Opti 415/515

Introduction to Optical Systems

Optical Systems

Manipulate light to form an image on a detector.







Point source microscope

Hubble telescope (NASA)

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Fundamental System Requirements

- Application / Performance
 - Field-of-view and resolution
 - Illumination: luminous, sunlit, ...
 - Wavelength
 - Aperture size / transmittance
 - Polarization,
 - Coherence
 - ...
- Producibility:
 - Size, weight, environment, ...
 - Production volume
 - Cost
 - ...
- Requirements are interdependent, and must be physically plausible:
 - May want more pixels at a faster frame rate than available detectors provide,
 - Specified detector and resolution requires a focal length and aperture larger than allowed package size.
 - Depth-focus may require F/# incompatible with resolution requirement.
- Once a plausible set of performance requirements is established, then a set optical system specifications can be created.

Optical System Specifications

 Object distance Image distance F/number or NA Full field-of-view Focal length Detector Type Dimensions Pixel size # of pixels Format Wavelength Central 	 MTF vs. FOV
 Range Weights (λ/wt) Magnification Transmittance Vignetting 	Environmental Obj. space index Img. space index Shock Vibration Temperature

"Orders" of optics

- First-order:
 - Defines the basic function of an optical system: object & image locations, magnification
 - "Perfect" optics
 - Small angle approximation: $sin(\theta)=tan(\theta)=\theta$
 - First term of a Taylor series expansion
- Third-order:
 - Imperfections of an optical system's performance: Seidel aberrations
 - Small angle approximation is not valid
 - The second term in a Taylor series expansion
 - Perturbation theory used to design optical systems when ray tracing was hard
 - Important to understand behavior of an optical system due to misalignment or fabrication errors in optics and assemblies: tip/tilt, decenter, wedge, spacing errors
- Real rays
 - Ray tracing calculations with high precision
 - Computers are more than fast enough that real rays can be used instead of third order theory in design and analysis
 - Goal is to make a real system behave like the first-order idealization
- All three orders will be used during this course.
- We start with a review of the first-order properties of a system, which are critical to specification and to validation of the system performance.

Refraction & Reflection

- Manipulation of light starts with Snell's law & Law of reflection.
- Incident ray, refracted ray, reflected ray and surface normal are coplanar.
- A ray bends towards the normal when going from low to high index of refraction material, and away from the normal when going from a high to low index of refraction material.
- What happens if $n_2 < n_1$ as the incident angle increases? When incident angle is greater than the critical angle all light is totally internally reflected.



Refraction & Reflection

- Refraction → Snell's law
- Incident ray, refracted ray, reflected ray and surface normal are coplanar.
- Paraxial optics assumes all angles are small.
- Remember that the ray bends towards the normal when going from low to high index of refraction material, and away from the normal when going from a high to low index of refraction material.
- What happens if $n_2 < n_1$ as the incident angle increases? When incident angle is greater than the critical angle all light is totally internally reflected.



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Discovery Education Website

• Hit number 7 on Google image search for "prism"



Optical Spaces

- An optical space extends through all space and has an index of refraction
- A ray in an optical space is a straight line
- A real object is located before an optical surface, and a virtual object is located after an optical surface.
- A real image is located after an optical surface, and a virtual image is located before an optical surface
- A ray is in the object space of an optical surface until it interacts with the surface, and is image space after interacting with a surface.
- N surfaces → N+1 optical spaces
- Rays from adjacent optical spaces meet at an optical surface.



Red ray is in object space where index is n_1 Blue ray is in image space where index is n_2 $n_1 < n_2$

Optical path length

- Proportional to the time it takes light to travel between two points.
- General form is an integral for materials with a variable index.
- Fermat's principle (original) "The actual path between two points taken by a beam of light is the one which is traversed in the least time"
- Fermat's principle (modern) "A light ray, in going between two points, must traverse an optical path length which is stationary with respect to variations of the path."
 - Stationary point \rightarrow derivative is zero
- All ray paths from object point to corresponding image point have the same OPL



Singlet that good?

• Awfully tight focus for a fast, biconvex lens with spherical surfaces made of N-BK7.



Singlet that good?

- Top lens surfaces are hyperbolas
- Bottom lens surfaces are spheres







- A rotationally symmetric optical system can be represented by a single, thick lens
 - Optical axis is axis of rotational symmetry
 - Center-of curvature of every surface is on the optical axis
- Cardinal Points
 - Focal points front F, rear F'
 - Principal points front or first P, rear or second P'
 - Nodal points N and N' (not shown) are the same as P and P' for optical system immersed in air
- Focal planes not shown, normal to axis at focal points
- PF front focal length and P'F' rear focal length
- Principal surfaces black dotted curves planes near the axis, spheres in a corrected system
- Mechanical data, not a cardinal point
 - Vertex of lens front V and rear V'
 - FV front focal distance, V'F' back focal distance



- Rays (red) parallel to axis in object space intersects optical axis in image space at F'
- Ray (blue) parallel to axis in image space intersects optical axis in object space at F
- Principal surfaces are the locus of points defined by the intersection of the projection of a ray parallel with the optical axis and the projection back of the corresponding output ray.
- Principal planes are the planes of unit lateral magnification
- Ray (black) directed at a nodal point emerges from lens at other nodal point, parallel to input ray
- Nodal points are the places of unit angular magnification
 - Angular subtense of object view from front nodal point equals the angular subtense of image viewed from rear nodal point.
- Thin lens \rightarrow length of PP' is practically zero.

Stop and pupils

- Aperture stop is the physical opening that limits the bundle of light propagating through the system for an axial ray . bundle.
- Entrance pupil image of the aperture ٠ stop in object space
- Exit pupil image of the aperture stop in ٠ image space
- Human eye iris is the aperture stop, while the "pupil" you see when looking at someone is their entrance pupil. •
- Vignetted rays are blocked by apertures other than the aperture stop for off-axis • objects





Coordinate systems

- Axis arrow indicates coordinate system > 0
- A directed distance is in a coordinate system.
- Positive rotation about an axis is counter-clockwise (CCW).



Coordinate systems in paraxial optics

- In stated coordinate system h, z', $f_{\rm R},$ and s' are positive, and h', z, $f_{\rm F},$ and s are negative
- Others might state that
 - object space distances are positive to the left, and
 - image space distances are positive to the right
- Paraxial equations depend upon the choice. Be consistent, state assumptions and know what to expect.
 - Conjugate planes to know: infinite and 1:1
 - Is magnification positive or negative?
 - Is image smaller or larger than object (magnitude of magnification >1 or <1)?
 - Real vs. virtual objects and images



Paraxial equations

- Focal length is directed distance from corresponding principal plane
- Object and image distance from corresponding principal plane for Gaussian form
- Object and image distance from corresponding focal plane for Newton form



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Marginal and chief rays



Microscopes

- Microscopes produce an enlarged image of a nearby object either on a detector or for viewing by eye, usually with an eyepiece. May be used to:
 - examine the quality of a point image produced by an optical system,
 - measure the size of surface defects,
 - measure surface roughness interferometrically,
- Many types of microscopes exist: reflection / transmission, bright-field, dark-field, Nomarski, phase contrast, Mirau, etc.
- First look is at microscopes suitable for examination of a point image.
 - DIN type microscope: 195 mm object to image plane, 160 mm tube length, 150 mm image distance (objective mounting flange to image), 45 mm parfocal distance (flange to object)
- To use with a camera remove the eyepiece and place the detector at the image plane.
- Parts for microscopes like this are available from Rolyn Optics, Edmund Optics, Thorlabs, CVI Laser, Newport, etc.
- Magnification = objective magnification * eyepiece magnification.
- Focal length is not defined exactly by magnification.



Infinite conjugate objectives

- Most new microscopes use infinite conjugate objectives:
 - Object is in front focal plane
 - A tube lens is required to focus the light from the objective onto a detector
 - Distance between objective and tube lens can vary significantly allowing for insertion of optional optics
- Objective magnification is the ratio between design tube lens focal length and objective focal length.
 - Manufacturers use different tube lens focal lengths: Nikon, Leica & Mitutoyo 200 mm, Zeiss 164.5 mm, Olympus 180 mm



Microscope objectives

• Left – object side, Right – image side

- Finite conjugate objectives might be marked 160/0.17 for a 160 mm tube length and 0.17 cover glass thickness.

Microscope objectives

- Left object side, Right image side
- Top 20x, NA 0.35, WD 20.5 mm
- Bottom 50x, NA 0.45, WD 13.5 mm

 $\infty / 0$ means the image is at infinity, and the image space NA is 0. Finite conjugate objectives might be marked 160/0.17 for a 160 mm tube length and 0.17 image space NA.

Lagrange invariant

- Paraxial optics is linear \rightarrow any ray can be formed as combination of two rays.
- Marginal ray starts at axial location of object and goes to edge of entrance pupil. Marginal ray:
 - height is zero at object and all image locations,
 - angle defines numerical aperture or F/# of space, and
 - defines image location and pupil (aperture) sizes.
- Chief ray starts at object point in field to center of entrance pupil. Chief ray:
 - height is zero at aperture stop and all pupils (images of aperture stop),
 - angle defines the field angle, and
 - defines object and image heights and pupil locations.
- Lagrange invariant is constant through a system
- What happens if microscope tube lens focal length is reduced to 100 mm from 200 mm?
 - Lagrange invariant in object space is unchanged, so it is unchanged throughout system:
 - Magnification is ¹/₂ original value
 - Image space numerical aperture is 2x original value

Lagrange Invariant
$$H = n\overline{u}y - nu\overline{y}$$
Chief ray $\overline{u}, \overline{y}$ At object or image $y = 0 \Rightarrow H = -nu\overline{y}$ Marginal ray u, y At a pupil $\overline{y} = 0 \Rightarrow H = n\overline{u}y$

Autostigmatic microscope

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Websites

- Links are to fantastic sites for understanding microscopes.
- Olympus Microscopy Resource Center
- Nikon MicroscopyU Nikon microscopy home page with JAVA tutorials and more.
 - <u>Nikon CFI60 optics</u> explanation of their infinite conjugate microscope design with 60 mm parfocal distance.
- <u>Edmund Optics Understanding Microscopes</u> a good description of microscopes based on a 160 mm tube length (no tube lens).