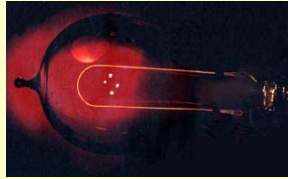


Generation of light - Light sources



Black-body radiation

Luminescence

Laser



Black-body radiation

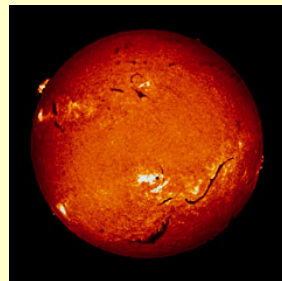
or

Thermal Radiation

- Experience: hot bodies



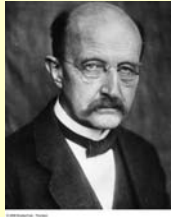
emit
visible light



Thermal Radiation

All material objects ($T > 0$ K) emit electromagnetic radiation independently from the temperature of its environment

Radiation originates from specific collective internal vibrations of the composing atoms.



Planck (1900)

1. Some of the atomic vibrations lead to **oscillating charge** separations: source of electromagnetic radiation (EMR)
2. If the oscillators can have any energies the spectrum can not be derived
3. Planck supposed that the internal vibrations can only have **discrete energies**

$$E_n = nhf$$

\nwarrow integer \swarrow vibrational frequency

4. EMR absorption and emission changes the **quantum state** of vibrations by one quantum

Absorptance (or absorption coefficient) is the fraction of incident light that is absorbed by the body

$$\alpha = \frac{E_{\text{absorbed}}}{E_{\text{total incident}}}$$

Varies with the wavelength

Black body absorbs all light that strikes it.

$$\alpha_{\text{max}} = 1$$

Kirchhoff's observation: absorbs more – radiates more

M : radiant emittance [W/m²]

$$\frac{M_{\lambda i}}{M_{\lambda j}} = \frac{\alpha_{\lambda i}}{\alpha_{\lambda j}}$$

i : arbitrary j : ideal black body

$$\alpha_{\lambda j} = 1 \qquad \alpha_{\lambda i} < 1$$

$$M_i < M_{\lambda j}$$

Ideal black body has the maximal radiant emittance

$$\alpha_{\lambda(\text{blackbody})} = 1 \qquad \alpha_{\lambda j} < 1$$

$$M_{\lambda j} < M_{\lambda(\text{blackbody})}$$

Ideal black body has the highest radiant emittance

Human body can be considered as a 95% black body

Emission spectrum of thermal radiation

- the spectrum is continuous

- it has one maximum :

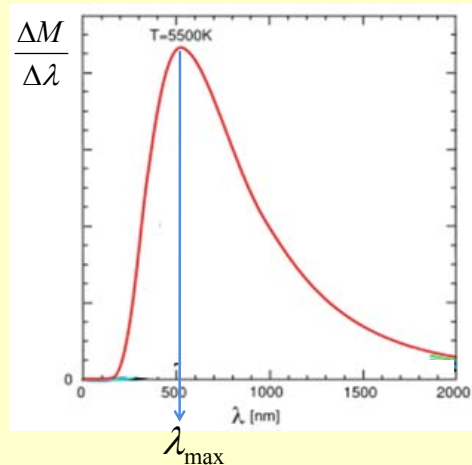
$$\lambda_{\max}$$

- area below the curve:

$$M = \sigma T^4$$



Radiant emittance: total radiant power per unit surface area

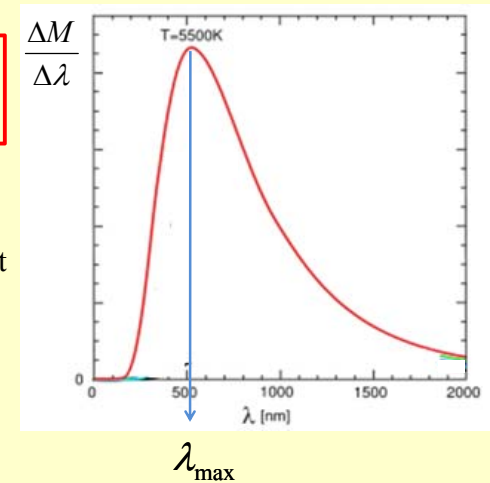


Stefan – Boltzmann law

$$M_{\text{blackbody}(T)} = \sigma T^4$$

Stefan – Boltzmann constant

$$\sigma = 5.7 \times 10^{-8} \left[\frac{W}{m^2 K^4} \right]$$



The role of thermal radiation in the energy release

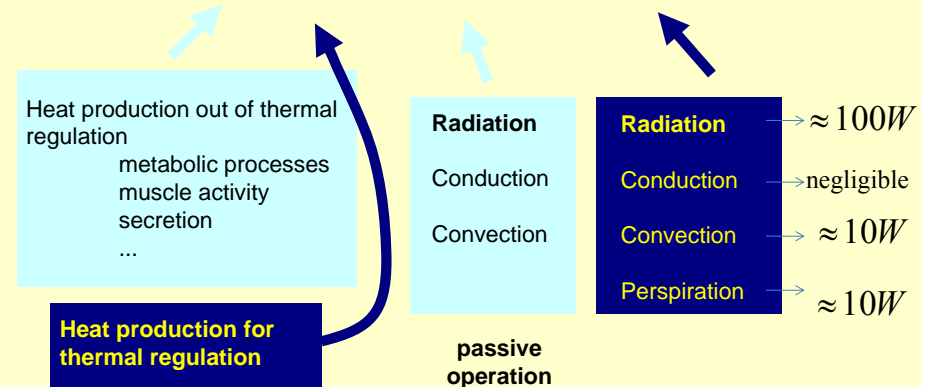
$$\Delta M = \sigma(T_{\text{object}}^4 - T_{\text{environment}}^4)$$

It is influenced by

- the temperature of the body
- surface area
- the temperature of the environment (temperature of the surrounding objects)

Temperature regulation and heat exchange

$$\text{heat production} + \text{heat uptake} = \text{heat loss}$$



If someone is interested...

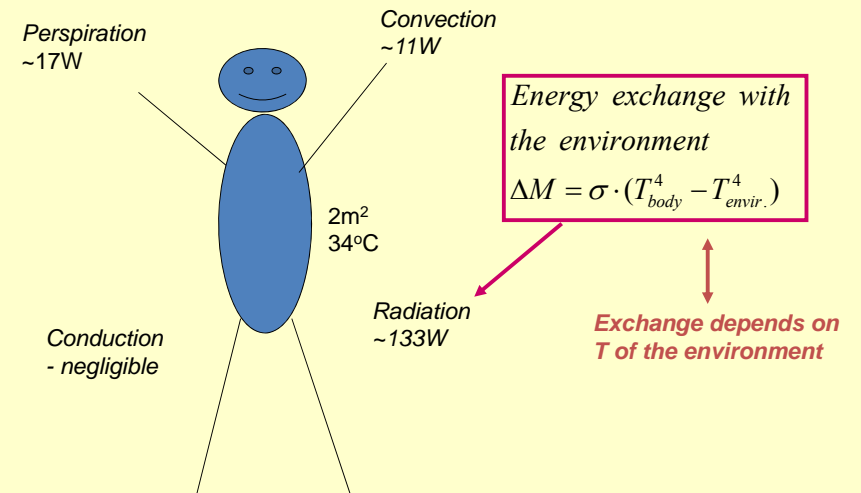
The total energy radiated in one day is about 9 MJ (million [joules](#)), or 2000 kcal (food [calories](#)). [Basal metabolic rate](#) for a 40-year-old male is about 35 kcal/(m²·h), which is equivalent to 1700 kcal per day assuming the same 2 m² area. However, the mean metabolic rate of sedentary adults is about 50% to 70% greater than their basal rate

There are other important thermal loss mechanisms, including [convection](#) and [evaporation](#). Conduction is negligible. Evaporation ([perspiration](#)) is only required if radiation and convection are insufficient to maintain a steady state temperature. Free convection rates are comparable, albeit somewhat lower, than radiative rates. Thus, radiation accounts for about 2/3 of thermal energy loss in cool, still air. Given the approximate nature of many of the assumptions, this can only be taken as a crude estimate. Ambient air motion, causing forced convection, or evaporation reduces the relative importance of radiation as a thermal loss mechanism. Also, Applying [Wien's Law](#) to humans, one finds that the peak wavelength of light emitted by a person is

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

This is why thermal imaging devices designed for human subjects are most sensitive to 7-14 micrometers wavelength

Heat exchange with the environment



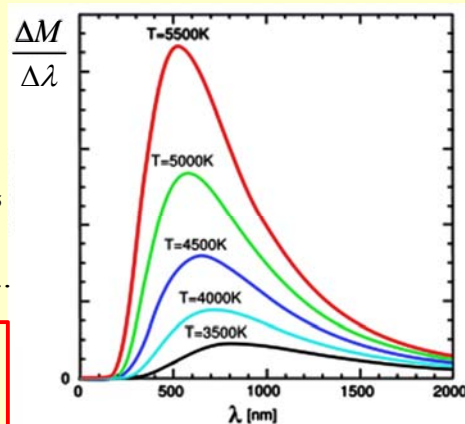
Emission spectrum of thermal radiation at various temperatures

$$T_1 > T_2 > T_3 > T_4 > T_5$$

$$M_1 > M_2 > M_3 > M_4 > M_5$$

$$\lambda_{max1} < \lambda_{max2} < \lambda_{max3} < \dots$$

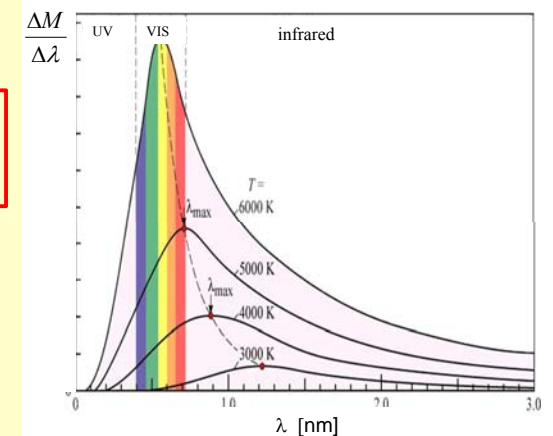
$$T \times \lambda_{max} = \text{const } t$$



Wien's displacement law

$$T \times \lambda_{max} = \text{const } t$$

$$k = 2.898 \times 10^6 [\text{nm} \times \text{K}]$$



The wavelength of maximum intensity shifts to shorter wavelengths when T is increased

Wien's displacement law

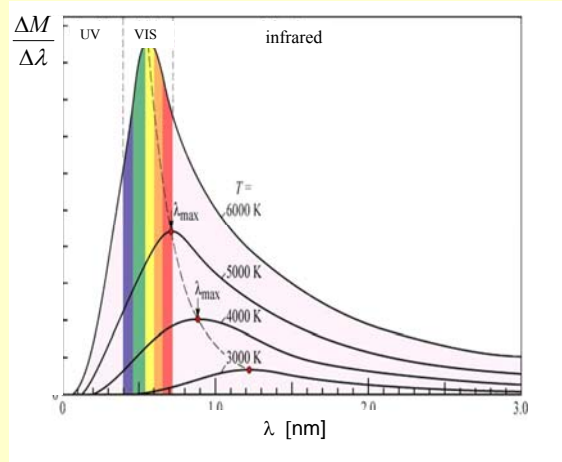
$$T \times \lambda_{\max} = \text{constant}$$

$$k = 2.898 \times 10^6 [nm \times K]$$

$$T_{\text{body surface}} \approx 305 [K]$$

$$\lambda_{\max} \approx 9500 [nm]$$

Under 700 K the emitted radiation is not visible



Subjective colours

480°C	faint red glow
580°C	dark red
730°C	bright red, slightly orange
930°C	bright orange
1100°C	pale yellowish orange
1300°C	yellowish white
>1400°C	white



Applications

1. Medical application — telethermography

non-invasive imaging technique which can evaluate the body surface thermal gradients

Applying [Wien's Law](#) to humans, one finds that the peak wavelength of light emitted by a person is

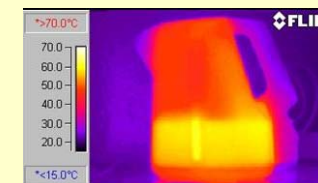
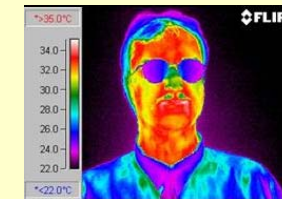
$$\lambda_{\text{peak}} = \frac{2.898 \times 10^6 \text{ K} \cdot \text{nm}}{305 \text{ K}} = 9500 \text{ nm}$$

This is why thermal imaging devices designed for human subjects are most sensitive to **7-14 micrometers** wavelength

=> tumours, inflammations, constriction of vessels



photos by normal and by infra-camera



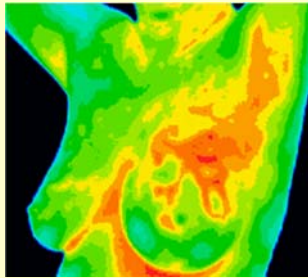
Application fields

rheumatology

diagnostics of breast cancer

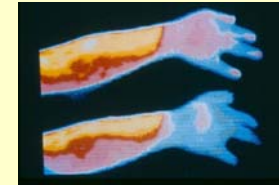
dentistry

neurology

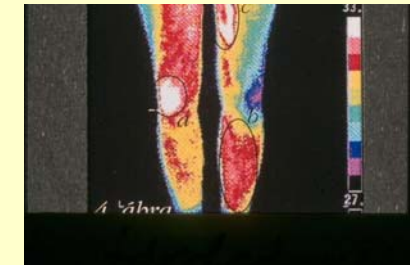


alterations in blood circulation

Effect of smoking

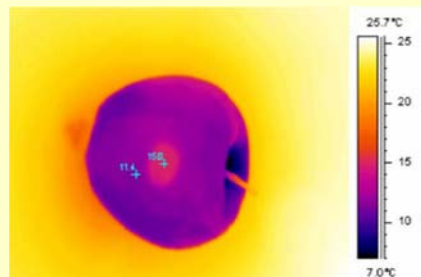
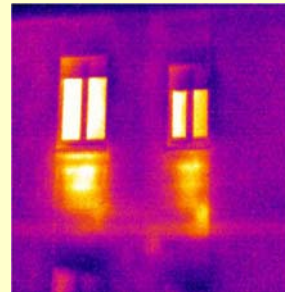


Inflammation and trombosis



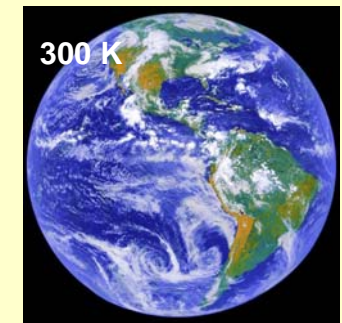
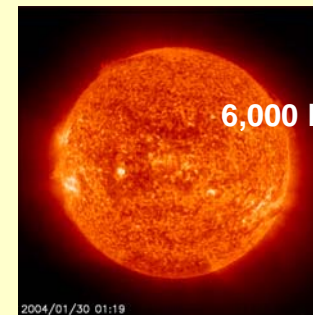
2. Non-medical application

Architecture - insulation techniques



Food industry

Astronomy



	T (K)	λ_{\max} (μm)	Spectral range	M (W/m ²)
Sun	6000	0.5	VIS	7×10^7
Earth	300	10	infrared	460

Applications

3. Light sources



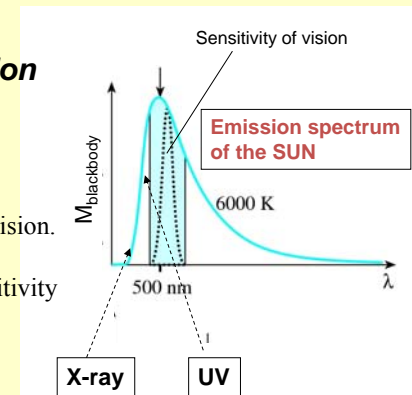
Light sources

based on thermal radiation

The Sun.

40 % of its thermal radiation falls into the sensitivity range of vision.

Its λ_{\max} is close to the highest sensitivity of vision.



Emission spectrum on the Earth:

$\lambda < 290$ nm is filtered by the atmosphere

Incandescent lamps

Metal filaments in a glass bulb heated to high temperature to approach the spectrum of the Sun.

Light bulbs

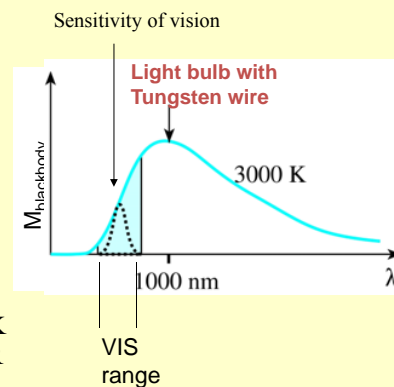
Tungsten at 3000 K

Infralamps

Tungsten at 1300 K

Sollux lamps

High power Tungsten at $T > 3300$ K with filters for long wavelength IR and filters for short wavelength UV \rightarrow UVA for tanning



Treatment of Seasonal Affective Disorder (S.A.D.)

5000 K thermal radiation light source ($\lambda_{\max} = 580$ nm)

with UV filter

(Sun: about 6000 K, $\lambda_{\max} = 480$ nm)



Strength of irradiation:

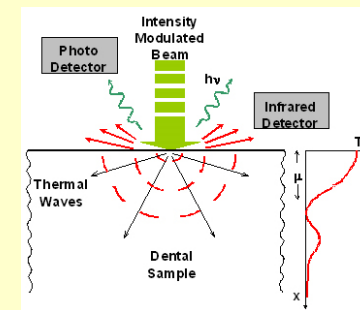
max . 5 - 10 thousand lux

(regular office ~ 50-100 lux,
bright sunlight ~ 10^5 lux)

Time period: 10 – 15 minutes / day



Photothermal detection of dental caries

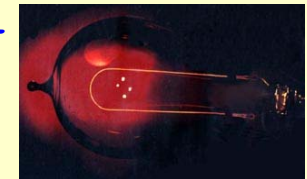


Damjanovich, Fidy, Szöllősi: Medical Biophysics

II. 2.2

- 2.2.1
- 2.2.2
- 2.2.6

Generation of light - Light sources



Black-body radiation

Luminescence

Laser



Luminescence



Repetition

Types of energy states in atoms and molecules are independent
(not coupled)

Energy states are non-continuous, but discrete

Transition between states involves packets (quanta) of energy

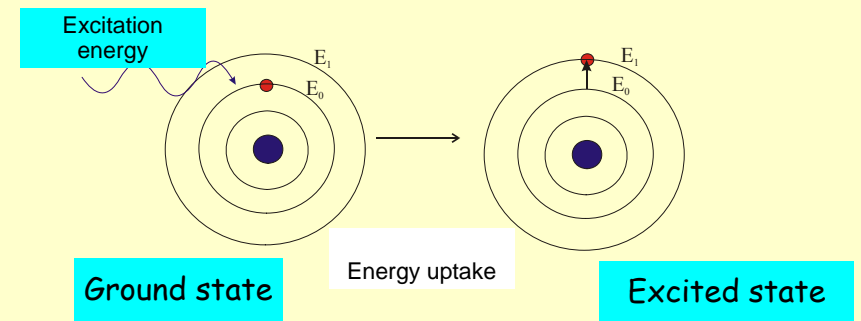
$$E_{total} = E_e + E_v + E_r$$

Scales of transition energies between different states are different:

$$E_e > E_v > E_r$$

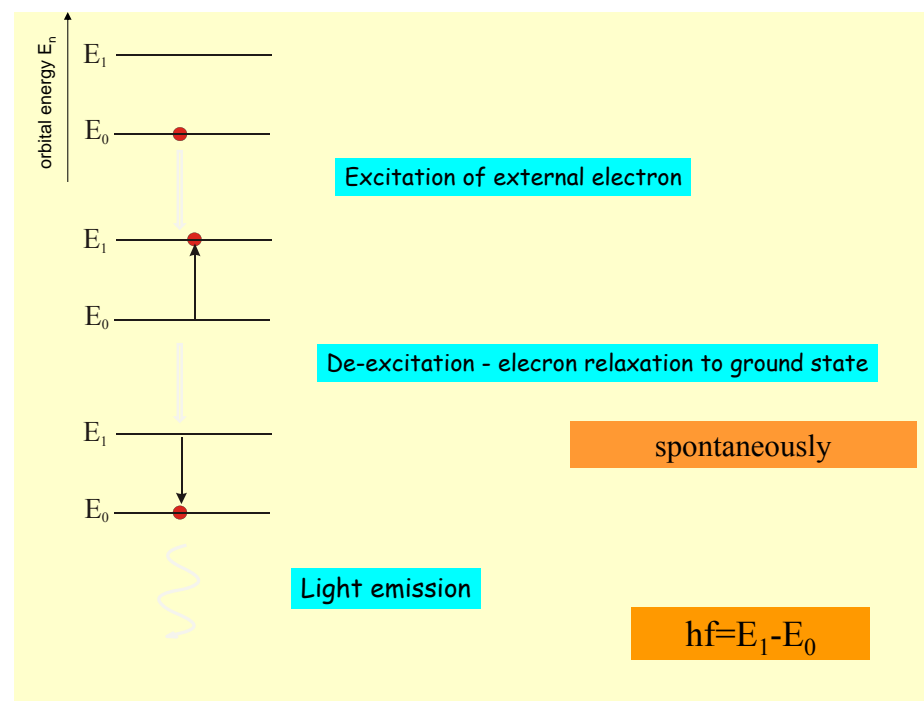
Consider a single atom

- Energy states are discrete
- Electrons occupy the lowest possible energy state (ground state)
- Pauli exclusion principle: no two identical fermions (particles with half-integer spin) may occupy the same quantum state simultaneously



Excitation modes

- absorption of radiation (UV/VIS) : *photoluminescence*
- chemical reaction: *chemo/bio-luminescence*
- Injection of charges: *electroluminescence*
- friction (mechanical deformation): *triboluminescence*
- thermally activated ion recombination: *thermoluminescence*
- Sound waves: *sonoluminescence*

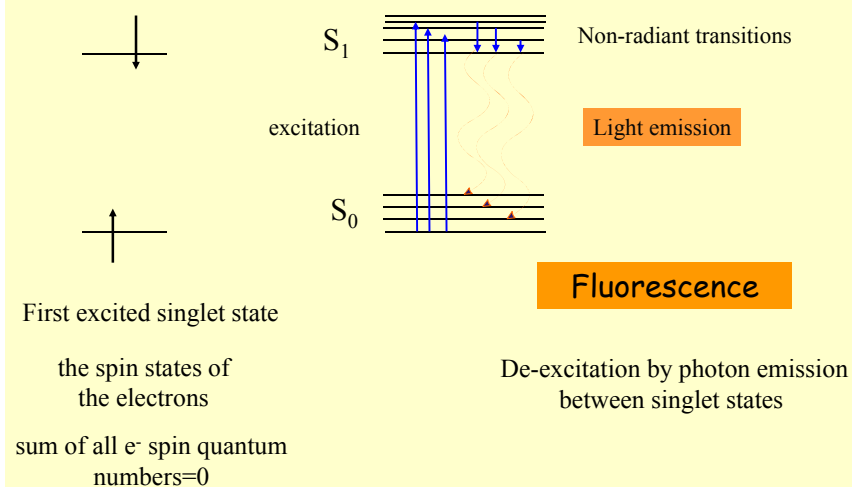


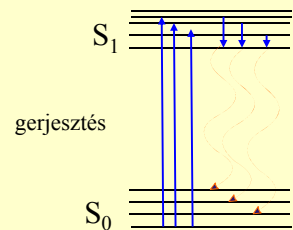
Luminescence: spontaneous light photon emission by electrons when they return from their excited state to their original (ground) state of lower energy

$$hf = E_1 - E_0$$

The emitted photon energy is characteristic for the electronic orbitals, thus for the atom/molecule.

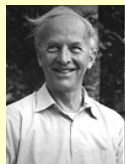
The energy of the electronic orbitals in molecules is perturbed by the discrete states of molecular vibrations





Kasha's rule:

fluorescence originates always from the vibrational state of lowest energy within the lowest electronic excited state.



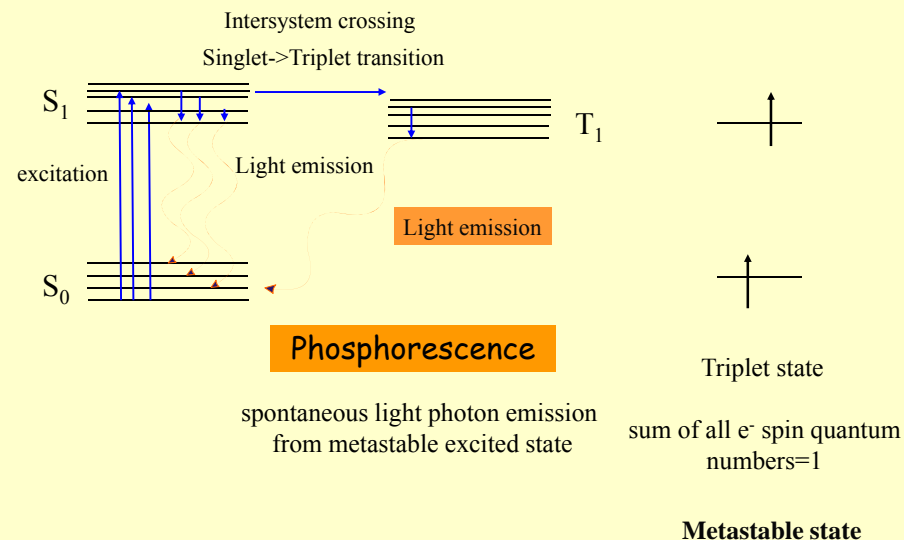
Fluorescence

De-excitation by photon emission between singlet states

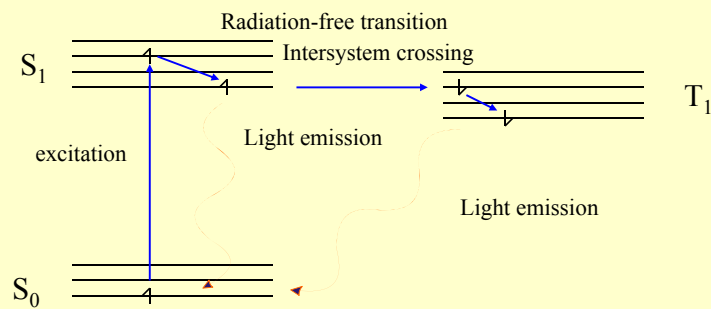
$$E_{\text{excitation}} \geq E_{\text{fluorescence}}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{excitation}} \leq \lambda_{\text{fluorescence}}$$

Stokes-shift



Emitted photon energies



Fluorescence

Phosphorescence

Stokes-shift

$$E_{\text{excitation}} \geq E_{\text{fluorescence}} > E_{\text{phosphorescence}}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{excitation}} \leq \lambda_{\text{fluorescence}} < \lambda_{\text{phosphorescence}}$$

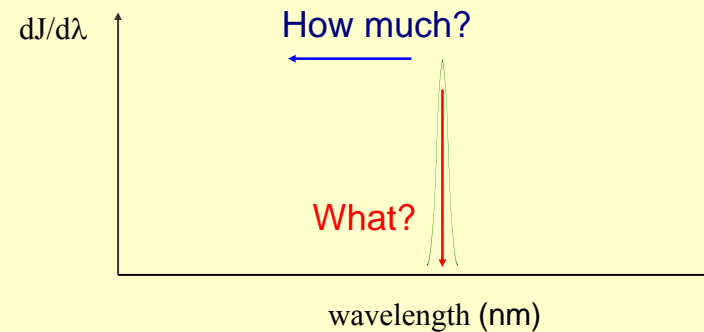
Characteristics of emitted light

Wavelength distribution of emitted light

Emission spectrum

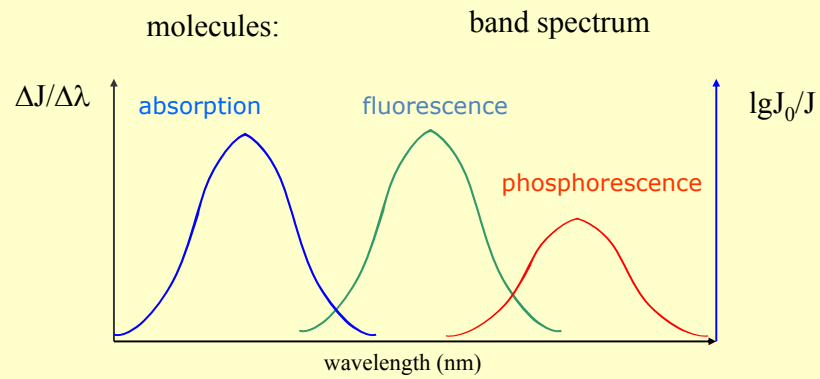
Atoms

line spectrum



Wavelength distribution of emitted light

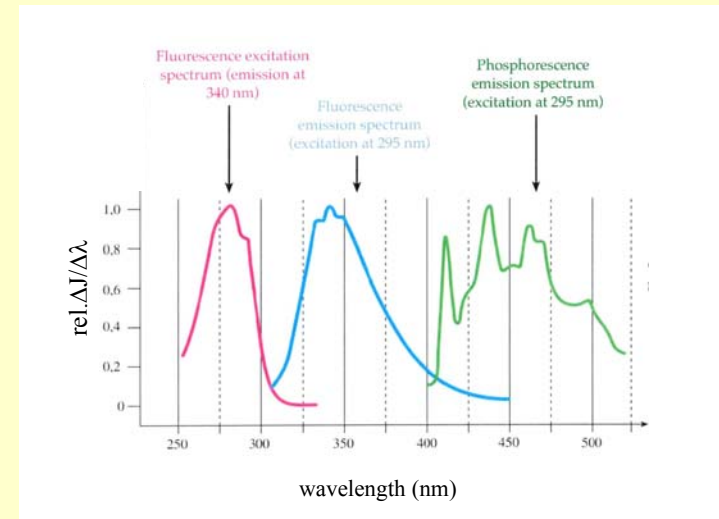
Emission spectrum



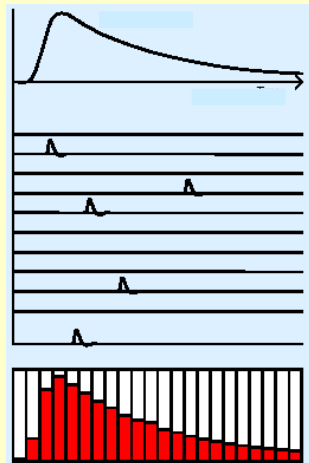
$$\lambda_{\text{excitation}} \leq \lambda_{\text{fluorescence}} < \lambda_{\text{phosphorescence}}$$

Stokes shift

E.g.: Corresponding spectra of triptophane



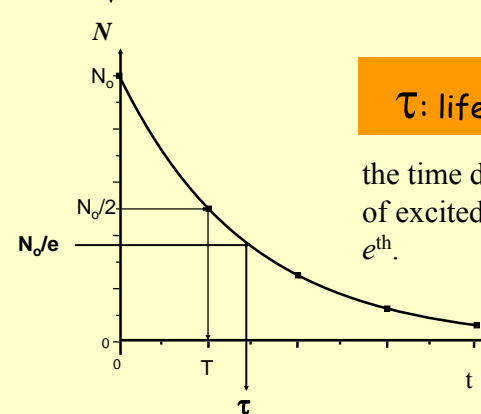
Excited-state lifetime



Single photon counting

Measuring of time gap between excitation and photon emission.
Statistical analysis of large number of measurements.

Number of excited electrons $\rightarrow N = N_0 e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$ time after excitation
- Exponential function



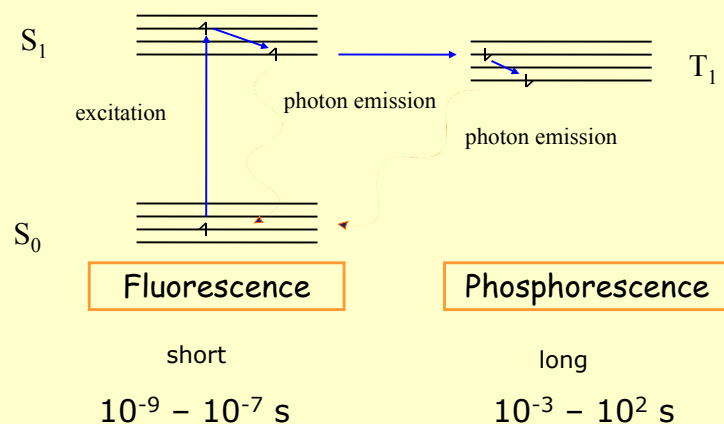
τ : life time

the time during which the number of excited electrons decreases to its e^{th} .

Typical excited-state lifetimes

Lifetime

the time during which the number of excited electrons decreases to its e^{th} .



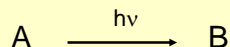
Is excitation always followed by photon emission?

Excited state decay can be caused by mechanisms other than photon emission and are therefore often called "non-radiative rates,,.

These can include: chemical reaction, dynamic collisional quenching, near-field dipole-dipole interaction, internal conversion and intersystem crossing.

Is excitation always followed by photon emission?

Quantum yield



Reciprocal of the number of absorbed photons for one photon emission

Fluorescence quantum yield (Q_F)

$$Q_F = \frac{\text{number of photons emitted}}{\text{number of photons absorbed}}$$

$$Q_F \leq 1$$

Types of luminescence

fluorescence

phosphorescence

They can be characterized by

emission spectrum

types

position of peaks

amplitude

lifetime

quantum yield

Application fields of luminescence

Light sources (lightning, fertilization, sunbeds, photomedicine...)

concentration determination (flame photometer)

luminescence spectroscopy

luminescence microscopy

dosimetry (see later)

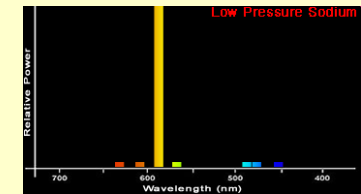
archeology

architecture

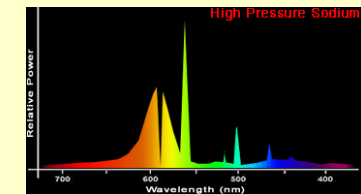
safety controll ... many more

Luminescent light sources

Metal vapor lamps

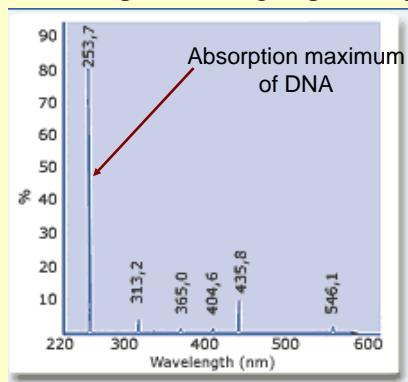


Low-pressure Na-vapor lamp



High-pressure Na-vapor lamp

Low-pressure Hg-vapor lamp



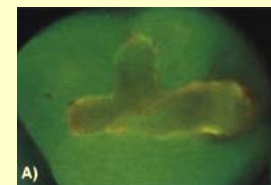
Emission spectrum



„germicid lamp”



Application in dental medicine



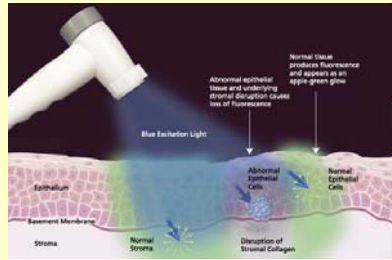
Red fluorescence indicates the activity of identifies cariogenic bacteria

amalgam restoration



Auto-fluorescence of teeth. When teeth are illuminated with high intensity blue light they will start to emit light in the green part of the spectrum.



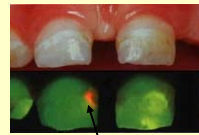


Healthy and malignant tissues
different fluorescent properties



Tooth
native and fluorescent
image

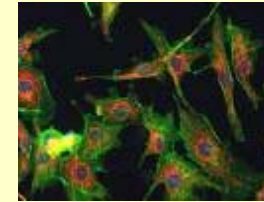
Teeth
native and fluorescent
images



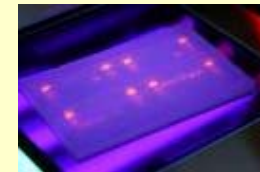
*Active
caries*

caries

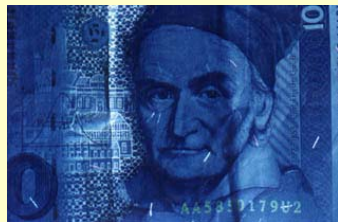
Luminescent microscopy



Laboratory application in many ways



And more...



Damjanovich, Fidy, Szöllősi: Medical Biophysics

II. 2.2

2.2.4

2.2.6

VI.3.3

3.3.1

3.3.2 pp. 411-413

3.3.3