Localization and delocalization of light in photonic moiré lattices

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Moiré lattices consist of two superimposed identical periodic structures with a relative rotation angle. Moiré lattices have several applications in everyday life, including artistic design, the textile industry, architecture, image processing, metrology and interferometry. For scientific studies, they have been produced using coupled graphene–hexagonal boron nitride monolayers1,2, graphene–graphene layers3,4 and graphene quasicrystals on a silicon carbide surface5. The recent surge of interest in moiré lattices arises from the possibility of exploring many salient physical phenomena in such systems; examples include commensurable–incommensurable transitions and topological defects, the emergence of insulating states owing to band flattening, unconventional superconductivity controlled by the rotation angle, the quantum Hall effect, the realization of non-Abelian gauge potentials and the appearance of quasicrystals at special rotation angles. A fundamental question that remains unexplored concerns the evolution of waves in the potentials defined by moiré lattices. Here we experimentally create two-dimensional photonic moiré lattices, which—unlike their material counterparts—have readily controllable parameters and symmetry, allowing us to explore transitions between structures with fundamentally different geometries (periodic, general aperiodic and quasicrystal). We observe localization of light in deterministic linear lattices that is based on flat-band physics, in contrast to previous schemes based on light diffusion in optical quasicrystals, where disorder is required for the onset of Anderson localization (that is, wave localization in random media). Using commensurable and incommensurable moiré patterns, we experimentally demonstrate the two-dimensional localization–delocalization transition of light. Moiré lattices may feature an almost arbitrary geometry that is consistent with the crystallographic symmetry groups of the sublattices, and therefore afford a powerful tool for controlling the properties of light patterns and exploring the physics of periodic–aperiodic phase transitions and two-dimensional wavepacket phenomena relevant to several areas of science, including optics, acoustics, condensed matter and atomic physics.

One of the most salient properties of an engineered optical system is its capability to affect a light beam in a prescribed manner, such as to control its diffraction pattern or to localize it. The importance of wavepacket localization extends far beyond optics and impacts all branches of science dealing with wave phenomena. Homogeneous or strictly periodic linear systems cannot result in wave localization, and the latter require the presence of structure defects or nonlinearity. Anderson localization is a hallmark discovery in condensed-matter physics. All electronic states in one- and two-dimensional potentials with uncorrelated disorder are localized. Three-dimensional systems with disordered potentials are known to have both localized and delocalized eigenstates, separated by an energy known as the mobility edge. Coexistence of localized and delocalized eigenstates has been predicted also in regular quasiperiodic one-dimensional systems, first in the discrete Aubry–Andre model and later in continuous optical and matter-wave systems. Quasiperiodic (or aperiodic) structures, even those that possess long-range order, fundamentally differ both from periodic systems, where all eigenmodes are delocalized Bloch waves, and from disordered media, where all states are localized (in one or two dimensions). Upon variation of the parameters of a quasiperiodic system, it is possible to observe the transition between localized and delocalized states. Such a localization–delocalization transition (LDT)
has been observed in one-dimensional quasiperiodic optical and in atomic systems.

Wave localization is sensitive to the dimensionality of the physical setting. Anderson localization and a mobility edge in two-dimensional systems were first reported in experiments with bending waves and later in optically induced disordered lattices. In quasicrystals, localization has been observed only under the action of nonlinearity and in the later in optically induced disordered lattices. In quasicrystals, localization has been observed in one-dimensional quasiperiodic optical and in atomic systems.

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Here we report the first, to our knowledge, experimental realization of reconfigurable photonic moiré lattices with controllable parameters and symmetry. The lattices are induced by two superimposed periodic patterns (sublattices) with either square or hexagonal primitive cells, and have tunable amplitudes and twist angle. Depending on the twist angle, a photonic moiré lattice may have different periodic (commensurable) structure or aperiodic (incommensurable) structure without translational periodicity, but it always features the rotational symmetry of the sublattices. Moiré lattices can also transform into quasicrystals with higher rotational symmetry. The angles at which a commensurable phase (periodicity) of a moiré lattice is achieved are determined by Pythagorean triples in the case of square sublattices, or by another Diophantine equation when the primitive cell of the sublattices is not a square (see Methods). For all other rotation angles, the structure is aperiodic albeit regular (that is, it is not disordered). Changing the relative amplitudes of the sublattices allows us to smoothly tune the shape of the lattice without affecting its rotational symmetry.

In contrast to crystalline moiré lattices, optical patterns are monolayer structures; that is, both sublattices interfere in one plane. As a consequence, light propagating in such media is described by a one-component field. In the paraxial approximation, the propagation of an extraordinarily polarized beam in a photorefractive medium with an optically induced refractive index is governed by the Schrödinger equation for the dimensionless field amplitude:

$$i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{E_0}{1 + I(\mathbf{r})} \psi$$

(1)

Here $\nabla = (\partial/\partial x, \partial/\partial y)$ and $\mathbf{r} = (x, y)$ is the radius vector in the transverse plane, scaled to the wavelength $\lambda = 632.8$ nm of the beam used in the experiments; $z$ is the propagation distance, scaled to the diffraction length $2 \pi n_0 \lambda / n_0$ is the refractive index of the homogeneous crystal for extraordinarily polarized light; $E_0 > 0$ is the dimensionless applied d.c. field; $I(\mathbf{r}) = |p_2 V(\mathbf{r}) + p_1 V(S\mathbf{r})|^2$ is the intensity of the moiré lattice induced by two ordinarily polarized mutually coherent periodic sublattices, $V(r)$ and $V(S\mathbf{r})$, interfering in the $(x, y)$ plane and rotated by an angle $\theta$ with respect to each other (see Methods); $S = S(\theta)$ is the operator of the two-dimensional rotation; and $p_1$ and $p_2$ are the amplitudes of the first and second sublattices, respectively. The number of laser beams creating each sublattice $V(r)$ depends on the desired lattice geometry. The form in which the lattice intensity $I(\mathbf{r})$ enters equation (1) is determined by the mechanism of the photorefractive response.

To visualize the formation of moiré lattices, it is convenient to associate a continuous sublattice $V(r)$ with a discrete one that has lattice vectors determined by the locations of the absolute maxima of $V(r)$. The resulting moiré pattern inherits the rotational symmetry of $V(r)$. At specific angles some nodes of different sublattices may coincide, thereby leading to translational symmetry of the moiré pattern in the commensurable phase; see the primitive translation vectors illustrated by blue arrows in Fig. 1a, c for the case of square sublattices. The rotation...
angles at which the periodicity of $I(\mathbf{r})$ is achieved are determined by triples of positive integers $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{N}$ related by a Diophantine equation characteristic for a given sublattice (see Extended Data Table 1).

First, we consider a Pythagorean lattice created by two square sublattices. For rotation angles $\theta$ such that $\cos \theta = a/c$ and $\sin \theta = b/c$, where $(a, b, c)$ is a Pythagorean triple (that is, $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$), $I(\mathbf{r})$ is a periodic moiré lattice. Such angles are hitherto referred to as Pythagorean. For all other, non-Pythagorean, rotation angles $\theta$, the lattice $I(\mathbf{r})$ is aperiodic. Figure 1a–c compares calculated $I(\mathbf{r})$ patterns (first row) with lattices created experimentally in a biased SBN:61 photorefractive crystal with dimensions $5 \times 5 \times 20$ mm$^3$. The second row shows the respective discrete moiré lattices. Figure 1a, c shows periodic lattices, whereas Fig. 1b gives an example of an aperiodic lattice. All results were obtained for $E_0 = 7$, which corresponds to a d.c. electric field of $8 \times 10^4$ V m$^{-1}$ applied to the crystal. The amplitude of the first sublattice was set to $p_1 = 1$ in all cases, which corresponds to an average intensity of $I_{av} = 3.8$ mW cm$^{-2}$. The refractive index modulation depth in the moiré lattice is of the order of $\delta n = 10^{-4}$.

Mathematically, incommensurable lattices are almost periodic functions. Any non-Pythagorean twist angle can be approached by a Pythagorean one with any prescribed accuracy (see Supplementary Information). Thus, any finite area of an incommensurable moiré lattice can be approached by a primitive effective cell of some periodic Pythagorean lattice, whereas a more accurate approximation requires a larger primitive cell of the Pythagorean lattice. This property is illustrated in Fig. 1d, e by the quantitative similarities between the densities of states calculated for an incommensurable lattice and its effective-cell approximation. A remarkable property of Pythagorean lattices is the extreme flattening of the higher bands that occurs when the ratio $p_z/p_y$ exceeds a certain threshold (Fig. 1f). The number of flat bands grows with the size of the area of the primitive cell of the Pythagorean lattice.
localized (Fig. 2c). This is consistent with the extreme band flattening of the approximate Pythagorean lattice at \( p_2 > p_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \) (Fig. 1f). The inset in Fig. 2c reveals exponential tails for \( p_2 > \rho_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \), from which the localization length for the most localized mode can be extracted.

Figure 2a shows delocalization for angles \( \theta \) set by the Pythagorean triples when all modes are extended, regardless of the value of \( p_2 \). It also reveals that \( \rho_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \) is practically independent of the non-Pythagorean rotation angle. This is explained by the fact that a large fraction of the power in a localized mode resides in the vicinity of a lattice maximum (that is, at \( r = 0 \)). In an incommensurable phase, when \( I(r) \propto r \), for all \( r \neq 0 \) the optical potential can be approximated by the Taylor expansion of \( E_{\|}/(1 + I(r)) \) with respect to \( r \) near the origin. Such expansion includes the rotation angle \( \theta \) only in the fourth order (see Supplementary Information) and therefore locally can be viewed as almost isotropic.

To study the guiding properties of the Pythagorean moiré lattices experimentally, we measured the diffraction outputs for beams propagating in lattices corresponding to different rotation angles \( \theta \) for a fixed input position of the beam, centred or off-centre. The diameter of the Gaussian beam focused on the input face of the crystal was about 23 \( \mu \)m, covering approximately one bright spot (channel) of the lattice profile. The intensity of the input beam was about 10 times lower than the intensity of the lattice-creating beam, \( I_{\text{in}} \), to guarantee that the beam did not distort the induced refractive index and that it propagated in the linear regime.

Experimental evidence of LDT in the two-dimensional lattice is presented in Fig. 3, where we compare output patterns for the low-power light beam in the incommensurable (\( \tan \theta = 3/4 \)) of Fig. 3a and Fig. 3c for central and off-centre excitations, respectively) and commensurable (\( \tan \theta = 4/3 \)) of Fig. 3b) moiré lattices, tuning in parallel the amplitude \( p_2 \) of the second sublattice. When \( p_2 < \rho_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \) (in Fig. 3 \( p_2 \approx 0.15 \), the light beam in the incommensurable lattice notably diffracts upon propagation and expands across multiple local maxima of \( I(r) \) in the vicinity of the excitation point. However, when \( p_2 \) exceeds the LDT threshold, it is readily visible that diffraction is arrested for both central (Fig. 3a) and off-centre (Fig. 3c) excitations and a localized spot is observed at the output over a large range of \( p_2 \) values. In clear contrast, localization is absent for any \( p_2 \) value in the periodic lattice associated with the Pythagorean triple (Fig. 3b).

Additional proof of the LDT is reported in Extended Data Fig. 1. We compare experimental and theoretical results for propagation at \( p_2 = 1 \). In an incommensurable lattice, at \( p_2 < p_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \) one observes beam broadening (top row). Localization takes place at \( p_2 > p_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \) (middle row). At a Pythagorean twist angle, localization does not occur even for \( p_2 > p_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \) (bottom row). Simulations of the propagation to much larger distances beyond the available sample length (Extended Data Fig. 2) confirm localization of the beam in the incommensurable lattice at any distance at \( p_2 > p_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \) and its expansion at \( p_2 < p_{\text{LDT}}^{(2)} \).

The mutual rotation of two identical sublattices allows the generation of commensurable and incommensurable moiré patterns with sublattices of any allowed symmetry. To illustrate the universality of LDT, we created hexagonal moiré lattices using an induction technique similar to that used for single honeycomb photonic lattices\(^1\). For such lattices, the rotation angles producing commensurable patterns are given by the relation \( \tan \theta = b/(2a + b) \), where the integers \( a \) and \( b \) solve the Diophantine equation \( a^2 + b^2 + ab = c^2 \). Two examples are presented in Fig. 4a, b. In such periodic structures, the light beam experiences considerable diffraction for any amplitude of the sublattices, as shown in the bottom row. To observe LDT, one has to induce aperiodic structures. To this end, we set the rotation angle to \( 30^\circ \). In this incommensurable case, we did observe LDT by increasing the amplitude of the second sublattice, keeping the amplitude \( p_2 \) fixed. Delocalized and localized output beams are shown in the lower panels of Fig. 4c, d. In Fig. 4c the ideal six-fold rotation symmetry of the output pattern is slightly distorted, presumably owing to the intrinsic anisotropy of the photorefractive response. At \( p_2 = p_1 \) the moiré pattern acquires a 12-fold rotational symmetry (shown in Fig. 4d), as proposed in ref.\(^1\) as a model of a quasicrystal, and similar to the twisted bilayer graphene quasicrystal reported in ref.\(^1\).

Moiré lattices can be created in practically any arbitrary configuration consistent with two-dimensional symmetry groups, thus allowing the creation of potentials that may not be easily produced in tunable form using material structures. In addition to their direct application to the control of light patterns, the availability of photonic moiré patterns allows the study of phenomena relevant to other areas of physics, particularly to condensed matter, which are harder to explore directly. An outstanding example is the relation between conductivity/transport and the symmetry of incommensurable patterns with long-range order. The concept can be also extended to atomic physics and in particular to Bose–Einstein condensates, where potentials are created using similar geometries (and where Anderson localization has been observed\(^{12} \)). Finally, we note that whereas most previous studies of moiré lattices were focused on graphene and quasicrystals, our results suggest that the photonic counterpart affords a powerful platform for the creation of synthetic settings to investigate wavepacket localization and flatband phenomena in two-dimensional systems at large.

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/s41586-019-1851-6.

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Methods

Experimental setup

The experimental setup is illustrated in Extended Data Fig. 3. The lattice is created using optical induction, as described in ref. 28 and was first realized experimentally in ref. 28. A continuous-wave frequency-doubled Nd:YAG laser at a wavelength of $\lambda = 532$ nm is divided by a polarizing beam splitter into two polarization components, which are sent to path a and path b separately. Light in path a is extraordinarily polarized and it is used to image the induced potential in the photorefractive crystal (bottom row of Fig. 1). Light in path b is ordinarily polarized and it is used to write the desirable potential landscape in a photorefractive SBN:61 crystal with dimensions $5 \times 5 \times 20$ mm$^3$ and extraordinary refractive index $n_e = 2.2817$. Before entering the crystal, the ordinarily polarized light beam in path b is modulated by masks 1 and 2 and is transformed into a superposition of two rotated periodic patterns. Their relative strength $p_2/p_1$—more precisely, the strength of the second lattice—as well as the twist angle $\theta$ are controlled by the polarizer-based mask 1 and the amplitude mask 2. A He–Ne laser with wavelength $\lambda = 633$ nm shown in path c provides an extraordinarily polarized beam focused onto the front facet of the crystal, which serves as a probe beam for studying light propagation in the induced potential. We record the output light intensity pattern using a charge-coupled device (CCD) at the exit facet of the crystal after a propagation distance of 20 mm.

Characteristics of moiré lattices used in experiment

Two types of moiré lattices were used in the experiments, and their characteristics are summarized in Extended Data Table 1. In all cases the centre of rotation in the $(x, y)$ plane was chosen to be coincident with a node of one of the sublattices.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Code availability

The codes that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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Author contributions

All authors contributed significantly to the study.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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Extended Data Fig. 1 | Evolution of light in moiré lattices. Experimentally observed intensity distributions of the probe beam (colour-surface plots) and corresponding theoretically calculated distributions (insets) at different propagation distances $z$, for $\tan\theta = 3^{-1/2}$ and $p_2 = 0.1$ (below the LDT point; top row), $\tan\theta = 3^{-1/2}$ and $p_2 = 1$ (above the LDT point; middle row) and $\tan\theta = 3/4$ and $p_2 = 1$ (bottom row). The two top rows correspond to the incommensurable Pythagorean lattice shown in Fig. 1b. The third row corresponds to the commensurable lattice shown in Fig. 1c.
Extended Data Fig. 2 | Numerical simulation of light propagation to distances beyond the crystal length. 

**a, b.** Numerical simulations of the light-beam propagation in the incommensurable moiré lattice for central excitation, corresponding to the top and middle rows of Extended Data Fig. 1, but for larger distances, exceeding the sample length. 

**c, d.** Similar numerical results, but for an off-centre excitation position in the moiré lattice. $p_z = 0.1 \text{ (a, c), } p_z = 1.0 \text{ (b, d), } \theta = \pi/6$. In all cases, a Gaussian beam exciting a single site of the potential is assumed.
Extended Data Fig. 3 | Experimental setup. λ/2, half-wave plate; PBS, polarizing beam splitter; SF, spatial filter; L, lens; BS, beam splitter; ID, iris diaphragm; M, mirror; P, polarizer; SBN, strontium barium niobate crystal; CCD, charged-coupled device. Mask 2 is an amplitude mask used to produce two group of sub-lattices with rotation angle θ, and mask 1 is made of a polarizer film.
### Extended Data Table 1 | Characteristics of the moiré lattices used in the experiments

| Moiré lattice $I(r)$ | Sublattice $V(r)$ | Diophantine equation | $\tan \theta$ |
|----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------|
| Pythagorean          | $\cos(2x) + \cos(2y)$ | $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$   | $b/a$        |
| hexagonal            | $\sum_{n=1}^{3} \cos [2(x \cos \theta_n + y \sin \theta_n)]$ | $a^2 + b^2 + ab = c^2$ | $\sqrt{3}b/(2a + b)$ |

For hexagonal $\theta_0 = 0$, $\theta_j = 2\pi/3$ and $\theta_j = 4\pi/3$. 