

## Diffractive Focusing of Waves in Time and in Space

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We study the general wave phenomenon of diffractive focusing from a single slit for two types of waves and demonstrate several properties of this effect. Whereas in the first situation, the envelope of a surface gravity water wave is modulated in time by a rectangular function, leading to temporal focusing, in the second example, surface plasmon polariton waves are focused in space by a thin metal slit to a transverse width narrower than the slit itself. The observed evolution of the phase carrier of the water waves is measured for the first time and reveals a nearly flat phase as well as an 80% increase in the intensity at the focal point. We then utilize this flat phase with plasmonic beams in the spatial domain, and study the case of two successive slits, creating a tighter focusing of the waves by putting the second slit at the focal point of the first slit.

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The diffraction of waves by slits has been studied for centuries [1] starting with light and culminating in matter waves of electrons [2], atoms [3], neutrons [4], and molecules [5]. According to conventional wisdom, a wave that has passed through a slit will expand. However, this popular picture is incomplete since it was predicted [6] that a rectangular one-dimensional quantum wave packet created from a plane wave by a one-dimensional slit first focuses and only then expands. This counterintuitive diffractive focusing [7] is a consequence [8] of domains in phase space where the Wigner function [9] is negative [10,11].

In the present Letter we provide the first experimental verification of this phenomenon for surface gravity water waves as well as surface plasmon polaritons. For the water waves we not only demonstrate focusing by measuring the intensity distribution [12,13] but also observe the complete phase portrait [6]. Since the phase across the focus is constant we can achieve an even stronger focusing by inserting a second slit at the focus of the first one. Indeed, with surface plasmon polariton waves we observe tighter focusing by two successive slits. In addition to the exploration of this fundamental wave phenomenon, this effect has potential applications, acting as a time lens or a spatial lens for different types of waves, in particular, in cases in which traditional lenses cannot be realized in a simple manner.

We start by studying the phenomenon of temporal diffractive focusing of surface gravity water waves

generated by a wave maker in a water tank. Surface gravity water waves, matter waves, and electromagnetic waves share similar dynamics [14–16]. Specifically, for water waves with low steepness, the wave equation has a form similar to the Schrödinger equation of a free particle and to the paraxial Helmholtz equation [17–19]. The spatial version of this linearized wave equation in its normalized form reads [19]

$$\frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial \tau^2} - i \frac{\partial A}{\partial \xi} = 0, \quad (1)$$

where  $A$ ,  $\xi$ , and  $\tau$  are the amplitude envelope, the propagation coordinate, and the elapsed time, respectively. These scaled dimensionless variables are related to the ones in physical units according to  $A \equiv a/a_0$ ,  $\xi \equiv \varepsilon^2 k_0 x$ , and  $\tau \equiv \varepsilon \omega_0 (x/c_g - t)$ , where  $a_0$  is the maximum amplitude of the envelope,  $k_0 \equiv 2\pi/\lambda_0$  denotes the water wave number with the carrier wavelength  $\lambda_0$ , and  $\varepsilon = k_0 a_0$  denotes the characteristic wave steepness. The carrier angular frequency  $\omega_0$  satisfies the deep-water dispersion relation [19]  $\omega_0^2 = gk_0$ , with  $g$  being the gravitational acceleration. Accordingly, the linear group velocity can be expressed as  $c_g \equiv d\omega/dk = \omega_0/(2k_0)$ .

The temporal rectangular water wave packet of width  $t_0$  at the wave maker has the form

$$A(x=0, t) \equiv \begin{cases} 1, & |t| \leq t_0/2 \\ 0, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

and the evolution along the water tank is described by

$$A(\xi, \tau) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi\xi}} \exp\left(\frac{i\pi}{4}\right) \int_{-\tau_0/2}^{+\tau_0/2} \exp\left(-\frac{i}{4\xi}(\tau - \tau')^2\right) d\tau', \quad (3)$$

where  $\tau_0 \equiv \varepsilon\omega_0 t_0$  is a dimensionless constant that is proportional to the width of the initial rectangular wave function. Hence, the temporal surface elevation including the carrier wave reads  $\eta(x, t) \equiv a_0 \text{Re}\{A(x, t) \exp[i(\omega_0 t - k_0 x)]\}$ .

The expression in Eq. (3) is similar to the time evolution of an initial rectangular wave packet described by the Schrödinger equation of a free particle. Hence the diffractive focusing effect can be explained using Cornu spirals [6]. In Sec. (a) of Supplemental Material[20] we present an alternative explanation based on the corresponding Green function: At short distances  $x$ , the contribution from different points of the input pulse may be out of phase, leading to destructive interference, but for larger distances all contributions are in phase, but with amplitude that scales as  $1/\sqrt{x}$ .

Similar to the derivation made by Ref. [6], we can use the properties of the Fresnel diffraction integral and determine the spatial and temporal locations

$$\xi = \frac{1}{3\pi + 8\pi n} \left(\frac{\tau_0}{2} \pm \tau\right)^2, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (4)$$

of the intensity extrema in the evolution of the wave packets. The maximum intensity of the wave packets is located at  $\xi_f(n=0, \tau=0) = \tau_0^2/12\pi$  where the maximum intensity is 1.8 times larger than the incident intensity  $|a_0|^2$ , as suggested by Ref. [6]. This fact implies that the initially rectangular wave packet significantly shrinks during the evolution along the propagation distance and we denote  $x_f = \omega_0^2 t_0^2 / 12k_0\pi$  as the focal length.

Our water wave experiments relied on a wave tank [21] shown in Fig. 1(a). In our experiments, the wavelength was selected to be  $\lambda_0 = 0.76$  m, so that the dimensionless depth  $k_0 h = 4.96 > \pi$  satisfied the deep-water condition. The corresponding group velocity is  $c_g = 0.54$  m/s and the wave dissipation can be neglected [22]. We program the wave maker to provide a rectangular pulse with a width  $t_0 = 4.18$  s, thus containing six cycles. We set  $a_0 = 6$  mm ( $\varepsilon = 0.05$ ); hence, the induced nonlinearity could be neglected.

We have also experimentally examined the phase evolution of such rectangular wave packets along the tank. The envelope phase  $\psi_2(t)$  can be determined by the phase

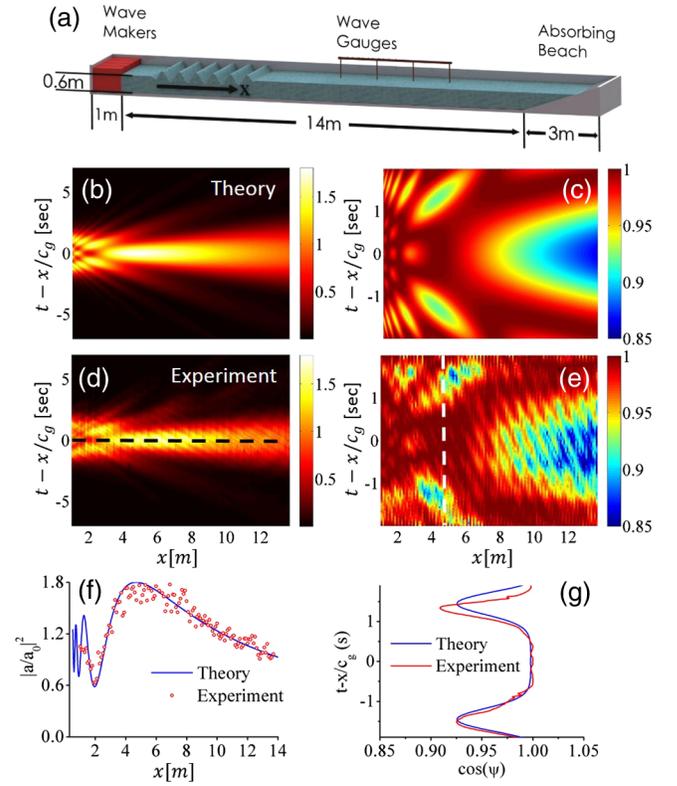


FIG. 1. Theoretical prediction and experimental observation of diffractive focusing of water wave packets with width  $t_0 = 4.18$  s corresponding to six cycles. A schematic illustration is given of the experimental setup (a), theoretical and experimental results representing the intensity evolution  $|a|^2/|a_0|^2$  of the wave packets along the tank [(b) and (d)], and of the envelope phase evolution [(c) and (e)] given by  $\cos \psi$ . Panels (f) and (g) display the spatial and temporal evolution of intensity and phase along the dashed lines in (d) and (e), respectively.

difference between two elevations at different locations of the tank. According to Ref. [23], it can be expressed as

$$\psi_2(t) = [\psi_{A_2}(t) + k_0 x_2] - [\psi_{A_1}(t) + k_0 x_1] - \psi_1(t), \quad (5)$$

where  $\psi_{A_j}$  with  $j = 1, 2$  represents the phase of the envelope after Hilbert transforming the wave elevations at two different locations  $x_1, x_2$ . More details about the calculation can be found in Supplemental Material of Ref. [23]. According to Eq. (2), we note that  $\psi_1(t, x_1 = 0) = 0$ . In order to avoid the  $2\pi$ -phase ambiguity, the envelope phase evolution of such rectangular wave packets was illustrated as a cosine function of time, i.e.,  $\cos \psi$ .

Figure 1 presents theoretical and experimental results confirming the phenomenon of diffractive focusing for the example of the generated rectangular wave packets. The recorded elevations were presented in a system traveling at the linear group velocity  $c_g$ . The experimental results match well the theory based on Eq. (3), exhibiting clearly the focusing effect with a focal point at  $x = 4.6$  m. It is worth

noting that the calculated and observed intensity patterns from Figs. 1(b) and 1(f) are similar to those observed by Vitrant *et al.* [12] for the case of light beams diffracting from a slit. To further highlight the temporal focusing of the wave, we present intensity profile slices as a function of time along the propagation axis in Sec. (b) of Supplemental Material[20].

Close to the focal region the phase becomes nearly invariant with time as shown in Fig. 1(g). This observation is the first experimental confirmation of the prediction [6] of a constant phase near the focal region. One can now place another slit at the focal point and further focus the pulse, since the phase distribution is similar to that at the origin. We demonstrate this possibility below in the spatial domain using surface plasmon polariton waves.

The phenomenon of diffractive focusing is further confirmed by quantitatively observing the pronounced decrease of the pulse width. However, an appropriate measure for the pulse width is required, since the naive criterion of the second moment of a real and symmetric initial wave function always increases during its evolution [24], because the second moment gives a large weight to values far from the axis. The influence of the tails of the pulse can be reduced by applying a Gaussian window [6],

$$W(\kappa, x) \equiv \frac{1}{\kappa^2} \left[ 1 - \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\eta(t, x)|^2 e^{-(\kappa t)^2} dt}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\eta(t, x)|^2 dt} \right], \quad (6)$$

leading us to the normalized width  $\delta W(\kappa, x) \equiv W(\kappa, x)/W(\kappa, 0)$ . Here  $\kappa$  is a parameter with dimensions that are inverse to the size of the slit. Our measurements displayed in Fig. 2(a) reveal the contraction of the pulse and match well the theory.

Moreover, we have measured the location  $x_f$  of the maximum intensity for rectangular wave packets with different widths  $t_0$ , as shown in Fig. 2(b). Clearly, the experimental results correspond to the theory, demonstrating that the focal length  $x_f$  increases quadratically with  $t_0$ .

So far we have investigated the temporal focusing of rectangular water wave packets. Next we demonstrate the analogous wave phenomenon in space using surface plasmon polariton (SPP) waves. These are surface

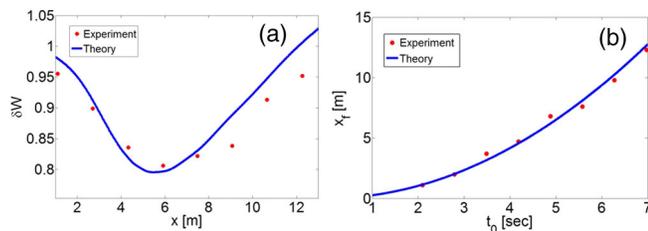


FIG. 2. Theoretical predictions (solid line) and experimental results (dots) of the normalized Gaussian temporal width  $\delta W$  with a value of  $\kappa t_0 = 4.7$  for a slit with a width of  $t_0 = 4.18$  s (a), and the focal length,  $x_f$ , in its dependence on the pulse width  $t_0$  (b).

electromagnetic waves that are coupled to collective charge oscillations that propagate at the interface between a dielectric and a metallic medium. The ability to focus SPP waves was demonstrated by several other methods, including nanometric slits, holes, and loadings on circular and elliptical structures [25–28], and also by using an in-plane Fresnel zone plate [29]. However, so far a simple slit has not been employed as a focusing element for these waves.

In the paraxial approximation, the two-dimensional Helmholtz equation for the SPP envelope [30] reads

$$\frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial y^2} + 2ik_{SP} \frac{\partial A}{\partial z} = 0, \quad (7)$$

where  $k_{SP} \equiv k_0 \sqrt{\epsilon_m \epsilon_d / (\epsilon_m + \epsilon_d)}$  and  $k_0$  denotes the free-space wave vector. The permittivity of the metal and the dielectric are  $\epsilon_m$  and  $\epsilon_d$ , respectively.

We emphasize that Eq. (7) is of the form of the Schrödinger equation for a free particle. Hence, a SPP wave can also be focused [6] by a single slit, but in space rather than in time. In the case of plasmonic waves,  $y$  and  $z$  are the transverse and propagation variables, replacing  $t$  and  $x$  in water waves, respectively.

Since SPPs can only propagate at the interface between a metal and a dielectric, we chose to fabricate [31] a “plasmonic slit” by removing metal regions, thereby keeping only a narrow metallic area, which connects the two wide metallic surfaces depicted in Figs. 3(a) and 3(b). In this way, the SPP is forced to propagate through the narrow aperture defined by the metal region. We have used  $e$ -beam lithography followed by evaporation of silver to fabricate a silver grating with a period of  $1.055 \mu\text{m}$ , enabling excitation with a free space beam at normal incidence [32].

As apparent from Fig. 3, the slit has a relatively large length of  $10 \mu\text{m}$ . This value was chosen in order to eliminate the unwanted effect of tunneling of the wave through the metal gap, which becomes significant when the gap length is only a few microns. We have noticed that for a shorter gap of only  $4 \mu\text{m}$ , a significant part of the plasmonic wave energy still propagates due to tunneling.

To simulate the intensity distribution of the plasmonic plane wave that is propagating through the slit, we have realized a numerical code based on the two-dimensional Green function [30] of the Helmholtz equation. We have used the values [33]  $\epsilon_m = -58.04 + i0.61$  and  $\epsilon_d = 1$  for the silver and air permittivity, respectively.

The plasmonic beam was generated by illuminating a silver grating and its distribution was measured using a NSOM [34]. Figure 3 shows the results for two different slits. Indeed, Figs. 3(a)–3(d) present scanning electron microscope and NSOM measurements, topography of the sample, and intensity distribution of a plasmonic plane wave that propagates through a  $14 \mu\text{m}$  wide and  $10 \mu\text{m}$  long single slit. Figures 3(e) and 3(f) show the numerical

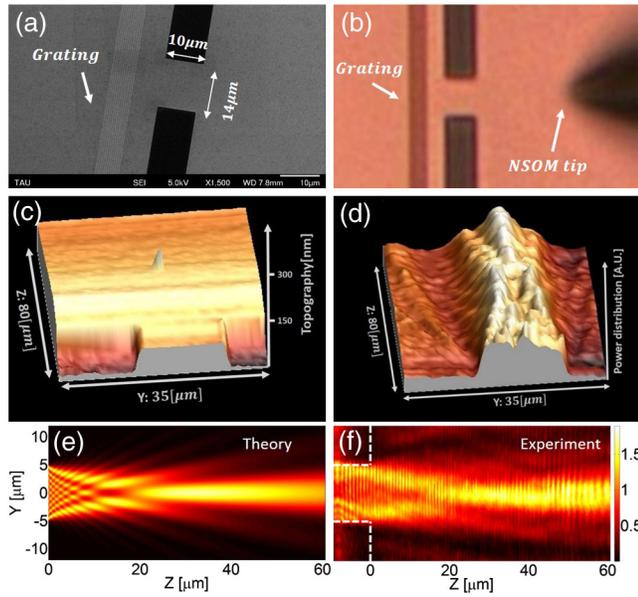


FIG. 3. Diffractive focusing of a plasmonic wave from a  $14 \times 10 \mu\text{m}$  slit: scanning electron microscope image of the sample (a) and a picture taken by the near-field scanning optical microscope (NSOM) camera (b); three-dimensional representation of the NSOM measurements of the topography of the sample (c), and of the intensity distribution of the SPP (d); numerical simulation (e) of diffractive focusing for another slit with dimensions  $10 \times 10 \mu\text{m}$ ; and the NSOM measurement of the corresponding SPP intensity distribution (f). The white dashed line in (f) represents the slit topography.

simulations and the NSOM intensity measurements of a slit with a width of  $10 \mu\text{m}$ . The effect of the focusing is clearly visible. We note that the maximum intensity in the focal plane is less than 1.8 times the incident intensity (as measured for the case of light beams [8,12]) due to plasmonic losses.

After having observed that a single slit can focus a plasmonic wave, we are able to enhance the focusing effect, by adding a second slit after the first as shown in Fig. 4(a). We chose the second slit to be at the focus of the first slit as determined by our simulations. This time, the wave that propagates through the second slit does not have a perfectly flat phase and intensity distributions, but ones derived from the propagation through the first slit. However, as predicted in Ref. [6] and confirmed by our water wave experiment above, the phase profile at the focal plane is almost constant.

Figure 4(a) shows the microscope picture of our structure with two slits, the first  $14 \mu\text{m}$  wide and  $10 \mu\text{m}$  long, and the second  $5 \mu\text{m}$  wide and  $4 \mu\text{m}$  long. Moreover, Figs. 4(b) and 4(c) present the numerical simulations and the corresponding NSOM intensity measurements of the two-slits structure, respectively. The plasmonic intensity on the edges of the metal was negligible; hence, edge reflections can be neglected. Because of limitations of the system, the measurement in Fig. 4(c) is a combination of two separate ones that overlap, and are connected at the location of the second slit.

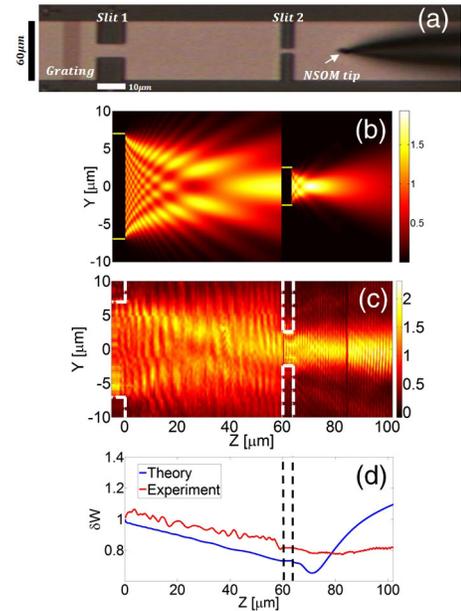


FIG. 4. Diffractive focusing of a plasmonic wave from two successive slits: the dimensions of the first slit are  $14 \times 10 \mu\text{m}$ , and of the second  $5 \times 4 \mu\text{m}$ . Picture of the sample taken by the NSOM camera (a), and the simulation result (b) under the assumption of an infinitesimal narrow slit. The NSOM measurement of the SPP intensity distribution (c) combines two separate images that are connected at the location of the second slit. The white dashed line represents the slit topography. Theoretical and experimental results (d) of the normalized Gaussian spatial width  $\delta W$  with a value of  $\kappa a_1 = 3.15$  for the area after the first slit ( $a_1 = 14 \mu\text{m}$ ), and a value of  $\kappa a_2 = 4.89$  for the domain after the second slit ( $a_2 = 5 \mu\text{m}$ ). The black dashed lines in (d) represent the location of the second slit. The experimental results were calculated for a reduced area given approximately by the slit size.

Figure 4(d) presents the normalized Gaussian width  $\delta W$ , calculated according to Eq. (6) with the following substitutions: (i) the SPP amplitude envelope  $A$  replaces the water wave amplitude  $\eta$ , and (ii) the integration is performed over the transverse spatial coordinate. For the two studied regions, between the first and second slit, and after the second slit, we have used two different values for the exponential decay parameter  $\kappa$ . For continuity, we define the value of  $\delta W$  after the second slit to be equal to its value just before the second slit.

After the second slit our plasmonic wave keeps its profile along tens of microns and has a relatively fixed narrow width, determined by the size of the second slit. This long-range fixed profile can be used for future plasmonic applications that require tight beams, e.g., particle manipulation along a surface [35].

The simulation in Fig. 4(b) assumes an infinitesimal thin slit for the second slit, whereas in the experiment the second slit has a length of  $4 \mu\text{m}$ . In addition, the NSOM also measures some scattered light of the free-space illumination beam. These two effects may account for the difference between the calculation and the measurements in Fig. 4(d).

In summary, we have shown that water waves as well as plasmonic waves experience the effect of diffractive focusing by a temporal or a spatial slit. The ability to focus a plasmonic wave with a flat transverse phase can be used for future plasmonic applications, offering a valuable alternative to dielectric loaded plasmonic lenses [25–28]. The plasmonic slit can also be used, beyond focusing, for simple imaging tasks, as exemplified in Sec. (c) of Supplemental Material[20]. Moreover, an even tighter focusing was reached by the use of two successive slits. We have also demonstrated that the size of the slit determines the location of the focus, and that in this region the phase of the wave is nearly constant, in complete agreement with the prediction of Ref. [6].

The effect of diffractive focusing can be utilized for other waves that satisfy a Schrödinger-like wave equation, including for example acoustic waves and various matter waves [5]. Furthermore, this concept can also be applied to ultrashort optical pulses. We envision focusing them in time by shaping the temporal wave packet similarly to the method applied in our water waves experiment, and/or passing them through a spatial slit and thereby focusing them in space.

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