1. INTRODUCTION

Lenses are fundamental to imaging systems. Conventional lenses exploit refraction to focus light [1]. As a result, a fundamental trade-off increases the thickness and weight of optics with an increasing numerical aperture (or resolution). As illustrated in Fig. 1(a) with the example of a simple planoconvex lens, larger bending angles require larger thicknesses. Recently, there has been significant interest in reducing the thickness and weight of lenses by exploiting diffraction. In such "flat lenses," focusing is achieved by spatially arranging "zones" that impart an appropriate phase to achieve constructive interference of the transmitted waves at the focus [2,3]. As illustrated in Fig. 1(b), larger bending angles may be achieved with no change in thickness, simply by decreasing the local period of the diffractive structure. To ensure constructive interference, each ray must be locally phase shifted to compensate for the variation in its total optical path length to the focus. In traditional diffractive lenses, this is achieved by engineering the path traversed by the ray within the diffractive lens itself, as illustrated in Fig. 1(c). In comparison to traveling the same distance in air, the optical path delay for a thickness, \( t \), is \( \Delta = (n - 1) \cdot t \), which then corresponds to a phase shift of \( \Delta / \lambda \approx 2\pi \), where \( n \) is the refractive index of the material and \( \lambda \) is the wavelength of light. To achieve a phase shift of \( 2\pi \), \( t \) must be at least \( \lambda / (n - 1) \approx 2\lambda \) for \( n = 1.5 \). It is noted that diffractive lenses with numerical aperture (NA) > 1 under water immersion were demonstrated more than a decade ago [4].

To increase the focusing efficiency, blazed or multilevel diffractive lenses (MDLs) were also developed to approximate the optimal continuous phase distribution [see Fig. 1(d)]. In fact, it was widely recognized that close to 100% efficiency could be achieved with such blazed diffractive optics [5]. However, at high numerical apertures, there is a rapid drop in efficiency due to the resonance conditions [6,7]. It was also quite definitively shown that this drop could be avoided by parametric optimization of the geometry of the constituent structures of the diffractive lens using both simulations [7,8] and experiments [9,10]. Another Achilles heel for diffractive lenses has been their poor broadband performance, which was overcome for discrete wavelengths via harmonic phase shifts [11] and by using higher orders of diffraction [12]. We extended this work to continuous broadband spectra using efficient numerical techniques [13–17] and multilevel microfabrication [18] at visible [19–23], longwave infrared (LWIR) [17] and terahertz spectral bands [16,24]. Here, we combine this multilevel approach with parametric optimization to show that high efficiency at a high numerical aperture is indeed feasible for both narrowband and broadband operation, which we believe has not been clearly demonstrated before. We emphasize that MDLs can be fabricated not only in polymers but also in any material that can be etched or deposited (like silicon, glass, etc.). Multilevel microfabrication for MDLs either via single-step grayscale lithography or via multistep lithography and etch process is relatively straightforward due to the larger feature sizes [18]. In summary, MDLs offer a tremendous advantage in manufacturing...
simplicity compared to metalenses with no compromise in performance and no constraints on materials that can be used.

Recently, metalenses were proposed as a means to reduce the overall thickness of the conventional diffractive lens to subwavelength regimes by exploiting magnified phase changes that can occur in resonators \([25–32]\). Rather than using a traversed path to create a phase shift, appropriately designed subwavelength antenna elements could achieve the same effect \(\text{[see Fig. 1(e)]}\). In this paper, we show that the advantages of metalenses might be vastly overstated and that the decrease in thickness from \(\sim 2\lambda\) achievable via MDLs to less than \(\lambda\) may not be useful for the majority of applications. To emphasize this point, we show a photograph from the side view \(\text{[Fig. 1(f)]}\) of a multilevel diffractive lens that is corrected for the visible spectrum. The achromatic MDL depicted in Fig. 1(g) \([22,23]\) was patterned in a photore sist \(\text{(Microchem, S1813)}\) as the constituent material, since it exists high transmission in most wavelength regimes of interest here \(\text{(measured dispersion is included in Supplement 1)}\), and we have previously fabricated several MDLs in this material \([19–23]\). In all cases, we assume unpolarized input light for the MDLs.

Third, we point out that the fabrication complexity of metalenses is far higher than that for the MDLs. As can be seen in Table 1 \((\text{columns 4 and 7)}\), the minimum feature widths required for metalenses are significantly smaller than those for MDLs. In addition, metalenses generally require high-index materials \(\text{(see Tables S1 and S2 in Supplement 1)}\), whereas MDLs can be fabricated in low-index polymers. It is important to appreciate that any transparent material can be used for the MDL. This allows MDLs to be mass manufactured at low cost via high-volume imprinting techniques \([33]\).

From a more fundamental standpoint, the problem of designing a lens is related to inverse scattering. Indeed, one can consider two parallel planes: a “lens” plane and a “focal” plane. Then, the goal is to design a lens-field pattern that when illuminated produces a desired focal-field pattern. In the case of monochromatic illumination, where the amplitude and phase of the complex field are both specified in the focal plane \(\text{(i.e., the focal-field pattern)}\), a lens-field pattern can be simply found using backpropagation. This is an ill-posed problem since there are many lens-field patterns that give approximately the same focal-field pattern \(\text{(e.g., by adding to the lens-field pattern spatial modes corresponding to evanescent waves)}\). Furthermore, the finite size of the image sensor in the focal plane can also cause ambiguities in the lens-field pattern that depend nonlinearly on the position on the lens plane \([34]\). In the vast majority of imaging applications, one is interested only in the amplitude \(\text{(amplitude squared)}\) of the focal-field pattern. In this situation, one can readily show by backpropagation that the lens-field pattern is not unique. In the case of broadband illumination, one can expect the solution to this inverse scattering problem to be even more ill-posed. This categorically points to the fact that the choice of an ideal phase function for a lens is not necessarily unique. As a result, we argue that optimization is better suited to choose the lens-field pattern.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Our design methodology involves nonlinear optimization to select the heights of the constituent elements of the MDL in order to maximize focusing efficiency averaged over all wavelengths of interest as described previously \([16,17,21–23]\). In congruence with work in metalenses, we define focusing efficiency as the ratio of the power within a spot of diameter equal to 3 times the simulated full width at half-maximum \(\text{(FWHM)}\) to the total incident power \([26]\). The point-spread function of each MDL was simulated using the finite-difference time-domain \(\text{(FDTD)}\) method with the incident electric field polarized in the plane of the MDL. Averaging the fields over the two orthogonal polarization directions of the electric field simulates the point-spread function \(\text{(PSF)}\) under unpolarized light. All analysis in the main text utilized this PSF assuming unpolarized input. In the FDTD simulations of the MDL, the entire region from the back surface of the lens up to \(1.5\) times the distance from the focal plane with perfectly-matched-layer boundary conditions was considered. A full 3D FDTD simulation was carried out. To speed up the computation, appropriate symmetry conditions were employed.
across the computation region. The mesh accuracy in the FDTD software was $\sim \lambda/20$ [16]. Full details of our simulation are described in Supplement 1. FDTD models for verifying optimized diffractive lenses [13,35] and for simulating high-numerical-aperture zone plates in air [36,37] and under water immersion (with $\text{NA} > 1$) [4] have been reported previously. We note that not all papers follow a consistent method for calculating focusing efficiency. Therefore, we have included a brief description of the methods used in select metalens papers in Supplement 1.

### A. Narrowband MDLs

First, we consider the design of MDLs for discrete wavelengths (narrowband). Following the parameters from Table 1, we designed three MDLs with $(\text{focal length}, \text{numerical aperture}) = (67 \, \mu m, 0.2)$, $(200 \, \mu m, 0.6)$, and $(25 \, \mu m, 0.97)$, respectively.

The optimized designs represented by the height distribution of the concentric rings are illustrated in Figs. 2(a), 2(c), and 2(e) for $\text{NA} = 0.2$, 0.6, and 0.97 MDLs, respectively. The corresponding simulated point-spread functions (PSFs) for three representative wavelengths are shown in Figs. 2(b), 2(d), and 2(f), respectively. The FWHM noted in the insets of the PSFs confirm close to diffraction-limited performance. The simulations confirm that even at an NA as high as 0.97 efficiencies more than 87% is maintained, superior to those of the corresponding metalenses (Table 1). We note that shadowing effects can clearly affect focusing efficiencies at high NA for both metalenses and MDLs. Our simulations simply point out that metalenses do not offer any advantage over MDLs for narrowband operation, while exhibiting equivalent optical performance.

### B. Broadband MDLs

One of the big advantages of MDLs as we have pointed out before is their good achromatic performance over broad spectral bands [17,21–24]. Here, we reiterate this claim by directly comparing MDLs with metalenses of the same optical specifications. Again, following the parameters from Table 1, we designed three broadband MDLs with $(\text{focal length}, \text{numerical aperture}) = (63 \, \mu m, 0.2)$, $(200 \, \mu m, 0.36)$ and $(2 \, \mu m, 0.81)$. The optimized designs represented by the height distribution of the concentric rings are illustrated in Figs. 3(a)–3(c) for $\text{NA} = 0.2$, 0.36, and 0.81 MDLs, respectively. The corresponding simulated point-spread functions (PSFs) for three representative wavelengths are shown in Figs. 3(d), 3(g), and 3(j); 3(e), 3(h), and 3(k); 3(f), 3(i), and 3(l), respectively. Again, the FWHM noted in the insets of the PSFs confirm close to diffraction-limited performance for all wavelengths. The simulations confirm that even at NA as high as 0.81 efficiencies of 70% are maintained across the entire band, which are superior to those of the corresponding metalenses (Table 1).

### Table 1. Summary of Performance of MDL and Metalens for Same Optical Specifications

| N.A. | Focal Length (µm) | λ (nm) | $W_{\text{min}}$ (µm) | $H_{\text{max}}$ (µm) | Efficiency (%) |
|------|-------------------|--------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------|
| Narrowband | | | | | |
| 0.2  | 67                | 530    | 1                     | 1.1                    | 93             |
| 0.6  | 200               | 532    | 0.4                   | 1.1                    | 90             |
| 0.97 | 25                | 1550   | 0.75                  | 3.1                    | 87             |
| Broadband | | | | | |
| 0.2  | 63                | 470–670 nm | 1 | 2 | 81 |
| 0.36 | 155               | 3–5 µm | 4 | 10 | 86 |
| 0.81 | 2                 | 560–800 nm | 0.35 | 1.6 | 70 |

Note that $W_{\text{min}}$ and $H_{\text{max}}$ are defined in Figs. 1(d) and 1(e) for MDL and metalens, respectively.

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Fig. 2. Narrowband MDLs. Designed-height distribution (top row) and simulated point-spread function (bottom row) for (a) and (b) low, (c) and (d) medium, and (e) and (f) high-NA MDLs are shown.
3. ABERRATIONS ANALYSIS

When illuminated by a normally incident uniform plane wave, an ideal lens will generate a perfectly spherical wavefront that converges to the ideal focus. Aberrations in an actual lens are defined as the difference between the actual wavefront from this ideal wavefront. Here, we use the simulated wavefront to analyze the aberrations that are present in MDLs. Using the Zernike-polynomial representation of aberrations, we can calculate the wavefront errors as illustrated in Fig. 4 for the broadband MDL with on-axis PSFs at $\lambda = 560$ nm. Similar results for the other lenses as well as details of the aberrations analysis are included in Supplement 1.

Furthermore, Table 2 summarizes the Zernike coefficients (in units of wavelengths) for the narrowband on-axis MDL with NA = 0.81, $f = 2$ μm computed at $\lambda = 560$ nm. Similar results for the other lenses as well as details of the aberrations analysis are included in Supplement 1.

![Fig. 3. Broadband MDLs.](image)

![Fig. 4. Aberrations analysis in form of Zernike polynomials for NA = 0.81, f = 2 μm MDL simulated at $\lambda = 560$ nm.](image)
Table 2. Zernike Coefficients (in Units of $\lambda$) for Two Exemplary High-NA MDLs; One Narrowband and Another Broadband Multilevel Diffractive Lens

| Multilevel Diffractive Lens | $\lambda$ | Piston | Tip | Tilt | Defocus | Vertical Astigmatism | Oblique Astigmatism | Vertical Coma | Oblique Coma | Vertical Trefoil | Oblique Trefoil |
|-----------------------------|-----------|--------|-----|-----|---------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|
| Narrowband (N.A. = 0.97)    | 1550 nm   | 3.53E-5 | 8.80E-22 | 7.77E-22 | 4.56E-22 | 1.56E-22 | 7.21E-22 | 6.07E-22 | 1.56E-4 | 4.66E-22 | 3.57E-22 |
| Broadband (N.A. = 0.81)     | 560 nm    | 1.84E-2 | 5.67E-20 | 5.67E-20 | 5.67E-20 | 1.84E-19 | 1.84E-19 | 1.84E-19 | 1.84E-19 | 1.84E-19 | 1.84E-19 |
|                             | 688 nm    | 2.16E-2 | 2.67E-20 | 2.67E-20 | 2.67E-20 | 2.16E-2 | 2.16E-2 | 2.16E-2 | 2.16E-2 | 2.16E-2 | 2.16E-2 |
|                             | 810 nm    | 4.23E-2 | 4.56E-20 | 4.56E-20 | 4.56E-20 | 4.23E-2 | 4.23E-2 | 4.23E-2 | 4.23E-2 | 4.23E-2 | 4.23E-2 |

A. Where Are Metaoptics Useful?

Finally, we would also like to clarify the regimes where metaoptics (which includes metamaterials, metasurfaces, and metalenses) have distinct advantages over MDLs and conventional diffractive optics. Metaoptics have the advantage of extreme form birefringence, which enables them to manipulate the polarization states of light in unique manners. A few illustrative examples of these advantages have already been demonstrated in polarimetric imaging [38], high-efficiency polarizers [39], and polarization-sensitive optics [40]. Additionally, their subwavelength dimensions are extremely useful in integrated optics and photonics, where density is a critical parameter for technology adoption [41–43]. We surmise that metaoptics is useful when manipulating electromagnetic fields. In conventional imaging, it is the intensity (square of the field) that is important. Therefore, MDLs are sufficient and far easier to fabricate.

4. CONCLUSION

Using a series of rigorous simulations, we conclude that multilevel diffractive lenses, when designed appropriately, can provide better optical performance, while being significantly simpler to manufacture, when compared to metalenses. MDLs can exploit the relatively mature mass manufacturing capabilities that exist in the hologram industry to create low-cost, large-area flat optics, enabling a new era of ultralightweight, thin optical systems.

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See Supplement 1 for supporting content.

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