## Radiometry

(From Intro to Optics, Pedrotti 1-4)

- Radiometry is measurement of Emag radiation (light)
- Consider a small spherical source
- Total energy radiating from the body over some time is Q = total Radiant Energy (Joules or Watt sec)
- Rate of energy radiated is
- Radiant Flux or Radiant Power = Watts

$$
\Phi=\frac{d Q}{d t}
$$

- I = Irradiance or Light Intensity is Flux $\Phi$ per area A (W/m²)

$$
I=\frac{d \Phi}{d A}
$$



## Irradiance and Distance

- A sphere radiates energy symmetrically in all directions
- At distance r light can be thought of hitting spherical surface
- Surface of sphere is $4 \pi \mathrm{r}^{2}$ thus Irradiance is

$$
I=\frac{d \Phi}{d A}=\frac{\Phi}{4 \pi r^{2}}
$$

- Thus light falls with the square of the distance

Figure 1-3 Illustration of the inverse-square law. The flux leaving a point source within any solid angle is distributed over increasingly larger areas, producing an irradiance that decreases inversely with the square of the distance.


## Radiant Intensity

- Define a unit called the Solid Angle $\mathrm{d} \omega$ or $\mathrm{d} \Omega$ in Steradians (sr)

$$
d \omega=\frac{d A}{r^{2}}
$$

- $4 \pi$ Steradians in a sphere around any body
- Radiant Intensity $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{e}}$ is solid angle equivalent of Irradiance

$$
I=\frac{d \Phi}{d \omega}
$$

- Units Watts/steradian = W/sr
- Often use Radiant Intensity about body
- Most useful because things are not spherically symmetric


Figure 1-2 The radiant intensity is the flux through the cross section $d A$ per unit of solid angle. Here the solid angle $d \omega=d A / r^{2}$.

## Radiance

- What happens when surface is not a sphere
- Consider light at distance r from and angle $\theta$ from a flat surface
- Now use Radiance $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{e}}$ or Radiant intensity per unit projected area

$$
L_{e}=\frac{d I_{e}}{d A \cos (\theta)}=\frac{d^{2} \Phi}{d \omega(d A \cos (\theta))}
$$

- Units Watts/sr/m²
- In practice most light emits as a Lambert cosine Law

$$
I(\theta)=I(0) \cos (\theta)
$$

- Called a Lambertian source
- Consider looking at a flat plate
- Because the project emission area changes with angle then

$$
L_{e}=\frac{I(\theta)}{d A \cos (\theta)}=\frac{I(0) \cos (\theta)}{d A \cos (\theta)}=\frac{I(0)}{A}=C
$$

- Thus $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{e}}$ is a constant
- Objects look equally bright when view in all directions



## Emitter and Detector at Different Angles

- Consider an emitting surface 1 , and detection surface 2
$\bullet$ Emitting surface is at angle $\theta_{1}$ to radius connecting
- Receiving surface is at angle $\theta_{2}$ to radius
- Thus the solid angle created by surface $\mathrm{A}_{2}$ is

$$
d \omega_{1}=\frac{d A_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)}{r^{2}}
$$

- Then Radiance received at surface 2 is
$L_{e}=\frac{d^{2} \Phi_{1}}{d \omega_{1}\left[d A_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)\right]}=\frac{d^{2} \Phi_{1}}{\left(\frac{d A_{1} \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right)}{r^{2}}\right)\left[d A_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)\right]}$


Figure 1-5 Geometry used to show the invariance of the radiance in a uniform, lossless medium.

## Two General Radiating Objects

- Consider an emitting object 1, and detection object 2
- Both objects are of arbitrary shape
- Then the radiant power $\Phi_{12}$ emitted from object 1 surface area $\mathrm{A}_{1}$
- Received by object 2 surface area $\mathrm{A}_{2}$ is

$$
d^{2} \Phi_{12}=\frac{L_{1} d A_{1} d A_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{21}\right)}{r_{12}^{2}}
$$

- The total flux received by object 2 from object 1 is

$$
\Phi_{12}=\int_{A_{1} A_{2}} \frac{L_{1} d A_{1} d A_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{21}\right)}{r_{12}^{2}}
$$

- Note this is for classically emitting objects
- Adding optical elements (lens or mirror) changes this
- Also lasers do not follow this classic emission
- Because they are composed of optical elements


Figure 1-6 General case of the illumination of one surface by another radiating surface. Each elemental radiating area $\mathrm{d}_{1}$ contributes to each elemental irradiated area $d A_{2}$.

## Basic Optics: Reflection

- Consider a light beam incident on a surface
- If surface reflects the ray then
incident angle $\phi_{\mathrm{i}}=$ reflected angle $\phi_{\mathrm{r}}$

$$
\varphi_{i}=\varphi_{r}
$$

- Angles given relative to surface normal
- Surface reflective with index of refraction change
- Metals have very high n, thus very reflective

FIGURE 1F
Reflection and refraction at the boundary separating two media with refractive indices $n$ and $n^{\prime}$, respectively.


## Basic Optics: Refraction

## - Light incident on change in index n surface

- Again measure angle with respect to normal
- at angle then transmitted light will be refracted
- refraction given by Snell's law

$$
\frac{\sin (\varphi)}{\sin \left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)}=\frac{n^{\prime}}{n}
$$

FIGURE 1F
Reflection and refraction at the boundary separating two media with refractive indices $n$ and $n^{\prime}$, respectively.


## Measuring Reflection and Refraction

If make half disk of transparent material see both
Place disk on gynaometer
Then send in line of light so hits center of disk
See reflected light at same angle
Refracted light angle seen
Can calculate index of refraction of materials with this

$$
\frac{\sin (\varphi)}{\sin \left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)}=\frac{n^{\prime}}{n}
$$



Figure 4.22 Refraction at various angles of incidence. Notice that the bottom surface is cut circular so that the transmitted beam within the glass always lies along a radius and is normal to the lower surface in every case. (Photos courtesy PSSC College Physics, D. C. Heath \& Co., 1968.)

## Waves and Refraction

## - Waves entering index n material get refracted

- Waves compress, and are bent
- Atoms at surface absorb light waves and radiate them
- Create the different angle of the light when waves combined
- See same thing with object entering water
- Appears to bend
- If want to hit object in water aim at actual position not apparent


Rays from the submerged portion of the pencil bend on leaving the water as they rise toward the viewer. (Photo by E.H.)

## Total Internal Reflection

- When going from a high index $n$ to a low index n'
- At a critical angle $\phi_{c}$ the beam is refracted $90^{\circ}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\sin \left(\varphi_{c}\right)}{\sin \left(90^{\circ}\right)}=\frac{n^{\prime}}{n} \\
& \sin \left(\varphi_{c}\right)=\frac{n^{\prime}}{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

- All larger angles (shallower to surface) reflected
- Called "Total Internal Reflection"


Fig. 38-7. Total internal reflection. The angle of incidence $\phi_{c}$, for which the angle of refraction is $90^{\circ}$, is called the critical angle.

## Optical Waveguide

- Fiber optic: confining light within an Optical Waveguide
- High index material surrounded by low index material
- Then get beam confined by Total Internal Refection
- Optical Confinement or Waveguide
- These are integral part of Semiconductor lasers \& Fiber optic communications.


Figure 7.3 The captive ray in a fibre

## Basic Laser Optics: Reflection Normal to a Surface

- Light normal incident on optical surface
- Reflectance R fraction reflected from surface

$$
R=\left(\frac{n_{1}-n_{2}}{n_{1}+n_{2}}\right)^{2}
$$

where surface 1 is the incident side



## Reflection at Angle to a Surface

- If light comes in at an angle then different equations for parallel and perpendicular polarizations
- Formulas from E-Mag theory
- Called the Fresnel Formulas
- Must look at Electric field vectors
- Define r as the values for reflection of $E$ fields
- Let $\theta_{1}$ be angle light from outside surface $\left(n_{1}\right)$
- Let $\theta_{2}$ be angle light is refracted to inside surface ( $\mathrm{n}_{2}$ )
- Then the reflection of the E fields gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r_{\text {parallel }}=r_{p}=\left[\frac{n_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right)-n_{1} \cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)}{n_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right)+n_{1} \cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)}\right] \\
& r_{\text {perpendicular }}=r_{s}=\left[\frac{n_{1} \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right)-n_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)}{n_{1} \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right)+n_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$



## Intensity of Reflection at Angle to a Surface

- Uses Fresnel Formulas for :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R_{\text {parallel }}=R_{p}=\left[\frac{\tan \left(\theta_{1}-\theta_{2}\right)}{\tan \left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}\right)}\right]^{2} \\
& R_{\text {perpendicular }}=R_{s}=\left[\frac{\sin \left(\theta_{1}-\theta_{2}\right)}{\sin \left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}\right)}\right]^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Important point - as $\theta_{1}$ angle approaches $90^{\circ}$ for smooth surface
- Reflectivity near 1 ie perfect reflection no matter what material is
- Only fails when surface rough


EXTERNAL REFLECTION at a glass surface $(\mathrm{n}=1.52)$

## Brewster's Law

- When reflected and refracted rays are $90^{\circ}$ apart reflected light: polarized perpendicular to surface transmitted light: polarized parallel to surface
- From Fresnel Formulas

Reflected parallel polarization goes to zero when

$$
\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}=90^{\circ}=\frac{\pi}{2}
$$

- Using Snell's law then at Brewster angle

$$
n_{1} \sin \left(\theta_{b}\right)=n_{2} \sin \left(\theta_{b}-90^{\circ}\right)=n_{2} \cos \left(\theta_{b}\right)
$$

$$
\theta_{b}=\tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{n_{2}}{n_{1}}\right)
$$



FIGURE 24D
(a) Polarization by reflection and refraction. (b) Brewster's law for the polarizing angle.


INTERNAL REFLECTION at a glass surface $(\mathrm{n}=1.52)$ showing s- and p-polarized components.

## Scattering From Surface

- If surface is smooth we get "specular" reflection
- If surface is not perfectly smooth get scattering
- Called Diffuse reflection
- In practice to reduce scattering surface roughness must be $<\lambda / 4$


Figure 4.18 (a) Specular reflection. (b) Diffuse reflection.
(Photos courtesy Donald Dunitz.)

## Parallax Assumption

- Often assume dealing with small angles
- Called the Parallax assumption
- For angles less than 5 degrees then can assume
- Comes from truncating Taylor's series

$$
\sin (\theta)=\theta-\frac{\theta^{3}}{3!}+\frac{\theta^{5}}{5!} \cdots \approx \theta \quad \text { when } \theta<0.09
$$

(angles in radians)

- Cause of many corrections to lenses/mirrors

| Angle | $\operatorname{Sin}(\mathrm{x})$ | Approx | \%error |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 5 | 0.08716 | 0.08727 | 0.127 |
| 10 | 0.17365 | 0.17453 | 0.510 |
| 15 | 0.25882 | 0.26180 | 1.152 |
| 20 | 0.34202 | 0.34907 | 2.060 |
| 25 | 0.42262 | 0.43633 | 3.245 |
| 30 | 0.50000 | 0.52360 | 4.720 |
| 35 | 0.57358 | 0.61087 | 6.501 |
| 40 | 0.64279 | 0.69813 | 8.610 |
| 45 | 0.70711 | 0.78540 | 11.072 |
| 50 | 0.76604 | 0.87266 | 13.918 |
| 55 | 0.81915 | 0.95993 | 17.186 |
| 60 | 0.86603 | 1.04720 | 20.920 |
| 65 | 0.90631 | 1.13446 | 25.174 |
| 70 | 0.93969 | 1.22173 | 30.014 |
| 75 | 0.96593 | 1.30900 | 35.517 |
| 80 | 0.98481 | 1.39626 | 41.780 |
| 85 | 0.99619 | 1.48353 | 48.920 |

## Basic Laser Optics: Mirrors (Hecht 5.4)

- Mirrors basic optical device: simpler reflectors of light
- As reflectors can be nearly wavelength independent
- Flat surface mirrors widely used but hard to make
- Most optical devices are circularly symmetric
- Note some are not eg cylindrically symmetric (discuss later)
- Define distances relative to the axis of the optical device
- Vertex is the point A where axis intersects the mirror
- Radius of curvature of the mirror is $r$ located at point $C$
- Assume parallel light (a plane wave) aligned with the axis
- Then light ray hitting mirror at T is reflected
- Normal at T is radius to C so light makes angle $\phi$ to normal
- It is reflected at angle $\phi^{\prime}=\phi$ to point $F$
- As all points on mirror have normal to radius C
- Then all focused through F
- Concave mirror focuses light at Focal Point F
- Convex mirror light radiates as if from Focal Point
- Focal length f is

$$
f=-\frac{r}{2}
$$

where $r$ = radius of curvature of mirror


FIGURE 6A
The primary and secondary focal points of spherical mirrors coincide.

## Distances in Mirrors \& Lenses

- Define distances relative to the axis of the optical device
- Vertex is the point A where axis intersects the mirror
- Measure all distances in cm or m
- Radius $r$ or $R$ of curvature of the mirror is $r$ located at point $C$
- Then parallel light ray from object
- Assume object is place in front of the mirror (point 3)
- Height of object is M
s or $\mathrm{s}_{0}$ is the object distance from object 3 to vertex A
- Observe an image at point 9
$s^{\prime}$ or $s_{i}$ is the image distance from vertex A to image 9
$\bullet$ Height of image is M’


FIGURE 6E
Parallel-ray method for graphically locating the image formed by a concave mirror.

## Mirror Conventions

- From Jenkins \& White: Fundamentals of Optics
- Distance + if left to right, - if right to left
- Incident rays travel left to right
- Reflected rays travel right to left
- Focal length measured from focal pt. to vertex
f positive for concave, negative for convex
- Radius from vertex to centre of Curvature
$r$ negative for concave, positive for convex
- Object distance s and image s' measured relative to vertex
s \& s' positive \& real if to left of mirror (concave)
s \& s' negative \& virtual if to right of mirror (concave)


FIGURE 6E
Parallel-ray method for graphically locating the image formed by a concave mirror.

## Mirror Formulas

- Basic Mirror Formula

$$
\frac{1}{s}+\frac{1}{s^{\prime}}=-\frac{2}{r}
$$

- Primary focal point: image at infinity and s given by

$$
\frac{1}{s}+\frac{1}{\infty}=-\frac{2}{r} \quad \text { or } \quad s=-\frac{r}{2}
$$

- Secondary focal point: object at infinity

$$
\frac{1}{\infty}+\frac{1}{s^{\prime}}=-\frac{2}{r} \quad \text { or } \quad s^{\prime}=-\frac{r}{2}
$$

- Primary and secondary the same: Thus mirror formula

$$
\frac{1}{s}+\frac{1}{s^{\prime}}=\frac{1}{f} \quad f=-\frac{r}{2}
$$

where $\mathrm{f}=$ the focal length

- Mirror Magnification m

$$
m=\frac{M^{\prime}}{M}=-\frac{s^{\prime}}{s}
$$



FIGURE 6C
Real image due to a concave mirror.

## Real Mirrors: Spherical Aberration

- For large mirrors parallax formula fails
- Get not all light focused at same point
- Called circle of confusion \& creates Spherical Aberration


FIGURE 6K
Spherical aberration of a concave spherical mirror.

FIGURE 6L
Geometry showing how marginal rays parallel to the axis of a spherical mirror cross the axis inside the focal point.


## Spherical Aberration \& Parabolic Mirrors

- Corrected using parabolic mirror shape
- Focuses all light to focal point
- Parabola is curve with points equidistant from focus and straight line, the directex


FIGURE 6M
(a) Concave parabolic mirror and (b) concave spherical mirror, corrected for spherical aberration.


Fig. 210

## Focal Ratio or $\mathbf{F}$ number

- F number (F\#) is important measure of optical system speed
- Focal Ratio is related to the mirror diameter $\phi$

$$
F \#=\frac{f}{\varphi}
$$

- Smaller F\#, more light gather power
- When F\# changes by $\sqrt{2}$ then amount of light focused doubles
- Hence camera F\# change as $16,11,8,5.6,4,2.8,2,1.4$
- These are called F stops
- For cameras: light gathered for proper exposure is constant
- Thus when $\mathrm{F} \#_{2}=\sqrt{2} \mathrm{~F} \#_{1}$ then for exposure time $\mathrm{t}_{2}$ is

$$
t_{2}=\left[\frac{F \#_{2}}{F \#_{1}}\right]^{2} t_{1}=2 t_{1}
$$

- Rough rule F\# >>12 then parabola \& sphere nearly same
- Important for lens and mirror fabrication
- Easier to make spherical optics than parabolic
- Do not need correction in that case


FIGURE 6E
Parallel-ray method for graphically locating the image formed by a concave mirror.

## Real Mirrors: Surface quality

- Real optical mirrors must be very smooth
- Measure defects relative to wavelength of light
- Defects create scattered light

Hence defects must be smaller than wavelength

- Min needed $\lambda / 5$
- $\lambda / 10$ or $\lambda / 20$ often specified
- This is true for either flat or curved mirrors


