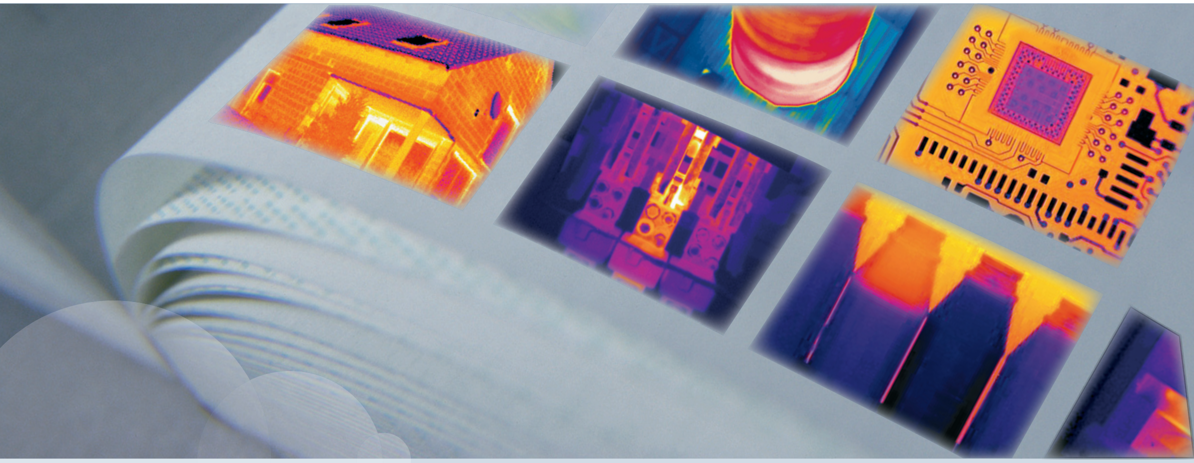
User’s manual



FLIR Tools

Program version 1.1

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FLIR Tools

User's manual

Publ. No. T559600 Rev. a511 – ENGLISH (EN) – March 2, 2011

Legal disclaimer

All products manufactured by FLIR Systems are warranted against defective materials and workmanship for a period of one (1) year from the delivery date of the original purchase, provided such products have been under normal storage, use and service, and in accordance with FLIR Systems instruction.

Products which are not manufactured by FLIR Systems but included in systems delivered by FLIR Systems to the original purchaser, carry the warranty, if any, of the particular supplier only. FLIR Systems has no responsibility whatsoever for such products.

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In the case of a defect in a product covered by this warranty the product must not be further used in order to prevent additional damage. The purchaser shall promptly report any defect to FLIR Systems or this warranty will not apply.

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No other warranty is expressed or implied. FLIR Systems specifically disclaims the implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose.

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Any dispute, controversy or claim arising out of or in connection with this warranty, shall be finally settled by arbitration in accordance with the Rules of the Arbitration Institute of the Stockholm Chamber of Commerce. The place of arbitration shall be Stockholm. The language to be used in the arbitral proceedings shall be English.

Copyright

Quality assurance

The Quality Management System under which these products are developed and manufactured has been certified in accordance with the ISO 9001 standard.

FLIR Systems is committed to a policy of continuous development; therefore we reserve the right to make changes and improvements on any of the products described in this manual without prior notice.

Patents

One or several of the following patents or design patents apply to the products and/or features described in this manual:

0002258-2; 000279476-0001; 000439161; 000499579-0001; 000653423; 000726344; 000859020; 000889290; 001106306-0001; 001707738; 001707746; 001707787; 001776519; 0101577-5; 0102150-0; 0200629-4; 0300911-5; 0302837-0; 1144833; 1182246; 1182620; 1188086; 1285345; 1287138; 1299699; 1325808; 1336775; 1365299; 1402918; 1404291; 1678485; 1732314; 200530018812.0; 200830143636.7; 2106017; 235308; 3006596; 3006597; 466540; 483782; 484155; 518836; 60004227.8; 60122153.2; 602004011681.5-08; 6707044; 68657; 7034300; 7110035; 7154093; 7157705; 7237946; 7312822; 7332716; 7336823; 7544944; 75530; 7667198; 7809258; 7826736; D540838; D549758; D579475; D584755; D599,392; DI6702302-9; DI6703574-4; DI6803572-1; DI6803853-4; DI6903617-9; DM/057692; DM/061609; ZL00809178.1; ZL01823221.3; ZL01823226.4; ZL02331553.9; ZL02331554.7; ZL200480034894.0; ZL200530120994.2; ZL200630130114.4; ZL200730151141.4; ZL200730339504.7; ZL200830128581.2.

Table of contents

1 Notice to user

Typographical conventions

This manual uses the following typographical conventions:

- **Semibold** is used for menu names, menu commands and labels, and buttons in dialog boxes.
- *Italic* is used for important information.
- `Monospace` is used for code samples.
- UPPER CASE is used for names on keys and buttons.

User-to-user forums

Exchange ideas, problems, and infrared solutions with fellow thermographers around the world in our user-to-user forums. To go to the forums, visit:

http://www.infraredtraining.com/community/boards/

Training

To read about infrared training, visit:

- http://www.infraredtraining.com
- http://www.irtraining.com
- http://www.irtraining.eu

Additional license information

This license permits the user to install and use the software on any compatible computer, provided the software is used on a maximum of two (2) computers at the same time (for example, one laptop computer for on-site data acquisition, and one desktop computer for analysis in the office).

One (1) back-up copy of the software may also be made for archive purposes.

2 Customer help

General

For customer help, visit:

http://support.flir.com

Submitting a question

To submit a question to the customer help team, you must be a registered user. It only takes a few minutes to register online. If you only want to search the knowledge-base for existing questions and answers, you do not need to be a registered user.

When you want to submit a question, make sure that you have the following information to hand:

- The camera model
- The camera serial number
- The communication protocol, or method, between the camera and your PC (for example, HDMI, Ethernet, USB™, or FireWire™)
- Operating system on your PC
- Microsoft® Office version
- Full name, publication number, and revision number of the manual

Downloads

On the customer help site you can also download the following:

- Firmware updates for your infrared camera
- Program updates for your PC software
- User documentation
- Application stories
- Technical publications

3 Documentation updates

General

Our manuals are updated several times per year, and we also issue product-critical notifications of changes on a regular basis.

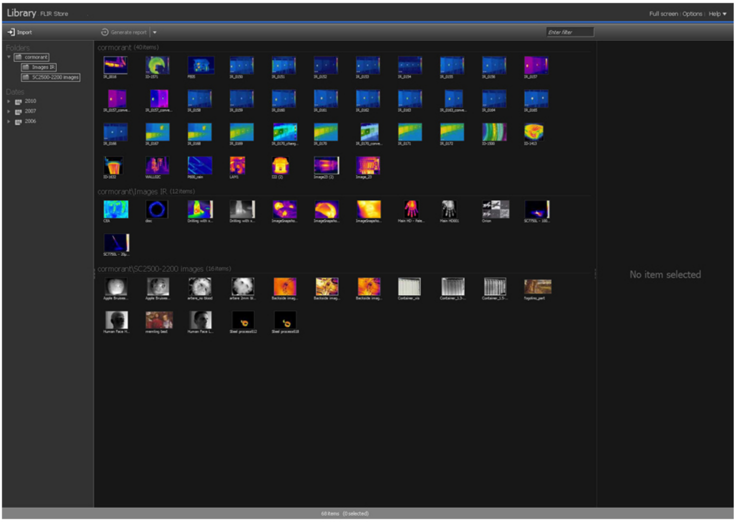
To access the latest manuals and notifications, go to the Download tab at:

http://support.flir.com

It only takes a few minutes to register online. In the download area you will also find the latest releases of manuals for our other products, as well as manuals for our historical and obsolete products.

4 What is FLIR Tools?

T638842;a3



FLIR Tools is a software suite specifically designed to provide an easy way to update your camera and create inspection reports.

Examples of what you can do in FLIR Tools include the following:

- Import images from your camera to your computer.
- Apply filters when searching for images.
- Lay out, move, and resize measurement tools on any infrared image.
- Create PDF imagesheets of any images of your choice.
- Add headers, footers, and logos to the imagesheets.
- Create PDF reports of any images of your choice.
- Add headers, footers, and logotypes to the report.
- Update your camera with the latest firmware.
- Browse and purchase infrared cameras, software, and accessories in our webshop.

5 Quick Start Guide

Procedure

Follow this procedure:

1	Install FLIR Tools on your computer.
2	Connect your camera to the computer, using a USB cable.
3	Start FLIR Tools.
4	Click **Import** and follow the on-screen instructions to move the images from the camera to a destination folder on your computer.
5	On the **Library** tab, select the images that you want to include in your report.
6	Right-click the set of images and select **Create report**.
7	Attach the PDF file to an e-mail in your e-mail client and send the report to your client.

6 Workflow

General

When you carry out an infrared inspection you follow a typical workflow. This section gives an example of an infrared inspection workflow.

Figure

T638833;a1

Explanation

This table explains the figure above:

1	Use your camera to take your infrared images and/or digital photos.
2	Connect you camera to a PC using a USB connector.
3	Import the images from the camera into FLIR Tools.
4	Create a PDF report in FLIR Tools.
5	Send the report to your client as an attachment to an e-mail.

7 Installation

7.1 System requirements

Operating system

FLIR Tools supports USB 2.0 communication for the following PC operating systems:

- Microsoft Windows XP, 32-bit, SP3
- Windows Vista, 32-bit, SP1
- Windows 7, 32-bit
- Windows 7, 64-bit

Hardware

Microsoft Windows XP:

- Personal computer with an Intel 800 MHz Pentium processor, or an AMD Opteron, AMD Athlon 64, or AMD Athlon XP processor
- 1 GB of RAM
- 20 GB of available hard disk space
- CD-ROM or DVD-ROM drive
- Super VGA (1024 × 768) or higher-resolution monitor
- Internet access required for web updates
- Keyboard and Microsoft mouse, or a compatible pointing device

Microsoft Windows Vista:

- Personal computer with a 1 GHz 32-bit (x86) processor
- 1 GB of RAM
- 40 GB hard disk, with at least 15 GB of available hard disk space
- DVD-ROM drive
- Support for DirectX 9 graphics with:
  - WDDM driver
  - 128 MB of graphics memory (minimum)
  - Pixel Shader 2.0 in hardware
  - 32 bits per pixel
- SVGA (1024 × 768) or higher-resolution monitor
- Internet access (fees may apply)
- Audio output
- Keyboard and mouse, or a compatible pointing device

7.2 Installation of FLIR Tools

7.2.1 Windows XP installation

NOTE

Before you install FLIR Tools, do the following:

1 Close all programs.
2 Uninstall any previous versions of FLIR Tools.
3 Uninstall any drivers and language packs related to FLIR Tools.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to install FLIR Tools:

1	Insert the FLIR Tools installation CD/DVD into the CD/DVD drive. The installation should start automatically. If the installation does not start automatically, follow this procedure: **1** Double-click **My Computer** on the **Desktop**. **2** Right-click the CD/DVD drive and click **Explore**. **3** Double-click SETUP.EXE. **4** Go to Step 2 below.
2	FLIR Tools requires some prerequisites. If they are not already installed on your computer, click **OK** when asked if you want to install the software.
3	FLIR Tools requires Microsoft .NET Framework 4.0. If this software is not already installed on your computer, click **OK** when asked if you want to install the software. Installation of Microsoft .NET Framework 4.0 can take several minutes.
4	In the FLIR Tools installation wizard dialog box, click **Next**.
5	In the license agreement dialog box, carefully read and accept the license agreement and click **Next**.
6	In the customer information dialog box, enter your customer details and click **Next**.
7	Click **Install**.
8	Click **Finish**.
9	If you are asked to restart your computer, do so.

7.2.2 Windows Vista installation

General

Before you install FLIR Tools, close all programs.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to install FLIR Tools:

1	Insert the FLIR Tools installation CD/DVD into the CD/DVD drive. The installation should start automatically.
2	In the **Autoplay** dialog box, click **Run setup.exe (Published by FLIR Systems)**.
3	In the **User Account Control** dialog box, confirm that you want to install FLIR Tools.
4	In the **Ready to Install the Program** dialog box, click **Install**.
5	Click **Finish**. The installation is now complete. If you are asked to restart your computer, do so.

8 Supported file formats

General

FLIR Tools supports several radiometric and non-radiometric file formats.

Radiometric file formats

FLIR Tools supports the following radiometric file formats:

- FLIR radiometric *.jpg
- FLIR radiometric *.img
- FLIR radiometric *.fff

Non-radiometric file formats

FLIR Tools supports the following non-radiometric file formats:

- *.jpg
- *.pdf (as reports and image sheets)

NOTE

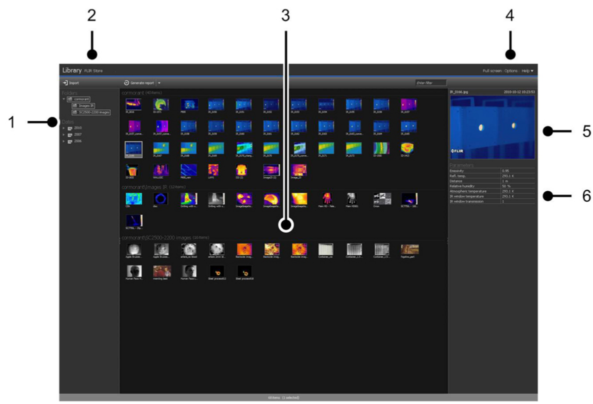
Radiometric *.jpg images that are merged from an infrared image and a digital photo will be correctly displayed in FLIR Tools.

9 Window elements and toolbar buttons

9.1 *Window elements: The **Library** tab*

Figure

T638827;a3



Explanation

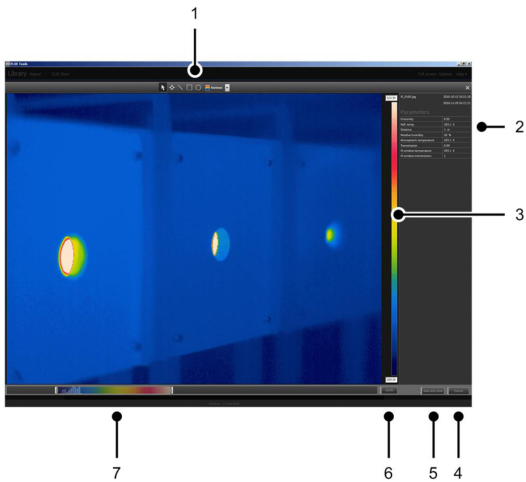
This table explains the figure above:

1	Folder pane
2	Program tabs: ■ **Library** ■ **FLIR Store**
3	Image window in the thumbnail view of selected folders
4	Menu bar: ■ **Full screen** ■ **Options** ■ **Help**
5	Image window detail view of the specific image selected
6	Measurement and parameters pane

9.2 Window elements: The image-editing window

Figure

T638828;a1



Explanation

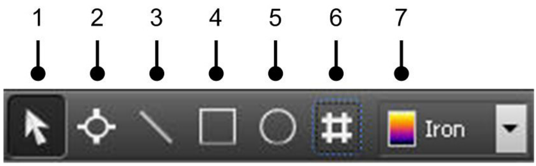
This table explains the figure above:

1	Measurement toolbar
2	Measurement and parameters pane
3	Temperature scale
4	Cancel button
5	Save and close button
6	Auto-adjust button, to adjust the image for the best brightness and contrast
7	Temperature span and level control

9.3 Toolbar buttons (in the image-editing window)

Figure

T638831;a2



Explanation

This table explains the figure above:

1	Selection tool
2	Spotmeter tool
3	Line tool
4	Area tool
5	Circle and ellipsis tool
6	Fusion/Picture-in-Picture tool
7	Color palette tool

10 Importing images from the camera

Procedure

Follow this procedure to import images from the camera to a computer:

1	In the camera, set the USB mode to Mass Storage Device (MSD) or Mass Storage Device-UVC (MSD-UVC).
2	Connect a USB cable to the USB connector on the connector panel of the camera.
3	Connect the other end of the USB cable to its connector on the connector panel of a computer.
4	Start FLIR Tools.
5	Click **Import** and follow the on-screen instructions.

NOTE

In some cameras you can save the images onto a memory card. If this is the case, you can remove the card from the camera and insert it into a card reader that is connected to the PC. Then select the card drive as in the procedure above.

11 Managing images and folders

11.1 Moving images

General

You can move one image or a group of images from the image pane to a destination folder.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to move one image or a group of images:

1	Go to the **Library** tab.
2	In the image window, select the image or images that you want to move.
3	Move the image/images to the destination folder using a drag-and-drop operation.

11.2 Deleting images

General

You can delete one image or a group of images.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to delete one image or a group of images:

1	Go to the **Library** tab.
2	In the image window, select the image or images that you want to delete.
3	Do one of the following ▪ Press the DELETE key and confirm that you want to delete the image or images. ▪ Right-click the image or images, select **Delete**, and confirm that you want to delete the image or images.

NOTE

- When you delete an image or a group of images, you can restore them from the computer's Recycle Bin.
- You can also remove images by deleting the path under **Options** > **Library**. Removing the path does not delete the images.

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11.3 Deleting a directory

General

You can delete a directory from the library.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to delete a directory:

1	Go to the **Library** tab.
2	Right-click a directory and select **Delete directory**.

NOTE

You can also remove a directory by deleting the path under **Options** > **Library**. Removing the path does not delete the images.

11.4 Creating a subfolder

General

You can create a subfolder to an existing directory in the library.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to create a subfolder:

1	Go to the **Library** tab.
2	Right-click a directory and select **Create subfolder**.

12 Analyzing images

12.1 Laying out a measurement tool

General

You can lay out one or more measurement tools on the image, e.g., a spotmeter, an area, a circle, a line, etc.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to lay out a measurement tool:

1	On the **Library** tab, double-click an image.
2	On the image toolbar, select a measurement tool.
3	To lay out the measurement tool on the image, click the location where the measurement tool is to be placed.

12.2 Moving a measurement tool

General

Measurement tools that you have laid out on the image can be moved around, using the selection tool.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to move a measurement tool:

1	On the **Library** tab, double-click an image.
2	On the image toolbar, select .
3	On the image, select the measurement tool and drag it to a new position.

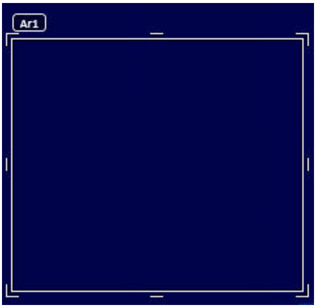
12.3 Resizing an measurement tool

General

Measurement tools that you have laid out on the image, such as an area, can be resized using the selection tool.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to resize a measurement area:

1	On the **Library** tab, double-click an image.
2	On the image toolbar, select .
3	On the image, select the measurement area and use the selection tool to drag the handles that are displayed around the frame of the area: T638838;a1 

12.4 Deleting a measurement tool

General

You can delete any measurement tools that you have laid out on the image.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to delete a measurement tool:

1	On the **Library** tab, double-click an image.
2	On the image toolbar, select .
3	On the image, select the measurement tool and press DELETE.

12.5 Changing the temperature levels

General

At the bottom of the infrared image you will see two sliders. By dragging these sliders to the left or to the right you can change the top and bottom levels in the temperature scale.

Figure

T638839;a1

Changing the top level

Follow this procedure:

Drag the right slider right or left to change the top level in the temperature scale.

Changing the bottom level

Follow this procedure:

Drag the left slider right or left to change the bottom level in the temperature scale.

Changing both the top and bottom levels at the same time

Follow this procedure:

SHIFT-drag the left or right slider right or left to change both the top and the bottom levels in the temperature scale at the same time.

NOTE

- You can also use the mouse scrollwheel to adjust the temperature levels.
- You can double-click the temperature levels scale to auto-adjust the image.

12.6 Auto-adjusting an image

General

You can auto-adjust an image or a group of images. When you auto-adjust an image you adjust it for the best image brightness and contrast.

Figure

T638839;a1

Procedure

To auto-adjust the image, do one of the following:

- Double-click the temperature levels scale (pictured above).
- Click the **Auto** button.

12.7 Changing the palette

General

You can change the palette that the camera uses to display the different temperatures within an image. A different palette can make it easier to analyze the image.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to change the palette:

1	On the **Library** tab, double-click an image.
2	In the image window, select a new palette on the top toolbar: T638836;a1 

13 Creating an image sheet

General

You can create an image sheet of one or more images in your folders.

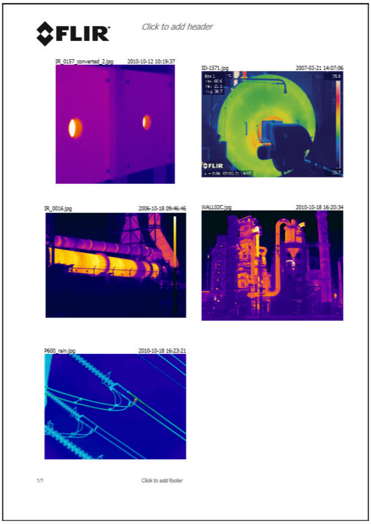
The image sheets are saved in Adobe PDF format. To download the free reader, go to:

http://www.adobe.com/products/reader/

Figure

This figure shows a typical image sheet:

T638840;a1



Procedure

Follow this procedure to create an image sheet:

1	Under **Options** > **Report**, select the page size and a logo, and add any infomation that you want in the headers and footers.
2	On the **Library** tab, select the image or images that you want to include in your image sheet.
3	Right-click the image or images and select **Create imagesheet**. The imagesheet will now be created as a PDF file.

14 Creating reports

General

You can create a report of one or more images in your folders.

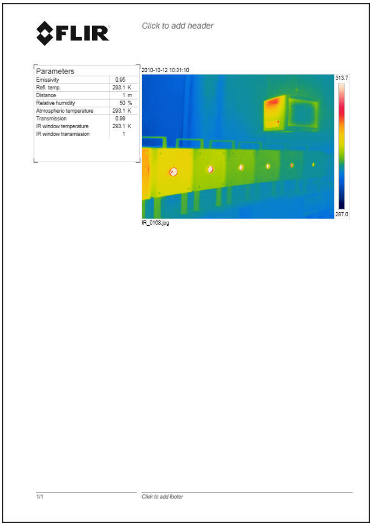
The image sheets are saved in Adobe PDF format. To download the free reader, go to:

http://www.adobe.com/products/reader/

Figure

This figure shows a typical report:

T638841;a1



Procedure

Follow this procedure to create an image sheet:

1	Under **Options** > **Report**, select the page size and a logo, and add any infomation that you want in the headers and footers.
2	On the **Library** tab, select the image or images that you want to include in your report.
3	Right-click the image or images and select **Create report**. The report will now be created as a PDF file.

15 Updating the camera and PC software

General

You can update FLIR Tools with the latest service packs.

Using FLIR Tools, you can also update your infrared camera with the latest firmware.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to update FLIR Tools:

1	Start FLIR Tools.
2	On the **Help** menu, select **Check for updates**.
3	Follow the on-screen instructions.

NOTE

Before updating the camera you must update FLIR Tools.

Procedure

Follow this procedure to update your infrared camera:

1	Connect your infrared camera to the PC
2	Start FLIR Tools.
3	On the **Help** menu, select **Check for updates**.
4	Follow the on-screen instructions.

16 About **FLIR Store**

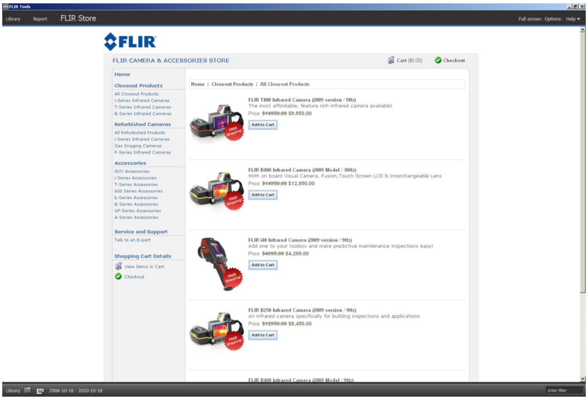
General

By clicking **FLIR Store** you are taken to FLIR Systems webshop.

Here you can browse our cameras, software, and accessories, and place orders.

Figure

T638835;a1



17 Changing settings

General

You can change a variety of settings relating to report and imagesheet creation, as well as general settings relating to the software.

Procedure

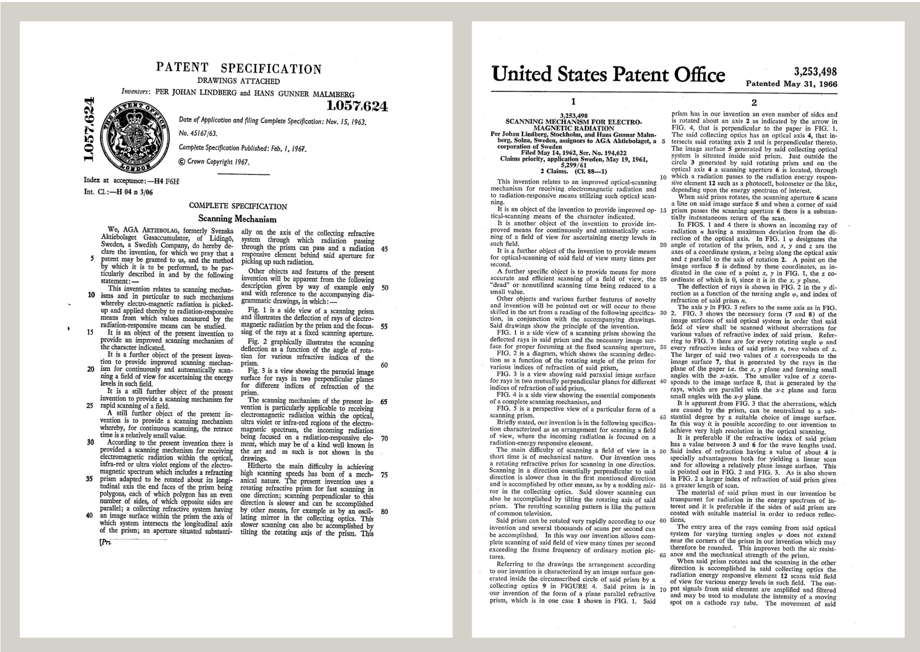
Follow this procedure to change settings:

1	On the menu bar, click **Options**.
2	In the dialog box, do one or more of the following: ■ Set which folders shall be included in the library pane. ■ Set defaults for page size, logotypes, headers, and footers ■ Set temperature and distance units ■ Set language

18 About FLIR Systems

FLIR Systems was established in 1978 to pioneer the development of high-performance infrared imaging systems, and is the world leader in the design, manufacture, and marketing of thermal imaging systems for a wide variety of commercial, industrial, and government applications. Today, FLIR Systems embraces five major companies with outstanding achievements in infrared technology since 1958—the Swedish AGEMA Infrared Systems (formerly AGA Infrared Systems), the three United States companies Indigo Systems, FSI, and Inframetrics, and the French company Cedip. In November 2007, Extech Instruments was acquired by FLIR Systems.

T638608;a1



PATENT SPECIFICATION

DRAWINGS ATTACHED

Inventors: PER JOHAN LINDBERG and HANS GUNNER MALMBERG

1,057,624

1,057,624

Date of Application and filing Complete Specification: Nov. 15, 1963.

No. 45167/63.

Complete Specification Published: Feb. 1, 1967.

© Crown Copyright 1967.

Index at acceptance:—H4 F6H

Int. Cl.:—H 04 n 3/06

COMPLETE SPECIFICATION

Scanning Mechanism

We, AGA Aktiebolag, formerly Svenska Aktiebolaget Gasaccumulator, of Lidingö, Sweden, a Swedish Company, do hereby declare the invention, for which we pray that a patent may be granted to us, and the method by which it is to be performed, to be particularly described in and by the following statement:—

This invention relates to scanning mechanisms and in particular to such mechanisms whereby electro-magnetic radiation is picked-up and applied thereby to radiation-responsive means from which values measured by the radiation-responsive means can be studied.

It is an object of the present invention to provide an improved scanning mechanism of the character indicated.

It is a further object of the present invention to provide improved scanning mechanism for continuously and automatically scanning a field of view for ascertaining the energy levels in such field.

It is a still further object of the present invention to provide a scanning mechanism for rapid scanning of a field.

A still further object of the present invention is to provide a scanning mechanism whereby, for continuous scanning, the retrace time is a relatively small value.

According to the present invention there is provided a scanning mechanism for receiving electromagnetic radiation within the optical, infra-red or ultra violet regions of the electromagnetic spectrum which includes a refracting prism adapted to be rotated about its longitudinal axis the end faces of the prism being polygons, each of which polygon has an even number of sides, of which opposite sides are parallel; a collecting refractive system having an image surface within the prism the axis of which system intersects the longitudinal axis of the prism; an aperture situated substantially on the axis of the collecting refractive system through which radiation passing through the prism can pass and a radiation responsive element behind said aperture for picking up such radiation.

Other objects and features of the present invention will be apparent from the following description given by way of example only and with reference to the accompanying diagrammatic drawings, in which:—

Fig. 1 is a side view of a scanning prism and illustrates the deflection of rays of electromagnetic radiation by the prism and the focussing of the rays at a fixed scanning aperture.

Fig. 2 graphically illustrates the scanning deflection as a function of the angle of rotation for various refractive indices of the prism.

Fig. 3 is a view showing the paraxial image surface for rays in two perpendicular planes for different indices of refraction of the prism.

The scanning mechanism of the present invention is particularly applicable to receiving electromagnetic radiation within the optical, ultra violet or infra-red regions of the electromagnetic spectrum, the incoming radiation being focused on a radiation-responsive element, which may be of a kind well known in the art and as such is not shown in the drawings.

Hitherto the main difficulty in achieving high scanning speeds has been of a mechanical nature. The present invention uses a rotating refractive prism for fast scanning in one direction; scanning perpendicular to this direction is slower and can be accomplished by other means, for example as by an oscillating mirror in the collecting optics. This slower scanning can also be accomplished by tilting the rotating axis of the prism. This

[Pri

United States Patent Office 3,253,498 Patented May 31, 1966

1

3,253,498

SCANNING MECHANISM FOR ELECTRO-MAGNETIC RADIATION

Per Johan Lindberg, Stockholm, and Hans Gunnar Malmberg, Solna, Sweden, assignors to AGA Aktiebolaget, a corporation of Sweden

Filed May 14, 1962, Ser. No. 194,622

Claims priority, application Sweden, May 19, 1961, 5,299/61

2 Claims. (Cl. 88—1)

This invention relates to an improved optical-scanning mechanism for receiving electromagnetic radiation and to radiation-responsive means utilizing such optical scanning.

It is an object of the invention to provide improved optical-scanning means of the character indicated.

It is another object of the invention to provide improved means for continuously and automatically scanning of a field of view for ascertaining energy levels in such field.

It is a further object of the invention to provide means for optical-scanning of said field of view many times per second.

A further specific object is to provide means for more accurate and efficient scanning of a field of view, the "dead" or nonutilized scanning time being reduced to a small value.

Other objects and various further features of novelty and invention will be pointed out or will occur to those skilled in the art from a reading of the following specification, in conjunction with the accompanying drawings. Said drawings show the principle of the invention.

FIG. 1 is a side view of a scanning prism showing the deflected rays in said prism and the necessary image surface for proper focussing at the fixed scanning aperture,

FIG. 2 is a diagram, which shows the scanning deflection as a function of the rotating angle of the prism for various indices of refraction of said prism,

FIG. 3 is a view showing said paraxial image surface for rays in two mutually perpendicular planes for different indices of refraction of said prism,

FIG. 4 is a side view showing the essential components of a complete scanning mechanism, and

FIG. 5 is a perspective view of a particular form of a scanning prism.

Briefly stated, our invention is in the following specification characterized as an arrangement for scanning a field of view, where the incoming radiation is focused on a radiation-energy responsive element.

The main difficulty of scanning a field of view in a short time is of mechanical nature. Our invention uses a rotating refractive prism for scanning in one direction. Scanning in a direction essentially perpendicular to said direction is slower than in the first mentioned direction and is accomplished by other means, as by a nodding mirror in the collecting optics. Said slower scanning can also be accomplished by tilting the rotating axis of said prism. The resulting scanning pattern is like the pattern of common television.

Said prism can be rotated very rapidly according to our invention and several thousands of scans per second can be accomplished. In this way our invention allows complete scanning of said field of view many times per second exceeding the frame frequency of ordinary motion pictures.

Referring to the drawings the arrangement according to our invention is characterized by an image surface generated inside the circumscribed circle of said prism by a collecting optics 9 in FIGURE 4. Said prism is in our invention of the form of a plane parallel refractive prism, which is in one case 1 shown in FIG. 1. Said

2

prism has in our invention an even number of sides and is rotated about an axis 2 as indicated by the arrow in FIG. 4, that is perpendicular to the paper in FIG. 1. The said collecting optics has an optical axis 4, that intersects said rotating axis 2 and is perpendicular thereto. The image surface 5 generated by said collecting optical system is situated inside said prism. Just outside the circle 3 generated by said rotating prism and on the optical axis 4 a scanning aperture 6 is located, through which a radiation passes to the radiation energy responsive element 12 such as a photocell, bolometer or the like, depending upon the energy spectrum of interest.

When said prism rotates, the scanning aperture 6 scans a line on said image surface 5 and when a corner of said prism passes the scanning aperture 6 there is a substantially instantaneous return of the scan.

In FIGS. 1 and 4 there is shown an incoming ray of radiation α having a maximum deviation from the direction of the optical axis. In FIG. 1 φ designates the angle of rotation of the prism, and x, y and z are the axes of a coordinate system, x being along the optical axis and z parallel to the axis of rotation 2. A point on the image surface 5 is defined by these coordinates, as indicated in the case of a point x, y in FIG. 1, the z coordinate of which is 0, since it is in the x, y plane.

The deflection of rays is shown in FIG. 2 in the y direction as a function of the turning angle φ, and index of refraction of said prism n.

The axis y in FIG. 3 refers to the same axis as in FIG. 2. FIG. 3 shows the necessary form (7 and 8) of the image surfaces of said optical system in order that said field of view shall be scanned without aberrations for various values of refractive index of said prism. Referring to FIG. 3 there are for every rotating angle φ and every refractive index of said prism n, two values of x. The larger of said two values of x corresponds to the image surface 7, that is generated by the rays in the plane of the paper i.e. the x, y plane and forming small angles with the x-axis. The smaller value of x corresponds to the image surface 8, that is generated by the rays, which are parallel with the x-z plane and form small angles with the x-y plane.

It is apparent from FIG. 3 that the aberrations, which are caused by the prism, can be neutralized to a substantial degree by a suitable choice of image surface. In this way it is possible according to our invention to achieve very high resolution in the optical scanning.

It is preferable if the refractive index of said prism has a value between 3 and 6 for the wave lengths used. Said index of refraction having a value of about 4 is specially advantageous both for yielding a linear scan and for allowing a relatively plane image surface. This is pointed out in FIG. 2 and FIG. 3. As is also shown in FIG. 2 a larger index of refraction of said prism gives a greater length of scan.

The material of said prism must in our invention be transparent for radiation in the energy spectrum of interest and it is preferable if the sides of said prism are coated with suitable material in order to reduce reflections.

The entry area of the rays coming from said optical system for varying turning angles φ does not extend near the corners of the prism in our invention which may therefore be rounded. This improves both the air resistance and the mechanical strength of the prism.

When said prism rotates and the scanning in the other direction is accomplished in said collecting optics the radiation energy responsive element 12 scans said field of view for various energy levels in such field. The output signals from said element are amplified and filtered and may be used to modulate the intensity of a moving spot on a cathode ray tube. The movement of said

Figure 18.1 Patent documents from the early 1960s

The company has sold more than 135 832 infrared cameras worldwide for applications such as predictive maintenance, R & D, non-destructive testing, process control and automation, and machine vision, among many others.

FLIR Systems has three manufacturing plants in the United States (Portland, OR, Boston, MA, Santa Barbara, CA) and one in Sweden (Stockholm). Since 2007 there is also a manufacturing plant in Tallinn, Estonia. Direct sales offices in Belgium, Brazil, China, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hong Kong, Italy, Japan, Korea, Sweden, and the USA—together with a worldwide network of agents and distributors—support our international customer base.

FLIR Systems is at the forefront of innovation in the infrared camera industry. We anticipate market demand by constantly improving our existing cameras and developing new ones. The company has set milestones in product design and development such as the introduction of the first battery-operated portable camera for industrial inspections, and the first uncooled infrared camera, to mention just two innovations.

10722703;a2

Figure 18.2 LEFT: Thermovision® Model 661 from 1969. The camera weighed approximately 25 kg (55 lb.), the oscilloscope 20 kg (44 lb.), and the tripod 15 kg (33 lb.). The operator also needed a 220 VAC generator set, and a 10 L (2.6 US gallon) jar with liquid nitrogen. To the left of the oscilloscope the Polaroid attachment (6 kg/13 lb.) can be seen. **RIGHT:** FLIR i7 from 2009. Weight: 0.34 kg (0.75 lb.), including the battery.

FLIR Systems manufactures all vital mechanical and electronic components of the camera systems itself. From detector design and manufacturing, to lenses and system electronics, to final testing and calibration, all production steps are carried out and supervised by our own engineers. The in-depth expertise of these infrared specialists ensures the accuracy and reliability of all vital components that are assembled into your infrared camera.

18.1 More than just an infrared camera

At FLIR Systems we recognize that our job is to go beyond just producing the best infrared camera systems. We are committed to enabling all users of our infrared camera systems to work more productively by providing them with the most powerful camera–software combination. Especially tailored software for predictive maintenance, R & D, and process monitoring is developed in-house. Most software is available in a wide variety of languages.

We support all our infrared cameras with a wide variety of accessories to adapt your equipment to the most demanding infrared applications.

18.2 Sharing our knowledge

Although our cameras are designed to be very user-friendly, there is a lot more to thermography than just knowing how to handle a camera. Therefore, FLIR Systems has founded the Infrared Training Center (ITC), a separate business unit, that provides certified training courses. Attending one of the ITC courses will give you a truly hands-on learning experience.

The staff of the ITC are also there to provide you with any application support you may need in putting infrared theory into practice.

18.3 Supporting our customers

FLIR Systems operates a worldwide service network to keep your camera running at all times. If you discover a problem with your camera, local service centers have all the equipment and expertise to solve it within the shortest possible time. Therefore, there is no need to send your camera to the other side of the world or to talk to someone who does not speak your language.

18.4 A few images from our facilities

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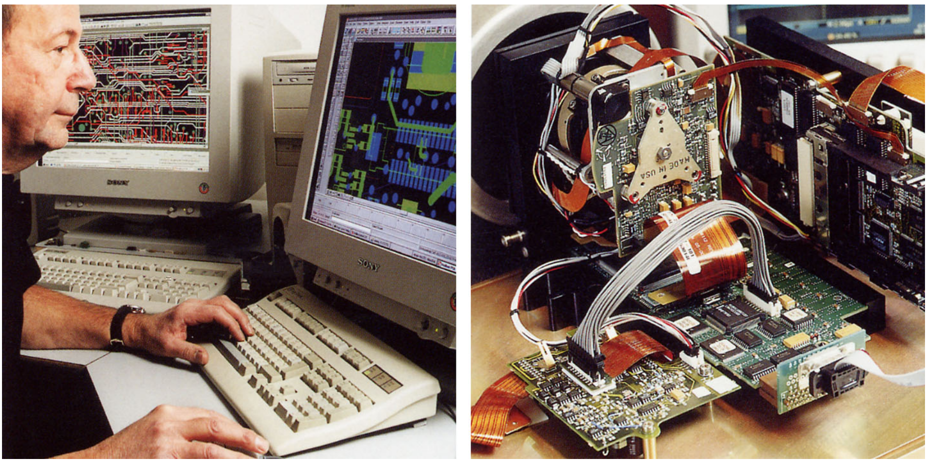


Figure 18.3 **LEFT:** Development of system electronics; **RIGHT:** Testing of an FPA detector

10401403;a1

Figure 18.4 **LEFT:** Diamond turning machine; **RIGHT:** Lens polishing

10401503;a1

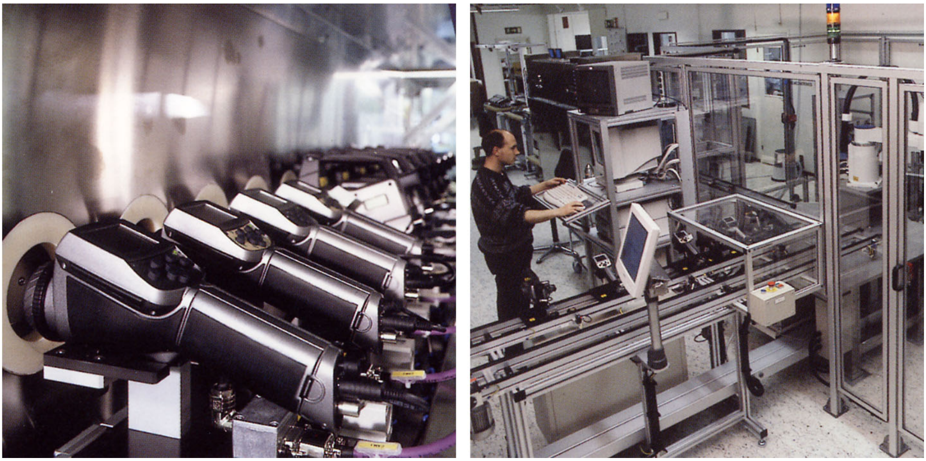


Figure 18.5 **LEFT:** Testing of infrared cameras in the climatic chamber; **RIGHT:** Robot used for camera testing and calibration

19 Glossary

Term or expression	Explanation
absorption (absorption factor)	The amount of radiation absorbed by an object relative to the received radiation. A number between 0 and 1.
atmosphere	The gases between the object being measured and the camera, normally air.
autoadjust	A function making a camera perform an internal image correction.
autopalette	The IR image is shown with an uneven spread of colors, displaying cold objects as well as hot ones at the same time.
blackbody	Totally non-reflective object. All its radiation is due to its own temperature.
blackbody radiator	An IR radiating equipment with blackbody properties used to calibrate IR cameras.
calculated atmospheric transmission	A transmission value computed from the temperature, the relative humidity of air and the distance to the object.
cavity radiator	A bottle shaped radiator with an absorbing inside, viewed through the bottleneck.
color temperature	The temperature for which the color of a blackbody matches a specific color.
conduction	The process that makes heat diffuse into a material.
continuous adjust	A function that adjusts the image. The function works all the time, continuously adjusting brightness and contrast according to the image content.
convection	Convection is a heat transfer mode where a fluid is brought into motion, either by gravity or another force, thereby transferring heat from one place to another.
dual isotherm	An isotherm with two color bands, instead of one.
emissivity (emissivity factor)	The amount of radiation coming from an object, compared to that of a blackbody. A number between 0 and 1.
emittance	Amount of energy emitted from an object per unit of time and area (W/m^2)
environment	Objects and gases that emit radiation towards the object being measured.
estimated atmospheric transmission	A transmission value, supplied by a user, replacing a calculated one

Term or expression	Explanation
external optics	Extra lenses, filters, heat shields etc. that can be put between the camera and the object being measured.
filter	A material transparent only to some of the infrared wavelengths.
FOV	Field of view: The horizontal angle that can be viewed through an IR lens.
FPA	Focal plane array: A type of IR detector.
graybody	An object that emits a fixed fraction of the amount of energy of a blackbody for each wavelength.
IFOV	Instantaneous field of view: A measure of the geometrical resolution of an IR camera.
image correction (internal or external)	A way of compensating for sensitivity differences in various parts of live images and also of stabilizing the camera.
infrared	Non-visible radiation, having a wavelength from about 2–13 μm.
IR	infrared
isotherm	A function highlighting those parts of an image that fall above, below or between one or more temperature intervals.
isothermal cavity	A bottle-shaped radiator with a uniform temperature viewed through the bottleneck.
Laser LocatIR	An electrically powered light source on the camera that emits laser radiation in a thin, concentrated beam to point at certain parts of the object in front of the camera.
laser pointer	An electrically powered light source on the camera that emits laser radiation in a thin, concentrated beam to point at certain parts of the object in front of the camera.
level	The center value of the temperature scale, usually expressed as a signal value.
manual adjust	A way to adjust the image by manually changing certain parameters.
NETD	Noise equivalent temperature difference. A measure of the image noise level of an IR camera.
noise	Undesired small disturbance in the infrared image
object parameters	A set of values describing the circumstances under which the measurement of an object was made, and the object itself (such as emissivity, reflected apparent temperature, distance etc.)
object signal	A non-calibrated value related to the amount of radiation received by the camera from the object.

Term or expression	**Explanation**
palette	The set of colors used to display an IR image.
pixel	Stands for *picture element*. One single spot in an image.
radiance	Amount of energy emitted from an object per unit of time, area and angle ($W/m^2/sr$)
radiant power	Amount of energy emitted from an object per unit of time (W)
radiation	The process by which electromagnetic energy, is emitted by an object or a gas.
radiator	A piece of IR radiating equipment.
range	The current overall temperature measurement limitation of an IR camera. Cameras can have several ranges. Expressed as two blackbody temperatures that limit the current calibration.
reference temperature	A temperature which the ordinary measured values can be compared with.
reflection	The amount of radiation reflected by an object relative to the received radiation. A number between 0 and 1.
relative humidity	Relative humidity represents the ratio between the current water vapour mass in the air and the maximum it may contain in saturation conditions.
saturation color	The areas that contain temperatures outside the present level/span settings are colored with the saturation colors. The saturation colors contain an 'overflow' color and an 'underflow' color. There is also a third red saturation color that marks everything saturated by the detector indicating that the range should probably be changed.
span	The interval of the temperature scale, usually expressed as a signal value.
spectral (radiant) emittance	Amount of energy emitted from an object per unit of time, area and wavelength ($W/m^2/\mu m$)
temperature difference, or difference of temperature.	A value which is the result of a subtraction between two temperature values.
temperature range	The current overall temperature measurement limitation of an IR camera. Cameras can have several ranges. Expressed as two blackbody temperatures that limit the current calibration.
temperature scale	The way in which an IR image currently is displayed. Expressed as two temperature values limiting the colors.
thermogram	infrared image

Term or expression	Explanation
transmission (or transmittance) factor	Gases and materials can be more or less transparent. Transmission is the amount of IR radiation passing through them. A number between 0 and 1.
transparent isotherm	An isotherm showing a linear spread of colors, instead of covering the highlighted parts of the image.
visual	Refers to the video mode of a IR camera, as opposed to the normal, thermographic mode. When a camera is in video mode it captures ordinary video images, while thermographic images are captured when the camera is in IR mode.

20 Thermographic measurement techniques

20.1 Introduction

An infrared camera measures and images the emitted infrared radiation from an object. The fact that radiation is a function of object surface temperature makes it possible for the camera to calculate and display this temperature.

However, the radiation measured by the camera does not only depend on the temperature of the object but is also a function of the emissivity. Radiation also originates from the surroundings and is reflected in the object. The radiation from the object and the reflected radiation will also be influenced by the absorption of the atmosphere.

To measure temperature accurately, it is therefore necessary to compensate for the effects of a number of different radiation sources. This is done on-line automatically by the camera. The following object parameters must, however, be supplied for the camera:

- The emissivity of the object
- The reflected apparent temperature
- The distance between the object and the camera
- The relative humidity
- Temperature of the atmosphere

20.2 Emissivity

The most important object parameter to set correctly is the emissivity which, in short, is a measure of how much radiation is emitted from the object, compared to that from a perfect blackbody of the same temperature.

Normally, object materials and surface treatments exhibit emissivity ranging from approximately 0.1 to 0.95. A highly polished (mirror) surface falls below 0.1, while an oxidized or painted surface has a higher emissivity. Oil-based paint, regardless of color in the visible spectrum, has an emissivity over 0.9 in the infrared. Human skin exhibits an emissivity 0.97 to 0.98.

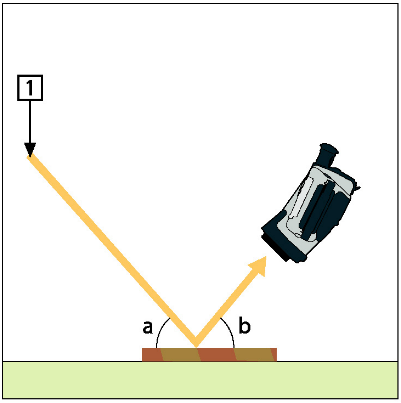
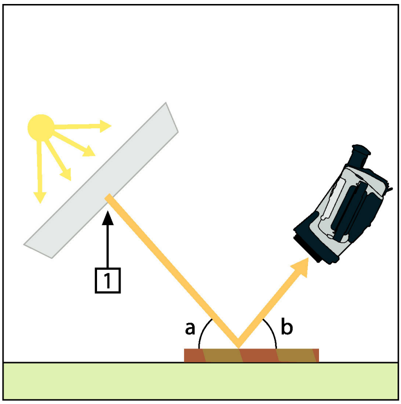
Non-oxidized metals represent an extreme case of perfect opacity and high reflexivity, which does not vary greatly with wavelength. Consequently, the emissivity of metals is low – only increasing with temperature. For non-metals, emissivity tends to be high, and decreases with temperature.

20.2.1 Finding the emissivity of a sample

20.2.1.1 Step 1: Determining reflected apparent temperature

Use one of the following two methods to determine reflected apparent temperature:

20.2.1.1.1 Method 1: Direct method

1	Look for possible reflection sources, considering that the incident angle = reflection angle (a = b). 10588903;a1  **Figure 20.1** 1 = Reflection source
2	If the reflection source is a spot source, modify the source by obstructing it using a piece if cardboard. 10589103;a2  **Figure 20.2** 1 = Reflection source

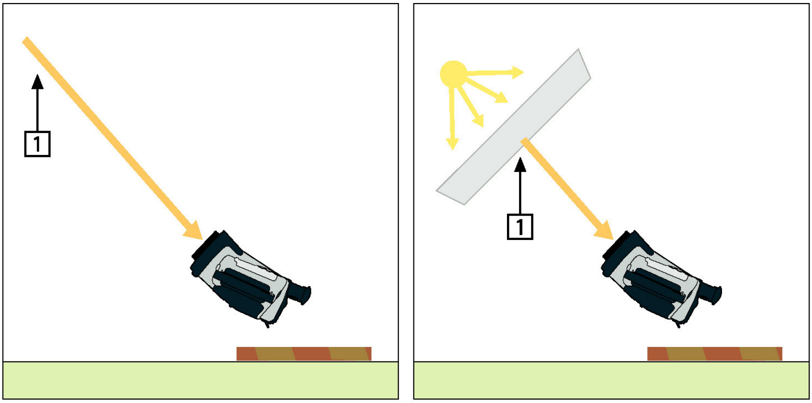
<table>
<tr><td>3</td><td>Measure the radiation intensity (= apparent temperature) from the reflecting source using the following settings:
■ Emissivity: 1.0
■ D_{obj}: 0
You can measure the radiation intensity using one of the following two methods:
10589003;a2


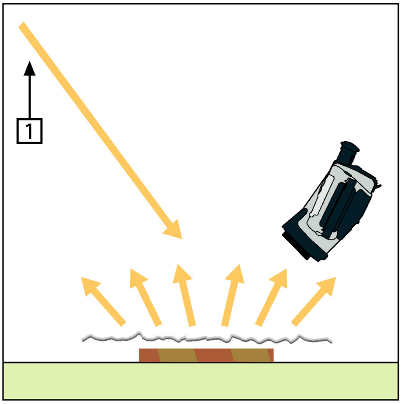
Figure 20.3 1 = Reflection source</td></tr>
</table>

Note: Using a thermocouple to measure reflected apparent temperature is not recommended for two important reasons:

- A thermocouple does not measure radiation intensity
- A thermocouple requires a very good thermal contact to the surface, usually by gluing and covering the sensor by a thermal isolator.

20.2.1.1.2 Method 2: Reflector method

1	Crumble up a large piece of aluminum foil.
2	Uncrumble the aluminum foil and attach it to a piece of cardboard of the same size.
3	Put the piece of cardboard in front of the object you want to measure. Make sure that the side with aluminum foil points to the camera.
4	Set the emissivity to 1.0.

5	Measure the apparent temperature of the aluminum foil and write it down. 10727003;a2  **Figure 20.4** Measuring the apparent temperature of the aluminum foil

20.2.1.2 *Step 2: Determining the emissivity*

1	Select a place to put the sample.
2	Determine and set reflected apparent temperature according to the previous procedure.
3	Put a piece of electrical tape with known high emissivity on the sample.
4	Heat the sample at least 20 K above room temperature. Heating must be reasonably even.
5	Focus and auto-adjust the camera, and freeze the image.
6	Adjust **Level** and **Span** for best image brightness and contrast.
7	Set emissivity to that of the tape (usually 0.97).
8	Measure the temperature of the tape using one of the following measurement functions: ▪ **Isotherm** (helps you to determine both the temperature and how evenly you have heated the sample) ▪ **Spot** (simpler) ▪ **Box Avg** (good for surfaces with varying emissivity).
9	Write down the temperature.
10	Move your measurement function to the sample surface.
11	Change the emissivity setting until you read the same temperature as your previous measurement.
12	Write down the emissivity.

Note:

- Avoid forced convection
- Look for a thermally stable surrounding that will not generate spot reflections
- Use high quality tape that you know is not transparent, and has a high emissivity you are certain of
- This method assumes that the temperature of your tape and the sample surface are the same. If they are not, your emissivity measurement will be wrong.

20.3 Reflected apparent temperature

This parameter is used to compensate for the radiation reflected in the object. If the emissivity is low and the object temperature relatively far from that of the reflected it will be important to set and compensate for the reflected apparent temperature correctly.

20.4 Distance

The distance is the distance between the object and the front lens of the camera. This parameter is used to compensate for the following two facts:

- That radiation from the target is absorbed by the athmosphere between the object and the camera.
- That radiation from the atmosphere itself is detected by the camera.

20.5 Relative humidity

The camera can also compensate for the fact that the transmittance is also dependent on the relative humidity of the atmosphere. To do this set the relative humidity to the correct value. For short distances and normal humidity the relative humidity can normally be left at a default value of 50%.

20.6 Other parameters

In addition, some cameras and analysis programs from FLIR Systems allow you to compensate for the following parameters:

- Atmospheric temperature – *i.e.* the temperature of the atmosphere between the camera and the target
- External optics temperature – *i.e.* the temperature of any external lenses or windows used in front of the camera
- External optics transmittance – *i.e.* the transmission of any external lenses or windows used in front of the camera

21 History of infrared technology

Before the year 1800, the existence of the infrared portion of the electromagnetic spectrum wasn't even suspected. The original significance of the infrared spectrum, or simply 'the infrared' as it is often called, as a form of heat radiation is perhaps less obvious today than it was at the time of its discovery by Herschel in 1800.

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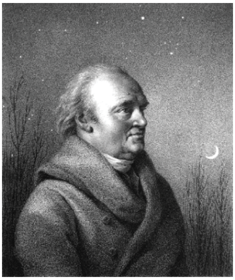

Figure 21.1 Sir William Herschel (1738–1822)

The discovery was made accidentally during the search for a new optical material. Sir William Herschel – Royal Astronomer to King George III of England, and already famous for his discovery of the planet Uranus – was searching for an optical filter material to reduce the brightness of the sun's image in telescopes during solar observations. While testing different samples of colored glass which gave similar reductions in brightness he was intrigued to find that some of the samples passed very little of the sun's heat, while others passed so much heat that he risked eye damage after only a few seconds' observation.

Herschel was soon convinced of the necessity of setting up a systematic experiment, with the objective of finding a single material that would give the desired reduction in brightness as well as the maximum reduction in heat. He began the experiment by actually repeating Newton's prism experiment, but looking for the heating effect rather than the visual distribution of intensity in the spectrum. He first blackened the bulb of a sensitive mercury-in-glass thermometer with ink, and with this as his radiation detector he proceeded to test the heating effect of the various colors of the spectrum formed on the top of a table by passing sunlight through a glass prism. Other thermometers, placed outside the sun's rays, served as controls.

As the blackened thermometer was moved slowly along the colors of the spectrum, the temperature readings showed a steady increase from the violet end to the red end. This was not entirely unexpected, since the Italian researcher, Landriani, in a similar experiment in 1777 had observed much the same effect. It was Herschel, however, who was the first to recognize that there must be a point where the heating effect reaches a maximum, and that measurements confined to the visible portion of the spectrum failed to locate this point.

10398903;a1

Figure 21.2 Marsilio Landriani (1746–1815)

Moving the thermometer into the dark region beyond the red end of the spectrum, Herschel confirmed that the heating continued to increase. The maximum point, when he found it, lay well beyond the red end – in what is known today as the 'infrared wavelengths'.

When Herschel revealed his discovery, he referred to this new portion of the electromagnetic spectrum as the 'thermometrical spectrum'. The radiation itself he sometimes referred to as 'dark heat', or simply 'the invisible rays'. Ironically, and contrary to popular opinion, it wasn't Herschel who originated the term 'infrared'. The word only began to appear in print around 75 years later, and it is still unclear who should receive credit as the originator.

Herschel's use of glass in the prism of his original experiment led to some early controversies with his contemporaries about the actual existence of the infrared wavelengths. Different investigators, in attempting to confirm his work, used various types of glass indiscriminately, having different transparencies in the infrared. Through his later experiments, Herschel was aware of the limited transparency of glass to the newly-discovered thermal radiation, and he was forced to conclude that optics for the infrared would probably be doomed to the use of reflective elements exclusively (i.e. plane and curved mirrors). Fortunately, this proved to be true only until 1830, when the Italian investigator, Melloni, made his great discovery that naturally occurring rock salt (NaCl) – which was available in large enough natural crystals to be made into lenses and prisms – is remarkably transparent to the infrared. The result was that rock salt became the principal infrared optical material, and remained so for the next hundred years, until the art of synthetic crystal growing was mastered in the 1930's.

10399103;a1

Figure 21.3 Macedonio Melloni (1798–1854)

Thermometers, as radiation detectors, remained unchallenged until 1829, the year Nobili invented the thermocouple. (Herschel's own thermometer could be read to 0.2 °C (0.036 °F), and later models were able to be read to 0.05 °C (0.09 °F)). Then a breakthrough occurred; Melloni connected a number of thermocouples in series to form the first thermopile. The new device was at least 40 times as sensitive as the best thermometer of the day for detecting heat radiation – capable of detecting the heat from a person standing three meters away.

The first so-called 'heat-picture' became possible in 1840, the result of work by Sir John Herschel, son of the discoverer of the infrared and a famous astronomer in his own right. Based upon the differential evaporation of a thin film of oil when exposed to a heat pattern focused upon it, the thermal image could be seen by reflected light where the interference effects of the oil film made the image visible to the eye. Sir John also managed to obtain a primitive record of the thermal image on paper, which he called a 'thermograph'.

10399003;a2

Figure 21.4 Samuel P. Langley (1834–1906)

Publ. No. T559600 Rev. a511 – ENGLISH (EN) – March 2, 2011

The improvement of infrared-detector sensitivity progressed slowly. Another major breakthrough, made by Langley in 1880, was the invention of the bolometer. This consisted of a thin blackened strip of platinum connected in one arm of a Wheatstone bridge circuit upon which the infrared radiation was focused and to which a sensitive galvanometer responded. This instrument is said to have been able to detect the heat from a cow at a distance of 400 meters.

An English scientist, Sir James Dewar, first introduced the use of liquefied gases as cooling agents (such as liquid nitrogen with a temperature of -196 °C (-320.8 °F)) in low temperature research. In 1892 he invented a unique vacuum insulating container in which it is possible to store liquefied gases for entire days. The common ‘thermos bottle’, used for storing hot and cold drinks, is based upon his invention.

Between the years 1900 and 1920, the inventors of the world ‘discovered’ the infrared. Many patents were issued for devices to detect personnel, artillery, aircraft, ships – and even icebergs. The first operating systems, in the modern sense, began to be developed during the 1914–18 war, when both sides had research programs devoted to the military exploitation of the infrared. These programs included experimental systems for enemy intrusion/detection, remote temperature sensing, secure communications, and ‘flying torpedo’ guidance. An infrared search system tested during this period was able to detect an approaching airplane at a distance of 1.5 km (0.94 miles), or a person more than 300 meters (984 ft.) away.

The most sensitive systems up to this time were all based upon variations of the bolometer idea, but the period between the two wars saw the development of two revolutionary new infrared detectors: the image converter and the photon detector. At first, the image converter received the greatest attention by the military, because it enabled an observer for the first time in history to literally ‘see in the dark’. However, the sensitivity of the image converter was limited to the near infrared wavelengths, and the most interesting military targets (i.e. enemy soldiers) had to be illuminated by infrared search beams. Since this involved the risk of giving away the observer’s position to a similarly-equipped enemy observer, it is understandable that military interest in the image converter eventually faded.

The tactical military disadvantages of so-called 'active’ (i.e. search beam-equipped) thermal imaging systems provided impetus following the 1939–45 war for extensive secret military infrared-research programs into the possibilities of developing ‘passive’ (no search beam) systems around the extremely sensitive photon detector. During this period, military secrecy regulations completely prevented disclosure of the status of infrared-imaging technology. This secrecy only began to be lifted in the middle of the 1950’s, and from that time adequate thermal-imaging devices finally began to be available to civilian science and industry.

22 Theory of thermography

22.1 Introduction

The subjects of infrared radiation and the related technique of thermography are still new to many who will use an infrared camera. In this section the theory behind thermography will be given.

22.2 The electromagnetic spectrum

The electromagnetic spectrum is divided arbitrarily into a number of wavelength regions, called *bands*, distinguished by the methods used to produce and detect the radiation. There is no fundamental difference between radiation in the different bands of the electromagnetic spectrum. They are all governed by the same laws and the only differences are those due to differences in wavelength.

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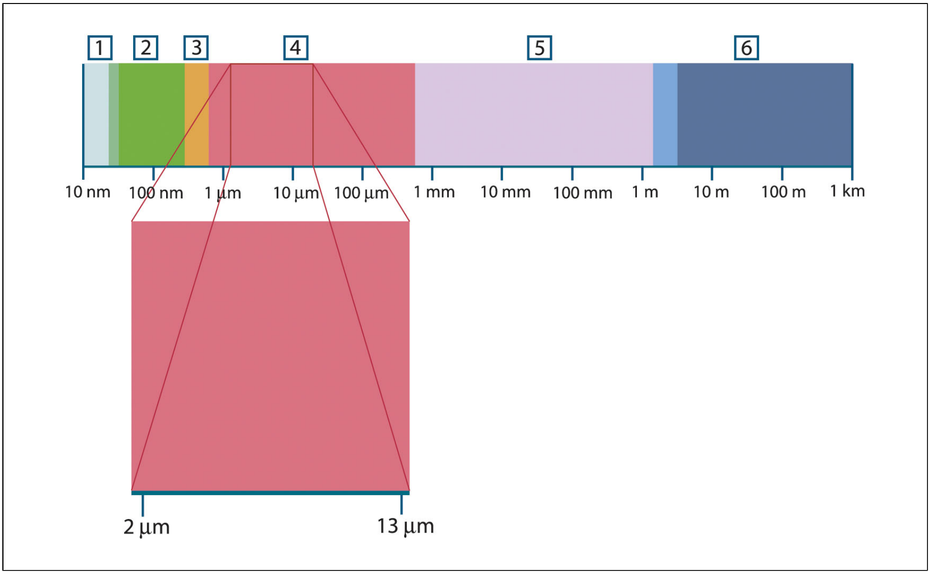

Figure 22.1 The electromagnetic spectrum. **1:** X-ray; **2:** UV; **3:** Visible; **4:** IR; **5:** Microwaves; **6:** Radiowaves.

Thermography makes use of the infrared spectral band. At the short-wavelength end the boundary lies at the limit of visual perception, in the deep red. At the long-wavelength end it merges with the microwave radio wavelengths, in the millimeter range.

The infrared band is often further subdivided into four smaller bands, the boundaries of which are also arbitrarily chosen. They include: the *near infrared* (0.75–3 µm), the *middle infrared* (3–6 µm), the *far infrared* (6–15 µm) and the *extreme infrared* (15–100 µm). Although the wavelengths are given in µm (micrometers), other units are often still used to measure wavelength in this spectral region, *e.g.* nanometer (nm) and Ångström (Å).

The relationships between the different wavelength measurements is:

$$10\ 000\ \text{Å} = 1\ 000\ \text{nm} = 1\ \mu = 1\ \mu\text{m}$$

22.3 Blackbody radiation

A blackbody is defined as an object which absorbs all radiation that impinges on it at any wavelength. The apparent misnomer *black* relating to an object emitting radiation is explained by Kirchhoff's Law (after *Gustav Robert Kirchhoff*, 1824–1887), which states that a body capable of absorbing all radiation at any wavelength is equally capable in the emission of radiation.

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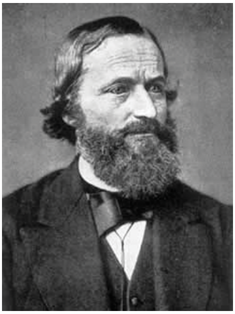

Figure 22.2 Gustav Robert Kirchhoff (1824–1887)

The construction of a blackbody source is, in principle, very simple. The radiation characteristics of an aperture in an isotherm cavity made of an opaque absorbing material represents almost exactly the properties of a blackbody. A practical application of the principle to the construction of a perfect absorber of radiation consists of a box that is light tight except for an aperture in one of the sides. Any radiation which then enters the hole is scattered and absorbed by repeated reflections so only an infinitesimal fraction can possibly escape. The blackness which is obtained at the aperture is nearly equal to a blackbody and almost perfect for all wavelengths.

By providing such an isothermal cavity with a suitable heater it becomes what is termed a *cavity radiator*. An isothermal cavity heated to a uniform temperature generates blackbody radiation, the characteristics of which are determined solely by the temperature of the cavity. Such cavity radiators are commonly used as sources of radiation in temperature reference standards in the laboratory for calibrating thermographic instruments, such as a FLIR Systems camera for example.

If the temperature of blackbody radiation increases to more than 525°C (977°F), the source begins to be visible so that it appears to the eye no longer black. This is the incipient red heat temperature of the radiator, which then becomes orange or yellow as the temperature increases further. In fact, the definition of the so-called *color temperature* of an object is the temperature to which a blackbody would have to be heated to have the same appearance.

Now consider three expressions that describe the radiation emitted from a blackbody.

22.3.1 Planck's law

10399203;a1

Figure 22.3 Max Planck (1858–1947)

Max Planck (1858–1947) was able to describe the spectral distribution of the radiation from a blackbody by means of the following formula:

$$W_{\lambda b} = \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5 \left(e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1\right)} \times 10^{-6} [Watt / m^2, \mu m]$$

where:

$W_{\lambda b}$	Blackbody spectral radiant emittance at wavelength λ.
c	Velocity of light = 3 × 10^8 m/s
h	Planck's constant = 6.6 × 10^{-34} Joule sec.
k	Boltzmann's constant = 1.4 × 10^{-23} Joule/K.
T	Absolute temperature (K) of a blackbody.
λ	Wavelength (μm).

➲ The factor 10^{-6} is used since spectral emittance in the curves is expressed in Watt/m², µm.

Planck's formula, when plotted graphically for various temperatures, produces a family of curves. Following any particular Planck curve, the spectral emittance is zero at $\lambda = 0$, then increases rapidly to a maximum at a wavelength λ_{max} and after passing it approaches zero again at very long wavelengths. The higher the temperature, the shorter the wavelength at which maximum occurs.

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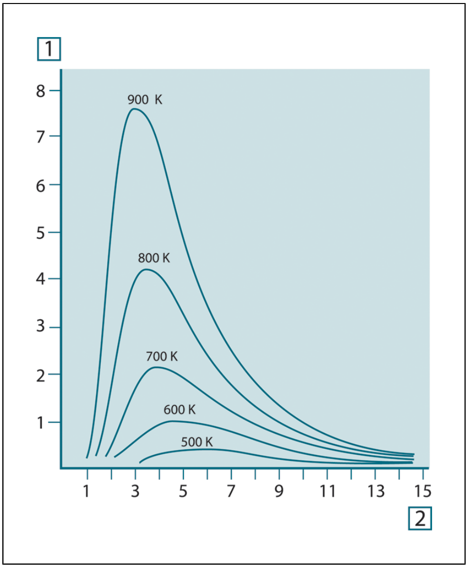

Figure 22.4 Blackbody spectral radiant emittance according to Planck's law, plotted for various absolute temperatures. **1:** Spectral radiant emittance (W/cm² × 10³(µm)); **2:** Wavelength (µm)

22.3.2 Wien's displacement law

By differentiating Planck's formula with respect to λ, and finding the maximum, we have:

$$\lambda_{\max} = \frac{2898}{T}[\mu m]$$

This is Wien's formula (after *Wilhelm Wien*, 1864–1928), which expresses mathematically the common observation that colors vary from red to orange or yellow as the temperature of a thermal radiator increases. The wavelength of the color is the same as the wavelength calculated for λ_{max}. A good approximation of the value of λ_{max} for a given blackbody temperature is obtained by applying the rule-of-thumb 3 000/T µm. Thus, a very hot star such as Sirius (11 000 K), emitting bluish-white light, radiates with the peak of spectral radiant emittance occurring within the invisible ultraviolet spectrum, at wavelength 0.27 µm.

10399403;a1

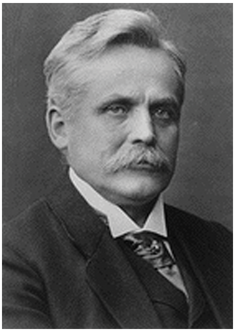

Figure 22.5 Wilhelm Wien (1864–1928)

The sun (approx. 6 000 K) emits yellow light, peaking at about 0.5 µm in the middle of the visible light spectrum.

At room temperature (300 K) the peak of radiant emittance lies at 9.7 µm, in the far infrared, while at the temperature of liquid nitrogen (77 K) the maximum of the almost insignificant amount of radiant emittance occurs at 38 µm, in the extreme infrared wavelengths.

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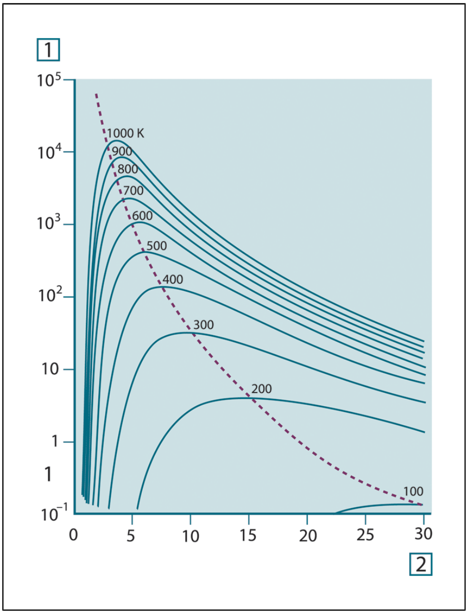

Figure 22.6 Planckian curves plotted on semi-log scales from 100 K to 1000 K. The dotted line represents the locus of maximum radiant emittance at each temperature as described by Wien's displacement law. **1:** Spectral radiant emittance (W/cm^2 (μm)); **2:** Wavelength (μm).

22.3.3 Stefan-Boltzmann's law

By integrating Planck's formula from $\lambda = 0$ to $\lambda = \infty$, we obtain the total radiant emittance (W_b) of a blackbody:

$$W_b = \sigma T^4 \ [\mathrm{Watt/m^2}]$$

This is the Stefan-Boltzmann formula (after *Josef Stefan*, 1835–1893, and *Ludwig Boltzmann*, 1844–1906), which states that the total emissive power of a blackbody is proportional to the fourth power of its absolute temperature. Graphically, W_b represents the area below the Planck curve for a particular temperature. It can be shown that the radiant emittance in the interval $\lambda = 0$ to λ_{max} is only 25% of the total, which represents about the amount of the sun's radiation which lies inside the visible light spectrum.

10399303;a1

Figure 22.7 Josef Stefan (1835–1893), and Ludwig Boltzmann (1844–1906)

Using the Stefan-Boltzmann formula to calculate the power radiated by the human body, at a temperature of 300 K and an external surface area of approx. 2 m^2, we obtain 1 kW. This power loss could not be sustained if it were not for the compensating absorption of radiation from surrounding surfaces, at room temperatures which do not vary too drastically from the temperature of the body – or, of course, the addition of clothing.

22.3.4 Non-blackbody emitters

So far, only blackbody radiators and blackbody radiation have been discussed. However, real objects almost never comply with these laws over an extended wavelength region – although they may approach the blackbody behavior in certain spectral intervals. For example, a certain type of white paint may appear perfectly *white* in the visible light spectrum, but becomes distinctly *gray* at about 2 μm, and beyond 3 μm it is almost *black*.

There are three processes which can occur that prevent a real object from acting like a blackbody: a fraction of the incident radiation α may be absorbed, a fraction ρ may be reflected, and a fraction τ may be transmitted. Since all of these factors are more or less wavelength dependent, the subscript λ is used to imply the spectral dependence of their definitions. Thus:

- The spectral absorptance α_λ= the ratio of the spectral radiant power absorbed by an object to that incident upon it.
- The spectral reflectance ρ_λ = the ratio of the spectral radiant power reflected by an object to that incident upon it.
- The spectral transmittance τ_λ = the ratio of the spectral radiant power transmitted through an object to that incident upon it.

The sum of these three factors must always add up to the whole at any wavelength, so we have the relation:

$$\alpha_\lambda + \rho_\lambda + \tau_\lambda = 1$$

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For opaque materials $\tau_\lambda = 0$ and the relation simplifies to:

$$\alpha_\lambda + \rho_\lambda = 1$$

Another factor, called the emissivity, is required to describe the fraction ε of the radiant emittance of a blackbody produced by an object at a specific temperature. Thus, we have the definition:

The spectral emissivity ε_λ= the ratio of the spectral radiant power from an object to that from a blackbody at the same temperature and wavelength.

Expressed mathematically, this can be written as the ratio of the spectral emittance of the object to that of a blackbody as follows:

$$\varepsilon_\lambda = \frac{W_{\lambda o}}{W_{\lambda b}}$$

Generally speaking, there are three types of radiation source, distinguished by the ways in which the spectral emittance of each varies with wavelength.

- A blackbody, for which $\varepsilon_\lambda = \varepsilon = 1$
- A graybody, for which $\varepsilon_\lambda = \varepsilon$ = constant less than 1
- A selective radiator, for which ε varies with wavelength

According to Kirchhoff's law, for any material the spectral emissivity and spectral absorptance of a body are equal at any specified temperature and wavelength. That is:

$$\varepsilon_\lambda = \alpha_\lambda$$

From this we obtain, for an opaque material (since $\alpha_\lambda + \rho_\lambda = 1$):

$$\varepsilon_\lambda + \rho_\lambda = 1$$

For highly polished materials ε_λ approaches zero, so that for a perfectly reflecting material (*i.e.* a perfect mirror) we have:

$$\rho_\lambda = 1$$

For a graybody radiator, the Stefan-Boltzmann formula becomes:

$$W = \varepsilon\sigma T^4 \ [\mathrm{Watt/m^2}]$$

This states that the total emissive power of a graybody is the same as a blackbody at the same temperature reduced in proportion to the value of ε from the graybody.

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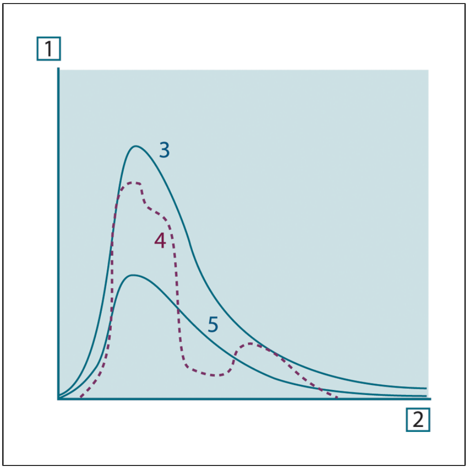

Figure 22.8 Spectral radiant emittance of three types of radiators. **1:** Spectral radiant emittance; **2:** Wavelength; **3:** Blackbody; **4:** Selective radiator; **5:** Graybody.

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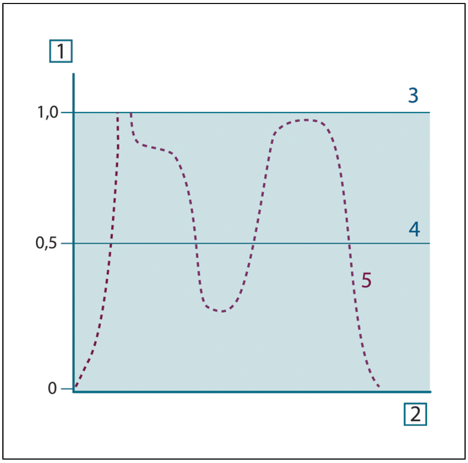

Figure 22.9 Spectral emissivity of three types of radiators. **1:** Spectral emissivity; **2:** Wavelength; **3:** Blackbody; **4:** Graybody; **5:** Selective radiator.

22.4 Infrared semi-transparent materials

Consider now a non-metallic, semi-transparent body – let us say, in the form of a thick flat plate of plastic material. When the plate is heated, radiation generated within its volume must work its way toward the surfaces through the material in which it is partially absorbed. Moreover, when it arrives at the surface, some of it is reflected back into the interior. The back-reflected radiation is again partially absorbed, but some of it arrives at the other surface, through which most of it escapes; part of it is reflected back again. Although the progressive reflections become weaker and weaker they must all be added up when the total emittance of the plate is sought. When the resulting geometrical series is summed, the effective emissivity of a semi-transparent plate is obtained as:

$$\varepsilon_\lambda = \frac{(1-\rho_\lambda)(1-\tau_\lambda)}{1-\rho_\lambda\tau_\lambda}$$

When the plate becomes opaque this formula is reduced to the single formula:

$$\varepsilon_\lambda = 1 - \rho_\lambda$$

This last relation is a particularly convenient one, because it is often easier to measure reflectance than to measure emissivity directly.

23 The measurement formula

As already mentioned, when viewing an object, the camera receives radiation not only from the object itself. It also collects radiation from the surroundings reflected via the object surface. Both these radiation contributions become attenuated to some extent by the atmosphere in the measurement path. To this comes a third radiation contribution from the atmosphere itself.

This description of the measurement situation, as illustrated in the figure below, is so far a fairly true description of the real conditions. What has been neglected could for instance be sun light scattering in the atmosphere or stray radiation from intense radiation sources outside the field of view. Such disturbances are difficult to quantify, however, in most cases they are fortunately small enough to be neglected. In case they are not negligible, the measurement configuration is likely to be such that the risk for disturbance is obvious, at least to a trained operator. It is then his responsibility to modify the measurement situation to avoid the disturbance e.g. by changing the viewing direction, shielding off intense radiation sources etc.

Accepting the description above, we can use the figure below to derive a formula for the calculation of the object temperature from the calibrated camera output.

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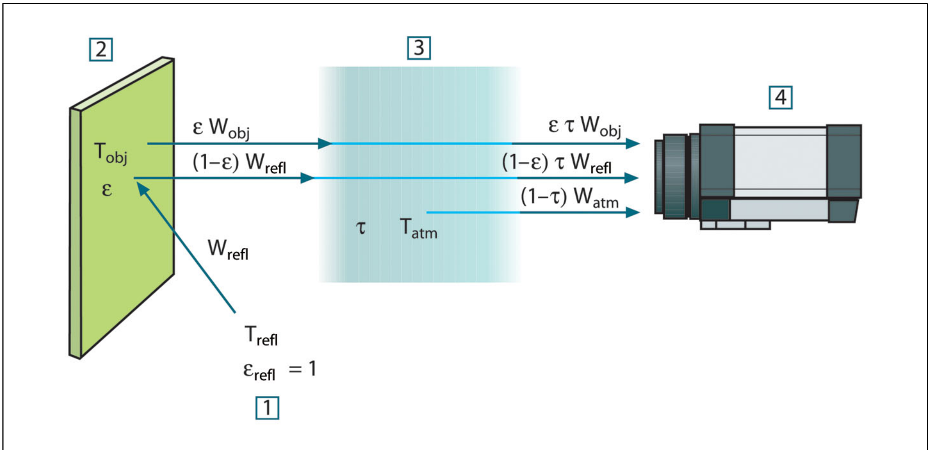

Figure 23.1 A schematic representation of the general thermographic measurement situation.**1:** Surroundings; **2:** Object; **3:** Atmosphere; **4:** Camera

Assume that the received radiation power W from a blackbody source of temperature T_{source} on short distance generates a camera output signal U_{source} that is proportional to the power input (power linear camera). We can then write (Equation 1):

$$U_{source} = CW(T_{source})$$

or, with simplified notation:

$$U_{source} = CW_{source}$$

where C is a constant.

Should the source be a graybody with emittance ε, the received radiation would consequently be εW_{source}.

We are now ready to write the three collected radiation power terms:

1 – Emission from the object = $\varepsilon\tau W_{obj}$, where ε is the emittance of the object and τ is the transmittance of the atmosphere. The object temperature is T_{obj}.

2 – Reflected emission from ambient sources = $(1 - \varepsilon)\tau W_{refl}$, where (1 – ε) is the reflectance of the object. The ambient sources have the temperature T_{refl}.

It has here been assumed that the temperature T_{refl} is the same for all emitting surfaces within the halfsphere seen from a point on the object surface. This is of course sometimes a simplification of the true situation. It is, however, a necessary simplification in order to derive a workable formula, and T_{refl} can – at least theoretically – be given a value that represents an efficient temperature of a complex surrounding.

Note also that we have assumed that the emittance for the surroundings = 1. This is correct in accordance with Kirchhoff's law: All radiation impinging on the surrounding surfaces will eventually be absorbed by the same surfaces. Thus the emittance = 1. (Note though that the latest discussion requires the complete sphere around the object to be considered.)

3 – Emission from the atmosphere = $(1 - \tau)\tau W_{atm}$, where (1 – τ) is the emittance of the atmosphere. The temperature of the atmosphere is T_{atm}.

The total received radiation power can now be written (Equation 2):

$$W_{tot} = \varepsilon\tau W_{obj} + (1 - \varepsilon)\tau W_{refl} + (1 - \tau)W_{atm}$$

We multiply each term by the constant C of Equation 1 and replace the CW products by the corresponding U according to the same equation, and get (Equation 3):

$$U_{tot} = \varepsilon\tau U_{obj} + (1 - \varepsilon)\tau U_{refl} + (1 - \tau)U_{atm}$$

Solve Equation 3 for U_{obj} (Equation 4):

$$U_{obj} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon\tau}U_{tot} - \frac{1-\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}U_{refl} - \frac{1-\tau}{\varepsilon\tau}U_{atm}$$

This is the general measurement formula used in all the FLIR Systems thermographic equipment. The voltages of the formula are:

Figure 23.2 Voltages

U_{obj}	Calculated camera output voltage for a blackbody of temperature T_{obj} i.e. a voltage that can be directly converted into true requested object temperature.
U_{tot}	Measured camera output voltage for the actual case.
U_{refl}	Theoretical camera output voltage for a blackbody of temperature T_{refl} according to the calibration.
U_{atm}	Theoretical camera output voltage for a blackbody of temperature T_{atm} according to the calibration.

The operator has to supply a number of parameter values for the calculation:

- the object emittance ε,
- the relative humidity,
- T_{atm}
- object distance (D_{obj})
- the (effective) temperature of the object surroundings, or the reflected ambient temperature T_{refl}, and
- the temperature of the atmosphere T_{atm}

This task could sometimes be a heavy burden for the operator since there are normally no easy ways to find accurate values of emittance and atmospheric transmittance for the actual case. The two temperatures are normally less of a problem provided the surroundings do not contain large and intense radiation sources.

A natural question in this connection is: How important is it to know the right values of these parameters? It could though be of interest to get a feeling for this problem already here by looking into some different measurement cases and compare the relative magnitudes of the three radiation terms. This will give indications about when it is important to use correct values of which parameters.

The figures below illustrates the relative magnitudes of the three radiation contributions for three different object temperatures, two emittances, and two spectral ranges: SW and LW. Remaining parameters have the following fixed values:

- τ = 0.88
- T_{refl} = +20°C (+68°F)
- T_{atm} = +20°C (+68°F)

It is obvious that measurement of low object temperatures are more critical than measuring high temperatures since the 'disturbing' radiation sources are relatively much stronger in the first case. Should also the object emittance be low, the situation would be still more difficult.

We have finally to answer a question about the importance of being allowed to use the calibration curve above the highest calibration point, what we call extrapolation. Imagine that we in a certain case measure U_{tot} = 4.5 volts. The highest calibration point for the camera was in the order of 4.1 volts, a value unknown to the operator. Thus, even if the object happened to be a blackbody, i.e. $U_{obj} = U_{tot}$, we are actually performing extrapolation of the calibration curve when converting 4.5 volts into temperature.

Let us now assume that the object is not black, it has an emittance of 0.75, and the transmittance is 0.92. We also assume that the two second terms of Equation 4 amount to 0.5 volts together. Computation of U_{obj} by means of Equation 4 then results in U_{obj} = 4.5 / 0.75 / 0.92 – 0.5 = 6.0. This is a rather extreme extrapolation, particularly when considering that the video amplifier might limit the output to 5 volts! Note, though, that the application of the calibration curve is a theoretical procedure where no electronic or other limitations exist. We trust that if there had been no signal limitations in the camera, and if it had been calibrated far beyond 5 volts, the resulting curve would have been very much the same as our real curve extrapolated beyond 4.1 volts, provided the calibration algorithm is based on radiation physics, like the FLIR Systems algorithm. Of course there must be a limit to such extrapolations.

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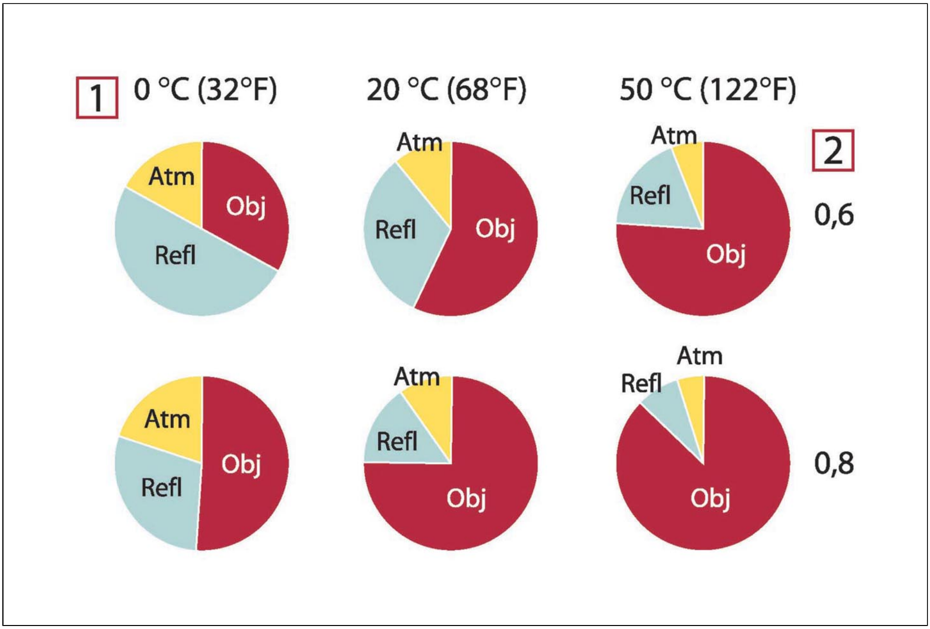

Figure 23.3 Relative magnitudes of radiation sources under varying measurement conditions (SW camera). **1:** Object temperature; **2:** Emittance; **Obj:** Object radiation; **Refl:** Reflected radiation; **Atm:** atmosphere radiation. Fixed parameters: $\tau = 0.88$; $T_{refl} = 20°C$ (+68°F); $T_{atm} = 20°C$ (+68°F).

10400703;a2

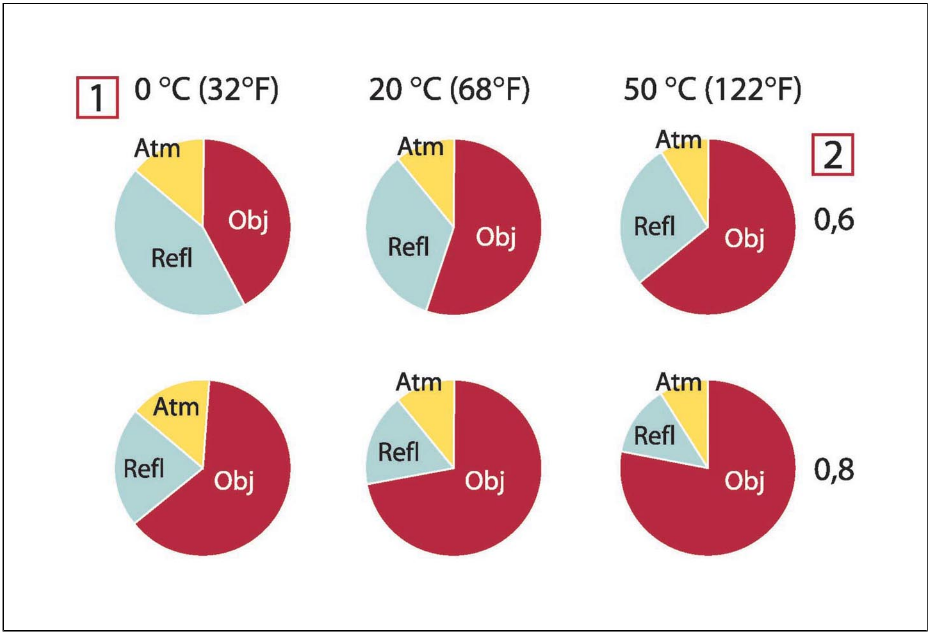

Figure 23.4 Relative magnitudes of radiation sources under varying measurement conditions (LW camera). **1:** Object temperature; **2:** Emittance; **Obj:** Object radiation; **Refl:** Reflected radiation; **Atm:** atmosphere radiation. Fixed parameters: $\tau = 0.88$; $T_{refl} = 20°C$ (+68°F); $T_{atm} = 20°C$ (+68°F).

24 Emissivity tables

This section presents a compilation of emissivity data from the infrared literature and measurements made by FLIR Systems.

24.1 References

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11	Lohrengel & Todtenhaupt (1996)
12	ITC Technical publication 32.
13	ITC Technical publication 29.

24.2 Important note about the emissivity tables

The emissivity values in the table below are recorded using a shortwave (SW) camera. The values should be regarded as recommendations only and used with caution.

24.3 Tables

Figure 24.1 **T:** Total spectrum; **SW:** 2–5 μm; **LW:** 8–14 μm, **LLW:** 6.5–20 μm; **1:** Material; **2:** Specification; **3:** Temperature in °C; **4:** Spectrum; **5:** Emissivity: **6:** Reference

1	2	3	4	5	6
3M type 35	Vinyl electrical tape (several colors)	< 80	LW	Ca. 0.96	13
3M type 88	Black vinyl electrical tape	< 105	LW	Ca. 0.96	13
3M type 88	Black vinyl electrical tape	< 105	MW	< 0.96	13
3M type Super 33+	Black vinyl electrical tape	< 80	LW	Ca. 0.96	13
Aluminum	anodized, black, dull	70	LW	0.95	9
Aluminum	anodized, black, dull	70	SW	0.67	9
Aluminum	anodized, light gray, dull	70	LW	0.97	9
Aluminum	anodized, light gray, dull	70	SW	0.61	9
Aluminum	anodized sheet	100	T	0.55	2
Aluminum	as received, plate	100	T	0.09	4
Aluminum	as received, sheet	100	T	0.09	2
Aluminum	cast, blast cleaned	70	LW	0.46	9
Aluminum	cast, blast cleaned	70	SW	0.47	9
Aluminum	dipped in HNO_3, plate	100	T	0.05	4
Aluminum	foil	27	3 μm	0.09	3
Aluminum	foil	27	10 μm	0.04	3
Aluminum	oxidized, strongly	50–500	T	0.2–0.3	1
Aluminum	polished	50–100	T	0.04–0.06	1
Aluminum	polished, sheet	100	T	0.05	2
Aluminum	polished plate	100	T	0.05	4

1	2	3	4	5	6
Aluminum	roughened	27	3 µm	0.28	3
Aluminum	roughened	27	10 µm	0.18	3
Aluminum	rough surface	20–50	T	0.06–0.07	1
Aluminum	sheet, 4 samples differently scratched	70	LW	0.03–0.06	9
Aluminum	sheet, 4 samples differently scratched	70	SW	0.05–0.08	9
Aluminum	vacuum deposited	20	T	0.04	2
Aluminum	weathered, heavily	17	SW	0.83–0.94	5
Aluminum bronze		20	T	0.60	1
Aluminum hydroxide	powder		T	0.28	1
Aluminum oxide	activated, powder		T	0.46	1
Aluminum oxide	pure, powder (alumina)		T	0.16	1
Asbestos	board	20	T	0.96	1
Asbestos	fabric		T	0.78	1
Asbestos	floor tile	35	SW	0.94	7
Asbestos	paper	40–400	T	0.93–0.95	1
Asbestos	powder		T	0.40–0.60	1
Asbestos	slate	20	T	0.96	1
Asphalt paving		4	LLW	0.967	8
Brass	dull, tarnished	20–350	T	0.22	1
Brass	oxidized	70	SW	0.04–0.09	9
Brass	oxidized	70	LW	0.03–0.07	9
Brass	oxidized	100	T	0.61	2
Brass	oxidized at 600°C	200–600	T	0.59–0.61	1
Brass	polished	200	T	0.03	1
Brass	polished, highly	100	T	0.03	2

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1	2	3	4	5	6
Brass	rubbed with 80-grit emery	20	T	0.20	2
Brass	sheet, rolled	20	T	0.06	1
Brass	sheet, worked with emery	20	T	0.2	1
Brick	alumina	17	SW	0.68	5
Brick	common	17	SW	0.86–0.81	5
Brick	Dinas silica, glazed, rough	1100	T	0.85	1
Brick	Dinas silica, refractory	1000	T	0.66	1
Brick	Dinas silica, unglazed, rough	1000	T	0.80	1
Brick	firebrick	17	SW	0.68	5
Brick	fireclay	20	T	0.85	1
Brick	fireclay	1000	T	0.75	1
Brick	fireclay	1200	T	0.59	1
Brick	masonry	35	SW	0.94	7
Brick	masonry, plastered	20	T	0.94	1
Brick	red, common	20	T	0.93	2
Brick	red, rough	20	T	0.88–0.93	1
Brick	refractory, corundum	1000	T	0.46	1
Brick	refractory, magnesite	1000–1300	T	0.38	1
Brick	refractory, strongly radiating	500–1000	T	0.8–0.9	1
Brick	refractory, weakly radiating	500–1000	T	0.65–0.75	1
Brick	silica, 95% SiO_2	1230	T	0.66	1
Brick	sillimanite, 33% SiO_2, 64% Al_2O_3	1500	T	0.29	1

1	2	3	4	5	6
Brick	waterproof	17	SW	0.87	5
Bronze	phosphor bronze	70	LW	0.06	9
Bronze	phosphor bronze	70	SW	0.08	9
Bronze	polished	50	T	0.1	1
Bronze	porous, rough	50–150	T	0.55	1
Bronze	powder		T	0.76–0.80	1
Carbon	candle soot	20	T	0.95	2
Carbon	charcoal powder		T	0.96	1
Carbon	graphite, filed surface	20	T	0.98	2
Carbon	graphite powder		T	0.97	1
Carbon	lampblack	20–400	T	0.95–0.97	1
Chipboard	untreated	20	SW	0.90	6
Chromium	polished	50	T	0.10	1
Chromium	polished	500–1000	T	0.28–0.38	1
Clay	fired	70	T	0.91	1
Cloth	black	20	T	0.98	1
Concrete		20	T	0.92	2
Concrete	dry	36	SW	0.95	7
Concrete	rough	17	SW	0.97	5
Concrete	walkway	5	LLW	0.974	8
Copper	commercial, burnished	20	T	0.07	1
Copper	electrolytic, carefully polished	80	T	0.018	1
Copper	electrolytic, polished	–34	T	0.006	4
Copper	molten	1100–1300	T	0.13–0.15	1
Copper	oxidized	50	T	0.6–0.7	1
Copper	oxidized, black	27	T	0.78	4

1	2	3	4	5	6
Copper	oxidized, heavily	20	T	0.78	2
Copper	oxidized to blackness		T	0.88	1
Copper	polished	50–100	T	0.02	1
Copper	polished	100	T	0.03	2
Copper	polished, commercial	27	T	0.03	4
Copper	polished, mechanical	22	T	0.015	4
Copper	pure, carefully prepared surface	22	T	0.008	4
Copper	scraped	27	T	0.07	4
Copper dioxide	powder		T	0.84	1
Copper oxide	red, powder		T	0.70	1
Ebonite			T	0.89	1
Emery	coarse	80	T	0.85	1
Enamel		20	T	0.9	1
Enamel	lacquer	20	T	0.85–0.95	1
Fiber board	hard, untreated	20	SW	0.85	6
Fiber board	masonite	70	LW	0.88	9
Fiber board	masonite	70	SW	0.75	9
Fiber board	particle board	70	LW	0.89	9
Fiber board	particle board	70	SW	0.77	9
Fiber board	porous, untreated	20	SW	0.85	6
Gold	polished	130	T	0.018	1
Gold	polished, carefully	200–600	T	0.02–0.03	1
Gold	polished, highly	100	T	0.02	2
Granite	polished	20	LLW	0.849	8
Granite	rough	21	LLW	0.879	8
Granite	rough, 4 different samples	70	LW	0.77–0.87	9

1	2	3	4	5	6
Granite	rough, 4 different samples	70	SW	0.95–0.97	9
Gypsum		20	T	0.8–0.9	1
Ice: See Water					
Iron, cast	casting	50	T	0.81	1
Iron, cast	ingots	1000	T	0.95	1
Iron, cast	liquid	1300	T	0.28	1
Iron, cast	machined	800–1000	T	0.60–0.70	1
Iron, cast	oxidized	38	T	0.63	4
Iron, cast	oxidized	100	T	0.64	2
Iron, cast	oxidized	260	T	0.66	4
Iron, cast	oxidized	538	T	0.76	4
Iron, cast	oxidized at 600°C	200–600	T	0.64–0.78	1
Iron, cast	polished	38	T	0.21	4
Iron, cast	polished	40	T	0.21	2
Iron, cast	polished	200	T	0.21	1
Iron, cast	unworked	900–1100	T	0.87–0.95	1
Iron and steel	cold rolled	70	LW	0.09	9
Iron and steel	cold rolled	70	SW	0.20	9
Iron and steel	covered with red rust	20	T	0.61–0.85	1
Iron and steel	electrolytic	22	T	0.05	4
Iron and steel	electrolytic	100	T	0.05	4
Iron and steel	electrolytic	260	T	0.07	4
Iron and steel	electrolytic, carefully polished	175–225	T	0.05–0.06	1
Iron and steel	freshly worked with emery	20	T	0.24	1
Iron and steel	ground sheet	950–1100	T	0.55–0.61	1
Iron and steel	heavily rusted sheet	20	T	0.69	2

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1	2	3	4	5	6
Iron and steel	hot rolled	20	T	0.77	1
Iron and steel	hot rolled	130	T	0.60	1
Iron and steel	oxidized	100	T	0.74	1
Iron and steel	oxidized	100	T	0.74	4
Iron and steel	oxidized	125–525	T	0.78–0.82	1
Iron and steel	oxidized	200	T	0.79	2
Iron and steel	oxidized	1227	T	0.89	4
Iron and steel	oxidized	200–600	T	0.80	1
Iron and steel	oxidized strongly	50	T	0.88	1
Iron and steel	oxidized strongly	500	T	0.98	1
Iron and steel	polished	100	T	0.07	2
Iron and steel	polished	400–1000	T	0.14–0.38	1
Iron and steel	polished sheet	750–1050	T	0.52–0.56	1
Iron and steel	rolled, freshly	20	T	0.24	1
Iron and steel	rolled sheet	50	T	0.56	1
Iron and steel	rough, plane surface	50	T	0.95–0.98	1
Iron and steel	rusted, heavily	17	SW	0.96	5
Iron and steel	rusted red, sheet	22	T	0.69	4
Iron and steel	rusty, red	20	T	0.69	1
Iron and steel	shiny, etched	150	T	0.16	1
Iron and steel	shiny oxide layer, sheet,	20	T	0.82	1
Iron and steel	wrought, carefully polished	40–250	T	0.28	1
Iron galvanized	heavily oxidized	70	LW	0.85	9
Iron galvanized	heavily oxidized	70	SW	0.64	9
Iron galvanized	sheet	92	T	0.07	4
Iron galvanized	sheet, burnished	30	T	0.23	1
Iron galvanized	sheet, oxidized	20	T	0.28	1

1	2	3	4	5	6
Iron tinned	sheet	24	T	0.064	4
Krylon Ultra-flat black 1602	Flat black	Room temperature up to 175	LW	Ca. 0.96	12
Krylon Ultra-flat black 1602	Flat black	Room temperature up to 175	MW	Ca. 0.97	12
Lacquer	3 colors sprayed on Aluminum	70	LW	0.92–0.94	9
Lacquer	3 colors sprayed on Aluminum	70	SW	0.50–0.53	9
Lacquer	Aluminum on rough surface	20	T	0.4	1
Lacquer	bakelite	80	T	0.83	1
Lacquer	black, dull	40–100	T	0.96–0.98	1
Lacquer	black, matte	100	T	0.97	2
Lacquer	black, shiny, sprayed on iron	20	T	0.87	1
Lacquer	heat–resistant	100	T	0.92	1
Lacquer	white	40–100	T	0.8–0.95	1
Lacquer	white	100	T	0.92	2
Lead	oxidized, gray	20	T	0.28	1
Lead	oxidized, gray	22	T	0.28	4
Lead	oxidized at 200°C	200	T	0.63	1
Lead	shiny	250	T	0.08	1
Lead	unoxidized, polished	100	T	0.05	4
Lead red		100	T	0.93	4
Lead red, powder		100	T	0.93	1
Leather	tanned		T	0.75–0.80	1
Lime			T	0.3–0.4	1
Magnesium		22	T	0.07	4
Magnesium		260	T	0.13	4

1	2	3	4	5	6
Magnesium		538	T	0.18	4
Magnesium	polished	20	T	0.07	2
Magnesium powder			T	0.86	1
Molybdenum		600–1000	T	0.08–0.13	1
Molybdenum		1500–2200	T	0.19–0.26	1
Molybdenum	filament	700–2500	T	0.1–0.3	1
Mortar		17	SW	0.87	5
Mortar	dry	36	SW	0.94	7
Nextel Velvet 811-21 Black	Flat black	–60–150	LW	> 0.97	10 and 11
Nichrome	rolled	700	T	0.25	1
Nichrome	sandblasted	700	T	0.70	1
Nichrome	wire, clean	50	T	0.65	1
Nichrome	wire, clean	500–1000	T	0.71–0.79	1
Nichrome	wire, oxidized	50–500	T	0.95–0.98	1
Nickel	bright matte	122	T	0.041	4
Nickel	commercially pure, polished	100	T	0.045	1
Nickel	commercially pure, polished	200–400	T	0.07–0.09	1
Nickel	electrolytic	22	T	0.04	4
Nickel	electrolytic	38	T	0.06	4
Nickel	electrolytic	260	T	0.07	4
Nickel	electrolytic	538	T	0.10	4
Nickel	electroplated, polished	20	T	0.05	2
Nickel	electroplated on iron, polished	22	T	0.045	4
Nickel	electroplated on iron, unpolished	20	T	0.11–0.40	1

1	2	3	4	5	6
Nickel	electroplated on iron, unpolished	22	T	0.11	4
Nickel	oxidized	200	T	0.37	2
Nickel	oxidized	227	T	0.37	4
Nickel	oxidized	1227	T	0.85	4
Nickel	oxidized at 600°C	200–600	T	0.37–0.48	1
Nickel	polished	122	T	0.045	4
Nickel	wire	200–1000	T	0.1–0.2	1
Nickel oxide		500–650	T	0.52–0.59	1
Nickel oxide		1000–1250	T	0.75–0.86	1
Oil, lubricating	0.025 mm film	20	T	0.27	2
Oil, lubricating	0.050 mm film	20	T	0.46	2
Oil, lubricating	0.125 mm film	20	T	0.72	2
Oil, lubricating	film on Ni base: Ni base only	20	T	0.05	2
Oil, lubricating	thick coating	20	T	0.82	2
Paint	8 different colors and qualities	70	LW	0.92–0.94	9
Paint	8 different colors and qualities	70	SW	0.88–0.96	9
Paint	Aluminum, various ages	50–100	T	0.27–0.67	1
Paint	cadmium yellow		T	0.28–0.33	1
Paint	chrome green		T	0.65–0.70	1
Paint	cobalt blue		T	0.7–0.8	1
Paint	oil	17	SW	0.87	5
Paint	oil, black flat	20	SW	0.94	6
Paint	oil, black gloss	20	SW	0.92	6
Paint	oil, gray flat	20	SW	0.97	6
Paint	oil, gray gloss	20	SW	0.96	6
Paint	oil, various colors	100	T	0.92–0.96	1

1	2	3	4	5	6
Paint	oil based, average of 16 colors	100	T	0.94	2
Paint	plastic, black	20	SW	0.95	6
Paint	plastic, white	20	SW	0.84	6
Paper	4 different colors	70	LW	0.92–0.94	9
Paper	4 different colors	70	SW	0.68–0.74	9
Paper	black		T	0.90	1
Paper	black, dull		T	0.94	1
Paper	black, dull	70	LW	0.89	9
Paper	black, dull	70	SW	0.86	9
Paper	blue, dark		T	0.84	1
Paper	coated with black lacquer		T	0.93	1
Paper	green		T	0.85	1
Paper	red		T	0.76	1
Paper	white	20	T	0.7–0.9	1
Paper	white, 3 different glosses	70	LW	0.88–0.90	9
Paper	white, 3 different glosses	70	SW	0.76–0.78	9
Paper	white bond	20	T	0.93	2
Paper	yellow		T	0.72	1
Plaster		17	SW	0.86	5
Plaster	plasterboard, untreated	20	SW	0.90	6
Plaster	rough coat	20	T	0.91	2
Plastic	glass fibre laminate (printed circ. board)	70	LW	0.91	9
Plastic	glass fibre laminate (printed circ. board)	70	SW	0.94	9

1	2	3	4	5	6
Plastic	polyurethane isolation board	70	LW	0.55	9
Plastic	polyurethane isolation board	70	SW	0.29	9
Plastic	PVC, plastic floor, dull, structured	70	LW	0.93	9
Plastic	PVC, plastic floor, dull, structured	70	SW	0.94	9
Platinum		17	T	0.016	4
Platinum		22	T	0.03	4
Platinum		100	T	0.05	4
Platinum		260	T	0.06	4
Platinum		538	T	0.10	4
Platinum		1000–1500	T	0.14–0.18	1
Platinum		1094	T	0.18	4
Platinum	pure, polished	200–600	T	0.05–0.10	1
Platinum	ribbon	900–1100	T	0.12–0.17	1
Platinum	wire	50–200	T	0.06–0.07	1
Platinum	wire	500–1000	T	0.10–0.16	1
Platinum	wire	1400	T	0.18	1
Porcelain	glazed	20	T	0.92	1
Porcelain	white, shiny		T	0.70–0.75	1
Rubber	hard	20	T	0.95	1
Rubber	soft, gray, rough	20	T	0.95	1
Sand			T	0.60	1
Sand		20	T	0.90	2
Sandstone	polished	19	LLW	0.909	8
Sandstone	rough	19	LLW	0.935	8
Silver	polished	100	T	0.03	2
Silver	pure, polished	200–600	T	0.02–0.03	1

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1	2	3	4	5	6
Skin	human	32	T	0.98	2
Slag	boiler	0–100	T	0.97–0.93	1
Slag	boiler	200–500	T	0.89–0.78	1
Slag	boiler	600–1200	T	0.76–0.70	1
Slag	boiler	1400–1800	T	0.69–0.67	1
Snow: See Water					
Soil	dry	20	T	0.92	2
Soil	saturated with water	20	T	0.95	2
Stainless steel	alloy, 8% Ni, 18% Cr	500	T	0.35	1
Stainless steel	rolled	700	T	0.45	1
Stainless steel	sandblasted	700	T	0.70	1
Stainless steel	sheet, polished	70	LW	0.14	9
Stainless steel	sheet, polished	70	SW	0.18	9
Stainless steel	sheet, untreated, somewhat scratched	70	LW	0.28	9
Stainless steel	sheet, untreated, somewhat scratched	70	SW	0.30	9
Stainless steel	type 18-8, buffed	20	T	0.16	2
Stainless steel	type 18-8, oxidized at 800°C	60	T	0.85	2
Stucco	rough, lime	10–90	T	0.91	1
Styrofoam	insulation	37	SW	0.60	7
Tar			T	0.79–0.84	1
Tar	paper	20	T	0.91–0.93	1
Tile	glazed	17	SW	0.94	5
Tin	burnished	20–50	T	0.04–0.06	1
Tin	tin–plated sheet iron	100	T	0.07	2

1	2	3	4	5	6
Titanium	oxidized at 540°C	200	T	0.40	1
Titanium	oxidized at 540°C	500	T	0.50	1
Titanium	oxidized at 540°C	1000	T	0.60	1
Titanium	polished	200	T	0.15	1
Titanium	polished	500	T	0.20	1
Titanium	polished	1000	T	0.36	1
Tungsten		200	T	0.05	1
Tungsten		600–1000	T	0.1–0.16	1
Tungsten		1500–2200	T	0.24–0.31	1
Tungsten	filament	3300	T	0.39	1
Varnish	flat	20	SW	0.93	6
Varnish	on oak parquet floor	70	LW	0.90–0.93	9
Varnish	on oak parquet floor	70	SW	0.90	9
Wallpaper	slight pattern, light gray	20	SW	0.85	6
Wallpaper	slight pattern, red	20	SW	0.90	6
Water	distilled	20	T	0.96	2
Water	frost crystals	–10	T	0.98	2
Water	ice, covered with heavy frost	0	T	0.98	1
Water	ice, smooth	–10	T	0.96	2
Water	ice, smooth	0	T	0.97	1
Water	layer >0.1 mm thick	0–100	T	0.95–0.98	1
Water	snow		T	0.8	1
Water	snow	–10	T	0.85	2
Wood		17	SW	0.98	5
Wood		19	LLW	0.962	8
Wood	ground		T	0.5–0.7	1

1	2	3	4	5	6
Wood	pine, 4 different samples	70	LW	0.81–0.89	9
Wood	pine, 4 different samples	70	SW	0.67–0.75	9
Wood	planed	20	T	0.8–0.9	1
Wood	planed oak	20	T	0.90	2
Wood	planed oak	70	LW	0.88	9
Wood	planed oak	70	SW	0.77	9
Wood	plywood, smooth, dry	36	SW	0.82	7
Wood	plywood, untreat-ed	20	SW	0.83	6
Wood	white, damp	20	T	0.7–0.8	1
Zinc	oxidized at 400°C	400	T	0.11	1
Zinc	oxidized surface	1000–1200	T	0.50–0.60	1
Zinc	polished	200–300	T	0.04–0.05	1
Zinc	sheet	50	T	0.20	1

A note on the technical production of this publication

This publication was produced using XML—the *eXtensible Markup Language*. For more information about XML, please visit http://www.w3.org/XML/

A note on the typeface used in this publication

This publication was typeset using Swiss 721, which is Bitstream's pan-European version of the Helvetica™ typeface. Helvetica™ was designed by Max Miedinger (1910–1980).

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Corporate Headquarters
FLIR Systems, Inc.
27700 SW Parkway Avenue
Wilsonville, OR 97070
USA
Telephone: +1-800-727-3547
Website: http://www.flir.com