



普通高等教育“十三五”规划教材
光电信息科学与工程类专业规划教材

光电信息科学与工程 专业英语教程

（第2版）

张彬 钟哲强 编著



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本书主要介绍光电类专业英语的基本词汇和语法，并结合有关几何光学、波动光学、信息光学及技术、激光原理及技术、光纤通信原理及技术、光电子器件、光电子技术等方面专业知识，培养学生专业文献阅读、翻译与科技论文写作的基本技能。

本书可作为光学、光信息科学与技术、光电子技术、光电信息工程等专业本科生和硕士生的专业英语教材，也可供从事相关专业工作的工程技术人员参考。



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内 容 简 介

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前 言

本书主要针对光学、光信息科学与技术、光电子技术、光电信息工程等专业本科生和硕士生开设专业英语课程而编写，旨在使学生掌握基础专业词汇，提高专业文献阅读和翻译能力，拓展和深化学生对本学科专业基础知识和相关技术的了解和认识。

全书由7个主题单元组成。

1. 几何光学知识和有关词汇。主要内容包括：反射和折射、成像、物像关系、透镜和成像分类、像差等。

2. 波动光学知识和有关词汇。主要内容包括：波、波的叠加、衍射、近场和远场、相干性、干涉、偏振等。

3. 信息光学及技术知识和有关词汇。主要内容包括：全息照相术原理、彩虹全息、数字全息、光信息处理、傅里叶变换光学、空间滤波等。

4. 激光原理及技术知识和有关词汇。主要内容包括：光放大、光学谐振腔、横模、纵模、高斯光束、脉冲放大、信号畸变、放大自发辐射、调Q技术、锁模技术、选模技术、频率控制技术、波长选择技术、激光应用技术等。

5. 光纤通信原理及技术知识和有关词汇。主要内容包括：光纤通信系统的发展、光纤结构、光纤损耗、光纤色散、光纤非线性、光纤中的光传输、光纤非线性的影响、全光网络等。

6. 光电子器件知识和有关词汇。主要内容包括：光学材料、光谱滤光片、集成光学元器件、光电探测器等。

7. 光电技术知识和词汇。主要内容包括：薄膜技术、光刻技术、光子生物学技术、显示技术、红外探测技术、增材制造、太赫兹技术及应用等。

每个单元后面列出了课文中新出现的专业词汇，以供学生积累专业词汇。此外，每个单元还介绍了科技英语阅读与翻译的相关知识，以帮助学生提高科技英语阅读和翻译能力。

书中课文主要选自相关专业的英文原版教材、专著及专业文献。

在本教材的编写过程中，作者的研究生黄人帅、凌芳、钟亚君同学付出了辛勤的汗水，在此表示衷心的感谢！

由于编者水平所限，书中难免有些疏漏和欠妥之处，敬请读者不吝赐教（zhangbinff@sohu.com）。

编 者

目 录

| | |
|---|------|
| Part 1 Ray Optics | (1) |
| 1.1 Refraction and Reflection | (1) |
| 1.1.1 Refraction | (1) |
| 1.1.2 Index of Refraction | (1) |
| 1.1.3 Reflection | (2) |
| 1.1.4 Total Internal Reflection | (2) |
| 1.1.5 Reflecting Prisms | (3) |
| 1.2 Imaging | (3) |
| 1.2.1 Spherical Surfaces | (3) |
| 1.2.2 Object-Image Relationship | (5) |
| 1.2.3 Use of the Sign Conventions | (6) |
| 1.2.4 Lens Equation | (6) |
| 1.2.5 Classification of Lenses and Images | (8) |
| 1.2.6 Spherical Mirrors | (8) |
| 1.2.7 Aberrations | (9) |
| Words and Expressions | (9) |
| Grammar 专业英语翻译方法(一): 英汉句法对比的总结 | (12) |
| Part 2 Wave Optics | (13) |
| 2.1 Waves | (13) |
| 2.1.1 Description of Waves | (13) |
| 2.1.2 Electromagnetic Waves | (14) |
| 2.1.3 Complex Exponential Functions | (15) |
| 2.2 Superposition of Waves | (15) |
| 2.3 Diffraction | (16) |
| 2.3.1 Huygens' Principle | (16) |
| 2.3.2 Single-Slit Diffraction | (17) |
| 2.3.3 Fresnel Diffraction | (18) |
| 2.3.4 Far and Near Field | (19) |
| 2.4 Interference | (19) |
| 2.4.1 Interference by Division of Wavefront | (19) |
| 2.4.2 Interference by Division of Amplitude | (21) |
| 2.4.3 Michelson Interferometer | (22) |
| 2.4.4 Fabry-Perot Interferometer | (23) |
| 2.5 Coherence | (24) |
| 2.6 Polarization | (25) |

| | |
|---|-------------|
| Words and Expressions | (27) |
| Grammar 专业英语翻译方法(二): 被动语态的译法 | (30) |
| Part 3 Holography and Fourier Optics | (33) |
| 3.1 Holography | (33) |
| 3.1.1 Principle of Holography | (33) |
| 3.1.2 Classification of Holograms | (34) |
| 3.1.3 Rainbow Holography | (35) |
| 3.1.4 Computer-generated Holography | (37) |
| 3.2 Wave-Optics Analysis of Optical Systems | (41) |
| 3.2.1 Lens as a Phase Transformation | (41) |
| 3.2.2 Frequency Analysis of Optical Imaging Systems | (44) |
| 3.3 Optical Processing | (47) |
| 3.3.1 Abbe Theory | (47) |
| 3.3.2 Fourier-Transform Optics | (49) |
| 3.3.3 Spatial Filtering | (50) |
| Words and Expressions | (50) |
| Grammar 专业英语翻译方法(三): 数字的译法 | (53) |
| Part 4 Lasers | (56) |
| 4.1 Amplification of Light | (56) |
| 4.2 Optical Resonators | (57) |
| 4.2.1 Longitudinal Modes | (57) |
| 4.2.2 Transverse Modes | (58) |
| 4.2.3 Gaussian Beams | (58) |
| 4.2.4 Resonator Configurations | (61) |
| 4.2.5 Stability of Laser Resonators | (62) |
| 4.3 Laser Amplifier | (63) |
| 4.3.1 Pulse Amplification | (63) |
| 4.3.2 Signal Distortion | (64) |
| 4.3.3 Amplified Spontaneous Emission | (65) |
| 4.4 Laser Techniques | (67) |
| 4.4.1 Q-Switching | (67) |
| 4.4.2 Mode Locking | (68) |
| 4.4.3 Mode Selecting | (69) |
| 4.4.4 Frequency Control | (70) |
| 4.4.5 Wavelength Selection | (71) |
| 4.5 Laser Applications | (72) |
| 4.5.1 Laser in Military | (72) |
| 4.5.2 Laser in Medicine | (76) |
| 4.5.3 Laser in Industry | (78) |

| | | |
|---------------|---|--------------|
| 4.5.4 | Laser Cooling | (79) |
| 4.5.5 | Laser in Daily Life | (80) |
| | Words and Expressions | (81) |
| | Grammar 专业英语翻译方法(四): 定语从句的译法 | (85) |
| Part 5 | Optical Fiber Communication | (88) |
| 5.1 | Development of Optical Communication System | (88) |
| 5.2 | Optical Fiber Characteristics | (89) |
| 5.2.1 | Optical Losses | (90) |
| 5.2.2 | Chromatic Dispersion | (90) |
| 5.2.3 | Fiber Nonlinearities | (92) |
| 5.3 | Propagation of Optical Beam in Fiber | (93) |
| 5.3.1 | Mode Characteristics | (94) |
| 5.3.2 | Optical Pulse Propagation and Pulse Spreading in Fibers | (95) |
| 5.3.3 | Dispersion Management | (96) |
| 5.3.4 | Solitons | (97) |
| 5.4 | Impact of Fiber Nonlinearities | (97) |
| 5.4.1 | Stimulated Brillouin Scattering | (98) |
| 5.4.2 | Stimulated Raman Scattering | (99) |
| 5.4.3 | Self-Phase Modulation | (100) |
| 5.4.4 | Cross-Phase Modulation | (101) |
| 5.4.5 | Four-Wave Mixing | (102) |
| 5.5 | All Optical Network | (103) |
| 5.5.1 | Components | (104) |
| 5.5.2 | Modulations and Demodulations | (107) |
| 5.5.3 | WDM Network Design | (110) |
| | Words and Expressions | (111) |
| | Grammar 专业英语翻译方法(五): 名词的译法 | (115) |
| Part 6 | Optical Components | (117) |
| 6.1 | Optical Media | (117) |
| 6.1.1 | Optical Glasses | (117) |
| 6.1.2 | Crystalline Optical Media | (117) |
| 6.1.3 | Optical Plastics | (118) |
| 6.2 | Spectral Filters | (118) |
| 6.2.1 | Filtering Characteristics | (118) |
| 6.2.2 | Absorption Filters | (119) |
| 6.2.3 | Thin-Film Filters | (120) |
| 6.2.4 | Miscellaneous Filter | (121) |
| 6.3 | Integrated Optics | (122) |
| 6.3.1 | Manufacturing | (123) |

| | | |
|---------------|---|--------------|
| 6.3.2 | Propagation in a Waveguide | (124) |
| 6.3.3 | Coupling of Wave Energy | (125) |
| 6.3.4 | Components | (126) |
| 6.4 | Photoelectric and Thermal Detectors | (128) |
| 6.4.1 | Phototubes | (128) |
| 6.4.2 | Gaseous Amplification and Gas Photodiodes | (129) |
| 6.4.3 | Photoconductive Detectors | (130) |
| 6.4.4 | Image Detectors | (131) |
| 6.4.5 | Thermal Detectors | (132) |
| 6.4.6 | Comparison of Detectors | (132) |
| | Words and Expressions | (133) |
| | Grammar 专业英语翻译方法(六): 状语从句的译法 | (138) |
| Part 7 | Applied Techniques | (140) |
| 7.1 | Optical Thin Film Technology | (140) |
| 7.1.1 | Design of Optical Thin Film | (140) |
| 7.1.2 | Deposition of Optical Thin Film | (143) |
| 7.2 | Photolithography | (145) |
| 7.2.1 | Basic Procedure | (145) |
| 7.2.2 | New Trend of Photolithography | (147) |
| 7.3 | Biophotonics | (149) |
| 7.3.1 | Bioimaging | (150) |
| 7.3.2 | Optical Biosensors | (152) |
| 7.3.3 | Microarray Technology for Genomics and Proteomics | (154) |
| 7.3.4 | Light-Activated Therapy: Photodynamic Therapy | (155) |
| 7.3.5 | Nanotechnology for Biophotonics: Bionanophotonics | (156) |
| 7.4 | 3D Display Technology | (159) |
| 7.4.1 | Classification of 3D Display Technology | (159) |
| 7.4.2 | Aided-viewing | (160) |
| 7.4.3 | Free Viewing | (161) |
| 7.5 | Infrared Detection Technology | (163) |
| 7.5.1 | Active Infrared Detection Technology | (164) |
| 7.5.2 | Passive Infrared Detection Technology | (165) |
| 7.5.3 | General Discussion of Thermal IR Remote Sensing | (167) |
| 7.6 | Additive Manufacturing | (169) |
| 7.6.1 | The Generic Process of Additive Manufacturing | (169) |
| 7.6.2 | Associated Technologies | (171) |
| 7.6.3 | Business Opportunities and Future Directions | (174) |
| 7.7 | Terahertz Techniques and Applications | (174) |
| 7.7.1 | Terahertz Sources | (175) |

| | | |
|-------------------|---|--------------|
| 7.7.2 | Terahertz Detectors | (178) |
| 7.7.3 | Terahertz Metamaterials | (180) |
| 7.7.4 | Terahertz Technologies for Applications | (181) |
| | Words and Expressions | (184) |
| Grammar | 专业英语翻译方法(七):介词和介词短语的译法 | (195) |
| Part 8 | How to Write Scientific Papers | (198) |
| 8.1 | 英语科技论文的主体结构及其要点 | (198) |
| 8.2 | 英语科技论文的写作技巧 | (199) |
| Grammar | 专业英语翻译方法(八):非限定动词的译法 | (201) |
| References | | (204) |

Part 1 Ray Optics

In this part, we treat light beams as rays that propagate along straight lines, except at interfaces between dissimilar materials, where the rays may be bent or refracted. This approach, which had been assumed to be completely accurate before the discovery of the wave nature of light, leads to a great many useful results regarding lens optics and optical instruments.

1.1 Refraction and Reflection

1.1.1 Refraction

When a light ray strikes a smooth interface between two transparent media at an angle, it is refracted. Each medium may be characterized by an index of refraction n , which is a useful parameter for describing the sharpness of the refraction at the interface. The index of refraction of air (more precisely, of free space) is arbitrarily taken to be one, n is most conveniently regarded as a parameter whose value is determined by experiment. We know now that the physical significance of n is that the ratio of the velocity of light in vacuo to that in the medium.

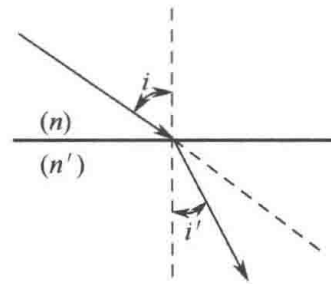


Fig.1.1 Refraction at an interface

Suppose that the ray is incident on the interface, as shown in Fig.1.1. It is refracted in such a way that

$$n \sin i = n' \sin i' \quad (1.1)$$

no matter what the inclination of the incident ray to the surface, n is the index of refraction of the first medium, n' that of the second. The angle of incidence i is the angle between the incident ray and the normal to the surface; the angle of refraction i' is the angle between the refracted ray and the normal.

1.1.2 Index of Refraction

Most common optical materials are transparent in the visible region of the spectrum, whose wavelength ranges from 400 to 700nm. They exhibit strong absorption at shorter wavelengths, usually 200nm and below.

The refractive index of a given material is not independent of wavelength, but generally increases slightly with decreasing wavelength (Near the absorption edge at 200 nm, the index of glass increases sharply). This phenomenon is known as dispersion. Dispersion can be used to

display a spectrum with a prism; it also gives rise to unwanted variations of lens properties with wavelength. Table 1.1 gives typical index of refraction of several materials.

Tab.1.1 Index of refraction of several materials

| Material | Index of refraction | Material | Index of refraction |
|--------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|
| air | 1.0003 | sodium chloride | 1.54 |
| water | 1.33 | light flint glass | 1.57 |
| magnesium fluoride | 1.38 | Sapphire | 1.77 |
| vitreous silica | 1.46 | extra-dense flint glass | 1.73 |
| Pyrex glass | 1.47 | carbon disulfide | 1.62 |
| Methanol | 1.33 | zinc sulfide (thin film) | 2.3 |
| xylene | 1.50 | medium flint glass | 1.63 |
| ethanol | 1.36 | titanium dioxide (thin film) | 2.4~2.9 |
| crown glass | 1.52 | heaviest flint glass | 1.89 |
| benzene | 1.50 | Canada balsam (center) | 1.53 |

Optical glasses are generally specified both by index n and by a quantity known as dispersion ν ,

$$\nu = \frac{n_F - n_C}{n_D - 1} \quad (1.2)$$

The subscripts F , D and C refer to the indexes at certain short, middle and long wavelengths (blue, yellow, red).

1.1.3 Reflection

Certain highly polished metal surfaces and other interfaces may reflect all or nearly all of the light falling on the surface. In addition, ordinary, transparent glasses reflect a few percent of the incident light and transmit the rest.

The angle of incidence is i and the angle of reflection i' . Experiment shows that the angles of incidence and reflection are equal, except in a very few peculiar cases, as shown in Fig.1.2.

We shall later adopt the convention that i is positive; that is, if the acute angle opens counterclockwise from the normal to the ray, i is positive. The sign of i' is clearly opposite to that of i . We therefore write the law of reflection as

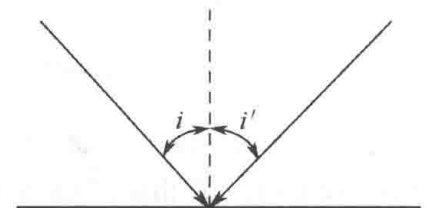


Fig.1.2 Reflection at an interface

$$i' = -i \quad (1.3)$$

1.1.4 Total Internal Reflection

Here we consider a ray that strikes an interface from the high-index side, say, from glass to air (not air to glass). This is known as internal reflection. The law of refraction shows that the incident ray is in this case bent away from the normal when it crosses the interface, as shown in Fig.1.3.

Thus, there will be some angle of incidence for which the refracted ray will travel just parallel to the interface. In this case, $i' = 90^\circ$, so the law of refraction becomes

$$n \sin i_c = n' \sin 90^\circ \quad (1.4)$$

where i_c is known as the critical angle. Since $\sin 90^\circ = 1$,

$$\sin i_c = n' / n \quad (1.5)$$

If i exceeds i_c , then $n \sin i > n'$, and the law of refraction demands that $\sin i'$ exceed 1. Because this is impossible, we can conclude only that there can be no refracted ray in such cases. The light cannot simply vanish, so we are not surprised that it must be wholly reflected; this is indeed the case. The phenomenon is known as total internal reflection; it occurs whenever

$$i > \arcsin(n' / n) \quad (1.6)$$

The reflected light, of course, obeys the law of reflection.

For a typical glass-air interface, $n=1.5$, the critical angle is about 42° . Glass prisms that exhibit total reflection are therefore commonly used as mirrors with angles of incidence of about 45° .

1.1.5 Reflecting Prisms

There are different types of reflecting prism. The most common are prisms whose cross sections are right isosceles triangles. One advantage of a prism over a metal-coated mirror is that its reflectance is nearly 100% if the surfaces normal to the light are antireflection coated. Further, the prism's properties do not change as the prism ages, whereas metallic mirrors are subject to oxidation and are relatively easy to scratch. A glass prism is sufficiently durable that it can withstand all but the most intense laser beams. Fig.1.4 shows a prism being used in place of a plane mirror.

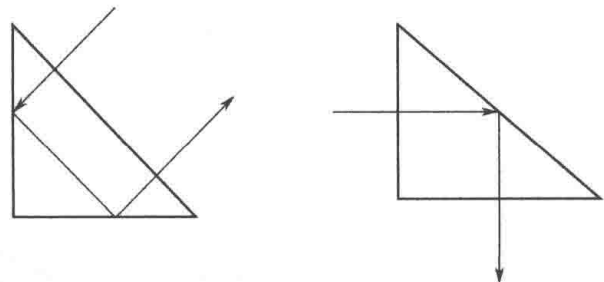


Fig.1.4 Reflecting prisms

In imaging-forming systems, these prisms must be used in collimated light beams to avoid introducing defects into the optical image.

1.2 Imaging

1.2.1 Spherical Surfaces

Because a simple lens consists of a piece of glass with, in general, two spherical surfaces, we will find it necessary to examine some of the properties of a single, spherical refracting surface. We will for brevity call such a surface, as shown in Fig.1.5, a "len". Two of these form a lens. To avoid confusion, we will always place "len" in quotes.

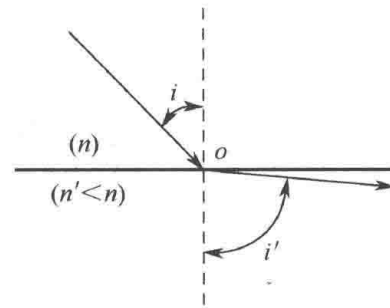


Fig.1.3 Refraction near the critical angle

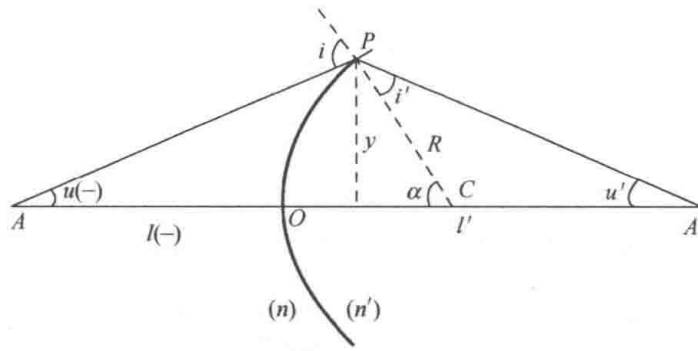


Fig.1.5 Spherical refracting surface

We are interested in the imaging property of the ‘len’. We consider a bright point A and define the axis along the line AC, where C is the center of the spherical surface. We examine a particular ray AP that strikes the ‘len’ at P. We shall be interested in the point A’ where this ray intersects the axis.

Before proceeding any further, we must adopt a sign convention. The choice of convention is, of course, arbitrary, but once we choose a convention, we shall have to stick with it. The convention we adopt appears, at first, quite complicated. We choose it at least in part because it is universally applicable; with it we will not need to derive a special convention for spherical mirrors.

To begin, imagine a set of Cartesian coordinate axes centered at O. Distances are measured from O. Distances measured from O to the right are positive; those measured from O to the left are negative. Thus, for example, OA’ and OC are positive, whereas OA is negative. Similarly, distances measured above the axis are positive; those below are negative. This is our first sign convention.

We now adopt a convention for the signs of angles such as OAP or OA’P. We determine their signs by trigonometry. For example, the tangent of angle OAP is approximately

$$\tan OAP \approx y/OA \quad (1.7)$$

where y is the distance indicated between P and the axis. Our previous convention shows that y is positive, and OA, negative. Thus, tan OAP is negative and so is OAP itself. Similarly, OA’P and OCP are positive.

This is our second sign convention. An equivalent statement is that angle OA’P (for example) is positive if it opens clockwise from the axis, or negative otherwise. It is probably simplest, however, merely to remember that angle OAP is negative as drawn in Fig.1.5.

Finally, we deal with angles of incidence and refraction, such as angle CPA’. It is most convenient to define CPA’ to be positive as shown in Fig.1.5. The angle of incidence or refraction is positive if it opens counterclockwise from the normal (which is, in this case, the radius of the spherical surface) .

Unfortunately, when the last convention is expressed in this way, the statement differs from that which refers to angles (such as OAP) formed by a ray crossing the axis. It is best to learn the sign convention by remembering the signs of all of the important angles in Fig.1.5. Only angle OAP is negative.

Let us now assign symbols to the more important quantities in Fig.1.5. The point A’ is located a distance l’ to the right of O, and the ray intersects the axis at A’ with angle u’. The radius R through the point P makes angle alpha with the axis. The angles of incidence and refraction are i and i’, respectively.

We must be careful of the signs of OA and angle OAP, both of which are negative according to

our sign convention. This is indicated in Fig.1.5 with parenthetical minus signs. We shall later find it necessary, after a derivation based on geometry alone, to go through our formulas and change the signs of all quantities that are algebraically negative. This is so because our sign convention is not used in ordinary geometry. To make our formulas both algebraically and numerically correct, we must introduce our sign convention, which we do as indicated, by changing signs appropriately.

1.2.2 Object-Image Relationship

We now attempt to find a relationship between the quantities l and l' for a given geometry. First, we relate angle u and i to angle α . The three angles in triangle PAC are u , α and $\pi-i$. Because the sum of these angles must be π , we have

$$u + \alpha + (\pi - i) = \pi \quad (1.8)$$

or
$$i = \alpha + u \quad (1.9)$$

Similarly
$$i' = \alpha - u' \quad (1.10)$$

At this point, it is convenient to make the paraxial approximation, namely, the approximation that the ray AP remains sufficiently close to the axis that angles u , u' , i and i' are so small that their sines or tangents can be replaced by their arguments; that is

$$\sin \theta = \tan \theta = \theta \quad (1.11)$$

where θ is measured in radians.

It is difficult to draw rays that nearly coincide with the axis, so we redraw Fig.1.5 by expanding the vertical axis a great amount, leaving the horizontal axis intact. The vertical axis has been stretched so much that the surface looks like a plane. In addition, because only one axis has been expanded, all angles are greatly distorted and can be discussed only in terms of their tangents. Thus, for example,

$$u = y/l \quad (1.12)$$

and
$$u' = y/l' \quad (1.13)$$

in paraxial approximation. Note also that large angles are distorted. Although the radius is normal to the surface, it does not look normal in the paraxial approximation.

To return to the problem at hand, the law of refraction is

$$ni = n'i' \quad (1.14)$$

in paraxial approximation, from which we write

$$n(\alpha + u) = n'(\alpha - u') \quad (1.15)$$

Because $OC=R$, we write α as

$$\alpha = y/R \quad (1.16)$$

The last equation therefore becomes

$$n\left(\frac{y}{R} + \frac{y}{l}\right) = n'\left(\frac{y}{R} - \frac{y}{l'}\right) \quad (1.17)$$

A factor of y is common to every term and therefore cancels. We rewrite this relation as

$$\frac{n'}{l'} + \frac{n}{l} = \frac{n' - n}{R} \quad (1.18)$$

At this point, we have made no mention of the sign convention. We derived the preceding equation on the basis of geometry alone. According to our sign convention, all of the terms in the equation are positive, except l , which is negative. To make the equation algebraically correct, we must, therefore, change the sign of the term containing l . This change alters the equation to

$$\frac{n'}{l'} - \frac{n}{l} = \frac{n' - n}{R} \quad (1.19)$$

which we refer to as the “len” equation.

There is no dependence on y in the “len” equation. Thus, in paraxial approximation, every ray leaving A (and striking the surface) crosses the axis at A' . We therefore refer to A' as the image of A . A and A' are called conjugate points, and the object distance l and image distance l' are called conjugates.

Had we not made the paraxial approximation, the y dependence of the image point would not have vanished. Rays that struck the lens at large values of y would not cross the axis precisely at A' . The dependence on y is relatively small, so we would still refer to A' as the image point. We say that the image suffers from aberrations if all of the geometrical rays do not cross the axis within a specified distance of A' .

1.2.3 Use of the Sign Conventions

A word of warning with regard to the signs in algebraic expression: Because of the sign convention adopted here, derivations based solely on geometry will not necessarily result in the correct sign for a given term. There are two ways to correct this defect. The first, to carry a minus sign before the symbol of each negative quantity, is too cumbersome and confusing for general use. Thus, we adopt the second, which is to go through the final formula and change the sign of each negative quantity. This procedure has already been adopted in connection with the “len” equation and is necessary, as noted, to make the formula algebraically correct. It is important, though, not to change the signs until the final step, lest some signs be altered twice.

1.2.4 Lens Equation

A thin lens consists merely of two successive spherical refracting surfaces with a very small separation between them. Fig.1.6 shows a thin lens in air. The index of the lens is n . The two refracting surfaces have radii R_1 and R_2 , both of which are drawn positive.

We can derive an equation that relates the object distance l and the image distance l' by considering the behavior of the two surfaces separately. The first surface alone would project an image of point A to a point A'_1 . If A'_1 is located at a distance l'_1 to the right of the first surface, the “len” equation shows that, in paraxial approximation,

$$\frac{n}{l'_1} - \frac{1}{l} = \frac{n-1}{R_1} \quad (1.20)$$

because n is the index of the glass (second medium) and 1, the index of the air.

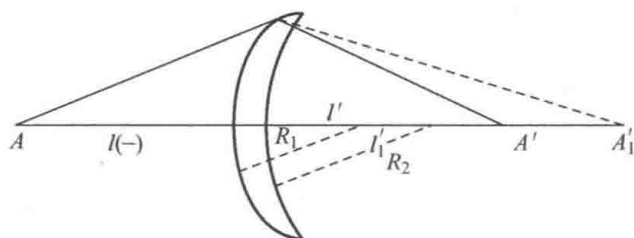


Fig.1.6 Thin lens

The ray does not ever reach A_1' , because it is intercepted by the second surface. The second surface, however, behaves as if an object were located at A_1' . The object distance is l_1' , if we neglect the thickness of the lens. In applying the “len” equation to the second surface, we must realize that the ray travels across the interface from glass to air. Thus n is the index of the first medium and 1, that of the second. The final image point A' is also the image projected by the lens as a whole. If we call the corresponding image distance l' , then the “len” equation yields

$$\frac{1}{l'} - \frac{n}{l_1'} = \frac{1-n}{R_2} \quad (1.21)$$

for the second surface.

If we add the last two equations algebraically, we find that

$$\frac{1}{l'} - \frac{1}{l} = (n-1) \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right) \quad (1.22)$$

which is known as the lens-maker's formula. The lens-maker's formula was derived from the “len” equation by algebra alone. There are no signs to change because that step was included in the derivation of the “len” equation.

We may define a quantity f' whose reciprocal is equal to the right-hand side of the lens-maker's formula,

$$\frac{1}{f'} = (n-1) \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right) \quad (1.23)$$

The lens-maker's formula may then be written as

$$\frac{1}{l'} - \frac{1}{l} = \frac{1}{f'} \quad (1.24)$$

where f' is the focal length of the lens. We call this equation the lens equation.

We may see the significance of f' in the following way. If the object is infinitely distant from the lens, then $l = -\infty$. The lens equation then shows that the image distance is equal to f' . If the object is located along the axis of the lens, the image also falls on the axis. We call the image point in this case the secondary focal point F' . Note that any ray that travels parallel to the axis is directed by the lens through F' , an observation that we will later find particularly useful.

We define the primary focal point F in a similar way. The primary focal length f is the object distance for which $l' = \infty$. Thus, the lens equation shows that

$$f' = -f \quad (1.25)$$

the primary and secondary focal lengths have equal magnitudes. Any ray that passes through F will be directed by the lens parallel to the axis.

Finally, we note that, in the general case, a lens may have different media on opposite sides. In this case, the lens equation may be shown to be