

Polymer-Based Optical Gratings: Materials, Fabrication Technologies, Performance Analysis, and Emerging Applications – A Review

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ABSTRACT

Because of polymer optical gratings' lower-cost options, they bend and stretch easily, can be adjusted to create different angles of light, and can be produced with massive scale production techniques, they are the preferred choice over traditional silicone or metal-based optical gratings. As a result of their increased lighter-weighted physical properties, flexible shape and compatibility with human body surfaces, polymer gratings allow for massive-scale manufacturing of photonic devices, as opposed to traditional optical gratings which have much higher production costs and limited methods to produce them in large quantities. This paper will provide an overview of polymer optical gratings including: scientific principles, material characteristics, fabrication processes, optical characteristics and application areas of finished devices. The details of fabrication techniques used for polymer optical gratings, comparison with silica-based gratings, and a description of current limitations of these devices will be provided to demonstrate future research possibilities in terms of supporting further development of advanced flexible photonic systems.

Keyword: - Polymer grating, diffraction optics, nanoimprint lithography, fiber Bragg grating, polymer optical fiber, flexible photonics, Bragg diffraction.

1. INTRODUCTION

Diffraction gratings are key parts of optical systems that spread light into separate orders. They are commonly used in spectroscopy, communication systems, sensing devices, and laser applications. Most traditional gratings made from glass, fused silica, or metal are efficient and stable under heat, but they are usually hard, breakable, and costly. The growth of flexible electronics, wearable sensors and medical photonics has led to a need for optical components that are soft, light and easy to handle. Polymer materials are great because they can be adjusted for different optical properties and are simple to work with, and can be made using continuous manufacturing methods. New developments in nano-making techniques have allowed for polymer gratings that are precise at the nanoscale and perform better in terms of light separation. This review brings together the current knowledge on polymer grating technology, covering the basic ideas, materials used, ways to make them, how they perform, and new uses they are being explored for.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Diffraction Theory

Diffraction is the bending of a wave as it meets a repeating pattern, or a grating, which causes the wave to spread out and create an interference that can either increase or decrease the wave.

When a plane wave is incident on a periodic structure of period d , constructive interference occurs only at specific angles satisfying the grating equation:

$$d \sin \theta = m \lambda$$

where:

m = diffraction order (integer: 0, ± 1 , ± 2 , ...)

λ = incident wavelength

θ = diffraction angle

d = grating period (distance between adjacent grooves/slits)

For volume gratings, such as those used in:

Fiber Bragg Grating

Holographic polymer gratings

Photorefractive crystals

diffraction follows Bragg's Law, similar to X-ray diffraction in crystals.

Bragg Condition

Constructive interference occurs when:

$$\lambda_B = 2n_{\text{eff}}\Lambda$$

where:

λ_B = Bragg wavelength

n_{eff} = effective refractive index

Λ = grating period

B. Coupled-Wave Theory

Coupled wave theory, proposed by Herwig Kogelnik in 1969, is a detailed way of understanding light bending as it passes through thick or volume gratings. This theory is particularly applicable for holographic and polymer volume gratings functioning under Bragg conditions. Unlike Raman-Nath, a thin grating theory, coupled wave theory states that there are only two waves of concern inside the medium.

The first wave is the incident wave, propagating forwards.

The second wave is the diffracted wave, reflected back into the medium or transmitted through it, similar to Bragg reflection/transmission.

The two waves are related by the repeating pattern of refractive index variation.

Refractive Index Profile

For a sinusoidal volume grating, the refractive index distribution is:

$$n(z) = n_0 + \Delta n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\Lambda} z\right)$$

where:

n_0 = average refractive index

Δn = refractive index modulation amplitude

Λ = grating period

The parameter Δn is critical in determining diffraction efficiency.

Diffraction Efficiency

For a transmission volume grating under exact Bragg matching, the diffraction efficiency η is:

$$\eta = \sin^2(\kappa L)$$

where:

• κ = coupling coefficient

• L = grating thickness

The coupling coefficient is:

$$\kappa = \frac{\pi \Delta n}{\lambda \cos \theta}$$

Thus,

$$\eta = \sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi \Delta n L}{\lambda \cos \theta} \right)$$

Bragg Regime vs Raman–Nath Regime

A key parameter distinguishing regimes is:

$$Q = \frac{2\pi\lambda L}{n_0 \Lambda^2}$$

$Q \gg 1$ → Bragg regime (thick grating)

$Q \ll 1$ → Raman–Nath regime (thin grating)

Polymer volume gratings typically satisfy:

$$Q > 10$$

Hence, only one diffraction order dominates, making them highly selective in:

- Wavelength
- Angle
- Polarization

3. CLASSIFICATION OF POLYMER GRATINGS

A. Surface-Relief Gratings

Surface relief gratings are optical elements in which periodic grooves are physically created by etching, embossing, or molding the surface of a material, typically a polymer. The periodic change in the surface topography causes light to diffract into specific orders, described by the grating equation:

$$d \sin \theta = m \lambda$$

where d is the grating period, m is the diffraction order, and θ is the diffraction angle.

Unlike volume gratings (which rely on refractive index modulation inside the material), surface-relief gratings rely on surface geometry modulation.

Structural Characteristics

A typical surface-relief grating includes:

Grating period Λ

Groove depth h

Duty cycle (fill factor)

Refractive index contrast between grating material and surrounding medium

These gratings may be:

Binary (rectangular profile)

Blazed (sawtooth profile)

Sinusoidal

B. Volume (Holographic) Gratings

Holographic volume gratings are formed when a pattern of alternating high and low refraction is embedded inside the solid material composed of photo-sensitive materials, such as plastics and light-reactive resins. Although it is not exclusive to surface formation, as is the case with holographic relief patterns, it is formed throughout its substance.

This process of fabrication utilizes holographic interference exposure, where two collimated lasers are used and interact with each other inside a photoresist material, creating static fringes. This density of space affects the sequential formation of polymers, creating an optical pattern referred to as a diffraction grating.

When two coherent beams overlap inside a photosensitive polymer:

An interference pattern is created.

Bright regions polymerize more than dark regions.

A sinusoidal refractive index modulation develops:

$$n(z) = n_0 + \Delta n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\Lambda} z\right)$$

where:

n_0 = average refractive index

Δn = index modulation amplitude

Λ = grating period

C. Polymer Optical Fiber Bragg Gratings (POFBGs)

Polymer Optical Fiber Bragg Gratings are periodic changes in refractive index that are inscribed in polymer optical fiber materials. They are similar to Fiber Bragg Grating devices because they also reflect a specific wavelength of light and pass on all other wavelengths.

The Bragg condition is:

$$\lambda_B = 2n_{\text{eff}}\Lambda$$

where:

- λ_B = Bragg wavelength
- n_{eff} = effective refractive index
- Λ = grating period

When strain or temperature changes occur, Λ and n_{eff} change, causing a measurable wavelength shift.

Comparison

Feature	Surface-Relief Grating	Volume (Holographic) Grating	POFBG
Modulation Type	Surface geometry	Bulk index modulation	Bulk index modulation in fiber
Diffraction Orders	Multiple	Single dominant	Single reflected wavelength
Spectral Selectivity	Moderate	High	Very High
Bandwidth	Wide	Narrow	Very Narrow
Efficiency	Moderate	Very High	Very High
Angular Selectivity	Low	High	Extremely High
Mechanical Flexibility	Moderate	Moderate	Very High
Sensing Capability	Limited	Moderate	Excellent
Typical Use	Spectrometers	Optical filtering	Strain/temperature sensing

4. MATERIAL SYSTEMS

A. Polymethyl Methacrylate (PMMA)

Polymethyl Methacrylate or PMMA is a plastic material. People often call it acrylic glass. You might also know it by brand names like Plexiglas, Lucite and Perspex. It is used a lot as a light and strong replacement for glass. This happens in areas, like optics, engineering and medical uses. PMMA is an option here because it is strong and not too heavy.

B. Polycarbonate (PC)

Polycarbonate or PC is a plastic that does not break easily. It is clear. Can handle high temperatures. This plastic belongs to a group called carbonate polymers ($-O-(C=O)-O-$). These polymers have a chemical makeup that includes carbonate groups. People often use Polycarbonate to make products like:

- * Devices
- * Engineering parts
- * Safety gear
- * Fiber optics

They choose Polycarbonate because it is strong and lets light pass through clearly. Polycarbonate is great, for making things that need to be tough and see-through. It is used in areas where these qualities are important.

C. SU-8 Photoresist

The SU-8 photoresist is a type of material that is used to make things. We use the SU-8 photoresist in microfabrication and photolithography. The SU-8 photoresist is very important for making systems, which are also called MEMS and other things like microfluidic devices and optical waveguides and micro-grating structures. This is because the SU-8 photoresist allows us to make structures that are very strong and can withstand chemicals. The SU-8 photoresist is really good, at making these structures.

D. Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS)

Polydimethylsiloxane or PDMS is a type of material that is made from silicone. People use Polydimethylsiloxane in a lot of things like making machines, optics, medical devices and flexible electronics. Polydimethylsiloxane is part of a group of materials called siloxane polymers. These materials have a kind of bond between silicon and oxygen. This special bond makes Polydimethylsiloxane very flexible you can see through it. It does not react with other chemicals easily. Polydimethylsiloxane is very important in things like microfluidics, which's, like a tiny plumbing system, soft lithography, optical sensors and flexible photonic systems. Polydimethylsiloxane plays a role in all these things because of its special properties.

E. UV-Curable Acrylates

UV-curable acrylates are a kind of material that hardens fast when you shine ultraviolet light on them. They are used in things like

- * optical coatings
- * making tiny things
- * holographic gratings
- * optical waveguides
- * and nanoimprint lithography

The reason is that they let you work fast at low temperatures and make very detailed patterns. You also find them in devices and polymer diffraction gratings because they are very clear and make it easy to copy patterns.

UV-curable acrylates are really good, for these things.

5. FABRICATION TECHNOLOGIES

A. Photolithography

Photolithography is a way to make patterns on a material. It works by shining light through a mask. This method is really important for making parts that are super accurate. These parts can be a few micrometers or even nanometers in size. You can find photolithography in making things, like microchips. Its also used for -electromechanical systems and tiny optical parts. These optical parts can even split light into colors. The materials used in photolithography include silicon. Glass and plastic are also used.

B. Nanoimprint Lithography (NIL)

Nanoimprint Lithography or Nanoimprint Lithography is a way to make small patterns. We are talking about patterns that're so small you need special tools to see them. Nanoimprint Lithography works by taking a mold with a design and pressing it into a soft material. People use Nanoimprint Lithography to make things like parts that help with light devices that deal with light and other small things and tiny electronic parts. The good thing about Nanoimprint Lithography is that it does not need light to work. Regular methods that use light to make small patterns have limits on how small they can make things. Nanoimprint Lithography does not have this problem so it can make small patterns, even smaller, than 10 nanometers.

C. Holographic Interference Lithography

Holographic Interference Lithography (HIL) is a technique for producing regular micro- and nano-patterns without using masks. The technique uses overlapping patterns produced by two or more synchronized laser beams to generate these regular micro and nano patterns. It can be used to produce optical gratings, photonic crystals, diffraction gratings, or surfaces containing patterns at the nanoscale level. HIL works on the principle of optical interference. When two or more coherent laser beams intersect, they create an interference pattern consisting of bright and dark fringes.

D. Laser Direct Writing

LDW, or Laser Direct Writing, allows for the creation of laser-created micro/nano patterns directly onto a substrate through the use of a laser beam instead of using traditional lithographic techniques such as using masks or interference patterns (like with traditional photolithography). The LDW process uses a computer-generated design to create the pattern by drawing it one spot at a time. LDW is particularly useful in the manufacture of micro electrical devices, optics, plastic (polymer) gratings, and MEMS (Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems) components.

6. COMPARISON: POLYMER VS SILICA GRATINGS

Parameter	Polymer Gratings	Silica Gratings
Material	Polymer (PMMA, SU-8, PDMS)	Silica / Glass
Mechanical Property	Flexible	Rigid
Young's Modulus	Low	High
Strain Sensitivity	High	Moderate
Temperature Sensitivity	High	Low
Optical Loss	Higher	Very Low
Fabrication Techniques	NIL, Photolithography, LDW	UV inscription, Phase mask

Applications	Biosensors, wearable sensors	Telecom, fiber networks
Cost	Low	Moderate–High

7. APPLICATIONS

A. Structural Health Monitoring (SHM)

SHM entails the continuous observation of the current state/condition and performance of these types of structures (buildings, bridges, dams, aircraft, pipelines), using a variety of sensors in conjunction with various data analysis techniques. This will allow for early detection of any type of structural damage, as well as any types and/or degrees of stress or deformation, so that maintenance costs can be minimized and safety maximized.

B. Wearable Biosensors

Wearable devices that measure blood flow, respiratory rate and temperature are used to monitor various biological processes by wearing them on your body. The wearable devices will measure very small amounts of the body's biological signals and provide a continuous and current check of your health status for purposes of diagnosis, tracking fitness and personalized health care.

C. Telecommunications

Sending information over great distances via electronic signals or light is the definition of telecommunications. Most types of communication today use optical fiber to transmit data (for example phone calls, video, and the internet) at high rates.

D. Compact Spectrometers

Small optical devices called compact spectrometers allow for an analysis of the spectrum of light by separating light into its different wavelengths. Compact spectrometers are often utilized for chemical analysis, environmental monitoring, biomedical sensing and in optical communications. A lot of new compact spectrometers use optical gratings (including polymer and fiber optic gratings), which act as ways of dispersing the light over a short distance in a compact device.

D. Smart Photonic Skins

Advanced, flexible materials known as smart photonic skins contain optical sensors and photonic structures that detect and respond to changes in their environment or when stimulated by physical contact. These systems are designed to replicate the function of human skin regarding sensing, and their development is being thoroughly studied across many fields including robotics, wearable electronics, health care monitoring, and artificial intelligence. Optical gratings and polymer-based sensors are particularly well suited to use in smart photonic skins due to their flexibility, lightweight, and very high sensitivity to change.

8. CHALLENGES

- Long-term aging
- UV degradation
- Limited thermal tolerance
- Optical loss due to scattering

9. CONCLUSION

Optical gratings made from polymers have developed as a flexible, rapidly expanding technology with good mechanical flexibility, relatively low cost to manufacture, and readily customizable optical properties that will make them useful in advanced photonic applications. The remaining problems of durability with respect to heat and other environmental conditions continue to impede the usability of polymer grating technology; however, the advancement in polymer chemistry and nano-manufacturing will enhance the capabilities of polymer optical gratings. The polymer optical gratings will possess a prominent role in enabling future development of flexible sensors, medical monitoring systems, integrated photonics devices.

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