

FUNDAMENTALS OF

Second Edition

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Quantum Electronics Lecture 1



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Contents

- ♦ Course formalia
- Introduction to Quantum Electronics
- Résumé of Electromagnetic theory
- Optical coherence



Course literature



Very helpful for the major part of the course topics

Book content: http://www.wiley-vch.de/publish/en/books/ISBN0-471-35832-0/

Other materials for the topics not covered by the course book can be found in http://www.ict.kth.se/courses/IO2655/index.htm?links.html

Especially note two online books under: Electromagnetics, Optics and Photonic crystals







To get the course approved you need to pass the exam

Examination – May 20

The written, close book exam will consist of questions or simple problems based on the lecture material

Formulas if needed will be provided with the exam sheet

50% right answers are required to pass



What is **Quantum Electronics**, **Photonics**, and **Optics**?

Quantum Electronics: "A loosely defined field concerned with the interaction of radiation and matter, particularly interactions involving quantum energy levels and resonance phenomena"

Quantum electronics is approximately synonymous with

Photonics (Optical Electronics) – the science of generating, controlling, and detecting photons - optical equivalent of electronics

Both include:

emission, transmission, amplification, detection, modulation, and switching of light

Classical optics is a sub-set of photonics. It covers part of light controlling Modern optics is commonly categorized as photonics



Descriptions of Optical Phenomena

The theory of quantum optics

provides an explanation of virtually all optical phenomena

The electromagnetic theory of light

(electromagnetic optics) provides the most complete treatment of light within the confines of classical optics

Wave optics is a scalar approximation of electromagnetic optics

Ray optics is the limit of wave optics when the wavelength is very short compared with structures



Good link shortly reviewing Electromagnetics fundamentals: http://www.dur.ac.uk/g.h.cross/notes_b.pdf



Light Matter Interaction - levels of treatment

Classical: Lorentz dipole oscillator Semiclassical: atoms quantized, light classical 2nd quantization: light and atoms quantized Full Quantum Electrodynamical (QED)

	Matter	Light	Atomic motion
Classical optics	С	С	С
Quantum electronics	Q	С	С
Quantum optics	Q	Q	С
Matter waves	Q	Q	Q

Tab. 6.1 Treatment of light and matter by theoretical physics*.

*C = classical physics; Q = quantum theory.



History of light and matter interactions

Heinrich Hertz 1857–1894



Heinrich Hertz 1887 discovered photoelectric effect



Hendrik Lorentz 1853-1928

Lorentz 1892 - Classical electron theory - Nobel prize 1902 (with Zeeman)

Described the electromagnetic force acting on a charged particle Atom - nucleus connected to electrons by a "spring"



Joseph Thomson 1856-1940

Thomson 1897 – "Discovered" electrons - Nobel prize 1906



Found that the cathode rays are deflected by an electric field and concluded that they were **negatively charged particles**



History of light and atom quantization (1)



Max Planck 1858-1947 Planck 1900 – Quantized energy of atomic radiators, explains black body radiation - Nobel prize 1918

Einstein 1905 - Light quanta postulate explains photoelectric effect - Nobel prize 1921



Albert Einstein 1879-1955



Niels Bhor 1885-1962

Bohr 1913 – **Quantized atom model**, explains spectral lines of hydrogen atom - Nobel prize 1922





History of light and atom quantization (2)

Einstein 1917 – Quantified spont. emission, discoverd stimulated emission



Dirac 1927 - Light-field quantization, relativistic description of electron - Nobel prize 1933 (with Schrödinger)



Paul Dirac 1902-1984

Richard Feynman 1918–1988



Feynman, Dyson, Schwinger, Tonagawa 1940s - Quantum electrodynamics - Nobel prize 1965

Glauber 1963 – Fomulation of quantum theory to describe the detection process - Nobel prize 2005



Nobel Prize in Physics 2005 for breakthroughs in modern optics

"for his contribution to the quantum theory of optical coherence" "for their contributions to the development of laser-based precision spectroscopy, including the optical frequency comb technique"



Showed how the quantum theory has to be formulated to describe the detection process



Applications of Optoelectronics



<--- Information, Communication --->

Imaging —





—Lighting and Displays



— Manufacturing and Quality Life Science and Health Care

Safety and Security —









http://www.photonics21.org/

High-capacity communications networks

Information-carrying capacity of light >> (10,000 times) than at radio frequencies



High-speed / capacity communications networks

Think what this for instance means for the speed of your internet !!!

Or for the quality of image transfer



Basic fiber optic system

Transmitter - converts an electrical signal into a light signal **Optical fiber** - carries the light **Receiver** - accepts the light signal and converts it back into an electrical signal



Relies on: Low loss fiber transmission Light generators and detectors Opto-electronic interface / integration



Light guiding by internal reflection

Daniel Colladon's Experiment ("light jet") 1841



1950's - first practical all-glass fiber developed and applied for image transmission (fiberscope)

by Brien O'Brien at Narinder Kapany (USA)

He coined the term "fiber optics" - 1956

Cladding introduced by van Heel protected core surface from contamination and reduced losses

Without cladding, light gradually leaks out.

No light lost — cladding allows

complete internal reflection.

Still in 1960 very high transmission loss - 10 000 dB/km!



Quantum Electronics, Warsaw 2010

CLADDING

CORE

LIGHT

Towards optical communication

Breakthroughs:

1966 High fiber loss attributed to impurities (not silica glass)

Losses < 20 dB/km possible, Long-distance communications over single-mode fiber proposed (Standard Telecommunications Laboratories, UK -Kao and Hockham) Research initially supervised by Antoni E. Karbowiak

1970 First fiber with loss < 20 dB/km at 633 nm (helium-neon) demonstrated (Corning - Maurer, Keck, Schultz)

1970 First continuous-wave room-temperature semiconductor lasers demonstrated (loffe Physical Institute - Alferov's group, Bell Labs – Panish and Hayashi)

1978 0.2 dB/km loss in single-mode fiber at 1.55 um (NTT) !!!

1987 First erbium-doped fiber amplifier for 1.55 um demonstrated (Southampton University – Payne et al, AT&T Bell Laboratories – Desurvire et al)



2009 Nobel Prize in Physics for the masters of light



http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/physics/laureates/2009/info_publ_phy_09_en.pdf

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The physics behind IT - Nobel price in Physics 2000



Zhores I. Alferov, A.F. loffe Physico-Technical Institute, St. Petersburg, Russia.

Zhores I. Alferov and Herbert Kroemer



photo D Earsell/T Mastree HC

Herbert Kroemer, University of California at Santa Barbara, USA.

receive the Nobel Prize for their work on semiconductor heterostructures used in high-speed electronics and optoelectronics.





Jack S. Kilby, Texas Instruments, Dallas, Texas, USA, receives the Nobel Prize for his part in the invention of the integrated circuit.

Invention of the electrical integrated circuit in 1958



Signal processing in electronic domain



Switching, Add-drop Multiplexing Wavelength Conversion, Signal Reshaping...

O/E, E/O converters are bit rate and wavelength dependent Bandwidth narrower than the optical one



Integrated optics / photonics

In 1960 Miller proposed integration of several optical components on one semiconductor chip and coined the term "integrated optics" - analogy to electronic integrated circuits





Steward E. Miller 1918 - 1990

The uses of photons instead of electrons would eliminate O/E converters - hence make the chip bit rate and wavelength transparent



Light sources, modulators, switches, filters, splitters, waveguides, and detectors on a single integrated platform



Signal processing in optical domain



Complex photonic Integrated circuit (PIC) is still a "holy grail" ...

Drawbacks:

Big!! – at least 1000 times larger than its electronic counterpart High cost of developing new fabrication technology

"holy grail" - any ultimate, but elusive, goal pursued as in a quest

Święty Graal nadal pozostaje tajemnicą a legendy mówią, że aby doznać oświecenia należy poznać tajemnicę Graala

The ongoing efforts to miniaturize PIC will be addresed in the next lectures



Optoelectronic Integration





Maxwell equations



Self-sustaining "electromagnetic waves" can travel through empty space

http://www.plasma.uu.se/CED/Book/ - online book on "Electromagnetic Field Theory" by Bo Thidé For Si units see e.g. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maxwell's_equations



Electromagnetic Wave

Maxwell's hypothesis 1864: light is an electromagnetic wave



Electric and magnetic fields are oscillating perpendiculary to each other and to the direction of propagation



Ranges of Electromagnetic Waves



Name	Frequency	<u>Wavelength (λ)</u>	Time for one λ
Extra Low Freq	60 Hz	5000 km (5×10 ⁶)	17 ms (1.7×10 ⁻²)
Audio Frequency	10 kHz (1×10 ⁴)	30 km (3×10 ⁴)	100 μs (1×10 ⁻⁴)
Radio Frequency	222 MHz (2×10 ⁸)	1.4 m	4.5 ns (4.5×10 ⁻⁹)
Microwave	10 GHz (1×10 ¹⁰)	30 mm (3×10 ⁻²)	100 ps (1×10 ⁻¹⁰)
Infrared (Heat)	10 THz (1×10 ¹³)	30 μm (3×10 ⁻⁵)	100 fs (1×10 ⁻¹³)
Visible	600 Thz (6×10 ¹⁴)	500 nm (5×10 ⁻⁷)	1.7 fs (1.7×10-15)
Ultraviolet	1×10 ¹⁶ Hz	30 nm (3×10 ⁻⁸)	.1 fs (1×10 ⁻¹⁶)
X-ray	1×10 ¹⁸ Hz	300 pm (3×10 ⁻¹⁰)	1×10 ⁻¹⁸ s
Gamma-ray	1×10 ²⁰ Hz	3 pm (3×10 ⁻¹²)	1×10 ⁻²⁰ s



Wave equation

When $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is constant, or varies slowly in comparison with the optical wavelength:

$$\nabla^2 E - \mu \varepsilon \, \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial t^2} = 0 \qquad \text{Wave equation}$$

For monochromatic (single harmonic) fields:

$$\nabla^2 E + k^2 E = 0$$
 Helmholtz equation

Plane wave:
$$E = A\cos(kz - \omega t)$$

$$k = \omega \sqrt{\mu \varepsilon} = \frac{\omega}{c} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$



Complex number convention

Complex number:
$$W = Ae^{i\theta} = A[\cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)]$$

Plane wave: $E = A\cos(kz - \omega t)$
 $E = \operatorname{Re}\left[Ae^{i(kz-\omega t)}\right] = \frac{1}{2}\left[Ae^{i(kz-\omega t)} + c.c.\right]$
complex conjugate

For simplicity ½ Re, or +c.c are commonly omitted:

$$E = A e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$$



Plane wave – complex amplitude









Light polarization

Polarization of a plane wave propagaiting in **z** direction is defined as the curve traced in time in the **xy plane** by the end point of the electric field vector.





Types of Polarization

In general, light is *elliptically polarized*

$$\left(\frac{E_x}{A_x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{E_y}{A_y}\right)^2 - \frac{2E_xE_y\cos\delta}{A_xA_y} = \sin^2\delta$$
$$\delta \equiv (\varphi_x - \varphi_y)$$



Special cases:

Zero phase difference ($\delta = 0$) gives oscillation along a line: linear polarization

Equal amplitudes (Ax = Ay) and $\pi/2$ phase difference: circular polarization



Birefringence

 $D = \varepsilon \cdot E$ and $n^2 \equiv \varepsilon$

depends on the direction, so ε is a tensor

uniaxial crystal: $n_x = n_y \equiv n_0 \neq n_z \equiv n_e$ Birefringence ordinary index (perpendicular to optic axis z) extraordinary index (along optic axis z)

In the pricipial coordinate system off-diagonal elements vanish: $D_x = \varepsilon_{11}E_x = n_0^2E_x$ $D_y = \varepsilon_{22}E_y = n_0^2E_y$ $D_z = \varepsilon_{33}E_z = n_e^2E_z$ In general, directions of E and D are different!



Impermeability tensor – Index elipsoid

$$E = \varepsilon^{-1}D$$
 Define: $\eta = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ Impermeability tensor: η_{ij}

Symmetric in lossless and optically inactive media :

$$\eta_{ij}=\eta_{ji}$$

$$\eta_{ij}x_ix_j \equiv \sum_{ij}\eta_{ij}x_ix_j = 1$$

the index ellipsoid convinient geometric representation

in the principal coordinate system (crystal axes):

$$\frac{x^2}{n_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{n_y^2} + \frac{z^2}{n_z^2} = 1$$

where: $x_{11} \equiv x$, $x_{22} \equiv y$, $x_{33} \equiv z$





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Ordinary and extraordinary waves

In uniaxial crystals :
$$\frac{x_1^2}{n_0^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{n_0^2} + \frac{x_3^2}{n_e} = 1$$

For any propagation direction k there are two allowed waves of two orthogonal polarizations:

Ordinary wave: $D_0 \;$ in the plane perpendicular to z for which $n=n_0$

Extraordinary wave: D_e perpendicular to D_0 *n* depends of the propagation direction:

$$\frac{1}{n^2(\theta)} = \frac{\cos^2(\theta)}{n_0^2} + \frac{\sin^2(\theta)}{n_e^2} \rightarrow n(0^\circ) = n_0 \quad n(90^\circ) = n_e$$

Both D_0 and D_e are perpendicular to k





Normal surface or wavevector surface



For extraordinary wave D is perpendicular to k, E to S !



Positive and negative birefringence





Double refraction



o-ray (ordinary)

Obeys Snell's Law and goes straight

Vibrates 1 plane containing ray and c-axis ("optic axis")

e-ray (extraordinary)

Deflected

Vibrates **in** plane containing ray and c-axis

Double image:

Electronics, Warsaw 2010



Group velocity in a medium

$$v_g \equiv d\omega/dk$$
$$v_g \equiv \left[\frac{dk}{d\omega}\right]^{-1}$$

Using $k = \omega n(\omega) / c_0$, calculate: $dk / d\omega = (n + \omega dn / d\omega) / c_0$ $v_g = c_0 / (n + \omega dn / d\omega) = (c_0 / n) / (1 + \omega / n dn / d\omega)$

Group velocity = phase velocity (c_0/n), when $dn/d\omega = 0$, such as in vacuum.

Otherwise, except of regions close to material resonances , **n** increases with ω , $dn/d\omega > 0$, so

$$v_g < (c_0/n)$$



Group velocity - normal dispersion regime



Normal material dispersion: $n(\omega_{blue}) > n(\omega_{yellow}) > n(\omega_{red}) > 1, \quad \frac{dn}{d\omega} > 0$

$$v_g = c_0 / (n + \omega dn/d\omega)$$

 \mathbf{V}_g well characterizes velocity of energy carried by a pulse

 $\mathbf{v}_{g} < c$



"Group velocity" in anomalous dispersion regime

$$\frac{dn}{d\omega} < 0 \longrightarrow V_g = \frac{c_o}{(n - \omega)} \frac{dn}{d\omega} > \frac{c_o}{n}$$

Due to strong pulse distortions V_g looses the meaning of energy carried by a pulse, and can even be negative

BUT... signal front velocity never exceeds *Co* ! (in fact it is = *Co*) Information cannot be sent faster than *Co*

Read more about it in http://www.ict.kth.se/courses/IO2655/index.htm?links.html Ubder: Electromagnetics, Optics



Chromatic and Group Velocity dispersion

 $\varphi(\omega) = k(\omega) L$

To account for dispersion, expand the phase in a Taylor series:

$$k(\omega)L = k(\omega_0)L + k'(\omega_0)\left[\omega - \omega_0\right]L + \frac{1}{2}k''(\omega_0)\left[\omega - \omega_0\right]^2L + \dots$$

$$k(\omega_0) = \frac{\omega_0}{v_{\phi}(\omega_0)} \quad k'(\omega_0) = \frac{1}{v_g(\omega_0)} \quad k''(\omega) = \frac{d}{d\omega}\left[\frac{1}{v_g}\right]$$

Phase velocity dispersion

(variation in **phase velocity** with ω , separation of colors in a prism)

III Chromatic dispersion

Group velocity dispersion- GVD

(variation in **group velocity** with ω , pulse broadening and "chirp")









Coherence of waves

Waves are coherent when their relative phase is constant during the resolution time τ_D of the detector - temporal coherence, and within the resolution area A_D - spatial coherence

Coherence enables stationary (temporally and spatially constant) interference





Temporal coherence

Temporal coherence is a measure of the correlation between the phases of a light wave at different points along the direction of propagation. Temporal coherence tells us how monochromatic a source is.





Spatial coherence

Synchronized phases for rays emitted from different locations on the source <u>during the temporal coherence time</u>. *Spatial coherence tells us how uniform the phase of the wave front is*

The more extended the source the lower spatial coherence --> Point source would be ideal

Coherence degree - correlation between phase of the wave at two points

Often, achievable collimation degree is used for assesment of spatial coherence:

The more collimated the beam the narrower its spectrum in wave vector space (flatter wave front), and the higher spatial coherence

Spacially coherent source





Incoherent beam - large uncertainty in relative phase



Spatial fringes - coherence area

A beam is temporally but not spatially, coherent:





Ac – Coherence area

Ac Interference is coherent (sharp fringes) around the central axis, where same regions of the wave interfere

Interference is incoherent (no fringes) far from the axis, where very different regions of the wave interfere



Spatial filtering



The pinhole cleans up spatially incoherent wavefront It produces a spatially coherent spherical wave (before lens) or spatially coherent plane wave (after lens)



Laser beam coherence



When the laser cavity has flat mirrors the beam is also highly collimated



Mutual (temporal) coherence

When two (or more) waves have the same frequency and their phase difference does not vary in time:

$$\mathbf{E}_1 = \mathbf{A}_1 \exp[i(\omega t - \mathbf{k}_1 \cdot \mathbf{r} + \phi_1)] \qquad \qquad \mathbf{\Phi}_1 - \mathbf{\Phi}_1$$

 $\mathbf{E}_2 = \mathbf{A}_2 \exp[i(\omega t - \mathbf{k}_2 \cdot \mathbf{r} + \phi_2)] \qquad \bigwedge \bigwedge \bigwedge$

θ

 Φ_1 - Φ_2 =const

Their wave vectors must have the same length: $|\mathbf{k}_1| = |\mathbf{k}_2| = \mathbf{k}$, but not direction

Degree of coherence can be characterized by visibility of the interference pattern

$$I = |\mathbf{E}_{1} + \mathbf{E}_{2}|^{2} = I_{1} + I_{2} + 2\mathbf{A}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{A}_{2} \cos(\mathbf{K} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \phi) = |\mathbf{E}_{1} + \mathbf{E}_{2}|^{2} = I_{1} + I_{2} + 2\sqrt{I_{1}I_{2}} \cos(\mathbf{K} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \phi)$$

$$I_{j} = |\mathbf{E}_{j}|^{2}, \ \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{k}_{1} - \mathbf{k}_{2}, \ \text{and} \ \phi = \phi_{1} - \phi_{2}.$$
Beam 1 Beam 2



Period of the interference fringes



Degree of mutual coherence

$$\gamma_{12} = \left(\frac{\langle \langle \mathbf{E}_{1}^{*} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{2} \rangle \rangle}{\langle \langle \mathbf{E}_{1}^{*} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{1} \rangle \rangle^{1/2} \langle \langle \mathbf{E}_{2}^{*} \cdot \mathbf{E}_{2} \rangle \rangle^{1/2}}\right)_{\mathbf{r}=0} = \langle \langle e^{i(\phi_{2}-\phi_{1})} \rangle \rangle = \frac{1}{\tau_{D}} \int_{0}^{\tau_{D}} e^{i(\phi_{2}-\phi_{1})} dt$$
$$\tau_{D} - detector time constant \quad \gamma_{12} = |\gamma_{12}| \exp(i\alpha)$$

If Φ 1- Φ 2 varies in time the intereference pattern time-averaged by detector "smears"

$$\langle \langle I \rangle \rangle = |\mathbf{E}_1 + \mathbf{E}_2|^2 = I_1 + I_2 + 2\mathbf{A}_1 \cdot \mathbf{A}_2 |\gamma_{12}| \cos(\mathbf{K} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \alpha)$$

Modulation depth

Complete mutual coherence:	$ \gamma_{12} = 1$
Partial coherence:	$0< \gamma_{12} <1$
Complete mutual incoherence:	$ \gamma_{12} = 0$



Temporal self-coherence

Coherence of two parts of the same wave

Temporal coherence can be measured in a Michelson interferometer The wave is combined with a copy of itself that is delayed by time T by moving the object mirror

Coherence time:
$$au_c = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\gamma(\tau)|^2 d\tau$$



The longest time delay for which the phases are correlated (fringes are visible) $\tau_c \rightarrow O(1/\Delta\nu)$. A rule of thumb is that

Coherence length: $l_c = c\tau_c$ (more practical in the lab)

The longest propagation length over which coherence is preserved

For LED Ic is of the order of microns, for a laser diode – centimeters, for a gas laser – meters!



Degree of temporal self-coherence – formulae

Similar to those for mutual coherence, but here time variation of both intensity and the phase are included by introducing time dependent complex amplitude A(t), so that one can also analyze pulses

Delayed parts of the same beam:

$$E_1 = A(t) \exp[i(\omega t - \mathbf{k}_1 \cdot \mathbf{r})]$$

 $E_2 = A(t + \tau) \exp[i(\omega t + \omega \tau - \mathbf{k}_2 \cdot \mathbf{r})]$

A(t) – slowly varying amplitude, e.g. envelope of a pulse at the centrall frequency ω

$$\gamma(\tau) = \frac{\langle\langle E^*(t) \ E(t+\tau)\rangle\rangle}{\langle\langle E^*(t) \ E(t)\rangle\rangle^{1/2}\langle\langle E^*(t+\tau) \ E(t+\tau)\rangle\rangle^{1/2}}$$

$$\gamma(\tau) = \frac{\langle\langle E^*(t) \ E(t+\tau)\rangle\rangle}{\langle\langle E^*(t) \ E(t)\rangle\rangle}$$

Average correlation between field value at any pair of times, separated by delay T

