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Spin-dependent optics with metasurfaces

Shiyi Xiao, Jiarong Wang, Fu Liu, Shuang Zhang, Xiaobo Yin* and Jensen Li*

Abstract: Optical spin-Hall effect (OSHE) is a spin-dependent transportation phenomenon of light as an analogy to its counterpart in condensed matter physics. Although being predicted and observed for decades, this effect has recently attracted enormous interests due to the development of metamaterials and metasurfaces, which can provide us tailor-made control of the light-matter interaction and spin-orbit interaction. In parallel to the developments of OSHE, metasurface gives us opportunities to manipulate OSHE in achieving a stronger response, a higher efficiency, a higher resolution, or more degrees of freedom in controlling the wave front. Here, we give an overview of the OSHE based on metasurface-enabled geometric phases in different kinds of configurational spaces and their applications on spin-dependent beam steering, focusing, holograms, structured light generation, and detection. These developments mark the beginning of a new era of spin-enabled optics for future optical components.

Keywords: geometric phase; metamaterials; metasurfaces; optical spin-Hall effect; spin-orbit interaction.

1 Introduction

Spin-Hall effect (SHE) is the physical phenomenon associated with the spin-dependent trajectories of electric current due to spin-orbit interaction. It can be either induced by extrinsic mechanisms from impurity scattering [1–3] or induced by intrinsic mechanisms, which have a geometrical origin from the spin-dependent Berry phase defined in the momentum space of the interested materials [4]. The discovery of SHE paves a unique way to manipulate particles by spin degree of freedom and opens up the research area of spintronics. Interestingly, the geometric origin of intrinsic SHE allows the discussion of spin-dependent phenomena extended to optics [5–12]. In this case, the two circular polarizations can be regarded as the two spins, and the appearance of spin splitting of light based on the spin-dependent Berry phase can be regarded as the optical analogy of SHE in condensed matter physics. It is proposed and experimentally demonstrated as what we now commonly refer as the optical SHE (OSHE) in showing a transverse spin-split of light trajectory [5–21]. These works can actually be traced back to the early works about the Berry phase for photons [22–26], which have triggered a series of developments to manipulate light and to study geometric phases using helical fibers [23–26], gratings [27–29], and liquid crystals [30–32]. More recently, the appearance of metamaterials allows us to have very flexible optical properties by building up artificial atoms with tailor-made responses at will, with the most prominent applications such as negative refraction [33, 34] and invisibility cloaks [35, 36] to practical applications such as flat lens [37, 38] and polarization control [39, 40]. The implications are two-fold. In one aspect, metamaterials provide us a flexible platform to study OSHE and then to explore different regimes of OSHE, for example, the OSHE in plasmonic systems, which are not easily achievable using conventional approaches. In another aspect, we can exploit OSHE as a useful resource for designing optical components and systems, which can take advantage of the spin degree freedom of light. We are witnessing a rapid development of spin-enabled optics based on the principle of OSHE and it is the purpose of the current article to give an overall review on the above two aspects. There are also other routes to carry out polarization/spin-dependent optics, similar to the case of SHE that there are other extrinsic/intrinsic mechanisms [41–44]. However, we here focus on the intrinsic OSHE relying on geometric phases, and the associated applications are very intuitive in design, giving opposite and automatic spin dependence in functionalities. This route also gives rise to devices with robust operation due to its geometric origin.
Here, we give an overall review on the exciting developments on both the principles and the applications of OSHE enabled by the recent notion of metamaterials and metasurfaces [45–47], the one-atom-layer version of metamaterials. For a much broader perspective of spin-orbit interaction of light, Refs. [11, 12] provide useful resources. Here, we focus on introducing the applications of OSHE from different types of geometric phases. This paper is structured in the following sections. In Section 2, we briefly discuss and classify the principles in obtaining OSHE using geometric phases in different configurational spaces. It provides a unified view of OSHE and forms the basis in achieving the associated spin-dependent phenomena and applications in the following sections. Sections 3 and 4 are devoted to the realizations and observations of OSHE in the far- and near-field domains, respectively. The spin-dependent trajectories of light can be understood in terms of a splitting in the real space or in the momentum space. These form a basis for achieving more complicated splitting in beam structures and surface-wave control. In Section 5, we introduce the designer applications of OSHE enabled by a metasurface, including optical angular momentum detectors or generators, spin-dependent flat lens, holograms, and spin selection for other fundamental physical phenomena. Finally, we conclude in Section 6.

2 Basic principles of the intrinsic OSHE

The intrinsic OSHE can be understood as an effect arising from the spin-orbit interaction of electromagnetic waves: the polarization (spin) and the trajectory (propagation direction and phase) are affecting each other. The change of light’s trajectory automatically accompanies a transverse spin-split of the beam center or a spin-dependent propagation phase occurs. Such a change of the trajectory can result from an inhomogeneous profile of refractive indices \( n \) or a sharp change of index on an interface \([19]\). In this case, the \( \nabla n \) mimics the electric field in the conventional SHE. More vividly, it can be achieved by simply a curled optical fiber, where the light is forced to follow the fiber direction \([6]\). The change of the propagation direction can be alternatively viewed as a locus in the momentum state space, which is taken as the surface of a unit sphere, as shown in Figure 1A. When the state of light, with direction indicated by \( \hat{k} \), undergoes a complete loop, the light picks up an additional geometric phase. This additional phase has geometric nature, as it is only related to the geometry of the state space. Suppose it is the left-handed circular polarization (LCP) under consideration, the state of the light with particular \( \hat{k} \) can be described by its polarization \( \psi = (\hat{\theta} + i\hat{\phi})/\sqrt{2} \), where \( \hat{k}, \hat{\theta}, \) and \( \hat{\phi} \) define the usual right-handed local polar coordinate system on the curled fiber with the particular \( \hat{k} \). The Berry connection \( A \) and the Berry curvature \( \Omega \) can then be found as

\[
\{A_\phi, A_\theta\} = i\psi \cdot \{\partial_\phi \psi, \partial_\theta \psi\} = \{0, \cos\theta\}
\]

\[
\Omega = \partial_\rho A_\rho - \partial_\sigma A_\sigma = -\sin\theta
\]

With these, the geometric phase is actually the integrated curvature defined by \( \Phi = \int A_\rho d\phi d\theta = -\sin\theta d\phi d\theta \), which can be interpreted as the surface area enclosed by the loop, shown as orange color in Figure 1A. The geometric phase, formally known as the Rytov-Vladimirskii phase \([48–50]\), has the same magnitude but the opposite sign for the opposite polarizations. For an easier understanding, \( \Omega \) can also be interpreted as an effective magnetic field.

![Figure 1: Geometric phases in different state spaces. (A) Light propagation in a curled fiber associated with a geometric phase in the momentum space. (B) Light propagation across a half-wave plate, with orientation angle \( \alpha \) for its fast axis, in turning LCP to RCP, associated with a geometric phase in the polarization space. The arrows on the materials or structures show the direction of light. The arrows on the state space show the directions of the light transport process.](image-url)
curl of the Berry connection in the radial direction, which behaves like a magnetic monopole located at the origin of the \(k\)-space. The Berry connection can be interpreted as the vector potential in the momentum space. For the case of inhomogeneous refractive index profile mentioned earlier, such a geometric phase gives a reaction back to the trajectory of light beam. The equation of motion is then modified [6–8] by

\[
\partial_t \mathbf{k} = -\kappa c \nabla (1/n), \quad \partial_t \mathbf{r} = \frac{c}{n} \mathbf{k} \pm (\partial_t \mathbf{k}) \times \mathbf{\Omega},
\]

(2)

where the upper/lower sign indicates the opposite contribution for the two circular polarizations and \(c\) is the speed of light in vacuum, and the 3D Berry curvature vector from the “monopole” is defined as \(\mathbf{\Omega} = \mathbf{k}/k^2\). It indicates the time evolution of the wave-vector \(\mathbf{k}\) and wave-packet location \(\mathbf{r}\). The first equation is the “force” formula, whereas the second equation is the velocity along the light trajectory. The effective magnetic field in the momentum space, in contrast to a magnetic field in real space, modifies the velocity formula, rather than giving a magnetic Lorentz force. It is a correction term beyond the classical optics limit and therefore gives rise to a spin-dependent splitting of ray trajectory usually in the order of wavelength [5–19].

The momentum space is not the only state space of light. Similar geometric phases and “magnetic monopole” of light can also be defined in another state space – the polarization space or the Poincaré sphere (see Figure 1B). In this case, a polarization state can be expressed as

\[
\psi = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \ket{+} + \sin \frac{\theta}{2} e^{i\phi} \ket{-}
\]

in terms of LCP \(\ket{+}\) and right-handed circular polarization (RCP) \(\ket{-}\). Correspondingly, the Berry connection and Berry curvature are

\[
\{A_\theta, A_\phi\} = \left\{0, -\sin \frac{\theta}{2}\right\}, \quad \mathbf{\Omega} = -\frac{1}{2} \sin \theta.
\]

(3)

Therefore, a closed loop on the Poincaré sphere gives a geometrical phase \(\Phi_\theta = \int \Omega d\theta d\phi = -\frac{1}{2} \int \sin \theta d\theta d\phi\), which is half of the enclosed area in this case. The geometric phase associated with the polarization space is called the Pancharatnam-Berry (PB) phase [51, 52]. The closed loop in Figure 1B actually consists of two possible routes from the north to the south poles on the Poincaré sphere. An example scenario is a half-wave plate in converting LCP to RCP, corresponding to two different orientations of the fast axis (two different orientation angles \(\alpha\)) of the half wave plate, indicated by the arrows on the Poincaré sphere. Then, the phase difference between the two routes will be given by the discussed geometric phase, which is half of the enclosed area, i.e. \(\Delta \Phi_\theta = \pm 2\alpha\) for the two spins. Indeed, unlike the geometric phase in the \(k\)-space, the geometric phase in the polarization space can be easily used in this “parallel” fashion. The geometric-phase profile can be encoded in a series of different local material orientations in parallel. It does not rely on a correction in geometric optics limit and can generate a very large beam-splitting, as discussed in Section 3.

With these examples of geometric phases, it becomes straightforward to discuss the origin of the different realizations of OSHE. The enabling key is the introduction of opposite geometric phases for the two spins/polarizations into a splitting of trajectory through spin-orbit interaction. In the case of the experiment by Hosten and Kwiat for a circularly polarized light beam entering a glass substrate [19], the different tangential wave-number \(k\) of the beam are refracted (forced to have a change of direction) into glass in parallel, picking up an additional geometric phase, which is proportional to the tangential wave-number but with opposite sign for the two spins. It uses the opposite geometric phases in the momentum space and creates a spin-split of the beam center in the transverse direction, in a very close analogy to the original SHE. In a later experiment [53], by shining a circularly polarized light on a chain of plasmonic particles with lattice or local anisotropy, the direction of the anisotropy selects a route from the north to the south pole in the polarization space (see Figure 1B). The introduced opposite geometric phases \(\pm 2\alpha\) creates a spin-split of the transmitted light directions in this version of OSHE. With this background, it becomes not surprising that such a discussion of OSHE can be extended to a more generalized state-space of light. For example, when a circularly polarized light is coupled to surface plasmon polariton on a metal surface through a Bragg grating of circular shape, both the \(k\) direction and the spin (angular momentum) of light are changed when the surface wave is focused to the center [54, 55]. For the part of grating with orientation angle \(\alpha\), the combination of the change of \(k\) and spin renormalizes the original geometric phase from \(\pm 2\alpha\) to \(\pm \alpha\) (more details in Section 4). The above discussions form the basic framework in understanding all the OSHE phenomena in this article, from far- to near-field manipulation and from beam-splitting and direction splitting to the splitting of local orbitals. We regard any spin-splitting orbital phenomena based on the opposite geometric phases of the two spins as the intrinsic OSHE in a general context. As we shall see, we pay particular attention to the OSHE with metasurfaces by taking advantage of the excellent ability of metamaterial atoms in tuning the local spin-orbit interaction.
3 Observing OSHE in the far field

3.1 Transverse beam splitting with gradient-index metasurfaces

When light is refracted from air to a dielectric medium at an angle, the direction of light is changed, and the transversality of light imposes a requirement on the transportation of the polarization according to the equation of motion in the last section. The different $k$-components of the light evolve with an additional spin-dependent geometric phase, giving rise to a split of the beam center in the transverse direction in the early demonstrations, as shown in Figure 2A [18, 19]. With the recent introduction of metasurfaces, a completely refreshed look can be taken in OSHE as the metasurfaces provide a new way in bending light. To manifest the OSHE effect through a metasurface, we require the violation of inversion symmetry and the respect of the time-reversal symmetry. The time-reversal symmetry is naturally respected without involving magnetic optics or extrinsic OSHE. An inversion symmetry breaking metasurface, in its simplest version, is a single layer of “V-shaped” metamaterial atoms, which generate a linear gradient of local transmission phase profile [45–47]. Such a linear gradient of transmission phase profile, albeit a polarization conversion in the

Figure 2: OSHE in giving transverse beam-splitting.
(A) Spin-splitting of beam center from air to glass at oblique incidence due to spin-dependent geometric phase picked up by different $k$-components. Reprinted from Ref. [19]. (B) OSHE at normal incidence using a metasurface, with the beam helicity ($S$, Stokes parameter) plotted on the right. Reprinted from Ref. [56].
transmission, bends the incident light from one side of the metasurface to the other side. Such a bending can have an arbitrarily designed angle much larger than the one given by an air-glass interface, giving rise to a spin-split of the beam center in the transverse direction. Such a scheme is summarized in Figure 2B with the beam helicity (the $S$ Stokes parameter) plotted as different colors representing the two spins [56]. Although the splitting may still be in the order of wavelength, it is much larger than the one given by previous approaches. Now, it can be easily detected by the measurement in the far-field regime and it can occur at normal incidence using a metasurface. By performing a quantum weak measurement [57–59] on the light field with the preselected and postselected position and helicity, one can further amplify the OSHE effect and the associated transverse transport of the light field [19, 60]. It is also worth noting that the pure electronic readout of OSHE has been recently proposed and demonstrated through the momentum transfer from the light field to the collective electron motion in the transverse direction [61]. In addition, the detection of the OSHE can be further improved using dielectric metasurfaces instead of the lossy metallic ones [62, 63]. Symmetry and symmetry breaking play a key role in OSHE. A respected time-reversal symmetry, as long as the material response is anisotropic, giving a cross-polarized transmission. For example, one can design the orientation profile to be a linear profile $\sigma = (\Delta k) x/2 + \alpha_0$, where $\Delta k$ is interpreted as the momentum imparted by the inhomogeneous material. According to the generalized Snell’s law of a metasurface [45–47], the transmitted light travels to two off-normal directions depending on the input spin by

$$k_y = k_{x,0} \pm \Delta k,$$

where $k_y(k_{x,0})$ is the transverse wave-number of the transmitted (incident) wave. Here, the upper (lower) sign indicates the situation for an LCP (RCP) incidence. The OSHE is then revealed as a symmetric spin-splitting of the propagating direction, or linear momentum, due to the opposite geometric phases of the two spins. Figure 3A shows the first experiment in revealing such an OSHE using a chain of localized plasmonic coaxial nanoaperture. In this case, the anisotropy comes from the coupling between neighboring particles. The tangent line between neighboring particles represents the previously introduced orientation $\alpha$. The corresponding spin-splitting of the linear momentum is shown in Figure 3A [53]. Conventionally, the different orientations of local anisotropy can be obtained using quasi-periodic diffraction grating structures [27–31]. Using metasurfaces, the local orientations of the metamaterial atoms (the anisotropy) can now be individually controlled, leading to a more intuitive local control of the geometric-phase profile. The inset of Figure 3B shows a monolayer of subwavelength plasmonic nanorods with strong local anisotropy on a metasurface. The linear geometric-phase profile is obtained by locally rotating the rods, of orientation angle $\alpha$, also in a linear fashion [67–70], found as $\Phi = \pm 2 \alpha$. As the phase shift only relies on direction of local nanorods, the

### 3.2 Linear and angular momentum splitting using geometric-phase metasurfaces

A move in the $k$-space, with a spin-dependent geometric phase to bend light, can be regarded as an OSHE. Similarly, a change of polarization also induces a geometric phase and it can be used to do an equivalent job. The polarization state of light can be easily altered by an anisotropic material, with its orientation angle $\alpha$ (see Figure 1B) to control the phase of the transmitted light. For an LCP incident light being converted to an RCP light, light propagation with two different orientation angles ($\alpha$) follow two different paths from the north to the south pole of the Poincaré sphere. The phase difference between the two routes is simply half of the enclosed area, being called the PB phase. This fact can be simply derived by considering the rotation of coordinate frame between the laboratory coordinates ($x, y$) and the principal coordinates ($u, v$) of the anisotropic material. An incident LCP can be written in the material frame as $\hat{x} + i \hat{y} = e^{i \alpha} (\hat{u} + i \hat{v})$, whereas the transmitted RCP can be written as $\hat{x} - i \hat{y} = e^{-i \alpha} (\hat{u} - i \hat{v})$. Therefore, the transmission phase from LCP to RCP in the laboratory frame can be simply understood as the corresponding one in the material frame with an addition of geometric phase $2 \alpha$ [66, 67]. This geometric phase only occurs for the cross-polarized transmission and has its sign flipped for RCP to LCP conversion. It can be summarized as $2 \alpha \sigma$, where $\sigma = +1$ with LCP incidence and $\sigma = -1$ for RCP incidence. Instead of transforming the different $k$-components with a geometric-phase profile in a parallel fashion in the last section, now we can directly transform the wavefront at different positions, again in a parallel fashion, by having a spatially inhomogeneous profile of the material orientation, as long as the material response is anisotropic.
spin-dependent $\Delta k$ is wavelength independent, whereas the outgoing angle depends on different wavelengths (see Figure 3B). This type of metasurfaces can be called geometric-phase metasurfaces.

Apart from demonstrating a spin-splitting of linear momentum, such a geometric phase in polarization space can also be used to manipulate the orbital angular momentum (OAM) of the transmitted light. A beam with OAM possesses a helical wave-front comprising an azimuthal profile $\propto \exp(i\Phi)$. Here, $\Phi$ is the azimuthal angle and $l$ is an integer, simply called the OAM of the beam [71–74]. Early works on generating OAM relied on using locally anisotropic dielectric half-wave plates [28, 29]. Similar to the previous case, spin is flipped in the transmission together with an additional geometric-phase profile $\pm 2\alpha$ but now is designed as a linear profile of the azimuthal angle: $\alpha = q\Phi + \alpha_0$, $q$ is called the topological charge of the material and $\alpha_0$ is the initial orientation at zero angle. The orientation profile $\alpha$ then impacts the opposite geometric-phase profile ($\pm 2\alpha$) for the two spins on the incident wave-front, which now acquires a change of OAM by

$$l' = l + 2q\sigma_0 \cdot \Delta k = l + 2\sigma q.$$  

For example, when a light with zero OAM passes through a $q=1/2$ plate, the transmitted beam acquires an OAM of $l=\pm 1$ (see Figure 4A) [75]. These two beams of different OAMs only have difference in their phase but not the amplitude profile. They can be analyzed by an additional refractive helical phase plate, in which a unit of OAM is added to the output, giving resultant $l=0$ and 2 for the two different incident spins, as shown in the same figure. A signature of the nonzero OAM is a singularity spot at the beam center of undefined phase and zero amplitude. In fact, if we just want to show the spin-splitting to reveal the OSHE, we can use the residual beam, the copolarization transmission without geometric phase, as a reference beam. In this case, the metasurface consists of slits with $q=1$, which does not need to behave locally as half-wave plates [76, 77]. The resultant interference pattern from a

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**Figure 3:** Spin splitting in linear momentum space. (A) Isotropic coaxial nanoapertures chain for SHE. Left: Transmission spectra of the plasmonic chain showing anisotropy for linear polarization along two orthogonal directions due to the coupling of neighboring particles. Right: Spin-dependent momentum redirection for the OSHE. Inset: SEM image of a curved chain. Reproduced from Ref. [53]. (B) Anisotropic nanorod array for OSHE. Left (Right): Measured reflection angle versus incident angle for $\sigma=+1$ ($\sigma=-1$) incidence, respectively. Inset: SEM image of nanorods fabricated on an ITO-coated glass. Reproduced from Ref. [68].
linear polarized incident beam (consisting of both spins) shows a spin-splitting in the far-field, as illustrated in the measured Stokes parameter $S_3$ in Figure 4B. The two different colors represent the two different spins in the figure. The observed orbital rotation from the $x$-$y$ axes results from the nonzero $\alpha_0$ at zero azimuthal angle, as the slits are actually zigzag in shape. In these examples, the spin angular momentum is transferred to the OAM of the transmitted beam. Based on these simple versions of metasurfaces, more spin-dependent phenomena in orbital momentum were proposed [63, 68, 78–81], such as, for example, far-field spin-dependent focal point splitting [79], controllable OSHE with large OAM [80], OSHE with rotational symmetry breaking [63], OAM-focusing lens [81].

As metasurfaces are much thinner than a wavelength, diffraction from neighboring “pixels” is not severe; therefore, the resolution of the control of the geometric-phase profile can be very high, only limited by the size of individual metamaterial atoms. On the contrary, the efficiency of converting to the cross-polarization can be easily controlled by tuning the resonating response of the individual atoms, alongside the high resolution of the geometric-phase control. The residual beam, the one not carrying geometric phase, is therefore minimized in its intensity. With optimal design in the transmission geometry, almost 25% efficiency can be achieved by a single-layer nonmagnetic metasurface (see Figure 5A) [82]. Based on the use of three anisotropic sheet metasurfaces (see Figure 5B) [83, 84] cascaded along the direction of propagation, the control of vector Bessel beams is proposed with very high efficiency (a beam generator with 20 dB) due to the added magnetic response in the geometric-phase metasurface. In the reflection geometry with a ground plane, magnetic response is already embedded and almost 100% efficiency (see Figure 5C and D) can be obtained in steering the reflected beam against the specular reflection of the residual beam [85, 86]. These works based on plasmonic particles and metasurfaces have paved a unique way to achieve OSHE in both the visible and the infrared regimes.
resulting from the discussed opposite geometry phases for the two incident spins.

4 Observing OSHE in the near field

When an incident wave carries angular momentum and is converted to a surface plasmon on a metal surface, light suffers both a momentum redirection and a polarization change [54]. As we shall see in the examples when the orientation $\alpha$ is bound to the propagation direction of the surface plasmon, it renormalizes the original geometric phase from $\pm 2\alpha$ to $\pm \alpha$. This section presents a review on these near-field SHE, from individual scatterers to nanoantenna arrays. The observed SHE are usually revealed as focal spot splitting or a flipping in the propagating direction due to the opposite geometric phase for two spins. We also see a more complicated control later.

4.1 Surface plasmon generation with a single scatterer

Interestingly, OSHE in the near field can occur when the incident light illuminated even on a single isotropic scatterer [87]. Figure 6A shows a circular slit that is used to scatter a circularly polarized light in the far field into an outgoing surface plasmon, which can be described by a scalar wave $E_x$. By considering a rotation of the coordinate frame of the incident polarization, one can easily derive that the surface wave bears an angular phase profile $e^{i\sigma\Phi}$. This spin-dependent geometric-phase profile can be regarded as an optical vortex with unit OAM. Figure 6B shows the measured spin-dependent fringes by interference with a reference surface-wave generated from a long rectangular slit at the same time [87].

The converse situation will be scattering on a circular nanoslot in focusing the surface wave into its center, as shown in Figure 6B. It is a summation of surface waves from each local portion of the slit at an orientation angle $\alpha$ in a radiating direction perpendicular to the slit. A rotation of coordinate frame then connects these different cases together, giving rise to a geometric phase of $\pm \alpha$. This is different from the geometric phase of $\pm 2\alpha$ in the far-field situation. By putting $\alpha = \Phi$ to represent the orientation of the slits at different azimuthal angles, we immediately arrive that the focusing surface wave should be $e^{i\sigma\Phi}$, with an OAM of $\pm 1$. When we consider a semicircular arc for the slot instead of a full circle, this angular profile of geometric
phase induces a transverse shift of the focal point, either $\frac{\lambda_{SPP}}{2}$ or $-\frac{\lambda_{SPP}}{2}$, depending on the incident spin, where $\lambda_{SPP}$ is the wavelength of the surface wave [54, 55].

It is interesting to note that the spin angular momentum of the light is completely converted into the OAM of the surface waves, or viewed as a conservation of the total angular momentum, for the case of isotropic defect with rotational symmetry. More spin-dependent phenomena can be achieved by employing chiral plasmonic structures with embedded topologic charge. Figure 7A shows the schematic diagram of the Archimedes spiral [88–95]. The topological charge $q=-1$ for the structure is defined by the rate change of radius against azimuthal angle: $r=r_0-\lambda_{SPP}q\Phi/2\pi$. Because each local part of the spiral nanoslot (located at $r$) can be approximated to a circular structure with radius $r$ (like in the last subsection), the surface plasmon propagating towards the center of spiral has a phase profile of $q\Phi$. In addition, the surface wave from different portions of the spiral slit arrives at the center with different spin-independent dynamic phases due to the increasing radius. As a result of these two effects, the total phase gained from this consideration is $\Phi_{SPP}$, which can be expressed as

$$\Phi_{SPP} = l_{SPP}\phi = (q + a)\phi,$$

where $l_{SPP}$ is the OAM of surface plasmon arriving the center. In this case, the additional angular momentum is provided by the topological charge of the spiral plate. However, unlike the far-field examples in Section 3.2, the contribution of the topological charge is spin independent. Figure 7B illustrates the amplitude and the phase of the surface wave when the structure is excited by a circularly polarized plane wave. The OAM of the surface wave is modified by the topological charge according to Eq. (6), now with a phase singularity and a dark spot at the center. We also note that the value of OAM is related to the radius of the dark spot, which can be directly measured by the standard near-field measurement technique (see Figure 7C) [55, 89]. Such a spin-dependent SPP profile can be further exploited to achieve a spin-dependent transmission filter through an array of coaxial nanoapertures [90], as shown in Figure 7D. In this case, the spiral has a topological charge $q=-2$, being added to the incident angular momentum $\sigma=\pm 1$, to excite the surface waves. The OAM of the surface wave becomes $l_{SPP}=-1$ ($-3$) for LCP (RCP) incidence and it has to match with the coaxial...
aperture beneath and at the center of each spiral, which only allows a mode of OAM of $\pm 1$ to pass through. The combined effect is shown in Figure 7D. The word “SPIN” is obtained in transmission for one kind of circular polarization incidence but not the other with a huge contrast due to the mismatch of angular momentum [90].

### 4.2 Surface plasmon generation with geometric-phase metasurfaces

The previous structure with definite topological charge (e.g. circular or spiral nanoslots) provides a spin-orbit coupling between the incident spin and the generated surface plasmon. Actually, such a spin-orbit coupling can also occur even for a scatterer with other shapes in scattering the incident light to surface plasmon. Figure 8A shows an example of a single slit illuminated by a tightly focused linearly or elliptically polarized light beam [96]. The shift in either the focal point or the direction of the generated surface waves is measured using a “weak measurement” approach. Spin-splitting can also be directly observed using circularly polarized light as incidence as an asymmetric excitation of surface plasmon propagating towards the left- and right-hand sides of the slit. When an appropriate angle of incidence is chosen, the asymmetry is optimal and is revealed as a spin-dependent unidirectional excitation of the surface plasmon (see Figure 8B and C) [97–99]. Moreover, such asymmetric effects can be demonstrated for even a single particle placed on the surface of metal surface [98–100]. As a direct implication, the particle is optically pushed in opposite directions for the incidence of different circular polarizations as demonstrated as the mechanical effects from spin-orbit coupling [101, 102].

When the slit becomes much smaller than a wavelength, it reradiates as a localized dipole moment [100]. In this case, a circular polarization incidence $\hat{\mathbf{p}} = e^{i2\alpha}(\hat{x} + i\sigma_y)$ generates a “spin-flipped” dipole moment $\hat{\mathbf{p}} = e^{i2\alpha}(\hat{x} - i\sigma_y)$, where $\alpha$ is the orientation of the slit measured from the $x$-axis. The surface plasmon reradiated from this dipole,
a scalar wave \((E_i)\), can be simply obtained by changing \(\hat{x} / \hat{y} \rightarrow \cos \beta / \sin \beta\), where \(\beta\) is the azimuthal angle between the \(x\)-axis and the location of the surface wave to be evaluated sufficiently far away from the dipole (see Figure 9A). Therefore, the total phase carried by the surface-wave radiation for the spin-flipped component is

\[ \Phi = \sigma (2\alpha - \beta), \]  

(7)

where \(2\alpha\) can be regarded as the same PB phase term with that in the far field. Here, by setting the radiation angle always perpendicular to the nanoslot \((\beta = \alpha)\), the phase of spin-flipped component will become \(\Phi = \sigma \alpha\). Such a geometric phase can also be interpreted by the Coriolis effect of light \([54]\), where light suffers from both a momentum redirection and a polarization change when coupled into surface wave. On the contrary, for the radiation without spin-flipping, the geometric-phase factor \(2\alpha\) in the above formula is absent. As both terms radiate from the same dipole, the total radiation can be written as

\[ \exp(i(\Delta k_x - \beta) - \sigma \alpha \cos(\alpha - \beta)) \]

where the \(\sigma \alpha\) term is the geometric phase arisen from an interference of the “spin-flipped” and “spin-conserved” component. Figure 9B shows an array of slits. Each unit cell consists of two columns of nanoslits, one at orientation \(\alpha = \pi / 4\) and another at orientation \(\alpha = -\pi / 4\), with combined radiation in the horizontal direction \([103]\). Suppose it is an LCP \((\sigma = 1)\) incidence. The right (left)-hand column of slits radiates with phase \(-\pi / 4\) \((+\pi / 4)\), according to Eq. (7). Together with a designed dynamic phase separation of \(\pi / 2\) between the two columns, the radiations are destructively (constructively) interfered to the right (left) in the horizontal direction. For an RCP incidence, the unidirectional propagation is in the opposite direction (see Figure 9B). The radiation pattern for such a unit cell is very anisotropic. The orientations of the slits are chosen to have \(\cos \alpha\) invariant for the two horizontal directions so that the interference is between waves...
of the same magnitude. Such a slit (with dipolar radiation profile) array is very useful in tailoring the propagation of surface plasmon polaritons, for example, generating Cherenkov surface plasmon [106] and achieving spin-dependent transmission through decorated subwavelength aperture on plasmonic metal [107]. The appearance of the spin-flipping geometric-phase term involving $2\alpha$ in Eq. (7) is actually playing the key role in the phenomenon. The structure can be further simplified to a unit cell consisting of only one slit. In this case, the orientation profile $\alpha$ is designed as a linear function of $x$, as illustrated in Figure 9C [104]. For a periodicity of $\alpha$ in the $x$-direction, a unidirectional propagating surface plasmon can only be excited for a chosen incident spin $\sigma$ by matching the momentum of surface waves: $k_{x,\text{SPP}} = 2n \alpha + m \pi/a$, where the integer $m$ is the chosen working diffraction order. As there is a mirror symmetry breaking in the geometric-phase profile $2\alpha$, the matching can only be fulfilled in a single direction. Such a consideration can also lead to more dispersion-related phenomena (e.g. Rashba-like effect in thermal radiation) [108–112], which will be introduced in Section 5.

The opposite geometric phases for the two spins are related to the various opposite spin-dependent shifts in the previous sections. These include a transverse shift of beam center, a shift in the linear momentum or the OAM of the incident beam, and a shift of focal spot from a
circular grating. For surface-wave excitation, this simple relationship between the two incident spins can actually be relaxed if we are only interested in generating local orbitals in a finite region. Figure 9D shows a platform with slits of a tailor-made orientation profile around a central slit-free region [105]. Another way to interpret Eq. (7) is that if we require neighboring slits contribute to a surface plane wave with phase $\Phi_B$ in a direction of angle $\beta = \arg(k_x + ik_y)$, we should set $\alpha = (\sigma \Phi_B + \beta)/2$. Therefore, by taking the holographic approach to generate a target profile $E_z$ using constructive interference from all the slits, we change $\Phi_B$ to $\arg E_z$ and $k_x$ to $\partial_x$. Neighboring slits then contribute to the required local plane waves and we obtain $\alpha = \pm \frac{1}{2} \arg((\partial_x \pm i\partial_y)E_z)$ with an arbitrary global additive constant. Because we are only interested in the standing waves generated in the center region, we only require $E_z$ to share in common with your actual target profile on the inward radiation part. We can therefore set $\alpha = \pm \frac{1}{2} \arg((\partial_x \pm i\partial_y)(E_z^+ + (E_z^-)))$, where $E_z^+$ and $E_z^-$ represent the target profiles, which only include the inward radiation parts for the two spins separately. The target profiles for the two spins within the central region can then be specified individually without a simple relationship between them. Figure 10A illustrates the independent and flexible SHE: a cross (triangle) for LCP (RCP) incidence. Such flexible control of SHE enables the two spins to work together in a coherent way [116–118]. Motion pictures with a series of picture frames can be assembled and played by rotating a linear polarization as incidence, as shown in the same figure.

5 Application of OSHE and geometric-phase metasurfaces

With the OSHE demonstrated in the previous sections, there are numerous proposed applications by taking advantage of the associated spin-orbit interaction of light. Different spin-dependent optical elements and physical phenomena can be explored.

5.1 OAM generator and detector

Usually, the spin angular momentum and intrinsic orbital momentum of light are not easy to be measured. Conventional approaches use bulky free space components,
such as wave-plates and polarizing analyzers, diffraction gratings [119, 120], spatial light modulator [121–123], and interference measurement [124–127]. Spin-dependent metasurfaces, on the contrary, show a strong capability to generate and detect the angular momentum of light [113, 114, 128–130]. For example, a detector metasurface designed by holographic approach was proposed [128]. Only the incident light carrying the designed OAM can launch the particular surface plasmon with constructive interference. Similarly, using geometric metasurfaces with rotating slits or bars, a composite light beam with different spins or polarization states can be sorted into different directions in either reflection (see Figure 10A) and transmission (see Figure 10B) geometry [113, 114]. The ellipticity of the incident light can also be analyzed. The geometric-phase route has an advantage of being robust against fabrication impurities. On the contrary, the generation of vortex beams is critical for fascinating applications ranging from super-resolution imaging techniques such as stimulated emission depletion (STED) microscope to high-bandwidth quantum information processing. Space-variant metasurfaces have been widely adopted to generate and manipulate the OAM of light in a precise and versatile manner (see Figure 4C). More realistic approaches were proposed based on dielectric metasurfaces made of silicon (or TiO₂) cut-wires to obtain a high conversion efficiency and a low ohmic loss (Figure 10C) [115].

5.2 Geometric phase enabled planar lens and holograms

Although OSHE has been observed for decades, only simple splitting in the real space and in the momentum space has been demonstrated until not long ago [19, 53–56]. This is partly due to the fact that only simple structures and materials can be employed in fabrication previously. The resultant geometric-phase profile is relatively simple. Recently, metasurfaces with anisotropic nanostructures provide a straightforward approach to achieve arbitrary geometric-phase profiles with high resolution simply by rotating the nanostructures [67–70]. The associated OSHE opens a new gateway to more flexible spin-dependent optics. For example, a spin-dependent metasurface lens can be fabricated with an orientation of the structures with quadratic profile. Such a lens can be switched from a focusing to a diverging lens simply by changing the incident light from one spin to another [131–133]. To achieve more generic applications, a holographic approach was proposed to generate a desired complex wave-front, which is flexible enough to realize either a 2D or 3D hologram [134]. Comparing to conventional approach of making holograms using discrete depths of materials, the generated phase can be continuously varied in the geometric-phase approach. The holograms generated can now depend on the incident spin and its efficiency can reach nearly 80% by employing a reflection geometry of the metasurface, as shown in Figure 11B and C [134–137].

5.3 Symmetry-related applications with spin-orbit interaction

Symmetry plays a key role in OSHE and symmetry-breaking metasurfaces have shown significant spin-dependent transportation through the strong light-structure interactions. In this way, metasurfaces are providing a very flexible platform to investigate structural symmetry effects. The Rashba effect denotes a splitting of spin-degenerate parabolic bands into bands of opposite spins in the dispersion diagram [138–140]. Such an effect arises from spin-orbit interactions with spatial inversion symmetry broken while the time-reversal symmetry can still be respected. In Section 4, we have seen numerous examples of using a geometric-phase profile to induce a spin-dependent coupling between the incident light and the material. A very useful and alternative perspective is a spin-splitting of the dispersion diagram of the material itself. By exploiting geometric-phase metasurfaces with rotated microstructures [103, 104, 106, 107], an optical counterpart of the Rashba effect can be observed [109–112]. Figure 12A shows a 1D case, in which the structure is rotated from one cell to the next. It causes a spin-splitting of the surface-wave (phonon-polariton) dispersion, which in turns causes a spin-splitting in the absorption spectrum and the thermal radiation bands (see Figure 12A) [108, 109]. A more Rashba-like band structure with spin-split parabolic bands in two dimensions can be obtained using a nanoslot array with rotated orientation angle in a 2D kagome lattice (see Figure 12B) [110]. This spin-dependent coupling between the incident light and the material can be applied to structures of even lower symmetry (e.g. a quasi-crystal) to achieve this Rashba effect [111, 112].

Nonlinear optical processes are also highly sensitive to the symmetry of the nonlinear materials under investigation. For example, second harmonic generations also rely on the absence of inversion centers in the materials or structures. Clearly, the OSHE and the nonlinear optical processes on a 2D metasurface will be intrinsically intertwined. The nonlinear susceptibility tensors of
the metasurfaces can be easily tailored by the structural design, and the spin state and spectra of the nonlinearly converted light beam can be modulated. Typical examples include L-shaped gold nanoparticle [142, 143], T-shaped nanoparticle [144], split-ring resonator (SPR) with electric or magnetic dipole resonance [145–147], and silver triangular nanoprisms and nanoholes [148, 149]. A symmetry-breaking metasurface not only significantly enhances its nonlinear optical response but also shows strong spin-selectivity in the nonlinearly generated light [150]. Polarization-dependent selection rules for high harmonic generations on a metasurface have also been extensively studied [151]. As shown in Figure 12C, metasurfaces with two- or four-fold symmetry allow strong third harmonic generation while the process is prohibited in a three-fold symmetric system using a consideration of the geometric phase carried by the plasmonic particle [141, 152]. When these nonlinear particles are arranged into an array with a geometric-phase profile, the spin-orbit interaction dictates the nonlinear susceptibility and alter the spin state and the direction of the nonlinearly converted light through a geometric-phase metasurface (see Figure 12D). Last but not least, secure quantum communication and information processing rely on parametrically generated photon pairs with entangled polarizations states, more explicitly, the entangled spin and/or orbital angular momentum. Metasurfaces with high efficiency in manifesting and detection of photon spin and OAM freedom shall find their applications in quantum information storage, processing, and computation based on the angular and OAM of light.
6 Conclusions

We have briefly reviewed the fundamental physics and the latest developments in the research field of OSHE enabled by plasmonic structures and metasurfaces. The associated spin-splitting capability from the opposite geometric phases for the opposite spins offers us a versatile approach to spin-dependent optics, allowing us to manipulate both far-field and surface waves. We have also reviewed some potential applications in this field, including spin-dependent beam steering, focusing, structuring, and holograms. We hope by presenting these works together in a concise and coherent way may stimulate further research works using OSHE as the fundamental mechanism.

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