Optical Sensors

Radiation Sensors

Units of the Electromagnetic Spectrum

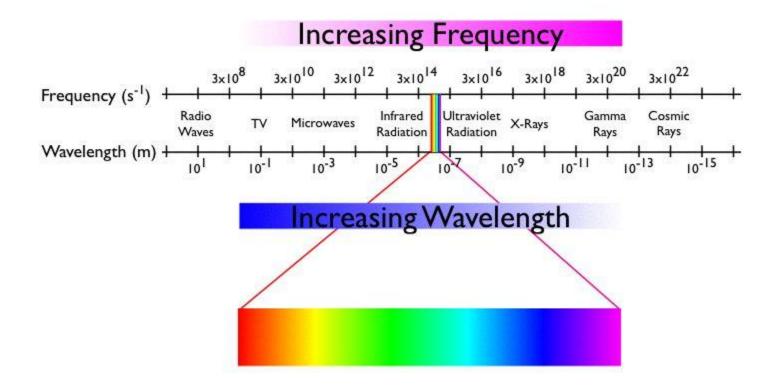


Visible spectrum 400–760nm

Spectrum

Band	Wavelength	Frequency
MF medium frequency		300-3000 kHz
HF high frequency		3-30 MHz
Radio FM ShortWave	20 cm - 20 m 2.5-3.5 m 20 cm - 2.5 m	15 MHz - 1.5 GHz 85-120 MHz 120 MHz - 1.5 GHz
Microwave	0.01-20 cm	1.5-3000 GHz
EHF extremely high frequency		30-300 GHz
Far Infrared	20,000-100,000 nm	3000-15000 GHz
Near Infrared	700-20,000 nm	15000-430,000 GHz
Visible Red Orange Yellow Green Blue Violet	400-700 nm 620-760 nm 570-620 nm 550-570 nm 470-550 nm 440-470 nm 380-440 nm	430,000-750,000 GHz
Ultraviolet Soft XRay Hard XRay	50-190-400 nm 1-20 nm 0.1-1 nm	10 ¹⁵ - 10 ¹⁷ Hz 10 ¹⁷ - 10 ^{20 Hz}
Gamma ray	0.1 - 0.000001 nm	Highest 10 ²⁰ - 10 ^{24 Hz}

Spectrum



Basic Optical Phenomena

Refraction governed by Snell's law defining the relationship between incident and transmitted rays at the interface of two media

 $n_1 \sin(\varphi_1) = n_2 \sin(\varphi_2)$

Eq. 1 (n1 and n2 are indices of refraction

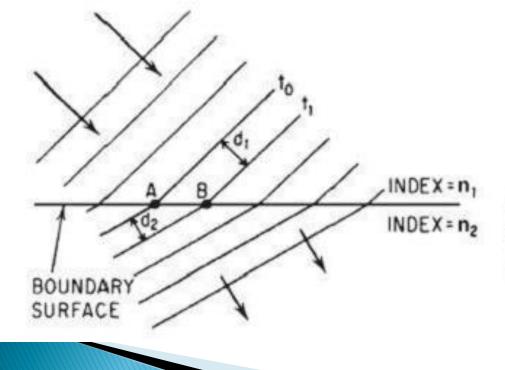


Figure 1.4 A plane wave front passing through the boundary between two media of differing indices of refraction $(n_2 > n_1)$.

Review of optical phenomena that might be used in microsensors

Name of effect	Description
Photovoltaic	A voltage is generated by incident radiation at the juction of two dissimilar materials
Photomagnetoelectric	An electrical field is generated by both a magnetic field and incident radiation
Photoconductivity	Electrical conductivity is increased due to incident radiation
Photoelectric	Electrons and holes are generated and separated in a junction area by incident radiation
Photodielectric	The change of a dielectric constant due to incident radiation
Laser	Energy is generated by an optical resonance cavity
Photoluminescence	Radiant energy is emitted by incident radiation with shorter wavelength
Radioluminescence	Visible radiant energy is emitted by incident x- rays or gamma rays
Radiation heating	The increase of temperature of a material by incident radiation

Frequency and Wavelength

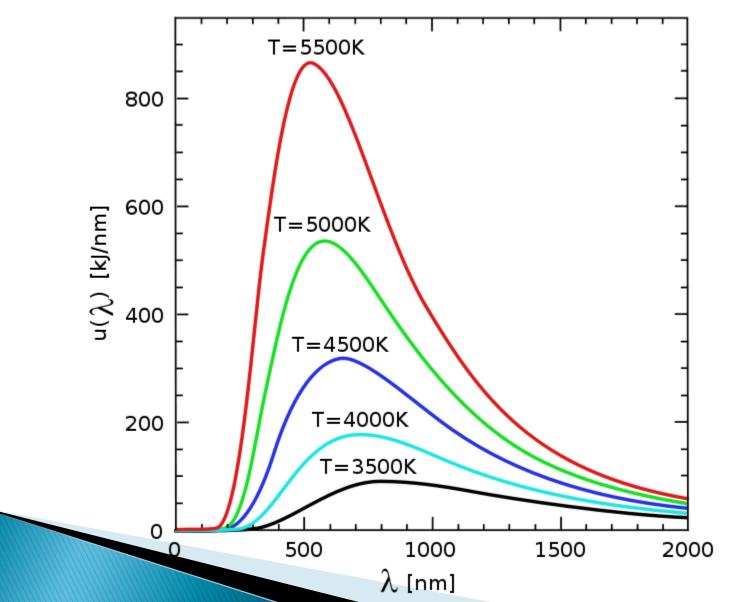
- $\triangleright \lambda$ is wavelength
- f frequency
- Refractive index n=c/v where v is the velocity of EM radiation
- Photon energy $W=h.f=hc/\lambda$ (Joule)
- Intensity (I)=power in watt/beam cross sectional area in squared meter

Divergence

- Beam Divergence of an electromagnetic beam is an angular measure of the increase in <u>beam</u> <u>diameter</u> or <u>radius</u> with distance from the <u>optical</u> <u>aperture</u> or <u>antenna aperture</u> from which the electromagnetic beam emerges
- The divergence of a beam can be calculated if one knows the beam diameter at two separate points (*D_i*, *D_f*), and the distance (I) these points. The beam divergence, Θ, is given by

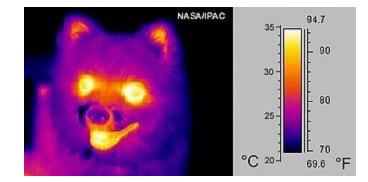
$$\Theta = 2 \arctan\left(\frac{D_f - D_i}{2l}\right).$$

Thermal Radiation

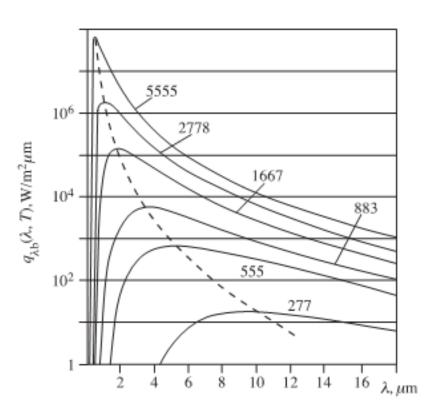


Infrared Camera

infrared camera is a device that forms an image using infrared radiation, similar to a common camera that forms an image using visible light. Instead of the 450-750 nanometer range of the visible light camera, infrared cameras operate in wavelengths as long as 14,000 nm (14 µm).



Thermal Radiation



Application of Wien's Law to human body emission results in a peak wavelength of

$$\lambda_p(\mu m) = \frac{2900}{T}$$

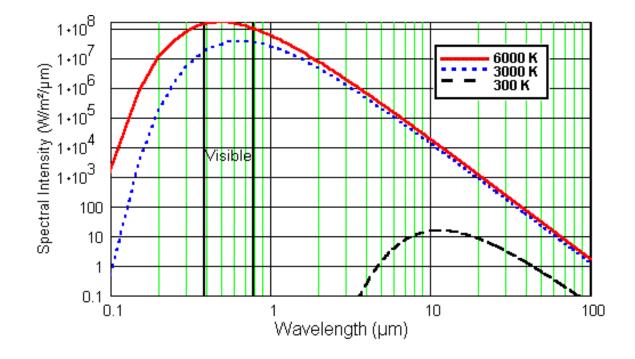
$$\lambda_{\rm peak} = \frac{2.898 \times 10^6 \text{ K} \cdot \text{nm}}{305 \text{ K}} = 9500 \text{ nm}$$

$$F(\lambda) = \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5 \left(\exp\left(\frac{hc}{k\lambda T}\right) - 1\right)}$$

<u>Stefan-Boltzmann law</u>

- Stefan-Boltzmann law
- The <u>Stefan-Boltzmann law</u> states that the power emitted per unit area of the surface of a black body is directly proportional to the fourth power of its absolute temperature:
- where *P* is the total power radiated per unit area, *T* is the <u>absolute</u> <u>temperature</u> and $\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8}$ W m⁻² K⁻⁴ is the <u>Stefan-Boltzmann constant</u>.

Thermal Radiation



Human Radiation

The net power radiated is the difference between the power emitted and the power absorbed:

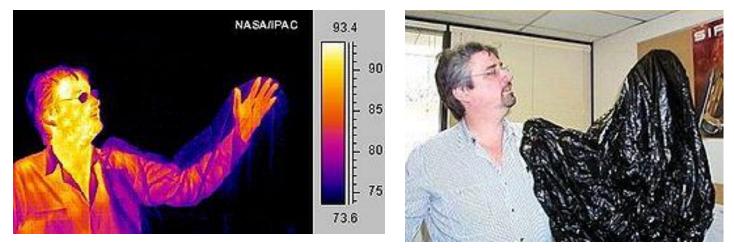
 $P_{\rm net} = P_{\rm emit} - P_{\rm absorb}. \label{eq:pnet}$ Applying the Stefan-Boltzmann law,

$$P_{\rm net} = A\sigma\varepsilon \left(T^4 - T_0^4\right).$$

The total surface area of an adult is about 2 m², and the mid- and far-infrared <u>emissivity</u> of skin and most clothing is near unity, as it is for most nonmetallic surfaces. Skin temperature is about 33 °C, but clothing reduces the surface temperature to about 28 °C when the ambient temperature is 20 °C.Hence, the net radiative heat loss is about

 $P_{\rm net} = 100 {\rm W}.$

IR imaging



Much of a person's energy is radiated away in the form of <u>infrared</u> light. Some materials are transparent in the infrared, while opaque to visible light, as is the plastic bag in this infrared image (bottom). Other materials are transparent to visible light, while opaque or reflective in the infrared, noticeable by darkness of the man's glasses.

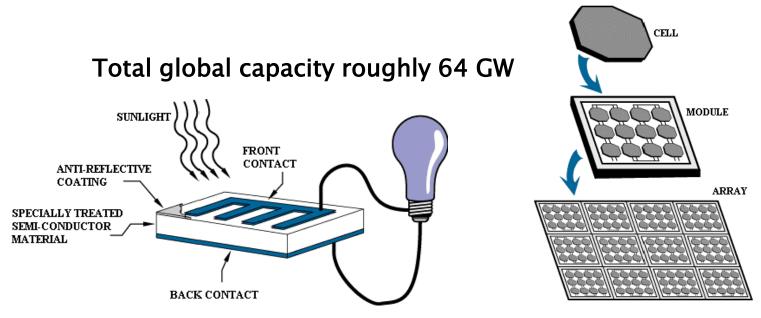
Neon Light

The idea behind a neon light is simple. Inside the glass tube there is a gas like neon, argon or krypton at low pressure. At both ends of the tube there are metal electrodes. When you apply a high voltage to the electrodes, the neon gas ionizes, and electrons flow through the gas. These electrons excite the neon atoms and cause them to emit light that we can see. Neon emits red light when energized in this way. Other gases emit other colors.

Fluorescent light

- A fluorescent light works on a similar idea but it has an extra step. Inside a <u>fluorescent light</u> is low– pressure mercury vapor. When ionized, mercury vapor emits ultraviolet light. Therefore, the inside of a fluorescent light is coated with a **phosphor**. A phosphor is a substance that can accept energy in one form and emit the energy in the form of visible light. In a fluorescent lamp, the phosphor accepts the energy of ultraviolet photons and emits visible photons.
- he light we see from a fluorescent tube is the light given off by the phosphor that coats the inside of the tube (the phosphor fluoresces when energized, hence the name). The light of a neon tube is the colored light that the neon atoms give off directly.

PHOTOVOLTAIC EFFECT

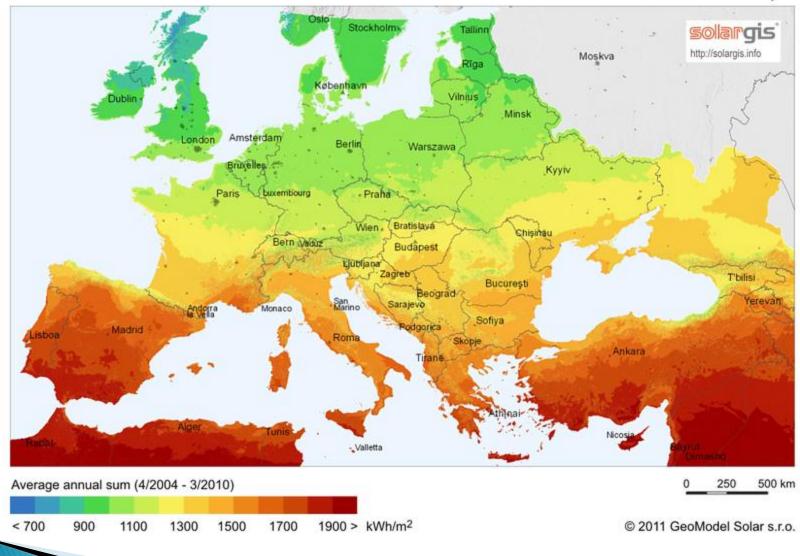


Photovoltaics is the direct conversion of light into electricity at the atomic level. Some materials exhibit a property known as the photoelectric effect that causes them to absorb photons of light and release electrons. When these free electrons are captured, an electric current results that can be used as electricity.

The term photovoltaic denotes the unbiased operating mode of a <u>photodiode</u> in which current through the device is entirely due to the transduced light energy.

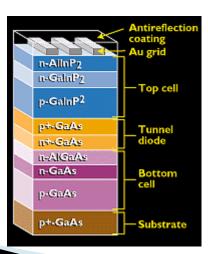
Global horizontal irradiation

Europe

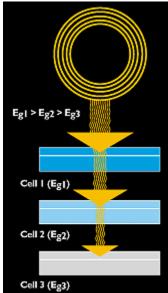


PV...

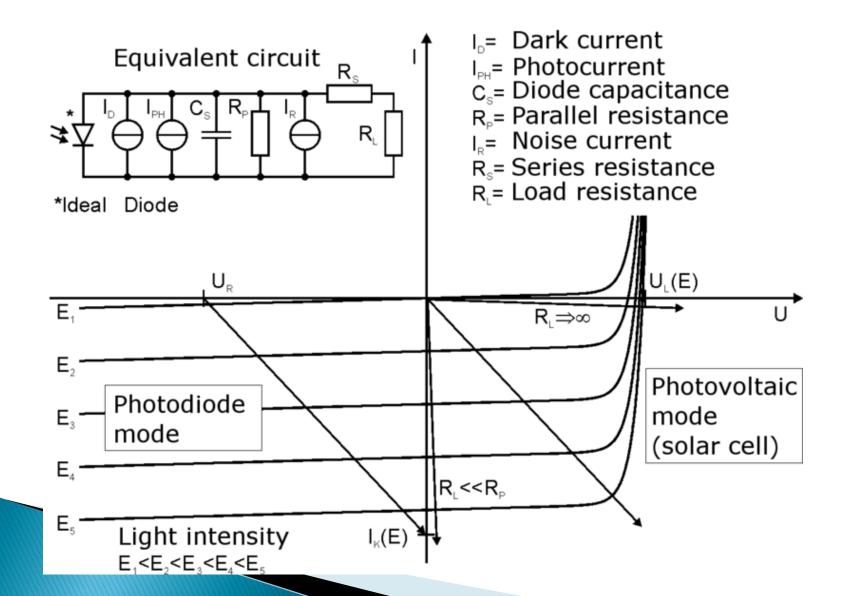
Today's most common PV devices use a single junction, or interface, to create an electric field within a semiconductor such as a PV cell. In a single-junction PV cell, only photons whose energy is equal to or greater than the <u>band gap</u> of the cell material can free an electron for an electric circuit. In other words, the photovoltaic response of single-junction cells is limited to the portion of the <u>sun's spectrum</u> whose energy is above the band gap of the absorbing material, and lower-energy photons are not used



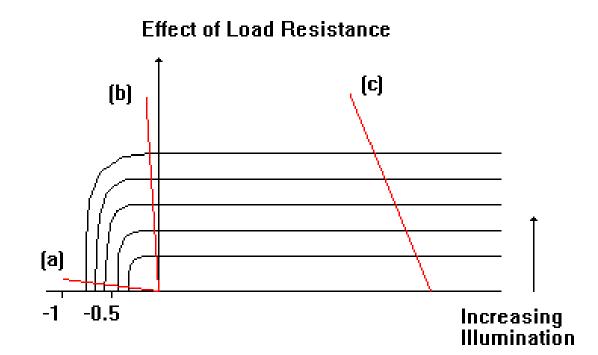
efficiencies of around 35%

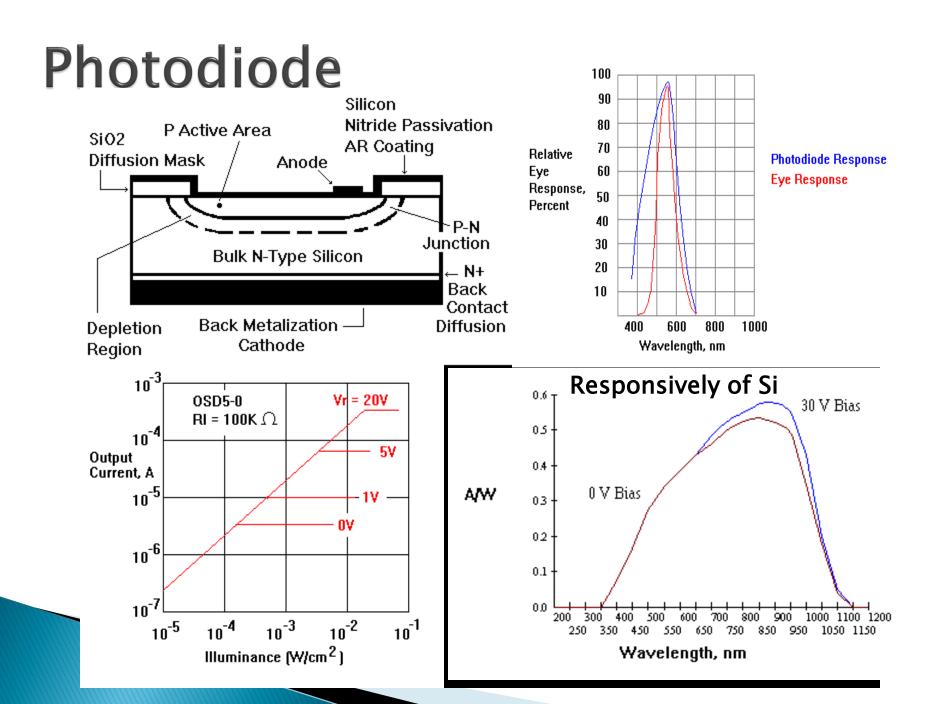


Photodiode Operation



Photodiode Operation





Photodiode Polarity

Quantum Efficiency

IMPORTANT: Normal biased operation of most PD calls for negative biasing the active area of the device which is the anode or positive biasing the backside of the device, which is the cathode.

Fundamentally a photodiode is a current generator. The junction capacitance of the photodiode depends on the depletion layer depth and hence bias voltage. The value of the shunt resistance is usually high (megohms). The series resistance is low.

Q.E.(%) = $\frac{1.24 \times 10^5 \text{ R(A/W)}}{\lambda \text{ (nm)}}$

cm

Equivalent Operating Circuits

