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Strong coupling between weakly guided semiconductor nanowire modes and an organic dye

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The light-matter coupling between electromagnetic modes guided by a semiconductor nanowire and excitonic states of molecules localized in its surrounding media is studied from both classical and quantum perspectives, with the aim of describing the strong-coupling regime. Weakly guided modes (bare photonic modes) are found through a classical analysis, identifying those lowest-order modes presenting large electromagnetic fields spreading outside the nanowire while preserving their robust guided behavior. Experimental fits of the dielectric permittivity of an organic dye that exhibits excitonic states are used for realistic scenarios. A quantum model properly confirms through an avoided mode crossing that the strong-coupling regime can be achieved for this configuration, leading to Rabi splitting values above 100 meV. In addition, it is shown that the coupling strength depends on the fraction of energy spread outside the nanowire, rather than on the mode field localization. These results open up a new avenue towards strong-coupling phenomenology involving propagating modes in nonabsorbing media.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Tailoring light-matter interaction at the nanoscale is the foundation to improve, beyond unpredictable limits, the efficiency of previous devices and to develop novel applications [1]. Among others, much effort has been undertaken to engineer the emission properties between electronic energy states of systems such as quantum dots, wells, and dye molecules, through the coupling to optical systems such as cavities, photonic crystals, metallic interfaces, and semiconductor wires [2–6]. Depending on the strength of the coupling between the systems two distinct regimes, weak and strong, can be established. In the weak regime, the spontaneous emission rate is strongly affected by the electromagnetic local densities of states, and it can be completely suppressed or enhanced by several orders of magnitude [7–10], but the natural frequency of the transition remains unaltered. Otherwise, the strong regime is characterized by a coherent exchange of energy between modes inducing new hybrid states with fascinating properties that can be very different from those of the initial systems [11–14].

Metallic nanostructures, through localized surface plasmons and surface plasmon polaritons, can effectively couple to electronic transition states due to their optical near-field enhancement and confinement [15–21]. However, the presence of losses limits their employment in transport applications. In this regard, semiconductor nanowires overcome this issue and allow for a long-range coupling through propagating guided modes, being, in turn, a suitable platform to manage the electromagnetic environment at optical frequencies at the nanoscale [22]. They possess strong optical resonances and/or guided modes that can be richly tuned by their geometrical and/or material properties [22–24]. Nevertheless, they have been mainly studied as optical cavities [25–28], in which quantum dots or wells are placed inside the nanowire during the growth process, constricting light propagation inside. In fact, to the best of our knowledge, coupling nanowire propagating modes to external excitonic media has not been studied yet; this will presumably have a strong impact on exciton transport applications [29–32].

In the present work, we study theoretically the appearance of strong-coupling regimes in a system consisting of a semiconductor nanowire embedded in an excitonic medium by means of the interplay between guided modes and excitonic states. Upon exploiting the evanescent tail of various weakly guided modes outside the semiconductor nanowire, analyzed in detail through classical electrodynamics (Sec. II), coupling to excitonic modes of an organic dye surrounding the nanowire is plausible. A quantum model is developed to properly determine the polaritonic modes revealed through an avoided crossing with expectedly large enough Rabi splittings (Sec. III), showing that a strong-coupling regime can be accomplished. The distribution of the energy is also affected by the coupling (Sec. IV), going from pure photonic to excitonic states, revealing the hybrid nature of the modes. These entangled modes can be relevant for exciton transport purposes, for which the half-life and propagation length must be optimized (Sec. V).

II. WEAKLY GUIDED SEMICONDUCTOR NANOWIRE MODES

We study the dispersion relation of polaritons arising from the coupling between guided modes in semiconductor nanowires and excitons in a surrounding molecular medium, through both classical and quantum models. We first
discuss the classical electromagnetism approach, which is based on solving Maxwell’s equations to obtain guided modes in the system. Here, the molecular medium surrounding the nanowire is modeled through its dielectric function, with excitons manifesting as resonances leading to broad absorption bands. In the second step, we discuss a quantum model in which the guided photonic modes of the semiconductor nanowires are quantized explicitly and coupled to dye molecules modeled as point dipole emitters [19], with a level structure and molecular density that reproduce the classical dielectric function in the (linear) low-excitation limit.

For both procedures, the dispersion relation of the nanowire modes must be solved within classical electromagnetism. Cylindrical waveguides support propagating waves (leaky and guided) with a dispersion relation determined by [23,33]

\[
m^2 \left( \frac{k_R c}{\omega} \right)^2 = \left[ \frac{\mu_e J_m'(u)}{u J_m(u)} - \frac{\mu_b H_m'(v)}{v H_m(v)} \right] \times \left[ \frac{\varepsilon_e J_m'(u)}{u J_m(u)} - \frac{\varepsilon_b H_m'(v)}{v H_m(v)} \right],
\]

where \( R \) is the radius of the cylinder, \( \omega \) is the angular frequency, \( k_z \) is the wave vector of the mode along the cylinder axis, and \( m \) is an integer related to the azimuthal distributions of the fields. Furthermore, \( J_m \) and \( H_m \) are the Bessel and Hankel functions of the first kind, and the prime (‘) denotes the derivative with respect to the argument. The parameters \( u = k_z R \) and \( v = k_b R \) are proportional to the transverse component of the wave vector inside and outside the cylinder, respectively, given by

\[
k_e^2 = \varepsilon_e \mu_e \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - k_z^2,
\]

\[
k_b^2 = \varepsilon_b \mu_b \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - k_z^2,
\]

where \( c \) is the speed of light in vacuum and \( \varepsilon_e, \mu_e \) and \( \varepsilon_b, \mu_b \) are the electric permittivity and magnetic permeability of the cylinder and background medium, respectively. In the following, we use \( \mu_e = \mu_b = 1 \).

Recall that Bessel functions are transcendental with a denumerable infinity of roots; thus, for each subindex \( m \) in Eq. (1) several solutions are associated that can be denoted by the subscript \( l \). Hence, a pair index \( ml \) can be associated with each guided mode. For guided modes with \( m = 0 \), the field is symmetric about the cylinder axis, exhibiting a pure transverse character, either electric (TE\(_{0l} \), \( E_z = E_r = H_b = 0 \)) or magnetic (TM\(_{0l} \), \( H_z = H_r = E_b = 0 \)). Hybrid modes arise for \( m \neq 0 \) (HE\(_{ml} \)), where, in general, all field components are nonzero and their phases accumulate a factor of \( 2\pi m \) in a closed loop around the cylinder axis.

We first consider the “bare” modes of the nanowire embedded in a host material without organic molecules. We consider high-refractive-index, lossless semiconductor nanowires; without loss of generality, a refractive index of \( n = \sqrt{\varepsilon_e} = 4.2 \) (close to those of GaAs, GaP, and AlSb in the visible spectrum) is used for the nanowire, while the background dielectric constant is set to \( \varepsilon_b = \varepsilon_h = 2.4 \) (typical for polymers such as polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) and polyvinyl acetate (PVAc)). The top left panel of Fig. 1 shows the dispersion relations \( k_z R \) vs \( k_b R \) for the first three guided modes for \( \varepsilon_b = 2.4 \) and \( \varepsilon_h = 4.2 \). The gray-shaded areas mark the spectral regions that will be studied later. Bottom: Schematic of the waveguide system and norm of the electric field profile of each mode at \( \omega R/c = 0.55 \) and \( \omega R/c = 0.78 \).

![Fig. 1. Bare system: Top: Dispersion relation \( \omega R/c \) vs \( k_z R \) for the first three guided modes for \( \varepsilon_b = 2.4 \) and \( \varepsilon_h = 4.2 \). The gray-shaded areas mark the spectral regions that will be studied later. Bottom: Schematic of the waveguide system and norm of the electric field profile of each mode at \( \omega R/c = 0.55 \) and \( \omega R/c = 0.78 \).](image)
spectral regions where the excitonic states are located for nanowire diameters $D = 2R = 90$ nm (bottom shaded area) and $D = 120$ and 130 nm (top shaded area), as will be studied below.

After identifying the suitable bare photonic modes of the system, we now include the effect of an organic dye within the host medium, first staying within a classical description. Without loss of generality, we choose a rylene dye $\text{[N,N'-Bis(2,6-diisoproplyphenyl)-1,7- and -1,6-bis (2,6-diisopropylphenoxy)-pyrene-3,4;9,10-tetracarboximide]}$ as the dye molecule. This molecule has been used in various experiments, achieving strong coupling as it shows little biexciton annihilation even at high densities and is well characterized [34,35]. Its measured electric permittivity (both real and imaginary parts) is shown in Fig. 1, is shown in Fig. 2 for the three first modes (solid curves) and for three different wire diameters, $D = 90, 120, 130$ nm, in order to analyze the coupling to different modes. Here, the dot-dashed curves represent the dispersion relations for the bare system, and the (horizontal) dotted lines represent the resonance frequencies of the excitons. In contrast to the bare-wire case, the lossy nature of the dye resonances implies that the wave vector $k$ acquires an imaginary part representing the propagation losses of the polariton modes. The dispersion relations show significant energy shifts close to the resonances of the molecule excitons and also feature a back bending that can indicate a mode hybridization, i.e., strong coupling or polariton formation, in the classical calculations. As expected, the observed splitting is more pronounced for bare photonic modes that are only weakly confined within the nanowire, as well as for dye resonances with larger associated transition dipole moments (i.e., larger absorption amplitude $a_k$). However, it should be noted that even the more strongly confined TE$_{01}$ mode displays back bending at the first excitonic resonance.

III. QUANTUM MODEL: RABI SPLITTINGS

The classical analysis shows bending bands in the dispersion relation, which are an indicative signature of a strongly coupled system in which avoided crossings arise at resonances. Nonetheless, such behavior could be just the result of the lossy medium itself [36]. In addition, the real coupling is difficult to quantify without a representative quantity such as the Rabi splitting, which has a direct meaning in a quantum description but does not show up explicitly in the classical calculation.

To construct a quantum model, we proceed in a manner similar to that in [19]. We start by quantizing the guided bare-nanowire modes by placing the system within a box of length $L$ along the wire axis and imposing periodic boundary conditions in this direction. This restricts the allowed values of the parallel momentum to $k_z = \frac{2\pi n}{L}$, with $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since the bare nanowire modes are lossless and confined in the transverse direction, this also allows for their straightforward quantization by imposing that the integrated energy density is equal to the photon energy (see, e.g., the Appendix of [32]).

Defining the quantized field profile $\hat{E}(r) = C \overline{E}(r) e^{i k_z z + i \omega t}$ in cylindrical coordinates $r, \phi, z$, where $\overline{E}(r)$ is the electric field profile of the mode with arbitrary normalization, gives

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar \omega}{2\pi L U_{\text{rad}}}},$$

where $U_{\text{rad}}$ is an integral over the electromagnetic energy density of the mode, given by

$$U_{\text{rad}} = 2 \int \varepsilon(r) |\overline{E}(r)|^2 dr.$$
Here, the factor of 2 accounts for the fact that equal energy is stored in the magnetic field and in the electric field. Note that we are treating only guided waveguide modes, for which the polarizability (obtained from the dielectric function using the Clausius-Mossotti relation) and then explicitly include dipole-dipole interactions between the molecules.

We treat the experimentally relevant limit that the host material contains many randomly oriented organic dye molecules, distributed evenly in the region around the nanowire with number density \( \rho_{\text{mol}} = 1/V_{\text{mol}} \), where \( V_{\text{mol}} \) is the average volume occupied by each molecule. Considering the random distribution of the molecules along the wire, translational symmetry is approximately conserved [19], and consequently, superpositions of molecular states can be formed with a well-defined wave vector \( k_{\mu} \). The Hamiltonian thus becomes (approximately) diagonal as a function of the parallel wave vector index \( n \), significantly simplifying its diagonalization.

In addition, for the case when more than a single guided mode exists at a given \( k_{\mu} \) (as is the case for \( D = 120 \ nm \) and \( D = 130 \ nm \)), we can also approximate that since the nanowire modes are orthogonal, they couple to independent Dicke states (superpositions of molecular excitations). This implies that the coupling between different wire modes and molecular excitations is independent. The collective coupling strength between the \( n \)-th mode with parallel momentum \( k_{\mu} \) and the molecular Dicke state corresponding to the \( k \)-th excitation is then given by

\[
    g_{nmk}^2 = \sum_j |\langle \varepsilon_{nm}(\mathbf{r}_j) \cdot \hat{d}_j a_k \rangle|^2.
\]

where the parameters \( \omega_k \), \( \gamma_k \), and \( \lambda_k \) are taken from the fit in Eq. (3). Note that we also neglect direct dipole-dipole interactions between the molecules, as their (averaged) effect is already included in the transition frequencies \( \omega_k \) extracted from the dielectric function. We note for completeness that an alternative (but much costlier) approach would be to extract the molecular parameters from a fit to the bare-molecule polarizability (obtained from the dielectric function using the Clausius-Mossotti relation) and then explicitly include dipole-dipole interactions between the molecules.
approximated by
\[ g_{nmk}^2 \approx \frac{4\pi L}{3} \frac{a_k^2}{V_{mol}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} r |\tilde{E}_{nm}(r)|^2 dr. \] (10)

Using Eqs. (4) and (5), the coupling strength can be written as
\[ g_{nmk}^2 = \frac{2\hbar \omega_{nm}^2 a_k^2}{3\pi \epsilon_h} \frac{U_{ext,nn}^{el}}{V_{mol} U_{rad,nn}}, \] (11)
where \( U_{ext}^{el} \) is the part of the mode energy stored in the electric field outside the wire,
\[ U_{ext}^{el} = \int_{r > R} \epsilon_h |\tilde{E}(r)|^2 d\tau. \] (12)

This can be expressed through \( F_{ext} = U_{ext}^{el}/U_{rad} \) and the molecular density \( \rho_{mol} \) as
\[ g_{nmk} = a_k^2 \frac{2\hbar \rho_{mol}}{3\pi \epsilon_h} \frac{\omega_{nm} F_{ext,nn}}{U_{ext,nn}}. \] (13)

It is interesting to note that the coupling strength does not depend on whether the guided nanowire mode has a small mode volume (strong localization of the field). The only information about the wire mode entering the final expression is its frequency and the fraction of the mode energy that is outside the wire. Note that this assumes that space is completely filled with molecules, so that a less confined mode effectively interacts with more molecules to give the same (or even larger) collective coupling as a confined mode. The localization of the mode is spanned by the field strength, and in that sense, well-confined (out-of-the-wire) modes are advantageous only in terms of needing less space and not in terms of reaching strong coupling.

We can now take the limit \( L \to \infty \), such that \( k_z = 2\pi n/L \) becomes a continuous variable, and proceed to construct an effective 4 x 4 model Hamiltonian for each \( k_z \) and each nanowire mode independently:
\[ H_z(k_z) = \begin{pmatrix} \omega_{nm}(k_z) & g_{m1}(k_z) & g_{m2}(k_z) & g_{m3}(k_z) \\ g_{m1}^*(k_z) & \omega_1 - i\gamma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ g_{m2}^*(k_z) & 0 & \omega_2 - i\gamma_2 & 0 \\ g_{m3}^*(k_z) & 0 & 0 & \omega_3 - i\gamma_3 \end{pmatrix}, \] (14)
where \( m \) labels the nanowire mode and \( g_{nm}(k_z) \) is given by Eq. (13).

In Fig. 3, the dispersion relations calculated by the eigenvalues of Eq. (14) are shown (dashed colored curves) with proper avoided crossings appearing near excitonic frequencies manifesting the strong coupling, leading to polaronic modes. Out of resonance, as expected, the dispersion relations are practically the same as those of the classical bare photonic modes. It should be pointed out that the classical electromagnetic calculations work at real energies \( \omega \) but allow complex momenta \( k_z \) (describing propagation loss). On the other hand, the quantum model works at real \( k_z \) but allows complex energies (describing temporal loss). These two pictures represent the same physics but are not completely equivalent. These differences are the reason for the different behaviors close to the regions of largest absorption where the classical modes bend backwards (stationary electromagnetic field solutions), while the quantum modes are actually split (time dynamic driving process). We also note that the good agreement between quantum and classical calculations in Fig. 3, without any fit parameters, cannot be reproduced by the often-used strategy of constructing an approximate model with \( k_z \)-independent couplings \( g_{mk} \) (corresponding to approximating \( \omega, F_{ext} \) as constant).

Furthermore, we emphasize that the quantum model here clearly shows that strong coupling is reached for these conditions. The Rabi splitting \( \Omega_R \) is estimated from the splitting of the eigenenergies of Eq. (14) at resonance. For example, the cleanest system is given by the nanowire with diameter \( D = 90 \text{nm} \), for which only the HE11 mode is guided. This system supports strong coupling with significant Rabi splittings \( \Omega_R > 100 \text{meV} \) for both the first and second molecular excitations. Moreover, nanowires with larger diameters support multiple polaritons (also with significant Rabi splitting) at the same frequency, which might be interesting for possible applications.

### IV. ENERGY DISTRIBUTION: PHOTONIC AND EXCITONIC MODES

An important characteristic of strong coupling is coherent energy exchange between different physical systems, inducing hybrid states that no longer can be seen or described as individual systems. The distribution of the energy into photonic and excitonic parts is important to characterize the new states.

From a classical perspective, the electromagnetic energy for lossy media then can be calculated as a perturbation from the lossless case. However, the strong dispersion and the high losses of the permittivity invalidate the usual expressions for the electromagnetic energy stored in the system. In addition, there is no clear distinction between the energy stored in the medium and that stored in the electromagnetic field. For this purpose, we follow the approach taken by Loudon [42] for the energy of a medium with a single resonant frequency and its extension to multiple resonances [43,44], considering each excitonic state as an independent resonance.

The energy of an absorbing dielectric medium described by resonances is
\[ W = W_o + W_f, \]
\[ W_o = \frac{1}{4} \int_{r < R} r \varepsilon_0 |\tilde{E}(r)|^2 dr \sum_n \left( \omega_n - \omega^2 \right)^2 + \omega^2 \gamma_n^2, \]
\[ W_f = \frac{1}{4} \int_{r > R} r \varepsilon_r |\tilde{E}(r)|^2 + \mu_r \varepsilon_r \tilde{H}(r)^2 dr, \]
where
\[ \varepsilon_r = \begin{cases} \varepsilon_c, & r < R, \\ \varepsilon_b, & r > R. \end{cases}, \quad \mu_r = \begin{cases} \mu_c, & r < R, \\ \mu_b, & r > R. \end{cases} \] (16)

The first term of Eq. (15), \( W_o \), is the energy stored in the excited oscillators (excitons), and it goes to zero out of the resonances. The second term, \( W_f \), is the energy carried by the electromagnetic field.

Within the quantum model, the excitonic energy is calculated as the (real part of the) expectation value of the molecular exciton Hamiltonian \( H_{mol} \) in each state, relative to the total energy of the eigenstate.
As we have previously seen that each nanowire mode is independent from the point of view of the coupling with the excitonic media, we now focus only on the case $D = 90$ nm (results for other modes are analogous). The ratio between the energy stored in the oscillators and the total energy of the system, $W = W_o + W_f$, characterizes the nature of the mode (photonic/excitonic). Figure 4 shows the percentage of the energy stored in the excitons obtained by the classical (solid curve) and quantum approaches (dashed curve) for the HE$_{11}$ mode at $D = 90$ nm. The agreement between both approaches is extremely good at the frequencies where both dispersion relations coincide (see Fig. 3). Far from resonance, the energy stored in the oscillators goes to zero; thus, there is no interaction with the excitons, and the mode is practically photonic. In the spectral region of the resonance bands, the fraction of the energy in the excitons increases, as the mode becomes polaritonic. Close to resonance, as expected from the differences in the dispersion relation, the approaches differ: whereas the energy fraction within the classical model (Fig. 2) only $100\%$ of energy stored as excitons (flat dispersion relation in Fig. 3), as $D = 90$ nm. The material properties are the same as in Fig. 3. The resonant frequencies of the excitons are marked by dotted vertical lines.

![Figure 4](image.png)

FIG. 4. Fraction of the energy stored in the excitons calculated by the classical (solid curve) and quantum approach (dashed curve) for the HE$_{11}$ mode at a nanowire diameter of $D = 90$ nm. The material properties are the same as in Fig. 3. The resonant frequencies of the excitons are marked by dotted vertical lines.

It is interesting to note that a high enough fraction of excitonic energy is required for this system to be a suitable platform for excitonic applications; however, at the same time, it is desirable to minimize losses, which is achieved for high photon components. A good compromise can be achieved at intermediate-energy fractions below the onset of losses in the dielectric function ($\hbar \omega \approx 2.1$ eV, at which $W_o/W \approx 0.3$), as we will show below.

V. HALF-LIFE, PROPAGATION LENGTH, AND ENERGY VELOCITY

While, up to now, we have focused on the real part of the quantities (wave vectors and/or energies), the losses of the system are also a very important part necessary to obtain a complete characterization. In particular, they determine dynamic properties such as the mode propagation length that are crucial for practical applications. Thus far, we have studied the properties of the system using a Lorentzian fit for the dielectric function, rather than the experimentally measured one, since this allows more direct comparison with a simple quantum model and gives almost identical results for the dispersion relation and allows us to determine the existence of strong coupling. However, the Lorentzian fit severely overestimates losses away from the resonances, and much more reliable results are obtained when using the actual experimental values in order to calculate properties such as the half-life $\tau$ and the propagation length $L_p$ (linked through the group velocity $v_g$).

The propagation length $L_p$ is the distance after which the energy of the wave is reduced to $1/e$ of its initial value. For the classical approach, the propagation length of a guided mode is given by $L_p = 1/2k_z''$, inversely proportional to the imaginary part of the propagation constant, $k_z = k_z' + ik_z''$, that accounts for the attenuation of the mode. In Fig. 5 the propagation length of the HE$_{11}$ mode for $D = 90$ nm (as in Fig. 4) is plotted in logarithmic scale as a function of the frequency using both the experimental value of the dielectric function and the Lorentzian fit from Eq. (3) shown in Fig. 2. At frequencies below first resonance, $L_p$ using the experimental dielectric function gives values that are typically one order of magnitude larger than with the Lorentzian fit and gives propagation lengths that are one to two orders of magnitude larger than the wavelength of the mode.

![Figure 5](image.png)

FIG. 5. Classical calculations of the propagation length $L_p$ (in logarithmic scale) as a function of frequency for the HE$_{11}$ mode ($D = 90$ nm). Solid curve: the dielectric function is fitted to a Lorentzian model (Fig. 2). Dashed curve: the experimental value of the dielectric function is used.
that, as the modes become leaky, the radiation processes begin to dominate losses and the imaginary part of the permittivity is no longer determinant. On the other hand, as expected, both methods give similar results at frequencies close to resonance (2.2–2.6 eV), where the Lorentzian fits accurately reproduce the dielectric function. Finally, the Lorentzian fit leads to higher (unphysical) values of $L_p$ at high frequencies since another resonance appears that was not included in the fit therein.

For current and future applications that rely on exciton transport [29–31,45], large propagation lengths are desired while simultaneously keeping a considerable amount of energy in the excitons (excited oscillators). To achieve better coupling, the mode energy must be outside the wire, although the localization of the energy in the excitonic medium would imply higher losses. These two issues must be balanced in order to optimize the propagation length. An important effect to take into account here is that the propagation length is determined by the dielectric losses at the frequency of the polariton mode. This implies that strong coupling can be used to push the exciton peak away from the exciton losses through polariton formation, allowing us to create states with high exciton character that do not suffer from the large excitonic losses. This is a particular strength of the semiconductor nanowire systems studied here, where the bare photonic modes are essentially lossless. For example, focusing on the HE$_{11}$ mode and demanding that 30% of the energy be in the excitons, the maximum propagation length is reached at a diameter $D = 70$ nm, with $L_p = 48 \mu$m at $\hbar \omega = 2.02$ eV (at the lower part of the first resonant frequency). The propagation wavelength of the mode at that frequency is 367 nm, 130 times smaller than the propagation length. As a general consideration, the propagation length is optimal (related to the energy stored in the excitonic media) close to frequencies at which losses start to substantially increase due to inhomogeneous broadening.

The velocity at which energy is transported by a propagating mode is normally given by the group velocity $v_g$, defined as

$$v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk}.$$  

(17)

However, the velocity at which the energy is transported must always be lower than the speed of light, which is not fulfilled by this definition; for example, in the region where the photonic bands bend backward, the group velocity goes to infinity. Therefore, as for the energy, an alternative definition is needed in lossy media. Following the works of Loudon and Brillouin [42,46], we define the energy velocity $v$, as the ratio between the flow of energy, given by the Poynting vector, and the total energy stored in the system,

$$v = \frac{S_e}{W} = \frac{\int_0^\infty r S_e(r) dr}{W}.$$  

(18)

For the bare photonic states calculated before (the lossless case), the results given by Eqs. (16) and (17) are identical (not shown here).

In Fig. 6 the energy velocity $v$ (divided by the speed of light in the host medium $c_h$) of the HE$_{11}$ mode is shown for $D = 90$ nm. In addition, the result for the bare system is also included (dashed line). The energy velocity presents dips at resonant frequencies. Strong coupling manifests as a reduction in the energy velocity since the coherent exchange of energy slows down the light flow. At resonant frequencies, the electric permittivity of the excitonic media matches the value of the background $\varepsilon_b$. Despite the nonzero imaginary part, the field profiles for both cases (with and without resonances) are very similar, and so are the value of the Poynting vector and the energy inside the wire. However, the energy outside the wire presents an additional contribution $W_o$ due to the excitons (see insets in Fig. 6), slowing the propagation of the energy down.

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, we have shown that strong coupling between weakly guided modes of a semiconductor nanowire and a surrounding excitonic medium can be achieved, exhibiting Rabi splittings of more than $\Omega_R > 100$ meV for an organic dye. The bare photonic modes are determined through a rigorous classical analysis, namely, waveguide propagating modes with an evanescent tail outside the nanowire. The evanescent tail allows for strong coupling of the nanowire modes with the excitons in external dye molecules. The underlying physical mechanism is similar to surface plasmon polaritons in metallic nanorods, but with the advantage of much larger propagating lengths due to the nearly complete absence of absorption inside the semiconductor nanowire. A quantum model provides a straightforward analytical expression for the Rabi splitting and reveals that the relevant quantity is not the field concentration but the fraction of the field interacting with the emitters. The quantum model also
reveals that coherent energy exchange plays an important role in the coupled system: the dispersion relations reveal avoided crossings with clear Rabi splittings, as expected from strong coupling. We furthermore showed that the polariton modes in these systems can achieve significant propagation lengths up to two orders of magnitude larger than the bare mode wavelengths while still maintaining a significant excitonic character. This happens because strong coupling can shift exciton modes to frequency regions where material losses are much smaller than around the exciton resonances. Recalling that lowest-order nanowire guided modes can be considered nearly one-dimensional lossless propagating modes [24], we thus anticipate that the proposed configuration might be a suitable candidate for enhanced exciton conductance [31], which holds promise for applications related to exciton transport, slow light, and conversion modes.

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