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The case of a spherical wave front for the generalized Lorenz–Mie theory including a comparison to experimental data

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10 Abstract

11 Scattering light from a spherical particle located on-axis to an electromagnetic spherical wave is numerically pre-
12 dicted using the generalized Lorenz–Mie theory (GLMT). The model is compared to the classical Lorenz–Mie theory,
13 plane wave case, and to experimental in-line Fraunhofer holograms of spherical particles, showing good agreement.
14 Fundamental questions germane to velocimetry applications and seeding particle positioning are discussed. © 2002
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17 1. Introduction

18 The scattering of an electromagnetic wave by a
19 dielectric sphere has been thoroughly investigated
20 for more than a century and there is a huge body
21 of literature about the subject. The scattering by
22 such a sphere is referred to as Mie theory, al-
23 though Mie [1] was not the first to formulate this
24 electromagnetic scattering problem. Before him

Alfred Clebsh (1833–72) and Ludvig Lorenz 25
(1829–91) contributed to this problem. The first 26
modern outline of the Mie theory in terms of a 27
spherical vector wave-function is given in the 28
classical book by Stratton [2]. Mie theory is a 29
variables separation approach which gives an an- 30
alytical equation for the Mie coefficients. Mie 31
theory is restricted to plane wave scattering by a 32
spherical homogeneous, isotropic and non-mag- 33
netic particle in a non-absorbing medium. 34

More advanced theoretical and experimental 35
techniques depend on the ability to handle a more 36
general problem where the scatter center is illu- 37
minated by a laser beam, having led to the so- 38
called generalized Lorenz–Mie theory (GLMT). 39

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40 The GLMT is a generalization of the Lorenz–Mie
41 Theory for arbitrary incident shaped beams [3]
42 that can also be applied, for instance, to particle-
43 sizing. Gaussian beam techniques have been ex-
44 tensively explored and applied in the analysis and
45 improvement of practical devices such as phase
46 Doppler systems. Recently, these techniques have
47 been applied to three-dimensional position esti-
48 mation of seeding particles in velocimetry by di-
49 rectly analyzing the scattering pattern with real-
50 time CCD cameras [4,5]. In this case, particle
51 scattering need to be calculated and then propa-
52 gated through an aperture and lens system to an
53 image plane for comparison to experimentally
54 derived images and thus derive particle position.

55 Recently, a new technique was developed called
56 tunneling velocimetry (TV) for three-dimensional
57 fluid flow measurement [6], which is an improve-
58 ment on the well-known technique of particle im-
59 age velocimetry (PIV). In the TV technique, the
60 flow is seeded with particles such as polystyrene
61 spheres. A collimated laser beam is introduced into
62 the optical axis of a video detector by a polarizing
63 beam-splitter arrangement and thus illuminates
64 the flow field. The polarizing beam-splitter also
65 transmits the scattered light onto the imaging lens
66 and CCD camera. The laser is pulsed and the CCD
67 camera records multiple images of the light scat-
68 tered by the seeding particles. If we want a high
69 interrogation area, it is necessary to expand the
70 illumination source into a spherical wave. More-
71 over, in the case of holographic PIV the volume of
72 interest is often illuminated by a spherical wave
73 front, and it is therefore of interest to be able to
74 estimate particle position from these holographic
75 recordings. Thus, the need to further develop the
76 GLMT for the case of light scattered by spherical
77 particles illuminated with a spherical wave front. A
78 spherical wave front makes particle positioning
79 more exact because digital image representation
80 changes makes it approximately 30 times more
81 sensitive to a depth movement than the same
82 particle illuminated by a plane wave front [7].

2. The GLMT for a electromagnetic spherical wave 83

84 The GLMT is a generalization of Lorenz–Mie 84
85 theory for arbitrary incident shaped beams such as 85
86 Gaussian, light sheet and top hat beams. GLMT 86
87 describes the angular and integral properties 87
88 (amplitudes, intensities, phase angle, cross-section 88
89 including radiation pressure cross-section) of the 89
90 light scattered by an ideal sphere arbitrarily lo- 90
91 cated in an arbitrary shaped beam. Formalism 91
92 details can be found in [8]. 92

93 The geometry used for the incident field and 93
94 particle location is defined in Fig. 1. Consider two 94
95 Cartesian co-ordinate systems (O_{psuvw}) and 95
96 (O_pxyz), attached to the incident field and to the 96
97 particle center, respectively, with $O_{ps}u$ parallel to 97
98 O_px and $O_{ps}v$ parallel to O_py . O_{ps} and O_p are the 98
99 point source localization for a spherical wave and 99
100 the particle center, respectively. The incident field 100
101 is linearly polarized, propagating towards the 101
102 positive w -axis with the electric field \mathbf{E} parallel to 102

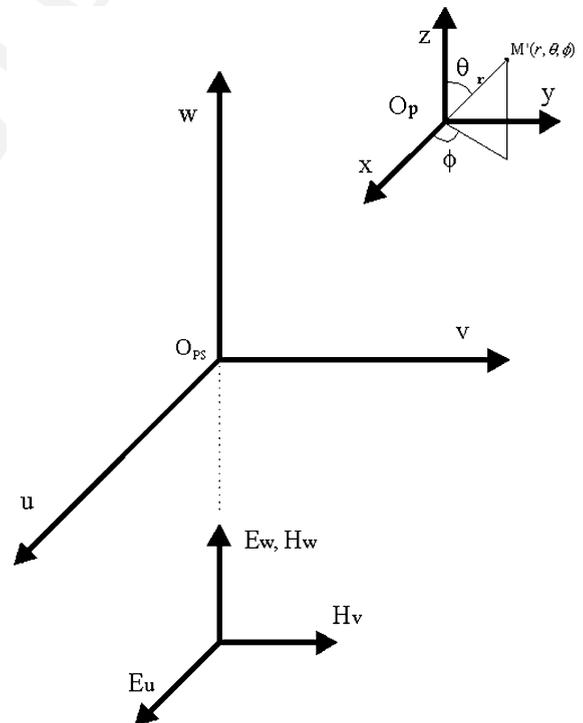


Fig. 1. System geometry for the GLMT calculations using a spherical wave front.

103 the u -axis. The scattered light is observed at point
104 $M'(r, \theta, \varphi)$, where r, θ, φ are spherical co-ordinates
105 attached to the particle system (O_pxyz).

106 2.1. Incident field description

107 In this section we derive the vectorial form of
108 the incident field, for a vectorial spherical wave.
109 The expressions for this wave assume its most
110 convenient form with the Hertz vector, which
111 represents the radiation emitted by a linearly oscillating
112 dipole. The magnetic field lines are circles
113 about the direction of oscillation, while the electric
114 field lines are the meridian planes of that direction.

115 A physical light source contains all possible
116 directions of oscillation. Such a source emits an
117 average field in which no single direction is preferred.
118 The field intensity is therefore spherically
119 symmetric. Furthermore, a field intensity emanating
120 from an ideal lens or a pinhole is spherically
121 symmetric too. Thus, we may model the electro-
122 magnetic spherical wave as it emanates from a
123 point source of unit strength.

124 In the TM-mode, the electric field E is polarized
125 parallel to the u -axis, i.e. $E_v = E_w = 0$ and consequently
126 $H_u = 0$. We consider a point source of unit
127 strength located at the position (u_0, v_0, w_0) . Thus,
128 the field equation in the presence of a source satisfies
129 the inhomogeneous wave equation [9]:

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial u^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial v^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial w^2} + k^2 \right) E_u = \delta(u - u_0)\delta(v - v_0)\delta(w - w_0), \quad (1)$$

131 where $k = \omega_0(\epsilon_0\mu_0)^{1/2} = 2\pi/\lambda$, λ is the point
132 source light wavelength and ω is the angular frequency.
133 In the TE-mode, the magnetic field H is polarized
134 parallel to the u -axis, i.e. $H_v = H_w = 0$ and H_u
135 satisfies Eq. (1).

136 Eq. (1) can be solved by using Green's functions.
137 Green's function that satisfies the inhomogeneous
138 wave equation is given as

$$G(r_1, r_2) = \frac{e^{ik|r_1-r_2|}}{4\pi|r_1-r_2|}, \quad (2)$$

140 where r_1 and r_2 are position vectors representing
141 the field point and source point, respectively. Thus,

the electric field can be obtained from Green's
function expressions given by Eq. (2), as

$$E_u = \frac{e^{ik|r_1-r_2|}}{4\pi|r_1-r_2|}. \quad (3)$$

Eq. (3) represents the electric field of a diverging
spherical wave from a point source. From Eq. (3),
we obtain by simple projections the field components
in the (r, θ, ϕ) system:

$$E_r = \cos \phi \sin \theta \frac{e^{ik|r_1-r_2|}}{4\pi|r_1-r_2|}, \quad (4)$$

$$E_\theta = \cos \phi \cos \theta \frac{e^{ik|r_1-r_2|}}{4\pi|r_1-r_2|}, \quad (5)$$

$$E_\phi = \sin \phi \frac{e^{ik|r_1-r_2|}}{4\pi|r_1-r_2|}. \quad (6)$$

In a similar way the magnetic components can be
determined

$$H_r = \sin \phi \sin \theta \frac{e^{ik|r_1-r_2|}}{4\pi|r_1-r_2|}, \quad (7)$$

$$H_\theta = \sin \phi \cos \theta \frac{e^{ik|r_1-r_2|}}{4\pi|r_1-r_2|}, \quad (8)$$

$$H_\phi = -\cos \phi \frac{e^{ik|r_1-r_2|}}{4\pi|r_1-r_2|}. \quad (9)$$

The radial components E_r and H_r play a special
role in the theory because we need to know them
to derive the beam shape coefficients (BSCs).

2.2. Scattered near field components

According to [8] the scattering field components
in the near field are described as

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{E}_r^{(s)} = & -kE_0 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-n}^{+n} C_n^{\text{PW}} a_n g_{n,\text{TM}}^m \\ & \times \left[\xi_n(\alpha\tilde{r}) + \zeta_n''(\alpha\tilde{r}) \right] P_n^{|m|}(\cos \theta) e^{im\phi}, \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{E}_\theta^{(s)} = & -\frac{E_0}{\tilde{r}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-n}^{+n} C_n^{\text{PW}} \\ & \times \left[a_n g_{n,\text{TM}}^m \zeta_n'(\alpha\tilde{r}) \tau_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) \right. \\ & \left. + m b_n g_{n,\text{TE}}^m \zeta_n(\alpha\tilde{r}) P_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) \right] e^{(im\phi)}, \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

170

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{E}_\phi^{(s)} = & -\frac{iE_0}{\tilde{r}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-n}^{+n} C_n^{\text{PW}} \\ & \times \left[m a_n g_{n,\text{TM}}^m \zeta_n'(\alpha\tilde{r}) P_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) \right. \\ & \left. + b_n g_{n,\text{TE}}^m \zeta_n(\alpha\tilde{r}) \tau_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) \right] e^{(im\phi)}. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

172

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{H}_r^{(s)} = & -kH_0 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-n}^{+n} C_n^{\text{PW}} a_n g_{n,\text{TE}}^m \\ & \times \left[\zeta_n(\alpha\tilde{r}) + \zeta_n''(\alpha\tilde{r}) \right] P_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) e^{(im\phi)}, \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

174

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{H}_\theta^{(s)} = & \frac{H_0}{\tilde{r}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-n}^{+n} C_n^{\text{PW}} \\ & \times \left[m a_n g_{n,\text{TM}}^m \zeta_n(\alpha\tilde{r}) P_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) \right. \\ & \left. - b_n g_{n,\text{TE}}^m \zeta_n'(\alpha\tilde{r}) \tau_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) \right] e^{(im\phi)}, \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

176

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{H}_\phi^{(s)} = & \frac{iH_0}{\tilde{r}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-n}^{+n} C_n^{\text{PW}} \\ & \times \left[a_n g_{n,\text{TM}}^m \zeta_n(\alpha\tilde{r}) \tau_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) \right. \\ & \left. - m b_n g_{n,\text{TE}}^m \zeta_n'(\alpha\tilde{r}) P_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta) \right] e^{(im\phi)}, \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

178 where

$$\alpha = ka \quad (16)$$

180 is the size parameter, k is the wave number of the
181 incident beam, a is the particle radius, a_n and b_n
182 are the partial-wave scattering amplitudes of
183 plane-wave Mie theory, ψ_n , χ_n , and $\zeta_n = \psi_n - i\chi_n$
184 are the Riccati–Bessel functions, which are related
185 to the Bessel functions of half-integer order;
186 $P_n^{|m|}(\cos\theta)$ are the associated Legendre polynomials,
187 depending uniquely on the observation direc-
188 tion. \bar{n} is the complex refractive index of the
189 sphere, and $\tilde{r} = r/a$ is the normalized distance

190 from the particle to the scattered light observation
191 point M' . All variables having the symbol \sim are
192 normalized with respect to the particle radius.
193 Primed quantities denote differentiation with re-
194 spect to the argument of the function. The beam
195 shape coefficients, $g_{n,\text{TM,TE}}^m$, are specific to GLMT
196 and involve the characterization of the incident
197 beam. They are described by use of expansions
198 into partial waves expressed in the spherical co-
199 ordinate system (r, θ, ϕ) , and can be determined
200 from the mathematical expressions of the radial
201 electric field E_r (for $g_{n,\text{TM}}^m$) and the radial magnetic
202 field H_r (for $g_{n,\text{TE}}^m$), by use of the quadrature, the
203 finite series method or localized approximations.

2.3. The BSC computations

204

205 Different methods have been developed to
206 compute the BSCs. A rigorous approach is based
207 on the surface integral [10]. The coefficients of a
208 Gaussian beam can also be computed by finite
209 series for on-axis particle positions [11]. The lo-
210 calized approximation of the beam shape coeffi-
211 cients leads to the fastest algorithm, as has been
212 demonstrated by Lock [12]. In this paper we used a
213 combination of the localized approximation and
214 integral quadrature given in [13].

215 To ease the procedure outlined in [13], the ab-
216 solute value

$$|r_1 - r_2| = \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 + (z - z_0)^2}$$

218 in Eqs. (4) and (7) is approximated by taking the
219 first two terms of the binomial expansion

$$\begin{aligned} |r_1 - r_2| = & z \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x - x_0}{z} \right)^2 \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{y - y_0}{z} \right)^2 \right], \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

221 which can be transformed into spherical co-ordi-
222 nates, as

$$\begin{aligned} |r_1 - r_2| = & \left[(r \cos\theta - z_0) + \left\{ (r \sin\theta)^2 \right. \right. \\ & \left. \left. - 2r \sin\theta(x_0 \cos\phi + y_0 \sin\phi) \right. \right. \\ & \left. \left. + (x_0^2 + y_0^2) \right\} / [2(r \cos\theta - z_0)] \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

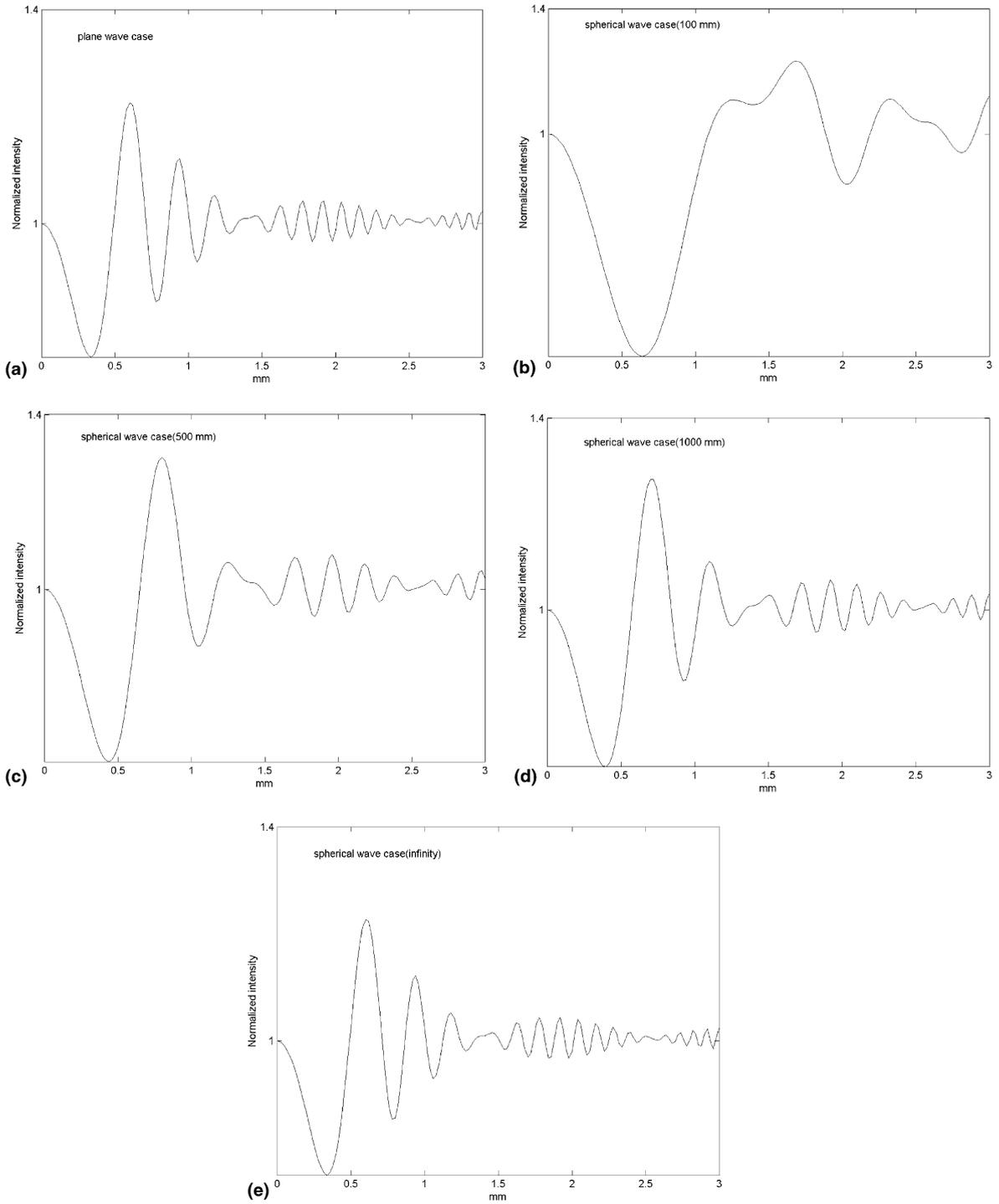


Fig. 2. Plane wave and spherical wave case comparison: (a) plane wave, (b) 0.1, (c) 0.5, (d) 1.0 and (e) 10.0 m of distance from the particle to the illumination source. The horizontal axes represents the $O_p y$ particle axis, while the vertical axes represent normalized intensity values.

224 Eq. (18) is substituted in Eqs. (4) and (7). For
225 space shortness only the radial electric field is
226 shown

$$E_r = \cos \phi \sin \theta \left/ \left[(r \cos \theta - z_0) + \frac{(r \sin \theta)^2 - 2r \sin \theta (x_0 \cos \phi + y_0 \sin \phi) + (x_0^2 + y_0^2)}{2(r \cos \theta - z_0)} \right] \right. \times \exp \left(ik \left[(r \cos \theta - z_0) + \left\{ (r \sin \theta)^2 - 2r \sin \theta (x_0 \cos \phi + y_0 \sin \phi) + (x_0^2 + y_0^2) \right\} / [2(r \cos \theta - z_0)] \right] \right). \quad (19)$$

228 Consider the simplest case where the particle is
229 located on-axis, thus the radial electric field is re-
230 duced to

$$E_r = \frac{\cos \phi \sin \theta}{\left[(r \cos \theta - z_0) + \frac{(r \sin \theta)^2}{2(r \cos \theta - z_0)} \right]} \times \exp \left(ik \left[(r \cos \theta - z_0) + \frac{(r \sin \theta)^2}{2(r \cos \theta - z_0)} \right] \right). \quad (20)$$

232 The BSCs for a particle located on-axis are given
233 as, viz. [13]

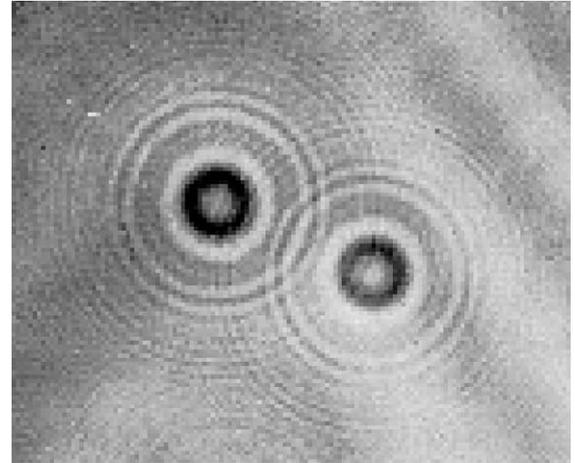


Fig. 3. Holographic image: $a = 110 \mu\text{m}$; $\lambda = 0.6328$; $z_1 = 40$ cm; $z_0 = 20$ cm; with a z -axis displacement of $\Delta z = 1$ cm.

$$g_{n,\text{TM}}^{\pm 1} = \frac{1}{2\pi E_0} \int_0^{2\pi} \hat{G}[E_r(r, \theta, \phi)] \exp(-i(\pm 1)\phi) d\phi, \quad (21)$$

235

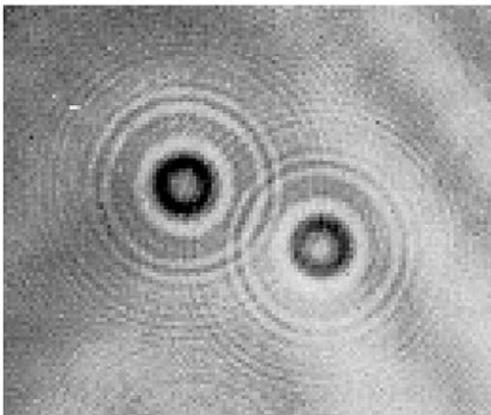
$$g_{n,\text{TE}}^{\pm 1} = \frac{1}{2\pi H_0} \int_0^{2\pi} \hat{G}[H_r(r, \theta, \phi)] \exp(-i(\pm 1)\phi) d\phi. \quad (22)$$

Applying the procedure outlined in [13], we obtain
the following expressions for the BSCs

237

238

Original experimental image



GLMT calculation with a spherical wavefront

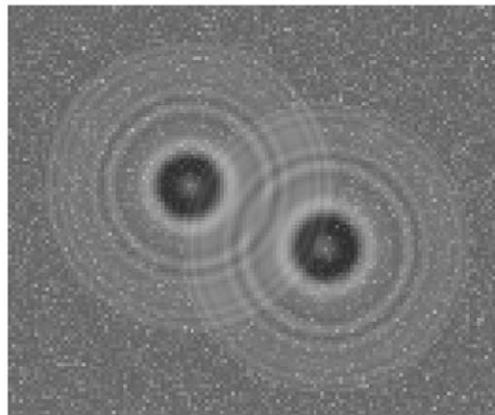


Fig. 4. Particle image scattering computed using the GLMT with a spherical wave front. The same conditions as those for the experimental data were used, particles separated by 1 cm.

$$g_{n, TM}^1 = g_{n, TM}^{-1} = \frac{A}{2E_0}, \quad (23)$$

240

$$g_{n, TE}^1 = -g_{n, TE}^{-1} = -\frac{iA}{2E_0}, \quad (24)$$

242 where A is given as

$$A = \frac{-1}{z_0 + \frac{R^2}{2z_0}} \exp(-ikz_0) \exp(-ikR^2/2z_0), \quad (25)$$

244 where R is the rescaled co-ordinate expressed as

$$R = kr = n + 1/2. \quad (26)$$

246

247 3. Numerical and experimental results

248 The GLMT for the case of an electromagnetic
249 spherical wave will be compared with the classical
250 Lorenz–Mie theory that is, the plane wave case.
251 Close to the source we have a spherical electro-
252 magnetic wave, but as the light source moves away
253 from the particle the electromagnetic wave can be
254 considered as plane. We will use this fact to compare
255 our proposed model.

256 The technique used to compute the Ricatti–
257 Bessel functions, and the coefficients a_n, b_n are
258 described elsewhere [14]. Computation of the as-
259 sociated Legendre function is accomplished by
260 using standard recursion formulas such as those
261 presented by Abramowitz and Stegun [15]. All
262 electric field quantities are normalized based on an
263 assumed uniform incident electric field of unit
264 amplitude.

265 The observation point M' receives light from the
266 scattered and incident waves. The total field in the
267 forward scatter case is composed by the incident
268 plus scattered fields. The intensity value at the
269 observation point M' is given by Poynting vector,
270 as is the direction of propagation, and is sym-
271 metrical to the axis $O_p z$. Hence, the intensity value
272 needs only to be calculated for one axis, like $O_p y$.
273 Fig. 2 shows forward scatter plots of a $220 \mu\text{m}$
274 glass spherical particle illuminated with a He–Ne
275 laser, as the illumination source was moved away
276 from the particle to 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 3.0 and 10.0 m,
277 considered for practical purposes as infinity. The
278 vertical axes in these plots show the scattering

279 calculations for the electromagnetic spherical wave
280 case normalized to the central value of the inten-
281 sity found at the start of the $O_p y$ -axis, shown as the
282 horizontal axes in the plots. The plots show that
283 the particle scattering when using a spherical wave
284 front approximates, in the limit of a large distance,
285 to the plane wave scattering case.

286 The model is also compared to experimental
287 Fraunhofer in-line holograms of spherical particles
288 [7]. The experiment used coherent light from a
289 laser passed through a condensing lens-pinhole
290 system to produce a diverging beam, which illu-
291 minated spherical particles introduced into its

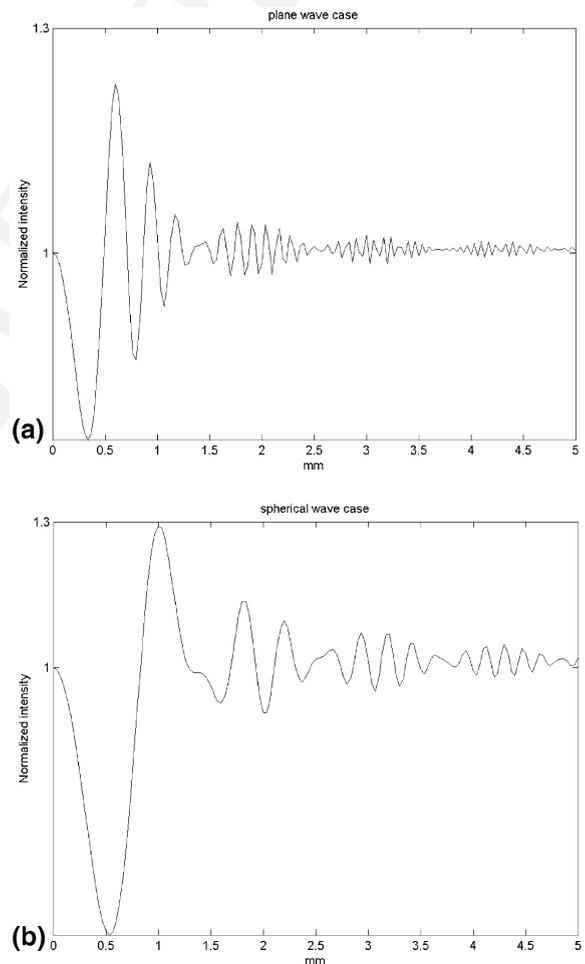


Fig. 5. Plane wave and spherical wave case comparison for the same conditions as in the experimental data. Vertical and horizontal axes as in Fig. 2.

292 path, at a distance z_0 from the pinhole. Light dif-
293 fracted by the particles adds coherently with light
294 that has not been diffracted, i.e. background light.
295 The resulting amplitude distribution forms an in-
296 terference pattern whose fringes are recorded as
297 intensities on film, at a distance z_1 from the par-
298 ticle. The interference pattern is symmetrical about
299 the z -axis which is the optical axis originating at
300 the pinhole. An example of such experiment is
301 given in Fig. 3 for two spherical particles of di-
302 ameter $220\ \mu\text{m}$, separated 1 cm from each other.
303 Fig. 4 shows the results from the theoretical model
304 when using the same conditions than those for the
305 experimental result, where some background frin-
306 ges are seen to dark some places on the experi-
307 mental image. These fringes are due to
308 experimental conditions typical of a holographic
309 experiment, and are not simulated in the theoret-
310 ical model, hence the theoretical model and ex-
311 perimental data show good agreement. Fig. 5
312 shows the convenience of using the GLMT with an
313 electromagnetic spherical wave, depicting the dif-
314 ference with the plane wave case for the same ex-
315 perimental conditions.

316 4. Conclusions

317 For the first time, the formulation of a spherical
318 wave front in the context of the generalized Lo-
319 renz–Mie theory is presented. This is important for
320 velocimetry applications for two reasons:

- 321 (a) a larger region of interest can be illuminated,
- 322 (b) the positioning of seeding particles is more
323 accurate, as the digital representation of the
324 particle image now changes, not only due to
325 particle and lens characteristics, but also due
326 to the changing incident field for varying posi-
327 tions.

328 Theoretical results have been compared to exper-
329 imental results and found to be in good agreement.

Much work remains to be done in the area of
high-accuracy three-dimensional position estima-
tion of seeding particles in velocimetry applica-
tions. Current research is focussed on producing
an optical system capable of expanding a collimated
beam into a spherical wave front for illumina-
tion purposes and to act as a lens relay for the
scattered light. With the aid of advances such as
those discussed in this work, the capabilities of
velocimetry are being extended to yield high-ac-
curacy volumetric particle positioning and thereby
improve volumetric velocity estimates, used to
address many fundamental questions in fluid dy-
namics research.

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