50 & 100 YEARS AGO

50 YEARS AGO

A critical review of the methods of determination of the temperatures of ancient seas by the measurement of the oxygen isotopes ratio in fossil calcareous organisms is given by Y. A. Birstein (*Priroda*, **5**, 21; 1959). It is based partly on the work published in the Soviet Union and it leads to certain new ideas regarding the origin of the deep sea fauna. Thus the author of this review is casting doubt upon the conclusions of C. Emiliani and C. Edwards ... regarding the sharp changes of sea temperatures during the late Tertiary era, and also about those of A. Fr. Bruun ... regarding the extinction of the deep sea fauna. According to the author all the deep oceanic regions must be considered to be regions of a relatively constant temperature, affording a place of refuge to many animal species which have eventually died out in the waters of a lesser depth.

From *Nature* 3 October 1959.

100 YEARS AGO

The discovery of Halley's comet at a time so far preceding the date of perihelion passage adds another proof of the great capacity of the photographic method. The interesting point to many observers is as to when the comet will become visible to them as a telescopic object. This must, of course, depend in a large measure upon the diameter of their glasses and on their powers of vision. After the present moon has left the sky, say during the second week in October, the comet ought to have increased in light sufficiently for it to be observed in a 12-inch telescope. The calculated magnitude of the comet will be 14½ on October 15, and its distance from the earth about 230 millions of miles ... The comet will be visible in an excellent position nearly all night during most of the winter, but will continue small and faint until it blazes out next April.

From *Nature* 30 September 1909.

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feather in this species is unusual, and they link this feature to the characteristic noise of the bird in flight. Experimental manipulation to confirm this link would now be valuable, as it could have a bearing on the likely generality of this mode of anti-predatory communication and on its evolution within the crested pigeon.

NATURE PRODUCTION/NATUREPL.COM

Figure 1 | Ambiguous signal. Are flock-mates taking flight in response to a predator?

If the unusual feather structure of this species is essential for signal production, then the whistle probably evolved because it modifies the behaviour of the signal receivers in such a way as to benefit the whistler. This might come about because the original detector of a predator benefits (through dilution of risk or sensory confusion of the predator) if other flock-mates flee along with it. There may also be particular benefits from warning a mate or kin. Or perhaps the intended receiver of the signal is the predator, if the signal reliably indicates that that whistler is already taking rapid avoidance flight and so the predator would be better focusing its attention on other flock-mates. Thus, other flock-mates might be eavesdroppers that gain useful information from a signal that evolved for other reasons. Finally, it could even be that the noise production originally evolved because it benefited the signaller in a context unrelated to predation; it might be relevant that the courtship behaviour of the crested pigeon involves opening and closing the wings.

As for the generality of this type of anti-predatory communication, it is certainly true that birds taking flight (Fig. 1) or mammals taking to their heels can both be noisy. The limited previous empirical study[2] does not provide strong evidence of a general ability of group-mates to distinguish between predator-induced and other departures from a group. However, Hingee and Magrath's research suggests that we should return to this question, and perhaps concentrate on the noise of fleeing as a signal that is difficult to fake, and on species that gather in structurally complex environments (such as scrubland) where noise might be easier to detect than visual evidence of a fleeing group-mate. No matter what, we have not heard the last of the whistling pigeon. ■

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APPLIED PHYSICS

Lasers go nano

Francisco J. Garcia-Vidal and Esteban Moreno

Two experiments that produce laser light by exploiting the collective wave-like motion of free electrons on a metal surface bring the science and technology of lasers into the nanoland.

Let us imagine what the impact would be of having a fully operational laser of nanoscale dimensions — a nanolaser. On the applied front, myriad prospects would arise, among them the fabrication of ultra-fast photonic nanocircuits with unprecedented performance and the improvement of techniques such as nanolithography and single-molecule biochemical sensing. We could even envisage nanolasers as key elements in quantum-information technologies. On a more fundamental level, we would have a powerful tool with which to study strong interactions between light and matter. Two papers, one published in *Nature* recently[1] and the other in this issue (page 629)[2], report significant experimental advances towards the implementation of functional nanolasers.

In contrast to an ordinary torch, a laser emits an intense and strongly collimated beam of coherent, monochromatic light. These properties arise from the interaction between two of the laser's components, an optical cavity that sustains a photonic resonance and a gain medium that amplifies it. Energy is externally pumped into this amplifying medium and is later released as photons that, through a mechanism called stimulated emission and owing to the laser cavity's optical-feedback property, are all emitted coherently — that is, they have the same frequency and are in step with one another.

The external input of energy typically involves an electric current (electrical pumping) or light illumination (optical pumping). In certain respects, lasing bears some resemblance to the tuning up of an orchestra before the start of a concert. Musicians 'pump' their instruments to emit a single frequency, 'stimulated' by the notes played by their fellows. As the tuning goes on, the concert hall is increasingly filled with sound (albeit not coherent) that may eventually spread out through the open doors of the hall.

The quest for ultra-compact lasers of nanometre scale has faced a fundamental obstacle: the diffraction limit. By conventional means, light cannot be focused down to a spot smaller than around half its wavelength. For visible light, whose wavelength ranges between 300 and 800 nanometres, the smallest dimension of both the spot and the laser cavity is limited to a few hundred nanometres. A feasible way to overcome this limitation is by using a metallic cavity, which can confine light within dimensions markedly smaller than the light's wavelength.

This ability stems from the existence of collective, wave-like motions of free electrons on a metal surface, termed surface plasmons. These oscillations generate electromagnetic waves that are strongly localized at the surface. In this context, and by analogy with the laser, the idea of a spaser (surface plasmon amplification by stimulated emission), in which plasmons play the part that photons do in conventional lasers, was proposed[3,4]. Importantly, surface-plasmon oscillations can be coherently coupled to light outside the metallic cavity, and hence can be exploited to realize ultra-small lasers.

The main obstacle to attempts to produce a plasmon-based laser has been the (resistive) energy losses in the metal from which the cavity is made. Several experimental studies[5,6] have, however, demonstrated that the incorporation of an optical-gain medium into the system can compensate for such losses. Along these lines, Hill and co-workers[7] reported lasing from an electrically driven, metal-coated cavity with dimensions of 200–300 nm.

The present investigations, carried out by Noginov *et al.*[1] and by Oulton *et al.*[2], provide a major step forward for plasmon-based nanolasers. In Noginov and co-workers' experiments[1], gold nanoparticles are encapsulated in silica spheres of 44 nm diameter (Fig. 1a). The optical gain is supplied by organic dye molecules embedded in the silica shells, which are optically pumped; the surface plasmons are provided by the gold cores. The energy pumped into the shells is transferred to the surface plasmons and stimulates the coherent emission and amplification of surface-plasmon waves. Finally, these waves are converted into visible laser light of wavelength 531 nm, which radiates outside the spheres. Although Noginov and colleagues' experiments were performed using an ensemble of silica spheres instead of a single one, the authors argue that the observed laser light was produced by the single spheres independently, rather than being a collective phenomenon.

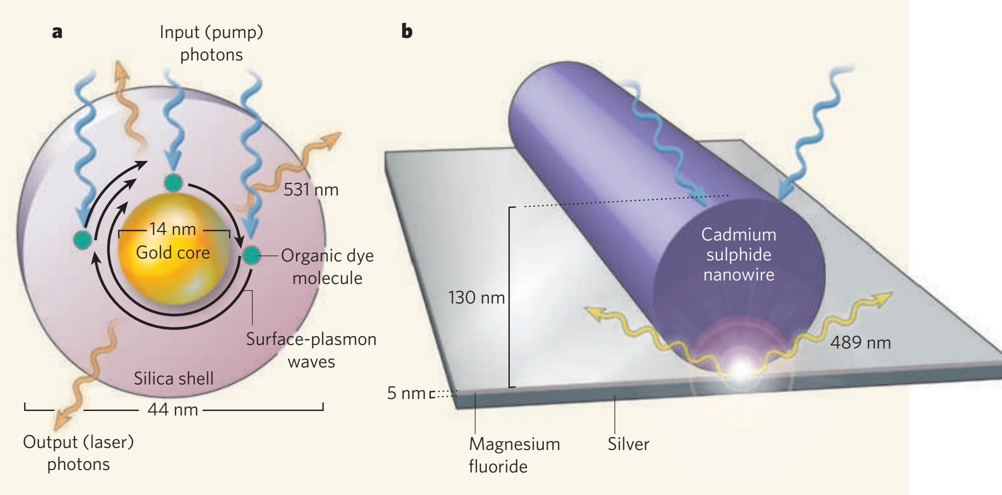

Figure 1 | Plasmon-based nanolasing. a, The laser structure developed by Noginov and colleagues[1] consists of a gold core surrounded by a silica shell in which organic dye molecules are embedded. The molecules provide the laser's optical gain. The energy (photons) pumped into the system is transferred to the collective motion of the electrons on the gold core's surface and stimulates the coherent emission and amplification of so-called surface-plasmon waves. These waves are ultimately converted into laser light of wavelength 531 nm. b, Oulton and co-workers' laser[2], whose working principle is also based on surface-plasmon waves, consists of a cadmium sulphide nanowire separated from a silver surface by a 5-nm insulating gap made of magnesium fluoride. The emergent, 489-nm-wavelength laser light is emitted from a strongly confined spot within the gap region.

The laser developed by Oulton and co-workers[2] is a single hybrid surface-plasmon cavity-waveguide structure that consists of a high-gain cadmium sulphide semiconductor nanowire separated from a flat silver surface by a 5-nm insulating gap (Fig. 1b). The authors' experiments and theoretical simulations suggest that the relevant dimension of the cavity, and hence the size of the laser spot, is of the order of 25 nm, around 20 times smaller than the laser's operating wavelength of 489 nm. The laser spot size is controlled by the width of the insulating gap and the diameter of the nanowire. In contrast to standard nanowire lasers[8], there is no cut-off laser size below which the strongly confined surface-plasmon waves cease to exist. Therefore, the expectation is that even smaller plasmon-based lasers can be realized if the width of the gap is reduced further.

Although the two studies[1,2] offer considerable advances in plasmonic-laser science, issues remain that must be tackled before a fully operative plasmonic nanolaser can be realized. One issue is the degree to which the emitted laser light is coherent, a key laser property that has not been explicitly measured by the authors[1,2]. Another troublesome point is related to the lack of collimation of the emergent laser light — in the experiments, converting surface-plasmon waves into conventional laser light resulted in light propagation in all directions.

As far as realistic applications go, electrical pumping would be more compatible with standard technologies than the optical pumping used in the two experiments[1,2]. Nevertheless, the presence of a semiconductor material in the hybrid scheme developed by Oulton and colleagues ensures that their plasmonic laser could also be driven by electric currents. In both experiments, surface plasmons were exploited merely to implement ultra-small, nanometre-scale lasers. An exciting perspective to be explored is using the devices as pure spasers — that is, as sources of coherent surface plasmons. This would pave the way to a new type of nanocircuitry based entirely on surface plasmons. ■

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Correction

In "Gamma-ray bursts: Maybe not so old after all" by Enrico Ramirez-Ruiz and William Lee (*Nature* **460,** 1091–1092; 2009), an editorial error introduced the statement that GRB 070714B is "slightly more than 8 billion parsecs away". The correct units are light years, not parsecs.