# Optical Antennas versus Microwave Antennas ——A Personal Review

Wei E.I. Sha (沙威)

College of Information Science & Electronic Engineering Zhejiang University, Hangzhou 310027, P. R. China

**On leave from EEE Department, the University of Hong Kong** 

Email: <u>weisha@zju.edu.cn</u> Website: <u>http://www.isee.zju.edu.cn/weisha/</u>



- 1. Function
- 2. Basic Elements (Transmitter, Resonant Transducer, Receiver)
- **3.** Computational Models
- 4. Directivity and Gain
- 5. Unidirectional Antennas: Yagi-Uda Antennas
- 6. Broadband V.S. Wavelength Selectivity
- 7. Active Antennas: Electrical V.S. Optical Tunable
- 8. Input Impedance V.S. Local Density of States
- 9. Linear V.S. Nonlinear and Quantum Regimes



# 1. Function



#### Microwave

Microwave or radio wave antennas are electrical devices which convert electric power into radio waves, and vice versa.



radio broadcasting, television, communication, radar, cell phone, etc

#### Optical

Optical antennas convert freely propagating optical radiation into localized electromagnetic energy, and vice versa.



photodetection, solar energy, light emission, sensing, microscopy, and spectroscopy



## 2. Basic Elements



#### Microwave

*Transmitter*: current (voltage) source

*Receiver*: electrical load

Resonant Transducer: half-wavelength limit scaling law

#### **Optical**

Transmitter/Receiver: quantum dots atoms molecules ions

Resonant Transducer: <u>break</u> half-wavelength limit <u>break</u> scaling law



## 3. Computational Models



Microwave

far-field radiation

perfect electric conductor low loss dielectric

propagation wave interaction

linear, single-physics, classical



#### **Optical**

near-field concentration

highly dispersive and lossy materials

evanescent/surface wave couplings

nonlinear, multiphysics, and quantum effects





# 4. Directivity and Gain (1)



Microwave

$$D = \frac{U}{U_0} = \frac{4\pi U}{P_{\rm rad}}$$

Directivity

U = radiation intensity (W/unit solid angle)

 $U_0$  = radiation intensity of isotropic source (W/unit solid angle)  $P_{rad}$  = total radiated power (W)

Gain = 
$$4\pi \frac{\text{radiation intensity}}{\text{total input (accepted) power}} = 4\pi \frac{U(\theta, \phi)}{P_{in}}$$
 (dimensionless) Gain



## 4. Directivity and Gain (2)





Optical (Difference)

$$\eta_{in} = P_{rad}^0 / (P_{rad}^0 + P_l^0)$$
 Internal efficiency

 $P^{0}_{rad}$  power radiated by the emitter in the absence of the optical antenna  $P^{0}_{l}$  internal losses

$$\eta = P_{rad} / (P_{rad} + P_{ohmic} + P_l^0)$$
 Radiation efficiency

optical antennas could significantly improve the radiation efficiency of a poor emitter!



# 5. Unidirectional Antennas: Yagi-Uda Antennas (1)



#### image theory and antenna array synthesis



# 5. Unidirectional Antennas: Yagi-Uda Antennas (2)







The distance between feed and reflector is smaller than  $0.25\lambda$ .



# 6. Broadband V.S. Wavelength Selectivity (1)



## Babinet principle and broadband antennas

Input impedances of metal antenna and complementary aperture antenna satisfy



For self-complementary antenna, its input impedance is frequency of independent and thus the self-complementary antenna is a kind of broadband antennas.



optical



#### 6. Broadband V.S. Wavelength Selectivity (2)



#### wavelength selectivity by dielectric Yagi-Uda antenna and Fano resonance



# 7. Active Antennas: Electrical V.S. Optical Tunable



#### Microwave



W.E.I. SHA



#### impedance matching for *microwave antennas*



Maximum Power Condition  $R_A = R_r + R_l = R_G, X_A = -X_G$  $P_G = P_A = \frac{V_G^2}{4R_G}, P_r = P_A \frac{R_r}{(R_r + R_l)}$  The transmitter with the transmission line is represented by an (Thevenin) equivalent generator (with  $V_{G}$ ,  $R_{G}$  and  $X_{G}$ )

#### The antenna is represented by its <u>input</u> <u>impedance</u>

(which is frequency-dependent and is influenced by objects nearby) as seen from the generator

- $jX_A$  represents energy stored in electric (E<sub>e</sub>) and magnetic (E<sub>m</sub>) near-field components; if  $|\text{Ee}| = |\text{E}_{m}|$  then  $X_A = 0$  (antenna resonance)
- *R<sub>r</sub>* represents energy radiated into space (far-field components)
- $R_l$  represents energy lost, i.e. transformed into heat in the antenna structure

# 8. Input Impedance V.S. Local Density of States (2)

2000

1500

stunio0

500

1200

1300

X



# local density of states for optical antennas

To let quantum emitters efficiently radiate EM waves, photon local density of states (LDOS) should be enhanced. The LDOS counts the number of EM modes at the emitter point. Each EM mode can be taken as a decay channel. The more decay channels there are, the easier it is for an excited atom to emit photons via returning to its ground state.



InGaAsP

PNAS, 112 (6), 1704, 2015

🗲 TiO<sub>2</sub>

Gold Antenna

In isotropic, inhomogeneous, and nonmagnetic medium, the LDOS is represented by the dyadic Green's function in inhomogeneous environment

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}_0,\omega_0) = \frac{2\omega_0}{\pi c^2} \operatorname{Tr} \{ \Im m [\overline{\mathbf{G}}^{\mathbf{e}}(\mathbf{r}_0,\mathbf{r}_0;\omega_0)] \}$$

Optical antennas could significantly boost LDOS due to the localized near-field enhancement by plasmonic effects. Blue: without antenna; Others: with antenna of different arm lengths



Epoxy

Glass Slide

1500

1600

0 1400 150 Wavelength (nm)

#### 9. Linear V.S. Nonlinear and Quantum Regimes (1)



- 1. Classical linear Maxwell equation or wave equation will be solved to model the EM response from *microwave antennas*.
- 2. Coupled wave equations with nonlinear sources will be solved to model the EM response from *nonlinear optical antennas*, where radiated waves and incident waves have different frequencies. The coupled wave equations for second-harmonic generation is given by

$$\nabla^{2} \mathbf{E}^{(\omega)} + k(\omega)^{2} \mathbf{E}^{(\omega)} = -\frac{\omega^{2}}{\varepsilon_{0} c^{2}} \mathbf{P}^{(\omega),NL} - \frac{i\omega}{\varepsilon_{0} c^{2}} \mathbf{J}^{(\omega)}_{pump} \qquad \text{fundamental field}$$

$$\nabla^{2} \mathbf{E}^{(2\omega)} + k(2\omega)^{2} \mathbf{E}^{(2\omega)} = -\frac{(2\omega)^{2}}{\varepsilon_{0} c^{2}} \mathbf{P}^{(2\omega),NL} \qquad \text{second harmonic field}$$

$$\mathbf{P}^{(\omega),NL} \qquad \text{nonlinear source for downconversion process}$$

$$\mathbf{P}^{(2\omega),NL} \qquad \text{nonlinear source for upconversion process}$$

## 9. Linear V.S. Nonlinear and Quantum Regimes (2)



#### nonlinear optical antennas: Yagi-Uda case



second harmonic radiation obeys a selection rule that the radiation is strictly zero along the incident *z* direction if the scatterer is centrosymmetric at the *xoy* plane.



#### Quantum World

- At quantum regime, when the object size is tiny small (typically smaller than 10 nm) so that "homogenized" permittivity and permeability of Maxwell equation is invalid or meaningless.
- If the field intensity is strong or the number of photons is large, semi-classical Maxwell-Schrödinger system is required to describe the light-particle interaction, where Maxwell equation is still classical.
- If the field intensity is very weak and the number of photons is quite small (vacuum fluctuation, single photon source, etc), Maxwell equation should be quantized and classical Maxwell equation breaks down.

strong field condition





#### 9. Linear V.S. Nonlinear and Quantum Regimes (4)



## Semi-classical Framework — Maxwell-Schrödinger equations

HamiltonianGeneralized coordinate and momentum
$$H^s (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{Y}, \psi, \psi^*) = H^{em} (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{Y}) + H^q (\psi, \psi^*, \mathbf{A})$$
 $\mathbf{q} = (\mathbf{A}, \psi_r) \quad \mathbf{p} = (\mathbf{Y}, \psi_i)$  $H^{em} (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{Y}) = \int_v \left( \frac{1}{2\epsilon_0} |\mathbf{Y}|^2 + \frac{1}{2\mu_0} |\nabla \times \mathbf{A}|^2 \right) d\mathbf{r}$  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial H^s}{\partial \mathbf{q}}$  $\mathbf{p} = (\mathbf{A}, \psi_r) \quad \mathbf{p} = (\mathbf{Y}, \psi_i)$  $H^q (\psi, \psi^*, \mathbf{A}) = \int_v \left[ \psi^* \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A})^2}{2m} \psi + \psi^* V \psi \right] d\mathbf{r}$  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{q}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial H^s}{\partial \mathbf{p}}$  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}^s}{\mathbf{p}^{date}} + \frac{\mathbf{H}^{e|Y|}}{\mathbf{p}^{date}}$ Maxwell equationSchrödinger equation $\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial H^s}{\partial \mathbf{Y}} = \frac{\mathbf{Y}}{\epsilon_0}$  $\frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \frac{\partial H^s}{\partial \psi^*} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \left[ \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A})^2}{2m} + V \right] \psi$  $\frac{\partial \Psi^*}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial H^s}{\partial \mathbf{A}} = -\frac{\nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{A}}{\mu_0} + \mathbf{J}$  $\frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} = \frac{-1}{i\hbar} \frac{\partial H^s}{\partial \psi} = -\frac{1}{i\hbar} \left[ \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{p}} + q\mathbf{A})^2}{2m} + V \right] \psi^*$ 

$$\mathbf{J} = \frac{q}{2m} \left[ \psi^* \left( \hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A} \right) \psi + \psi \left( -\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A} \right) \psi^* \right] \quad \text{Quantum current}$$

Comp. Phys. Commun., 215: 63-70, 2017.

## 9. Linear V.S. Nonlinear and Quantum Regimes (5)



#### Quantized Maxwell equation in dispersive and lossy media by Lorentz model

$$\begin{split} &\dot{\mathbf{H}} = -\nabla \times \hat{\mathbf{E}} \\ &\dot{\mathbf{E}} = \nabla \times \hat{\mathbf{H}} - \dot{\hat{\mathbf{P}}} \\ &\dot{\mathbf{E}} = \nabla \times \hat{\mathbf{H}} - \dot{\hat{\mathbf{P}}} \\ &\dot{\mathbf{R}} = -\omega_0 \hat{\mathbf{P}} - \eta \hat{\mathbf{\Pi}} + \hat{\mathbf{F}}_I + \frac{\omega_p^2}{\omega_0} \hat{\mathbf{E}} \\ &\dot{\hat{\mathbf{P}}} = \omega_0 \hat{\mathbf{\Pi}} - \eta \hat{\mathbf{P}} + \hat{\mathbf{F}}_R \\ &\left\langle \left[ \hat{\mathbf{F}}_R, \hat{\mathbf{F}}_I \right] \right\rangle = i2\eta \frac{\omega_p^2 \hbar}{\omega_0} \delta(t - t') \hat{\mathbf{I}} \end{split} \qquad \begin{aligned} &\nabla \times \nabla \times \hat{\mathbf{E}}(\mathbf{r}, \omega) - \omega^2 \epsilon(\mathbf{r}, \omega) \hat{\mathbf{E}}(\mathbf{r}, \omega) = i\omega \hat{\mathbf{j}}_n(\mathbf{r}, \omega) \\ &\hat{\mathbf{j}}_n(\mathbf{r}, \omega) = \frac{-i\omega\omega_0 \hat{\mathbf{F}}_I(\mathbf{r}) - i\omega \left[\eta(\mathbf{r}) - i\omega\right] \hat{\mathbf{F}}_R(\mathbf{r})}{\left[\eta(\mathbf{r}) - i\omega\right]^2 + \omega_0^2} \\ &\epsilon(\mathbf{r}, \omega) = 1 + \frac{\omega_p^2}{\left[\eta(\mathbf{r}) - i\omega\right]^2 + \omega_0^2} \\ &\left\langle \left[ \hat{\mathbf{F}}_R, \hat{\mathbf{F}}_I \right] \right\rangle = i2\eta \frac{\omega_p^2 \hbar}{\omega_0} \delta(t - t') \hat{\mathbf{I}} \end{aligned}$$

Fluctuation-dissipation theorem



- 1. Electromagnetic theories still show great capabilities to design both microwave and optical antennas.
- 2. Due to dispersive and lossy materials at optical frequencies, the design of optical antennas could borrow the ideas from that of microwave antennas but needs to be optimized by rigorous full-wave simulation. The consideration of evanescent or surface wave coupling is essential to the optimized design.
- 3. A new principle should be explored for a new application of optical antennas, such as vibration spectra detection by wavelength selectivity through Fano resonance concept.
- 4. Some figures of merit of optical antennas should be modified or regenerated, such as radiation efficiency and local density of states.
- 5. Manipulation of nonlinear and quantum effects of optical antennas is a new emerging research area.



# THANKS FOR YOUR ATTENTION!



