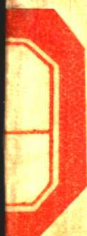


Keigo Iizuka

Engineering Optics



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Engineering Optics

With 385 Figures

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Preface

"Which area do you think I should go into?" or "Which are the areas that have the brightest future?" are questions that are frequently asked by students trying to decide on a field of specialization. My advice has always been to pick any field that combines two or more disciplines such as Nuclear Physics, Biomedical Engineering, Optoelectronics, or even Engineering Optics. With the ever growing complexity of today's science and technology, many a problem can be tackled only with the cooperative effort of more than one discipline.

Engineering Optics deals with the engineering aspects of optics, and its main emphasis is on applying the knowledge of optics to the solution of engineering problems. This book is intended both for the physics student who wants to apply his knowledge of optics to engineering problems and for the engineering student who wants to acquire the basic principles of optics.

The material in the book was arranged in an order that would progressively increase the student's comprehension of the subject. Basic tools and concepts presented in the earlier chapters are then developed more fully and applied in the later chapters. In many instances, the arrangement of the material differs from the true chronological order.

The following is intended to provide an overview of the organization of the book. In this book, the theory of the Fourier transforms was used whenever possible because it provides a simple and clear explanation for many phenomena in optics. Complicated mathematics have been completely eliminated.

Chapter 1 gives a historical prospective of the field of optics in general. It is amazing that, even though light has always been a source of immense curiosity for ancient peoples, most principles of modern optics had to wait until the late eighteenth century to be conceived, and it was only during the mid-nineteenth century with Maxwell's equations that modern optics was fully brought to birth. The century following that event has been an exciting time of learning and a tremendous growth which we have been witnessing today.

Chapter 2 summarizes the mathematical functions which very often appear in optics and it is intended as a basis for the subsequent chapters.

Chapter 3 develops diffraction theory and proves that the far field diffraction pattern is simply the Fourier transform of the source (or

aperture) function. This Fourier-transform relationship is the building block of the entire book (Fourier optics).

Chapter 4 tests the knowledge obtained in Chaps. 2 and 3. A series of practical examples and their solutions are collected in this chapter.

Chapter 5 develops geometrical optics which is the counterpart of Fourier optics appearing in Chap. 3. The power of geometrical optics is convincingly demonstrated when working with inhomogeneous transmission media because, for this type of media, other methods are more complicated. Various practical examples related to fiber optics are presented so that the basic knowledge necessary for fiber optical communication in Chap. 13 is developed.

Chapter 6 deals with the Fourier transformable and image formable properties of a lens using Fourier optics. These properties of a lens are abundantly used in optical signal processing appearing in Chap. 11.

Chapter 7 explains the principle of the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). In order to construct a versatile system, the merits of both analog and digital processing have to be cleverly amalgamated. Only through this hybrid approach can systems such as computer holography, computer tomography or a hologram matrix radar become possible.

Chapter 8 covers both coherent and white light holography. The fabrication of holograms by computer is also included. While holography is popularly identified with its ability to create three-dimensional images, the usefulness of holography as a measurement technique deserves equal recognition. Thus, holography is used for measuring minute changes and vibrations, as a machining tool, and for profiling the shape of an object.

Descriptions of microwave holography are given in Chap. 12 as a separate chapter. Knowledge about the diffraction field and FFT which are found in Chaps. 3 and 6 are used as the basis for many of the discussions on holography.

Chapter 9 shows a pictorial cook book for fabricating a hologram. Experience in fabricating a hologram could be a memorable initiation for a student who wishes to be a pioneer in the field of engineering optics.

Chapter 10 introduces analysis in the spatial frequency domain. The treatment of optics can be classified into two broad categories: one is the space domain, which has been used up to this chapter, and the other is the spatial frequency domain, which is newly introduced here. These two domains are related by the Fourier-transform relationship. The existence of such dual domains connected by Fourier transforms is also found in electronics and quantum physics. Needless to say, the final results are the same regardless of the choice of the domain of analysis. Examples dealing with the lens in Chap. 6 are used to explain the principle.

Chapter 11 covers optical signal processing of various sorts. Knowledge of diffraction, lenses, FFT and holography, covered in Chaps. 3, 6, 7 and 8, respectively, is used extensively in this chapter. In addition to coherent and incoherent optical processing, Chap. 11 also includes a section on tomography.

Many examples are given in this chapter with the hope that they will stimulate the reader's imagination to develop new techniques.

Chapter 12 is a separate chapter on microwave holography. While Chap. 8 concerns itself primarily with light wave holography, Chap. 12 extends the principles of holography to the microwave region. It should be pointed out that many of the techniques mentioned here are also applicable to acoustic holography.

Chapter 13 describes fiber-optical communication systems which combines the technologies of optics and those of communications. The treatment of the optical fiber is based upon the geometrical-optics point of view presented in Chap. 5. Many of the components developed for fiber-optical communication systems find applications in other areas as well.

Chapter 14 provides the basics necessary to fully understand integrated optics. Many an integrated optics device uses the fact that an electro- or acousto-optic material changes its refractive index according to the external electric field or mechanical strain. The index of refraction of these materials, however, depends upon the direction of the polarization of the light (anisotropic) and the analysis for the anisotropic material is different from that of isotropic material. This chapter deals with the propagation of light in such media.

Chapter 15 deals with integrated optics, which is still such a relatively young field that almost anyone with desire and imagination can contribute.

Mrs. Mary Jean Giliberto played an integral role in proof reading and styling the English of the entire book. Only through her devoted painstaking contribution was publication of this book possible. I would like to express my sincere appreciation to her.

Mr. Takamitsu Aoki of Sony Corporation gave me his abundant co-operation. He checked all the formulas, and solved all problem sets. He was thus the man behind the scenes who played all of these important roles.

I am thankful to Dr. Junichi Nakayama of Kyoto Institute of Technology for helping me to improve various parts of Chapter 10. I am also grateful to Professor Stefan Zukotynski and Mr. Dehuan He of The University of Toronto for their assistance. The author also wishes to thank Professor T. Tamir of The Polytechnic Institute of New York, Brooklyn and Dr. H. K. V. Lotsch of Springer Verlag for critical reading and correcting the manuscript. Mr. R. Michels of Springer-Verlag deserves praise for his painstaking efforts to convert the manuscript into book form. Megumi Iizuka helped to compile the Subject Index:

Toronto, August 1985

Keigo Iizuka

Contents

1. History of Optics	1
1.1 The Mysterious Rock Crystal Lens	1
1.2 Ideas Generated by Greek Philosophers	3
1.3 A Morning Star	7
1.4 Renaissance	8
1.5 The Lengthy Path to Snell's Law	10
1.6 A Time Bomb to Modern Optics	11
1.7 Newton's Rings and Newton's Corpuscular Theory	13
1.8 Downfall of the Corpuscle and Rise of the Wave	17
1.9 Building Blocks of Modern Optics	18
1.10 Quanta and Photons	21
1.11 Reconciliation Between Waves and Particles	24
1.12 Ever Growing Optics	25
2. Mathematics Used for Expressing Waves	27
2.1 Spherical Waves	27
2.2 Cylindrical Waves	29
2.3 Plane Waves	30
2.4 Interference of Two Waves	34
2.5 Spatial Frequency	36
2.6 The Relationship Between Engineering Optics and Fourier Transforms	37
2.7 Special Functions Used in Engineering Optics and Their Fourier Transforms	40
2.7.1 The Triangle Function	40
2.7.2 The Sign Function	41
2.7.3 The Step Function	42
2.7.4 The Delta Function	43
2.7.5 The Comb Function	44
2.8 Fourier Transform in Cylindrical Coordinates	46
2.8.1 Hankel Transform	46
2.8.2 Examples Involving Hankel Transforms	50
2.9 A Hand-Rotating Argument of the Fourier Transform Problems	52 53

3. Basic Theory of Diffraction	55
3.1 Kirchhoff's Integral Theorem	55
3.2 Fresnel-Kirchhoff Diffraction Formula	59
3.3 Fresnel-Kirchhoff's Approximate Formula	62
3.4 Approximation in the Fraunhofer Region	64
3.5 Calculation of the Fresnel Approximation	65
3.6 One-Dimensional Diffraction Formula	68
3.7 The Fresnel Integral	70
Problems	74
 4. Practical Examples of Diffraction Theory	77
4.1 Diffraction Problems in a Rectangular Coordinate System	77
4.2 Edge Diffraction	82
4.3 Diffraction from a Periodic Array of Slits	86
4.4 Video Disk System	89
4.4.1 Reflection Grating	89
4.4.2 Principle of the Video Disk System	91
4.5 Diffraction Pattern of a Circular Aperture	94
4.6 One-Dimensional Fresnel Zone Plate	95
4.7 Two-Dimensional Fresnel Zone Plate	99
Problems	102
 5. Geometrical Optics	105
5.1 Expressions Frequently Used for Describing the Path of Light	105
5.1.1 Tangent Lines	105
5.1.2 Curvature of a Curve	108
5.1.3 Derivative in an Arbitrary Direction and Derivative Normal to a Surface	109
5.2 Solution of the Wave Equation in Inhomogeneous Media by the Geometrical-Optics Approximation	112
5.3 Path of Light in an Inhomogeneous Medium	116
5.4 Relationship Between Inhomogeneity and Radius of Curvature of the Optical Path	121
5.5 Path of Light in a Spherically Symmetric Medium	123
5.6 Path of Light in a Cylindrically Symmetric Medium	127
5.7 Selfoc Fiber	131
5.7.1 Meridional Ray in Selfoc Fiber	131
5.7.2 Skew Ray in Selfoc Fiber	132
5.8 Quantized Propagation Constant	135
5.8.1 Quantized Propagation Constant in a Slab Guide ..	135
5.8.2 Quantized Propagation Constant in Optical Fiber ...	137
5.9 Group Velocity	141
Problems	143

6. Lenses	145
6.1 Design of Plano-Convex Lens	145
6.2 Consideration of a Lens from the Viewpoint of Wave Optics	147
6.3 Fourier Transform by a Lens	148
6.3.1 Input on the Lens Surface	148
6.3.2 Input at the Front Focal Plane	150
6.3.3 Input Behind the Lens	152
6.3.4 Fourier Transform by a Group of Lenses	153
6.3.5 Effect of Lateral Translation of the Input Image on the Fourier-Transform Image	154
6.4 Image Forming Capability of a Lens from the Viewpoint of Wave Optics	156
6.5 Effects of the Finite Size of the Lens	158
6.5.1 Influence of the Finite Size of the Lens on the Quality of the Fourier Transform	159
6.5.2 Influence of the Finite Size of the Lens on the Image Quality	161
Problems	165
7. The Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)	169
7.1 What is the Fast Fourier Transform?	169
7.2 FFT by the Method of Decimation in Frequency	172
7.3 FFT by the Method of Decimation in Time	180
7.4 Values of W^k	184
Problems	185
8. Holography	187
8.1 Pictorial Illustration of the Principle of Holography	187
8.2 Analytical Description of the Principle of Holography	189
8.3 Relationship Between the Incident Angle of the Reconstructing Beam and the Brightness of the Reconstructed Image	195
8.4 Wave Front Classification of Holograms	196
8.4.1 Fresnel Hologram	196
8.4.2 Fourier Transform Hologram	197
8.4.3 Image Hologram	198
8.4.4 Lensless Fourier Transform Hologram	198
8.5 Holograms Fabricated by a Computer	199
8.6 White-Light Hologram	204
8.7 Speckle Pattern	208
8.8 Applications of Holography	211
8.8.1 Photographs with Enhanced Depth of Field	211
8.8.2 High-Density Recording	213
8.8.3 Optical Memory for a Computer	214
8.8.4 Holographic Disk	215

8.8.5 Laser Machining	216
8.8.6 Observation of Deformation by Means of an Interferometric Hologram	217
8.8.7 Defection of the Difference Between Two Pictures ..	219
8.8.8 Observation of a Vibrating Object	220
8.8.9 Generation of Contour Lines of an Object	221
Problems	222
9. Laboratory Procedures for Fabricating Holograms	225
9.1 Isolating the Work Area from Environmental Noise	225
9.2 Necessary Optical Elements for Fabricating Holograms	227
9.2.1 Optical Bench	227
9.2.2 Laser	227
9.2.3 Beam Director	228
9.2.4 Spatial Filter	228
9.2.5 Beam Splitter	229
9.2.6 Photographic-Plate Holder	229
9.2.7 Film	229
9.3 Photographic Illustration of the Experimental Procedures for Hologram Fabrication	229
9.4 Exposure Time	234
9.5 Dark-Room Procedures	236
9.5.1 Developing	236
9.5.2 Stop Bath	237
9.5.3 Fixer	237
9.5.4 Water Rinsing	238
9.5.5 Drying	238
9.5.6 Bleaching	238
9.6 Viewing the Hologram	238
10. Analysis of the Optical System in the Spatial Frequency Domain	239
10.1 Transfer Function for Coherent Light	239
10.1.1 Impulse Response Function	239
10.1.2 Coherent Transfer Function (CTF)	241
10.2 Spatial Coherence and Temporal Coherence	243
10.3 Differences Between the Uses of Coherent and Incoherent Light	245
10.4 Transfer Function for Incoherent Light	247
10.5 Modulation Transfer Function (MTF)	251
10.6 Relationship Between MTF and OTF	252
Problems	254
11. Optical Signal Processing	257
11.1 Characteristics of a Photographic Film	257
11.2 Basic Operations of Computation by Light	259
11.2.1 Operation of Addition and Subtraction	259

11.2.2 Operation of Multiplication	260
11.2.3 Operation of Division	261
11.2.4 Operation of Averaging	261
11.2.5 Operation of Differentiation	264
11.3 Optical Signal Processing Using Coherent Light	265
11.3.1 Decoding by Fourier Transform	265
11.3.2 Inverse Filters	266
11.3.3 Wiener Filter	268
11.3.4 A Filter for Recovering the Image from a Periodically Sampled Picture	270
11.3.5 Matched Filter	272
11.4 Convolution Filter	275
11.5 Optical Signal Processing Using Incoherent Light	281
11.5.1 The Multiple Pinhole Camera	281
11.5.2 Time Modulated Multiple Pinhole Camera	284
11.5.3 Low-Pass Filter Made of Randomly Distributed Small Pupils	286
11.6 Incoherent Light Matched Filter	288
11.7 Logarithmic Filtering	290
11.8 Tomography	292
11.8.1 Planigraphic Tomography	292
11.8.2 Computed Tomography (CT)	295
Problems	311
12. Applications of Microwave Holography	313
12.1 Recording Microwave Field Intensity Distributions	313
12.1.1 Scanning Probe Method	313
12.1.2 Method Based on Changes in Color Induced by Microwave Heating	314
12.1.3 Method by Thermal Vision	316
12.1.4 Method by Measuring Surface Expansion	316
12.2 Microwave Holography Applied to Diagnostics and Antenna Investigations	319
12.2.1 "Seeing Through" by Means of Microwave Holography	319
12.2.2 Visualization of the Microwave Phenomena	320
12.2.3 Subtractive Microwave Holography	321
12.2.4 Holographic Antenna	322
12.2.5 A Method of Obtaining the Far-Field Pattern from the Near Field Pattern	324
12.3 Side Looking Synthetic Aperture Radar	327
12.3.1 Mathematical Analysis of Side Looking Synthetic Aperture Radar	328
12.4 HISS Radar	333
12.4.1 Hologram Matrix	335

13. Fiber Optical Communication	341
13.1 Advantages of Optical Fiber Systems	342
13.1.1 Large Information Transmission Capability	342
13.1.2 Low Transmission Loss	342
13.1.3 Non-Metallic Cable	342
13.2 Optical Fiber	343
13.3 Dispersion of the Optical Fiber	344
13.4 Fiber Transmission Loss Characteristics	347
13.5 Types of Fiber Used for Fiber Optical Communication	350
13.6 Receivers for Fiber Optical Communications	351
13.6.1 PIN Photodiode	351
13.6.2 Avalanche Photodiode	354
13.6.3 Comparison Between PIN Photodiode and APD	356
13.7 Transmitters for Fiber Optical Communications	356
13.7.1 Light Emitting Diode (LED)	357
13.7.2 Laser Diode (LD)	359
13.7.3 Laser Cavity and Laser Action	361
13.7.4 Temperature Dependence of the Laser Diode (LD)	365
13.7.5 Comparison Between LED and LD	366
13.8 Connectors, Splices, and Couplers	366
13.8.1 Optical Fiber Connector	366
13.8.2 Splicing	367
13.8.3 Fiber Optic Couplers	368
13.9 Wavelength Division Multiplexing (WDM)	370
13.10 Optical Attenuators	372
13.11 Design Procedure for Fiber Optical Communication Systems	373
Problems	376
14. Electro and Acousto Optics	378
14.1 Propagation of Light in a Uniaxial Crystal	378
14.2 Field in an Electrooptic Medium	382
14.2.1 Examples for Calculating the Field in an Electrooptic Medium	385
14.2.2 Applications of the Electrooptic Bulk Effect	391
14.3 Elastooptic Effect	394
14.3.1 Elastooptic Effect in an Isotropic Medium	394
14.3.2 Elastooptic Effect in an Anisotropic Medium	397
14.4 Miscellaneous Effects	401
14.4.1 Optical Activity	401
14.4.2 Faraday Effect	403
14.4.3 Other Magneto optic Effects	404
14.4.4 Franz-Keldysh Effect	404
Problems	405

15. Integrated Optics	408
15.1 Analysis of the Slab Optical Guide	408
15.1.1 Differential Equations of Wave Optics	409
15.1.2 General Solution for the TE Modes	410
15.1.3 Boundary Conditions	412
15.1.4 TM Modes	416
15.1.5 Treatment by Geometrical Optics	416
15.1.6 Comparison Between the Results by Geometrical Optics and by Wave Optics	418
15.2 Coupled-Mode Theory	419
15.3 Basic Devices in Integrated Optics	427
15.3.1 Directional Coupler Switch	427
15.3.2 Reversed $\Delta\beta$ Directional Coupler	429
15.3.3 Tunable Directional Coupler Filter	433
15.3.4 Y Junction	433
15.3.5 Mach-Zehnder Interferometric Modulator	435
15.3.6 Waveguide Modulator	437
15.3.7 Acoustooptic Modulator	437
15.4 Bistable Optical Devices	443
15.4.1 Optically Switchable Directional Coupler	444
15.4.2 Optical Triode	447
15.4.3 Optical AND and OR Gates	448
15.4.4 Other Types of Bistable Optical Devices	449
15.4.5 Self-Focusing Action and Optical Bistability	450
15.5 Consideration of Polarization	451
15.6 Integrated Optical Lenses and the Spectrum Analyzer	454
15.6.1 Mode Index Lens	455
15.6.2 Geodesic Lens	456
15.6.3 Fresnel Zone Lens	456
15.6.4 Integrated Optical Spectrum Analyzer	458
15.7 Methods of Fabrication	459
15.7.1 Fabrication of Optical Guides	459
15.7.2 Fabrication of Patterns	461
15.7.3 Summary of Strip Guides	463
15.7.4 Summary of Geometries of Electrodes	464
Problems	465
References	469
Subject Index	481

1. History of Optics

1.1 The Mysterious Rock Crystal Lens

It was as early as 4,000 B.C. that the Sumerians cultivated a high level civilization in a region of Mesopotamia which at present belongs to Iraq. The name Mesopotamia, meaning "between the rivers", [1.1] indicates that this area was of great fertility enjoying natural advantages from the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. They invented and developed the cuneiform script which is today considered to have been man's first usable writing.

Cuneiforms were written by pressing a stylus of bone or hard reed into a tablet of soft river mud. The tip was sharpened into a thin wedge and thus the cuneiform letters are made up of such wedge shaped strokes as shown in Fig. 1.1 [1.2]. These tablets were hardened by baking in the sun. Literally tens of thousands of the tablets were excavated in good condition and deciphered by curious archaeologists.

The inscriptions on the tablets have revealed education, religion, philosophy, romance, agriculture, legal procedure, pharmacology, taxation, and so on. It is astonishing to read all about them, and to discover that

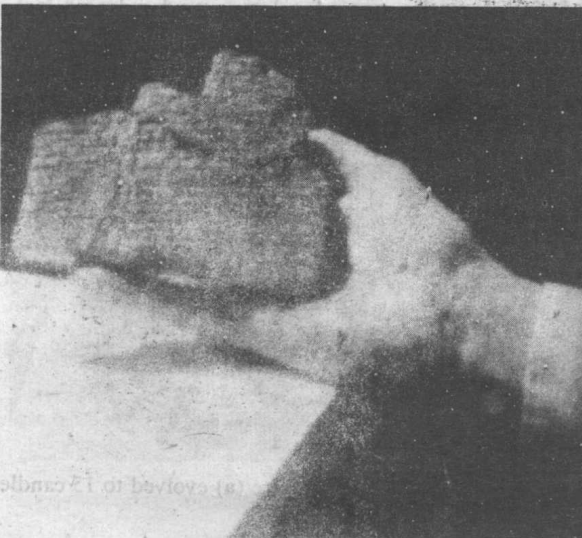


Fig. 1.1. Cuneiform tablets excavated from Mesopotamia. The contents are devoted to the flood episode. (By courtesy of A. W. Sjöberg, University Museum, University of Pennsylvania)

they describe a highly sophisticated society more than five thousand years ago [1.3].

What is amazing about the tablets is that some of the cuneiform inscriptions are really tiny (less than a few millimeters in height) and cannot be easily read without some sort of a magnifying glass. Even more mysterious is how these inscriptions were made. A rock-crystal, which seemed to be cut and polished to the shape of a plano-convex lens, was excavated in the location of the tablets by an English archaeologist, Sir *Austen Layard*, in 1885 [1.4]. He could not agree with the opinion that the rock crystal was just another ornament. Judging from the contents of the tablet inscriptions, it is not hard to imagine that the Sumerians had already learned how to use the rock crystal as a magnifying glass. If indeed it were used as a lens, its focal length is about 11 cm and a magnification of two would be achieved with some distortion.

Another interesting theory is that these cuneiforms were fabricated by a group of nearsighted craftsmen [1.5]. A myopic (nearsighted) eye can project a bigger image onto the retina than an emmetropic (normal) eye. If the distance b between the lens and the retina is fixed, the magnification m of the image projected onto the retina is

$$m = \frac{b}{f} - 1, \quad (1.1)$$

where f is the focal length of the eye lens. The image is therefore larger for shorter values of f . In some cases, the magnifying power of the myopic eye becomes 1.7 times of that of the emmetropic eye, which is almost as big a magnification as the rock crystal "lens" could provide. However, it is still a mystery today how these tiny tablet inscriptions were fabricated and read.

Two other significant developments in optics during this period, besides the questionable rock crystal lens, were the use of a lamp and a hand-held mirror. Palaeolithic wall paintings are often found in caves of almost total darkness. Such lamps, as shown in Fig. 1.2, were used by the artists and have been excavated from the area. Animal fat and grease were used as

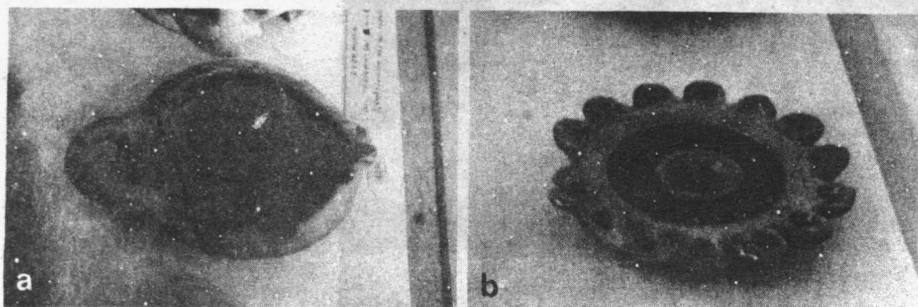


Fig. 1.2 a, b. One candle power at the beginning of Greek empire (a) evolved to 15 candle power (b) at the end of the empire

their fuel. The lamps were even equipped with wicks. The paintings themselves demonstrated a sophisticated knowledge about colour.

Other optical instruments of early discovery are metallic mirrors, which have been found inside an Egyptian mummy-case. By 2,000 B.C., the Egyptians had already mastered a technique of fabricating a metallic mirror. Except for the elaborate handle designs, the shape is similar to what might be found in the stores today.

1.2 Ideas Generated by Greek Philosophers

Greece started to shape up as a country around 750 B.C. as a collection of many small kingdoms. Greek colonies expanded all around the coast lines of the Mediterranean Sea and the Black Sea including Italy, Syria, Egypt, Persia and even northeast India [1.6].

A renowned Greek scientist, Thales (640–546 B.C.), was invited by Egyptian priests to measure the height of a pyramid [1.4]. For this big job, all that this brilliant man needed was a stick. He measured the height of the pyramid by using the proportion of the height of the stick to its shadow, as shown in Fig. 1.3. He also predicted the total solar eclipse that took place on May 28, 585 B.C.

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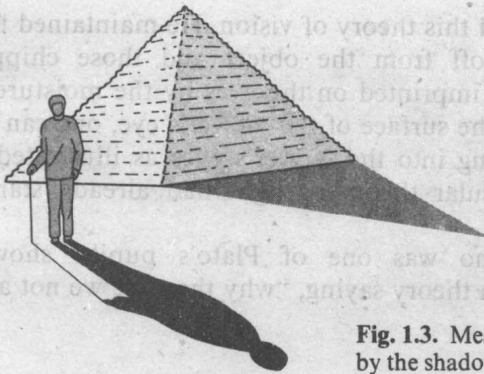


Fig. 1.3. Measurement of the height of a pyramid by the shadow of a stick

The greatest mathematician and physicist of all time, Euclid (315–250 B.C.), and his student Archimedes (287–212 B.C.) and many others were from the University of Alexandria in Egypt which was then a Greek colony. The “Elements of Geometry” written by Euclid has survived as a text book for at least twenty centuries. The progress of geometry has been inseparable from that of optics.

Democritus (460–370 B.C.), Plato (428–347 B.C.) and Euclid all shared similar ideas about vision. Their hypothesis was that the eyes emanate vision rays or eye rays and the returned rays create vision. Under

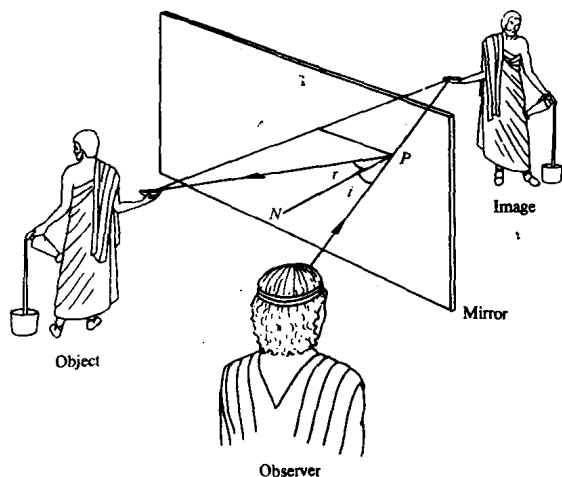


Fig. 1.4. Reversed direction of arrows as well as reversed designation of the incident and reflected angles

this hypothesis, vision operated on a principle similar to that of modern day radar or sonar. As a result of the concept of the eye ray, arrows indicating the direction of a ray always pointed away from the eye. Not only the direction of the arrows, but also the designation of the incident and reflected angles were reversed from what these are today, as illustrated in Fig. 1.4. As a matter of fact, it took fourteen hundred years before the direction of the arrows was reversed by Alhazen (around 965–1039) of Arabia in 1026.

Democritus further elaborated this theory of vision. He maintained that extremely small particles chip off from the object and those chipped particles form a replica which is imprinted on the eyes by the moisture in the eyes. His proof was that, on the surface of the viewer's eye, one can see a small replica of the object going into the viewer's eyes as illustrated in Fig. 1.5. The basis of a corpuscular theory of light had already started percolating at this early age.

Aristotle (384–322 B.C.), who was one of Plato's pupils, showed dissatisfaction about the emission theory saying, "why then are we not able to see in the dark?" [1.4, 7, 8].

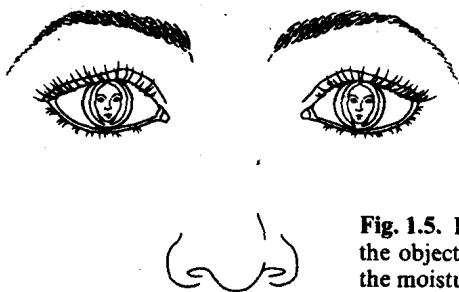


Fig. 1.5. Democritus (460–370 BC) said "a replica of the object is incident upon the eyes and is imprinted by the moisture of the eye"