Chapter B.3

The Cooke Triplet and Tessar Lenses

Following the introduction of photography in 1839, the development of camera lenses progressed in an evolutionary way with occasional revolutions. Almost immediately, the singlet meniscus Landscape lens was achromatized, thus becoming a cemented doublet meniscus. Soon afterward, pairs of either singlet or doublet menisci were combined symmetrically about a stop. The most successful of the double-doublets was the Rapid Rectilinear lens, introduced in 1866. This use of symmetry was then further extended to pairs of menisci, with each meniscus consisting of three, four, or even five elements cemented together. The most successful of these lenses was the Dagor, a double-triplet (six elements), introduced in 1892. The Dagor and some of its variants are still in use today.

The first revolution or major innovation occurred in 1840 by Joseph Petzval with his introduction of mathematically designed lenses. Petzval's most famous lens is the Petzval Portrait lens. The Petzval lens is not symmetrical and has major aberrations off-axis (most noticeably, field curvature). Nevertheless, in 1840 it was an immediate success, not least because at f/3.6 it was 20 times faster (transmitted 20 times more light) than the f/16 Landscape lens, its only competition at the time. Petzval type lenses were widely used until well into the twentieth century, and they are sometimes still encountered, especially in projectors.

The second revolution, which began in 1886, was the development of new types of optical glass, especially the high-index crowns. These glasses made possible the first anastigmatic lenses; that is, lenses with astigmatism corrected on a flat field.

The third revolution was the invention by H. Dennis Taylor in 1893 of the Cooke Triplet lens (Cooke was Taylor's employer). A Cooke Triplet consists of two positive singlet elements and one negative singlet element, all of which can be thin. Two sizable airspaces separate the three elements. The negative element is located in the middle about halfway between the positive elements, thus maintaining a large amount of symmetry. By this approach, Taylor found that he could accomplish with only three elements what others required six, eight, or ten ele-

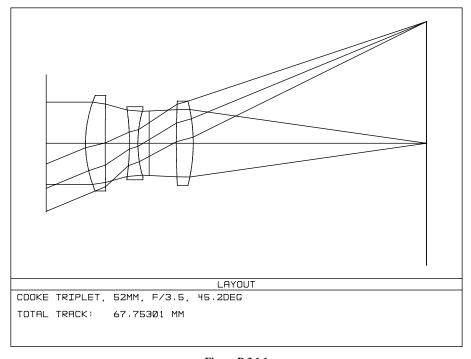


Figure B.3.1.1

ments to do when using pairs of cemented menisci. After more than a century, the Cooke Triplet remains one of the most popular camera lens forms.

The design and performance of a Cooke Triplet is the main subject of this chapter. The construction of a Cooke Triplet is illustrated in Figure B.3.1.1. Also included here for comparison is a Tessar lens, which can be considered a derivative and extension of the Cooke Triplet (although Paul Rudolph designed the first Tessar in 1902 as a modification of an earlier anastigmat, the Protar).

The development of camera lenses has continued unabated to this day, with a huge number of evolutionary advances and several more revolutions (most notably, anti-reflection coatings and computer-aided optimization). The reader is encouraged to become familiar with optical history. It is a fascinating story.

B.3.1 Lens Specifications

The lenses in this chapter are normal or standard lenses for a 35 mm type still (not movie) camera with the object at infinity. Note that 35 mm refers to the phys-

¹ Optical history is discussed in many of the references listed in the bibliography. Three particularly good sources are: Rudolf Kingslake, *A History of the Photographic Lens*; Henry C. King, *The History of the Telescope*; and Joseph Ashbrook, *The Astronomical Scrapbook*.

ical width of the film, not to the image size, which is only 24 mm wide (and 36 mm long). This image size was chosen for the first Leica camera in 1924 and has been the standard ever since. The remaining film area is occupied by two sets of sprocket holes, a vestige from its origin as a motion picture film (where the image is only 18 mm long).

As mentioned in the previous chapter, a normal lens gives normal-perspective photographs and has a focal length roughly equal to the image format diameter or diagonal. At 24x36 mm, the diagonal of the 35 mm format is 43.3 mm. However, the lens on the first Leica had a focal length of 50 mm, and again this value has become standard. Actually, most normal lenses for 35 mm cameras are deliberately designed to have a focal length even a bit longer still. Thus, although the nominal focal length engraved on the lens barrel is 50 mm, the true focal length is often closer to 52 mm. Thus, 52.0 mm is adopted as the focal length for the lenses in this chapter. This focal length is longer than the format diagonal, but it is close enough.

Given this focal length and image format, the diagonal field of view (from corner to corner) is 45.2° , or $\pm 22.6^{\circ}$. Four field positions are used during optimization and evaluation: 0° , 9° , 15.8° , and 22.6° (or 0, 40%, 70%, and 100% of half-field). Object 1 is in the field center, object 4 is at the distance of the format corner, object 3 is at the distance of one side of an equivalent square format, and object 2 is slightly greater than halfway between objects 1 and 3. Of course, for an ordinary camera lens, the field (image surface) is flat.

For a photographic Cooke Triplet covering this angular view, it is usually not practical to increase speed beyond about f/3.5. Triplets with focal lengths of 52 mm and speeds of f/3.5 are widely manufactured and used with success. Thus, f/3.5 is adopted here.

During optimization, no special emphasis is given to the center of the pupil to the detriment of the pupil edges. To increase performance when stopped down, the lens is optimized and used on the paraxial focal plane. At the edge of the field, a reasonable amount of mechanical vignetting is allowed. Distortion is corrected to zero at the edge of the field.

Five wavelengths are used during optimization and evaluation. Because most films are sensitive to wavelengths between about 0.40 μ m and 0.70 μ m, the five wavelengths are: 0.45, 0.50, 0.55, 0.60, and 0.65 μ m. For panchromatic film sensitivity, these wavelengths are weighted equally. The reference wavelength for calculating first-order properties and solves is the central wavelength, 0.55 μ m.

And finally, the performance criterion for the optimized lens is diffraction MTF; that is, the form of MTF with both diffraction and aberrations included.

B.3.2 Degrees of Freedom

The Cooke Triplet is a very interesting optical configuration.² Refer again to

Figure B.3.1.1. There are exactly eight effective independent variables or degrees of freedom available for the control of optical properties. These major variables are six lens surface curvatures and two interelement airspaces. The six curvatures can also be viewed as three lens powers and three lens bendings.

Recall that there are seven basic or primary aberrations (first-order longitudinal and lateral color, and the five monochromatic third-order Seidel aberrations). Thus, the Cooke Triplet has just enough effective independent variables to correct all first- and third-order aberrations plus focal length.

Although the airspaces in a Cooke Triplet are effective variables, the glass thicknesses are unfortunately only weak, ineffective variables that somewhat duplicate the airspaces. The glass center thicknesses are usually arbitrarily chosen for ease of fabrication.

The three glass choices can also be viewed as variables (or index and dispersion variable pairs). But the range of available glasses is limited, and the requirements of achromatization further restrict the glasses. In practice, the role of glass selection is to determine which of a multitude of possible optical solutions you get.

Stop shift is not a degree of freedom. A Cooke Triplet is nearly symmetrical about the middle element, which makes aberration control much easier. To retain as much symmetry as possible, the stop is either at the middle element or just to one side. A slightly separated stop allows the stop to be a variable iris diaphragm for changing the f/number. Locating the iris to the rear of the middle element, rather than to the front, is more common, although both work. In the present example, the stop is 2 mm behind the middle element.

With only eight effective variables, there are no variables available for controlling the higher-order monochromatic aberrations that will inevitably be present. Although it is possible in a Cooke Triplet to correct all seven first- and third-order aberrations exactly to zero, in practice this is never done. Controlled amounts of third-order aberrations are always deliberately left in to balance the fifth- and higher-orders. However, there is a limit to how well this cancellation works. Thus, Cooke Triplets are usually restricted to applications requiring only moderate speed and field coverage; that is, where there are only moderate amounts of fifth- and higher-order aberrations. For higher performance, a lens configuration with a larger number of effective degrees of freedom is needed.

² For those interested in the more analytical aspects of designing a Cooke Triplet lens, see the excellent discussions in: Warren J. Smith, *Modern Optical Engineering*, second edition, pp. 384-390; Warren J. Smith, *Modern Lens Design*, pp. 123-146; and Rudolf Kingslake, *Lens Design Fundamentals*, pp. 286-295. These three books are also highly recommended for their discussions of many other topics in optics.

B.3.3 Glass Selection

A Cooke Triplet is an achromat. Thus, as discussed in Chapter B.1, each of the two positive elements must be made of a crown type glass (lower dispersion or higher Abbe number), and the negative element must be made of a flint type glass (higher dispersion or lower Abbe number).

For practical reasons, and with no loss of performance, both positive crown elements are usually made of the same glass type, and this will be done here.

The sizes of the airspaces in a Cooke Triplet are a strong function of the dispersion difference between the crown and flint glasses. A dispersion difference that is too small causes the lens elements to be jammed up against each other, and there are also large aberrations. Conversely, a dispersion difference that is too large causes the system to be excessively stretched out, and again there are large aberrations. One value of dispersion difference produces airspaces of the right size to yield a good optical solution. Fortunately, the required dispersion difference can be satisfied by the range of actual available glasses on the glass map.

The difference in n_d index of refraction between the crown and flint glasses also enters into the optical solution. To help reduce the Petzval sum to flatten the field, the positive elements should be made of a higher-index crown glass, and the negative element should be made of a somewhat lower-index flint glass.

To make this an exercise in determining the capability of the Cooke Triplet design form, all the more or less normal glass types will be allowed. This includes all the expensive high-index lanthanum glasses. Glass cost should not be a driving issue here because the lens elements are quite small and require only small amounts of glass. Optical and machine shop fabrication costs should be much more important than glass cost. However, this is not true for all types of lenses; the relative importance of glass cost gets greater as element sizes get larger. Note that no attempt is made here to reduce secondary color, and thus the abnormal-dispersion glasses are excluded.

Experience has shown that high-index crown glasses generally give better image quality. Not only is the Petzval sum reduced, but high indices yield lower surface curvatures that in turn reduce the higher-order aberrations. Because there are relatively few high-index crowns on the glass map, the usual procedure when selecting glasses for a Cooke Triplet is to first select the crown glass type, and to then select the matching flint glass type from among the many possibilities.

Refer back to the glass map in Figure A.10.2. Note that the boundary of the highest-index crowns is a nearly straight line on the upper left side extending from (in the Schott catalog) about SK16 (n_d of 1.620, V_d of 60.3) to about LaSFN31 (n_d of 1.881, V_d of 41.0). Although the top of this line extends well into the nominally flint glasses, the glasses along the top can function as crown glasses because they are more crowny than the very flinty dense SF glasses with which they would be paired.

The candidate crown glasses are therefore located along the line bounding the upper left of the populated region of the glass map. An excellent crown glass of very high index is Schott LaFN21 (n_d of 1.788, V_d of 47.5). Although not the most extreme high-index crown, LaFN21 is widely used and practical. Thus, LaFN21 is adopted here.

Given the crown glass selection, the basic optical design requires a matching flint having a certain dispersion difference and a low index. However, there is a limit to how low the flint index can be. This limit is the arc bordering the right and bottom of the populated region of the glass map (again see Figure A.10.2). This arc is called the old glass line. Thus, it is from the glasses along the old glass line that the flint glass of a Cooke Triplet is usually selected.

For early optimizations, make a guess at the flint glass type. Fortunately, your guess does not have to be very good because it will soon be revised. Accordingly, Schott SF15 (n_d of 1.699, V_d of 30.1), a glass on the old glass line with an index somewhat lower than LaFN21, is provisionally adopted.

For intermediate optimizations, the same crown glass selection, LaFN21, is retained, but a more optimum flint glass match must now be made. One way to find the best flint is to let flint glass type be a variable during optimization and let the computer make the selection. However, because some lens design programs may have difficulty handling variable glasses, a manual approach may be more effective, and also more revealing to the lens designer.

Using the manual approach, select several likely flint glass candidates from along the old glass line to combine with LaFN21. For each combination, optimize the Cooke Triplet with the intermediate merit function. Flint glasses down and to the left on the glass line will yield lenses with smaller airspaces; flints up and to the right will yield larger airspaces. Adjust the apertures to give roughly the required amount of vignetting. For each of the combinations, tabulate the value of the merit function and look at the layout and ray fan plot. The best glass pair will show a practical layout and have the lowest value of the merit function.

In the present Cooke Triplet example with the two crown elements made of Schott LaFN21 (n_d of 1.788, V_d of 47.5), the matching glass for the flint element is found to be, not SF15 (n_d of 1.699, V_d of 30.1) as was first guessed, but Schott SF53 (n_d of 1.728, V_d of 28.7). Both LaFN21 and SF53 are among Schott's preferred glass types.

B.3.4 Flattening the Field

When choosing glasses, it is important to consider the Petzval sum. Refer again to the discussion of Petzval sum in Chapter A.9. Recall that the Petzval sum gives the curvature of the Petzval surface, and that (when only considering astigmatism and field curvature) the Petzval surface is the best image surface when astigmatism is zero.

Thus, for a lens with little astigmatism, the Petzval sum must be made small to flatten the field. However, the sum need not be exactly zero because leaving in a small amount of Petzval curvature allows field-dependent defocus to be added to the off-axis aberration cancelling mix. The important thing is that the Petzval sum must be controllable during optimization.

For thin lens elements, the contribution to the Petzval sum by a given element goes directly as element power and inversely as element index of refraction. In a multi-element lens with an overall positive focal length, the elements with positive power necessarily predominate. Thus the Petzval sum will naturally tend to be sizable and negative, thereby giving an inward curving field (image surface concave to the light).

There are in general two ways to reduce the Petzval sum to flatten the field. They are: (1) glass selection and (2) axial separation of positive and negative optical powers. In practice, both ways are usually used together. As was mentioned in the previous section, the first way, glass selection, requires that the two positive elements of a Cooke Triplet be made of higher-index glass to give decreased negative Petzval contributions, and the negative element be made of lower-index glass to give an increased positive contribution. The second way, separation of powers, requires that the positive and negative elements be separated in a manner that causes the power of the negative element to be increased relative to the powers of the positive elements. The relatively larger negative power then gives a relatively larger positive Petzval contribution that reduces the Petzval sum.

To visualize how the second method works to flatten the field, examine the path of the upper marginal ray (for the on-axis object) as it passes through the optimized Cooke Triplet in Figure B.3.1.1. Note that the height of the ray is less on the middle negative element than on the front positive element, and consequently the ray slope is negative (downward) in the intervening front airspace. If the front airspace is made larger, and assuming the ray slope is roughly unchanged, then the height of the marginal ray on the middle element is reduced. But this reduced ray height requires that the middle element be given greater power (stronger curvatures) to bend the marginal ray by the angle necessary to give the required positive (upward) ray slope in the rear airspace. This use of airspaces is how the relative power of the negative element of a Cooke Triplet is increased to reduce the Petzval sum. The effect is greater as the airspaces are increased and the lens is stretched out.

Note that this reasoning applies to other lens types too. It even applies to lenses having thick meniscus elements. With a thick meniscus, there is again an axial separation of positive and negative powers. Now, however, the separation is between two surfaces on the same element, rather than between two different elements. Instead of an airspace, it is now a glass-space. Flattening the field with thick meniscus elements is called the thick-meniscus principle.

B.3.5 Vignetting

Like the vast majority of camera lenses, this Cooke Triplet example is to have mechanical vignetting of the off-axis pupils. Recall that mechanical vignetting is caused by undersized clear apertures on surfaces other than the stop surface, and these apertures selectively clip off-axis beams. Mechanical vignetting is useful for two reasons. First, the smaller lens elements reduce size, weight, and cost. Second and more fundamental, vignetting allows a better optical solution.

Most camera lenses of at least moderate speed and field coverage suffer from secondary and higher-order aberrations, both chromatic and monochromatic. Three prominent examples of secondary aberrations are secondary longitudinal color, secondary lateral color, and spherochromatism (chromatic variation of spherical aberration). Higher-order aberrations include the fifth-order, seventh-order, etc. counterparts of the third-order Seidel monochromatic aberrations. There are also aberrations that have no third-order form and begin with fifth- or higher-order, such as oblique spherical aberration, a fifth-order aberration. These secondary and higher-order aberrations are very resistant to control during optimization because they are usually a function of the basic optical configuration, not its specific implementation. For example, the Dagor lens just inherently has lots of on-axis zonal spherical, the result of lots of third-order spherical imperfectly balancing lots of fifth-order spherical. Similarly, the Double-Gauss lens has lots of off-axis oblique spherical.

For a lens with resistant on-axis aberrations, overall maximum system speed must be restricted. However, for resistant off-axis aberrations, system speed may need to be reduced only off-axis. To do this, you effectively stop down the lens only off-axis by using mechanical vignetting. In other words, to suppress resistant off-axis aberrations, it is often more effective to use undersized apertures to simply vignette away some of the worst offending rays rather than try to control them through optimization.

This may sound crude, but actually it is elegant when properly done. Mechanical vignetting allows you to concentrate the system's always limited degrees of freedom on reducing the remaining aberrations. The result is a much sharper lens with only a mild falloff in image illumination (irradiance), mostly in the corners. Compare the layouts in Figures B.3.1.1 and B.3.1.2. The first lens has vignetting (for simplification, the second and third fields have been omitted). The second lens has no vignetting (with all four fields drawn).

Conceptually, there are two different ways to handle mechanical vignetting when designing a lens. Both are available in ZEMAX. For this reason, and because ZEMAX happens to be the program the author uses, some of the details here apply specifically to ZEMAX, although the concepts are generally applicable.

The first way to handle vignetting uses real or hard apertures on lens surfaces

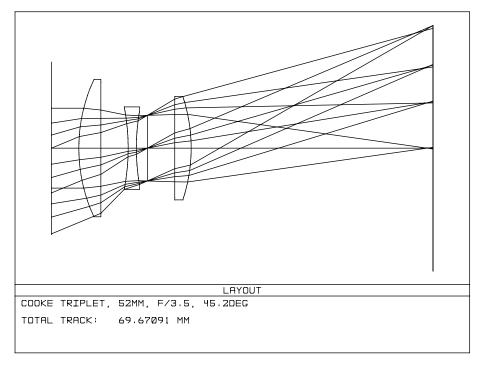


Figure B.3.1.2

to block and delete the vignetted portion of the off-axis rays. The second way uses vignetting factors or vignetting coefficients to reshape the off-axis beams to match the restricted vignetted pupil, thereby allowing all of the off-axis rays to pass through the lens to the image.

Each of these two methods has its advantages and disadvantages. The use of hard apertures is more realistic and can accommodate unusually shaped pupils and obscurations. But the use of hard apertures requires an optimization method that is less efficient and takes more computer time. The use of vignetting factors involves approximations to the actual situation and may introduce significant errors. But if vignetting factors are used (and they can be for most systems), then the computations are much faster, and finding the solution during optimization is more direct.

To illustrate both ways of handling vignetting, the present chapter uses hard apertures, and the following chapter uses vignetting factors.

In the present chapter, to construct a default merit function that includes vignetting, the entrance pupil is illuminated by simple grids of rays (the rectangular array option in ZEMAX). When projected onto the stop surface, the rectangular grids are actually square. Rays that are blocked by hard vignetting apertures are deleted from the ray sets. The same is true for central obscurations, although none

are present here. Only the rays that reach the image surface are included in the construction of the operands in the default merit function. This is a very general and physically realistic approach that is applicable to any optical system.

For many lens configurations, including the Cooke Triplet, only hard apertures on the front and rear surfaces need be considered when adjusting vignetting. These are the two surfaces most distant from the stop, and they are ideally placed for defining beam clipping. All other surfaces (except the stop) are made large enough to not clip rays that can pass through the two defining surfaces.

Exceptions to this approach are lenses having surfaces located large distances from the stop; that is, where system axial length on one or both sides of the stop is considerably longer than the entrance pupil diameter. Three prominent examples are true telephoto lenses, retrofocus type wide-angle lenses, and zoom lenses. Here, the transverse location (footprint) of off-axis beams on surfaces far from the stop can shift by much more than the beam diameter. For gradual mechanical vignetting in these lenses, the defining apertures must be closer to the stop.

When selecting vignetting apertures, try to clip similar amounts off the top and bottom of the extreme off-axis beam. This maintains as much symmetry as possible. However, this rule is neither precise nor rigid, and it can be bent if one side of the pupil has worse aberrations than the other side. Use layouts and ray fan plots to determine the relative top and bottom clipping. Use the geometrical throughput option in your program to precisely calculate the fraction of unvignetted rays passing through the stop surface as a function of off-axis distance or field angle. Pay special attention to relative throughput at the edge of the field, the worst case. Of course, the defining apertures must not clip the on-axis beam; the on-axis beam must be wholly defined by the stop aperture.

For the Cooke Triplet and many other lenses, a good approach is to make the defining front and rear apertures just a little bigger than the on-axis beam diameter, as illustrated by the lens in Figure B.3.1.1. With these apertures and proper airspaces, mechanical vignetting begins about a third of the way out toward the edge of the field and increases smoothly with field angle.

For most camera lenses, a relative geometrical transmission by the vignetted off-axis pupil of about 50% or slightly less at the edge of the field is scarcely noticeable with most films and other image detectors. In fact, this amount of vignetting is quite conservative; many excellent camera lenses have much more light falloff when used wide open. Therefore, when the Cooke Triplet is wide open at f/3.5, relative throughput of about 50% at the edge of the field is adopted here for the allowed amount of vignetting.

Note the convention: 60% vignetting means 40% throughput. Note too that as a lens is stopped down, the apparent mechanical vignetting decreases and image illumination (irradiance) becomes more uniform.

B.3.6 Starting Design and Early Optimizations

The optimization procedure outlined in Chapter A.15 has been adopted for designing this Cooke Triplet example.

When deriving a rough starting design, you first select the starting glasses (as described above). The next thing is to make guesses at the initial values of the system parameters; that is, the six curvatures, the two airspaces, and the three glass thicknesses. To automatically reduce the three transverse aberrations (lateral color, coma, and distortion), try to make the system as symmetrical about the stop as possible. Of course, perfect symmetry is impossible because the object is at infinity and the stop is not exactly at the middle element.

Initially, make the curvatures on the outer surfaces of the two positive elements equal with opposite signs. Make the curvatures on the inner surfaces of the two positive elements equal with opposite signs. And make the two curvatures on the middle negative element equal with opposite signs. The easy way to create this symmetry and maintain it during early optimizations is to use three curvature pickup solves to make the last three surface curvatures equal to the first three surface curvatures in reverse order and with opposite signs.

Because the stop is located in the rear airspace, better symmetry can be initially achieved by making the rear airspace (glass-to-glass) a bit larger than the front airspace. The easy way to do this is to use a thickness pickup solve to make the space between the stop and rear element equal to the space between the front and middle elements.

The three elements should be thin but realistic and easy to fabricate. Make the two positive elements thick enough to avoid tiny or negative edge thicknesses. Make the negative element thick enough to avoid a delicate center. The usual procedure is to manually select the glass center thicknesses and then to freeze or fix them; that is, they are kept constant during optimization. If a glass thickness becomes inappropriate as the design evolves, change it by hand and reoptimize. In addition, remember that this lens is physically quite small. Practical edges and centers may look deceptively thick when compared to the element diameters. A life-size layout can be very valuable in giving the designer a more intuitive awareness of the true sizes involved. In fact, at some time during the design of any lens, a life-size layout should be made.

To locate the image surface at the paraxial focus of the reference wavelength, proceed as in earlier chapters. Use a marginal ray paraxial height solve on the thickness following the last lens surface to determine the paraxial focal distance (paraxial BFL). Place a dummy plane surface at this distance to represent the paraxial focal plane. The actual image surface is a plane that immediately follows the paraxial focal plane. The two surfaces, at least initially, are given a zero separation. This general procedure is good technique and retains the option of adding paraxial defocus to the aberration balance during optimization. However,

this option is not always used. In particular, for both examples in this chapter, the image surface is kept at the paraxial focus; that is, no paraxial defocus is used.

Finally, because only hard apertures are to be allowed for controlling vignetting in this example, it is recommended that deliberate mechanical vignetting not be used at all in this early optimization stage of the Cooke Triplet. Vignetting can be introduced in the intermediate optimization stage. Note that this approach works for this f/3.5 lens, but may not work as well for a faster lens, such as the f/2 Double-Gauss lens in the next chapter.

Based on the above suggestions, the layout of one possible starting lens is illustrated in Figure B.3.1.2. This lens was derived by selecting the glasses and then tinkering with the curvatures and thicknesses until the layout looked about right (similar to published drawings). To simplify the guesswork, make the inner surfaces of the positive elements initially flat. Fortunately, the exact starting configuration is not too critical.

Note that because of the pickups, this starting lens has only four *independent* degrees of freedom: the first three curvatures and the first airspace. These are enough for now, but not enough to address all the basic aberrations.

The merit function for the early optimizations contains operands to correct focal length to 52 mm, prevent the airspaces from becoming too large or too small, correct paraxial longitudinal color for the two extreme wavelengths, and, using a default merit function, shrink polychromatic spots across the field. Correcting paraxial longitudinal color controls element powers and at this stage is very effective in shepherding the design in the right direction. A distortion operand is not included, but symmetry should keep distortion in check.

The early merit function is given in Listing B.3.1.1. To use the simplest allowable default merit function, some fields and wavelengths are weighted zero; this deletes the corresponding operands during the default merit function construction. Thus, the four fields are weighted 1 0 1 1 (in order from center to edge), and the five wavelengths are weighted 1 0 1 0 1 (in order from short to long). Because no beam clipping is used here to produce vignetting, a ray array based on the Gaussian quadrature algorithm is allowed and adopted (see Chapter B.4 for more on Gaussian quadrature).

After optimizing, look at the layout. This can be very revealing about how your glass choices affect the design. If your choice of matching flint glass gives a dispersion difference that is too large or too small, then the airspaces will be correspondingly too large or too small. If so, change the flint glass and reoptimize. The layout is your guide at this early optimization stage.

B.3.7 Intermediate Optimizations

You now have a good early design that is suitable for intermediate optimization. There are many ways to control aberrations. These methods are functions

Merit Function Listing											
File Titl			11.ZMX RIPLET		F/3.5,	45.2DEG					
Merit Function Value: 3.63793459E-002											
Num 1 2 3	Type EFFL BLNK BLNK	Int1	Int2 3	Hx	Ну	Px	Py	Target 5.20000E+001	Weight 1	Value 5.20003E+001	% Cont 0.000
4 5 6 7	MXCA MNCA MNEA BLNK	2 2 2	7 7 7					1.00000E+001 1.00000E-001 1.00000E-001	1 1 1	1.00000E+001 1.00000E-001 1.00000E-001	0.000 0.000 0.000
8 9 10 11	BLNK AXCL BLNK BLNK							0.00000E+000	10	-6.82493E-004	0.023
12 13 14 15	DMFS TRAR TRAR TRAR		1 1 3	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.4597 0.8881 0.4597	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.07854 0.07854 0.07854	1.03524E-003 1.28006E-002 6.76146E-003	0.000 0.063 0.018
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19 20 21 22	TRAR TRAR TRAR TRAR		1 1 1	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991	0.2298 0.4440 0.4597 0.8881	0.3981 0.7691 0.0000 0.0000	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	8.50000E-002 2.08535E-001 5.42000E-002 1.05953E-001	0.927 5.581 0.377 1.441
23 24 25 26	TRAR TRAR TRAR TRAR		1 1 3 3	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991	0.2298 0.4440 0.2298 0.4440	-0.3981 -0.7691 0.3981 0.7691	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	2.04915E-002 7.26274E-002 7.37596E-002 2.10582E-001	0.054 0.677 0.698 5.691
27 28 29	TRAR TRAR TRAR		3 3 3	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.6991 0.6991 0.6991	0.4597 0.8881 0.2298	0.0000 0.0000 -0.3981	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	5.32878E-002 1.18142E-001 2.04063E-002	0.364 1.791 0.053
30 31 32 33	TRAR TRAR TRAR TRAR		3 5 5 5	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991	0.4440 0.2298 0.4440 0.4597	-0.7691 0.3981 0.7691 0.0000	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	3.12326E-002 6.28696E-002 2.00040E-001 4.95950E-002	0.125 0.507 5.136 0.316
34 35 36 37	TRAR TRAR TRAR TRAR		5 5 1	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 1.0000	0.8881 0.2298 0.4440 0.2298	0.0000 -0.3981 -0.7691 0.3981	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	1.15423E-001 2.41034E-002 2.43297E-002 1.26323E-001	1.710 0.075 0.076 2.048
38 39 40	TRAR TRAR TRAR		1 1 1	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	1.0000 1.0000 1.0000	0.4440 0.4597 0.8881	0.7691 0.0000 0.0000	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	3.24527E-001 8.62986E-002 1.68672E-001	13.516 0.956 3.651
41 42 43 44	TRAR TRAR TRAR TRAR		1 1 3 3	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000	0.2298 0.4440 0.2298 0.4440	-0.3981 -0.7691 0.3981 0.7691	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	6.70936E-002 2.56002E-001 1.05619E-001 3.16643E-001	0.578 8.411 1.432 12.867
45 46 47 48	TRAR TRAR TRAR TRAR		3 3 3 3	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	1.0000 1.0000 1.0000	0.4597 0.8881 0.2298 0.4440	0.0000 0.0000 -0.3981 -0.7691	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	7.94419E-002 1.69222E-001 3.34562E-002 1.90654E-001	0.810 3.675 0.144 4.665
49 50 51	TRAR TRAR TRAR		5 5 5	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	1.0000 1.0000 1.0000	0.2298 0.4440 0.4597	0.3981 0.7691 0.0000	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	9.05470E-002 3.00899E-001 7.45595E-002	1.052 11.620 0.713
52 53 54	TRAR TRAR TRAR		5 5 5	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	1.0000 1.0000 1.0000	0.8881 0.2298 0.4440	0.0000 -0.3981 -0.7691	0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000	0.02618 0.02618 0.02618	1.63310E-001 2.42043E-002 1.71502E-001	3.423 0.075 3.775

Listing B.3.1.1

of both the preferences of the designer and the features in his software. What follows is an approach that the author finds to be effective for many types of optical systems. The details are specific to the present Cooke Triplet, but the ideas are generally applicable.

As described in Chapter A.15, intermediate optimization is a combination monochromatic-polychromatic procedure. The monochromatic aberrations for a central wavelength and the chromatic aberrations for the extreme (or two widely spaced) wavelengths are controlled or corrected. For the intermediate optimizations of a Cooke Triplet, the pickups are removed and the six curvatures and two airspaces are all made independent variables. The height solve is retained to keep the image surface at the paraxial focus.

Now during the intermediate optimizations is also the time to add deliberate mechanical vignetting to the Cooke Triplet. The techniques required are discussed in an earlier section.

When constructing the intermediate merit function, select or define five special optimization operands such as those described in Chapter A.13 and Listing A.13.1. The first operand continues to correct focal length to 52 mm (here and subsequently, you can alternatively use an angle solve on the rear lens surface to control focal ratio). The second operand corrects longitudinal color to zero for the 0.8 pupil zone. The third operand corrects lateral color to zero at the edge of the field. The fourth operand corrects spherical aberration to zero on the paraxial focal plane and for the 0.9 pupil zone. The fifth operand corrects distortion to zero at the edge of the field. To correct these operands close to their targets, use relatively heavy weights or Lagrange multipliers.

Note in Listing A.13.1 that wavelengths are specified by the identifying numbers in the Int2 column and that the lens there uses only three wavelengths. However, the present lens uses five wavelengths. Thus, the special chromatic operands must now use wavelengths one and five. And the special monochromatic operands must now use wavelength three, the reference wavelength.

The only aberrations that remain to be controlled are all off-axis monochromatic aberrations. They are: coma, astigmatism, field curvature, and any number of higher-order monochromatic aberrations. These aberrations plus spherical (which is also present off-axis) interact in a complicated way. To control these aberrations during optimization, the most general and fail-safe approach is to shrink spot sizes by appending the appropriate default merit function to the special operands. Because the on-axis field is being corrected separately with special operands, turn off the axial field when constructing the default merit function and shrink only the off-axis spots. To do this, weight the on-axis field zero and weight the remaining fields equally (at least for now). The four field weights become 0 1 1. Similarly, to shrink only monochromatic spots for the reference wavelength, weight the five wavelengths 0 0 1 0 0.

The complete intermediate merit function for the Cooke Triplet is given in Listing B.3.1.2. To shorten the listing, the fields have actually been weighted 0 0 1 1.

Note that there is a variation to this approach that could have been used. Instead of controlling spherical aberration with a special operand, you can shrink the monochromatic on-axis spot too. To do this, omit the special spherical operand (to avoid controlling the same aberration twice), and construct the default merit function with field weights such as 5 1 1 1. The relatively heavy weight on-axis is required because spot size there is relatively small (no off-axis aberrations). The heavy weight ensures that the damped least-squares routine pays enough attention.

Note that different optical design programs may handle weights differently. Therefore, it is risky to recommend specific weights for controlling the relative emphasis of various field positions and wavelengths during optimization. This is especially true for nonuniform weights. Thus, the weights offered here are given

2.20930E-002 2.26538E-002

2.22624E-002 2.14883E-002

2.62421E-002 2.24606E-002

2.62597E-002

2.77273E-002 2.65562E-002 2.47190E-002

1.64515E-002

1.77613E-002

1.72447E-002

8.95928E-003

3.66083E-003

3.79969E-003

5.54200E-003 2.92387E-003

4.43901E-003

3.89385E-003

7.13892E-003

7.82365E-003

6.33420E-003

5.19208E-003

9.23102E-003

8.34579E-003

9.90926E-003

1.65419E-002 9.28791E-003

9.97684E-004

3.50863E-002

4.428

4.276

3.984

5.942

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5.950

6.633 6.085

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Merit Function Listing File : C:LENS312B.ZMX Title: COOKE TRIPLET, 52MM, F/3.5, 45.2DEG Merit Function Value: 1.92724453E-004 Value Num Type EFFL Int1 Int2 Hx HyPxTarget Weight % Cont 5.20000E+001 100 5.20000E+001 0.000 2 RT.NK BLNK TTHI0 000008+000 n 4.73834E+000 0.000 5 5 6 6.45093E+000 6 0 0.000 TTHI0.00000E+000 DTFF 0.000008+000 1.71259E+000 0.000 OPGT 1.50000E+000 100 1.50000E+000 0.000 BLNK BLNK 0.00000E+000 1.12374E-001 0.000 10 AXCL n 11 REAY 10 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.8000 0.00000E+000 0 2.36923E-003 0.000 REAY DIFF 10 5 12 0.0000 2.37042E-003 -1.19209E-006 0.000 12 13 0.0000 0.0000 0.8000 0.00000E+000 10000 0.00000E+000 14 15 BLNK BLNK 16 T.ACT. 0.00000E+000 О 1.39704E-002 0.000 REAY 10 0.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000E+000 0 2.16434E+001 0.000 18 19 10 17 REAY 0.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000E+000 2.16434E+001 0.000 10000 DIFF 0.00000E+000 -1.81699E-007 0.000 20 RT.NK 21 BLNK 22 23 SPHA REAY 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 2.64913E+000 1.01362E-006 0.000 3 3 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.9000 10000 0.001 24 25 RT.NK BLNK 26 27 DIST 0 3 0.00000E+000 1000 5.36819E-008 0.000 BLNK 28 29 BLNK DMFS 0.1000 0.1000 0.1000 0.1000 6.12221E-003 4.34227E-003 4.43055E-003 30 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 -0.5000 0.00000E+000 0.1 0.1 0.323 3333 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 -0.3000 -0.1000 0.1000 0.00000E+000 0.163 0.169 0.170 31 32 33 0.1 TRAR 0.6991 0.00000E+000 0.6991 0.00000E+000 4.43263E-003 TRAR 0.0000 34 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.1000 0.3000 0.00000E+000 0.1 4.66716E-003 0.188 3333 35 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.1000 0.5000 0.00000E+000 0.1 6.55600E-003 0.371 1.744 36 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.1000 0.7000 0.00000E+000 0.1 1.42184E-002 37 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.3000 -0.5000 $0.00000E \pm 000$ 0.1 1.26632E-002 1.384 38 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.3000 -0.3000 0.00000E+000 0.1 1.28531E-002 1.425 3333 1.34846E-002 1.35945E-002 1.35749E-002 0.00000E+000 39 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.3000 -0.1000 0.1 1.569 TRAR 0.0000 0.3000 0.00000E+000 0.1 1.595 41 0.00000E+000 1.590 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.3000 42 0.1 1.40286E-002 1.91872E-002 TRAR 3 0.0000 0.6991 0.3000 0.5000 0.00000E+000 1.698 0.3000 3.176 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.7000 0.00000E+000 44 3 0.5000 -0.5000 0.00000E+000 0.1 1.90906E-002 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 2.01296E-002 3.496 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 -0.3000 0.00000E+000

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with a caveat. The best advice to the lens designer is to experiment with weights until you get results that you like.

In the design of a Cooke Triplet, you will often find two possible solutions; that is, two different local minima of the merit function. The first solution has the larger airspace between the front and middle elements; the second solution has the larger airspace between the middle and rear elements. As mentioned earlier, better symmetry about the stop is achieved if the rear airspace is the larger one. This more symmetrical configuration causes the off-axis beams to be more centered about their chief rays, which is better when stopping down the lens. To shepherd the design in this direction, a constraint is added to the intermediate merit function that keeps the rear airspace (glass-to-glass) somewhat larger than the front airspace.

After optimizing with the airspace constraint, look at the merit function to see if it was invoked. It may have been unused. If it was used, try removing it (perhaps by setting its weight to zero) and optimize again. The lens will then find its own best airspaces. However, do not be surprised if the negative element ends up nearly in the middle between the two positive elements, or if you occasionally have to leave in the constraint.

After each optimization run, the system parameters (curvatures and airspaces) will have changed to a greater or lesser extent, thereby also changing the size and shape of the vignetted off-axis pupils. To accommodate these changes, rebuild the default merit function to update the set of unvignetted rays, and then reoptimize. Iterate as needed. In addition, the lens designer is also often required to manually readjust the diameters of the hard apertures to maintain the desired amount of vignetting. After any such change, again rebuild the default merit function and reoptimize.

The last step in the intermediate optimizations is finding the best flint glass type. To do this, repeat the intermediate optimization with several likely glass combinations. The process is described in an earlier section. The result for the present Cooke Triplet is that Schott SF53 flint glass (n_d of 1.728, V_d of 28.7) is the best match for Schott LaFN21 crown glass (n_d of 1.788, V_d of 47.5).

B.3.2 Final Optimizations Using Spot Size

The intermediate solution for the Cooke Triplet is actually quite close to the final solution. The final solution is a refinement, which is normally accomplished in two stages. The first stage shrinks polychromatic spots on the image surface. The second stage minimizes polychromatic OPD errors in the exit pupil. The designer then compares the two solutions and chooses the better one for the given application. If MTF is the image criterion, then the OPD solution is usually, but not always, preferable.

There are two ways to do the final spot optimization. The first way uses a

merit function that shrinks polychromatic spot sizes for all field positions and all wavelengths while continuing to correct distortion and focal length with special operands. Note that longitudinal and lateral color are not individually corrected; the polychromatic spot optimization includes the chromatic aberrations. Thus, when constructing the default merit function, weight the four fields equally; that is, 1 1 1 1, at least initially. Also weight the five wavelengths equally; that is, 1 1 1 1. As an alternative, you might do as just described plus still continue to exactly correct longitudinal color with a special operand to ensure a specific color curve.

The second way is very similar except that the on-axis aberrations (longitudinal color and spherical aberration) are corrected with special operands, and the default merit function shrinks polychromatic spots only off-axis. Again, distortion and focal length are specially corrected. When constructing the default merit function, the on-axis spot is turned off by weighting this field position zero; that is, field weights are 0 1 1 1 (at least initially). The polychromatic wavelength weights are again 1 1 1 1 1. In the present Cooke Triplet example, this second method has been adopted for constructing the merit function.

Listing B.3.1.3 gives the complete final merit function using spot size. An operand has also been included to control the relative airspaces, although it is not invoked during optimization. Field weights have been changed to 0 5 5 1 (see below). To make the figure of manageable size for printing, the default merit function is shown using 4x4 rectangular ray arrays; in reality, 10x10 or 20x20 ray arrays are used.

After optimizing, the size and shape of the vignetted off-axis pupil will have again changed. Again, rebuild the default merit function to match the new pupil and reoptimize.

As in the intermediate optimization stage, during the final optimizations, look at the layout, transverse ray fan plot, and spot diagram to monitor your solution. Repeat these tests frequently as your design continues to evolve. In addition, you may wish to look at the vignetting plot, the field curvature plot, the distortion plot, and the OPD ray fan plot. And, especially toward the end of these optimizations, the MTF plot is invaluable because MTF is your ultimate performance criterion. Except right at the end, you may wish to save computing time by using the geometrical MTF plot instead of the diffraction MTF plot; this shortcut is allowed because you are far from the diffraction limit.

By now in your design of a Cooke Triplet, it should have become apparent that the 100% field position tends to give better imagery than the 70% field position. This is not what you normally want. In a camera lens, the intermediate fields are normally more important than the edge of the field. Of course, there is less vignetting at intermediate fields, thereby allowing some of the more highly aberrated rays to get through. But a look at the tangential-sagittal field curvature plot, such as the left side of Figure B.3.1.5, reveals another problem. In a Cooke Triplet, there is a

Merit Function Listing File : C:LENS313B.ZMX Title: COOKE TRIPLET, 52MM, F/3.5, 45.2DEG Merit Function Value: 5.16722085E-004 Hx Weight 1000 Value Intl Int2 HyPx Py Target 5.20000E+001 % Cont 5.20000E+001 2 BLNK BT.NK TTHI 5 TTHI5 6 0.00000E+000 0 6.85434E+000 0.000 DIFF 0.00000E+000 1.50000E+000 2.53247E+000 1.50000E+000 0.000 1000 8 BT.NK BLNK AXCL 10 0.00000E+000 0 1.11785E-001 0.000 11 12 13 REAY REAY DIFF 0.0000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 2.26244E-003 2.33925E-003 0.000 10 10 11 1 5 0.0000 0.0000 0.8000 0 10000 -7.68052E-005 12 0.00000E+000 0.959 14 BLNK 15 16 BLNK 2.69377E+000 0.000 0.00000E+000 SPHA 17 REAV 9 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.9000 0.00000E+000 10000 1.10586E-004 1.989 BLNK 19 BLNK DIST 20 n 3 $0.00000E \pm 000$ 1000 2.01569E-006 0.000 21 BLNK 22 RT.NK 23 DMFS 24 25 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 TRAR 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 0.3982 0.2500 -0.7500 -0.2500 0.5 1.13189E-002 6.13682E-003 1.042 1 TRAR 26 27 TRAR TRAR 1 1 1 2 2 0.0000 0.3982 0.3982 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.5 6.79766E-003 4.29339E-003 0.376 0.150 4.29339E-003 8.61819E-003 1.09141E-002 4.39938E-003 7.75161E-003 7.13903E-003 8.18535E-003 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.604 0.969 0.157 28 TRAR 0.0000 0.3982 0.7500 -0.2500 TRAR TRAR TRAR TRAR 29 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 0.2500 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 31 0.0000 -0.2500 0.489 32 33 TRAR 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.5 1.46952E-002 1.75552E-002 4.13661E-003 34 TRAR 2 0.0000 0.3982 0.7500 -0.2500 0.000008+000 0.5 1.756 TRAR TRAR 23 0.0000 0.3982 0.7500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.5 2.506 0.139 36 4.13661E-003 6.83198E-003 5.77825E-003 7.22030E-003 1.48809E-002 1.74078E-002 5.52951E-003 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 -0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.380 TRAR TRAR 0. .0000 0.3982 0.3982 0.5 TRAR 0.5 39 3 3 4 0.0000 0.3982 0.00000E+000 0.424 40 41 42 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 -0.2500 0.2500 -0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 TRAR 0.0000 0.3982 0.5 1.801 TRAR TRAR 0.0000 0.3982 0.3982 0.5 2.464 -0.7500 -0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 -0.2500 43 44 TRAR TRAR 0.0000 0.3982 0.3982 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.5 4.88180E-003 4.11031E-003 0.194 0.2500 0.7500 0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.5 0.5 0.5 5.03739E-003 1.21386E-002 1.44850E-002 0.0000 45 TRAR 0.3982 0.206 TRAR TRAR 0.3982 198 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 1.706 -0.7500 -0.2500 48 TRAR 5 5 5 5 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.5 9.21534E-003 0.691 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 TRAR 0.0000 0.3982 0.5 3.01616E-003 074 3.22798E-003 5.54136E-003 50 51 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 0.5 0.085 TRAR TRAR 0.250 5.54136E-003 8.23579E-003 1.04533E-002 1.18736E-002 1.22854E-002 1.42910E-002 2.11634E-002 1.34572E-002 52 53 TRAR 0.0000 0.3982 0.7500 0.7500 -0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.5 . 552 55111112 0.889 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 -0.2500 -0.2500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 54 55 TRAR TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 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2.60342E-002 8.88009E-003 TRAR TRAR 0.0000 0.2500 0.7500 3.953 4 4 4 5 5 0.0000 554 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.0000 TRAR TRAR 5.512 0.6991 0.641 0.2500 0.7500 -0.2500 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.00000E+000 0.5 8.85322E-003 5 5 2.67318E-002 1.80876E-002 76 77 TRAR 0.0000 0.6991 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.5 5.811 TRAR 2.660 TRAR 0.7500 0.2500 2.24098E-002 3.54277E-002 0.0000 0.6991 0.00000E+000 0.5 5 1 1 1 79 0.0000 1.0000 0.00000E+000 0.1 2.041 0.2500 0.2500 -0.2500 80 81 TRAR TRAR 0.0000 1.0000 0.2500 0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.1 1.64360E-002 1.29293E-002 0.439 82 TRAR 0.0000 1.0000 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.1 2.87876E-002 1.348 2223 83 TRAR 0.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.1 0.1 0.1 1.25153E-002 0.255 0.2500 -0.2500 4.61541E-003 2.09629E-002 0.035 TRAR 0.0000 84 85 86 87 TRAR TRAR 0.0000 1.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.1 9.28730E-003 4.84668E-003 0.140 88 TRAR 0.0000 1.0000 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.1 1.32269E-002 0.285 TRAR 1.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.1 6.43729E-003 8.04721E-003 89 0.0000 0.067 90 0.0000 0.105

0.2500 Listing B.3.1.3

-0.2500

0.00000E+000

0.00000E+000

0.7

0.1

5.90391E-003

3.94329E-003 1.22290E-002

0.057

0.243

91 TRAR

TRAR

0.0000

0.0000

0

1.0000

1.0000

0.2500

0.2500

large difference between the tangential and sagittal curves at intermediate fields, but the curves cross near the field edge. Thus, at intermediate field zones you get a lot of astigmatism, but astigmatism goes to zero near the field edge.

This astigmatic behavior is the result of the interaction of relatively large amounts of third- and fifth-order astigmatism (seventh is negligible). The sum of the third- and fifth-orders is zero at the field angle where the curves cross. Unfortunately, at other field angles the sum may not be small. Third-order predominates inside the crossing, and fifth-order predominates outside the crossing. The problem is analogous to zonal spherical aberration, except that the effect is in the field, not the pupil. Significant residual field-zonal astigmatism is part of the inherent nature of a Cooke Triplet.

The use of high-index glasses generally reduces this astigmatism and is highly recommended. The only other thing you can do is tell the computer to change its priorities and emphasize the intermediate fields at the expense of the field edge; that is, you increase the relative weights on the two intermediate fields during optimization. This moves the field angle for zero astigmatism inward. Unfortunately, astigmatism increases very rapidly for field angles outside the tangential-sagittal crossing. You must therefore be very careful to avoid overdoing this brute force tactic. Also, the computer has other aberrations to worry about besides astigmatism, which is why the crossing initially fell so far out. A reasonable solution is obtained if the default part of the merit function is rebuilt with the field weights changed from 0 1 1 1 to 0 5 5 1 (while continuing to separately correct the on-axis field with special operands). The intermediate fields get better while the edge of the field gets worse.

This illustrates a recurrent situation in lens design. A given lens configuration has only a certain ability to control aberrations. If you take a previously optimized lens and reoptimize it to make one thing better, something else must get worse. There is an adage that says that the process of reoptimizing a lens is like squeezing on a water balloon. If you squeeze in one place, it pops out somewhere else.

Figure B.3.1.1 shows the layout of the Cooke Triplet as optimized by correcting focal length, distortion, and special on-axis operands; by shrinking polychromatic off-axis spots; and by emphasizing the intermediate fields. For increased clarity, the beams for only two fields have been drawn, the on-axis field and the extreme off-axis field. Note the mechanical vignetting of the off-axis beam by the front and rear outside lens surfaces. Note too that what appears to be the off-axis chief ray does not go through the center of the stop. Actually, the ray in question is not the chief ray, but is merely the middle ray of the ray bundle. The true chief ray always goes exactly through the center of the stop, by definition.

Figure B.3.1.3 is the vignetting diagram showing the fraction of unvignetted rays as a function of field angle. This plot confirms that vignetting is well-behaved and is about 50% at the edge of the field.

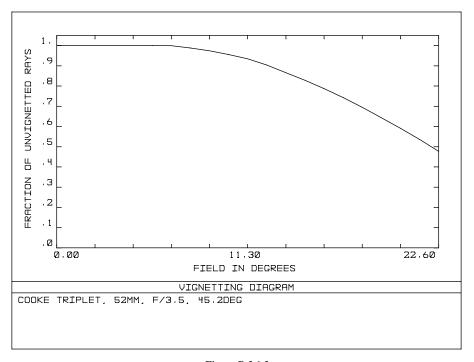


Figure B.3.1.3

Figure B.3.1.4 is the transverse ray fan plot. Note the well-behaved on-axis curves. For the three off-axis fields, note how the slopes of the tangential and sagittal curves are different at the origin, indicating astigmatism. Note too the oblique spherical aberration in the off-axis fields. Finally, note that the chromatic aberrations are relatively small compared to the monochromatic aberrations.

On the left side of Figure B.3.1.5 is the field curvature plot. Note the crossing of the tangential and sagittal curves near the field edge and the large astigmatic difference at intermediate field angles. On the right side of Figure B.3.1.5 is the percent distortion plot. Distortion has been corrected to zero at the field edge, but note the higher-order distortion residuals at intermediate field angles. These residuals are tiny and totally negligible for most purposes.

Figure B.3.1.6 is the polychromatic spot diagram. Note the different appearance of the spots. The spot for the 70% field is spread horizontally by tangential astigmatism, and the spot for the field edge is spread vertically by sagittal (radial) astigmatism. However, these images are not purely astigmatic because other aberrations are complicating the situation.

Figure B.3.1.7 is the matrix spot diagram. Note that the spots vary strongly with field but only moderately with wavelength.

Figure B.3.1.8 is the OPD ray fan plot. Note the scale: several waves. Clear-

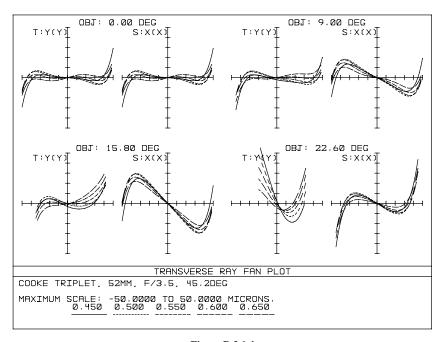


Figure B.3.1.4

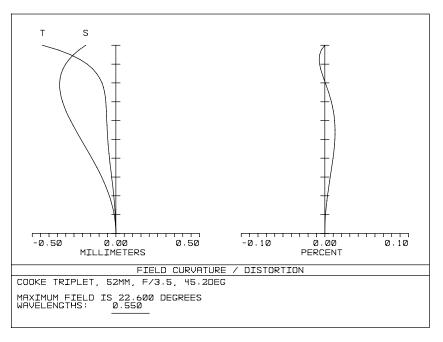


Figure B.3.1.5

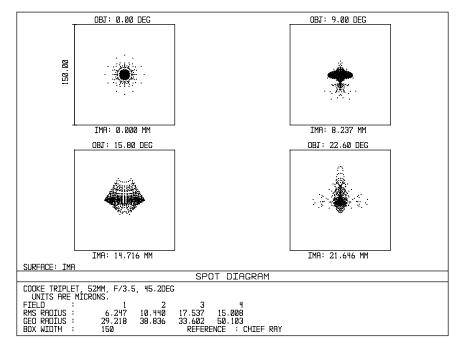


Figure B.3.1.6

ly, this lens is aberration limited, not diffraction limited. Even on-axis, this lens does not satisfy the Rayleigh quarter-wave rule. But this performance level is normal for this type of lens and is no cause for concern. At f/3.5 and for a wavelength of 0.55 μ m, the diameter of the Airy disk is only 4.7 μ m and the diffraction MTF cutoff is 520 cycles/mm. These values are much finer than most films can resolve. In fact, very few camera lenses are diffraction limited when used wide open, and most of these are slow, long-focus lenses.

Figure B.3.1.9 is the diffraction MTF plot. Even with increased weight on the intermediate fields during optimization, the sagittal MTF at the 70% field is very poor. Still heavier weights are not recommended; the spot size at the edge of the field would explode without much benefit to the intermediate fields. Note the spurious resolution. This artifact of the periodic nature of a pure spatial frequency is of no help for real images; modulations beyond the first zero must be ignored when evaluating lens performance.

Listing B.3.1.4 is the optical prescription for the spot size optimized Cooke Triplet. From this listing, you could build the lens. However, for a practical camera lens intended for use with films having a resolving capability in excess of 50 cycles/mm, this design for the Cooke Triplet is probably unacceptable, at least by modern standards based on MTF.

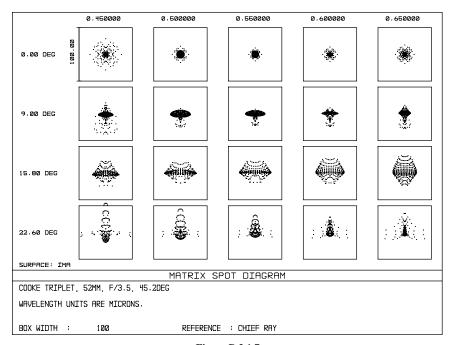


Figure B.3.1.7

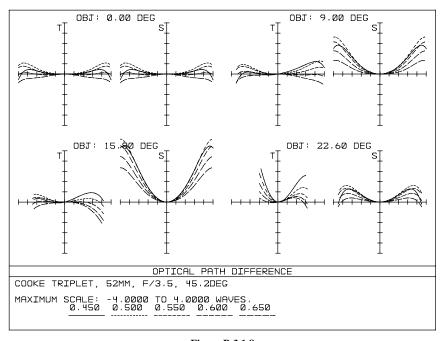


Figure B.3.1.8

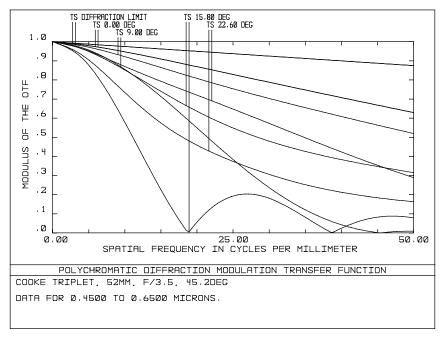


Figure B.3.1.9

B.3.2 Final Optimizations Using OPD Errors

For this Cooke Triplet example, there is not much more that you can do to improve image quality by shrinking spots. Because MTF is the criterion for image quality, a better approach may be to reduce wavefront OPD errors. Even though this lens is not near the diffraction limit, an OPD optimization may be beneficial. But bear in mind that if you optimize for minimum OPDs, then spot sizes may be small but they are no longer minimized. You cannot have it both ways. Remember the water balloon.

In the OPD optimization, all special optimization operands are removed from the merit function except those correcting or controlling distortion, focal length, and the relative airspace thicknesses. The bulk of the merit function is the default part that controls exit pupil OPDs for all fields and all wavelengths. The five wavelengths are again weighted 1 1 1 1 1. The four fields might be initially weighted 5 1 1 1. As suggested earlier, the on-axis field is more heavily weighted to ensure that the damped least-squares routine pays enough attention. The pupil is uniformly weighted with no extra emphasis on the center. No other prior assumptions are made. The goal is to do a polychromatic OPD optimization in a natural or realistic way (as it was called in Chapter A.15)

```
| System/Prescription Data | File : C.LENS313B.ZMX | Title: COOKE TRIPLET, 52MM, F/3.5, 45.2DEG | CENERAL LENS DATA: | Surfaces : 10 | Stop : 60 | File | Fi
```

Listing B.3.1.4

Listing B.3.2.1 is the complete final merit function for an OPD optimization. The field weights have been changed to 4 3 2 1 (see below). Again for practical reasons, 4x4 ray arrays are shown, although 10x10 or 20x20 arrays are actually used when optimizing. Note that the control on the relative airspace thicknesses is not invoked.

After optimizing with OPDs, the lens elements will have shifted by some amount relative to their positions for the minimum spot size solution. Thus, after the first OPD optimization, the vignetting will have changed and you must rebuild the default merit function and reoptimize. In addition, you may wish to fine tune the vignetting curve to give a specific throughput value at the edge of the field. This is done by slightly changing the vignetting apertures, again rebuilding the merit function, and again reoptimizing.

Next, do the usual layout, transverse ray fan plot, and spot diagram as sanity checks. Then do an OPD ray fan plot to check your OPD optimization. Finally, do the crucial MTF plot. As with a spot size optimization, an OPD optimization with uniform weights on the off-axis fields yields poorer performance for the intermediate fields than for the extreme field. The (partial) remedy once again is to increase the weights on the intermediate fields. Try different sets of weights, reoptimize for each set, and compare the MTF curves. Select the weights that give the best overall compromise. In the present case, field weights of 4 3 2 1 are found to work well.

Recall that in the present example, vignetting is handled during optimization

```
Vignetting Factors
# VDX
1 0.000000
                                                       VDY
0.000000
0.000000
                                                                                           0.000000
0.000000
                                                                                                                                0.000000
                    0.000000
                                                                                                                                0.000000
                  0.000000
                                                       0.000000
                                                                                           0.000000
Wavelengths :
Units: Microns
# Value
1 0.450000
2 0.500000
3 0.550000
4 0.600000
                                                         Weight
1.000000
1.000000
1.000000
                    0.650000
 SURFACE DATA SUMMARY:
                                            Radius
Infinity
Infinity
21.74267
400.8834
-43.54159
20.87459
Infinity
165.5048
-30.5771
Infinity
               Type
STANDARD
STANDARD
                                                                                        Thickness
 Surf
OBJ
                                                                                                                                      Glass
                                                                                                                                                                  Diameter
                                                                                                                                                                                                             Conic
                                                                                                                                                                  33.36006
                                                                                         7
3.5
4.321867
1.5
                                                                                                                                                                                   17
17
13
                                                                                                                                   LAFN21
                STANDARD
                STANDARD
STANDARD
                                                                                                                                  12
12
11.46317
LAFN21
                STANDARD
             STANDARD
                                                                                        4.854339
   STO
                                                                                         41.57679
                                                Infinity
Infinity
                                                                                                                                                                    43.61234
43.61234
                 STANDARD
   IMA STANDARD
 SURFACE DATA DETAIL:
 Surface OBJ : STANDARD
Surface 1 : STANDARD
                                      : STANDARD
: Circular Aperture
 Surface
   Aperture :
Minimum Radius :
Minimum Radius:

Surface 3: STANDARD

Surface 4: STANDARD

Surface 5: STANDARD

Surface 5: STANDARD

Surface 7: STANDARD

Surface 6: STANDARD

Surface 8: STANDARD

Aperture 6: Circular Aperture

Minimum Radius: 7.5

Surface 9: STANDARD

Surface 1MA: STANDARD
 SOLVE AND VARIABLE DATA:
Curvature of 2 : Variable
Semi Diam 2 : Fixed
Curvature of 3 : Variable
Semi Diam 3 : Variable
Semi Diam 3 : Fixed
Curvature of 4 : Variable
Semi Diam 4 : Fixed
Curvature of 5 : Variable
Curvature of 7 : Variable
Curvature of 7 : Variable
Semi Diam 7 : Fixed
Curvature of 8 : Variable
Curvature of 8 : Variable
Semi Diam 6 : Solve, me
Semi Diam 8 : Fixed
                                               : Solve, marginal ray height = 0.00000
: Fixed
 INDEX OF REFRACTION DATA:
                  0.600000 0.650000

1.0000000 1.0000000

1.0000000 1.0000000

1.78728036 1.78370773

1.0000000 1.0000000

1.7267633 1.72152789

1.0000000 1.0000000

1.0000000 1.0000000

1.78728036 1.78370773

1.0000000 1.0000000

1.0000000 1.0000000

1.0000000 1.0000000
 Surf
      10
 ELEMENT VOLUME DATA:
 Units are cubic cm.
Values are only accurate for plane and spherical surfaces.
Element surf 2 to 3 volume: 0.610995
Element surf 4 to 5 volume: 0.267441
Element surf 7 to 8 volume: 0.433018
```

Listing B.3.1.4 (continued)

by deleting the vignetted rays from a set of incident rays. This deletion has the subtle side effect of reducing the working weights on the fields with more vignetting and fewer transmitted rays. Fewer rays yield fewer optimization operands. Fewer operands make less of a contribution to the damped least-squares solution.

Merit Function Listing File: C:LENS314B.ZMX
Title: COOKE TRIPLET, 52MM, F/3.5, 45.2DEG Merit Function Value: 7.50829989E-003 Weight 1e+005 Int1 Int2 Hx Ну Target 5.20000E+001 Cont PxVa 7116 5.20001E+001 BLNK BLNK TTHI TTHI DIFF 4.01727E+000 7.19832E+000 3.18105E+000 1.50000E+000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.00000E+000 3 5 5 6 000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 1e+005 OPGI 1.50000E+000 0.000 BLNK BLNK DIST 10 3 0.00000E+000 1e+005 7.33768E-006 BLNK 12 13 14 15 BLNK DMFS OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.8 0.8 0.8 8.28033E-003 -1.93433E-001 0.0000 1 0.0000 0.177 OPDC 16 OPDC -1.93433E-001 17 18 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.8 8.69492E-002 4.49848E-001 0.036 15 OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.7500 0.00000E+000 4.49848E-001 3.10335E-002 3.05747E-001 0.957 20 OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.8 0.005 21 OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.2500 0.442 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 22 23 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.8 3.05747E-001 -5.79185E-002 0.442 24 25 OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.8 -6.32398E-002 0.019 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.7500 0.8 -6 32398E-002 0.019 25 26 27 28 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 -0.7500 0.8 0.8 0.8 -6.32398E-002 -1.48682E-001 -4.74652E-001 -4.74652E-001 105 066 OPDC OPDC OPDC 1.066 -1.07468E+000 29 OPDC 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.3 2.048 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 -0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 30 31 OPDC OPDC 0.3982 0.3 0.014 32 33 9.56563E-003 7.60901E-001 OPDC 0.3982 0.3 0.000 0.2500 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 OPDC 0.3982 0.0000 -0.2500 0.3 1.027 OPDC OPDC OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.3982 0.3982 0.3982 0.2500 -0.7500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 1.18858E+000 -1.67402E-001 2.29260E-001 2.18183E-001 2.506 0.050 0.093 0.3 0.3 0.3 0.3 0.3 0.3 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 0.084 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 -0.2500 0.2500 -0.7500 -0.2500 2.18183E-001 3.01055E-001 1.39278E+000 1.60406E+000 -2.28682E-001 1.71230E-001 38 39 OPDC OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.3982 0.3982 0.3982 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.161 3.441 4.564 41 0.3 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.3982 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 . 093 0.052 43 44 45 46 0.3982 0.3982 0.3982 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.7500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.3 0.3 0.3 1.31326E-001 6.06463E-002 1.18771E+000 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 031 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 2.502 0.0000 0.3982 0.2500 0.3 1 33141E+000 3 144 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 -0.2500 -0.2500 -0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 -5.82113E-001 5.92456E-002 4.09036E-002 -3.06883E-001 OPDC OPDC 0.3982 0.2500 0.3 0.601 0.2500 0.3 49 50 OPDC OPDC 0.3982 0.003 7.46006E-001 8.79151E-001 -1.00425E+000 51 OPDC 0.0000 0.3982 0.7500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.3 0.987 OPDC OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.3982 0.7500 0.2500 -0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.3 0.3982 54 55 5 5 5 5 5 1 0.0000 0.2500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.3 -6.03986E-002 0.006 OPDC OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.3 -4.01545E-002 0.003 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 -4.01545E-002 -6.78202E-001 2.62630E-001 4.08174E-001 2.91949E-001 0.816 58 OPDC 0.3982 0.3 0.296 OPDC 0.00000E+000 59 0.0000 0.6991 0.2500 -0.2500 0.101 0.2500 0.7500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 60 61 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.6991 0.2500 3.83947E-001 -1.75633E+000 1111222233333 0.2500 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 OPDC 0.0000 0.6991 62 1.60934E+000 3.063 1.60934E+000 1.95819E+000 4.02041E-001 2.71910E-001 -1.67794E+000 2.15371E+000 2.24437E+000 1.67794E-001 1.89446E+000 1.86086E+000 OPDC OPDC OPDC OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.2500 -0.2500 -0.2500 0.2500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 63 64 65 4.534 0.087 66 67 5.485 0.0000 OPDC OPDC OPDC OPDC OPDC 0.2500 -0.2500 -0.2500 0.2500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 5.956 0.104 0.0000 0.2500 4.244 0.6991 1.86086E+000 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.6991 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.2 0.2 0.2 0.2 1.91078E+000 1.40219E-001 8.22733E-002 -2.15451E+000 4.317 0.023 OPDC 0.6991 0.008 OPDC 0.0000 0.6991 0.2500 0.00000000 5 489 OPDC OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.6991 0.2500 0.7500 0.7500 0.2500 -0.2500 -0.2500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.2 0.2 0.2 0.2 -2.15451E+000 1.34077E+000 1.42478E+000 -1.87010E-002 126 2.400 0.000 0.2500 80 OPDC 0.0000 0.6991 0.2500 0.00000E+000 1.39299E-002 0.000 5 5 5 5 1 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 6.764 0.737 1.028 81 OPDC 0.0000 0.6991 0.2500 0 2 -2 39172E+000 0.0000 0.6991 0.7500 -0.2500 OPDC OPDC 84 OPDC 0.0000 1.0000 0.2500 -0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.1 1.73150E+000 1.773 OPDC OPDC OPDC 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 84 0.0000 1.0000 0.2500 3 86223E-001 088 11222 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 3.86223E-001 -2.10541E+000 1.24723E+000 3.24755E-001 -1.31885E+000 86 87 0000 0.2500 0.0000 0.2500 0.2500 88 OPDC OPDC 0.1 0.062 0.2500 0.00000E+000 89 0.0000 1.0000 0.1 1.028 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 7.64997E-001 2.79604E-001 -1.23002E+000 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 1.0000 1.0000 -0.2500 0.2500 1.0000 92 93 OPDC OPDC 0.0000 0.2500 -0.2500 0.1 0.895 3.57826E-001 0.076 94 95 96 97 OPDC OPDC OPDC 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 0.2500 0.2500 0.7500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 -0.2500 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.0000 0.00000E+000 2.45048E-001 0.036 2.45048E-001 -1.36724E+000 2.66086E-002 2.17879E-001 0.0000 0.00000E+000 0.00000E+000 1.105 0.0000 OPDC 0.2500 0.00000E+000 0.028

0.2500 Listing B.3.2.1

0.00000E+000

0 0000 1.0000

0.7500

-1.57081E+000

1.459

This complication is another reason why the lens designer may wish to experiment with field weights.

Figure B.3.2.1 is the layout of the final OPD optimized Cooke Triplet. Note that the general configuration is very similar to the spot size optimized lens in Figure B.3.1.1, but the front airspace is relatively smaller and the surface curves are somewhat different.

Figure B.3.2.2 is the vignetting plot. Note that the fraction of unvignetted rays at the edge of the field is 0.47 or 47% (1.09 stops down from the field center). This throughput value is close enough to the 50% target.

However, note that the vignetting diagram in Figure B.3.2.2 does not include the effect of cosine-fourth vignetting. Cosine-fourth vignetting darkens the edge of the field by an additional amount beyond any mechanical vignetting. For 22.6° off-axis, cosine-fourth is 0.73 or 73% (0.46 stops down from the field center). This value assumes negligible pupil growth from pupil aberrations, a reasonable assumption for a Cooke Triplet. Thus, total estimated light falloff from both types of vignetting gives relative illumination (irradiance) at the edge of the field of 0.34 or 34% 1.55 stops down from the field center). Again, this amount of light falloff will scarcely be noticed in practice.

Figure B.3.2.3 is the transverse ray fan plot; compare it to Figure B.3.1.4. Figure B.3.2.4 gives the field curvature and percent distortion plots; compare these with the plots in Figure B.3.1.5. Figure B.3.2.5 is the polychromatic spot diagram; compare this with Figure B.3.1.6. Clearly, Figures B.3.2.3 and B.3.2.5 show that the OPD optimized lens is worse when evaluated by transverse ray errors.

Figure B.3.2.6 is the OPD ray fan plot; compare it to Figure B.3.1.8. Now the OPD optimized lens is better. Note that there is still astigmatism, as revealed by the different curvatures at the origins of the tangential and sagittal off-axis plots. Note too that the astigmatism changes sign between the 70% field and the 100% field; this agrees with the field curvature plot where the curves cross near the 90% field.

Figure B.3.2.7 is the diffraction MTF plot; compare this with Figure B.3.1.9. Again the OPD optimized lens is better. Furthermore, the lens as optimized with OPD now gives a level of MTF performance that is acceptable for a normal, moderate speed 35 mm camera lens.

Camera lenses are often used stopped down. Figure B.3.2.8 is the MTF plot for the OPD optimized f/3.5 Cooke Triplet when stopped down to f/8. At this commonly used opening, image quality is quite good. However, the effects of the field-zonal astigmatism are still noticeable. Refer again to the field curvature plot in Figure B.3.2.4. At 70% field, the sagittal image surface is quite far from the actual image surface, and thus the sagittal MTF is degraded. At 100% field, past the tangential-sagittal curve crossing, the tangential image surface is now quite far from the actual image surface, and thus now the tangential MTF suffers.

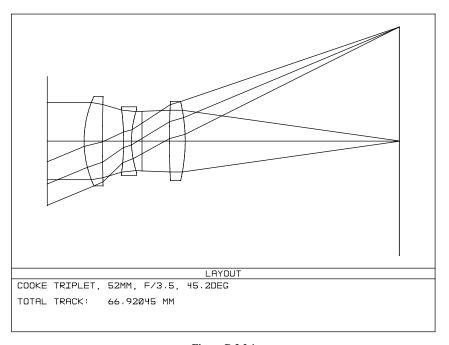


Figure B.3.2.1

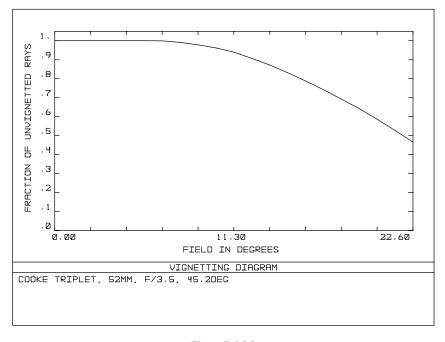


Figure B.3.2.2

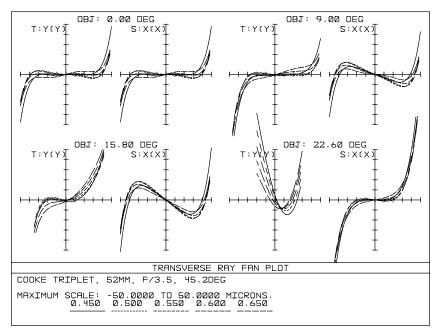


Figure B.3.2.3

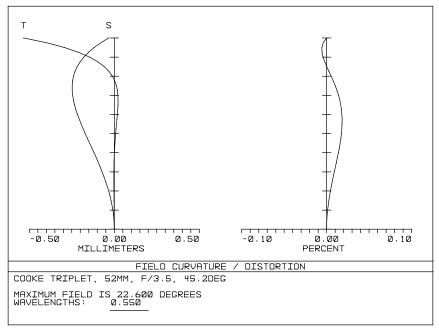


Figure B.3.2.4

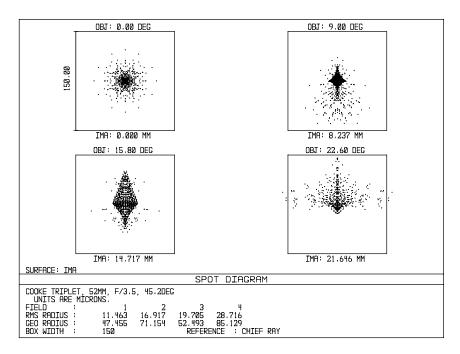


Figure B.3.2.5

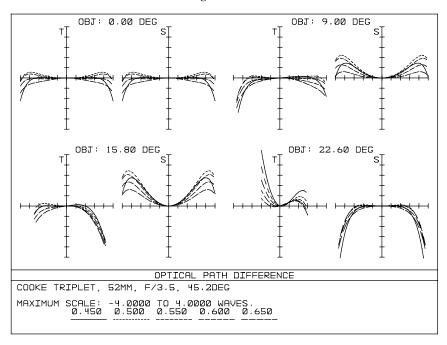


Figure B.3.2.6

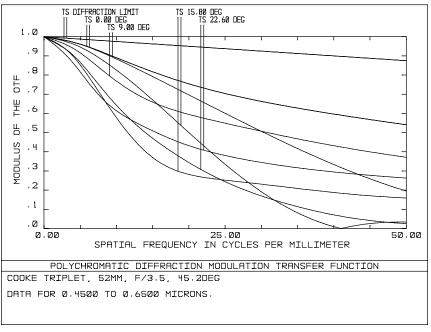


Figure B.3.2.7 Lens wide open.

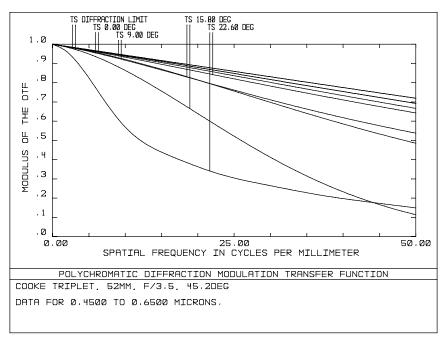


Figure B.3.2.8 Lens stopped down to f/8.

Finally, Listing B.3.2.2 gives the optical prescription for the OPD optimized Cooke Triplet.

B.3.3 The Tessar Lens

If you require a bit more optical performance than the Cooke Triplet can deliver, then the four element Tessar configuration, illustrated in Figure B.3.3.1, may be the answer. Clearly, the Tessar, whose name derives from the Greek word meaning four, closely resembles the Cooke Triplet. The big difference is that the rear singlet in the Cooke Triplet has been replaced by a cemented doublet. The additional element gives the lens designer one more surface curvature to vary during optimization to control aberrations. With the Tessar, there are nine effective independent variables: seven curvatures and two airspaces. Once again, the glass thicknesses are only weak, ineffective variables and are fixed at practical values. Of course, glass selection is still very important.

The lens shown here is the classic Tessar with the outside element of the doublet having positive power. There is a Tessar derivative where the positive and negative elements of the doublet are reversed in order. There is still another derivative where the whole lens is reversed. The performance of all three versions is about the same. By far, the majority of Tessars are the classic variety.

In the present Tessar example, the basic lens specifications are the same as in the Cooke Triplet example. This includes the same amount of vignetting. The idea is to create two designs that can be directly compared. Once again, MTF is the image quality criterion.

The Tessar is not strictly symmetrical, but nevertheless the design still contains much symmetry. This symmetry can help in deriving a starting configuration. In addition, a look at published Tessar layouts will suggest some useful initial constraints that can shepherd the lens in the right direction. Make the inside surface of the front element flat. Make the two curvatures of the singlet negative element equal with opposite signs. Make the inside air-to-glass surface of the doublet flat. Make the two curvatures of the positive element of the doublet equal with opposite signs. And make the front airspace equal to the space between the stop and the first surface of the cemented doublet. Use pickups for the coupled parameters. For glasses, make a guess based on published accounts (see below for more on glass). It is no accident that to a large extent this starting configuration looks very much like a Cooke Triplet.

With these constraints, you optimize as you did for the Cooke Triplet. Focal length is corrected to 52 mm, paraxial longitudinal color is corrected to zero, and polychromatic spot sizes are reduced. Ignore distortion for now. If the airspaces become too large or too small, change the glass for the negative singlet and reoptimize. The resulting lens configuration will be good enough for use at the start of the intermediate optimizations (with the initial constraints removed, of course).

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If Y Pupil shift : 0
If Y Pupil sh
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                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                        Listing B.3.2.2
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         Weight
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3.00000
2.00000
1.000000
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0.000000
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  Aperture SIADUMU (
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Maximum Radius : STANDAD (
Maximum Radius : STANDAD (
Maximum Radius : STANDAD (
Minimum Radius : STANDAD (
Minimum Radius : STANDAD (
Minimum Radius : Minimum Radius : Maximum Radius : Surface 3 (
Maximum Radius : STANDAD (
Minimum Radius : STAN
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SOLFE AND VARIABLE DATA:

Curvature of 2 : Variable
Semi Diam 2 : Fixed
Curvature of 3 : Variable
Semi Diam 4 : Variable
Semi Diam 4 : Variable
Semi Diam 4 : Fixed
Curvature of 5 : Variable
Semi Diam 5 : Fixed
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Semi Diam 6 : Fixed
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Semi Diam 7 : Fixed
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Semi Diam 8 : Fixed
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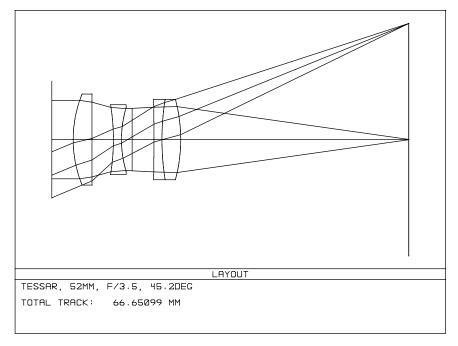


Figure B.3.3.1

The biggest issue throughout the design of a Tessar is glass selection. The one thing that is clear is that for best results, the positive elements should be made of high-index crown glass. The reasons are the same as those outlined for the Cooke Triplet: crown glass for achromatization, and high index to reduce the naturally negative Petzval sum and to reduce higher-order aberrations. Older Tessar designs use the barium crowns (the SK glasses in the Schott catalog). Newer Tessars use the even higher-index lanthanum crowns.

Thus, the problem becomes selecting the glasses for the two negative elements. Most published accounts suggest that relative to the crowns, both negative elements be flints and be selected from the glasses along the old glass line. The negative singlet usually has a somewhat lower index and is very flinty relative to the crowns. The cemented negative element usually has a much lower index and is only moderately more flinty relative to the crowns.

But this approach is not universal. The famous 50 mm f/3.5 Elmar lens for the original Leica camera is a Tessar derivative with the stop in the front airspace rather than the rear airspace. In order from front to rear, the glasses for the Elmar are: SK7, F5, BK7, and SK15.³ Relative to SK15 (n_d of 1.623, V_d of 58.1), BK7 (n_d of 1.517, V_d of 64.2) is a crown, not a flint. In fact, it is possible to design ex-

³ Dierick Kossel, "Glass Compositions," *Leica Fotografie*, English edition, Feb. 1978, pp. 20-25.

cellent Tessars with equal dispersions for the two elements of the cemented doublet.

For the present Tessar example, the glass type adopted for both of the crowns is the same as for the crowns in the Cooke Triplet, Schott LaFN21. However, when the computer is asked to find the matching glasses for the negative elements, the results are inconclusive. To understand this behavior, a manual approach is used. Four separate Tessars were optimized with the glass for the cemented negative element fixed successively at LLF2, F5, SF2, and SF15. For each case, a matching flint for the negative singlet was found by a search along the old glass line and by repeatedly optimizing with the intermediate merit function. The remarkable result is that all four solutions give almost identical optical performance. No wonder the automatic glass selection is inconclusive.

Thus, Schott F5 (n_d of 1.603, V_d of 38.0) is arbitrarily adopted for the negative cemented element. The reason is historical; relative to LaFN21 (n_d of 1.788, V_d of 47.5), F5 has the classical position on the glass map, down and to the right. The matching flint is found to be Schott SF15 (n_d of 1.699, V_d of 30.1). Thus, the glass set for the Tessar becomes: LaFN21, SF15, F5, LaFN21. These are all preferred glasses.

The intermediate and final optimizations for a Tessar are very similar to those for a Cooke Triplet. During the final optimizations, both a spot size optimization and an OPD optimization are done. MTFs are plotted and the results compared. As with the Cooke Triplet, the OPD optimized Tessar is found to give better MTF performance.

Figure B.3.3.1 shows the layout of the final OPD optimized Tessar. Note that the inside surface of the front element and the air-to glass surface of the cemented negative element are both nearly flat. If this Tessar were to be actually fabricated, one or both of these surfaces would probably be made exactly flat and the lens reoptimized with little loss of performance. Surfaces with very long radii are hard to make and are often not worth the effort.

Figure B.3.3.2 is the vignetting plot of geometrical throughput versus field angle for the Tessar. Note that the fraction of unvignetted rays at the edge of the field is 0.48 or 48% (1.06 stops down from the field center). This value is nearly identical to the corresponding value for the Cooke Triplet as shown on Figure B.3.2.2.

Figure B.3.3.3 shows the transverse ray fan plots for the Tessar. Compare these to the plots in Figure B.3.2.3 for the Cooke Triplet. Clearly, the two sets of curves are very similar. The most noticeable difference is that the off-axis tangential curves for the Tessar show somewhat smaller ray errors. Like the Triplet, the Tessar suffers from off-axis oblique spherical aberration and field-zonal astigmatism.

Figure B.3.3.4 shows the field curvature and percent distortion plots. Compare these to the plots in Figure B.3.2.4. On the left, note that the Tessar has no-

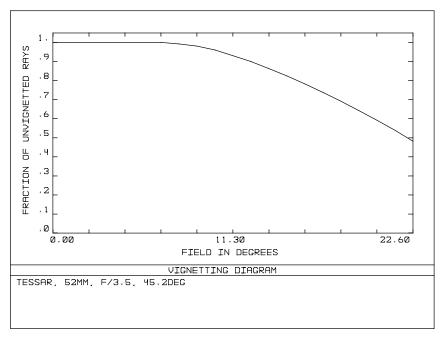


Figure B.3.3.2

ticeably less field-zonal astigmatism than the Cooke Triplet. Consequently, the Tessar needs less emphasis on the intermediate field positions during optimization. The field weights of 4 3 2 1 for the Triplet were changed to 5 4 3 2 for the Tessar. On the right, note that like the Cooke Triplet, distortion in the Tessar has been corrected to zero at the edge of the field by balancing third-order distortion with higher-orders. Note too that at intermediate fields there is a small amount of residual third-order distortion of little or no practical consequence.

Figure B.3.3.5 gives the polychromatic spot diagrams. Compare these to Figure B.3.2.5. As with the ray fan plots, the spots indicate that the Tessar and Triplet have very similar geometrical performance. Qualitatively, the spot shapes are nearly the same; quantitatively, the spot sizes are somewhat less for the Tessar. Thus, the Tessar is definitely the better lens, although only moderately so.

Figure B.3.3.6 gives the OPD ray fan plots. Compare these to Figure B.3.2.6. Again the Tessar is somewhat better.

Figure B.3.3.7 gives the MTF curves for the Tessar wide open at f/3.5. Compare these with the MTF curves in Figure B.3.2.7 for the Cooke Triplet, also wide open at f/3.5. Clearly, the Tessar has higher performance, but again the advantage is not great. However, this modest advantage may be the difference between success and failure in the marketplace. Accordingly, many lens makers have chosen to expend the extra effort to add a fourth element to make a Tessar rather than a Cooke Triplet.

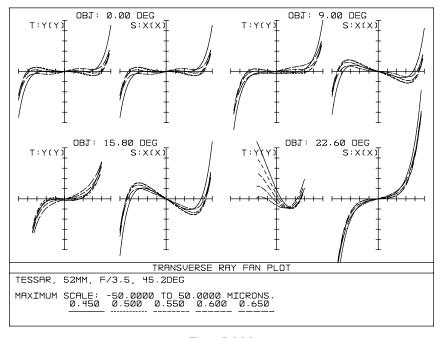


Figure B.3.3.3

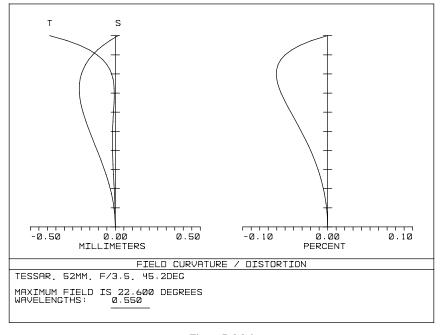


Figure B.3.3.4

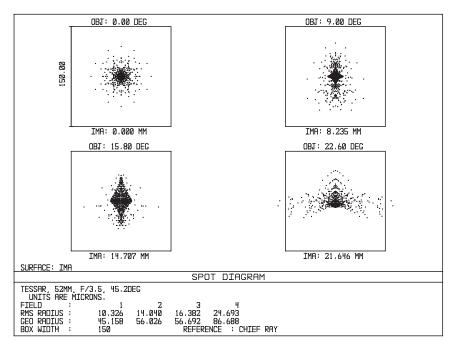


Figure B.3.3.5

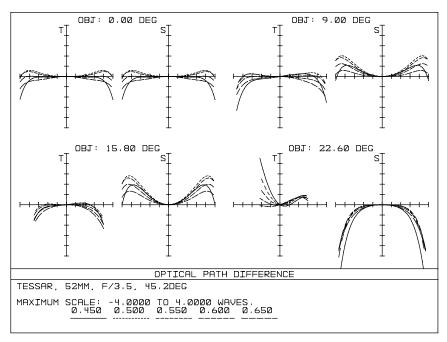


Figure B.3.3.6

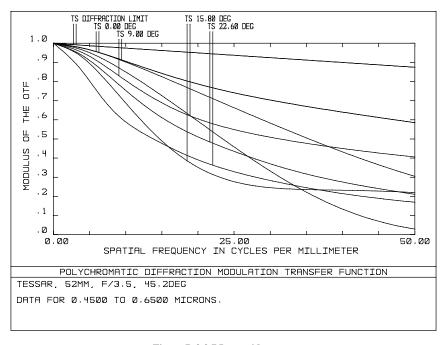


Figure B.3.3.7 Lens wide open.

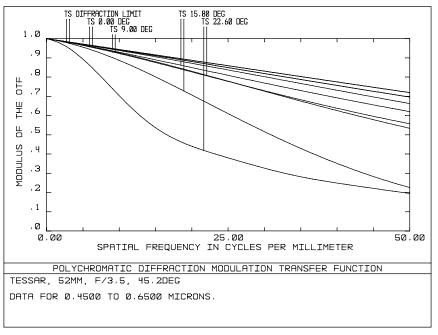


Figure B.3.3.8 Lens stopped down to f/8.

Figure B.3.3.8 gives the MTF curves for the Tessar when stopped down to f/8. Compare these with the MTF curves in Figure B.3.2.8 for the Cooke Triplet, also stopped down to f/8. In addition, compare the MTF performance of both lenses at f/8 versus f/3.5. Clearly, both the Tessar and Triplet have much better MTF performance at f/8 than at f/3.5. But this should be no surprise to any photographer who knows that his lens gets sharper when stopped down. When both lenses are at f/8, the Tessar is once again somewhat better than the Cooke Triplet.

Finally, Listing B.3.3 gives the optical prescription for the OPD optimized Tessar. This Tessar lens is toleranced in Chapter B.7.

The Cooke Triplet and Tessar lens configurations are two of the most popular in the world. But their speeds are limited. For a 35 mm camera, many photographers now insist on buying a faster standard lens. Over the years, several basic approaches to a fast lens have been tried. But only one is widely used today. This configuration is known among lens designers as the Double-Gauss. In the next chapter, the Double-Gauss lens will be examined, and its performance will be compared to that of the Cooke Triplet and Tessar.

Listing B.3.3

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0.000000
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STANDARD
STANDARD
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STANDARD
STANDARD
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                                                                                                                                                                                                11.65832
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LAFN21
                                                                                                               1.5
3.5
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                                                                                                             42.58433
                                                                                                                                                                                                                          15
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IMA STANDARD
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Infinity
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Surface 5 : $TANDARD
Surface 5 : $TANDARD
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SOLVE AND VARIABLE DATA:

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                   F5
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Units are cubic cm.
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Listing B.3.3