

Jak psát vědecké články?

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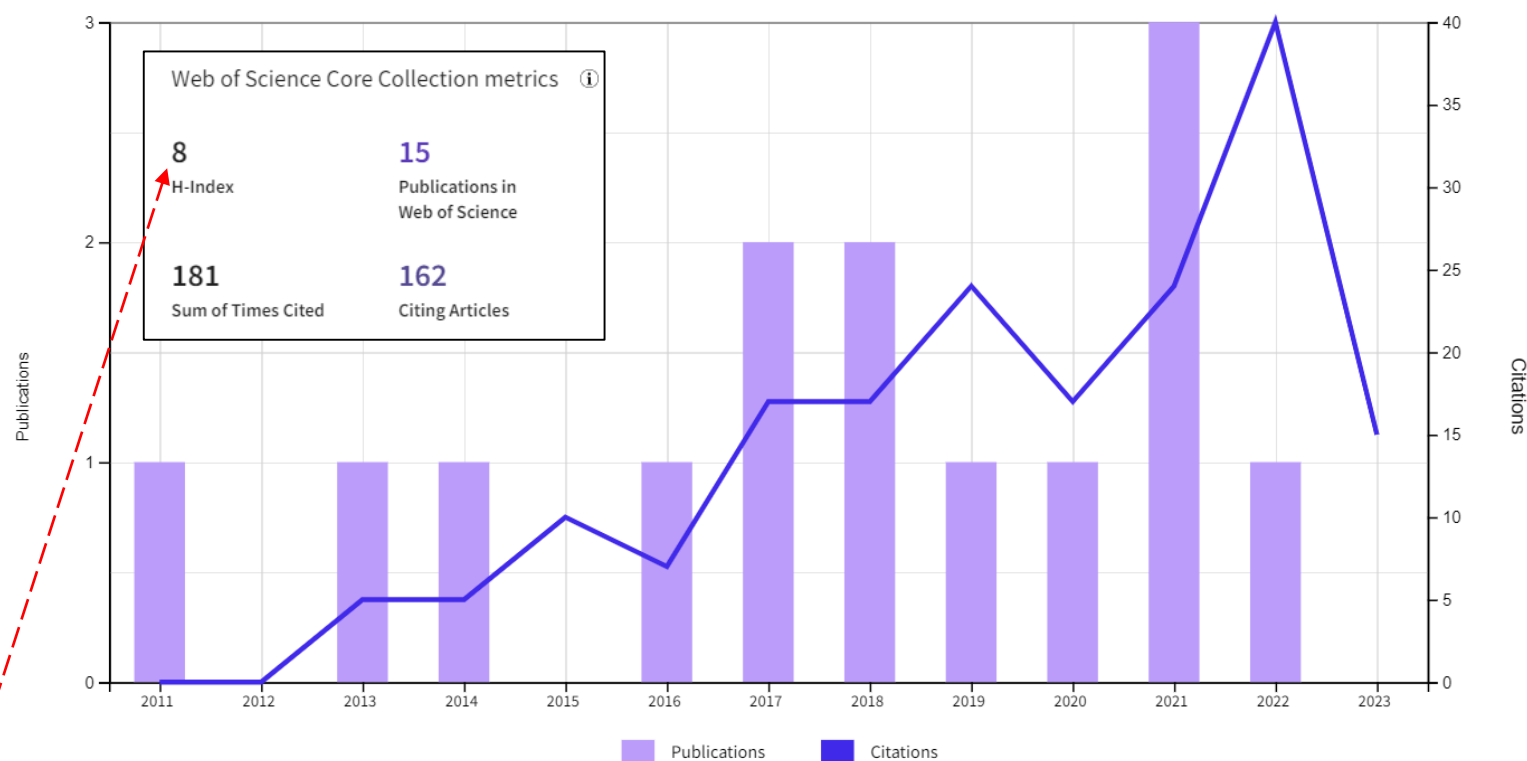
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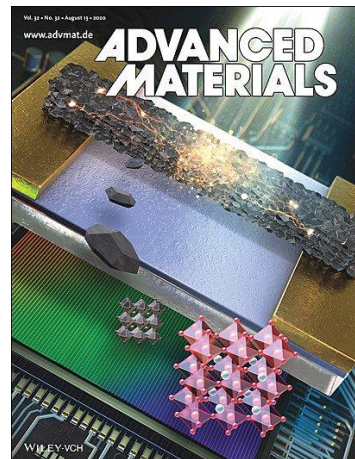
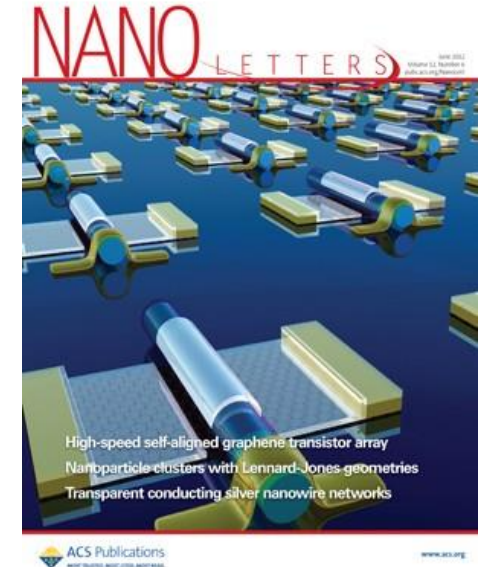
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ARTICLES
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Single-shot quantitative phase gradient microscopy using a system of multifunctional metasurfaces

Hyounghan Kwon^{1,2}, Ehsan Arbabi^{1,2}, Seyedeh Mahsa Kamali^{1,2}, MohammadSadegh Faraji-Dana^{1,2} and Andrei Faraon^{1,2*}

Quantitative phase imaging (QPI) of transparent samples plays an essential role in multiple biomedical applications, and miniaturizing these systems will enable their adoption into point-of-care and in vivo applications. Here, we propose a compact quantitative phase gradient microscope (QGPM) based on two dielectric metasurface layers, inspired by a classical differential interference contrast (DIC) microscope. Owing to the multifunctionality and compactness of the dielectric metasurfaces, the QGPM simultaneously captures three DIC images to generate a quantitative phase gradient image in a single shot. The volume of the metasurface optical system is on the order of 1 mm³. Imaging experiments with various phase resolution samples verify the capability to capture quantitative phase gradient data, with phase gradient sensitivity better than 92.3 mrad μm⁻¹ and single-cell resolution. The results showcase the potential of metasurfaces for developing miniaturized QPI systems for label-free cellular imaging and point-of-care devices.

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on-chip spectrometers^{20,29} and endoscopes³⁰. In addition, vertical integration of multiple metasurfaces has been introduced to achieve enhanced functionalities^{31–34}. Despite these great advances, applications of metasurfaces for QPI have not previously been explored. Although different types of spatial field differentiator, which may be regarded as qualitative phase imaging devices, have been proposed, their investigation has been limited to optical computing and optical signal processing^{35,36}. Here, we propose a miniaturized quantitative phase gradient microscope (QGPM) inspired by the classical DIC microscope and based on an integrated system of multifunctional dielectric metasurfaces. As we fully exploit the two unique properties of metasur-

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Strong mid-infrared photoresponse in small-twist-angle bilayer graphene

Bingchen Deng^{1,4}, Chao Ma^{1,4}, Qiyue Wang^{2,4}, Shaofan Yuan^{1,4}, Kenji Watanabe³, Takashi Taniguchi³, Fan Zhang^{2,3} and Fengnian Xia^{1,3}

Small-twist-angle (<2°) bilayer graphene has received extraordinary attention recently due to its exciting physical properties^{34,35}. Compared with monolayer graphene, the Brillouin zone folding in twisted bilayer graphene (TBG) leads to the formation of a superlattice bandgap and substantial modification to the density of states^{4,6,20,21}. However, these emerging properties have rarely been leveraged to realize new optoelectronic devices. Here, we demonstrate the strong, gate-tunable photoresponse in the mid-infrared wavelength range of 5 to 12 μm. A maximum extrinsic photoresponsivity of 26 mA W⁻¹ has been achieved at 12 μm when the Fermi level in 1.81° TBG was tuned to its superlattice bandgap. Moreover, the strong photoresponse critically depends on the formation of a superlattice bandgap, and it vanishes in the gapless case with an ultrasmall twist angle (<0.5°). Our demonstration reveals the promising optical properties of TBG and provides an alternative material platform for tunable mid-infrared optoelectronics. Various twisted bilayer structures have recently been explored extensively as they feature many novel physical phenomena such as superconductivity and emerging topological properties^{36–39}. Among these twisted bilayer systems, small-twist-angle bilayer graphene represents a particularly interesting material system. First, the emergence of a moiré pattern in TBG leads to the formation of a

consists of a hBN/TBG/hBN heterostructure, which is assembled using the dry transfer approach reported in refs. ^{4,13}. A silicon back gate is used to control the Fermi level in TBG. We present information on the detailed fabrication process in the Methods. We characterized the transport properties of the TBG transistor before performing the photocurrent measurements. Figure 1b plots the transistor source–drain resistance as a function of the back-gate bias (V_{BG}) measured at 83 K, with a source–drain bias (V_{SD}) of 10 mV. The thicknesses of the top and bottom hBN layers in this device are 30 nm and 25 nm, respectively, and its optical micrograph is shown in the inset of Fig. 1c. Resistance maxima are observed at $V_{BG} \approx \pm 43.5$ V and at ~ 0 V. The resistance maximum at $V_{BG} \approx 0$ V (charge-neutrality point) is due to the presence of a Dirac point in TBG^{40,41}. The gate voltage at which charge-neutrality occurs (V_{Dirac}) is always within ± 2 V V_{BG} for all of the devices in this work and is subtracted from V_{BG} in the bottom x -axis in Fig. 1b,c. The resistance peaks at ± 43.5 V are due to the formation of the superlattice bandgap above and below the lowest moiré Dirac bands, as illustrated in the calculated band structure in the inset of Fig. 1b (refs. ^{42,43}). When the Fermi level is tuned to the centre of the superlattice bandgap, the carrier density in the channel is minimized, leading to the observed resistance peaks. As reported previously^{44–47}, four electrons per moiré unit cell ($4n_0$) are required to fill/vacate the lowest moiré Dirac bands. We can therefore index the electron filling number in

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Mapping nanoscale light fields

N. Rotenberg and L. Kuipers*

The control of light fields on subwavelength scales in nanophotonic structures has become ubiquitous, driven by both curiosity and a multitude of applications in fields ranging from biosensing to quantum optics. Mapping these fields in detail is crucial, as theoretical modelling is far from trivial and highly dependent on nanoscale geometry. Recent developments of nanoscale field mapping, particularly with near-field microscopy, have not only led to a vastly increased resolution, but have also resulted in increased functionality. The phase and amplitude of different vector components of both the electric and magnetic fields are now accessible, as is the ultrafast temporal or spectral evolution of propagating pulses in nanostructures. In this Review we assess the current state-of-the-art of subwavelength light mapping, highlighting the new science and nanostructures that have subsequently become accessible.

Near-field microscopy is a powerful tool that allows the study of the complex electromagnetic fields that surround nanophotonic structures. As our control over the feature size of these structures becomes ever finer, the ability to image their near fields becomes ever more crucial. This is because, at the nanoscale, light–matter interactions are intimately linked to an object’s geometry and not just to the optical properties of its constituent materials. Consequently, near-field mappings are often the only route to understanding the underlying physical processes of exciting phenomena such as extraordinary optical transmission^{1,2}, light propagation through photonic crystal waveguides^{3,4}, and the optical response of nanoantennas^{5,6}. Likewise, when accurate knowledge of the details of nanoscopic light fields is crucial to the performance of a device, near-field imaging becomes essential. Examples of such situations include the creation of hotspots for nonlinear nanophotonics⁷ or sensing applications⁸, the way in which nanophotonic structures direct light flow⁹, or the generation of structured fields for nanomanipulation^{10,11}. In all, there are a host of fields that stand to gain from the information available from near-field microscopy. In this Review we discuss recent progress towards a complete mapping of light fields at the nanoscale, suggesting new scientific

creates a permanent record of subwavelength regions of high field intensities¹¹. Such methods, however, are rather specialized as they permanently alter structures or only access a select few properties of the light fields such as their intensities. In fact, an ideal method would map out nanoscale light fields without perturbing either the physical structure under investigation or its near field. Further, such a technique should be flexible, allowing for the study of a variety of different structures and providing the maximal amount of information about their nanoscopic fields. Clearly, such an optimal, one-way interaction is impossible, as the act of bringing some of the near field into the far field must in some way change the system. However, modern near-field scanning optical microscopes (NSOMs) can come very close to the ideal scenario outlined above. While a comprehensive review of the operation of NSOMs^{14–21} or their historical development²² is beyond our current scope, we will focus on the recently emerged aspects of this technique that strive towards a complete mapping of the near field. The essence of near-field optical microscopy, as sketched in Fig. 1, is very simple. A nanoscopic object, the near-field probe, is brought into the near field, where it scatters some of the light into the far field. There are two main approaches to this type of near-field

Druhy a struktura článku

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- **Úvod** a vymezení problému
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Single-shot quantitative phase gradient microscopy using a system of multifunctional metasurfaces

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Hyounghan Kwon^{1,2}, Ehsan Arbabi^{1,2}, Seyedeh Mahsa Kamali^{1,2}, MohammadSadegh Faraji-Dana^{1,2} and Andrei Faraon^{1,2*}

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Název => klíčová slova!

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Autoři a afiliace

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¹T. J. Watson Laboratory of Applied Physics and Kavli Nanoscience Institute, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA, USA. ²Department of Electrical Engineering, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA, USA. *e-mail: faraon@caltech.edu

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Optical phase microscopy techniques have been widely investigated for imaging transparent specimens like cells¹⁻⁴. For these weakly scattering samples, phase information represents the optical path difference of light passing through the cell, which is usually directly related to its morphological and chemical properties³. Moreover, phase imaging techniques do not require contrast agents and avoid several issues faced in fluorescence microscopy such as photobleaching and phototoxicity⁵. Although conventional phase imaging methods such as phase contrast¹ and differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy² only capture qualitative phase information, quantitative phase imaging (QPI) has been rapidly growing in the past two decades^{3,4,6}. For example, techniques like digital holographic microscopy⁷, tomographic QPI^{8,9}, Fourier ptychography¹⁰ and lensless imaging¹¹ overcome limitations of qualitative phase imaging methods to acquire quantitative phase data.

Miniaturized microscopes have garnered great interest in recent decades¹²⁻¹⁴ because they enable and facilitate in vivo biological imaging in freely moving objects¹⁴ and in portable applications. Miniaturized systems have only been demonstrated as different forms of amplitude imaging modules such as single-photon¹² or two-photon¹³ fluorescence microscopes. This is mainly because QPI systems usually require an interference 'set-up' to retrieve the phase information, and such set-ups need complicated and bulky optical systems. This left the miniaturized QPI microscopes that are of interest in various fields such as biomedicine⁴ out of reach until now.

Dielectric metasurfaces are a category of diffractive optical elements consisting of nanoscatterers^{15,16} that enable the control of light in subwavelength scales¹⁷⁻²². In addition, metasurfaces can simultaneously provide multiple distinct functionalities through various schemes such as spatial multiplexing^{23,24} or more sophisticated designs of the nanoscatterers^{25,26}. These capabilities, compactness, low weight and compatibility with conventional nanofabrication processes have made them suitable candidates for miniaturized optical devices such as miniaturized microscopes²⁷,

on-chip spectrometers^{28,29} and endoscopes³⁰. In addition, vertical integration of multiple metasurfaces has been introduced to achieve enhanced functionalities³¹⁻³⁴. Despite these great advances, applications of metasurfaces for QPI have not previously been explored. Although different types of spatial field differentiator, which may be regarded as qualitative phase imaging devices, have been proposed, their investigation has been limited to optical computing and optical signal processing^{35,36}.

Here, we propose a miniaturized quantitative phase gradient microscope (QPGM) inspired by the classical DIC microscope and based on an integrated system of multifunctional dielectric metasurfaces. As we fully exploit the two unique properties of metasurfaces, compactness and multifunctionality, via both polarization and spatial multiplexing methods, two metasurface layers that are cascaded vertically operate as a miniaturized QPGM. We experimentally demonstrate that the millimetre-scale optical device can capture quantitative phase gradient images (PGIs) from phase resolution targets and biological samples.

Results

Concept of the metasurface-based QPGM. Figure 1a illustrates the concept of a miniaturized QPGM consisting of two cascaded metasurface layers. The roles of each layer are explained visually in Fig. 1b. Metasurface layer 1 captures two images for transverse electric (TE) and transverse magnetic (TM) polarizations with focal points that are separated along the y axis. In addition, it splits the captured light equally into three separate directions towards the three metasurface lenses in layer 2. To implement this multifunctionality, polarization²⁰ and spatial multiplexing techniques^{23,24} are employed in the design of metasurface layer 1 (see Supplementary Note 1 for details). Metasurface layer 2, which is composed of three birefringent off-axis lenses, forms three DIC images with three different phase offsets between the TE and TM polarizations. Effectively, each metasurface of the second layer constitutes a separate DIC microscope system with the metasurface layer 1. With two linear polarizers at the input and output aligned to 45° and -45° ,

„malý“ abstrakt toho, co se odborně udělalo

Výsledky (Results)

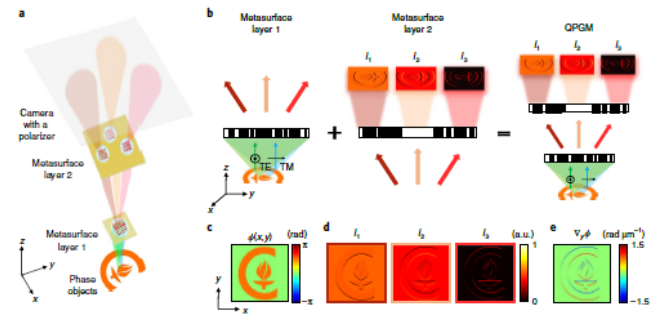


Fig. 1 | Schematic of a metasurface-based QPGM and its operation principle. **a**, Schematic of the QPGM employing two metasurface layers, where the second layer is composed of three separate metasurface lenses. The first metasurface, together with each of the lenses in the second metasurface layer, forms a different image of the object. A polarizer and the polarization-sensitive metasurfaces then result in three interference patterns. **b**, Illustration of the roles of the two metasurface layers. Metasurface 1 makes two sheared focuses for TE and TM polarizations and splits the field in three different directions towards the three lenses in the second layer. With the polarizer, the three metasurface lenses in layer 2 form three DIC images (I_1 , I_2 and I_3) having different phase offsets between the TE and TM polarizations. The combination of the two layers forms the QPGM shown on the right. **c**, A binary phase sample with unity amplitude used as an example target. **d**, Set of three DIC images of the phase sample shown in **c**. **e**, PGI formed from combining I_1 , I_2 and I_3 from **d**, showing the phase gradient along the y axis. The y axis lies along the shear direction of the system.

respectively, the two metasurface layers capture three separate DIC images with different phase offsets. As an example, a binary phase target is shown in Fig. 1c, which has optical fields with unity amplitude, $U(x, y) = e^{i\phi(x, y)}$. The QPGM simultaneously captures three DIC images (I_1 , I_2 and I_3), as shown in Fig. 1d. Specifically, I_1 , I_2 and I_3 are written as

$$I_j = [U(x, y) - e^{i\phi_j} U(x, y - \Delta y)] \quad (1)$$

where $\phi_j = \phi_0 + \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (j-1)$ and Δy is the sheared distance between TE and TM polarizations at the object plane. I_1 , I_2 and I_3 in Fig. 1d show a strong contrast at the top and bottom edges of the sample because each DIC image results from the interference of the two sheared optical fields along the y axis by equation (1). Using I_1 , I_2 and I_3 , one can calculate the unidirectional gradient of the phase sample with respect to y , $\nabla_y \phi(x, y)$, through the three-step phase shifting method²⁵:

$$\nabla_y \phi = \frac{1}{\Delta y} \arctan(\sqrt{3} \frac{I_2 - I_3}{2I_1 - I_2 - I_3}) - \nabla_y \phi_{\text{calc}} \quad (2)$$

Here, $\nabla_y \phi_{\text{calc}}$ is the PGI calculated in the absence of the sample that is used for calibration (see Supplementary Note 3 for details about the three-step phase shifting method). Figure 1e shows the PGI calculated from the three DIC images in Fig. 1d.

The QPGM consists of the two multifunctional metasurface layers for two main reasons (see Supplementary Note 1 and Supplementary Fig. 1 for detailed discussion based on wave propagation simulations). First, at least two polarization-sensitive bifocal lenses are needed to capture clear DIC images. In other words, a single birefringent metasurface lens with a regular refractive lens is not capable of capturing the DIC images clearly (see Supplementary Note 2 and Supplementary Fig. 2 for theoretical and experimental results with the single metasurface lens).

Second, the vertical integration of the two multifunctional metasurface layers uniquely enables capturing the PGI in a single shot with compact implementation of the system.

We should mention that while single polarization-sensitive bifocal metasurface lenses have been demonstrated before for polarization splitting and imaging^{26,27}, their potential application for phase imaging has not been explored. Moreover, the working principle used here is conceptually similar to gradient light interference microscopy, as in both methods several DIC images are utilized to calculate the quantitative phase gradient image along one axis²⁸. Various devices also have been proposed to develop compact QPT techniques^{29–31}. However, they are designed as add-on devices to a conventional microscope system and their imaging performances mainly rely on the microscope, which is fundamentally hard to miniaturize. The system demonstrated here differs from previous approaches in that the highly miniaturized system replaces the bulky phase or phase gradient microscope systems and captures the phase gradient information in a single shot without additional phase shifting elements like variable liquid-crystal retarders or spatial light modulators.

In the following we discuss two implementations of the QPGM, one based on metasurfaces on two separate substrates and one composed of metasurfaces on both sides of a single substrate. Although the first implementation provides large aperture size and field of view, the second implementation provides compactness and mechanical robustness.

Implementation of the QPGM by two separate dielectric metasurface layers. To implement the two metasurface layers, we utilized a high-contrast transmittary platform consisting of rectangular amorphous silicon nanophotons on a fused-silica substrate, as shown in Fig. 2a (see Methods and Supplementary Fig. 4 for details)³². We designed the metasurfaces for an operation wavelength of 850 nm. In Fig. 2b,c, schematics of the metasurface-based QPGM

3-4 bloky obrázků a jejich popis/vysvětlení

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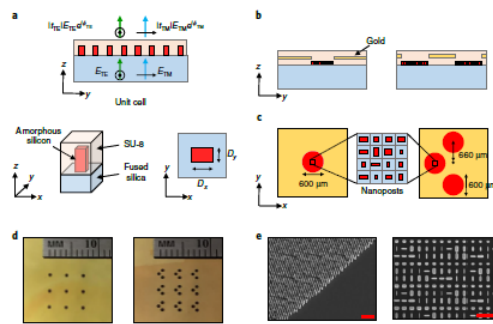


Fig. 2 | Design and fabrication of the metasurfaces. **a**, Schematics of a uniform array of rectangular nanophotons (top) and a single unit cell (bottom), showing the parameter definitions. The rectangular amorphous silicon nanophotons are located on a fused-silica substrate, clad by an 8- μ m-thick SU-8 layer for protection. The transmission phase of the two orthogonal polarizations can be independently controlled using the nanophotons. The amorphous silicon layer is 664 nm thick, and the lattice constant is 380 nm. **b**, Schematic side views of metasurface layers 1 (left) and 2 (right), showing the gold apertures used to block unwanted diffraction and the external noise. **c**, Schematic top views of metasurface layers 1 (left) and 2 (right). A magnified view of the array of nanophotons is shown at the centre. **d**, Optical images of the fabricated metasurfaces. Nine copies of the fabricated metasurface-based QPGM system are shown. **e**, SEM images of a portion of the fabricated metasurfaces. Scale bars, 2 μ m (left) and 1 μ m (right).

are presented. The left and right images correspond to metasurface layers 1 and 2 in Fig. 1a,b, respectively. To minimize the effects of geometric aberrations, the phase profiles of the metasurfaces were further optimized using the ray-tracing method (Zemax OpticStudio) over a field of view (FOV) with diameter of 140 μ m (see Methods, Supplementary Note 1, Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Fig. 5 for details of the optimized phase profiles and corresponding point spread functions).

Conventional nanofabrication techniques were used to fabricate the metasurfaces (see Methods for the process details). All four metasurface lenses have identical diameters of 600 μ m. To block the stray light caused by imperfect operation of the metasurfaces and the device aperture, circular gold apertures were patterned using photolithography. Figure 2d,e presents optical and scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of the two layers of the fabricated metasurfaces. In this design, the whole QPGM system would fit within a cube measuring 1.92 \times 1.26 \times 2.70 mm³, including the space between the metasurfaces. The magnification and objective numerical aperture (NA) of the QPGM are 1.98 and 0.4, respectively. Although the phase map is optimized for the central area (140 μ m diameter), the total FOV of the system is 336 μ m in diameter. In addition, the separation between the optical axes for TE and TM polarizations is 1.5 μ m, which results in a derivation step of $\Delta y = 2.25 \mu$ m (see Supplementary Fig. 3 for details about Δy). Δy is larger than 1.06 μ m, the theoretical diffraction limit of the imaging system, and it imposes a constraint on the resolution along the y axis. However, we should point out that Δy can easily be adjusted to below the diffraction-limited resolution by reducing the optical axis separation accordingly.

Imaging with the QPGM based on two separate metasurface layers. We characterized the QPGM, consisting of the fabricated metasurfaces, with a commercially available 1951 USAF phase

resolution target (Quantitative Phase Microscopy Target, Benchmark Technologies). As shown in Fig. 3a, the QPGM captured three DIC images of the 314-nm-thick resolution target in a single shot (see Methods and Supplementary Fig. 6 for details of the optical set-up). The resulting PGI, shown in Fig. 3b, is calculated from the DIC images in Fig. 3a using equation (2). As expected in the ideal cases in Fig. 1d,e, the unidirectional phase gradient imaging in the y direction shows a strong contrast only at the top and bottom edges, and very weak contrast at the left and right edges. This is also seen in the measurement results shown in Fig. 3a,b. To verify the QPGM capability, we used seven parts of the resolution target with thicknesses ranging from 54 to 371 nm. Figure 3c shows the resulting PGIs for 105-nm-, 207-nm- and 314-nm-thick resolution targets (see Supplementary Fig. 7 for the four remaining PGIs). The results show a clear increase in the phase gradient as the thickness of the structures increases. For a more rigorous analysis, Fig. 3d shows the target thicknesses estimated from the PGIs, in addition to the values measured using atomic force microscopy (AFM). The agreement between these measurements shows the ability of the system to retrieve quantitative phase data. To estimate the target thickness, the phase gradient is integrated at the edges of the targets along the y axis to calculate the phase. The thickness is then estimated from the phase, the refractive index of the polymer constituting the target and the wavelength. The QPGM can clearly capture phase gradient information as small as 92.3 mrad μ m⁻¹, which corresponds to a phase of 207 mrad (see Supplementary Fig. 7a for details). In addition, the measured spatial and temporal noise levels are 36.9 \pm 0.7 and 11.4 mrad μ m⁻¹, respectively (see Supplementary Fig. 8 for details). Furthermore, the lateral resolutions achieved in the experiment along the x and y axes are 2.76 μ m and 3.48 μ m, respectively (see Supplementary Fig. 9 for details). Compared with the 1.06 μ m theoretical diffraction limit, the reduced resolutions result from the geometric aberration of the device, misalignment in

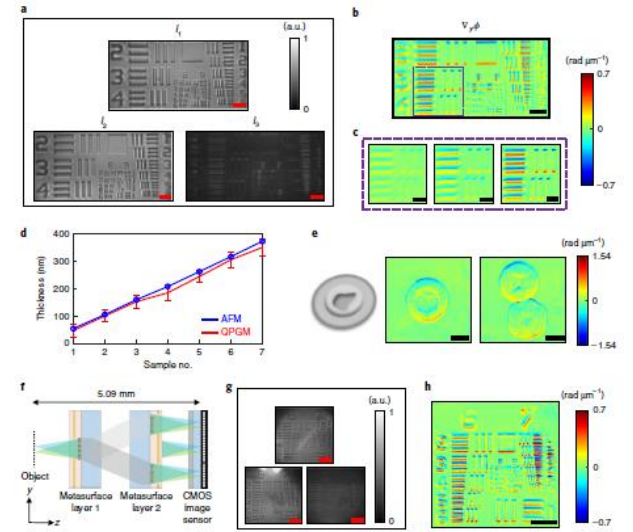


Fig. 3 | Imaging experiment with the QPGM based on two separate metasurface layers. **a**, Three DIC images of a 314-nm-thick QP 1951-USAF resolution target captured by the QPGM. Scale bars, 25 μ m. **b**, The PGI calculated from the DIC images in **a**. Scale bar, 25 μ m. **c**, The PGIs captured for three parts of the phase targets with thicknesses of 105 nm, 207 nm and 314 nm (left to right), respectively. Scale bars, 15 μ m. **d**, Thicknesses of seven different phase targets calculated by the QPGM, and those measured by AFM. The plotted thicknesses estimated with the QPGM are averaged over 100 arbitrarily chosen points on the sample edges. Error bars represent standard deviations of the estimated values. **e**, Schematic of a sea urchin cell and its corresponding PGIs. Scale bars, 40 μ m. **f**, Schematic of the miniaturized optical set-up. The schematic consists of the two metasurfaces shown in Fig. 2d, a CMOS image sensor and a linear polarizer attached to the sensor. **g**, Three DIC images captured by the set-up in **f**. The 314-nm-thick resolution target used in **a** is imaged. Scale bars, 50 μ m. **h**, The PGI calculated from the DIC images in **g**. Scale bar, 50 μ m.

the optical set-up and imperfect fabrication. To compare our results with one of the state-of-the-art QPT techniques, the resolution targets were also characterized by Fourier ptychography techniques³³ (see Supplementary Fig. 10 for details). Finally, to demonstrate the capability of the QPGM to image biological samples, we imaged several sea urchin samples. As seen in a few sample PGIs, plotted in Fig. 3c, the QPGM can capture the edges of the sea urchin as well as the detailed morphology inside the cells. Thus, the QPGM is able to measure the phase gradient information of the biological samples, which is directly related to cellular mass transport³⁴.

To demonstrate further miniaturization of the system, we performed additional measurements with an off-the-shelf CMOS image sensor. Figure 3f presents a schematic of the optical system. The distance from the object plane to the CMOS image sensor is just 5.09 mm (see Supplementary Fig. 11a,b for details of the compact optical set-up). Figure 3g shows three raw DIC images captured by the set-up in Fig. 3f when using the imaging target shown in Fig. 3a. Using equation (2), the three DIC images in Fig. 3g result in the PGI plotted in Fig. 3h. The edges and the measured phase gradient

of the PGI in Fig. 3h are comparable to the results shown in Fig. 3b (see Supplementary Fig. 11c,d for additional measurement results).

QPGM based on monolithically integrated double-sided metasurfaces. To further miniaturize the device, we designed and fabricated a monolithically integrated double-sided metasurface QPGM. Figure 4a schematically illustrates the double-sided QPGM. Although conceptually similar to the system discussed in the previous section, the double-sided QPGM is more compact, mechanically robust and does not need further alignment after fabrication. The two metasurface layers are based on the same platform discussed in the previous section, but they are fabricated on the two sides of a 1-mm-thick fused-silica substrate (see Methods, Supplementary Note 1 and Supplementary Table 2 for details about the design and fabrication). The optical images of the device are shown in Fig. 4b. The total volume of the QPGM is 0.62 \times 0.41 \times 1.00 mm³, it has a magnification of \times 1.60 and a FOV with diameter of 140 μ m. To verify the capability of the double-sided QPGM, we used the same resolution targets as in Fig. 3c,d. The results, shown in Fig. 4c,d,

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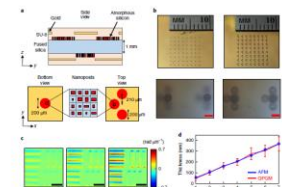


Fig. 4 | Imaging with the double-sided QPGM based on monolithically integrated double-sided metasurface layers. **a**, Schematic of the double-sided QPGM using the double-sided metasurface layers. The two metasurface layers are patterned on the two sides of a 1-mm-thick fused-silica substrate. **b**, Optical images of the device (left) and raw DIC images of the device (right) captured using the double-sided QPGM. **c**, PGIs captured using the double-sided QPGM for three parts of the phase targets. Scale bars, 25 μ m. **d**, Thicknesses of seven different phase targets calculated by the QPGM, and those measured by AFM. The plotted thicknesses estimated with the QPGM are averaged over 100 arbitrarily chosen points on the sample edges. Error bars represent standard deviations of the estimated values.

verify that the double-sided metasurface QPGM generates PGIs that are comparable to those of the QPGM based on the two separate metasurface layers. To further miniaturize the device, we designed and fabricated a monolithically integrated double-sided metasurface QPGM. Figure 4a schematically illustrates the double-sided QPGM. Although conceptually similar to the system discussed in the previous section, the double-sided QPGM is more compact, mechanically robust and does not need further alignment after fabrication. The two metasurface layers are based on the same platform discussed in the previous section, but they are fabricated on the two sides of a 1-mm-thick fused-silica substrate (see Methods, Supplementary Note 1 and Supplementary Table 2 for details about the design and fabrication). The optical images of the device are shown in Fig. 4b. The total volume of the QPGM is 0.62 \times 0.41 \times 1.00 mm³, it has a magnification of \times 1.60 and a FOV with diameter of 140 μ m. To verify the capability of the double-sided QPGM, we used the same resolution targets as in Fig. 3c,d. The results, shown in Fig. 4c,d,

Outlook and summary It is worth noting that the multifunctionality via both polarization and spatial multiplexing schemes, which is the key property for the design of the monolithically integrated QPGM, is very hard to achieve in any other platform, if at all. We envision that these and other versatile properties of metasurface enable various types of applications. For example, the phase gradient information can be used for phase imaging devices, for example, phase gradient imaging at different axial positions can be optimized to calculate the phase transport of intensity equation³⁵. In addition, different focus

Nikdy nepodvádět! Čtenář je chytrý!

Výsledky (Results) - obrázky

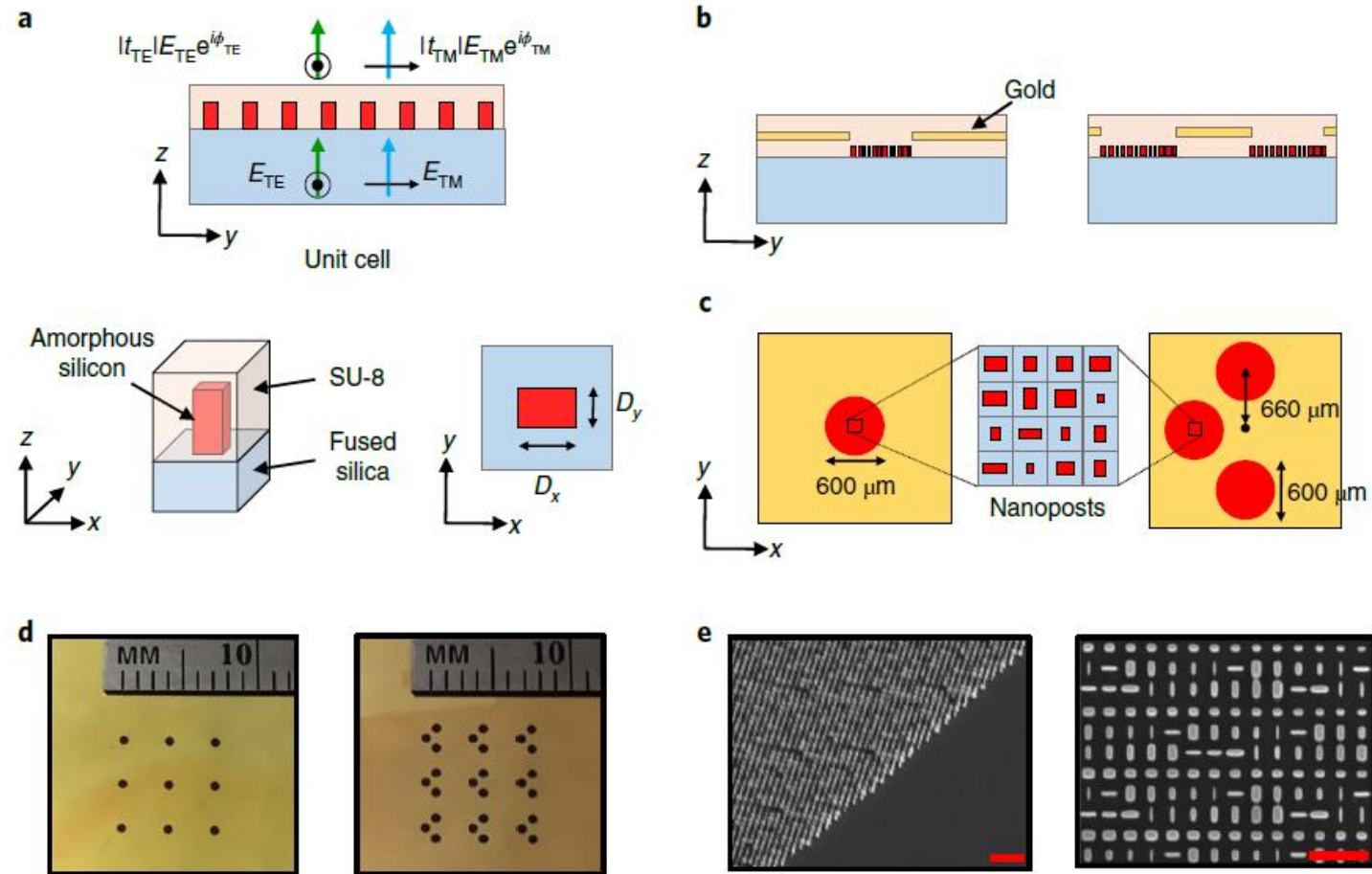


Fig. 2 | Design and fabrication of the metasurfaces. **a**, Schematics of a uniform array of rectangular nanoposts (top) and a single unit cell (bottom), showing the parameter definitions. The rectangular amorphous silicon nanoposts are located on a fused-silica substrate, cladded by an 8- μm -thick SU-8 layer for protection. The transmission phase of the two orthogonal polarizations can be independently controlled using the nanoposts. The amorphous silicon layer is 664 nm thick, and the lattice constant is 380 nm. **b**, Schematic side views of metasurface layers 1 (left) and 2 (right), showing the gold apertures used to block unwanted diffraction and the external noise. **c**, Schematic top views of metasurface layers 1 (left) and 2 (right). A magnified view of the array of nanoposts is shown at the centre. **d**, Optical images of the fabricated metasurfaces. Nine copies of the fabricated metasurface-based QPGM system are shown. **e**, SEM images of a portion of the fabricated metasurfaces. Scale bars, 2 μm (left) and 1 μm (right).

Výsledky

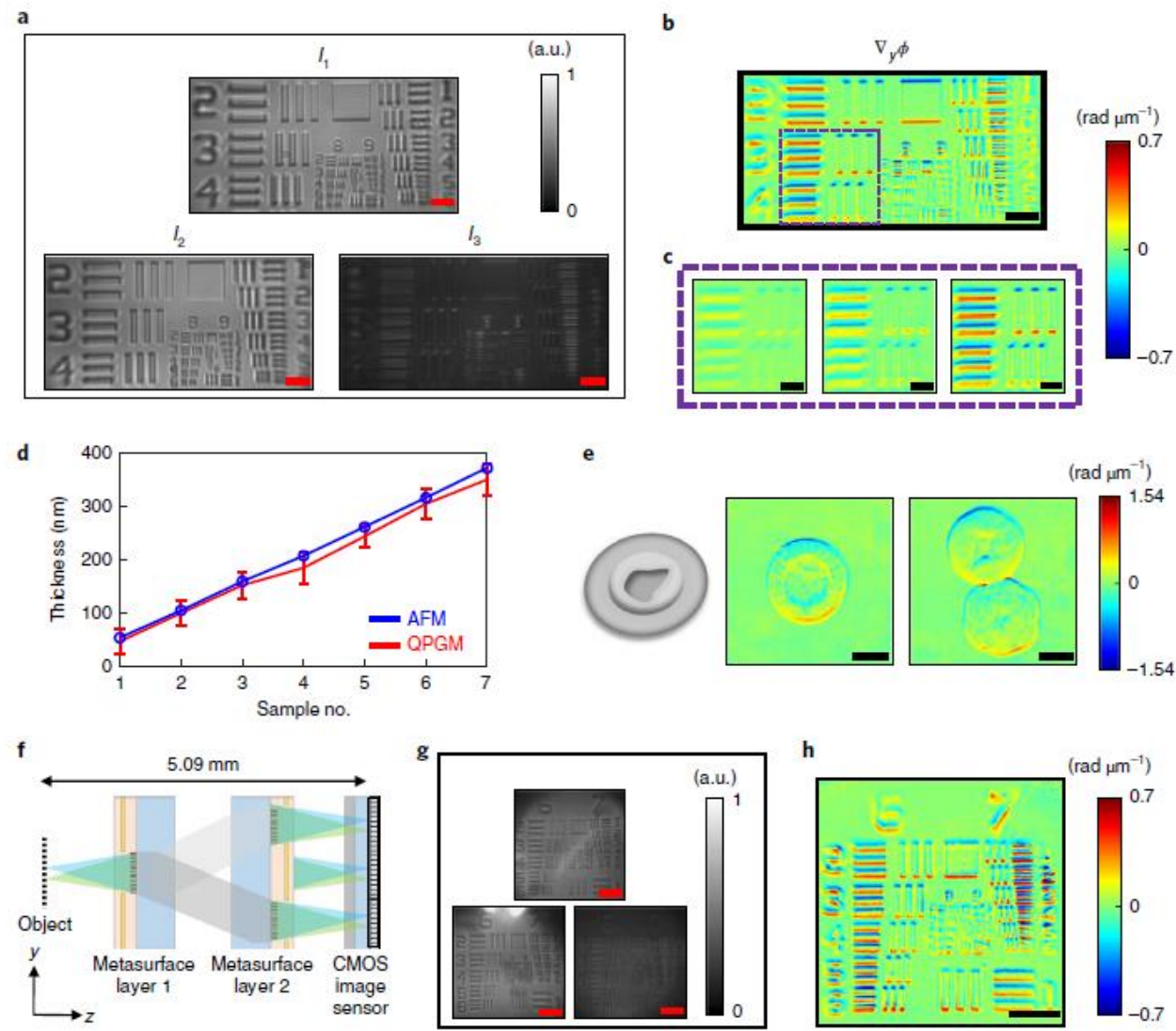


Fig. 3 | Imaging experiment with the QPGM based on two separate metasurface layers. **a**, Three DIC images of a 314-nm-thick QPI 1951-USAF resolution target captured by the QPGM. Scale bars, 25 μm . **b**, The PGI calculated from the DIC images in **a**. Scale bar, 25 μm . **c**, The PGIs captured for three parts of the phase targets with thicknesses of 105 nm, 207 nm and 314 nm (left to right), respectively. Scale bars, 15 μm . **d**, Thicknesses of seven different phase targets calculated by the QPGM, and those measured by AFM. The plotted thicknesses estimated with the QPGM are averaged over 100 arbitrarily chosen points on the sample edges. Error bars represent standard deviations of the estimated values. **e**, Schematic of a sea urchin cell and its corresponding PGIs. Scale bars, 40 μm . **f**, Schematic of the miniaturized optical set-up. The microscope consists of the two metasurfaces shown in Fig. 2d, a CMOS image sensor and a linear polarizer attached to the sensor. **g**, Three DIC images captured by the set-up in **f**. The 314-nm-thick resolution target used in **a** is imaged. Scale bars, 50 μm . **h**, The PGI calculated from the DIC images in **g**. Scale bar, 50 μm .

Diskuze (Discussion)

Slabiny výsledků a jejich příčiny případně hypotetické návrhy na vylepšení (plán do budoucnosti)

verify that the double-sided metasurface QPGM generates PGIs that are comparable to those of the QPGM based on the two separate metasurface layers. In particular, the estimated thicknesses of the phase samples plotted in Fig. 4d are in good agreement with the values measured by AFM. Phase images of sea urchin samples, captured by the double-sided metasurface QPGM, are shown in Supplementary Fig. 12.

Discussion

One limitation of the proposed system, especially for the double-sided metasurface device, is its FOV. The small FOV mostly results from the fact that our system is close to a $4-f$ configuration that requires the sum of the focal lengths of the two lenses to be comparable to their separation. To increase the FOV, a possible solution is the recently reported folded metasurface platform²⁹, which might be able to achieve a large FOV and a small footprint simultaneously. In this platform, the propagation space between the two lenses is folded inside the substrate through multiple reflections, and therefore the effective distance between the lenses can be significantly larger than the substrate thickness. Furthermore, adding another metasurface layer can be used to mitigate the geometric aberrations further and increase the FOV³¹.

The QPGM system is sensitive to the equality of optical axis separation for TE and TM polarizations in the two metasurface lenses. Nevertheless, this separation can be controlled very precisely because metasurfaces allow for implementation of almost arbitrary phase profiles in subwavelength scales. If the separations between the optical axes are identical for the two metasurfaces, the structure becomes robust against lateral and axial misalignment (Supplementary Fig. 13).

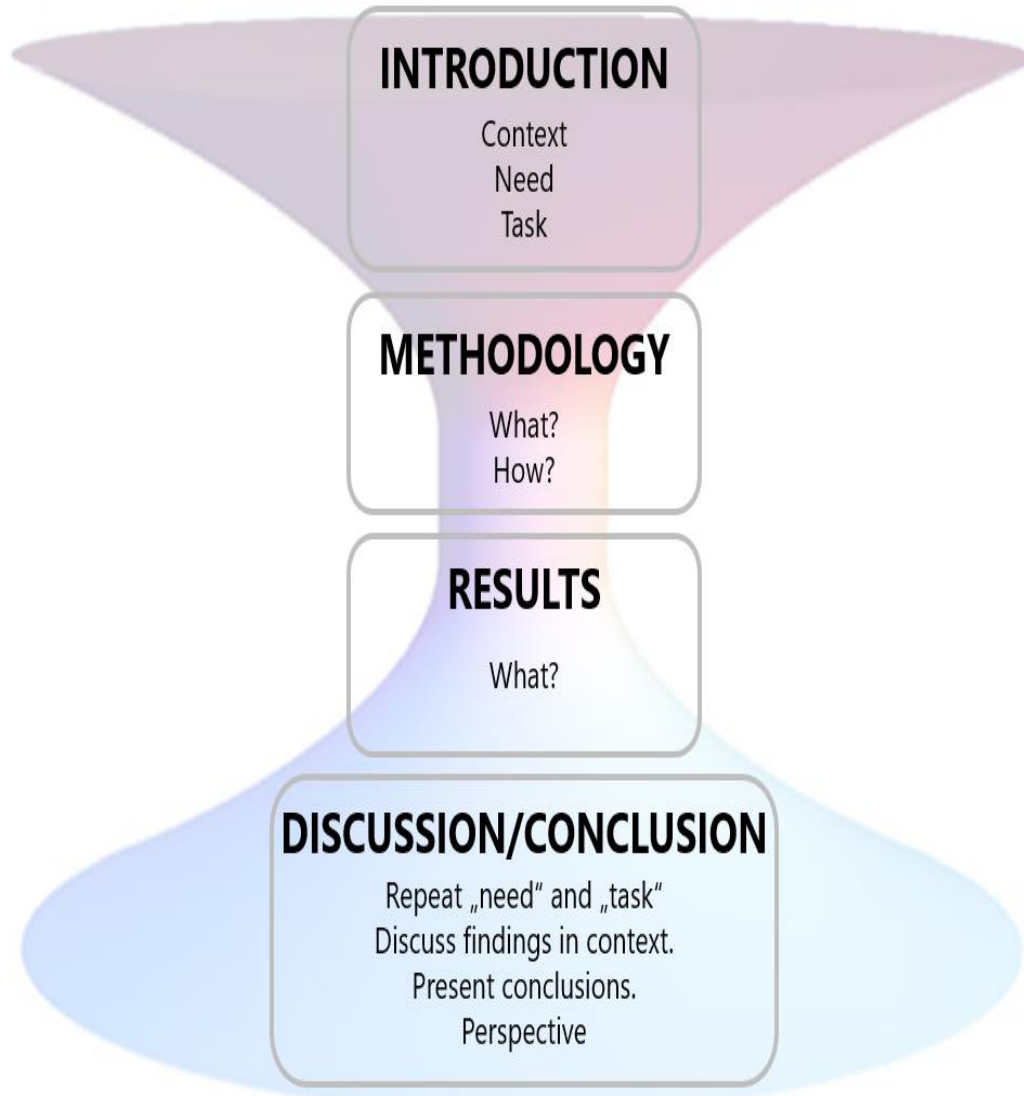
Outlook and summary

It is worth noting that the multifunctionality via both polarization and spatial multiplexing schemes, which is the key property for the design of the miniaturized QPGM, is very hard to achieve in any other platform, if at all. We envision that these and other versatile properties of metasurfaces enable various types of quantitative phase imaging devices. For example, three different images at different axial positions can be captured to calculate the phase information rather than the phase gradient information through the transport-of-intensity equation^{11,45}. In addition, different focus scanning schemes can be integrated with the QPGM to achieve a tomographic quantitative phase imaging device with fast axial scanning^{46–48}. Moreover, we expect that around ten to a hundred of the miniaturized microscopes could be integrated on a single CMOS sensor for highly parallelized microscopy. Finally, a synergistic combination of the metasurfaces and computational optics is an emerging area for enhancing the potentials of metasurface optical systems. Considering the computational aspects of quantitative phase imaging, we believe that new kinds of miniaturized quantitative phase imaging device that will benefit from the enhanced optical control of the metasurfaces can be proposed.

In conclusion, we utilized two multifunctional metasurface layers to realize miniaturized quantitative phase gradient microscopes. The design and working principle were proposed and investigated both through simulation and experiment. Utilizing vertically integrated multifunctional metasurfaces, we experimentally captured phase gradient images of several transparent samples and verified the quantitative phase imaging capability of the systems. This work clearly demonstrates potentials of dielectric metasurface platforms in quantitative phase imaging systems to make miniaturized imaging

Závěr (Conclusion)

Klidně diskutujte!



„Wormhole scheme”

Váš závěr (velmi důležitý! Vyvrcholení článku)
Silné a „sexy“ věty + konkrétní aplikace

Obecný závěr a příprava/stupňování na váš závěr
(přesah článku, unikátnost, vysoký impakt na vědu)

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devices such as miniaturized microscopes or endoscopes³⁹. With the current great interest in quantitative phase imaging and miniaturized microscopes, we envision that the metasurfaces will play a significant role in the development of these technologies.

Online content

Any methods, additional references, Nature Research reporting summaries, source data, extended data, supplementary information, acknowledgements, peer review information; details of author contributions and competing interests; and statements of data and code availability are available at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41566-019-0536-x>.

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Author contributions

H.K. and A.F. conceived the project. H.K., E.A., S.M.K. and M.F.-D. designed and fabricated the samples. H.K. performed the simulations and measurements. H.K., E.A., S.M.K. and M.F. analysed the data. H.K., E.A. and A.F. co-wrote the manuscript. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

Competing interests

H.K., E.A. and A.F. have submitted a patent application based on the idea presented in this work.

Additional information

Supplementary information is available for this paper at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41566-019-0536-x>.

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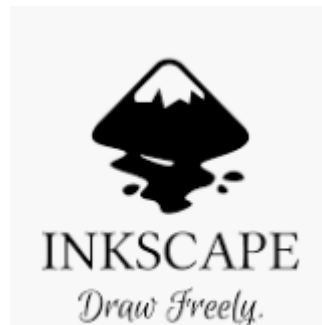
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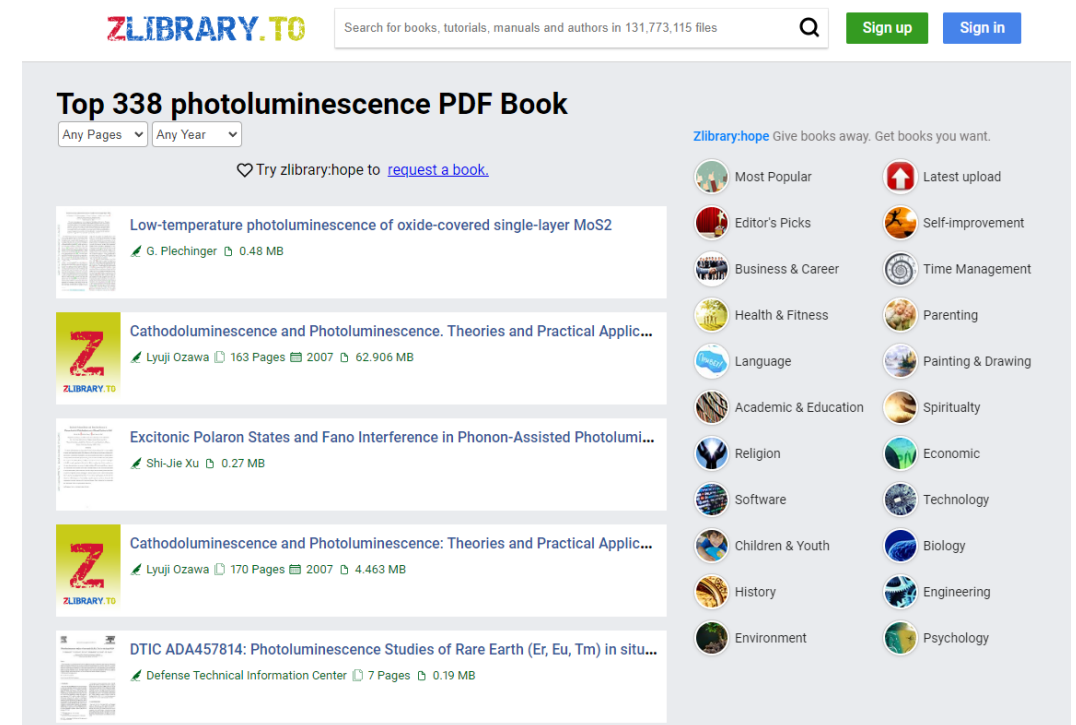
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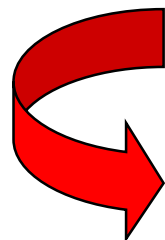


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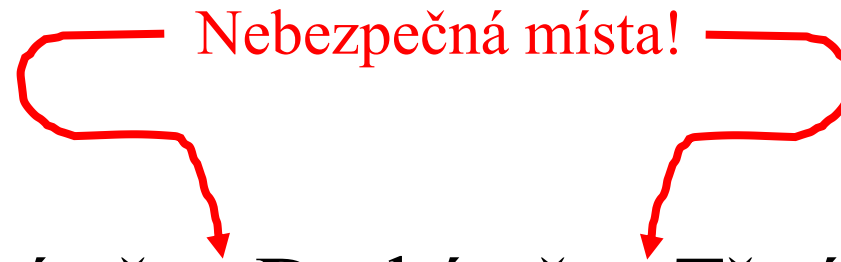
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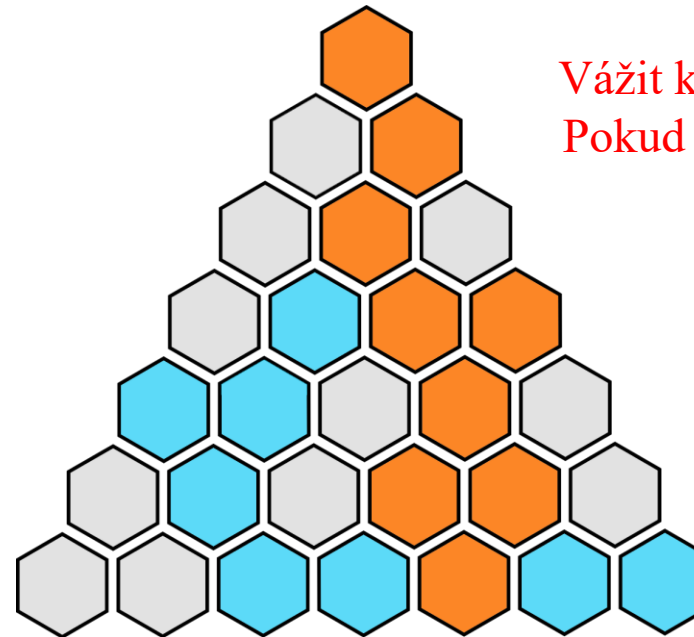


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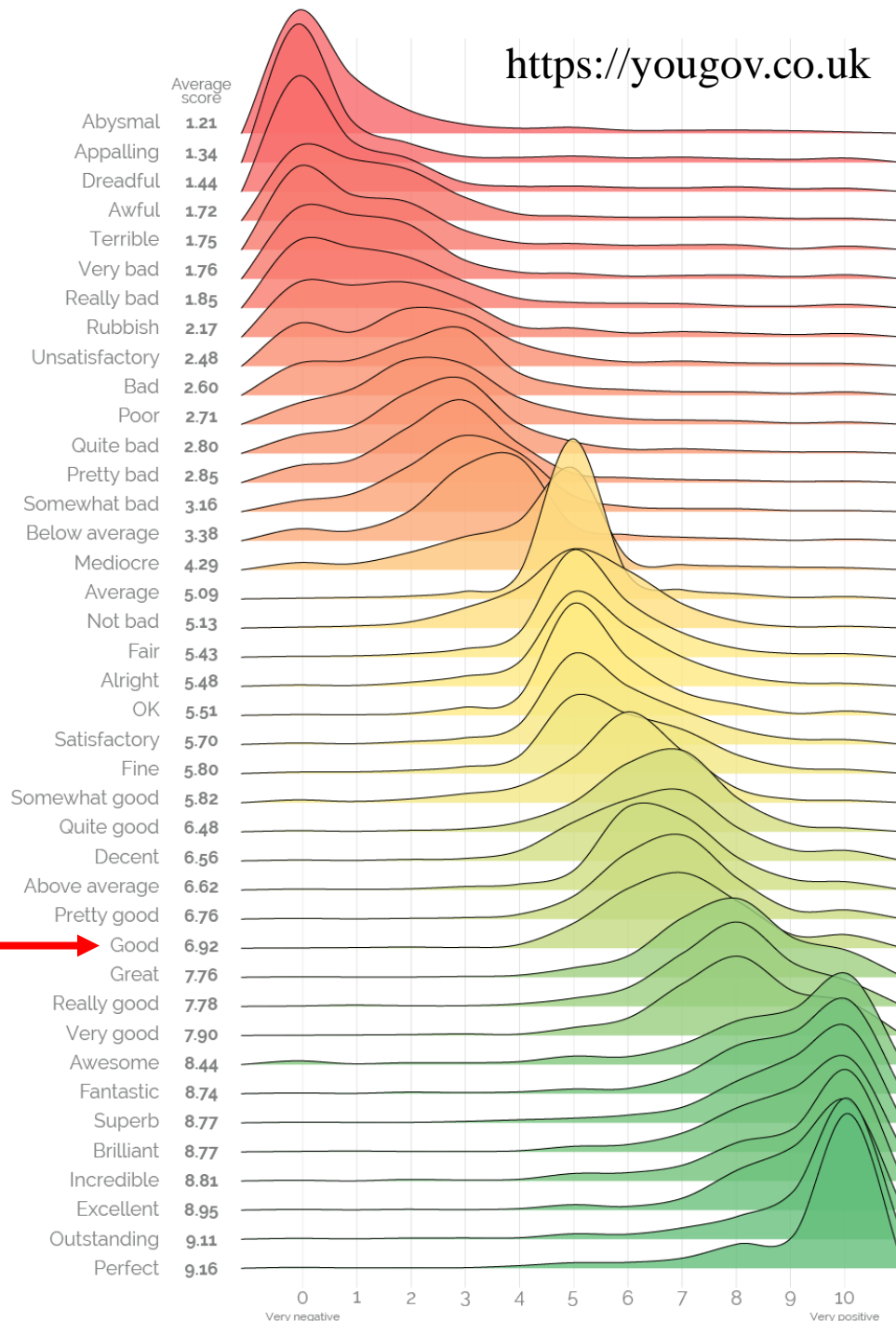
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krátká přestávka (5 min)

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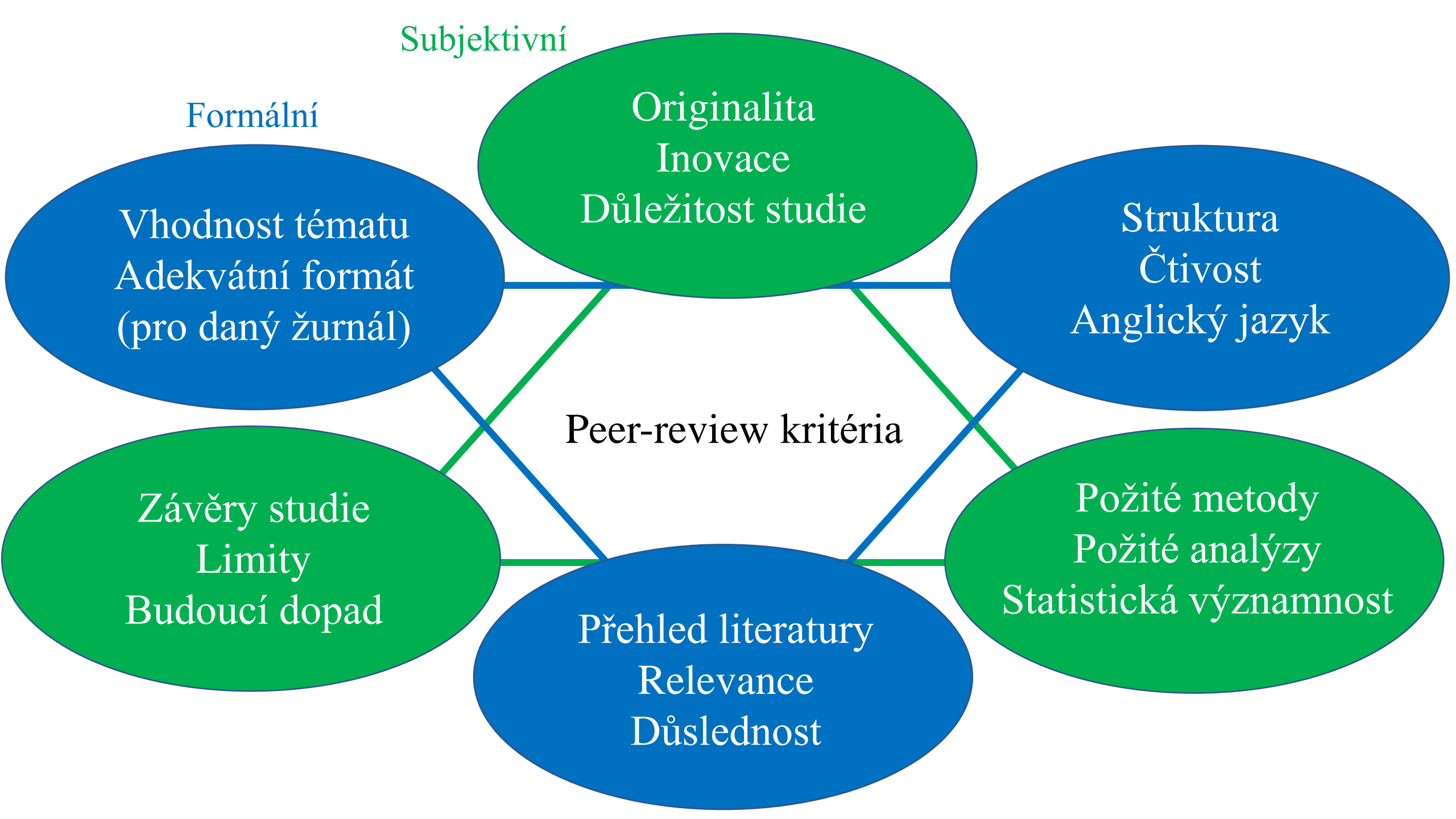
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Brno, November 26, 2018

Dear Editors of *Nano Letters*,

Please consider the enclosed manuscript, entitled **“High-resolution quantitative phase imaging of plasmonic metasurfaces with sensitivity down to a single nanoantenna”** for publication.

Metasurfaces are the new generation of optical components, which have already proven themselves capable of performing all sorts of both conventional and extraordinary optical functions. Ultrathin achromatic lenses, computer-generated holograms, quarter-wave plates, or polarimeters have been demonstrated, employing a variety of building blocks with subwavelength sizes. The key property of the great majority of these components is the spatial distribution of light phase they produce. Therefore, the tools that allow fast and reliable indication of phase response from individual nanoantennas are in great demand for rapid development and analysis of various metasurfaces.

In this submission, we demonstrate a new tool for instantaneous quantification of amplitude and phase of plasmonic metasurfaces providing unprecedented resolution and sensitivity, not achievable in state-of-the-art experiments. The measurement strategy is based on the principles of incoherent digital holographic microscopy, enhanced by optical elements controlling light through geometric (Pancharatnam-Berry) phase. In addition to the superior amplitude and phase sensitivity, our approach is inherently stable (common-path arrangement), and unique in combining high resolution and single-shot operation with guaranteed subnanometer precision and excellent accuracy. Although we demonstrated the capabilities of our method only using linear Pancharatnam-Berry metasurfaces, the measurement principle can be deployed also for analysis of nonlinear metasurfaces or metasurfaces based on the dynamic phase.

The optical performance and usability of the method was demonstrated by acquiring high-fidelity quantitative phase maps of a variety of metasurface structures, including vortex metalenses and vortex masks, nanoantenna arrays and metasurface gratings. In the first experiment of its kind, we demonstrated the widefield measurement of both amplitude and phase of light scattered by individual nanoantennas. The provided combination of high resolution and phase sensitivity with instantaneous operation is of great importance for study of fundamental effects and dynamics of phase variations in active metasurfaces, prototyping and characterizing of new building blocks, development of plasmonic biosensors or investigation of plasmonic-enhanced chirality.

The team working on this manuscript was composed of researchers who are especially experienced in the fields of phase imaging, singular optics and plasmonic metasurfaces, as demonstrated by our previous works, and our claims are all supported by the solid and clear evidence in the paper itself or in the supporting datasets. We believe that the scope (quantitative phase imaging of metasurfaces), major progress (excellent accuracy, high spatial and phase resolution, single nanoantenna sensitivity for the first time), high impact (real-time monitoring of metasurfaces) and novelty of our contribution will make it appropriate for *Nano Letters*.

On behalf of all co-authors,

Petr Bouchal

If you find the manuscript worthy of consideration for publication, we would like to suggest the following experts in the field as possible referees:

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Jak psát populárně-vědecké články?

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2D materiály aneb grafen a jak to bylo dál

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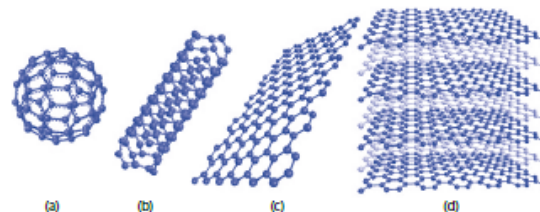
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Odlupováním vrstevnatých materiálů (např. grafitu) lze připravit 2D krystaly s tloušťkou jednoho nebo několika málo atomů. Nejznámějším takovým 2D materiálem je grafen (monovrstva grafitu), nicméně v současnosti existují a intenzivně se zkoumají desítky podobných struktur. Příspěvek podává základní přehled o 2D materiálech, jejich vlastnostech, metodách přípravy a možných aplikacích.

Začalo to grafenem

Existuje řada vrstevnatých materiálů, které mají silné kovalentní vazby mezi atomy vázanými ve vrstvě, zatímco jednotlivé vrstvy jsou k sobě poutány pouze slabými van der Waalovými silami. Asi nejznámějším příkladem takového materiálu je grafit (tuha). Dlouhou dobu panovala názorová nejednotnost v tom, zda je možné oddělit jednotlivé vrstvy z těchto materiálů a připravit tak stabilní atomární 2D krystaly. Mnoho úsilí bylo věnováno pokusům o chemické či mechanické odlupování (exfoliaci), ale teprve roku 2004 André Geim a Konstantin Novoselov [1] poplsem vlastností grafitu (monovrstvy grafitu) dokázali, že příprava dvojrozměrných materiálů není pouhou utopií.

Grafen je tvořen jednou vrstvou uhlíkových atomů uspořádaných hexagonálně, tedy ve vrcholech pravidelných šestiúhelníků (obr. 1c). Připraven byl nejprve z kousku grafitu metodou mechanické exfoliace (postupného oddělování stále tenčích a tenčích „vloček“) pomocí běžné lepicí pásky. Tato velmi jednoduchá a rychlá metoda se stále používá ve výzkumu, protože umožňuje připravit vysoké kvalitní, byť velkostně značně omezený grafen. Velikost vloček takto připraveného grafitu bývá totiž typicky v řádu desítek až stovek mikrometrů, což je pro průmyslové uplatnění při výrobě obrazovek či displejů opravdu málo. Pro výrobu větších ploch grafitu se dnes využívá jiných metod, zejména depozice z plynné fáze (CVD – *Chemical Vapour Deposition*), kdy grafen narůstá za vysokých teplot ze směsi par methanu a vodíku na povrchu katalytického kovu (obvykle mědi či niklu). Tato metoda sice umožňuje připravit velké plochy grafitu, ale již při samotném růstu vzniká řada nedokonalostí v grafenové síti (hranice různě orientovaných zrn, oblasti s dvojitou apod.). Navíc je třeba grafit z kovu přenést na jiný substrát (křemík, SiO₂, Al₂O₃ apod.) a právě transfer způsobuje vznik dalších defektů grafitu (vznikají trhlinky a tzv. vrásky, povrch bývá kontaminován poly-



Obr. 1 Uhlíkové alotropy s různou rozměrovostí: (a) fullerén (0D), (b) uhlíková nanotrubička (1D), (c) grafén (2D), (d) grafit (3D). Převzato z [4].

merem používaným jako podpůrná vrstva při transferu či nedokonalé opláchnutím roztokem sloužícím k odstranění kovu atp.) [2].

Cím jsou 2D materiály zvláštní? Mají jiné vlastnosti než 3D materiály stejného chemického složení!

Rozměrovost je velmi důležitým parametrem, který ovlivňuje vlastnosti daného materiálu. Materiály mající stejné chemické složení mohou mít značně odlišné vlastnosti v závislosti na tom, jaké jsou jejich rozměry. Podíváme-li se např. na uhlíkové materiály s hybridizací sp² (obr. 1), pak kulovité molekuly (0D) tvořené desítkami uhlíkových atomů jsou známy jako fulerény, zatímco jsou-li fulerény v jednom směru významně protažené (1D), jedná se o uhlíkové nanotrubičky. Na grafen (2D síť uhlíkových atomů) se lze dívat jako na rozbalenou uhlíkovou nanotrubičku nebo jako na jednu vrstvu z grafitu (3D materiál) [3]. Vlastnosti jednotlivých modifikací uhlíku se od sebe významně liší, a to již na první pohled. Zatímco grafit je šedá, kovově lesklá, měkká a křehká pevná látka, grafen je prakticky průhledný (každá vrstva absorbuje jen 2,3 % světla), elastický a patří k nepevnějším známým materiálům vůbec. Kromě toho je grafen také výborně elektricky a tepelně vodivý (je dokonce lepším vodičem

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Krásy plazmoniky: šíření A INTERFERENCE SVĚTLA NA POVRCHU KOVOVÝCH NANOSTRUKTUR

Radek Kalousek, Petr Dvořák, Jiří Spousta, Tomáš Šíkola

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Co je plazmonika?

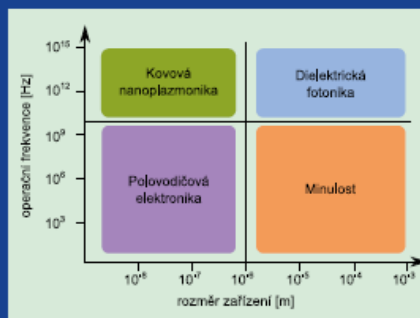
Tato oblast fyziky zkoumá, jak může být vybudeno a detekováno světlo (tj. elektromagnetické pole) omezené na oblast o rozměrech významně menších, než je jeho vlnová délka. Tedy například to znamená, že se zabývá možnostmi jak zlepšit rozšíření optických prvků pod difrakční limit známý z vlnové optiky. Jedním ze způsobů jak excitovat takové světlo, je využití interakce elektromagnetického pole s volnými nosiči náboje ve vodivých tenkých vrstvách nebo ve vodivých nanostrukturách, tj. v objektech majících alespoň jeden rozměr menší než 100 nm. Plazmonika, která spojuje optiku a fyziku pevných látek, tedy úzce souvisí s rozvojem nanotechnologií, a proto tento moderní obor začíná psát svoji historii teprve zhruba na konci 20. století. Ucelené pojednání o základech plazmoniky a jejích aplikacích je např. v [1], o nejnovějších trendech v plazmonice se lze pak dočíst např. v [2].

Elektromagnetická vlna ve vodiči představuje elektromagnetické pole svázané s kmity nábojové hustoty volných nosičů náboje, jejichž kvantum se nazývá *plazmon*. A právě od názvu této kvazičáste se odvozuje název *plazmonika*. Lze tedy říci, že ve vodiči tak existuje smíšené pole, jehož energie má jak složku mechanickou, spojenou s plazmovými kmity, tak elektromagnetickou, spojenou s elektromagnetickým polem. Kvantum tohoto smíšeného pole se nazývá *plazmonový polariton*.

Potřebná teorie, která byla později v plazmonice využívána, byla rozvíjena již od počátku 20. století. Například v teorii byl řešen problém šíření elektromagnetických evanescentních (tento pojem bude vysvětlen dále) radiových vln *Jonathanem Zenneckem* [3] a *Arnoldem Sommerfeldem* [4]. V průběhu několika dalších desetiletí byly zaznamenány významné pokroky v mikrotechnologiích, později nanotechnologiích, a subtilní plazmonické jevy mohly být i experimentálně zkoumány. Excitace plazmonů v kovových tenkých fóliích byla poprvé pozorována pomocí spektroskopie energieové ztráty elektronů (EELS – z angl. *Electron-Energy Loss Spectroscopy*) již ve 40. letech [5]. O 20 let později byla provedena podobná měření, tentokrát byl studován vliv míry oxidování povrchu na energieové ztráty elektronů. Ukázalo se, že kromě excitace plazmonů uvnitř kovového materiálu vzniká další energieová

ztráta, a to v důsledku oscilací elektronového plynu na kovovém povrchu [6]. Právě s tímto typem kmitů souvisí evanescentní elektromagnetická vlna na rozhraní kov–dielektrikum popsána *Zenneckem* a *Sommerfeldem*. Kvantu příslušného smíšeného foton-plazmonového pole, jehož energie se šíří podél rozhraní, se začalo říkat *povrchový plazmonový polariton* [7]. Amplituda kmitů elektrické a magnetické intenzity zde klesá se vzdáleností od rozhraní na obou jeho stranách (odtud název *evanescentní*, z lat. *evanescere* – vymizet, zaniknout), což znamená, že energie evanescentních vln se přenáší pouze v úzké oblasti podél rozhraní. Tato oblast je menší, než je vlnová délka použitého světla, a tudíž tento typ elektromagnetického pole je pro plazmoniku předmětem zkoumání.

Ústředním pojmem tohoto příspěvku jsou především *evanescentní vlny*. V dalším se proto zaměříme na jejich fyzikální podstatu, vznik, šíření a detekci. Dále popíšeme, jak lze připravit vzorky, na kterých je možné tyto vlny pozorovat, a jakou techniku je třeba k tomu použít. Na závěr ukážeme interferenci dvou evanescentních vln šířících se proti sobě.



Plazmonika představuje slibnou oblast pro rychlý přenos informace v integrovaných obvodech využívajících elektromagnetické pole o vysokých frekvencích.

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- Využívat odborné „Review“
- Vhodný historický kontext
- Přehledové citace (jen pár)
- Výukově a zajímavosti
- Hypotetické aplikace

Závěrem...

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- Ostatní Vám mohou říct svůj názor a poradit
- S každým publikovaným článkem se vám bude lépe psát další
- Princip vědy a pokroku:
Začít tam, kam došli ostatní před vámi

Děkuji za pozornost!

Reference:

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Jak psát závěrečné práce? aneb bakalářské, diplomové a disertační práce

Pro zájemce pokud zbyde čas

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