



**The Abdus Salam
International Centre for Theoretical Physics**



2286-2

Workshop on New Materials for Renewable Energy

31 October - 11 November 201

Linear and Nonlinear Guided-Wave Photonics

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Linear and Nonlinear Guided-Wave Photonics



from waveguides to optical solitons

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From electronics to photonics

- **Electronic components**

Speed of processors is saturated due to high heat dissipation
frequency dependent attenuation,
crosstalk, impedance matching, etc.

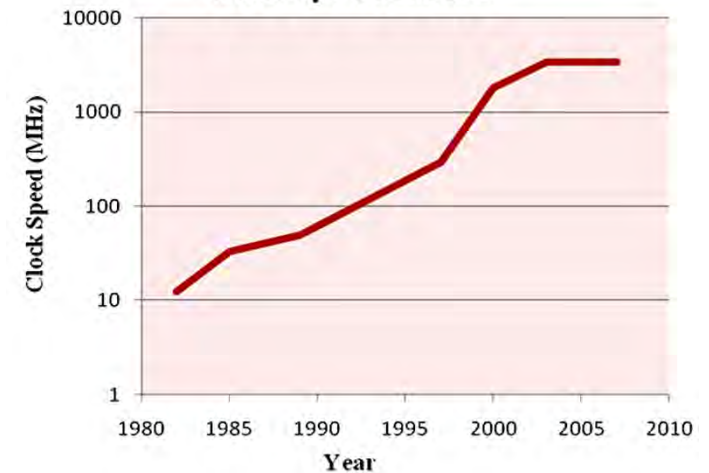
- **Photonic integration**

Light carrier frequency is 100,000 times higher, therefore a potential for faster transfer of information

- **Photonic interconnects**

already demonstrate advantages of photonics for passive transfer of information

Change in Clock Speed for Intel Microprocessors

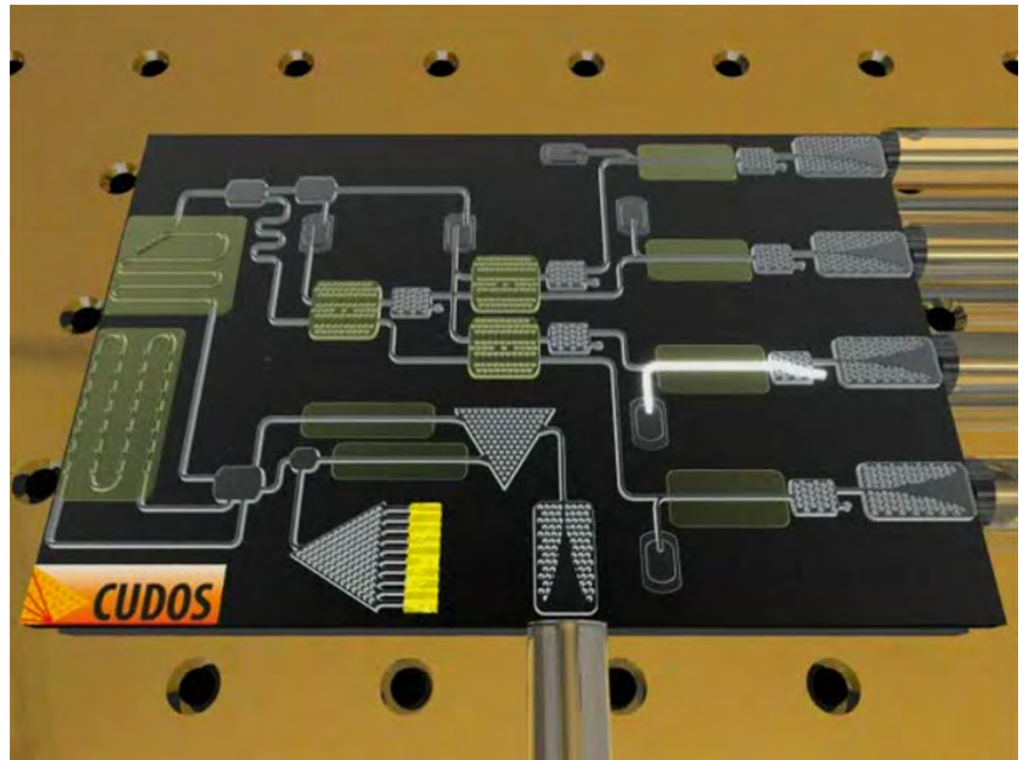


The photonic chip

Processing of the information all-optically



Need to scale down
the dimensions



<http://www.cudos.org.au/cudos/education/Animation.php>



Photonic chip components

1. Light sources (lasers).
2. Waveguides (photonic wires).
3. Functionalities (ability of waveguides to process information)
 - electro-optical;
 - all-optical.
4. Detectors (photo diodes).



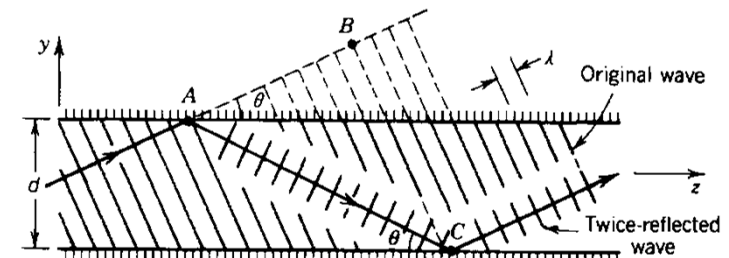
Lecture #1

- Waveguides
- Waveguide dispersion
- Pulse propagation in waveguides
- Nonlinearities and optical nonlinearities
- Self-phase modulation
- Optical solitons

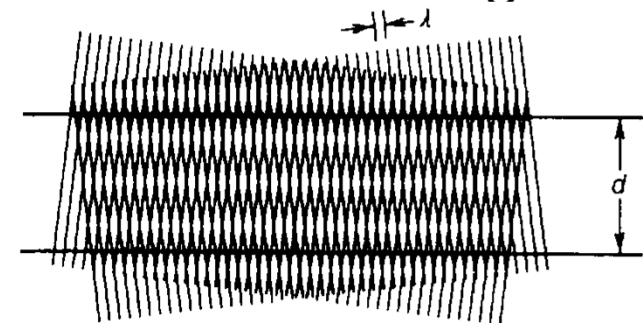
Waveguides: photonic wires



Waveguide guiding



Modes of a waveguide



The incident and reflected wave create a pattern that does not change with z – wg mode



Photonic elements



Splitter



What happens to the light in a waveguide

- Waveguide propagation losses

Light can be dissipated or scattered as it propagates

- Dispersion

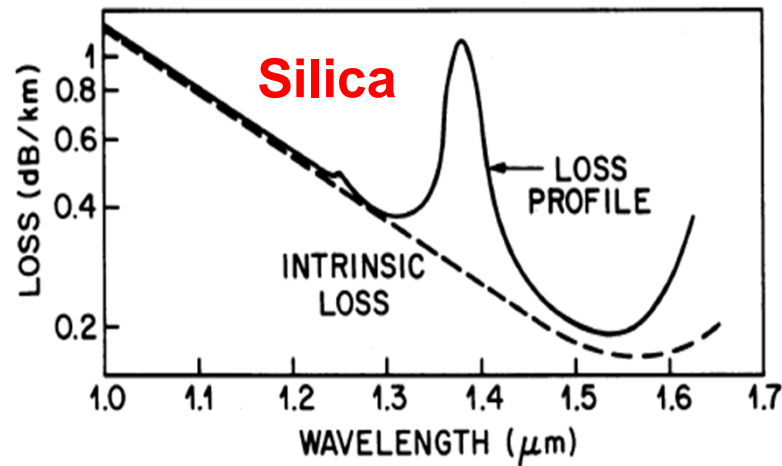
Different colours travel with different speed in the waveguide

- Nonlinearities at high powers

At high power, the light can change the refractive index of the material that changes the propagation of light.

Waveguide loss: mechanisms

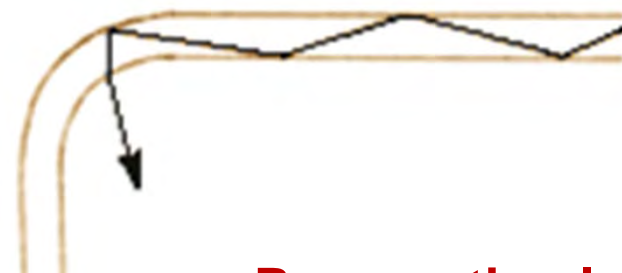
■ Intrinsic/material



■ Waveguide bending

■ Scattering due to inhomogeneities:

- Rayleigh scattering: $\alpha_R \sim \lambda^{-4}$;
- Side wall roughness



Propagation loss

■ Coupling loss

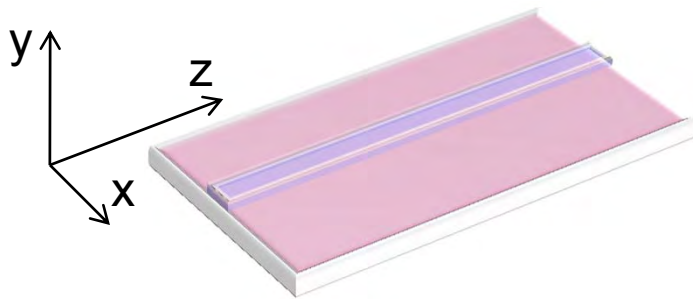
Waveguide loss: description

$$P(z) = P_0 \exp(-\alpha z)$$

α [cm⁻¹] – attenuation constant

$$\alpha_{dB} = -10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{P(z)}{P_0} \right)$$


3 dB loss = 50% attenuation



Often propagation loss is measured in dB/cm

$$\alpha_{dB/cm} = -\frac{10}{L} \log_{10} \left(\frac{P(L)}{P_0} \right) = 4.343\alpha$$

Typical loss for waveguides 0.2 dB/cm
for fibres 0.2 dB/km



Dispersion - Mechanisms



Dispersion

- Material (chromatic)
- Waveguide
- Polarisation
- Modal

Material dispersion

- Related to the characteristic resonance frequencies at which the medium absorbs the electromagnetic radiation through oscillations of bound electrons.



Sellmeier equation
(far from resonances)

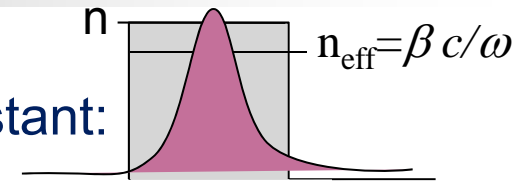
$$n^2(\lambda) = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{B_j \lambda^2}{\lambda^2 - \lambda_j^2},$$

where λ_j are the resonance wavelengths and B_j are the strength of j th resonance

- For short pulses (finite bandwidth): different spectral components will travel with different speed $c/n(\lambda)$ giving rise to Group Velocity Dispersion (GVD).

Group velocity dispersion

Accounted by the dispersion of the propagation constant:



$$\beta(\omega) = n(\omega) \frac{\omega}{c} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\omega - \omega_0) + \frac{1}{2}\beta_2(\omega - \omega_0)^2 + \dots,$$

$$\beta_m = \left(\frac{d^m \beta}{d\omega^m} \right)_{\omega=\omega_0} \quad (m = 0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

$$\beta_1 = \frac{1}{v_g} = \frac{n_g}{c} = \frac{1}{c} \left(n + \omega \frac{dn}{d\omega} \right),$$

v_g is the group velocity, n_g is the group index

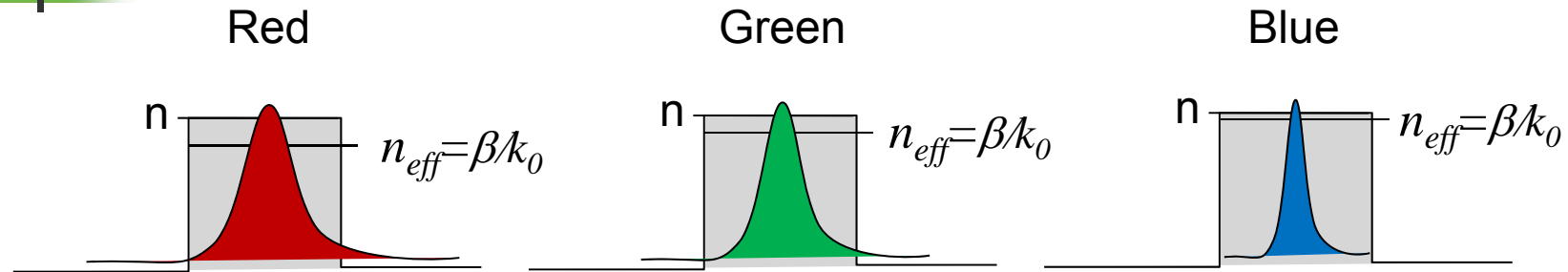
GVD is quantified by the dispersion parameter

$$D = \frac{d\beta_1}{d\lambda} \approx \frac{\lambda}{c} \frac{d^2 n}{d\lambda^2}$$

measured in [ps/(km nm)]

$D > 0$ – anomalous dispersion; $D < 0$ – normal dispersion

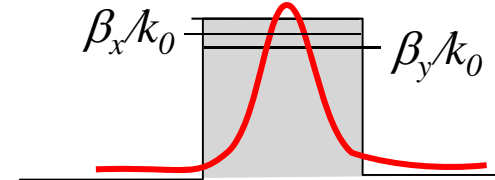
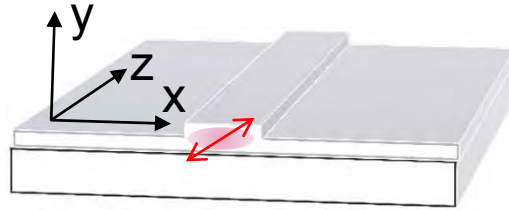
Waveguide dispersion



At different wavelengths the mode has a different shape.

This geometrical consideration leads to shift in the dispersion curves.
The effect is more pronounced in high index and narrow waveguides,
e.g. photonic nanowires.

Polarisation-mode dispersion

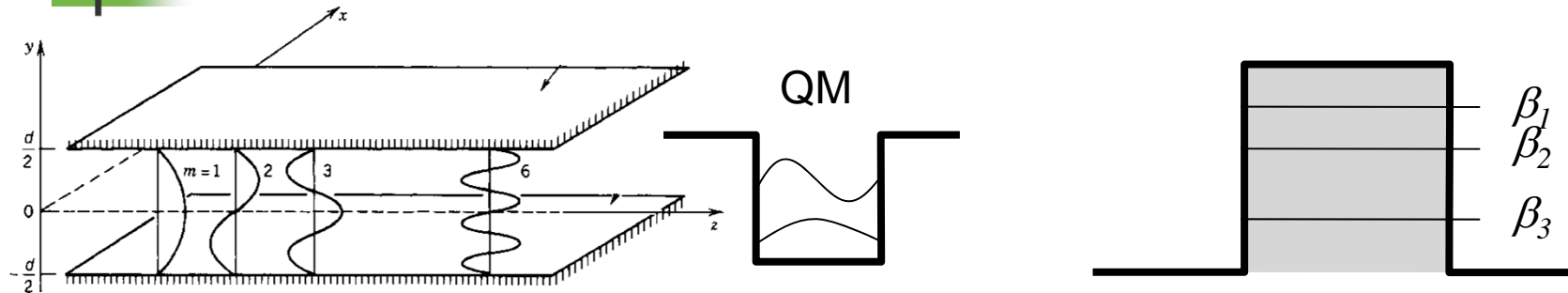


- Usual waveguides are strongly birefringent, therefore the propagation constants for x and y polarisation will be different.
- The two polarisations will travel with different speed inside the waveguide

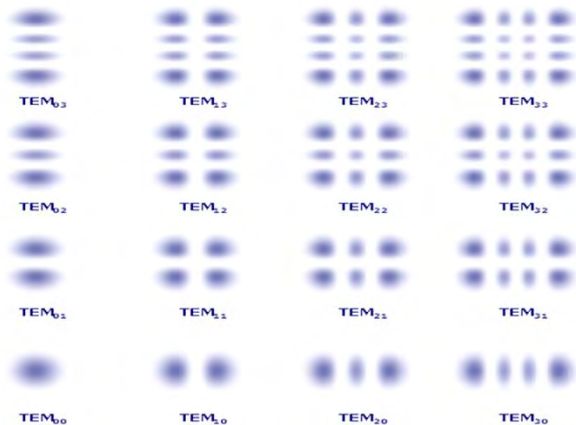
$$\Delta T = \left| \frac{L}{v_{gx}} - \frac{L}{v_{gy}} \right| = L |\beta_{1x} - \beta_{1y}|$$

Time delay between two pulses of orthogonal polarisation

Modal dispersion

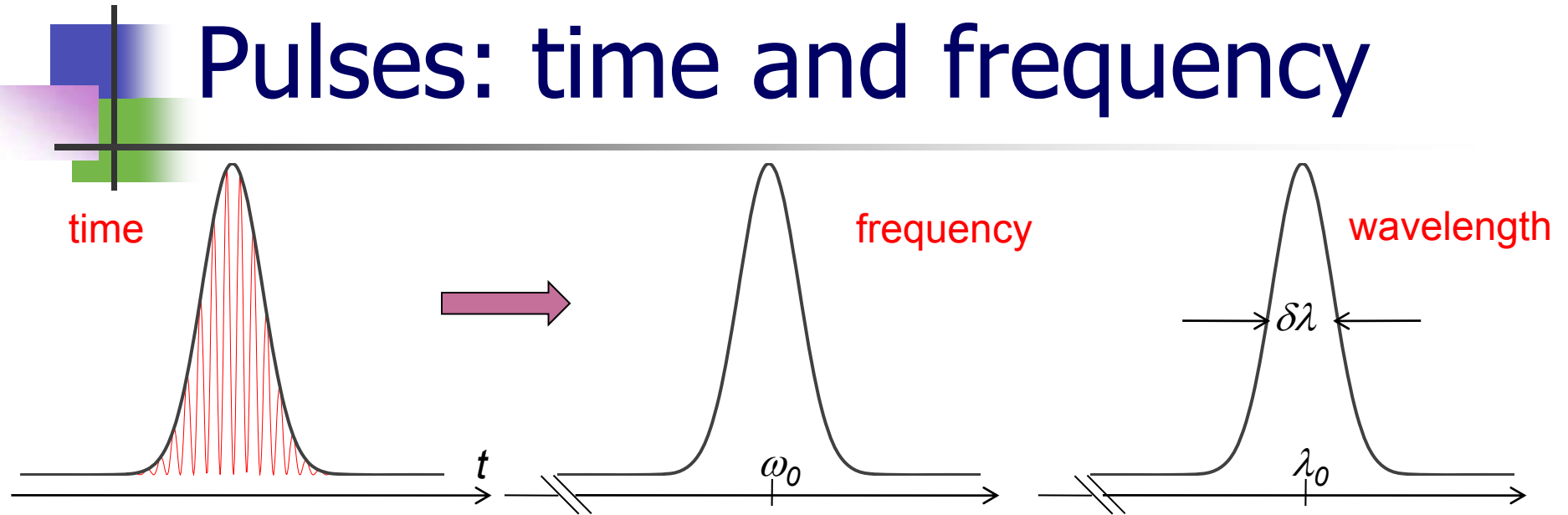


Modes of a square waveguide



- The different modes have different propagation constants and will travel with different velocities inside the waveguide.
- Need to make the waveguide single mode or excite one mode only.

Pulses: time and frequency



A pulse is a superposition (interference) of monochromatic waves:

$$A(z, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(z, \omega) \exp(i\omega t) d\omega$$

Each of these components will propagate with slightly different speed, but also their phase will evolve differently and the pulse will be modified:

velocity \neq ph. velocity and duration (profile) will change



Group velocity

- As a result of the dispersion, the pulse (the envelope) will propagate with a speed equal to the group velocity

$$v_g \equiv \frac{d\omega}{dk} = \frac{c}{n} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n} \frac{dn}{d\lambda} \right)$$

Possibility for slow, superluminal, or backward light

- One can define a group index as $n_g = c/v_g$

$$n_g = \frac{c}{v_g} = \left(n - \lambda \frac{dn}{d\lambda} \right)$$

Index which the pulse will feel



Pulse broadening

- The finite bandwidth ($\delta\lambda$) of the source leads to a spread of the group velocities δv_g

$$\delta v_g = \frac{dv_g}{d\lambda} \delta\lambda = \frac{c\lambda}{n^2} \left(\frac{d^2n}{d\lambda^2} - \frac{2}{n} \left(\frac{dn}{d\lambda} \right)^2 \right)$$

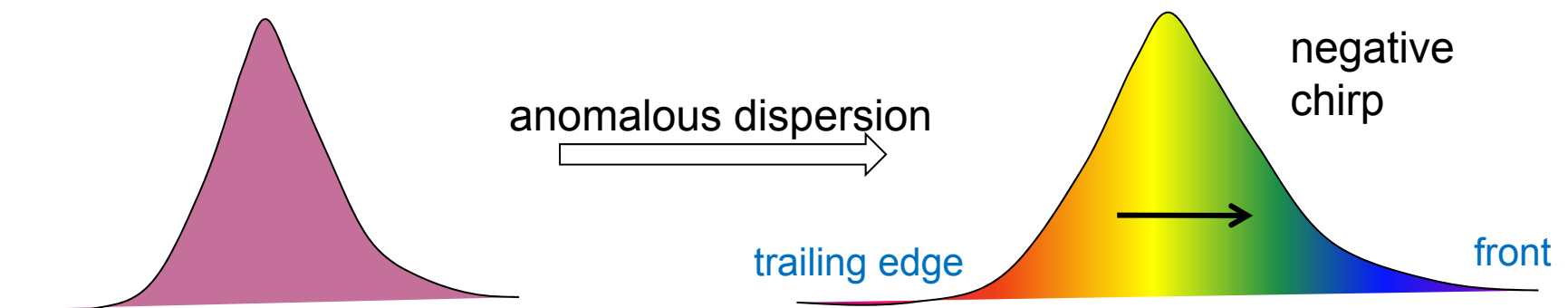
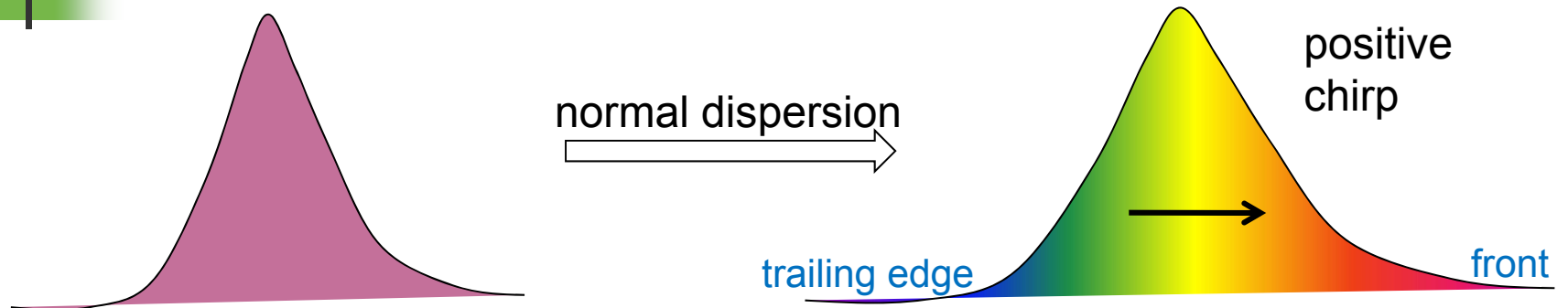
- Then a short pulse will experience a broadening δt after propagation L in the material:

$$\delta t = \frac{L}{v_g} \frac{\delta v_g}{v_g} = LD\delta\lambda$$

$$\text{where } D = \frac{\lambda}{c} \left(\frac{d^2n}{d\lambda^2} \right).$$

Dispersion
coefficient

Pulse chirp



Short pulse propagation in dispersive media

The propagation of pulses is described by the propagation equation:

$$i \frac{\partial A}{\partial z} - \frac{\beta_2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial t^2} = 0, \quad \text{where} \quad \beta_2 = -\frac{\lambda^2}{2\pi c} D$$

This is a partial differential equation, usually solved in the frequency domain.

$$i \frac{\partial \tilde{A}}{\partial z} + \frac{\beta_2}{2} \omega^2 \tilde{A} = 0, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{A}(z, \omega) = \tilde{A}(0, \omega) \exp\left(\frac{\beta_2}{2} \omega^2 z\right),$$

Important parameter:

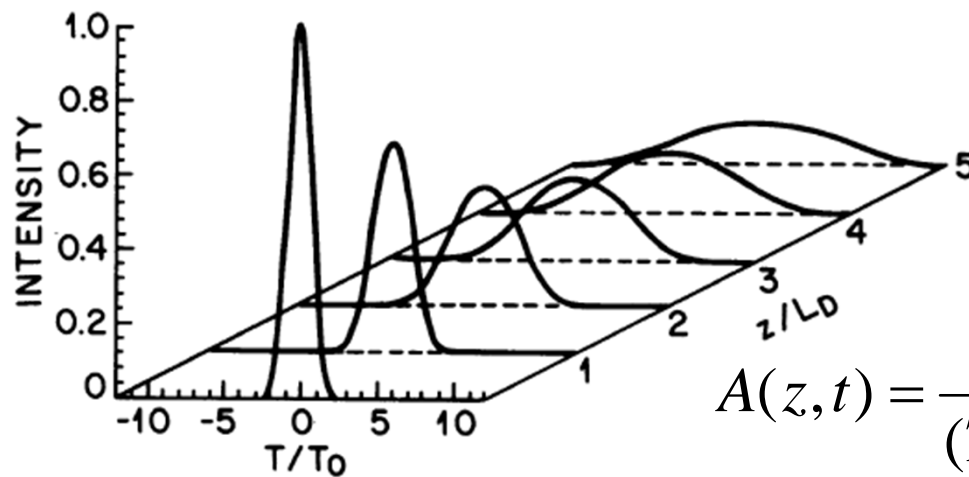
Dispersion length

$$L_D = \frac{T_0^2}{|\beta_2|}$$

The length at which the dispersion is pronounced

T_0 pulse width

Example: Gaussian pulse



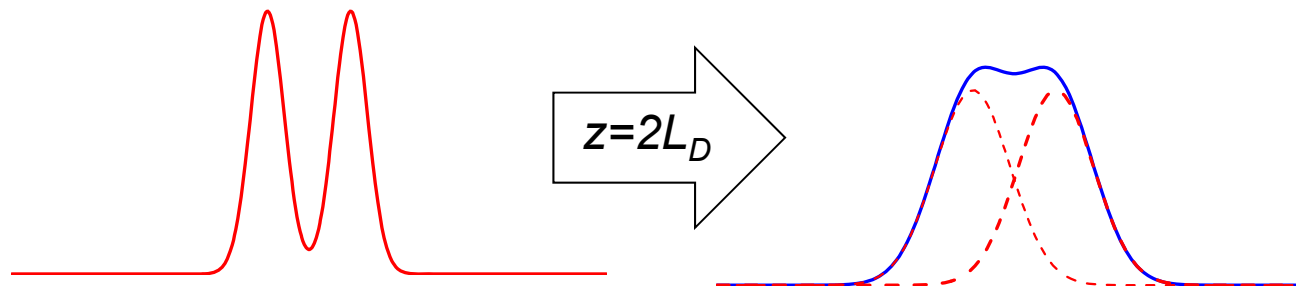
$$A(0, t) = \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2T_0^2}\right)$$

$$A(z, t) = \frac{T_0}{(T_0 - i\beta_2 z)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2(T_0^2 - i\beta_2 z)}\right)$$

A Gaussian pulse maintain its shape with propagation, but its width increases as

$$T(z) = T_0[1 + (z / L_D)^2]^{1/2}$$

How to compensate the spreading due to dispersion?



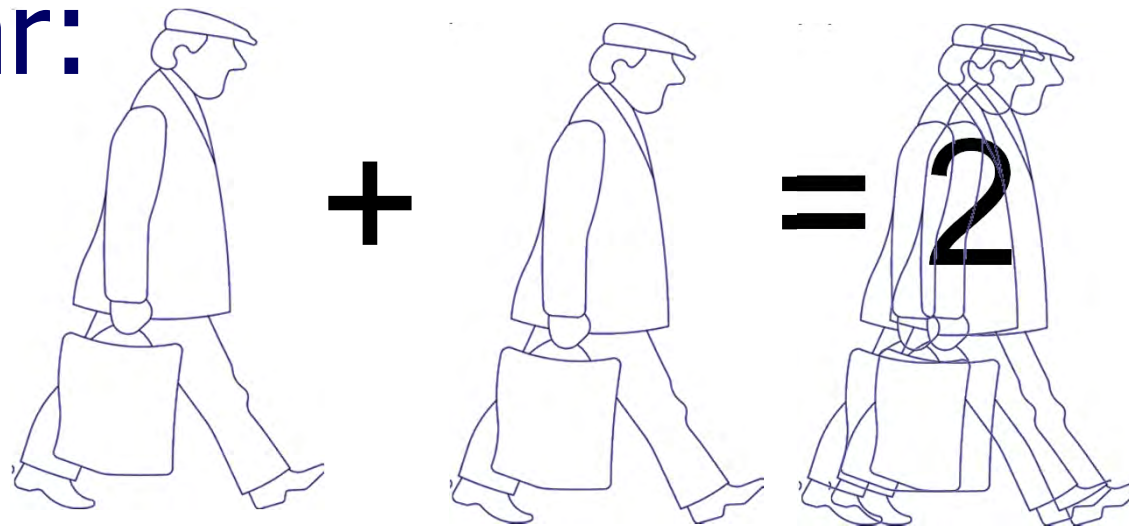
The dispersion needs to be compensated or close wavepackets will start overlapping.

This is usually done by dispersion compensator devices placed at some distances in the chip, or through proper dispersion management

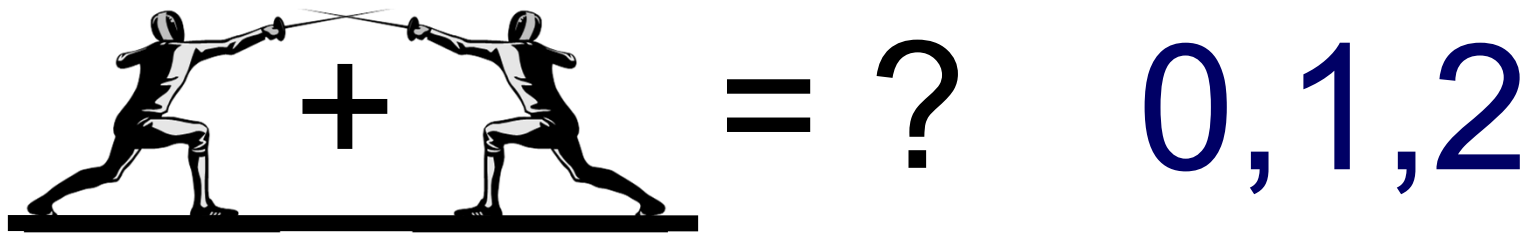
Material nonlinearity can balance the dispersion and pulses can propagate with minimum distortion.

What is nonlinearity?

Linear:



Nonlinearity: interaction

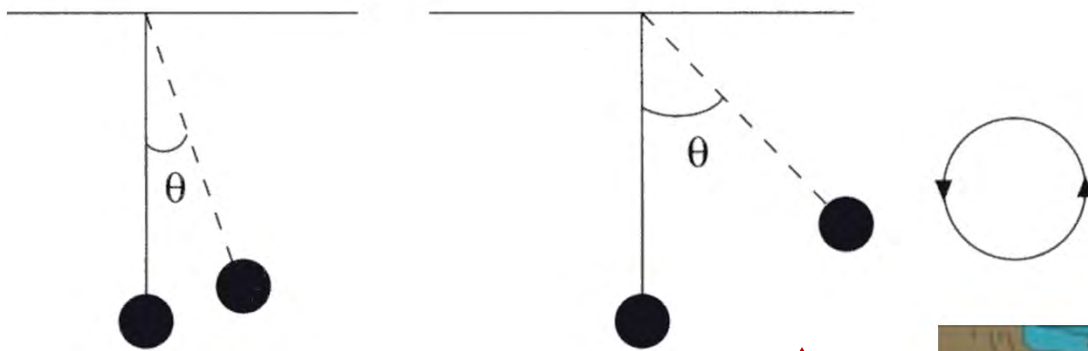




Nonlinearity: Examples

- Nonlinearity is present to many different systems in nature, including social sciences, biology, atmospheric physics, hydrodynamics, solid-state physics, and of course optics

Physics: Pendulum



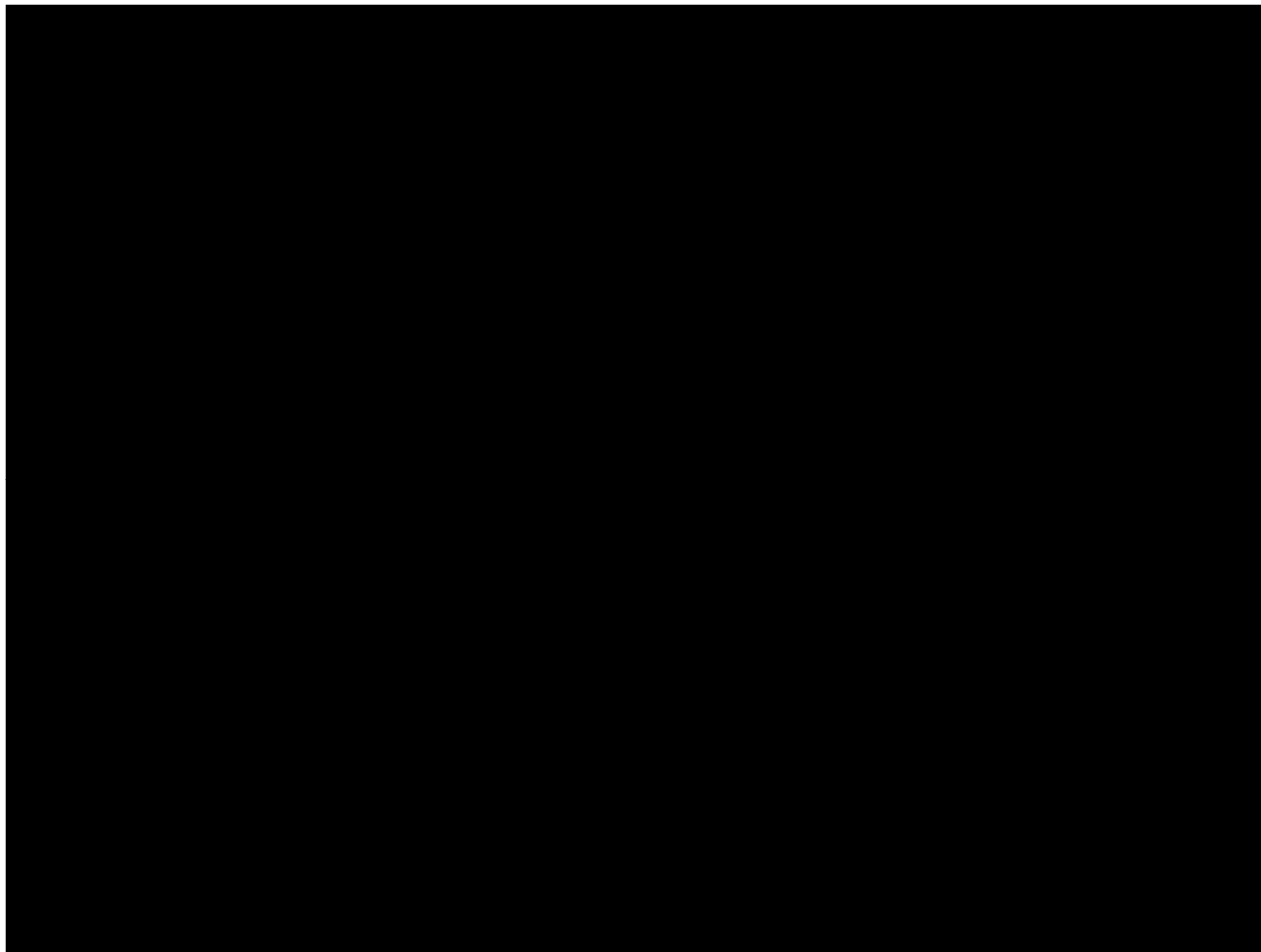
Large amplitude oscillations of a pendulum

The force is no more linear with the amplitude

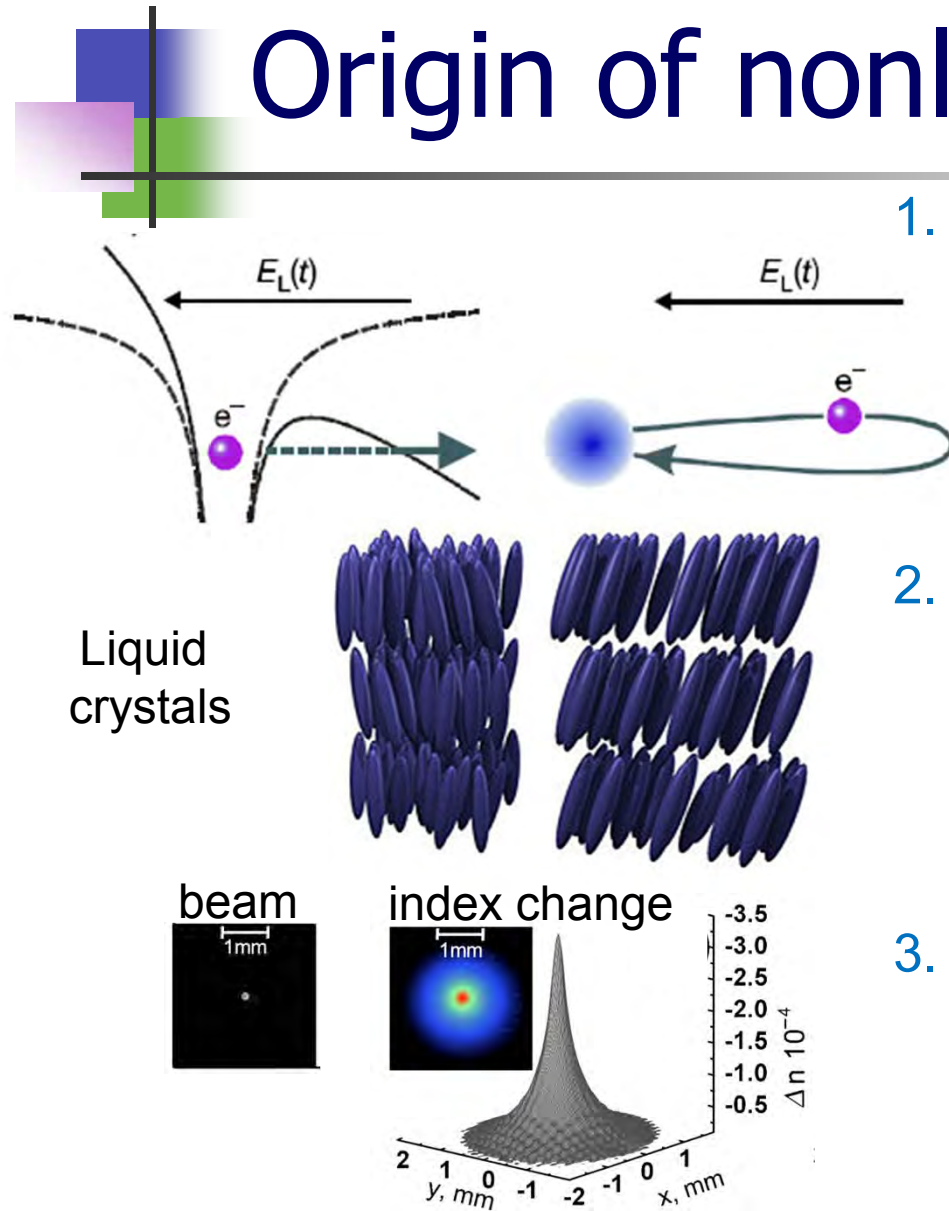




Extreme nonlinearities



Origin of nonlinearities



1. Electronic

The light electric field distorts the clouds displacing the electrons. Due to anharmonic motion of bound electrons (Similar to the nonlin. pendulum). *Fast response (10fs), high power kW - GW*

2. Molecular orientation

due to anisotropic shape of the molecules they have different refractive index for different polarisation. The light field can reorient the molecules.

Response 1ps – 10ms, 1kW – 1mW

3. Thermal nonlinearities

due to absorption the material can heat, expand, and change refractive index (thermo-optic effect) *1-100ms, 1mW*



Origin of nonlinearities

4. Photorefractive

due to photo-excitation of charges, their separation in the material and electro-optic effect, 1-10s, $<1\mu\text{W}$

5. Atomic

due to excitation of atomic transitions

6. Semiconductor

due to excitation of carriers in the conduction bands

7. Metal

due to deceleration of the free electrons next to the surface

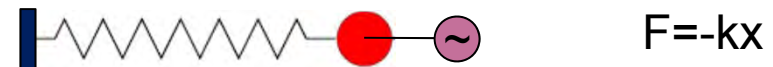
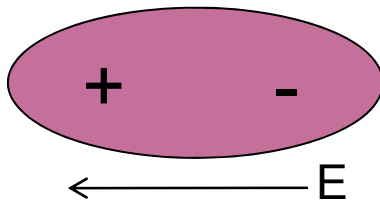
■ Classification:

Non-resonant and resonant nonlinearities
depending on the proximity of resonances

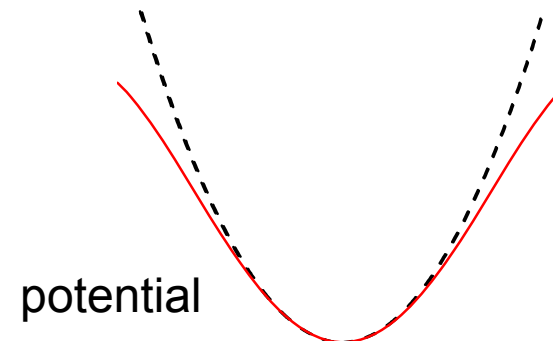
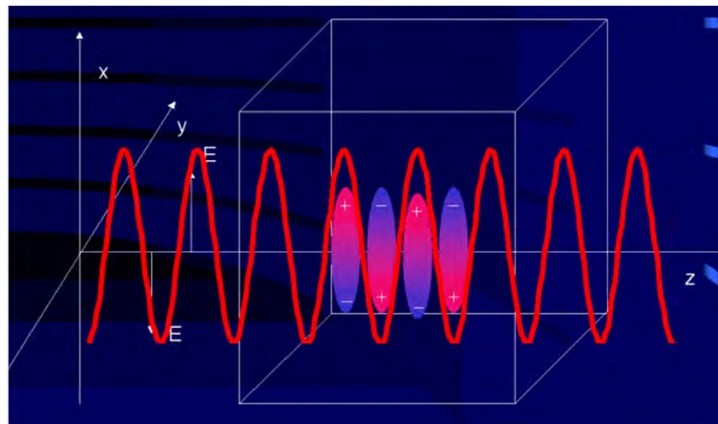
Optics: Medium polarisation

- Separation of charges gives rise to a dipole moment (model of bound electron clouds surrounding nucleus)
- Dipole moment per unit volume is called **Polarisation**

This is similar to a mass on a spring



When the driving force is too strong the oscillations become anharmonic





Polarisation: description

$$\mathbf{P} = \chi \epsilon_0 \mathbf{E}$$

χ is the dielectric susceptibility, ϵ_0 is the vacuum permittivity

- In isotropic materials, the above relationship may be scalar and $\mathbf{P} \parallel \mathbf{E}$
- In general, however the relation between \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{E} is tensor
- At high electric field, the susceptibility becomes a nonlinear function of the electric field.

$$\mathbf{P} = \epsilon_0 \left(\chi^{(1)} \cdot \mathbf{E} + \chi^{(2)} : \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E} + \chi^{(3)} : \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}\mathbf{E} + \dots \right)$$

- This expansion valid for a non-resonant nonlinearity.
For electronic nonlinearity $E \ll E_{\text{internal}} = 10^{11} \text{ V/m}$; At optical wavelengths, an intensity of 10^{12} W/m^2 corresponds to $E \sim 10^9 \text{ V/m}$



Polarisation: description

$$\mathbf{P} = \varepsilon_0 \left(\chi^{(1)} \cdot \mathbf{E} + \chi^{(2)} : \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E} + \chi^{(3)} : \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}\mathbf{E} + \dots \right)$$

- $\chi^{(j)}$ ($j=1,2,\dots$) is j^{th} order susceptibility;
- $\chi^{(j)}$ is a tensor of rank $j+1$;
- for this series to converge $\chi^{(1)}E \gg \chi^{(2)}E^2 \gg \chi^{(3)}E^3$
- $\chi^{(1)}$ is the linear susceptibility (dominant contribution). Its effects are included through the refractive index (real part) and the absorption α (imaginary part).



Nonlinear refraction

- The refractive index is modified by the presence of optical field:

$$n(\lambda, I) = n_0(\lambda) + n_2 I$$

where $n_0(\lambda)$ is the linear refractive index,
 $I = (nc\epsilon_0/2)|E|^2$ is the optical intensity,
 $n_2 = 12\pi^2\chi^{(3)}/n_0c$ $3\chi^{(3)}/4\epsilon_0n_0^2c$
is the nonlinear index coefficient

- This intensity dependence of the refractive index leads to a large number of nonlinear effects with the most widely used:
 - Self-phase modulation
 - Cross phase modulation

Self phase modulation

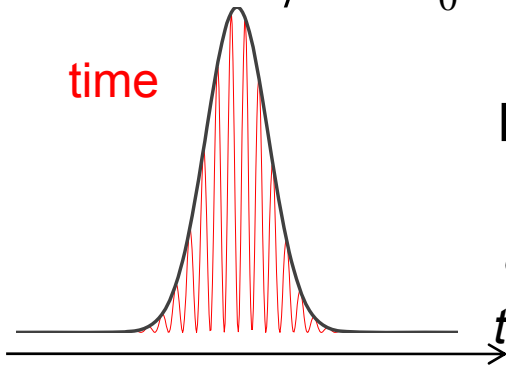
- SPM – self-induced phased shift experienced by the optical pulse with propagation

$\phi = nk_0L = (n_0 + n_2I)k_0L$ where $k_0=2\pi/\lambda$ vacuum wavenumber, L is the propagation length

time

however $I=I(t)$ hence $\phi = \phi(t)$

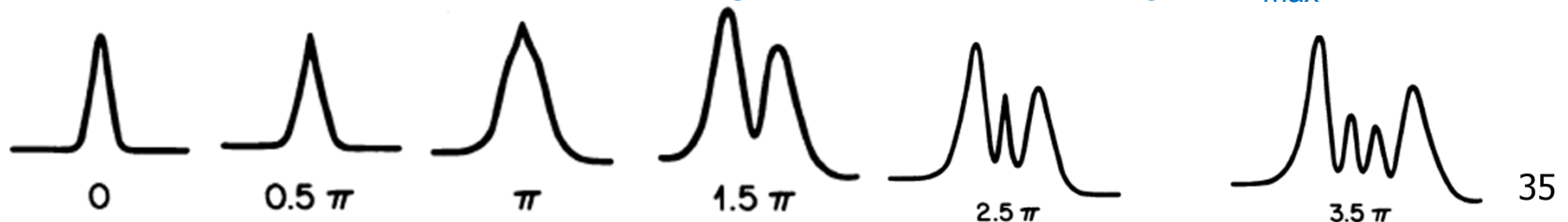
What does this mean?



$$\omega(t) = \omega_0 + \delta\omega = \omega_0 - \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

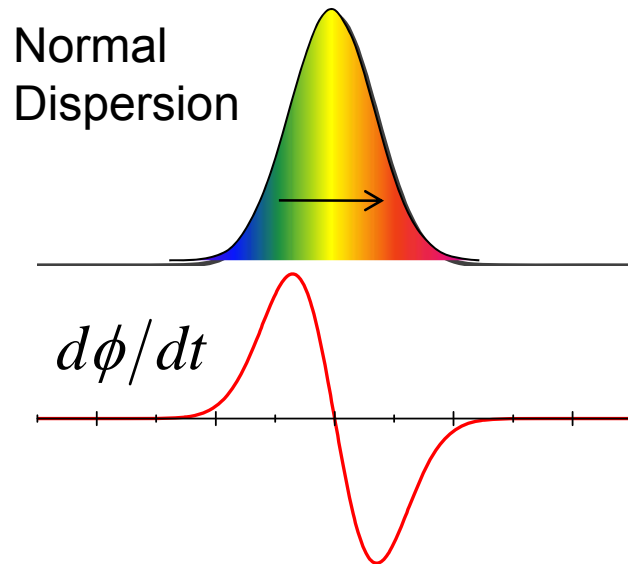
Generation of new frequencies
Spectral broadening

Measured spectral broadening of pulses depending on ϕ_{\max}



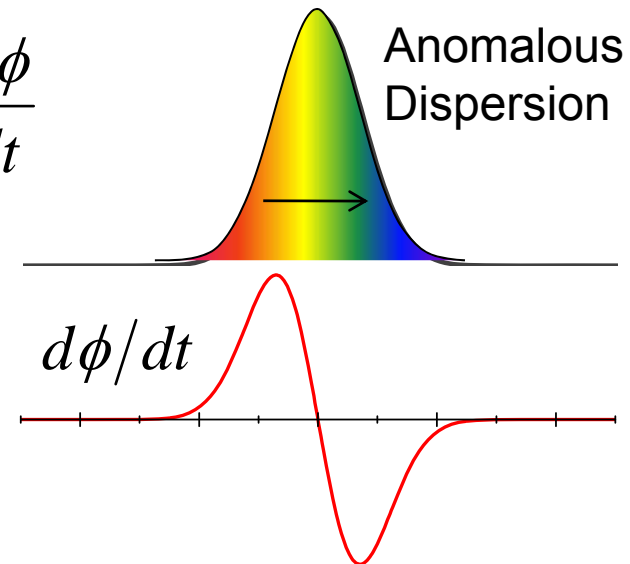
Optical solitons

- What happens to intense pulses in dispersive media?



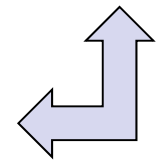
Nonlinearity increases the dispersion

$$\omega(t) = \omega_0 - \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

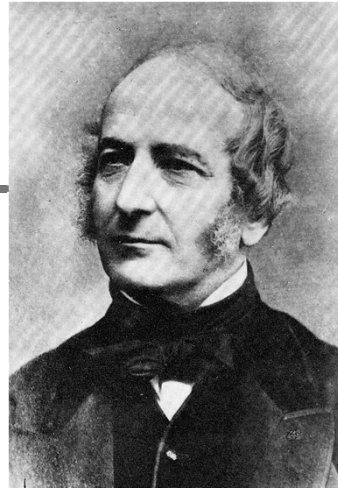
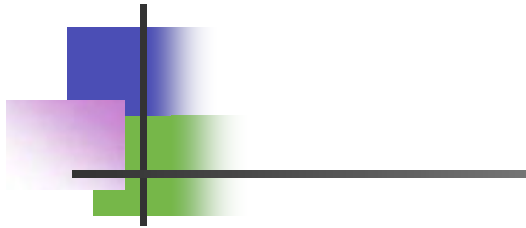


Nonlinearity counteract the dispersion

- Nonlinearity can fully balance the dispersion:
Optical Soliton



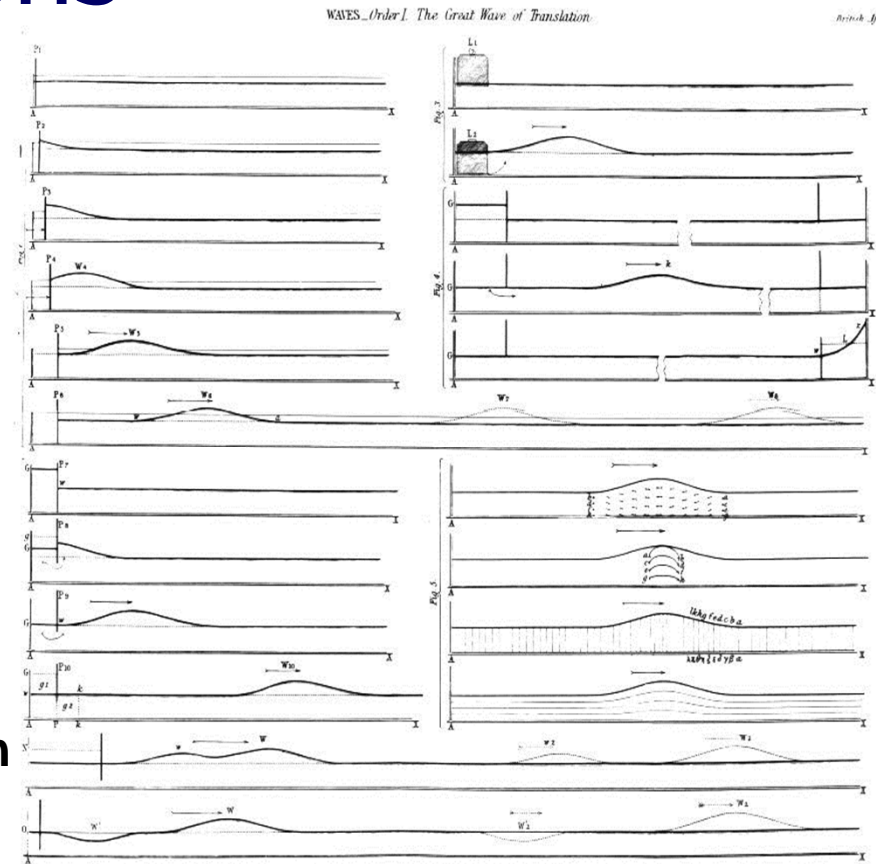
Discovery of solitons



John Scott Russell (1808-1882)

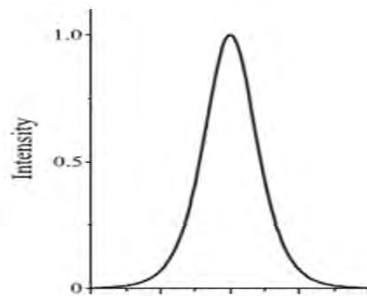
Very bright engineer: invented an improved *steam-driven road carriage* in 1833. "Union Canal Society" of Edinburgh asked him to set up a navigation system with steam boats

During his investigations, 6 miles from the centre of Edinburgh, he observed a *soliton* for the first time in August 1834

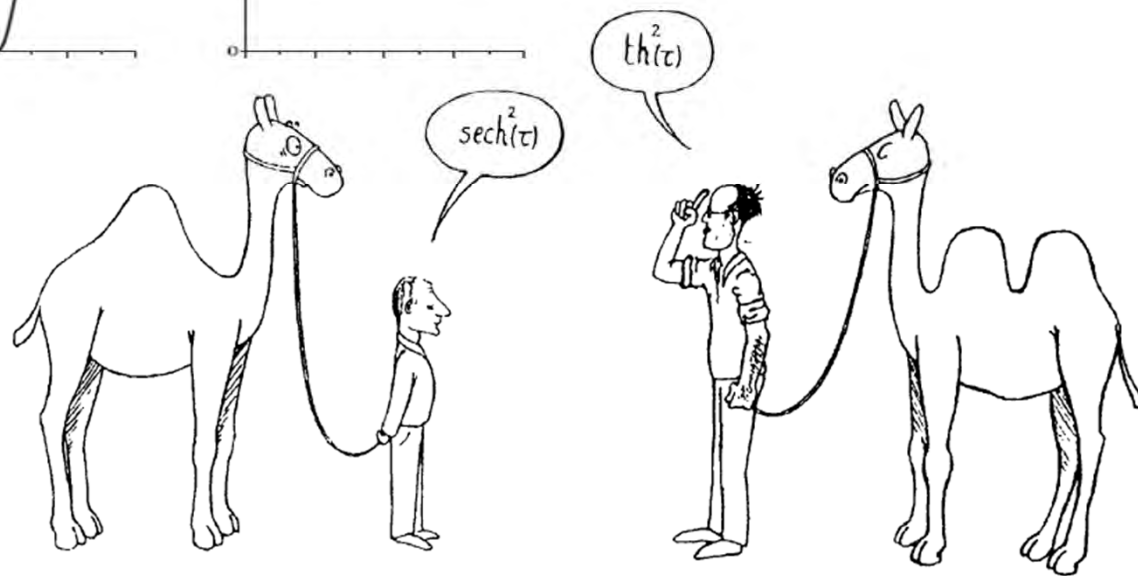
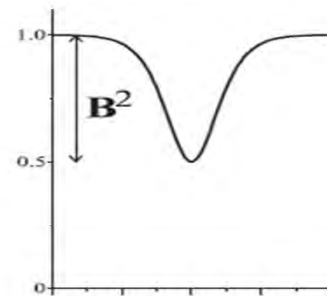
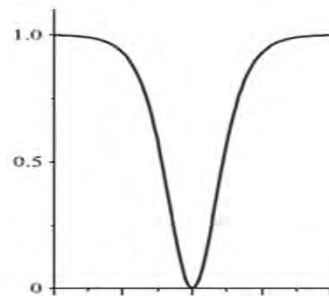


Types of solitons

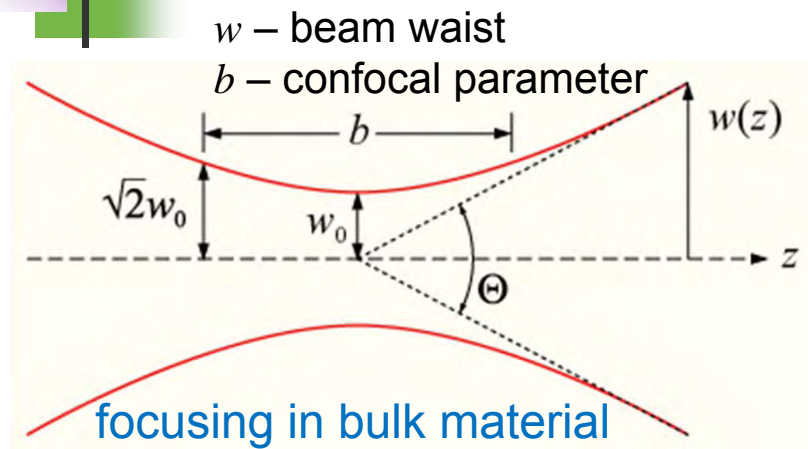
Dark –normal dispersion



Bright
anomalous
dispersion



Nonlinear effects in waveguides



A figure of merit for the efficiency of a nonlinear process: $I L_{eff}$

$$(IL_{eff})_{bulk} = \left(\frac{P}{\pi w_0^2} \right) \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda} = \frac{P}{\lambda}$$

$$(IL_{eff})_{wg} = \int_0^L I(z) \exp(-\alpha z) dz = \frac{P}{\pi w_0^2 \alpha} [1 - \exp(-\alpha L)].$$

$$F = \frac{(IL_{eff})_{wg}}{(IL_{eff})_{bulk}} = \frac{\lambda}{\pi w_0^2 \alpha}$$

propagation length is only limited by the absorption

for $\lambda=1.55\mu\text{m}$, $w_0=2\mu\text{m}$,
 $\alpha=0.046\text{cm}^{-1}$ (0.2dB/cm) $\rightarrow F \sim 2 \times 10^4$



Summary of the second part

- Pulses propagate with a group velocity and spread due to GVD
- There exist different type of nonlinearities, but the main effects remain similar
- Description of nonresonant nonlinear polarisation: nonlinear SPM and CPM
- Nonlinearity can fully balance the anomalous dispersion in the form of solitons



Lecture #2

- Nonlinear optics emerges
- $\chi^{(2)}$ parametric processes
- Phase matching
- Four-wave mixing and applications
- Plasmonic waveguides

Nonlinearity: Examples

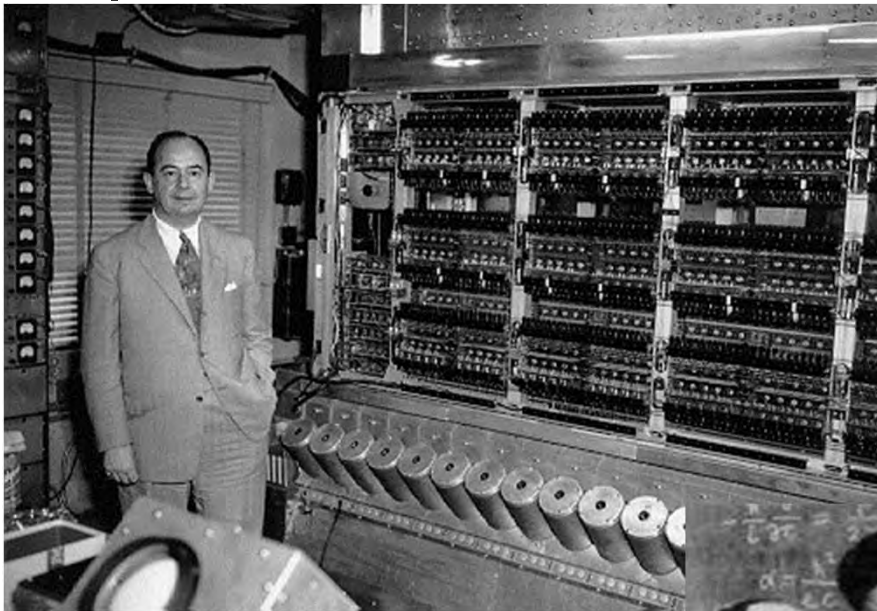
Nonlinearity is present in many different systems in nature, including **social sciences, biology, chemistry, atmospheric physics, hydrodynamics, solid-state physics, and optics**



The force is no more linear with the amplitude



The birth of Nonlinear Physics: Fermi-Pasta-Ulam Problem



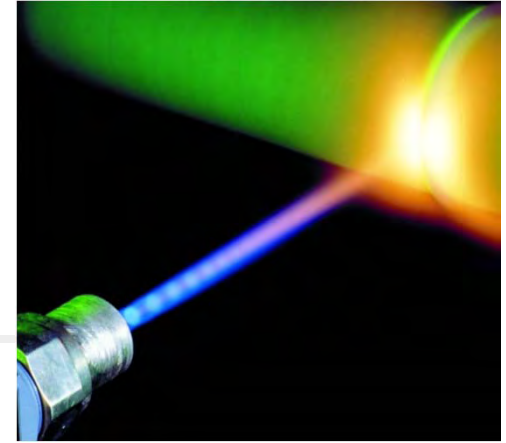
MANIAC I and Von Neumann

MANIAC: Mathematical Analyzer,
Numerator, Integrator, and
Computer



Los Alamos -1950s

Nonlinear optics



1958-60: Invention of the laser

1964: Townes, Basov and Prokhorov shared the **Nobel prize** for their fundamental work leading to the construction of lasers

1981: Bloembergen and Schawlow received the **Nobel prize** for their contribution to the development of laser spectroscopy. One typical application of this is *nonlinear optics* which means methods of influencing one light beam with another and permanently joining several laser beams



Nicolaas
Bloembergen



Arthur Leonard
Schawlow

A.M. Prokhorov



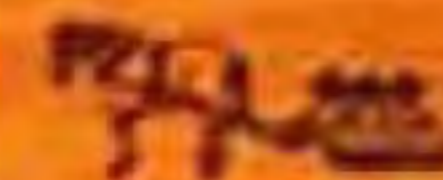
ALEKSANDR PROKHOROV

Aleksandr Prokhorov, outstanding Russian scientist and Nobel Laureate in physics was born at Butchers Creek on 11th July 1916. Aleksandr attended Butchers Creek State School from 1922 -1923. The Prokhorov family returned to Russia in 1923 where Aleksandr continued his studies graduating with distinction from Leningrad University in 1939.

He was awarded the Nobel Prize for physics in 1964 thus being the first Queensland born scientist to be so honoured.

The AM Prokhorov General Physics Institute in Moscow was named in his honour.

Presented by Echuca Historical Society to mark
Aleksandr's 100th Birthday





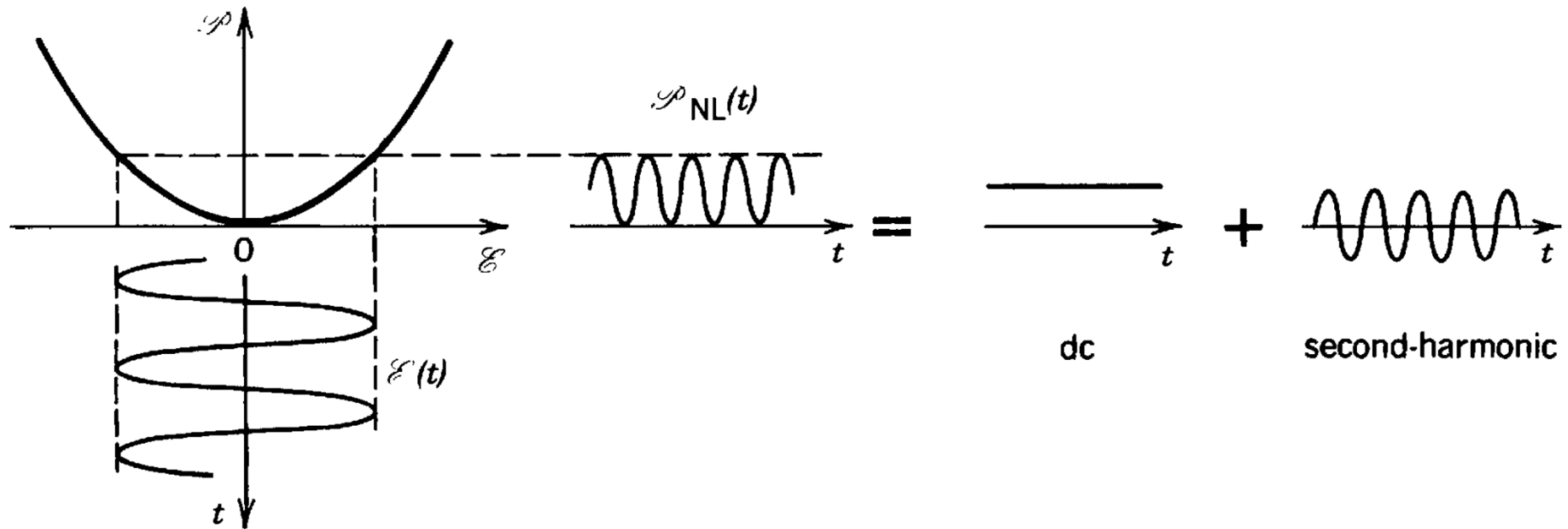
Polarisation: description

$$\mathbf{P} = \varepsilon_0 \left(\chi^{(1)} \cdot \mathbf{E} + \chi^{(2)} : \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E} + \chi^{(3)} : \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}\mathbf{E} + \dots \right)$$

- $\chi^{(j)}$ ($j=1,2,\dots$) is j^{th} order susceptibility;
- $\chi^{(j)}$ is a tensor of rank $j+1$;
- for this series to converge $\chi^{(1)}E \gg \chi^{(2)}E^2 \gg \chi^{(3)}E^3$
- $\chi^{(1)}$ is the linear susceptibility (dominant contribution). Its effects are included through the refractive index (real part) and the absorption α (imaginary part).

Nonlinearity in noncentrosymmetric media

$$P^{(2)} = \chi^{(2)} E E$$





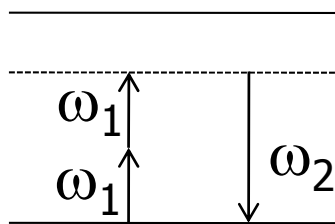
Nonlinear frequency conversion

Wavelength
Converter

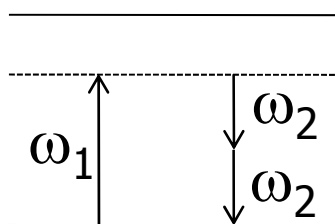
Can use $\chi^{(2)}$ or $\chi^{(3)}$ nonlinear processes. Those arising from $\chi^{(2)}$ are however can be achieved at lower powers.

Frequency mixing

Three wave mixing

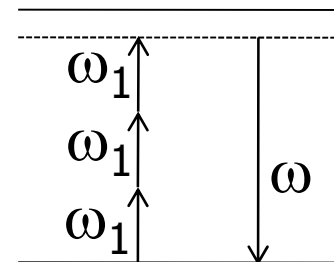


Sum frequency generation

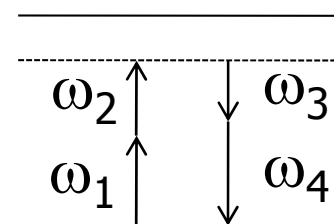


Difference freq. generation

Four wave mixing



THG



FWM

$\chi^{(2)}$ parametric processes

- Anisotropic materials: crystals (.....)

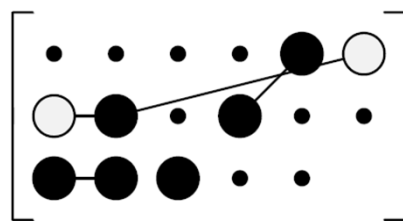
$$P_i = \sum_{jk} \chi_{ijk}^{(2)} E_j^{\omega_a} E_k^{\omega_b} \quad E^{\omega_a} = E_0 \sin(\omega_a t), \quad E^{\omega_b} = E_0 \sin(\omega_b t)$$

$$P_i \propto E_j^{\omega_a} \sin(\omega_a t) \times E_k^{\omega_b} \sin(\omega_b t) \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} &\sin[(\omega_a + \omega_b)t] \quad \text{SFG} \\ &\sin[(\omega_a - \omega_b)t] \quad \text{DFG} \end{aligned}$$

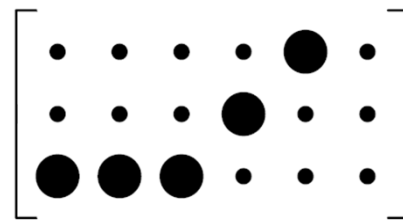
- Due to symmetry and when $\chi^{(2)}$ dispersion can be neglected, it is better to use the tensor $d_{ijk} = \frac{1}{2} \chi_{ijk}^{(2)}$
- In lossless medium, the order of multiplication of the fields is not significant, therefore $d_{ijk} = d_{ikj}$. (only 18 independent parameters)

Crystalline symmetries

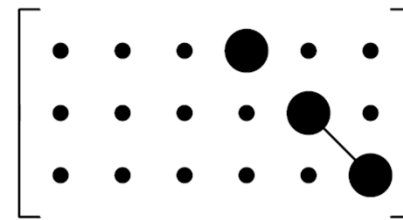
$$\begin{pmatrix} P_x \\ P_y \\ P_z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d_{11} & d_{12} & d_{13} & d_{14} & d_{15} & d_{16} \\ d_{21} & d_{22} & d_{23} & d_{24} & d_{25} & d_{26} \\ d_{31} & d_{32} & d_{33} & d_{34} & d_{35} & d_{36} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E_x(\omega_1)E_x(\omega_2) \\ E_y(\omega_1)E_y(\omega_2) \\ E_z(\omega_1)E_z(\omega_2) \\ E_y(\omega_1)E_z(\omega_2) + E_z(\omega_1)E_y(\omega_2) \\ E_x(\omega_1)E_z(\omega_2) + E_z(\omega_1)E_x(\omega_2) \\ E_x(\omega_1)E_y(\omega_2) + E_y(\omega_1)E_x(\omega_2) \end{pmatrix}$$



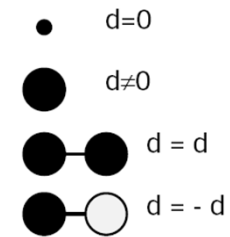
3m eg. Quartz, LiNbO₃



mm2 eg. KTP, LBO



$\bar{4}2m$ eg. KDP



The generated light can have different polarisation than the incident fields

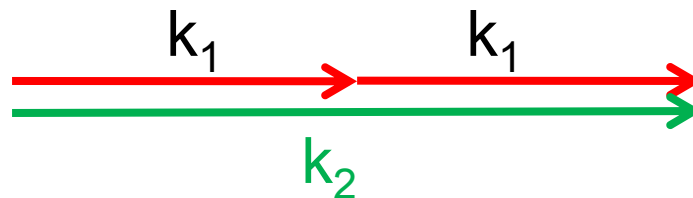
Second harmonic generation



- 1 Energy conservation

$$\omega_1 + \omega_1 = \omega_2$$

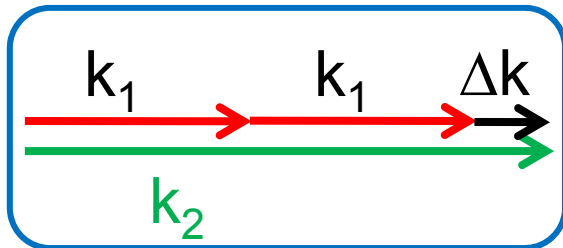
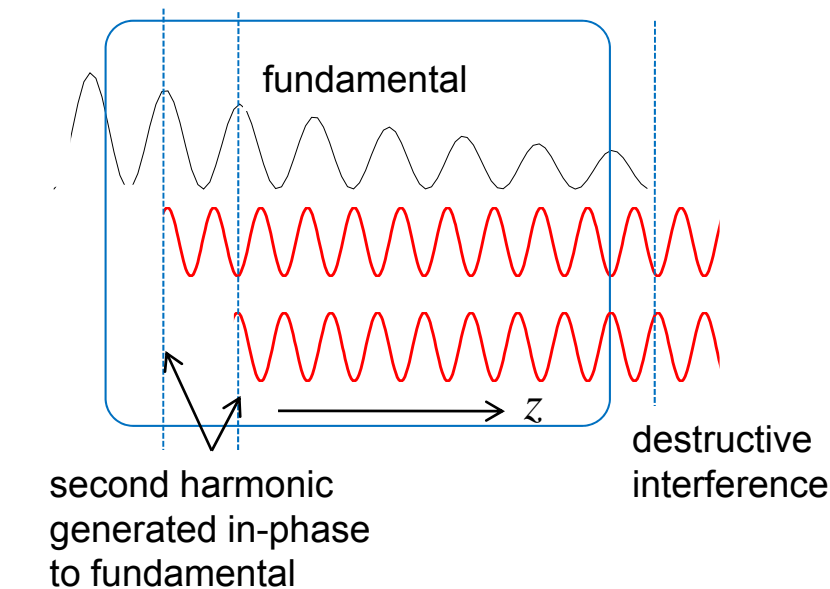
- 2 Momentum conservation
Phase matching



$$k_1 + k_1 = k_2$$

$$n_1 = n_2$$

Phase matching: SHG



At all z positions, energy is transferred into the SH wave. For a maximum efficiency, we require that all the newly generated components interfere constructively at the exit face.
(the SH has a well defined phase relationship with respect to fundamental)

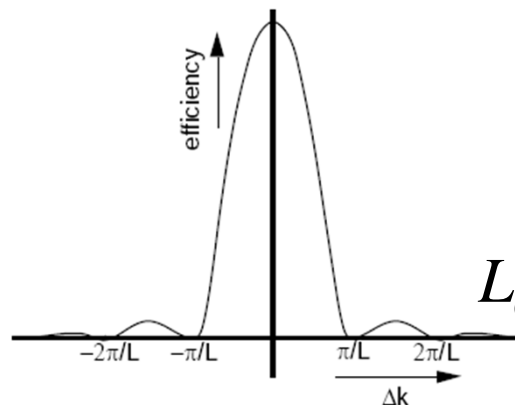
The efficiency of SHG is given by:

$$SH \propto L^2 \frac{\sin^2(\Delta k L / 2)}{(\Delta k L / 2)^2}$$

$$\Delta k = k_2 - 2k_1$$

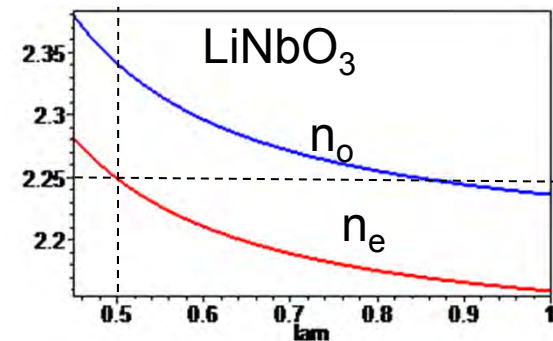
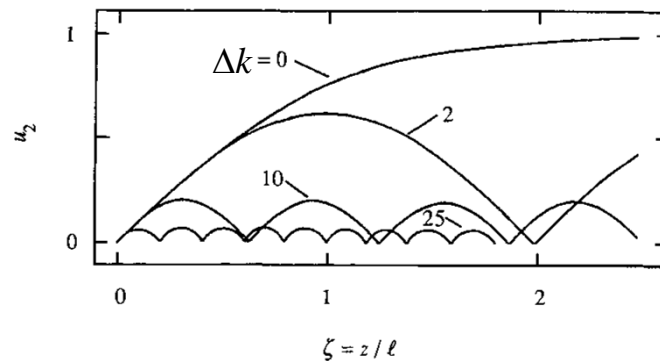
$$L_c = \pi / \Delta k$$

Coherence length:
SH is out-of-phase



Methods for phase matching

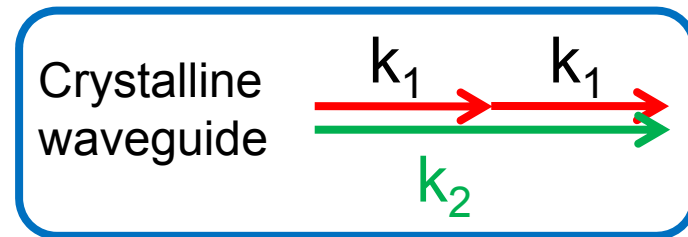
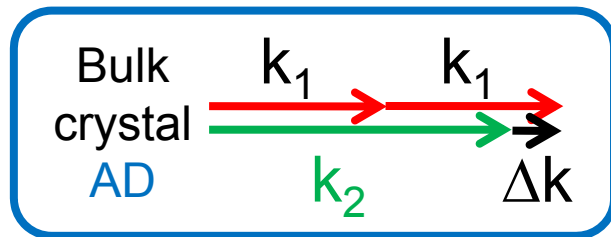
- In most crystals, due to dispersion of phase velocity, the phase matching can not be fulfilled. Therefore, efficient SHG can not be realised with long crystals.



- Methods for achieving phase matching:
 - dielectric waveguide phase-matching (*difficult*)
 - non-colinear phase-matching
 - birefringent phase-matching
 - quasi phase-matching

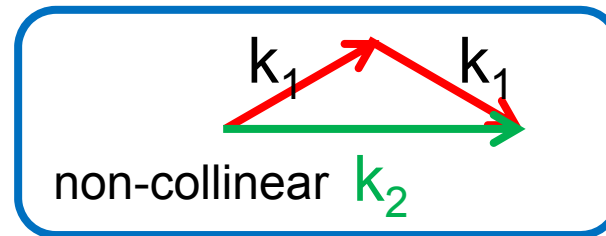
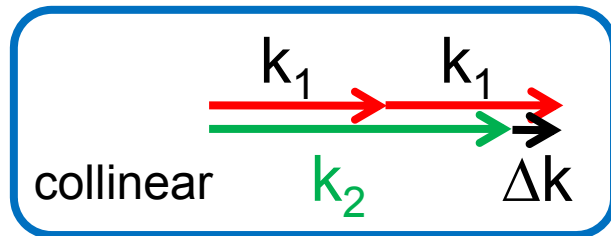
Phase matching

1. **Waveguide phase matching:** $n_{eff}^{SH} = n_{eff}^{FF}$; $n_{eff} = \beta/k_0$
usually $n_{eff}^{SH} > n_{eff}^{FF}$ due to waveguide dispersion (see slide 16/1)

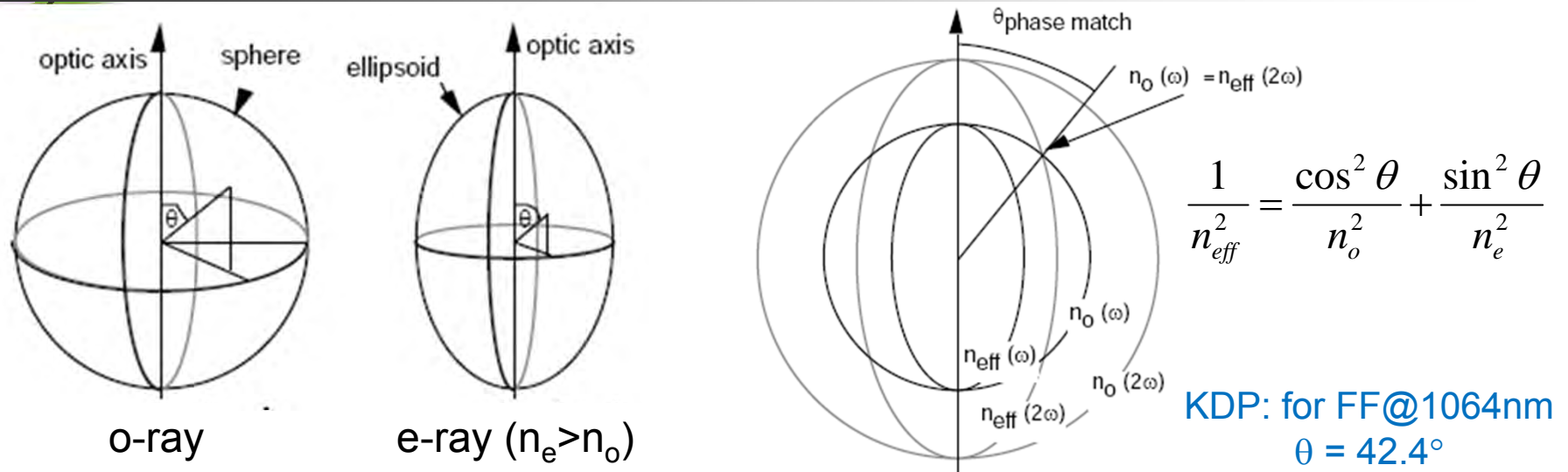


Need to take care of the overlap of the modes of the FF and SH.

2. **Non-collinear phase matching:** (not suitable in waveguide geometry)

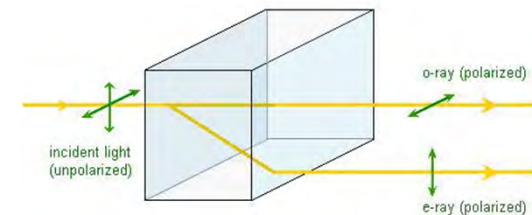


3. Birefringent phase-matching



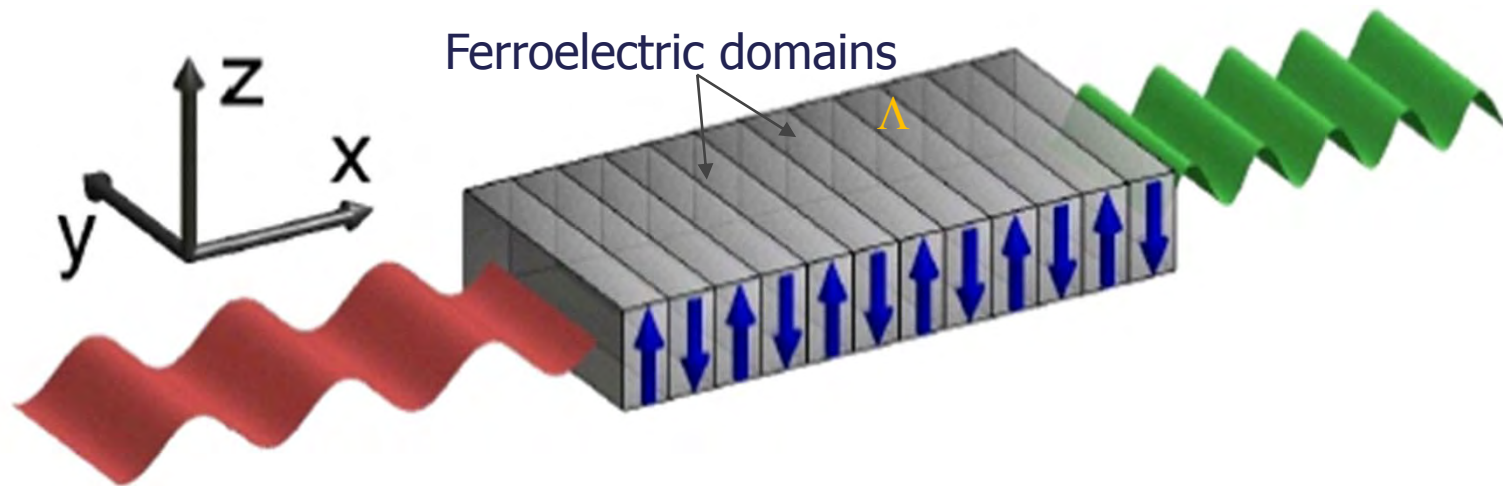
Can have different types of interactions: Type I: oo-e; Type II: oe-e

Problems: need of various materials/crystals:
birefringence (beams are not overlapping)

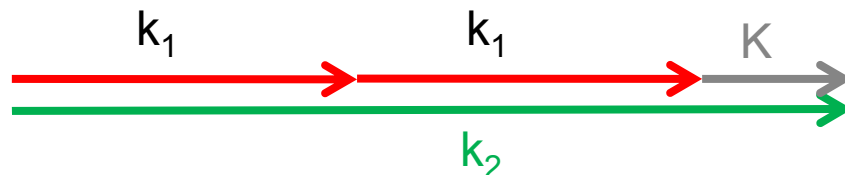


4. Quasi-phase matching

The ferroelectric domains are inverted at each L_c . Thus the phase relation between the pump and the second harmonic can be maintained.

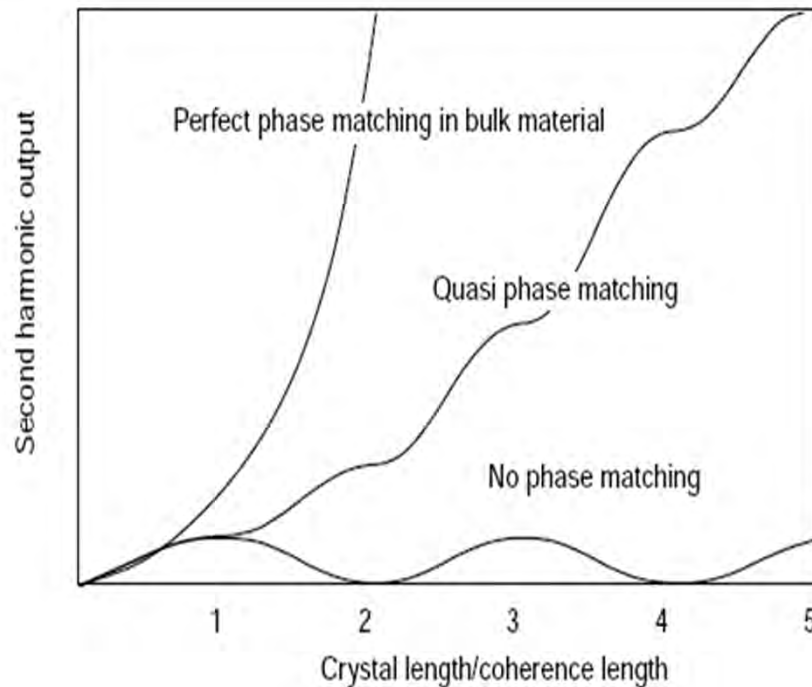


Momentum
conservation

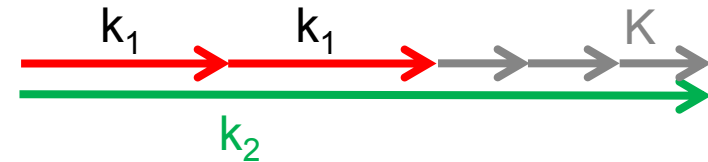


$$k_1 + k_1 = k_2 + K \quad K = 2\pi/\Lambda$$

Quasi-phase matching: advantages



- Use any material
smallest size $\Lambda=4\mu\text{m}$
- Multiple order phase-matching

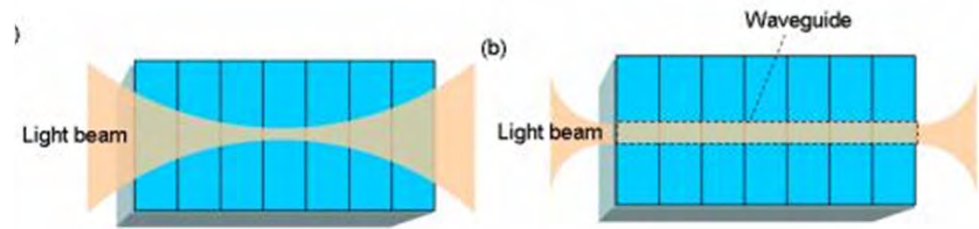


- Noncritical phase-matching
propagation along the crystalline axes
- Complex geometries
chirped or quasi-periodic poling for multi-wavelength or broadband conversion

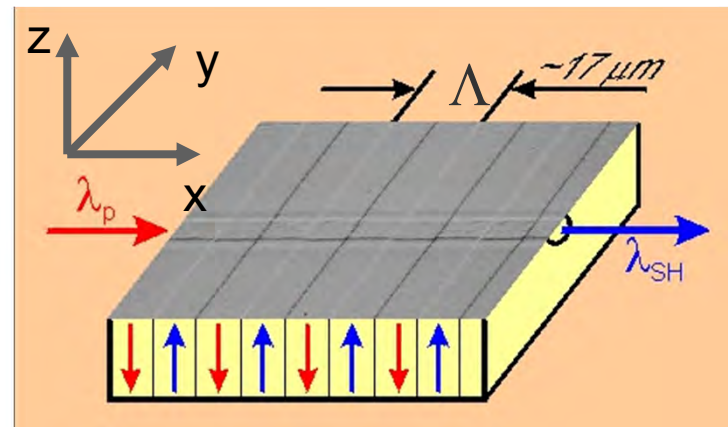
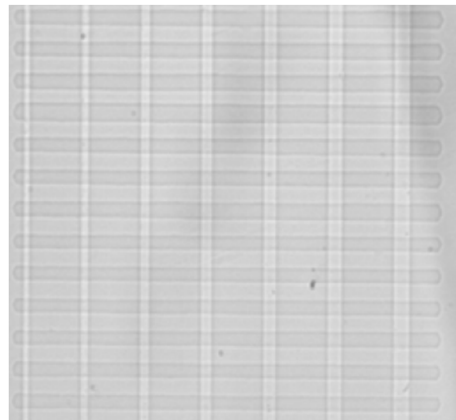
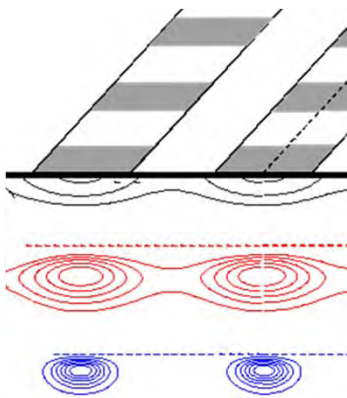


Waveguides for frequency conversion

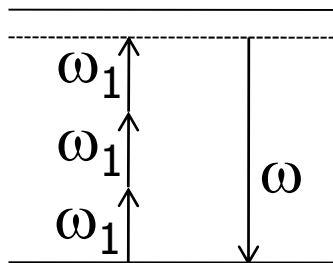
- Increased interaction length
Can achieve >99% conversion
of $1\mu\text{W}$ over 1cm.



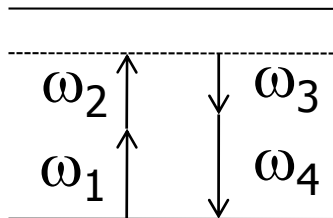
- Most commonly used crystals for poling are lithium niobate (LiNbO_3) and stoichiometric lithium tantalate (SLT).
- Periodically poled LiNbO_3 (PPLN) is most suitable for waveguides.



Four wave mixing (FWM)



THG



FWM

- In isotropic materials, the lowest nonlinear term is the cubic $\chi^{(3)}$
- It also exists in crystalline materials.
- NL Polarization:

$$\mathbf{P}_{\text{NL}} = \epsilon_0 \chi^{(3)} \mathbf{E} \mathbf{E} \mathbf{E}$$

FWM: Description

- Four waves $\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4$, linearly polarised along x

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{2}\hat{x} \sum_{j=1}^4 E_j \exp[i(k_j z - \omega_j t)] + \text{c.c.} \text{ where } k_j = n_j \omega_j / c \text{ is the wavevector}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{\text{NL}} = \frac{1}{2}\hat{x} \sum_{j=1}^4 P_j \exp[i(k_j z - \omega_j t)] + \text{c.c.}$$

$$P_4 = \frac{3\epsilon_0}{4} \chi_{xxxx}^{(3)} \left[\underbrace{|E_4|^2 E_4}_{\text{SPM}} + \underbrace{2(|E_1|^2 + |E_2|^2 + |E_3|^2)E_4}_{\text{CPM}} + \underbrace{2E_1 E_2 E_3 \exp(i\theta_+)}_{\text{FWM-SFG}} + \underbrace{2E_1 E_2 E_3^* \exp(i\theta_-)}_{\text{FWM-DFG}} + \dots \right]$$

$$\theta_+ = (k_1 + k_2 + k_3 - k_4)z - (\omega_1 + \omega_2 + \omega_3 - \omega_4)t,$$

$$\theta_- = (k_1 + k_2 - k_3 - k_4)z - (\omega_1 + \omega_2 - \omega_3 - \omega_4)t.$$



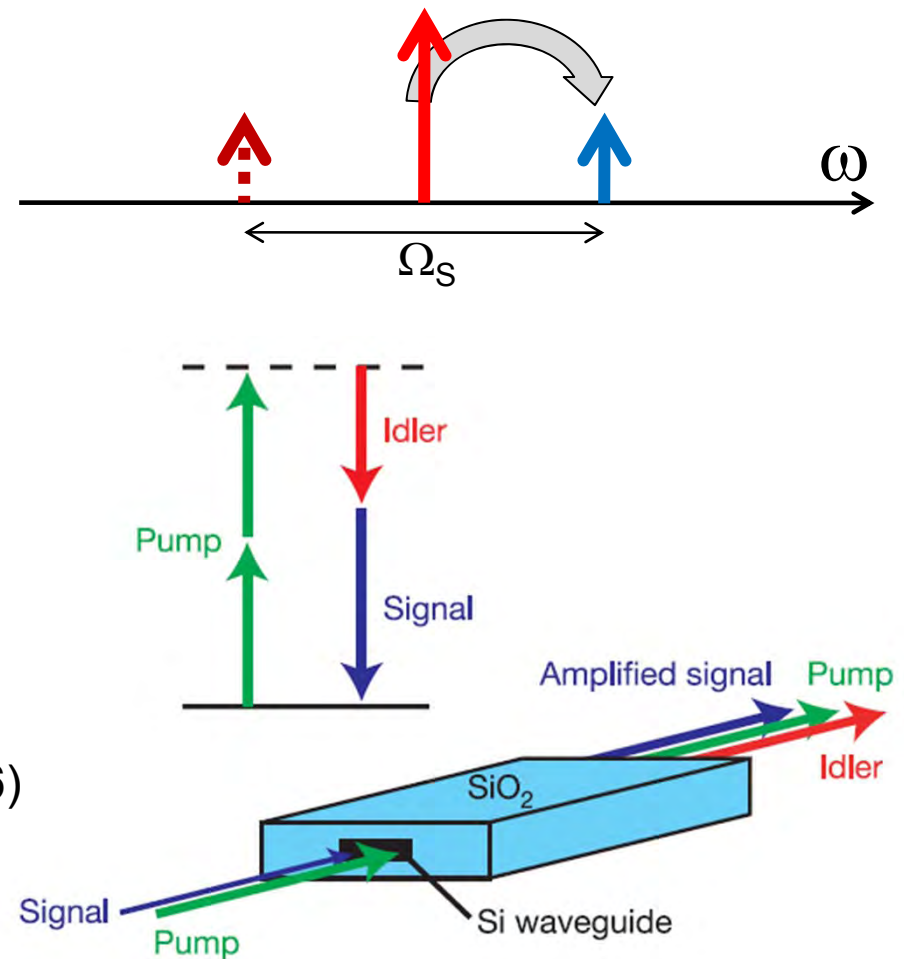
FWM- Phase matching

- Linear PM: $\Delta k = k_3 + k_4 - k_1 - k_2$
- However, due to the influence of SPM and CPM,
Net phase mismatched: $\kappa = \Delta k + \gamma(P_1 + P_2)$
$$\gamma_j = n_2' \omega_j / (cA_{\text{eff}}) \approx \gamma.$$
- Phase matching depends on power.
- **For the degenerate FWM:** $\kappa = \Delta k + 2\gamma P_0$
- Coherence length:
$$L_{\text{coh}} = 2\pi / |\kappa|$$

FWM applications

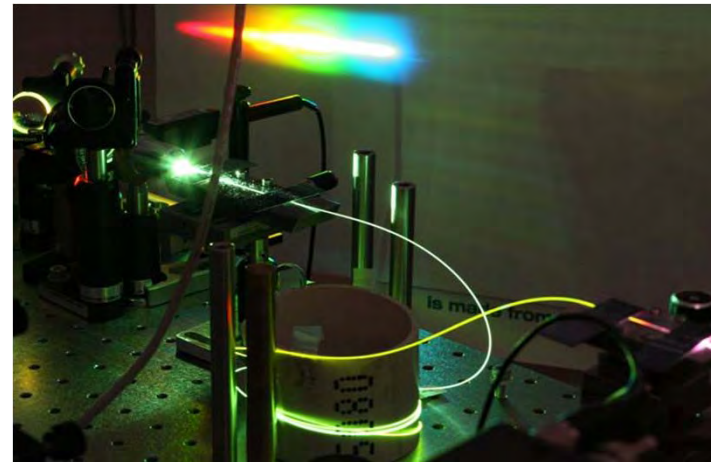
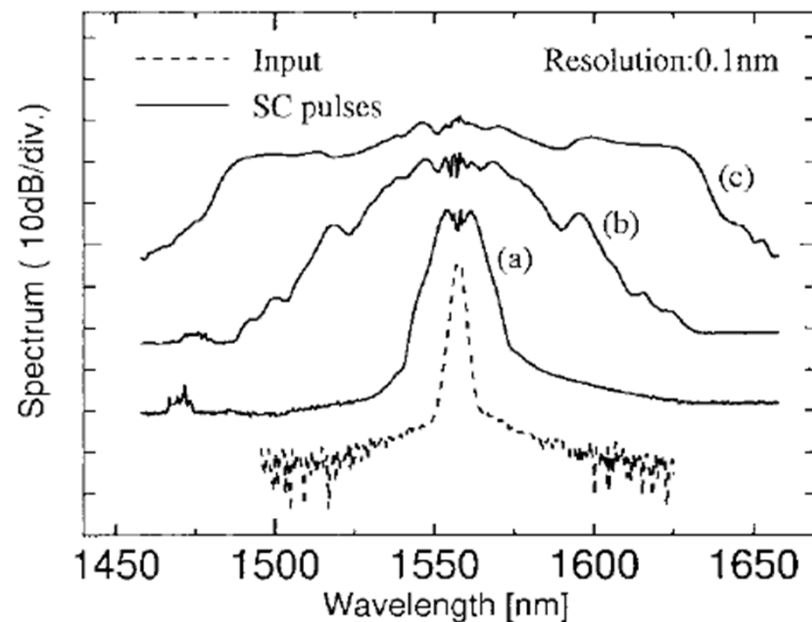
- Amplification:
- Twice the Raman ampl.
- Demonstrated broadband amplifier in Si nanowires (2006)

Foster, et al. Nature 441, 960 (2006)

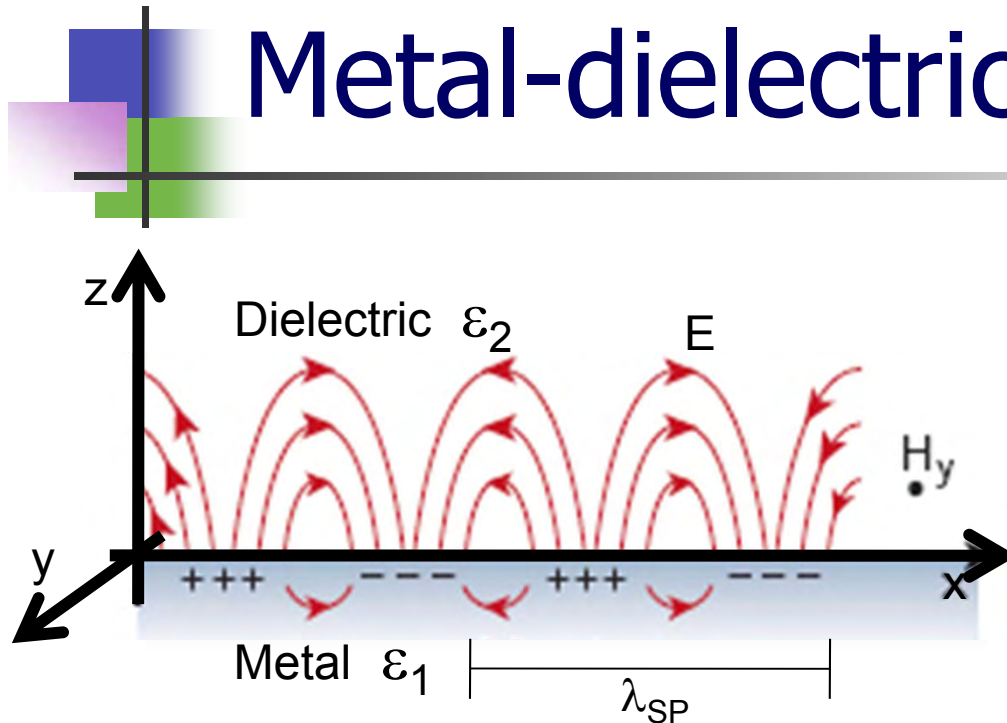


FWM applications

- Supercontinuum generation: Due to the combined processes of cascaded FWM, SRS, soliton formation, SPM, CPM, and dispersion



Metal-dielectric interface



Boundary conditions TM (p) wave

$$H_{y1} = H_{y2}$$

$$\epsilon_1 E_{z1} = \epsilon_2 E_{z2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} z > 0 : H &= A_1 e^{i\beta x} e^{-k_2 z} \\ z < 0 : H &= A_2 e^{i\beta x} e^{k_1 z} \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{k_2}{k_1} = -\frac{\epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1}$$

TM equation

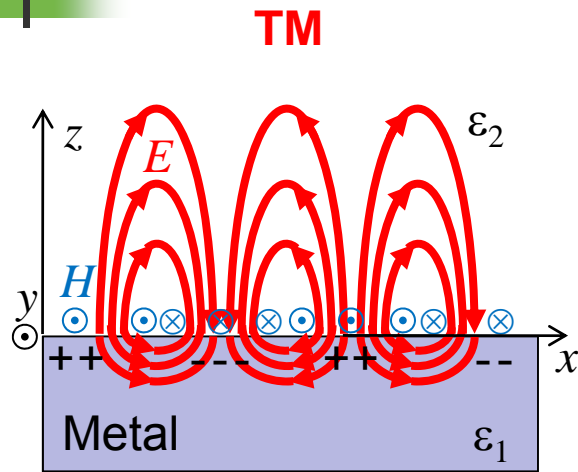
$$\frac{\partial^2 H_y}{\partial z^2} + (k_0^2 \epsilon - \beta^2) H_y = 0$$

$\text{Im}(\beta)$ defines the propagation;
 k_1 and k_2 define the penetration

$$\beta = \frac{\omega}{c} \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_1(\omega) \epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1(\omega) + \epsilon_2}}$$

Dispersion relation for TM waves

SPP at metal-dielectric interface



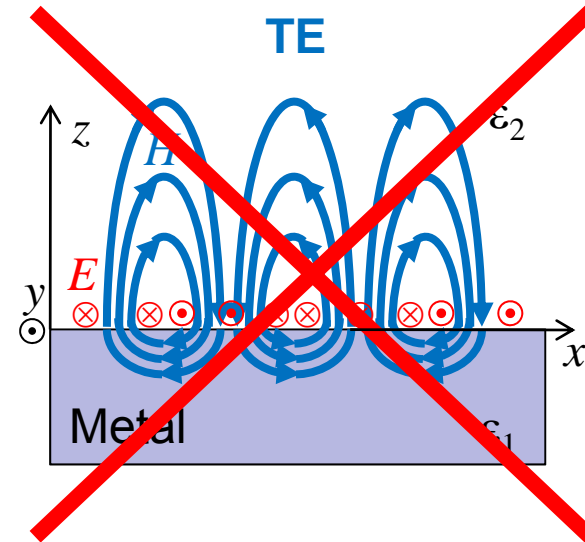
Boundary conditions

E_x – discontinuous
(electric charges)

$$H_{y1} = H_{y2}$$

$$\epsilon_1 E_{z1} = \epsilon_2 E_{z2}$$

$$\epsilon_1 < 0$$



Boundary conditions


H – continuous

(no magnetic charges)

but $\text{sign}(H_{y1}) = -\text{sign}(H_{y2})$

No TE Surface plasmon polaritons

Plasmonics

 Plasmon: quantum of plasma oscillations
Photon
Surface plasmon polariton

Lycurgus cup: made by Roman glass blowers, 4th century AD

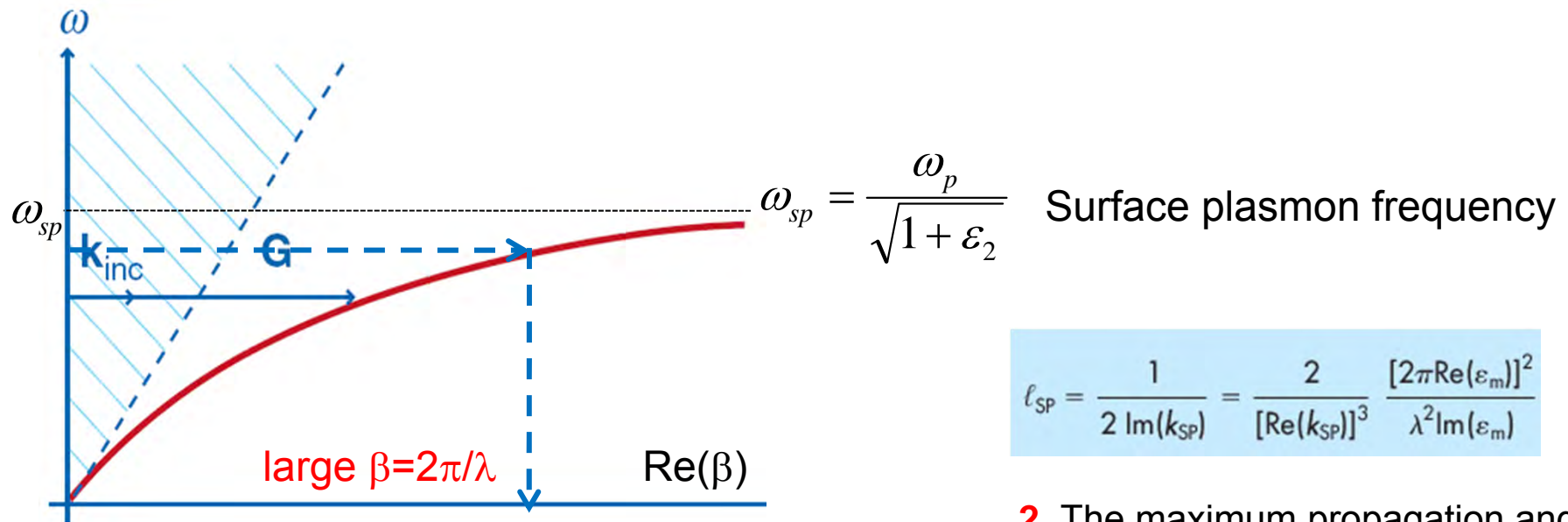
Reflection



Transmission



Dispersion relation of SPP



1. Large wavevector, short λ : Optical frequencies, X-ray wavelengths. Sub-wavelength resolution!

2. The maximum propagation and maximum confinement lie on opposite ends of Dispersion Curve

Example:

air-silver interface

$$\lambda_0 = 450 \text{ nm}$$

$$L \approx 16 \text{ } \mu\text{m} \text{ and } z \approx 180 \text{ nm.}$$

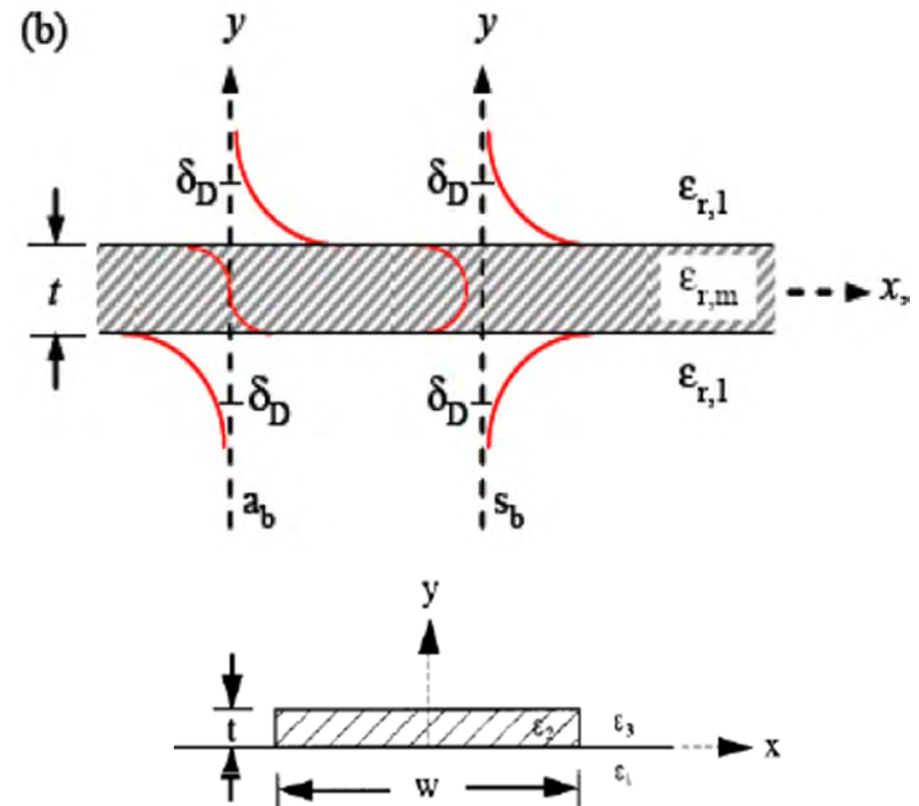
$z \approx 20 \text{ nm}$
metal

$$\lambda_0 = 1.5 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$$

$$L \approx 1080 \text{ } \mu\text{m} \text{ and } z \approx 2.6 \text{ } \mu\text{m.}$$

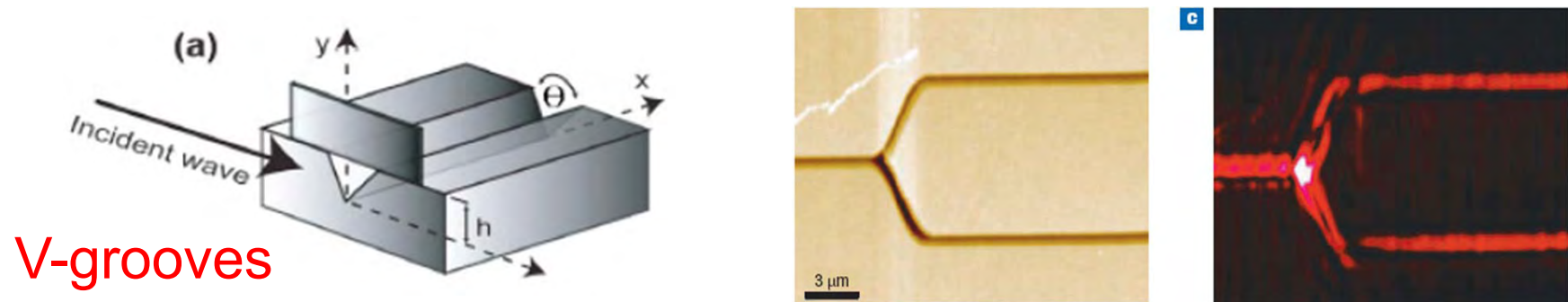
SPP waveguides

- – SPPs at either surface couple giving symmetric and anti-symmetric modes
- – Symmetric mode pushes light out of metal: **lower loss**
- – Anti-symmetric mode puts light in and close to metal, **higher loss**
- Metal strips: Attenuation falls super-fast with t , so does confinement

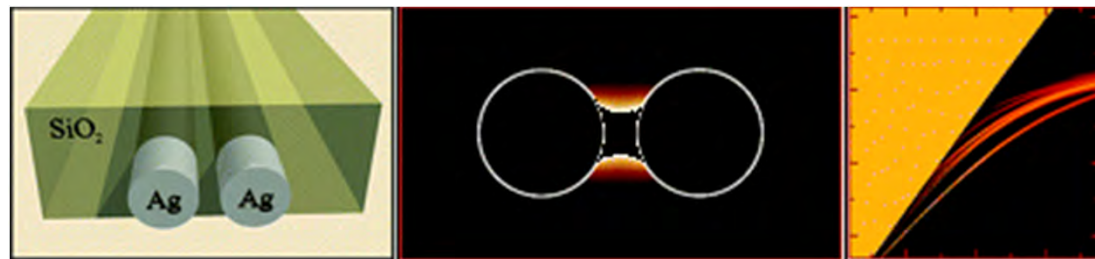


Plasmonic waveguides

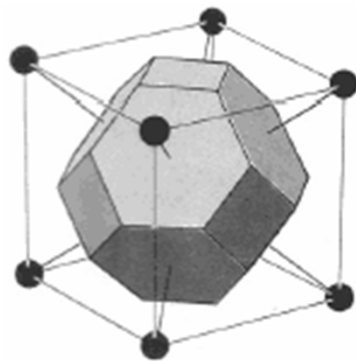
- To counteract the losses while keeping strong confinement (100nm), new designs are explored:



Slot-waveguides

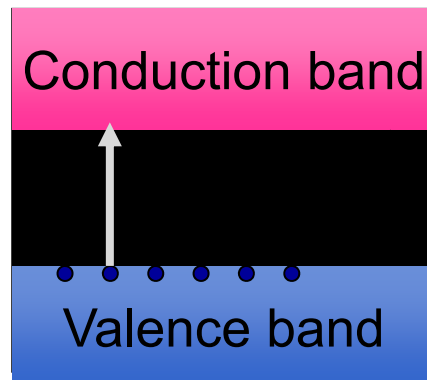


Electrons in crystals: history



Crystals: A regular periodic array of atoms, molecules, or ions

Semiconductors: Solid crystalline materials with special conducting properties



The transistor

Bell Labs, Dec. 1947

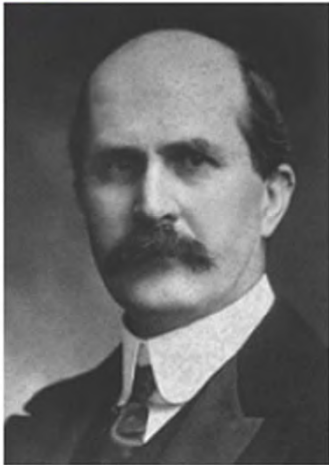


Thomson & Davisson (1937)
Nobel prize – Discovery of
diffraction of electrons



Microelectronics

Braggs vs. Resonant Reflection



W.H. Bragg



W.L. Bragg

born in 1890 in Adelaide

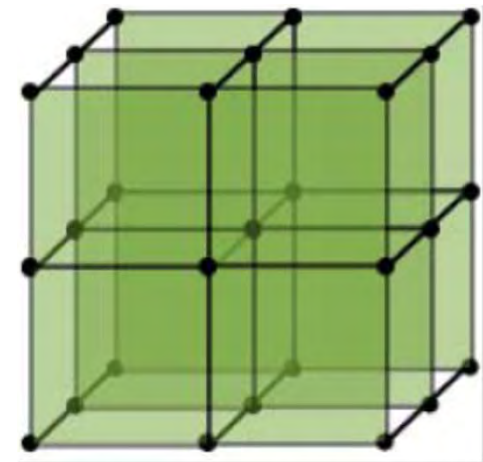
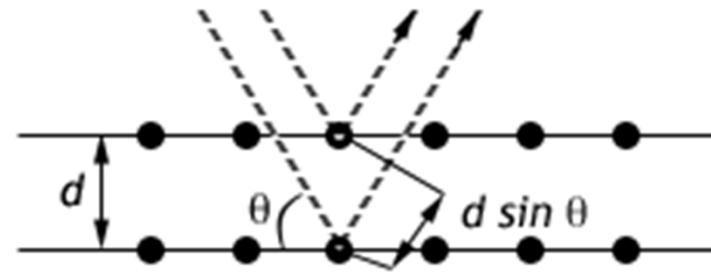
(Nobel Prize in Physics 1915)

WILLIAM LAWRENCE BRAGG

The diffraction of X-rays by crystals

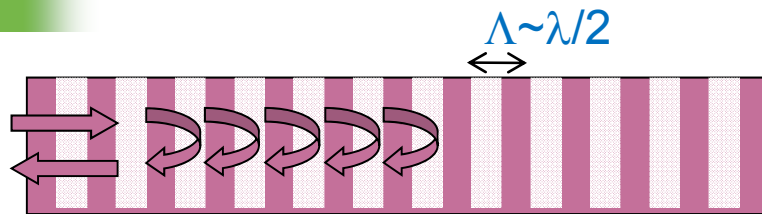
*Nobel Lecture, September 6, 1922**

$$2d \sin \theta = n\lambda$$

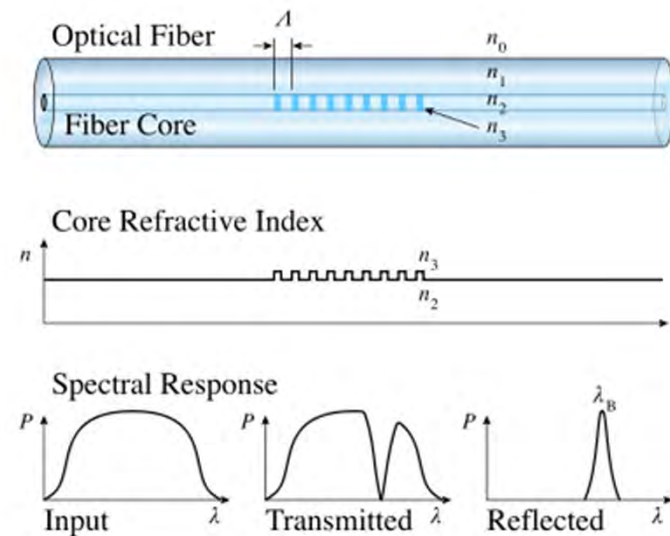
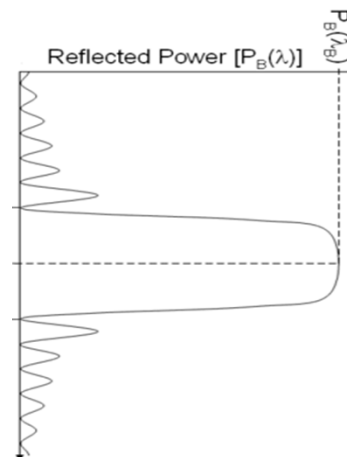
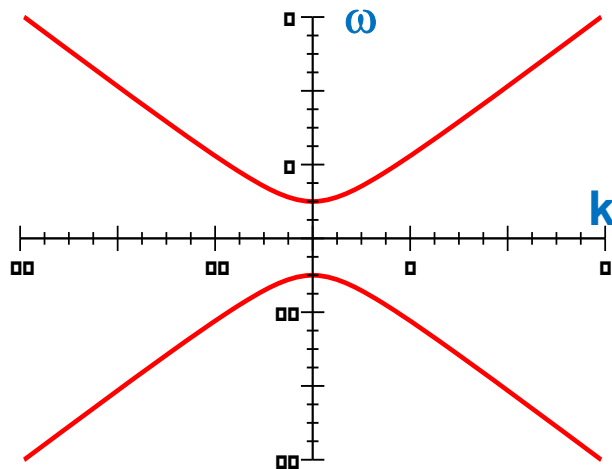
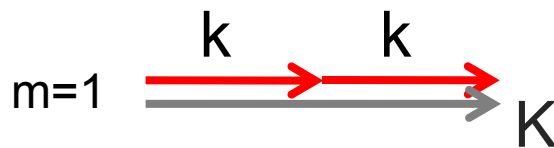


1a) Normal Plane NaCl Crystal.

1D PC: Bragg grating



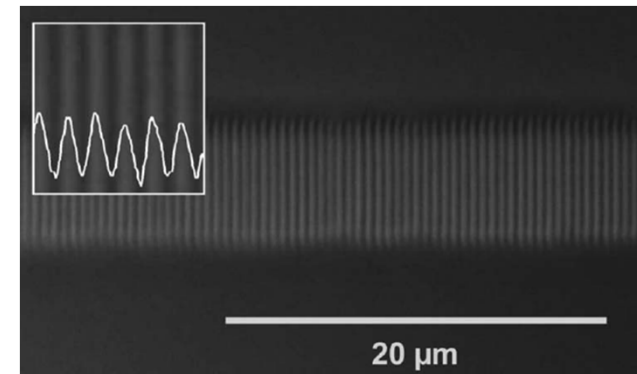
Bragg condition: $\lambda_B = 2n \Lambda/m$,
where $n = (n_1 + n_2)/2$



The reflections from the periodic layers results in a formation of a **photonic bandgap**

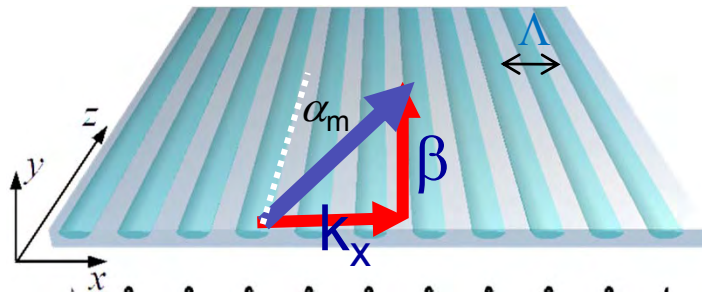
Bragg grating

Bragg Grating



Bragg grating in a
waveguide written in glass
by direct laser writing
MQ University (2008)

1D photonic crystals



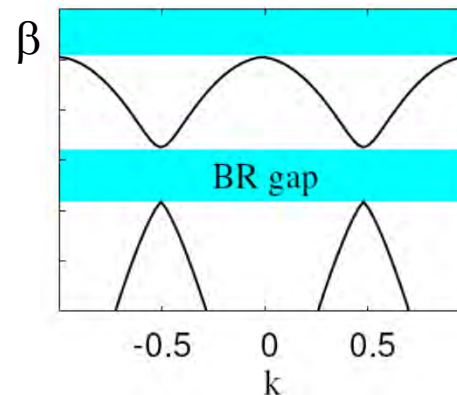
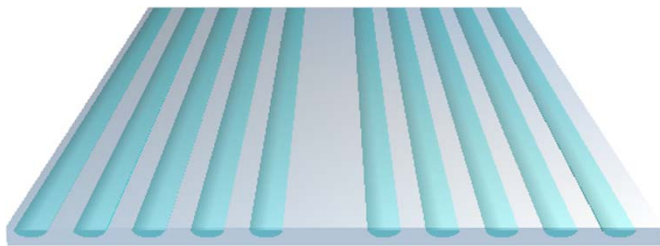
Bragg condition

$$\lambda_B = \Lambda \sin \alpha_m / m$$

■ Period $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$

■ $\Delta n \sim 0.5$

In PCFs the Bragg reflections are realised for small angles and light propagates along z axis freely. The reflection is negligible.

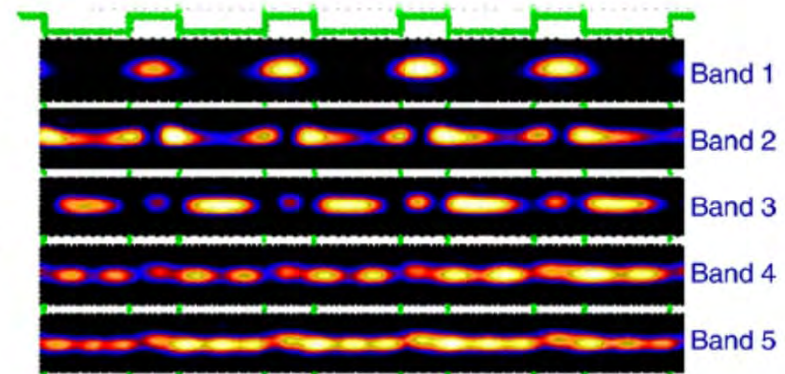
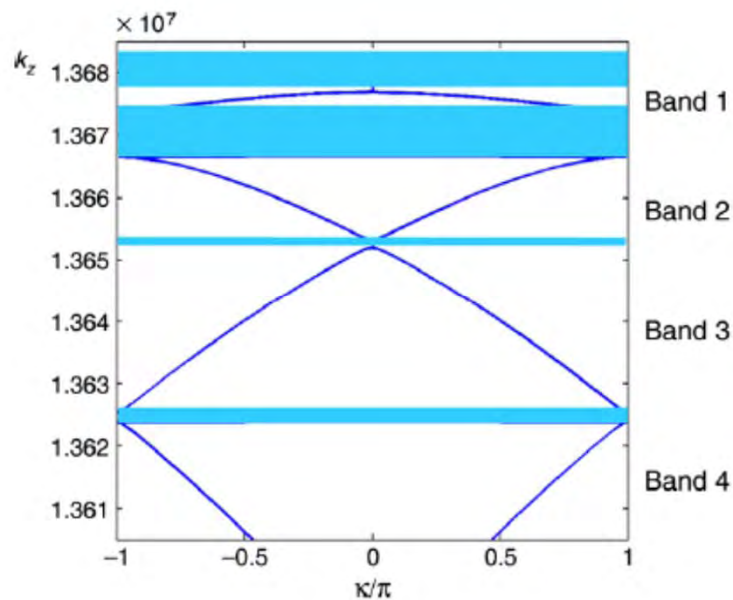
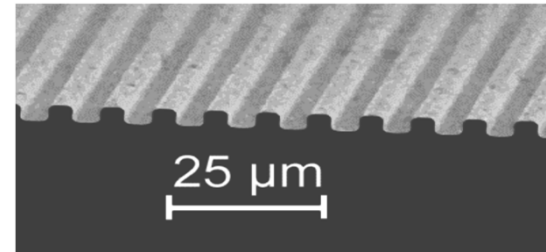


A defect, where waves with certain propagation constant can propagate, but they are reflected by the surrounded by two Bragg reflectors.

Band structure of a continuous lattice

$$i\frac{\partial E}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{2k}\nabla_{\perp}^2 E + V(x)E = 0$$

$$V(x + D) = V(x)$$



Linear waveguide arrays

Dispersion relation

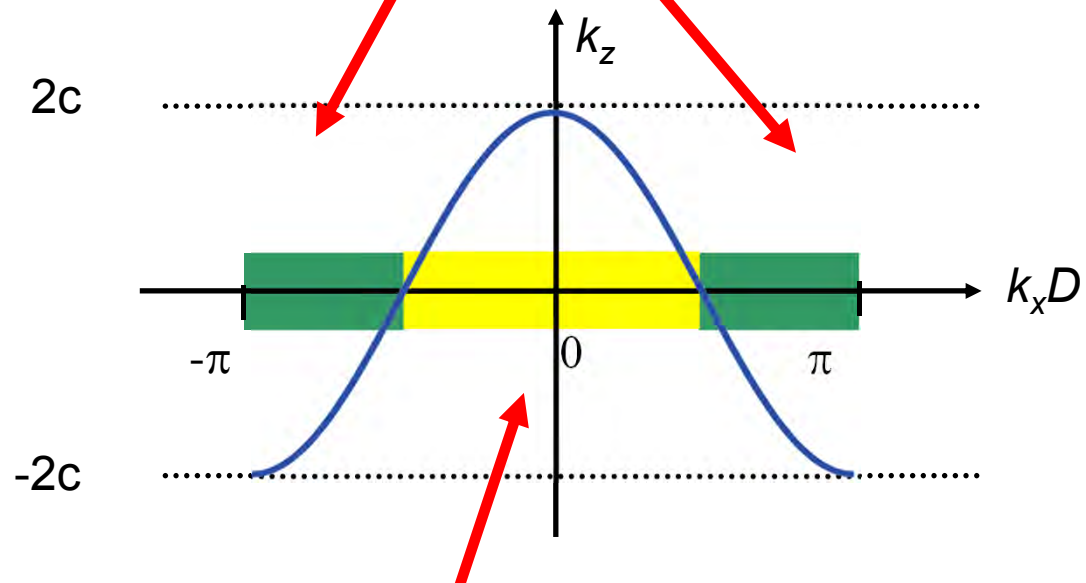
$$k_z = 2c \cos(k_x D)$$

D: distance between waveguides

$$i \frac{dE_n}{dz} + c(E_{n+1} + E_{n-1}) = 0$$

anomalous diffraction

First Brillouin zone



normal diffraction

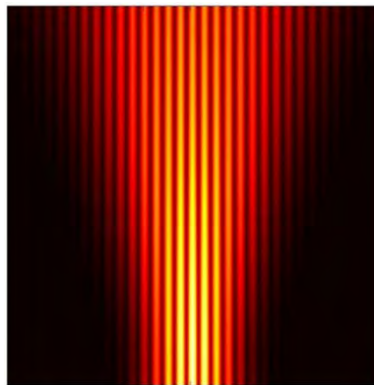
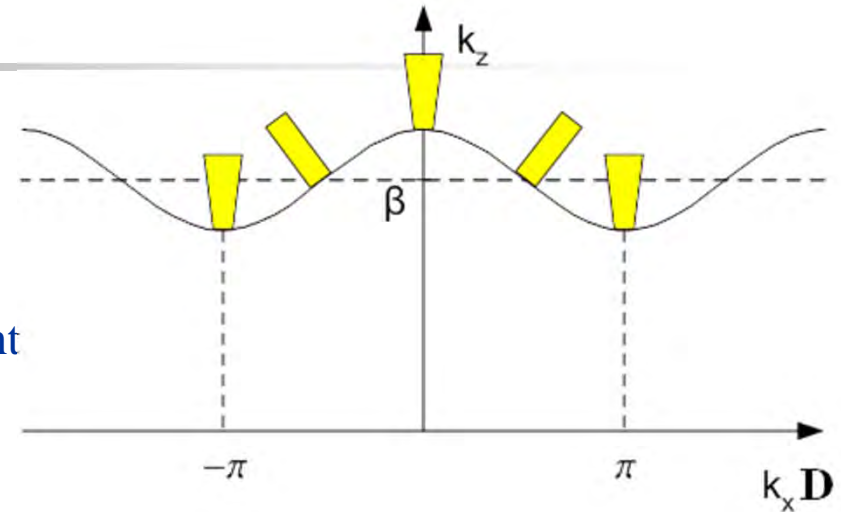
Waveguide Array Diffraction

Assuming a discrete Floquet-Bloch function) : $a_n = \exp[i(k_z z + nk_x D)]$

$$k_z = 2c \cdot \cos(k_x D)$$

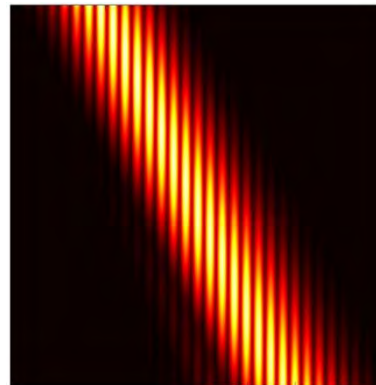
■ Relative phase difference between adjacent waveguides determines discrete diffraction

■ Dispersion relation is periodic



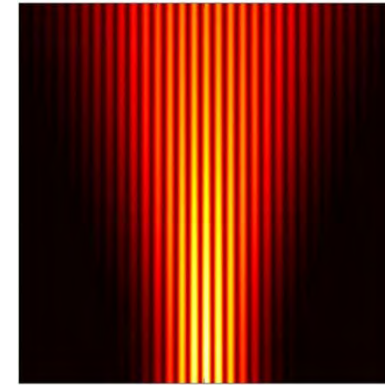
$$k_x D = 0$$

normal diffraction



$$k_x D = \pi/2$$

zero diffraction

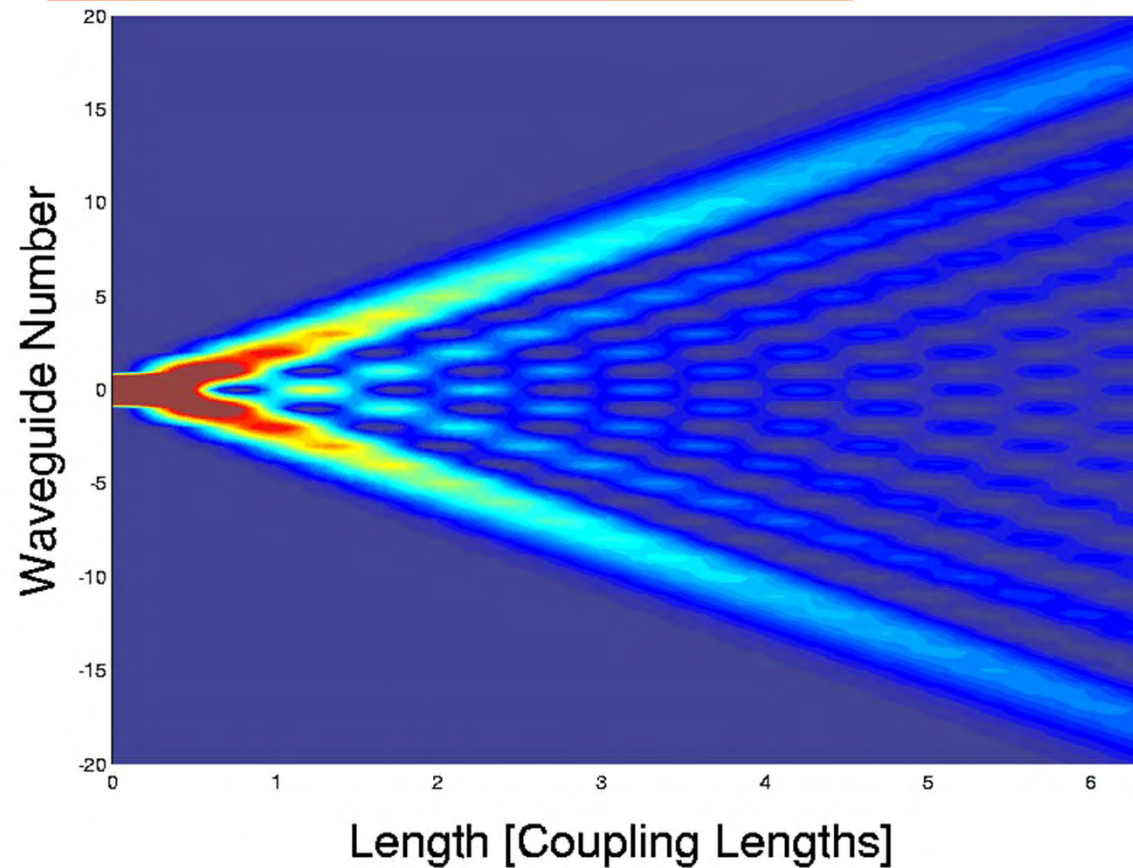


$$k_x D = \pi$$

anomalous diffraction

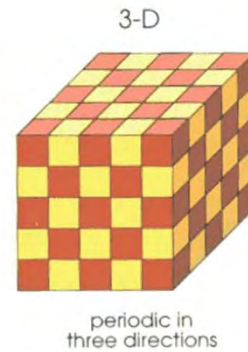
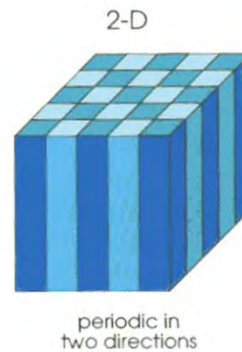
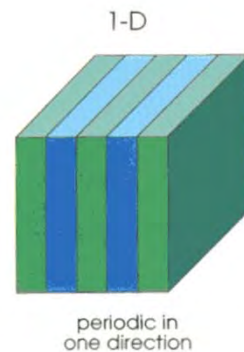
Discrete diffraction

$$E_n = A_0 (i)^n J_n(2cz) \exp(i\beta z)$$

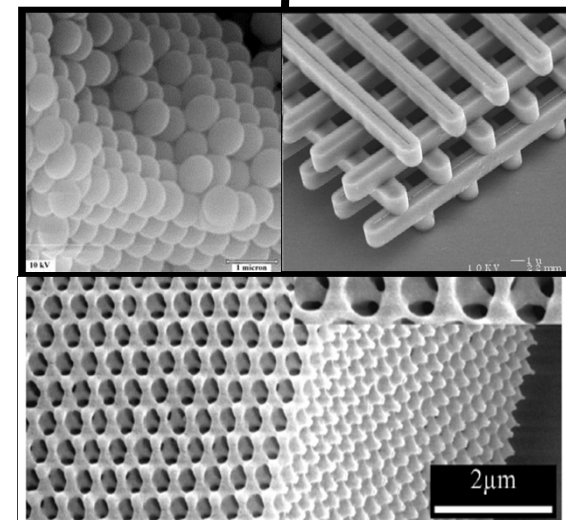
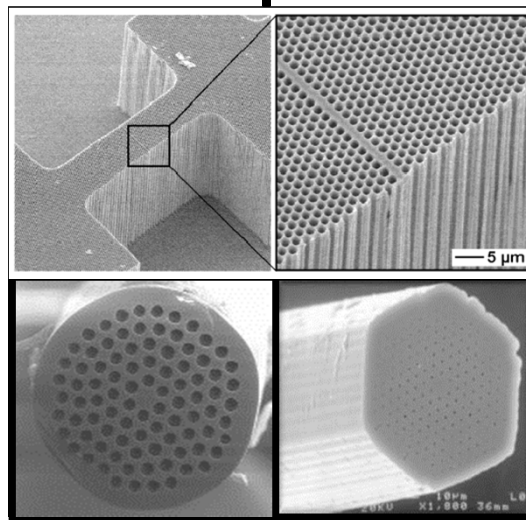
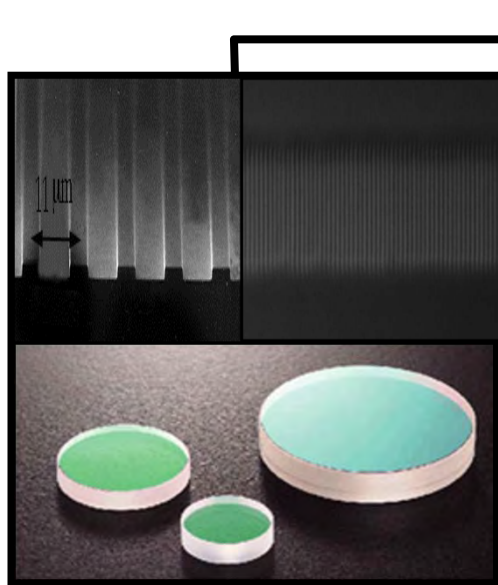


Photonic Crystals: examples

Bragg: 1915
Nobel prize -
X-ray diffraction



PRL 58 (1987):
Sajeev John;
Eli Yablonovitch



Manipulation of light in direction of periodicity: dispersion, diffraction, emission