the aperture (the incident laser is made to be always linearly polarized along the short axes of the aperture). A 750 nm short pass filter (Thorlabs FES0750) and a 500-700 nm band pass filter were used on spectrometer to minimize the trapping beam intensity. The luminescence spectrum was measured using a QE65000 Ocean Optics spectrometer for 30 S integration time. All 500 upconversion measurements for three different batches were conducted using 39 mW focused on approximately $1\mu\text{m}^2$. The rectangular aperture gold sample were attached to a cover slips with a free spacer contain $10\mu\text{L}$ UCNCs with concentration of $2 \times 10^{10}\text{particles}/\text{cm}^3$ in hexane.

Acknowledgement

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Supporting Information Available

UCNCs TEM images, UCNCs size distribution, UCNCs x-ray diffraction, Emission enhancement factor of rectangle aperture, emission statistics for different concentrations, emission stability, multiple trapping, emission at 550 nm, emission at 1550 nm and Er-Er distance calculation

Competing interests

The authors declare that there are no competing interests.

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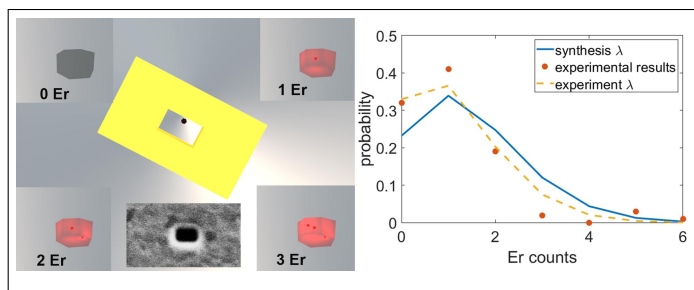
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Graphical TOC Entry



Title: Isolating Nanocrystals with an Individual Erbium Emitter: A Route to a Stable Single-Photon Source at 1550 nm Wavelength

Authors: Amirhossein Alizadehkhalidi, Adriaan L. Frencken, Frank C.J.M. van Veggel, and Reuven Gordon

Trapped upconversion nanocrystal in the rectangular aperture plasmonic tweezer containing 0-3 Er ions. Probability of having 0 to 6 Er emitters based on experimental measurements and using a Poisson distribution with expected synthesis statistics and calculated experiment statistics.

Supporting Information for
Isolating Nanocrystals with an Individual Erbium
Emitter: A Route to a Stable Single-Photon
Source at 1550 nm Wavelength

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A. Upconverting nanocrystals (UCNCs)

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to characterize the morphological and structural properties of the UCNCs. Figures B-S1, B-S2 and B-S3 show TEM and size distribution of different UCNCs sample with 1.53, 0.076, 0.006 Er per particle. Figure B-S4 shows experimental x-ray diffractogram of UCNCs and a reference pattern of hexagonal NaYF_4 .

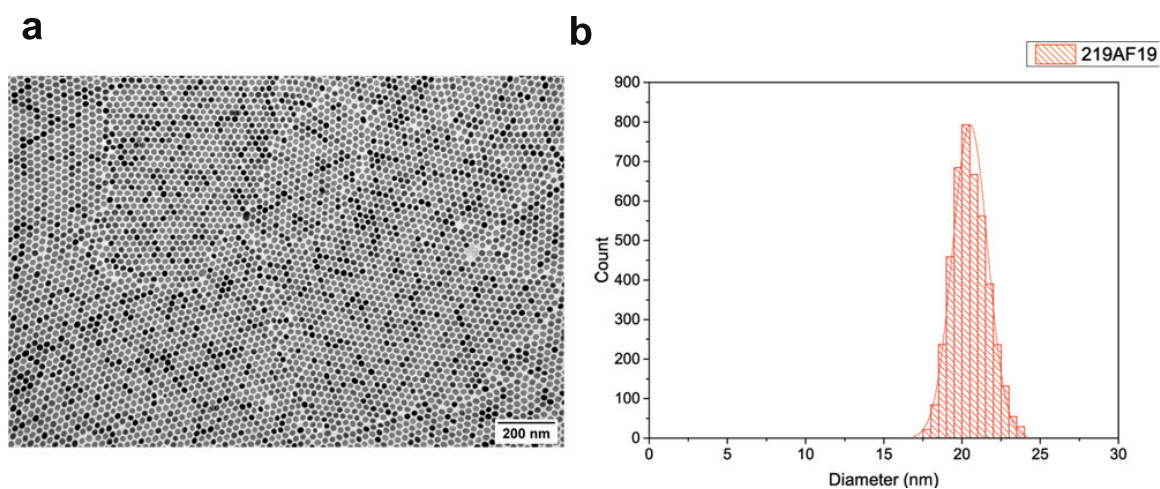


Figure B-S1: Size distribution of measured NaYF_4 : Er UCNCs (~ 0.006 Er / NP) with a mean diameter of 20.52 nm and standard deviation 1.12 nm.

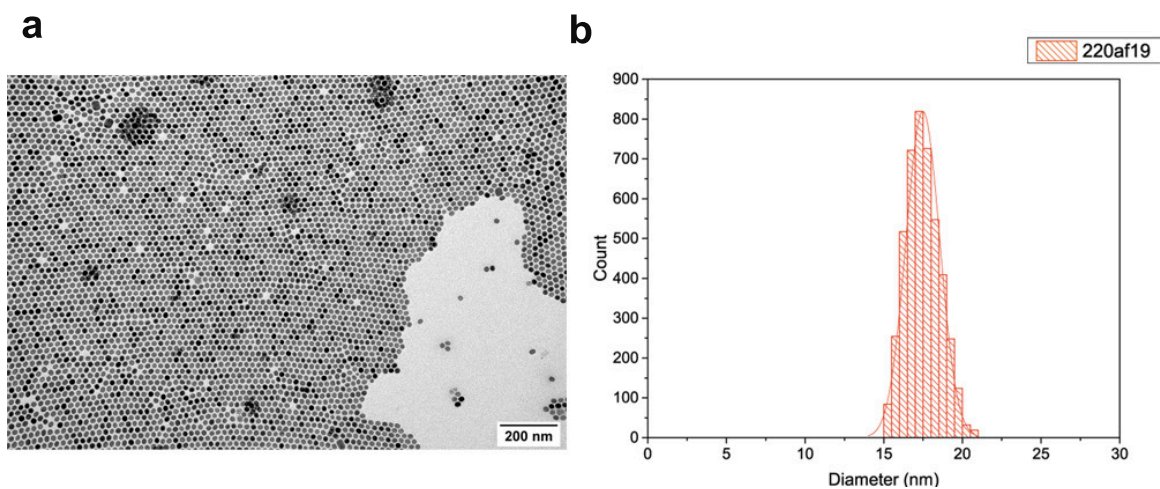


Figure B-S2: Size distribution of measured NaYF_4 : Er UCNCs (~ 0.076 Er / NP) with a mean diameter of 17.49 nm and standard deviation 1.08 nm

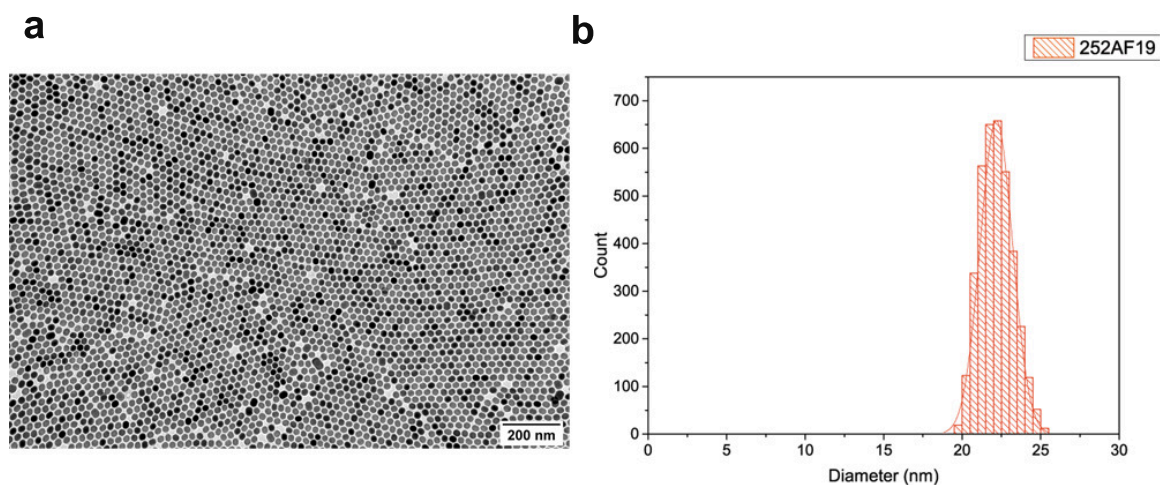


Figure B-S3: : Size distribution of measured NaYF_4 : Er UCNCs (~ 1.5 Er / NP) with a mean diameter of 22.17 nm and standard deviation 1.03 nm.

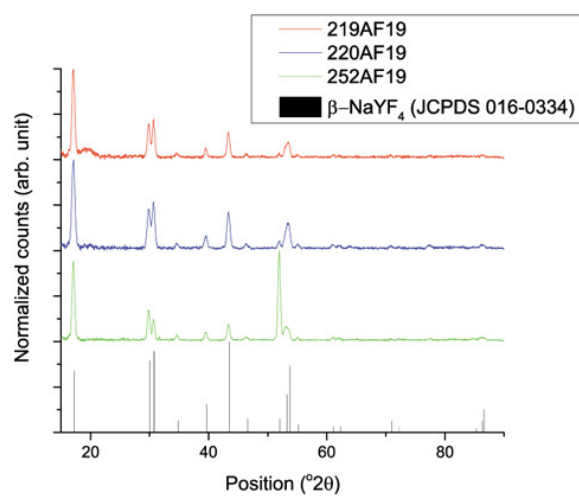


Figure B-S4: Experimental x-ray diffractogram of UCNCs and a reference pattern of hexagonal NaYF_4 ^(B-S1)

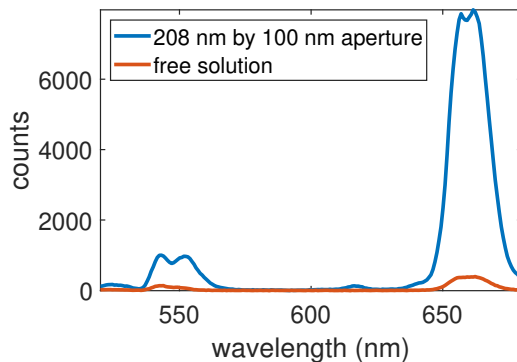


Figure B-S6: Upconversion emission spectra for UCNCs in free solution (red) at 1000 times higher concentration than UCNC emission of single particle in 208 nm \times 100 nm aperture (blue).

D. Stability

To be sure that we measured a stable single particle emission, five emission spectra were recorded in a row from the sample. As we can see from Figure B-S7, all the measurements show approximately the same emission level. Figure B-S8 shows the trapping of two particles. The first trapping happens instantly at 2 s when the laser is switched on, and after some oscillation, the level of voltage becomes stable around 0.33 V. The second trapping happens at 11.9 s, when APD voltage starts to oscillate, and the level of voltage increases to 0.39 V, indicating trapping the other particle. This a rare occurrence in these measurements (less than 1%) and such double trapping events are discarded.

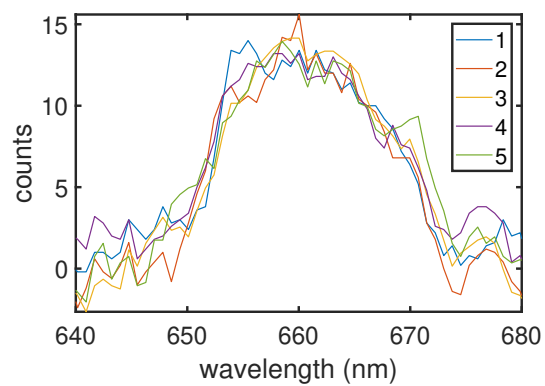


Figure B-S7: Luminescence emission spectrum from a single aperture for five measurements in a row of single UCNCs.

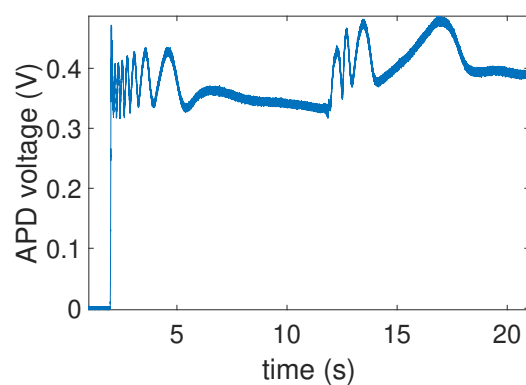


Figure B-S8: Trapping two particles. The second trapping event is seen with oscillations and an increase in voltage starting at 11.9 s.

E. Discrete emission

Figs. B-S9 and B-S10 show discrete emission levels for 200 measurements of UCNCs samples with 0.006 Er and 0.076 Er per UCNC. The concentration of UCNC is 2×10^{10} particles/cm³ with 39 mW incident power of 980 nm laser and 30 s emission integration time. The sample with 0.006 Er per particle show 199 trapping signal without any emission (0 Er) and one trapping event with emission spectrum. Sample with 0.076 Er per UCNC shows 190 trapping event without emission, nine events with single Er emission, and an event with multiple Er ions. Experimental results are fitted with Poisson distribution. The mean value calculated with equation B-S1 based on the emission counts. $P(n)$ is the trapping probability for n number of Er.

$$\lambda = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(n) \times n \quad (\text{B-S1})$$

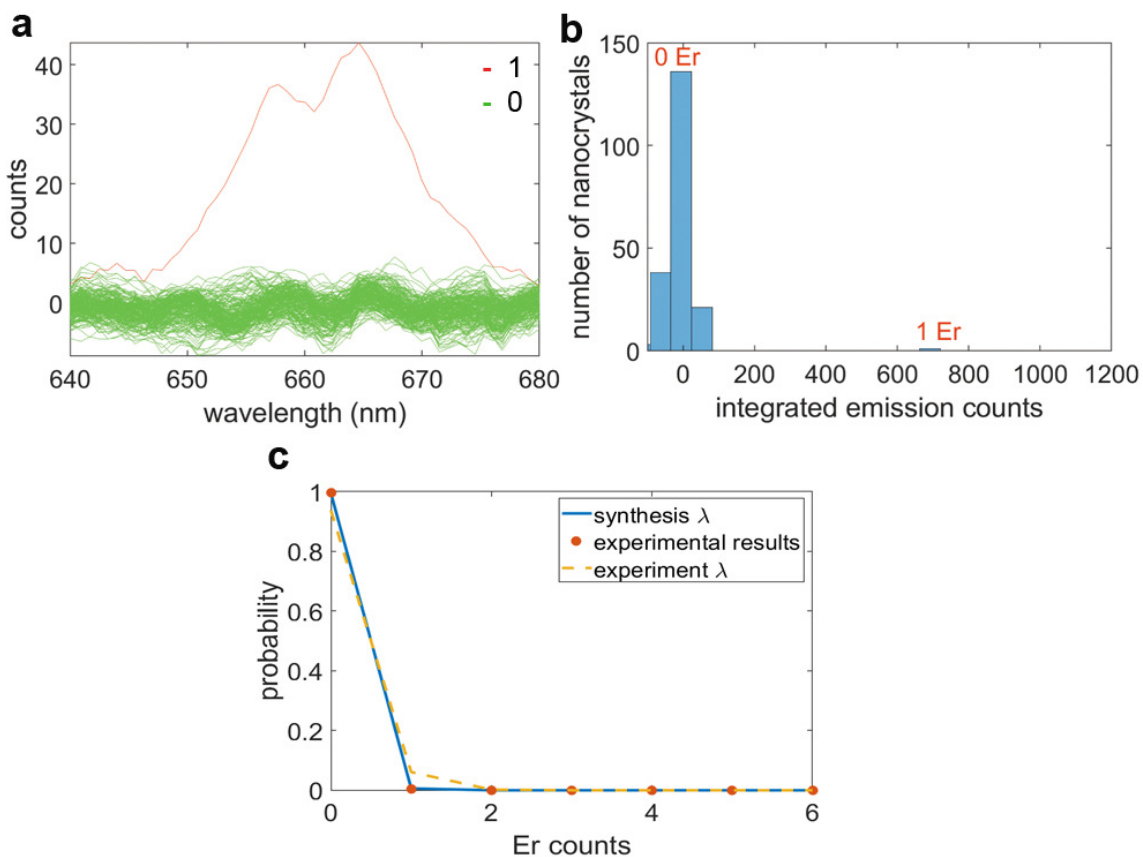


Figure B-S9: Statistics of emitters observed in experiment. (a) Observed emission spectra for sample containing a mean number of 0.006 Er ions per nanocrystal particle. (b) Histogram of integrated emission counts for 200 trapping events. (c) Probability of having 0 to 6 Er emitters based on experimental measurements (part (b)) and using Poisson distributions using expected synthesis statistics having a mean Er count of 0.006 per particle and calculated experimental mean value of 0.005.

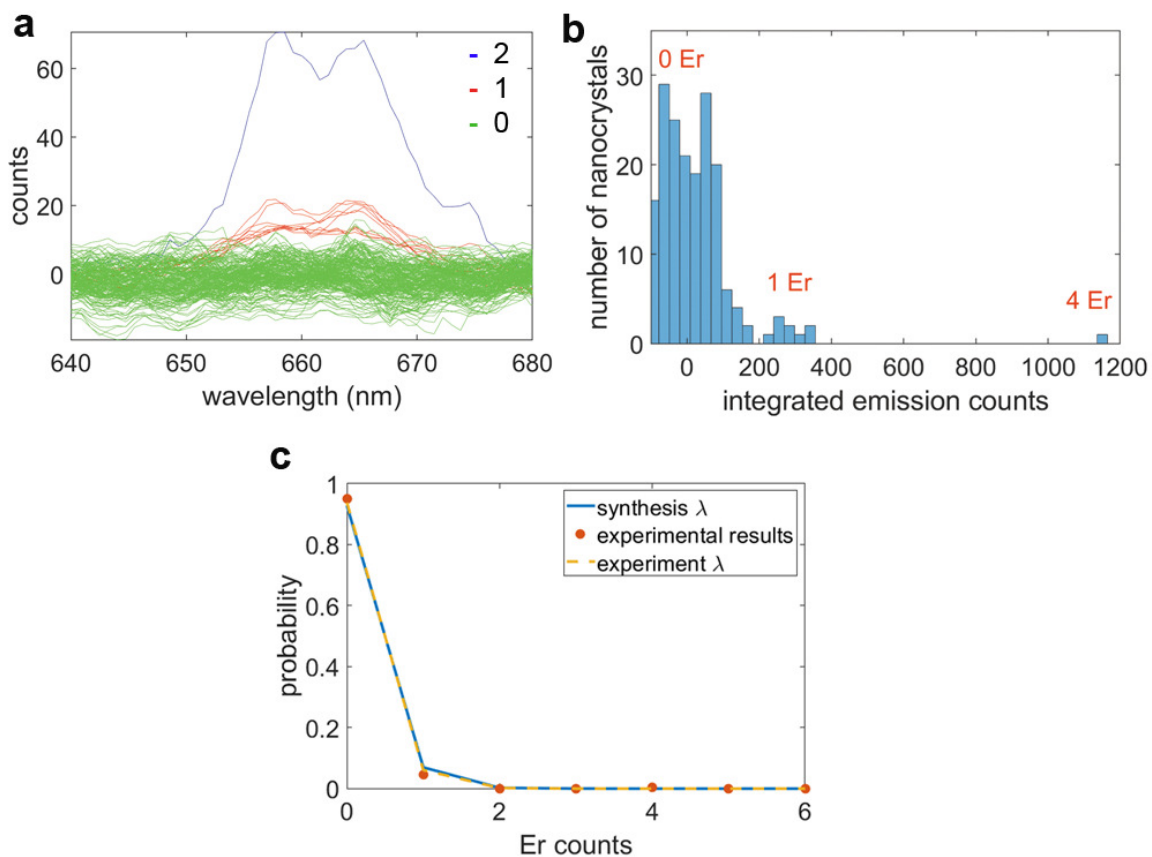


Figure B-S10: Statistics of emitters observed in experiment. (a) Observed emission spectra for sample containing a mean number of 0.076 Er ions per nanocrystal particle. (b) Histogram of integrated emission counts for 200 trapping events. (c) Probability of having 0 to 6 Er emitters based on experimental measurements (part (b)) and using Poisson distributions using expected synthesis statistics having a mean Er count of 0.076 per particle and calculated experimental mean value of 0.065.

F. 550 nm emission

Figure B-S11 shows discrete level of upconversion emission at 550 nm for 100 trapping events for sample with 1.53 Er per UCNC.

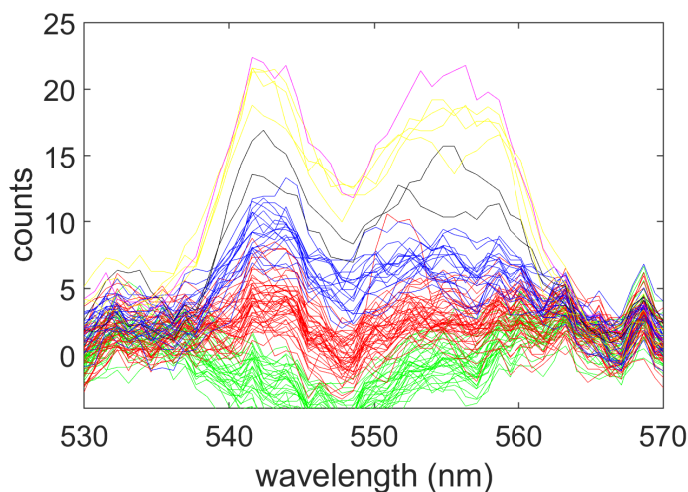


Figure B-S11: Upconversion emission at 550 nm

G. 1550 nm emission

Infrared emission spectroscopy was performed using a JDS uniphase 980 nm pump laser diode operating at 1.6 W with 1.53 Er/UCNC in a $1 \times 1 \times 3.5$ cm quartz cuvette. The diode was coupled to an optical fiber and emission of the fiber tip collimated to 1 mm^2 using a Newport F-91-C1-T multimode fiber coupler. The emission was measured and corrected for instrument response using a liquid-nitrogen cooled Hamamatsu R5509 NIR PMT between 1450 nm and 1650 nm. The step size was 0.5 nm and each point was integrated for 0.5 seconds for 40 subsequent scans, for a total measuring time of 8000 seconds. The experiment was repeated for hexane under the same conditions.

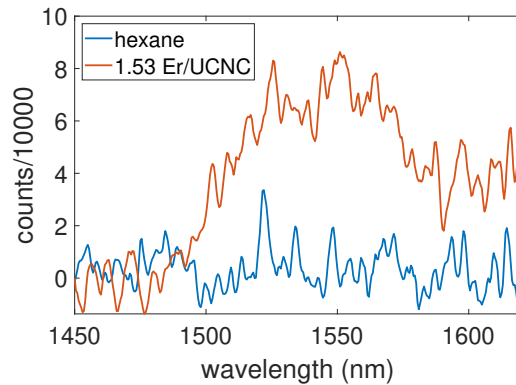


Figure B-S12: Emission at 1530 nm. Emission spectra of hexane and 1.5 Er/UCNCs.

H. Er average distances

Er average distances (d) calculated using hexagonal lattice parameters a and c with Er doping level of x .^(B-S3)

$$d = \left(\frac{a^2 \times c \times \sqrt{3}/2}{1.5 x} \right)^{1/3} \quad (\text{B-S2})$$

Table S1: Average distance of Er ions inside UCNCs

Er/UCNC	Er-Er distance (nm)
2	14.05
3	12.27
4	11.16
5	10.35

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**C Bright Upconverted Emission from Light-Induced
Inelastic Tunneling**

Bright Upconverted Emission from Light-Induced Inelastic Tunneling

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Abstract

Upconverted light from nanostructured metal surfaces can be produced by harmonic generation and multi-photon luminescence; however, these are very weak processes and require extremely high field intensities to produce a measurable signal. Here we report on bright emission, 5 orders of magnitude greater than harmonic generation, that can be seen from metal tunnel junctions due to light-induced inelastic tunneling. Like inelastic tunneling light emission, which was recently reported to have 2% conversion efficiency per tunneling event, the emission wavelength recorded varies with the local electric field applied; however, here the field is from a 1560 nm femtosecond pulsed laser source. Finite-difference time-domain simulations of the experimental conditions show the local field is sufficient to generate tunneling-based inelastic light emission

in the visible regime. This phenomenon is promising for producing ultrafast upconverted light emission with higher efficiency than conventional nonlinear processes.

Keywords

upconversion, plasmonics, ultrafast, tunneling

Several effects are recognized to produce light using metal nanostructures in the field of nanoplasmonics. When applying a pulsed laser to a metal surface or nanostructure, light can be generated by nonlinear processes including second harmonic generation,^{(C1)–(C3)} third harmonic generation,^{(C4),(C5)} two-photon photoluminescence^{(C6)–(C9)} and three-photon photoluminescence.^{(C5),(C6)} In each of these effects, the photon energy of the emitted photons is greater than the incident energy. Notably, these nonlinear effects have extremely low conversion efficiency even for resonant metal structures including an additional nonlinear material. The conversion efficiency is typically less than a fraction of a percent.^{(C10)–(C15)}

Another well-known effect in nanoplasmonics is inelastic tunneling-induced light emission. Metal tunnel junctions under DC bias can produce light if the tunneling electron scatters inelastically.^{(C16)–(C18)} The signature of this effect is that the photon energy produced has a cut-off equal to the bias for the electron across the tunnel junction. Recently, a high efficiency of 2% has been reported for this effect^{(C19),(C20)} and it was suggested that even higher efficiency values are possible with improved design.^(C21)

It has also been noted that optical pulses can be used to create tunneling based ejection of electrons from metal surfaces.^{(C22)–(C26)} The electric field within the femtosecond laser pulse lowers the barrier for tunneling based electron ejection. Many other works have explored the properties of electron ejection via tunneling out of a metal with an applied field and an ultrafast laser.^{(C27)–(C36)} THz pulses have been used

to produce ultrafast scanning tunneling microscopy,^(C37) which followed from ultrafast scanning tunneling measurements.^(C38) Within these works, the possibility of a tunneling electron inelastically scattering to produce a photon has not been explored.

Here we report bright upconverted light emission at a metal tunnel junction by the effect of inelastic tunneling: light-induced inelastic tunneling emission (LITE). We demonstrate that for sub-nanometer tunnel junctions excited by short infrared laser pulses, bright broad-spectrum visible light is emitted. The critical feature is that the emission shows the tunneling signature: the spectrum has a cut-off wavelength that blue-shifts with increasing electric field of the incident pulse. The observed emission wavelength range is consistent with finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) simulations that show that the magnitude of the voltage across the junction is comparable to cut-off voltage (energy divided by electric charge) of the emitted photon energy for the peak pulse intensities used.

The samples were gold nanoparticles (5 nm – 741949 Sigma-Aldrich) over an 30 nm thick ultra-flat gold (template stripped off silicon) with an amino-alkane-thiol self-assembled monolayer with varying carbon length (C2 – 30070 Sigma-Aldrich, C3 – 739294, Sigma-Aldrich, C6 – 733679 Sigma-Aldrich C8 – 745774 Sigma-Aldrich).^{(C39),(C40)} (Samples were also fabricated with 20 nm and 60 nm, showing similar results, but these are not reported here – see Supporting Information for details of the fabrication and scanning electron microscope images). Dark-field scattering of the sample showed plasmon resonances. The transverse resonance was around 550 nm and the longitudinal resonances red-shifted with decreasing gap size produced by the self-assembled monolayer (around 680 nm for the C3 junction). The dark field measurement setup and results are shown in the Supporting Information.

The schematic of femtosecond excitation with emission and the experimental setup for LITE is shown schematically in Figures C1 (a) and (b). 100 fs pulses at 1560 nm centre wavelength were incident on the sample at 58° angle. A band-pass filter (Ed-

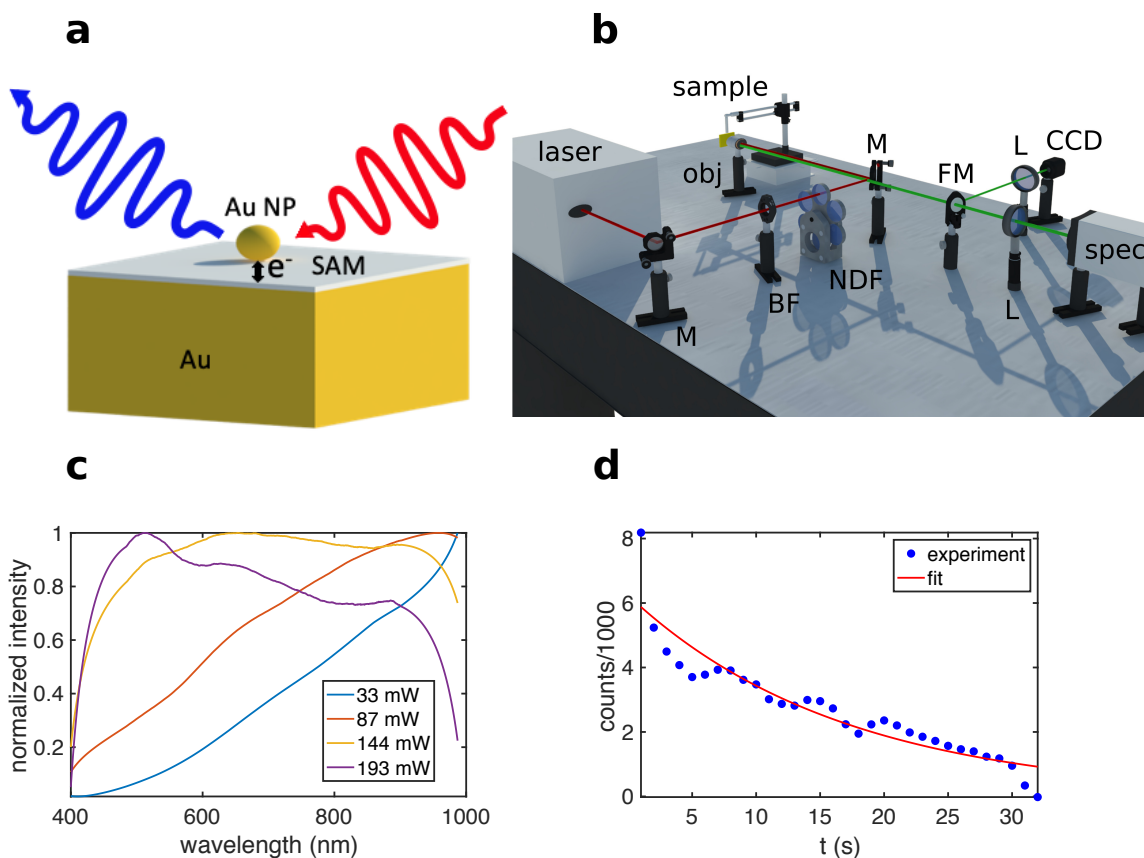


Figure C1: Light-induced Inelastic Tunneling Emission. (a) Schematic of metal nanoparticle over ultraflat gold with a self-assembled monolayer junction. An incident light pulse drives electron tunneling which emits a higher energy photon due to inelastic scattering. (b) Schematic of experimental setup for observing LITE emission: M - mirror, BF - band-pass filter, NDF - neutral density filter, obj - 50 \times objective, FM - flip mirror, L - lens, CCD - CCD camera, spec - spectrometer. (c) Emission spectra for four different average powers, showing characteristic spectral shift of LITE. The sample was a 5 nm gold nanoparticle and a 0.69 nm junction. (d) Decay of LITE observed for a 0.51 nm junction at lower power excitation. The decay was much faster at high intensities (see Supporting Information).

mund Optics TECHSPEC Bandpass Filter 1575/50 nm 87871) was used to remove any spurious signal from the source’s pump laser or harmonic generation at the source.

Figure C1(c) shows the recorded bright spectra of LITE recorded on a fiber-coupled photon-counting spectrometer (QE65000, Ocean Optics) with one second integration time. The extremely bright emission from LITE can be observed by the naked eye. The total intensity over the spectrum from 400 nm to 1000 nm is 33000 times brighter than third harmonic generation and 140000 times brighter than second harmonic generation (see Table 1).

Table 1: Comparison of LITE with harmonic generation by integrated counts for the same acquisition time and maximized collection efficiency for each effect.

Effect	Integrated counts (400-1000 nm)
SHG	239
THG	1006
LITE	3.3×10^7

It is important to note that the signal was optimized in each case: maximizing the second harmonic signal and third harmonic signal each time (since the alignment is slightly different due to chromatic effects).

We also observed two photon photoluminescence (TPPL) for longer integration times, producing a broad spectrum. TPPL is easily distinguished from LITE because the TPPL spectra did not shift with varying excitation intensity. The characterization of the harmonic generation and TPPL is given in the Supporting Information (power and spectral dependence).

LITE was observed for two-carbon and three-carbon self-assembled monolayer junctions, with widths of 0.51 nm and 0.69 nm (see Supporting Information). The six-carbon and eight-carbon junctions did not produce LITE, which is consistent with these large junctions having negligible probability of tunneling, with widths of 0.94 nm and 1.16 nm. By contrast, the larger junctions still produced TPPL and harmonic generation (see Supporting Information).

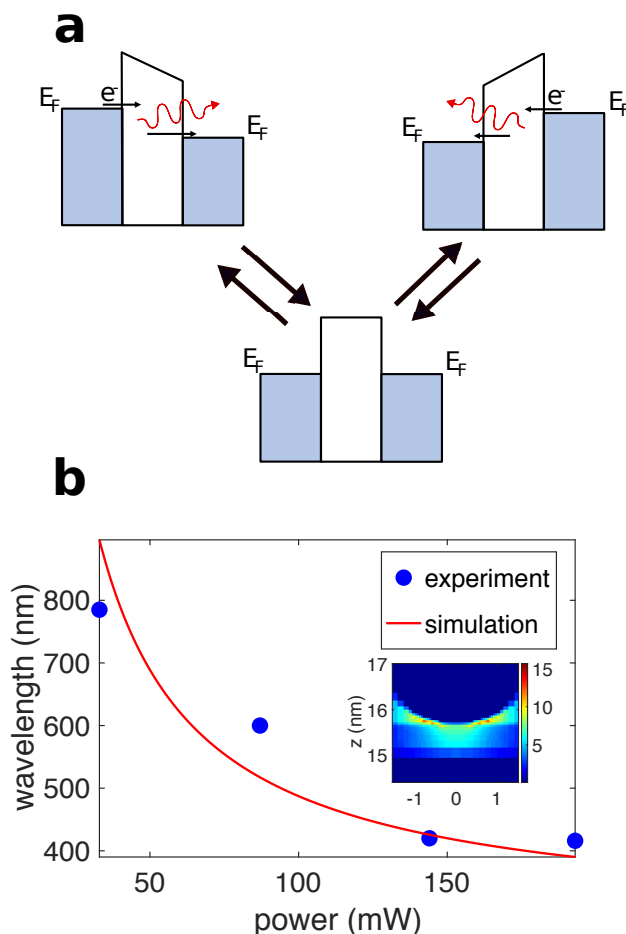


Figure C2: Comparison of calculated fields with observed cut-off wavelength. (a) Schematic of LITE effect resulting from the AC field of a femtosecond laser oscillating the bias applied to the tunnel junction. When the field induces tunneling, an upconverted photon can be emitted by inelastic scattering. (b) Finite-difference time-domain simulations provide the field strength as a function of the incident power in the experiment, which is translated to the cut-off wavelength for the LITE effect. The cut-off wavelength observed in the experiment (at half the maximum intensity) is shown for comparison with the calculations. The inset shows the local field intensity distribution in the junction region, normalized to the incident field intensity.

LITE is short lived, which is suspected to be the result of tunneling induced breakdown of the junction. Pulsed laser field-induced breakdown in dielectrics has been studied extensively, and typically occurs at V/nm laser fields used here.^(C41) Even after LITE died out, the nonlinear effects of TPPL, SHG and THG persisted, although they were reduced.

Figure C1(d) shows the decay of the LITE for an incident average power of 45 mW with an exponential fit. The time-constant was twenty seconds. For higher intensities the decay was much faster; for example for 144 mW the decay was faster than the 100 ms integration of the spectrometer (see Supporting Information).

Other works have shown that the deformation of the shape of the metal nanoparticle can result in a blue shift, but this effect is permanent (melting),^(C7) which distinguishes it from the results presented here. Other works have also shown flickering of multi-photon fluorescence, but LITE differs from that flickering because it does not turn back on once it dies out.^(C5)

The physical picture of LITE is that the AC field of the femtosecond pulse source produces enough voltage in the junction to induce electron tunneling. The tunneling electron has a finite probability of inelastic scattering, which produces photon emission from the tunneling event. The emitted photon has energy which is less than the applied voltage divided by the electron charge (the potential energy available to the tunneling electron). (Thermal effects can give slightly higher energy photons). Figure C2(a) shows a schematic of this effect where the energy gap of the self-assembled monolayer presents a tunneling barrier and the energy bias across the barrier oscillates with the applied field from the femtosecond pulse.

To check the plausibility of this picture, we simulated the field amplitude at the 1560 nm pulse wavelength in the junction for the conditions of the experiment. We used FDTD simulations (FDTD - Lumerical v. 8.20.1731) with a mesh size of 0.05 nm, a total-field scattered field source, perfectly matched layer boundaries, and Johnson

and Christy gold.^(C42) The inset to Figure C2(b) shows the cross section of the field enhancement in the gap. We related the field amplitude to the cut-off wavelength for LITE:

$$\lambda_c = \frac{hc}{Edq} \quad (\text{C1})$$

where λ_c is cut-off wavelength, h is Planck's constant, c is speed of light, E is field amplitude, d is gap size, q is electron charge.

Figure C2(b) shows simulated the cut-off wavelength as a function of the average power of the laser. The laser repetition rate was 80 MHz and peak intensity of the 33 mW laser was $1.6 \times 10^{14} \frac{W}{m^2}$. The cut-off is in the visible regime for the conditions of this experiment, showing a blue-shift as the peak intensity increases. Since the spectra were also influenced by the local plasmon resonances (see dark-field spectra in Supporting Information), we do not attempt to quantitatively fit the observed spectra although this may be attempted with techniques used elsewhere.^{(C21),(C43),(C44)} We do show the experimentally measured cut-off (defined as the wavelength where the counts goes to half of the peak value), to compare with the simulated results. Reasonable agreement is seen between the simulated and the experimental cut-off.

We recognize potential for significant improvement to the LITE effect. First, we are not exploiting the plasmonic resonance in the present investigation: the incident photon energy is well-away from the plasmon resonance and so the field enhancement is only a factor of 6 with respect to the incident field (see Supporting Information). Better overall conversion efficiency is expected by fully exploiting resonances at the incident and emission wavelengths.

Second, we expect that the light emission is extremely short in duration, although we have not time-resolved the emission in this work. This is expected since the tunneling can operate at optical frequencies due to the small capacitance of the junction.^(C45) In particular, here we have a junction area of approximately 1-10 nm² with

a gap of just under a nanometer; so the overall capacitance is below the aF range. In a well-designed case, the radiation resistance is less than a kOhm, so that the response time should be in the femtosecond regime. Therefore, this effect may be intriguing for ultra-fast nearfield excitation.

Third, LITE may be more efficient than conventional inelastic tunneling light emission because the light emission is limited in time to a cycle of the applied pulsed source. This means that the spectral bandwidth available is substantially narrower than DC-based emission and so less energy is expected to be lost to low energy photons that are typically not measured.^(C46)

Finally, we note that the junctions here are extremely short-lived due to the self-assembled monolayer chosen. Others have investigated van der Waals hexagonal-BN as a stable junction for inelastic tunneling based emission.^{(C45),(C46)} That material is crystalline and has a large band-gap, so it is expected that LITE lifetimes will be extended substantially, as was observed in DC measurements.

In summary, here we report bright upconverted emission from light induced inelastic tunneling between metals when they are incident with a pulsed laser source. Since this effect depends on tunneling based inelastic emission, it is limited by the efficiency of that effect, which is on the order of 2% per tunneling event and orders of magnitude more efficient than other nonlinear effects that operate in the near-field. By exploiting plasmonic resonances, the reduced tunneling bandwidth and more stable junction materials, it is expected that LITE will become a highly efficient ultrafast source of upconverted photons.

Acknowledgement

Support for this work is provided by an NSERC Discovery Grant.

Supporting Information Available

Scanning electron microscope images, dark field setup, dark field scattering results, third harmonic generation results, power dependence, two photon photoluminescence, LITE of C2, brief LITE observed for C3, simulation details.

Competing interests

The authors declare that there are no competing interests.

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Supporting Information for “Bright Upconverted Emission from Light-Induced Inelastic Tunneling”

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Fabrication procedure

30 nm of Au was sputtered using a Mantis QUBE sputter deposition system on polished side of a silicon sample without any adhesion layer to allow for stripping. Silicon was used because of its crystalline properties that allows ultraflat gold after stripping. For stripping, UV cured epoxy was sandwiched between the gold on silicon and a glass slide. After exposing the epoxy to UV light, it hardened attaching the gold to glass and thus revealing the ultraflat gold surface. Samples were immersed in 3 mM ethanol solution of different self assembled monolayers (SAM) for 18 h. This procedure was followed by rinsing with ethanol 3-4 times to remove unattached SAMs

and drying with nitrogen. The final step was to deposit nanoparticles (5 nm – 741949 Sigma-Aldrich 5.5×10^{13} particles/mL, 20 nm – 741965 Sigma-Aldrich 6.54×10^{11} particles/mL, 60 nm – 742015 Sigma-Aldrich 1.9×10^{10} particles/mL) by drop coating 500 μl of NPs in solution on sample and leaving it for 30 min, followed by rinsing samples 3-4 times with deionized water to remove unattached NPs and drying with nitrogen.

Figure C-S1 shows scanning electron microscope (SEM) images. The sample with 20 nm NPs is substantially more dense as compared to the sample with 60 nm NPs because its initial solution used for deposition is 10 times more concentrated.

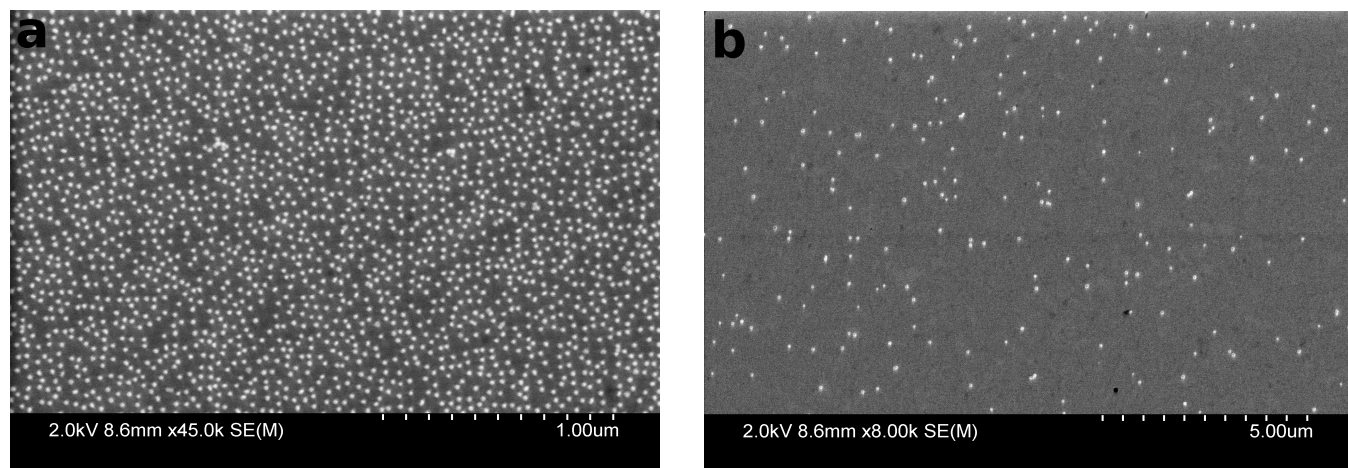


Figure C-S1: SEM images of samples with a) 20 nm NPs and b) 60 nm NPs.

Dark field measurement

The dark field setup is shown in Figure C-S2. The sample was positioned in a way to make a 65° angle between normal of the sample and incident light. This was necessary to ensure that only the scattered light was collected. Scratches and agglomerations were avoided by looking at the dark field image before taking a measurement. An Ocean Optics LS-1 Tungsten Halogen Light Source was used as white light source. A $20\times$ 0.28 NA Mitutoyo objective was used for incident light and $10\times$ 0.28 NA

Mitutoyo objective was used to collect scattered light. A QE65000 Ocean Optics spectrometer was used for signal collection.

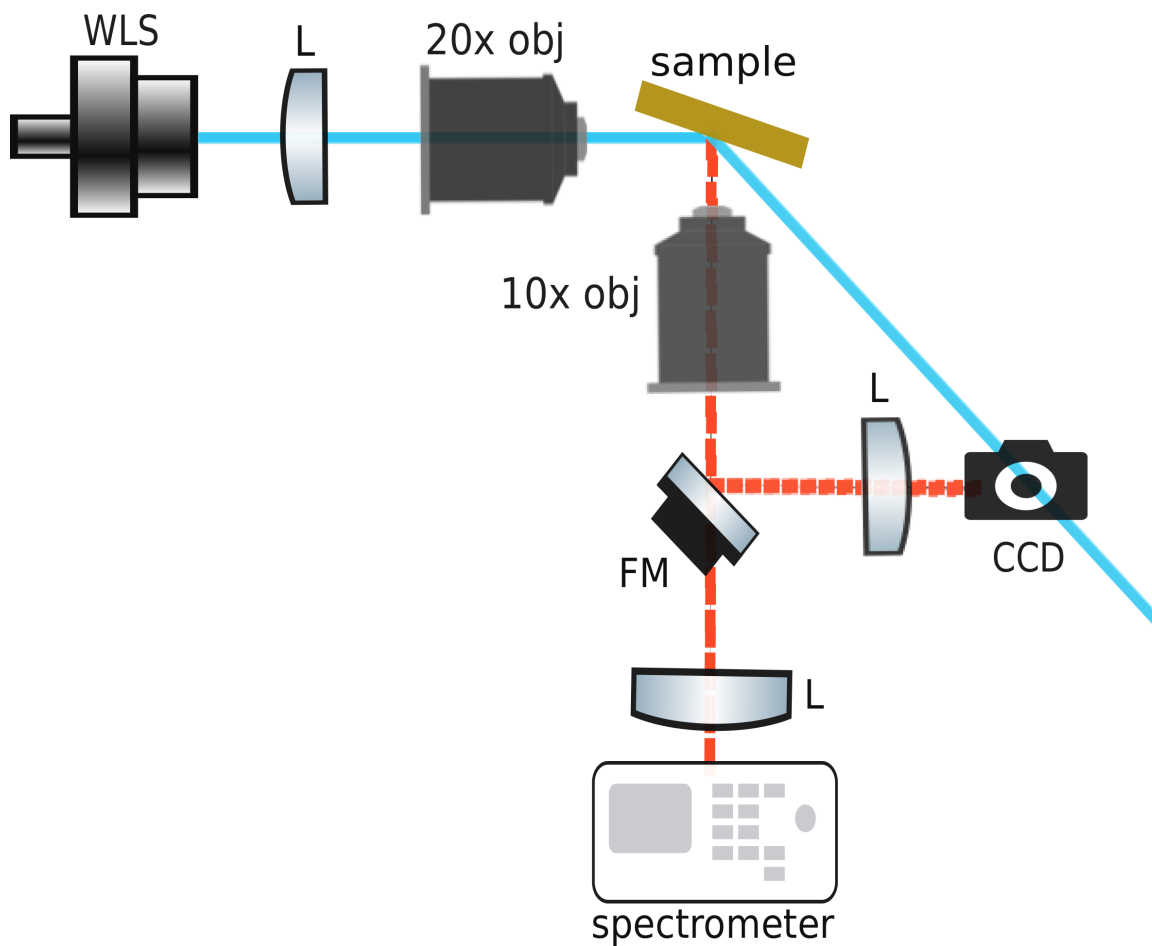


Figure C-S2: Dark-field measurement setup. WLS - white light source, L - lens, 20x objective, 10x objective, FM - flip mirror, CCD camera. In b) Incident and reflected light are represented with blue line and scattered light is represented with dashed red line.

Dark-field measurement results are presented in Figure C-S3. All the spectra show a red shift as the SAM thickness is reduced, as expected. The transverse mode can also be seen as a shoulder around 550 nm.

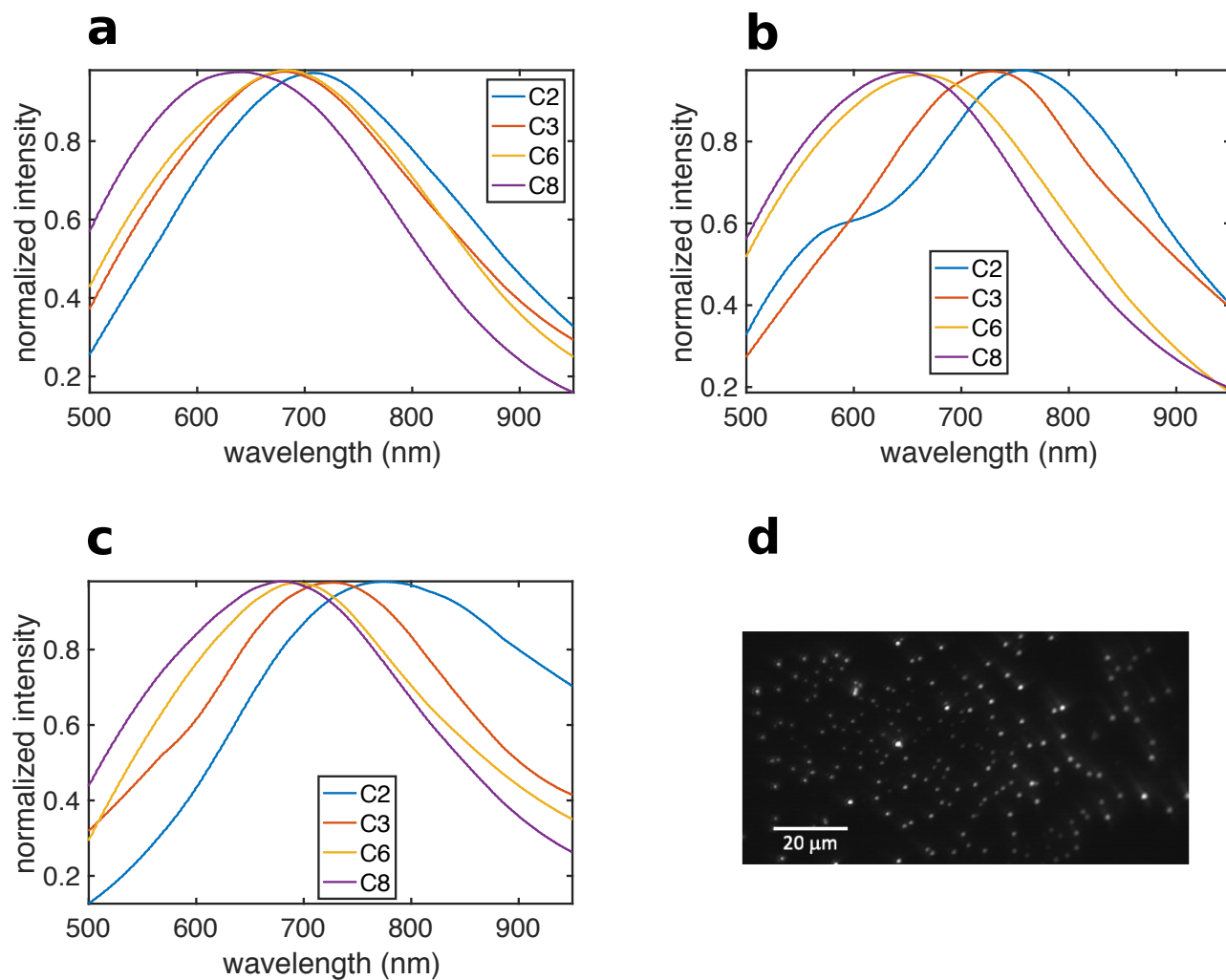


Figure C-S3: Dark-field scattering of samples with a) 5 nm NPs, b) 20 nm NPs and c) 60 nm NPs. d) Dark-field scattering CCD camera image.

Third harmonic generation measurement

Third harmonic generation (THG) measurement results are presented in Figure C-S4. A Calmar femtosecond laser centred at 1560 nm with average power of 100 mW was used as a laser source and signal was collected using a QE65000 Ocean Optics spectrometer with a ten second integration time. A bandpass filter was used to remove harmonics present in the laser and a neutral density filter was used to regulate the average power. When the SAM thickness was decreased, larger THG intensity was observed with a maximum for C3. THG intensity dropped for C2 due to onset of tunneling.^(C-S1)

Figure C-S5 shows the power dependence of third harmonic generation with the slope of 3 for different SAMs, as expected from a three photon process.

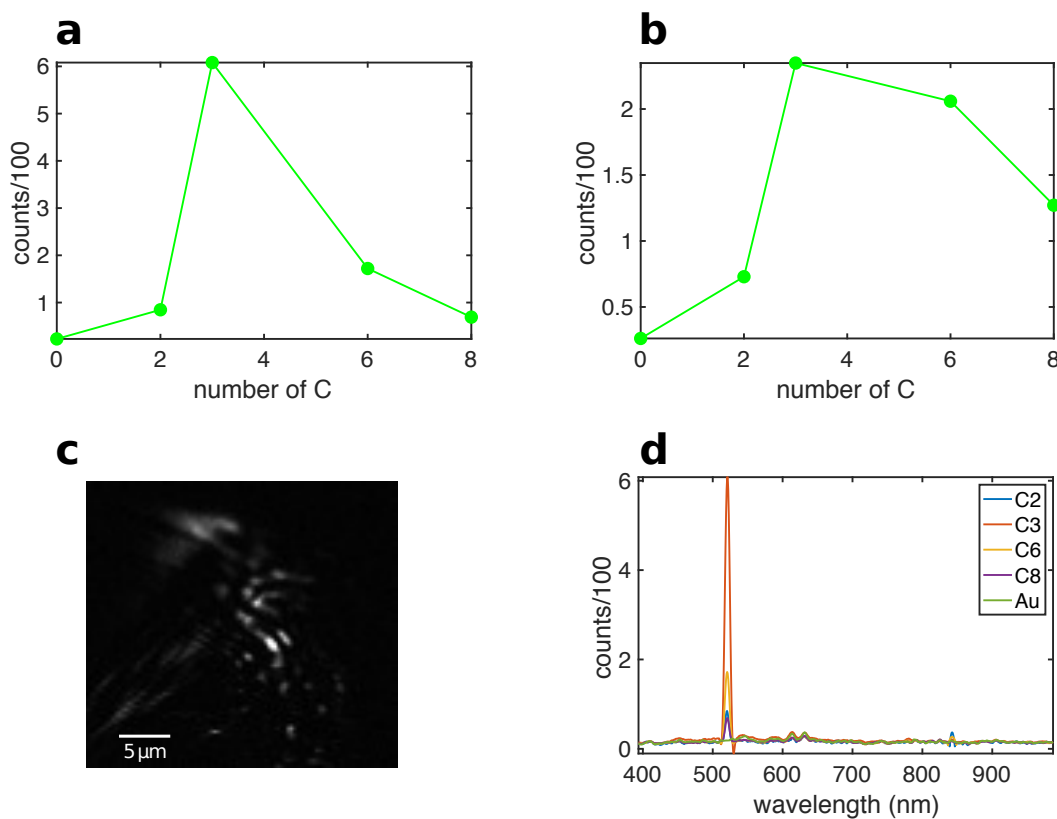


Figure C-S4: a) Third harmonic generation intensities for different SAMs of samples with 5 nm NPs and b) 60 nm NPs. c) CCD camera image of third harmonic generation. d) Third harmonic generation spectra.

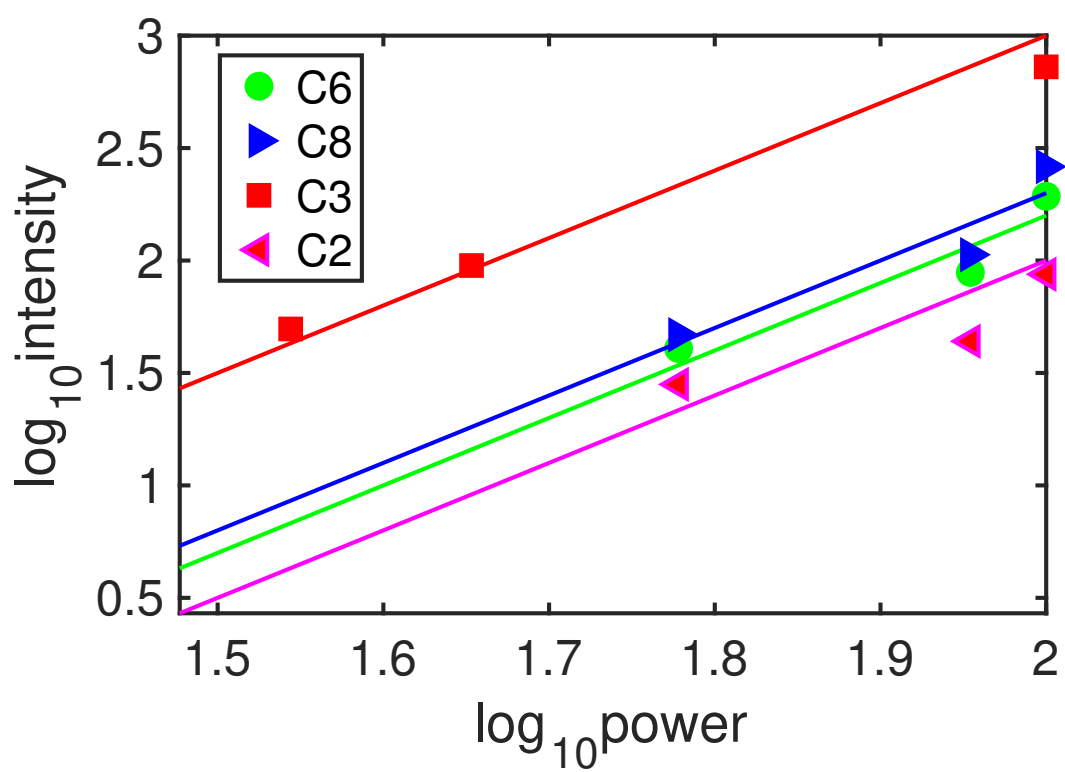


Figure C-S5: Third harmonic generation power dependence of samples with 5 nm NPs. Slope is 3 for all, as expected from a three photon process.

Two photon photoluminescence

Figure C-S6a shows two photon photoluminescence (TPPL) for different incident powers. No shift is observed. The wavelength axis is truncated at 1000 nm because of the range of spectrometer. Figure C-S6b shows the power dependence of TPPL with the slope of 2, as expected from a two photon process.

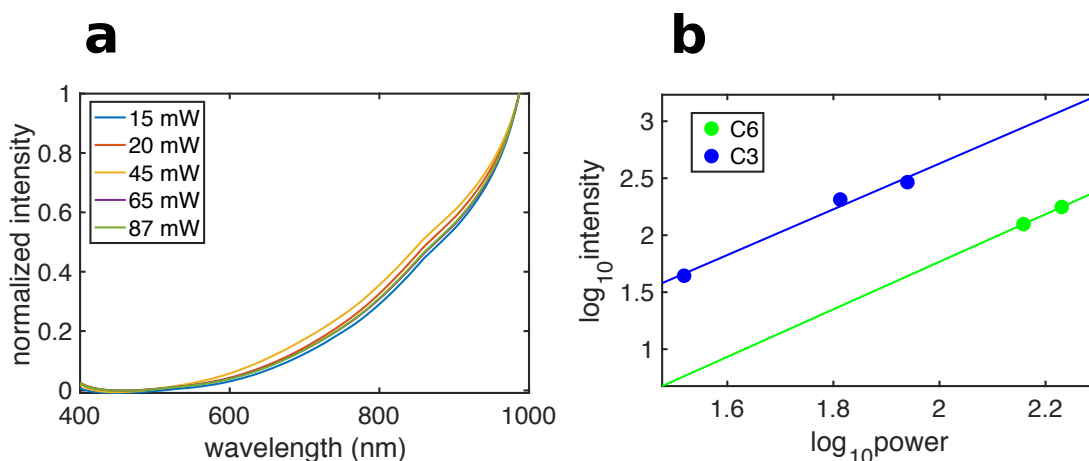


Figure C-S6: a) TPPL with different incident power from C3 with 5 nm Au NPs. b) power dependence of TPPL with slope equal 2, as expected from a two photon process.

Light-induced inelastic tunneling emission

Figure C-S7 shows LITE of the C2 sample. A blue shift was observed with larger intensities of the incident laser. The spectra are truncated at 1000 nm because of the range of spectrometer.

Figure C-S8 shows that for larger incident laser power, LITE is faster than 100 ms second. In an attempt to measure decay time, integration time was reduced to 50 ms and 10 ms without showing sufficient time resolution to resolve the decay for these conditions.

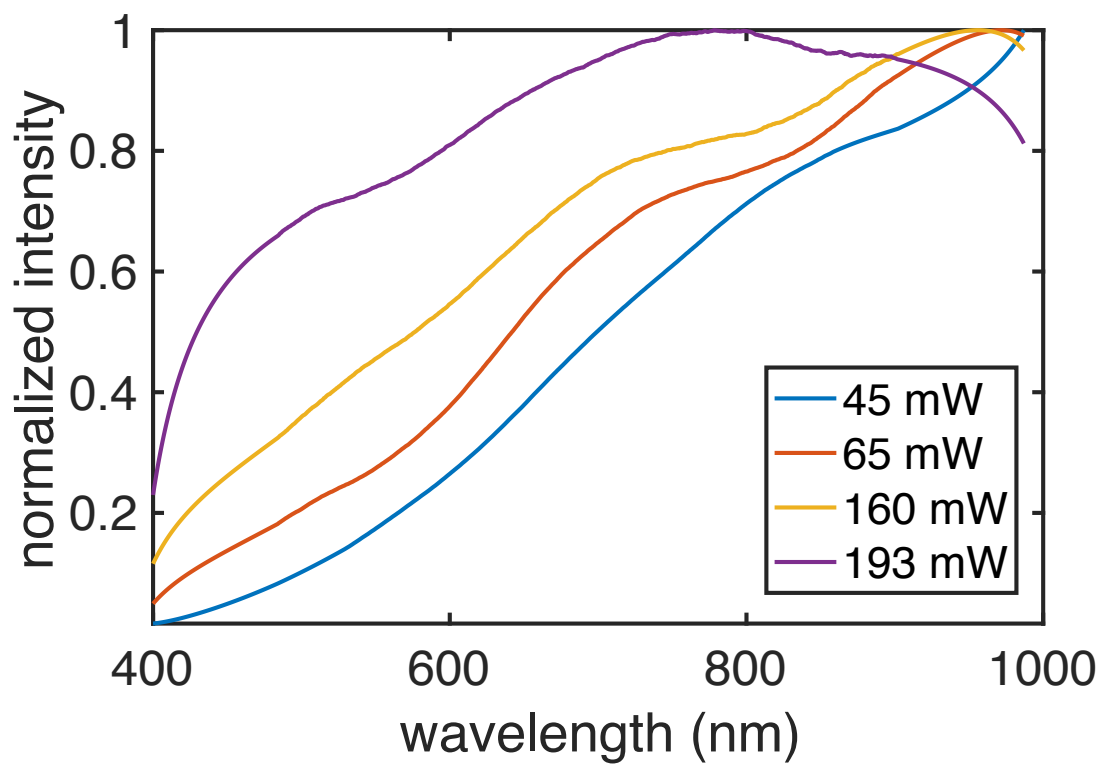


Figure C-S7: LITE of C2 with 5 nm Au NPs.

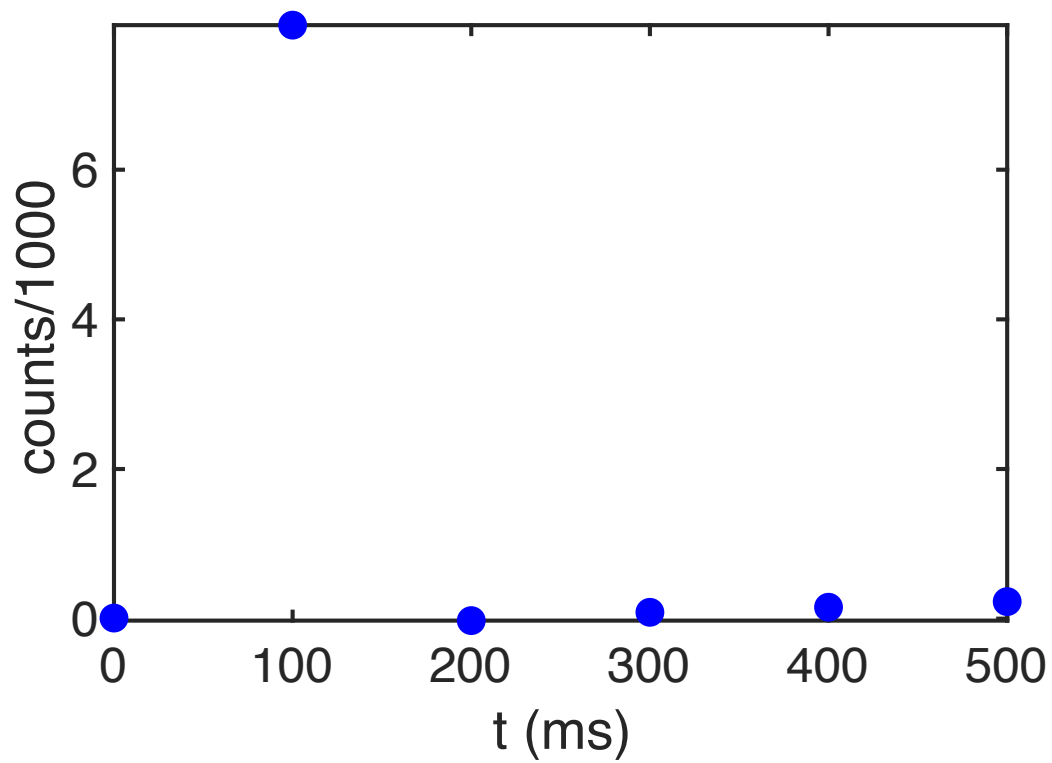


Figure C-S8: Brief LITE observed for C3 with 144 mW average power

Simulation

A finite difference time domain (FDTD - Lumerical v. 8.20.1731) simulation was used with the following parameters: 0.05 nm mesh size in the gap and 10 nm over nanoparticle, refractive index of the gap is 1.4, total field scattered field source (100 fs pulse source with centre wavelength at 1560 nm) at the 58 degree angle (to account for off-axis alignment). Perfectly Matched Layer boundaries were used. Although C3 and C2 have subnanometer thickness (0.69 nm and 0.51 nm),^(C-S2) tunneling was neglected in the FDTD simulation because other works show that for C3 field amplitude in the gap for quantum corrected and classical models are similar.^{(C-S1),(C-S3)}

Comparing electric field at the source and in the gap on Figure C-S9, an enhancement factor of 5.8 was determined, and it was used to calculate the actual experimental electric field in the gap using:

$$E_{\text{exp}} = F \sqrt{\frac{E_s^2 I_{\text{exp}}}{I_s}} \quad (\text{C-S1})$$

where F is enhancement factor, E_{exp} is field amplitude of the experiment, E_s field amplitude of the simulation, I_{exp} source intensity of the experiment calculated using equation C-S2, I_s source intensity of the simulation.

$$I_s = \frac{P_{\text{peak}}}{A} \quad (\text{C-S2})$$

where P_{peak} is peak laser power and A is illuminated area. P_{peak} was calculated from:

$$P_{\text{peak}} = \frac{P_{\text{avg}}}{R\tau} \quad (\text{C-S3})$$

where P_{avg} is average source power, R is repetition rate, τ is pulse width. Repetition rate is 80 MHz, pulse width 100 fs.

Once electric field amplitude of the experiment is known, cut off wavelength is

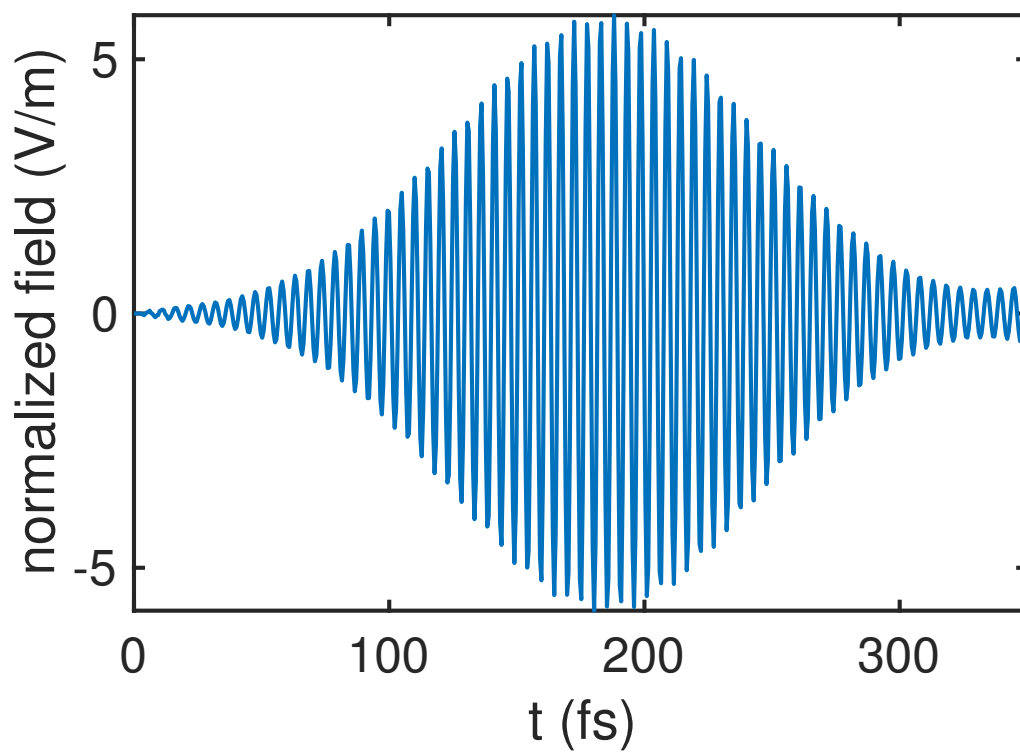


Figure C-S9: Time-domain information of the field in the gap.

calculated using:

$$\lambda_c = \frac{hc}{Edq} \quad (\text{C-S4})$$

where λ_c is cut-off wavelength, h is Planck's constant, c is speed of light, E is field amplitude, d is gap size, q is electron charge.

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D Harvesting Dual-Wavelength Excitation with Plasmon-Enhanced Emission from Upconverting Nanoparticles

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Harvesting dual-wavelength excitation with plasmon-enhanced emission from upconverting nanoparticles

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Abstract

We demonstrate dual wavelength (1210 nm and 1520 nm) excitation of upconverter nanoparticles (Er doped nanoparticles) with plasmon-enhanced emission. 25 nm diameter gold nanorods with resonances at 808 nm and at 980 nm selectively enhance the upconversion emission of 2% erbium-doped

NaYF₄ nanoparticles at 808 nm and at 980 nm. No upconversion is seen for 1210 nm excitation alone and 1520 nm excitation alone provides lower upconversion. The sequential 1520 nm and 1210 nm absorption yields the most upconversion and the power dependence of emission supports the sequential absorption mechanism. This provides a promising avenue for harvesting from the two strongest infrared bands of the solar spectrum with selective emission tuned to either the Si or GaAs bandgap.

Keywords

upconverting nanoparticles; plasmon enhanced emission; lanthanides; dual-wavelength excitation; energy conversion; nanorods

Upconversion is an optical process that combines the energy from low energy photons to provide higher energy photon emission. It is typically more efficient than nonlinear harmonic generation, and so it is of interest for solar harvesting applications whereby photons that do not have sufficient energy to be absorbed can be converted into higher energy photons.^{(D1)-(D5)} Lanthanides have long-lived electronic excitations that can be used as intermediate states for upconversion. While having typically lower efficiency than bulk, lanthanide doped nanoparticles are well suited for simple processing and plasmon coupling schemes^{(D6)-(D15)} Beside rare-earth lanthanides, dye-sensitizers using triplet-triplet annihilation is another system that benefits from plasmonic enhancement.^{(D16),(D17)}

Most work has focused on 980 nm excitation of Yb sensitized Er; however, for the dominant silicon based solar cell technology, upconversion for wavelengths larger than the bandgap wavelength (>1100 nm) is desired.^{(D18)-(D22)} Several works have reported on ~1520 nm upconversion of Er for emission at 980, 808, 655, 544 nm.^{(D23)-(D27)} This has the disadvantage of harvesting only a small part of the IR solar spectrum. There is also the interesting possibility of sequential absorption of a 1520 nm photon from I_{15/2}

– $I_{13/2}$ followed by a 1210 nm photon from $I_{13/2} \rightarrow F_{9/2}$ and subsequent upconversion. We have found only one work where an analogous 1130 nm + 1500 nm barium vapor laser was used to achieve this sequential excitation and upconversion of Er doped fluorzirconate in a preform.^(D28) The excitation at 1130 nm is not ideal, however, since it is in the minimum of the solar excitation spectrum.

Figure D1 shows the solar spectrum and the sequential excitation and upconversion emission scheme of interest for dual wavelength upconversion. For Silicon solar cells, currently operating above 26% efficiency,^{(D29)–(D31)} additional upconverted photons may provide (albeit extremely modest) additional energy close to the bandedge by enhancing the 980 nm transition. This preferential enhancement will provide less heating in the bulk of the solar cell. For GaAs solar cells, currently operating close to 28.8% efficiency,^{(D31),(D32)} 980 nm photons are not absorbed, and so selective emission of 808 nm upconverted photons is desired. Plasmonic enhanced upconversion is one of the most promising schemes for selecting the excitation and emission wavelengths.^{(D33)–(D42)}

In this work, we provide a proof-of-principle demonstration of dual-wavelength excitation and plasmon-enhanced selective emission from Er doped nanoparticles. We first characterize the Er doped nanoparticles in solution and then drop-coated on glass and gold. Then we drop coat different resonance gold nanorods for selectively enhanced emission.

Figure D2 shows the upconversion emission spectrum of the Er doped nanoparticles in hexane solution with excitation at >1200 nm. The emission peaks of interest are around 980 nm and 808 nm, since these lie just below the bandedge wavelengths for Si and for GaAs.

Figure D3 shows the emission intensity at the 808 nm and 980 nm peaks for selective excitation. The selective excitation was achieved by filtering the excitation from a supercontinuum source. The intensity of the source was 0.4 W/cm^2 and the density

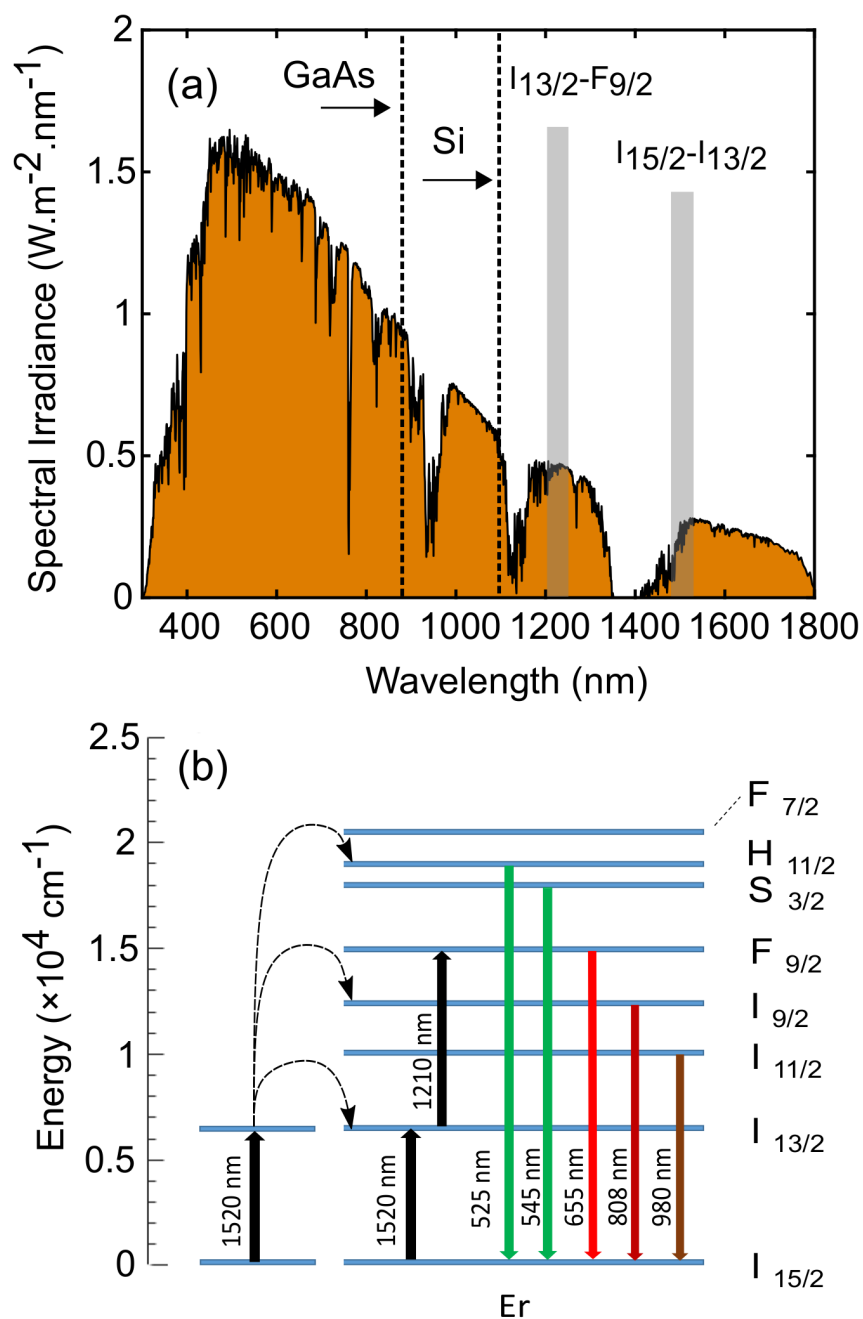


Figure D1: (a) AM 1.5 solar spectrum with IR absorption bands of Erbium shown in grey and band-edges of Si and GaAs shown with vertical dashed lines. (b) Energy diagram for Erbium showing upconversion fluorescence for pumping at 1520 nm, and dual pumping at 1520 nm + 1210 nm.

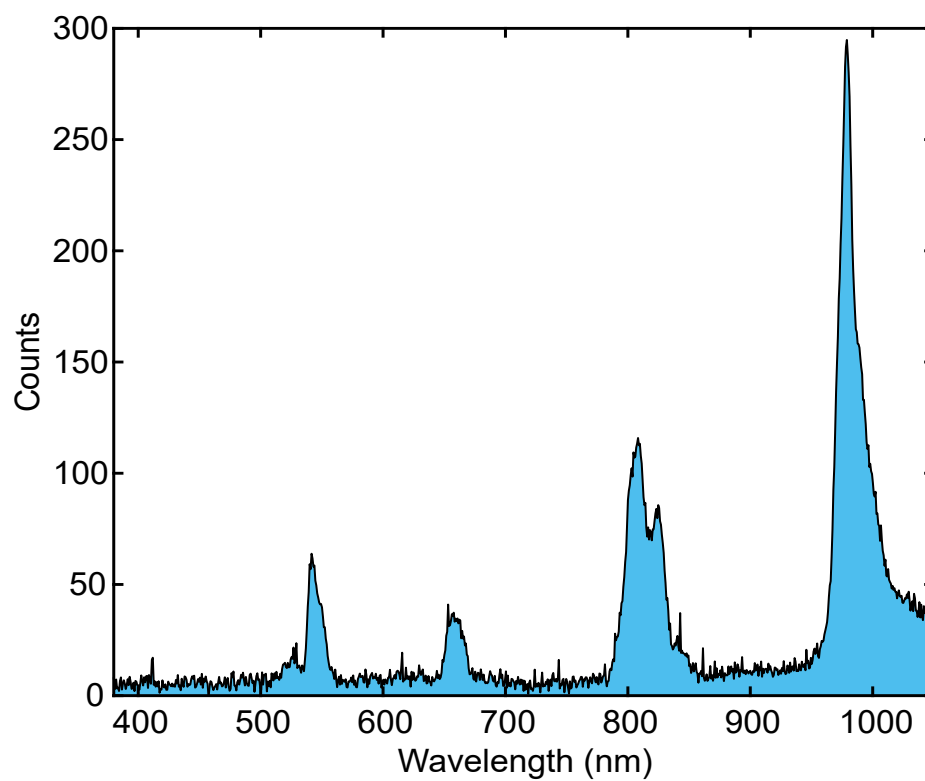


Figure D2: Upconversion emission spectrum of Er doped nanoparticles in hexane pumped with supercontinuum source >1200 nm wavelength.

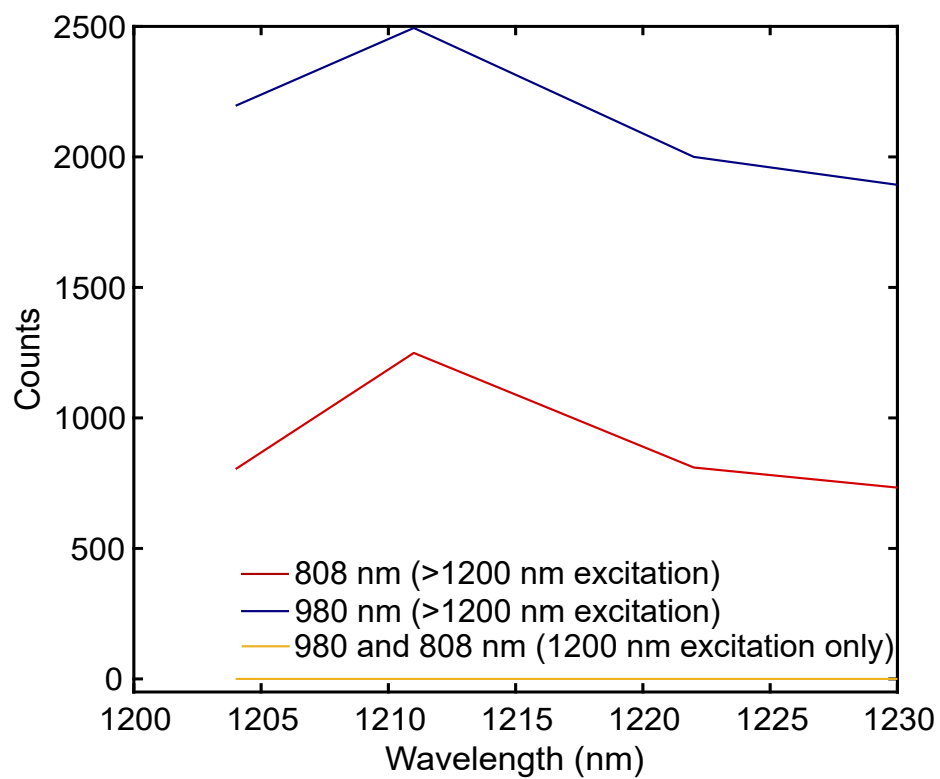


Figure D3: Emission at 808 nm and 980 nm when tuning the ~ 1200 nm excitation for the cases of simultaneous 1520 nm excitation and no 1520 nm excitation.

of Er doped nanoparticles in hexane was 14 mg/ml. Upconversion is not observable without 1520 nm excitation. Figure D3 shows upconversion emissions of 980 nm and 808 nm is increased by adding 1210 nm excitation. The >1200 nm excitation shows greater emission than the >1500 nm excitation alone. This shows that sequential absorption at 1520 nm and then 1210 nm is required to observe enhanced upconversion as shown in the scheme of Figure D1(b). Without the 1520 nm excitation, none of the 1210 nm photons can be harvested in the upconversion scheme. (Due to the low resolution of the prism selection of excitation, an absorption bandwidth of ~ 10 nm is estimated around 1210 nm).

Figure D4 shows the power dependence for the excitation at 1520 nm and for >1200 nm (broadband). The >1500 nm excitation shows an approximately linear power dependence, whereas the >1200 nm excitation has an exponent between 2 and 3. The exponent between 2 and 3 supports that this is a multi-stage process.^(D43) The linear slope for the >1500 nm excitation in Figure D4(a) suggests that the process is limited by an energy transfer step.

For one sun power density at 1210 nm and 1520 nm with 20 nm bandwidths, the accumulative power density is 0.0014 W/cm^2 . With total power of 0.4 W/cm^2 for 1200-1600 nm excitation, the applied power density is 0.04 W/cm^2 for only 1200-1220 nm and 1510-1530 nm ranges. This shows our pump has approximately 28 times the sun power in that range. It is possible to increase the power via solar concentrators and have more energy harvesting of the 1210 nm and 1520 nm bands. Saturation occurs when the upconversion emission changes from a second order to a first order power dependence.^(D44) Due to the fact that saturation for Er doped nanoparticles for 980 nm excitation happens in the range of $100\text{-}200 \text{ W/cm}^2$ power density,^(D45) the applied power density in this investigation is far from saturation. Based on these findings, we believe that adding nanorods with resonances at 1210 nm and 1520 nm may provide additional near-field solar concentration and enable practical application

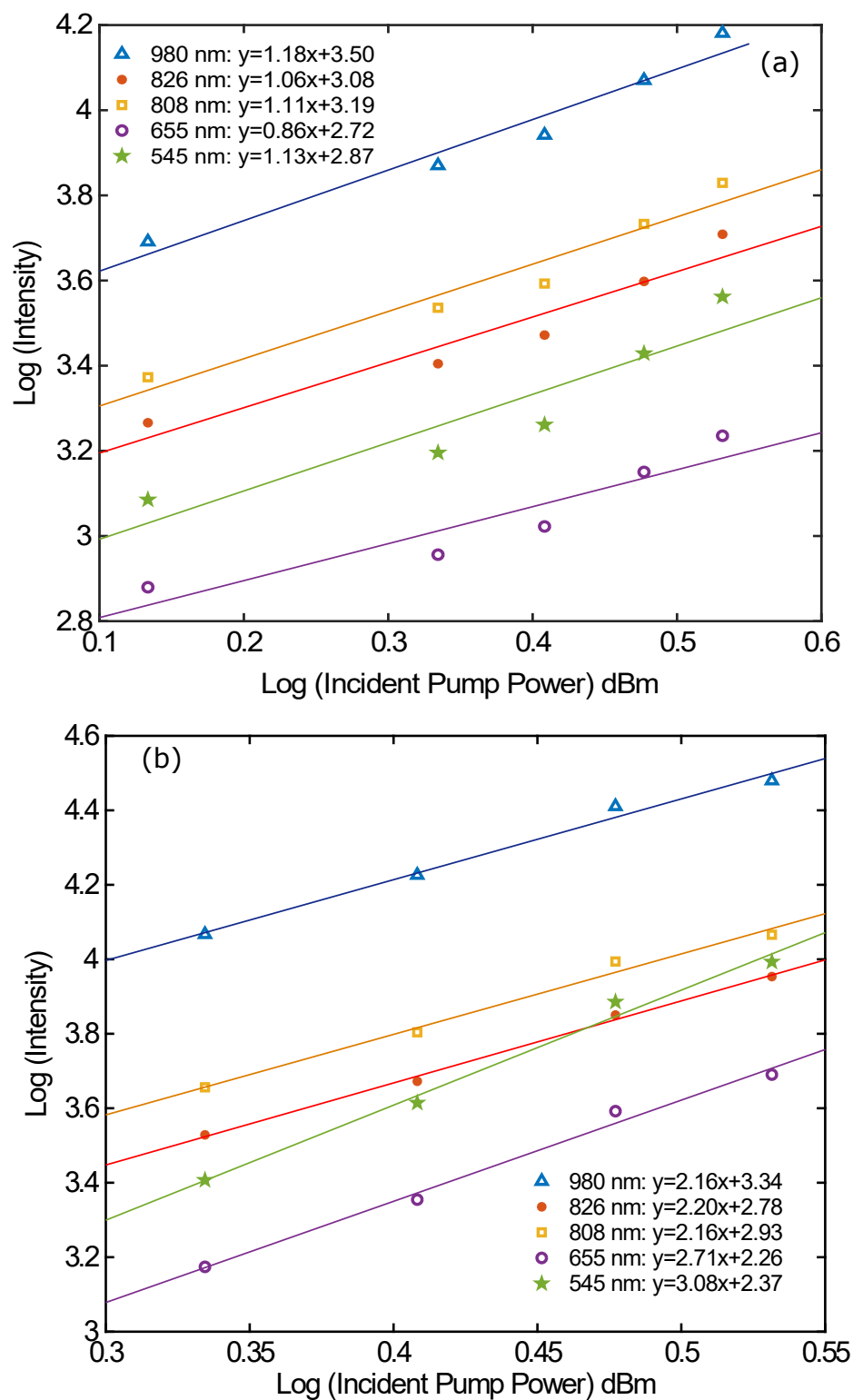


Figure D4: Power dependence of different emission bands for excitation wavelengths (a) 1520 nm, and (b) >1200 nm. Incident laser is 1 mm diameter.

of this scheme for enhancing solar cell performance.

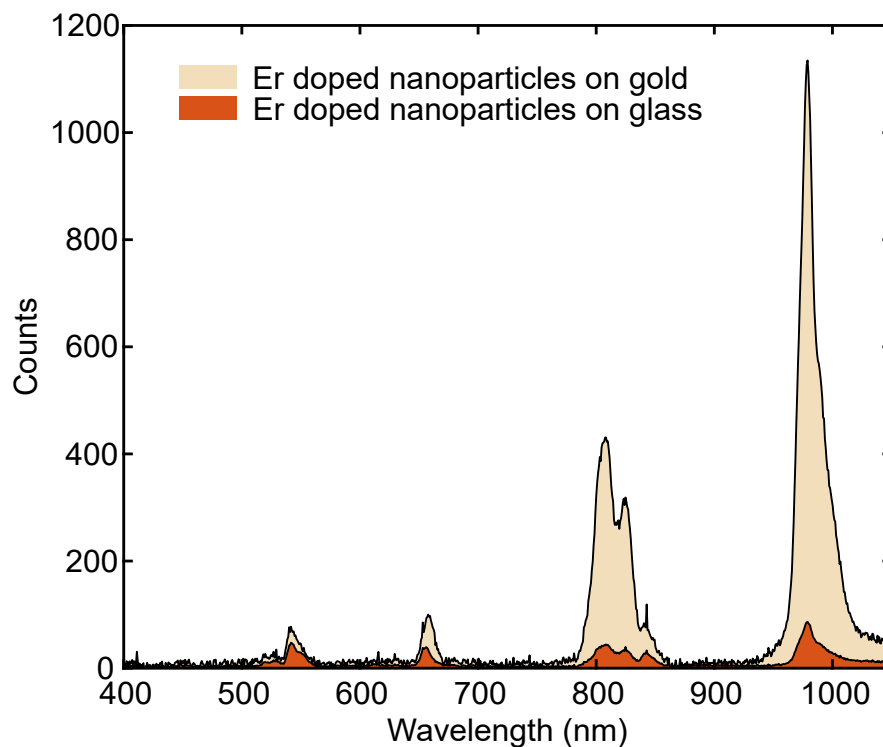


Figure D5: Increase in upconversion emission when drop coating on gold as compared with glass.

Figure D5 shows the spectra for the Er doped nanoparticles drop coated on glass and on gold for excitation >1200 nm. The gold enhances the upconverted emission by approximately doubling the local magnetic field at the surface and reflecting photons that would have been emitted preferentially into the glass substrate.^{(D46)–(D50)} The 980 nm emission increased by a factor of 13 when drop-coating on gold as compared to on glass.

Figure D6 shows additional plasmonic enhanced upconversion when nanorods are drop-coated on top Er doped nanoparticles. Both 808 nm (E12-25-808-NPO-HEX-50, NanoPartz) and 980 nm nanorods (E12-25-980-NPO-HEX-50, NanoPartz) were used. The 980 nm nanorods selectively enhanced emission from the 980 nm band and the 808 nm Er doped nanoparticles selectively enhanced emission from the 808 nm band. (We also studied only >1500 nm excitation, and the reduction in emission is

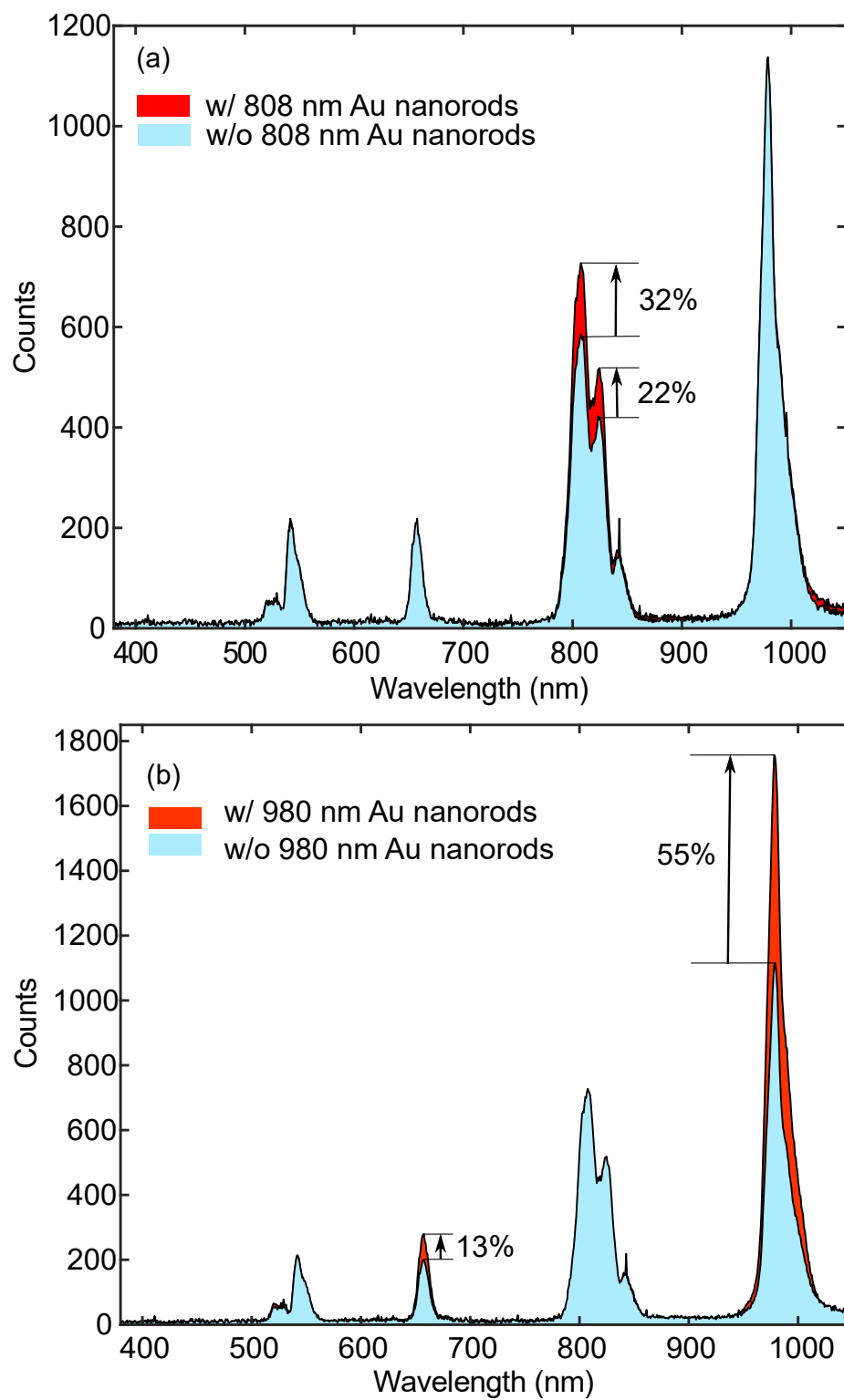


Figure D6: (a) Enhanced upconversion at 808 nm when using 808 nm nanorods. (b) Enhanced upconversion at 980 nm when using 980 nm nanorods.

similar to found in solution of Fig. D2, so not presented here). In Figure D6(b), the enhancement at 980 nm is 55% with none shown at 808 nm. Detailed permutations were not attempted. We did, however, try one additional run in which the nanorod density was increased by a factor of four and the enhancement doubled for emission at 980 nm. There is a moderate enhancement at 655 nm which is interesting because the nanorods do not show a plasmonic resonance in the extinction spectrum for that wavelength. We have investigated this further by finite-difference time-domain simulation and found that there is a dark mode plasmonic resonance at that wavelength (see Supporting Information).

The nanorods have little influence for the excitation beam because the incident wavelength range is greater than 10 times the size of the nanorods (well into the Rayleigh regime) and also well away from the plasmonic resonance. Therefore, the main function of the nanorods is to selectively enhance the emission rate at the plasmonic resonance. There is also expected to be some enhancement in the outward scattering and absorption by the nanorods themselves. The relative contributions of these different factors will require more precise control of the relative placement of the nanorods and the Er doped nanoparticles. The present scheme merely identifies that there is plasmon selective enhancement of the detected emission. We note that the ratio of Er doped nanoparticles to nanorods is $\sim 15000:1$; therefore, we expect that most of the Er doped nanoparticles are not in the vicinity of the plasmon hotspot. Controlled placement of the Er doped nanoparticles is required to fully quantify the plasmonic enhancement.^{(D51)–(D57)}

In addition, it is possible to consider adding plasmonic resonances at 1520 nm and 1210 nm to enhance the absorption processes. We note that Figure D4 shows we are not in the saturated regime for either of the excitation bands, and therefore greater conversion efficiency is expected by enhancing the absorption efficiency at those wavelengths as well. We also observe a small amount of blue upconversion

(see Supporting Information); however, this is weak because we are not in the strong excitation regime and blue upconversion requires four photon absorption at 1520 nm.

In conclusion, we have investigated dual-band upconversion that uses two of the IR solar bands at 1210 nm and 1520 nm by sequential absorption. We demonstrated that nanorods could be used to selectively enhance the upconverted wavelengths of 980 nm and 808 nm, which is of interest to silicon and GaAs solar cell technologies. In the present scheme, we have not optimized the coupling of the plasmonic resonance to the Er doped nanoparticles, and further work is required to quantify this effect to determine whether it can provide significant benefit for solar harvesting applications. It is interesting to use this upconversion scheme because the harvested bands are outside of the region of the usual silicon solar cells, and so the upconverting material with plasmonic enhancement may be placed at the back electrode of the solar cell without degrading in-band incident photons before they interact with the absorbing region.

Experimental Methods

NaYF₄: 2% Er Chemicals

Yttrium(III) chloride hexahydrate (99.99%), erbium(III) chloride hexahydrate (99.995%), ammonium fluoride (99.99%), tech grade oleic acid (90%), tech grade 1-octadecene (90%), and hexanes were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Anhydrous ethanol from Commercial Alcohols, methanol from Caledon, and sodium hydroxide from Bio Basic Canada inc. were used. All chemicals were used as received.

Synthesis

A synthesis was adapted from a previously reported procedure.^(D58) In a 100 mL three-neck round-bottom flask, 300 mg YCl₃·(H₂O)₆ and 8 mg ErCl₃·(H₂O)₆ are

added to 15 mL 1-octadecene and 6 mL oleic acid. The mixture was heated to 160 °C under vacuum and kept at that temperature for 30 minutes before cooling to room temperature. Once cooled, a solution of 100 mg sodium hydroxide and 148 mg ammonium fluoride in 10 mL methanol is added dropwise while stirring. The mixture was heated to 70 °C for 60 minutes to evaporate the methanol. The mixture was put under a blanket of argon and the temperature was raised to 300 °C over 15 minutes. The temperature was kept between 295 and 305 °C for 60 minutes. The reaction mixture was then cooled, washed with 20 mL ethanol, centrifuged at 1800 g for 10 min, and washed with 20 mL ethanol again before dispersing the particles in 20 mL hexane. We have performed X-ray diffraction and transmission electron microscope for the characterization of Er doped nanoparticles, as detailed in the Supporting Information.

Measurements

For the solution-based measurements 14.4 mg/mL Er doped nanoparticles in hexane were placed in a quartz cuvette and illuminated with supercontinuum source (Fianium SC400). The maximum integrated intensity of the source was 0.4 W/cm². A prism and slit, neutral density filter (NE10A, Thorlabs) as well as bandpass filter (FEL 1200, Thorlabs) were used to select desired bands of excitation. The excitation spectrum was measured with a fiber-based near-IR spectrometer (Ocean Optics NIR512). The emission spectrum was measured with a fiber-based spectrometer (Ocean Optics QE65000) with ten seconds integration. A 2.3 cm focal length lens was used for coupling to the spectrometer. For the substrate-based measurements, 8 drops of 8 μ L were dropped on microslides (LAB-033, Bio Nuclear Diagnostics) and gold-on-glass (EMF CA134), allowing to dry between each drop. For the 808 nm gold nanorods in hexane (E12-25-808-NPO-HEX-50, Nanopartz), or 980 nm gold nanorods in hexane (E12-25-980-NPO-HEX-50, Nanopartz) were drop-coated after the first four drops

of Er doped nanoparticles, and this was followed with 4 more drops of Er doped nanoparticles. Gentle mixing on the surface was performed after each drop. Detailed permutations were not attempted.

Associated content

Supporting Information

Er doped nanoparticles X-ray diffraction characterization, Er doped nanoparticles transmission electron microscope, size distribution of Er doped nanoparticles, spectrum of upconversion emission at 411 nm, finite difference time domain modeling for electrical field intensity around gold nanorods.

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Author Contributions

M.S.S. prepared and measured the samples. A.K. and A.A. assisted in the measurements. A.L.F. synthesized and characterized the nanoparticles under the supervision of F.v.V. R.G. supervised the project, providing ideas and facilities and performed the simulations. All authors contributed to writing the manuscript.

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Note

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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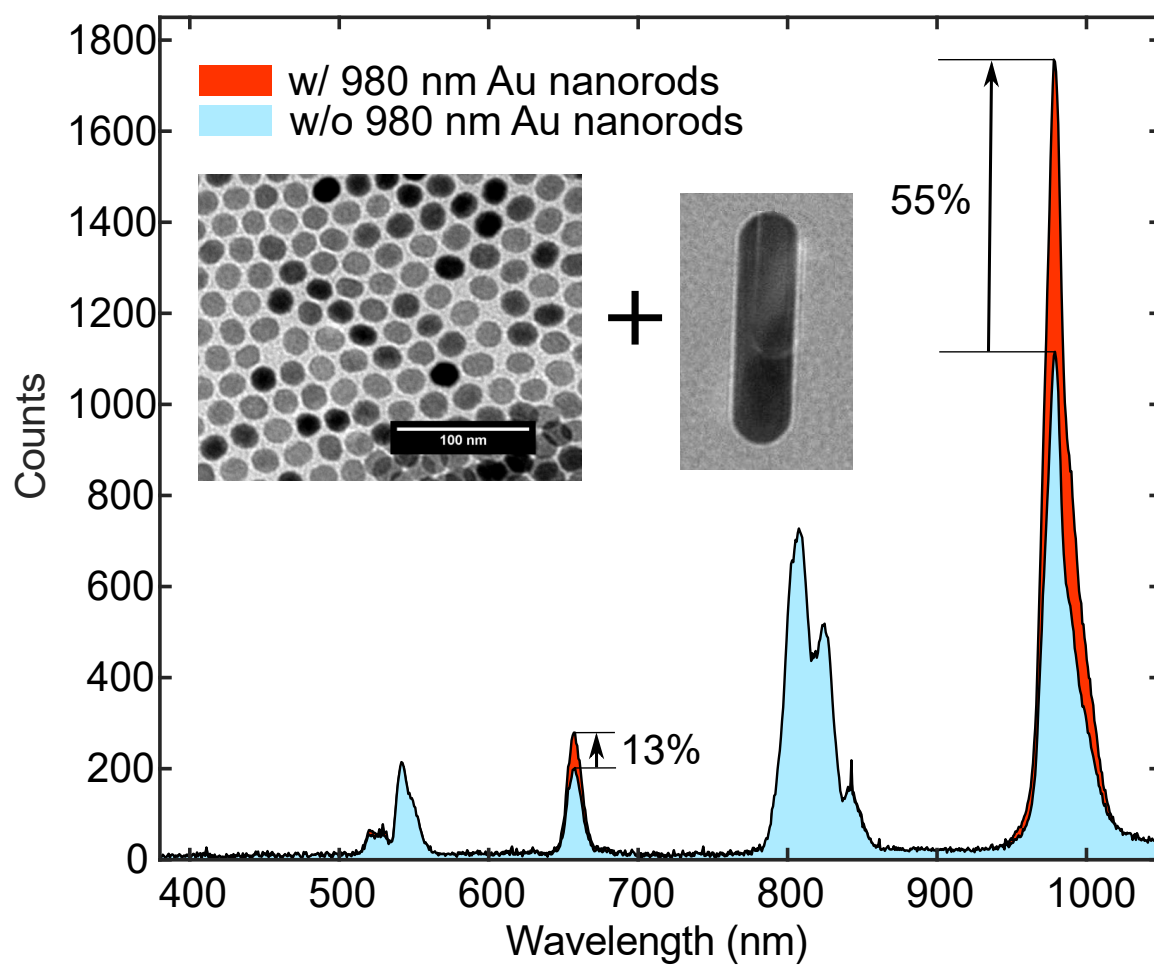


Table of contents figure: Dual band (1210 nm and 1520 nm) wavelength absorption of upconverting nanoparticles enhanced by plasmonic nanorods selectively for emission at 980 nm and 808 nm. TEM figure of nanorod provided by Nanopartz.

Supporting information for : Harvesting dual-wavelength excitation with plasmon-enhanced emission from upconverting nanoparticles

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Figure D-S1 shows X-ray diffraction for phase analysis and confirmation of NaYF₄: 2% in nano particles. X-ray diffractograms with a resolution of $0.0263^\circ/\text{irc}2\theta$ were collected using a PANalytical Empyrean X-ray System with a Cu source ($K\alpha$ radiation,

$\lambda = 1.54060 \text{ \AA}$) operating at 45 kV and 40 mA.

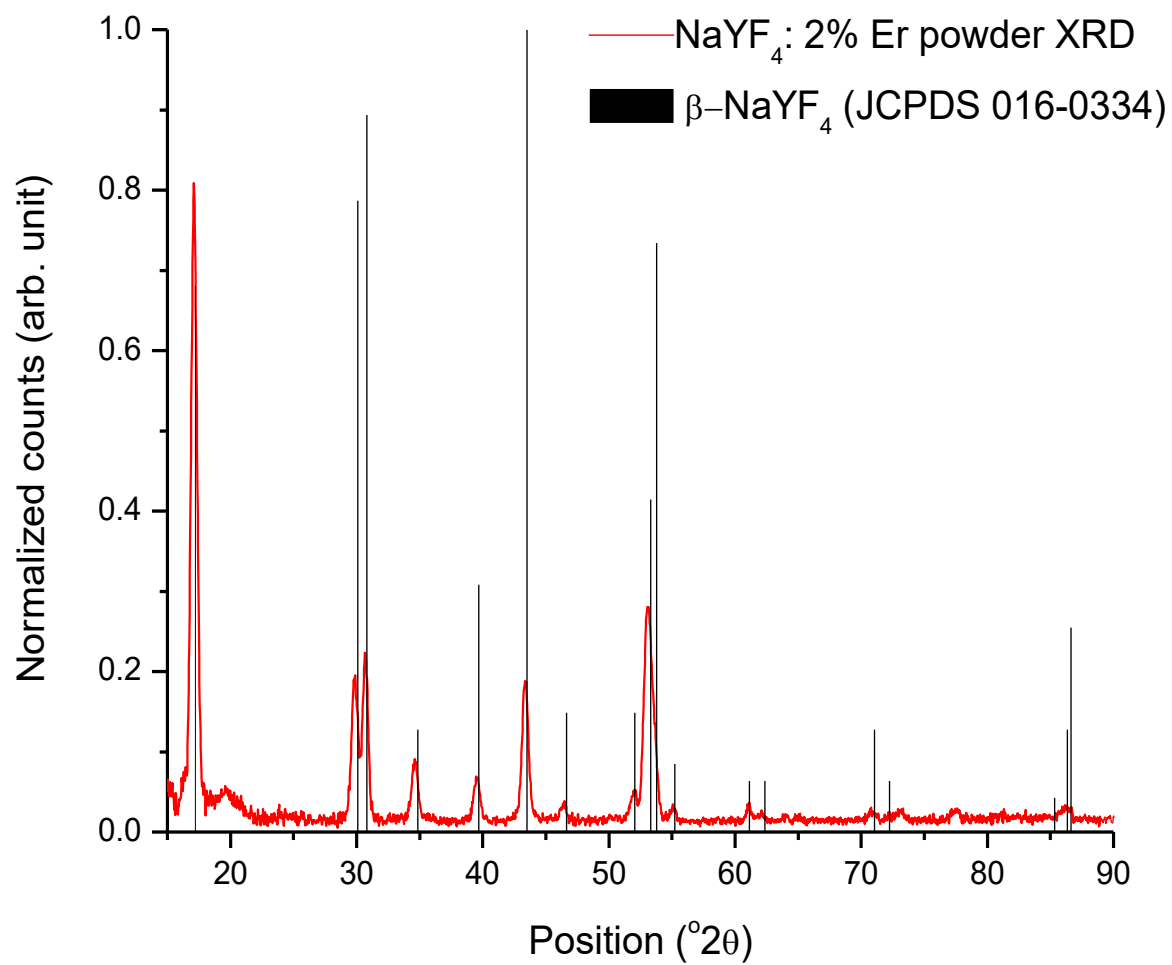


Figure D-S1: Experimental x-ray diffractogram of NaYF₄: 2% Er NPs and a reference pattern of hexagonal NaYF₄

Figure D-S2 depicts transmission electron microscopy of the spherical NaYF₄: 2% Er upconverting nano particles under 250k times magnification. Transmission electron microscopy images were obtained using a JEOL JEM-1400 microscope operating at 80 kV. Hexane dispersions of the NPs were drop-cast on a Formvar carbon-coated grid (300 mesh Cu) and air-dried before imaging.

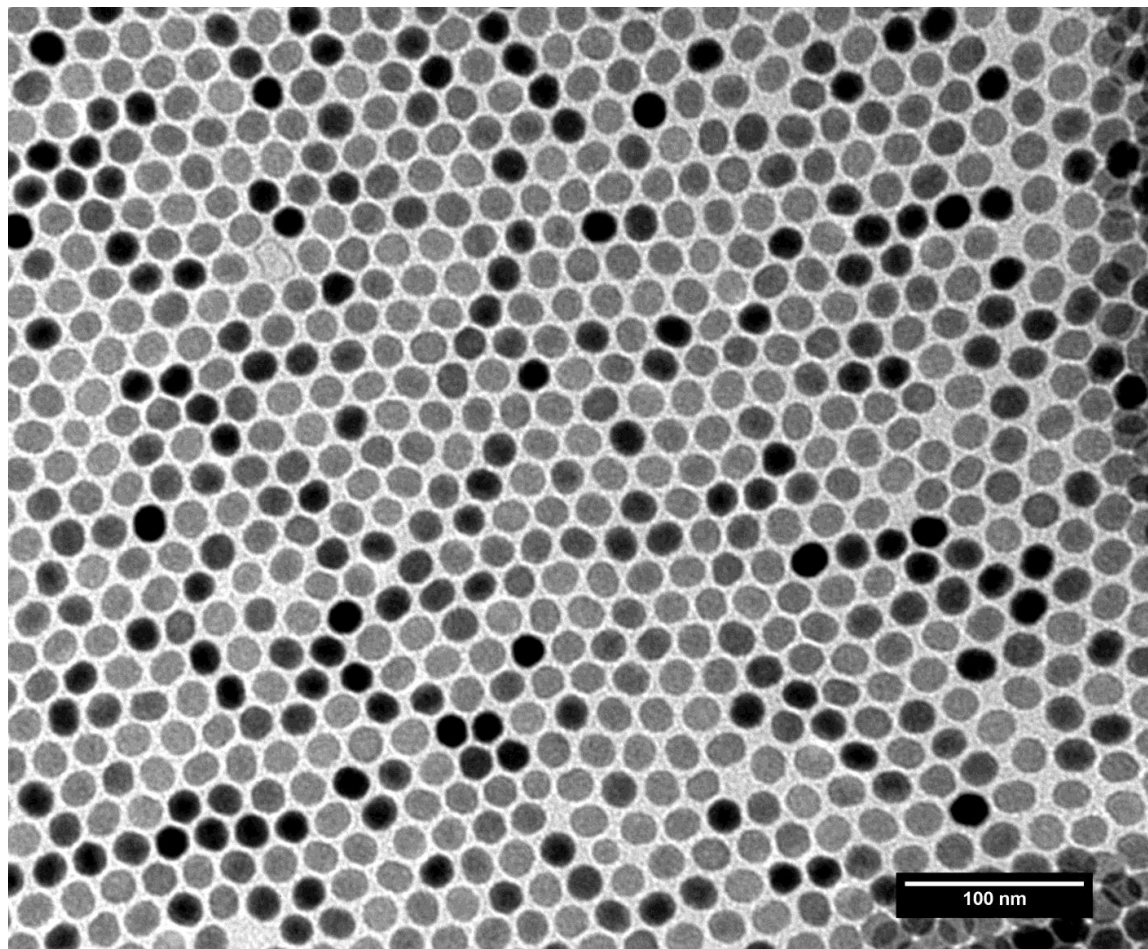


Figure D-S2: Representative TEM image of NaYF₄: 2% Er nanoparticles magnified 250k times.

Figure D-S3 illustrates UCNPs size distribution in hexane. Size analysis of NCs from the images was performed by measuring the surface area of at least 800 particles.

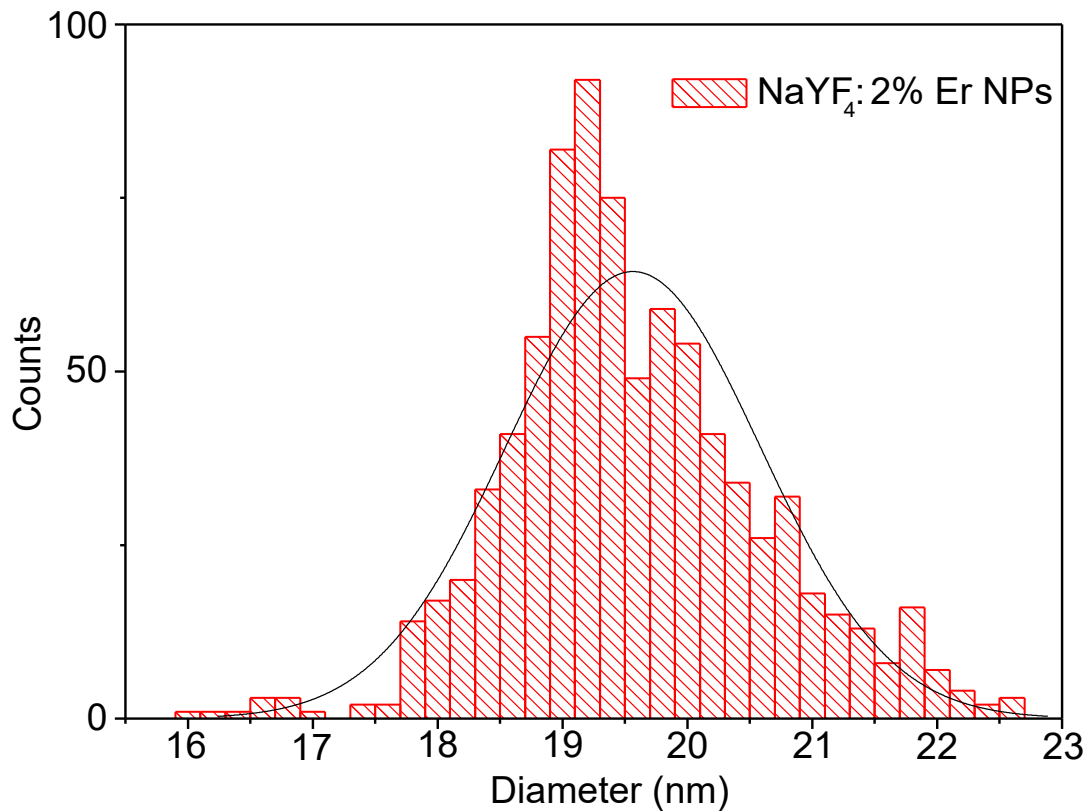


Figure D-S3: Size distribution of measured NaYF₄: 2% Er NPs with a mean diameter of 19.56 nm and standard deviation 1.02 nm.

Figure D-S4 depicts weak peak around 410 nm for Er UCNPs while they were drop casted on the gold surface, since the intensity of this peak is low in comparison to other peaks considering Er energy states as well we can conclude that four photon upconversion process happened. Due to low pump power for four photon upconversion process the detected peak has very low intensity.

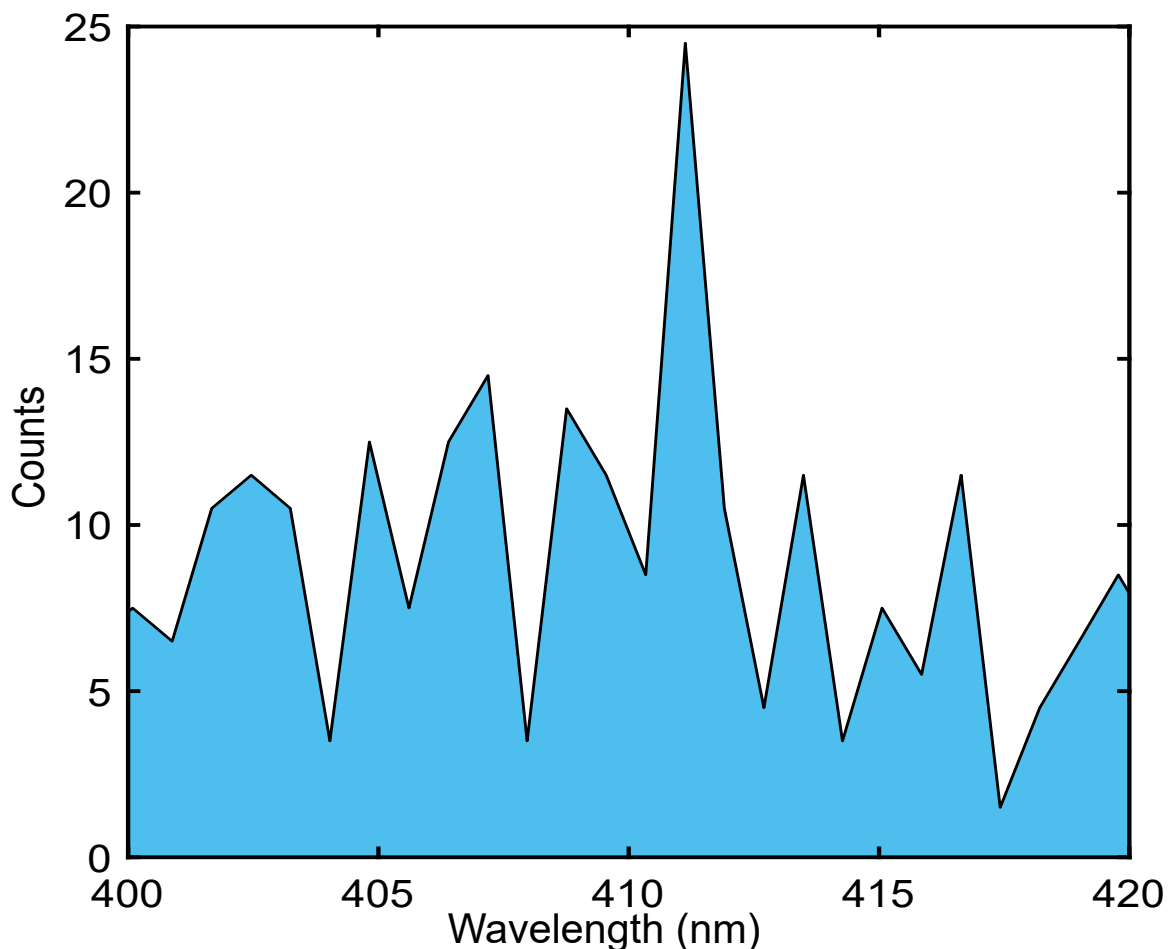


Figure D-S4: Weak upconversion emission at 411 nm.

Figure D-S5 shows the 3D simulation of a gold nanorod using finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) analysis, Lumerical Solutions Inc., release 2017b, version 8.18.1365. Uniform mesh type with staircase mesh refinement was chosen. The mesh size was set to 1 nm in x, y, and z directions. The FDTD simulation region had a length of 0.1 μm in the x direction, 0.2 μm in the y direction, and 0.1 μm in the z direction with PML boundary conditions. The field monitor geometry was 2D-Z normal with dimensions

$0.1 \mu\text{m} \times 0.15 \mu\text{m}$. We used an electric dipole source with wavelength range from 400 to 1100 nm, located 70 nm away from the tip of the gold nanorod. The monitor collected the data for 100 wavelength points at the other side of the nanorod. The time stability factor was 0.99 and auto shutoff condition was 1×10^5 . The field is enhanced at 658 nm and 994 nm, and significantly less so at 812 nm. The peak of the dark mode resonance of 980 nm gold nanorods occurs at 658 nm and it has a full width at half maximum of 45 nm. Therefore, the 655 nm emission band occurs inside this resonance region

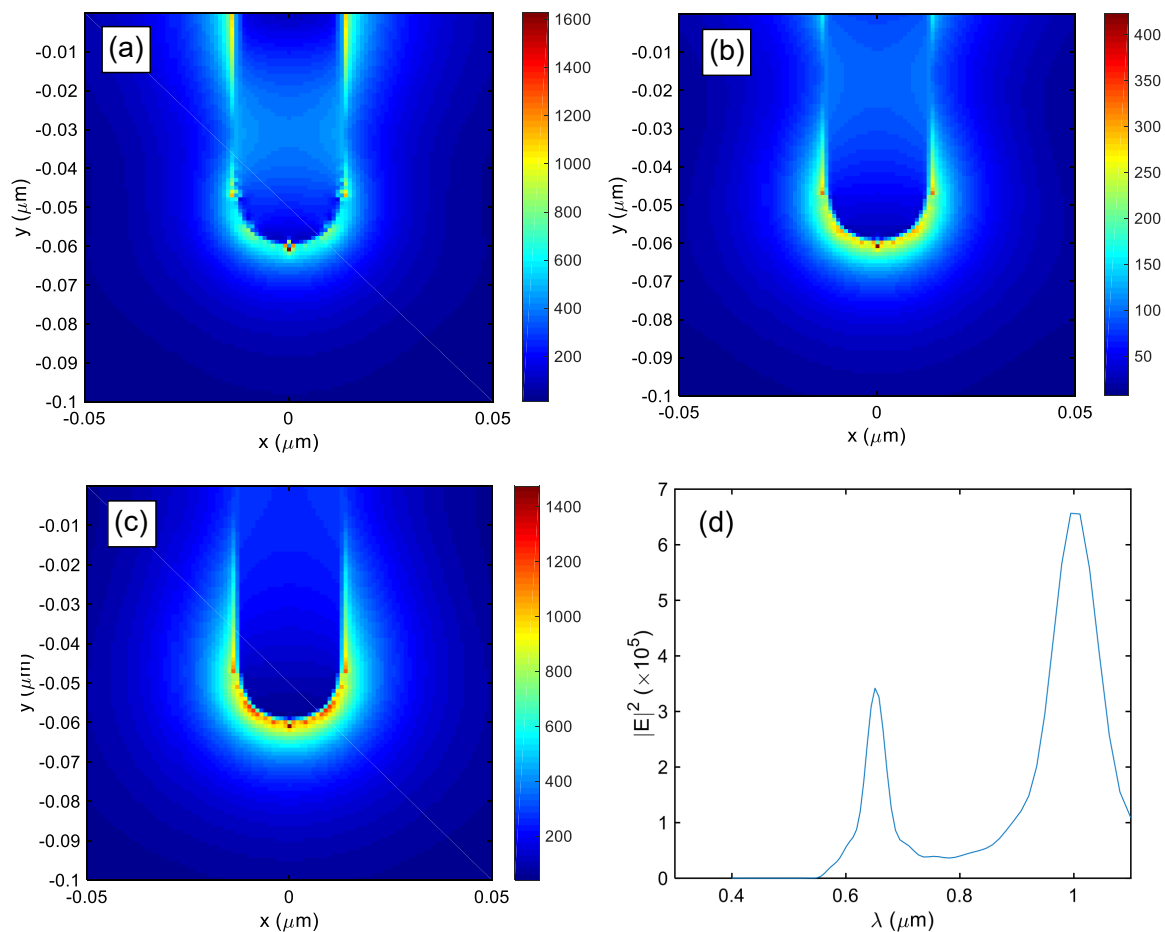


Figure D-S5: Finite differential time domain modeling for electrical field of gold nanorods in (a): 658 nm, (b): 812 nm, (c): 994 nm, (d): field enhancement close to gold nanorods in 300-1100 nm spectrum.