

# Chapter 19

## Gaussian Beams

We are interested in describing light waves of finite spatial extent, different from plane waves. Gaussian beams are typically generated by laser sources.

### 19.1 Slowly varying envelope approximation

We begin with the wave equation in an isotropic medium:

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = \mu \varepsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} \quad (19.1)$$

We next assume that the wave is propagating in the  $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$  direction, and has the form

$$\mathbf{E} = \Psi(x, y, z) \hat{\mathbf{x}} e^{i(kz - \omega t)} \quad (19.2)$$

Substitution yields

$$\nabla^2 \Psi + 2ik \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial z} - k^2 \Psi = -\omega^2 \mu \varepsilon \Psi \quad (19.3)$$

We now assume that the amplitude  $\Psi$  varies slowly in space; then we get

$$k^2 = \omega^2 \mu \varepsilon \quad (19.4)$$

and since

$$k_o^2 = \omega^2 \mu_o \varepsilon_o \quad (19.5)$$

it follows that

$$n = \frac{k}{k_o} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\mu_o} \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_o}} \quad (19.6)$$

The equation for the amplitude then becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} + 2ik \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (19.7)$$

This is the slowly varying envelope approximation (SVEA). We finally assume that the variation of the amplitude in the  $z$  direction is very weak, then we can neglect  $\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2}$  compared to the other terms, and we finally get the *paraxial wave equation*

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} + 2ik \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (19.8)$$

## 19.2 Gaussian Beam Solution of the Paraxial Wave Equation

We note that we can multiply through by an arbitrary amplitude, and now assume a solution of the form

$$\Psi = e^{-iQ(z)(x^2+y^2)} e^{-iP(z)} \quad (19.9)$$

which implies that the variation of the amplitude in the direction transverse to  $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$  is only a function of  $x^2 + y^2$ . We note that

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} = -4x^2 Q^2 \Psi - 2iQ \Psi \quad (19.10)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} = -4y^2 Q^2 \Psi - 2iQ \Psi \quad (19.11)$$

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial z} = -i \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \Psi - i(x^2 + y^2) \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \Psi \quad (19.12)$$

and substitution gives

$$-4(x^2 + y^2)Q^2 \Psi - 4iQ \Psi + 2k \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \Psi + 2k(x^2 + y^2) \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \Psi = 0 \quad (19.13)$$

or

$$-2x^2(2Q^2 - k \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z}) - 2y^2(2Q^2 - k \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z}) - 2(2iQ - k \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}) = 0 \quad (19.14)$$

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Since the equation must hold for all values of  $x$  and  $y$ , we must have and

$$2Q^2 - k \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (19.15)$$

and

$$2iQ - k \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (19.16)$$

Eq.19.15 is Riccati's equation. It is useful to make a transformation of variables, and let  $q = k/2Q$ , then

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial z} = -\frac{k}{2Q^2} \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \quad (19.17)$$

and in terms of  $q$ , we have

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial z} = -1 \quad (19.18)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = \frac{i}{q} \quad (19.19)$$

The first of these gives

$$q = iz_o - z \quad (19.20)$$

where we have chosen the constant of integration to be  $iz_o$  for convenience, and

$$Q = \frac{k}{2(iz_o - z)}$$

while the second becomes

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = \frac{i}{iz_o - z} \quad (19.21)$$

and

$$P(z) = -i \ln(iz_o - z) + \text{const.} \quad (19.22)$$

It is convenient to choose the constant so that  $P(0) = 0$ , then

$$P = -i \ln(1 - z/iz_o) \quad (19.23)$$

We remark that the constants of integration can be chosen arbitrarily - for different constants, different solutions to Maxwell's equations are obtained. We made these particular choices to get the standard Gaussian beam.

We now substitute back into the original expression for  $\Psi$ , and

$$\Psi = e^{-i(-i \ln(1-z/iz_o)) + \frac{k}{2(iz_o-z)}(x^2+y^2)} \quad (19.24)$$

We note that

$$\ln\left(1 + \frac{iz}{z_o}\right) = \ln\left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{z^2}{z_o^2}} e^{i \tan^{-1} \frac{z}{z_o}}\right) = \ln \sqrt{1 + \frac{z^2}{z_o^2}} + i \tan^{-1} \frac{z}{z_o} \quad (19.25)$$

and substitution gives

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{z^2}{z_o^2}}} e^{-kz_o \frac{(x^2+y^2)}{2(z^2+z_o^2)}} e^{ikz \frac{(x^2+y^2)}{2(z^2+z_o^2)}} e^{-i \tan^{-1} \frac{z}{z_o}} \quad (19.26)$$

This is the expression for a Gaussian beam. (Note that in the literature, where people use the formalism that the fields are proportional to  $e^{i(\omega t - k \cdot r)}$ , the sign of  $k$  is negative in the exponent of the term before last.)

The conventional notation is

$$E = E_o \frac{w_o}{w(z)} e^{-\frac{r^2}{w^2(z)}} e^{ik \frac{r^2}{2R(z)}} e^{i\phi(z)} \quad (19.27)$$

where

$$w(z)^2 = w_o^2 \left(1 + \left(\frac{z}{z_o}\right)^2\right) \quad (19.28)$$

and

$$R(z) = z \left(1 + \left(\frac{z_o}{z}\right)^2\right) \quad (19.29)$$

and

$$\phi(z) = -\tan^{-1} \left(\frac{z}{z_o}\right) \quad (19.30)$$

and

$$w_o^2 = 2z_o/k = z_o \lambda / \pi \quad (19.31)$$

### 19.3 Properties of Gaussian Beams

The beam is characterized by only one parameter besides the amplitude  $E_o$  and the wavelength  $\lambda$  (or equivalently frequency), the quantity  $w_o$  (or equivalently  $z_o$ ).

We note that the amplitude of the beam is Gaussian, that is,

$$E_o \frac{w_o}{w(z)} e^{-\frac{r^2}{w^2(z)}} \quad (19.32)$$

The amplitude is the greatest on axis, with  $r = 0$ . The field falls to  $1/e$  of its maximum value when  $r = w$ . So  $w$  may be thought of as providing a measure of the beam width; that is, the effective beam radius is given by

$$r_{e1}(z) = w(z) = w_o \sqrt{\left(1 + \left(\frac{z}{z_o}\right)^2\right)} \quad (19.33)$$

The narrowest part of the beam occurs at  $z = 0$ , here the beam diameter is  $w_o$ . The quantity  $w_o$  is called the beam waist size.

For large  $z$ , the effective radius becomes

$$r_{e1} \simeq \frac{w_o}{z_o} z \quad (19.34)$$

and we see that the beam diverges with half-angle  $\theta_1$ , where

$$\tan \theta_1 = \frac{w_o}{z_o} = \frac{\lambda}{\pi w_o} \quad (19.35)$$

This is shown below.

When  $z = z_o$ , the radius increases by a factor of  $\sqrt{2}$ ; the quantity  $z_o$  is the called the Rayleigh range and  $d = 2z_o$  is the confocal parameter, or the depth of focus.

The beam divergence is, approximately,

$$\theta_1 \simeq \frac{w_o}{z_o} = \frac{2}{w_o k} = \frac{\lambda}{\pi w_o} \quad (19.36)$$

and the total divergence is

$$\theta_{1T} = 2\theta_1 = \frac{2\lambda}{\pi w_o} \quad (19.37)$$

In the above, we have defined the beam radius as the value of  $r$  where the field falls to  $1/e$  of its maximum value.

Many other definitions of beam width are possible.

The intensity is the square of the field, so

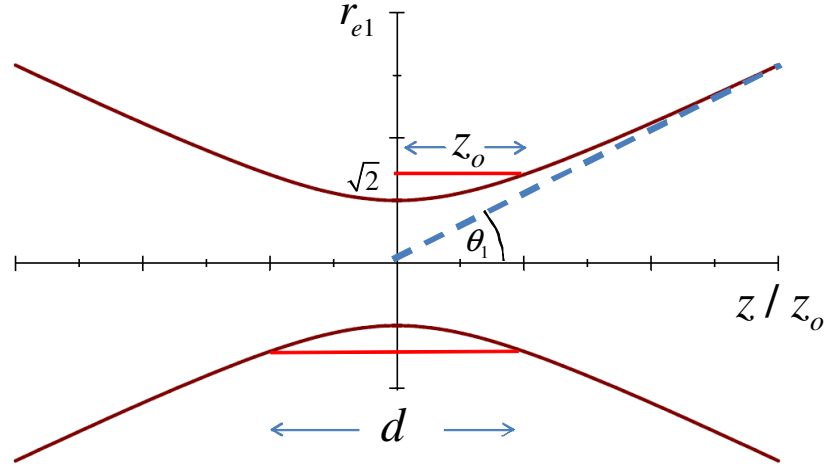


Figure 19.1:

$$I = I_o e^{-\frac{2r^2}{w(z)}} \quad (19.38)$$

The intensity will fall to 1/2 of its maximum value at when  $r = r_2$  is such that

$$e^{-\frac{2r_2^2}{w(z)}} = \frac{1}{2} \quad (19.39)$$

that is, when

$$r_2^2 = \frac{w^2(z)}{2} \ln 2 \quad (19.40)$$

and

$$4r_2^2 = w^2(z) 2 \ln 2 \quad (19.41)$$

The beam diameter  $D$  (sometimes called *full width at half maximum*, or FWHM) at this point is

$$D = 2r_2 = w(z) \sqrt{2 \ln 2} \quad (19.42)$$

Since  $\sqrt{2 \ln 2} = 1.17$ ,

$$D(z) = 1.17w(z) \simeq w(z) \quad (19.43)$$

and so we can also regard  $w(z)$  as the beam diameter.

Note that

$$r_2 = w(z) \sqrt{\frac{\ln 2}{2}} = r_{e1} \sqrt{\frac{\ln 2}{2}} = 0.59r_{e1} \quad (19.44)$$

and the beam divergence for FWHM is

$$\theta_2 = 0.59\theta_1 \quad (19.45)$$

so different definitions of beam width and divergence are possible, varying by  $\sqrt{2}$ . Keeping clear definitions is therefore important.

For simplicity, we will use the  $\theta_1$  for the beam divergence.

A Gaussian beam must diverge, otherwise its beam waist is infinite (and we have a plane wave).

The quantity  $R(z) = z(1 + (\frac{z_o}{z})^2)$  is a measure of the curvature of the wavefront. At  $z = 0$ , the phase front is planar

If the wavelength and the divergence of a Gaussian beam is known, both the beam waist and the Rayleigh range can be calculated. For example, if a beam of diameter  $D$  is incident on a lens with focal length  $f$ , the beam will be focussed. The angle of divergence is  $\theta = \tan^{-1} D/2f$ . and we have immediately that

$$\frac{w_o}{z_o} = \frac{D}{2f} = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{\pi z_o}} \quad (19.46)$$

and

$$z_o = \frac{4\lambda f^2}{\pi D^2} \quad (19.47)$$

and the beam waist is

$$w_o = \sqrt{\frac{z_o \lambda}{\pi}} = \sqrt{\frac{4\lambda^2 f^2}{\pi^2 D^2}} = \frac{2\lambda f}{\pi D} \quad (19.48)$$

A practical problem:

Consider a Gaussian beam, propagating in material 1 with index  $n_1$ , incident on a slab of material 2 with index  $n_2$ .

In material 1, the beam divergence is given by

$$\tan \theta_1 = \frac{w_{o1}}{z_{o1}} \quad (19.49)$$

and

$$w_{o1}^2 = 2z_{o1}/k_1 = z_{o1}\lambda_o/n_1\pi \quad (19.50)$$

so

$$\tan \theta_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_o}{\pi n_1 z_{o1}}} \quad (19.51)$$

and, if  $\theta_1 \ll 1$ , approximately

$$\sin \theta_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_o}{\pi n_1 z_{o1}}} \quad (19.52)$$

In material 2, we have similarly

$$\sin \theta_2 = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_o}{\pi n_2 z_{o2}}} \quad (19.53)$$

If Snell's law holds,

$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2 \quad (19.54)$$

and

$$\sqrt{\frac{n_1 \lambda_o}{\pi z_{o1}}} = \sqrt{\frac{n_2 \lambda_o}{\pi z_{o2}}} \quad (19.55)$$

so

$$\frac{z_{o1}}{n_1} = \frac{z_{o2}}{n_2} \quad (19.56)$$

We also have

$$w_{o1}^2 = 2z_{o1}/k_1 = z_{o1}\lambda_o/n_1\pi \quad (19.57)$$

and

$$w_{o2}^2 = 2z_{o2}/k_2 = z_{o2}\lambda_o/n_2\pi \quad (19.58)$$

and

$$\frac{w_{o1}^2}{w_{o2}^2} = \frac{z_{o1}}{n_1} \frac{n_2}{z_{o2}} = 1 \quad (19.59)$$

and

$$w_{o1} = w_{o2} \quad (19.60)$$

So the waist of the Gaussian beam remains the same, regardless of the medium.