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Additional Information

1 Probing Quantum Confinement within Single Core–Multishell 2 Nanowires

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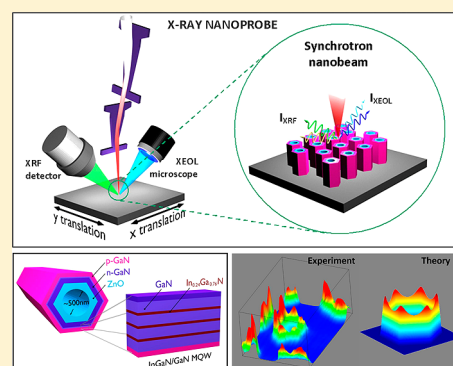
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12 **ABSTRACT:** Theoretically core–multishell nanowires under a cross-section of
13 hexagonal geometry should exhibit peculiar confinement effects. Using a hard X-
14 ray nanobeam, here we show experimental evidence for carrier localization
15 phenomena at the hexagon corners by combining synchrotron excited optical
16 luminescence with simultaneous X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy. Applied to
17 single coaxial n-GaN/InGaN multi-quantum-well/p-GaN nanowires, our experi-
18 ment narrows the gap between optical microscopy and high-resolution X-ray
19 imaging and calls for further studies on the underlying mechanisms of
20 optoelectronic nanodevices.



21 **KEYWORDS:** Core–multishell nanowires, carrier confinement, X-ray nanoprobe, light-emitting diodes, nanodevices

22 **T**he controlled growth of core–multishell nanowires allows
23 fundamental investigations of quantum confinement
24 phenomena.¹ So far, sophisticated coaxial band structure
25 engineering has already been used to produce size-dependent
26 effects for advanced light-emitting diodes.² Although theory
27 suggests that the carrier distributions exhibit two-dimensional
28 confinement in nanowires under a cross-section of hexagonal
29 geometry,³ its direct observation has never been addressed.
30 Owing to the central role of quantum confinement in limiting
31 carrier dynamics, X-ray excited optical luminescence⁴ is
32 accordingly very attractive for imaging single core–multishell
33 nanowires. With the advent of X-ray focusing optics,⁵ it has
34 become a challenge to extend the technique into the nanoscale
35 and hard X-ray regime. The emergence of imaging schemes
36 capable of overcoming Abbe's diffraction barrier ($\lambda/2NA$,
37 where λ is the wavelength of light and NA is the numerical
38 aperture of the lens) is crucial for optical microscopy.⁶ For
39 example, using parallel-detection mode cathodoluminescence-
40 scanning transmission electron microscopy, Lim et al. have
41 previously reported direct correlation of structural and optical
42 properties within a single nanowire.⁷ Thus, an approach based
43 on more shorter wavelengths than visible light like X-rays
44 represents a key step. In this context, the use of nanometer-
45 sized hard X-ray beam provides unique advantages over near-
46 field imaging approaches (restricted to surfaces with small areas

in the region within ~ 10 nm of the tip or nanoantenna)⁸ or far-
47 field imaging techniques (that involve even photoactivatable
48 fluorophores).⁹ These advantages are (i) deeper information
49 depths (i.e., without complex sample preparation procedures);
50 (ii) temporal resolution; (iii) orientational effects by polar-
51 ization selection rules; (iv) site- and orbital-selective with
52 simultaneous access to K absorption edges and X-ray
53 fluorescence (XRF) emission lines of medium, light, and
54 heavy elements, and (v) chemical trace sensitivity owing to the
55 high brilliance of the X-ray beam. Overall, hard X-ray excitation
56 can provide simultaneous information about the quantum
57 confinement and chemical composition of the sample as
58 demonstrated here for single coaxial p-GaN/InGaN multi-
59 quantum-well/n-GaN/ZnO nanowires. 60

Therefore, in this work we show the use of a hard X-ray
61 nanoprobe with optical and chemical contrast mechanisms at
62 the X-ray undulator beamline ID22 at the European
63 Synchrotron Radiation Facility (ESRF)¹⁰ to probe confinement
64 effects within single core–multishell nanowires. Using a pair of
65 Kirkpatrick-Baez Si mirrors, our approach (Figure 1a) involves 66 f1

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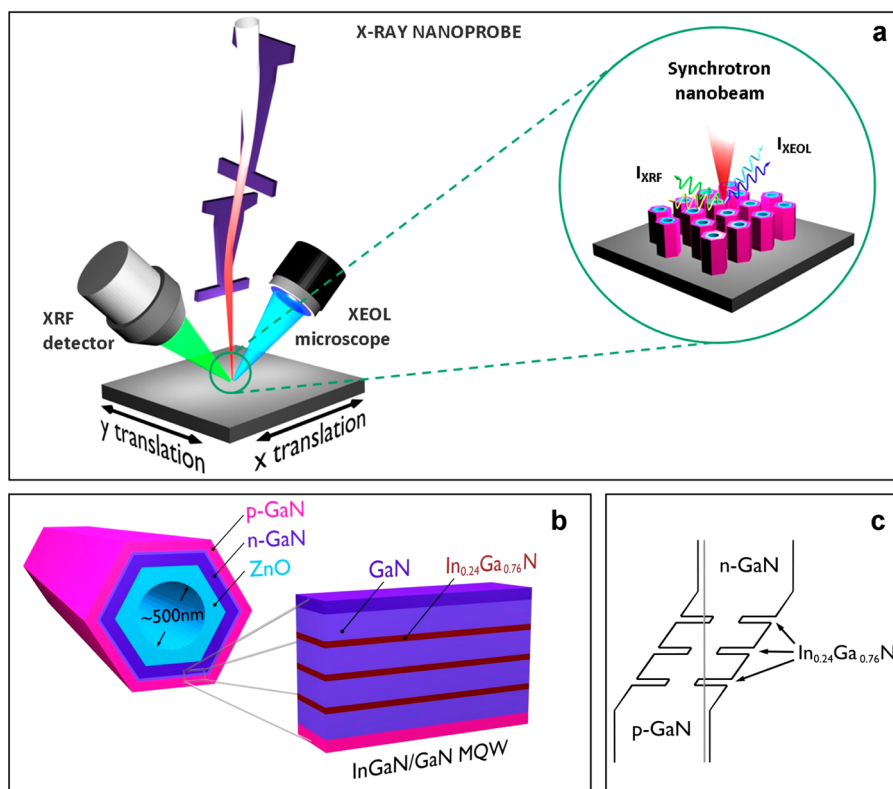


Figure 1. (a) Schematic of experimental setup. The X-ray nanobeam impinges on the sample, which emits luminescence and X-ray fluorescence photons. X-ray-induced optical luminescence and X-ray fluorescence spectra are recorded with a far-field optics system and a Si drift detector, respectively, for each raster position of the specimen. (b) Schematic of the GaN/In_{1-x}Ga_xN/GaN/ZnO nanowire heterostructure and magnified cross-sectional view highlighting the GaN/InGaN MQW. (c) Energy band diagram with a dashed line indicating the position of the Fermi level.

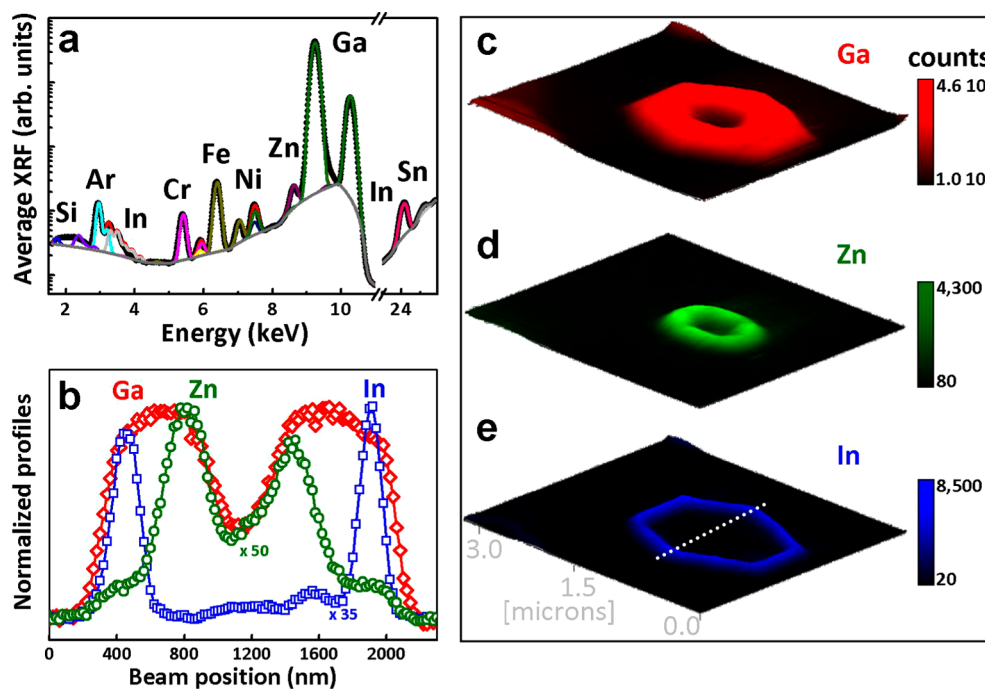


Figure 2. (a) Average XRF spectrum recorded over a $2 \times 1.4 \mu\text{m}^2$ cross-sectional scan of an individual nanowire. (b) Normalized XRF line profiles for Ga (red symbols), Zn (green symbols), and In (blue symbols), respectively, collected along the white dotted line with 20 nm step size. (c–e) Elemental mapping of the same nanowire, indicating spatial distribution of Ga (red), Zn (green), and In (blue), respectively. Map size: $2 \times 1.4 \mu\text{m}^2$; pixel size: 50 nm; counting time: 1 s/point.

67 collecting X-ray fluorescence (XRF) and XEOL emissions
68 induced by a highly focused and intense hard X-ray beam [$60 \times$

60 nm^2 spot size ($V \times H$) with 10^{12} ph/s at 29.6 keV] in air at 69
70 room temperature. The emission of characteristic secondary X-

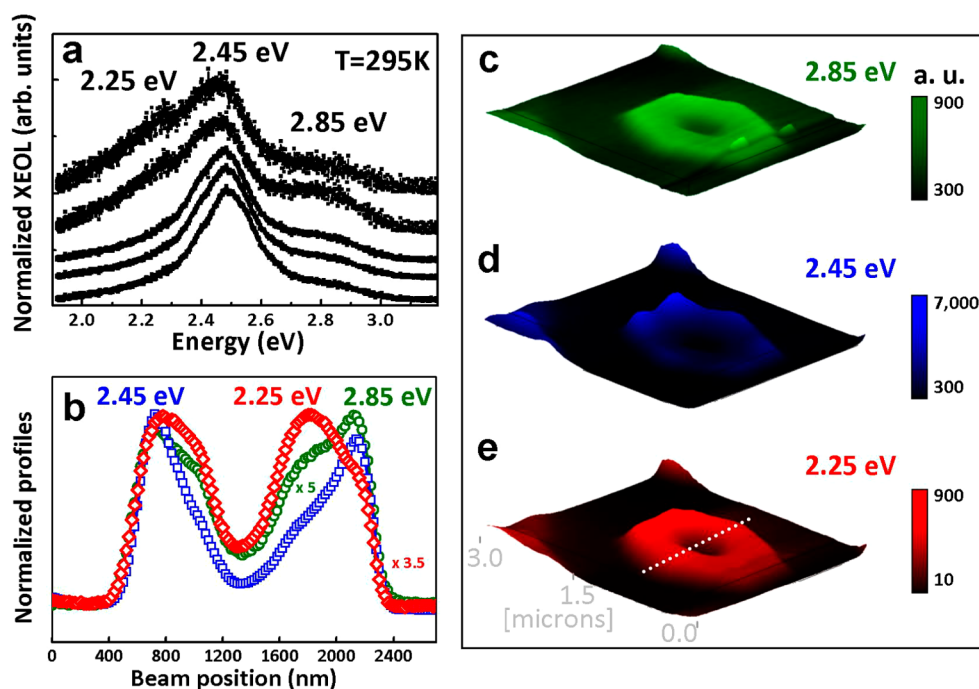


Figure 3. (a) XEOL spectra collected at different positions across the nanowire. The dominant green line at 2.45 eV is attributed to the radiative transitions from the $\text{In}_{0.24}\text{Ga}_{0.76}\text{N}/\text{GaN}$ MQWs, the weak blue peak at 2.85 eV is associated to the band-to-acceptor emission of the outmost Mg-doped GaN layer, and the shoulder at 2.25 eV is assigned to the common yellow band from GaN. (b) Normalized XEOL line profiles for the transition at 2.25 (red symbols), 2.45 (blue symbols), and 2.85 eV (green symbols), respectively, collected along the white dotted line with 20 nm step size. (c–e) Luminescence mapping of the same nanowire, indicating spatial distribution for 2.25 (red), 2.45 (blue), and 2.85 eV (green) bands, respectively. Map size: $2 \times 1.4 \mu\text{m}^2$; pixel size: 50 nm; counting time: 1 s/point.

71 rays is recorded with an energy dispersive Si drift detector,
 72 while the luminescence is detected by a far-field optical system.
 73 The collected photons are focused on an optical fiber, which
 74 transmits the light to a spectrometer equipped with a linear
 75 charge coupled device detector. Besides the depth resolution,
 76 which is determined by the incident X-ray photons, the spatial
 77 resolution of our approach is governed by the spot size of the
 78 incident X-ray beam and the diffusion length of carriers.¹¹ For a
 79 quantum emitter, like a single nanowire or quantum dot, the
 80 resolution can be enhanced several times compared with
 81 standard optical excitation. In combination with the high
 82 brightness of the third-generation synchrotron source, our
 83 current diffraction limited X-ray lenses¹² allow for nanoscale
 84 lateral and spectral analysis with short acquisition times
 85 (typically from 200 ms to 1 s per spectrum).

86 As a proof of concept, we apply this technique to single
 87 coaxial p-GaN/InGaN multi-quantum-well/n-GaN/ZnO nano-
 88 wires grown by metal–organic vapor phase epitaxy.¹³ Recent
 89 calculations indicate that the modulation of the radial elemental
 90 composition within nanoscale hexagonal geometry introduces
 91 new complexities that create novel confinement effects.^{3,14} The
 92 heterostructure consists of an inner ZnO nanotube core (~ 500
 93 nm diameter) and sequentially deposited n-type GaN (200
 94 nm), three periods of GaN/ $\text{In}_{0.24}\text{Ga}_{0.76}\text{N}$ multi-quantum-wells
 95 (MQWs) (2 nm thick well and 13 nm thick barrier), and a p-
 96 type GaN shell (120 nm).¹⁵ A schematic cross-section of the
 97 sample and its energy band alignment is shown in Figure 1b,c,
 98 respectively. The n-type GaN inner and the p-type GaN outer
 99 shells serve as electron and hole injection layers, respectively.
 100 The InGaN provides a band gap energy well for efficient
 101 trapping and radiative recombination of injected carriers, and
 102 the p–n interface extends along the entire length of the

nanowire with carrier separation in the radial direction. In this
 geometry, photogenerated carriers can reach the junction with
 high efficiency since diffusion lengths are relatively short. This
 architecture exhibits two notable advantages over planar group-
 III nitride structures in terms of optical performance. The first
 advantage is the reduced lattice mismatch between GaN and
 ZnO ($\sim 1.86\%$) results in low interface strain, and low
 dislocation and stacking fault densities, thus reducing non-
 radiative recombinations. The second advantage is that it
 should not suffer from large internal polarization-related electric
 fields, which could strongly separate the electron and hole wave
 functions, reducing the probability of radiative recombination.¹⁶

Earlier optical studies of an ensemble of such core–multishell
 nanowires have highlighted the strong green and blue emissions
 at room temperature coming from efficient radiative recombi-
 nations in the quantum well structures.¹³ In this work, thanks
 to the spatial resolution of the X-ray spot, these recombination
 channels are spatially resolved in the radial direction of single
 nanowires and correlated with compositional analyses. We
 collected side-to-side XRF and XEOL data at $\theta = (15 \pm 5)^\circ$
 with respect to the sample surface. Figure 2 shows the nano-
 XRF results obtained by scanning the nanowire along the radial
 direction. The measurements identify the precise spatial
 location of the nanowire and reveal several points: the three-
 dimensional (3D) representation of the XRF data shows that
 the major elements exhibit high contrast, indicative of uniform
 core–multishell encapsulation in the radial chemical composi-
 tion consistent with the targeted heterostructure (Figure 2c–
 e); within the sensitivity of our experimental setup, the sharp
 elemental profiles suggest that no interdiffusion worthy of
 comment took place across individual shells (Figure 2b); the
 average XRF spectrum reveals unintentional dopants (e.g., Cr, 134

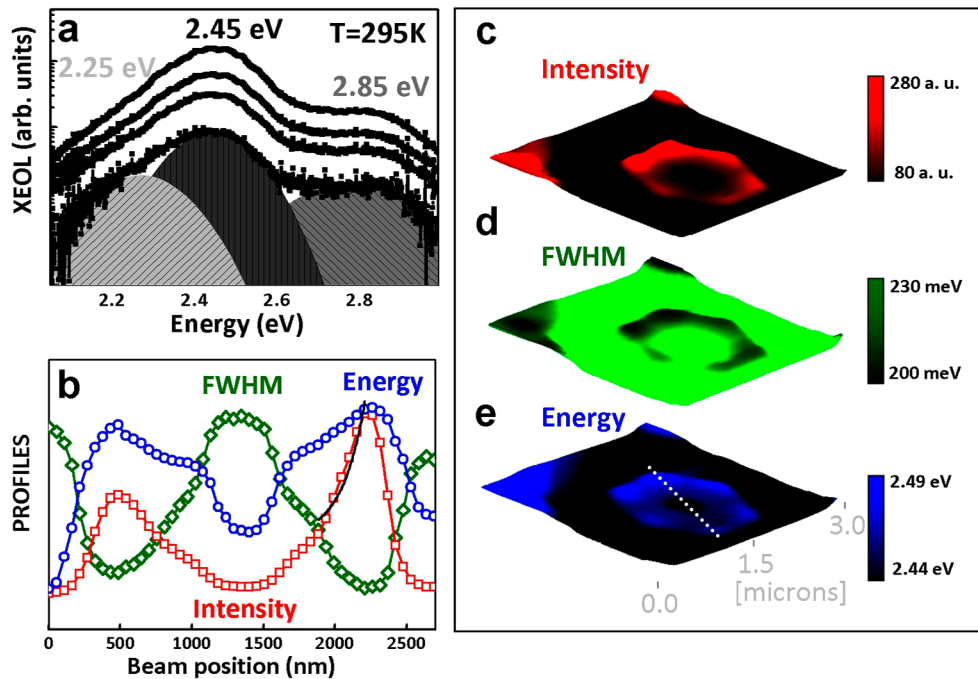


Figure 4. (a) Average XEOL spectra recorded from an individual nanowire with photon fluxes ranging from 10^{10} to 10^{12} ph/s. (b) Normalized line profiles resulting from the spectral decomposition of the dominant transition at 2.45 eV: intensity (red), fwhm (green), and energy (blue) along the white dotted line with 50 nm step size. The black curve corresponds to an exponential decay fit performed to deduce the carrier diffusion length. (c–e) Spatial distribution for the exciton integrated intensity (red), fwhm (green), and energy (blue).

135 Fe, and Ni) that are probably incorporated during the initial
 136 pattern formation and position-controlled selective MOVPE
 137 growth.^{13,15} The corresponding XRF maps indicate a
 138 homogeneous incorporation of these impurities at the length
 139 scale of the beam size (data not shown here). In summary, the
 140 XRF findings reflect an uniform radial growth process without
 141 relevant signatures of deposition-induced diffusion and/or
 142 agglomeration effects.

143 Despite the homogeneous elemental distributions, the
 144 hexagonal geometry can lead to additional quantum size effects
 145 and therefore to inhomogeneous carrier distributions. This is
 146 revealed by XEOL data simultaneously recorded in the same
 147 nanowire. First, the XEOL spectra obtained from different
 148 excitation positions (Figure 3a on linear scale) showed different
 149 spectral shapes, indicating the inhomogeneous distribution of
 150 the radiative recombination channels responsible for the visible
 151 transitions. The spectra exhibit three principal emission bands:
 152 a shoulder at 2.25 eV attributed to the common yellow band
 153 from point defects in GaN (probably Ga vacancies), a
 154 dominant green line at 2.45 eV attributed to the transitions
 155 from the $\text{In}_{0.24}\text{Ga}_{0.76}\text{N}/\text{GaN}$ MQWs, and a weak blue peak at
 156 2.85 eV attributed to the band-to-acceptor emission of the
 157 outmost Mg-doped GaN layer.¹³ Second, the three-dimensional
 158 (3D) projection of the emissions located at 2.25 and 2.85 eV
 159 reveals a uniform distribution of gallium vacancies and
 160 impurities in Figure 4c,d, which is in good agreement with
 161 the XRF results. In contrast, the 3D illustration of the band
 162 emitted at 2.45 eV indicates that the InGaN-related emissions
 163 radiate mainly from the six corners of the hexagon (Figure 3c–
 164 e). The latter characteristic strongly suggests the existence of
 165 additional carrier confinement effects.

166 On a pixel-by-pixel basis, a multiple-Gaussian fitting
 167 procedure was applied to each XEOL spectrum using PyMca
 168 code.¹⁷ The resulting spatial distribution of the InGaN-related

169 transition energy, line width and intensity can thus be revealed
 170 (Figure 4). To obtain further information on these radiative
 171 recombinations, we recorded the XEOL spectrum for various
 172 photon fluxes (Figure 4a on logarithmic scale). Although the
 173 spectral shapes do not change much even for 3 orders of
 174 magnitude difference in photon flux, the relative intensities
 175 grow faster for the InGaN-related emission at 2.45 eV with a
 176 reduction of its line width (clearly observed in linear scale). In
 177 addition, there is a small but measurable blue energy shift that
 178 results from the screening of the polarization electric field in the
 179 slightly strained MQWs structure. XEOL images and spectra
 180 show that the InGaN-related emission maxima, line shapes, and
 181 intensities are nearly identical at the hexagon corners. The
 182 XEOL spectra indicate that emission maxima systematically
 183 shift to higher energy with a reduced line width. Although
 184 previous luminescence studies suggest that apparently broad
 185 linewidths can be attributed to small QW thickness fluctuations
 186 and/or alloy broadening mechanisms,¹⁸ our results signify less
 187 spectral diffusion resulting from Stark shifts produced by
 188 changing local electric fields at the hexagon corners.¹⁹ The data
 189 allowed us to separate two different mechanisms responsible for
 190 the observed effects: (i) the presence of a small quantum-
 191 confined Stark effect and (ii) radial confinement effect.

192 The combination of spatially resolved XEOL and coaxially
 193 grown quantum structure additionally reflects the carrier
 194 diffusion in the GaN barrier. At room temperature, we
 195 measured the XEOL spectra as a function of the X-ray beam
 196 position along the nanowire radial axis with a 50 nm spacing
 197 between consecutive X-ray beam spots. As shown in Figure 4a,
 198 the excitation position-dependent XEOL spectra change in
 199 spectral shape and intensity. Thus, the ambipolar diffusion
 200 length, L_{D} can be roughly estimated by the integrated XEOL
 201 intensity of the InGaN-related emission as a function of the X-
 202 ray beam position,²⁰ $I_{\text{MQW}} = I_0 \exp(-x/L_{\text{D}})$, where I_{MQW} is the

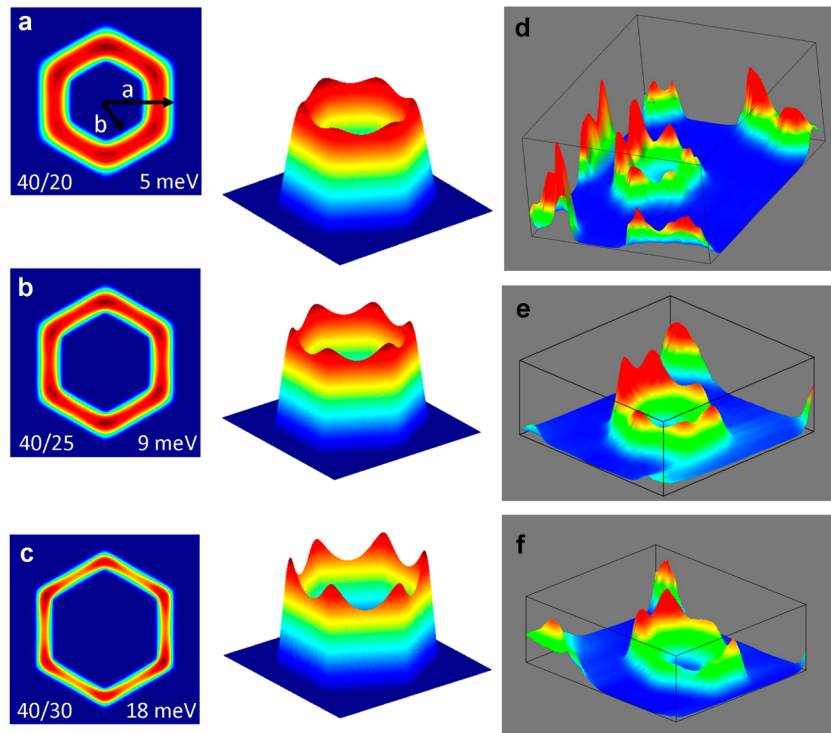


Figure 5. (a–c) Calculated square of the electron wave function of the lowest-energy state of the conduction band, including a 3D representation. The a/b ratios used in the simulation are included together with the energy (in meV) of the electron wave functions (referred to the conduction band of the quantum well). (d–f) Spatial distribution of the InGaN-related recombination at 2.45 eV collected from three different nanowires.

203 XEOL intensity of the transition from the InGaN MQW, x is
 204 the distance between the X-ray beam position and the MQW
 205 region, and I_0 represents a scaling factor. From the fit of XEOL
 206 intensity in Figure 5b (black curve), the ambipolar diffusion
 207 length in the radial direction of the coaxial p-GaN/InGaN
 208 multi-quantum-well/n-GaN/ZnO nanowire is about (150 ± 20)
 209 nm at room temperature. Compared to the values published so
 210 far [200–600 nm for InGaN/GaN],^{21,22} the diffusion length
 211 estimated may imply larger mobility-limiting scattering
 212 mechanisms.

213 Position-dependent changes in XEOL spectra are caused by
 214 the Stark shift that arises due both to the small piezoelectric
 215 field and to spontaneous polarization. In addition to these
 216 effects there are changes attributable to the enhanced carrier
 217 confinement within the MQWs merging at the corners; this
 218 interpretation is supported by simplified theoretical calcu-
 219 lations.¹ The single-particle Schrödinger equation for the
 220 conduction band states (electrons) can be written as

$$\left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_c} \nabla_{x,y}^2 + V(x, y) \right) \Psi(x, y) = E \Psi(x, y)$$

221 where $\nabla_{x,y}^2$ is the Laplacian for the x, y coordinates, $m_c = 0.20$
 222 is the GaN electron effective mass, and $V(x, y)$ the potential.
 223 The results for the valence band states (holes) are analogous
 224 (only the effective mass changes) to those for electrons. As we
 225 consider an infinite nanowire, the axial coordinate can be
 226 omitted. To simplify the calculation, we assumed that the
 227 nanowire heterostructure consists of a hexagonal shell of
 228 InGaN surrounded by GaN. Because of the thickness of the
 229 GaN barriers (13 nm), our model reproduces fairly well the
 230 sample structure. Therefore, the potential $V(x, y)$ has been
 231 defined in a square box, assuming infinite barriers along the
 232 borders. Inside this bidimensional box, the potential takes the

value of $E_b = 3.5$ in the GaN region and $E_b - \Delta$ in the InGaN
 233 region, where $\Delta = 0.40$ is the offset between GaN and InGaN.
 234 The strain effects on the potential profile have been checked by
 235 finite element calculations and only induce a slight change in
 236 the band offset, without substantial modification of the
 237 potential profile. Thus, the Schrödinger equation has been
 238 solved with the finite differences method and the results are
 239 summarized in Figure 5. We have represented the square of the
 240 electron wave function of the lowest-energy state of the
 241 conduction band for three well sizes, together with a three-
 242 dimensional representation of the InGaN-related emission
 243 measured by XEOL from three different nanowires. As
 244 expected, there is a confinement of the wave functions
 245 preferentially at the hexagon corners, owing to the symmetry
 246 imposed by the shape of the nanowire. Moreover, as the well
 247 dimension decrease, the confinement effect becomes larger.
 248 Compared to the calculations published by Wong et al.,³ here
 249 no polarization charges are assumed, and the potential profile is
 250 modeled by a step function, which is a reasonable
 251 approximation for the case of a quantum well.²³ The most
 252 important point is that a higher confinement of the wave
 253 function at the hexagon corners is observed. In remarkable
 254 consistency with the XEOL imaging, the statistical significance
 255 of these spatially dependent data is corroborated by the
 256 measurements carried out on several independent nanowires
 257 (Figure 5c–e). In short, our results show the appearance of a
 258 finite charge separation over the hexagon, which ends in an
 259 overall greater overlap between the wave functions of electrons
 260 and holes at the corners.
 261

In summary, the observation of the carrier confinement
 262 effects under hexagonal cross-section in single core–multishell
 263 nanowires presented here gives a glimpse of the new research
 264 directions such a hyperspectral imaging method can provide. It
 265

266 represents a step toward not only the validation of theories of
267 quantum confinement for nanodevices, but also the realization
268 of nanostructures with spectroscopic properties that could
269 prove advantageous in light-emitting diodes. Its great potential
270 becomes more valuable when time resolving power is added, as
271 well as when this technique is used in conjunction with other
272 methods, such as X-ray absorption spectroscopy and X-ray
273 diffraction. Though readily accessible with current X-ray optics,
274 the technique will benefit from the high numerical aperture of
275 next X-ray lenses produced by state-of-the-art fabrication
276 methods and also from the high-energy synchrotron radiation
277 facilities, where the same type of analysis could be performed
278 with lower emittances by using longer beamlines and even
279 shorter wavelengths, thus increasing both the penetration depth
280 and lateral resolution.

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284 Notes

285 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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