

OPTICS: INTRODUCTION & FUNDAMENTALS

presented by

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2009 Nano-Biophotonics Summer School
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

LECTURE OUTLINE

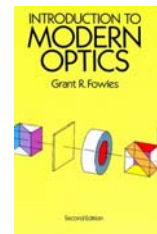
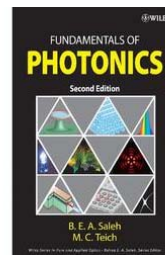
- Ray optics
- Wave optics
- Statistical optics
- Fourier optics
- Diffraction

WHAT IS OPTICS?

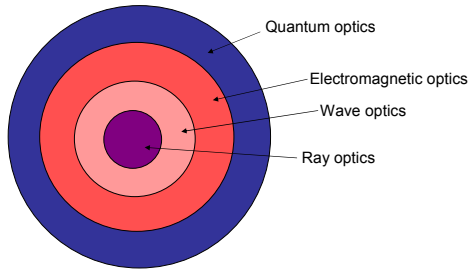
- *Deals with the generation, propagation, and detection of light*

Optics ~ Photonics ~ Light

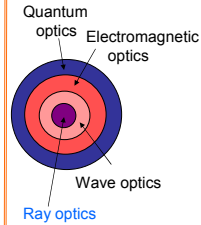
SOURCE MATERIAL



OPTICS THEORIES

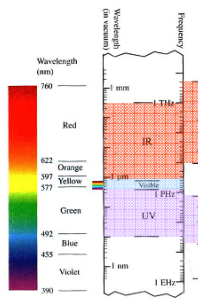


OPTICS: THEORIES



- *Ray optics*-Limit of wave optics when wavelength is infinitesimally small
- *Wave optics*-provides a description of optical phenomena using scalar wave theory
- *Electromagnetic optics*- provides most complete treatment of light within classical optics
- *Quantum optics*-provides a quantum mechanical description of the electromagnetic theory

EM SPECTRUM



- Light is really, really fast!
- $c_o = 3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$
 $= 30 \text{ cm/ns}$
 $= 0.3 \text{ mm/ps}$

INDEX OF REFRACTION

An optical medium is characterized by a quantity $n \geq 1$

$$n = \frac{c_o}{c}$$

Speed of light in vacuum (pointing to c_o)
 Speed of light in a medium (pointing to c)

$$\text{Travel time } t = \frac{d}{c} = \frac{nd}{c_o}$$

Optical pathlength (pointing to nd)

RAY OPTICS

- Geometrical optics
- Describes light as rays that travel in accordance with a set of geometrical rules
- Deals with location and direction of rays

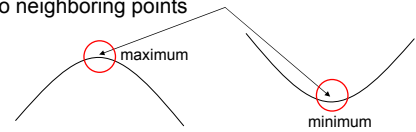
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FERMAT'S PRINCIPLE

- Rays traveling between two points follow a path such that the optical pathlength is an extremum (point of inflection) relative to neighboring points



- Usually minimum, so
Light rays travel along the path of least time

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HERO'S PRINCIPLE

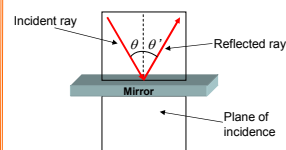
- n is the same everywhere in a homogeneous medium
- Path of min time = Path of min distance
- *Principle of path of min distance states that the path of min distance between points is a straight line*
- *Light rays travel in straight lines*

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REFLECTION



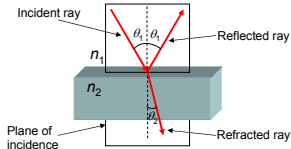
- **Law of reflection:**
Reflected ray lies in plane of incidence

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REFRACTION

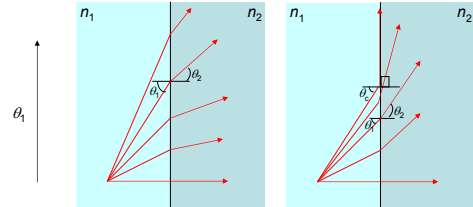


- Occurs at boundary between two different media
- Reflected ray follows law of reflection
- Refracted ray obeys **Snell's law**

$$n_1 \sin \theta_i = n_2 \sin \theta_t$$

PLANAR BOUNDARIES

$$n_1 \sin \theta_i = n_2 \sin \theta_t$$



External refraction

$$n_1 < n_2$$

$$\theta_t > \theta_i$$

-ray bends away from boundary

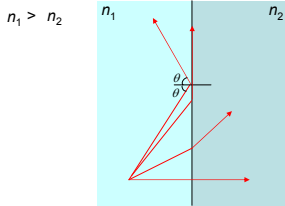
Internal refraction

$$n_1 > n_2$$

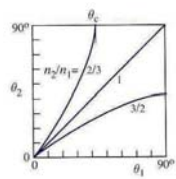
$$\theta_t < \theta_i$$

-ray bends towards boundary

TOTAL INTERNAL REFLECTION



Total Internal reflection

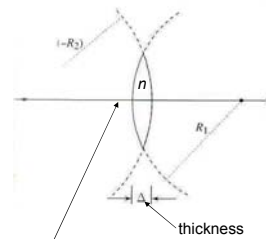


- Refraction does not occur!
- Light is completely reflected
- Used in fiber optics communications



Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

SPHERICAL LENSES

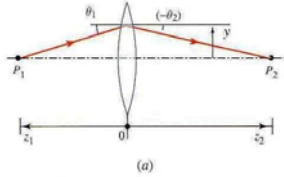


Optical axis – center of symmetry for optical components

- Bounded by 2 spherical surfaces with radii R_1 and R_2
- *Thin lens* assumption -ray at output of lens is ~ same height as ray at input to lens
- Paraxial approximation [rays travel close to, and make small angles ($\sin \theta \approx \theta$) with optical axis]

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

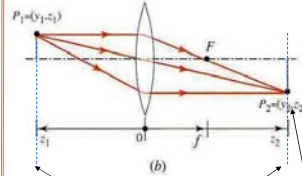
THIN LENS (FOCUSING)



$$\frac{1}{f} = (n-1) \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$$

- For biconvex lens (very popular), $R_1 +$, and $R_2 -$, leading to $+f$ (focusing lens)
- For biconcave lens, $R_1 -$, and $R_2 +$, leading to $-f$ (diverging lens)

THIN LENS (IMAGING)



- Rays coming from P_1 meet at P_2

- Imaging equation (lens law):

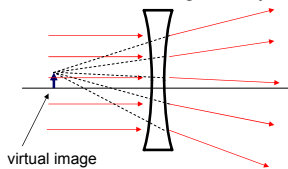
$$\frac{1}{z_1} + \frac{1}{z_2} = \frac{1}{f}$$

- Magnification

$$M = \frac{-z_2}{z_1}$$

THIN LENS (IMAGING)

- Virtual image – outgoing rays do not intersect at a point; can be viewed as a “virtual” image creating diverging rays
- Occurs for negative lenses ($f < 0$); positive lenses if object is less than a focal length away



F-NUMBER AND DEPTH OF FIELD

- The f -number of a lens is the ratio of its focal length to its “effective” diameter

$$F/\# = \frac{f}{D}$$

- Collect more light with small $F/\#$ lens but are more sensitive to aberrations

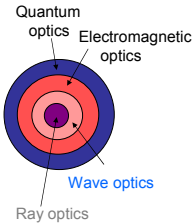
- Depth of field (DOF) = range of distances where the object (subject) is in “acceptable” focus (often in μm for microscopes)

- DOF increases with increasing $\#$

- A lens with $F/\# = f/64$ has larger DOF than $F/\# = f/1.4$ [$F/\# \rightarrow f/0.5$ for microscopes]



OPTICS: THEORIES



Ray optics-Limit of wave optics when wavelength is infinitesimally small

Wave optics-provides a description of optical phenomena using scalar wave theory

Electromagnetic optics- provides most complete treatment of light within classical optics

Quantum optics-provides a quantum mechanical description of the electromagnetic theory

WAVE OPTICS



- Light propagates in the form of waves
- Can be described by a scalar (wave) function
- Does not completely describe some phenomena such as reflection and refraction, and polarization effects

POSTULATES OF WAVE OPTICS



- The **wave equation**

$$\nabla^2 u(\mathbf{r}, t) - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 u(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^2} = 0$$

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

wavefunction (real)

- Equation is linear->principle of superposition
- Describes how a wave behaves in *space* and *time*
- Approximately applicable if $n(\mathbf{r})$ and $c(\mathbf{r})$

POSTULATES OF WAVE OPTICS



- **Optical intensity** [Watts/cm²]

$$I(\mathbf{r}, t) = 2 \langle u^2(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle$$

measurable

- Optical power [Watts]
- Optical energy [joules]

$$P(t) = \int_A I(\mathbf{r}, t) dA$$

area normal to direction of propagation

$$E = \int_t P(t) dt$$

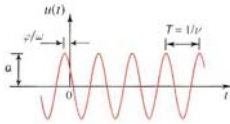
time interval

MONOCHROMATIC WAVES

generally, position dependent

$$u(\mathbf{r}, t) = a(\mathbf{r}) \cos[2\pi\nu t + \varphi(\mathbf{r})]$$

single frequency
(3×10^{11} - 10^{16} Hz)



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COMPLEX REPRESENTATION

- More convenient for studying optics

$$u(\mathbf{r}, t) = \text{Re}\{U(\mathbf{r}, t)\} = \frac{1}{2}[U(\mathbf{r}, t) + U^*(\mathbf{r}, t)]$$

$$U(\mathbf{r}, t) = a(\mathbf{r}) \exp[j\varphi(\mathbf{r})] \exp(j2\pi\nu t)$$

Complex wavefunction Complex amplitude, $U(\mathbf{r})$

- $U(\mathbf{r}, t)$ must also satisfy wave equation

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OPTICAL INTENSITY (MONOCHROMATIC WAVE)

$$I(\mathbf{r}) = |U(\mathbf{r})|^2$$

- averaged over a time longer than an optical period
- I is time independent for monochromatic waves

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HELMHOLTZ EQUATION

$$\nabla^2 U + k^2 U = 0$$

wavenumber, $k = \frac{2\pi\nu}{c} = \frac{\omega}{c}$

- Describes the wave's behavior in *space only*
- Convenient for studying many concepts

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HELMHOLTZ EQUATION

$$\nabla^2 U + k^2 U = 0$$

- What are some solutions?
- Simplest solutions are plane wave, spherical wave

THE PLANE WAVE

$$U(\mathbf{r}) = A \exp(-j\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}) = A \exp[-j(k_x x + k_y y + k_z z)]$$

complex envelope

wavevector, $\mathbf{k} = (k_x, k_y, k_z)$

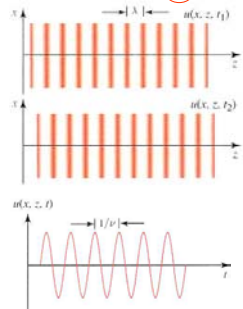
- Plugging $U(\mathbf{r})$ into Helmholtz equation gives

$$|\mathbf{k}| = k^2 = k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2$$
- Phase of $U(\mathbf{r})$ is given by $\arg\{U(\mathbf{r})\} = \arg\{A\} - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}$
- The **wavefronts** (surfaces of constant phase) obey

$$\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} = k_x x + k_y y + k_z z = 2\pi\eta + \arg\{A\}$$

THE PLANE WAVE

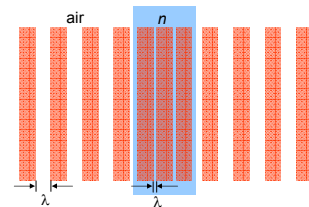
$$\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} = k_x x + k_y y + k_z z = 2\pi\eta + \arg\{A\}$$



- Eq. describes parallel planes that are perpendicular to \mathbf{k}
- Wavelength, $\lambda = 2\pi/k = c/v$ [nm]
- Intensity ($I=|A|^2$) is constant everywhere---not realistic!

WHAT DOES IT ALL MEAN?

- Given v , and remembering that c_0 is constant



$$c = \frac{c_0}{n}, \quad \lambda = \frac{\lambda_0}{n}, \quad k = nk_0$$

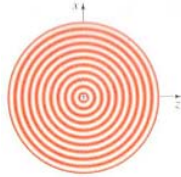
THE SPHERICAL WAVE

- Solution to Helmholtz equation in spherical coordinates

$$U(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{A_o}{r} \exp(-jkr)$$

radial distance from origin

$$I(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{|A_o|^2}{r^2}$$



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PARAXIAL HELMHOLTZ EQUATION

$$\nabla_T^2 A - j2k \frac{\partial A}{\partial z} = 0$$

transverse Laplacian, $\nabla_T^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}$

- Paraxial approximation of the Helmholtz equation
- Applies to paraxial waves, i.e., wavefront normals make small angles with z-axis
- Some solutions are the paraboloidal wave and the Gaussian beam

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THE PARABOLOIDAL WAVE

- Consider spherical wave at points close to z-axis and far from origin

$$U(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{A_o}{r} \exp(-jkr)$$

$r \approx z$ $r \approx z + \frac{(x^2 + y^2)}{2z}$

Fresnel approximation of a spherical wave

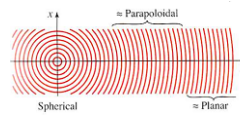
$$U(\mathbf{r}) \approx \frac{A_o}{z} \exp(-jkz) \exp\left[-jk \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2z}\right]$$

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THE PARABOLOIDAL WAVE



- Far from origin spherical wave ~ paraboloidal wave
- Very far ~ plane wave
- Approximation is valid when

$$\frac{N_F \theta_m^2}{4} \ll 1$$

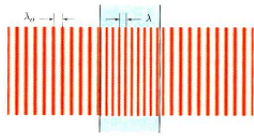
where, $N_F = \frac{a^2}{\lambda z}$ Radius of circle within which approx is valid
Fresnel number

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TRANSMISSION THROUGH A TRANSPARENT PLATE



- Thus, transmittance at output is $t(x, y) = \exp(-jnk_0 d)$
- Plate only introduces a phase shift
- For oblique incident angle,

- Complex amplitude transmittance

$$t(x, y) = \frac{U(x, y, d)}{U(x, y, 0)}$$

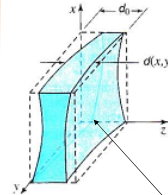
- Inside plate, wave continues as a plane wave



$$t(x, y) = \exp(-jnk_0 d \cos \theta_1)$$

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

THIN TRANSPARENT PLATE (VARYING THICKNESS)



- For arbitrary paraxial wave input

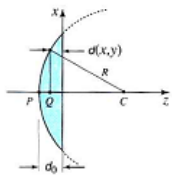
$$t(x, y) \approx \exp(-jk_0 d) \exp[-j(n-1)k_0 d(x, y)]$$

- This is true if $(d_0/\lambda_0)\theta^2/2n \ll 1$ (paraxial approximation)

Thin transparent plate

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

TRANSMISSION THROUGH A THIN LENS



- At the point (x, y)

$$d(x, y) = d_0 - \left[R - \sqrt{R^2 - (x^2 + y^2)} \right]$$

$$\approx d_0 - \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2R}$$

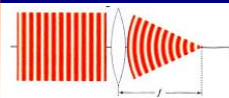
$$t(x, y) \approx \exp(-jk_0 d) \exp \left[jk_0 \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2f} \right]$$

$$f = \frac{R}{n-1}$$

- Transforms planar wavefronts to paraboloidal wavefronts centered at f

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

EXAMPLE



- $t(x, y)$ for a thin lens is

$$t(x, y) \approx \exp(-jk_0 d) \exp \left[jk_0 \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2f} \right]$$

- What does lens do to incident plane wave?

$$t(x, y) = \frac{U_2(x, y)}{U_1(x, y)}$$

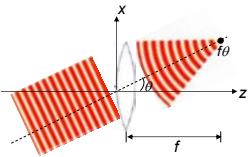
$\exp(-jkz)$

$$U_2(x, y) = \exp(-jkz) h_0 \exp \left[jk_0 \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2f} \right]$$

- Thus, lens transforms incoming wavefronts into paraboloidal wavefronts centered at $(0, 0, f)$

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

EXAMPLE



- For small input angle

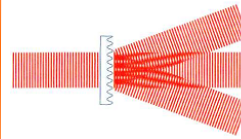
$$U_1(x, y) = \exp[-jk(z + \theta x)]$$

$$U_2(x, y) = \exp(-jkz) \exp\left[jk_0 \frac{(x - f\theta)^2 + y^2}{2f}\right]$$

- Transforms input to paraboloidal wave centered at $(f\theta, 0, f)$

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

DIFFRACTION GRATINGS



- Periodically modulates amplitude or phase of input wave
- Here incident plane wave is split into multiple plane waves traveling in different directions

In paraxial approximation,

$$\theta_q = \theta_i + q \frac{\lambda}{\Lambda}$$

Grating equation

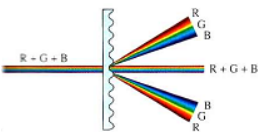
incident angle

diffraction order

grating period

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

DIFFRACTION GRATINGS



- More general grating equation

$$\sin \theta_q = \sin \theta_i + q \frac{\lambda}{\Lambda}$$

- λ dependent
- Used as filters and spectrum analyzers

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

GRADED-INDEX COMPONENTS

Optical Component	Transverse Variation in thickness of material
Prism	Linear
Lens	Quadratic
Diffraction grating	Periodic

- GRIN components can be designed to produce the same effects

$$t(x, y) = \exp(-jn(x, y)k_0 d_0)$$

INTERFERENCE

INTERFERENCE

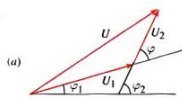
- Let's consider the superposition of two monochromatic waves

$$U(\mathbf{r}) = U_1(\mathbf{r}) + U_2(\mathbf{r})$$

$$I = |U|^2 = |U_1 + U_2|^2 = |U_1|^2 + |U_2|^2 + U_1^* U_2 + U_1 U_2^*$$

$$U_1 = \sqrt{I_1} \exp(j\varphi_1) \quad , \quad U_2 = \sqrt{I_2} \exp(j\varphi_2)$$

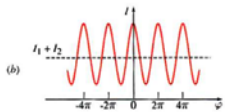
INTERFERENCE



Interference equation

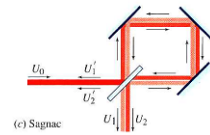
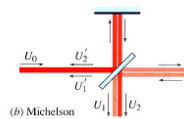
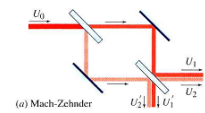
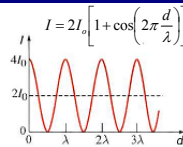
$$I = I_1 + I_2 + 2\sqrt{I_1 I_2} \cos \varphi$$

$$\varphi = \varphi_2 - \varphi_1$$



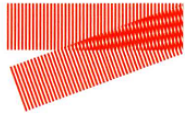
$$I = 2I_o(1 + \cos \varphi) = 4I_o \cos^2\left(\frac{\varphi}{2}\right)$$

INTERFEROMETERS



INTERFERENCE OF TWO OBLIQUE PLANE WAVES

I



$$I = 2I_o [1 + \cos(k \sin \theta x)]$$

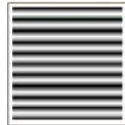


Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

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BREAK

I

STATISTICAL OPTICS

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DEFINITIONS

I

- Study of random light
- Occurs b/c of fluctuations of the light either due to the source or the medium that it propagates through
- Examples:
 - 1) Light scattered from rough surfaces (imparts random variations in the wavefront)
 - 2) Natural light radiated by a hot object is made up of A LOT of atoms, each radiating at different frequencies and phases

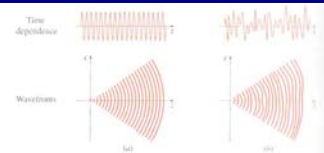
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DEFINITIONS

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- Deterministic light is called "coherent"
- Ex: monochromatic plane wave
- Random light, the behavior of the wavefunction $U(r,t)$ with respect to position and time is not (completely) predictable
- Statistical methods are used to describe random light

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

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WHAT CAN WE DO?



- Which is more “intense”?
- Which has a “faster” fluctuating envelope?

OPTICAL INTENSITY

- Recall that for deterministic (coherent) light

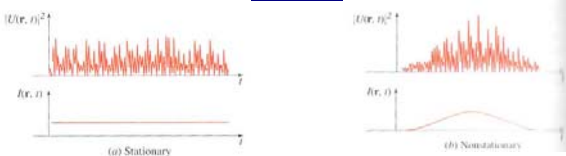
$$I(\mathbf{r}, t) = |U(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2$$

- For random light, $U(\mathbf{r}, t)$ fluctuates with position and time

$$\text{Average intensity } I(\mathbf{r}, t) = \langle |U(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 \rangle$$

Instantaneous intensity
Ensemble average over many instances

STATIONARY VS. NONSTATIONARY



- (Statistically) Stationary - $I(\mathbf{r}, t) = I(\mathbf{r})$ is time independent
Ex: light bulb driven by constant electric current
- (Statistically) Nonstationary - $I(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is not time independent
Ex: light bulb driven by pulse of electric current

$$I(\mathbf{r}) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T |U(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dt$$

TEMPORAL COHERENCE

- Consider stationary light at fixed position r :

$$U(\mathbf{r}, t) \rightarrow U(t) \text{ and } I(\mathbf{r}) \rightarrow I$$

- We characterize $U(t)$ by a time scale that represents the memory of the random fluctuation
- Quantitatively this is represented by the autocorrelation function $G(\tau)$

TEMPORAL COHERENCE FUNCTION

- Autocorrelation(temporal coherence function)

$$G(\tau) = \langle U^*(t)U(t+\tau) \rangle$$

$$G(\tau) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T U^*(t)U(t+\tau) dt$$

$$I = G(0)$$

- Contains info about intensity and coherence (degree of correlation)

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DEGREE OF TEMPORAL COHERENCE

- Complex degree of temporal coherence

$$g(\tau) = \frac{G(\tau)}{G(0)} = \frac{\langle U^*(t)U(t+\tau) \rangle}{\langle U^*(t)U(t) \rangle} \quad 0 \leq |g(\tau)| \leq 1$$

Normalized autocorrelation

- For monochromatic wave, $U(t) = A \exp(j\omega_0 t)$

$$g(\tau) = A \exp(j\omega_0 \tau) \rightarrow |g(\tau)| = 1$$

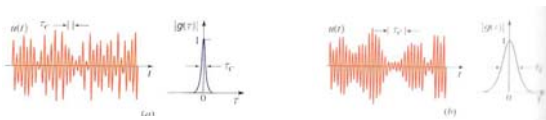
- Tells you how much two points in time are correlated (for a fixed position)

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COHERENCE TIME



- Within τ_c , wave is predictable; At times greater than τ_c , one cannot predict amplitude and phase of wave

$$\tau_c = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(\tau)|^2 d\tau$$

← Commonly used definition

$$\tau_c = \infty \quad \text{Monochromatic wave}$$

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

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COHERENCE LENGTH

- Light can be considered coherent if distance l_c is \gg than all optical path-length differences encountered in an optical system

$$l_c = c\tau_c$$

Source	$\Delta\nu_c$ (Hz)	$\tau_c = 1/\Delta\nu_c$	$l_c = c\tau_c$
Filtered sunlight ($\lambda_0 = 0.4\text{--}0.8 \mu\text{m}$)	3.74×10^{13}	2.67 fs	800 nm
Light-emitting diode ($\lambda_0 = 1 \mu\text{m}$, $\Delta\lambda_0 = 50 \text{ nm}$)	1.5×10^{13}	67 fs	20 μm
Low-pressure sodium lamp	5×10^{11}	2 ps	600 μm
Multimode He-Ne laser ($\lambda_0 = 633 \text{ nm}$)	1.5×10^9	0.67 ns	20 cm
Single-mode He-Ne laser ($\lambda_0 = 633 \text{ nm}$)	1×10^6	1 μs	300 m

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

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COMPLEX DEGREE OF COHERENCE

- Spatial and temporal fluctuations of $U(\mathbf{r}, t)$ can be described by cross-correlation between $U(\mathbf{r}_1, t)$ and $U(\mathbf{r}_2, t)$

$$G(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \tau) = \langle U^*(\mathbf{r}_1, t) U(\mathbf{r}_2, t + \tau) \rangle \quad \text{Mutual coherence function}$$

$$g(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \tau) = \frac{G(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \tau)}{\sqrt{I(\mathbf{r}_1)I(\mathbf{r}_2)}} \quad 0 \leq |g(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \tau)| \leq 1$$

- Measure of coherence between 2 positions at 2 different times

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MUTUAL INTENSITY

- To examine the spatial correlation of light

$$G(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, 0) = G(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = \langle U^*(\mathbf{r}_1, t) U(\mathbf{r}_2, t) \rangle$$

$$g(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, 0) = g(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = \frac{G(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2)}{\sqrt{I(\mathbf{r}_1)I(\mathbf{r}_2)}} \quad \text{Normalized mutual intensity}$$

- Measure of spatial coherence between 2 positions for 0 time delay

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COHERENCE AREA

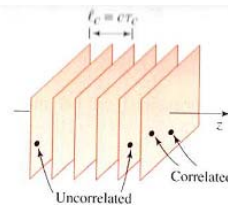
- Represents the spatial extent of $|g(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2)|$ as a function of \mathbf{r}_1 for a fixed \mathbf{r}_2
- If size of aperture in optical system is $<$ than coherence area ($|g(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2)| \approx 1$) then light may be considered coherent; if vice-versa, light is considered **incoherent**

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PARTIAL COHERENCE



Plane wave



Spherical wave

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

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INTERFERENCE OF PARTIALLY COHERENT LIGHT

partially coherent waves 1 and 2

$$I = \langle |U_1 + U_2|^2 \rangle = I_1 + I_2 + 2\sqrt{I_1 I_2} |g_{12}| \cos \varphi$$

- If both waves are completely correlated w/ $g_{12} = \exp(j\varphi)$ then: $|g_{12}| = 1$

and I is given by usual expression we know

- If both waves are completely uncorrelated w/ $g_{12} = 0$ then:

$$I = I_1 + I_2$$

$$g_{12} = \frac{\langle U_1^* U_2 \rangle}{\sqrt{I_1 I_2}} \quad \text{Phase of } g_{12}$$

$$V = \frac{I_{\max} - I_{\min}}{I_{\max} + I_{\min}} = \frac{2\sqrt{I_1 I_2} |g_{12}|}{I_1 + I_2}$$

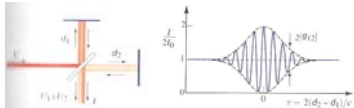
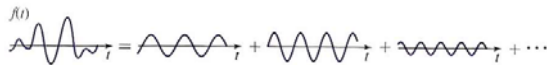


Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

BREAK

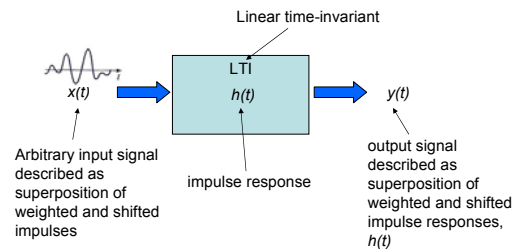
FOURIER OPTICS

BACKGROUND: FOURIER ANALYSIS



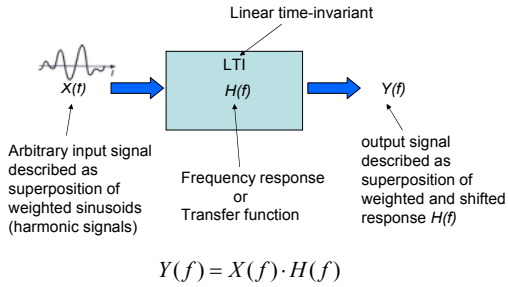
- Arbitrary function can be represented as a weighted superposition of harmonic functions
- Frequencies are orthogonal

FOURIER ANALYSIS (TIME-DOMAIN APPROACH)



$$y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$$

FOURIER ANALYSIS (FREQ-DOMAIN APPROACH)



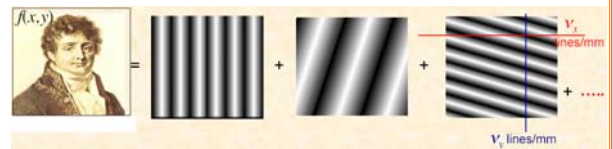
FOURIER ANALYSIS

- $Y(f)$ is the **Fourier transform** of $y(t)$
- $y(t)$ is the **Inverse Fourier transform** of $Y(f)$

SOME COMMON TRANSFORM PAIRS

Function	$f(t)$	$F(f)$
Uniform		$\delta(f)$
Impulse	$\delta(t)$	
Rectangular		$\text{sinc}(f)$
Exponential	$\exp(-\gamma t)$	$\frac{2}{1+(2\pi\gamma)^2}$
Gaussian		$\exp(-\pi f^2)$

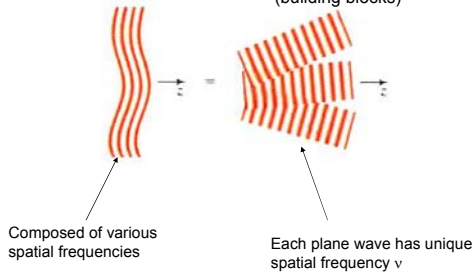
INTRODUCTION



- Image can be decomposed into weighted sum of harmonic functions
- Orthogonal spatial frequencies
- Different complex amplitudes

INTRODUCTION

Arbitrary optical wave = Superposition of plane waves (building blocks)



SPATIAL FREQUENCY

Spatial angular frequency [radians/mm]

$$v_x = \frac{k_x}{2\pi} \quad v_y = \frac{k_y}{2\pi}$$

[cycles/mm]

- Tells us how often structure (e.g., in an image) repeats per unit distance

THE EFFECT OF SPATIAL FREQUENCIES

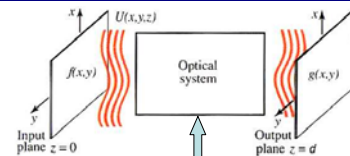


HPF

LPF

[courtesy: <http://www.icaen.uiowa.edu/~dip/LECTURE/LinTransforms.html>]

LINEAR-SYSTEMS APPROACH



Linear system can be described in either of two pictures

- Impulse response function - response to impulse or point at input
- Transfer function - response to spatial harmonic function

SPATIAL HARMONIC FUNCTION

- Consider plane wave at arbitrary plane

$$U(x, y, z) = A \exp[-j(k_x x + k_y y + k_z z)]$$

- At $z=0$ plane

$$U(x, y, 0) = A \exp[-j(k_x x + k_y y)] = f(x, y)$$

$$= A \exp\left[-j2\pi\left(\frac{k_x}{2\pi}x + \frac{k_y}{2\pi}y\right)\right]$$

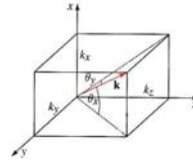
$$= A \exp[-j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)]$$

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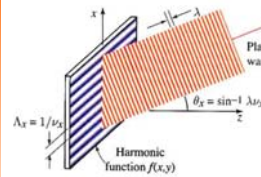
ANGLES



$$U(x, y, 0) = A \exp[-j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)] = f(x, y)$$

consistent w/ plane wave traveling at angles

$$\theta_x = \sin^{-1} \lambda v_x \quad \theta_y = \sin^{-1} \lambda v_y$$



in paraxial approximation

$$\theta_x \approx \lambda v_x, \quad \theta_y \approx \lambda v_y$$

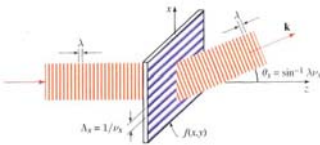
notice wavelength dependence

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SPATIAL SPECTRAL ANALYSIS



- Plane wave is deflected up for $f(x, y) = \exp[-j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)]$
- Plane wave is deflected down for $f(x, y) = \exp[+j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)]$
- Interference phenomenon where two points separated by Λ interfere constructively for pathlength difference λ .

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

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EXAMPLES

$f(x, y)$	Response
$\cos(2\pi v_x x)$ $= \frac{1}{2} [\exp(-j2\pi v_x x) + \exp(+j2\pi v_x x)]$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Incident plane wave is transformed into components bent both upward and downward $\pm \sin^{-1} \lambda v_x$
$1 + \cos(2\pi v_y y)$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Incident plane wave is transformed into components bent left and right as well as a portion that goes through

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MATHEMATICAL DESCRIPTION

$$f(x, y) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v_x, v_y) \exp[-j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)] dv_x dv_y$$

superposition of harmonic functions

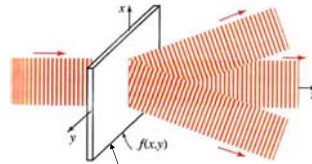
$$U(x, y, z) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} \overbrace{F(v_x, v_y) \exp[-j(2\pi v_x x + 2\pi v_y y)]}^{f(x, y)} \exp(-jk_z z) dv_x dv_y$$

superposition of plane waves

$$k_z = \pm \sqrt{k^2 - k_x^2 - k_y^2} = 2\pi \sqrt{\lambda^2 - v_x^2 - v_y^2}$$

$$f(x, y) \overset{\text{FT}}{\longleftrightarrow} F(v_x, v_y)$$

EFFECT OF THIN OPTICAL ELEMENT

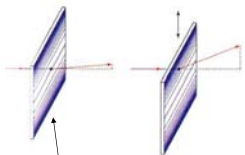


Thin optical element

- Transmitted light can be written as superposition of plane waves provided that

$$v_x^2 + v_y^2 \leq \lambda^{-2}$$

EXAMPLE



$$f(x, y) = \exp\left(\frac{j\pi x^2}{\lambda f}\right)$$

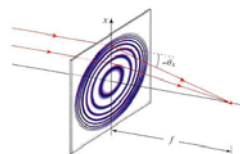
- Phase shift $2\pi\phi(x, y)$ is introduced
- $\phi(x, y) = -x^2/2\lambda f$
- Wave is deflected at position (x, y) by

$$\theta_x = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\lambda \partial \phi}{\partial x}\right) = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{-x}{f}\right)$$
- In paraxial limit

$$\theta_x \approx -\frac{x}{f}$$
 ← different x-values yield different angles

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

EXAMPLE



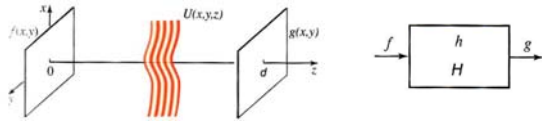
$$f(x, y) = \exp\left(\frac{j\pi x^2}{\lambda f}\right)$$

- Illuminate transparency from previous example w/ plane wave
- Each part of wave is deflected by a different angle
- Transparency acts as a cylindrical lens
- Transparency acts as a spherical lens for

$$f(x, y) = \exp\left(\frac{j\pi(x^2 + y^2)}{\lambda f}\right)$$

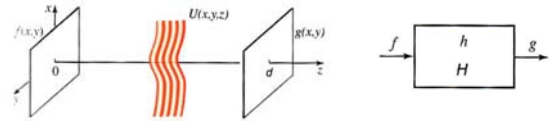
Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

TRANSFER FUNCTION OF FREE SPACE



- We use systems analysis to determine the output $g(x,y)=U(x,y,d)$, given input $f(x,y)=U(x,y,0)$
- System is linear shift-invariant (LSI) because of Helmholtz equation and invariance of free space to displacement

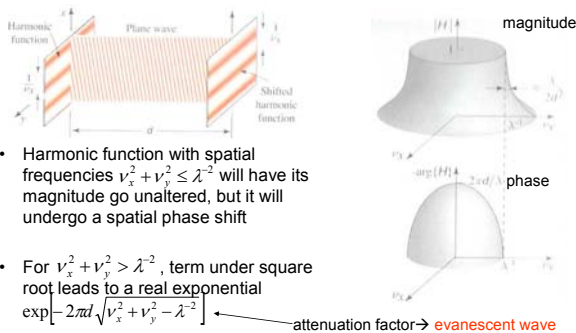
TRANSFER FUNCTION OF FREE SPACE



$$g(x, y) = f(x, y) \cdot H(v_x, v_y)$$

$$H(v_x, v_y) = \exp[-j2\pi d \sqrt{\lambda^{-2} - v_x^2 - v_y^2}]$$

TRANSFER FUNCTION OF FREE SPACE



- Harmonic function with spatial frequencies $v_x^2 + v_y^2 \leq \lambda^{-2}$ will have its magnitude go unaltered, but it will undergo a spatial phase shift
- For $v_x^2 + v_y^2 > \lambda^{-2}$, term under square root leads to a real exponential $\exp[-2\pi d \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 - \lambda^{-2}}]$ → attenuation factor → **evanescent wave**

TRANSFER FUNCTION OF FREE SPACE

- For $d \gg \lambda$, attenuation factor drops sharply for spatial frequencies that slightly exceed λ^{-1}
- λ^{-1} [cycles/mm] is ~ the spatial bandwidth of free space
- For any image, features with details finer than λ (spatial frequencies greater than λ^{-1}) cannot be transmitted by light of wavelength λ for $d \gg \lambda$.
- Conceptually, this is the difference between near field and far field microscopy

FRESNEL APPROXIMATION

- For $v_x^2 + v_y^2 \ll \lambda^{-2}$, we use paraxial approximation such that $\theta_x \approx \lambda v_x$ and $\theta_y \approx \lambda v_y$

- Let $\theta^2 = \theta_x^2 + \theta_y^2 \approx \lambda^2(v_x^2 + v_y^2)$, then phase factor becomes

$$2\pi d \sqrt{\lambda^{-2} - v_x^2 - v_y^2} = 2\pi \frac{d}{\lambda} \sqrt{1 - \theta^2}$$

Taylor series expansion

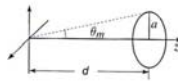
$$= 2\pi \frac{d}{\lambda} \left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2} + \frac{\theta^4}{8} - \dots \right)$$

FRESNEL APPROXIMATION

$$H(v_x, v_y) \approx H_o \exp[j\pi\lambda d(v_x^2 + v_y^2)] \exp(-jk d)$$

- Phase is a quadratic function of the spatial frequencies

- Approximation holds if $N_F \frac{\theta_m^2}{4} \ll 1$



$$N_F = \frac{a^2}{\lambda d}$$

- For, $a=1$ cm, $d=100$ cm, $\lambda=500$ nm, $N_F \theta^2/4 = .005 \ll 1$

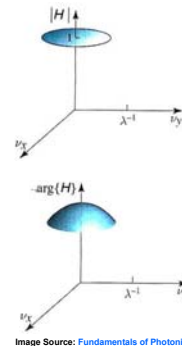


Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

INPUT-OUTPUT RELATION

- Given input $f(x,y)$ we can determine output using Fourier transform (spatial-frequency) approach

- Determine complex envelope of input plane-wave components

$$F(v_x, v_y) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \exp[j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)] dx dy \xleftrightarrow{\text{FT}} f(x, y)$$

- Determine complex envelope of output plane-wave components by $H(v_x, v_y) F(v_x, v_y)$

- Determine complex amplitude $g(x,y)$ by summing individual contributions inverse FT

$$g(x, y) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(v_x, v_y) F(v_x, v_y) \exp[-j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)] d v_x d v_y$$

INPUT-OUTPUT RELATION

- Using Fresnel approximation for $H(v_x, v_y)$

$$g(x, y) = H_o \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v_x, v_y) \exp[j\pi\lambda d(v_x^2 + v_y^2)] \exp[-j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)] d v_x d v_y$$

IMPULSE RESPONSE FUNCTION (FREE SPACE)

- In the Fresnel approximation we define

$$h(x, y) \approx h_0 \exp\left[-jk \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2d}\right]$$

Impulse response function (point-spread function) \rightarrow response $g(x, y)$ when input is a point at the origin

- Each input point generates a paraboloidal wave that is summed at output

FREE-SPACE PROPAGATION (CONVOLUTION)

- Input-output can be related using space-domain approach
- Think of $f(x, y)$ as superposition of different points (delta functions)

$$g(x, y) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x', y') h(x - x', y - y') dx' dy'$$

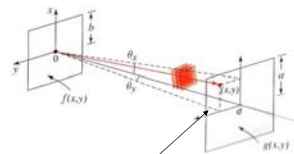
- In Fresnel approximation,

$$g(x, y) = h_0 \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x', y') \exp\left[-j\pi \frac{(x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2}{\lambda d}\right] dx' dy'$$

OPTICAL FOURIER TRANSFORM

- Light can be used to determine FT of 2-D function $f(x, y)$
- Design a transparency with amplitude transmittance $f(x, y)$ and then illuminate with a plane wave
- FT of $f(x, y)$ is then determined either after light propagates a really long distance d or by using a lens

FOURIER TRANSFORM (FAR FIELD)



- Can spatially resolve each plane wave contribution if d is long enough

$$g(x, y) \approx h_0 F\left(\frac{x}{\lambda d}, \frac{y}{\lambda d}\right)$$

- This is valid under Fraunhofer approximation which requires that

$$N_F \ll 1 \text{ and } N'_F \ll 1$$

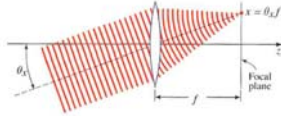
$$N_F = \frac{a^2}{\lambda d} \text{ and } N'_F = \frac{b^2}{\lambda d}$$

describes largest circular region in observation plane

describes largest circular region where points lie in object plane

- More difficult to satisfy than Fresnel approximation

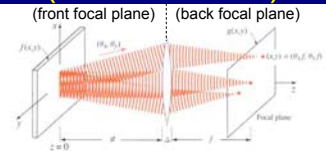
FOURIER TRANSFORM (USING LENS)



- Lens maps each direction (θ_x, θ_y) to a single point $(\theta_x f, \theta_y f)$
- Allows us to separate different plane wave contributions

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

FOURIER TRANSFORM (USING LENS)



- Complex amplitude $g(x,y)$ at point (x,y) in output plane is (using Fresnel approximation)

$$g(x,y) = h_1 \exp \left[j\pi \frac{(x^2 + y^2)(d-f)}{\lambda f^2} \right] F \left(\frac{x}{\lambda f}, \frac{y}{\lambda f} \right)$$

$H_0 h_0$

Fourier transform of (x,y) evaluated at spatial frequencies v_x and v_y

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

FOURIER TRANSFORM (USING LENS)

- Intensity of light at back focal plane (independent of input distance d)

$$I(x,y) = \frac{1}{(\lambda f)^2} \left| F \left(\frac{x}{\lambda f}, \frac{y}{\lambda f} \right) \right|^2$$

- For $d=f$, we get **2-f system**

$$g(x,y) = h_1 F \left(\frac{x}{\lambda f}, \frac{y}{\lambda f} \right)$$

$(j/\lambda f) \exp(-j2kf)$

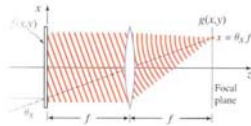


Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

BREAK

DIFFRACTION

DIFFRACTION



Diffraction patterns of the teeth of a saw
-would be perfect geometric shadow if $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ (as in ray optics)

- Relates to the obstruction of a wave by an obstacle
- Obstruction could be bending of an optical wave by edges or when passing through an aperture (of appropriate size)
- Amplitude or phase of wave is altered
- Interference phenomenon

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

DIFFRACTION OF A WAVE BY A SLIT

- Occurs for any type of wave phenomenon
- Effect is more pronounced as the size of the slit approaches the λ of the wave

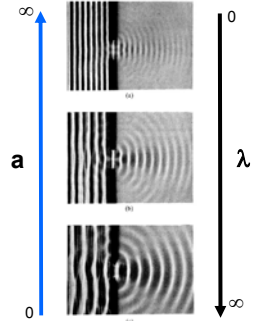
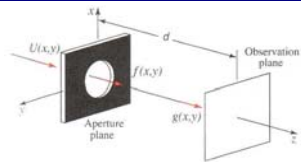


Image Source: Optics

BASIC APPROACH



- **Assumption:** Incident wave passes through unaltered within aperture; reduces to 0 on opaque part of aperture

$$f(x, y) = U(x, y)p(x, y)$$

$$p(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{inside the aperture} \\ 0, & \text{outside the aperture} \end{cases}$$

aperture (pupil) function

- Diffraction pattern is intensity at the observation plane

$$I(x, y) = |g(x, y)|^2$$

Fraunhofer (far-field) diffraction
or
Fresnel (near-field) diffraction

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

FRAUNHOFER DIFFRACTION

- Used when light (free-space) propagation (beyond aperture) is described by Fraunhofer approximation

- Valid when $N_F' = \frac{b^2}{\lambda d} \ll 1$
- Largest radial distance within aperture

- For $U(x, y) = \sqrt{I_i}$, $f(x, y) = \sqrt{I_i} p(x, y)$

$$g(x, y) \approx \sqrt{I_i} h_0 P\left(\frac{x}{\lambda d}, \frac{y}{\lambda d}\right)$$

FT of $p(x, y)$

FRAUNHOFER DIFFRACTION

$$P(v_x, v_y) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x, y) \exp[j2\pi(v_x x + v_y y)] dx dy \xleftrightarrow{FT} p(x, y)$$

$$I(x, y) = \frac{I_i}{(\lambda d)^2} \left| P\left(\frac{x}{\lambda d}, \frac{y}{\lambda d}\right) \right|^2$$

Diffraction pattern

$$I(x, y) = \frac{I_i}{(\lambda f)^2} \left| P\left(\frac{x}{\lambda f}, \frac{y}{\lambda f}\right) \right|^2$$

using a lens

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FRESNEL DIFFRACTION

- Used when light (free-space) propagation (beyond aperture) is described by Fresnel approximation

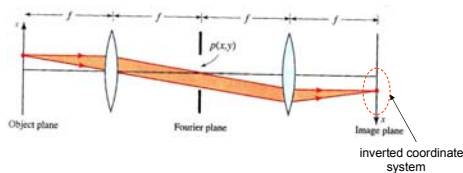
$$I(x, y) = \frac{I_i}{(\lambda d)^2} \left| \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x', y') \exp\left[-j\pi \frac{(x-x')^2 + (y-y')^2}{\lambda d}\right] dx' dy' \right|^2$$

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IMAGE FORMATION



- 4-f system (a.k.a. **imaging** system)
- Fourier transform taken twice
- Second lens performs “inverse” Fourier transform since coordinate system is inverted
- Perfect replica of object obtained

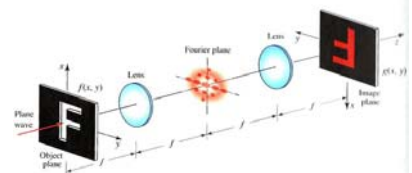
Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

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4-f SYSTEM



- In Fourier plane, individual spatial frequency components are separated
- Allows for spatial filtering (physical process)

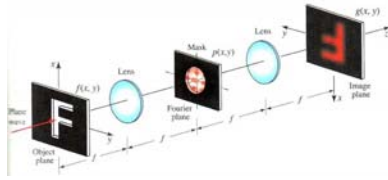
Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

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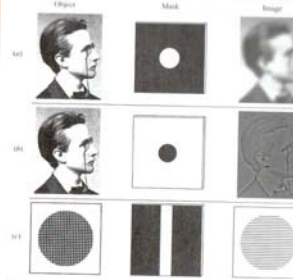
SPATIAL FILTERING



Transfer function $\rightarrow H(v_x, v_y) = p(\lambda f v_x, \lambda f v_y)$
 (same shape as pupil function)

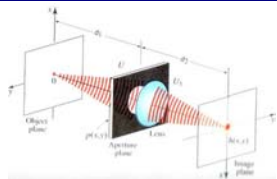
Impulse response $\rightarrow h(x, y) = \frac{1}{(\lambda f)^2} P\left(\frac{x}{\lambda f}, \frac{y}{\lambda f}\right) \overset{\text{IFT}}{\leftrightarrow} H(v_x, v_y)$

EXAMPLES: SPATIAL FILTERING



- Consider LPF: $H(v_x, v_y) = 1, v_x^2 + v_y^2 < v_s^2$
- Mask is circular aperture of diameter $D=2v_s \lambda f$
- For, $D=2 \text{ cm}, \lambda=1 \mu\text{m}, f=100 \text{ cm}$
 $v_s=10 \text{ lines/mm}$, smallest feature size is .1 mm

SINGLE-LENS IMAGING SYSTEM



- Here, $p(x,y)$ plays same role as mask in 4-f system
- From object plane to aperture plane (Fresnel approximation), for single impulse input $U(x, y) \approx h_1 \exp\left[-jk \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2d_1}\right]$

$$h_1(x, y) = \left(\frac{j}{\lambda d_1}\right) \exp(-jkd_1)$$

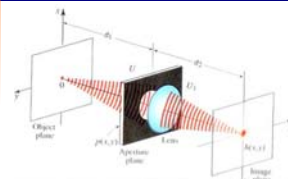
Immediately following aperture,

$$U_1(x, y) = U(x, y) \cdot t(x, y) \cdot p(x, y)$$

$$= U(x, y) h_1 \exp\left[jk \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2f}\right] p(x, y)$$

lens phase factor

SINGLE-LENS IMAGING SYSTEM



Upon further propagation by a distance d_2 ,

$$h(x, y) = h_2 \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} U_1(x', y') \exp\left[-j\pi \frac{(x-x')^2 + (y-y')^2}{\lambda d_2}\right] dx' dy'$$

$$h_2(x, y) = \left(\frac{j}{\lambda d_2}\right) \exp(-jkd_2)$$

$$h(x, y) = h_1 h_2 \exp\left(-j\pi \frac{x^2 + y^2}{\lambda d_2}\right) P\left(\frac{x}{\lambda d_2}, \frac{y}{\lambda d_2}\right)$$

where,

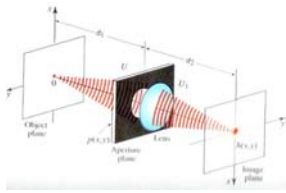
$$P(v_x, v_y) \leftrightarrow p_1(x, y)$$

$$p_1(x, y) = p(x, y) \exp\left[-j\pi \frac{x^2 + y^2}{\lambda}\right]$$

focusing error

generalized pupil function

SINGLE-LENS IMAGING SYSTEM



$$h(x, y) = h_1 h_2 \exp\left(-j\pi \frac{x^2 + y^2}{\lambda d_2}\right) P_1\left(\frac{x}{\lambda d_2}, \frac{y}{\lambda d_2}\right)$$

assume $\ll 1$

$$h(x, y) = h_1 h_2 P_1\left(\frac{x}{\lambda d_2}, \frac{y}{\lambda d_2}\right)$$

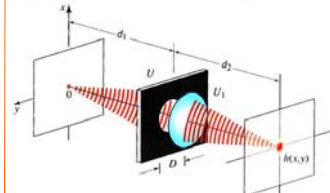
Now, for perfect focusing,
 $\rho_1(x, y) = \rho(x, y)$

$$h(x, y) \approx h_1 h_2 P\left(\frac{x}{\lambda d_2}, \frac{y}{\lambda d_2}\right)$$

similar result as with 4-f system

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

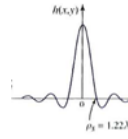
SINGLE-LENS IMAGING SYSTEM



$$U(x, y) \approx h_1 \exp\left[-jk \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2d_1}\right]$$

$$U_1(x, y) = U(x, y) h_1 \exp\left[jk \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2f}\right] p(x, y)$$

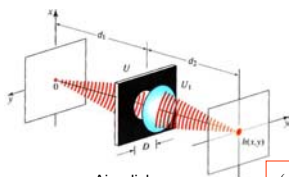
$$h_1(x, y) = \left(\frac{j}{\lambda d_1}\right) \exp(-jkd_1)$$



$$\rho_s = 1.22 \lambda \frac{d_2}{D}$$

Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

EXAMPLE



$$p(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \leq D/2 \\ 0, & \text{outside the aperture} \end{cases}$$

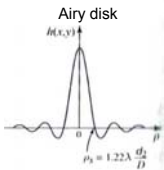
$$h(x, y) = h(0,0) \frac{2J_1(\pi D \rho / \lambda d_2)}{\pi D \rho / \lambda d_2}, \quad \rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$|h(0,0)| = (\pi D^2 / 4 \lambda^2 d_1 d_2)$$

For, $d_1 = \infty, \quad d_2 = f$

$$\rho_s = 1.22 \lambda F\#$$

Smaller $F\#$ (larger aperture) has better image quality



$$\rho_s = 1.22 \lambda \frac{d_2}{D}$$

Measure of size of blur of circle Image Source: Fundamentals of Photonics

BREAK

MICROSCOPY