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Localization of light: Beginning of a new optics

E. Jimenez-Villar^{*a,b}, M.C. S. Xavier^{c,d}, J.G.G.S. Ramos^d, N. U. Wetter^a, Valdeci Mestre^e, Weliton S. Martins^f, Gabriel F. Basso^g, Victor A. Ermakov^b, Francisco Chagas Marques^b, Gilberto F. de Sá^h

^aInstituto de Pesquisas Energéticas e Nucleares, CNEN_IPEN, Rua Prof. Lineu Prestes 2242–Cidade Universitária, São Paulo, SP, Brazil 05508-000; ^bDepartamento de Física aplicada, IFGW, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, SP, Brazil 13083-859; ^cDepartamento de Física, Universidade Estadual da Paraíba, Araruna, PB, Brazil 58233-000; ^dDepartamento de Física, Universidade Federal da Paraíba, Joao Pessoa, PB, Brazil 58051-970; ^eCCEA, Universidade Estadual da Paraíba, Patos, PB, Brazil 58706-560; ^fDepartamento de Física, Universidade Federal Rural de Pernambuco, Recife, PE, Brazil 52171-900; ^gDepartamento de Informatica, Universidade Federal da Paraíba, Joao Pessoa, PB, Brazil 58051-970; ^hDepartamento de Química Fundamental, Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Recife, PE, Brazil 50670-901

**Ernesto.Jimenez@uv.es*

ABSTRACT

In recent years, there has been a dramatic progress in the photonics field of disordered media, ranging from applications in solar collectors, photocatalyzers, random lasing, and other novel photonic devices, to investigations into fundamental topics, such as localization of light and other phenomena involving photon interactions. Anderson localization of light is an open researcher frontier, which has greatly attracted the attention of researchers in the past few decades. In this work, we study the transport of light in a strongly disordered optical medium composed by core-shell nanoparticles ($\text{TiO}_2@\text{Silica}$) suspended in ethanol solution. We demonstrate the crossover from a diffusive transport to a localization transition regime as $\text{TiO}_2@\text{Silica}$ nanoparticle concentration is increased. A striking phenomenon of enhanced absorption, mainly near the input border, arises at the localization transition, from which an increase of refractive index was inferred. An increase of the density of localized states and absorption near the input border is reported when the incidence angle is increased. The specular reflection, measured for the photons that enter the sample, is considerably lower than the effective internal reflection undergone by the coherently backscattered photons in the exact opposite direction, indicating a non-reciprocal propagation of light (parity-symmetry breaking). A theoretical simulation, performed through random-matrix theory, agrees satisfactorily with the experimental results, showing the generality of this approach to address transport phenomena.

Keywords: Anderson localization of light, photonic in disordered media, core-shell nanoparticle, enhanced absorption, non-reciprocation of light, random-matrix theory.

1. INTRODUCTION

There has been growing interest in disordered optical media in recent years, due to their potential applications in photovoltaics cell¹, random laser²⁻⁴, localization of light⁵, etc. Anderson localization is one of the most interesting phenomena in solid-state physics. Particularly, localization of light is an open research frontier which, besides being a fundamental topic, also could present significant applications. Considering that localization is a wave (interferential) phenomenon, Sajeev John and Anderson himself extended this idea to optics⁵⁻⁸. Optics seems an ideal framework to study localization and associated phenomena, due to the (seemingly) non-interacting nature of photons. In fact, various pioneering experiments that studied the transmission of electromagnetic waves through strongly disordered media have claimed the observation of Anderson localization of light⁹⁻¹¹. However, these works have been questioned¹²⁻¹⁵. The inelastic scattering processes (residual absorption or nonlinearity) can lead to a decrease in the photon coherence length, hampering the interference effects (localization). Indeed, according to the theoretical prediction of Sajeev John and our previous experimental results¹⁶, an enhanced absorption arises when the system approaches localization. Localization of light has become in very confuse topic. This may be because it has been frequently addressed as a conventional, exclusively interferential phenomenon in classical cavities, which is inappropriate. Localization of light is a special interferential phenomenon of electromagnetic waves in chaotic cavities, which must lead to a strong photon correlation⁸.

This statistical problem at the mobility edge in a 3D system was addressed for the first time by Altshuler et al. in strongly disordered electronic media¹⁷. An extended review about the localization phenomenon, published by Mirlin, can be found elsewhere¹⁸. In this work, we report several pieces of experimental evidence of localization of light in a colloidal suspension of TiO₂@Silica nanoparticles (NPs) in an ethanol solution. By using a Stöber method¹⁹, TiO₂ NPs were coated with a homogeneous silica shell of ~40 nm thickness. In order to eliminate the residues of the chemical synthesis and, consequently, to reduce residual absorption, subsequent dialysis and centrifugation processes were performed. The silica coating with thicknesses around or above 40 nm prevents the “optical” junction of the TiO₂ scattering surfaces (steric “optical” effect)²⁰, decreasing the near-field coupling that could hamper localization²¹. We called this property optical colloidal stability²⁰. Additionally, the silica shell provides a light-coupling enhancement with TiO₂ scattering cores²², inertness^{23,24}, and high dispersibility^{25–30}, which has enabled their use in numerous applications^{31–35}. A striking phenomenon of enhanced absorption is observed when the system approaches localization, from which an increase of the effective refractive index was proposed. This enhancement of absorption and refractive index was interpreted as that localized photons interact several times with the same particles, molecules or atoms within the localized states. The last phenomenon must be more pronounced near the input border, due to the increase of localization in the vicinity of the sample boundary for an internal reflection >0 at the input border as was theoretically predicted by Mirlin in disordered electronic media^{18,36}. The enhancement of the effective refractive index near the sample input border (n_{eff}) by localization (successive elastic polarization of valence electrons to virtual states) finds a parallel in the dynamic barrier proposed by Campagnano and Nazarov³⁷ in the border of a disordered electronic medium. This n_{eff} increase implies that an increase of the incidence angle would provoke a large increase of the internal reflection, which in turn, must force the photons path to be longer (near the input border). Consequently, the likelihood of interference (near the input border) should increase. This issue was addressed theoretically by Ramos and co-workers³⁸, who demonstrated that the presence of a finite barrier (internal reflection >0) at the border provokes an increase of the quantum interference in a disordered electronic medium (localization increase). In this work, measurements of absorption, absorption near the input border, photon cloud propagation as a function of NPs concentration and the incidence angle and coherent backscattering were performed in the TiO₂@Silica colloidal suspension. In parallel, by random-matrix theory (theoretical simulation), we determined the conductance as a function of the effective internal reflection felt by the coherently backscattered photons (previously localized photons), showing satisfactory agreement with the experimental results. Random-matrix theory has seen a revival of interest in past decades, which has been applied to a variety of physical phenomena^{39,40}. The discovery of a relation between universal properties of large random matrices and universal conductance fluctuations in disordered conductors has led to the development of a random-matrix theory of quantum transport^{17,41}. In atomic physics, Wigner showed that the properties of an atomic core depend on the sample in a seemingly random way. Despite the randomness, Wigner perceived that in generic quantum systems, statistic properties as the mean and variance are universal, i.e. these quantities depend on fundamental symmetries. In turn, Wigner inferred that despite the randomness of the Hamiltonians H , these obey symmetry relations linked to the time-reversal and spin rotation symmetries. The open quantum systems can be described by scattering matrices S that are related to the Hamiltonian in the scattering region through the Mahaux-Weidenmuller formula, equation (1).

$$S = 2\pi i W(E - H - i\pi W^\dagger W)^{-1} W^\dagger \quad (1)$$

The S matrix links input and output channels, so it has a dimension equal to the total number of channels. The H matrix has a dimension equal to the number of resonances in the scattering region. The number of resonances is directly related to the size of the scattering region. The W matrix links open channels to the resonances. Thus, the W matrix reveals the coupling or the tunneling rates between the two different regions in the coordinate space. In turn, the scattering matrix can be written in terms of sub-blocks of transmission t and reflection r . Notice that, the three fundamental symmetries, incorporated in the Hamiltonian, that identify (i) systems with time-reversal (Gaussian orthogonal ensemble), (ii) systems without time-reversal (Gaussian unitary ensemble) and (iii) systems without spin-rotation (Gaussian symplectic ensemble) are also directly identified in the scattering matrix. The transport properties can be obtained through the transmission block t from S matrix, such that the conductance is written as:

$$g = \text{tr}(tt^\dagger) \quad (2)$$

In this way, the conductance belongs to one of the three ensembles of Wigner-Dyson. In this paper, we used an ensemble with several H realizations, showing that the theoretical simulation agrees very well with the experimental results, which reveals that the disordered optical systems are also universals.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Samples preparation: TiO_2 @Silica NPs, synthesized by an improved Stöber method^{16,19}, were dispersed in ethanol solution at [NPs] of 14, 47, 70, 140 and 280×10^{10} NPs ml^{-1} .

Absorption experiment: For each [NPs], the macroscopic absorption length (l_{MA}) was determined from the exponential decay of the transmitted intensity ($I_{\text{TC}}(d) \propto e^{-d/l_{\text{MA}}}$) for large d using a very small solid detection angle (pulsed Nd:Yag laser, 532 nm)¹⁶.

Propagation experiment: For [14×10^{10} NPs ml^{-1}] (diffusive regime) and [140×10^{10} NPs ml^{-1}] (localization), the intensity profile $I(x,y)$ of a Gaussian probe beam (He-Ne laser) was measured as a function of the incidence angle after propagating a distance $d \approx 2.3$ mm through the scattering medium. A CCD camera collected the image of the profile at the sample output face. The diameter of the input probe beam is < 100 μm full-width at half-maximum (FWHM), which correspond to approximately 3×10^3 channels or terminals.

Backscattering experiment: For the measurement of coherent backscattering, the sample is illuminated through a beam splitter that reflects 50% of the laser intensity and with a perpendicular polarization to the incidence plane. The light backscattered is collimated by a lens L_3 (25 mm focal length) and a CCD collects it^{16,42}.

Theoretical simulation: We perform a theoretical simulation with an ensemble of $N = 5 \times 10^5$ Hamiltonians. The statistical properties of the conductance g naturally arise with an error of order to N^{-1} . In order to simulate the experimental conditions (monochromatic He-Ne laser), we considered a single energy per terminal. The g conductance is computed as a function of the effective internal reflection felt by the coherently backscattered photons (backscattering terminal). We simulate both the universal orthogonal ensemble (with time-reversal symmetry) and the unitary ensemble (without time-reversal symmetry). It is known that, systems without time reversal symmetry do not lead to quantum interference, such that the only significant contribution are the classical paths, also known as difusons. Instead, the orthogonal ensembles preserve the time-reversal symmetry, and a perturbative expansion of conductance (ergodic regime) leads to both terms: the direct term (difusons) and the term associated to the quantum interference (localized states), also known as cooperons. We develop a strategy to compute separately the interference terms, which consists in the subtraction of the unitary term to the conductance value calculated with the orthogonal ensemble. The mean over each ensemble were computationally calculated.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Absorption measurement

In order to determine the macroscopic absorption length (l_{MA}), the transmitted intensity ($I_{\text{TC}}(d; \theta)$) was measured as a function of slab thickness for large d using a very small solid detection angle. l_{MA} can be determined from the inverse slope (log scale) of exponential decay ($e^{-d/l_{\text{MA}}}$), where l_{MA} can be expressed as $l_{\text{MA}} \propto (l_{\text{T}} \times l_{\text{in}})^{1/2}$ and, l_{T} and l_{in} are the transport and inelastic mean free path, respectively⁴³.

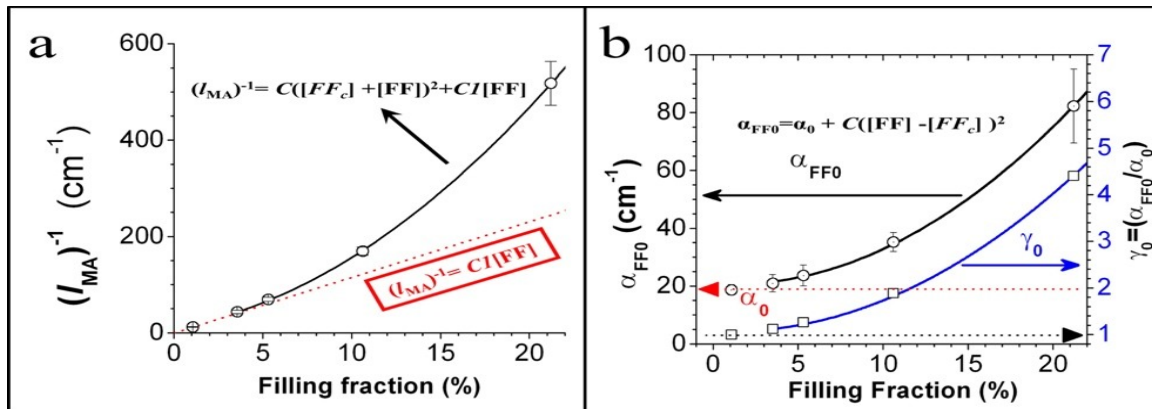


Figure 1. Absorption measurement: a) Inverse of the macroscopic absorption length (l_{MA})⁻¹ as a function of the filling fraction. The red dotted line represents the expected behavior in the diffusive regime ($C1[FF]$). The black solid line represents the fit with the function $C([FF] - [FF_c])^2 + C1[FF]$. b) Anomalous increase of: α_{FF0} (left) and the γ_0 (right) as [FF] is increased, the red dotted line represents the α_0 value. Error bars correspond to fitting errors.

Figure 1a shows $(l_{MA})^{-1}$ values as a function of filling fraction, [FF]. As can be observed, $(l_{MA})^{-1}$ increases more quickly than the expected linear increase, which represents an anomalous behavior. Notice that if l_T and l_{in} would be inversely proportional to [Nps] or [FF], a $(l_{MA})^{-1} \propto [FF]$ dependence (red dotted line) must be expected. The experimental points have been fitted (black solid line) with the following function: $(l_{MA})^{-1} = C([FF] + [FF_c])^2 + C1[FF]$, where C , $C1$ are constants and $[FF_c]$ can be interpreted as the critical filling fraction for which starts the l_{MA} anomalous behavior. The linear part ($C1[FF]$) corresponds to the expected linear increase at the diffusive regime. The quadratic term would represent the enhanced absorption contribution by localization effect. In order to study in depth this anomalous absorption behavior, the microscopic absorption length near the input border (l_{in0}) was determined by the relation $l_{MA} = (l_{T0} \times l_{in0})^{1/2}$ equation, where l_{T0} and l_{in0} are the transport and inelastic mean free path near the input border, respectively. l_{T0} values were determined experimentally in our previous work¹⁶. $(l_{in0})^{-1}$ per filling fraction (α_{FF0}) is plotted (Fig. 1b, left) as a function of the filling fraction ([FF]). For each [FF], the α_{FF0} values (absorption coefficient) are determined from $\alpha_{FF0} = (l_{in0} \times [FF])^{-1}$. Contrary to expectations, α_{FF0} is not constant; it increases quickly in [FF] as a function $\alpha_{FF0} = \alpha_0 + C([FF] - [FF_0])^2$, where C is a constant, and α_0 and $[FF_0]$ are α_{FF0} at the limit of the diffusive regime and the critical filling fraction which starts the α_{FF0} anomalous increase, respectively. This anomalous increase of the absorption coefficient near the input border for $[NPs] \geq [47 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ represents a very interesting result, which could be strong evidence for the existence of the photon mobility edge^{5,8}. Fig. 1b (right) shows the enhanced absorption factor near the input border (γ_0) determined by the ratio between effective and classical absorption ($\gamma_0 = \alpha_{FF0}/\alpha_0$). This γ_0 parameter could be interpreted such that photons travel an average of γ_0 times around a closed loop path near the input border, i.e. each photon would interact at an average of γ_0 times with the same particles, atoms or molecules within the closed loop paths. This idea could be extrapolated to the elastic polarization of valence electrons to virtual states, which would imply an increase also in the effective refractive index near the input border (n_{eff0}).

3.2 Propagation experiment

For $[14 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (diffusive regime) and $[140 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (localization), the intensity structure of a Gaussian probe beam (He-Ne laser) was measured as a function of the incidence angle (0° , 30° , 60° , 70°) after propagating a distance $d \approx 2.3$ mm through the scattering medium. Figure 2a, b and c show the normalized intensity profiles at the sample output face for the incidence angle of 0° , 60° and 70° . As can be observed, the intensity profiles are not Gaussian, these could be fitted with a $e^{-2(|r|/\sigma)^{1+\nu}}$ function (red solid line), where r is the radial distance of the beam center and $0 < \nu < 1$. When the incidence angle is increased, the intensity (profile) decreases more quickly for large r and, for r near zero (cusp) the intensity increases adopting an acute form (discontinuous derivative), i.e. the intensity profile adopts a triangular shape. This effect is notable as the incidence angles is increased and could be caused by an increase of absorption near the input border, which in turn, would be originated by an increase of the density of superficial localized states. Notice that, the intensity for large r must represent those photons with longer paths, which would be those photons previously localized near the input border since localization must increase near the input border^{18,36}. The integrated intensity profiles ($I(\theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} I(x, y) dx dy$) ($I(\theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} I(x, y) dx dy$) were determined for each incidence angle θ . In figure 2d, $\frac{I(0^\circ)}{I(\theta)}$ ratio, which would represent the relative conductance $G(\infty; \theta)$ for a negligible absorption, are plotted as a function of the incidence angle for $[14 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (diffusive regime) and $[140 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (localization). For $[140 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$, $I(\theta)$ decreases 1.05, 1.17 and 1.28 times with regard $I(0^\circ)$ for incidence angles of 30° , 60° and 70° , respectively. However, for $[14 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (diffusive regime), $I(\theta)$ is insensitive to the incidence angle. For each incidence angle, the confinement of the beam at the output plane is quantified by the inverse participation ratio (equation 3), which has units of inverse area, and an effective width $\omega_{eff} = (P)^{-1/2}$.

$$P \equiv \left[\int I(x, y)^2 dx dy \right] / \left[\int I(x, y) dx dy \right]^2 = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[\int I(r)^2 dr \right] / \left[\int I(r) dr \right]^2 \quad (3)$$

Figure 2e (left) shows ω_{eff} as a function of the incidence angle for $[140 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (localization), revealing an ω_{eff} decrease as the incidence angle is increased above 30° . Figure 2e (right) shows the relative effective width with regard to the normal incidence, $\left(\frac{\omega_{eff}(0^\circ)}{\omega_{eff}(\theta)} \right)$ (normalized width). For 30° , ω_{eff} decreases less than 1%, which is within the measurement error. However, a significant ω_{eff} decrease is observed for 60° and 70° . This ω_{eff} decrease is associated to the quicker decay of the intensity profile at large r when the incidence angle is increased. For a negligible absorption, ω_{eff} represents the mean conductance averaged by depth (from 0 up to 2.3 mm). Therefore, if $\frac{\omega_{eff}(0^\circ)}{\omega_{eff}(30^\circ)} \approx 1$, then for 30° ,

the asymptotic value of relative conductance for large $depth \rightarrow \infty$, $G(\infty; 30^\circ)$, should be equal to the inverse of the relative conductance at $depth=0$, $(G(0; 30^\circ))^{-1}$. Thus, let us introduce the following conjecture: For an incidence angle θ , the asymptotic value of relative conductance without absorption for large $depth$, $G_{-abs}(\infty; \theta)$, should correspond with the localization increase at $depth=0$, $(G_{-abs}(0; \theta))^{-1}$, i.e. $G_{-abs}(\infty; \theta) = (G_{-abs}(0; \theta))^{-1}$. This would imply that, for a negligible absorption, the conductance averaged by depth, ω_{eff} , should not change with incidence angle, i.e. a ω_{eff} decrease with the incidence angle would be directly related to an increase of absorption near the input border. This can be interpreted as that, for a negligible absorption, an increase of the density of superficial localized states when the incidence angle increases would induce a similar decrease of the density of localized states for large $depth$. For $[14 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (diffusive regime), ω_{eff} is insensitive to the incidence angle. Therefore, the values of relative conductance, $G(\infty; \theta)$, extracted from this experiment, must be affected by absorption for 60° and 70° (ω_{eff} decrease), which yield inaccurate values. In order to estimate the relative conductance without absorption effects, we introduce another strategy. The ratio of the integrated intensity profile, determined from $r = -\omega_{eff}/2$ up to $\omega_{eff}/2$, $\left(\frac{I_{Cent}(0^\circ)}{I_{Cent}(\theta)}\right)$, where $I_{Cent}(\theta) = \int_{-\omega_{eff}/2}^{+\omega_{eff}/2} I(x, y) dx dy$, is scaled by the normalized width $\left(\frac{\omega_{eff}(0^\circ)}{\omega_{eff}(\theta)}\right)$. Thereby, the relative conductance without absorption, $G_{-abs}(\infty; \theta)$, was estimated by the expression $G_{-abs}(\infty; \theta) \approx \frac{I_{Cent}(0^\circ)}{I_{Cent}(\theta)} \times \frac{\omega_{eff}(0^\circ)}{\omega_{eff}(\theta)}$.

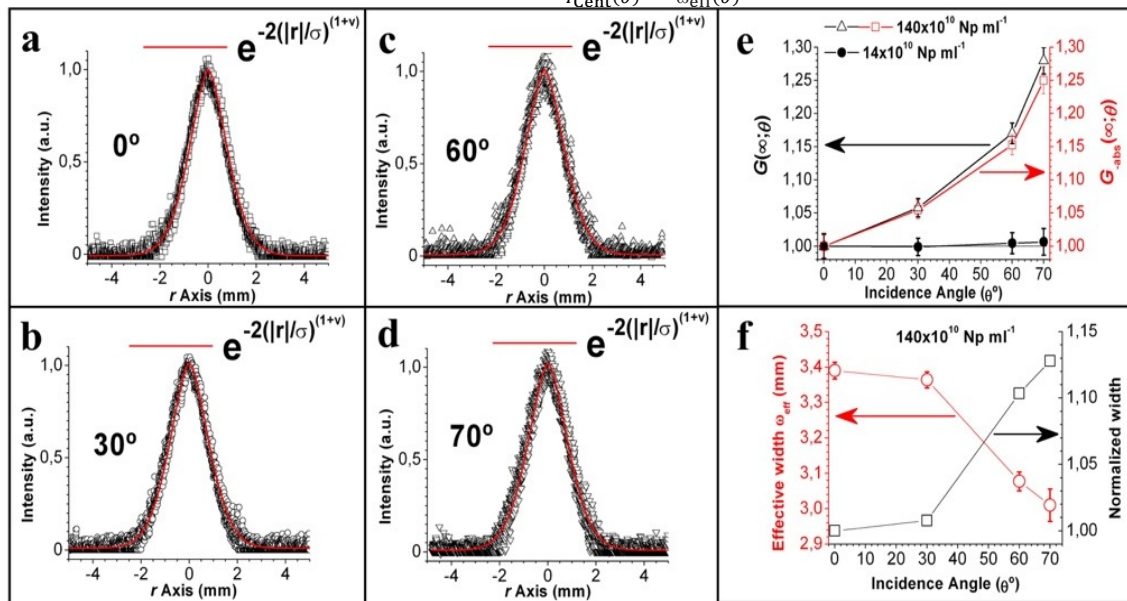


Figure 2. Normalized intensity profiles for incidence angles of: a) 0° , b) 30° , c) 60° and d) 70° . The intensity profiles are fitted to $e^{-2(|r|/\sigma)^{1+\nu}}$ (red solid lines), where $0 < \nu < 1$. e) For [NPs] of $[140 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (localization), increase of $G(\infty; \theta)$ (left, black triangles) and $G_{-abs}(\infty; \theta)$ (right, red square) as angle of incidence increases, and for $[14 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (diffusive regime), $G(\infty; \theta)$ (left, black dots) remain constant as the incidence angle is increased. f) For $[140 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$, ω_{eff} decrease (left, red circles) and the increase normalized width $\left(\frac{\omega_{eff}(0^\circ)}{\omega_{eff}(\theta)}\right)$ (right, black squares) as the incidence angle is increased.

In the above experiments, we show an increase of relative conductance and infer an increase of localization near the input border as the incidence angle is increased. This fact was associated to an increase of the density of localized states near the input border, which was attributed to a large increase of the internal reflection (input border) felt by the coherently backscattered photons (previously localized). In turn, this latter is a consequence of the enhancement of the effective refractive index near the input border. Therefore, the determination of this internal reflection as a function of the incidence angle is an imperative.

3.3 Backscattering experiment

In order to determine experimentally the effective internal reflection felt by the coherently backscattered photons (IR), the intensity of backscattering cone was measured as a function of the incidence angle. Figure 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d show the

backscattering cone, after subtraction of background intensity, for incidence angles of 0° (0 mrad), 30° (524 mrad), 60° (1047 mrad) and 70° (1222 mrad), respectively. The specular reflection measured at the interface silica-sample for the photons that enter the sample is $<1\%$ for all incidence angles. From the intensity of the backscattering cone, we extracted the effective internal reflection felt by the coherently backscattered photons (previously localized) at the interface sample-silica (photons coming out the sample). Notice that the backscattering cone must represent those photons previously localized. Figure 3e shows (left-red) the intensity of backscattering cone ($I_{CBC}(\theta)$) and (black-right) IR (%) as a function of the incidence angle. We calculated IR for each incidence angle, $IR(\theta)$, by the expression $IR(\theta) = 1 - \frac{I_{CBC}(\theta)}{I_{CBC}^*}$, where $I_{CBC}(\theta)$ and I_{CBC}^* are the intensity of backscattering cone measured for each incidence angle θ and the ideal intensity for null internal reflection, respectively. The internal reflection for the coherently backscattered photons at normal incidence ($IR(0^\circ) \approx 3\%$) was determined considering an effective refractive index for *depth* near zero of ~ 2 ¹⁶. From $IR(0^\circ) \approx 3\%$, we can determine I_{CBC}^* and, consequently, $IR(\theta)$ for the other incidence angles. $IR(\theta)$ values, determined for θ of 0° , 30° , 60° and 70° are $\sim 3\%$, $\sim 20\%$, $\sim 45\%$ and $\sim 65\%$, respectively, which are considerably higher than the specular reflection measured for the photons that enter the sample ($<1\%$) in the exact opposite direction. This indicates a non-reciprocal propagation of light, i.e. mirror-symmetry (parity symmetry) breaking. Notice that this large increase in the internal reflection undergone by the photons leaving the sample (coherently backscattered) would only be possible if the effective refractive index is largely enhanced. For a classical refractive index (1.53), the internal reflection for the photons leaving the sample (sample-silica interface) would be $<1\%$ for both polarizations and all incidence angles. A few pioneering theoretical and experimental studies have addressed the mirror-symmetry breaking in photonic crystal cavities⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶, however, no experimental evidence has been reported to date in a three-dimensional (3D) disordered optical medium. This phenomenon can be understood as that the photons that enter the sample feel a classical refractive index, but once they are localized; these photons feel an enhanced refractive index due to the successive elastic polarization of valence electrons to virtual states within the localized states.

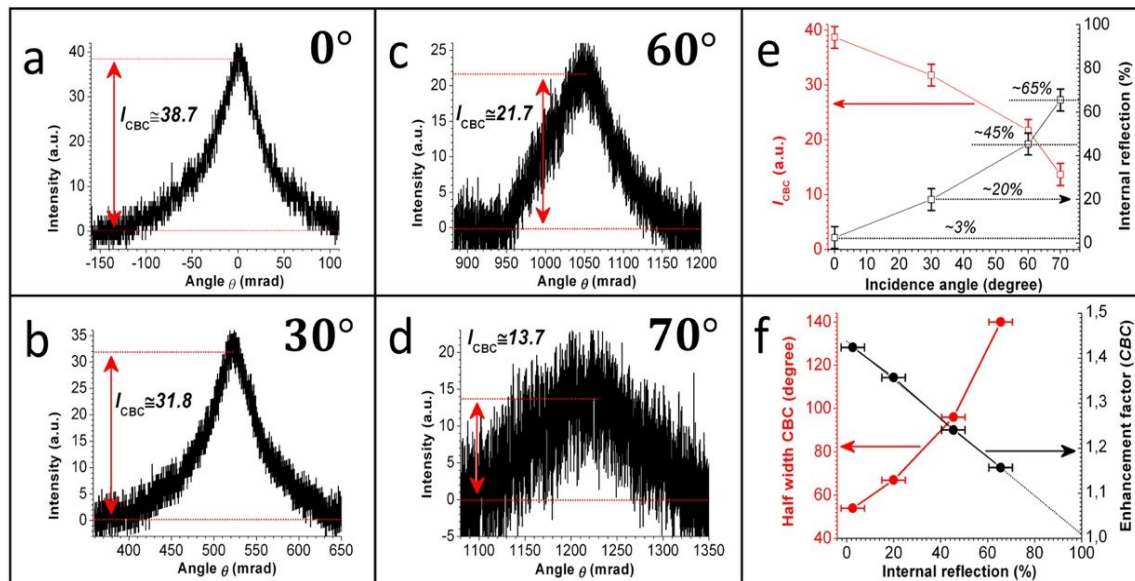


Figure 3. Coherent backscattering cones for incidence angles of: a) 0° , b) 30° , c) 60° and d) 70° . e) (left-red) I_{CBC} and (right-black) IR (%) as a function of the incidence angle. f) (left-red) half width of backscattering cone and (right-black) the enhancement factor of backscattering cone as a function of IR (%). The black dotted line represents a linear fitting with the experimental points. Error bars correspond to the standard deviation of the intensity of the backscattering cone (I_{CBC}) and the calculated IR (%).

Figure 3f shows (left-red) the half width and (black-right) enhancement factor of backscattering cone as a function of the incidence angle. The width of backscattering cone increases monotonically as the incidence angle is increased, which is different to what is expected for a classical diffusive medium where I_T is insensitive to the incidence angle. This latter represents a I_T decrease as IR increases, which indicates an anomalous transport of light. The values of enhancement factor are considerably lower than the expected for a linearly polarized probe beam (~ 1.8). Additionally, the enhancement factor tends to be 1 for $IR \rightarrow 100\%$, which was to be expected. This effect can be explained by: i) the

effective refractive index felt by the coherently backscattered photons (previously localized) is considerably higher than that felt by the incoherently backscattered photons (non-localized photons), which leads to a higher internal reflection for the coherently backscattered photons; ii) the percentage of coherently backscattered photons with orthogonal polarization with regard to the original polarization could increase as the incidence angle is increased. We do not have a clear interpretation for this possible change of polarization. This could be explained by an anomalous nonlinear increase of refractive index, due to the intensity increasing (energy increase) within the localized states during the residence time of localized photons⁴⁷. The latter would give rise to a phase shift that continuously increases during the photon residence time (τ_{co}). This phase accumulation can lead to interference breaking, emitting photons away from the localized state. This nonlinear increase of the refractive index in a localized state (closed loop path) would provoke an elliptic polarization, much like the Pockels effect. A similar nonlinear phenomenon was theoretically addressed by Buttiker and Moskalets (disordered electronic media)⁴⁸, who proposed that when the energy of the localized state changes, the localized state can emit non-equilibrium electrons and holes propagating away from the localized state within the edge state which acts similar to a waveguide. The increase of localization with incidence angle near the input border could be also interpreted as that photons from superficial localized states that would be emitted by nonlinear effects (non-equilibrium)^{47,48} can be again trapped in another superficial localized state, due to the increase of internal reflection. This latter implies in that the density and residence time (Q factor) of superficial localized states would increase as internal reflection (incidence angle) increases, which can be inferred from the theoretical predictions of Mirlin^{36,18} and Ramos and co-workers³⁸ in disordered electronic media. Notice that an increase of the internal reflection with the incidence angle would be remarkable, mainly for the coherently backscattered photons (previously localized), due to the enhanced refractive index that these photons would feel. For the incoherently backscattered photons, this effect would be considerably lower, since such photons would feel a classical refractive index.

3.4 Theoretical simulation

We consider the geometry called a “quantum dot” with three point contacts that connect it to three photon reservoirs: first (N1), input terminal; second (N2), transmission terminal and third (N3), backscattering terminal. In order to simulate the size of the scattering region, we use a number of resonances, which is proportional to this size. We consider that the reflection at the input (IR_1) and transmission (IR_2) point contacts are equal zero ($IR_1=IR_2=0$), i.e. there is no appreciable reflection in the input and output interface. We supposed two different effective internal reflection at the backscattering terminal (N3); an effective internal reflection for the coherently backscattered photons (previously localized photons), IR_{3L} , and another internal reflection for the incoherently backscattered photons (non-localized photons), IR_{3D} . For the incoherently backscattered photons, the internal reflection at the interface sample-silica can be neglected ($IR_{3D}\approx 0$), due to the low contrast between refractive indexes (1.53-1.46). For each effective internal reflection IR_{3L} (backscattering terminal), we computed the conductance from N1 to N2 ($\langle g \rangle_{1-2}(IR_{3L})$) as a function of the number of resonances through the equation (4). To this end, we have taken into account the presence (Gaussian orthogonal ensemble (GOE)) or absence (Gaussian unitary ensemble (GUE)) of time-reversal symmetry (TRS).

$$\langle g \rangle_{1-2}(IR_{3L}) = \langle g \rangle_{\text{GOE}}(IR_{3L}) - \langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3L}) + \langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3D} = 0) \quad (4)$$

The terms $\langle g \rangle_{\text{GOE}}(IR_{3L})$, $\langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3L})$ and $\langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3D} = 0)$ represent the conductance from N1 to N2 taking into account: the presence of TRS (IR_{3L}), absence of TRS (IR_{3L}) and absence of TRS with $IR_{3D}=0$, respectively. The $\langle \cdot \rangle$ symbol denotes the mean in the universal ensembles. The first part of equation (4) ($\langle g \rangle_{\text{GOE}}(IR_{3L}) - \langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3L})$) represents the term associated to interference for an effective internal reflection IR_{3L} . Thereby, $\langle g \rangle_{1-2}(IR_{3L})$ is calculated by addition of the unitary term $\langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3D} = 1)$, computed considering an effective internal reflection in N3 equal zero, plus the interferential term, computed by the $\langle g \rangle_{\text{GOE}}(IR_{3L}) - \langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3L})$ expression considering an effective internal reflection IR_{3L} . In short, we have assumed that the coherently backscattered photons (previously localized) feel an effective internal reflection equal to IR_{3L} , while the incoherently backscattered photons (non-localized) feel an effective Internal reflection $IR_{3D}=0$. In order to compute the conductance at normal incidence, we considered $IR_{3L}=3\%$. Therefore, the asymptotic values (large number of resonances) of relative conductance for each effective internal reflection IR_{3L} ($G_{IR_R}(\infty; IR_{3L})$) can be calculated by the equation (5), considering an internal reflection of reference (IR_R) at normal incidence of $IR_R=3\%$.

$$G_{IR_R=3\%}(\infty; IR_{3L}) = \frac{\langle g \rangle_{\text{GOE}}(IR_R = 3\%) - \langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_R = 3\%) + \langle g \rangle_{\text{GOE}}(IR_{3D} = 0)}{\langle g \rangle_{\text{GOE}}(IR_{3L}) - \langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3L}) + \langle g \rangle_{\text{GUE}}(IR_{3D} = 0)} \quad (5)$$

The $\langle g \rangle$ notation represents the asymptotic values of conductance computed for a great number of resonances. Figure 4 shows $G_{IR_R=3\%}(\infty; IR_{3L})$, computed by theoretical simulation (red dots) and, $G(\infty; \theta)$ (triangles) and $G_{\text{abs}}(\infty; \theta)$ (open

squares), determined experimentally, as a function of the effective internal reflection IR_{3L} (backscattering terminal). As can be observed, $G(\infty; \theta)$ values for 60° and 70° are lightly higher than $G_{IR_R=3\%}(\infty; IR_{3L})$ values computed by theoretical simulation. This latter can be because the absorption increases appreciably for the incidence angle of 60° and 70° , which provokes an additional decrease of transmitted intensity. However, the theoretical simulation agrees very well with $G_{abs}(\infty; \theta)$ values determined also experimentally but without the absorption effect, which shows the generality of this approach (random-matrix theory) to address transport phenomena indicating that it does not depend on the sample size or degree of disorder. Additionally, we can infer that the conductance dependence with the incidence angle can be described completely through the transport near the input surface (ergodic regime). The latter could be interpreted such that, the dependence of transport of light with the incidence angle must be determined by those superficial localized states⁴⁹, which was previously inferred from the experimental measurements. We must highlight that the number of channels or terminals involved in the propagation experiment (3×10^3) is much higher than one considered in the theoretical simulation. Clearly, an increase of the number of terminals must lead to interferences between the terminals, which would affect the conductance value. However, the asymptotic conductance between input and transmission terminals must be scaled by a factor linked to the number of terminals. This factor is canceled mathematically in the calculus of relative conductance. Thereby, the relative conductance must be insensitive to the number of terminals. The relationship between the asymptotic conductance and the number of terminals is beyond the paper scope, which could be a subject for future research. We must clarify that “channel” is a notation commonly used in optics, which would be equivalent to terminals (notation that we have used in the theoretical simulation).

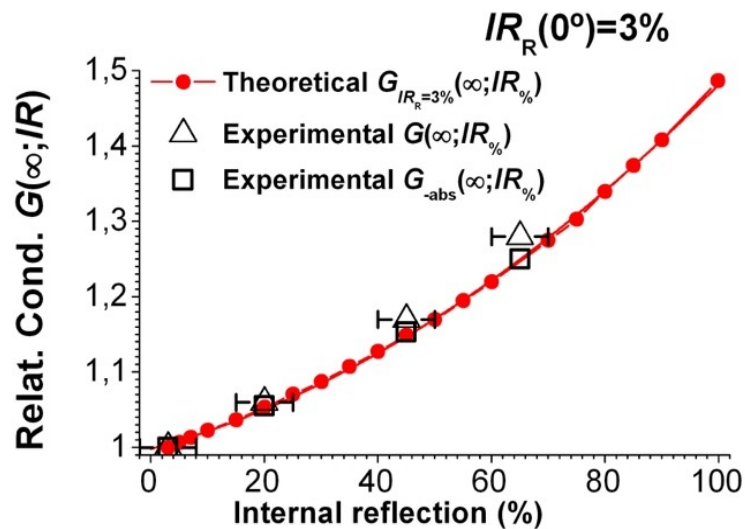


Figure 4. Theoretical and experimental asymptotic values of relative conductance: $G_{IR_R=3\%}(\infty; IR_{3L})$, computed by theoretical simulation (red dots), $G(\infty; IR_{\%})$, determined by $\frac{I(0^\circ)}{I(\theta)}$ ratio (black triangles), and $G_{abs}(\infty; IR_{\%})$ without absorption effect, determined by $\frac{I_{Cent}(0^\circ)}{I_{Cent}(\theta)} \times \frac{\omega_{eff}(0^\circ)}{\omega_{eff}(\theta)}$ expression (black squares), as a function of the effective internal reflection felt by the coherently backscattered photons (internal reflection of reference $IR_R=3\%$). Error bars represent the error in determining the effective internal reflection from figure 3e.

4. CONCLUSION

Core-shell $TiO_2@Silica$ nanoparticles allowed us to obtain a liquid suspension with a significantly high scattering strength. A striking phenomenon of enhanced absorption is observed at $[NPs] \geq 47 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}$, which is strong evidence of approaching localization. A Gaussian probe beam that is propagated through the sample at $[140 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ showed a $e^{-2(|r|/\sigma)^{1+\nu}}$ ($0 < \nu < 1$) intensity profile at the sample output, instead of a Gaussian profile. The integrated intensity of the intensity profile shown a decrease as the incidence angle is increased. Additionally, a decrease of the effective width (intensity profile) is observed for angles of incidence of 60° and 70° . However, for $[14 \times 10^{10} \text{ NPs ml}^{-1}]$ (diffusive regimen), the photon cloud shown a Gaussian profile, whose integrated intensity and effective width are insensitive to the incidence angle. From the experimental results, we inferred that an increase of the internal reflection

(incidence angle) must provoke an increase of the density and residence time (Q factor) of superficial localized states, which is reflected in an increase of localization and absorption near the input border. The specular reflection at the interface silica-sample, measured for the photons that enter the sample, is considerably lower than the effective internal reflection determined for the coherently backscattered photons in the exact opposite direction, which indicates a breaking of the mirror-symmetry (parity symmetry). The relative conductance was computed by random-matrix theory (theoretical simulation) as a function of the effective internal reflection felt by the coherently backscattered photon, revealing a conductance decrease as the effective internal reflection decreases. Theoretical simulation agrees very well with the experimental results, which indicates the generality of random-matrix theory to address the transport phenomena.

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