

## UNIT - IV

### 2. LASERS

#### § Introduction:

The word "LASER" is an acronym for "Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation". The basic principle in LASER is the phenomenon of "Stimulated Emission of Radiation" suggested by Albert Einstein in 1917. In 1954 Charles H. Townes and his co-workers put this prediction of Einstein to practical use.

The first laser was developed by T.H. Maiman in the year of 1960 (Ruby laser). After that in the year 1961, Ali Javan and his associates developed He-Ne laser. Developments in semiconductor technology led to the fabrication of solid state laser in 1962 by Hall and his co-workers.

LASER is a device which can produce high intense, highly monochromatic coherent light in a narrow parallel beam.

#### # Characteristics of Laser :-

The important characteristics of laser are :

- 1). Highly Monochromatic (Monochromaticity)
- 2). Highly Directional (Directionality)
- 3). Highly Intensive
- 4). Highly Coherent (Coherence)

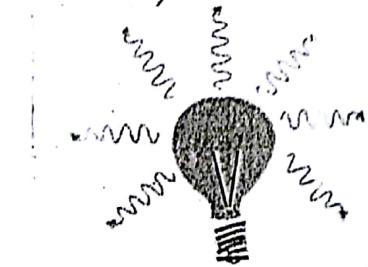
### ①. Highly Monochromatic :- (Monochromaticity)

Laser is highly monochromatic compared to the other conventional light sources. For example, the beam of a He-Ne gas laser is a very pure red colour. It is said to be nearly monochromatic (or) nearly single coloured. Near monochromaticity is a unique property of laser light which says that it consists of light of almost a single colour/wavelength.

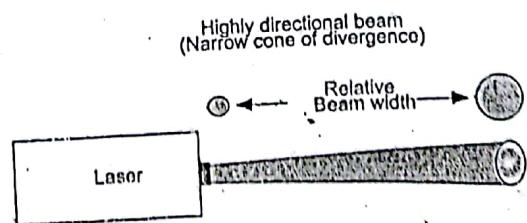
Perfect monochromatic light can not be exist, but, laser light is many times more monochromatic than the other sources.

### ②. Highly Directional :- (Directionality)

All conventional light sources emit light in all possible directions as shown in fig (a).



Fig(a): conventional source



Fig(b): Directionality of laser light

Fig (b) shows that the highly directional nature of light produced by a laser.

Directionality is the characteristic of laser light that causes it to travel in a single direction.

Laser is highly directional which can be expressed in terms of divergence. The degree of divergence (spread) of laser for laser spots of radii  $r_2$  and  $r_1$  for distances  $D_2$  &  $D_1$  from the laser source can be given by

The divergence

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{(r_2 - r_1)}{(D_2 - D_1)} \rightarrow ①$$

(3). Highly Intensive :-

A lot of energy is concentrated in a small region due to low divergence and highly coherence of laser. Hence, there is a enormous intensity in laser beam (i.e., highly intensive).

(4). Highly Coherent :- (Coherence)

Laser is highly coherent because two waves in laser beam maintain high spatial coherence and temporal coherence.

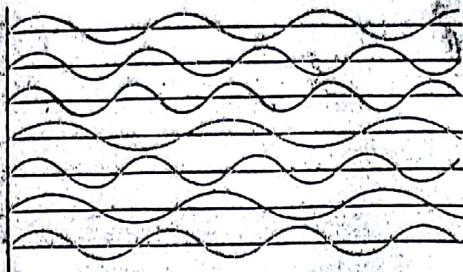


Fig.(a) Incoherent light waves

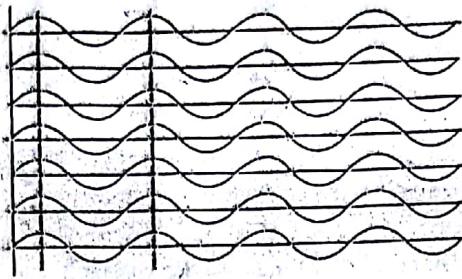


Fig.(b) Coherent light waves

### § Atomic Excitation :- (Interaction of radiation with Matter)

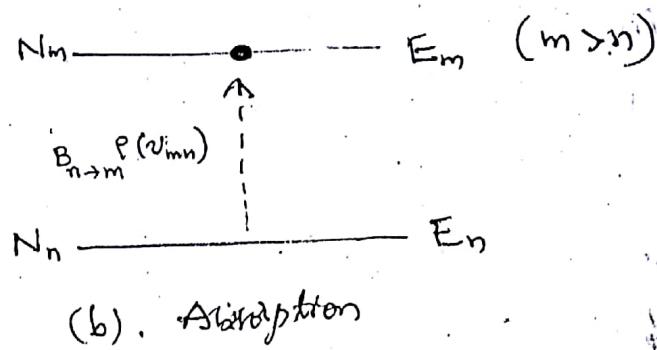
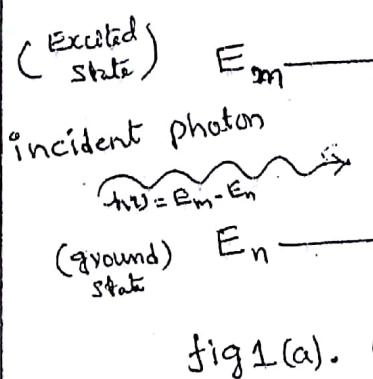
An electron in an atom revolves around the nucleus in discrete orbits. Unless it absorbs some amount of energy by any means, the atom will be in ground state (stable state).

When sufficient energy is given to the atom in the ground state, then electrons of that atom absorb energy (photons) and are excited to a higher energy level. Now, the atom is said to be in an "Excited State".

In this state the atom can not stay for a long time; because, excited state is always an unstable state. After a little time ( $10^{-8}$  sec) it comes down to the ground state by emitting a photon of EM radiation.

## #EINSTEIN COEFFICIENTS :-

### Stimulated Absorption:-



Consider two energy states  $E_m$  and  $E_n$  of an atom.

" $E_n$ " represent ground state of the atom and " $E_m$ " represent the excited state of the atom respectively.

If a photon of energy equal to  $E_m - E_n$ ,  $\hbar\nu$  is incident on the atom in the ground state, then the atom in the ground state, absorbs that energy and gets excited to state ' $E_m$ ' as shown in fig.

This transition is known as "stimulated absorption" (or) "induced absorption".

$$\therefore E_m - E_n = \hbar\nu \quad (\text{or})$$

$$\boxed{\nu = \frac{E_m - E_n}{\hbar}} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

is the frequency of the incident photon.

The probability of occurrence per unit time of this absorption transition  $n \rightarrow m$  depends upon the properties of the states  $m$  and  $n$ , and is proportional to the spectral energy density  $\rho(\nu_{mn})$ . (i.e.,  $\rho(\nu_{mn}) \rightarrow$  the rate at which photons of frequency  $\nu$  fall on the atom).

$\therefore$  Hence, the number of absorption transitions (or) the number of atoms excited is given by, (or the probability of stimulated Absorption  $N_{Ab}$ ).

$$N_{Ab} \propto \rho(\nu_{mn}) \quad (\text{or})$$

$$N_{Ab} = B_{n \rightarrow m} \cdot \rho(\nu_{mn}) \longrightarrow ②$$

If at any time there are "N<sub>n</sub>" atoms in the state "n", the no. of such transitions per second is

$$\boxed{N_{Ab} = N_n B_{n \rightarrow m} \cdot \rho(\nu_{mn})} \longrightarrow ③$$

( $\because$  Ab  $\rightarrow$  stands for Absorption)

Here,  $N_n \rightarrow$  is number of atoms in ground state "n"

$\rho(\nu_{mn}) \rightarrow$  is the spectral energy density

$B_{n \rightarrow m} \rightarrow$  is the proportionality constant and is called "Einstein's coefficient of absorption".

Spontaneous emission:-

Suppose the atom is in higher (excited) state "m".

The life-time of the excited state is usually very small ( $\approx 10^{-8}$  sec).

So, the atom jumps to the lower energy state 'n', emitting a photon of frequency "v". This is known as "spontaneous emission" of radiation.

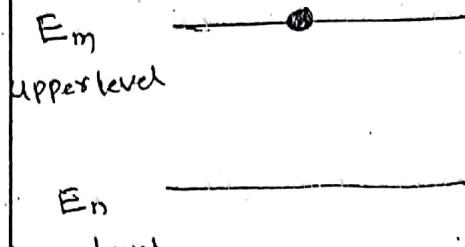
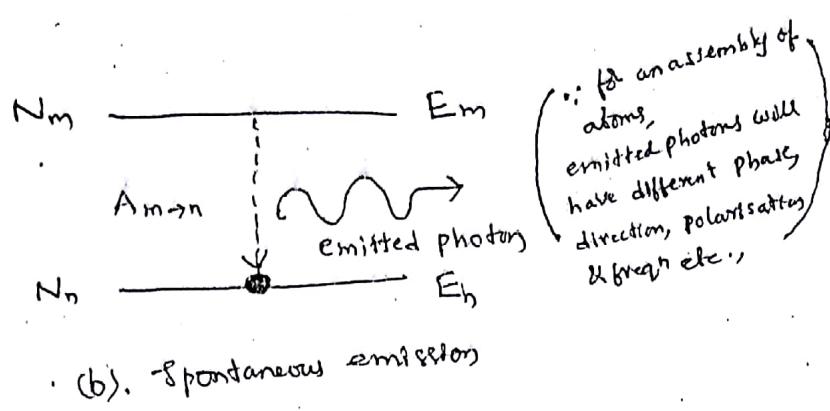


fig 2 (a). Before emission



(b). Spontaneous emission

When there is an assembly of atoms, the radiation emitted spontaneously by each atom has a random direction and random phase. So, the emission is "incoherent".

The probability of spontaneous emission is independent of the spectral energy density  $\epsilon(v_{mn})$ , and depends only on the number density of atoms " $N_m$ " (i.e., no. of atoms in excited state) and is determined by the properties of states 'm' and 'n'.

Hence  $N_{sp} \propto N_m$  (or)

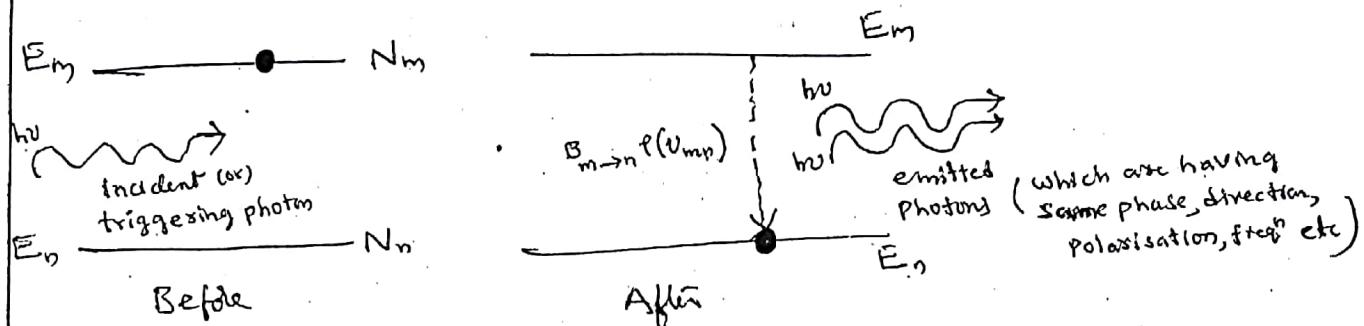
$$\therefore \boxed{N_{sp} = N_m \cdot A_{m \rightarrow n}} \longrightarrow (4)$$

( $\because$  Sp  $\rightarrow$  stands for Spontaneous emission)

Here,  $A_{m \rightarrow n}$  is a proportionality constant and is called the "Einstein's coefficient of Spontaneous emission".

## Stimulated (induced) emission:- (Working principle of laser)

When a photon of energy " $\hbar\nu = E_m - E_n$ " hits the atom which was in excited state ( $E_m$ ), before it undergo spontaneous emission, then the atom is forced and <sup>it</sup> may jump to a lower energy state, by emitting an additional photon of the same frequency. Now, two photons instead of one more on. This is known as "stimulated (or) induced emission of radiation" and is shown in fig(B).



Fig(B) : Stimulated Emission process

The most important property of this radiation is, that "it is coherent".

i.e., the direction of propagation, energy, phase, and state of polarisation of the emitted photons is exactly the same as that of stimulating (or incident/trigerring) photon.

The probability of stimulated emission is proportional to the spectral energy density.

$$\text{i.e., } N_{st} \propto e(\nu_{mn}) \quad (\text{or})$$

$$N_{st} = B_{m \rightarrow n} \cdot e(\nu_{mn}) \rightarrow \textcircled{5}$$

If at any time there are  $N_m$  atoms in the state "m",

then we have,

$$\boxed{N_{st} = N_m B_{m \rightarrow n} e(\nu_{mn})} \rightarrow \textcircled{6}$$

( $\because$  st  $\rightarrow$  stands for Stimulated Emission)

Where,  $N_m$   $\rightarrow$  is density of atoms in excited state

$B_{m \rightarrow n}$   $\rightarrow$  is proportionality constant and is called

Einstein's coefficient of stimulated emission

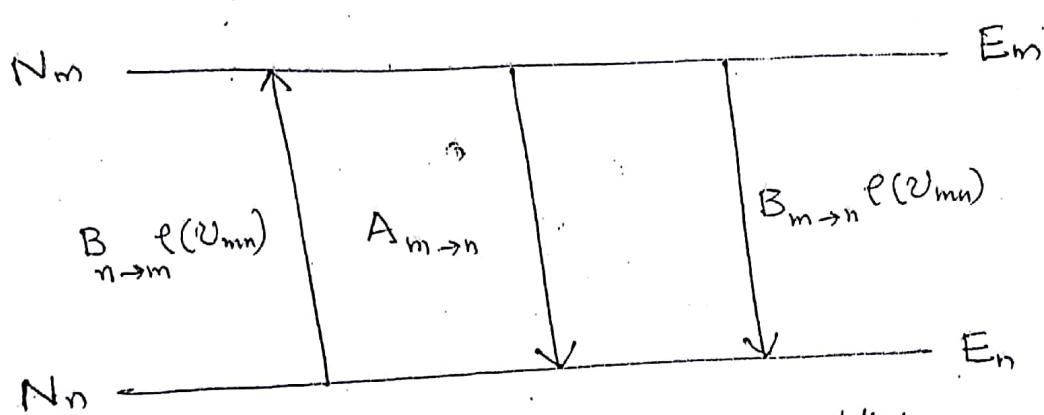


Fig.(4): Einstein transition probabilities

Under thermal equilibrium condition, we can write

$$N_{Ab} = N_{sp} + N_{st} \rightarrow \textcircled{7}$$

Substituting eqn's (3), (4) & (6) in above eqn, we get

$$N_n B_{n \rightarrow m} e(\nu_{mn}) = N_m A_{m \rightarrow n} + N_m B_{m \rightarrow n} e(\nu_{mn}) \quad (\text{or})$$

$$[NB_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn})] = N_m [A_{m \rightarrow n} + B_{m \rightarrow n} e(v_{mn})] \quad (or)$$

$$\frac{N_n}{N_m} = \frac{[A_{m \rightarrow n} + B_{m \rightarrow n} e(v_{mn})]}{[B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn})]} \longrightarrow \textcircled{8}$$

The equilibrium distribution of atoms among different energy states is given by Boltzmann's law according to which

$$\frac{N_n}{N_m} = e^{\frac{(E_m - E_n)/kT}{h\nu_{mn}/kT}} = e^{\frac{h\nu_{mn}/kT}{(E_m - E_n)/kT}} \quad (\because E_m - E_n = h\nu_{mn}) \longrightarrow \textcircled{9}$$

Substituting in eq<sup>n</sup> ⑧, we get

$$e^{\frac{h\nu_{mn}/kT}{B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn})}} = \frac{[A_{m \rightarrow n} + B_{m \rightarrow n} e(v_{mn})]}{B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn})} \quad (or)$$

$$B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn}) \cdot e^{\frac{h\nu_{mn}/kT}{B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn})}} = A_{m \rightarrow n} + B_{m \rightarrow n} e(v_{mn}) \quad (or)$$

$$B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn}) \cdot e^{\frac{h\nu_{mn}/kT}{B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn})}} - B_{m \rightarrow n} e(v_{mn}) = A_{m \rightarrow n} \quad (or)$$

$$(v_{mn}) \left[ B_{n \rightarrow m} e^{\frac{h\nu_{mn}/kT}{B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn})}} - B_{m \rightarrow n} \right] = A_{m \rightarrow n} \quad (or)$$

$$\therefore (v_{mn}) = \frac{A_{m \rightarrow n}}{B_{n \rightarrow m} e^{\frac{h\nu_{mn}/kT}{B_{n \rightarrow m} e(v_{mn})}} - B_{m \rightarrow n}} \longrightarrow \textcircled{10} \quad (or)$$

$$P(v_{mn}) = \frac{A_{m \rightarrow n}}{B_{m \rightarrow n} \left[ \frac{B_{n \rightarrow m}}{B_{m \rightarrow n}} \cdot e^{-\frac{hv_{mn}/kT}{1}} \right]} \quad (\text{or})$$

$$\therefore P(v_{mn}) = \frac{\left( \frac{A_{m \rightarrow n}}{B_{m \rightarrow n}} \right)}{\left( \frac{B_{n \rightarrow m}}{B_{m \rightarrow n}} \right) \cdot e^{-\frac{hv_{mn}/kT}{1}}} \rightarrow 11$$

According to Planck's law, the radiant energy is given by,

$$P(v_{mn}) = \frac{8\pi h v^3}{c^3} \cdot \frac{1}{(e^{hv/kT} - 1)} \rightarrow 12 \quad (\text{or})$$

$$\therefore P(v) = \frac{\left( \frac{8\pi h v^3}{c^3} \right)}{\left( \frac{1}{1} \right) \cdot e^{-\frac{hv/kT}{1}}} \rightarrow 13$$

Comparing equations 11 & 13

Einstein coefficients are related by the equations,

$$\frac{A_{m \rightarrow n}}{B_{m \rightarrow n}} = \frac{8\pi h v_{mn}^3}{c^3} \quad (\text{or})$$

$$\therefore A_{m \rightarrow n} = \frac{8\pi h v_{mn}^3}{c^3} \cdot B_{m \rightarrow n} \quad \rightarrow \quad 14$$

and

$$\frac{B_{n \rightarrow m}}{B_{m \rightarrow n}} = 1 \quad (\text{or})$$

$$\therefore B_{n \rightarrow m} = B_{m \rightarrow n} \quad \rightarrow \quad 15$$

### # Population Inversion :-

We know that stimulated emission process is the key to produce a laser light. For stimulated emission the condition is "Mole number of atoms should be present in the excited state ( $E_2$ ) compared to the lower energy state ( $E_1$ ). This situation is known as "population inversion".

Here, population  $\rightarrow$  means, No. of atoms occupying an energy state

Inversion  $\rightarrow$  means, Opposite to the normal situation (Normally most of the atoms are present in the ground state  $E_1$ )

Let us consider a "x" level system in which energy states  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_x$  and populations of these energy

levels are  $N_1, N_2, \dots, N_s$  respectively. According to Boltzmann distribution law, the population of a given energy state can be expressed as

$$\therefore N_s = N_0 e^{\frac{-E_s}{k_B T}} \quad | \text{Energy of excited state}$$

where  $s = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Here,  $N_0 \rightarrow$  is the population of ground state

$T \rightarrow$  is the temperature

&  $k_B \rightarrow$  is the Boltzmann's constant ( $k_B = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$ )

The normal population distribution as a function of energy level is shown in fig (a).

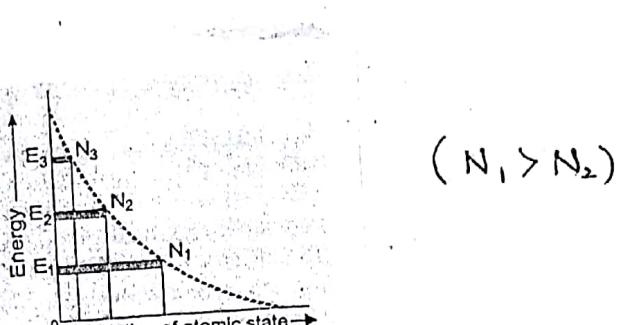


Fig. a : Normal population distribution

From the above fig (a), it is clear that, the population in each energy level decreases exponentially with increase of energy level.

From fig (a) it is also observed that, the population of atoms  $N_1$  in the lower energy state  $E_1$ , is more than the population of atoms  $N_2$  in the higher energy state  $E_2$  (i.e.,  $N_1 > N_2$ ).

The process of making  $N_2 > N_1$  is known as "population Inversion".

PUMPING :- The process of achieving population inversion is known as "Pumping" process.

Metastable State :- In order to achieve population inversion, we must have an energy state, which has long life time. This type of state is called a "Metastable State".

The life time of metastable state is  $10^{-3}$  sec ( $>>>> 10^8$  s)

" Excited state is  $10^{-8}$  sec

ACTIVE SYSTEM :- A system in which population inversion is achieved is known as "Active System". The active system (medium) may be solid, liquid or a gas.

Eg:- Silica base glasses, He-Ne gas mixture, Nitrogen,  $\text{CO}_2$ , GaAs are some examples of active medium.

## # Types of Lasers :-

Depending on the nature of active medium we have 4 types of lasers.

They are :

### 1). Solid state laser

Eg: Ruby laser ( $6943\text{ Å}^\circ$ ) (or) ( $694.3\text{ nm}$ )  
Nd-YAG and glass ( $1.064\text{ } \mu\text{m}$ )  
Alexandrite ( $700 - 800\text{ nm}$ )

### 2). Liquid laser

Eg: Organic dye ( $300 - 1000\text{ nm}$ )

### 3). Gas laser

Eg: He-Ne ( $632.8\text{ nm}$ )  
Argon ion ( $450 - 520\text{ nm}$ )  
Nitrogen ( $337\text{ nm}$ )  
 $\text{CO}_2$  ( $10.6\text{ } \mu\text{m}$ )

### 4). Semiconductor laser

Eg:- Ga Al As diode laser ( $750 - 900\text{ nm}$ )  
In Ga As P diode laser ( $1100 - 1600\text{ nm}$ )

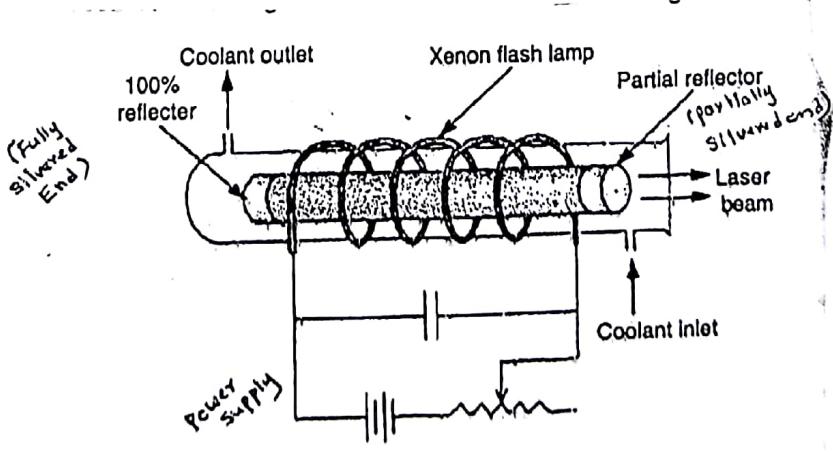
## # RUBY LASER :-

(V.G)

This was the first laser developed by T. Maimann. Ruby belongs to the family of gems. It is basically  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  crystal containing about 0.05% of Chromium atoms. The colour of ruby rod crystal depends on the concentration of Chromium atoms. Otherwise  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  is transparent. (Ruby rod pink or red)

$\text{Al}^{3+}$  ions in the crystal lattice are substituted by  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$  ions. Here,  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$  ions constitute active centers, i.e., laser action takes place in Chromium energy levels. The aluminium & Oxygen atoms are inert.

Construction :- The schematic diagram of a ruby laser is shown in fig (1).



Fig(1.) : Ruby Laser

Ruby rod is taken in the form of a cylindrical rod of about 10cm in length and 1cm in diameter. Its ends are ground & optically polished such that the end faces are optically plane & exactly parallel and also  $\perp$  to the axis of the rod.

One face is silvered to achieve 100% reflection while the opposite face is partially silvered. These two silvered faces act as optical resonating cavity.

The rod is surrounded by helical photographic xenon flash lamp. It produces high intense flashes of white light whenever activated by a power supply. The system which gets heated due to pumping radiation is cooled with the help of coolant, circulated around the ruby rod.

Working :-

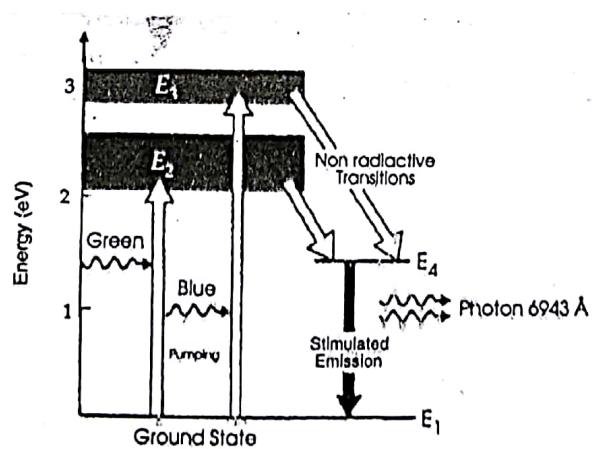


Fig. (2.) : Energy levels and transitions in a ruby laser

Ruby laser is a three level laser system.

The energy levels of  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$  ions in  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  lattice are shown in fig(2). The excited energy levels of  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$  ion are not single energy levels. They are a band of energies.

When power is switched on, xenon flash lamp produces very high intense white radiation for a few seconds. The atoms in the ground state  $E_1$  absorbs green and blue components of white radiation & get excited to one of the energy levels in  $E_2$  and  $E_3$  respectively.

Since life time of atoms in excited states  $E_2$  &  $E_3$  is very small, excited atoms are quickly de-excited to either  $E_4$  or  $E_1$ . But, from selection rules probability of transition from  $E_2$  (or  $E_3$ ) to  $E_4$  is more than compared to probability of transition from  $E_2$  (or  $E_3$ ) to  $E_1$ . The transition from  $E_2$  (or  $E_3$ ) to  $E_4$  is a non-radiative transition.

Since  $E_4$  is metastable state, the excited  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$  ions are accumulated in the state. If pumping occurs at faster time/rate, the population at the level  $E_4$  exceeds that of ground level  $E_1$  in shorter time. Therefore, the state of population inversion gets established between  $E_4$  and  $E_1$ . After some time  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$  ions are spontaneously de-excited to ground level  $E_1$ , with the emission of a photon

of wavelength  $694.3 \text{ Å}$  (red). The emitted photons which are moving along the axis of ruby rod, are repeatedly reflected by mirrors and enhance the stimulated emission process. When the beam develops sufficient intensity, it emerges out of the partially silvered mirror.

#### Drawbacks :-

- 1>. The xenon flash lasts for a few milli seconds. However, laser does not operate throughout this period. Therefore, the output of laser beam is not continuous, but occurs in the form of pulses of usec duration.
- 2>. The efficiency of ruby laser is very poor.
- 3>. The ruby laser requires greater excitation energy (high pumping power) to achieve (create) population inversion.

#### Applications :-

- 1>. Distance measurement using "pulse echo" technique.
- 2>. used for drilling high quality holes
- 3>. In military, used as target designators
- 4>. Used in general research applications

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## # Helium - Neon (He-Ne) Laser :-

Dmsk

He-Ne laser was the first successful gas laser built by Ali Javan & his co-workers in 1961. As the name implies the active medium is a mixture of He and Ne gas. He-Ne laser is continuous laser; whereas Ruby laser is a pulsed laser.

### Construction:-

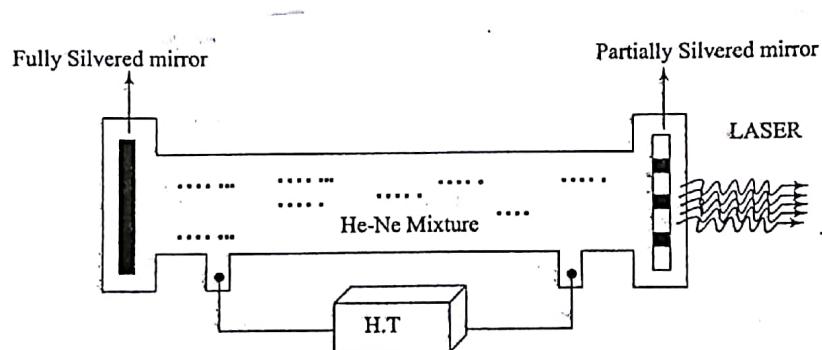


Fig. (1). Schematic of He-Ne Laser

The Schematic diagram of He-Ne laser is shown in fig (1). The gas mixture of He-Ne in the ratio of 10:1 is enclosed in a discharge tube at a pressure of 1mm of Hg ( $\sim 300\text{Pa}$ ). Silvered mirrors are provided at the ends of the discharge tube, in which one is fully silvered

and the other one is partially silvered. A high voltage R.F generator is connected to the discharge tube.

### Working : (Energy level Diagram)

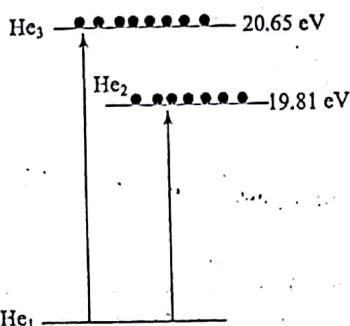


Fig. 2 Energy level diagram of Helium

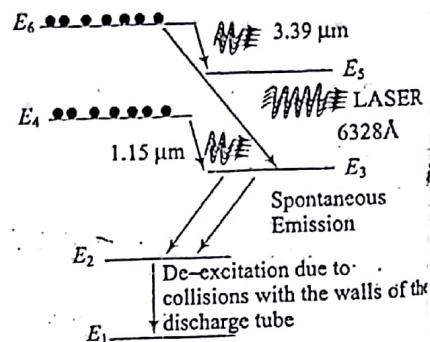


Fig. 3 Energy level diagram of Neon

The energy level diagrams of He and Ne are as shown in fig (2) & (3). When the discharge is passed through the He-Ne mixture, the He atoms absorb the energy from the discharge and are excited to the energy levels  $\text{He}_3$  &  $\text{He}_2$  whose energies are 20.65 eV and 19.81 eV.

The excited He atoms make elastic collisions with Ne atoms and transfer the energy to the Ne atoms. Hence, Ne atoms are excited to the metastable states  $E_6$ ,  $E_5$ ,  $E_4$  which are close to  $\text{He}_3$  &  $\text{He}_2$ .

After a short time, population inversion is achieved between the metastable states  $E_6$  &  $E_4$  and lower energy states  $E_5$  &  $E_3$ .

The possible transitions are:

$E_6 \rightarrow E_5$  of wavelength  $3.39\text{ }\mu\text{m}$

$E_6 \rightarrow E_3$  of wavelength  $6328\text{ }\text{\AA}$

$E_4 \rightarrow E_3$  of wavelength  $1.15\text{ }\mu\text{m}$

From the above 3 transitions, a mixture of wavelengths will be obtained. To obtain laser output of  $6328\text{ }\text{\AA}$ , the discharge tube is made with quartz which absorbs the wavelengths  $3.39\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  &  $1.15\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ . Neon atoms in  $E_3$  take a fast spontaneous emission to energy state  $E_2$  and then de-excited to the ground state.

Applications :-

- 1). Very widely used in laboratories
- 2). Used widely in metrology in surveying etc.,
- 3). He-Ne laser can be scanned across the surface to read barcode, special characters & other symbols.
- 4). Used for OCR (Optical Character Recognition)
- 5). Used in 3D recording of objects called Holography.

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## # Applications of Lasers :-

Lasers can have the following applications :

### (1). In communication :-

- (i). In optical fibre communication, because of its high band width.
- (ii). In spacecrafts and submarines because of high directionality
- (iii). In underwater communication and also for studies on velocity of atmospheric features.

### (2). In computers :-

- (i). In the LAN, to transfer data from one computer to another.
- (ii). In CD-ROMS, during recording and reading the data.

### (3). In Industry :-

- (i). To blast holes in diamonds and hard steel.
- (ii). To cut teeth in saws, drill eyes in surgical needles, and test the quality of material.

(4). In Scientific Research:-

- (i). To separate isotopes from a radioactive element
- (ii). In holography, for construction & reading the holograms.

(5). In Military Applications:-

- (i). To destroy enemy aircrafts and missiles
- (ii). As a war weapon; hence, named as death weapon

(6). In Medicine:-

- (i). In opening blocked arteries, reconnecting severed nerves, removing warts, and treating bleeding ulcer.
- (ii). To eliminate moles, and tumours which are developing in the skin tissue.
- (iii). In the treatment of liver cancer.

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Problems:-

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- ①. Energy gap of a semiconductor is 3 eV. Calculate the wavelength of emitted photon.

Sol:- Given data,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Energy gap } E_g &= 3 \text{ eV (or)} \\ &= 3 \times 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \\ &\approx 4.806 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Planck's const } (h) = 6.625 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J-sec}$$

$$\text{Velocity of light photons } (c) = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\therefore \text{Energy gap } E_g = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \rightarrow (1)$$

$$\therefore \text{Wavelength of emitted photon } \lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{6.625 \times 10^{-34} \times 3 \times 10^8}{4.806 \times 10^{-19}} \text{ m (or)}$$

$$\lambda \approx 4.135 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m (or)}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\lambda = 4135 \text{ Å}} \rightarrow (2) (\text{Ans})$$

(2). Calculate the wavelength of emitted radiation from GaAs which has a band gap of 1.44 eV.

Sol:- Given data,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Energy gap } E_g &= 1.44 \text{ eV (or)} \\ &= 1.44 \times 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ Joule} \end{aligned}$$

$$h = 6.625 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J-s}$$

$$c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\therefore E_g = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \rightarrow ①$$

$$\therefore \lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g}$$

$$= \frac{6.625 \times 10^{-34} \times 3 \times 10^8}{1.44 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$\approx 0.862 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\lambda = 0.862 \mu\text{m}} \rightarrow ②$$

\* \* \* \*

- ③ Calculate the relative population in the laser transition levels in a ruby laser in thermal equilibrium. The wavelength of the ruby laser light is 6943 at 300 K.

Sol:- we have,  
the relative population, according to Boltzmann's law

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = e^{\frac{(E_2 - E_1)}{k_B T}} \approx e^{\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}} \rightarrow ①$$

Here,  $N_1 \rightarrow$  No. of atoms per const vol. in ground state ( $E_1$ )

$N_2 \rightarrow$  " " in metastable " ( $E_2$ )

Given data,

$$\gamma = 6943 \text{ A}^\circ (\text{cm})$$

$$= 6943 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

$$c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/sec}$$

$$\therefore v = \frac{c}{\gamma} = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{6943 \times 10^{-10}} = 4.32 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz.}$$

$$k_B (\text{Boltzmann Const}) = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$$

$$T = 300 \text{ K}, h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J-sec}$$

Now, eq<sup>n</sup> ① becomes

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = e^{(6.626 \times 10^{-34} \times 4.32 \times 10^{14}) / (1.38 \times 10^{-23} \times 300)}$$

$$\approx e^{69.16} \Rightarrow \frac{N_2}{N_1} = e^{-(69.16)} \approx 8 \times 10^{-31} (\text{Ans})$$

$$= 1.06 \times 10^{-30}$$

$$\therefore \text{Relative population } \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right) = 1.06 \times 10^{-30} (\text{Ans})$$

\* \* \*

# LECTURE PLAN

## ENGINEERING PHYSICS

BECF181T30/CBSPH18T30

### B.E. / B. Tech.

(ECE, EIE, Mechatronics, EEE, CSE&IT)  
(2020 -21 / I SEMESTER)

#### **UNIT III – PHOTONICS**

- solid-state laser (Nd-YAG laser)

Delivery mode	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Black board/ PPT</li> </ul>
Key lecture points	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nature of components of Nd:YAG laser</li> <li>• Characteristics of Nd:YAG laser</li> <li>• Description on working set up (with diagram)</li> <li>• Explanation on working with energy level diagrams</li> <li>• Applications.</li> </ul>
Conclusions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nd-YAG laser uses a solid Nd-YAG rod as active medium</li> <li>• Laser transition occurs between electronic levels in solid state lasers</li> <li>• Four level solid state laser</li> <li>• Optical pumping is employed for solid state lasers</li> </ul>
Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Differentiate between various pumping systems</li> <li>• Give the significance of meta-stable states</li> <li>• Essential components of Nd-YAG laser set up</li> </ul>

Credits	Exam	Marks		Total
		UI	UE	
4	3Hrs	40	60	100

#### **Objectives**

- To understand the components of Nd-YAG laser
- To understand the working of Nd-YAG laser

#### **Outcomes**

Student will be able to explain

- Solid state Four level lasers
- Optical pumping
- Meta stable states and population inversion
- Electronic transitions

#### **Pre requisites**

Basic knowledge on

- Spontaneous and stimulated emissions
- Laser components

#### **Terms used**

- Nd-YAG rod
- Xenon flash lamp
- Elliptical cavity
- Four level laser
- Reflective mirrors

# Nd-YAG LASER

[Neodymium doped Yttrium Aluminium Garnet Laser]

## Why YAG?

### YITTRIUM ALUMINIUM GARNET [YAG]

✚ Garnets  $[X_3Y_2(SiO_4)_3]$  are group of silicate minerals [gem stones and abrasives]

X sites - Divalent cation  $(Ca, Mg, Fe, Mn)^{2+}$

Y sites - Trivalent cation  $(Al, Fe, Cr)^{3+}$

✚ YAG is a synthetic garnet made using aluminium in the place of Si

✚ High optical quality

✚ YAG can be polished to a good optical finish

✚ High thermal conductivity for easy extraction of the heat generated

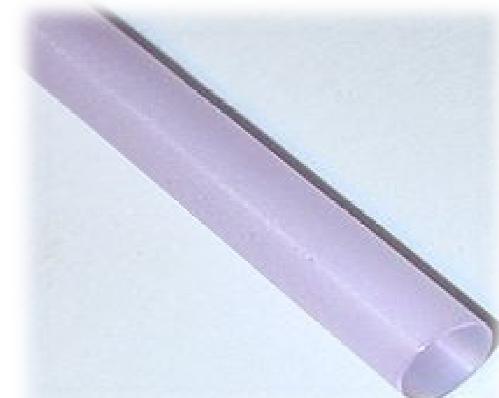


Lab created YAG Gem  
<https://www.jtv.com/library/gemedia/yag>

# CHARACTERISTICS

❖ **ACTIVE MEDIUM :** Neodymium [Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions] doped YAG

- ✚ Size of Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions are almost same as Y<sup>3+</sup> ions
- ✚ Some of the Y<sup>3+</sup> ions (1%) are replaced by Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions on doping
- ✚ Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions act as active centers in the active medium
- ✚ Active centers are those atoms or molecules which involve in absorption and emission transitions during pumping processes.



Nd:YAG laser rod 0.5 cm in diameter

## ❖ PUMPING MECHANISM : Optical Pumping

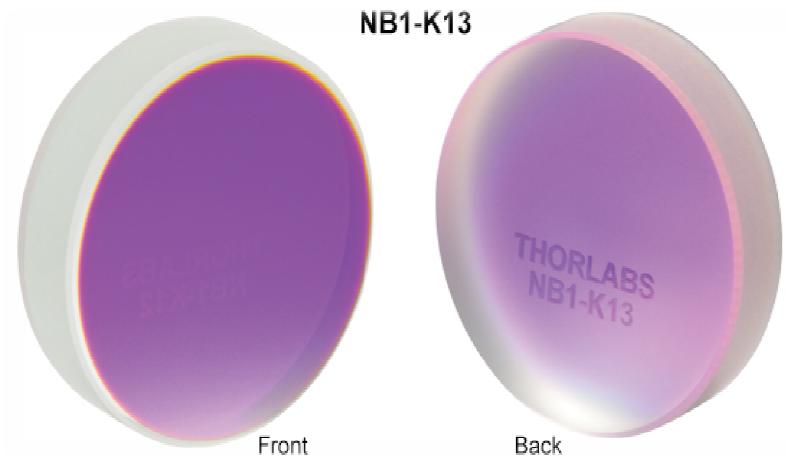
- Pumping Source : Xenon Flash Lamp
- Photons from the flash of flash lamp excite Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions to higher excited levels
- Population inversion is created



Customized Xenon flash lamps  
<https://gbondtech.com/product-categories/laser-crystal-xenon-lamps/>

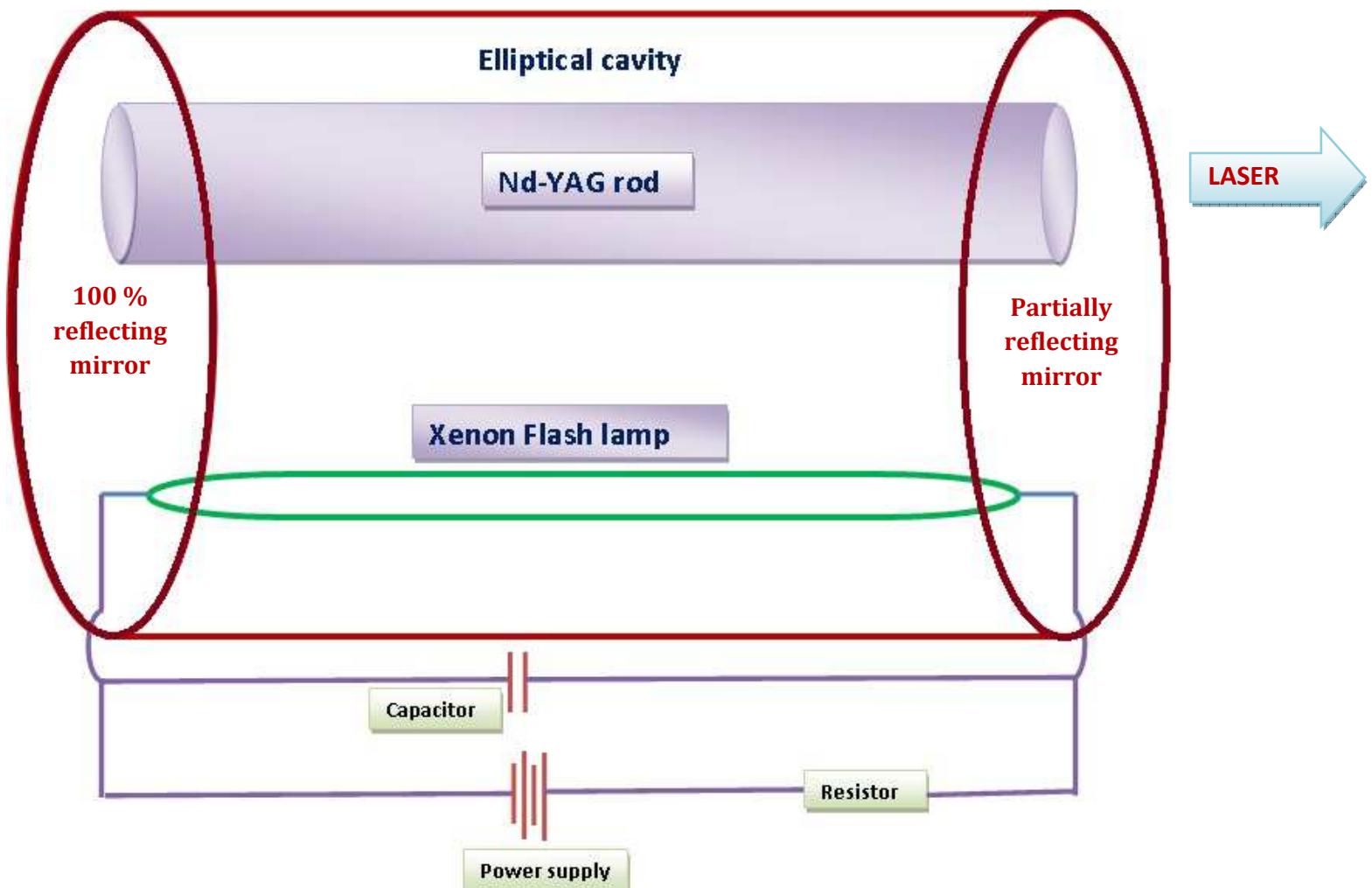
## ❖ REFLECTIVE MIRROR SET UP

- The ends of Nd-YAG rod are fitted with suitable reflective mirrors
- One mirror gives 100% reflection
- The other mirror gives partial reflection



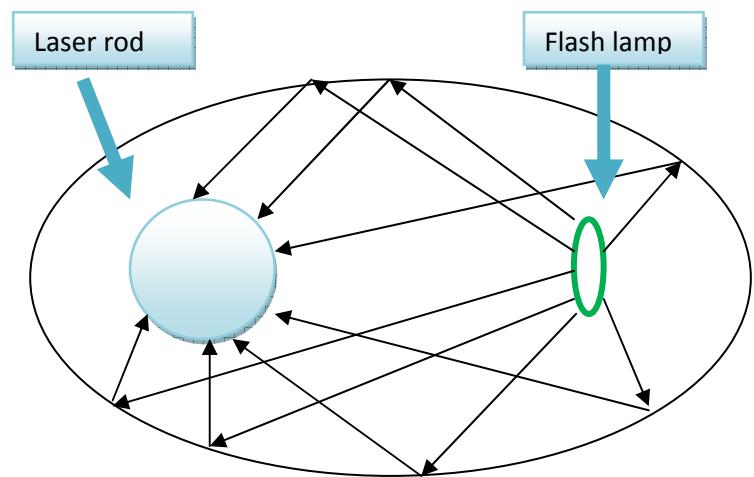
Mirrors for Nd-YAG lasers  
[https://www.thorlabs.com/newgroupage9.cfm?obje ctgroup\\_id=3793](https://www.thorlabs.com/newgroupage9.cfm?obje ctgroup_id=3793)

# SCHEMATIC SET UP



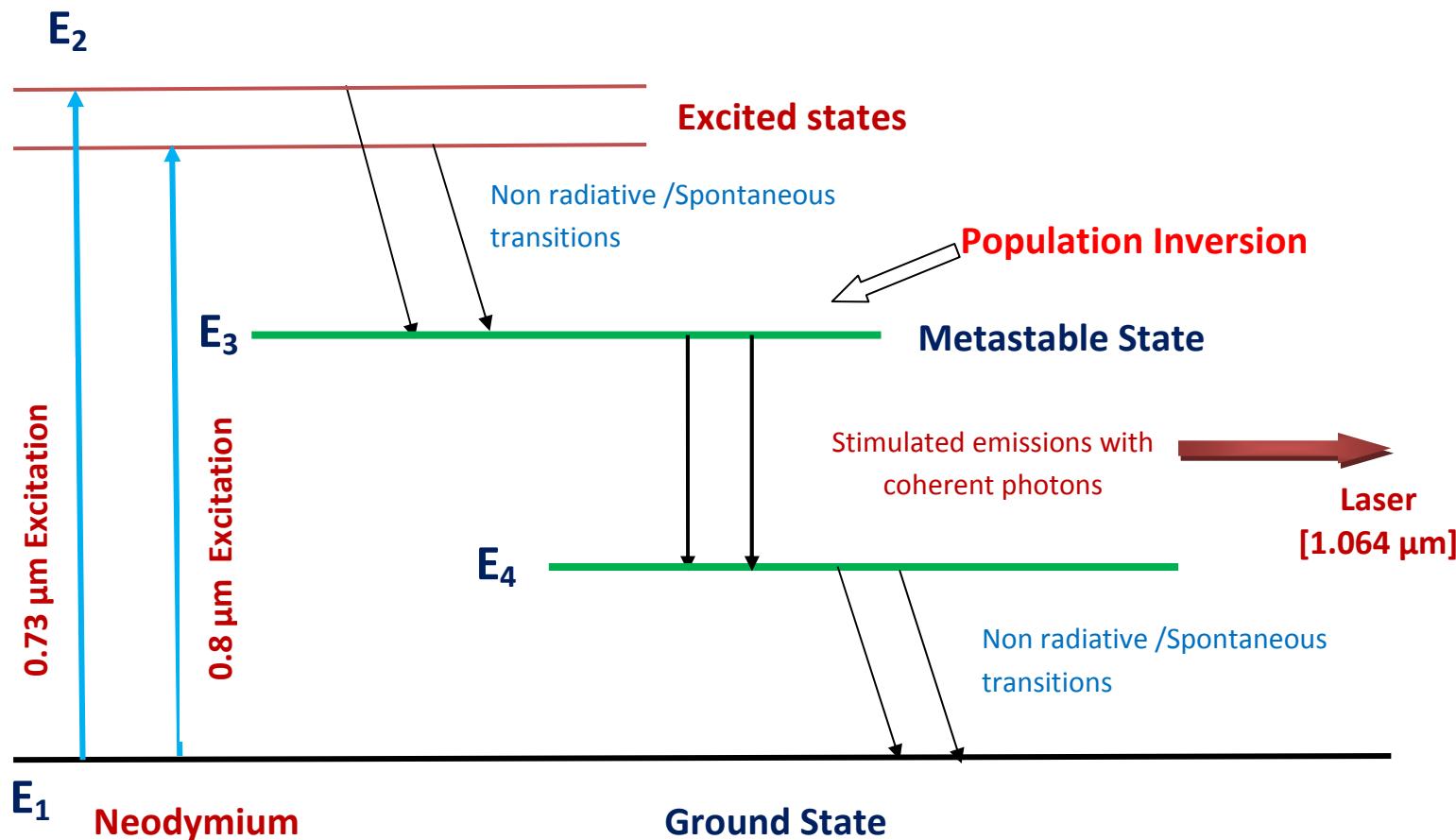
## ELLIPTICAL CAVITY

- The elliptical cavity is a hollow casing and whose inner surface is coated with reflective coating
- At one of the focal point of elliptical cavity, Nd-YAG rod [active medium] is placed
- At another focal point a Xenon flash lamp is fixed
- This arrangement focus all the light on the laser rod [Nd-YAG rod]



# WORKING OF LASER

## ENERGY LEVEL SCHEME



## WORKING OF LASER

- When the flash lamp gives flash, the  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  ions are excited to higher levels
- These levels are highly unstable and the excited ions make a non-radiative transition to meta stable states
- Population inversion takes place in meta stable levels
- Stimulated emission is induced in the meta stable levels by spontaneously emitted photons
- Coherent photons are released in stimulated emission
- These photons are suitably multiplied by resonant cavity [laser rod attached with mirrors] and finally released as laser beam at  $1.064 \mu\text{m}$  [IR region] through partial windows.

## APPLICATIONS

- Nd:YAG lasers are used in ophthalmology
- In oncology, Nd:YAG lasers can be used to remove skin cancers
- Nd:YAG dental lasers are used for soft tissue surgeries in the oral cavity,
- Nd:YAG lasers are used in manufacturing for engraving, etching and metal surface enhancement processes.
- The Nd:YAG laser is the most common laser used in military as laser rangefinders.

**COURSE TEACHER**

**Dr. M. SUNDARRAJAN**

Assistant Professor of Physics

**SCSVMV**

## Semiconductor Diode Laser

### Definition:

It is specifically fabricated p-n junction diode. This diode emits laser light when it is forward biased.

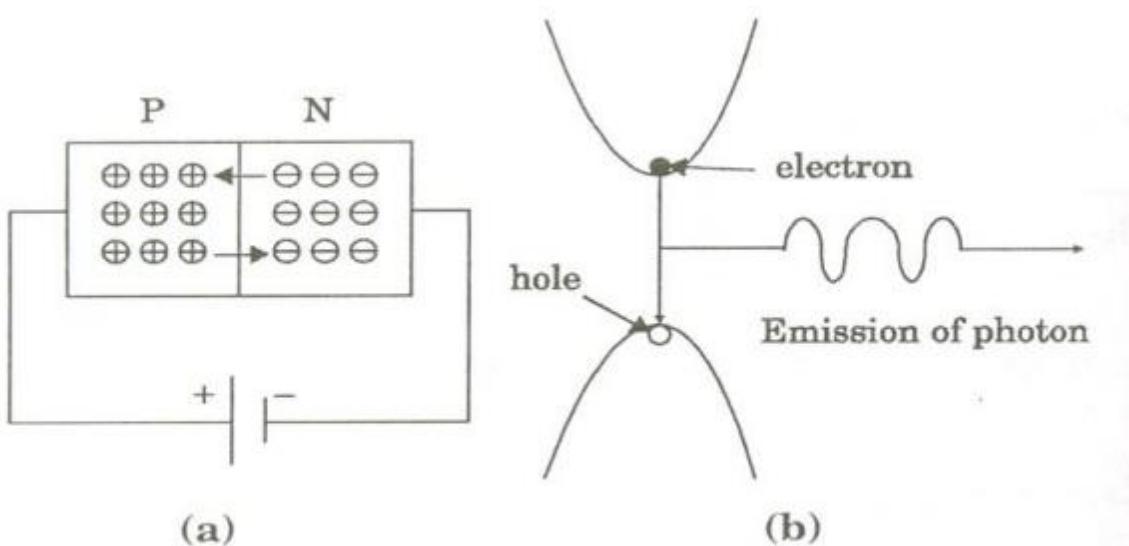
### Characteristics:

- ❖ Type: It is a solid state semiconductor laser.
- ❖ Active medium: A PN junction diode made from single crystal of gallium arsenide is used as an active medium.
- ❖ Pumping method: The direct conversion method is used for pumping action
- ❖ Power output: The power output from this laser is 1mW.
- ❖ Nature of output: The nature of output is continuous wave or pulsed output.
- ❖ Wavelength of Output: gallium arsenide laser gives infrared radiation in the wavelength 8300 to 8500 Å

### Principle:

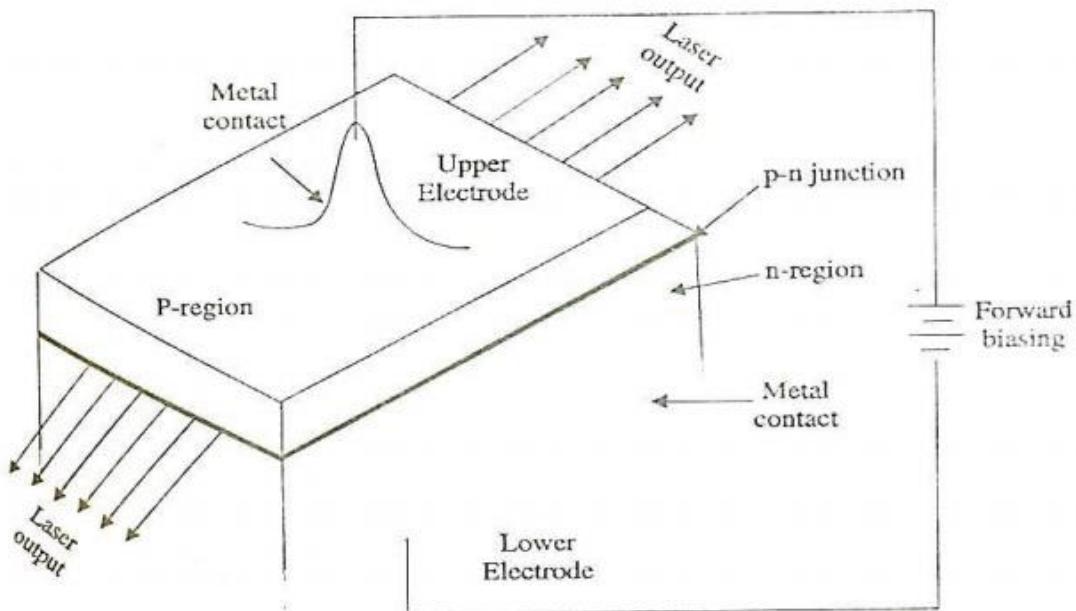
When a p-n junction diode is forward biased, the electrons from n – region and the holes from the p- region cross the junction and recombine with each other.

During the recombination process, the light radiation (photons) is released from a certain specified direct band gap semiconductor like Ga-As. This light radiation is known as recombination radiation. The photon emitted during recombination stimulates other electrons and holes to recombine. As a result, stimulated emission takes place which produces laser.



### Construction:

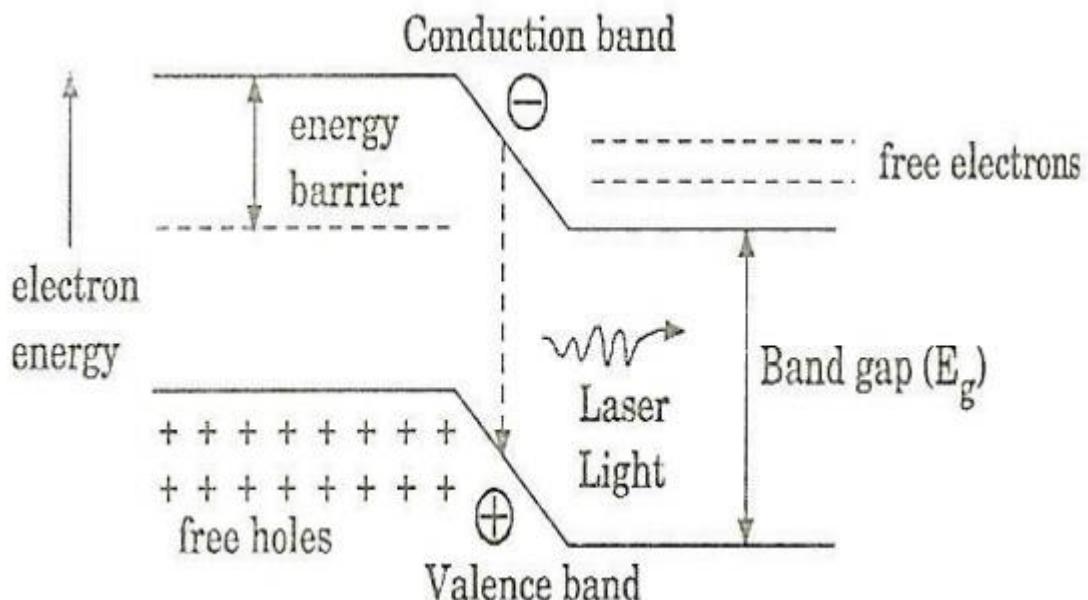
Figure shows the basic construction of semiconductor laser. The active medium is a p-n junction diode made from the single crystal of gallium arsenide. This crystal is cut in the form of a platter having thickness of  $0.5\mu\text{m}$ .



The platelet consists of two parts having an electron conductivity (n-type) and hole conductivity (p-type). The photon emission is stimulated in a very thin layer of PN junction (in order of few microns). The electrical voltage is applied to the crystal through the electrode fixed on the upper surface. The end faces of the junction diode are well polished and parallel to each other. They act as an optical resonator through which the emitted light comes out.

#### Working:

Figure shows the energy level diagram of semiconductor laser.



When the PN junction is forward biased with large applied voltage, the electrons and holes are injected into junction region in considerable concentration. The region around the junction contains a large amount of electrons in the conduction band and a large amount of holes in the valence band. If the population density is high, a condition of population inversion is achieved. The electrons and holes recombine with each other and this recombination's produce radiation in the form of light. When the forward – biased voltage is increased, more and more light photons are emitted and the light production instantly becomes stronger. These photons will trigger a chain of stimulated recombination resulting in the release of photons in phase. The photons moving at the plane of the junction travels back and forth by reflection between two sides placed parallel and opposite to each other and grow in strength. After gaining enough strength, it gives out the laser beam of wavelength 8400 Å . The wavelength of laser light is given by

$$E_g = h\nu = h\frac{c}{\lambda}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g}$$

#### **Advantages:**

1. It is very small in dimension. The arrangement is simple and compact.
2. It exhibits high efficiency.

3. The laser output can be easily increased by controlling the junction current
4. It is operated with lesser power than ruby and CO<sub>2</sub> laser.
5. It requires very little auxiliary equipment
6. It can have a continuous wave output or pulsed output.

**Disadvantages:**

1. It is difficult to control the mode pattern and mode structure of laser.
2. The output is usually from 5 degree to 15 degree i.e., laser beam has large divergence.
3. The purity and monochromacy are poor than other types of laser
4. Threshold current density is very large (400A/mm<sup>2</sup>).
5. It has poor coherence and poor stability.

**Application:**

1. It is widely used in fiber optic communication
2. It is used to heal the wounds by infrared radiation
3. It is also used as a pain killer
4. It is used in laser printers and CD writing and reading.

## UNIT - 3

### OPTICAL FIBERS

OPTICAL FIBER :- Optical fiber is a very thin and flexible medium having a cylindrical shape consisting of three sections :

- (i) the core ,
- (ii) the cladding and
- (iii) the outer jacket (or) buffer (or) protection sheet

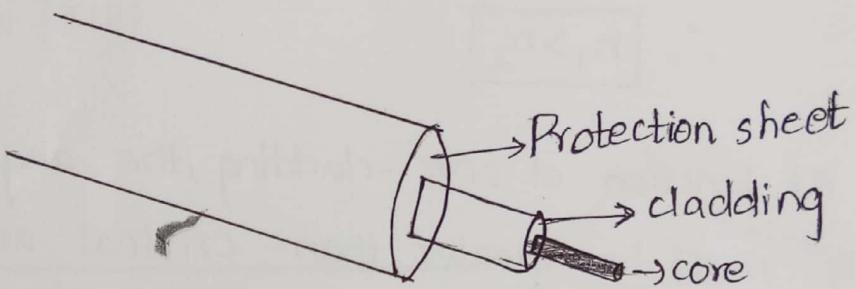


Fig :- Structure of an optical fiber.

#### Core :-

- It is inner part of optical fiber
- Made with glass / plastic material
- It has high refractive index
- Carries the signals through it

#### Cladding :-

- It is surrounding glass material of core.
- It has less refractive index than core .

#### Outer jacket :

- It is outermost surrounding of core and cladding.
- It protects optical fiber from erosion , contaminations etc.

## WORKING PRINCIPLE OF OPTICAL FIBER :-

optical fiber works on the principle of total internal reflection. When light launches at one end of core. It can propagate to second end due to total internal reflection at core and cladding interface.

Total Internal Reflection can occurs only under two conditions :-

- ① The refractive index of core "n<sub>1</sub>" must be slightly greater than the refractive index of cladding "n<sub>2</sub>"

$$\therefore n_1 > n_2$$

- ② At junction of core -cladding , the angle of incidence "θ<sub>i</sub>" must be greater than critical angle "θ<sub>c</sub>".

$$\therefore \theta_i > \theta_c$$

## BASIC PRINCIPLE OF OPTICAL FIBER :-

Optical fibers are the waveguides through which electromagnetic waves of optical frequency range can be guided through them to travel long distances.

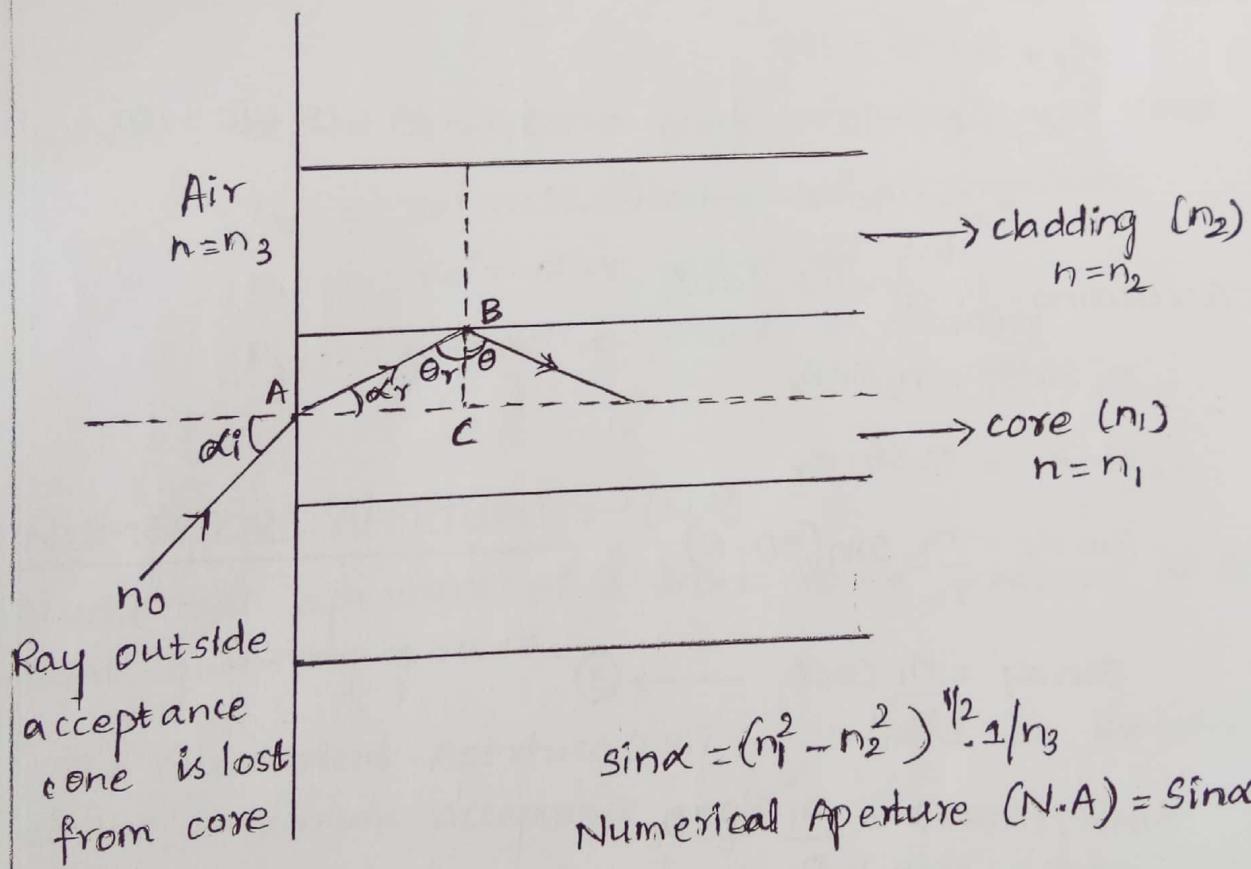
An optical fiber works on the principle of total internal reflection [TIR].

Total internal Reflection :- When a ray of light travels from a denser medium into a rarer medium and if the angle of incidence is greater than the

critical angle then the light gets totally reflected into the denser medium.

### ACCEPTANCE ANGLE :-

- All right rays falling on optical fiber are not transmitted through the fiber.  
Only those light rays making  $\theta_i > \theta_c$  at the core-cladding interface are transmitted through the fiber by undergoing TIR [Total internal reflection]. For which the angle of incidence, the refraction angle is greater than  $90^\circ$  will be propagated through total internal reflection [TIR].



- There by Acceptance angle is defined as : The maximum angle of incidence to the axis of optical fiber at which the light ray may enter the fiber

- so that it can be propagated through TIR (Total internal reflection).
- Consider the optical fiber with core refractive index ' $n_1$ ' and cladding refractive index ' $n_2$ '. Light is incident on the axis of optical fiber at an angle ' $\theta_i$ '. It can produce an angle of refraction ' $\theta_c$ '.
- The relationship at the interface is given by snell's law as,

$$\sin \theta_c = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \longrightarrow ①$$

From  $\triangle ABC$ ,

$$\alpha_r + \theta + 90^\circ = 180^\circ$$

$$\alpha_r + \theta = 90^\circ \quad \therefore \angle A + \angle B + \angle C = 180^\circ$$

$$\alpha_r = 90^\circ - \theta \longrightarrow ②$$

According to snell's law,

$$n_1 \sin \theta_i = n_2 \sin \alpha_r$$

$$n_0 \sin \alpha_i = n_1 \sin \alpha_r$$

$$\sin \alpha_i = \frac{n_1}{n_0} \sin(90^\circ - \theta)$$

$$\sin \alpha_i = \frac{n_1}{n_0} \cos \theta \longrightarrow ③$$

$$\sin \alpha_i (\text{max}) = \frac{n_1}{n_0} \cos \theta_c$$

$$\sin^2 \theta_c + \cos^2 \theta_c = 1$$

$$\cos \theta_c = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta_c}$$

$$\sin \alpha_i(\max) = \frac{n_1}{n_0} \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta_c} \quad \text{from, } \sin \theta_c = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$

$$\sin \alpha_i(\max) = \frac{n_1}{n_0} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{n_2}{n_1}\right)^2}$$

$$\sin \alpha_i(\max) = \frac{n_1}{n_0} \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_1}$$

$$\sin \alpha_i(\max) = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0}$$

$$\alpha_i(\max) = \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0} \right]$$

where  $\alpha_i$  = acceptance angle (or) acceptance cone  
 $n_0$  = refractive index of air medium  
 $n_1$  = refractive index of core  
 $n_2$  = refractive index of cladding.

### NUMERICAL APERTURE :- (NA)

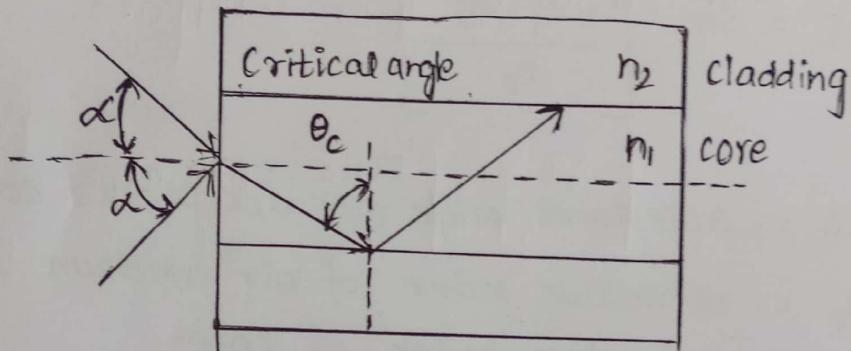
- Numerical aperture of a fiber is a measure of its light gathering power.
- "The Numerical Aperture (NA) is defined as the sine of the maximum acceptance angle".
- The light gathering ability of optical fibers depends on two factors i.e,
  - Core diameter
  - NA (Numerical aperture)

→ Numerical aperture (A) is defined as sine of the acceptance angle.  
i.e.,  $NA = \sin \theta_A$

i.e.,

$$NA = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$$

→ The efficiency of optical fiber is expressed in terms of NA; it is called as figure of merit of optical fiber.



$$NA = \sin \alpha = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$$

$$\text{Full Acceptance angle} = 2\alpha$$

$$NA = \sin [\alpha_{i(\max)}]$$

$$= \sin \left[ \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0} \right] \right]$$

$$NA = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0} \longrightarrow ①$$

$$\Delta = \frac{n_1^2 - n_2^2}{2n_1^2} \longrightarrow ②$$

$\Delta \rightarrow$  change in refractive index, relative (or) fractional refractive index.

$$\Delta = \frac{(n_1 + n_2)(n_1 - n_2)}{2n_1^2}$$

If  $n_1 \approx n_2$

$$\Delta = \frac{2n_1(n_1 - n_2)}{2n_1^2}$$

$$\Delta = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} \longrightarrow ③$$

From ② ,

$$2n_1^2 \Delta = n_1^2 - n_2^2$$

$$n_1^2 \cdot 2\Delta = n_1^2 - n_2^2$$

Taking root on Both sides,

$$n_1 \sqrt{2\Delta} = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2} \longrightarrow ④$$

Substituting ④ in ① ,

$$NA = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0}$$

$$NA = \frac{n_1 \sqrt{2\Delta}}{n_0}$$

$$NA = \frac{n_1 \sqrt{2\Delta}}{n_0}$$

where,  $n_0 = 1$  due to refractive index of air

$$NA = n_1 \sqrt{2\Delta}$$

## ACCEPTANCE CONE :-

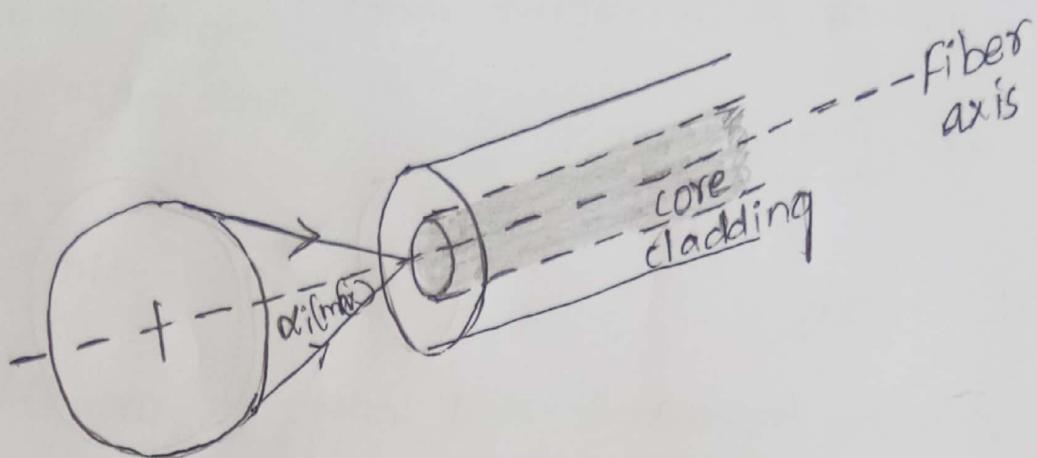


Fig: Acceptance cone obtained by rotating the acceptance angle about the fiber axis.

$$\alpha_i(\text{max}) = \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_o} \right]$$

→ This maximum angle is called acceptance angle or the acceptance cone half-angle. Rotating the acceptance angle about the fiber axis as shown in figure, one gets the acceptance cone of the fiber. Light launched at the fiber end within this acceptance cone alone will be accepted and propagated to the other end of the fiber by total internal reflection. Larger acceptance angles make launching easier.

## TYPES OF OPTICAL FIBERS :-

We use different types of optical fibers for different.

Applications Ex : for hospitality [mostly use single mode OF]

for communication [mostly use multi mode]

Optical fibers can be classified based on,

- (i) Modes
- (ii) Refractive Indices of core
- (iii) Material

### Types of Optical fibers based on modes :-

The way of propagation of light by total internal reflection is called "mode".

Based on mode, optical fiber classified as,

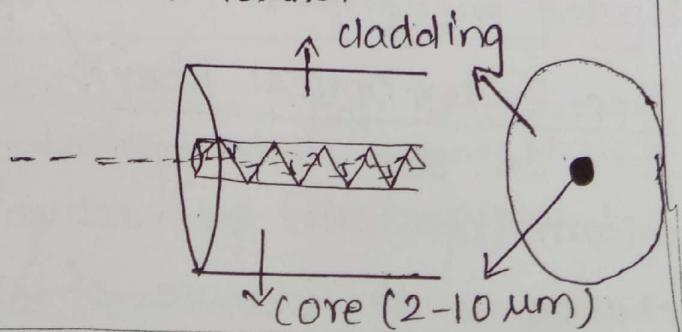
- (i) Single mode optical fibre
- (ii) Multi mode optical fibre

#### (i) Single mode Optical fiber/fibre :-

The optical fiber, which supports only single way of propagation of light through it, that is "single mode O.F".

Single mode consists of :-

- Less diameter of core around  $2-10\mu m$ .
- less numerical aperture
- Less attenuation
- low signal dispersion



- High band width
- Useful for longer distances communication with higher data.

### (ii) Multi-mode optical fibers :-

The optical fiber, which supports more than one, way of propagation of light through it that is "multimode optical fibre".

Multimode optical fiber consists :-

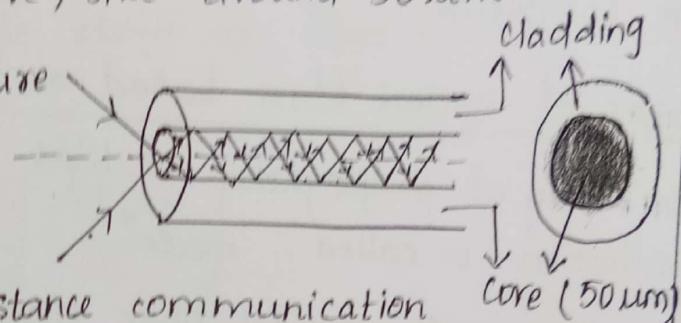
→ Larger diameter of core, size around  $50\text{ }\mu\text{m}$

→ High numerical aperture

→ High attenuation

→ High signal dispersion

→ Useful for shorter distance communication



### Types of optical fiber based on Refractive Indices :-

The ratio between light speed (velocity) in vacuum and light speed in substance/matter is called Refractive index.

$$\text{Refractive index} = \frac{\text{light velocity in vacuum}}{\text{light velocity in substance}}$$

Based on Refractive Index optical fiber classified as,

#### (1) Step Index Optical fiber :-

In step index optical fiber, the entire core has uniform (constant) refractive index. It does not change with increase of radius from central axis

of core.

- Cladding refractive index also constant.
- The refractive index is slightly greater than cladding refractive index.
- This change of refractive indices between core and cladding is, in the form of step. Hence it is called "step index optical fibre".

Transmission of signal (or) propagation of light rays

In step index optical fiber :-

The signal is sent through fiber, in the form of light pulses (—□□□—) representing 0's and 1's. If this propagation is through multimode fiber. One pulsed signal travels along fiber axis and another pulsed signal travels in zig-zag motion/ manner. Due to longer path of propagation. It reaches to Receiver's end with same time delay, as shown in figure.

The rays (signals) received at Receiver's end at different times and pulse gets broadened is called "Intermodal dispersion".

Incident pulse

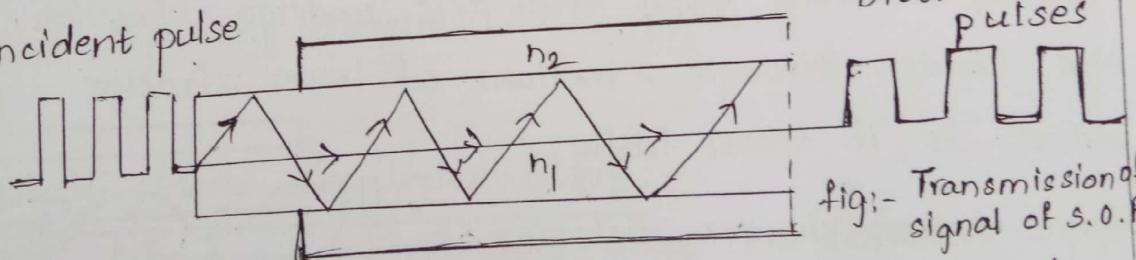


fig:- Transmission of signal of S.O.F

This is the problem occurring in step index optical fiber, this difficulty can be overcome by manu-

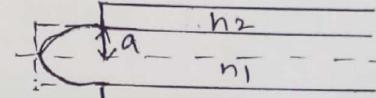
-facturing of graded index optical fiber

(2) Graded Index Optical fibre :-

In graded index optical fiber, the refractive index of core gradually decreases with increase of radius of core from central axis.

- But cladding refractive index is constant. At central axis core has maximum refractive index.
- At core-cladding interface, the refractive index of core matches with cladding constant refractive index.

Transmission of signal (or) propagation of light rays in Graded Index optical fiber :-



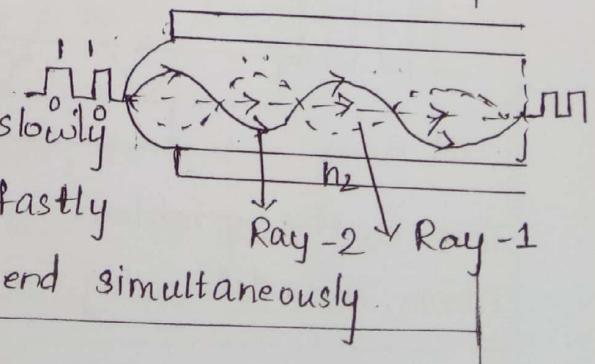
Let us consider signal pulse travelling through graded index fiber in two different paths 1 & 2, as shown in figure.

- Pulse 1, travelling away from axis undergo refraction through a medium of higher refractive index, so it travels slowly.
- Pulse 2, travelling away from axis undergo refraction and bends through a medium of lesser refractive indices. So, it travel fastly.

Ray 1 travels shorter distance - slowly

Ray 2 travels longer distance - fastly

Hence both pulses reach other end simultaneously.



(i) Types of step Index fiber / Graded Index fibre :-

Single Mode step Index fiber :-

The variation of the refractive index of a step index fiber as a function of distance can be mathematically represented as longitudinal cross-section

NOTE: Mode of propagation : It is defined as the number of paths available for the light ray to transfer through the optical fiber.

Structure :-

- (i) Core diameter : 8 to 12  $\mu\text{m}$ , usually 8.5  $\mu\text{m}$
- (ii) Cladding diameter : Around 125  $\mu\text{m}$
- (iii) Sheath diameter : 250 to 1000  $\mu\text{m}$
- (iv) Numerical Aperture : 0.08 to 0.15 usually 0.10 (NA)

Performance characteristics :-

- (i) Band width : Greater than 500MHz km.
- (ii) Attenuation : 2 to 5 dB/km
- (iii) Applications : These fibers are ideally suited for high band width applications using single mode injection coherent (LASER) sources.

(ii) Multi Mode step Index fibers :-

→ These fibers have reasonably large core diameters and large NA to facilitate efficient transmission to incoherent (or) coherent light sources.

- These fibers allow finite number of modes.
- Normalised frequency (NF) is the cut off frequency, below which a particular mode cannot exist. This is related to NA, Radius of the core, and wavelength of light as  $NF = 2/\lambda a(NA)$ , where,  
 $a$  = radius of core

#### Structure :-

- (i) Core diameter : 50 to 200  $\mu\text{m}$
- (ii) Cladding diameter : 125 to 400  $\mu\text{m}$
- (iii) Sheath diameter : 250 to 1000  $\mu\text{m}$
- (iv) Numerical aperture : 0.16 to 0.5 (NA)

#### Performance Characteristics :-

- (i) Band width : 6 to 50 MHz km
- (ii) Attenuation : 2.6 to 50 dB/km
- (iii) Applications : These fibers are ideally suited for limited band width and relatively low cost applications.

#### (iii) Multi Mode Graded Index fibers:-

- In case of graded index fibre, the refractive index of core is made to vary as a function of radial distance from the centre of the optical fiber.
- Refractive index increases from one end of core diameter to center and attains maximum value

at the centre. Again refractive index decreases as moving away from center to towards the other end of the core diameter.

- The refractive index variation is represented as,

$$n(r) = n_1 (1 - 2\Delta)^{1/2} = n_2$$

- The number of modes is given by the expression 'N'

$$N = 4.9 \left[ \frac{d(NA)}{\lambda^2} \right]$$

$$N = 4.9 \left[ \frac{d(NA)}{\lambda^2} \right]$$

where,  $d$  = core diameter

$NA$  = Numerical aperture

$\lambda$  = wavelength of radiation

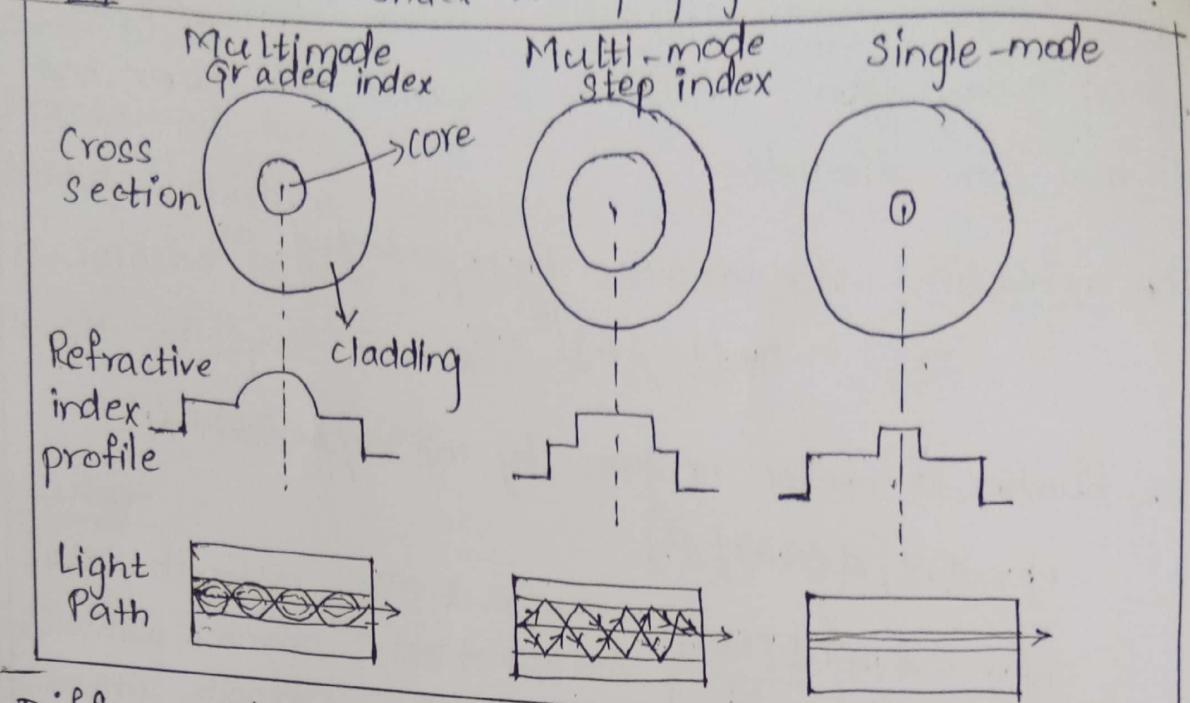
### Structure :-

- Core diameter : 30 to 100  $\mu\text{m}$
- Cladding diameter : 105 to 150  $\mu\text{m}$
- Sheath diameter : 250 to 1000  $\mu\text{m}$
- N.A : 0.2 to 0.3

### Performance Characteristics :-

- Band width : 300 MHz km to 3 GHz km
- Attenuation : 2 to 10 dB/km
- Applications : These are ideally suited for medium to high band width applications using incoherent and coherent multimode sources.

Fig:- Refractive Index and propagation in these modes.



Difference between Step Index and Graded Index fibers:-

Step. Index	Graded Index
→ Refractive Index (R.I) is uniform throughout except at one stage.	→ Refractive index (R.I) varies gradually with radial distance.
→ Single and multimode propagations exist.	→ It is multi mode fiber.
→ Used for short distance applications	→ Used for long distance applications.
→ Attenuation losses are of the order 100 dB/km.	→ Attenuation losses are of the order 10 dB/km.
→ Meridional rays propagation takes place.	→ Skew rays propagation takes place.
→ Easy to manufacture.	→ Difficult to manufacture.

## ATTENUATION IN OPTICAL FIBERS :-

Attenuation is the loss of optical power as light signal travels along the fiber.

The signal attenuation is defined as the ratio of optical input power to optical output power.

The following equation defines signal attenuation as a unit of length,

$$\text{Attenuation } \alpha = -\frac{10}{L} \log_{10} \left[ \frac{P_{\text{out}}}{P_{\text{in}}} \right]$$

L = length / km

(OR)

$$\text{Attenuation } \alpha = \frac{10}{L} \log_{10} \left[ \frac{P_{\text{in}}}{P_{\text{out}}} \right]$$

P<sub>in</sub> = optical power  
input

P<sub>out</sub> = optical power  
output

- Attenuation is measured in terms of decibels (dB).
- Attenuation in fibers is caused by absorption, scattering, bending & coupling losses.

### (1) Absorption losses :-

Absorption losses causes due to conversion of optical power into another energy form such as Heat, by molecules of using material.

Absorption of light in fiber is classified into ② types;

① Intrinsic absorption

## 2. Extrinsic Absorption

### Intrinsic Absorption:-

- Intrinsic absorption is caused by basic fiber material.
- In pure glass type fibers, Si-O atoms of glass are absorbents.
- This absorption loss is negligible due to "no impurities" in fibers.

### Extrinsic absorption:-

- Extrinsic absorption is caused by impurities of fibers.
- Impurities such as iron, nickel and chromium are introduced into the fiber during fabrication.
- Impurity ions/molecules makes electronic transition between one energy level to another.
- If the amount of impurities is reduced, then fiber attenuation is reduced.

## 2) Scattering losses :-

Scattering of light occurs mainly because of inhomogeneities in fibers. When light interacts with density fluctuations within fiber. Then propagation of light changes. Hence, it leads to loss of optical power. These density fluctuations (or) inhomogeneities (or) microscopic variations

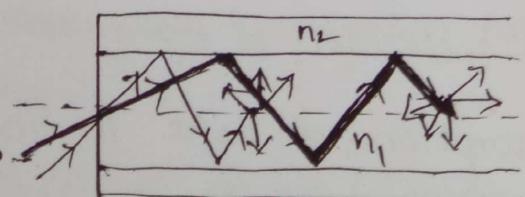


fig : Scattering losses.

are produced when optical fibres are manufactured.  
The scattering losses of light depends on wavelength.

(3)

### Bending losses :-

Bending losses causes due to bends of optical fiber from it's straight line path,

Bending loss is classified into ② types:

- (i) Micro bending
- (ii) Macro bending

### Microbending loss :-

- Micro bending is a small-scale distortion.
- It <sup>is</sup> caused by imperfections in fibers, due to external sources.
- An external force deforms fiber surroundings also causes. The small bends in fiber. By these micro (small) bends. The mode of propagation of light changes.

Hence losses occurs.

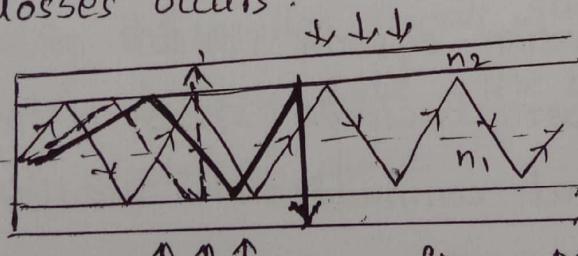


fig:- Microbending losses.

### Macrobending loss:-

Macro bend losses are observed when a fiber bend's radius of curvature is large compared to fiber diameter macrobending is great source of loss

in fibers.

Macrobending losses are reduced by operating at shortest possible wavelength.

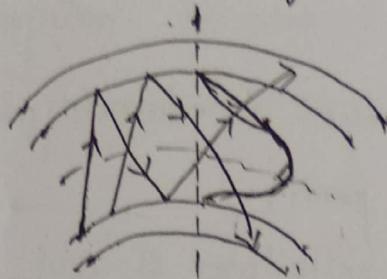


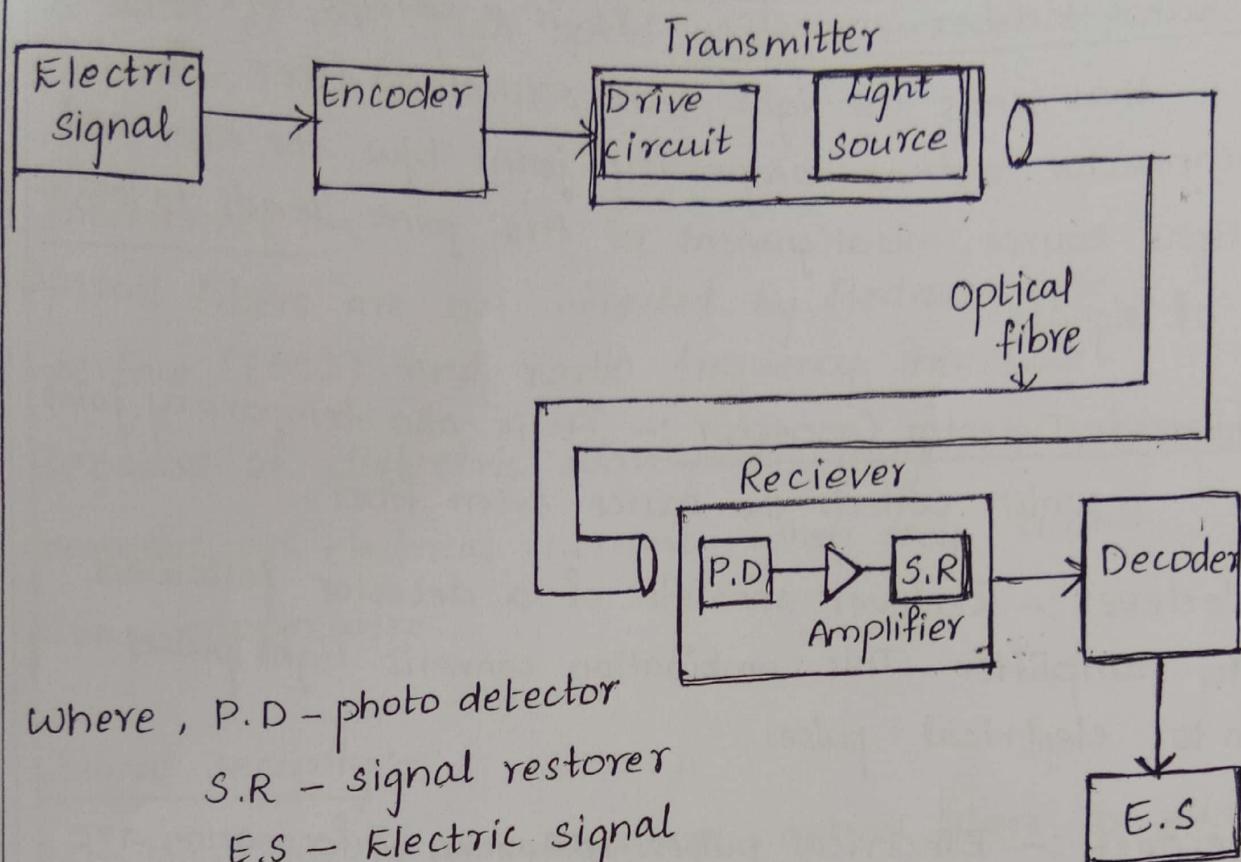
fig:- Macrobending losses

### Coupling losses :-

For long distance communication, when the optical fibers are interconnected. Losses could occur due to mechanical misalignment. These losses are coupling losses. Coupling losses also occurs in coupling of optical fibers with the transmitter and receiver, as well as when core, cladding surface is not perfectly smooth.

### Fiber Optics Communication system :-

Fiber Optics communication system consists of transmitter, optical fiber, Receiver, shown in figure. Optical fiber is an ideal communication medium by systems that require high data capacity, fast operation and to travel long distances with a minimum number of repeaters.



where , P.D - photo detector  
 S.R - signal restorer  
 E.S - Electric signal

Analog information

Continuous

Digital information

$\sim \sim \sim$

(discrete)

1 0 1 0

Encoder :- It is an electronic system that converts the analog information signals, such as voice of telephone user, into binary data. The binary data consists of series of electrical pulses.

Transmitter :- Transmitter consists of a driver which is a powerful amplifier along with light source. The output of amplifier feeds to light source, which converts electrical pulses into light pulses.

Source to Fiber connector :- It is a special connector

that sends the light from sources to fiber. The connector acts as temporary joint b/w the fiber and light source, misalignment of this joint leads to loss of signal.

Fiber to Detector Connector :- It is also temporary joint which collects the source from fiber.

Receiver :- Receiver consists of a detector followed by amplifier. This combination converts light pulses into electrical pulses.

Decoder :- Electrical pulses containing information are fed to the electronic circuit called decoder.

Decoder converts binary data of electrical pulses into analog information signals.

## \* ADVANTAGES OF FIBER OPTIC COMMUNICATION :-

The fiber optic communication system has more advantages than conventional electrical communication system those are given below.

### (1) Bandwidth :-

Optical fibers have much greater bandwidth than metal cables for optical fibers communication bandwidth around  $10^5$  GHz. But metal cable it has 500 MHz only. Hence optical fibres transmits large amount

of data at very high speed than copper stable/cable system.

(2) Interference :-

Optical fibers are not affected by Electromagnetic interface (EMI) and radio frequency interface.

Because of dielectric waveguide, magnetic field lines generates an electrical current when they travels along copperwire.

(3) Signal security:-

Especially due to this advantage, optical fibers are using in military and space applications and cross talk is not possible (or) negligible, even when many fibers abled together.

(4) Small size and weight :-

optical fibers are very small in diameters. The space occupied by these are small compared to metallic cables. The weight of cables are also less than copper cables.

(5) Low signal loss :-

The signal loss is very less compared to best copper conductor. Hence for long distance communications fibers are prefered. The signal loss is around  $0.2 \text{ dB/Km}^+$  only.

(6) Low cost :-  
Optical fibers are made of silicon which is available in abundance. Optical fibers are less expensive.

(7) Spark less :-  
The communication through fiber, even in electrically hazardous environment do not cause any fear of spark.

(8) flexibility and Ruggedness :-  
Optical fiber cable structure are flexible, compact and extremely rugged and long life also.

### \* \* \* APPLICATIONS OF FIBER OPTICS :-

#### In sensors :-

Sensor devices used to measure the physical quantities such as displacement, temperature, pressure, flow rate liquid level, chemical compositions etc.

Optical fiber sensors can be divided into ② categories.

#### Intrinsic (or) active sensors :-

In these sensors, the quantity to be measured acts directly on the fiber itself. The fiber itself acts as a transducing element and modifies the light passing through it. It means "Light does not leaves the fiber".

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Intrinsic sensors are used to produce - measure strain, pressure, temperature.

### Extrinsic (or) Passive Sensors :-

- In this type of sensors, the quantity to be measured acts directly on the transducing material which modifies the light. This modified light collected through another fiber to reach the detector to sense the modification. In this light takes place outside the fiber.
- The major benefit of extrinsic optical fiber is ability to reach otherwise inaccessible places.
- Extrinsic optical fiber sensor are used to measure vibration, rotation, displacement, velocity, acceleration etc.

### In Medicine :-

- Optical fibres are frequently used in endoscopy treatment for visualize internal portion of human body.
- Optical fiber are using in keyhole surgeries.
- Optical fiber are using in ophthalmology treatment to correct the defects in vision.
- Fibers are used in cardiology to do heart surgeries.
- They are also used in Nephrology treatment, to brust the stone in kidneys.

→ fibers are using in Laproscopic surgery.

### In Industry :-

- Optical fibers are used to examine the places where one cannot reach such as to examine welds, nozzles and combustion chambers inside jet aircraft engines etc.
- To measure inside temperature of electrical transformers.
- To examine welds, cuttings, leakages etc. in industries.

### In Communication System :-

Optical fibers are used in Tele communications such as,

- 1) Cable Television
- 2) CCTV surveillance
- 3) Voice Telephones
- 4) Remote monitoring

Optical fibers are vital for computer networking applications such as stores the data, transmits data etc.

### In Other Applications :-

- They are used as hydrophones for sonar applications.
- optical fibres are used for military & mining applications.
- They are also used for robotics.