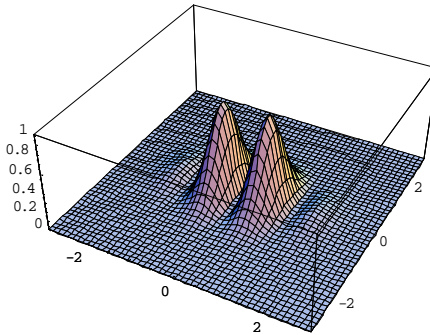


Optical MEMS in Communication and Sensing Fabrication, Design, and Scaling of Optical Microsystems

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Section 2:

- **Scaling of Microoptics**
 - Diffraction made simple - Gaussian Beam propagation
 - Resolution of microscanners and Spatial Light Modulator (projection displays)
 - Surface quality



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Diffraction

Light ray or collimated (perfectly parallel) optical beam that propagates over infinite distance without changing its cross section

- What is wrong with the concept of a light ray or collimated beam?
 - It is inconsistent with Maxwell's Equations and Huygen's principle
 - It violates the second law of thermodynamics
 - It even violates energy conservation!
- Conclusion: All wave phenomena has diffraction, i.e. spreading of beams to larger cross sections as they propagate over long distances (over short distances, focusing is possible)



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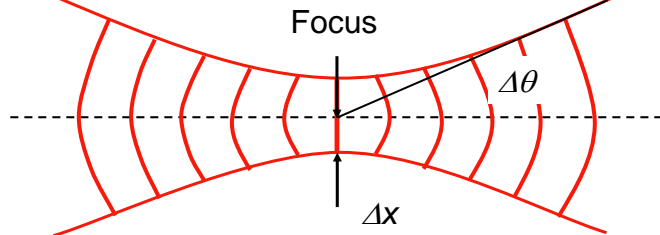
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Focused beams

Concave wavefronts =>
Converging beam

Convex wavefronts
=> Diverging beam



- Any physically realizable beam will have converging, and diverging regions, i.e. they go through a focus. (Plane waves and Bessel beams are not physical)
- What makes Gaussian beams special:
 - Lasers and waveguides have modes that can be approximated as Gaussian
 - The fundamental Gaussian beam has the smallest $\Delta x \cdot \Delta \theta$ product
 - After long propagation, all beams are fundamental Gaussians
 - Any beam can be expressed as a sum of fundamental and higher order Gaussians
 - The mathematical description of Gaussian beam propagation is simple

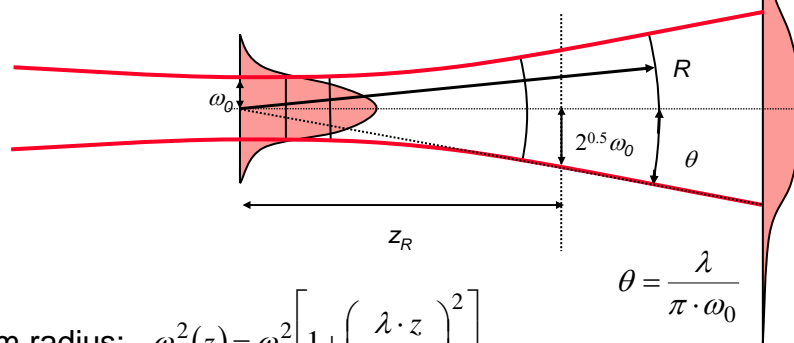


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Gaussian Beam Propagation



$$\text{Beam radius: } \omega^2(z) = \omega_0^2 \left[1 + \left(\frac{\lambda \cdot z}{\pi \cdot \omega_0^2} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\text{Radius of curvature: } R(z) = z \left[1 + \left(\frac{\pi \cdot \omega_0^2}{\lambda \cdot z} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\theta = \frac{\lambda}{\pi \cdot \omega_0}$$



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Beam Waist and Beam Parameter

- The Gaussian beam narrows to a minimum radius, ω_0 , called the beam waist
- The the beam radius, radius of curvature, and far-field diffraction angle are expressed in terms of ω_0 , and z , the distance from the waist

$$\omega^2(z) = \omega_0^2 \left[1 + \left(\frac{\lambda \cdot z}{\pi \cdot \omega_0^2} \right)^2 \right] \quad R(z) = z \left[1 + \left(\frac{\pi \cdot \omega_0^2}{\lambda \cdot z} \right)^2 \right] \quad \theta = \frac{\lambda}{\pi \cdot \omega_0}$$

- Gaussian beams are characterized by the beam parameter

$$\frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{R} - j \frac{\lambda}{\pi \cdot \omega^2}$$

- At the waist, the beam parameter is purely imaginary

$$q_0 = j \frac{\pi \cdot \omega_0^2}{\lambda} \quad q(z) = q_0 + z = j \frac{\pi \cdot \omega_0^2}{\lambda} + z$$

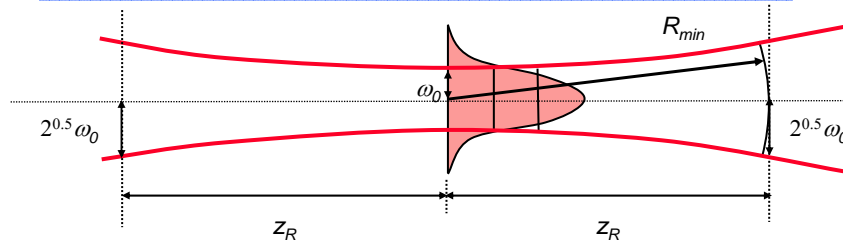


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Rayleigh Length



Rayleigh length: $z_R = \frac{\pi \cdot \omega_0^2}{\lambda}$

Confocal parameter: $2 z_R$

Beam radius: $\omega(z) = \omega_0 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{z}{z_R} \right)^2}$

Diff. angle: $\theta = \frac{\lambda}{\pi \cdot \omega_0} = \frac{\omega_0}{z_R}$

Radius of curvature: $R(z) = z + \frac{z_R^2}{z}$



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Gaussian Beam Profile

Field distribution :

$$u(r,z) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{1}{\omega(z)} \exp \left[-jkz + j\psi(z) - \frac{r^2}{\omega^2(z)} - jk \frac{r^2}{2R(z)} \right]$$

$$\omega(z) = \omega_0 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{z}{z_R} \right)^2}$$

$$R(z) = Z + \frac{Z_R^2}{Z}$$

$$\psi(z) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{z}{z_R} \right)$$

$$z_R = \frac{\pi \omega_0^2}{\lambda} \quad \text{Rayleigh length}$$

$$\text{Intensity: } I(r,z) = I(0,z) \cdot \exp \left[-2 \frac{r^2}{\omega^2(z)} \right]$$



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Gaussian Beams of Order m,l

$$u(r,z) = H_m H_l \frac{\omega_0}{\omega(z)} \exp \left[-jkz + j\phi(z) - \frac{r^2}{\omega^2(z)} - jk \frac{r^2}{2R(z)} \right]$$

$$\omega(z) = \omega_0 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{z}{z_R} \right)^2}$$

$$R(z) = z + \frac{z_R^2}{z}$$

$$\phi(z) = (m+l+1) \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{z}{z_R} \right)$$

$$z_R = \frac{\pi \omega_0^2}{\lambda} \quad \text{Rayleigh length}$$

$$H_0 = 1$$

$$H_1 = 2x$$

$$H_2 = 4x^2 - 2$$

$$H_3 = 8x^3 - 12x$$

- H_m is a Hermite polynomial of order m
- Some low order Hermite polynomials
- Cylindrical coordinates gives Laguerre polyn.

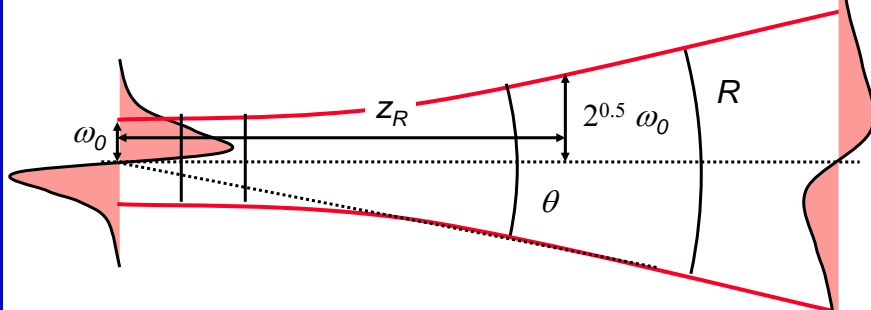


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Higher-Order Beam Propagation



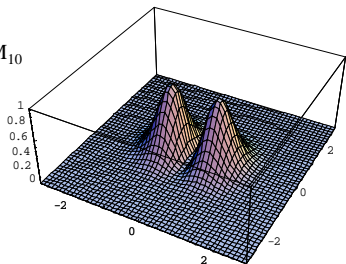
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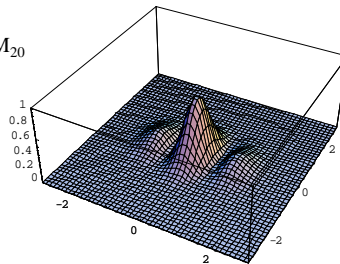


Higher-Order Gaussian Profiles

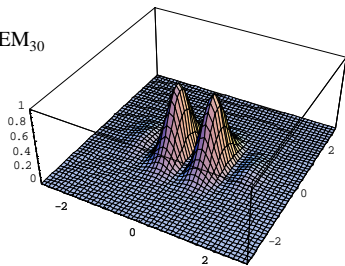
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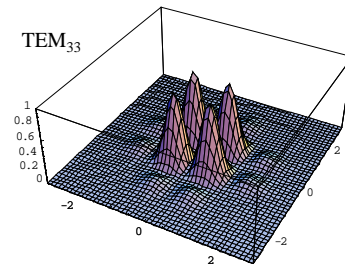
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TEM₃₃



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Hermite Gaussian Modes

- The Hermite Gaussian modes is a complete, orthogonal set of functions
- Higher order modes have the same beam radius and curvature as the fundamental (but different phase)
- Higher order modes occupy larger areas (same ω , but multiplied by higher order polynomial)
- All modes propagate according to the simple rule
 - $q_2 = q_1 + z$
- The difference in phase means that different modes will have different frequencies in a laser cavity
- An arbitrary optical field can be expanded on the Gaussians. Propagating the Gaussians and summing lets us find the effect of propagation on the original field



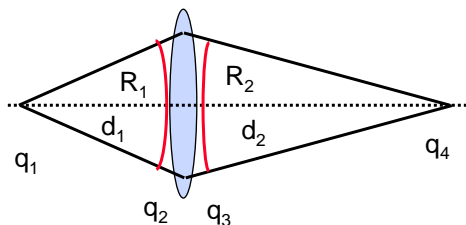
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Beam transformation in lenses

- An ideal lens does not change the transverse distribution of an optical field, so a Gaussian will remain in the same order after passing through a lens
- $R(z)$ and $\omega(z)$ does change when passing through a lens
- Only $R(z)$ changes when passing through a **thin** lens



$$\frac{1}{d_1} + \frac{1}{d_2} = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{1}{f} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{1}{q_1} - \frac{1}{q_2} = \frac{1}{f}$$



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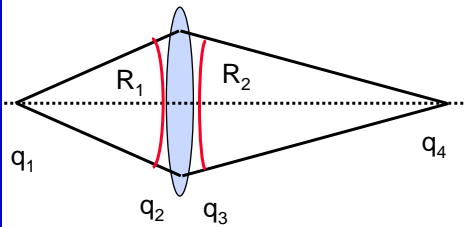
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Gaussians in Lens Systems

- Repeated application of the propagation and lens laws
- allow us to find the transformation of the beam through any lens system

$$q_1 = q_2 + z$$

$$\frac{1}{q_1} - \frac{1}{q_2} = \frac{1}{f}$$



$$q_2 = q_1 + d_1$$

$$\frac{1}{q_3} = \frac{1}{q_2} - \frac{1}{f} \Rightarrow q_3 = \frac{fq_2}{f - q_2}$$

$$q_4 = q_3 + d_2$$

$$\Rightarrow q_4 = \frac{f(q_1 + d_1)}{f - q_1 - d_1} + d_2$$

$$= \frac{fq_1 + fd_1 + d_2f - d_2q_1 - d_2d_2}{f - q_1 + d_1}$$

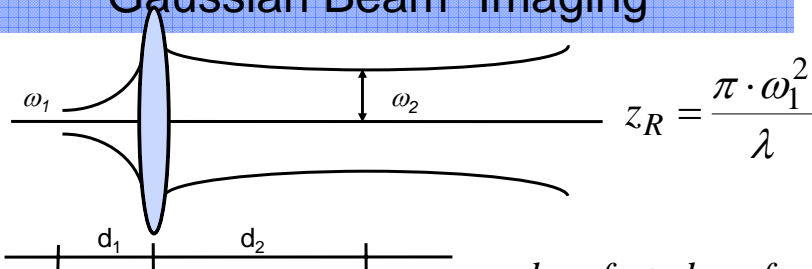


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Gaussian Beam "Imaging"



$$z_R = \frac{\pi \cdot \omega_1^2}{\lambda}$$

$$d_1 = f \Rightarrow d_2 = f$$

$$\omega_2^2 = \frac{\omega_1^2}{(1 - d_1/f)^2 + z_R^2/f^2}$$

$$\omega_{x1,y1} = \frac{f\lambda}{\pi \cdot \omega_{x2,y2}}$$

$$\frac{1}{d_2} + \frac{1}{d_1} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{z_R^2}{d_1(d_1 - f)}} = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$z_R = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{d_1} + \frac{1}{d_2} = \frac{1}{f}$$

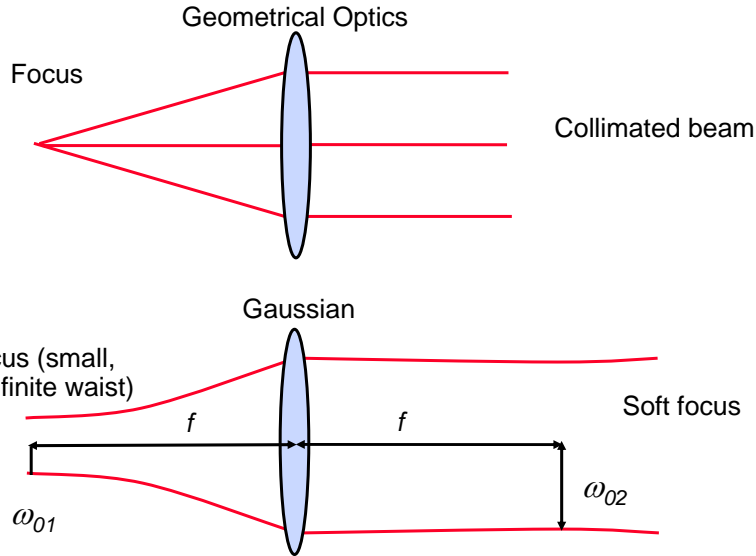


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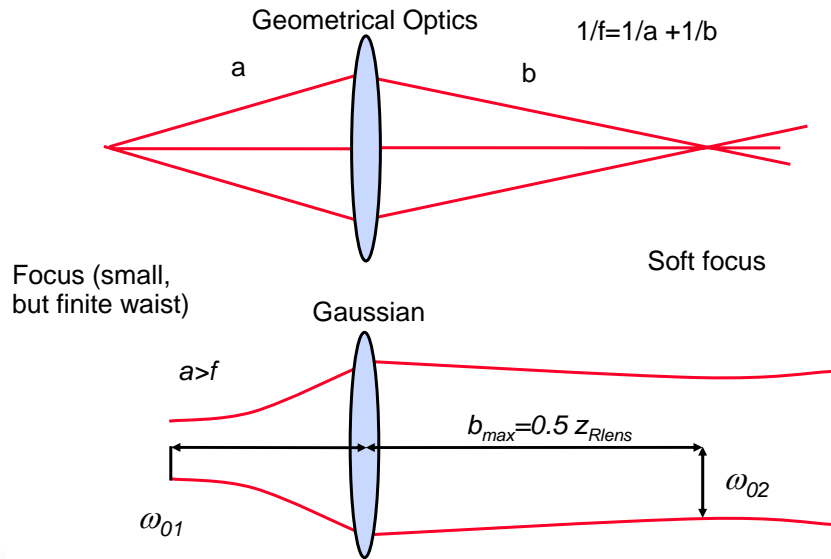
Gaussian vs. Geometrical optics



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Gaussian Beam Imaging



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Summary

- Gaussian beams are solutions to the paraxial wave equation
- The diffraction angle is given by: $\theta = \frac{\lambda}{\pi \cdot \omega_0}$
- Higher-order Gaussian beams (also solutions to the paraxial wave eq.)
 - Same beam radius and curvature, but different phase shift compared to zero order
 - Provide means to solve general diffraction problems (not always practical)
- Gaussian beam propagation through lenses
 - Same as for Geometrical optics, but consequences are dramatically different!
 - Collimation: No such thing, just a “soft” focus
 - Focusing: Maximum lens-waist distance
 - Imaging: Imaging and FT regimes



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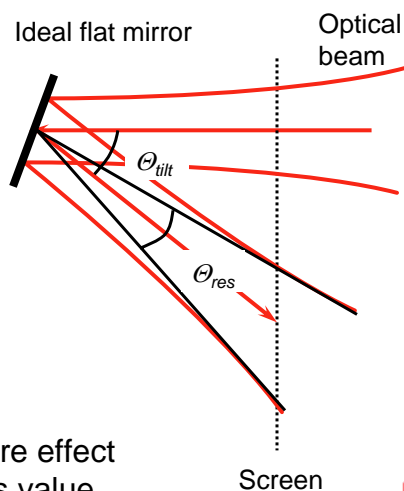


Mirror Resolution (far field)

- The number of resolvable spots on the screen is given by the ratio of the range of tilt angles to the diffraction angle of the beam
- The diffraction angle depends on the (application specific) definition of resolvability

$$N = \frac{\theta_{range}}{\theta_{res}} + 1$$

Mirror curvature and the aperture effect reduce the resolution below this value

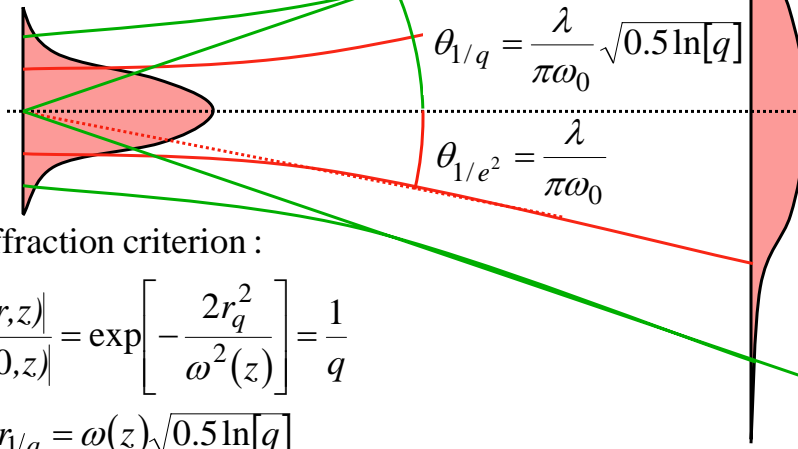


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Arbitrary (application specific) resolution criterion



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Diffraction (half) angle for arbitrary resolution criterion

Combine $r_{1/q} = \omega(z)\sqrt{0.5\ln[q]}$ with

$$\omega(z) = \omega_0 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{z}{z_R}\right)^2} \quad z_R = \frac{\pi\omega_0^2}{\lambda}$$

to find the diffraction angle :

$$\theta_{1/q} = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{1/q}}{z} = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\omega(z)\sqrt{0.5\ln[q]}}{z}$$

$$\theta_{1/q} = \frac{\omega_0 z \sqrt{0.5\ln[q]}}{z z_R} = \frac{\lambda \sqrt{0.5\ln[q]}}{\pi\omega_0}$$



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Mirror resolution (near field)

- The resolution depends on
 - Wavelength
 - mirror size
 - resolution criterion
- The resolution does NOT depend on
 - radius of curvature of the beam at the mirror (caused by either curvature of the mirror or a converging/diverging incident optical beam)
 - lenses placed after the mirror
- These two effects change the screen position that gives optimum resolution



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Example: Resolution of Scanning Displays (CRTs or scanning lasers)

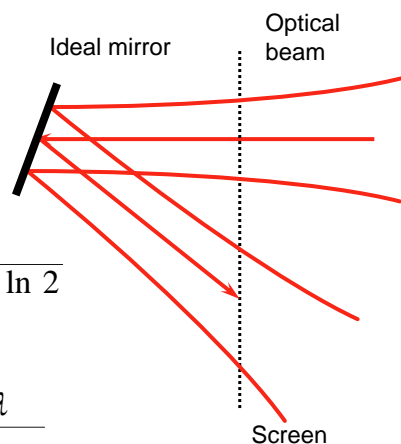
In displays we say that two pixels are resolved when they are separated by their FWHM

Diffraction angle (FWHM):

$$e^{-2\frac{r_{HM}^2}{\omega^2}} = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow r_{FWHM} = \omega \sqrt{0.5 \ln 2}$$

$$FWHM = 2r_{HM} = 1.18 \cdot \omega \Rightarrow$$

$$\theta_{diff} = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2r_{HM}}{z} = 1.18 \frac{\lambda}{\pi \cdot \omega_0}$$



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Scanner Resolution

For a transverse Gaussian profile on an ideal flat, infinite mirror, the number of resolvable spots (pixel count) is:

$$N = \frac{\Delta \theta_{tilt}}{\theta_{diff}} + 1$$

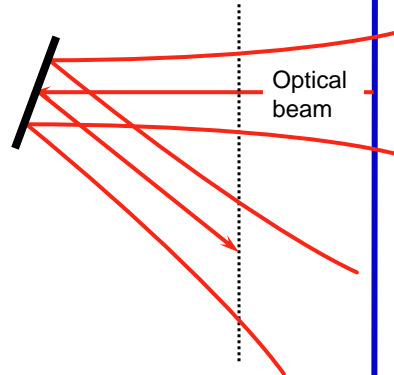
$$\Delta \theta_{tilt} = \frac{\pi}{1.18} \frac{\omega_m}{\lambda} + 1$$

It is reasonable to assume that our lens technology can support angles up to 0.7 radians

$$N \approx 0.7 \cdot \frac{\pi}{1.18} \frac{\omega_m}{\lambda} + 1$$

$$\approx 1.86 \cdot \frac{\omega_m}{\lambda} + 1$$

In the visible ($\lambda=500\text{nm}$), we see that a beam radius of 270 micron is sufficient for HDTV resolution! A micromirror of a diameter of about 800 micron can support this size beam



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Traditional Micromirror Design

Number of resolvable spots :

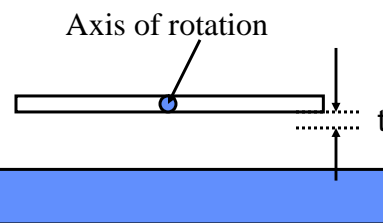
$$N = \Delta \theta \cdot \frac{\pi}{1.18} \frac{\omega_m}{\lambda} + 1 \quad \&$$

$$\Delta \theta = 2 \frac{t}{\omega_m} \quad (\text{one-sided motion})$$

$$\Rightarrow N = \frac{2\pi}{1.18} \frac{t}{\lambda} + 1 \approx 5.3 \cdot \frac{t}{\lambda} + 1$$

Scanning Display ($\lambda = 0.5 \mu\text{m}$):

$$N \approx 5.3 \cdot \frac{t}{\lambda} \approx 10 \cdot t \mu\text{m}^{-1}$$



MUMPs
sacrificial layer = $2.75 \mu\text{m}$
 $N < 5$ for $t = 0.92 \mu\text{m}$

Challenges:

- Electrostatic instability
- Pure rotation



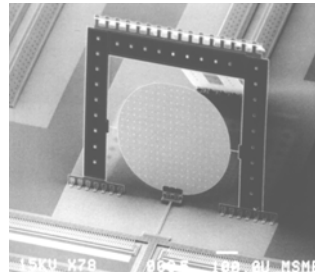
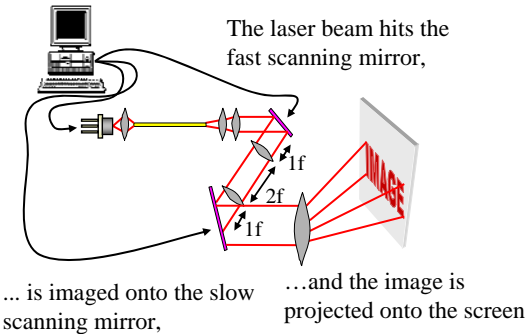
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Video Display System Based on Microscanners (TV on a chip)

Computer controls the laser diode and both scanning mirrors



Surface micromachined, flip-up scanning mirror

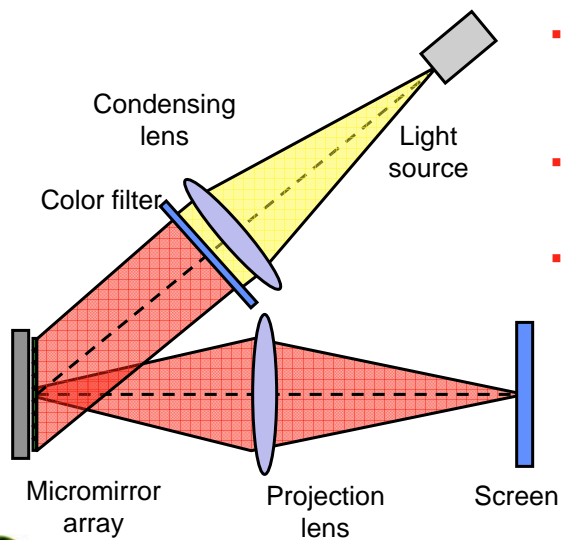


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Projection Display



- Bistable micromirrors are used in projection displays (TI's DLP technology)
- Similar optical configurations are used in mask less lithography
- Other applications include spectroscopy and confocal microscopy in which the mirror array is used as a programmable spatial mask



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Projection Display Resolution

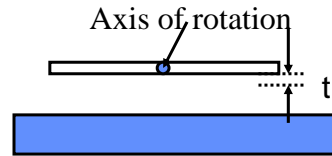
- In projection displays the contrast requirements are between -20 and -30 dB
- Conservatively:

$$d = 2r = 4\omega \Rightarrow$$

$$\theta_{diff} = 4 \frac{\lambda}{\pi \cdot \omega_0}$$

Projection Display ($\lambda = 0.5 \mu\text{m}$, $N = 2$):

$$N = \pi \frac{t}{\lambda} + 1 \Rightarrow t \geq \frac{\lambda}{\pi} = 160\text{nm}$$



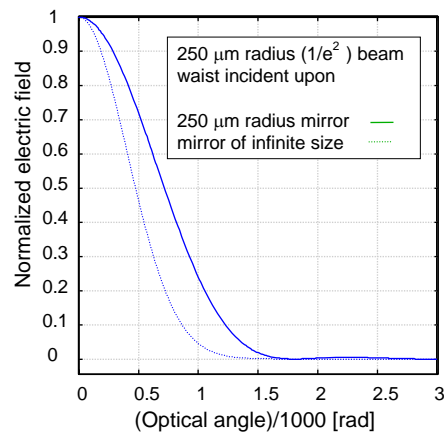
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Aperture effect reduces resolution

Aperture effect of the mirror in the far-field



The finite size of the mirror causes expansion of the optical beam in the far-field compared to an infinite-sized mirror.

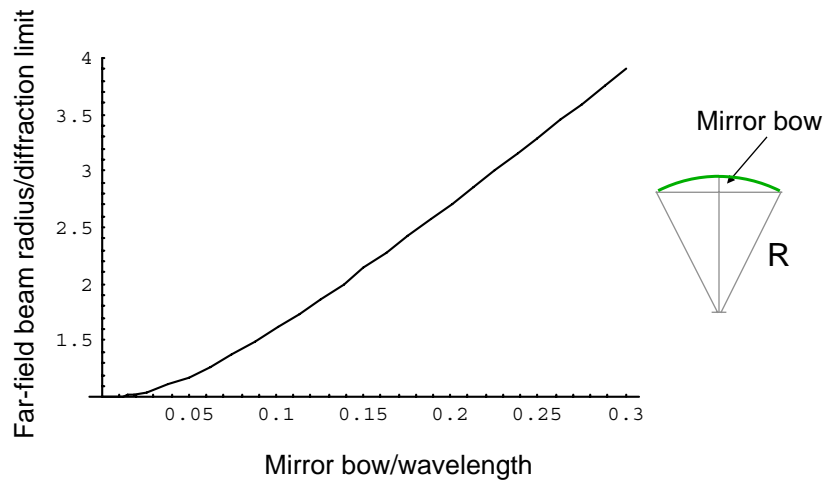


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Resolution vs. Mirror Bow



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Micromirror status and prospects

- Micromirrors have unmatched resolution!
 - Challenges: Mirror quality (flatness, reproducibility), accuracy, speed, alignment (fiber coupling), packaging
 - High resolution requires high quality (DRIE of SOI)
 - Applications: Integrated scanners, TV on a chip, Fiber switches
- Micromirror arrays are well suited for traditional optical systems
 - Challenges: Multiplexing, Integration of MEMS & electronics
 - Applications: Projection displays, spectrometers, microscopy, lithography.....
- With more MEMS foundries, applications will explode!

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