

# Quantum Electronics

## Lecture 6

### Lasers

Lecturer:

Bozena Jaskorzynska

[bj@kth.se](mailto:bj@kth.se)



# Contents

- ◆ Introduction
- ◆ Laser oscillations
- ◆ **Mode-locking**
- ◆ Q-switching
- ◆ Various laser systems

*Saleh Ch. 13 & 14*



# Milestones in laser development

LASER : **L**ight **A**mplification by **S**timulated **E**mission of **R**adiation

1917 A. Einstein **postulates stimulated emission**

1954 C. H. Townes & A. L. Schawlow **invented maser\***

1958 A. L. Schawlow & Ch. H. Townes - **laser theory**

1959 G. Gould – **made the first (?) laser, coined the acronym  
LASER**

1960 T. Maiman – **made the first (?) laser (in solid Ruby)**

1962 R. Hall **invented the semiconductor injection laser**

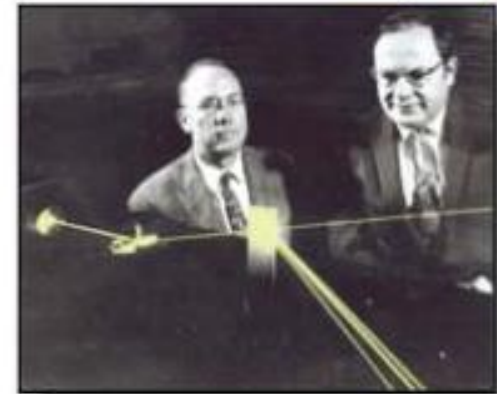
\***MASER** - *Microwave Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation*



# It was not at all difficult...



Schawlow & Townes



*... when the first lasers were operated, I and other scientists close to the research were surprised at how easy it turned out to be. We had assumed that, since lasers had never been made, it must be very difficult. But once you knew how, it was not at all difficult. Mostly what had been lacking were ideas and concepts.*

- Arthur L Schawlow, 1981 Nobel Prize for Laser Spectroscopy (Bertolotti, 1983)

# Spontaneous emission

*Unavoidable when  $N_2$  not empty*

Chance of spontaneous emission per unit time is **A** (Einstein coefficient)

If there are  $N_2$  atoms excited per volume, then  $\Delta t$  later we will have less, or

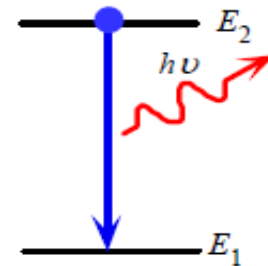
$$\Delta N_2 \approx -A\Delta t N_2$$

In differential form this becomes a **rate equation** of the form

$$\left(\frac{dN_2}{dt}\right)_{sp} = -AN_2 = -\frac{N_2}{\tau_{sp}}$$

where **A** is the rate constant for spontaneous emission and  $\tau_{sp}$  is the time constant for spontaneous emission given by  $\tau_{sp}=1/A$

$$N_2(t) = N_2(0)e^{-t/\tau_{sp}}$$



# Stimulated emission

Takes place when  $N_2 > N_1$  and when there are photons of energy  $E_2 - E_1$   
Photons generated under atom relaxation are identical (coherent) to those that **stimulate** the process

**Scales with the spectral density of electromagnetic energy:  $\rho(\nu)$**

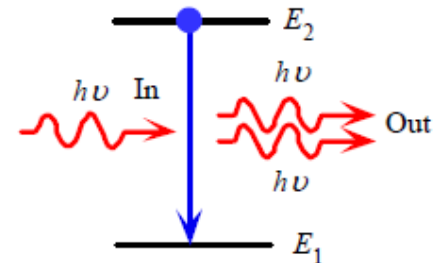
$\rho(\nu)d\nu$  - energy per unit volume in the frequency range  $\{\nu, \nu + d\nu\}$

$$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = -N_2 W_{21}(\nu);$$

$$W_{21} = B_{21} \rho(\nu)$$

**Einstein postulate**

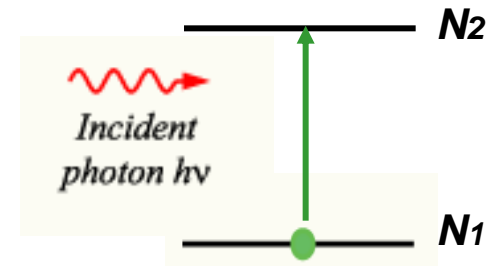
$B_{21}$  - **Einstein coefficient for stimulated emission**



# Stimulated (induced) absorption

*Important for optical pumping*

$$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = N_1 W_{12}(\nu); \quad W_{12} = B_{12} \rho(\nu)$$

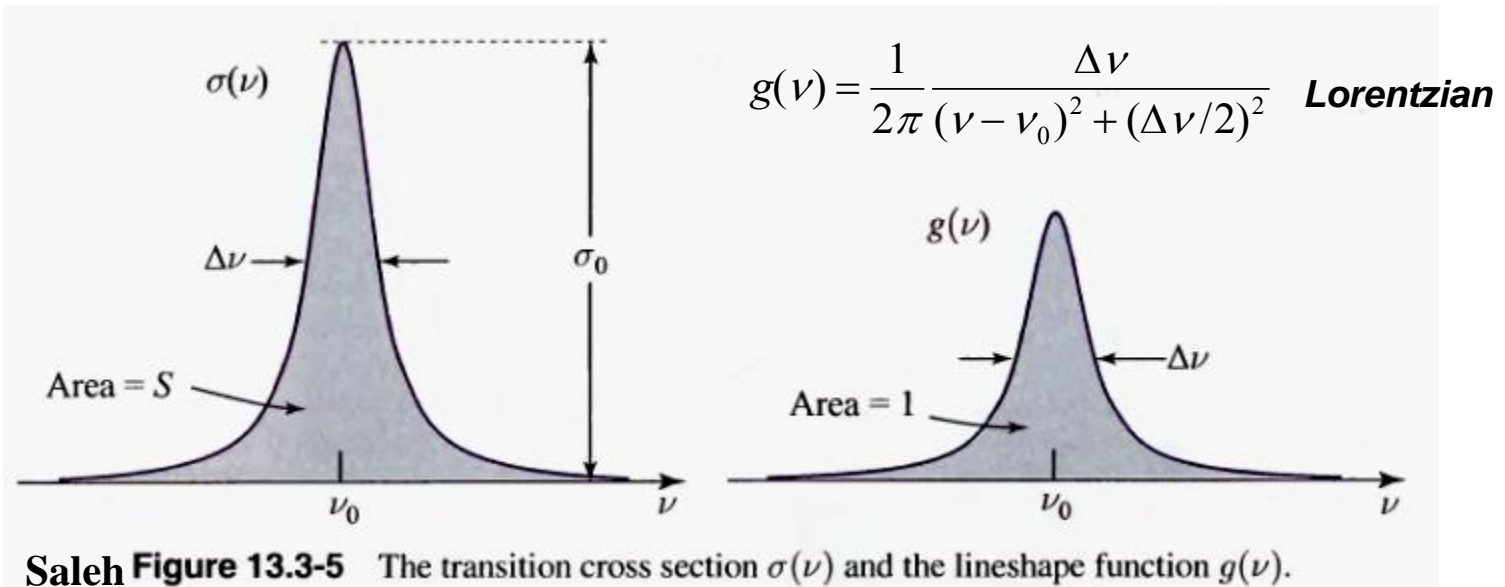


Relation between Einstein coefficients:

$$B_{12} = B_{21} = B$$

$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{8\pi h^3 \nu^3}{c^3} :$$

# Transition cross-section and lineshape function



$$\sigma(\nu) = Sg(\nu)$$

$S$  – transition strength  
 $g$  – transition profile



# Stimulated processes for monochromatic light

**Stimulated emission:**  $\frac{dN_2}{dt} = -N_2\sigma(\nu)\frac{I(\nu)}{h\nu}$  **adding to field**

**Stimulated (induced) absorption:**  $\frac{dN_2}{dt} = N_1\sigma(\nu)\frac{I(\nu)}{h\nu}$  **subtracting from field**

$\sigma$  - stimulated emission / absorption cross-section  $I$  - signal intensity

$\nu$  - light frequency  $I / h\nu$  - photon flux

$$\frac{dI}{dz} = (N_2 - N_1)\sigma(\nu)I \Leftrightarrow \frac{dI}{dz} = \gamma(\nu)I \quad \text{with} \quad \gamma = (N_2 - N_1)\sigma(\nu)$$

$\gamma$  - **gain** coefficient if  $(N_2 - N_1) > 0$  or **loss** coefficient if  $(N_2 - N_1) < 0$

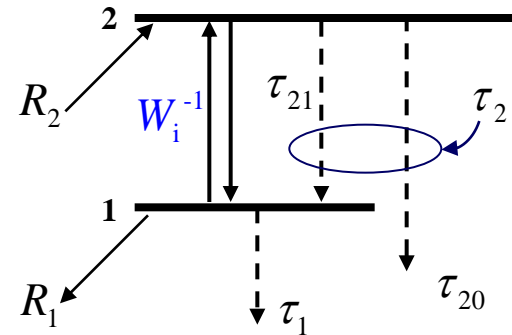
To find  $(N_2 - N_1)$  one needs to solve rate equations



# Rate Equations

$$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = R_2 - \frac{N_2}{\tau_2} - N_2 W_i + N_1 W_i$$

$$\frac{dN_1}{dt} = -R_1 - \frac{N_1}{\tau_1} + \frac{N_2}{\tau_{21}} + N_2 W_i - N_1 W_i$$



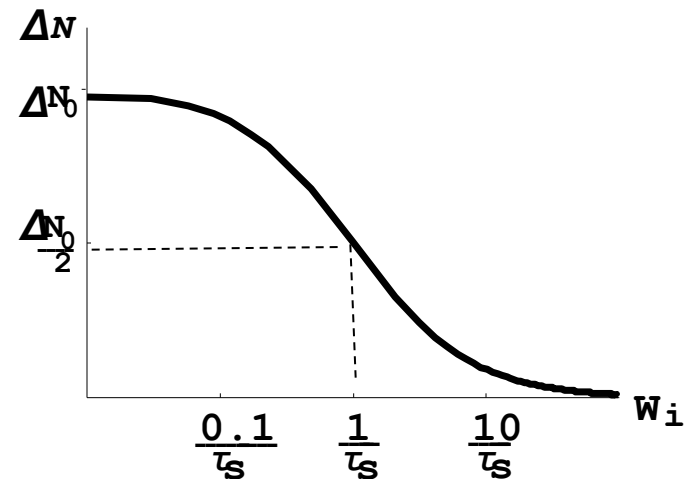
Steady State:

$$\frac{dN_i}{dt} = 0 \Rightarrow \Delta N = \frac{\Delta N_0}{1 + \tau_s W_i} \quad \text{Population inversion}$$

$$\text{where } \tau_s = \tau_2 + \tau_1 \left( 1 - \frac{\tau_2}{\tau_{21}} \right)$$

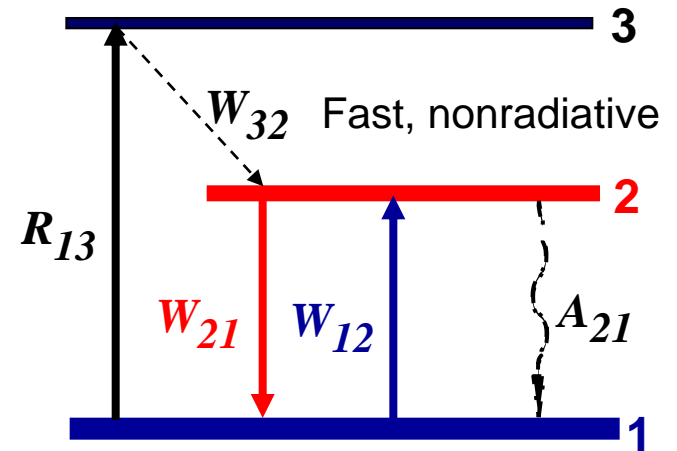
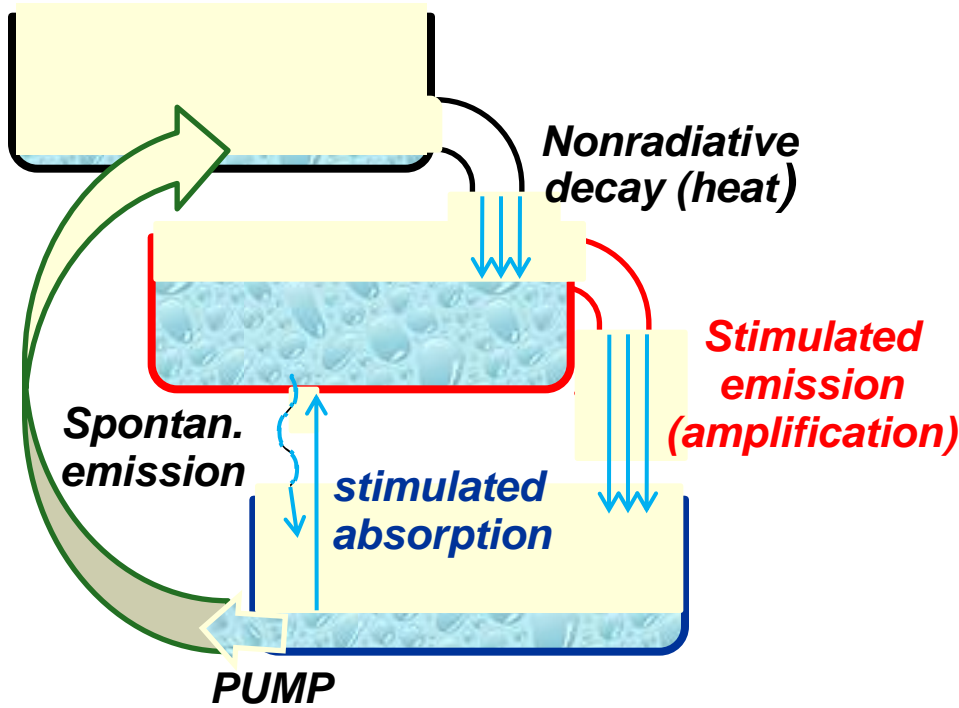
$$\text{and } \Delta N_0 = R_2 \tau_2 \left( 1 - \frac{\tau_1}{\tau_{21}} \right) + R_1 \tau_1$$

$$\frac{1}{\tau_2} = \frac{1}{\tau_{21}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{20}}$$



- **Steady-state Population Differences**
  - $\Delta N_0 = N_2 - N_1$  w/o amplifier radiation
  - $\Delta N = N_2 - N_1$  w/ amplifier radiation
- $\tau_s$  – Saturation Time Constant

# Population dynamics – 3 level system



$$A_{21} \propto 1/\tau_{21}; \quad \tau_{21} \approx 10 \text{ms}$$

$$W_{32} \propto 1/\tau_{32}; \quad \tau_{32} \approx 6 \mu\text{s}$$

$$N_3 \approx 0$$

$$\frac{dN_1}{dt} = -R_{13}N_1 - W_{12}N_1 + W_{21}N_2 + A_{21}N_2$$

$$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = +W_{32}N_3 + W_{12}N_1 - W_{21}N_2 - A_{21}N_2$$

$$\frac{dN_3}{dt} = R_{13}N_1 - W_{32}N_3$$

$$N_1 + N_2 + \cancel{N_3} = N_0 \quad \text{Total Er density conserved}$$

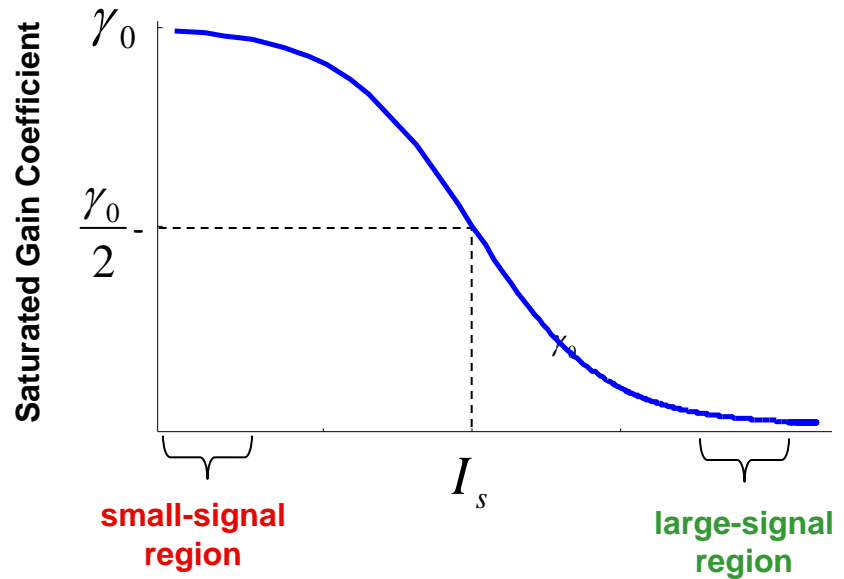
$W_{ki}$  - probability of transition  $k \rightarrow i$

# Saturated Gain Coefficient

$$\gamma(\nu) \propto N_2 - N_1$$

$$= \frac{\gamma_0(\nu)}{1 + I/I_s(\nu)}$$

$\gamma_0$  **Gain coefficient at low intensities**  $I_0 \ll I_s$

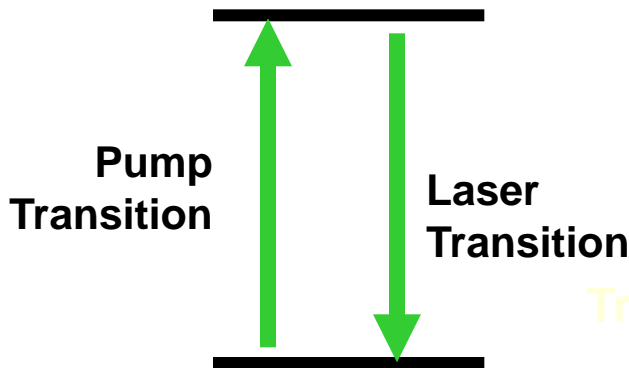


$$I(z) = I_0 e^{\gamma_0(\nu)z} \quad \text{small-signal}$$

$$I(z) = I_0 + \gamma_0(\nu)I_s z \quad \text{large-signal}$$

# Inversion in two-, three-, and four-level systems

## Two-level system

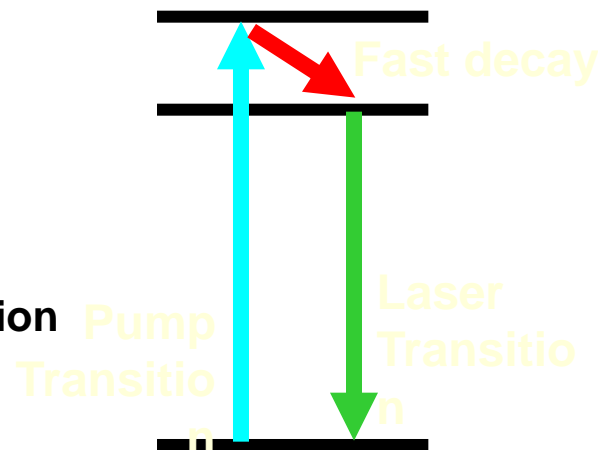


At best, you get equal populations

**No lasing**

$$\Delta N = -\frac{N}{I/I_s + 1}$$

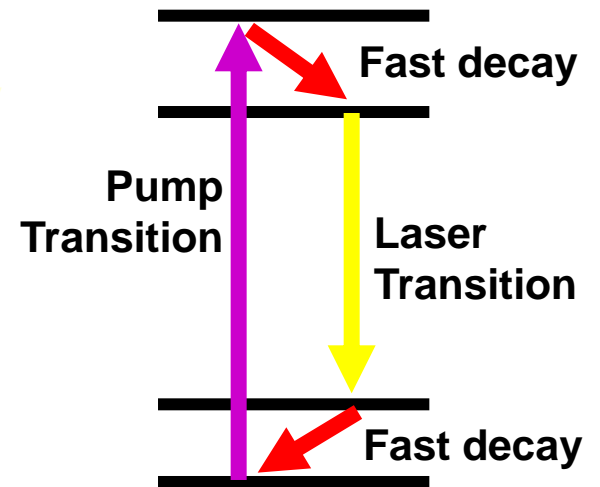
## Three-level system



If you hit it hard, you get lasing

$$\Delta N = N \frac{I/I_s - 1}{I/I_s + 1}$$

## Four-level system



Lasing is easy!

$$\Delta N = N \frac{I/I_s}{I/I_s + 1}$$

# Laser principle

A laser is a medium that stores energy, surrounded by two mirrors. A partially reflecting output mirror lets some light out.



A laser will lase if the beam increases in intensity during a round trip:  $I_3 \geq I_0$

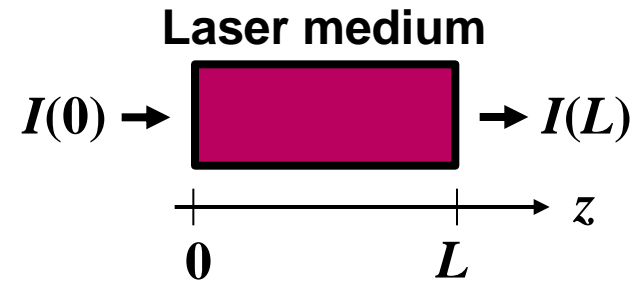
Usually, additional **losses** in intensity occur, such as absorption, scattering, and reflections. In general, the laser will lase if, in a round trip:

**Gain > Loss**

This is called achieving **Threshold**

# Laser gain

Neglecting spontaneous emission:



$$\frac{dI}{dz} = c \frac{dI}{dt} \propto BN_2I - BN_1I \quad \text{[Stimulated emission minus absorption]}$$
$$\propto B[N_2 - N_1]I$$

The solution is:

$$I(z) = I(0) \exp\{\sigma [N_2 - N_1] z\}$$

absorption/gain cross-section,  $\sigma$

Gain and absorption coefficients

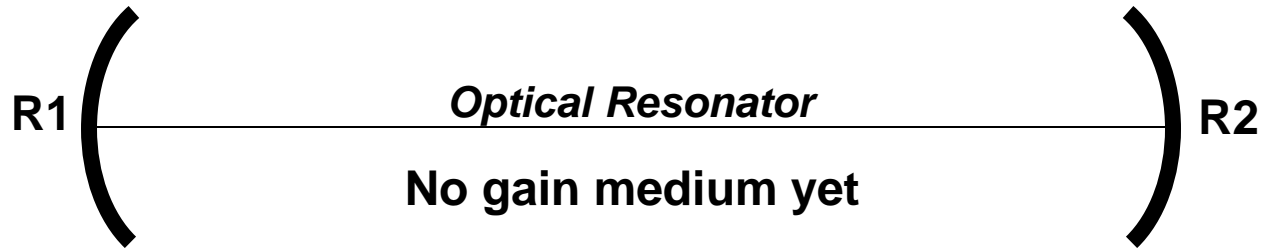
$$\text{If } N_2 > N_1: \quad g \equiv [N_2 - N_1] \sigma$$

$$\text{If } N_2 < N_1: \quad \alpha \equiv [N_1 - N_2] \sigma$$

Gain

$$G \equiv \exp\{\sigma [N_2 - N_1] L\}$$

# “Cold” cavity



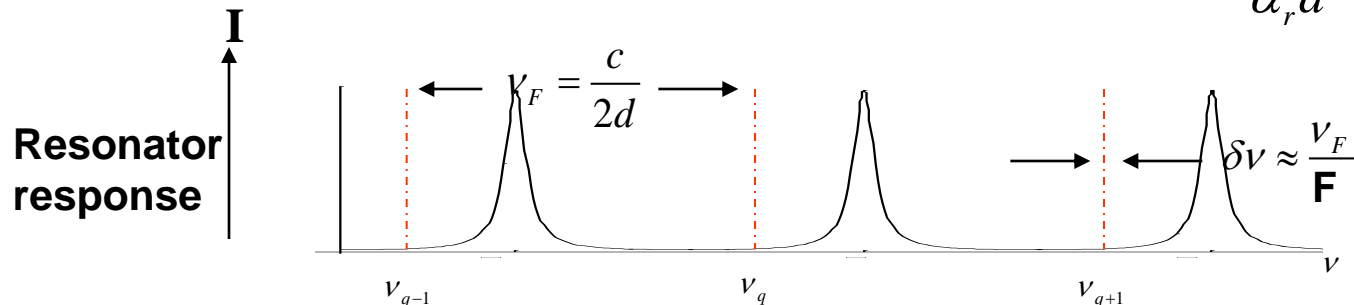
Phase-shift Coefficient  $k = \frac{2\pi\nu}{c}$

Loss Coefficient  $\alpha_r = \alpha_s + \frac{1}{2d} \ln \frac{1}{R_1 R_2}$

Photon Lifetime  $\tau_p = \frac{1}{\alpha_r c}$

Finesse  $F \approx \frac{\pi}{\alpha_r d} = 2\pi\tau_p\nu_F$

$$I = \frac{I_{\max}}{1 + \left(2F / \pi\right)^2 \sin^2\left(\pi\nu / \nu_F\right)}$$





# Conditions for Laser Oscillations

## • Gain Condition: Laser Threshold

Threshold Gain:  $\gamma_0(\nu) = \alpha_r$

$$\Rightarrow N_0 = N_t \quad \text{where } N_t = \frac{\alpha_r}{\sigma(\nu)} = \frac{1}{c \tau_p \sigma(\nu)}$$

## • Phase Condition: “Hot” cavity modes

$$\text{Round-Trip Phase: } kd \left( 1 + \frac{X'(\nu)}{2n^2} \right) = q\pi \quad q = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$X'$  - *Real part of susceptibility close to atomic line center*

*This phase correction pulls lasing frequencies towards medium resonance*

**Frequency pulling**

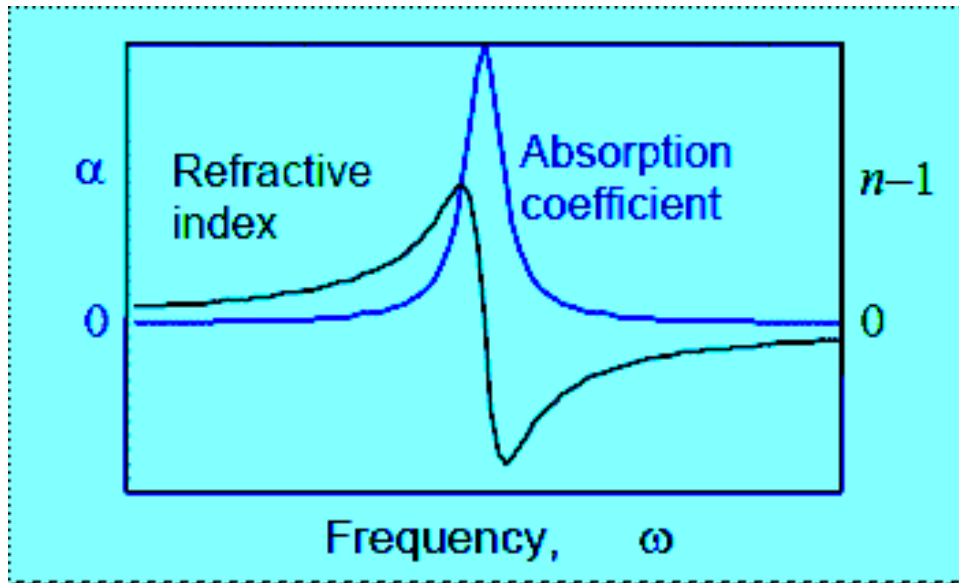


# Complex refractive index

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} P = Np = N\alpha E \\ P = \varepsilon_0 X E \end{array} \right\} \longrightarrow \varepsilon \equiv \varepsilon_0 n^2 = \varepsilon_0 (1 + X) = \varepsilon_0 (1 + N\alpha / \varepsilon_0)$$

When  $X \ll 1$ :

$$n' = \text{Re } n' - i \text{Im } n' = 1 + \frac{Ne^2(\omega_0^2 - \omega^2)}{2m\varepsilon_0[(\omega_0^2 - \omega^2)^2 + \gamma^2\omega^2]} - i \frac{Ne^2\gamma\omega}{2m\varepsilon_0[(\omega_0^2 - \omega^2)^2 + \gamma^2\omega^2]}$$



**Absorption coefficient:**

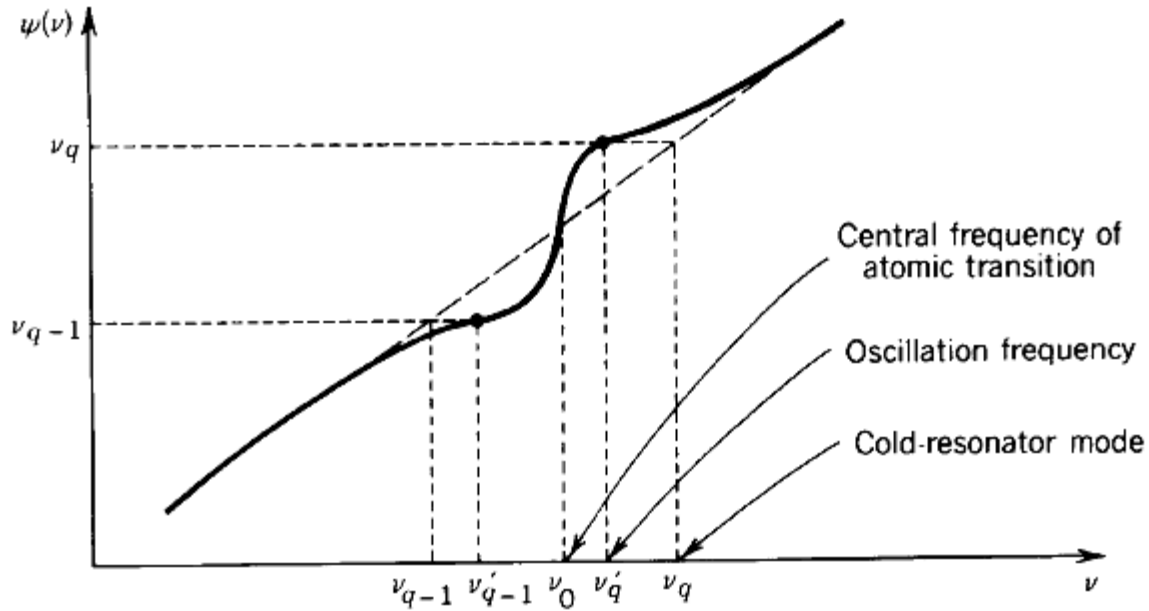
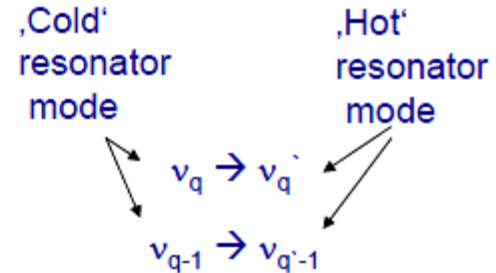
$$\alpha(\omega) \equiv \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \text{Im } n$$

$$I(z) = I(0) \exp(-\alpha z)$$

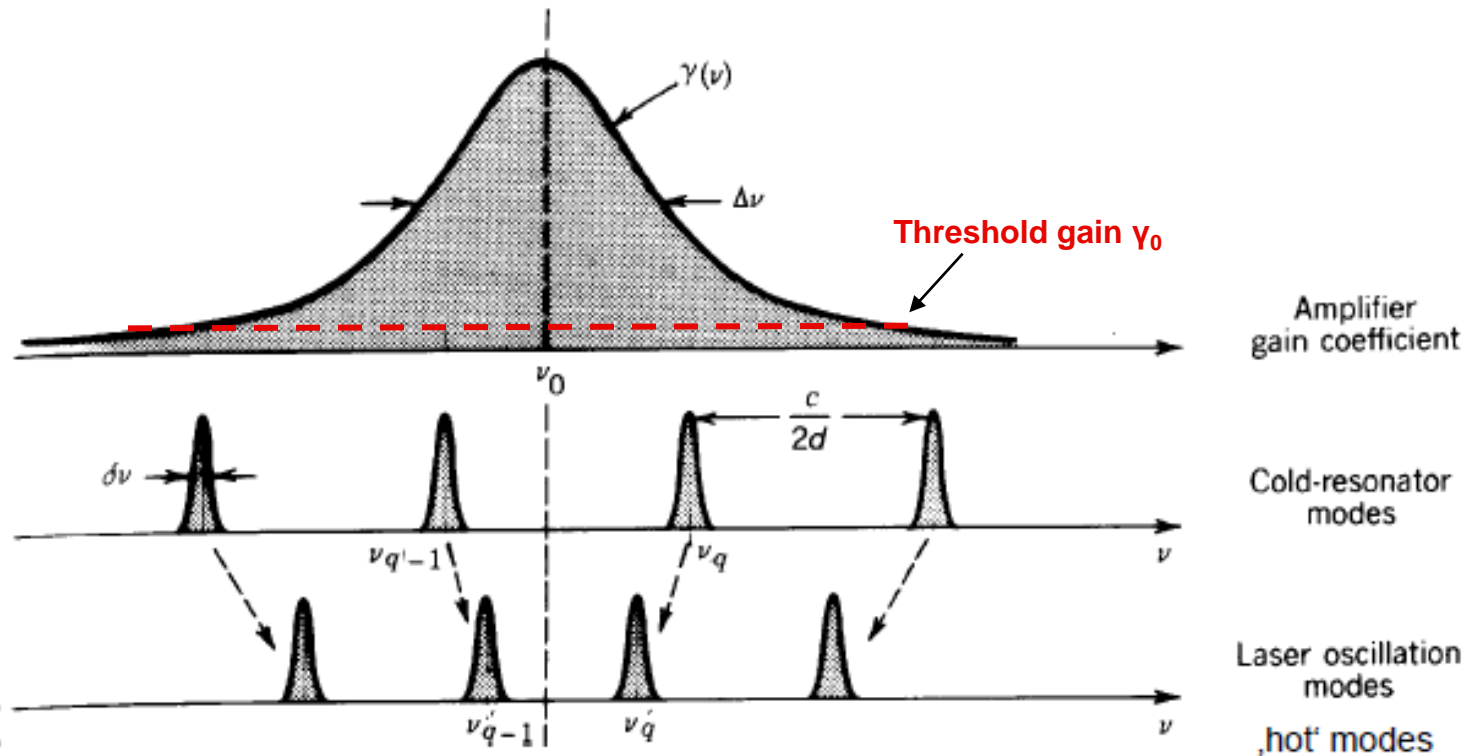
**Far from resonances the imaginary part becomes negligible**

# Frequency pulling

$$\underbrace{\nu + \frac{c}{2\pi n \Delta\nu} \gamma(\nu)}_{\Psi(\nu)} = \nu_q$$



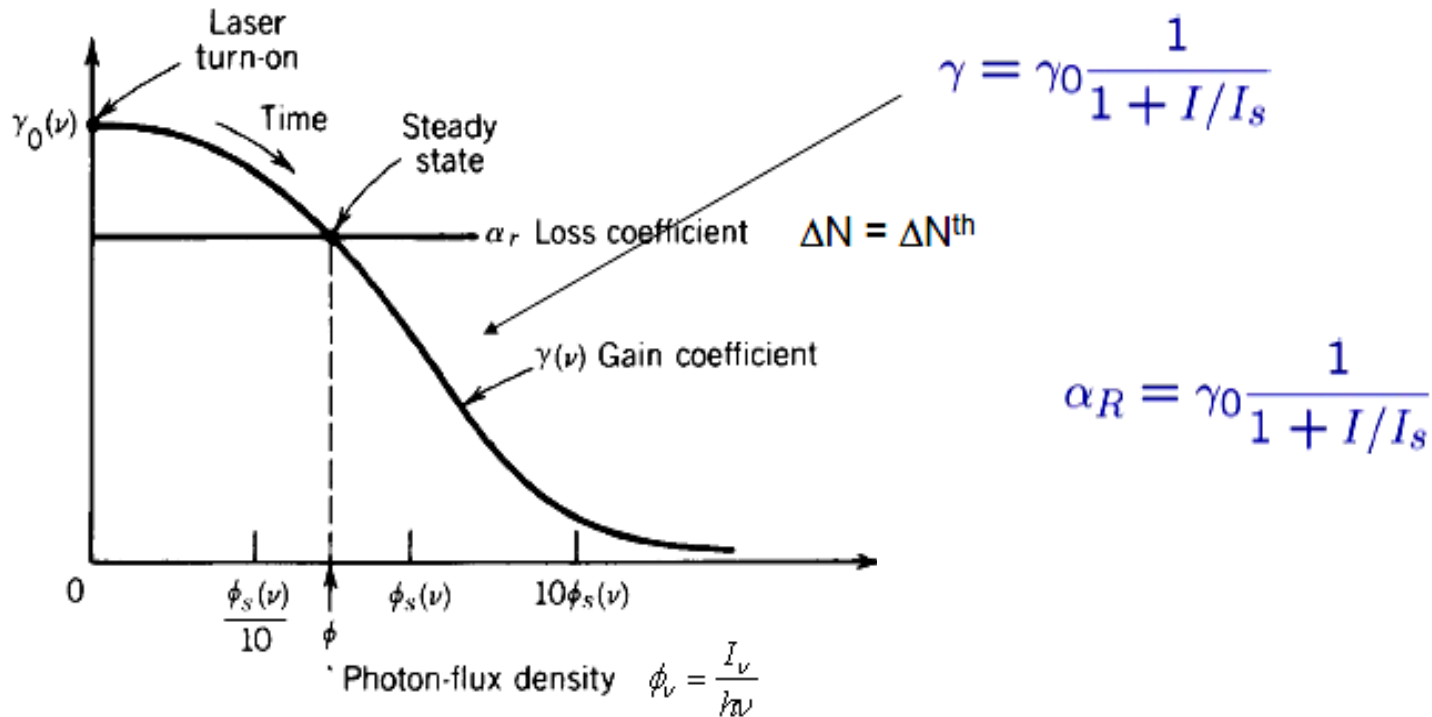
# Cold- and Hot-resonator modes



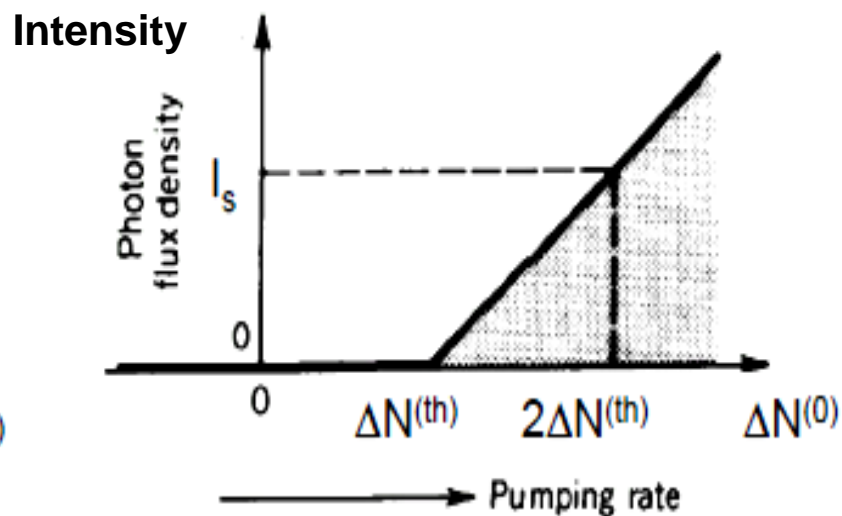
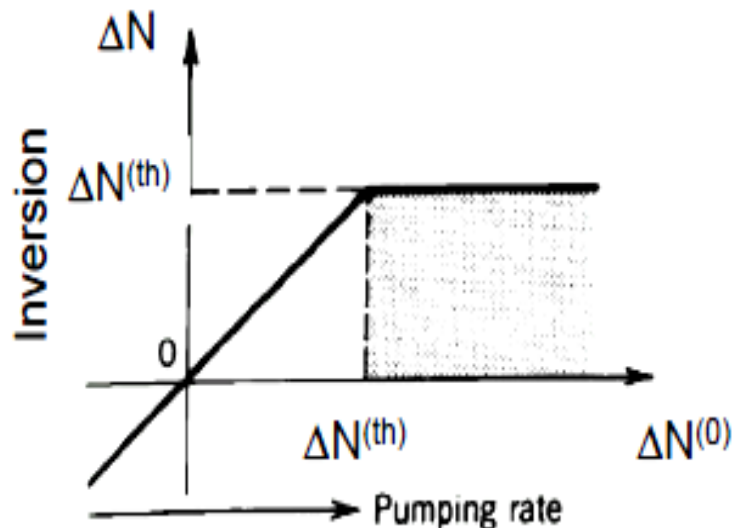
*For homogeneously broadened gain modes compete for the same gain and only the one that experiences strongest gain survives – single frequency lasing*

# Gain clamping

In a steady-state operation laser gain is **clamped** exactly to the value of the optical resonator losses

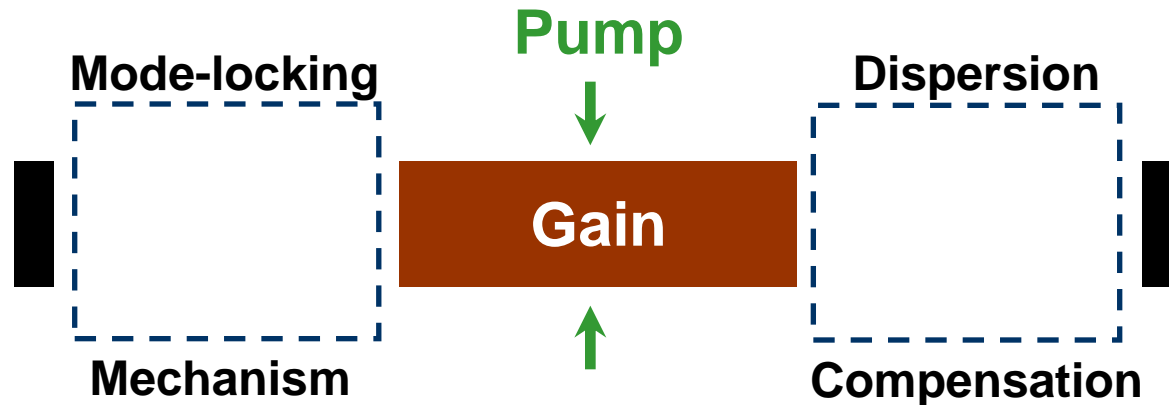


# Laser output and efficiency

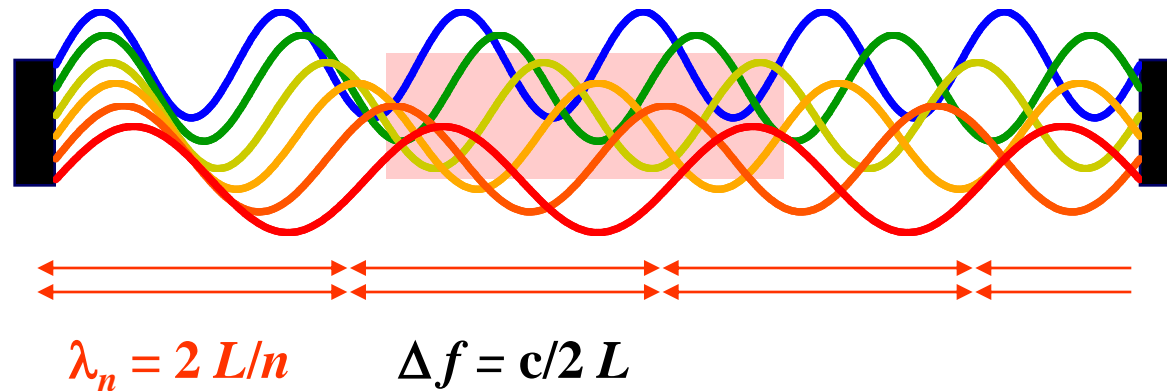


When the pumping power exceeds the threshold it does not increase the population inversion any longer – inversion is clamped at its threshold value. The pump power is now converted to the laser output – lasing!  
The steeper the slope ( $I$  vs *Pumping rate*) the higher is **conversion efficiency**.

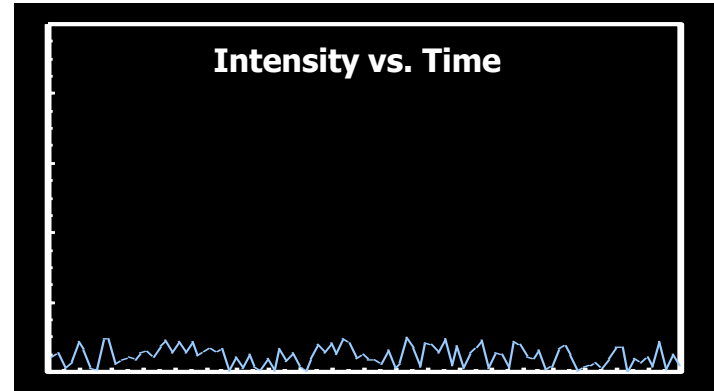
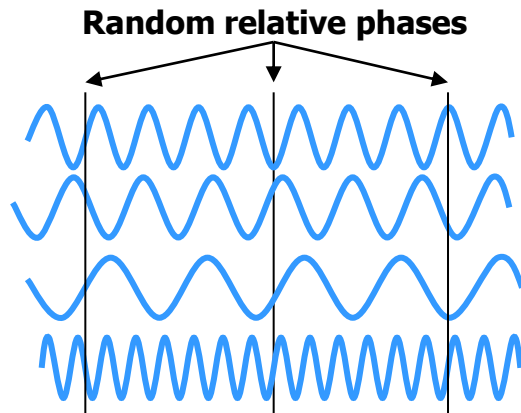
# Basic principles of ultrafast (short pulse) lasers



## Cavity modes



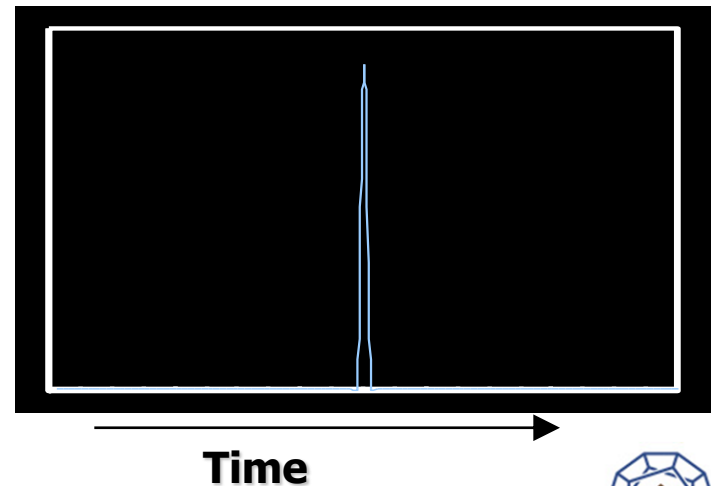
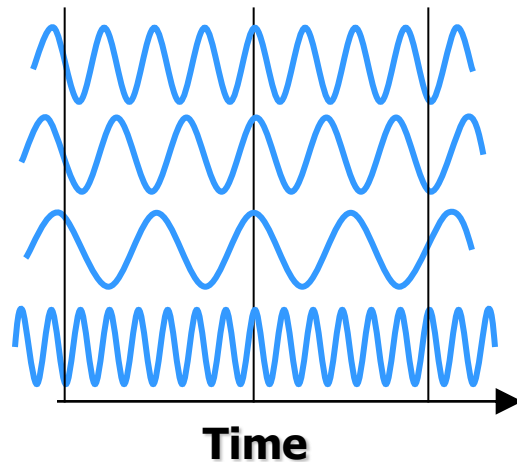
# Concept of Mode Locking



**LOCKED** phases for all laser modes

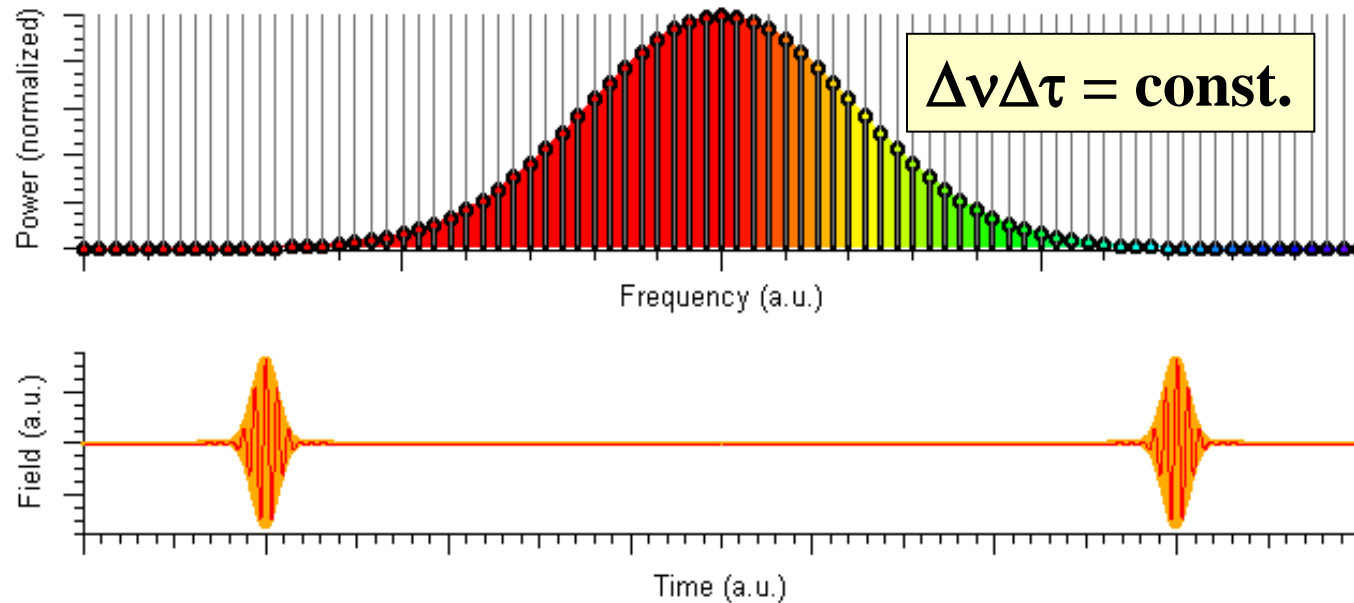
**Interference** leads to pulse formation

Out of phase    In phase    Out of phase





# Bandwidth vs Pulsewidth



# Mode-locking methods

## Active:

external signal to induce a modulation of the intra-cavity light

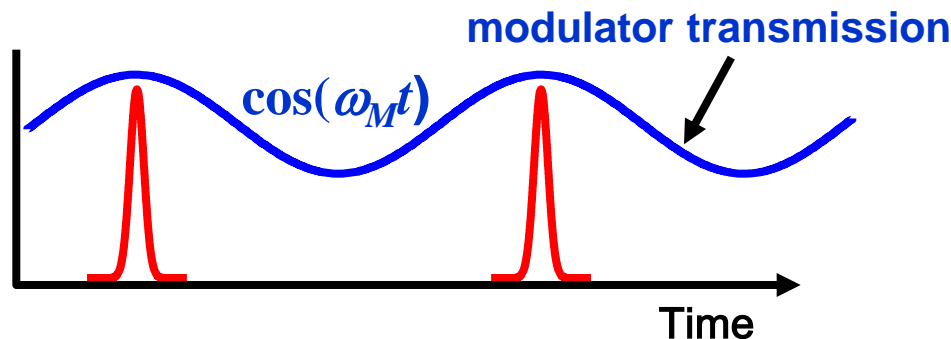
## Passive:

element in the laser cavity to cause self-modulation of the light

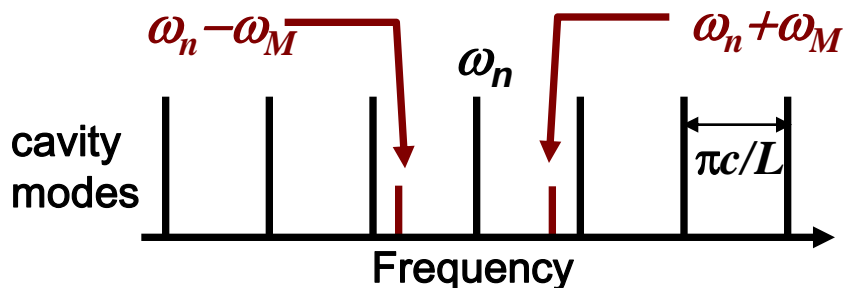
*(Shorter pulses, but has startup problems)*



# Active mode-mocking



In the frequency domain, a modulator introduces sidebands of every mode



When  $\omega_M =$  mode spacing, the sidebands of each mode coincide with the two adjacent modes. The sidebands and the modes compete for gain from the same atoms.

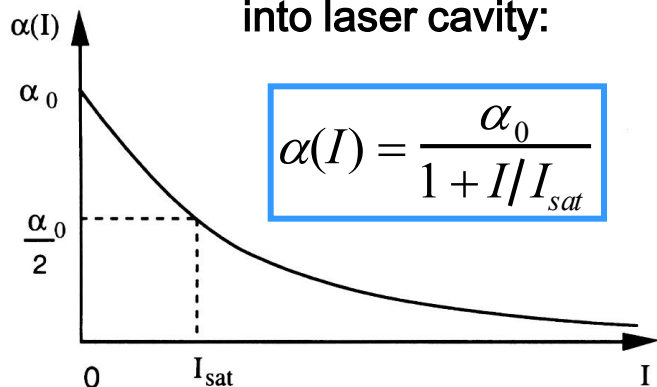
**The sidebands win!** so all three modes are driven in phase.

Since this applies to all N cavity modes all of them become phase locked

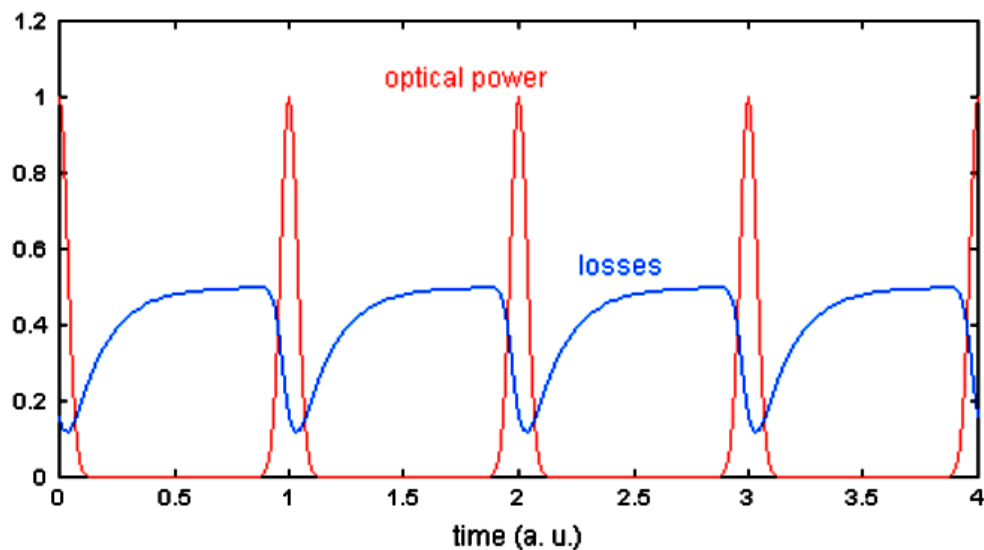
Can be described by N coupled equations:  $E_n \leftrightarrow E_{n+1}, E_{n-1}$

# Passive mode-locking – use pulse to “gate” itself

Saturable absorption introduced into laser cavity:



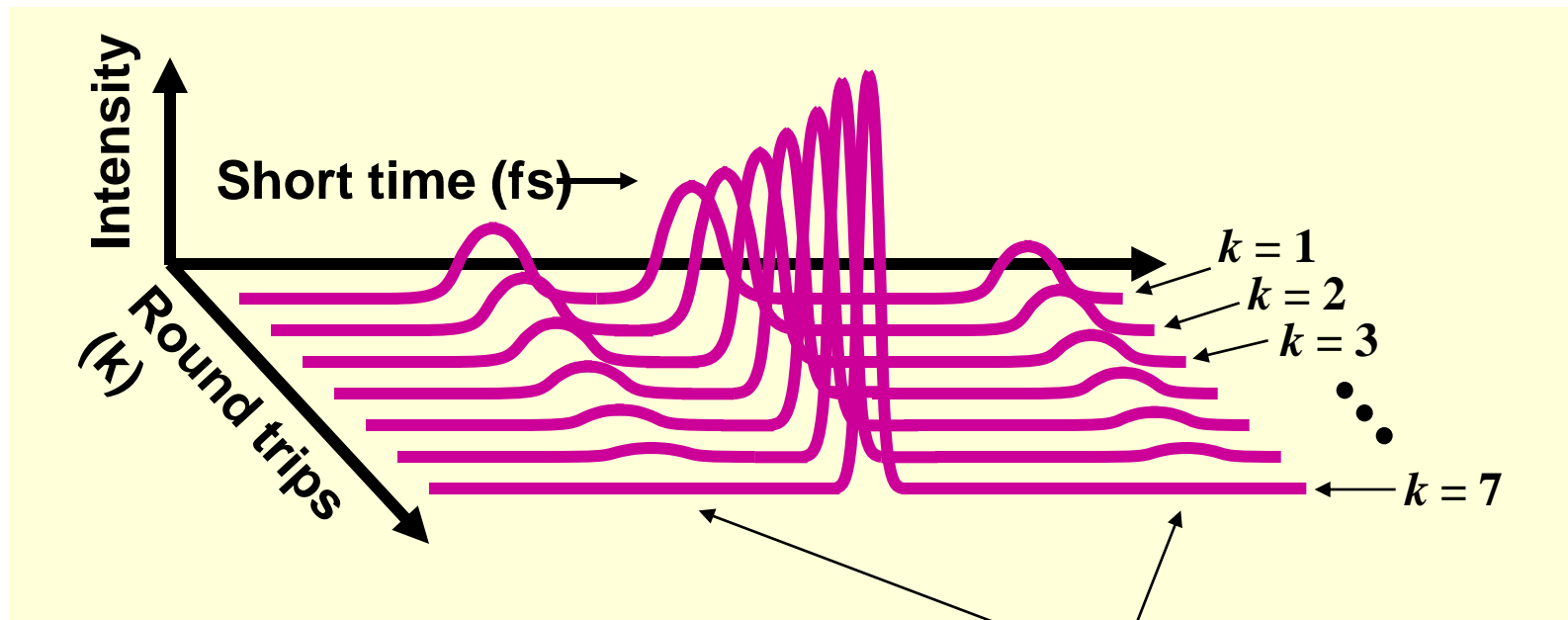
High-intensity spikes amplified -  
Low-intensity light absorbed



Pulse peak amplified – pulse wings suppressed

# The effect of a saturable absorber

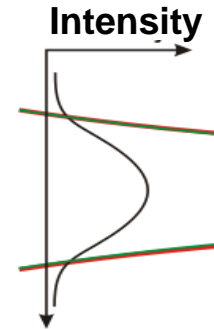
After many round trips, even a slightly saturable absorber can yield a very short pulse:



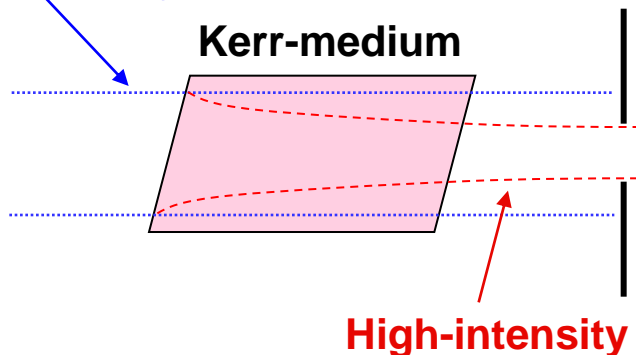
Notice that the weak pulses are suppressed, and the strong pulse shortens and is amplified

# Kerr-lens modelocking (KLM)

- Kerr's effect – intensity-dependent index of refraction:  $n = n_0 + n_2 I$
- Beams of **high-intensity** modes are **self-focused** by the photoinduced lens



Low-intensity



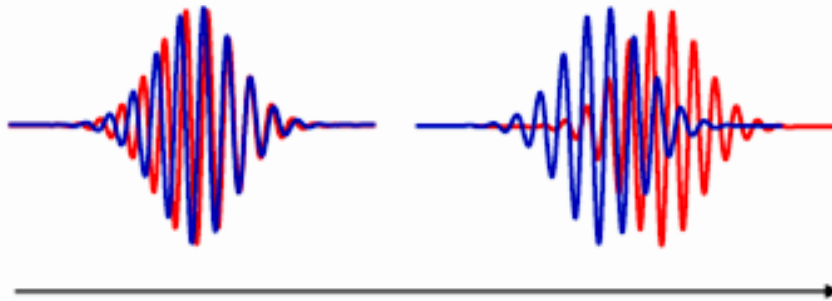
Aperture is used to **discriminate** unfocused **low intensity** modes

**This acts as a saturable absorber!**

Some lasing materials (e.g. Ti:Sapphire) are Kerr-media  
Kerr's effect is much faster than saturable absorbers - very short pulses (~5 fs) possible

# Effect of Group Velocity Dispersion

Optical pulse in a transparent medium stretches because of GVD



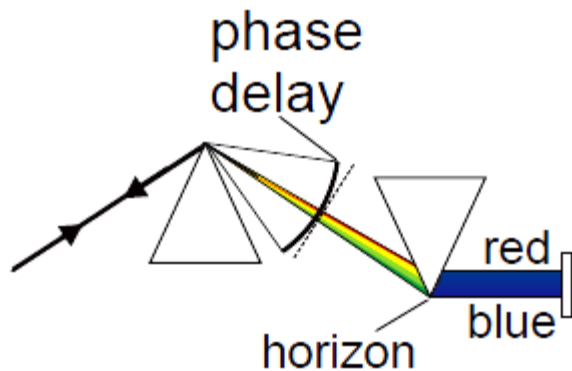
- $v = c / n$  – speed of light in a medium
- $n$  – depends on wavelength,  $dn/d\lambda < 0$  – normal dispersion

**Longer wavelengths (red)** of the pulse propagate faster than the **shorter ones (blue)**  
→ Frequency chirp → Pulse stretching

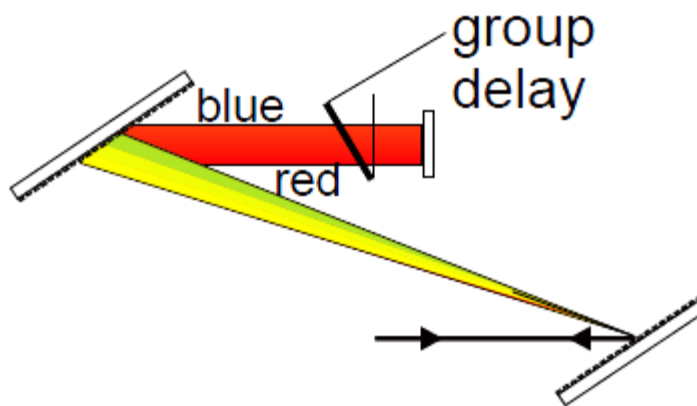
Uncompensated GVD makes fs laser operation impossible !

# GVD compensation

Recompress the pulse by different optical path for different frequencies so that **blue** and **red** are in phase again:



Prism compensator



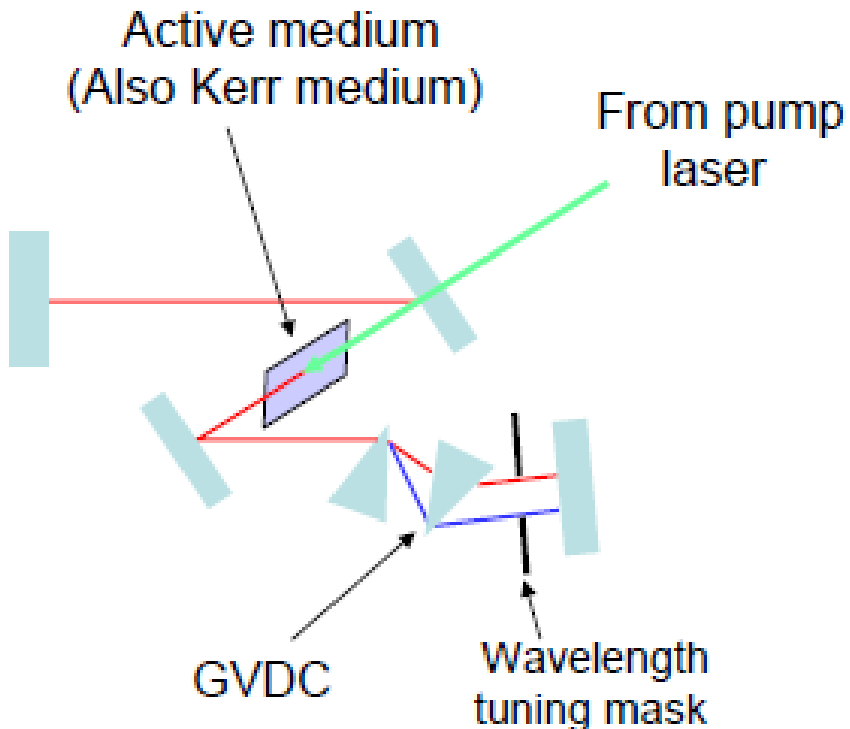
Diffraction grating compensator

E.B.Treacy, *IEEE JQE* **5**, 454 (1969)  
Fork et al., *Opt. Lett.* **9**, 150 (1984)



# Ti:Sapphire oscillator layout

Mode-locking due to self-focusing in Kerr medium



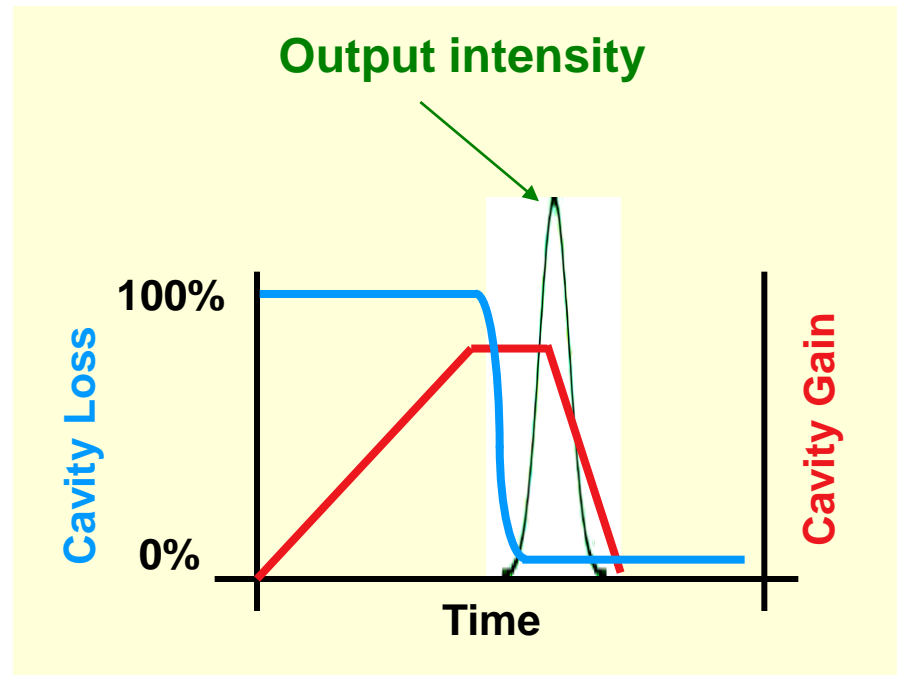
- Tuning range 690-1050 nm
- Pulse duration  $> 5$  fs (typically 50 -100 fs)
- Pulse energy  $< 10$  nJ
- Repetition rate 40 – 1000 MHz (determined by the cavity length)
- Pump source:
  - Ar-ion laser (488+514 nm)
  - DPSS CW YAG laser (532 nm)
- Typical applications:
  - time-resolved emission studies,
  - multi-photon absorption spectroscopy and imaging

O. Zvelto, "Principles of lasers", Plenum, NY (2004)

# Q-switching principle

Preventing the laser from lasing until the inversion reaches its peak

Abruptly allowing the laser to lase - burst of power released in the form of pulse

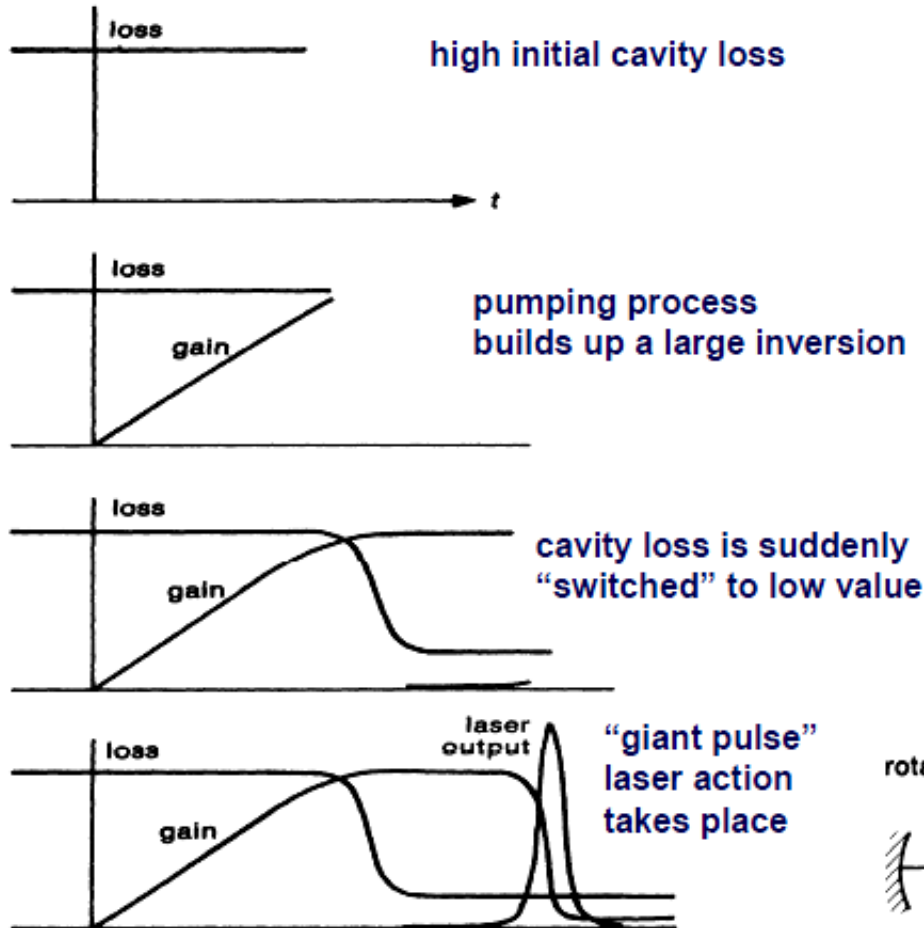


**Extremely high peak-power pulses (gigawatt)**

**Low pulse repetition rates**

**Pulse length limited by the round-trip time and how fast we can switch**

# Q-switching – Giant pulse lasers



Pulse energy:

$$E \approx \Delta N_{initial} \cdot \hbar \omega$$

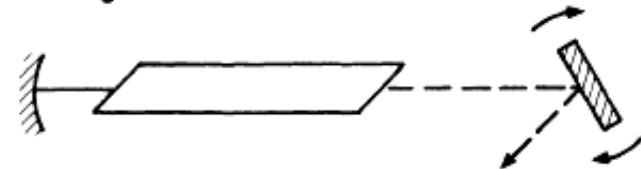
Pulse power:

$$P \propto \frac{E}{\tau_{pulse}} \approx \frac{\Delta N_{initial} \cdot \hbar \omega}{\tau_{pulse}}$$

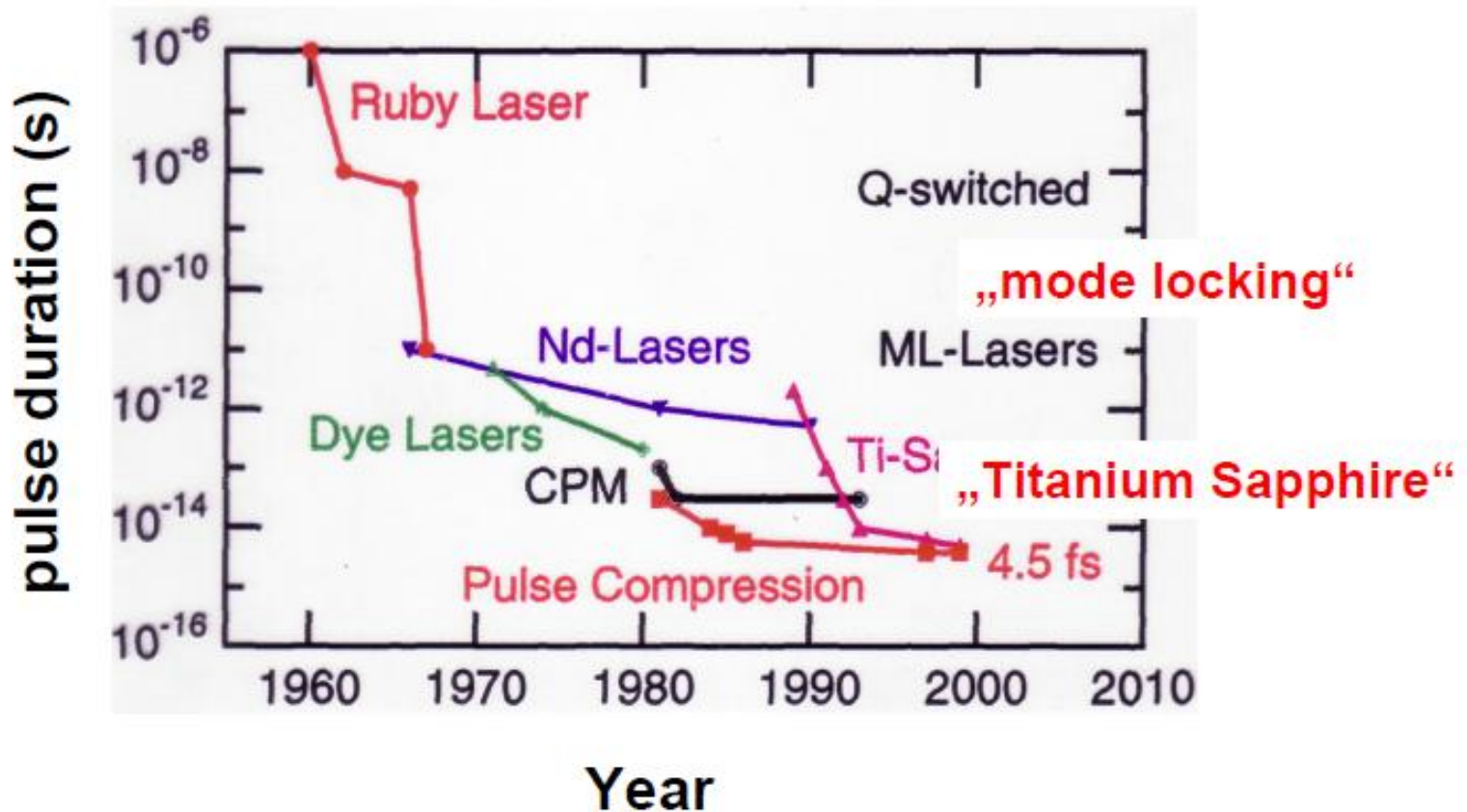
Typically,  $P \approx 1 \div 10^3 \text{ MW}$

$$\tau_{pulse} \approx 1 \div 10 \text{ ns}$$

rotating mirror



# Development of short pulse lasers



# Types of Lasers

**Solid-state lasers** have lasing material distributed in a solid matrix (such as ruby or Nd:YAG - neodymium:yttrium-aluminum garnet "YAG"). Flash lamps are the most common power source.

**Semiconductor lasers**, sometimes called diode lasers, are pn junctions. Current is the pump source.

**Dye lasers** use complex organic dyes, such as rhodamine 6G, in liquid solution or suspension as lasing media. They are tunable over a broad range of wavelengths.

**Gas lasers** are pumped by current. Helium-Neon lases in the visible and IR. Argon lases in the visible and UV. CO<sub>2</sub> lasers emit light in the far-infrared (10.6 μm).

**Excimer lasers** (from the terms *excited* and *dimers*) use reactive gases, such as chlorine and fluorine, mixed with inert gases such as argon, krypton, or xenon. When electrically stimulated, a pseudo molecule (dimer) is produced. Excimers lase in the UV.

**Fiber lasers:** Optically pumped, Er-doped laser, Yb-doped laser, Raman laser.

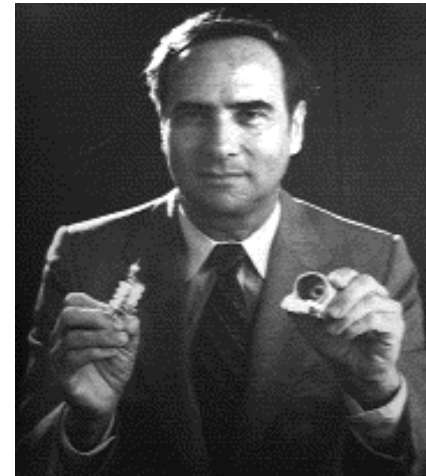


# The Ruby Laser

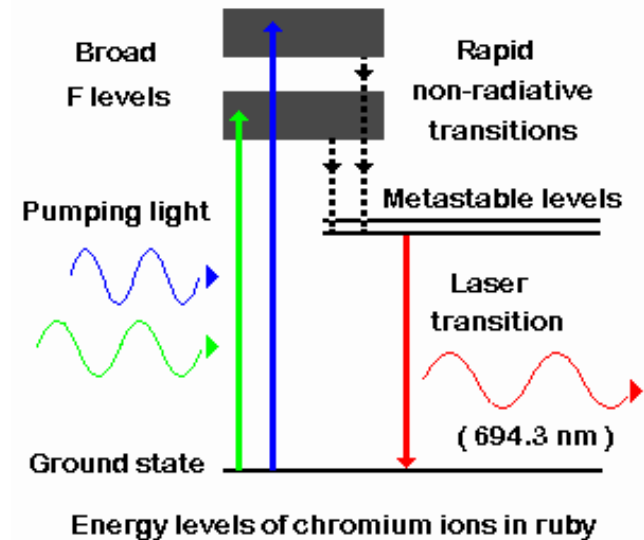
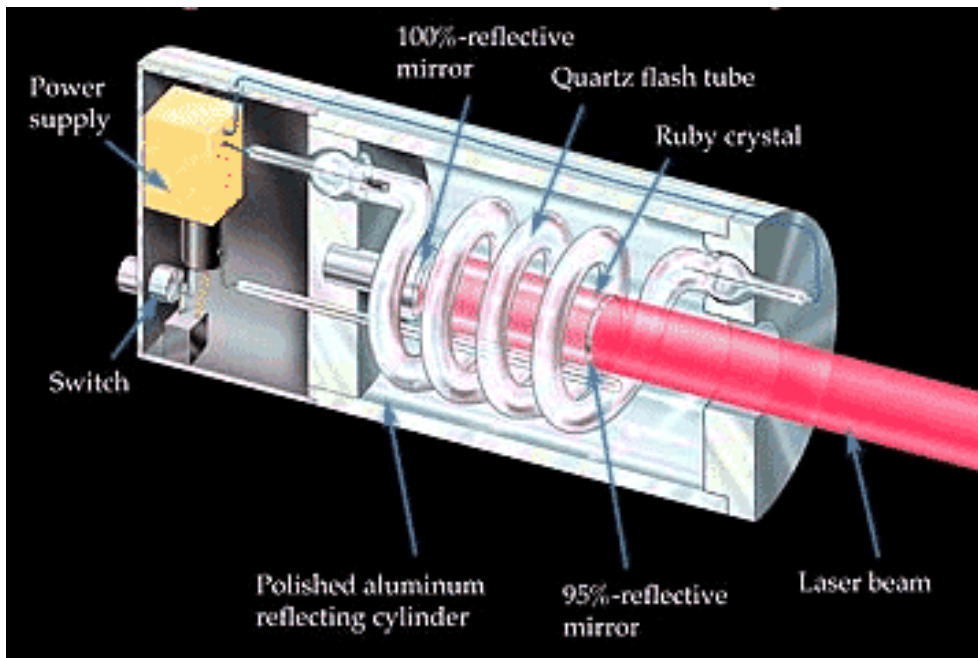
Invented in 1960 by Ted Maiman at Hughes Research Labs, it was the first laser



Photo-pumped by a fast discharge flash-lamp



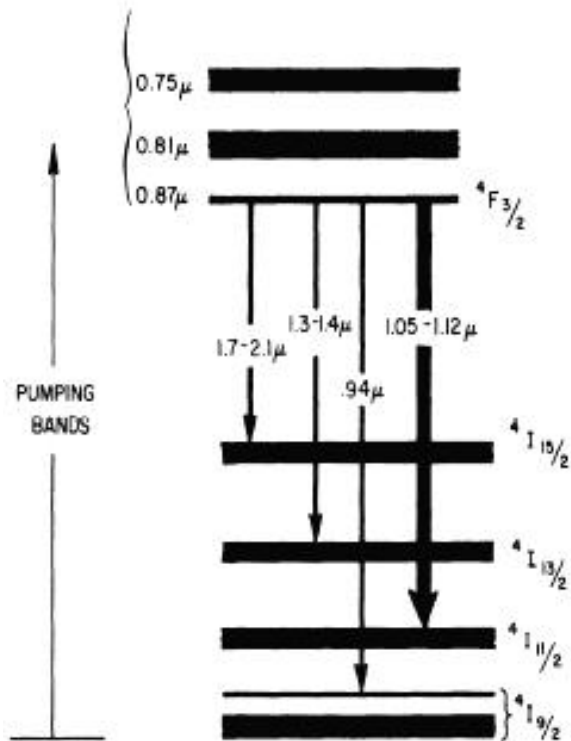
1927-2007



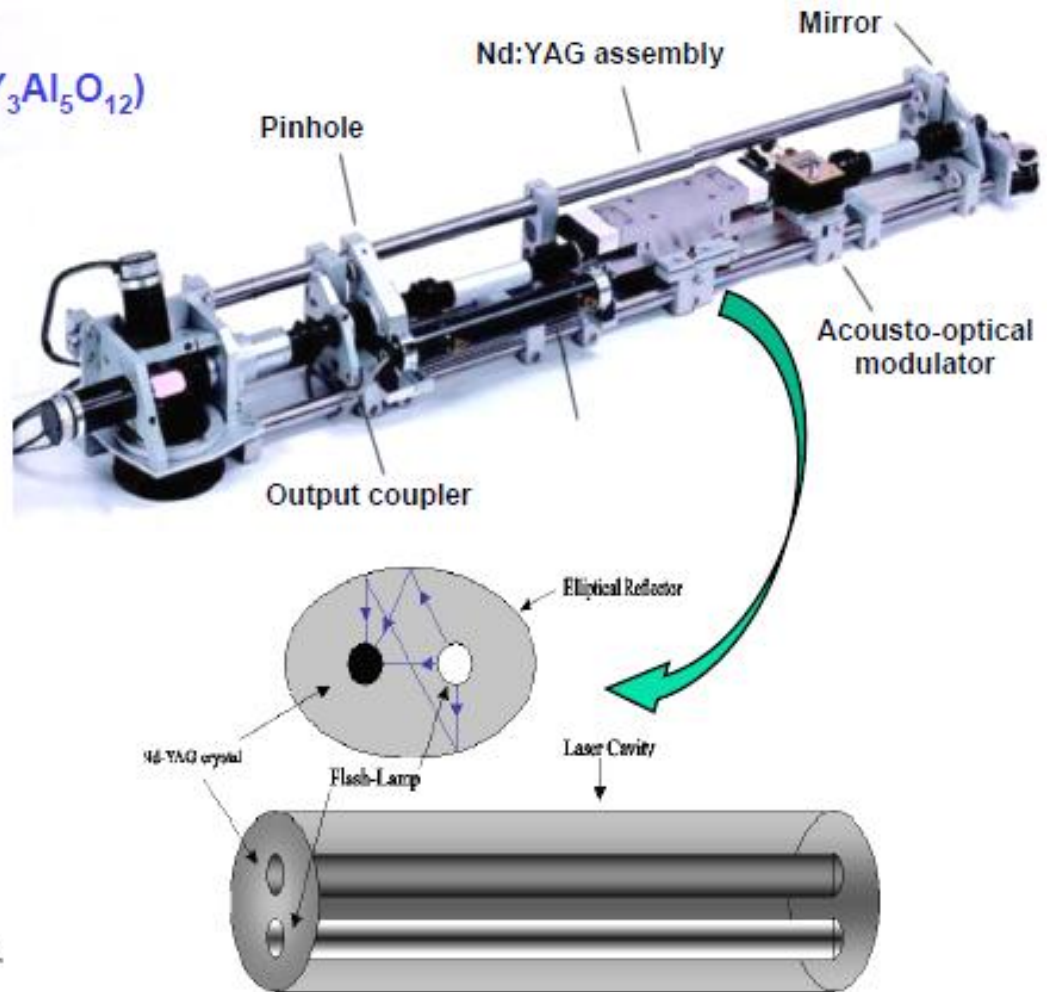
# Nd:YAG laser

The trivalent neodymium ion  $Nd^{3+}$

Lattice: yttrium aluminum garnet ( $Y_3Al_5O_{12}$ )

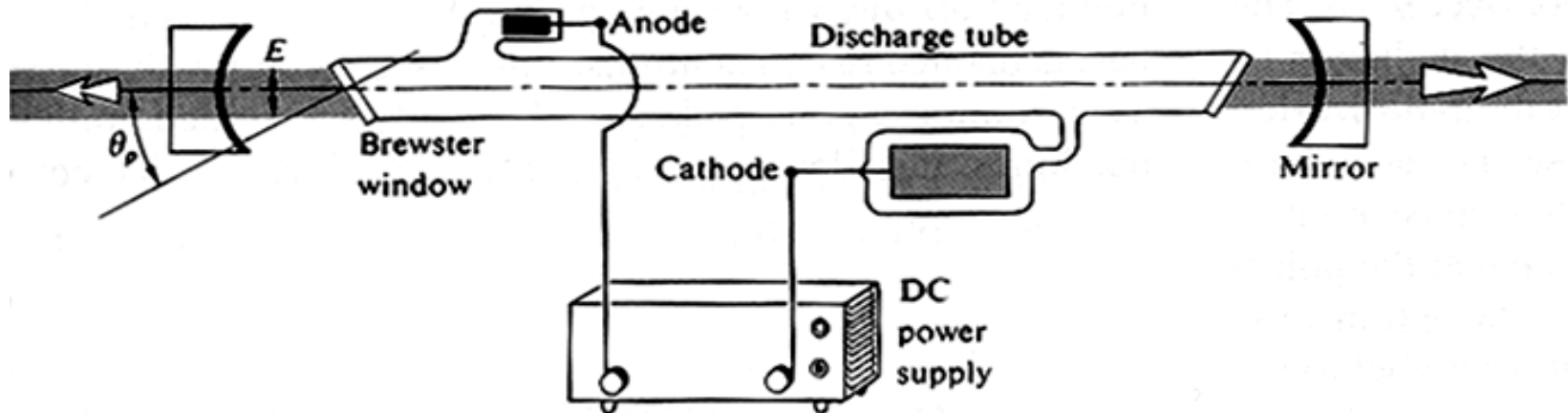
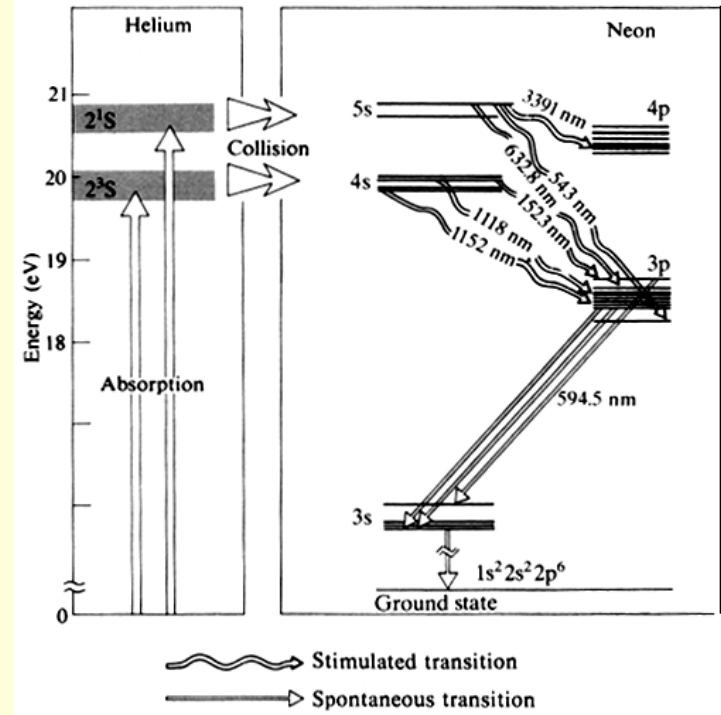


Main pump bands and fluorescent transitions in Nd:YAG.  
The main laser transition is at  $1.064\mu$ .



# The Helium-Neon Laser

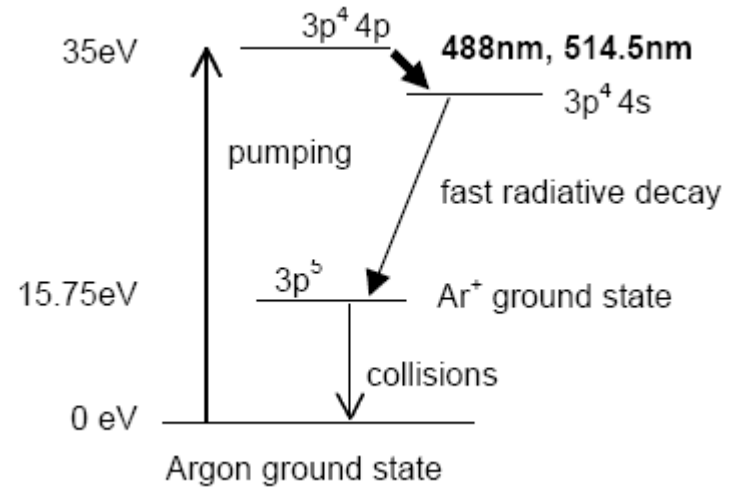
Energetic electrons in a glow discharge collide with and excite He atoms, which then collide with and transfer the excitation to Ne atoms, an ideal 4-level system.





# The Argon Ion Laser

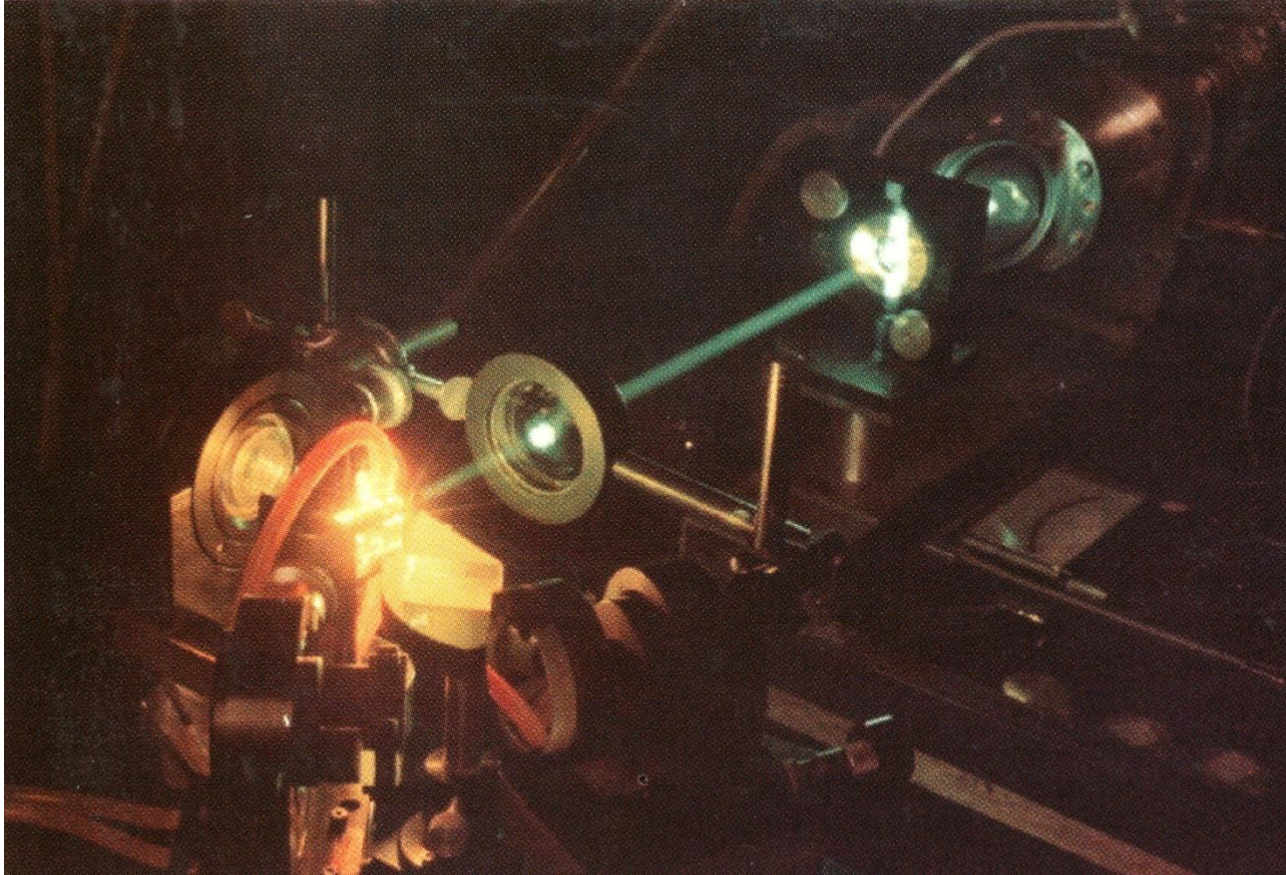
Uses ionized gas as gain medium



Argon lines:

<u>Wavelength</u>	<u>Relative Power</u>	<u>Absolute Power</u>
454.6 nm	.03	.8 W
457.9 nm	.06	1.5 W
465.8 nm	.03	.8 W
472.7 nm	.05	1.3 W
476.5 nm	.12	3.0 W
488.0 nm	.32	8.0 W
496.5 nm	.12	3.0 W
501.7 nm	.07	1.8 W
514.5 nm	.40	10.0 W
528.7 nm	.07	1.8 W

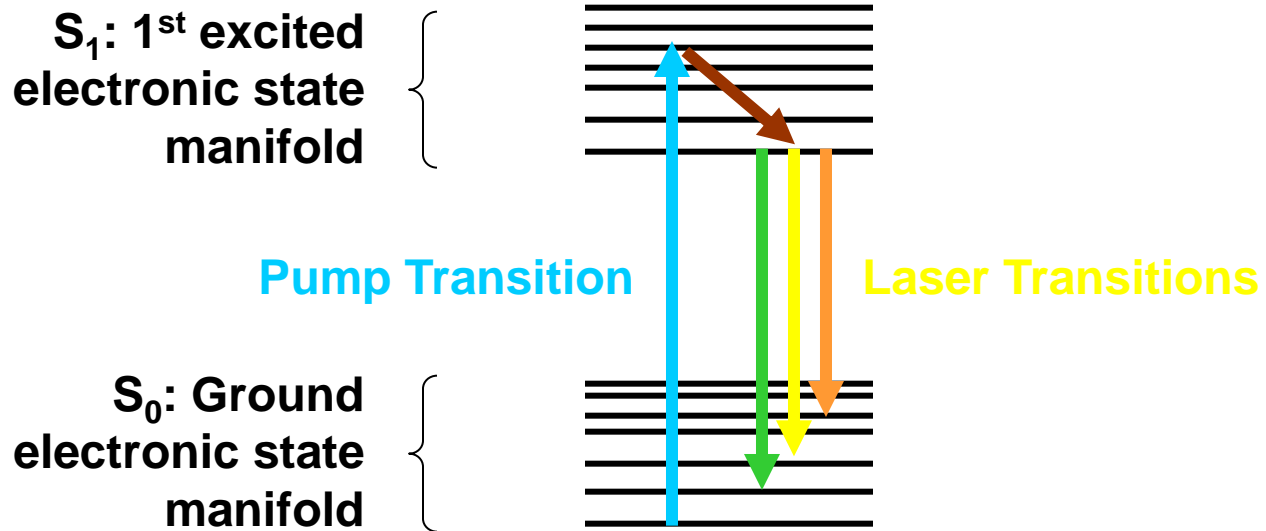
# Dye lasers



Dye lasers are an ideal four-level system, and a given dye will lase over a range of  $\sim 100$  nm.

# A dye's energy levels

The lower laser level can be almost any level in the  $S_0$  manifold.



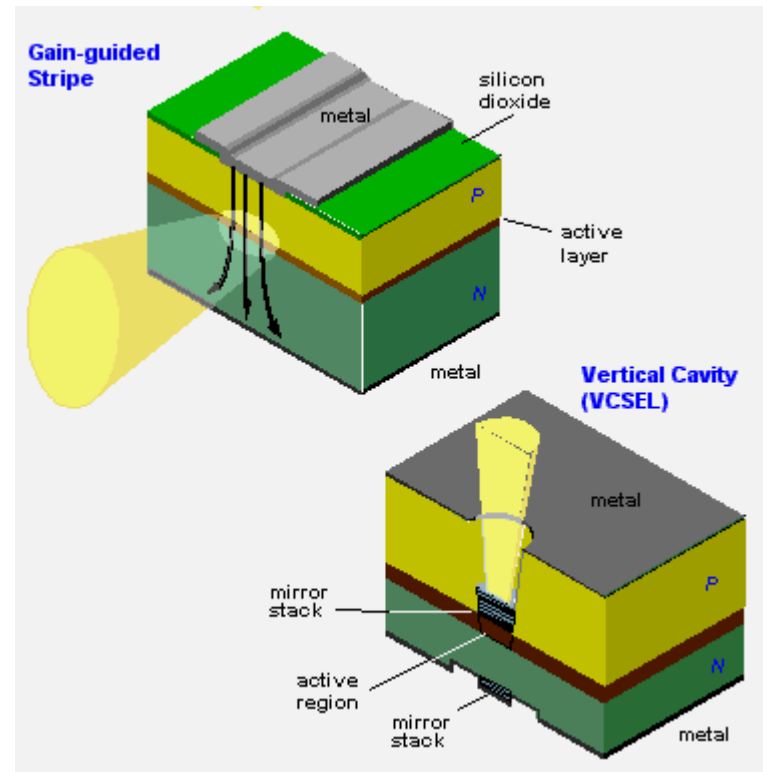
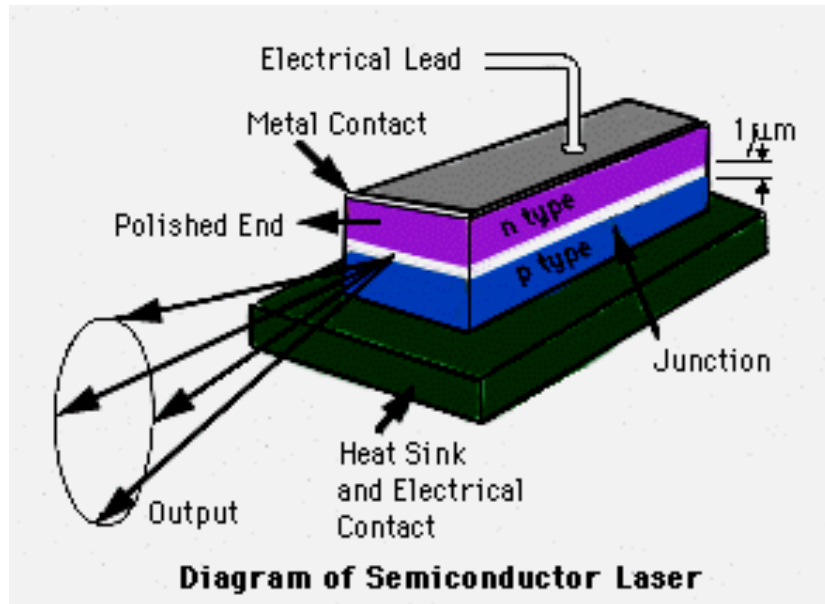
Dyes are so ideal that it's often difficult to stop them from lasing in all directions!

# Semiconductor (diode) lasers

Two outer semiconductor layers separated by a middle layer generate laser radiation when charge carriers of opposite polarity meet in the middle layer

Compact size ( $100\mu\text{m} \times 200\mu\text{m} \times 50\mu\text{m}$ )  
Electrical pumping

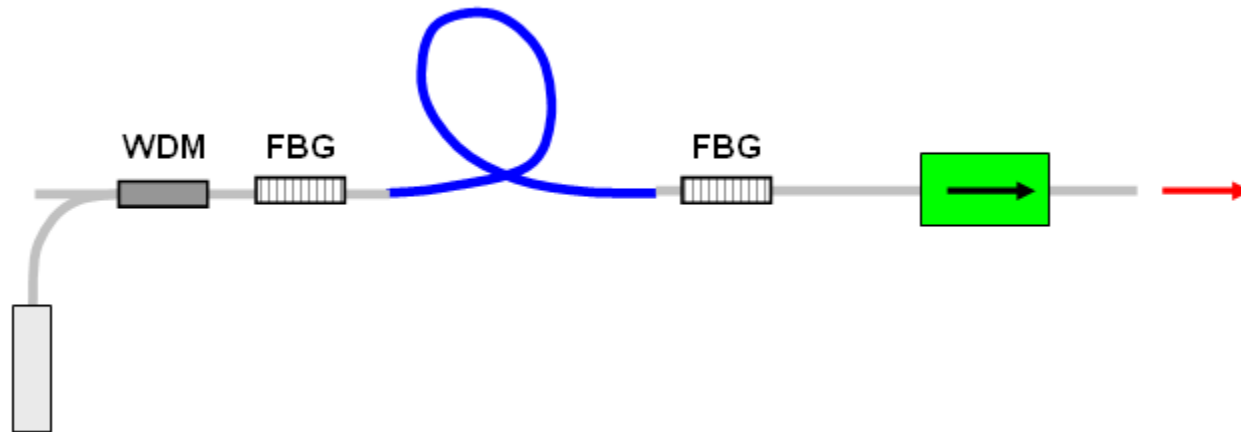
Applications: Pump sources for solid state lasers and fiber lasers, CD player, laser printers, communications



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# Fiber lasers

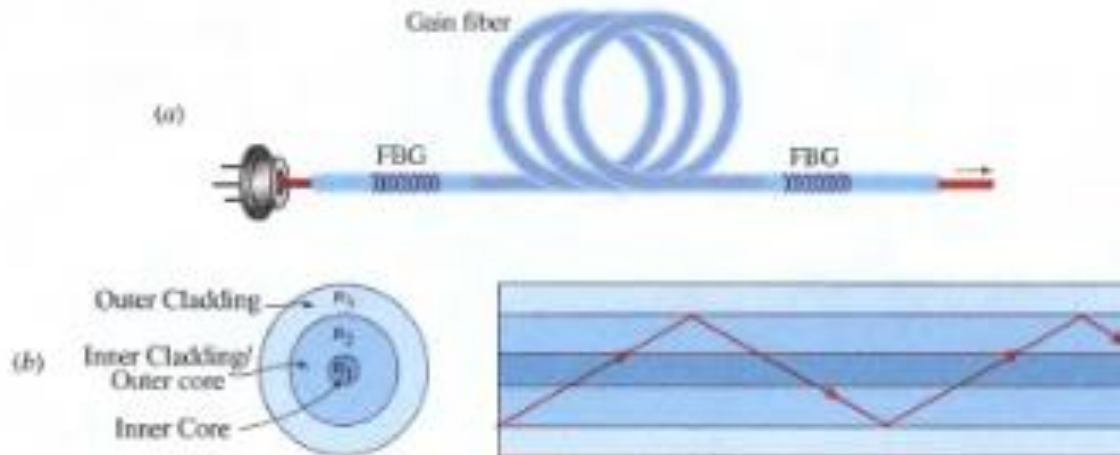
Active gain medium is an optical fiber doped with rare-earth elements  
*or utilizing fiber nonlinearities*



Scalable output power – kilowatts demonstrated (Southampton Univ)

Applications: communications, medical, material processing

# Diode pumped double-clad fiber laser



**Figure 15.3-5** (a) Simplified schematic of a laser-diode-pumped fiber laser with fiber Bragg gratings (FBG) as reflectors. Pumping often involves multiple broad-area multimode laser diodes whose light is coupled into the outer core of the fiber via multimode couplers, in both the forward and backward directions. A single-mode inner core fosters single-transverse-mode oscillation. Fiber-laser operation has been achieved in many other configurations. (b) Concentric double-clad fiber configuration. Other double-clad configurations are designed to provide increased overlap between the inner core and the skew rays of the outer core (see Fig. 9.1-2). For example, the inner core may be shifted off-center (toward the edge of the outer core), or the outer core may be rectangular, hexagonal, octagonal, or D-shaped.

# Properties of laser light

## *Directivity*

At the Moon (384,400 km away) laser beam has a diameter of 3 km

## *Monochromaticity*

The spectral width may be as narrow as 1 Hz (carrier frequency  $10^{15}$  Hz)

## *Brightness*

Power of light from a 100-W bulb passed through a 2-mm pinhole, at a 1-m distance, is only 0.05 mW while a CD player laser yields 5 mW

## *Focusability*

Laser light can be focused to a spot of a size of the wavelength ( $\sim 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ )

## *Energy Density*

A  $10^{13}$  W (10 TW) laser focused to  $10 \mu\text{m}^2$  produces the electric field of  $5 \times 10^{12}$  V/cm (Coulomb field in the atom is  $\sim 5 \times 10^9$  V/cm)

## *Ultrashort Pulses*

Pulses as short as 250 as (1 attosecond = 0.000 000 000 000 000 001 s) have been generated

