Time-Domain Image Processing Using Dynamic Holography

Y. Ding, David D. Nolte, Michael R. Melloch, Senior Member, IEEE, and Andrew M. Weiner, Fellow, IEEE

Abstract—Coded ultrafast optical pulses can be treated as one-dimensional (1-D) images in the time domain. We have converted space-domain images into time-domain images using diffraction from dynamic holograms inside a Fourier pulse shaper, with photorefractive quantum wells (QW’s) used as the dynamic holographic medium. We present several examples, in which amplitude or phase modulation of the hologram writing beams modifies the complex spectrum of the femtosecond output, resulting in a time-domain image. Both storage and processing of time-domain images can be achieved, depending on the hologram writing geometry and power densities. Time-domain processing operations such as edge enhancement, Fourier transform, and correlation are demonstrated.

Index Terms—Holography, image processing, nonlinear optics, optical pulse shaping, optical signal processing, quantum-well devices, ultrafast optics.

I. INTRODUCTION

By analogy with function generators and signal processors in electronics, the ability to arbitrarily manipulate ultrafast pulses is of great interest and practical importance in optical communication and information processing. Femtosecond (fs) lasers open possibilities to exploit the large bandwidth of optics (several terahertz (THz) for commercially available sub-100-fs lasers). As one method to utilize this bandwidth, ultrafast pulses can be shaped and coded using Fourier synthesis techniques. Shaping of laser pulses on the femtosecond time scale was demonstrated in 1988 [1], in which the optical frequency components of a femtosecond pulse were manipulated by an amplitude or phase mask in the Fourier domain. By changing the mask, different shaped pulses were obtained. Extensive work has been done in this area [2] using different kind of masks such as photolithographic amplitude and phase masks [1], [3], dynamic liquid crystal spatial light modulators [4]–[7], acoustooptic light modulators [8], computer-generated holographic plates [9], and dynamic holograms [10], [11]. Femtosecond pulse-shaping experiments using photorefractive quantum wells (PRQW’s) [11] have demonstrated real-time control over the hologram with the material response time in the microsecond range.

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Shaped pulses carrying information may have complicated temporal patterns which can be treated as one-dimensional (1-D) images in the time domain. The term “time-domain image” is most appropriate for cases when the shaped forms are obtained by converting space-domain images into the time domain. Time–space conversions are useful in femtosecond optical signal processing, optical transmultiplexing, image processing, and temporal pattern generation and recognition. Both time-to-space and space-to-time conversions have been demonstrated [12]–[16], and time-domain images have been obtained using both fixed and dynamic Fourier holograms [9], [17]. Processing time-domain images [17] (by analogy with processing conventional space-domain images) may open new possibilities for applications in optical communication, signal processing and data storage. Possible operations for time-domain image processing include: 1) single-image processing, such as noise suppression, defect correction, edge enhancement, time reversal, etc., where there is only one image involved, and 2) multi-image processing, such as convolution or correlation, where two or more images are involved. By using spectral holography [18], operations such as time reversal, correlation and matched filtering of time-domain femtosecond input optical pulses have been realized [19], [20]. Nonlinear spectral holography permits more elaborate signal-processing operations [21]. In this paper, we discuss in detail space-to-time conversion using PRQW’s for dynamic holography within a femtosecond pulse shaper and demonstrate the possibility of performing various processing operations, such as Fourier transform, edge enhancement, and correlation, as part of space-to-time conversion.

The second section of this paper explains the basic principle we used for time-domain image generation and processing, i.e., space-to-time conversion and processing during conversion, and describes the experimental setup, followed by a section demonstrating the suitability of PRQW for femtosecond time-domain image processing applications. The fourth and the fifth sections present results in the generation and processing of time-domain images, where we will give examples of single- and multi-image processing operations such as edge enhancement and correlation.

II. PRINCIPLES AND EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Ultrafast optical pulses contain a wide bandwidth of, for example, 4 THz for a typical 100-fs pulse duration with a Gaussian shape, corresponding to 10 nm at a center wavelength of 850 nm from a Ti:sapphire laser. Time-domain images can be generated and processed in the frequency domain using...
Fourier synthesis techniques. As an ultrafast optical pulse with a wide spectrum is dispersed by a dispersive element like a grating, its spectral components are spatially spread. If these components are filtered and modified by an amplitude or phase mask and then recombined, the resultant temporal output, which is the Fourier transform of the modified spectrum, contains the information of the mask. If the amplitude/phase mask is itself the Fourier transform of a certain space-domain image, for example a square aperture, the resultant temporal output envelope will take the same form as the space image, resulting in a time-domain image (a square wave). Any deviation of the mask from the Fourier transform of the space image will “distort” the converted time-domain image. Such deviation can be intentional and can be used to manipulate the time-domain images. The mask in the Fourier plane can be either a physical mask or a hologram. In our experiments, the mask is a dynamic hologram written in a PRQW by CW laser beams, which allows us to modify the output spectrum in situ.

The experimental setup is shown in Fig. 1 with main parameters in the figure caption. It is a dispersion-free 4f-system allowing the synthesis of femtosecond pulses. The setup is similar to the conventional pulse-shaping apparatus [1] (pulse shaper) with two differences fitting the use of dynamic holography: first, a PRQW is placed in the Fourier plane in the pulse shaper instead of a mask, and second, the lenses used in the pulse shaper are cylindrical lenses instead of the conventional spherical lenses. The hologram is written in the PRQW by two cw beams from either a diode laser operating at 685 nm or a He–Ne laser operating at 633 nm. The power of each writing beam is 2–7 mW. By using cylindrical lenses in the pulse shaper, the incident femtosecond beam at the Fourier plane remains unfocused in the vertical direction, so that its power density will be not so high as to erase the hologram, leading to optimal photorefractive diffraction. The Fourier transforms of the femtosecond probe beam and the diffracted beam by the cylindrical lenses are, therefore, 1-D transforms in the horizontal direction.

The femtosecond source is a mode-locked Ti-sapphire laser with a nominal pulsewidth of 100 fs and a central wavelength adjusted to the excitonic absorption line of the QW’s. The laser pulses are characterized to be transform-limited and have a Gaussian shape by interferometric second-harmonic generation (SHG) autocorrelation, power spectroscopy, and spectral interferometry. The femtosecond probe beam with a power of 2.6 mW and a diameter of 1.8 mm is incident on the first grating of the pulse shaper, where it is spectrally dispersed. The frequency components are diffracted from the hologram. By modifying the hologram writing beams, for example by projecting the Fourier transform of a space image onto the hologram medium by using a simple lens, time-domain images are generated by space-to-time conversion. The time-domain images can take different forms, if we control the parameters such as writing beam power densities, lens positions, etc.

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a mask or its Fourier transform onto the PRQW, and the reference beam is unaltered. In the experiments of multi-image processing, both writing beams contain a lens. The image Fourier plane is 22° off the Fourier plane of the pulse shaper, for technical simplicity. This has no detrimental effects on our results because of the long focal length of the lenses in the writing beams (100–200 mm). Neutral density filters are used to adjust the power densities of the two writing beams.

The pulse shaper is carefully aligned to be dispersion free with no PRQW in it, giving identical output pulses to the incident ones. Then a GaAs–Al<sub>x</sub>Ga<sub>1-x</sub>As PRQW is placed in the Fourier plane. Two samples were used in our experiments, one with x = 0.1 and the other with 0.3. The heavy-hole excitonic absorptions are centered at 847 and 836 nm, respectively. Titanium-gold contacts were evaporated on the samples with a 1 × 10 mm<sup>2</sup> aperture. Across the 1-mm gap, a field of 3–7 kV/cm is applied in the plane of the QW's, perpendicular to the growth direction (transverse field geometry [24], [25]). The angle between the two writing beams is 3.3 degrees and the output diffraction efficiency is on the order of 0.1%.

III. DIFFRACTION OF FEMTOSECOND PULSES FROM PRQW'S IN THE TRANSVERSE-FIELD GEOMETRY

As a dynamic holographic medium, PRQW's have high nonlinear sensitivities (refractive index change $\Delta n \sim 10^{-2}$) with small driving power densities ($\sim 10 \mu W/cm^2$) and fast response times ($\sim 10 \mu s$) [24], [25], [26]. The holograms in such materials are thin and the diffraction is in the Raman–Nath regime with no Bragg-matching necessary, providing much larger space-bandwidth products than bulk materials [27], which is important for Fourier filtering in image processing applications. PRQW's can also be designed using semiconductor bandgap engineering to match different application wavelengths, such as 1.55 μm for optical fiber communications [28].

For dynamic Fourier manipulation and processing of time-domain images, an ideal holographic medium should have a flat amplitude and phase response over the bandwidth of the pulses. The diffraction from the hologram in such a material would not distort the probe pulse shape if the hologram itself is not modified by any masks. Photorefractive holograms in PRQW are based on the electroabsorption (electric-field-induced absorption) and electrorefraction (electric-field-induced refractive index change) of quantum-confined excitons. This effect has a typical bandwidth of 5 nm [29], which limits the 10-nm bandwidth for a typical 100-fs Gaussian pulse at 850 nm and broadens the diffracted pulses by a factor of two. Most importantly, the effect by itself is strongly wavelength dependent. The oscillatory behavior as a function of wavelength might be expected to lead to severe distortion of the diffracted pulse shape. However, it was experimentally observed that both spectrum and temporal shape of the diffracted pulse appear to be nearly Gaussian with a time-bandwidth product of 0.43, which is very close the that for Gaussian pulses (0.44), although the limited bandwidth of the quantum-confined excitonic transitions broadens the diffracted pulses [29]. This implies that the diffracted pulse is nearly transform-limited and the phase of the diffracted pulse in the frequency domain is linear.

To understand the linear phase, the field amplitude of the first-order diffraction of a femtosecond incident pulse $E_D(\omega)$ from a photorefractive grating in PRQW is given by

$$E_D(\omega) = E_{IN}(\omega)F_T(\omega)F_D(\omega)$$

where $F_T(\omega) = \exp(i\Delta n(\omega)kL) - \exp(-\alpha(\omega)L/2 + i\Delta n(\omega)kL)$

and the diffraction function

$$F_D(\omega) = \frac{1}{2}(i\Delta n(\omega)kL - \Delta \alpha(\omega)L/2)$$

indicating that the phase is given by the ratio of the electrorefraction $\Delta n(\omega)$ and the electroabsorption $\Delta \alpha(\omega)$, which are related by the Kramers–Kronig relation

$$\Phi(\omega) = -\text{arctan} \left( \frac{2k\Delta n(\omega)}{\Delta \alpha(\omega)} \right)$$

where $P$ stands for the Cauchy principal value and $c$ is the light velocity. Using the electroabsorption measurement $\Delta \alpha(\omega)$ and the calculated electrorefraction data $\Delta n(\omega)$ and (4), we calculate the phase of the diffracted beam in the frequency domain as shown in Fig. 2. The phase of the diffracted pulse can be measured experimentally using spectral interferometry.

Fig. 2. Phase of the diffracted pulse from a 10% Al-barrier PRQW in the pulse shaper. The dashed line represents the phase extracted from the spectral interferometry pattern (solid line) between the reference pulse and diffracted pulse and the dot line is the phase calculated from the electroabsorption and electrorefraction data.
which is a versatile linear technique for determining both phase and shape of weak femtosecond pulses, where the spectrum of a reference pulse interferes with the spectrum of the diffracted pulse with a chosen time delay. Fig. 2 shows the spectral interferometry pattern with a time delay of 1500 fs and the phase of the diffracted pulse extracted from it, together with the phase calculated from (4) using electroabsorption and electrorefraction data. After subtracting a linear part of the curves, the phase is quite flat around the center wavelength of 847 nm for the PRQW sample used.

The linear phase in the diffracted pulse is a result of the character of the transverse-field PRQW devices, where electroabsorption is caused by the broadening of the transition lineshape. The characteristic electroabsorption spectrum $\Delta \alpha(\omega)$ is approximately the second derivative of a Gaussian transition lineshape [24], which is an even function. The electrorefraction $\Delta n(\omega)$ is related to $\Delta \alpha(\omega)$ by the Kramers–Kronig relation, which transforms an even function to an odd one. Therefore, to first order the phase $\Phi(\omega)$ is linear in frequency.

We assume an excitonic absorption line that is Gaussian at room temperature [32]

$$\alpha(\omega) = \sqrt{\pi} \ln 2 \frac{\hbar \omega_p^2}{cn} \frac{1}{\Gamma} \exp\left(-4 \ln 2 \omega^2 / \Gamma^2 \right)$$

(6)

where $\Gamma$ is the FWHM of the lineshape, $h = 2\pi \hbar$ is the Planck constant, $\omega_p$ is the ionic plasma frequency, and $f$ is the oscillator strength.

For the transverse-field geometry at relatively small fields (typically $< 15$ kV/cm), the linewidth becomes $\Gamma = \Gamma_0 + \Delta \Gamma$ with the linewidth without field $\Gamma_0$. The electroabsorption is then

$$\Delta \alpha(\omega) = \frac{d\alpha(\omega)}{d\omega} \Delta \Gamma = \sqrt{\pi} \ln 2 \frac{\hbar \omega_p^2}{cn} \frac{1}{\Gamma} \left(-1 + \frac{8 \ln 2}{\Gamma^2} \omega^2 \right) \times \Delta \Gamma \exp\left(-4 \ln 2 \omega^2 / \Gamma^2 \right).$$

(7)

The maximum of the absolute electroabsorption $|\Delta \alpha(\omega)|$ is at the center frequency, i.e., $\omega = 0$ with the value of

$$|\Delta \alpha_{\text{max}}| = \sqrt{\pi} \ln 2 \frac{\hbar \omega_p^2}{cn} \frac{1}{\Gamma} \Delta \Gamma.$$

(8)

Near the central frequency of the excitonic absorption, $k$ is approximately a constant because the linewidth $\Gamma$ is much smaller than the central frequency, and (7) can be rewritten as

$$\Delta \alpha(\omega) \approx -\sqrt{\pi} \ln 2 \frac{\hbar \omega_p^2}{cn} \frac{1}{\Gamma} \cos\left(\frac{4 \sqrt{\ln 2}}{\Gamma} \omega\right) \times \Delta \Gamma \exp\left(-4 \ln 2 \omega^2 / \Gamma^2 \right).$$

(9)

Using $\exp(-x^2) \approx 1 - x^2$, it can be further rewritten as

$$\Delta \alpha(\omega) \approx -\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\pi} \ln 2 \frac{\hbar \omega_p^2}{cn} \frac{1}{\Gamma} \Delta \Gamma \left[ \cos\left(\frac{4 + 2 \sqrt{2}}{\Gamma} \sqrt{\ln 2} \omega\right) \right. + \cos\left(\frac{4 - 2 \sqrt{2}}{\Gamma} \sqrt{\ln 2} \omega\right) ]$$

(10)

where we neglected the $(\omega/\Gamma)^4$ and higher-order terms.

The Kramers–Kronig relation transforms the cosine functions to the sine functions. Therefore, the electrorefraction from (5) and (10) is

$$\Delta n(\omega) \approx \frac{1}{4k} \sqrt{\pi} \ln 2 \frac{\hbar \omega_p^2}{cn} \frac{1}{\Gamma^2} \Delta \Gamma \left[ \sin\left(\frac{4 + 2 \sqrt{2}}{\Gamma} \sqrt{\ln 2} \omega\right) \sin\left(\frac{4 - 2 \sqrt{2}}{\Gamma} \sqrt{\ln 2} \omega\right) \right].$$

(11)

After some algebra, it can be written as

$$\Delta n(\omega) \approx \frac{1}{2k} \sqrt{\pi} \ln 2 \frac{\hbar \omega_p^2}{cn} \frac{1}{\Gamma^2} \sin\left(\frac{4 \sqrt{\ln 2}}{\Gamma} \omega\right) \times \Delta \Gamma \exp\left(-4 \ln 2 \omega^2 / \Gamma^2 \right).$$

(12)

From (9) and (12), the phase of the diffraction function $F_D(\omega)$ in (3) is then

$$\Phi(\omega) = -\arctan\left(\frac{2k \frac{\Delta n(\omega)}{\Delta \alpha(\omega)}}{\omega}\right) = \frac{4 \sqrt{\ln 2}}{\Gamma} \omega$$

(13)

which is a linear function with $\omega$. A linear phase in the frequency domain introduces only a delay of the output pulse in the time domain but not distortion. The slope in (13) is inversely proportional to the linewidth and is independent of the applied field.

The amplitude of the diffraction function can also be derived from (9) and (12), which is proportional to $\left[ \Delta n(\omega) \right]^2 + \left(\Delta \alpha(\omega) / 2 \Omega^2 \right)^2$. It is easily seen that $|F_D(\omega)|^2$ takes the same Gaussian shape as the absorption, which determines the bandwidth limit of the PRQW. Therefore, the output diffracted pulse is bandwidth-limited with a Gaussian shape, as experimentally observed. This distortionless quality makes the PRQW’s suitable for use in pulse manipulation.

IV. GENERATION OF TIME-DOMAIN IMAGES BY SPACE-TO-TIME CONVERSION

In this section, we discuss the generation of time-domain images by space-to-time conversion using holographic diffraction from a PRQW, where a conventional image in the space-domain is converted dynamically into the time domain. Using the experimental setup in Fig. 1, we realize the space-to-time conversion by projecting the Fourier transform of a conventional image onto the PRQW in the pulse shaper. If the hologram amplitude in the PRQW is proportional to the Fourier-transformed image, the shaped temporal pattern, which is the Fourier transform of the diffracted spectrum from the hologram, should take on the same shape as the input space-domain image.

The interference pattern of the two coherent writing beams has a modulation depth of

$$m(x) = \frac{2 |E_1|^2 E_2(x) |}{|E_1|^2 + |E_2(x)|^2 + |\mathcal{D}E_{\text{probe}}|^2}$$

$$= \frac{2 \mathcal{I}_1 E_2(x)}{\mathcal{I}_1 + E_2(x) + \mathcal{D}E_{\text{probe}}}$$

(14)
with field amplitude $E_3$ (power density $I_3$) of the reference writing beam (spatially homogenous), those of the image-carrying beam $E_2(x)$, $I_2(x)$, and of the femtosecond probe beam $E_{\text{Probe}}$, $I_{\text{Probe}}$, respectively. $\delta$ is a factor describing the ratio of the photocarriers induced at the probe and writing wavelengths. Because the femtosecond probe beam has a much longer wavelength (850 nm) than that of the writing beams (633 or 685 nm), it was shown that the erasure of the grating by the probe beam is much weaker than the effect of the writing beams [33] (i.e., $\delta \ll 1$) due to the difference in the photoconductivity and interaction length at the two wavelengths. From (14), $m$ depends only on the power density ratio of the two beams $I_2/I_1$ and has the maximum value of unity when $I_2 = I_1$ (neglecting erasure). The hologram written in the PRQW is proportional to $m$ as long as $m$ is small. As $m$ approaches unity, the amplitude of the photorefractive grating, and therefore the diffracted electric field amplitude as well, become sublinear with $m$ [34], [35]. In holographic recording, the hologram pattern is a faithful replica of the original electric field distribution only if the power density of the image-carrying beam is much less than the power density of the reference beam and the material response is linear in power density. In this case ($I_1 \gg I_2$ and $I_1$ does not depend on $x$), $m(x) \sim E_2(x)$, and the hologram has the same distribution as the image-carrying beam $E_2(x)$.

As an example, a single slit with a width of 380 $\mu$m is used as a space-domain image and is put into the image-carrying beam. This image is Fourier transformed onto the PRQW by a cylindrical lens with a focal length of $f = 150$ mm, performing the Fourier transform one-dimensionally. The power density distribution at the Fourier plane takes the form of a squared sinc function when $x/f \ll 1$

$$|E_2(x)|^2 = I_{2\text{max}} \sin^2 \left( \frac{2\pi D x}{\lambda f} \right) = I_{2\text{max}} \left( \frac{\sin \left( \frac{2\pi D x}{\lambda f} \right)}{\frac{2\pi D x}{\lambda f}} \right)^2$$

for a slit width $2D$, writing wavelength $\lambda$, and the coordinate $x$ in the Fourier plane of the Fourier lens. Using $2D = 380$ $\mu$m, $f = 150$ mm, and $\lambda = 685$ nm, the FWHM of the main maximum of the distribution in (15) is approximately 250 $\mu$m. The power density of this maximum is, therefore, not more than twice as large as the power density before the Fourier imaging, which is approximately equal to the reference power density. Neutral density filters are therefore used to reduce the image-carrying beam power density by an order of magnitude to ensure that the reference beam has higher power density than the image-carrying beam everywhere. The measured diffracted power spectrum from the hologram also takes the sinc squared distribution as shown in Fig. 3(a). For comparison, the theoretical curve using (14) and (15) is also given, where the coordinate $x$ is translated into wavelength using the spectral dispersion of the pulse shaper of 0.35 mm/nm. The PRQW spectral response with a power density full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) of 4.2 nm for the 30% Al-barrier sample is also included. The spectrum agrees well with the simple theory. The finite spectral resolution of both the pulse shaper and the measurement apparatus, and the angle between the image Fourier plane and the Fourier plane in the pulse shaper cause the minima of the power density distribution in the experimental data to remain finite. The temporal shape of the diffracted (or reconstructed) femtosecond outputs is measured by electric-field cross correlation as shown in Fig. 3(b), which corresponds to the input space-domain image: a square-wave packet. It is important to note that Fig. 3(b) contains the electric-field cross-correlation data. The side lobes would appear much smaller if the power density rather than the field amplitude were plotted.

V. PROCESSING OF FEMTOSECOND TIME-DOMAIN IMAGES

The images can be manipulated as they are converted from the space-domain to the time domain by changing the hologram writing power density, writing geometries and the relation between the input images, etc. Single image processes as well as multiple image processes can be realized.


Many applications require images with enhanced features, such as edges and noise, or certain transformations of a image,
such as Fourier transform and time reversal. These are single-image processing operations.

Edge Enhancement of a Time-Domain Image: Using the experimental setup in Fig. 1, we can perform edge enhancement on the converted time-domain image by choosing an appropriate hologram-writing power density ratio. We know from (14) that the hologram in the PRQW depends only on the power density ratio of the two beams \( I_2/I_1 \). For the hologram pattern to be a faithful replica of the original electric field distribution, the reference beam power density must be higher than the most intense spot of the Fourier transform of the image. When this condition is not satisfied, the hologram amplitude saturates and even decreases at positions where the reference beam power density is weaker than the image-carrying beam. Such saturation and decrease can serve to enhance the high-frequency optical frequency components at the expense of the strong peak at the fundamental frequency. This produces a high-pass filter which can lead to edge enhancement in the reconstructed images. Such effects were demonstrated in the space domain [36], [37] and used to detect dust and other small defects in periodic photolithographic masks [38].

Experimentally, the power density of the reference beam is reduced by two orders of magnitude relative to the image-carrying beam using neutral-density filters. As a result, the interference of the two writing beams (the hologram) washes out the primary maximum in the image-carrying beam and extracts the higher spatial frequency components of the slit-diffraction [sidelobes with lower power in Fig. 3(a)], which describe edges or other suddenly changing features. The diffracted spectrum from such a hologram is shown in Fig. 4(a), together with the theoretical calculation. The temporal shapes of the diffracted (or reconstructed) femtosecond outputs, which are the Fourier transform of the electric field spectrum, are given in Fig. 4(b), showing the enhanced edges when compared with the time-domain image in Fig. 3(b). The side wings in Fig. 4(b) are also expected from the theoretical Fourier transform of (14), which are shown in Fig. 4(c). Physically, the high-pass filtering operation in this experiment transforms the rising and falling edges of the input image into the observed derivative-like features.

Fourier Transform of a Time-Domain Image: The output time-domain image is the Fourier transform of the diffracted spectrum from the hologram. If the hologram corresponds to the space-domain image itself, then the resulting time-domain image is related to the Fourier transform of the space image. Experimentally, this is realized by directly imaging a mask (amplitude or phase) onto the PRQW in the pulse shaper.

Fig. 4. (a) Spectrum and (b) the electric-field cross-correlation data and the extracted envelope of the diffracted temporal image when the Fourier transform of a single slit is projected onto the PRQW. The reference beam power density is lower than the maximum image-carrying beam power density. This shows edge enhancement of the converted square wave. The corresponding theoretical calculations of the spectrum and the temporal field envelope at \( I_1/I_{2\text{Max}} = 0.01 \) are also given in (a) and (c).
As the first example of this processing operation, a fixed phase mask is placed into the image-carrying beam and imaged onto the PRQW using a spherical lens with a focal length of 200 mm. The photolithographically etched mask contains a phase step of $\pi$ for a wavelength of about 620 nm. For our writing beams from the diode laser at around 685–690 nm, the phase step $\sigma$ has a value of $0.0\pi$ or smaller, depending on the incident angle of the writing beam. This phase step changes the phase of one half of the writing beam by the amount of $\sigma$ with respect to the other half, giving rise to a $\sigma$ phase step in the hologram. The diffracted beam will experience a phase function

$$H(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & -\infty < \omega \leq \omega_c \\ \exp(i\sigma), & \omega_c \leq \omega < \infty, \end{cases}$$

(16)

with the center frequency $\omega_c$. The output electric field of (1) becomes

$$E_D(\omega) = E_{RN}(\omega)F_T(\omega)F_D(\omega)H(\omega).$$

(17)

The experimental spectrum of the diffracted pulse is shown in Fig. 5(a). By interfering this spectrum with the spectrum of the reference pulse having a chosen time delay (spectral interferometry), the phase step in the femtosecond output can be extracted, which is also shown in the figure. The measured phase step is $0.8\pi$, which is close to the estimated value. The notch in the spectrum is due to the destructive interference of the frequency components focused near the mask step [39]. The output pulse in the time domain is the Fourier transform of $E_D(\omega)$ in (17), which results in a double pulse. The experimental data of the electric-field cross correlation and the envelope extracted from the data are shown in Fig. 5(b).

In Fig. 6, we show a second example, in which a double-slit amplitude mask is imaged onto the PRQW with an magnification of 2.2. The magnification was chosen for technical simplicity. An identical lens ($f = 200$ mm) is introduced in the reference beam to compensate the wavefront difference in the two writing beams due to the magnification. The lens in the reference beam also compensates the quadratic phase shift caused by the single imaging lens (although it is not severe in our experiments). An alternative would be using the canonical $1f$–$2f$–$1f$ imaging system instead of the single lens in the imaging beam, which in fact images the wavefronts with a magnification restricted to $-1$. The slit width is approximately 250 $\mu$m with a separation of 300 $\mu$m. The double slit pattern at the Fourier plane allows only two discrete frequency groups to be diffracted [Fig. 6(a)], resulting in a double-slit interference pattern in the time domain. In this case, the function $H(\omega)$...
The relationship between (20) and the Fourier transform of the input images, known as the correlation theorem, is useful in image processing and allows one to correlate in the time domain by simple multiplication in the frequency domain. That is, if $f(x)$ has the Fourier transform $F(\omega)$ and $g(x)$ has the Fourier transform $G(\omega)$, then the Fourier transform of the product $F(\omega)G(\omega)$ is the correlation $f(x) \odot g(x)$:

$$\mathcal{F}\{F(\omega)G(\omega)\} = f(x) \odot g(x)$$

where $\mathcal{F}$ represents the Fourier transform. Experimentally, the product of the Fourier transform of the first image and the phase conjugate of the Fourier transform of the second image are obtained by projecting the Fourier transform of a space-domain image in each of the two writing beams onto the PRQW using Fourier lenses. The interference term of the power density distribution on the PRQW $I(x) = |E_1(x) + E_2(x)|^2$ is proportional to the product of the two fields $E_1(x)E_2^*(x)$, which gives the distribution or envelope of the hologram modulation as long as the power density response of the PRQW remains linear, which was proven to be true in our experiments. The field diffraction from the hologram then is related to the product of the Fourier transform of the first image and the phase conjugate of the Fourier transform of the second image. The output time-domain image (the Fourier transform of this product) is then the correlation of the two input images.

We performed the correlation experiments using two identical single-slits as input images, whose Fourier transform is a sinc function as given in (15). The diffracted power spectrum is then proportional to the fourth power of the sinc function in (15), as shown in Fig. 7(a). The temporal output is the Fourier transform of this spectrum and is a triangle function, corresponding to the correlation of two square-wave packets. Fig. 7(b) shows the electric-field cross correlation of such a processed time-domain image.

Another important operation is the convolution, which is also called folding product, composition product or superposition integral. The convolution of two images $f(x)$, $g(x)$ is given by:

$$f(x) \odot g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x')g(x-x') \, dx'.$$

Similar to the correlation, the convolution theorem states:

$$\mathcal{F}\{F(\omega)G(\omega)\} = f(x) \odot g(x)$$

This is similar to (21), but with $G(\omega)$ instead of $G^*(\omega)$ in the product. Experimentally, the phase conjugate of $E(\omega)$ can be obtained by phase conjugating one of the hologram writing beams using a photorefractive crystal, such as BaTiO$_3$ [40] or...
If $g(r)$ is an even function, then $G(\omega) = G^*(\omega)$. In this case, convolution will be the same as the correlation, as in our experiment, where the square-wave packet is a symmetric function.

VI. CONCLUSION

We have demonstrated space-to-time conversion for generating femtosecond time-domain images which are the duplicates of the space-domain images by using PRQW’s as dynamic diffractive masks in a Fourier pulse shaper. We have shown that the PRQW’s are suitable for Fourier-filtering applications, and have also discussed image processing techniques for both single and multiple images. A number of processing operations, such as edge enhancement, Fourier transform, and correlation, are realized by appropriately configuring the hologram writing geometry and changing the power densities. This will allow transfer of information at a high bandwidth and bits of information to be packed together more tightly, which could potentially result in higher data rate fiber lightweight transmission systems.

REFERENCES

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David Nolte was born in Akron, OH, on January 30, 1959. He received the bachelors degree in physics from Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, in 1981, and the Ph.D. degree in solid state physics in 1988 from the University of California at Berkeley for research leading to the first experimental measurement of bandedge hydrostatic deformation potentials in semiconductors using the concept of universal reference levels.

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Michael R. Melloch (S’76–M’78–SM’91) received the B.S.E.E., M.S.E.E., and Ph.D. degrees from Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN, in 1975, 1976, and 1981 respectively.

From June 1976 to August 1978, he was a Design Engineer at Intel Corporation where he worked on the 8275, a CRT controller chip; the 8748, the first single-chip microcomputer; and was codesigner of the 8051, a second generation single-chip microcomputer. In February 1982, he joined the Central Research Laboratories at Texas Instruments, Inc., as a member of the Technical Staff. At Texas Instruments, his research interests centered around GaAs surface acoustic wave devices. In August 1984, he joined the School of Electrical Engineering at Purdue University as an Assistant Professor and is presently a Full Professor there and former Assistant Dean of Engineering. He has coauthored 275 conference talks, 210 technical papers, 2 book chapters, and is holder of five U.S. patents. He was involved with the first investigation of the effects of bandgap narrowing in GaAs caused by heavy impurity doping on the electrical performance of devices and the characterization of both the electron and hole minority carrier mobilities in GaAs as a function of majority carrier concentration using a zero-field time-of-flight technique. He was involved with the development of a nonvolatile memory cell in 6H-SiC; the development of the first digital integrated circuits and CCD’s in SiC; the development of the first SiC DIMOS power transistor; and the characterization and improvement of the SiO₂/SiC interface. He was involved with the discovery of arsenic clusters in GaAs epi layers that were grown at low substrate temperatures by MBE and subsequently annealed, and the development of many electrical and optical applications of these composite materials. In 1993, he co-founded MellWood Laboratories with Prof. J. Woodall and Dr. E. Harmon. MellWood Laboratories is a supplier of custom epitaxy and high-speed photodetectors.

Dr. Melloch has served as a Symposium Co-Organizer for the 1993 Spring Meeting of the Material Research Society, the Program Chair for the 1994 North American Conference on Molecular Beam Epitaxy; Co-Organizer of the Eight International Conference on Superlattices, Microstructures, and Microdevices; and Associate Program Chair for the 1997 International Symposium on Compound Semiconductors. In 1993 he was elected to the Electronic Materials Committee of TMS, and has served as Secretary (1995–1997) and Vice-Chair (1997–1999). He has been guest editor for five journal special issues. Prof. Melloch is a Fellow of the American Physical Society, and a member the American Vacuum Society, the Minerals, Metals & Materials Society, and the Optical Society of America.

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