

RAYS: THE EIKONAL TREATMENT OF GEOMETRIC OPTICS

Since ancient times, the notion of **ray or beam propagation** has been one of the most enduring and fundamental concepts in physics. As a zeroth order approximation we might consider a plane wave to be a model of a **beam** and its propagation vector to be a model of a **ray**. This is a reasonable start, but it is a much too restricted view and we can do much better. What we need is a solution to Maxwell's equations which is like a plane wave, but limited in spatial extent. One approach, the simplest, is called variously **ray, Gaussian or geometric optics**. To fully understand this approach in the context of Maxwell's equations, we start by writing the electric and magnetic fields in terms of what we call *pseudo-simple waves* -- viz.¹

$$\vec{\mathbf{E}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) = \vec{\mathbf{e}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) \exp[-j k_0 \mathbf{S}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t)] \quad [\text{I-1a}]$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{H}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) = \vec{\mathbf{h}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) \exp[-j k_0 \mathbf{S}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t)] \quad [\text{I-1b}]$$

where $k_0 = \sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0} \omega = \omega / c$

It is assumed that $\vec{\mathbf{e}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t)$ and $\vec{\mathbf{h}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t)$ are weak functions of position. The scalar phase function $\mathbf{S}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t)$ is the spatially varying phase of the *pseudo-simple* wave. For the cases of pseudo-plane waves and pseudo-spherical waves the phase function is given, respectively, by

$$k_0 \mathbf{S}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) = x k_x + y k_y + z k_z \quad [\text{I-2a}]$$

and
$$k_0 \mathbf{S}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) = k_0 \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \quad [\text{I-2b}]$$

We now substitute these pseudo-simple wave expressions (*i.e.* Equations [I-1]) into Maxwell's equations to obtain

$$\exp[-j k_0 \mathbf{S}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t)] \left\{ \nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{e}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) - j k_0 \nabla \mathbf{S}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) \times \vec{\mathbf{e}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) \right\} = -j \mu_0 c k_0 \vec{\mathbf{h}}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t) \exp[-j k_0 \mathbf{S}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, t)] \quad [\text{I-3a}]$$

¹ See, for example, Max Born and Emil Wolf, *Principle of Optics*, Pergamon Press (1986), Chapter 3.

$$\exp[-j k_0 \mathbf{S}(\bar{\mathbf{r}})] \left\{ \bar{\mathbf{r}} \times \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) - j k_0 \bar{\mathbf{S}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \times \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \right\} = j (\bar{\mathbf{r}}) c k_0 \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \exp[-j k_0 \mathbf{S}(\bar{\mathbf{r}})] \quad [\text{I-3b}]$$

$$\exp[-j k_0 \mathbf{S}(\bar{\mathbf{r}})] \left\{ \bar{\mathbf{r}} \cdot [(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}})] - j k_0 \bar{\mathbf{S}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \cdot \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \right\} = 0 \quad [\text{I-3c}]$$

$$\exp[-j k_0 \mathbf{S}(\bar{\mathbf{r}})] \left\{ \bar{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) - j k_0 \bar{\mathbf{S}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \cdot \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \right\} = 0 \quad [\text{I-3d}]$$

Rearranging, we obtain

$$\bar{\mathbf{r}} \times \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) - \mu_0 c \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) = [j k_0]^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{r}} \times \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \quad [\text{I-4a}]$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{r}} \times \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) + (\bar{\mathbf{r}}) c \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) = [j k_0]^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{r}} \times \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \quad [\text{I-4b}]$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{r}} \cdot [(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}})] = [j k_0]^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{r}} \cdot [(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}})] \quad [\text{I-4c}]$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) = [j k_0]^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \quad [\text{I-4d}]$$

In the **ray, Gaussian** or **geometric approximation** we assume that we may neglect the RHS's of these equations. To get something useful we operate on the first equation -- *i.e.* Equation [I-4a] -- with the operator “[$\mu_0 c$]⁻¹ $\bar{\mathbf{S}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \times$ ” as follows:

$$[\mu_0 c]^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{S}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \times \{ \text{Equation [I-4a]} \} \quad [\text{I-5a}]$$

$$[\mu_0 c]^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{S}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \times \left\{ \bar{\mathbf{r}} \times \bar{\mathbf{e}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) - \mu_0 c \bar{\mathbf{h}}(\bar{\mathbf{r}}) \right\} = 0 \quad [\text{I-5b}]$$

Applying the "abc = bac - cab" rule² we obtain

² That is, using $\bar{\mathbf{a}} \times (\bar{\mathbf{b}} \times \bar{\mathbf{c}}) = \bar{\mathbf{b}}(\bar{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \bar{\mathbf{c}}) - \bar{\mathbf{c}}(\bar{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \bar{\mathbf{b}})$.

$$[\mu_0 c]^{-1} \left\{ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) \left[\nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) \vec{e}(\vec{r}, t) \right] - \vec{e}(\vec{r}, t) \left| \nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) \right|^2 - \mu_0 c \nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) \times \vec{h}(\vec{r}, t) \right\} = 0 \quad \text{[I-5c]}$$

which becomes upon substitution from the second Equation [I-4b]

$$[\mu_0 c]^{-1} \left\{ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) \left[\nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) \vec{e}(\vec{r}, t) \right] - \vec{e}(\vec{r}, t) \left| \nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) \right|^2 \right\} + (\vec{r}, t) c \vec{e}(\vec{r}, t) = 0 \quad \text{[I-5d]}$$

From Equation [I-4c], we see that the first term vanishes in the geometric approximation -- *i.e.* if we neglect the term $[\nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t)]^{-1} \nabla \cdot \left[(\vec{r}, t) \vec{e}(\vec{r}, t) \right]$. Therefore, for non-vanishing $\vec{e}(\vec{r}, t)$ we obtain the following **reduction** of Maxwell's equations:

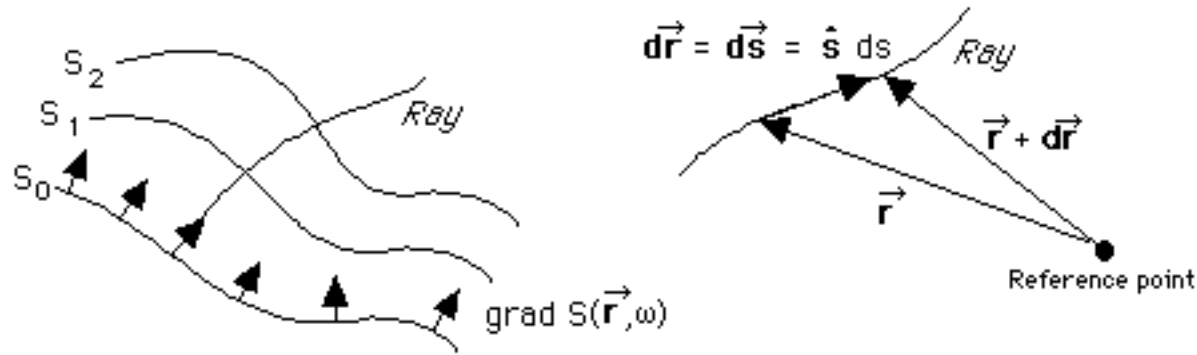
$$\left| \nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) \right|^2 (\vec{r}, t) \mu_0 c^2 = n^2(\vec{r}, t) \quad \text{[I-6]}$$

where $n(\vec{r}, t)$ is the index of refraction. More explicitly, we may write an equation for a "ray vector" -- *i.e.* the tangent to a space curve orthogonal to the surfaces of constant $\mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t)$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{S}(\vec{r}, t) = n(\vec{r}, t) \hat{s} = n(\vec{r}, t) \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds}$$

[I-7]

We illustrate the geometric relationships below:



We may now derive the all important **eikonal equation**. To that end, we first take a derivative along the ray direction -- viz.

$$\frac{d}{ds} [S(\vec{r}, \omega)] = \frac{d}{ds} n(\vec{r}, \omega) \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} \quad [I-8a]$$

However, from the definition of the **grad** operator we know that

$$d [S(\vec{r}, \omega)] = d\vec{r} \cdot \text{grad} [S(\vec{r}, \omega)]$$

so that

$$\frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} \cdot \text{grad} [S(\vec{r}, \omega)] = \frac{1}{n(\vec{r}, \omega)} \text{grad} [S(\vec{r}, \omega)] = \frac{d}{ds} n(\vec{r}, \omega) \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} \quad [I-8b]$$

or

$$\frac{1}{2n(\vec{r}, \omega)} \{ \text{grad} [S(\vec{r}, \omega)] \cdot \text{grad} [S(\vec{r}, \omega)] \} = \frac{1}{2n(\vec{r}, \omega)} \{ n^2(\vec{r}, \omega) \} = n(\vec{r}, \omega) = \frac{d}{ds} n(\vec{r}, \omega) \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} \quad [I-8c]$$

Thus we have obtain the *eikonal*³ equation for the ray vector -- viz.

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{ds} n(\vec{r},) \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} = - \nabla n(\vec{r},)} \quad [I-9]$$

APPLICATIONS OF THE EIKONAL EQUATION: THE "ABCD" RAY MATRICES

1. Uniform dielectric medium -- i.e. $n(\vec{r},)$ is a constant so that $\frac{d}{ds} \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} = 0$. so that the

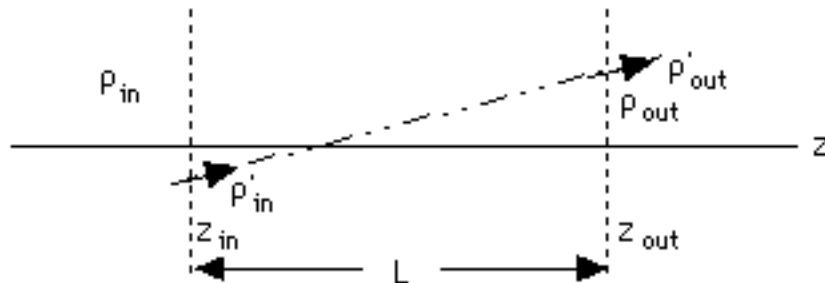
ray **must be a straight line** which may be written $\vec{r} = s \vec{a} + \vec{b}$.

In the two-dimensional paraxial approximation, we assume that $s \approx z$ and write

$$r_{out} = r_{in} + L \left. \frac{d}{dz} \right|_{in} \quad [I-10a]$$

$$\left. \frac{d}{dz} \right|_{out} = \left. \frac{d}{dz} \right|_{in} \quad [I-10b]$$

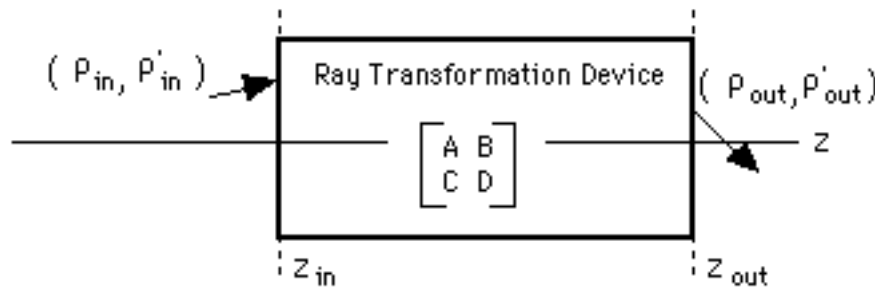
where $\vec{r} = x \hat{x} + y \hat{y}$.



³ The *eikonal* (from the Greek: means *image*) was introduced in 1895 by H. Bruns.

We may write results of this sort in the form of the famous and highly useful **ray transform** or **ABCD matrix** -- viz.

$$\begin{matrix} \text{out} \\ \text{out} \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \text{in} \\ \text{in} \end{matrix} \quad \text{[I-11]}$$



In the case of a uniform dielectric

$$\begin{matrix} \text{out} \\ \text{out} \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} 1 & L \\ 0 & 1 \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \text{in} \\ \text{in} \end{matrix} \quad \text{[I-12]}$$

so that $A = 1$, $B = L$, $C = 0$, and $D = 1$

2. A dielectric discontinuity: Starting with Equation [I-7] and noting, once again, that $\text{curl grad} \{ \text{anything} \} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \{ \text{anything} \} = 0$ we see that

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \mathbf{S}(\vec{r},) = \vec{\nabla} \times \{ n(\vec{r},) \hat{\mathbf{s}} \} = 0 \quad \text{[I-13]}$$

which is identical to the continuity (*saltus*) condition on the electric and magnetic fields at a dielectric interface! Hence $\{ n(\vec{r},) \hat{\mathbf{s}} \}_{\text{tangent}}$ is continuous across the dielectric boundary so

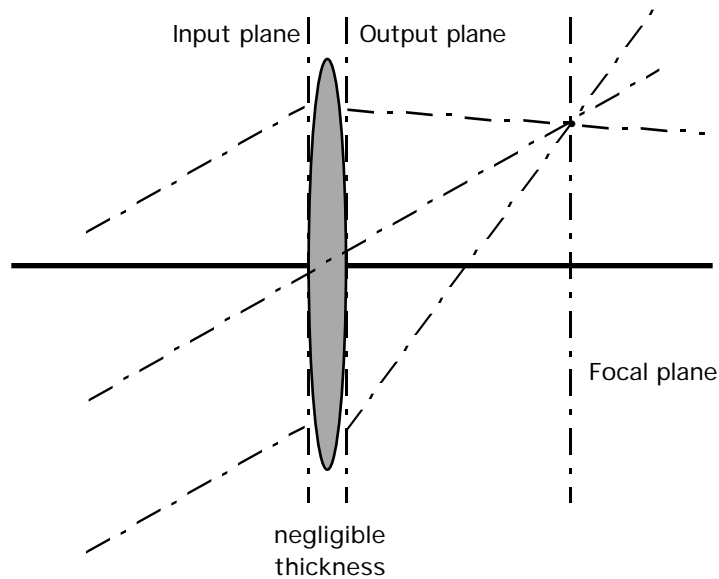
that $n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$ -- *i.e.* Snell's law! This result in the paraxial approximation may be written in ray matrix form as

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{out} \\ \theta_{out} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{in} \\ \theta_{in} \end{pmatrix} \quad [I-14]$$

where we have used the approximation that $\sin \theta \approx \theta$.

3. A "Thin" lenses: In passing we note that the ray matrix of a thin lens is given by or, perhaps more accurately, a thin lens is essentially defined by the matrix equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{out} \\ \theta_{out} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{in} \\ \theta_{in} \end{pmatrix} \quad [I-15]$$



4. Axially symmetric GRIN media: Consider the use of GRaded INdex technology to obtain an axially symmetric variation in the index of refraction of the form ⁴

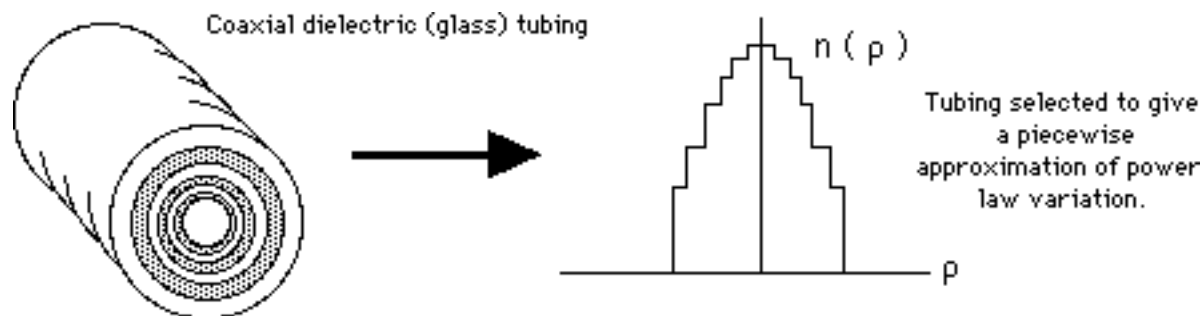
$$n(\rho) = n_M \left(1 - \frac{\rho^2}{a^2} \right)^m \quad [I-16]$$

Within such a GRIN rod, write $\vec{r} = \rho \hat{\rho} + z \hat{z}$ for the ray coordinates and $\frac{d}{ds} n(\vec{r}) = \frac{d}{dz} n(\rho)$ for the index variation. Using the eikonal equation -- *i.e.* Equation [I-9] -- in the paraxial approximation, we find

$$\frac{d}{ds} n(\vec{r}) = \frac{d}{ds} n(\rho) \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} = \frac{d}{dz} n(\rho) \frac{d\vec{r}}{dz} = \frac{d}{dz} n(\rho) \frac{d}{dz} (\rho \hat{\rho} + z \hat{z}) \quad [I-17a]$$

or
$$\frac{d}{ds} n(\vec{r}) = \frac{d}{dz} n(\rho) \frac{d}{dz} (\rho \hat{\rho} + z \hat{z}) \quad [I-17b]$$

⁴ **A note on GRIN technology**: In GRIN technology one may build up a glass rod with a specific radial index of refraction distribution by fusing a sequence of coaxially arranged glass tubes with appropriate index and diameter as illustrated in the following:



Therefore

$$\frac{d^2}{dz^2} \left(\frac{1}{n(z)} \frac{d}{dz} n(z) \right) = \frac{d}{dz} \ln \left[n(z) \right] \quad \text{[I-17c]}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2}{dz^2} \left(\frac{1}{n(z)} \frac{d}{dz} n_M \left(1 - \frac{z}{a} \right)^m \right) \\ = \frac{1}{n(z)} \left(-n_M \frac{m}{a} \right) \left(-\frac{m}{a} \right)^{m-1} \\ - \frac{m}{a} \left(-\frac{m}{a} \right)^{m-1} \end{aligned} \quad \text{[I-17d]}$$

Doubtless, the simplest and most valuable GRIN materials are designed so that $m = 2$ -- *i.e.* what is usually called **parabolic** or **quadratic** material -- wherein

$$\frac{d^2}{dz^2} \left(-\frac{2}{a} \frac{1}{a} \right)^{2-1} = -\frac{2}{a^2} = -k^2 \quad \text{[I-18]}$$

so that

$$z) = \sin(kz) \cos(z) + \cos(kz) \sin(z) \quad \text{[I-19a]}$$

$$z) = -\sin(kz) \sin(z) + \cos(kz) \cos(z) \quad \text{[I-19b]}$$

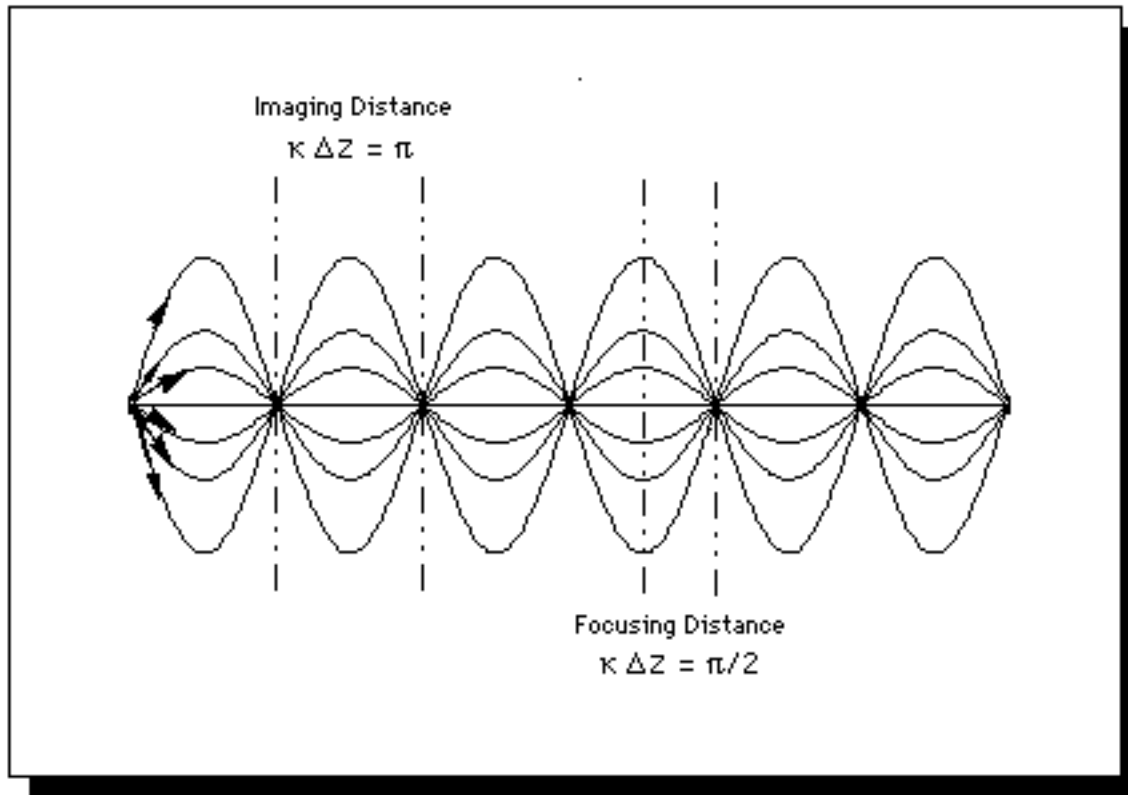
So that in terms of a ray transform matrix the GRIN rod is represented by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{out} \\ \text{out} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \text{in} \\ \text{in} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \cos(kz) & \sin(kz) \\ -\sin(kz) & \cos(kz) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \text{in} \\ \text{in} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{[I-20]}$$

where

$$k = \sqrt{2/a^2}$$

Ray trajectories confined in a GRIN rod.



1. Mirages: Air adjacent to a hot surface rises in temperature and becomes less dense. Thus over a flat hot surface, such as a desert expanse or a sun drenched roadway, air density **locally** increases with height and the average **refractive index** may be approximated by a simple linear variation of the form

$$n(x) = n_g \{1 + \alpha x\} \quad [I-21]$$

where x is the vertical height above the planar surface, n_g is the refractive index at ground level, and α is a positive constant.

We may use the **eikonal equation** to find an equation for the approximate ray trajectory - *i.e.* an equation for ray height x as a function of ground distance z -- of a light ray launched from a height x_0 and at an angle θ_0 with respect to the surface of the earth. Therefore,

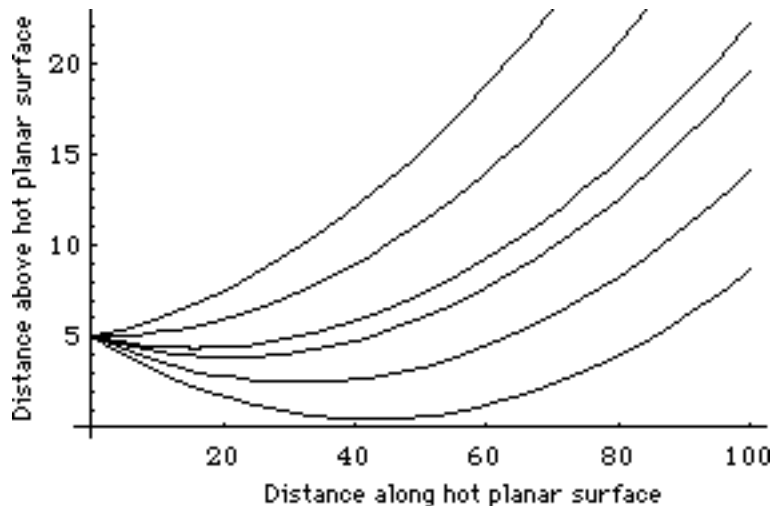
$$\frac{d}{ds} n(\vec{r}, \omega) \frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} = -\nabla n(\vec{r}, \omega) \quad \frac{d^2 x}{dz^2} = \frac{1}{n(x, z)} \frac{dn(x, z)}{dx} \quad [\text{I-22a}]$$

or from Equation [I-21} $\frac{d^2 x}{dz^2} = -\frac{1}{n} \frac{dn}{dx}$. [I-22b]

Thus, the ray trajectory is given by

$$\vec{r}(z) = \frac{z^2}{2} + \tan \theta_0 z + x_0 \hat{x} + z \hat{z} \quad [\text{I-23}]$$

Ray trajectories diverted by a hot surface



AN ALTERNATIVE DERIVATION OF EIKONAL EQUATION:

FERMAT'S PRINCIPLE⁵

Like most laws of physics, the equations of geometric optics can be derived from a **variation principle**. In this context the variation principle is called the Fermat principle which states that a ray always chooses a trajectory that minimizes⁶ the optical path length -- viz.

$$\int_{P_1}^{P_2} n(x, y, z) ds = \text{minimum} \quad \text{[I-24]}$$

where the line element, ds , is measured along a ray and the two end-points P_1 and P_2 are fixed in space.⁷ Analysis of the variation problem is facilitated by choosing the projected coordinate z as the new variable of integration. Accordingly,

$$ds = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2} = \sqrt{1 + x^2 + y^2} dz, \quad \text{[I-25]}$$

where $x = \frac{dx}{dz}$ and $y = \frac{dy}{dz}$, Fermat's variation principle is transformed into the more familiar **Lagrangian form** -- viz.

$$\int_{P_1}^{P_2} L(x, y, x, y) dz = \text{minimum} \quad \text{[I-26]}$$

where $L(x, y, x, y) = n(x, y, z) \sqrt{1 + x^2 + y^2}$. [I-27]

⁵ See, for example, Dietrich Marcuse, *Light Transmission Optics*, Van Nostrand Reinhold (1972).

⁶ More precisely, the path must be a local *extremum* and in rare cases may, in fact, be a maximum. See R. Y. Luneberg, *Mathematical Theory of Optics*, University of California Press, Berkeley and Los Angeles (1964).

⁷ From Equation [II-7] we see that

$$S(P_2) - S(P_1) = \int_{P_1}^{P_2} n(x, y, z) ds .$$

The minimization procedure is then well-known in the *variational calculus* and leads to the famous **Euler-Lagrangian equations** -- *i.e.*

$$\frac{d}{dz} \frac{L}{x} - \frac{L}{x} = 0 \quad \text{[I-28a]}$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \frac{L}{y} - \frac{L}{y} = 0 \quad \text{[I-28b]}$$

When applied to the **Fermat Lagrangian**, as defined in Equation [I-24], these equations yield

$$\frac{d}{dz} \frac{nx}{\sqrt{1+x^2+y^2}} = \sqrt{1+x^2+y^2} \frac{n}{x} \quad \text{[I-29a]}$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \frac{ny}{\sqrt{1+x^2+y^2}} = \sqrt{1+x^2+y^2} \frac{n}{y} . \quad \text{[I-29b]}$$

Using Equation [I-22] we see that the **Euler-Lagrangian** equations may be expressed in the vector form as

$$\frac{d}{ds} n \frac{dx}{ds} , \frac{d}{ds} n \frac{dy}{ds} = \frac{n}{x} , \frac{n}{y} \quad \text{[I-30]}$$

which is precisely the content of Equation [I-9]-- QED.

HAMILTONIAN FORMULATION OF RAY OPTICS

The analogy between ray optics and particle mechanics is most striking when the equations of ray optics are expressed in Hamiltonian form.⁸ To that end, we define the **generalized momentum** which is canonically conjugate to x and y by the vector equation

⁸ The formal theory of optical systems was developed by Sir W. R. Hamilton in 1828-37.

$$\{p_x, p_y\} = \frac{L}{x}, \frac{L}{y} . \quad [\text{I-31}]$$

The Hamiltonian is then define in terms of the generalized momentum by the relation

$$H(x, y, p_x, p_y) = p_x x + p_y y - L(x, y, x, y) . \quad [\text{I-32}]$$

With the assumed functional dependence of the Hamiltonian, we form the derivatives

$$\frac{H}{p_x} = x + p_x \frac{x}{p_x} + p_y \frac{y}{p_x} - \frac{L}{x} \frac{x}{p_x} - \frac{L}{y} \frac{y}{p_x} \quad [\text{I-33a}]$$

$$\frac{H}{p_y} = p_x \frac{x}{p_y} + y + p_y \frac{y}{p_y} - \frac{L}{x} \frac{x}{p_y} - \frac{L}{y} \frac{y}{p_y} . \quad [\text{I-33b}]$$

Given the definitional relationships embodied in Equation [I-28]we see that these expression reduce to one set of Hamilton's equation -- viz.

$$\frac{dx}{dz}, \frac{dy}{dz} = \frac{H}{p_x}, \frac{H}{p_y} . \quad [\text{I-34}]$$

The other set of Hamilton's equation -- viz.

$$\frac{dp_x}{dz}, \frac{dp_y}{dz} = -\frac{H}{x}, -\frac{H}{y} . \quad [\text{I-35}]$$

follow directly from the Euler-Lagrangian equations -- i.e. Equations [I-25a]and [I-25b]-- and the definitions embodied in Equation [I-28]. Using the Fermat Lagrangian we see that

$$\{p_x, p_y\} = \frac{L}{x}, \frac{L}{y} = \frac{nx}{\sqrt{1+x^2+y^2}}, \frac{ny}{\sqrt{1+x^2+y^2}} \quad [\text{I-36}]$$

and consequently that we may solve for $\{x, y\}$ in terms of $\{p_x, p_y\}$ as

$$\{x, y\} = \frac{p_x}{\sqrt{n^2 - p_x^2 - p_y^2}}, \frac{p_y}{\sqrt{n^2 - p_x^2 - p_y^2}} \quad [\text{I-37}]$$

Substituting into Equation [I-29], we find an expression for the **Fermat** or **ray optics Hamiltonian** -- viz.

$$H = -\sqrt{n^2 - p_x^2 - p_y^2} . \quad [\text{I-38}]$$

which resembles the mechanical Hamilton of a relativistic particle -- i.e.

$$c\sqrt{m_0^2 c^2 + p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2} .$$

But the analogy is even stronger in the paraxial approximation where the Hamiltonian is approximated by an expression which is identical in form with the Hamiltonian of a non-relativistic particle -- viz.

$$H = -n\sqrt{1 - \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{n^2}} - \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2\langle n \rangle} - n \quad [\text{I-39}]$$

when $p_x, p_y \ll \langle n \rangle$.⁹

⁹ Applying the quantization rules of quantum mechanics to these Hamiltonians, we can go full circle and recover wave optics from ray optics. Equation [II-35] leads directly to the equivalent of the relativistic Klein-Gordon equation while the equivalent of the nonrelativistic Schrödinger equation follows directly from Equation [II-36].