

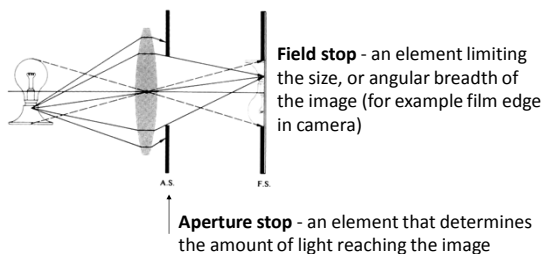
Physics 42200

# Waves & Oscillations

## Lecture 30 – Geometric Optics

Spring 2016 Semester

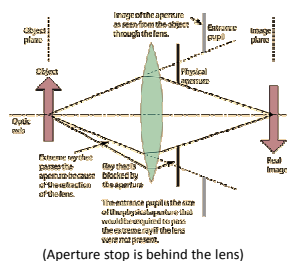
## Apertures and Stops



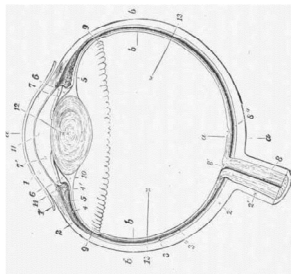
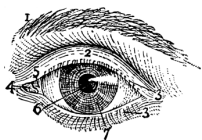
- Field stop determines the field of view and limits the size of objects that can be imaged.
- Aperture determines amount of light only

## Entrance Pupil

- How big does the aperture stop appear when viewed from the position of the object?



## Entrance Pupil



- If the cornea were removed, the pupil would appear smaller
- The cornea magnifies the image of the pupil

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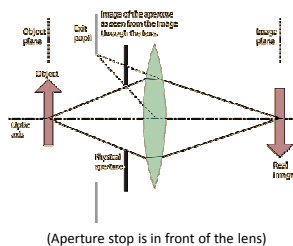
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## Exit Pupil

- How big does the aperture stop appear when viewed from the image plane?



(Aperture stop is in front of the lens)

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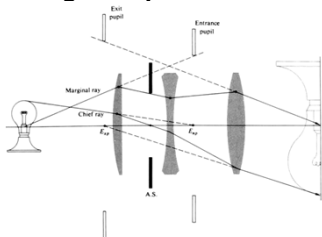
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## Chief and marginal rays

**Marginal ray:** the ray that comes from a point on object and marginally passes the aperture stop



**Chief ray:** any ray from an object point that passes through the middle of the aperture stop  
It is effectively the central ray of the bundle emerging from a point on an object that can get through the aperture.

**Importance:** aberrations in optical systems

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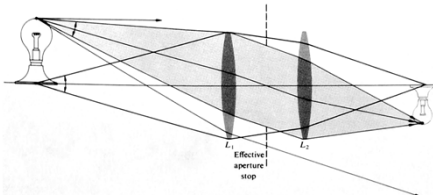
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## Vignetting



The cone of rays that reaches image plane from the top of the object is smaller than that from the middle. There will be less light on the periphery of the image - a process called **vignetting**

Example: entrance pupil of the eye can be as big as 8 mm.

Telescopes are designed to have exit pupil of 8 mm for maximum brightness of the image

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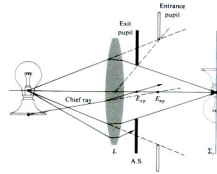
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## Relative Aperture

- The area of the entrance pupil determines how much light will reach the image plane.
- Pupils are typically circular: the area varies as the square of the diameter,  $D$ .
- The image area varies as the square of the lateral dimension,  $A \sim f^2$
- Light intensity at the image plane varies as  $(D/f)^2$
- $(D/f)$  is called the *relative aperture*




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## Relative Aperture

- Relative aperture:  $f/D = (\text{focal length/diameter})$
- For optical equipment (camera lenses) this is usually labeled as  $f/\#$
- Example:
 

$\left. \begin{array}{l} - f = 50 \text{ mm} \\ - D = 25 \text{ mm} \end{array} \right\}$	$f/D = 2 \text{ denoted "f/2"}$
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- This provides a standard way to reference the intensity of light shining on film or other photosensitive material.

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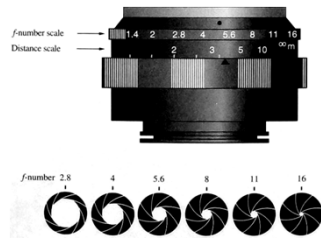
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### $f$ -number of a camera lens



Change in neighboring numbers is  $\sqrt{2}$   
 Intensity is  $\sim 1/(f/\#)^2$ : changing diaphragm from one label to another changes light intensity on film 2 times

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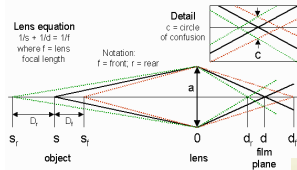
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### Depth of Field




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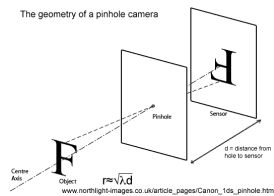
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### Depth of Field

- Extreme case is the pinhole camera

The geometry of a pinhole camera




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## Aberrations

- We have continued to make approximations:
  - Paraxial rays
  - Spherical lenses
  - Index of refraction independent of wavelength
- How do these approximations affect images?
  - There are several ways...
  - Sometimes one particular effect dominates the performance of an optical system
  - Useful to understand their source in order to introduce the most appropriate corrective optics
- How can these problems be reduced or corrected?

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## Aberrations

- Limitations of paraxial rays:
 
$$\sin \theta = \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \frac{\theta^7}{7!} + \dots$$
- Paraxial approximation:
 
$$\sin \theta \approx \theta$$
- Third-order approximation:
 
$$\sin \theta \approx \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!}$$
- The optical equations are now non-linear
  - The lens equations are only approximations
  - Perfect images might not even be possible!
  - Deviations from perfect images are called aberrations
  - Several different types are classified and their origins identified.

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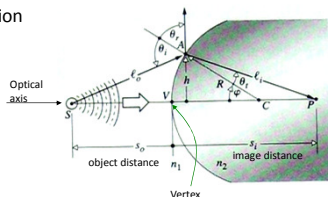
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## Aberrations

- Departure from the linear theory at third-order were classified into five types of **primary aberrations** by Phillip Ludwig Seidel (1821-1896):
  - Spherical aberration
  - Coma
  - Astigmatism
  - Field curvature
  - Distortion




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## Spherical Aberration

- We first derived the shape of a surface that changes spherical waves into plane waves
  - It was either a parabola, ellipse or hyperbola
- But this only worked for light sources that were on the optical axis
- To form an image, we need to bring rays into focus from points that lie off the optical axis
- A sphere looks the same from all directions so there are no “off-axis” points
- It is still not perfect – there are aberrations

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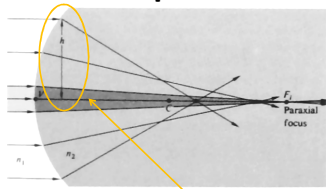
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## Spherical Aberration



Paraxial approximation:

$$\frac{n_1}{s_o} + \frac{n_2}{s_i} = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{R}$$

Third order approximation:

$$\frac{n_1}{s_o} + \frac{n_2}{s_i} = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{R} + h^2 \left[ \frac{n_1}{2s_o} \left( \frac{1}{s_o} + \frac{1}{R} \right)^2 + \frac{n_2}{2s_i} \left( \frac{1}{R} - \frac{1}{s_i} \right)^2 \right]$$

Deviation from first-order theory

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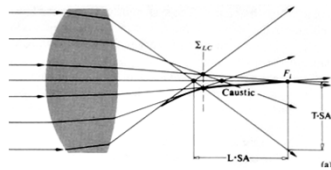
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## Spherical Aberrations



- Longitudinal Spherical Aberration:  $L \cdot SA$ 
  - Image of an on-axis object is longitudinally stretched
  - Positive  $L \cdot SA$  means that marginal rays intersect the optical axis in front of  $F_i$  (paraxial focal point).
- Transverse Spherical Aberration:  $T \cdot SA$ 
  - Image of an on-axis object is blurred in the image plane
- Circle of least confusion:  $\Sigma_{LC}$ 
  - Smallest image blur

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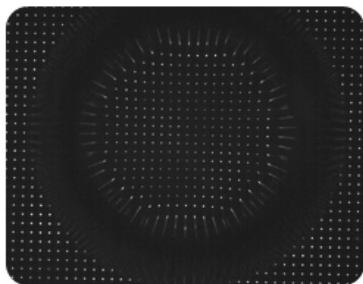
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## Spherical Aberration



Example from <http://www.spot-optics.com/index.htm>

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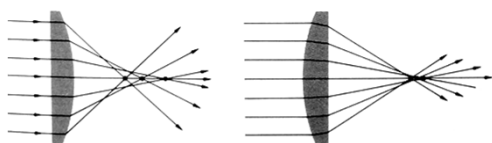
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## Spherical Aberration

- In third-order optics, the orientation of the lenses does matter
- Spherical aberration depends on the lens arrangement:




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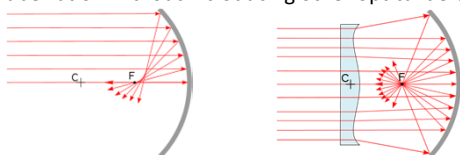
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## Spherical Aberration of Mirrors

- Spherical mirrors also suffer from spherical aberration
  - Parabolic mirrors do not suffer from spherical aberration, but they distort images from points that do not lie on the optical axis
- **Schmidt corrector plate** removes spherical aberration without introducing other optical defects.




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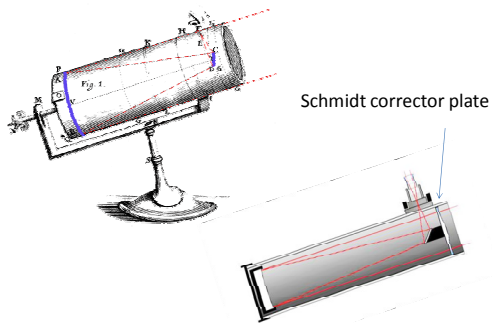
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## Newtonian Telescope




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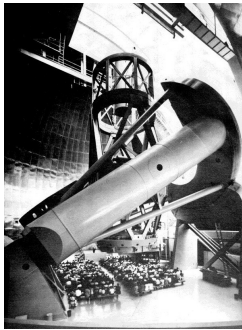
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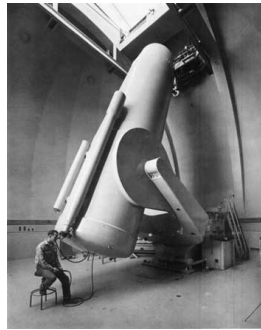
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## Schmidt 48-inch Telescope



200 inch Hale telescope



48-inch Schmidt telescope

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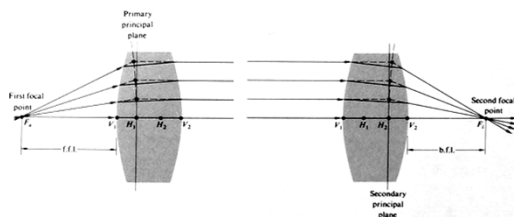
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## Coma (comatic aberration)

- Principle planes are not flat – they are actually curved surfaces.
- Focal length is different for off-axis rays




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### Coma

Parallel Rays  
Coma  
Coma Blur  
Off-Axis Comatic Aberration  
Zone 1  
Zone 2  
Zone 3  
Zone 4  
Optical Axis  
Lens  
Figure 7

- Negative coma: meridional rays focus closer to the principal axis

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### Coma

Vertical coma  
Horizontal coma

Coma can be reduced by introducing a stop positioned at an appropriate point along the optical axis, so as to remove the appropriate off-axis rays.

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### Astigmatism

- Parallel rays from an off-axis object arrive in the plane of the lens in one direction, but not in a perpendicular direction:

Sagittal and Meridional Planes  
Figure 1  
Sagittal Plane  
Meridional Plane  
Optical Axis  
Lens  
Object Point  
Chief Ray  
Meridional Ray  
Sagittal Ray  
stigmatism Aberration  
Airy Diffraction Pattern  
Tangential (Meridional) Focal Plane  
Circle of Least Confusion  
Airy Diffraction Pattern  
Object Point

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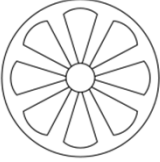
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### Astigmatism

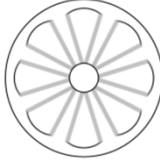
no astigmatism



sagittal focus



tangential focus



- This formal definition is different from the one used in ophthalmology which is caused by non-spherical curvature of the surface and lens of the eye.

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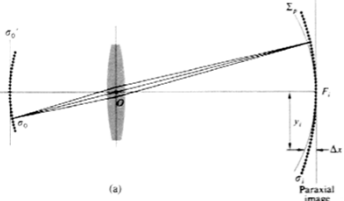
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### Field Curvature



(a)

- The focal plane is actually a curved surface
- A negative lens has a field plane that curves away from the image plane
- A combination of positive and negative lenses can cancel the effect

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

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### Field Curvature

- Transverse magnification,  $m_T$ , can be a function of the off-axis distance:



Positive  
(pincushion)  
distortion

Negative  
(barrel)  
distortion

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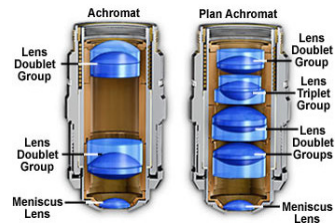
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### Correcting Monochromatic Aberrations

- Combinations of lenses with mutually cancelling aberration effects
- Apertures
- Aspherical correction elements.



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