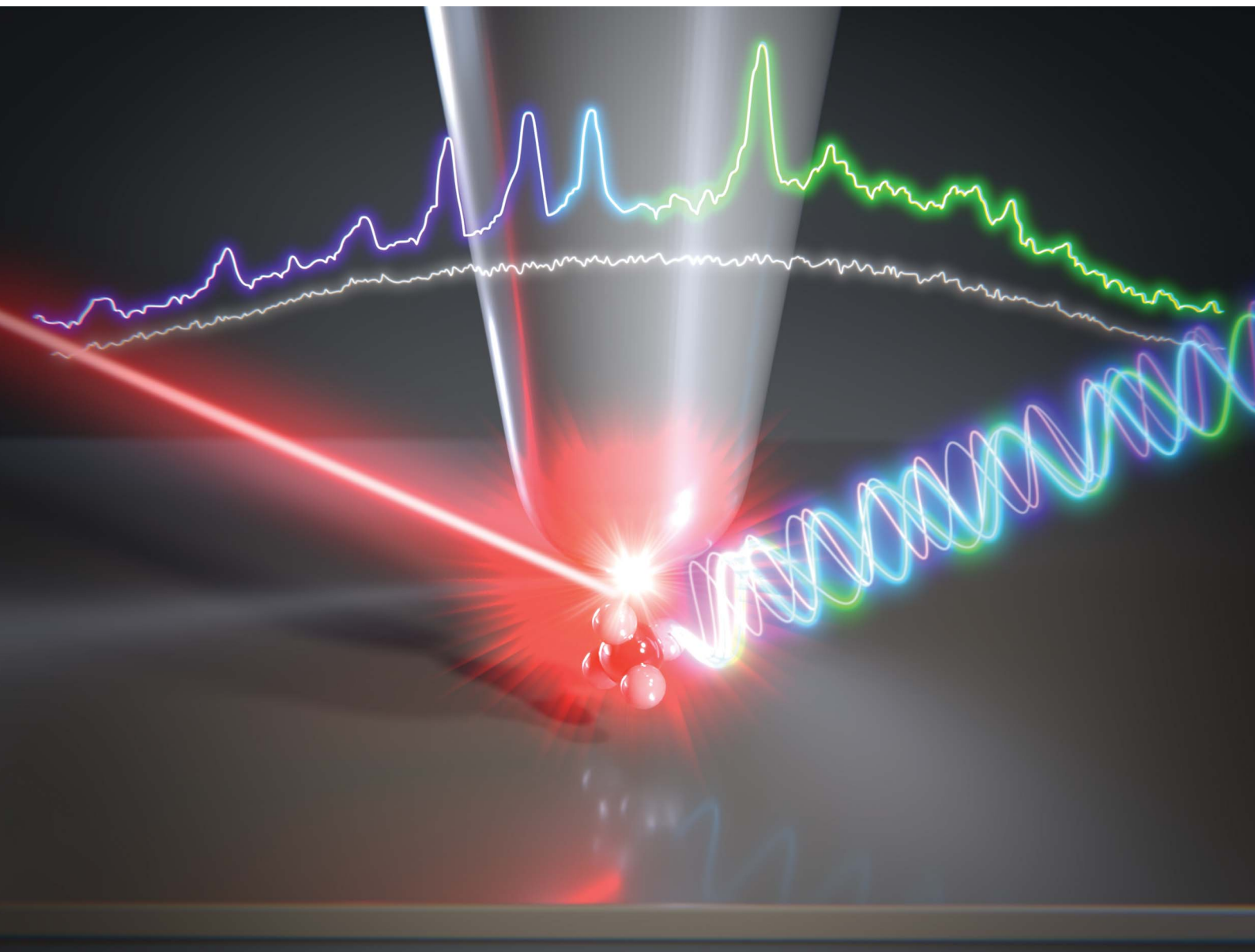


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MINIREVIEW

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Recent advances in plasmonic nanocavities
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Recent advances in plasmonic nanocavities for single-molecule spectroscopy

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Plasmonic nanocavities are able to engineer and confine electromagnetic fields to subwavelength volumes. In the past decade, they have enabled a large set of applications, in particular for sensing, optical trapping, and the investigation of physical and chemical phenomena at a few or single-molecule levels. This extreme sensitivity is possible thanks to the highly confined local field intensity enhancement, which depends on the geometry of plasmonic nanocavities. Indeed, suitably designed structures providing engineered local optical fields lead to enhanced optical sensing based on different phenomena such as surface enhanced Raman scattering, fluorescence, and Förster resonance energy transfer. In this mini-review, we illustrate the most recent results on plasmonic nanocavities, with specific emphasis on the detection of single molecules.

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Introduction

Single-molecule spectroscopy is a central topic in nanoscience, and tremendous applications have been developed so far, from

sequencing and trapping¹ to sub-nm control of quantum effects.^{2–5} In parallel, during the last decade, metallic plasmonic nanocavities were extensively investigated as transducers for enhanced sensing,^{6,7} optical trapping,⁸ single-molecule imaging⁹ and extreme nanophotonics.¹⁰ Plasmonic

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materials science by investigating the physical properties of multi-functional metamaterials of high technological interest, in particular for information processing, opto-electronics and biomedical applications, using optical frequency- and time-resolved spectroscopy techniques, multi-physics numerical methods and bottom-up/top-down fabrication techniques.



Grégory Barbillon completed his PhD in Physics (2007) with the greatest distinction at the University of Technology of Troyes (France). Then, he obtained his Habilitation (HDR) in Physics (2013) from the University of Paris Sud (Orsay, France). He has been Professor of Physics at the Faculty of Engineering "EPF-Ecole d'Ingénieurs" (Sceaux, France) since his appointment in September

2017. His research interests are focused on plasmonics, nano-optics, non-linear optics, biosensing, optical sensing, condensed matter physics, nanophotonics, nanotechnology, surface enhanced spectroscopies, sum frequency generation spectroscopy, materials chemistry, physical chemistry, and fluorescence.



plasmonic nanocavity architectures, such as apertures in metallic films and zero-mode waveguides, pico-cavities with an atomic resolution, and nanocavities realized by using DNA-based nanofabrication techniques. In particular, we focus our attention on these architectures' extreme sensitivity capabilities to achieve single-molecule resolution.

Apertures in metallic films: from zero-mode waveguides to plasmonic nanopores

In this section, we target a particular type of plasmonic nanocavity, which is often used to perform single-molecule detection by means of fluorescence. This architecture, a dubbed zero-mode waveguide (ZMW) since it operates at wavelengths longer than its cut-off wavelength, is realized by engraving an aperture, usually a square- or circular-like nanohole (typically with a lateral size of 50–100 nm), in a thin metallic film. This configuration allows guiding visible EM radiation into a volume smaller than its wavelength and confining it at the bottom of the aperture (Fig. 1). This extreme EM field confinement can reduce the effective detection volume down to 10^{-21} liter, allowing parallel and rapid sensing of molecules at concentrations in the micromolar range,^{22,25,29–31} since the excitation of molecules outside this detection volume is screened by the metallic film. Furthermore, besides affecting the excitation rate

of the molecules inside the zeptolitre detection volume, ZMWs can also modify the fluorescence photokinetics decay rates,^{32,33} improving the net detected photon count rate per molecule.^{22,34} Although the most explored ZMW geometry is a circular hole prepared on a metallic film,³⁵ recently several groups investigated alternative ZMW designs. In particular, rectangular ZMWs realized either on Al or Au–Si bilayers (Fig. 1(a) and (b), respectively), have been proved to yield significant enhancement both in terms of fluorescence signals and volume reduction.^{22,29,30}

Alternatively, the use of apertures in metallic films and whose depth is partially engraved in a transparent substrate have been proved as a potential approach to increase the fluorescence of molecules.³⁴ Current efforts in ZMW optimization are also devoted towards extending their working spectral range down to the UV, where several bio-molecules have intrinsic fluorescence, thus enabling label-free detection.^{26,31} Thanks to ZMW technology, a wide range of applications have been enabled, from DNA sequencing³⁶ to enzymatic reactions.²⁵ Moreover, the development of sensing architectures based on the ZMW concept paved the way for the realization of a new class of sensing platforms, so called solid-state nanopores,³⁷ and consequently the subclass of plasmonic nanopores.¹ Nanopore technology recently got massive attention, in particular for single molecule detection and sequencing.^{38–40} In the last few years, several groups investigated different configurations of plasmonic nanopores. A very smart as well as simple geometry has been proposed by Meller and co-workers, who realized a ZMW on a transparent thin Si_3N_4 membrane in a flow-through configuration by drilling a sub-10 nm hole in the membrane using a high-resolution transmission electron microscope⁴⁰ (Fig. 1(c)). This platform enables enhanced single-molecule fluorescence detection and can be integrated with an electrical read-out of DNA translocation through the nanopore. Several optimizations or variations of this design have been reported. In terms of both local field confinement and enhancement, an outstanding example is represented by a bowtie antenna (dimer made of Au triangles) fabricated in close proximity to a solid-state nanopore.³⁸

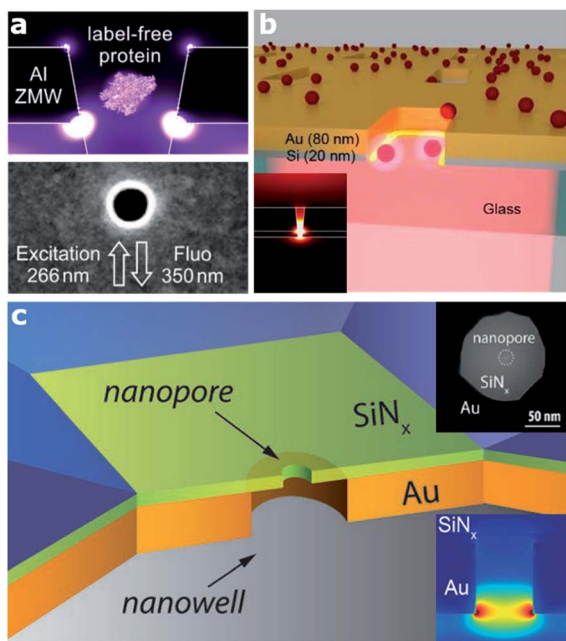


Fig. 1 Various architectures of zero mode waveguide (ZMW) plasmonic nanoapertures. (a) Deep ultraviolet plasmonic enhancement of single protein autofluorescence in an Al ZMW. This figure has been reproduced from ref. 31 with permission from ACS Publications, copyright 2019. (b) A hybrid Au–Si zero mode waveguide for enhanced single molecule detection. This figure has been reproduced from ref. 30 with permission from the Royal Society of Chemistry, copyright 2019. (c) Enhanced single molecule fluorescence detection with a plasmonic nanowell–nanopore device architecture made of a nanowell fabricated in a gold film (orange) with a nanopore drilled in a freestanding Si_3N_4 membrane (light green). This figure has been reproduced from ref. 40 with permission from Wiley, copyright 2017.

Spectroscopic techniques used in plasmonic-based single-molecule sensing

Although fluorescence is the most used spectroscopic method in ZMW and nanopore-based single-molecule experiments, other phenomena have been investigated with very interesting outcomes. For instance, Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) enhancement has been demonstrated in a ZMW.^{25,26,41} The exploitation of the FRET mechanism in plasmonic nanopores has been recently proposed as an efficient approach to multiplex maximum fluorescence wavelength channels by means of life-time/intensity multiplexing.^{42,43} The latter can find application in nanopore protein sequencing, where the high number of distinct amino acids to be discriminated (20) makes the fluorescence-based sequencing far more challenging. Moreover, plasmonic nanocavities have been demonstrated to enable forbidden dipole–dipole FRET exchanges.^{24,44,45}



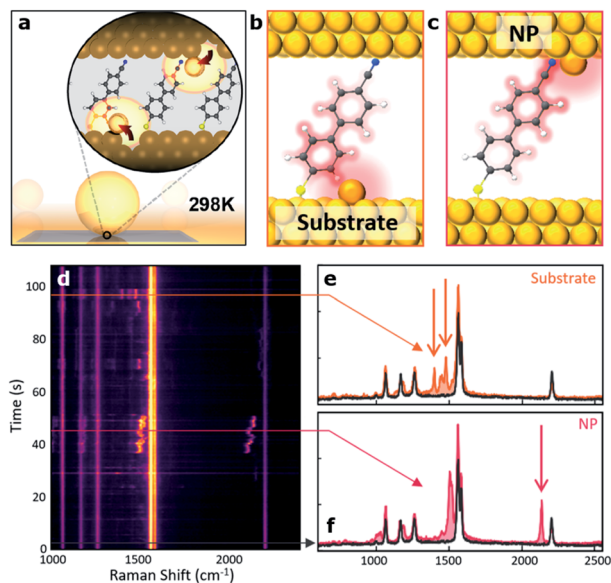


Fig. 3 Room-temperature optical picocavities below 1 nm^3 for accessing single-atom geometries. (a) Schematic of a nanoparticle-on-mirror (NPoM) geometry. The inset shows the formation of a picocavity by the movement of the surface atom to the adatom. (b, c) Schematic of picocavity adatoms on the Au substrate and nanoparticle facet, giving different interactions with 4-cyanobiphenyl-4-thiol (NC-BPT). (d) Consecutive SERS spectra showing transient peaks resulting from both forms of the picocavity. (e) SERS spectra for the picocavity adatom on the Au substrate and (f) picocavity adatom on the nanoparticle facet. This figure has been reproduced from ref. 60 with permission from ACS Publications, copyright 2018.

bases long) into a predesigned shape with the help of approximately 200 “short” ss-DNA sequences (termed “staples”, ~ 40 bases long and complementary to the scaffold sequence – see Fig. 4(a)). These structures can be used as breadboards where different species, including single-photon emitters such as organic fluorophore molecules and quantum dots, together with colloidal metallic nanoparticles (MNPs) of different shapes, materials and sizes, can be incorporated with nanometric accuracy and stoichiometric control⁶⁴ to form nanocavities.

Compared to conventional “top-down” nanofabrication techniques, *i.e.*, electron or ion beam lithography, the DNA origami technique has three main advantages. First, it is a bottom-up self-assembly process in which billions of structures can be fabricated in a parallel fashion without the need of costly equipment. Second, it employs colloidal MNPs, which are less prone to surface defects and can be fabricated with higher uniformity than evaporated metallic structures leading to improved reproducibility and performance.⁶⁵ Finally, with this technique, a single-photon emitter can be routinely placed in the hotspots of MNPs with nanometer precision, a key factor in controlling the coupling between single molecules and nanocavities.^{66,67} These advantages were initially exploited to revisit experiments on fluorescence-enhanced spectroscopy^{68,69} and SERS^{70–72} using dimer nanocavities made of Au or Ag, achieving enhancement values outperforming in some cases those

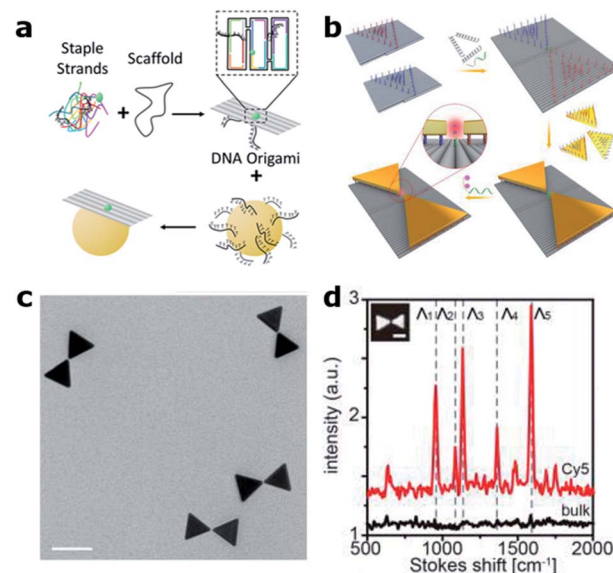


Fig. 4 DNA origami based nanocavities. (a) Basic principle: a “long” ss-DNA sequence (Scaffold) is folded with the help of hundreds of “short” ss-DNA sequences into the predesigned shape. MNPs, previously functionalized with DNA, can be incorporated through DNA hybridization. (b) Bowtie antennas self-assembled onto DNA origami structures fabricated based on two rectangular DNA origami structures. A single Cy5 Raman active molecule is incorporated at the bowtie hotspot. (c) Corresponding TEM image (scale bar 50 nm) and (d) Raman spectra of an individual bowtie with a single Cy5 (red) and a bulk solution of Cy5 (black). (b)–(d) have been reproduced from ref. 76 with permission from Wiley, copyright 2018.

obtained by using nanocavities fabricated with more complex top-down lithographic techniques.⁷³ While most DNA origami based dimer nanocavities are based on spherical MNPs, anisotropic geometries such as gold nanorods were also demonstrated.^{74,75} One step further was recently taken by Ding’s group by positioning and orienting triangular gold nanoplates onto two rectangular DNA origami structures in order to fabricate bowtie antennas⁷⁶ (see Fig. 4(b) and (c)). The advancement introduced by the DNA origami fabrication technique is reflected by smaller and more homogenous gaps between the triangular plates reaching $5 \pm 1 \text{ nm}$, which represents an extremely challenging gap to fabricate with lithographic techniques. Moreover, smaller gaps translate into a 200-fold higher electric field enhancement. However, the main advantage of this approach is that single Cy3 and Cy5 Raman active molecules could be placed at the hotspot of the bowtie antenna in order to demonstrate single-molecule SERS (Fig. 4(d)).

Another improvement recently enabled by the DNA origami technique is the possibility to tune the gap of dimer nanocavities. The groups led by Liedl and Lohmüller showed that the distance between two Au 40 nm MNPs self-assembled onto a DNA origami structure can be adjusted by increasing the cavity temperature, see Fig. 5(a). An increase of approximately $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ leads to a shrinking of the DNA molecule and thus to a reduction of the gap size from 2.5 to 1.4 nm.⁴⁹ The gap thermal shrinking was monitored by studying the redshift in the scattering cross-section of the dimer nanocavity (Fig. 5(b)) and by



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