

Visual optics

Visual optics is the study of how light interacts with the eye and other optical systems to produce vision.

It involves understanding the principles of optics, including refraction, reflection, and focusing, to explain how the human eye forms images and how corrective lenses improve vision. Visual optics plays a key role in fields like optometry, ophthalmology, and vision science.

Purkinje Images

Purkinje images are reflections of objects from the structure of the eye such as the cornea and lens. They are also known as Purkinje reflexes and as Purkinje–Sanson images.

It informs about the images that are created inside the eye as a result of reflections from each of the refracting interfaces. Which include:

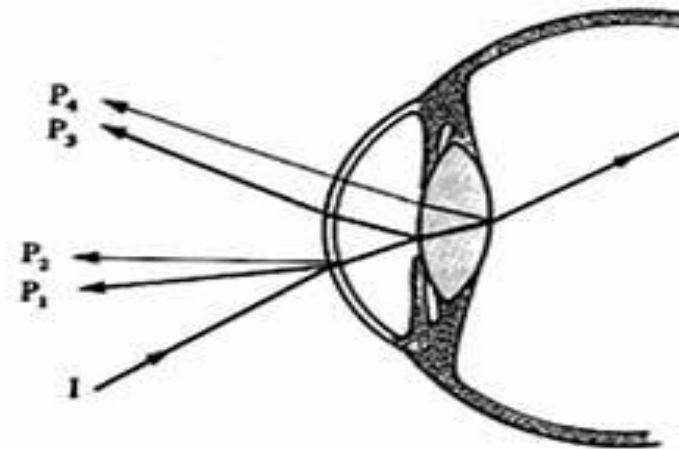
- i. Anterior surface of cornea
- ii. Posterior surface of cornea
- iii. Anterior surface of lens
- iv. Posterior surface of lens

There are four primary Purkinje images, each formed by different reflections within the eye. These images are important in ophthalmology, vision science, and optics, as they provide information about the eye's shape, refractive properties, and alignment.

The Four Purkinje Images:

1. **First Purkinje Image (P1):**
 - Formed by the reflection of light from the **anterior surface of the cornea**.
 - It is the brightest and most easily visible of the four images, since the corneal surface is highly reflective.
2. **Second Purkinje Image (P2):**
 - Formed by the reflection from the **posterior surface of the cornea**.
 - This image is much dimmer than P1 because the posterior surface reflects less light.
3. **Third Purkinje Image (P3):**
 - Formed by the reflection from the **anterior surface of the lens**.
 - It is relatively dim but larger than P1 because of the curvature and position of the lens's anterior surface.
4. **Fourth Purkinje Image (P4):**

- Formed by the reflection from the **posterior surface of the lens**.
- This image is inverted compared to the others, dimmer, and typically the smallest due to the higher refractive index and curvature of the lens's posterior surface.



Corneal curvature:

- **Corneal curvature** refers to the shape and steepness of the cornea, the transparent, dome-shaped front part of the eye.
- It determines how light entering the eye is bent (refracted) to focus on the retina. The curvature of the cornea is critical for proper vision, as it accounts for most of the eye's refractive power.
- The average radius of corneal curvature is about **7.5 to 8.5 mm** in the central region.
- Variations in corneal curvature can lead to refractive errors such as **myopia** (when the cornea is too steep) or **hyperopia** (when the cornea is too flat).
- If the curvature is uneven, it causes **astigmatism**, where vision is distorted.
- Corneal curvature is measured using devices like **keratometers** or **corneal topography** to help diagnose visual problems and design corrective lenses or plan refractive surgeries.

Shape and Radius:

- The cornea is typically more curved at the center and gradually flattens toward the edges.
- The **average radius of curvature** of the central cornea is about **7.5 to 8.5 mm**, though this varies slightly between individuals.

- The curvature of the cornea determines its refractive power, which is usually around **43 to 48 diopters**.

Refractive Role:

- The shape of the cornea affects how light is bent as it enters the eye, and this bending focuses light onto the retina to create clear images.
- An abnormally curved cornea can lead to refractive errors:
 - **Myopia (Nearsightedness):** A cornea that is too steep, causing light to focus in front of the retina.
 - **Hyperopia (Farsightedness):** A cornea that is too flat, causing light to focus behind the retina.
 - **Astigmatism:** An uneven or irregular corneal curvature, where light is refracted differently in various meridians, leading to distorted vision

Measurement of Corneal Curvature:

- **Keratometry:** A keratometer is used to measure the curvature of the anterior (front) surface of the cornea, particularly useful for diagnosing astigmatism and fitting contact lenses.
- **Corneal Topography:** This method provides a detailed map of the entire cornea's surface, showing variations in curvature. It is used in advanced diagnostic procedures, such as evaluating candidates for LASIK surgery or monitoring diseases like keratoconus (a progressive thinning and steepening of the cornea).

Corneal Conditions:

- **Keratoconus:** A condition in which the cornea becomes thin and steepens, resulting in a cone-like shape that distorts vision.
- **Corneal Ectasia:** A weakening or bulging of the cornea, often caused by trauma or post-surgery.
- These conditions significantly alter the corneal curvature and lead to visual distortion, requiring specialized treatments like rigid gas-permeable contact lenses or corneal cross-linking

Corrective and Surgical Procedures:

- **LASIK/PRK:** Laser procedures that reshape the corneal curvature to correct refractive errors like myopia, hyperopia, and astigmatism.

- **Contact Lenses:** Different types of contact lenses, including rigid gas-permeable and toric lenses, are used to correct corneal curvature abnormalities, particularly for astigmatism.

Measurement of corneal curvature:

- The **measurement of corneal curvature** is crucial for diagnosing refractive errors, fitting contact lenses, and planning surgical procedures such as LASIK.
- It provides insights into the cornea's shape and how it bends light.
- The curvature is typically measured using instruments like **keratometers** and **corneal topographers**, which assess the cornea's surface and its refractive power

Methods of Measuring Corneal Curvature:

1. Keratometry:

- A **keratometer** measures the curvature of the anterior (front) surface of the cornea, particularly in the central 3 to 4 millimeters.
- It provides the **radius of curvature** and the **refractive power** of the cornea in diopters.
- The instrument shines light onto the cornea and measures the reflection to estimate the curvature.
- This method is primarily used to diagnose astigmatism and determine the fit for contact lenses.

2. Corneal Topography:

- This method provides a detailed, three-dimensional map of the entire corneal surface, not just the central area.
- A **corneal topographer** uses a series of concentric rings (placido disk) projected onto the cornea to analyze the reflection and create a topographic map.
- It gives comprehensive data on corneal curvature, including central, peripheral, and irregular curvatures, which is particularly helpful in diagnosing conditions like **keratoconus** or planning refractive surgeries like LASIK.

3. Auto-Refractors:

- These devices measure the curvature of the cornea as part of an automated refraction process.
- They give a general estimate of corneal curvature and refractive error, often used as a preliminary measurement before more detailed testing

4. **Ophthalmic Ultrasound (Pachymetry):**

- Although primarily used to measure **corneal thickness**, pachymetry can also contribute to understanding corneal curvature in certain cases, such as assessing keratoconus.

5. **Scheimpflug Imaging:**

- This is an advanced imaging technique that captures high-resolution images of both the anterior and posterior corneal surfaces.
- It provides more detailed information about corneal curvature, corneal thickness, and overall shape, making it useful for diagnosing corneal diseases and post-surgical evaluation

Importance of Measuring Corneal Curvature:

- **Contact Lenses:** Proper fit requires accurate curvature measurements to ensure the lens aligns with the cornea for comfort and effective vision correction.
- **Refractive Surgery (e.g., LASIK):** Corneal curvature measurements are critical for determining how much of the cornea needs to be reshaped to correct refractive errors.
- **Astigmatism Diagnosis:** Uneven corneal curvature leads to astigmatism, where light is refracted at different angles, causing blurred or distorted vision.
- **Keratoconus:** Early detection of this condition, where the cornea becomes abnormally steep and thin, relies heavily on detailed corneal curvature measurements.

Corneal thickness

- **Corneal thickness**, also known as **central corneal thickness (CCT)**, refers to the measurement of the cornea's thickness, typically at its central point.
- It plays a crucial role in the overall health and function of the eye, particularly in maintaining proper vision and intraocular pressure (IOP) regulation.
- It is typically measured in micrometers (μm) and is an important indicator of corneal health and function.
- The thickness of the cornea varies across its surface, being thinnest at the center and gradually increasing toward the periphery.

Average Corneal Thickness:

- The normal central corneal thickness in healthy adults typically ranges from **520 to 550 micrometers (μm)**, though it can vary slightly depending on factors like age, ethnicity, and individual variation.
- The cornea is thicker at the periphery compared to the center.

Importance of Corneal Thickness:

- **Intraocular Pressure (IOP) Assessment:** Corneal thickness affects the accuracy of IOP measurements, which are critical for diagnosing and managing **glaucoma**. A thicker-than-average cornea may give falsely high IOP readings, while a thinner cornea may underestimate the IOP.
- **Refractive Surgery (LASIK, PRK):** Before performing procedures like LASIK or PRK, surgeons assess corneal thickness to ensure there is enough tissue for safe reshaping of the cornea. If the cornea is too thin, the procedure may not be safe or effective.
- **Keratoconus:** This is a progressive condition where the cornea becomes thinner and bulges into a cone shape, leading to vision distortion. Monitoring corneal thickness is essential for diagnosing and managing keratoconus.

Conditions Related to Abnormal Corneal Thickness:

- **Thin Cornea:** A thinner cornea can be a risk factor for diseases like keratoconus and may complicate certain eye surgeries.
- **Thick Cornea:** While generally less concerning, a thicker cornea can mask elevated intraocular pressure, potentially delaying the diagnosis of glaucoma.

Measurement of Corneal Thickness:

- The **measurement of corneal thickness** is important in diagnosing and managing various eye conditions, particularly in determining intraocular pressure (IOP), assessing corneal health, and planning surgeries like LASIK.
- It is typically measured using non-invasive methods and is most often expressed in micrometers (μm)

Techniques for Measuring Corneal Thickness:

1. Pachymetry:

- **Ultrasound Pachymetry:** The most common method, where a small probe touches the cornea and emits ultrasound waves to measure thickness. It's quick and accurate, measuring central and peripheral thickness.
- **Optical Pachymetry:** Non-contact methods use light, such as **optical coherence tomography (OCT)**, to measure corneal thickness. It provides high-resolution cross-sectional images of the cornea.

2. Corneal Topography:

- Primarily used to map the surface curvature of the cornea, but some advanced topographers also measure corneal thickness across the entire corneal surface. **Scheimpflug imaging** is one such method that captures detailed 3D images of the cornea and provides both curvature and thickness measurements

3. Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT):

- OCT is a non-invasive imaging technique that uses light waves to capture detailed cross-sectional images of the cornea. It offers highly accurate measurements of corneal thickness and is commonly used in ophthalmic clinics.

4. Confocal Microscopy:

- This advanced imaging technique provides high-resolution images of the cornea at the cellular level and can also measure corneal thickness. It's more commonly used in research and specialized clinical settings.

5. **Specular Microscopy:**

- Used to examine the corneal endothelial cells, this method can indirectly measure corneal thickness, but it is less commonly used for this purpose

Importance of Corneal Thickness Measurement:

1. **Glaucoma Management:**

- **Intraocular pressure (IOP)** measurements are influenced by corneal thickness. A thicker cornea can lead to overestimation of IOP, while a thinner cornea can underestimate it. Accurate corneal thickness measurements help adjust IOP readings and improve glaucoma diagnosis and treatment.

2. **Refractive Surgery (LASIK, PRK):**

- Pre-surgical corneal thickness measurements are essential for determining the safety and feasibility of procedures like LASIK or PRK. If the cornea is too thin, it may not be suitable for surgery or require alternative treatments.

3. **Keratoconus Diagnosis:**

- **Keratoconus** is a progressive condition where the cornea becomes thinner and bulges into a cone-like shape. Measuring corneal thickness is key for early detection and monitoring of the disease.

4. **Corneal Edema:**

- In cases of corneal swelling (edema), measuring corneal thickness helps assess the extent of fluid accumulation and guide treatment decisions.

Normal Ranges:

- The average **central corneal thickness (CCT)** is about **520 to 550 micrometers** in a healthy adult. Variations in thickness can be indicative of underlying conditions

Schematic eye

- A **schematic eye** is a simplified, mathematical model of the human eye used to study and understand its optical properties.
- This model represents the eye's key components, such as the cornea, lens, and retina, with geometrical shapes and known refractive indices.
- It helps researchers, optometrists, and vision scientists analyze how light travels through the eye, assess refractive errors (e.g., myopia, hyperopia, astigmatism), and design optical devices like corrective lenses.

Listing as well as gauss Studying refraction by lens combination, it was determined that in a homocentric lens system, there are three pairs of cardinal points: two principal foci, two principal points, and two nodal points, all of which are located on the system's principal axis. Consequently, six locations can be identified when the eye is optically analyzed using the Gauss concept to build a homocentric complex lens system.

Features of a Schematic Eye:

1. **Simplified Representation:** A schematic eye simplifies the anatomy of the eye, usually reducing the cornea and lens to single or multi-surface elements, and replaces the complex, biological structures with more idealized, geometric shapes.
2. **Optical Surfaces:**
 - **Cornea:** Modeled as a curved surface with a specific radius and refractive power.
 - **Lens:** Represented as one or two surfaces with refractive indices, often including its ability to change curvature for accommodation (focusing on near or distant objects).
3. **Axial Length:** The distance between the corneal surface and the retina, which is crucial in determining the focal point of light in the eye.
4. **Refractive Indices:** Each optical component (cornea, aqueous humor, lens, and vitreous humor) is assigned a specific refractive index to simulate how light bends as it passes through the eye.

Types of Schematic Eyes:

1. **Gullstrand's Schematic Eye:** One of the most well-known models, developed by Swedish ophthalmologist Allvar Gullstrand. His schematic eye includes detailed refractive indices for each component and is divided into two main types:
 - **Gullstrand No. 1:** A more complex, multi-surface model that closely mimics the actual anatomy of the human eye.
 - **Gullstrand No. 2:** A simplified version, used for basic optical calculations.

2. **Reduced Eye Model:** A simplified version of the schematic eye, which assumes a single refractive surface and a uniform refractive index inside the eye. This is useful for basic optical calculations and is often used for teaching and quick approximations. A typical **reduced eye** has:
 - **Single refractive surface** (cornea).
 - Fixed **axial length** of around 22 mm.
 - **Refractive power** of about 60 diopters.
3. **Exact Models:** Modern schematic eyes incorporate detailed anatomical and physiological data to better simulate the behavior of light in the human eye, especially in clinical applications and advanced optical research.

Gullstrand's Schematic Eye:

- **Gullstrand's Schematic Eye** is a detailed optical model of the human eye developed by Swedish ophthalmologist Allvar Gullstrand.
- It is used to simulate and study the optical properties of the eye, such as how light is refracted and focused.
- The model is notable for its accuracy and complexity in representing the eye's various components and their interactions.

Features of Gullstrand's Schematic Eye:

1. **Complexity:**
 - **Multi-Surface Model:** Unlike simpler models, Gullstrand's eye includes multiple refractive surfaces to better approximate the human eye's structure. It represents the cornea and lens as distinct optical surfaces with specific curvatures and refractive indices.
2. **Components:**
 - **Cornea:** Modeled as a curved surface with its own refractive index.
 - **Lens:** Divided into two surfaces (anterior and posterior) with different curvatures and refractive indices.
 - **Aqueous Humor and Vitreous Humor:** The fluids between and behind the lens, each with its own refractive index.
 - **Retina:** The light-sensitive layer at the back of the eye where the image is focused.
3. **Types:**
 - **Gullstrand No. 1:** A detailed model with specific values for the curvature, refractive indices, and distances between the eye's optical components. It closely mimics the actual human eye's anatomy.
 - **Gullstrand No. 2:** A simplified version of the original model, used for less complex calculations and general studies.
4. **Optical Parameters:**
 - **Refractive Power:** Includes the combined optical power of the cornea and lens.

- **Axial Length:** The distance from the cornea to the retina, critical for understanding how light focuses within the eye.
- 5. **Applications:**
 - **Refractive Error Analysis:** Helps in understanding how different types of refractive errors (myopia, hyperopia, astigmatism) affect vision.
 - **Lens Design:** Used in designing corrective lenses, including glasses and contact lenses, by analyzing how changes in eye optics influence visual performance.
 - **Surgical Planning:** Assists in planning and simulating outcomes for refractive surgeries such as LASIK by predicting how changes to the corneal curvature will affect vision.

Cardinal data of Gullstrand's schematic eye:

- Principal foci F1 and F2 are located 24.4 mm behind and 15.7 mm in front of the cornea, respectively.
- Principal points placing P1 and P2 in the anterior chamber, respectively, 1.35 and 1.60 mm below the cornea's anterior surface
- Nodal point N1 & N2 lie in the posterior part of lens 7.08 mm and 7.33 mm behind the anterior surface of cornea
- Refractive power data in Gullstrand's schematic eye
 - Complete optical system of eye: when accommodation is relaxed 58.64 & when accommodation is maximum 70.57
 - Corneal system: when accommodation is relaxed 43.05 & when accommodation is maximum 43.05
 - Lens system: when accommodation is relaxed 19.11 & when accommodation is maximum 33.06
- Gullstrand data on refractive indices:
 - Cornea 1.376
 - Aqueous 1.336
 - Les cortex 1.386
 - Lens core 1.406
 - Vitreous 1.336
- Gullstrand data on radii of curvature:
 - Anterior surface of cornea 7.70mm
 - Posterior surface of cornea 6.70 mm
 - Anterior surface of lens 10.00mm
 - Posterior surface of lens 6.00 mm
 - Anterior surface of lens core 7.91 mm

- Posterior surface of lens core 5.76 mm

Assessment Using a Schematic Eye

When assessing vision using a schematic eye, several factors can be evaluated:

1. **Refraction:** The way light is bent as it enters the eye, focusing on the retina. In a perfect eye (emmetropia), the light converges directly on the retina. In cases of myopia (nearsightedness) or hyperopia (farsightedness), light focuses either in front of or behind the retina, respectively.
2. **Lens Power:** The ability of the lens to adjust focus for near and far objects, a process known as accommodation.
3. **Astigmatism:** An irregular curvature of the cornea or lens, causing light to focus unevenly on the retina.
4. **Aberrations:** These are imperfections in the eye's optical system that can result in distorted images on the retina. Higher-order aberrations may involve issues like spherical aberration, where light rays focus at different points.
5. **Focal Length:** The distance from the lens to the point where light converges to form a clear image.

Conjugacy

- In the field of optics, conjugacy describes the connection between two optical surfaces or systems in which the image created by one surface functions as the next surface's object.
- Put another way, an object at one location will create a matching image at a conjugate point, often known as a conjugate image.

Conjugate Points

- **Conjugate points** are pairs of points in an optical system where light rays passing through one point converge to the other point when they are processed by lenses or mirrors.
- These points are crucial in understanding image formation and lens systems.
- In optics, conjugate points are important for understanding how lenses and mirrors form images.
- By using the lens or mirror formula, you can determine the relationship between the object and image distances, confirming that they are conjugate points.
- This concept helps in designing optical systems and understanding image formation in practical applications like cameras, microscopes, and telescopes.

Optical Conjugate Points:

- **Definition:** Two points are conjugate with respect to an optical system if a light ray from one point, after passing through the optical system, converges to the other point. This is true for systems such as lenses, mirrors, and optical instruments.
- **Examples:** For a single lens, the object and its image are conjugate points. For a telescope, the object being observed and the image formed at the focal plane are conjugate points.

Mathematical Representation:

- In terms of lenses and mirrors, the relationship between conjugate points can be described using the lens formula or mirror formula.
- **Lens Formula:** For a thin lens, the lens formula is

$$1/f = 1/d_o + 1/d_i$$

Where f is the focal length of the lens, d_o is the object distance from the lens, and d_i is the image distance from the lens. Here, d_o and d_i the distances of the object and its conjugate image from the lens, respectively.

Conjugate Points in Mirrors:

- **Mirror Formula:** For a spherical mirror (concave or convex), the mirror formula is

$$1/f = 1/d_o + 1/d_i$$

Where f is the focal length of the mirror, d_o is the object distance from the mirror, and d_i is the image distance from the mirror.

Demonstration of Conjugate Points with a Simple Optical System

Using a Thin Convex Lens:

1. **Setup:**
 - Place a thin convex lens on a flat surface. Use an optical bench or a similar setup to accurately measure distances.
2. **Place an Object:**
 - Position an object (e.g., an arrow) at a known distance from the lens (object distance d_o).
3. **Find the Image:**
 - Use a screen or a piece of paper to find where the image forms. Adjust the position of the screen until the image is sharp. Measure the distance from the lens to this screen (image distance d_i).
4. **Verify Conjugate Points:**
 - According to the lens formula, if you have d_o and d_i measured, you can verify:

$$1/f = 1/d_o + 1/d_i$$

- This confirms that the object and image are conjugate points

Using a Concave Mirror:

1. **Setup:**
 - Place a concave mirror on a flat surface or an optical bench.
2. **Place an Object:**
 - Position an object in front of the mirror at a known distance (object distance d_o).
3. **Locate the Image:**
 - Find the position of the image by using a screen or by observing where the reflected rays converge. Measure the image distance d_i .
4. **Verify with the Mirror Formula:**

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- Check if:

$$1/f = 1/d_o + 1/d_i$$

- This confirms that the object and image are conjugate points with respect to the mirror