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Mohamed ElKabbash, Ermanno Miele, Ahmad K. Fumani, Michael S. Wolf, Angelo Bozzola, Elisha Haber, Tigran V. Shahbazyan, Jesse Berezovsky, Francesco De Angelis, and Giuseppe Strangi

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# 1 Cooperative Energy Transfer Controls the Spontaneous Emission Rate

## 2 Beyond Field Enhancement Limits

3 Mohamed ElKabbash<sup>1\*</sup>, Ermanno Miele<sup>1, 2</sup>, Ahmad K. Fumani<sup>1</sup>, Michael S. Wolf<sup>1</sup>, Angelo Bozzola<sup>2</sup>,  
4 Elisha Haber<sup>1</sup>, Tigran V. Shahbazyan<sup>3</sup>, Jesse Berezovsky<sup>1</sup>, Francesco De Angelis<sup>2</sup>, Giuseppe Strangi<sup>1,2,4\*</sup>.

5 <sup>1</sup> Department of Physics, Case Western Reserve University, 10600 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio  
6 44106, USA.

7 <sup>2</sup> IIT - Istituto Italiano di Tecnologia, via Morego 30, 16163 Genova, Italy.

8 <sup>3</sup> Department of Physics, Jackson State University, Jackson, Mississippi 39217, USA.

9 <sup>4</sup> CNR-NANOTEC, Istituto di Nanotecnologia and Department of Physics, University of Calabria, Italy.

10 \*Correspondence authors E-mail: [mke23@case.edu](mailto:mke23@case.edu), [gxs284@case.edu](mailto:gxs284@case.edu).

11 **Quantum emitters located in proximity to a metal nanostructure individually transfer their**  
12 **energy via near-field excitation of surface plasmons. The energy transfer process increases**  
13 **the spontaneous emission (SE) rate due to plasmon-enhanced local field. Here, we**  
14 **demonstrate significant acceleration of quantum emitter SE rate in a plasmonic nano-**  
15 **cavity due to cooperative energy transfer (CET) from plasmon-correlated emitters. Using**  
16 **an integrated plasmonic nano-cavity, we realize up to six-fold enhancement in the emission**  
17 **rate of emitters coupled to the same nano-cavity on top of the plasmonic enhancement of**  
18 **the local density of states. The radiated power spectrum retains the plasmon resonance**  
19 **central frequency and line-shape, with the peak amplitude proportional to the number of**  
20 **excited emitters indicating that the observed cooperative SE is distinct from super-**  
21 **radiance. Plasmon-assisted CET offers unprecedented control over the SE rate and allows**

22 **to dynamically control the spontaneous emission rate at room temperature which can**  
23 **enable SE rate based optical modulators.**

24 Ordinary fluorescence arises from the decay of excited quantum emitters (QEs) to lower energy  
25 states by SE where QEs interact independently with the radiation field. This interaction can be  
26 controlled by modifying the emitter's electromagnetic environment. The SE rate is directly  
27 proportional to the electromagnetic local density of states (LDOS) [1-3], i.e., the number of  
28 electromagnetic modes available for the emitter to radiate into per unit volume and frequency  
29 interval. LDOS can be modified by, e.g., placing an emitter inside a cavity. Cavity enhanced SE  
30 rate is proportional to the ratio of cavity quality factor  $Q$  to modal volume  $V$ , known as the  
31 Purcell effect [3] . The emitters' SE rate has been significantly enhanced using plasmonic  
32 nanocavities (PNCs) supporting localized surface plasmon (LSP) modes [2-5]. The LDOS  
33 enhancement in a PNC results from strong field confinement within small plasmon mode  
34 volume, so a QE transfers its energy to a resonant plasmon mode with an energy transfer rate  
35  $\Gamma^{ET}$  faster than the free-space SE rate (**Fig. 1a**). Subsequently, a PNC acts as an optical antenna  
36 radiating transferred energy with a significantly faster rate due to its large size and dipole  
37 moment [2,6]. Accordingly, following the excitation of a QE, the emission rate is proportional to  
38  $\Gamma^{ET}$ . However, the SE rate of an individual QE is restricted by ultimate limits on plasmonic field  
39 enhancement [7,8].

40 When an ensemble of QEs is coupled to a plasmonic structure, SE can be greatly accelerated by  
41 cooperative effects arising from plasmon-assisted correlations between QEs. For example,  
42 interactions of QE with common radiation field enhanced by resonant Mie scattering are  
43 predicted to lead to plasmon-enhanced super-radiance characterized by SE rate proportional to  
44 the *full ensemble size* including both excited and ground-state QEs[9-13]. However, the

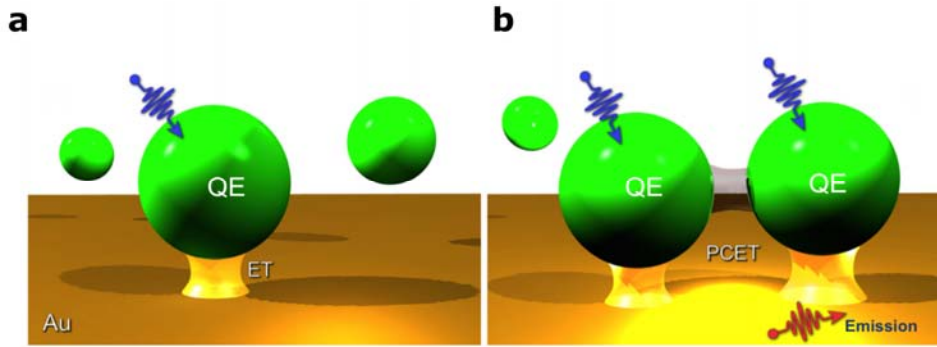
45 plasmonic enhancement of radiation coupling is offset by relatively strong absorption, compared  
46 to scattering, in small metal structures [10] , which inhibits coherence buildup that precedes  
47 super-radiance burst from incoherently excited emitters [14,15]. An observation of plasmon-  
48 enhanced super-radiance, accordingly, remains challenging [16].

49 Conversely, strong plasmon absorption may lead to another cooperative effect in a system of  $N$   
50 excited QEs coupled to a plasmonic resonator that does *not* require coherence buildup between  
51 excited QEs [17,18]. If plasmon frequency is tuned to resonance with QEs emission frequency,  
52 the indirect plasmonic coupling between QEs gives rise to collective states that transfer their  
53 energy to a plasmon *cooperatively* at a rate  $\Gamma_c^{ET} = \sum_i^N \Gamma_i^{ET}$  where  $\Gamma_i^{ET}$  is the energy transfer rate  
54 of individual QEs (**Fig. 1b**). Note that the Förster resonance energy transfer rate from QEs to a  
55 plasmon is determined by the spectral overlap between the donor (QE) emission band and the  
56 acceptor (plasmon) absorption band [19]. Since the plasmon spectral band is broader than that of  
57 QEs, the cooperative energy transfer (CET) rate is relatively insensitive, in contrast to super-  
58 radiance [20,21], to natural variations of QEs emission frequencies, e.g., due to direct dipole  
59 coupling. Following CET to a plasmon mode, the possible energy flow pathways include (i)  
60 energy transfer from PNC to QEs, (ii) energy dissipation within PNC through Ohmic losses, and  
61 (iii) PNC antenna radiation. If the antenna's radiation efficiency is high, while the overlap  
62 between QEs' emission and absorption bands is relatively weak, the energy is mainly radiated  
63 away at approximately rate  $\Gamma_c^{ET}$ . Note that the values of individual rates  $\Gamma_i^{ET}$  are determined by  
64 the plasmon LDOS at the QEs' positions and can vary significantly depending on the system  
65 geometry [18,19]. However, if the LDOS does not change significantly in the region where QEs  
66 are distributed,  $\Gamma_i^{ET}$  are all comparable and the cooperative rate  $\Gamma_c^{ET}$  scales *linearly with the*

67 *number of excited emitters ( $N$ ), hence the excitation power.* Accordingly, the ensemble SE  
68 mediated by CET to plasmonic antenna can be controlled directly by the excitation power.

69 Here, we report the experimental observation of a cooperative SE from an ensemble of  $N$  excited  
70 QEs resonantly coupled to a PNC acting as a plasmonic antenna. We observe up to six-fold  
71 increase of the ensemble SE rate relative to the plasmonic LDOS enhancement which is linear in  
72 the excitation power. Simultaneously, the measured photoluminescence spectrum retains the  
73 plasmon resonance lineshape while the overall emission intensity increases linearly with the  
74 excitation power. These observations imply that the radiation is emitted by the plasmonic  
75 antenna following CET from excited QEs[17]. The linear dependence of the ensemble SE rate on  
76 the number of excited QEs (as opposed to total number of emitters [21-23]) has not been  
77 observed previously. Such dependence as well as the incoherent nature of CET  
78 mechanism[17,18] that does not require coherence buildup [14,15] , in contrast to super-  
79 radiance, provides a unique possibility for dynamically controlling the SE rate in the *same*  
80 electromagnetic environment by varying excitation power (*Supplementary Note 2.1*) . We  
81 experimentally exploit CET to dynamically control SE rate by modulating the excitation power,  
82 resulting in *reversible* increase and decrease of the SE rate at room temperature, which was only  
83 possible in previous works using complex photonic devices at cryogenic temperatures [24,25].  
84 The cooperative enhancement of the ensemble SE rate takes place on top of the plasmon LDOS  
85 enhancement for individual emitter's SE rate paving the way towards SE rate control beyond  
86 field enhancement limits [7,8]. This is important for short-distance optical communication, to  
87 increase the modulation rate [6], and for optical data storage [26].

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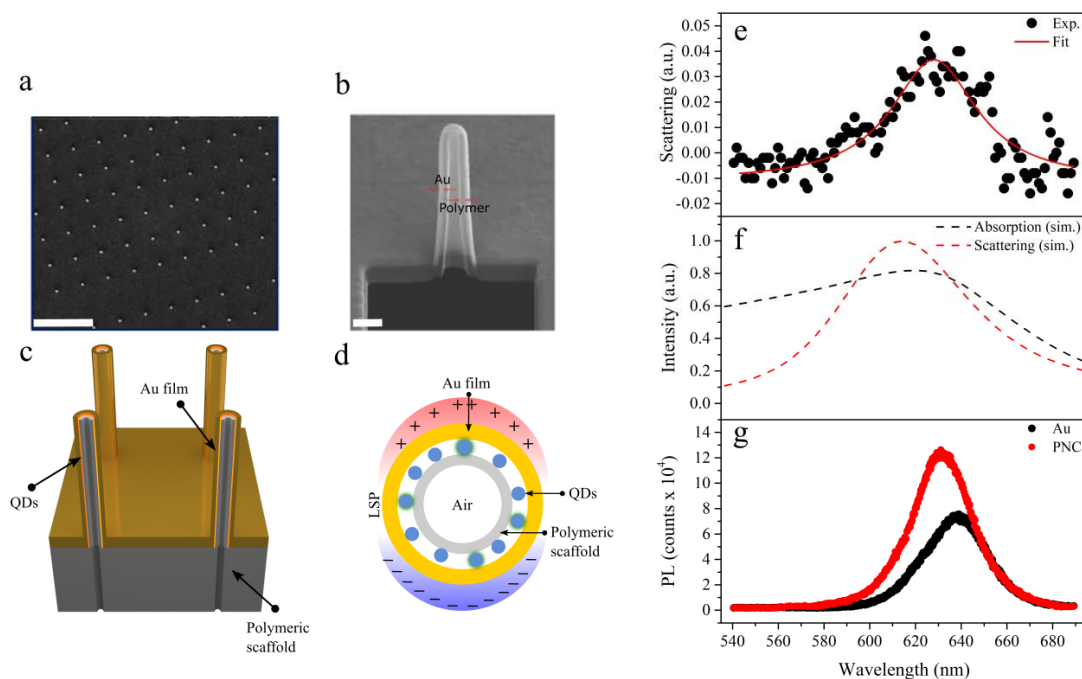


89

90 **Figure 1** | (a) An excited QE coupled to plasmonic resonator non-radiatively transfers its energy, at a rate  $\Gamma$  to the  
 91 plasmon mode, which radiates it away. (b) An ensemble of QEs coupled to a resonant plasmon mode transfer their  
 92 energy to it cooperatively at a rate  $N\Gamma$  that is the sum of individual rates[18].

93 To demonstrate the effect, we fabricated three dimensional hollow PNC [27,28] (*Supplementary*  
 94 *methods* [29]). **Fig. 2a** and **Fig. 2b** show SEM image of PNC array, and single PNC cross-  
 95 section, respectively. The PNCs are composed of a cylindrical polymeric scaffold, 20 nm thick  
 96 and 450 nm height, on which a 20nm gold layer was conformally deposited. The geometry of  
 97 the PNCs was chosen to ensure strong radiation directionality (*Supplementary information, Fig.*  
 98 **S2**). The radiation pattern from our PNC is highly directional and the large size of the PNC  
 99 increases the antenna radiative efficiency [4,6,30] to ensure that the major energy pathway  
 100 following energy transfer process is antenna radiation and that the collected photons are from  
 101 antenna radiation. CdSe/ZnS quantum dots (QDs) were spin-coated on the polymeric scaffold  
 102 onto which the plasmonic shell is formed (**Fig. 2c** and **2d**). We chose QDs as our QEs over, e.g.,  
 103 fluorophores, as they have larger dipole moments which increases non-radiative energy transfer  
 104 efficiency [5], and exhibit relatively weak absorption in the photoluminescence frequency range  
 105 to reduce reabsorption which is important to demonstrate CET (*Supplementary information, Fig.*  
 106 **S3**). The integrated PNC is designed such that QEs are at approximately the same distance away  
 107 from the plasmonic shell to excite LSPs with the same energy transfer rate, i.e.,  
 108 (**Fig. 2d**). This relation is robust even for large fluctuations in QEs positions since the LSP

109 electric field inside PNC is nearly uniform. The PNC measured (**Fig. 2e**) and calculated (**Fig. 2f**)  
 110 LSP resonance are in close agreement. To control for frivolous QD-metal interactions, we  
 111 prepared a reference sample where the QDs were spin-coated on an Au film. **Fig. 2g** compares  
 112 the QDs photoluminescence collected from a single PNC and from the reference sample with  
 113 excitation wavelength and intensity  $18.5 \text{ W/cm}^2$ . The photoluminescence maximum is  
 114 blue shifted from 638 nm (reference) to 631nm (PNC) towards the LSP resonance peak  
 115 ( $\sim 628\text{nm}$ ) [31]. The blue-shift in the photoluminescence maximum and the high directionality  
 116 and radiative efficiency of our PNC ensure that collected photoluminescence is mainly from the  
 117 nano-antenna due to excitation of LSPs[30,31] (*Supplementary information Fig. S4*).



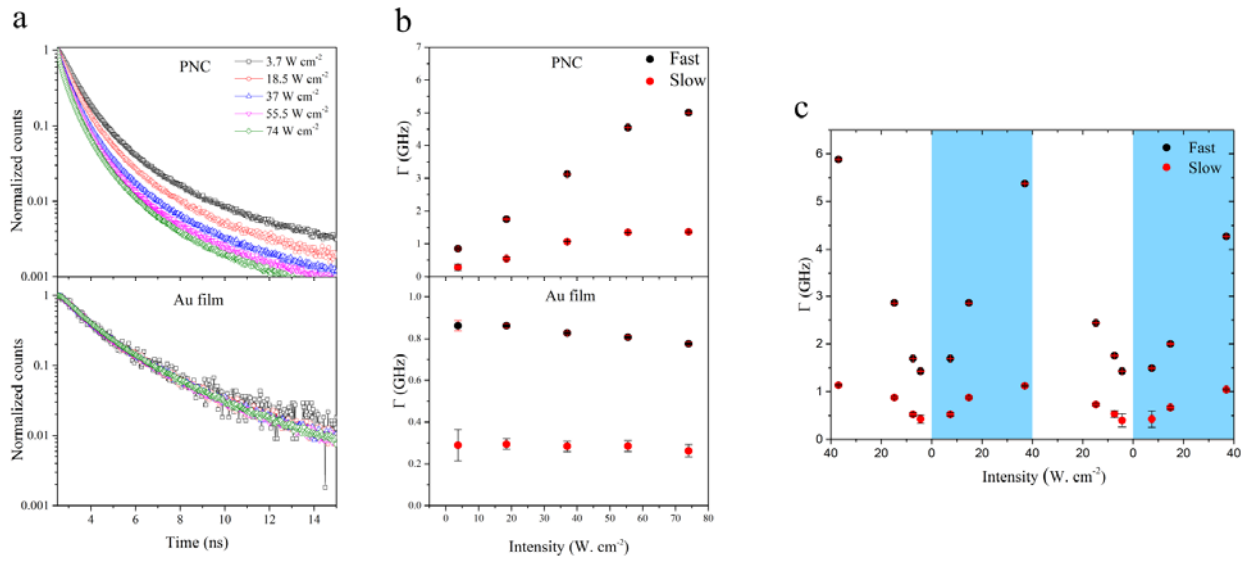
118  
 119 **Figure 2** | (a) SEM image of plasmonic nanocavity (PNC) array (scale bar= 5  $\mu\text{m}$ ). (b) SEM image of a cross-section  
 120 of a single PNC that was cut using focused ion beam FIB (scale bar = 100 nm). (c) Schematic of the nano-pillar  
 121 PNC. The quantum dots (QDs) are spin-coated on a polymeric scaffold, then an Au layer is deposited. (d) Schematic  
 122 of a cross-section of a single nanopillar. Incident light excites QDs that, subsequently, transfer their energy to excite  
 123 localized surface plasmons (LSPs) which decay into a photon. (e) Measured scattering for PNC array; the resonance  
 124 maximum was determined by fitting the data with a Lorentzian function. The measured resonance closely agrees  
 125 with the calculated absorption and scattering presented in (f). (g) Shows the photoluminescence of QDs spin coated  
 126 on an Au film vs. QDs incorporated in a single PNC.

127 **Figure 3a** shows the time-resolved photoluminescence from a single PNC and the reference Au  
128 film for different pump intensities ( $3.7 \text{ W/cm}^2$ -  $74 \text{ W/cm}^2$ ) and  $490 \text{ nm}$  excitation wavelength  
129 (*Supplementary Methods*). The reference sample measured lifetime shows no changes upon  
130 increasing the excitation intensity. Conversely, the PNC photoluminescence lifetime strongly  
131 depends on the excitation intensity. We fitted the photoluminescence decay curves with bi-  
132 exponential functions obtaining two characteristic decay times: a fast (slow) SE rate due to a  
133 short (long) living state, as shown in **Fig. 3b**. It is known that CdSe/ZnS quantum dots have fast  
134 and slow SE rate components (*Supplementary Note 2.5*, and **Fig. S5**)[32]. By increasing the  
135 pump intensity, the SE rates increased linearly up to six-fold for the PNCs, while no changes  
136 were measured for the Au film, as shown in **Fig. 3b**. This linear dependence of the SE rate on the  
137 excitation intensity, accompanied by linear increase of the photoluminescence, is a clear  
138 signature of a plasmon-mediated CET. It is important to note that the QDs in both the PNC and  
139 the reference samples are subjected to comparable excitation conditions (*Supplementary*  
140 *information, Fig. S6 and S7*)

141 The demonstrated dynamic control of QEs' SE rate in real time and at room temperature presents  
142 a significant challenge as it requires modifying the LDOS at a rate faster than the QEs SE rate ( $\sim$   
143  $1\text{GHz}$ ). The ability to do so would enables multiplexing in optical communication and  
144 modulation of lasers. Recent works dynamically controlled the fluorescence lifetime of QEs at  
145 cryogenic temperatures by controlling the radiation field in real time [24] or by modifying the  
146 exciton-cavity coupling strength [25]. Instead, CET mechanism provides real-time, room  
147 temperature, control over the SE rate through varying the number of QEs participating in CET.  
148 **Figure 3c** shows reversible dynamic control over the SE rate by varying the excitation intensity.  
149 Regions with white background represent data taken when the excitation intensity decreased



150 from 37 to 4.4  $\text{W. cm}^{-2}$ , whereas light-blue regions represent data taken by increasing the  
 151 excitation intensity from 4.4 to 37  $\text{W. cm}^{-2}$ . This reversible response offers a complete control on  
 152 the SE rate and establish the basis for a novel class of optical modulators. Note that in the fourth  
 153 region, the SE rates are slightly lower for all intensities. This is due to QDs bleaching over long  
 154 exposure times which decreases  $N$ , hence, the CET rate.



155  
 156 **Figure 3| (a)** Measured time-resolved photoluminescence for five different excitation intensities for the PNC (**Top**)  
 157 and the reference Au film (**Bottom**). The SE lifetime is intensity dependent only for the PNC. (**b**) The fitted SE rate  
 158 fast component (black spheres) and slow component (red spheres) for the PNC (**Top**) and for the reference Au film  
 159 (**Bottom**). (**c**) Reversible, dynamic control over SE rate. The fast and slow SE rate components vary by modifying  
 160  $N$ . The SE rate is linearly proportional to the excitation intensity.

161 To quantitatively demonstrate that the linear dependence of the measured SE rate is due to CET,  
 162 we first investigate the origin of the fast ( ) and slow ( ) SE rates. **Figure 4a** shows the  
 163 ratio ( / ) of QDs on the reference Au film as a function of intensity is  $\sim 3$  suggesting  
 164 that the fast and slow rates correspond to emission of charged biexcitons and charged excitons,  
 165 respectively, according to the statistical scaling law at room temperature [32]. This is because a  
 166 charged biexciton (3 electrons and 2 holes) have six decay pathways via electron-hole  
 167 recombination, while a charged exciton (2 electrons and 1 hole) has only two decay pathways

168 **(Fig. 4a inset)**- (*Supplementary Note 2.7*). The SE rate of a QD coupled to a large nano-antenna  
 169 is  $\sim \Gamma^{ET}$ . Accordingly, the same statistical scaling applies to energy transfer rates, i.e.,  
 170  $\Gamma_{ET}^{fast}/\Gamma_{ET}^{slow} \sim 3$ . Below the saturation intensity, the number of excited QDs participating in  
 171 CET scales linearly with the excitation intensity  $I$  with a scaling factor  $\alpha$ , i.e.,  $N = \alpha I$  (since  
 172 excited QDs' number is an integer,  $N$  here is understood as its average over a small intensity  
 173 range). The experimentally measured SE rate  $\Gamma^{Exp}(I)$  below saturation for QDs participating in  
 174 CET is given by

$$\Gamma^{Exp}(I) = \Gamma^{ET} + \alpha \Gamma^{ET} I \quad (1)$$

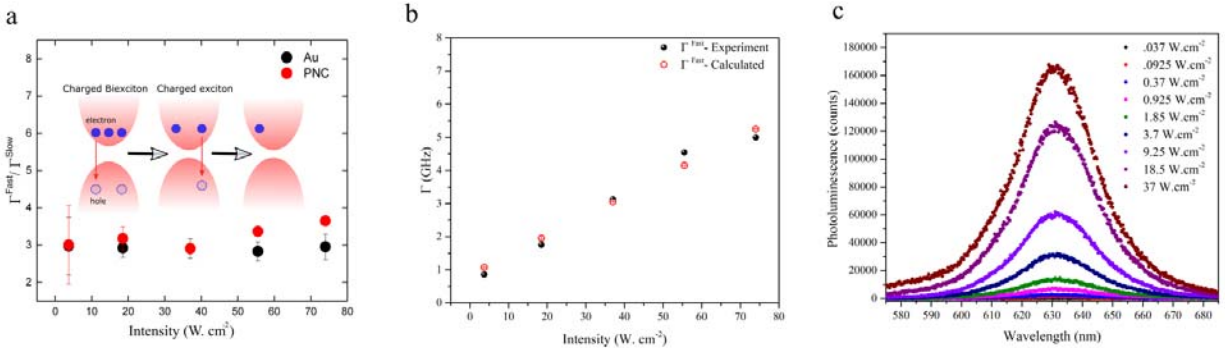
175 where the second term represents the cooperative energy transfer rate in the CET intensity range.  
 176 For weak excitation intensities, i.e., few emitters are excited, cooperative effects are weak and  
 177 the experimentally measured SE rate  $\Gamma^{Exp}$  should equal individual QD energy transfer rate  $\Gamma^{ET}$ .  
 178 Equation (1) holds for both fast and slow rates. Accordingly, the ratio of the experimentally  
 179 measured  $\Gamma^{fast}$  and  $\Gamma^{slow}$  rates from the PNC is

$$\Gamma^{fast}(I)/\Gamma^{slow}(I) = (\Gamma_{ET}^{fast} + \alpha_{fast} \Gamma_{ET}^{fast} I) / (\Gamma_{ET}^{slow} + \alpha_{slow} \Gamma_{ET}^{slow} I) \quad (2)$$

180 where  $\alpha_{fast}$  and  $\alpha_{slow}$  are the intensity scaling factors for fast and slow energy transfer rate,  
 181 respectively. The rates ratio  $\Gamma^{fast}(I)/\Gamma^{slow}(I)$  for different intensities is  $\sim 3$  (**Fig. 4a**), which can  
 182 only be true if  $\alpha_{fast} \approx \alpha_{slow} \approx \alpha$ . Since we have two equations and one unknown,  $\alpha$ , we can  
 183 quantitatively validate our analysis using the measured slow rate  $\Gamma^{slow}(I) = \Gamma_{ET}^{slow} + \alpha \Gamma_{ET}^{slow} I$ ,  
 184 to calculate  $\alpha$  to reproduce the experimentally measured fast rate  $\Gamma^{fast} = \Gamma_{ET}^{fast} + \alpha \Gamma_{ET}^{fast} I$ .  
 185 **Figure 4b** shows the close agreement between calculated vs. measured  $\Gamma^{fast}$ , indicating that the  
 186 slope of SE rate intensity dependence is proportional  $\Gamma_{ET}^{fast}$ , as predicted by the CET mechanism.

187 For relatively higher intensities, the rate ratio exceeds 3 likely because excitons  
 188 saturate at lower intensities compared to biexcitons [33]. The analysis presented in **Fig. 4a** and  
 189 **Fig. 4b** for a different PNC is shown in (*Supplementary information, Fig. S8*) to confirm our  
 190 observation reproducibility.

191 **Figure 4c** shows the photoluminescence from a PNC vs. excitation intensity. The  
 192 photoluminescence spectrum retains the plasmon resonance central frequency and overall line-  
 193 shape while its amplitude increases linearly with excitation power implying that radiation  
 194 emanates from the PNC following CET [17]. This is in contrast to super-radiance where  
 195 radiation emanates directly from QEs and changes in the decay rates affect the emission spectra  
 196 [21]. Furthermore, we exclude stimulated emission and photothermal effects as a cause of SE  
 197 rate intensity dependence (*Supplementary information, Fig. S9*).



198

199 **Figure 4|** (a) The ratio of the measured fast and slow SE rates for QDs on the reference Au film and  
 200 inside the PNC. The ratio is  $\sim 3$ . Inset: schematic of the decay process of charged biexcitons and  
 201 charged excitons. (b) The rate is calculated from experimental rate by assuming that the slope of the SE  
 202 rate vs. intensity curve is proportional to the energy transfer rate of individual QD, as predicted by equation (2). (c)  
 203 The photoluminescence as a function of excitation intensity show that the emission spectrum retains the plasmon  
 204 lineshape as the peak emission wavelength is  $\sim 631$  nm.

205 CET represent an additional degree of freedom to control SE beyond the plasmon-enhanced local  
 206 field [7]. We used a low  $Q$  antenna to ensure that the collected photoluminescence is from the  
 207 PNC. Future works can use high  $Q$  and low  $V$  nano-antennas [4], to enhance the SE rate beyond

208 stimulated emission rate ( $> 100$  GHz) which would enable high-speed short-distance optical  
209 communication, and enhancing light sources efficiency [6,34,35] (*Supplementary information*  
210 **Fig. S10**). Accelerating QDs SE rate can increase the QDs quantum yield by overcoming Auger  
211 recombination[36,37]. The demonstrated SE rate-based optical modulator, after overcoming the  
212 photobleaching problem, can be used as a multiplexing technique to encode information in the  
213 emission rate (*Supplementary Note 2.12*).

214

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