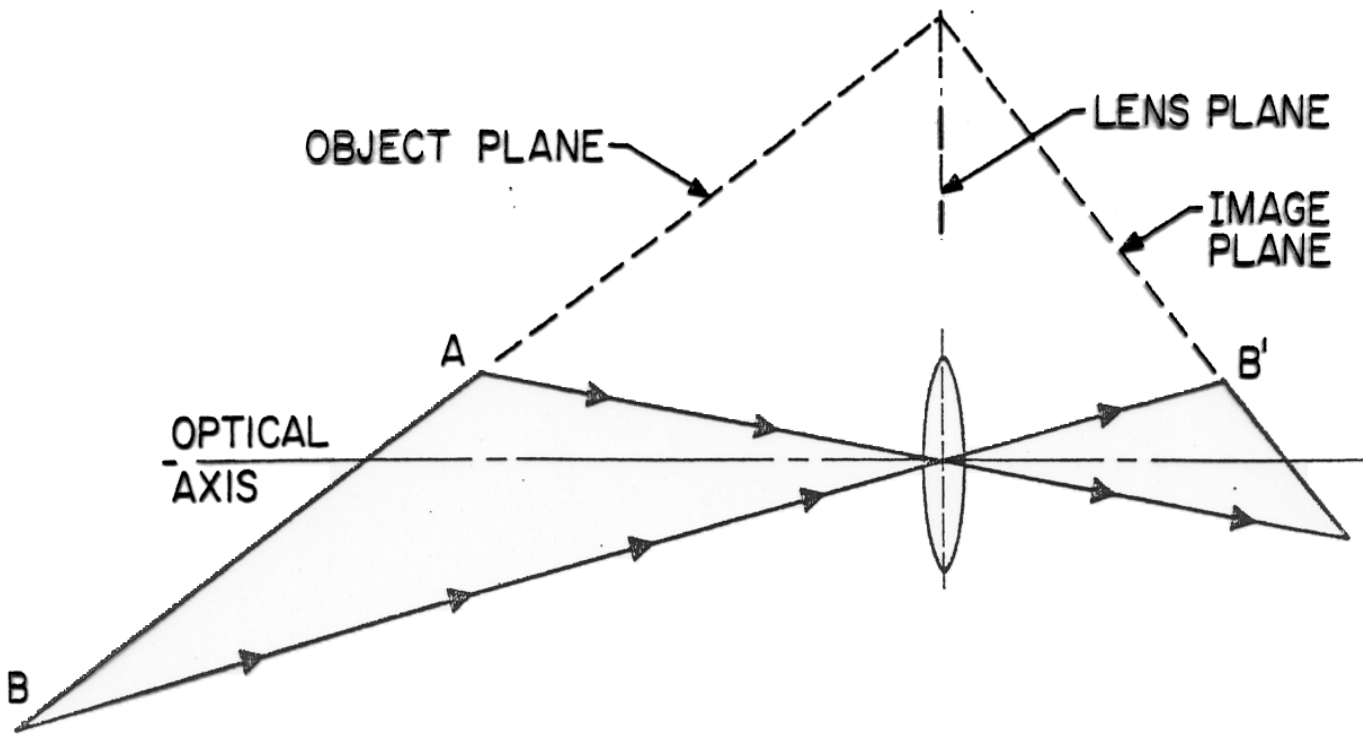
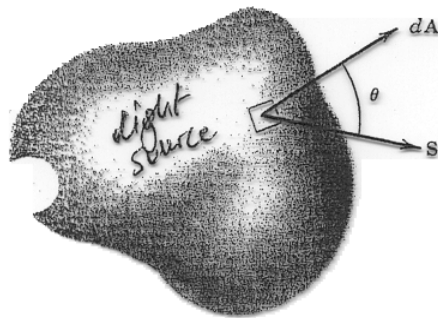


The Scheimpflug condition



The object plane and the image plane intersect at right angles at the plane of the lens.



Radiometry

$$\Phi_e = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{rate at which} \\ \text{energy is radiated} \\ \text{away from the source} \end{array} \right) = \frac{d(\text{radiant energy})}{d(\text{time})}$$

Fig. 4.9 Closed surface used for calculating the total radiant flux.

Radiant flux : $\Phi_e = \oint \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{A}$ [Watts]

Radiant energy flux density

\vec{S} [Watts/cm²]
 ↑ differential surface area element vector
 ↑ aka Poynting vector

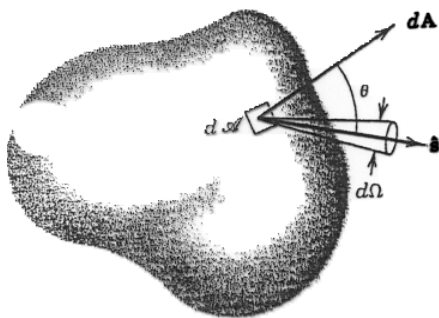


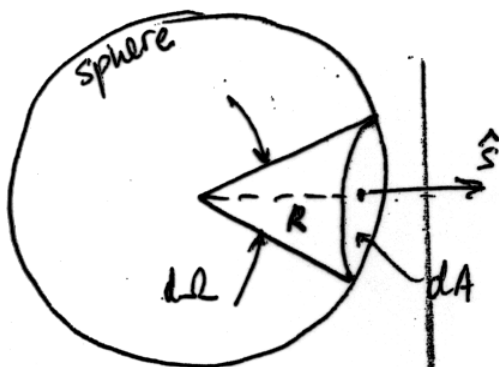
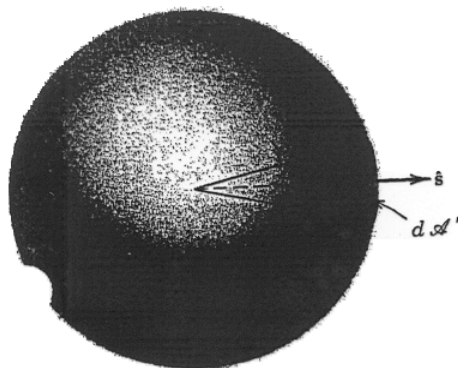
Fig. 4.10 Geometry for the radiant flux integral in the case where the light possesses a range of directions.

$$\Phi_e = \oint \left[\int \frac{dS}{d\Omega} \cos\theta d\Omega \right] dA$$

$$L_e = \frac{dS}{d\Omega} \left[\frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{sterad}} \right]$$

radiance

$$L_e = \frac{dS}{d\Omega} = \frac{d^2\Phi_e}{\cos\theta d\Omega dA} \Rightarrow d^2\Phi_e = L_e \cos\theta d\Omega dA$$



solid angle element,

$$d\Omega = \frac{dA}{R^2}$$

Fig. 4.11 Defining relationships for the solid-angle differential element.

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{source} radiant exitance $M_e \left[\frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{cm}^2} \right]: d\Phi_e = M_e dA$
 {detector} irradiance $E_e \left[\frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{cm}^2} \right]: d\Phi_e = E_e dA$

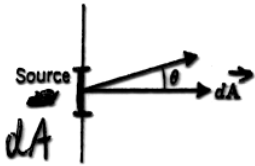


Fig. 4.14 The radiant exitance is the power per unit area leaving dA' and going to the right. It includes all propagation directions θ from 0 to 90° .

$$d\Phi_e = \int_{(1/2)} d^2\phi_e = dA \int_{(1/2)} L_e \cos\theta d\Omega \Rightarrow M_e = \int_{(1/2)} L_e \cos\theta d\Omega$$

radiant exitance

one-half of full (4π) solid angle, i.e. outward from the source surface

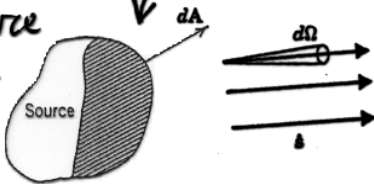
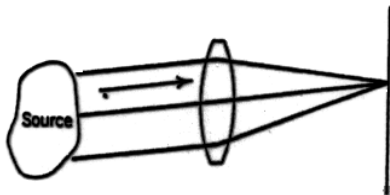


Fig. 4.15 The radiant intensity $I(\xi)$ represents the total power per unit solid angle radiating in direction ξ from a finite source.

Radiant intensity: $I_e = \frac{d\Phi_e}{d\Omega} \left[\frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{sterad}} \right]$

$$d\Phi_e = \int d^2\Phi_e = d\Omega \int \int L_e \cos\theta dA \Rightarrow I_e = \int \int L_e \cos\theta dA$$

radiant intensity



$I_e = \text{observable!}$
 Fig. 4.16 All rays in the same direction ξ are focused at the same point by the lens.

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Lambertian source: equivalent to small hole in cavity



- The light distribution at the hole
- uniform across the hole aperture
 - propagates in all directions with equal radiance

For a Lambertian source,

$$M_e = \int_{(1/2)} L_e \cos\theta d\Omega = L_e \int_{(1/2)} \cos\theta d\Omega$$

↑ does not depend on direction!

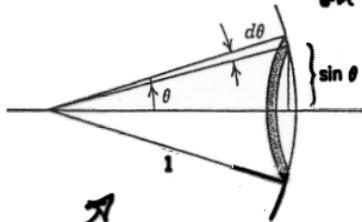


Fig. 4.18 Annular solid angle differential element.

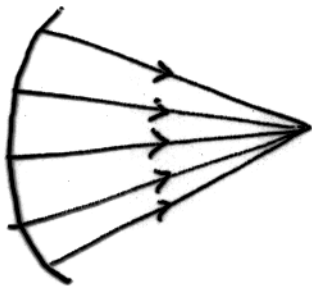
define $d\Omega$ such that $\cos\theta = \text{constant}$ over $d\Omega$

$$d\Omega = \underbrace{2\pi \sin\theta}_{\text{annular length}} d\theta \quad \uparrow \text{annular thickness}$$

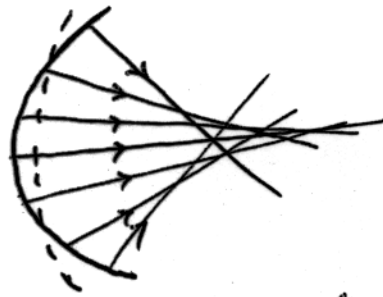
$$\begin{aligned} M_{e, \text{Lambertian}} &= L_e \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos\theta (2\pi \sin\theta) d\theta \\ &= \pi L_e \int_0^{\pi/2} d(\sin^2\theta) \\ &= \pi L_e \end{aligned}$$

ABERRATIONS

- Deviation of the wavefront from its ideal¹ spherical shape due to imperfect refraction by the optical elements



perfect spherical wavefront (focuses to a point)

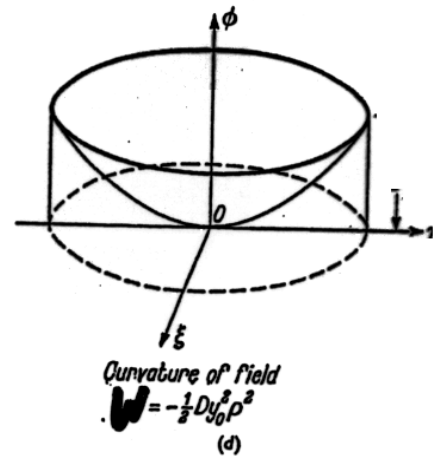
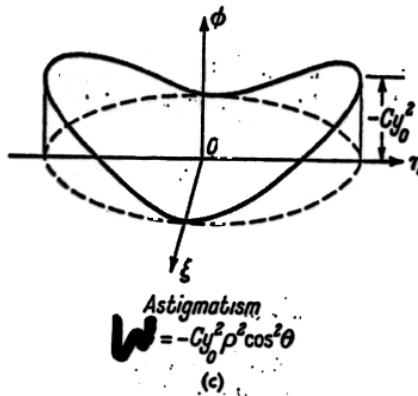
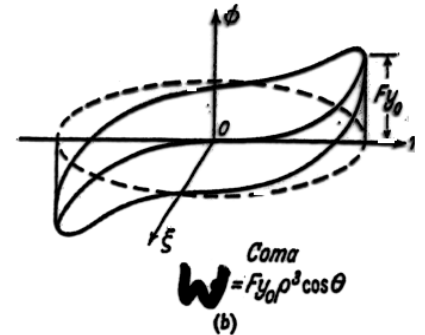
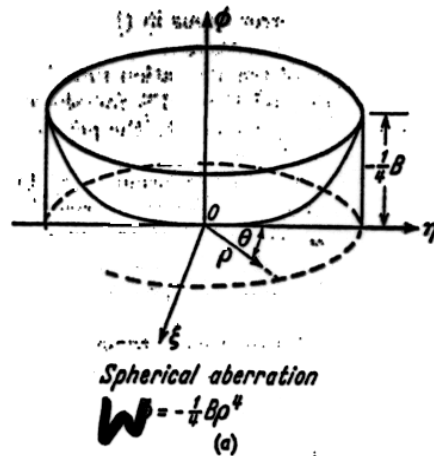


aberrated wavefront does not come to a focus
→ image is blurred

Optical elements (lenses, mirrors) produce perfect (non-aberrated) wavefronts only in the paraxial approximation (i.e., for angles of propagation near the optical axis).

At larger angles, 5 kinds of aberrations (called "Seidel" aberrations) occur

PRIMARY (SEIDEL) ABERRATIONS



$y_0 \equiv x'$
 $\theta \equiv \phi$

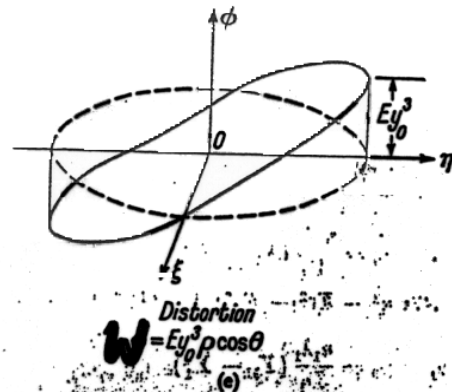


Fig. 5.3. The primary wave aberrations.

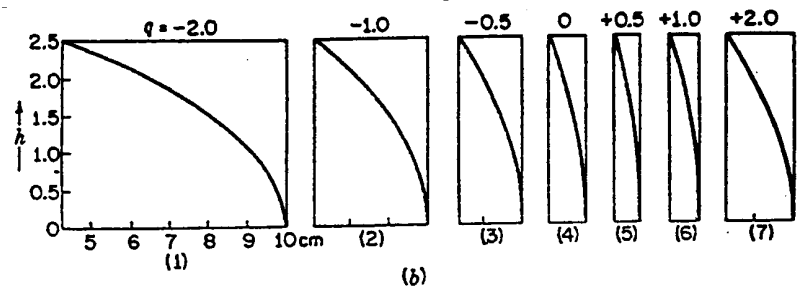
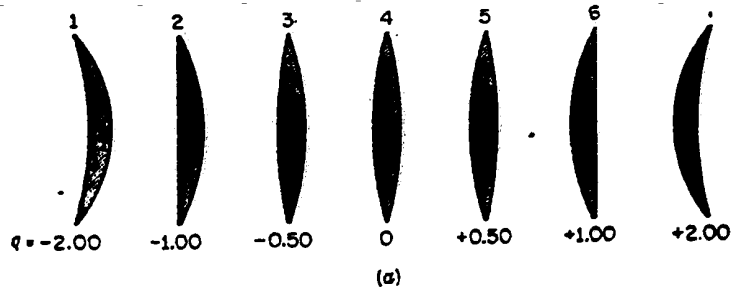


FIGURE 9F
 (a) Lenses of different shapes but with the same power or focal length. The difference is one of bending. (b) Focal length versus ray height h for these lenses.

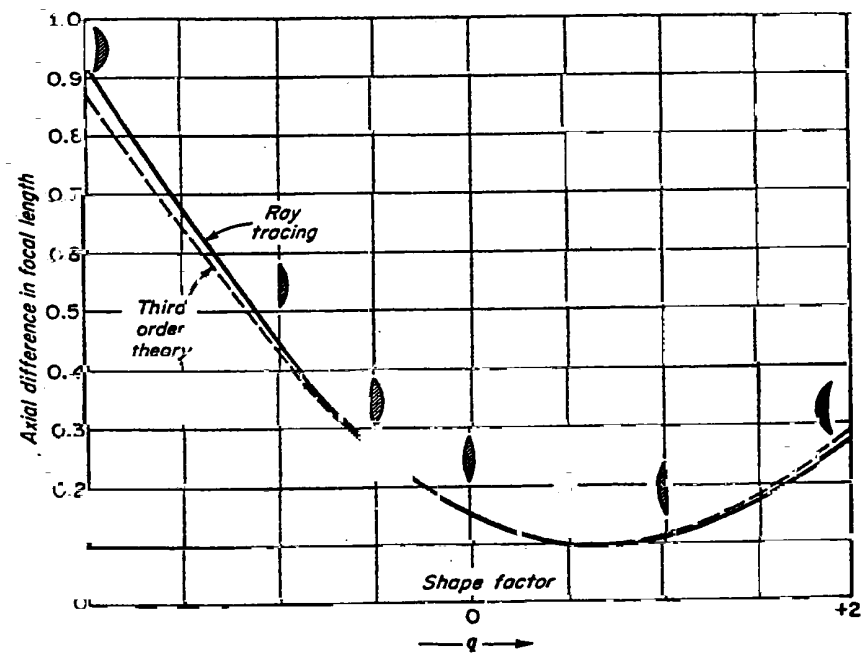
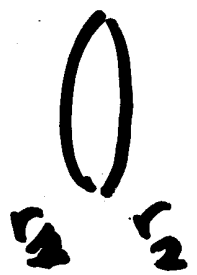


FIGURE 9G
 Axial difference in focal length versus shape factor for lenses of different shape but the same power.



$$q = \frac{r_2 + r_1}{r_2 - r_1}$$

$$p = \frac{s' - s}{s' + s}$$

thin lens

$$\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = (n-1) \left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right) = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$s = \frac{2f}{1+p} \quad s' = \frac{2f}{1-p} \quad n = \frac{2f(n-1)}{q+1}$$

$$r = \frac{2f(n-1)}{q+1}$$

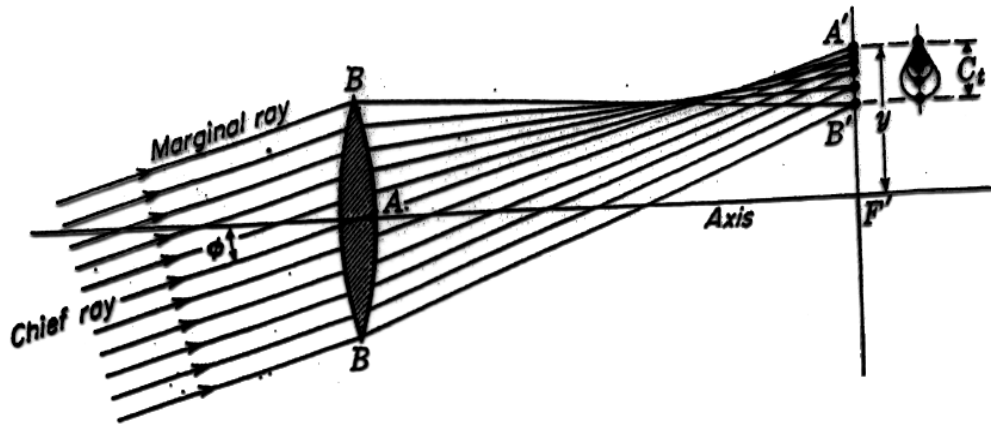


FIGURE 9I
Coma, the second of the five monochromatic aberrations of a lens. Only the tangential fan of rays is shown.

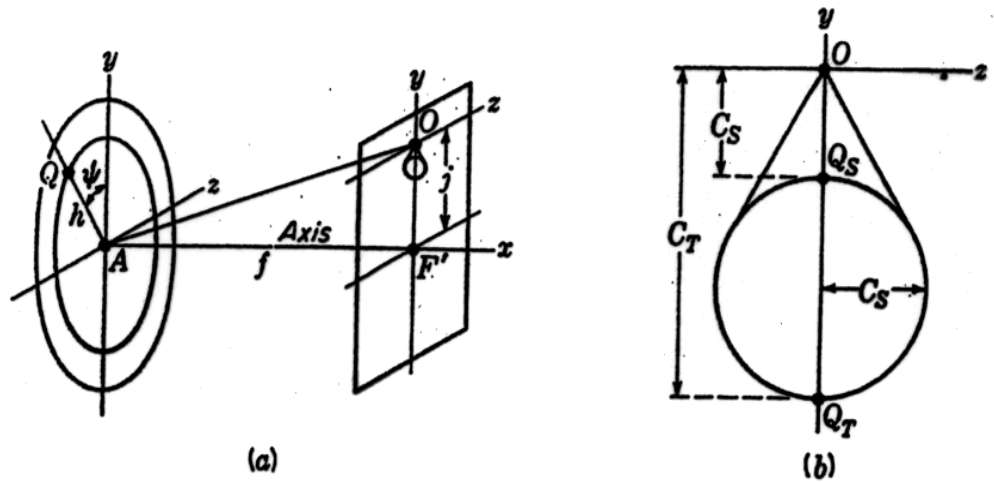


FIGURE 9K
Geometry of coma, showing the relative magnitudes of sagittal and tangential magnifications.

$$C_T = 3C_S$$

equation of comatic figure

$$y = C_S (2 + \cos 2\psi)$$

$$z = C_S \sin 2\psi$$

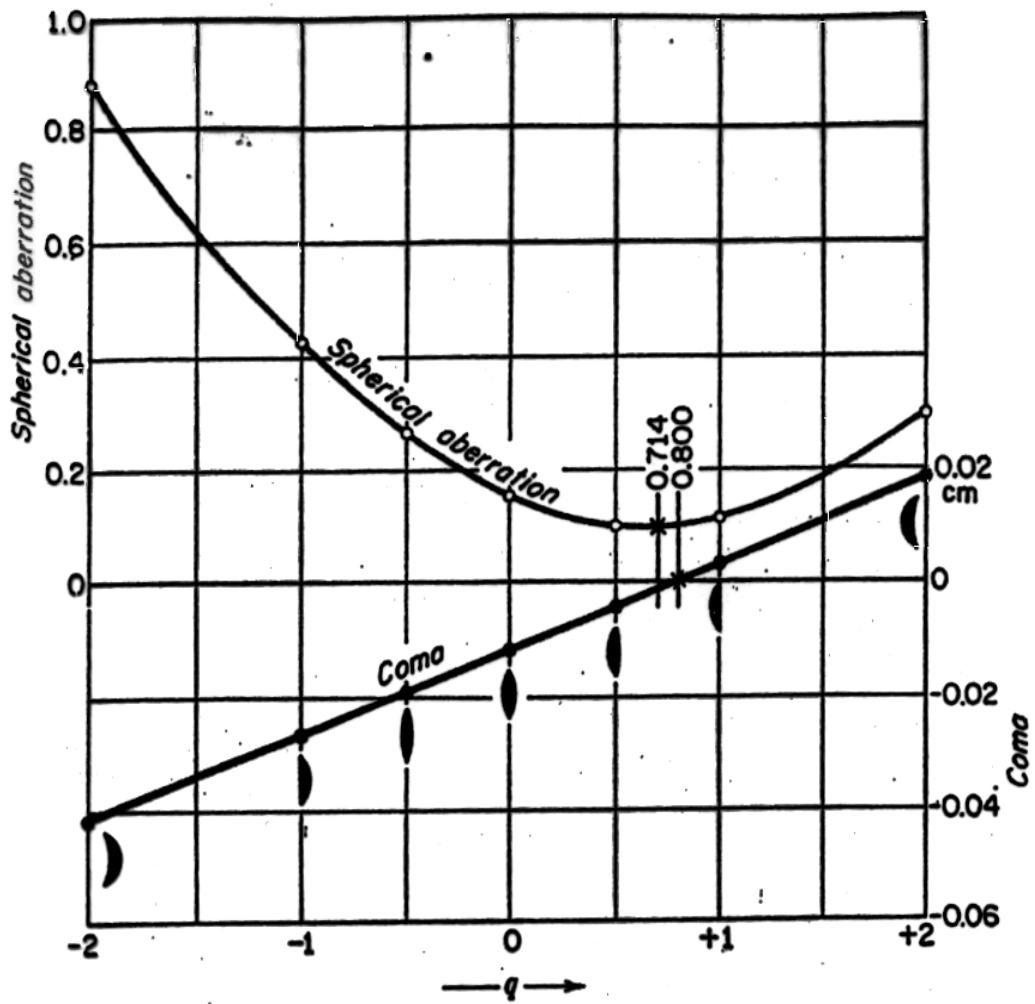
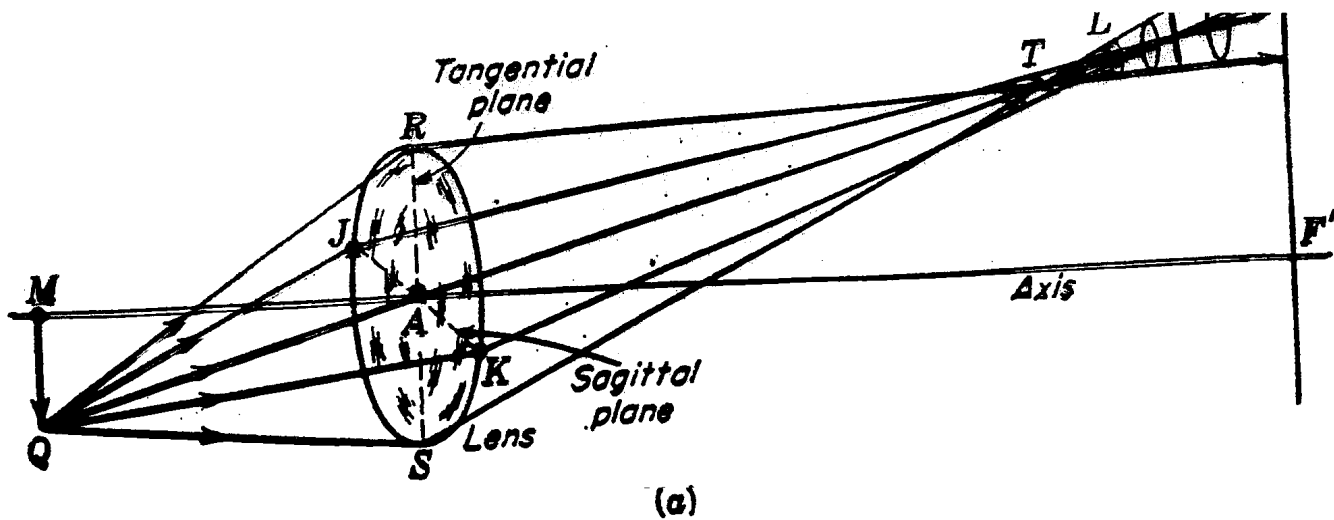
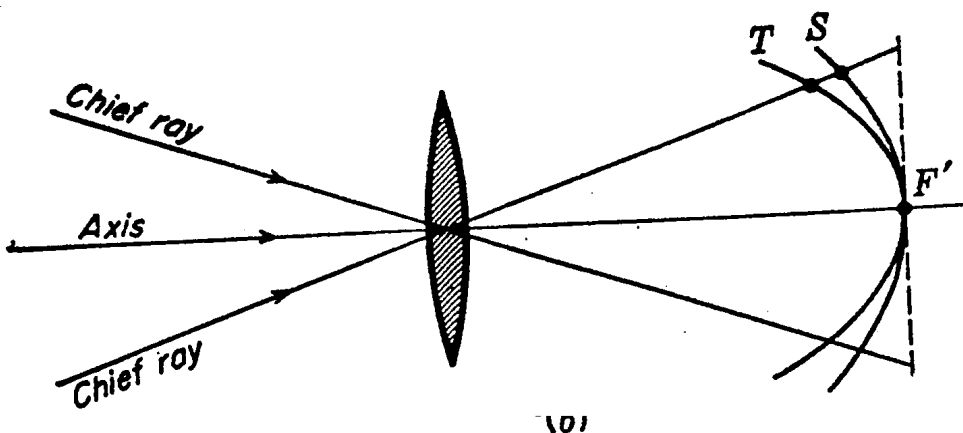


FIGURE 9L
 Graphs comparing coma with longitudinal spherical aberration for a series of lenses having different shapes.



(a)



(b)

FIGURE 9P
 (a) Perspective diagram showing the two focal lines which constitute the image

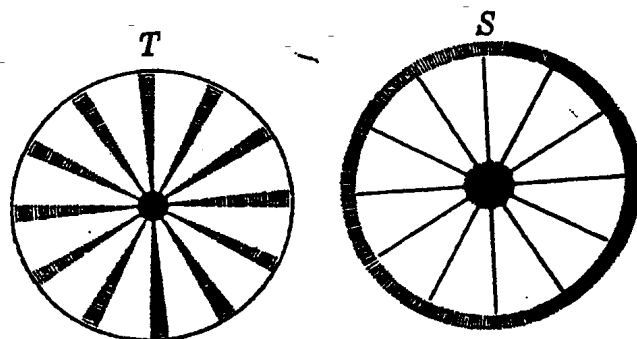


FIGURE 9Q
 Astigmatic images of a spoked wheel.

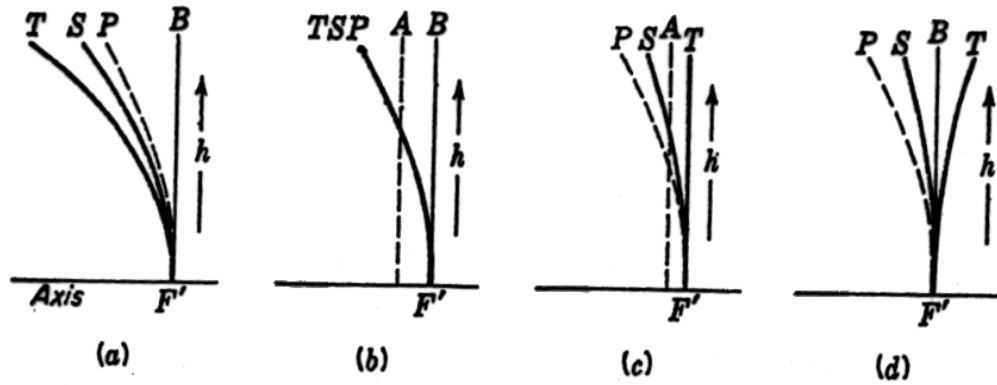


FIGURE 9R
 Diagrams showing the astigmatic surfaces *T* and *S* in relation to the fixed Petzval surface *P* as the spacing between lenses (or between lens and stop) is changed.

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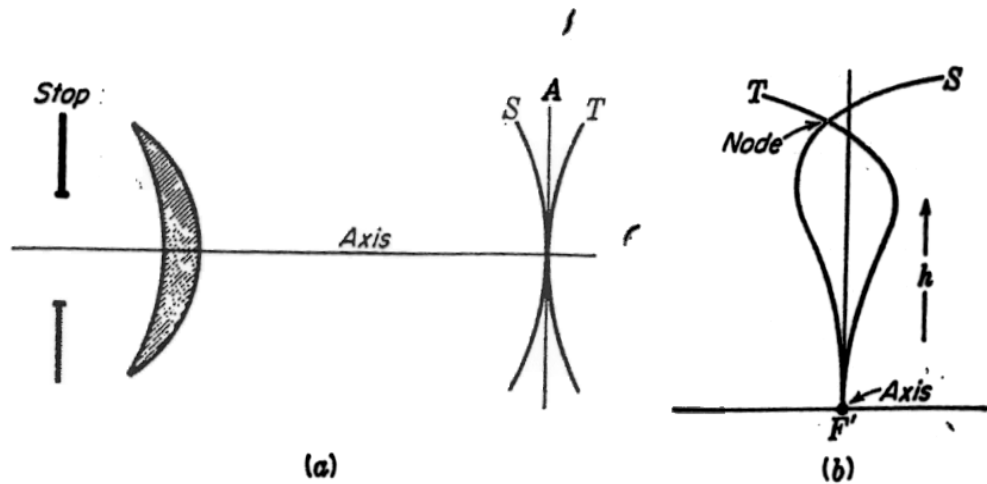


FIGURE 9S
 (a) A properly located stop may be used to reduce field curvature. (b) Astigmatic surfaces for an anastigmat camera lens.

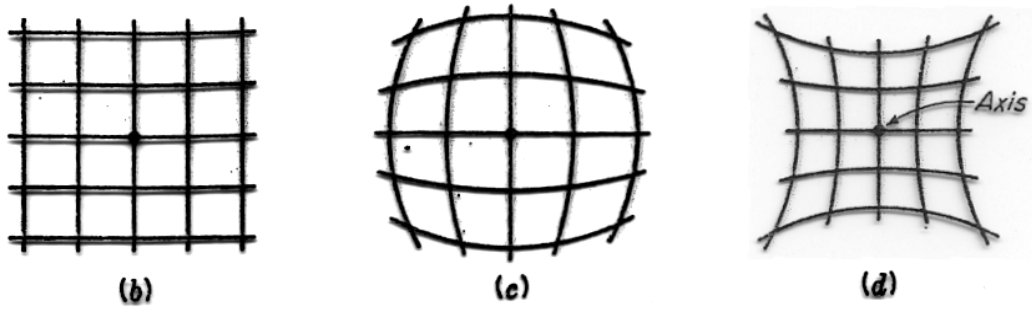


FIGURE 9T

(a) A pinhole camera shows no distortion. Images of a rectangular object screen shown with (b) no distortion, (c) barrel distortion, and (d) pincushion distortion.

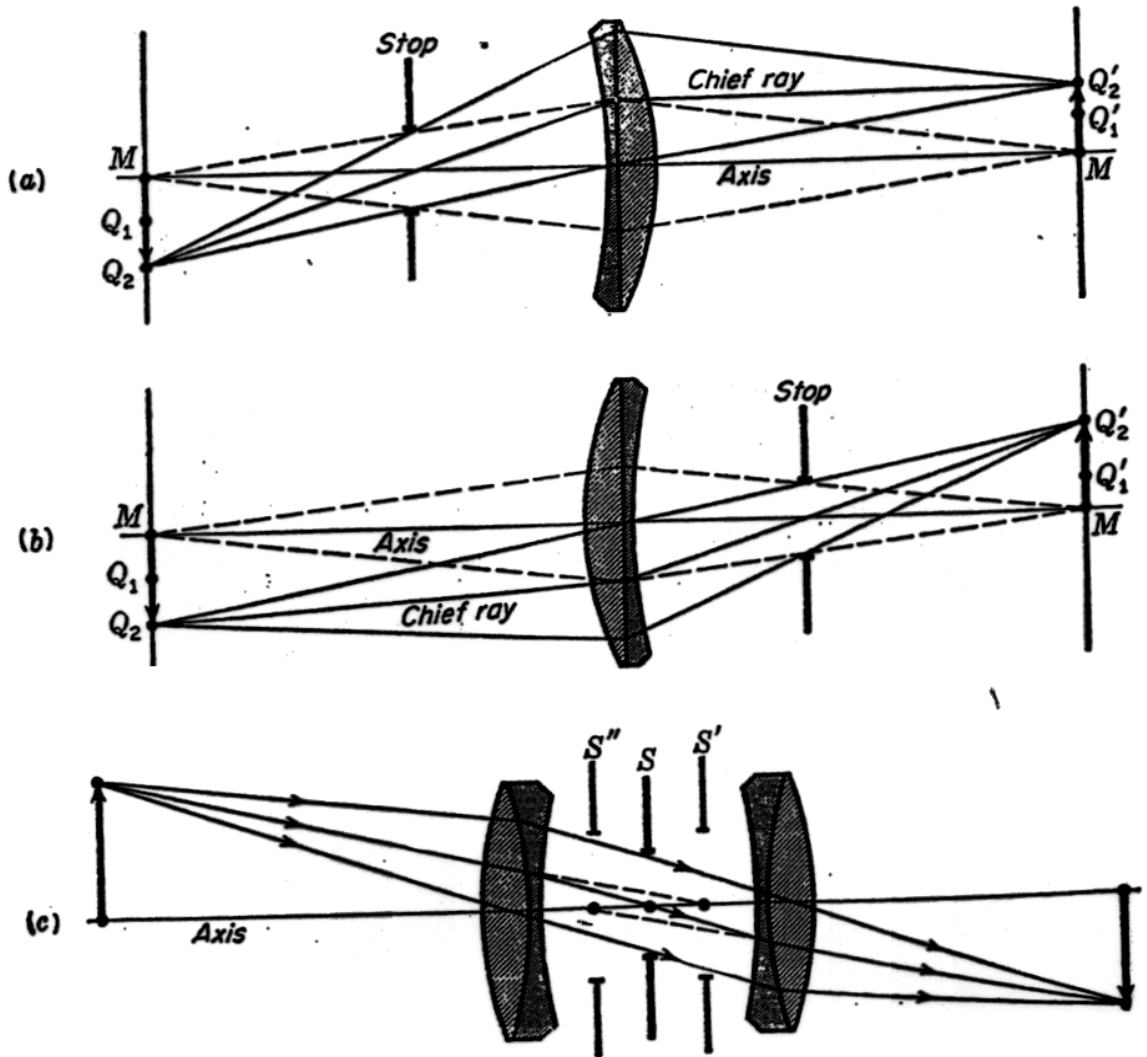


FIGURE 9U

(a) A stop in front of a lens giving rise to barrel distortion. (b) A stop behind a lens giving rise to pincushion distortion. (c) A symmetrical doublet with a stop between is relatively free of distortion.