Wave Optics

اپتیک رشته فیزیک

ابتیک ۲ رشته فیزیک مهندسی

Introduction to Optics

FRANK L. PEDROTTI, S.J.

Marquette University Milwaukee, Wisconsin Vatican Radio, Rome

LENO S. PEDROTTI

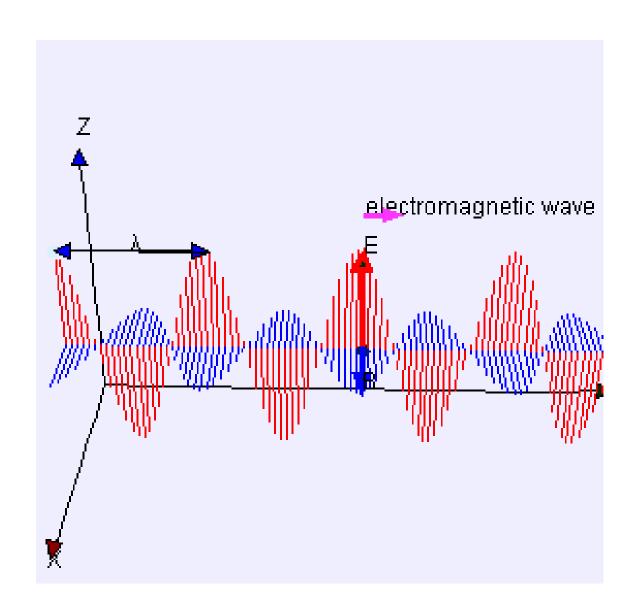
Center for Occupational Research and Development Waco, Texas Emeritus Professor of Physics Air Force Institute of Technology Dayton, Ohio

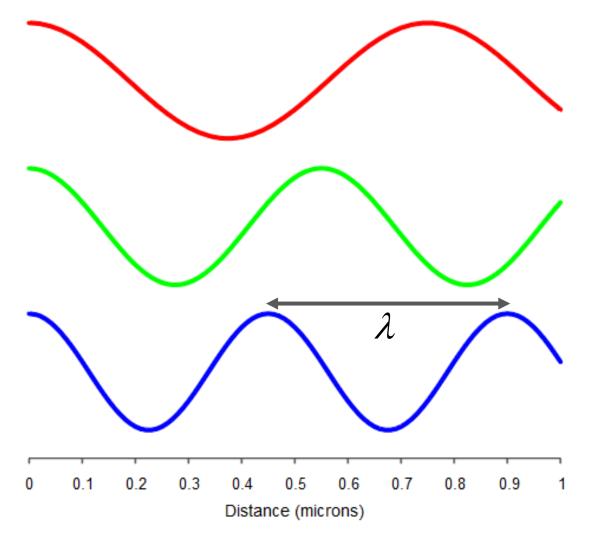
INTRODUCTION TO MODERN OPTICS

by Grant R. Fowles

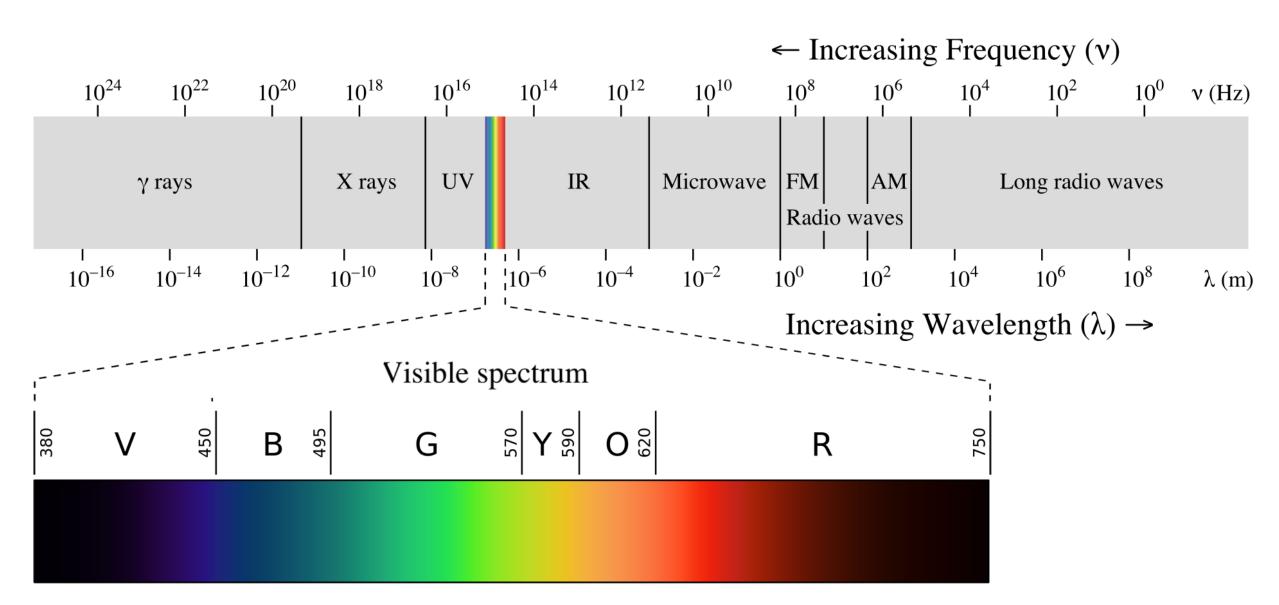
Professor of Physics University of Utah

Wave optics اپتیک موجی





Electromagnetic spectrum with visible light highlighted

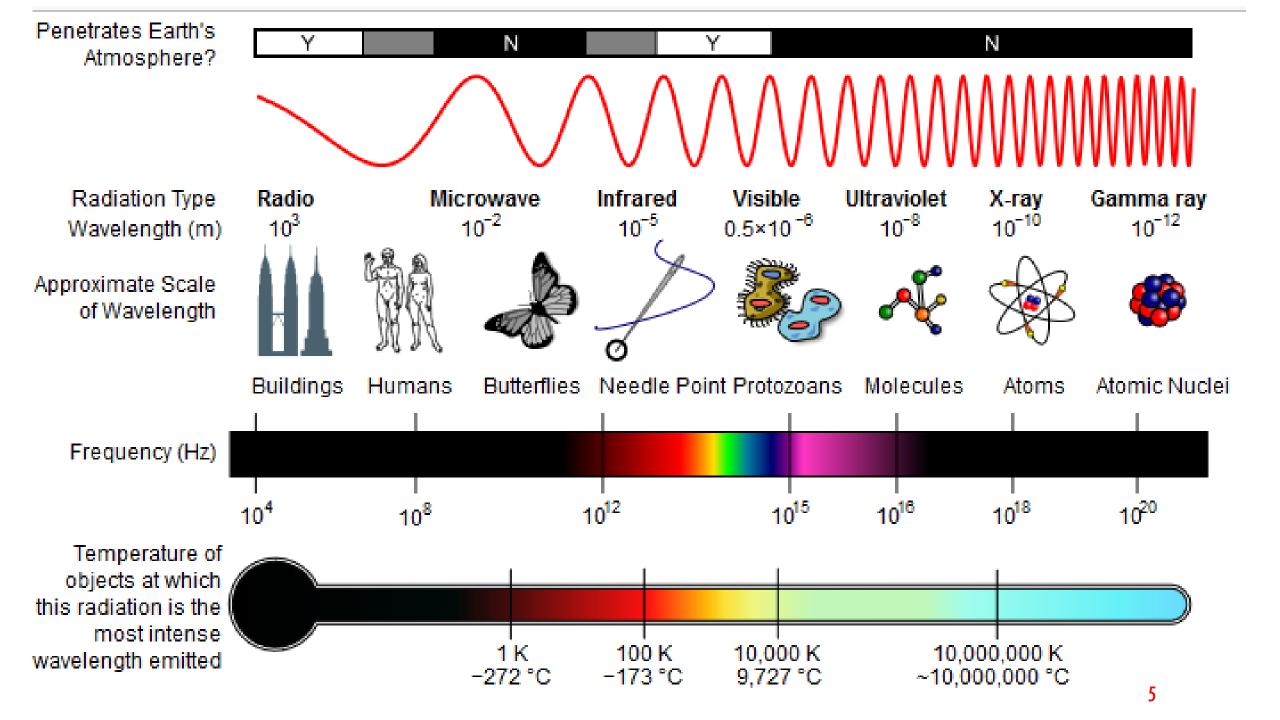


محاسبه انرژی فوتون Photon Energy

Photon Energy:
$$E = hv = h\frac{c}{\lambda} = \hbar\omega$$

Blue:
$$E = h \frac{c}{\lambda} = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \frac{3 \times 10^8}{400 \times 10^{-9}} = 4.97 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} = 4.97 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \times \left(\frac{1}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}} \frac{\text{eV}}{\text{J}}\right) = 3.1 \text{ eV}$$

انرژي فوتونهاي ليزر كربن دي اكسيد با طول موج ۱۰.۶ ميكرون و اشعه ايكس با طول موج ۴ آنگسترم را حساب كنىد.



CLASS	FREQUENCY	WAVELENGTH	ENERGY	$\gamma = Gamma \ rays$
V	300 EHz	1 pm	1.24 MeV	HX = Hard X - rays
γ _	30 EHz	10 pm	124 keV	SX = Soft X-Rays
HX _	3 EHz	100 pm	12.4 keV	EUV = Extreme-ultraviolet
sx -	300 PHz	1 nm	1.24 keV	NUV = Near-ultraviolet
EUV —	30 PHz	10 nm	124 eV	Visible light (colored bands)
NUV-	3 PHz	100 nm	12.4 eV	NIR = Near-infrared
NIR	300 THz	1 µm	1.24 eV	MIR = Mid-infrared
MIR -	30 THz	10 µm	124 meV	FIR = Far-infrared
FIR	3 THz	100 μm	12.4 meV	EHF = Extremely high frequency (microwave
EHF	300 GHz	1 mm	1.24 meV	SHF = Super-high frequency (microwaves)
SHF	30 GHz	1 cm	124 µeV	UHF = <u>Ultrahigh frequency</u> (radio waves)
UHF _	3 GHz	1 dm	12.4 µeV	VHF = Very high frequency (radio)
VHF _	300 MHz	1 m	1.24 µeV	HF = High frequency (radio)
HF MF	30 MHz 3 MHz	10 m 100 m	124 neV 12.4 neV	MF = Medium frequency (radio)
	300 kHz	1 km	1.24 neV	$LF = \frac{\text{Incultive frequency}}{\text{Low frequency (radio)}}$
LF _	300 kHz	10 km	1.24 neV	VLF = Very low frequency (radio)
VLF _	3 hH2	100 km	12.4 peV	$VF = \frac{\text{Voice frequency}}{\text{Voice frequency}}$
VF/ULF	300 Hz	1 Mm	1.24 peV	ULF = <u>Voice frequency</u> (radio)
SLF _	30 Hz	10 Mm	124 feV	SLF = Super-low frequency (radio)
ELF	3 Hz	100 Mm	12.4 feV	ELF = Extremely low frequency(radio)

اپتیک موجی Wave optics

 $y = f(x \pm vt)$ the general form of a traveling wave

$$y
ightharpoonup y
ightharpoonup y
ightharpoonup y
ightharpoonup y = A sin (x - vt) periodic wave$$

For example: $y = A(x + vt)^2$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \frac{\partial t}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{\nu} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$$

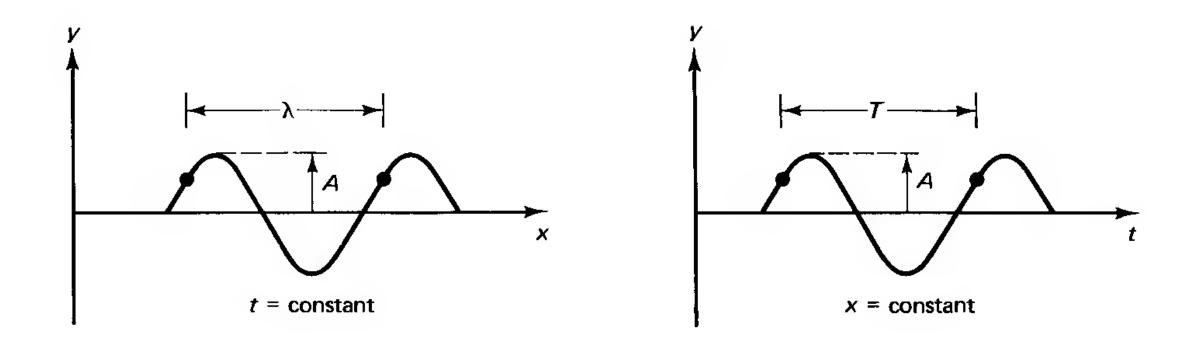
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{\upsilon} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \right) = \frac{1}{\upsilon} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \right) \frac{\partial t}{\partial x}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} \quad Wave \quad Equation$$

 $y = e^{(x-vt)}$

$$y = A \sin_{\cos}[k(x \pm vt)]$$



Because of this periodicity, increasing all x by λ should reproduce the same wave. Mathematically, the wave is reproduced because the argument of the sine function is advanced by 2π . Symbolically,

$$A \sin k[(x + \lambda) + vt] = A \sin [k(x + vt) + 2\pi]$$

or

$$A \sin (kx + k\lambda + kvt) = A \sin (kx + kvt + 2\pi)$$

It follows that $k\lambda = 2\pi$, so that the *propagation constant k* contains information regarding the wavelength.

$$k=\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$A \sin k[x + v(t + T)] = A \sin [k(x + vt) + 2\pi]$$

or

$$A \sin (kx + kvt + kvT) = A \sin (kx + kvt + 2\pi)$$

Clearly, $kvT = 2\pi$, and we have an expression that relates the period T to the propagation constant k and wave velocity v. The same information is included in the relation

$$v = \nu \lambda \tag{8-5}$$

where we have used Eq. (8-4) together with the reciprocal relation between period T and frequency ν ,

$$\nu = \frac{1}{T} \tag{8-6}$$

تمرین: معادله موج هارمونیک به صورت زیر داده شده است.

$$y(x,t) = A\sin[k(x-vt)]$$

طول موج را تعریف کنید و ثابت کنید که

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

A complex number \tilde{z} is expressed as the sum of its *real* and *imaginary* parts,

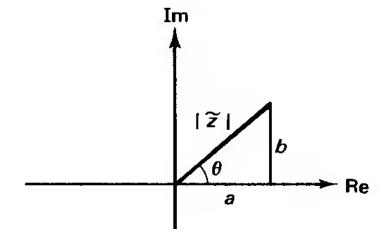
$$\tilde{z} = a + ib \tag{8-11}$$

where

$$a = \text{Re}(\tilde{z})$$
 and $b = \text{Im}(\tilde{z})$

are real numbers and $i = \sqrt{-1}$. The form of the complex number given by Eq. (8-11) can also be cast into polar form. Referring to Figure 8-3, the complex number \tilde{z} is represented in terms of its real and imaginary parts along the corresponding axes. The magnitude of \tilde{z} , symbolized by $|\tilde{z}|$, also called its *absolute value* or *modulus*, is given by the Pythagorean theorem as

$$|\tilde{z}|^2 = a^2 + b^2 \tag{8-12}$$



Since from Figure 8-3, $a = |\tilde{z}| \cos \theta$ and $b = |\tilde{z}| \sin \theta$, it is also possible to express \tilde{z} by

$$\tilde{z} = |\tilde{z}|(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$$

The expression in parentheses is, by Euler's formula,

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta \tag{8-13}$$

so that

$$\tilde{z} = |\tilde{z}|e^{i\theta} \tag{8-14}$$

where

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) \tag{8-15}$$

Thus if $\tilde{z} = a + ib$,

$$\tilde{z}^* = a - ib$$
 or $\tilde{z}^* = |\tilde{z}| e^{-i\theta}$ (8-16)

where the asterisk is used to denote the complex conjugate. A very useful minitheorem is that the product of a complex number with its complex conjugate equals the square of its absolute value. Using the polar form,

$$\tilde{z}\tilde{z}^* = (|\tilde{z}|e^{i\theta})(|\tilde{z}|e^{-i\theta}) = |\tilde{z}|^2$$
(8-17)

Using Euler's formula, it is possible to express a harmonic wave by

$$\tilde{y} = Ae^{i(kx-\omega t)}$$

where

$$Re (\tilde{y}) = A \cos (kx - \omega t)$$

and

$$\operatorname{Im}(\tilde{y}) = A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

PLANE WAVES

$$\psi = A \sin (\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)$$

three-dimensional wave equation

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\nabla^2 \equiv \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

SPHERICAL WAVES

Spherical waves may also be represented by the harmonic wave equations developed for plane waves, with one modification: The amplitude must be divided by the distance r to give

$$\psi = \left(\frac{A}{r}\right) e^{i(\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}-\omega t)}$$

The spherical wave, as it propagates further from the source, decreases in amplitude, in contrast to a plane wave for which amplitude is constant.

14

ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVES

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}$$
$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}_0 e^{i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)}$$

$$E = cB$$

In free space, the velocity c is given by

$$c=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0\mu_0}}$$

The energy density associated with the electric field in free space is

$$u_E = \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_0 E^2$$

and the energy density associated with the magnetic field in free space is

$$u_B=\frac{1}{2\mu_0}B^2$$

$$u_B = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \left(\frac{E}{c}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}{2\mu_0}\right) E^2 = u_E$$

$$u = u_E + u_B = 2u_E = 2u_B$$

$$u=\epsilon_0 E^2=\left(\frac{1}{\mu_0}\right) B^2$$

power =
$$\frac{\text{energy}}{\Delta t} = \frac{u \Delta V}{\Delta t} = \frac{u(Ac \Delta t)}{\Delta t} = ucA$$

the power transferred per unit area, S, is

$$S = uc$$

$$u = \sqrt{u} \sqrt{u} = (\sqrt{\epsilon_0} E) \left(\frac{B}{\sqrt{\mu_0}} \right) = \frac{\epsilon_0}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}} EB = \epsilon_0 c EB$$

$$\mathbf{S} = \epsilon_0 c^2 \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$$

$$I = \langle |\mathbf{S}| \rangle = \epsilon_0 c^2 \langle E_0 B_0 \sin^2 (\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} \pm \omega t) \rangle$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 c^2 E_0 B_0$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 c E_0^2$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{c}{\mu_0}\right) B_0^2$$

تمرین: شدت تابش یک موج الکترومغناطیسی داده شده است:

$$I = 8 \times 10^{11} \text{ /cm}^2$$

دامنه میدان الکتریکی و مغناطیسی این موج را حساب کنید.

$$\varepsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$$
 $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$

Superposition of Waves

The resultant displacement is the sum of the separate displacements of the constituent waves:

$$\psi = \psi_1 + \psi_2$$

The same principle can be stated more formally as follows. If Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 are independently solutions of the wave equation,

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}$$

then the linear combination,

$$\psi = a\psi_1 + b\psi_2$$

where a and b are constants, is also a solution.

SUPERPOSITION OF WAVES OF THE SAME FREQUENCY

Electric field:
$$E = E_0 \sin (\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} + \omega t + \varphi_0)$$

where an initial phase angle φ_0 is added for generality, we set $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}$ equal to a constant because we wish to examine waves at a fixed point in space. Thus

$$E = E_0 \sin (\omega t + \alpha) \tag{9-2}$$

where the constant phase angle

$$\alpha = \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} + \varphi_0 \tag{9-3}$$

By the superposition principle, the resultant electric field E_R at the point is

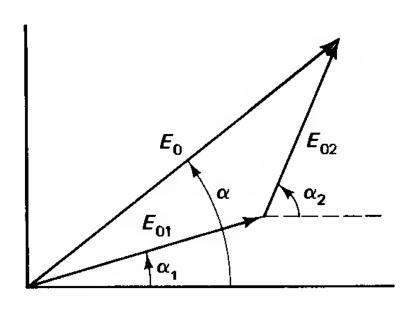
$$E_R = E_1 + E_2 = E_{01} \sin (\omega t + \alpha_1) + E_{02} \sin (\omega t + \alpha_2)$$

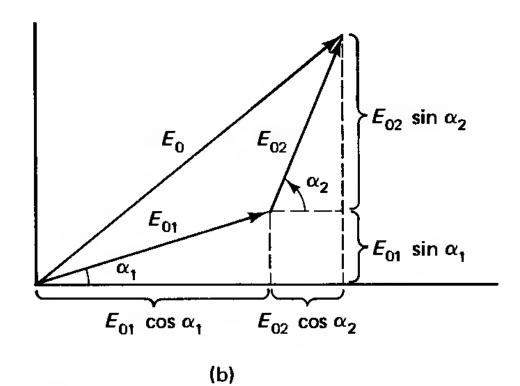
Using the trigonometric identity for the sum of two angles,

$$\sin (A + B) \equiv \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$$

and recombining terms,

$$E_R = (E_{01} \cos \alpha_1 + E_{02} \cos \alpha_2) \sin \omega t + (E_{01} \sin \alpha_1 + E_{02} \sin \alpha_2) \cos \omega t$$





(a)

 $E_0 \cos \alpha = E_{01} \cos \alpha_1 + E_{02} \cos \alpha_2$

and

$$E_0 \sin \alpha = E_{01} \sin \alpha_1 + E_{02} \sin \alpha_2$$

In terms of the quantities E_0 and α defined by this graphical technique, Eq. (9-6) becomes

 $E_R = E_0 \cos \alpha \sin \omega t + E_0 \sin \alpha \cos \omega t$

or

$$E_R = E_0 \sin (\omega t + \alpha) \tag{9-7}$$

20

We conclude that the resultant wave E_R is another harmonic wave of the same frequency ω with amplitude E_0 and phase α

$$E_0^2 = E_{01}^2 + E_{02}^2 + 2E_{01}E_{02}\cos(\alpha_2 - \alpha_1)$$

and from Figure 9-1b, the phase angle is clearly given by

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{E_{01} \sin \alpha_1 + E_{02} \sin \alpha_2}{E_{01} \cos \alpha_1 + E_{02} \cos \alpha_2}$$

The diagram makes apparent the proper generalization of above Eqs. for N such harmonic waves:

$$E_0^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N E_{0i}^2 + 2 \sum_{i>i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N E_{0i} E_{0j} \cos (\alpha_j - \alpha_i)$$

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{0i} \sin \alpha_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{0i} \cos \alpha_i}$$

برآیند دو موج زیر را حساب کنید:

$$E_1 = 10\sin(10t + \frac{\pi}{3})$$
 and $E_1 = 20\sin(10t + \frac{\pi}{6})$

$$E_{0R} = \sqrt{E_{01}^2 + E_{02}^2 + 2E_{01}E_{02}\cos(\alpha_2 - \alpha_2)} = \sqrt{10^2 + 20^2 + 2 \times 10 \times 20\cos(\frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{\pi}{6})} = 29.09$$

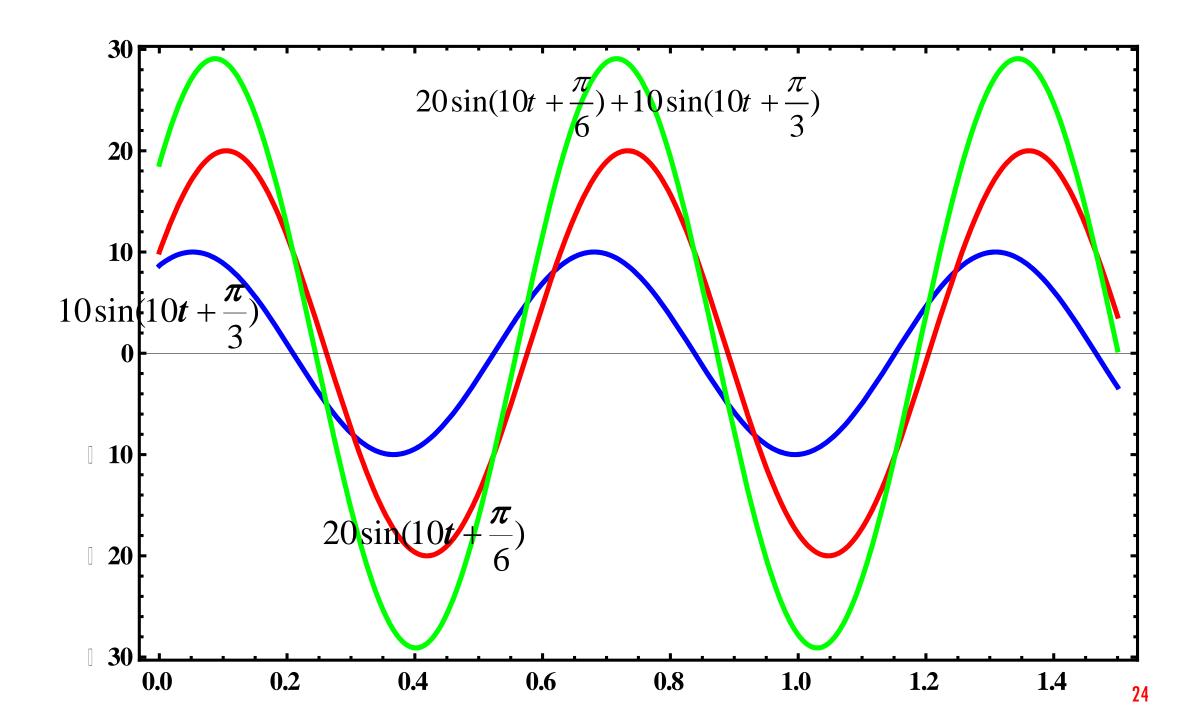
$$\tan(\alpha) = \frac{E_{01}\sin(\alpha_1) + E_{02}\sin(\alpha_2)}{E_{01}\cos(\alpha_1) + E_{02}\cos(\alpha_2)} = \frac{10\sin(\frac{\pi}{3}) + 20\sin(\frac{\pi}{6})}{10\cos(\frac{\pi}{3}) + 20\cos(\frac{\pi}{6})} = 0.836$$

$$(\alpha) = \tan^{-1}(0.836) = 39.9^{\circ} = 0.696^{rad}$$

$$E_{R} = 29.09 \sin(10t + 0.696)$$

تمرین: حاصل برهم نهی دو موج زیر را حساب کنید:

$$E_1 = 10\sin(50t + \frac{\pi}{3})$$
 and $E_2 = 5\sin(50t + \frac{\pi}{2})$



RANDOM AND COHERENT SOURCES

$$E_0^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N E_{0i}^2 + 2 \sum_{j>i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N E_{0i} E_{0j} \cos (\alpha_j - \alpha_i)$$

if phases are random, the phase differences are also random. The sum of cosine terms in Eq. above then approaches zero as N increases, because terms are equally divided between positive and negative fractions ranging from — 1 to +1. This leaves

$$E_0^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N E_{0i}^2 = NE_{01}^2 \implies I_R = N I_0$$

On the other hand, if the N sources are coherent, and in phase, so that all α are equal, then

$$E_0^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N E_{0i}^2 + 2 \sum_{i>i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N E_{0i} E_{0j} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N E_{0i}\right)^2 = (NE_{01})^2 = N^2 E_{01}^2 \implies I_R = N^2 I_0$$

for N identical source:
$$\frac{I_R^{Coh}}{I_R^{inCoh}} = N$$

STANDING WAVES

a given wave exists in both forward and reverse directions along the same medium. This condition occurs most frequently when the forward wave experiences a reflection at some point along its path. In an ideal situation, none of the energy is lost on reflection nor absorbed by the transmitting medium. This permits us to write both waves with the same amplitude. Forward and reverse waves are, respectively.

$$E_1 = E_0 \sin (kx - \omega t)$$

$$E_2 = E_0 \sin (kx + \omega t)$$

The resultant wave in the medium, by the principle of superposition, is

$$E_R = E_1 + E_2 = E_0 \left[\sin (kx + \omega t) + \sin (kx - \omega t) \right]$$
$$E_R = (2E_0 \sin kx) \cos \omega t$$

This is not a moving wave whereas, a standing wave. This shows a space-dependent amplitude of an oscillation.

26

There exist values of x where the amplitude of standing wave is zero for all t. these values occur whenever:

$$\sin kx = 0$$
, or $kx = \frac{2\pi x}{\lambda} = m\pi$, $m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

$$x = 2m(\frac{\lambda}{4}) = m(\frac{\lambda}{2}) = 0, \frac{\lambda}{2}, \lambda, 3\frac{\lambda}{2}, \dots$$

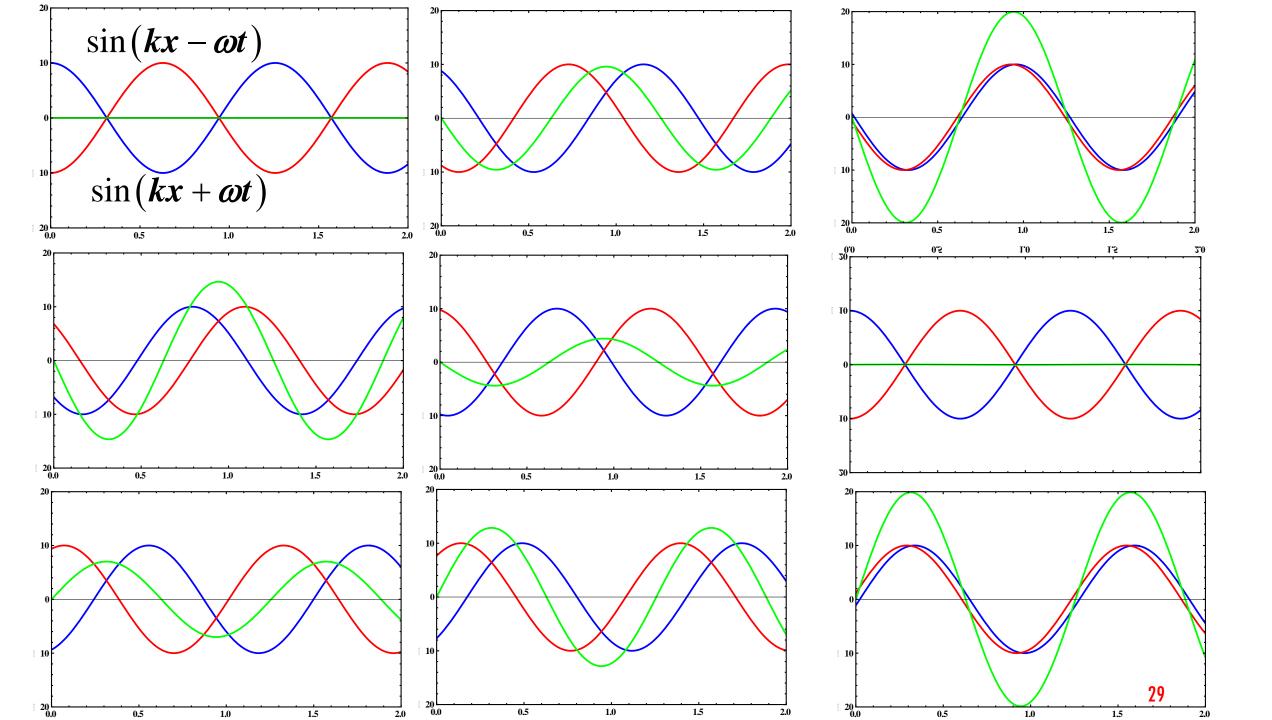
There exist also values of x where the amplitude of standing wave is maximum for all t. these values occur whenever:

$$\sin(kx) = \pm 1 \implies kx = \frac{2\pi x}{\lambda} = (2m+1)(\frac{\pi}{2})$$
$$x = (2m+1)(\frac{\lambda}{\Delta}) = \frac{\lambda}{\Delta}, 3\frac{\lambda}{\Delta}, 5\frac{\lambda}{\Delta}, \dots$$

تمرین: دو موج با دامنه یکسان، بسامد یکسان و سرعت یکسان خلاف جهت یکدیگر در حال انتشار هستند. دامنه آن دو ۱۰، بسامد آنها ۲۰۰۰ هرتز و سرعت آنها ۲۰۰۰ متر بر ثانیه است.

معادله این دو موج را بنویسید.

فاصله اولین گره تا سومین شکم امواج ساکن حاصل از برهم نهی این دو موج را حساب کنید.



two waves with the same amplitude but differing in frequency and wave number be represented

$$E_1 = E_0 \cos (k_1 x - \omega_1 t)$$

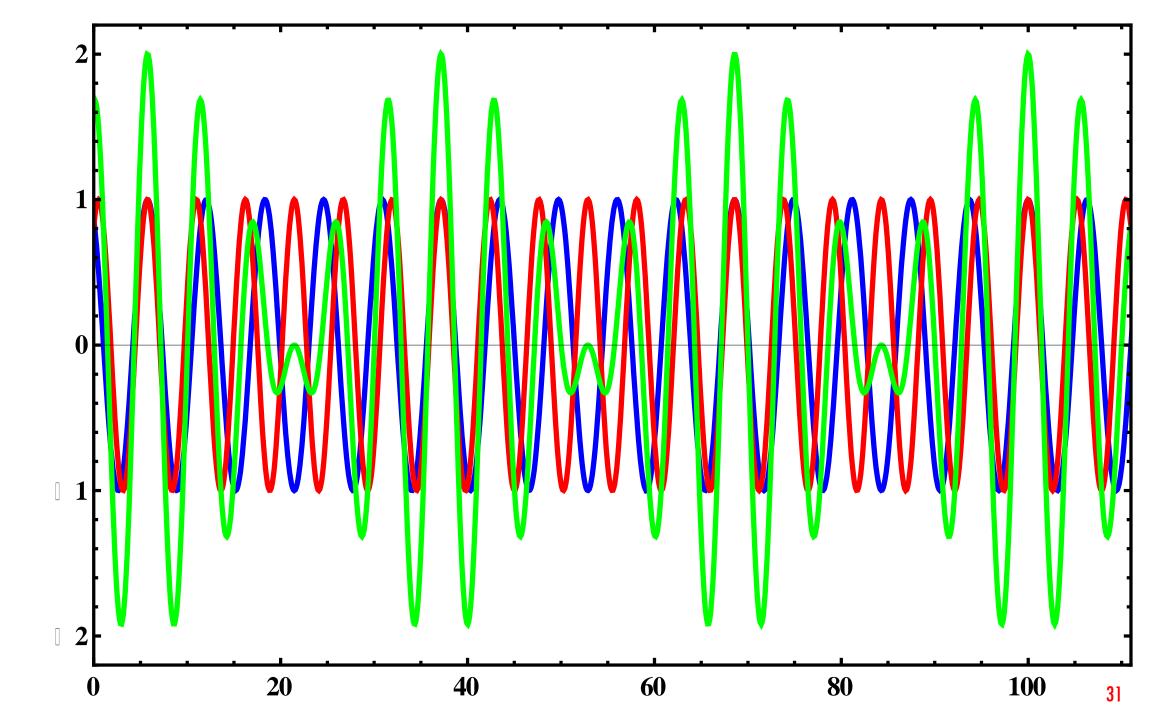
$$E_2 = E_0 \cos (k_2 x - \omega_2 t)$$

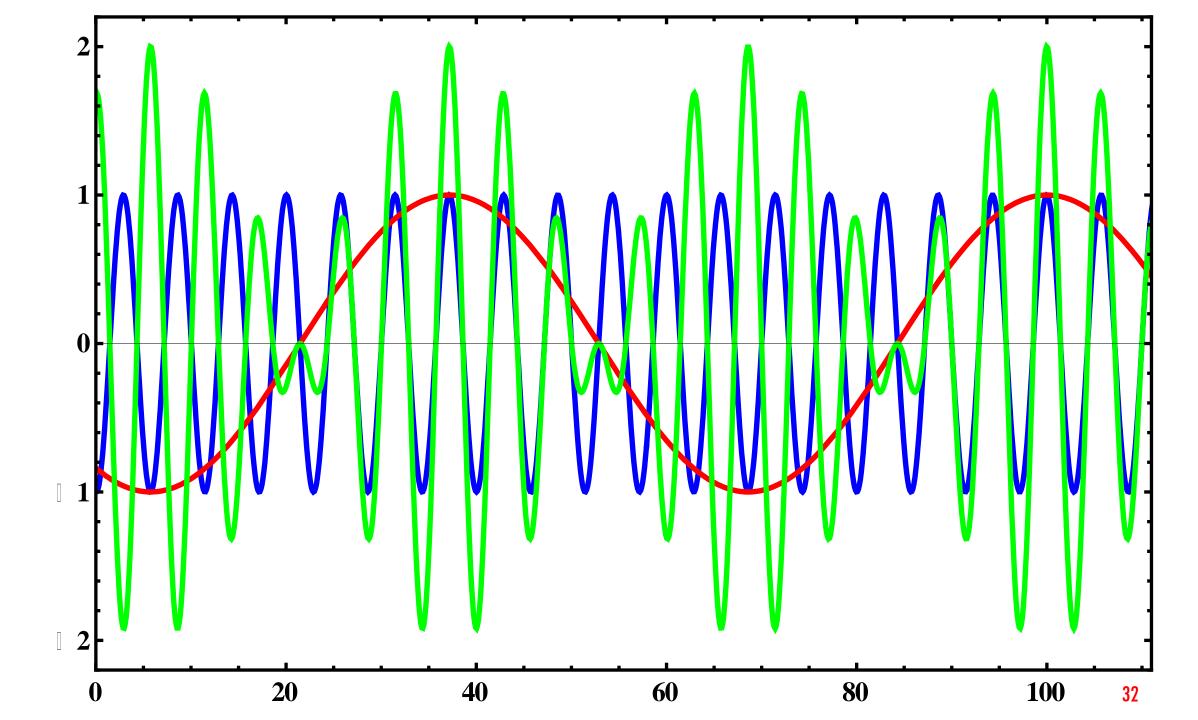
$$E_R = 2E_0 \cos \left[\frac{(k_1 + k_2)}{2} x - \frac{(\omega_1 + \omega_2)}{2} t \right] \cos \left[\frac{(k_1 - k_2)}{2} x - \frac{(\omega_1 - \omega_2)}{2} t \right]$$

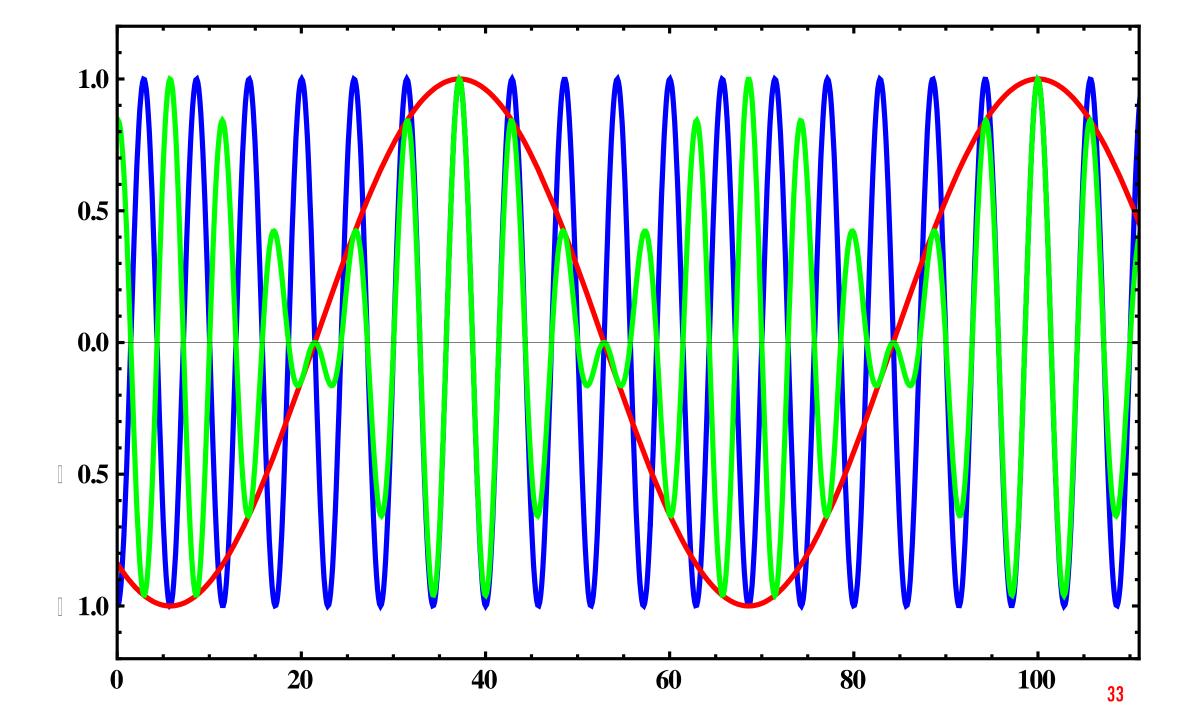
$$\omega_p = \frac{\omega_1 + \omega_2}{2}, \qquad k_p = \frac{k_1 + k_2}{2}$$

$$\omega_g = \frac{\omega_1 - \omega_2}{2}, \qquad k_g = \frac{k_1 - k_2}{2}$$

$$E_R = 2E_0 \cos(k_p x - \omega_p t) \cos(k_p x - \omega_p t)$$







$$\omega_b = 2\omega_g = 2\left(\frac{\omega_1 - \omega_2}{2}\right) = \omega_1 - \omega_2$$
 Beat frequency

The overall effect is that the low-frequency wave serves as an envelope modulating the high-frequency wave.

Phase and Group velocity

The velocity of the higher-frequency wave is then the phase velocity,

$$v_p = \frac{\omega_p}{k_p} = \frac{\omega_1 + \omega_2}{k_1 + k_2} \cong \frac{\omega}{k}$$

the velocity of the envelope, called the group velocity,

$$v_g = \frac{\omega_g}{k_g} = \frac{\omega_1 - \omega_2}{k_1 - k_2} \cong \frac{d\omega}{dk}$$

$$v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk} = \frac{d}{dk} (kv_p)$$

$$v_g = v_p + k \left(\frac{dv_p}{dk}\right)$$

When the velocity of a wave does not depend on wavelength, that is, in a non-dispersive medium, $dv_p/dk = 0$, and phase and group velocities are equal. This is the case of light propagating in a vacuum, where Vp = Vg = c. In dispersive media, however, Vp = c/n, where the refractive index n is a function of λ or k. Then n=n(k), and

$$v_g = v_p \left[1 - \frac{k}{n} \left(\frac{dn}{dk} \right) \right] \qquad v_g = v_p \left[1 + \frac{\lambda}{n} \left(\frac{dn}{d\lambda} \right) \right]$$

In regions of normal dispersion, $dn/d\lambda < 0$ and $v_g < v_p$.

تابع ضریب شکست شیشه معمولی بر حسب طول موج به صورت زیر است:

$$n^{2} = 1 + \frac{1.04 \lambda^{2}}{\lambda^{2} - 0.006} + \frac{0.23 \lambda^{2}}{\lambda^{2} - 0.02}$$

سرعت فاز را در به ازاء طول موج ۴۰۰ نانومتر (آبی) و ۷۰۰ نانومتر (قرمز) را حساب کنید:

$$\lambda = 0.4 \ \mu m \Rightarrow n^2 = 1 + \frac{1.04 \times 0.4^2}{0.4^2 - 0.006} + \frac{0.23 \times 0.4^2}{0.4^2 - 0.02} = 2.343 \Rightarrow n = 1.530$$

$$V = \frac{C}{n} = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{1.53} = 1.96 \times 10^8 \ m/s$$

$$\lambda = 0.7 \ \mu m \Rightarrow n^2 = 1 + \frac{1.04 \times 0.7^2}{0.7^2 - 0.006} + \frac{0.23 \times 0.7^2}{0.7^2 - 0.02} = 2.292 \Rightarrow n = 1.514$$

$$V = \frac{C}{n} = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{1.433} = 1.98 \times 10^8 \ m/s$$

مثال: سرعت گروه را برای طول موج ۴۰۰ و ۷۰۰ نانومتر حساب کنید.

$$\frac{dn}{d\lambda}\bigg|_{\lambda=0.4 \ \mu m} = -0.1331 \ \mu m^{-1} \qquad \frac{dn}{d\lambda}\bigg|_{\lambda=0.7 \ \mu m} = -0.0266 \ \mu m^{-1}$$

$$V_{g} = V_{p} \left[1 + \frac{\lambda}{n} \left(\frac{dn}{d \lambda} \right) \right]$$

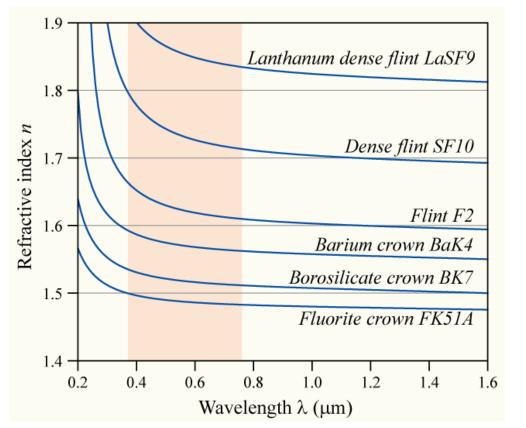
$$V_g(\lambda = 0.4 \ \mu m) = 1.96 \times 10^8 \times \left[1 + \frac{0.4}{1.53} \times (-0.1331)\right] = 1.892 \times 10^8 \ m/s$$

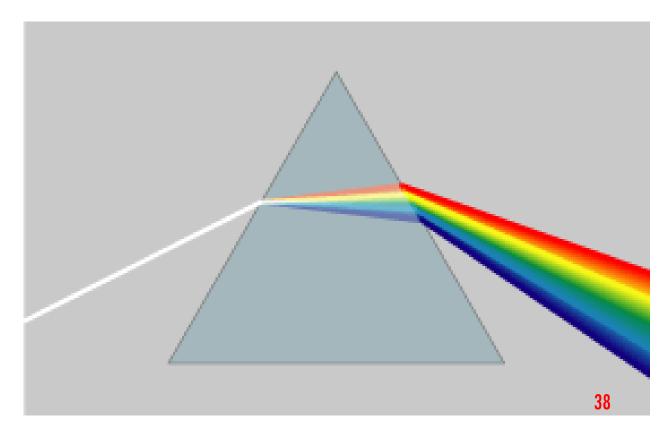
$$V_g(\lambda = 0.7 \ \mu m) = 1.98 \times 10^8 \times \left[1 + \frac{0.7}{1.514} \times (-0.0266)\right] = 1.955 \times 10^8 \ m/s$$

Dispersion پاشندگی

$$\frac{\sin(\theta_i)}{\sin(\theta_r)} = \frac{n_r}{n_i} \Rightarrow \theta_r = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{n_i}{n_r}\sin(\theta_i)\right)$$
 زاویه شکست

از آنجایی که ضریب شکست هر محیط شفاف تابع طول موج نور منتشر شده درون آن است پس هنگام عبور یک پرتو نور سفید از مرز مشترک دو محیط شفاف، طول موجهای مختلف تحت زوایهای مختلف شکسته می شوند طوری که رنگهای مختلف نور از یکدیگر جدا می شوند. به این پدیده پاشندگی نور گویند.





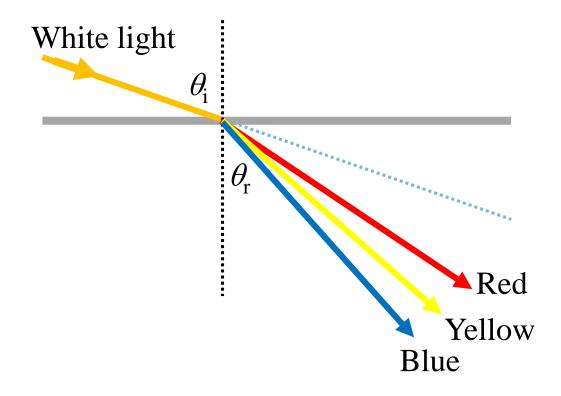
it is shown that for a given small angle

$$\frac{\sin \theta_{i}}{\sin \theta_{r}} = \frac{n_{r}}{n_{i}} : if \ \theta_{i} \ is \ very \ samll \Rightarrow \frac{\theta_{i}}{\theta_{r}} = \frac{n_{r}}{n_{i}}$$

$$\left(\theta_{r}^{red} - \theta_{r}^{blue}\right) \approx (n_{B} - n_{R})$$

$$\begin{cases} n_{B} = \frac{n_{r}^{(Blue)}}{n_{i}^{(Blue)}} \ reletive \ refractive \ index \ for \ Blue \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} n_{R} = \frac{n_{r}^{(Blue)}}{n_{i}^{(Red)}} \ reletive \ refractive \ index \ for \ Red \end{cases}$$



while the deviation of the D ray depends on

$$(\theta_i - \theta_r^{yellow}) \approx (n_Y - 1)$$

The ratio of these two quantities is called the *dispersive power* and is defined by the equation

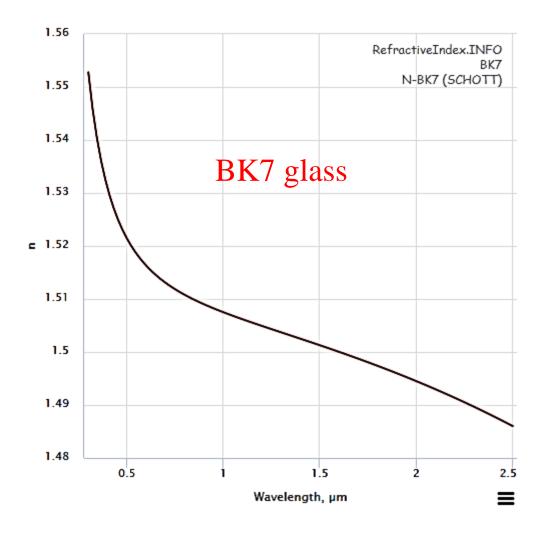
$$V = \frac{\left(\theta_r^{red} - \theta_r^{blue}\right)}{\left(\theta_i - \theta_r^{yellow}\right)} = \frac{\left(n_B - n_R\right)}{\left(n_Y - 1\right)}$$

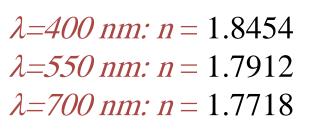
 $\lambda = 400 \text{ nm}$: n = 1.5308

 $\lambda = 550 \text{ nm: } n = 1.5185$

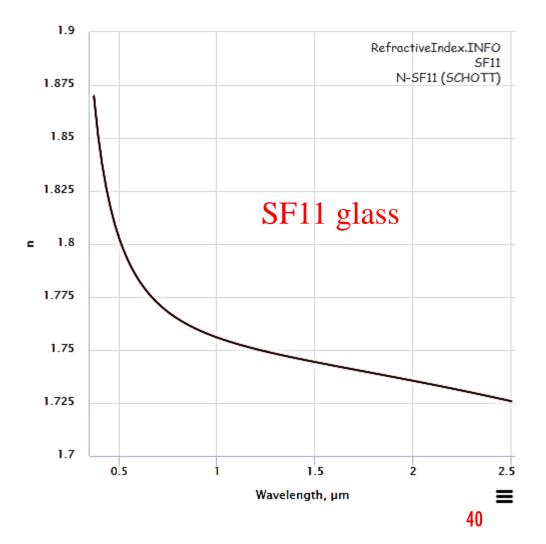
 λ =700 nm: n = 1.5131

$$V = \frac{1.5308 - 1.5131}{1.5185 - 1} = 0.034$$





$$V = 0.093$$



قطبش Polarization

موج الكترومغناطيس متشكل از دو ميدان نوسانى الكتريكى و مغناطيسى است كه عمود بر يكديگر و همچنين عمود بر راستاى انتشار موج نوسان مى كنند. راستاى قطبش موج الكترومغناطيس همان راستاى ارتعاش ميدان الكتريكى قرارداد شده است.

انواع قطبش:

- ١. قطبش خطي
- ۲. قطبش دایره ای
- ٣. قطبش بيضوى

در قطبش خطی میدان الکتریکی در یک راستای ثابت نوسان می کند. در قطبش دایره ای و بیضوی، هرگاه در راستای انتشار پرتو به آن نگاه کنیم بردار میدان الکتریکی در صفحه عمود بر راستای انتشار با سرعت ثابت می چرخد.

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E_0} \exp(kz - \omega t)$$

$$\mathbf{E_0} = E_{0x} e^{i\phi_x} \, \hat{i} + E_{0y} e^{i\phi_y} \, \hat{j}$$

$$\Delta \phi = \phi_{x} - \phi_{y} = 0, \pi$$

$$\begin{cases} \Delta \phi = \phi_{x} - \phi_{y} = \pm \frac{\pi}{2} \\ F = F \end{cases}$$

$$E = E_{on} \stackrel{i}{\leftarrow} \stackrel{i}{\leftarrow} \underbrace{E_{oy}} \stackrel{i}{\leftarrow} \stackrel{i}{\rightarrow} \underbrace{E_{oy}} \stackrel$$

$$\begin{cases} \Delta \phi = \phi_x - \phi_y = \pm \frac{\pi}{2} \\ E_{0x} \neq E_{0y} \end{cases}$$

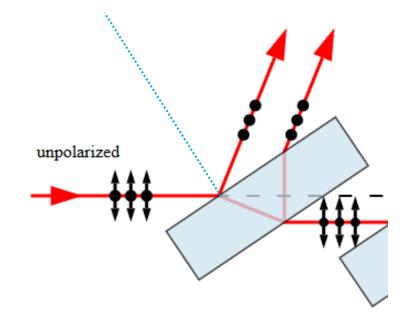
(K) (X/1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) ر طان بست ان ر در کی کیا از زمال ب نعاط محتف مف لها كلم بردار سيان اللري و من طي مبن تو نسي مده خوامرك. زر خلاف بهت ان رسال برس نعفی از زر خلاف بهت ان رسال برس نعفی از مقا در گذر زمان نگاه کنی بردارها سیال امکریکی و مقاملی بری نگی کامده می لدند

در معلیٰ عظی را مت ارتباش میوان امکر کی تا ب است. به عباری بردار داند، موج تاب است به عباری بردار داند، موج تاب است به ما در معلی می دران علی علی فلی در سخت به را در ما ما و می دران علی فلی فلی در در ایدا منه کی کرد. ایدا منه کی کرد و ایدا منه کرد و ایدا کرد و ایدا منه کرد و ایدا منه کرد و ایدا منه کرد و ایدا ک

صفحه تابش: صفحه ای که توسط راستای پرتو تابشی و خط عمود بر نقطه تابش تشکیل می شود.

قطبش نوع S: A هرگاه راستای ارتعاش میدان الکتریکی عمود بر صفحه تابش باشد.

قطبش نوع P: هرگاه راستای ارتعاش میدان الکتریکی مماس بر صفحه تابش باشد.



در شکل مقابل صفحه تابش مماس بر صفحه اسلاید است. پس نقاط نماینده قطبش کم است که عمود بر صفحه تابش است و پیکانها نماینده قطبش P است که در صفحه تابش است.

در قعلی دایرون حوگ در ران آن ری نگاری بردار سیان اندری در سک دایرو به سرمت زادیم کاب مه می جرحد در کار اندان ان بردار نابت اس در فعلی بیمن علاد بر جرحتی اندان بردار نیز و کند .

ار مقبل دایره آی بیوزی بردار سران رسران ایران کور بردان ای برد و به و برد E) کی برارما سران انفرزی درما ملی برنی میران میران میران میرا کی افور E ج پیر در رای با بنگر سرال اندر به را به عمر میل کنم بر

فقلی بیزی را انگرد: عردار سران رسری بر بعنی را جاره. عمالند فاری به بهترین در بهت عونها می باید مُعَلَى رُبِعُوى وَعَبْرِدِ ا بردار سیان جیلاف مهت عوبه کا گئی سر بهتی را جارب و کذ

Polarizer Illie ولسرای برای تبریل نور عز فعلبه به نور فعلبره حفل رسیای برای تبریل نور عزر فعاری به نور معایده حطی از می تبریل نور عزر فعاید معلی کرد. (Random) تعرف لد: سر عقابی می داند سر ما ده و باید بر تا بل در رای خاص را به مقیار زیاد جذب كرده و در ران عود بران دارا حذب بسير با بين ال Livor of bythe at the relience at wind of the

E, = E Cos A مرج ووري \mathbf{E}_2 (Incident wave) ه: زاره ران/ سیان اندین مخفرا با رای (کر) عبر مقل محدر عبور معلی ر J ~ €² Transmission axis of polarizer سر لر عبد الم موج E1 School Just Civ I, = I Go A المن فرون وري فعلي $\langle I, \rangle = \langle I \cos^2 \theta \rangle = I \langle \cos^2 \theta \rangle = \frac{1}{4} I \int_{51}^{51} \int_{51$

50). Of me wire d'ont alon in he dé je détermine d'of l' $T = \frac{1}{1 \text{ inc}} = \frac{1}{2} = 50 \text{ y}$ $2 \text{ Along the surface of the proposition o$ ارب ا مان ورود به علی ر دار ا فعلی عوا به مرب عبور بست رادبه ا مرب ا مواحد دارت عبور بست رادبه ا مرب ا مواحد دارت عبور بست مرابر بن عبور بست رادبه ا مرب ا مواحد دارت ا مرابر بن عبور بست رادبه المرب المرب عبور بست رادبه المرب ال

 $\theta = 0 \Rightarrow (0) \theta = 1 \Rightarrow T = 1.00 / , \theta = \pi/y \Rightarrow (0) \theta = 0 \Rightarrow T = 0$

مزال (درج) عندی: کو عنال ایر این کارا ناکی را فیر دا ده ر در رانک عور بر محر میرا کالهٔ جادب است رست عبلی کا ایدون کی نیب بی میزال یا درج میلیدی دا بر مدری رئیر بوزده کند Jest Jest Lunpol

Jest Junpol

Jest Junpol قرق في المار الحول محر النار المرد مران در الرن می مود و المران می المر Iman - Imin Cis Visu 2011 عران قبليني ٢ ع I max + I min

polarizing power:
$$p = \frac{I_{pol}}{I_{pol} + I_{unpol}}$$
 (میزان قطبیدگی) تعریف در جه

تمرین با توجه به تعریف بالا ثابت کنید:

$$p = \frac{I_{Max} - I_{Min}}{I_{Max} + I_{Min}}$$

این رابطه بر حسب بیشینه و کمینه شدت عبوری از قطبشگر است هرگاه آن را بیش از ۱۸۰ درجه حول راستای تابش فرودی بچرخانیم.

Half wave Plate تسنه سم موج تبخر ہورک ہوجے quarter wave plate این تخدما منات نفان حیند، فریب نگ را در دردان محود بر بر بر محلف مى بى ماده دوكلى حسّ ما ما بور علست توبط تسر عم موج موزان رائ مغلب عراد عظم را الله موج موزان رائ مغلب عن الله موج موزان رائ معلم المائل معرف المائل المائل معرف ا تَوْلَطُ مِنْ رَبِّ مُوجَ (رَبُورَ مُرَى) مِن وَالَ عَقَالَ عَقَ را بِ فَقَالَ وَعَالَ مِنْ را بِ فَقَالَ بعول (دایرا) را تراز ریابی گرد.

مَا بَنْ عُرِ مَعْلِيرِهُ بِ عَطَنْ وارالهُ ران از تعدم درا مزب شب کران ران $V = \frac{c}{n} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}$ Linear polarizer رم ان راب راب راب ریزات polarized ر رات کی از تبغه مه دارای فریب نتی را in J' id (38) (1) Quarter-wave plate Slow جانی محر عبر مقالی کر زاوی ن ع با محر کند کند کند رابع موج ب ز (ع) بی و رجی دارا مقالی دایره رخگرد خوامد بود دار زادیم ۱۳۵۰ باک axis polarized light معلی دایران را تر خارج واهر . حرزاور دنون منی به فقلی بعوی مواهر را

برعت نیارت مزیب نیک در در محرر تندر کند کابل با فکل فی میکاری در رات کا کند و کند راه ارتبا مخلق دانجربرکرده و حنفای فریج اختلات راه این باعث اخلاف ماز رَدُه، جَهُ بُم مَا مَن رَخَه وَكُم مُوا مَنْ الْمُ رَدِمُ الْمُلاف ماز الْجَادِ المراد فعلی ورد عنی دارد، (بون) دارد، (بون) دارد شخص دار (i) I = nd in the $dl \cdot l \cdot l \cdot l \cdot l = n_1 d - n_1 d = (n_1 - n_1) d$ $\Delta d = K\Delta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot (n_{r-n_1}) d$ $\Delta d = \pi_{r} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot (n_{r-n_1}) d = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot (n_{r-n_1}) d$

برا الله دان عقل عني را تغر دهم باير (فلاف ما برن (رموله الفائل در ران ما كدر كد حنام وزح از ته برازان الله كور $\Delta = (Nr-n_1)d$ $\Delta \Phi = K \Delta = 2\pi \cdot (N_2 - N_1) d$

 $\Delta \Phi = \Pi \implies \text{lie die isp},$ $\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot (n_2 - n_1) d = \pi$ $\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot (n_2 - n_1) d = \pi$ $\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot (n_2 - n_1) d = \pi$

كاربرد تيغه نيم موج:

هرگاه راستای قطبش تابش در راستای محور تند یا کند تیغه نیم موج باشد خروجی دارای قطبشی یکسان با تابش ورودی خواهد بود. اگر با یکی از محورها زاویه بسازد قطبش تابش خروجی دو برابر این زاویه نسبت به ورودی چرخیده است.

پس اگر راستای قطبش تابش فرودی با محور تند یا کند تیغه نیم موج زاویه ۴۵ درجه بسازد قطبش خروجی ۹۰ درجه نسبت به ورودی خواهد چرخید.

كابرد تيغه ربع موج:

تبدیل قطبش خطی به قطبش بیضوی یا دایر های (راستگرد یا چپگرد)

$$\mathbf{E_0} = E_{0x} \hat{i} + E_{0y} \hat{j}$$

در حالت کلی مولفه های بردار دامنه میدان می توانند مختلط باشند.

$$\mathbf{E_0} = \left| E_{0x} \right| e^{i \varphi_x} \hat{i} + \left| E_{0y} \right| e^{i \varphi_y} \hat{j}$$

هر عدد مختلط را می توان بر حسب اندازه آن و یک عامل فازی نوشت

$$\mathbf{E_0} = \begin{bmatrix} E_{0x} \\ E_{0y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} |E_{0x}| e^{i\varphi_x} \\ |E_{0y}| e^{i\varphi_y} \end{bmatrix}$$

این فرم نوشتاری به ماتریسهای جونز معروف است.

linear polarization: $\Delta \varphi = 0$

$$\mathbf{E}_0 = E_0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
: Jones vector for linearly polarized in x direction

$$\mathbf{E_0} = E_0 \begin{vmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{vmatrix} \implies \begin{vmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{vmatrix}$$
: Jones vector for linearly polarized in y direction

$$\mathbf{E_0} = E_0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 linearly polarized in $x - y$ plane with angle of 45 deg verusu to x axis

circular polarization: $\Delta \varphi = \frac{\pi}{2}$

$$\mathbf{E_0} = E_0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix}$$
: Jones vector for left circularly polarized

$$\mathbf{E_0} = E_0 \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{vmatrix} \implies \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{vmatrix}$$
: Jones vector for right circularly polarized

نمادگذاری جونز کاربردهای جالبی دارد. مثلا به سادگی می توان حساب کرد که اگر دو تابش با قطبش های معلوم با یکدیگر بر هم نهی داشته باشند تابش حاصل دارای چه نوع قطبشی خواهد بود.

حاصل بر هم نهی دو موج قطبیده راستگرد و چپگرد هم دامنه:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{vmatrix} = 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{vmatrix}$$
 ادامنه ای دو بر ابر دامنه هر کدام از تابشهای اولیه در راستای محور X با دامنه ای دو بر ابر دامنه هر کدام از تابشهای اولیه

از دیگر کاربردهای نمادگذاری جونز تعریف ماتریس جونز برای هر قطعه اپتیکی است طوریکه تاثیر تغییر قطبش تابش ورودی را نشان دهد. بدین منظور یک ماتریس 1×1 برای هر قطعه اپتیکی تعریف می شود.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A' \\ B \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix}$: Jones Matrix of the optical element

 $\begin{vmatrix} A \\ B \end{vmatrix}$: incident polarixation

 $\begin{bmatrix} A' \\ B \end{bmatrix}$: output polarixation

Linear polarizer
$$\begin{cases} \text{Transmission axis horizontal} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Transmission axis vertical} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Transmission axis at } \pm 45^{\circ} & \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \pm 1 \\ \pm 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} \text{Fast axis vertical} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Fast axis horizontal} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Fast axis at } \pm 45^{\circ} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \pm i \\ \pm i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} \text{Half-wave plate} \end{cases} \begin{cases} \text{Fast axis either vertical} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Circular polarizer} \end{cases}$$

مثال: تابشی طبیده خطی با زاویه ۴۵ درجه وارد یک تیغه چهارک موج می شود. نوع قطبش خروجی را تعیین کنید:

fast axis horisontal:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$
 left circularly polarized

fast axis vertical:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix}$$
 right circularly polarized

Orthogonal Polarization

قطبش متعامد (عمود بر هم):

هرگاه شرط زیر برای بردار میدان الکتریکی دو تابش قطبیده برقرار باشد قطبش آنها را متعامد گویند:

$$\mathbf{E_1} \cdot \mathbf{E_2^*} = \mathbf{0}$$

In terms of Jones vectors it is easy to verify that $\begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ B_1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} A_2 \\ B_2 \end{bmatrix}$ are orthogonal if

$$A_1 A_2^* + B_1 B_2^* = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0 - 0 = 0$$

مثلا دو قطبش خطی در راستاهای x و y متعامد هستند.

این تعریف عامتر از تعامد هندسی است به طوری که مثلا دو قطبش دایره ای

راستگر و چپگرد نیز متعامد به حساب می آیند.

 $\begin{bmatrix}
Jones vector of \\
left circularly polarized
\end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
Jones vectore of \\
right circularly polarized
\end{bmatrix}^* = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix}^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = 1 - 1 = 0$$

و یا مثلا جفت حالت قطبش بیضوی
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$
 و $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$ متعامد هستند چرا که:

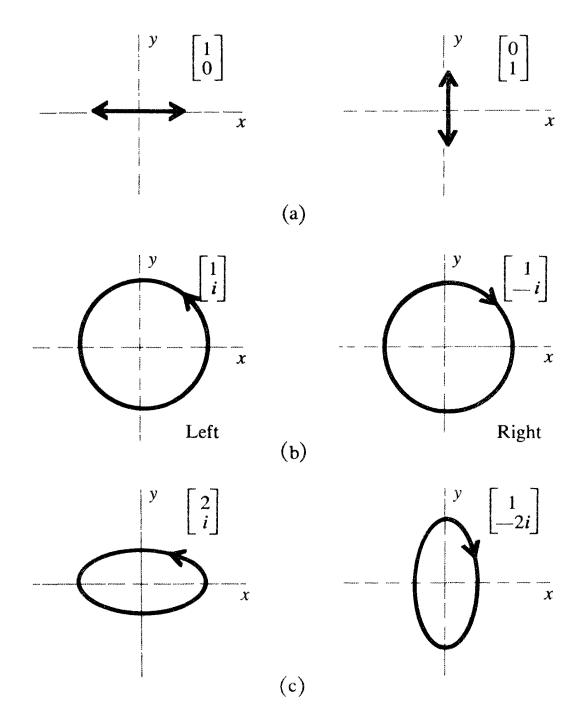
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2i \end{bmatrix}^* = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2i \end{bmatrix} = 2 - 2 = 0$$

با تعریف قطبش های متعامد حال می توان گفت که هر نوع قطبش دلخواه را می توان به دو مولفه متعامد تقسیم کرد:

$$egin{bmatrix} A \ B \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \ 0 \end{bmatrix} + B \begin{bmatrix} 0 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 در قطبش دلخواه به دو قطبش خطی با دامنه های حقیقی در x و محور x و محور x

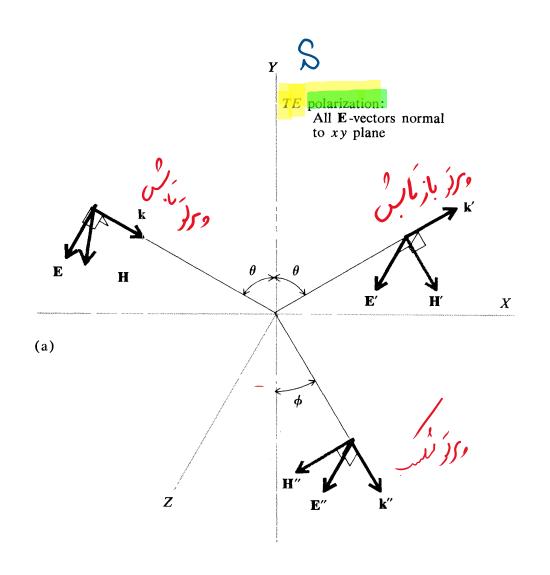
تقسیم یک قطبش دلخواه به دو قطبش دایره ای راستگرد و چپگرد با دامنه های مختلط

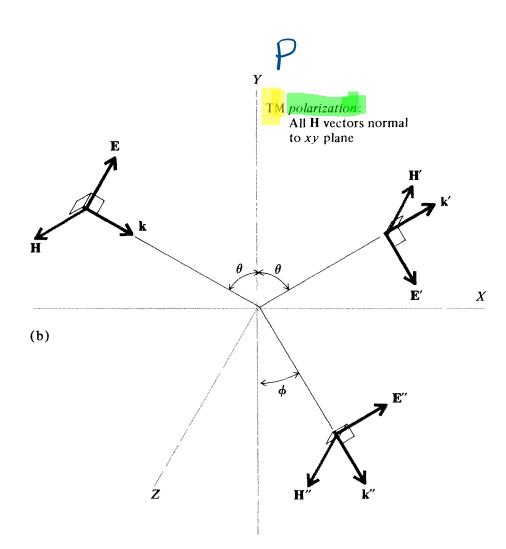
$$\begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} (A + iB) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} (A - iB) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$



نمونه هایی از جفت قطبش های متعامد

Amplitudes of Reflected and Refracted Waves.





$$r_s = \left[\frac{E'}{E}\right]_{TE}$$
 $r_p = \left[\frac{E'}{E}\right]_{TM}$ (TM)
$$t_s = \left[\frac{E''}{E}\right]_{TE}$$
 $t_p = \left[\frac{E''}{E}\right]_{TM}$

ضرایب بازتاب و عبور برای دو قطبش نوع (TE==S) و (TM==P) به صورت زیر تعریف می شود.

$$r_s = \frac{\cos \theta - n \cos \phi}{\cos \theta + n \cos \phi}$$

$$r_p = \frac{-n\cos\theta + \cos\phi}{n\cos\theta + \cos\phi}$$

اعمال شرایط مرزی منجر به محاسبه ضرایب بازتاب برای هر دو نوع قطبش بر حسب زاویه تابش، زاویه شکست و ضریب شکست نسبی می گردد.

$$n = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$
 ضریب شکست نسبی

توجه: این ضرایب درصد بازتاب و عبور میدان الکتریکی را می دهد. برای محاسبه درصد بازتاب و عبور شدت تابش این ضرایب باید به توان ۲ برسد چون شدت تابش متناسب به مجذور میدان الکتریکی است.

$$r_s = \frac{\cos \theta - \sqrt{n^2 - \sin^2 \theta}}{\cos \theta + \sqrt{n^2 - \sin^2 \theta}}$$

$$r_p = \frac{-n^2 \cos \theta + \sqrt{n^2 - \sin^2 \theta}}{n^2 \cos \theta + \sqrt{n^2 - \sin^2 \theta}}$$

با استفاده از قانون اسنل-دکارت می توان ضرایب بازتاب را بر حسب زاویه تابش و ضریب شکست نسبی محاسبه کرد.

$$r_s = -\frac{\sin (\theta - \phi)}{\sin (\theta + \phi)}$$

$$r_p = -\frac{\tan (\theta - \phi)}{\tan (\theta + \phi)}$$

با استفاده از قانون اسنل-دکارت همچنین می توان ضرایب بازتاب را بر حسب زاویه تابش و زاویه شکست محاسبه کرد.

قرارداد: هرگاه در عبور از یک مرز، ضریب شکست نسبی بیشتر از ۱ باشد بازتاب را خارجی گویند و هرگاه در عبور از یک مرز، ضریب شکست نسبی کمتر از ۱ باشد بازتاب را داخلی گویند

Snel Law: $sin(\theta) = n sin(\phi)$

internal reflection: $n \langle 1 \Rightarrow \phi \rangle \theta$

$$\phi = 90^{\circ} : \theta = \theta_c \implies \sin(\theta_c) = n$$

زاویه حد: زاویه تابشی که زاویه شکست متناظر با آن ۹۰ درجه باشد. این یدیده در بارتابش داخلی رخ می دهد.

Total Internal Reflection

در بازتاب داخلی چنانچه زاویه تابش بیش از زاویه حد گردد آنگاه ضرایب بازتاب میدان مختلط خواهند شد:

$$\sin(\theta_c) = n : \theta \rangle \theta_c \Rightarrow \sin(\theta) \rangle n \Rightarrow \sqrt{n^2 - \sin^2(\theta)} = i \sqrt{\sin^2(\theta) - n^2}$$

$$r_s = \frac{\cos \theta - i \sqrt{\sin^2 \theta - n^2}}{\cos \theta + i \sqrt{\sin^2 \theta - n^2}}$$

$$r_p = \frac{-n^2 \cos \theta + i \sqrt{\sin^2 \theta - n^2}}{n^2 \cos \theta + i \sqrt{\sin^2 \theta - n^2}}$$

$$R_s = |r_s|^2 = \left| \frac{E'}{E} \right|_{TE}^2$$

$$R_p = |r_p|^2 = \left| \frac{E'}{E} \right|_{TM}^2$$

ضریب بازتاب شدت تابش که عملا قابل اندازه گیری است به صورت زیر تعریف می شود چون شدت متناسب با مجذور میدان است:

$$R = r r^*$$

Total internal reflection:
$$\theta \rangle \theta_c \Rightarrow \begin{cases} R_s = 1 \\ R_p = 1 \end{cases}$$

در بازتابش داخلی هرگاه زاویه تابش بیش از زاویه حد باشد کل انرژی تابش از مرز بازتابیده خواهد شد و به محیط اولیه بازمی گردد. به این پدیده بازتابش کلی داخلی گویند.

حالت خاص تابش عمود: در این حالت ضریب بازتاب برای هر دو نوع قطبش یکسان می باشد و البته کمترین مقدار بازتابش نیز در این حالا رخ می دهد.

$$R_s = R_p = \left[\frac{n-1}{n+1}\right]^2$$

مثال: در عبور نور از شیشه به ضریب شکست ۱.۵ چند درصد انرژی تابشی عبور می کند هرگاه پرتو عمود بر سطح شیشه بتابد.

$$R = \left(\frac{n-1}{n+1}\right)^2$$

External reflection:
$$R = \left(\frac{3/2 - 1}{3/2 + 1}\right)^2 = 0.04 = 4\%$$

Internal reflection:
$$R = \left(\frac{2/3 - 1}{2/3 + 1}\right)^2 = 0.04 = 4\%$$

n = 1.5 I_0 n = 1 n = 1 n = 1

net reflection=4% + 4% = 8%net transmision = 100% - 8% = 92%

البته در این محاسبه از بازتابهای تکراری بین دو مرز صرف نظر شده است.

هرگاه موج الکترومغناطیس بخواهد از یک محیط شفاف وارد محیط شفاف دیگر شود در مرز بین دو محیط درصدی از آن بازتاب شده و بقیه عبور می کند. ضرایب فرنل بازتاب و عبور به ضریب شکست دو محیط، زاویه تابش و نوع قبطش بستگی دارند.

$$R_{s} = \left| \frac{\cos(\theta) - n\cos(\phi)}{\cos(\theta) + n\cos(\phi)} \right|^{2} \quad (1) \qquad R_{p} = \left| \frac{n\cos(\theta) - \cos(\phi)}{n\cos(\theta) + \cos(\phi)} \right|^{2} \quad (2)$$

$$R_{s} = \left| \frac{\sin(\theta - \phi)}{\sin(\theta + \phi)} \right|^{2}$$
 (3)
$$R_{p} = \left| \frac{\tan(\theta - \phi)}{\tan(\theta + \phi)} \right|^{2}$$
 (4)

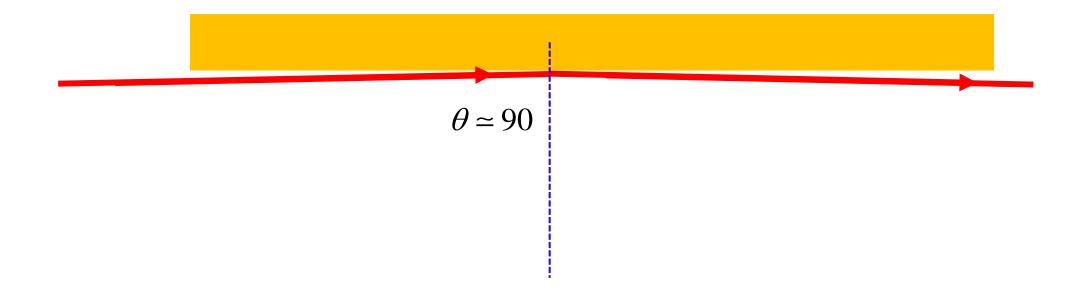
در حالتی که $m{\phi}=90+m{\phi}$ حاصل معادله (۴) یعنی ضریب بازتاب قطبش نوع P صفر می شود. یعنی موج بازتابیده قطبیده کامل از نوع P است. زاویه تابشی که این پدیده رخ می دهد به زاویه بروستر معروف است. زاویه تابشی که این پدیده رخ می دهد به زاویه بروستر معروف است.

$$\theta_{\rm\scriptscriptstyle B} + \phi = 90$$

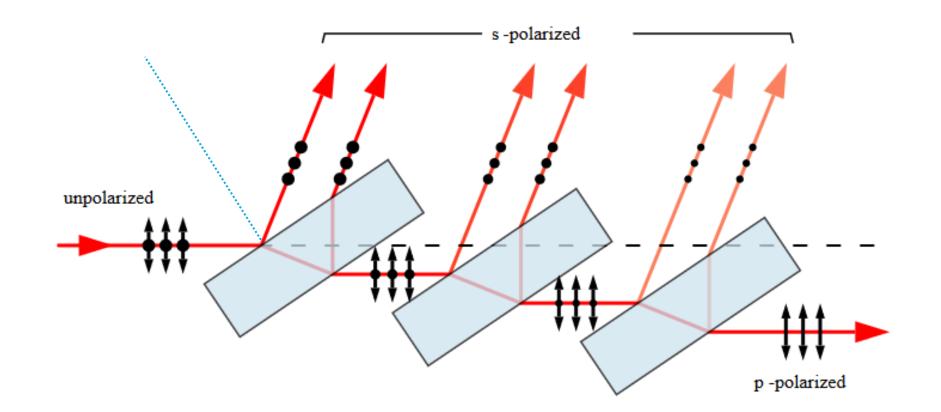
 $\sin(\theta_B) = n\sin(\phi) \Rightarrow \sin(\theta_B) = n\sin(90 - \theta_B) = n\cos(\theta_B) \Rightarrow \tan(\theta_B) = n = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$

$$\theta = 90 \Rightarrow \cos(\theta) = 0$$
, $\sin(\theta) = 1$
 $R_s = R_p = 1$

از این خاصیت برای موجبری دورن فیبرهای توخالی استفاده می شود. باریکه لیزر توسط یک عدسی با فاصله کانونی بزرگ (بیش از ۱۰۰ سانتی متر) در دهانه فیبر توخالی کانونی شده و در بازتاب از سطح شیشه در صد بسیار بالایی از آن بازتاب شده و در طول فیبر هدایت می شود.



پرتو نور تحت زاویه بروستر بر تیغه شفاف فرود آمده است پس نور بازتابیده دارای قطبش خالص S است و نور عبوری به طور جزئی قطبیده از نوع P است. با عبور متوالی از تیغه های موازی درصد بیشتری از قطبش S بازتاب شده و نور عبوری دارای قطبش P با خلوص بیشتر می شود.



At normal incident (incident angle=0): R = 0.043996=4.4%

Reflectance (at 0.4 μ m) At Brewster's angle [i]

$$R_{\rm S} = 0.16146$$
 (S-polarized)

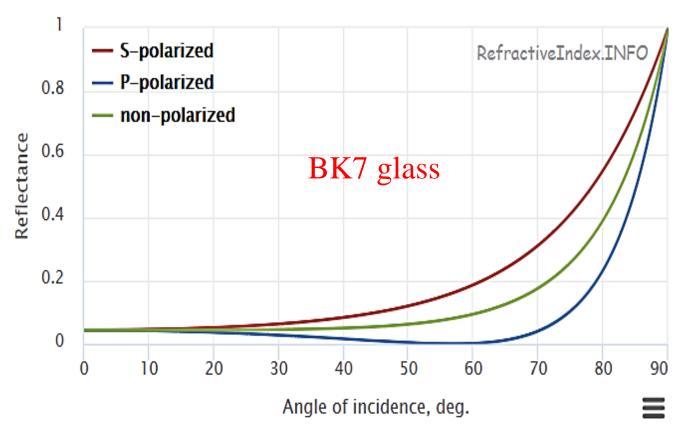
$$R_P = 1.8892e-12$$
 (P-polarized)

$$R = 0.080731$$
 (non-polarized, $(R_S + R_P)/2$)

Reflection phase

$$\phi_S = -180.000^{\circ}$$

$$\phi_P = -179.920^\circ$$



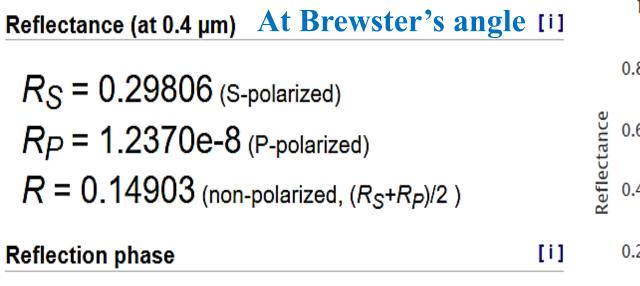
در طول موج ۴۰۰ نانومتر (آبی) حدود % نور ناقطبیده تابیده شده تحت زاویه بروستر [i]

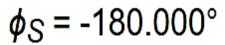
[i]

به این شیشه از سطح آن بازتاب می شود که این نور قطبیده کامل از نوع S است.

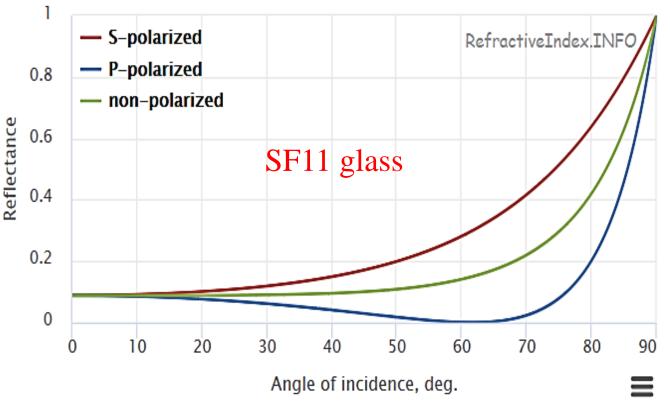
$$\theta_{R} = 56.846^{\circ}$$

At normal incident (incident angle=0): R = 0.088278 = 8.8%





$$\phi_P = -179.936^\circ$$



Brewster's angle

در طول موج ۴۰۰ نانومتر (آبی) حدود 0.1% نور ناقطبیده تابیده شده تحت زاویه بروستر [i] به این شیشه از سطح آن بازتاب می شود که این نور قطبیده کامل از نوع 0.00% است.

$$\theta_B = 61.548^{\circ}$$

ضریب شکست یک شیشه برای طول موج ۵۳۲ نانومتر (هارمونیک دوم لیزر نئودیمیم-یگ) ۱.۶۳ است. زاویه بروستر برای این شیشه را وقتی در هوا قرار دارد را حساب کنید.

$$\tan(\theta_B) = \frac{1.63}{1} = 1.63 \Rightarrow \theta_B = \tan^{-1}(1.63) = 58.5^{\circ}$$

استفاده از این پدیده برای قطبیده کردن خروجی لیزرها نقش اساسی دارد. در لیزرهای گازی که دارای تیوب است پنجره ها در دو انتها طوری نصب می شوند که پرتو لیزر تحت زاویه بروستر بر آنها بتابد. آنگاه پرتو عبوری از پنجره به طور جزئی قطبیده است. این پرتو در بازگشت از آینه ها و درون آینه تقویت می گردد. قطبش غالب بیشتر تقویت شده و در چند رفت و برگشت درون رزوناتور درصد قطبش غالب به تدریج افزایش می یابد طوری که خروجی لیزر می تواند بیش از ۹۹% قطبیده باشد. در لیزرهای حالت جامد معمولا خود کریستال با زاویه بورستر برش می خورد. در بعضی موارد کریستال درون یک چمبر خلا قرار می گیرد که پنجره های دو انتهای آن با زاویه بروستر نصب شده اند.

Interference of Light

$$\mathbf{E}_1 = \mathbf{E}_{01} \cos (\mathbf{k}_1 \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \epsilon_1)$$
 Two waves with the same frequency traveling in

$$\mathbf{E}_2 = \mathbf{E}_{02} \cos (\mathbf{k}_2 \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \epsilon_2)$$
 different direction when coming together in a point

At some general point P, defined by position vector \mathbf{r} , the waves intersect to produce a disturbance whose electric field \mathbf{E}_p is given by the principle of superposition,

$$\mathbf{E}_p = \mathbf{E}_1 + \mathbf{E}_2$$

The irradiance measures the time average of the square of the wave amplitude.

$$I = \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}^2 \rangle$$

Thus the resulting irradiance at P is given by

$$I = \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_p^2 \rangle = \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_p \cdot \mathbf{E}_p \rangle = \epsilon_0 c \langle (\mathbf{E}_1 + \mathbf{E}_2) \cdot (\mathbf{E}_1 + \mathbf{E}_2) \rangle$$

or

$$I = \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_1^2 + \mathbf{E}_2^2 + 2\mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 \rangle$$

$$I = \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_1^2 + \mathbf{E}_2^2 + 2\mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 \rangle = \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_1^2 \rangle + \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_2^2 \rangle + 2\epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 \rangle = I_1 + I_2 + I_{12}$$

the first two terms correspond to the irradiances of the individual waves, I_1 and I_2 . The last term depends on an interaction of the waves and is called the interference term, I_{12}

The presence of the third term I_{12} is indicative of the wave nature of light, which can produce enhancement or diminution of the irradiance through interference.

Consider the interference term,

$$I_{12} = 2\epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 \rangle$$

where E_1 and E_2 are given by Eqs. (10-1) and (10-2). Their dot product,

$$\mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 = \mathbf{E}_{01} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{02} \cos \left(\mathbf{k}_1 \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_1 \right) \cos \left(\mathbf{k}_2 \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_2 \right)$$

can be simplified by first expanding the cosine factors, interpreted as the difference of two angles. To this end, let us define

$$\alpha \equiv \mathbf{k}_1 \cdot \mathbf{r} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_1$$
 and $\beta \equiv \mathbf{k}_2 \cdot \mathbf{r} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_2$

so that

$$\mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 = \mathbf{E}_{01} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{02} \cos (\alpha - \omega t) \cos (\beta - \omega t)$$

Expanding and multiplying the cosine factors, we arrive at

$$\langle \mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 \rangle = \mathbf{E}_{01} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{02} [\cos \alpha \cos \beta \langle \cos^2 \omega t \rangle + \sin \alpha \sin \beta \langle \sin^2 \omega t \rangle + (\cos \alpha \sin \beta + \sin \alpha \cos \beta) \langle \sin \omega t \cos \omega t \rangle]$$

where time averages are indicated for each time-dependent factor. Over any number of complete cycles, one can easily show that

$$\langle \cos^2 \omega t \rangle = \frac{1}{2}, \qquad \langle \sin^2 \omega t \rangle = \frac{1}{2}$$

and

$$\langle \sin \omega t \cos \omega t \rangle = 0$$

Thus

$$\langle \mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{E}_{01} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{02} \cos (\alpha - \beta)$$

$$\langle \mathbf{E}_1 \cdot \mathbf{E}_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{E}_{01} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{02} \cos \left[(\mathbf{k}_1 - \mathbf{k}_2) \cdot \mathbf{r} + (\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_1 - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_2) \right]$$

$$\delta = (\mathbf{k}_1 - \mathbf{k}_2) \cdot \mathbf{r} + (\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2) \qquad I_{12} = \epsilon_0 c \, \mathbf{E}_{01} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{02} \cos \delta$$

Similarly, the irradiance terms
$$I_1$$
 and I_2 $I_1 = \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_1^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 c E_{01}^2 \Rightarrow E_{01} = \sqrt{\frac{2I_1}{\epsilon_0 c}}$

$$I_2 = \epsilon_0 c \langle \mathbf{E}_2^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 c E_{02}^2 \Rightarrow E_{02} = \sqrt{\frac{2I_2}{\epsilon_0 c}}$$

In the case $\mathbf{E}_{01} \parallel \mathbf{E}_{02}$

$$I_{12} = \epsilon_0 c \mathbf{E}_{01} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{02} \cos \delta = \epsilon_0 c \sqrt{\frac{2I_1}{\epsilon_0 c}} \sqrt{\frac{2I_2}{\epsilon_0 c}} \cos \delta = 2\sqrt{I_1 I_2} \cos \delta$$

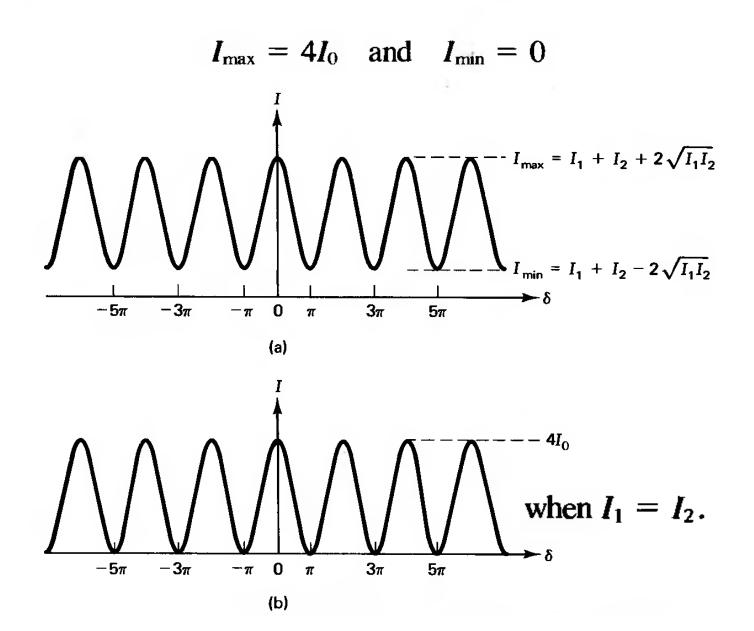
$$I = I_1 + I_2 + 2\sqrt{I_1I_2}\cos\delta$$

To be more specific, when $\cos \delta = +1$, constructive interference yields the maximum irradiance $I_{\text{max}} = I_1 + I_2 + 2\sqrt{I_1I_2}$

On the other hand, when $\cos \delta = -1$, destructive interference yields the minimum, or background, irradiance

$$I_{\min} = I_1 + I_2 - 2\sqrt{I_1I_2}$$

cancellation is complete, when $I_1 = I_2 = I_0$



fringe contrast, also called visibility,

fringe contrast =
$$\frac{I_{\text{max}} - I_{\text{min}}}{I_{\text{max}} + I_{\text{min}}}$$

when $I_1 = I_2 = I_0$

$$I = I_0 + I_0 + 2\sqrt{I_0^2}\cos\delta = 2I_0(1 + \cos\delta)$$

and then making use of the trigonometric identity

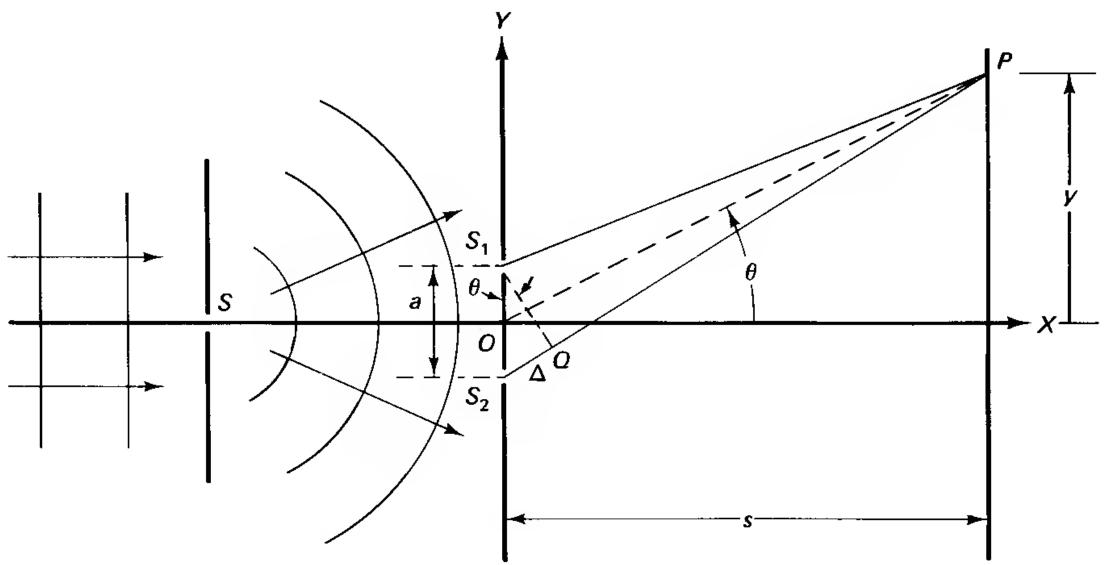
$$1 + \cos \delta \equiv 2 \cos^2 \left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)$$

The irradiance for two equal interfering beams is then

$$I = 4I_0 \cos^2\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)$$

Notice that energy is not conserved at each point of the superposition, that is, $I \neq 2I_0$, but that over at least one spatial period of the fringe pattern $I_{av} = 2I_0$. This situation is typical of interference and diffraction phenomena: If the power density falls below the average at some points, it rises above the average at other points in such a way that the total pattern satisfies the principle of energy conservation.

YOUNG'S DOUBLE-SLIT EXPERIMENT



The condition for constructive interference at a point P on the screen is then, to a very good approximation,

$$S_2P - S_1P = \Delta = m\lambda \cong a \sin \theta$$

whereas for destructive interference,

$$\Delta = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda = a \sin \theta$$

$$\delta = \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\right) \Delta$$

The result is

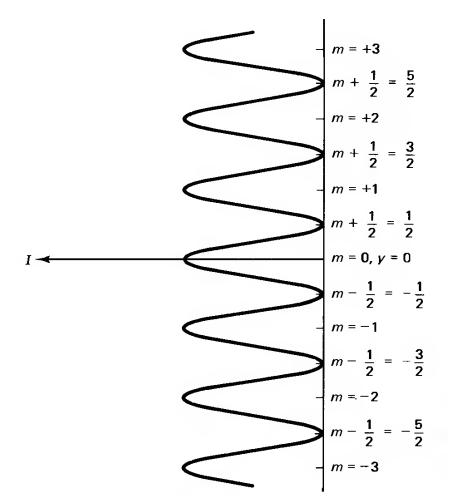
$$I = 4I_0 \cos^2\left(\frac{\pi\Delta}{\lambda}\right) = 4I_0 \cos^2\left(\frac{\pi a \sin\theta}{\lambda}\right)$$

For points P near the optical axis, where $y \le s$, we may approximate further: $\sin \theta \cong \tan \theta \cong y/s$, so that

$$I = 4I_0 \cos^2\left(\frac{\pi a y}{\lambda s}\right)$$

$$y_m=\frac{m\lambda s}{a}$$
,

a constant separation between irradiance maxima.



$$m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\Delta y = \frac{\lambda s}{a}$$

مثال:

در آزمایش دو شکاف یانگ فاصله دو روزنه از یکدیگر ۱ میلی متر و فاصله تا پرده ۵ متر است. اگر چشمه لیزر هلیون ــ نئون با طول موج ۶۳۳ نانومتر باشد فاصله دو بیشینه مجاور را حساب کنید

$$\Delta y = \frac{\lambda s}{a}$$

$$\Delta y = \frac{0.633 \times 5000}{1} = 3.165 \text{ mm}$$

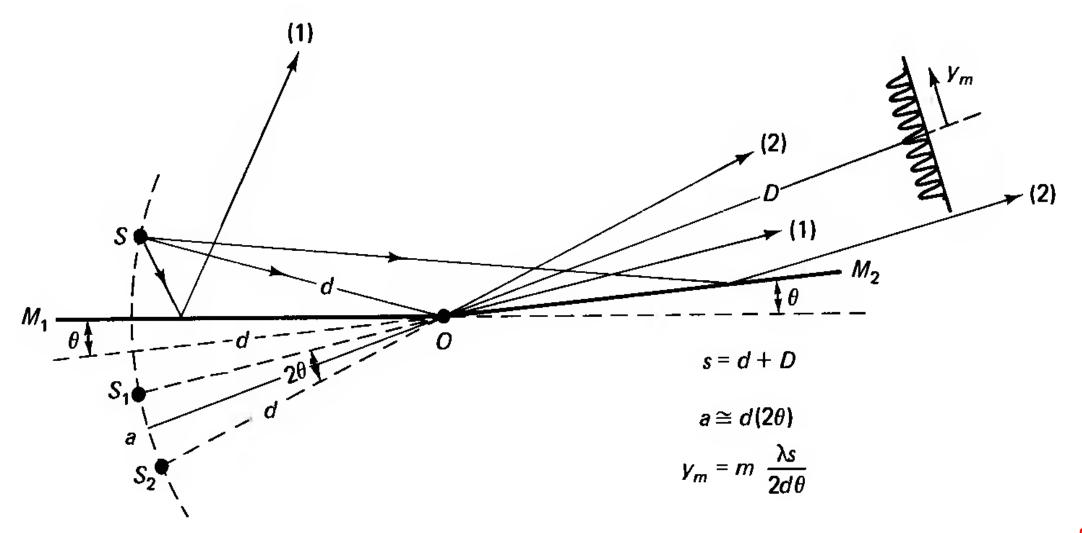
$$y_m - y_n = (m-n) \frac{\lambda s}{a}$$
 n تا m قاصله یشینه m قاصله کمینه ا

$$y_m - y_n = (2m - (2n+1))\frac{\lambda s}{2a}$$
 n قاصله بیشینه m فاصله بیشینه

Interference with Lloyd's mirror. $m \lambda s$ Coherent sources are the point source S and its virtual image, S'. Screen

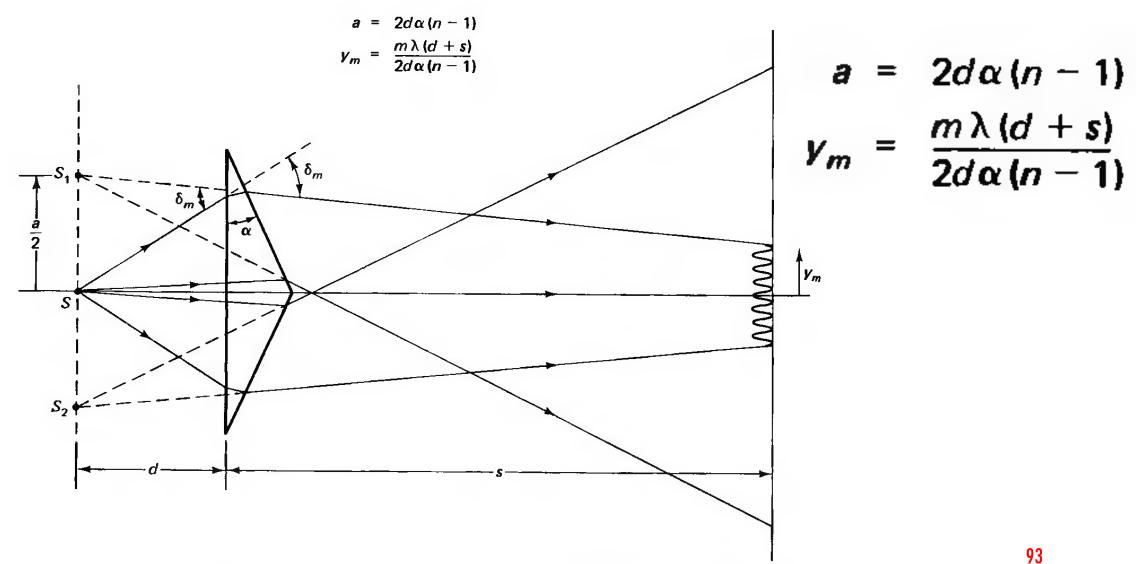
Interference with Fresnel's mirrors.

Coherent sources are the two virtual images of point source S, formed in the two plane mirrors M_1 and M_2 . Direct light from S is not allowed to reach the screen.

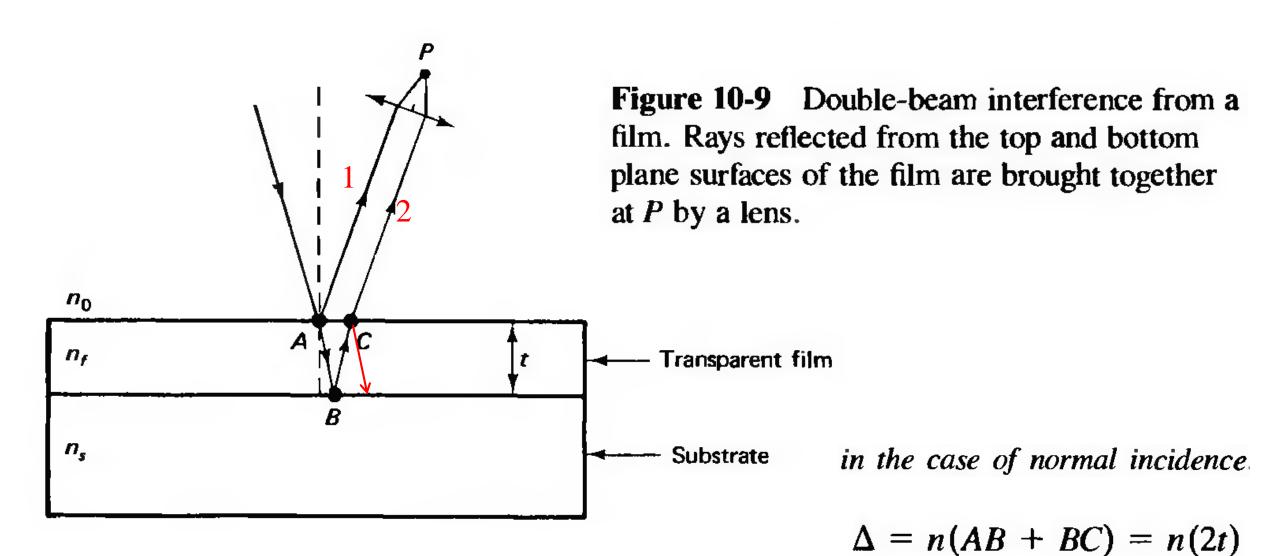


Interference with Fresnel's biprism.

Coherent sources are the virtual images S_1 and S_2 of source S_2 , formed by refraction in the two halves of the prism.



INTERFERENCE IN DIELECTRIC FILMS



in the case of normal incident

the reflection coefficient (or ratio of reflected to incident electric field amplitude is given by

$$r=\frac{1-n}{1+n}$$

where the relative index $n = n_2/n_1$. The amplitudes of the electric field reflected internally and externally from the film of Figure 10-9 are then equal, assuming a non-absorbing film, if the relative indices are equivalent for these cases, that is, if

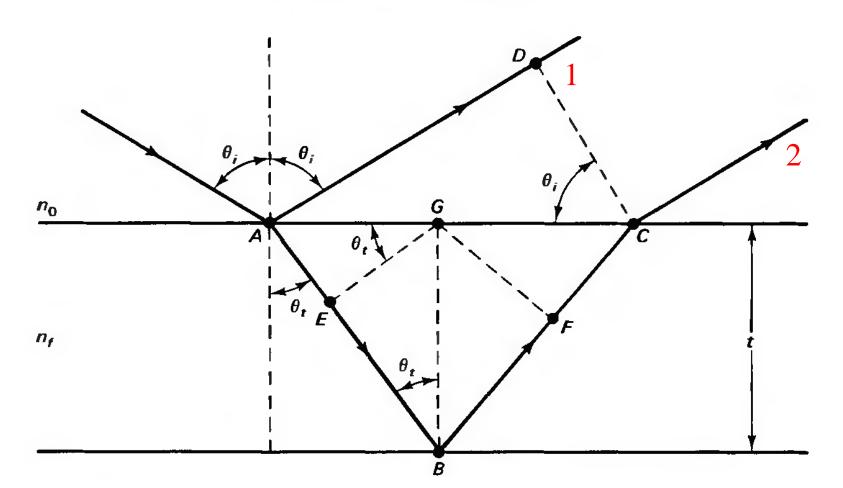
$$\frac{n_f}{n_0} = \frac{n_s}{n_f} \quad \text{or} \quad n_f = \sqrt{n_0 n_s}$$

Assuming n = 1.50 for the glass lens, ideally $n_f = \sqrt{1.50} = 1.22$.

nearest practical film material with a matching index is MgF₂, with n = 1.38.

Returning now to the single-layer film, we want first to generalize the conditions for constructive and destructive interference by calculating the optical path difference in the case incident rays are not normal.

$$\Delta = n_f(AB + BC) - n_0(AD)$$



where n_f and n_0 are the refractive indices of film and external medium, as shown. It is helpful to break the distances AB and BC into parts, resulting in

$$\Delta = [n_f(AE + FC) - n_0AD] + n_f(EB + BF)$$
 (10-27)

The quantity in square brackets vanishes, as we now show. By Snell's law,

$$n_0 \sin \theta_i = n_f \sin \theta_t \tag{10-28}$$

In addition, by inspection,

$$AE = AG \sin \theta_t = \left(\frac{AC}{2}\right) \sin \theta_t \tag{10-29}$$

and

$$AD = AC \sin \theta_i \tag{10-30}$$

From Eq. (10-29) and incorporating, in turn, Eqs. (10-30) and (10-28),

$$2AE = AC \sin \theta_t = AD \left(\frac{\sin \theta_t}{\sin \theta_i}\right) = AD \left(\frac{n_0}{n_f}\right)$$

so that

$$n_0 AD = 2n_f AE = n_f (AE + FC) \tag{10-31}$$

which was to be proved. There remains then, from Eq. (10-27),

$$\Delta = n_f(EB + BF) = 2n_f EB \tag{10-32}$$

The length EB is related to the film thickness t by $EB = t \cos \theta_t$, so we have, finally,

$$\Delta = 2n_f t \cos \theta_t \tag{10-33}$$

The corresponding phase difference is $\delta = k\Delta = (2\pi/\lambda_0) \Delta$. The net phase difference must also take into account possible phase differences that arise on reflection, as discussed previously. Nevertheless, if we call Δ_p the optical path difference given by Eq. (10-33) and Δ_r the equivalent path difference arising from phase change on reflection, we can state quite generally the conditions for

constructive interference:
$$\Delta_p + \Delta_r = m\lambda$$

and

destructive interference:
$$\Delta_p + \Delta_r = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda$$

where m = 0, 1, 2, ...

Optical Interferometry

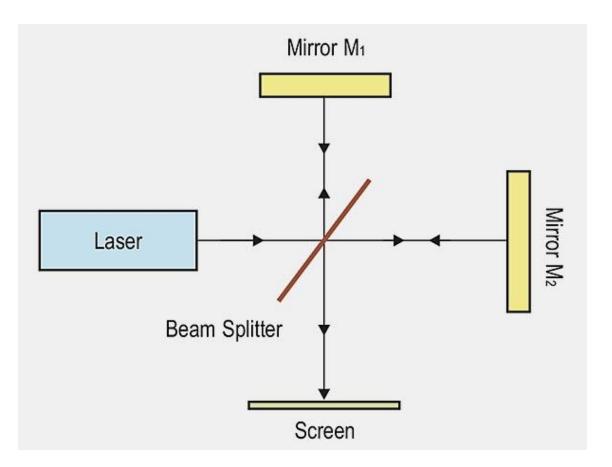
An instrument designed to exploit the interference of light and the fringe patterns that result from optical path differences, in any of a variety of ways, is called an optical interferometer.

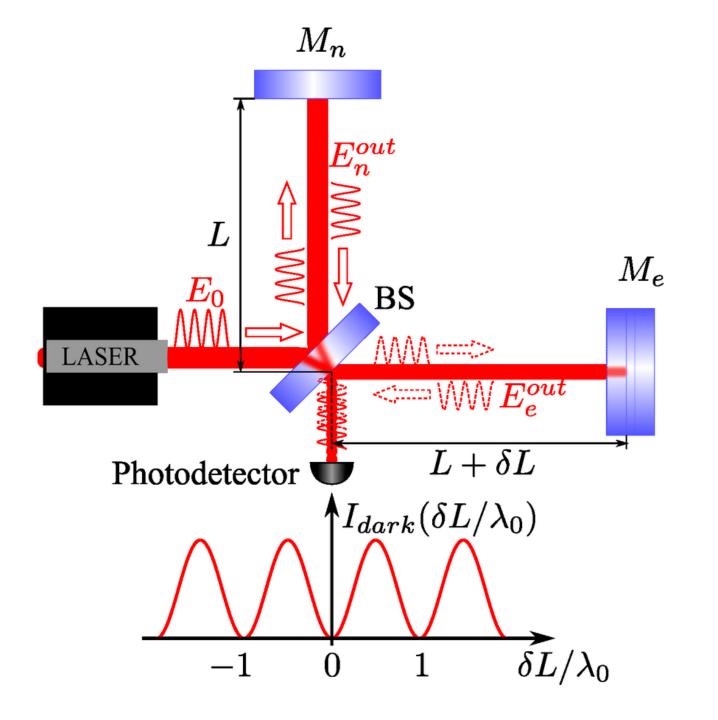
THE MICHELSON INTERFEROMETER

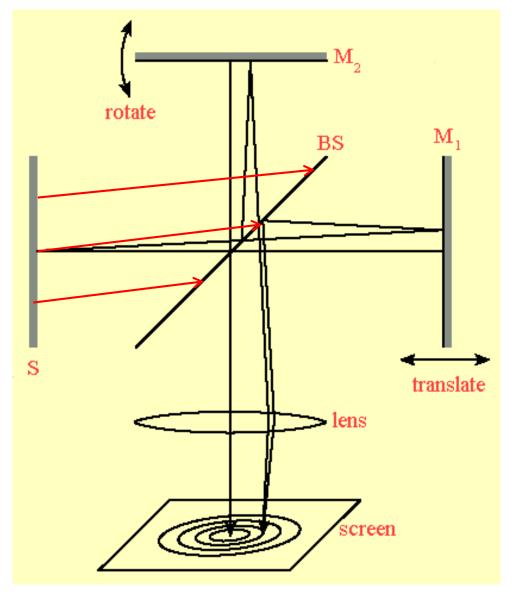
the optical path difference between the two beams emerging from the interferometer is

$$\Delta_p = 2d \cos \theta$$

where the angle θ measures the inclination of the beams relative to the optical axis.







Assuming that the two interfering beams are of equal amplitude, the irradiance of the fringe system of circles concentric with the optical axis is given by

$$I = 4I_0 \cos^2\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)$$

where the phase difference is

$$\delta = k\Delta = \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\right)\Delta$$

The net optical path difference is $\Delta = \Delta_p + \Delta_r$, as usual. A relative π phase shift between the two beams occurs because beam 2 experiences two external reflections

but beam 3 experiences only one. For dark fringes, then,

$$\Delta_p + \Delta_r = 2d \cos \theta + \frac{\lambda}{2} = \left(m + \frac{1}{2}\right)\lambda$$

or, more simply,

$$2d \cos \theta = m\lambda$$
, $m = 0, 1, 2, ...$ dark fringes

If **d** is of such magnitude that the normal rays forming the center of the fringe system that is, the center fringe is dark, then its order, given by

$$m_{\max} = \frac{2d}{\lambda}$$

is a larger integer. Neighboring dark fringes decrease in order outwards from the center of the pattern, as $cos(\theta)$ decreases from its maximum value of 1.

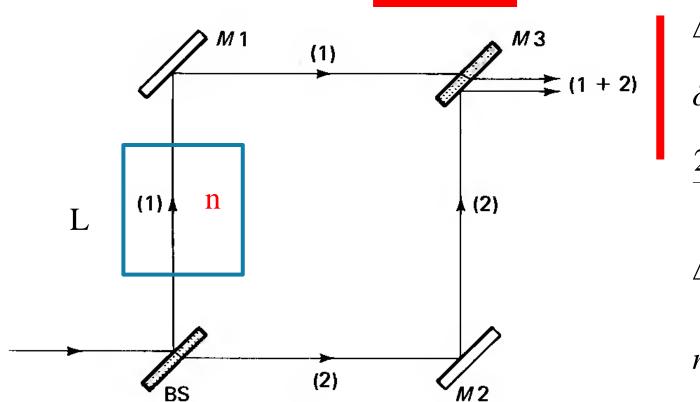
an increase in the angular separation $\Delta\theta$ of a given small fringe interval Δm as the mirror spacing d becomes smaller, since $|\Delta\theta| = \frac{\lambda \Delta m}{2d \sin \theta}$

Equation below suggests an experimental way of either measuring λ when Δd is known or calibrating the micrometer translation screw when λ is known.

$$\Delta m = \frac{2 \Delta d}{\lambda}$$

Mach-Zehnder interferometer.

The incident beam of roughly parallel light is divided into two beams at beam splitter BS. Each beam is again totally reflected by mirrors M1 and M2, and the beams are made coincident again by the semitransparent mirror M3. Path lengths of beams 1 and 2 around the rectangular system and through the glass of the beam splitters are identical.



$$\Delta = nL - L = (n-1)L$$

$$\delta = k\Delta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(n-1)L = m\lambda$$

$$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}L(\Delta n) = \lambda(\Delta m)$$

$$\Delta n = \frac{\lambda^2}{2\pi L}\Delta m$$

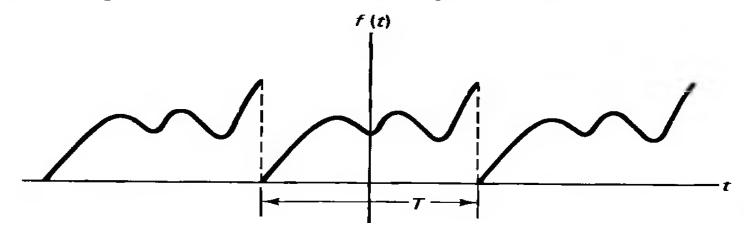
$$n(p) = \frac{\lambda^2}{2\pi L}\Delta m_{\text{max}} + 1$$

Coherence

The term coherence is used to describe the correlation between phases of monochromatic radiations. Beams with random phase relationships are, generally speaking, incoherent beams, whereas beams with a constant phase relationship are coherent beams.

FOURIER ANALYSIS

When a number of harmonic waves of the same frequency are added together, even though they differ in amplitude and phase, the result is again a harmonic wave of the given frequency, as shown in Chapter 9. If the superposed waves differ in frequency as well, the result is periodic but anharmonic and may assume an arbitrary shape, such as that shown in Figure 12-1. An infinite variety of shapes may be synthesized in this way. The inverse process of decomposition of a given waveform into its harmonic components is called *Fourier analysis*.



If f(t) is a bounded function of period T then the Fourier series,

تابع متنهاهي دوره اي:
$$f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_m \cos m\omega t + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} b_m \sin m\omega t$$
 (12-1)

In Eq. (12-1), m takes on integral values and $\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi/T$, where T is the period of the arbitrary f(t). The sine and cosine terms can be interpreted as harmonic waves with amplitudes of b_m and a_m , respectively, and frequencies of $m\omega$. The magnitudes of the coefficients or amplitudes determine the contribution each harmonic wave makes to the resultant anharmonic waveform. If Eq. (12-1) is multiplied by dt and integrated over one period T, the sine and cosine integrals vanish, and the result is

$$a_0 = \frac{2}{T} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T} f(t) dt \qquad a_m = \frac{2}{T} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T} f(t) \cos m\omega t dt \qquad b_m = \frac{2}{T} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T} f(t) \sin m\omega t dt$$

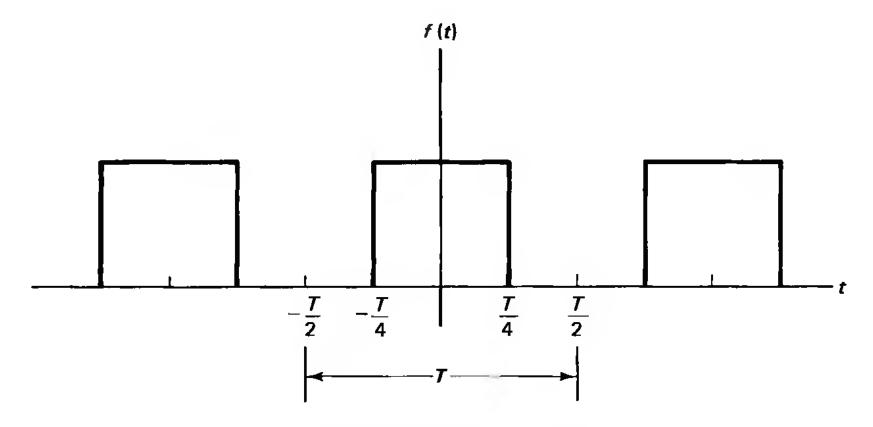


Figure 12-2 Square wave.

As an example, consider the Fourier analysis of the square wave shown in Figure 12-2 and represented over a period symmetric with the origin by

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & -T/2 < t < -T/4 \\ 1, & -T/4 < t < T/4 \\ 0, & T/4 < t < T/2 \end{cases}$$

Since the function is even in t, the coefficients b_m are found to vanish, and only cosine terms (also even functions of t) remain. From Eqs. (12-2) and (12-3), we find

$$a_0 = 1$$

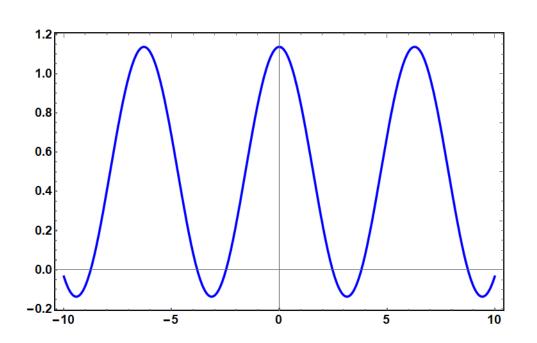
$$a_m = \left(\frac{2}{m\pi}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi}{2}\right) \qquad , \qquad \infty = 0$$

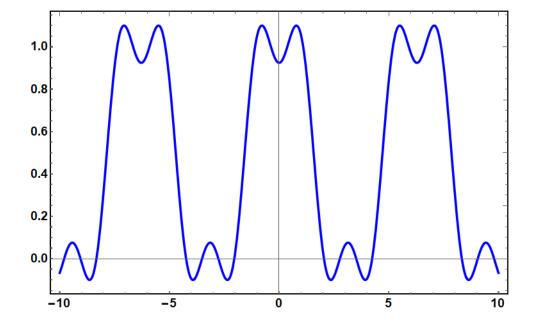
so that the Fourier series that converges to the square wave of Figure 12-2 as more terms are included in the summation is

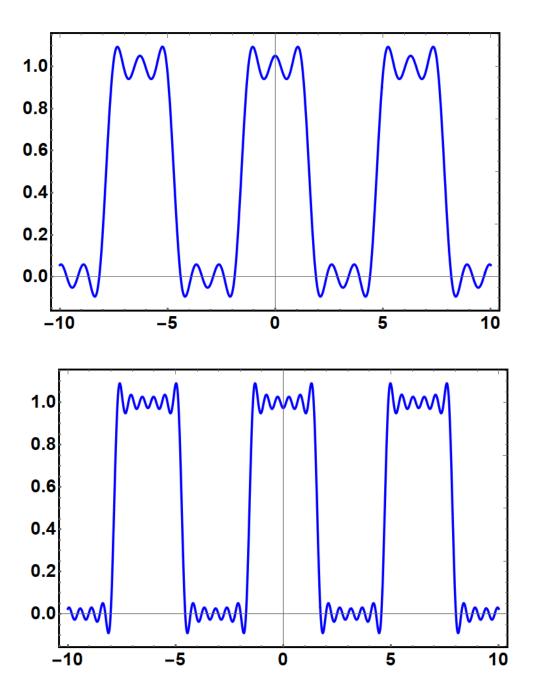
$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{2}{m\pi} \right) \sin \left(\frac{m\pi}{2} \right) \right] \cos m\omega t$$

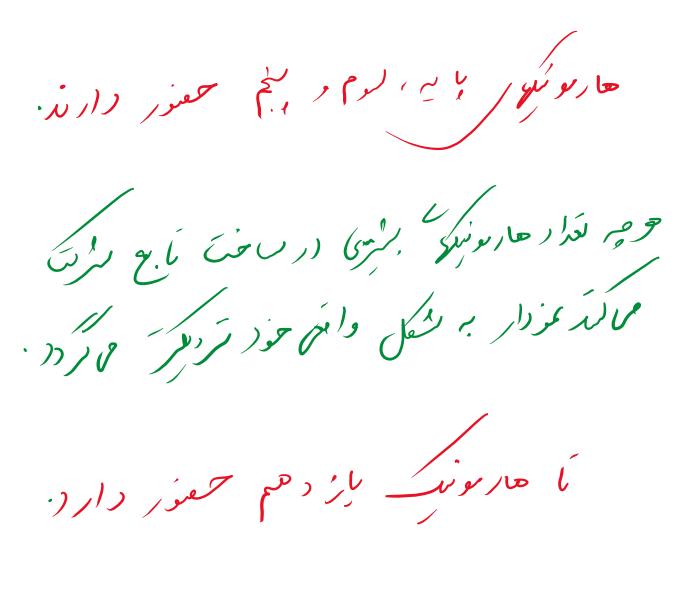
Writing out the first few terms explicitly,

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \left(\cos \omega t - \frac{1}{3} \cos 3\omega t + \frac{1}{5} \cos 5\omega t + \cdots \right)$$









$$f(t) = \frac{1}{r} + \frac{r}{\pi} \left[\cos(\omega t) - \frac{1}{r} \cos(r\omega t) \right]$$
1.0

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0.0

-4 -2 0 2 4 6 8 10

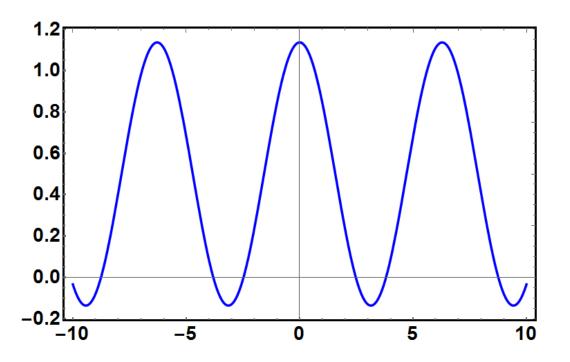
$$f(t) = \frac{1}{r} + \frac{r}{\pi} \left[\cos(\omega t) - \frac{1}{r} \cos(r\omega t) + \frac{1}{\omega} \cos(s\omega t) \right]$$

غودار ۱ بی براحالی به عارموند ئودار و بر رنگ برا حالیا م مًا عارسوني ١٢١٦ در

19 (05 (19wt) - 1 (05 (1 1wt))

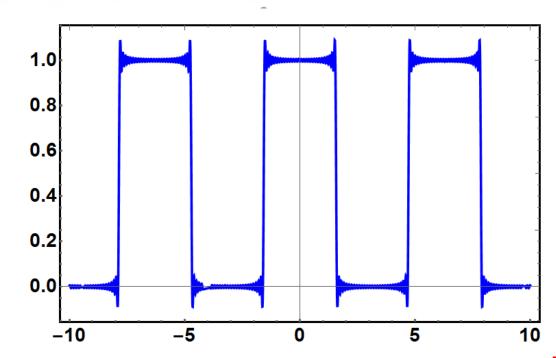
فقط دو جمله اول یعنی اولین هار مونیک در نظر گرفته شده است و از سهم بقیه هار مونیکها صرفنظر شده است.

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \cos \omega t$$



تا هارمونیک شماره ۵۵ در نظر گرفته شده است. مشاهده می گردد که چگونه با جمع کردن توابع سینوسی با دروه های بسامدی مختلف چگونه می توان یک موج مربعی ساخت.

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \left(\cos \omega t - \frac{1}{3} \cos 3\omega t + \frac{1}{5} \cos 5\omega t + \dots + \frac{1}{55} \cos 55\omega t \right)$$



With the help of Euler's equation, the Fourier series given in general by Eq. (12-1), involving as it does both sine and cosine terms, can be expressed in complex notation using exponential functions. The result is

$$f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} c_n e^{-in\omega t}$$
 (12-5)

where now the coefficients

$$c_n = \frac{1}{T} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T} f(t)e^{in\omega t} dt$$
 (12-6)

In cases where we wish instead to represent a nonperiodic function (cleverly interpreted mathematically as a periodic function whose period T approaches infinity), it is possible to generalize the Fourier series to a *Fourier integral*. For example, a single pulse is a nonperiodic function but can be interpreted as a periodic function whose period extends from $t = -\infty$ to $t = +\infty$. It can be shown that the discrete Fourier series now becomes an integral given by

$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g(\omega)e^{-i\omega t} d\omega \qquad (12-7)$$

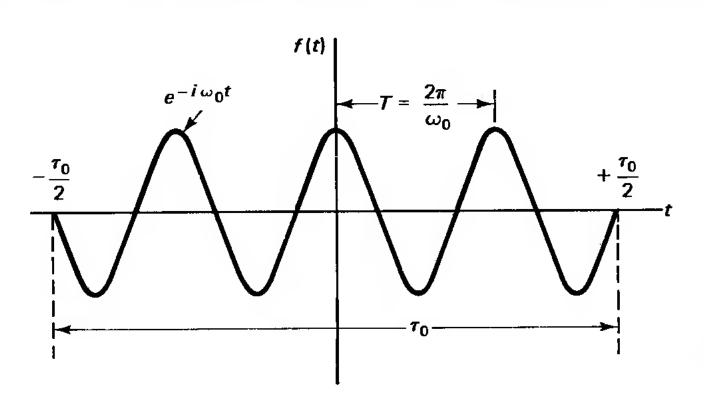
where the coefficient

$$g(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)e^{i\omega t} dt \qquad (12-8)$$

$$f(t) e^{i\omega t} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)e^{i\omega t} dt \qquad (12-8)$$

$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)e^{i\omega t} dt \qquad (12-8)$$

FOURIER ANALYSIS OF A FINITE HARMONIC WAVE TRAIN



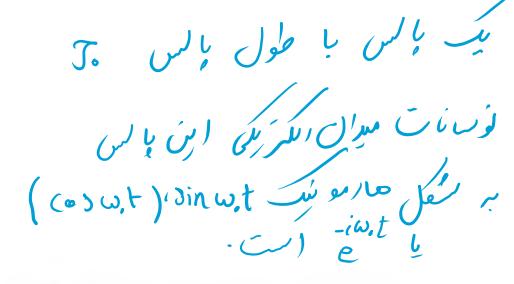


Figure 12-4 Finite harmonic wave train of lifetime τ_0 and period $2\pi/\omega_0$. The spatial extension of the pulse is $\ell_0 = c\tau_0$.

The wave train has a lifetime of τ_0 and a frequency of ω_0 .

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-i\omega_{0}t}, & -\frac{\tau_{0}}{2} < t < \frac{\tau_{0}}{2} \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-i\omega_{0}t}, & -\frac{\tau_{0}}{2} < t < \frac{\tau_{0}}{2} \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$g(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)e^{i\omega t} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\tau_0/2}^{+\tau_0/2} e^{i(\omega-\omega_0)t} dt$$

$$g(\omega) = \left[\frac{e^{i(\omega-\omega_0)t}}{2\pi i(\omega-\omega_0)}\right]_{-\tau_0/2}^{+\tau_0/2}$$

$$g(\omega) = \frac{1}{\pi(\omega - \omega_0)} \left[\frac{e^{i(\omega - \omega_0)\tau_0/2} - e^{-i(\omega - \omega_0)\tau_0/2}}{2i} \right]$$

after using the identity,
$$\rightarrow y$$
, $i\alpha$ $e = \cos x + i \sin x$

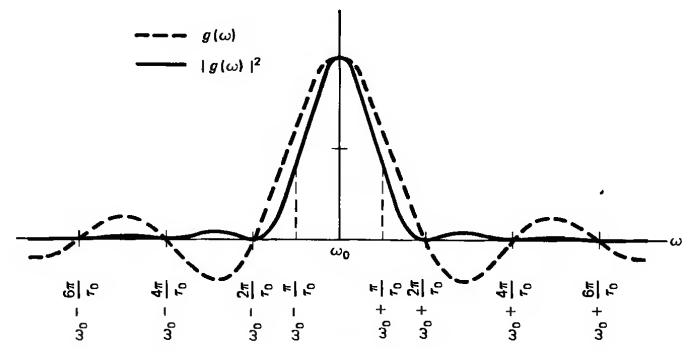
$$e^{ix} - e^{-ix} \equiv 2i \sin x$$

$$g(\omega) = \frac{\sin [(\tau_0/2)(\omega - \omega_0)]}{\pi (\omega - \omega_0)} = \frac{\tau_0}{2\pi} \left\{ \frac{\sin [(\tau_0/2)(\omega - \omega_0)]}{[(\tau_0/2)(\omega - \omega_0)]} \right\}$$

$$\lim_{\omega \to \omega_0} g(\omega) = \frac{\tau_0}{2\pi} \qquad g(\omega) = 0 \quad \text{when} \quad \omega = \omega_0 \pm \frac{2n\pi}{\tau_0}$$

As ω increases (or decreases) from ω_0 then, $g(\omega)$ passes periodically through zero.

Notice that the shorter the wave train of (the smaller the lifetime), the wider is the central maximum. This means that the harmonic waves making important contributions to the actual wave train span a greater frequency interval. We take the half-width of the central maximum, or $2\pi/\tau_0$, to indicate in a rough way the range of dominant frequencies required.



a measure of the frequency band centered around ω_0 required to represent the harmonic wave train of frequency ω_0 and lifetime τ_0 ,

$$\Delta\omega = \frac{2\pi}{\tau_0} \quad \text{or} \quad \Delta f = \frac{1}{\tau_0} \tag{12-15}$$

Equation (12-15) shows that if $\tau_0 \to \infty$, corresponding to a wave train of infinite length, $\Delta\omega \to 0$, and a single frequency ω_0 or wavelength λ_0 suffices to represent the wave train. In this idealized case we have a perfectly monochromatic beam, as considered previously. On the other hand, as $\tau_0 \to 0$, approximating a harmonic "spike," $\Delta\omega \to \infty$. Thus the sharper or narrower the pulse, the greater is the number of frequencies required to represent it, and so the greater the *line width*, or $\Delta\lambda$, of the harmonic wave package.

TEMPORAL COHERENCE AND NATURAL LINE WIDTH

Clearly, there are no perfectly monochromatic sources. Sources we call "monochromatic" emit light that can be represented as a sequence of harmonic wave trains of finite length, as suggested in Figure 12-6, each separated from the others by a discontinuous change in phase. These phase changes reflect the erratic process by which excited atoms in a light source undergo transitions between energy levels, producing brief and random radiation wave trains. A given source can be characterized by an average wave train lifetime τ_0 , called its coherence time. Thus the physical implications of Eq. (12-15) may be summarized as follows: The natural width of a spectral line is inversely proportional to the coherence time of the source. The greater its coherence time, the more monochromatic the source. The coherence length l_t of a wavetrain is the length of its coherent pulse, or

$$l_t = c\tau_0 \tag{12-16}$$

Combining Eqs. (12-15) and (12-16), the coherence length is

$$l_t = \frac{c}{\Delta f}$$

Then, approximating Δf by the magnitude of its differential from the expression $f = c/\lambda$, we may also write

$$l_t \cong \frac{\lambda^2}{\Delta \lambda} \tag{12-17}$$

Thus the natural line width is

$$\Delta \lambda \approx \frac{\lambda^2}{l_t} \tag{12-18}$$

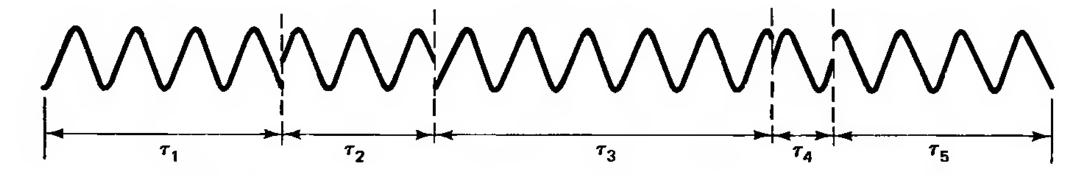


Figure 12-6 Sequence of harmonic wavetrains of varying finite lengths or lifetimes τ . The wavetrain may be characterized by an average lifetime, the coherence time τ_0 .

Since the line width of spectral sources can be measured, average coherence times and coherent lengths my be surmised. White light, for example, has a "line width" of around 300 nm, extending roughly from 400 to 700 nm. Taking the average wavelength at 550 nm, Eq. (12-17) gives

$$l_i = \frac{550^2}{300} \cong 1000 \text{ nm} \cong 2\lambda_{\text{av}}$$

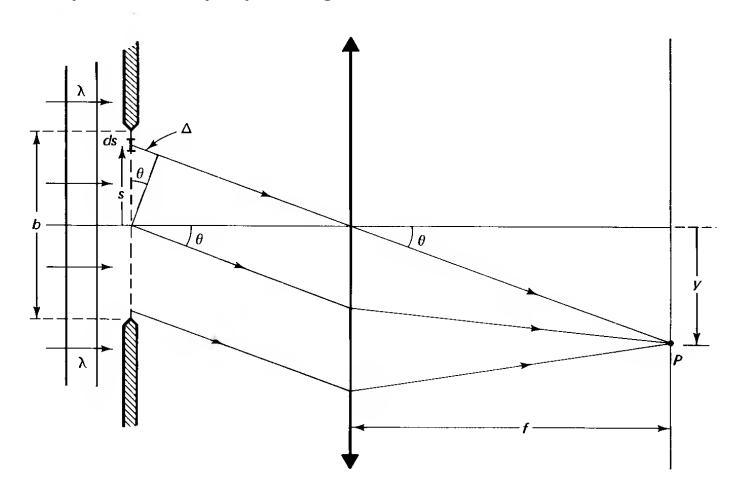
a very small coherence length indeed, of around a millionth of a centimeter or two "wavelengths" of white light. Understandably, interference fringes by white light are difficult to obtain since the difference in the path lengths of the interfering beams should not be greater than the coherence length for the light. Sodium or mercury gas-discharge lamp sources are far more monochromatic and coherent. For example, the green line of mercury at 546 nm may have a line width of around 0.025 nm, giving a coherence length of 1.2 cm. One of the most monochromatic gas-discharge sources is a gas of the krypton 86 isotope, whose orange emission line at 606 nm has a line width of only 0.00047 nm. The coherence length of this radiation, by Eq. (12-17), is 78 cm! Laser radiation has far surpassed even the coherence of this gasdischarge source. The short-term stability of commercially available CO₂ lasers, for example, is such that line widths of around 1×10^{-5} nm are attainable at the infrared emission wavelength of 10.6 μ m. These numbers give a coherence length of around 11 km.

SPATIAL COHERENCE

In speaking of temporal coherence, we have been considering the correlation in phase between temporally distinct points of the radiation field of a source along its line of propagation. For this reason, temporal coherence is also called longitudinal coherence. The degree of coherence can be observed by examining the interference fringe contrast in an amplitude-splitting instrument, such as the Michelson interferometer. As we have seen, temporal coherence is a measure of the average length of the constituent harmonic waves, which depends on the radiation properties of the source. In contrast, we now turn our attention to what is referred to as spatial, or lateral, coherence, the correlation in phase between spatially distinct points of the radiation field. This type of coherence is important when using a wavefront-splitting interferometer, such as the double slit. The quality of the interference pattern in the double-slit experiment depends on the degree of coherence between distinct regions of the wave field at the two slits.

DIFFRACTION FROM A SINGLE SLIT

For Fraunhofer diffraction, the source must be far enough away so that the wavefronts of light reaching the slit are essentially plane. Of course, this is easily accomplished in practice by placing the source in the focal plane of a positive lens. Similarly, we consider the observation screen to be effectively at infinity by using another lens on the other side of the slit,



The plane portion of the wavefront at the slit opening represents a continuous array of Huygens' wavelet sources. We consider each interval of dimension ds as a source and calculate the result of all such sources by integrating over the entire slit width b. Each interval ds contributes spherical wavelets at P of the form

$$dE_p = \left(\frac{dE_0}{r}\right)e^{i(kr-\omega t)}$$

where r is the optical path length from the interval ds to the point P.

Let us set $r = r_0$ for the wave from the interval ds at s = 0. Then for any other wave originating at the interval ds at height s, taking the difference in phase into account, the differential field at P is

$$dE_p = \left(\frac{dE_0}{r}\right)e^{i[k(r_0+\Delta)-\omega t]}$$

In the amplitude, $dE_0/(r_0 + \Delta)$, the path difference Δ is unimportant, since $\Delta \ll r_0$, and therefore Δ can be neglected there. The phase, on the other hand, is very sensitive to small differences. For intervals ds below the axis, s is negative and the path difference is $(r_0 - \Delta)$, corresponding to shorter optical paths to P. The amplitude of the radiation from each interval clearly depends on the size of ds, so that when all such contributions are added by integration, we have the total effect at P. Accordingly, we write

$$dE_0 = E_L ds$$

where E_L is the amplitude per unit width of slit at unit distance away. For a point P at angle θ below the axis, relative to the lens center, the figure shows that $\Delta = s \sin \theta$. With these modifications, the differential contribution to the field at P from an arbitrary interval ds is

$$dE_P = \left(\frac{E_L ds}{r_0}\right) e^{i(kr_0 + ks\sin\theta - \omega t)}$$

Integrating over the width of the slit, we have

$$E_P = \left(\frac{E_L}{r_0} \int_{-b/2}^{b/2} e^{iks\sin\theta} ds\right) e^{i(kr_0 - \omega t)}$$

we retain only the portion in parentheses and integrate:

$$E_R = \frac{E_L}{r_0} \left(\frac{e^{iks\sin\theta}}{ik\sin\theta} \right)_{-k/2}^{b/2} \longrightarrow E_R = \frac{E_L}{r_0} \frac{1}{ik\sin\theta} \left[e^{(ikb\sin\theta)/2} - e^{-(ikb\sin\theta)/2} \right]$$

$$\beta \equiv \frac{1}{2}kb \sin \theta$$

$$E_R = \frac{E_L}{r_0} \frac{b}{2i\beta} (e^{i\beta} - e^{-i\beta}) = \frac{E_L}{r_0} \frac{b}{2i\beta} (2i \sin \beta) \longrightarrow E_R = \frac{E_L b}{r_0} \frac{\sin \beta}{\beta}$$

The irradiance at P is proportional to the square of the resultant amplitude there, or

$$I = \left(\frac{\epsilon_0 c}{2}\right) E_R^2 = \frac{\epsilon_0 c}{2} \left(\frac{E_L b}{r_0}\right)^2 \frac{\sin^2 \beta}{\beta^2}$$

$$I = I_0 \left(\frac{\sin^2 \beta}{\beta^2} \right) \equiv I_0 \operatorname{sinc}^2(\beta)$$

$$\lim_{\beta \to 0} \operatorname{sinc}(\beta) = \lim_{\beta \to 0} \left(\frac{\sin \beta}{\beta} \right) = 1$$

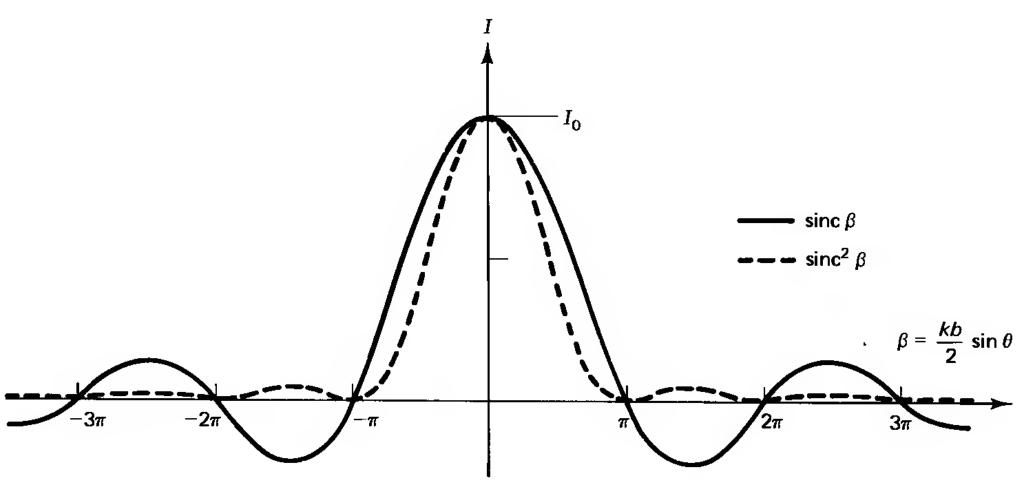
Otherwise, its zeros occur when $\sin \beta = 0$, that is, when

$$\beta = \frac{1}{2}(kb \sin \theta) = m\pi$$
, with $m = \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$

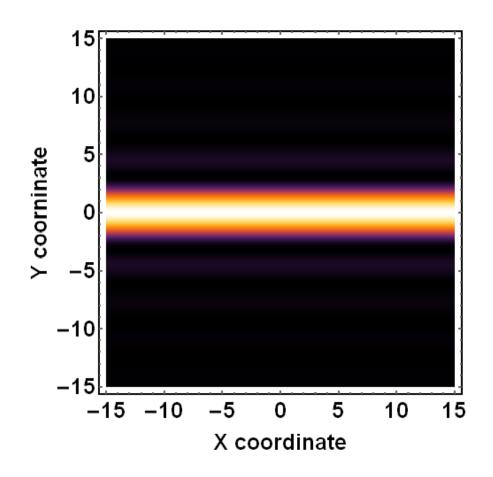
$$m\lambda = b \sin \theta$$

On the screen, therefore, the irradiance is a maximum at $\theta = 0$ or y = 0 and drops to zero at values y such that

 $y \cong \frac{m\lambda f}{b}$



طرح پراش از تک شکاف روی پرده در فاصله دور



15[10 Y coorninate –15Ŀ -15 -10 -5 0 5 10 15 X coordinate

شکاف افقی نور در راستای قائم پراشیده شده

شکاف عمودی نور در راستای افقی پراشیده شده

The secondary maxima of the single-slit diffraction pattern do not quite fall at the midpoints between zeros, even though this condition is more nearly approached as β increases. The maxima coincide with maxima of the sinc function, points satisfying

$$\frac{d}{d\beta}\left(\frac{\sin\beta}{\beta}\right) = \frac{\beta\cos\beta - \sin\beta}{\beta^2} = 0 \quad \text{or } \beta = \tan\beta.$$

or $\beta = \tan \beta$. An angle equals its tangent at intersections of the curves $y = \beta$ and $y = \tan \beta$, both plotted in Figure 16-3. Intersections, excluding $\beta = 0$, occur at 1.43π (rather than 1.5π), 2.46π (rather than 2.5π), 3.47π (rather than 3.5π), and so on, as can be verified with a hand calculator. The plot clearly shows that intersection points approach the vertical lines defining midpoints more closely as β increases. Thus, in the irradiance plot of Figure 16-2, secondary maxima are skewed slightly away from the midpoints toward the central peak. Most of the energy of the diffraction pattern falls under the central maximum, which is much larger than the adjoining maximum on either side.

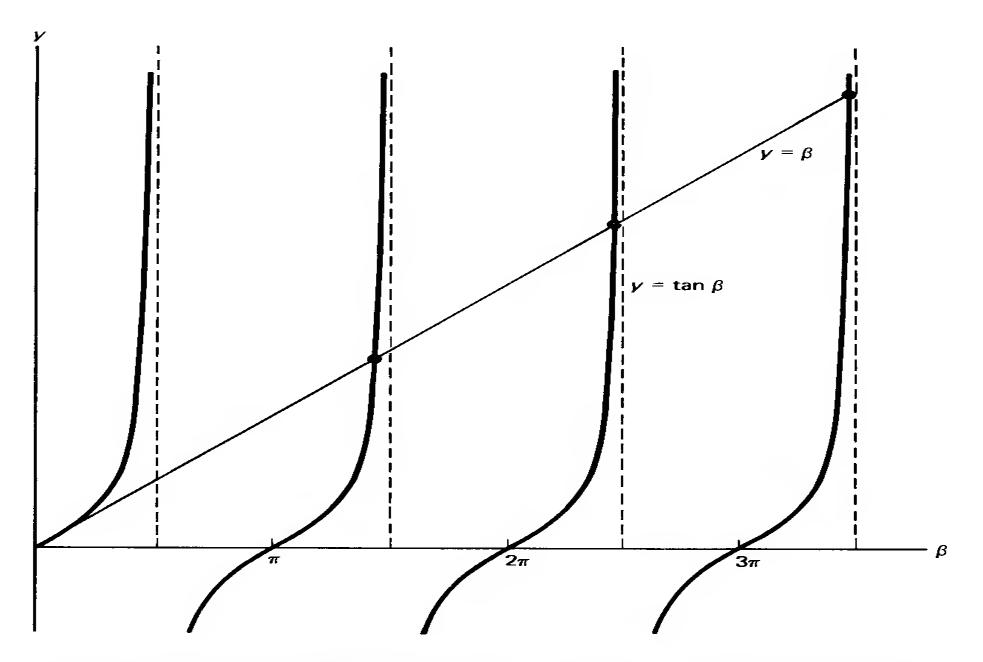


Figure 16-3 Intersections of the curves $y = \beta$ and $y = \tan \beta$ determine the angles β at which the sinc function is a maximum.

The central maximum represents essentially the image of the slit on a distant screen. We observe that the edges of the image are not sharp but reveal a series of maxima and minima that tail off into the shadow surroudning the image. These effects are typical of the blurring of images due to diffraction and will be seen again in other cases of diffraction to be considered. The angular width of the central maximum is defined as the angle $\Delta\theta$ between the first minima on either side. Using Eq. (16-12) with $m = \pm 1$ and approximating $\sin \theta$ by θ , we get

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{2\lambda}{b}$$

$$\Delta y = D = \frac{2\lambda f}{b}$$
 Diameter of the central peak

The beam diameter cannot be smaller than the limit applied by the relation above. This limit is called "diffraction limit"

Example

What is the ratio of irradiances at central peak maximum to the first of the secondary maxima?

Solution The ratio to be calculated is

$$\frac{I_{\beta=0}}{I_{\beta=1.43\pi}} = \frac{(\sin^2 \beta/\beta^2)_{\beta=0}}{(\sin^2 \beta/\beta^2)_{\beta=1.43\pi}} = \frac{1}{(\sin^2 \beta/\beta^2)_{\beta=1.43\pi}}$$
$$= \left(\frac{\beta^2}{\sin^2 \beta}\right)_{1.43\pi} = \frac{20.18}{0.952} = 21.2$$

Thus the maximum irradiance of the nearest secondary peak is only 4.7% that of the central peak.