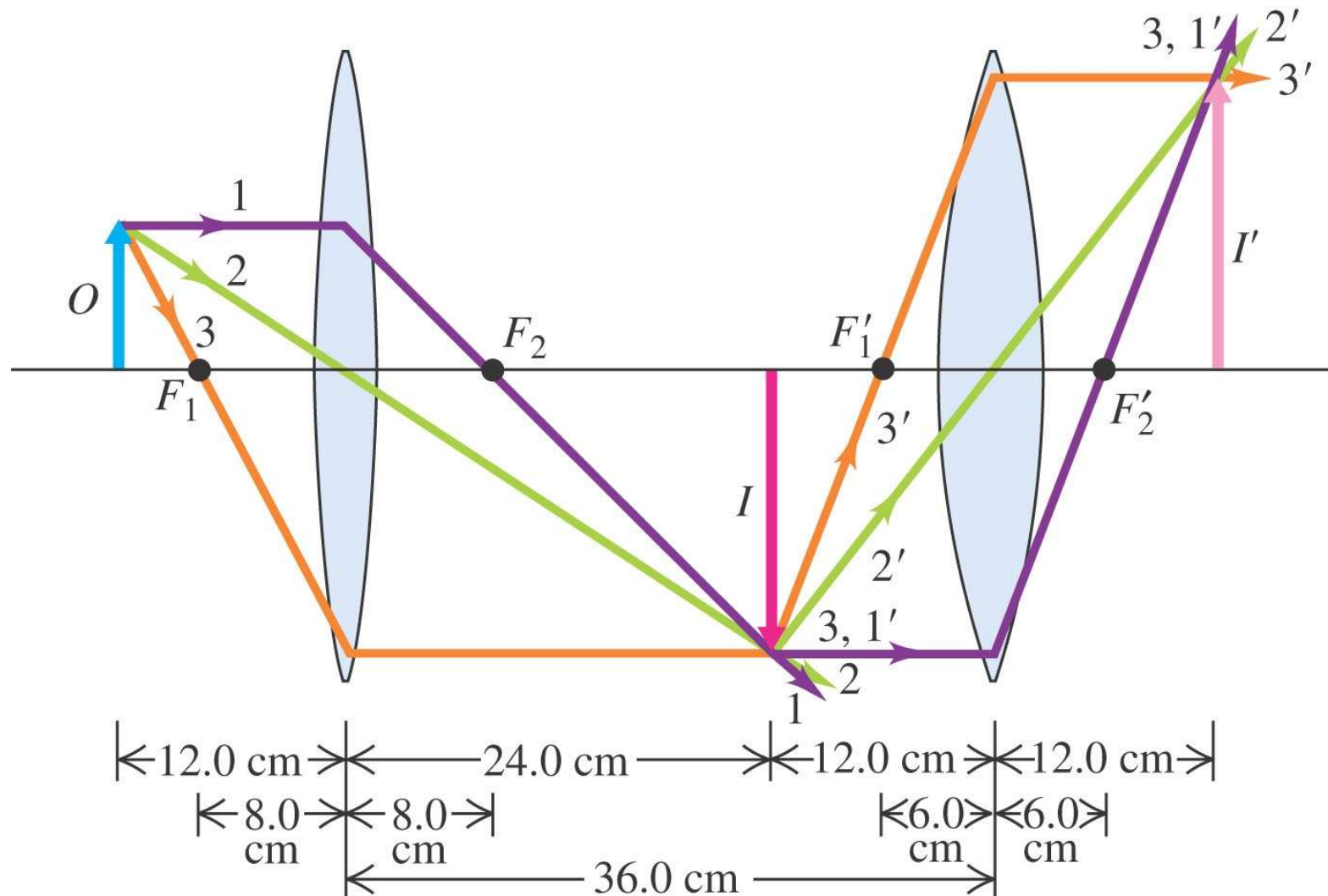


# Example: Compound Lenses



# Example: Component Lens

For the 1<sup>st</sup> Lens:  $\frac{1}{s_1} + \frac{1}{s_1'} = \frac{1}{f_1} \rightarrow \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{s_1'} = \frac{1}{8} \rightarrow \frac{1}{s_1'} = \frac{12-8}{96} = \frac{1}{24}$   
 $s_1' = 24cm$

This image from the 1<sup>st</sup> lens is on the light incoming side of lens #2, so that:

$$s_2 = 36cm - s_1' = +12cm$$

$$\frac{1}{s_2} + \frac{1}{s_2'} = \frac{1}{f_2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{s_2'} = \frac{1}{6} \rightarrow \frac{1}{s_2'} = \frac{2-1}{12} = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$s_2' = 12cm \quad (\text{final image is 12 cm on the outgoing side of lens \#2})$$

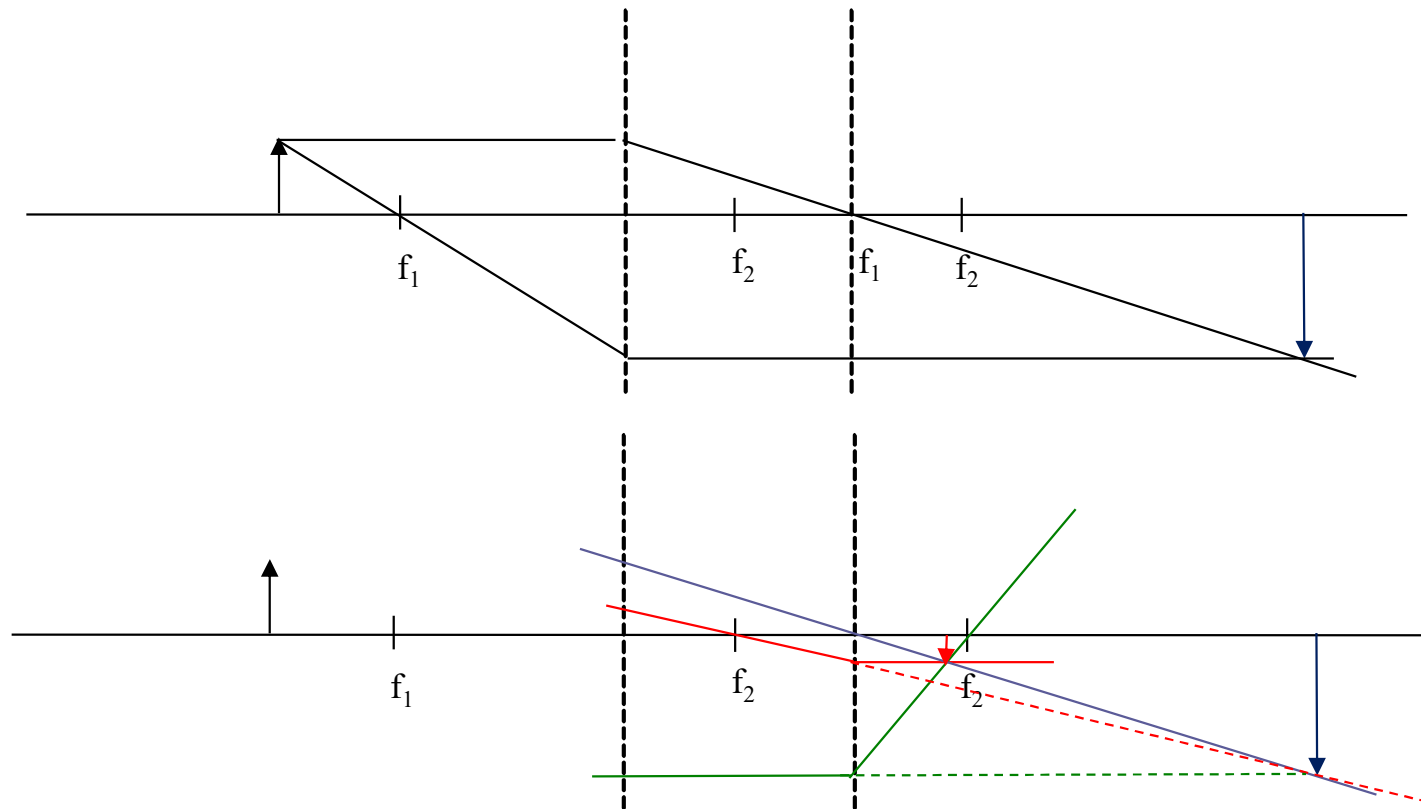
The *combined* lateral magnification is the product from both lenses,

$$m_{tot} = m_1 m_2 = \left( -\frac{s_1'}{s_1} \right) \left( -\frac{s_2'}{s_2} \right) = \frac{24cm}{12cm} \frac{12cm}{12cm} = +2 \quad (\text{upright and real})$$

# Another Example of Component Lens

Two converging lens with  $f_1 = 20\text{cm}$  and  $f_2 = 10\text{cm}$  and the lens are 20 cm apart.

Object is located 30cm to the left of lens #1, find the location of final image.



# Another Example of Component Lens

For the 1<sup>st</sup> Lens:  $\frac{1}{s_1} + \frac{1}{s_1'} = \frac{1}{f_1} \rightarrow \frac{1}{30} + \frac{1}{s_1'} = \frac{1}{20} \rightarrow \frac{1}{s_1'} = \frac{3-2}{60} = \frac{1}{60}$   
 $s_1' = 60cm$

This image from the 1<sup>st</sup> lens is on the **outgoing** side of lens #2, so that:

$$s_2 = -40cm$$
$$\frac{1}{s_2} + \frac{1}{s_2'} = \frac{1}{f_2} \rightarrow -\frac{1}{40} + \frac{1}{s_2'} = \frac{1}{10} \rightarrow \frac{1}{s_2'} = \frac{4+1}{40} = \frac{1}{8}$$

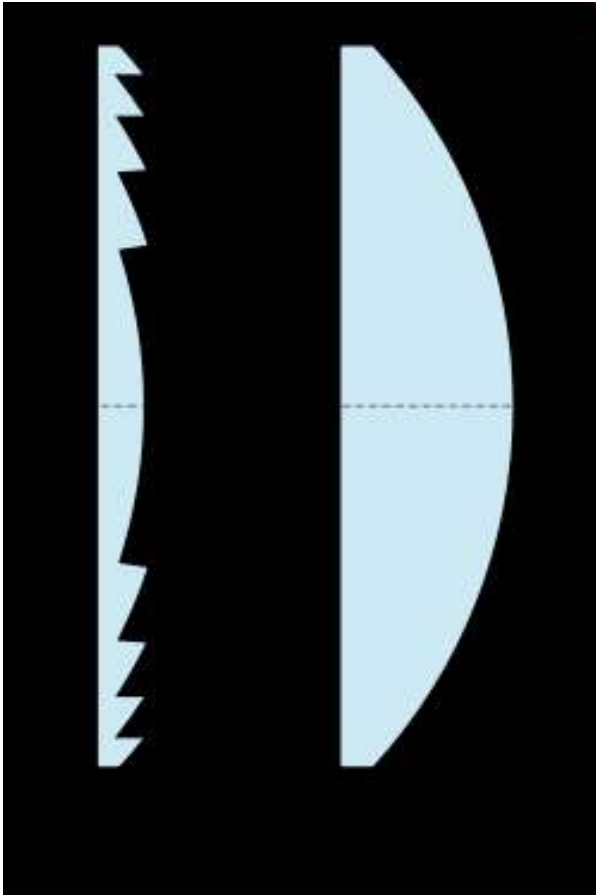
$s_2' = 8cm$  (final image is 8 cm on the outgoing side of lens #2)

The *combined* lateral magnification is the product from both lenses,

$$m_{tot} = m_1 m_2 = \left( -\frac{s_1'}{s_1} \right) \left( -\frac{s_2'}{s_2} \right) = -\frac{60cm}{30cm} \left( -\frac{8cm}{-40cm} \right) = -0.4 \quad (\text{inverted and real})$$

# Fresnel Lens

---



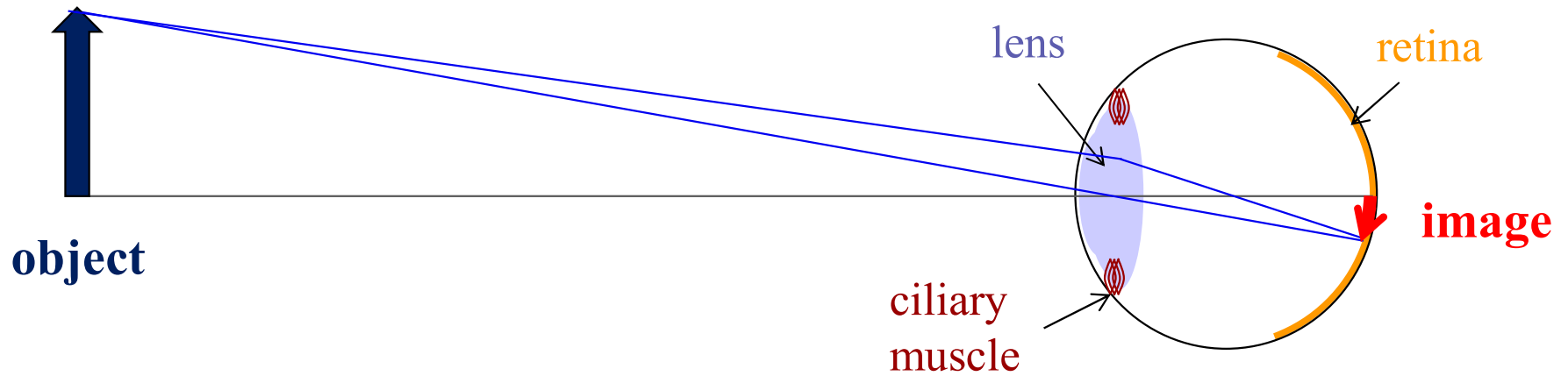
Use in headlights and lighthouse lamps to save weight.



Fresnel Lens for the lighthouse at Jones Point in Old Town Alexandria

# The Eye

---



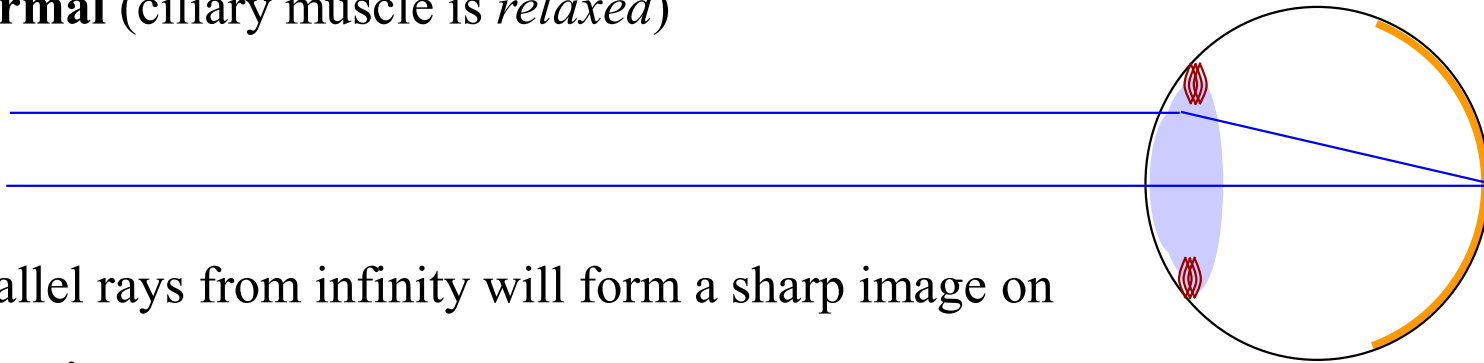
For an object to be seen clearly...

The **lens** must adjust its radius of curvature using its **ciliary muscle** to change the curvature of the **lens** so as to form the image sharply on the **retina**.

# The Eye

---

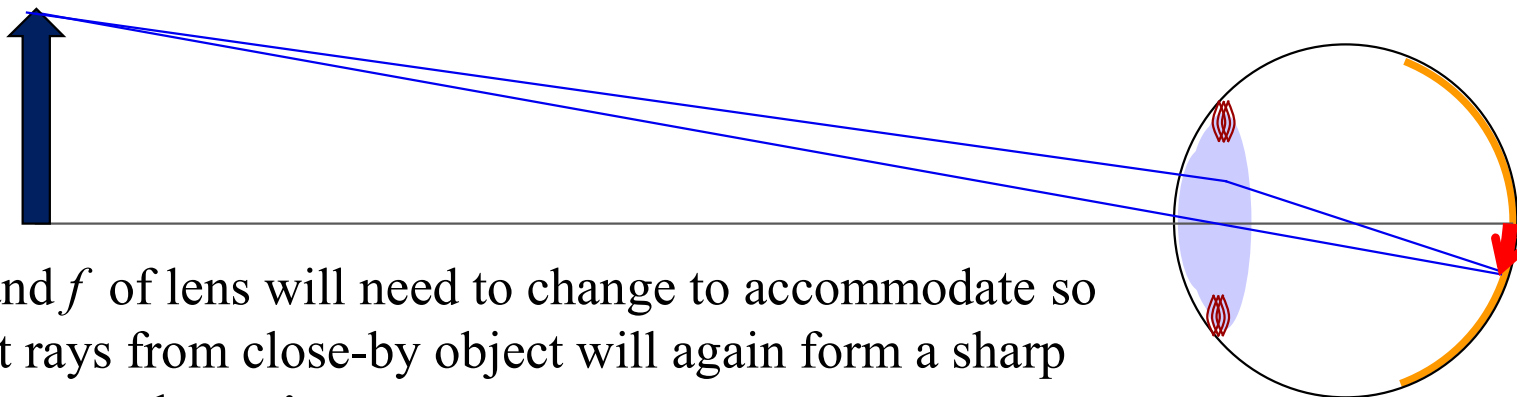
**Normal** (ciliary muscle is *relaxed*)



Parallel rays from infinity will form a sharp image on the **retina**.

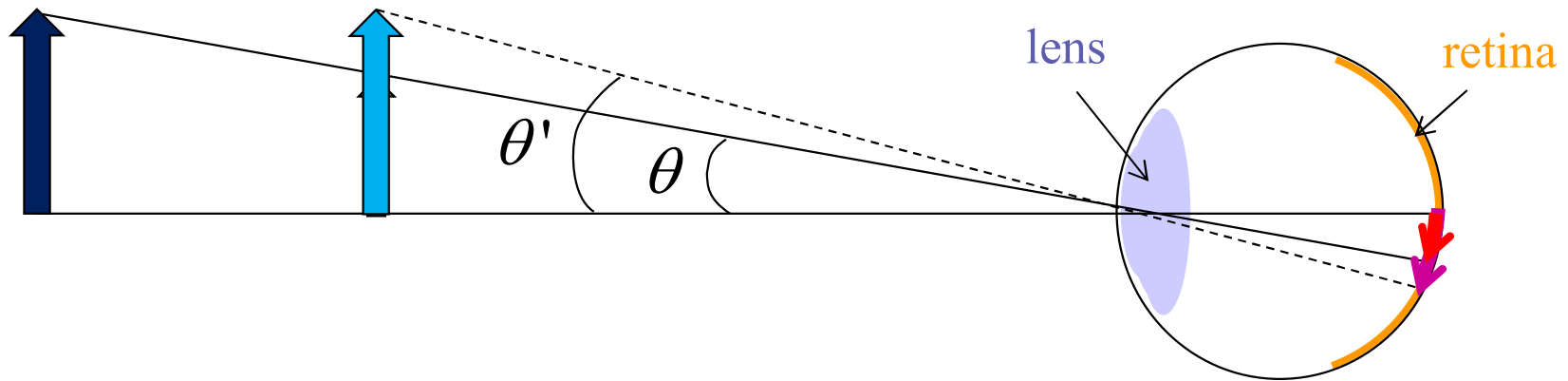
---

**Accommodation** (ciliary muscle *contracts*): rays are not coming in parallel from infinity



$R$  and  $f$  of lens will need to change to accommodate so that rays from close-by object will again form a sharp image on the **retina**.

# Angular Size of an Object



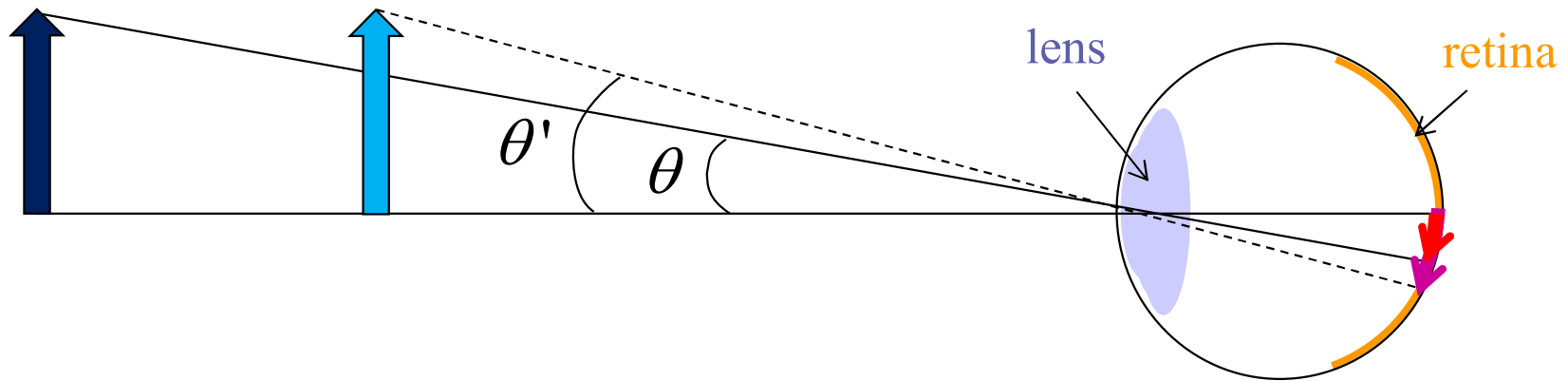
→ The *perceived* size of an object depends on its actual image size on the retina: ↓

- Both the blue (bigger) the green (smaller) arrows will be perceived to have the same angular size
- Moving the blue arrow *closer* to the eye will result in a bigger image on the retina and thus a bigger *perceived* angular size

→ The perceived **angular size** of an object is determined by the angle  $\theta$  subtended by the image on the retina



# Angular Magnification



Thus, an object can appear to be magnified if it moves closer to the eye and the **Angular Magnification**  $M$  is defined as the ratio:

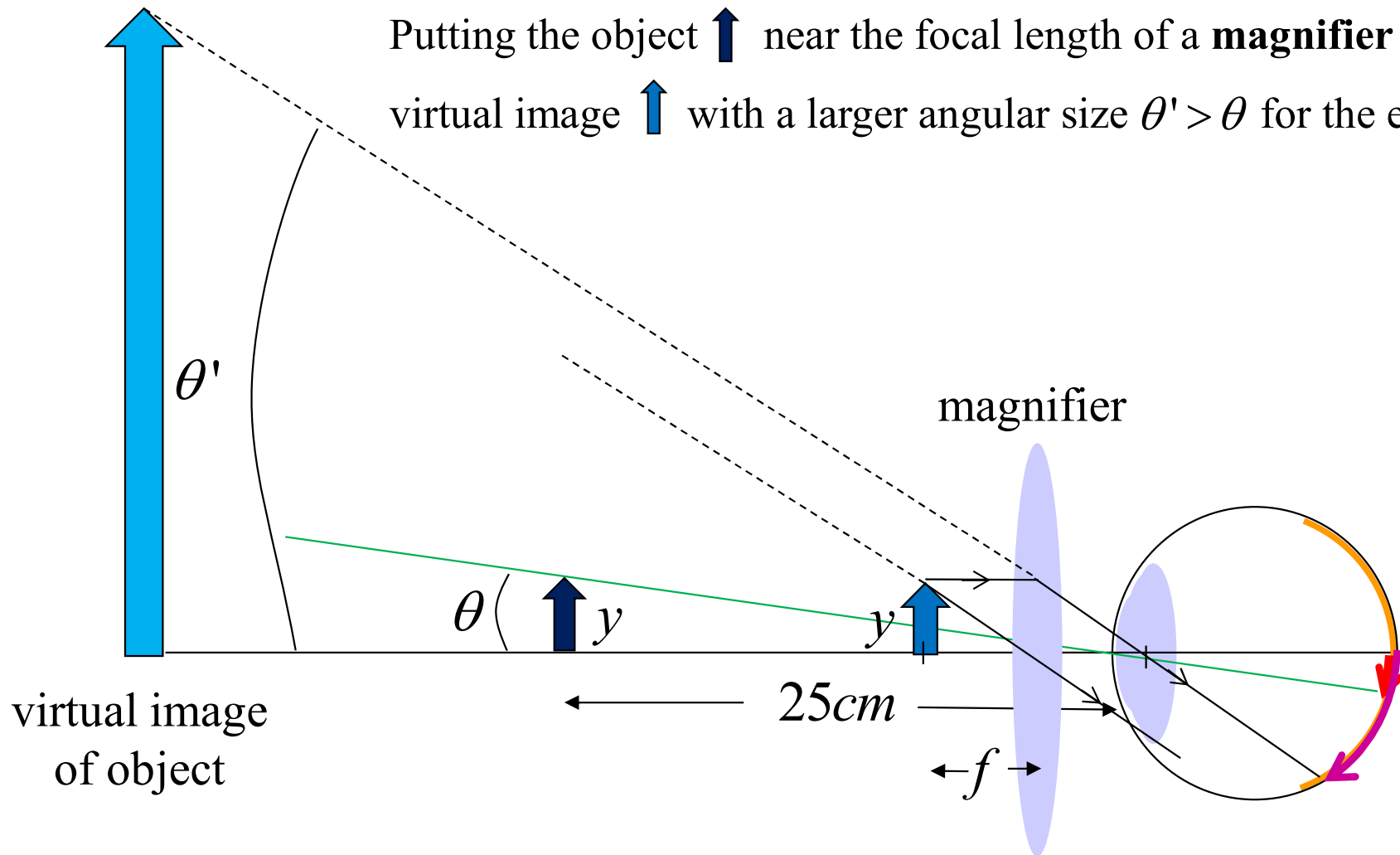
$$M = \frac{\theta'}{\theta}$$

**Note:** The *largest* angular magnification is achieved at the *closest* distance from the eye (the **near point**) where the lens can still form a sharp image at the retina.

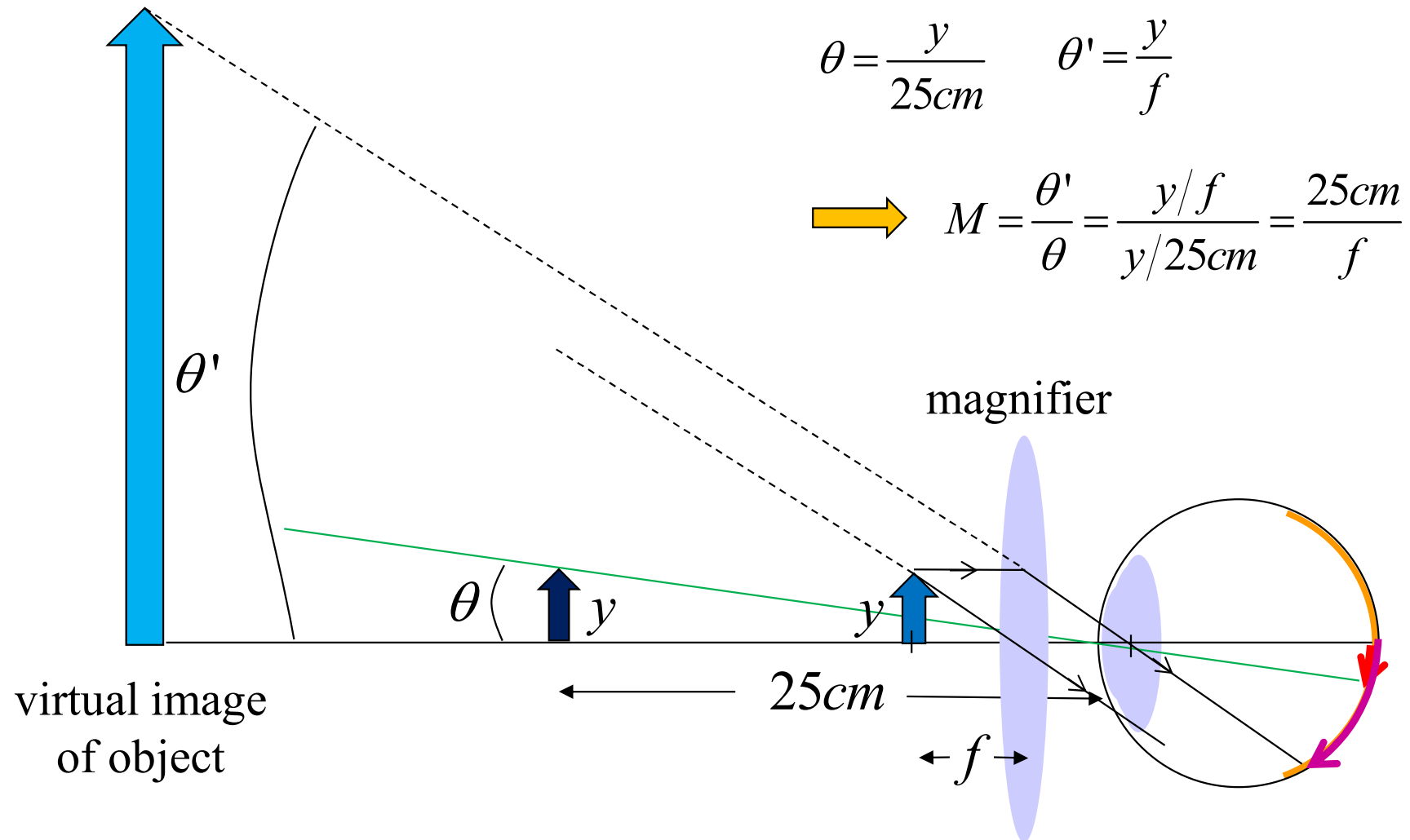
~ 25 cm  
(for healthy  
young adult)

# Magnifier

Putting the object  $\uparrow$  near the focal length of a **magnifier** forms a large virtual image  $\uparrow$  with a larger angular size  $\theta' > \theta$  for the eye.

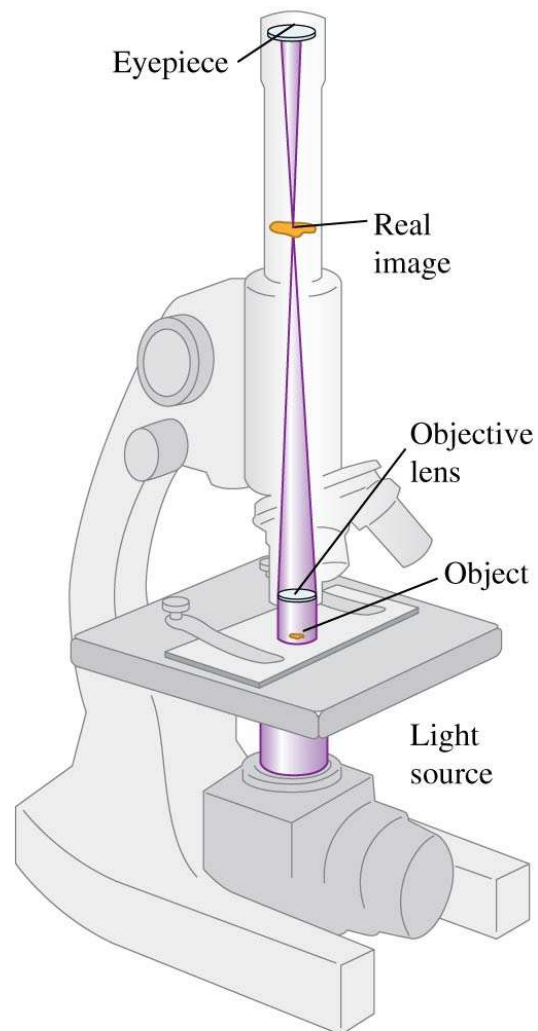


# Angular Magnification of a Magnifier

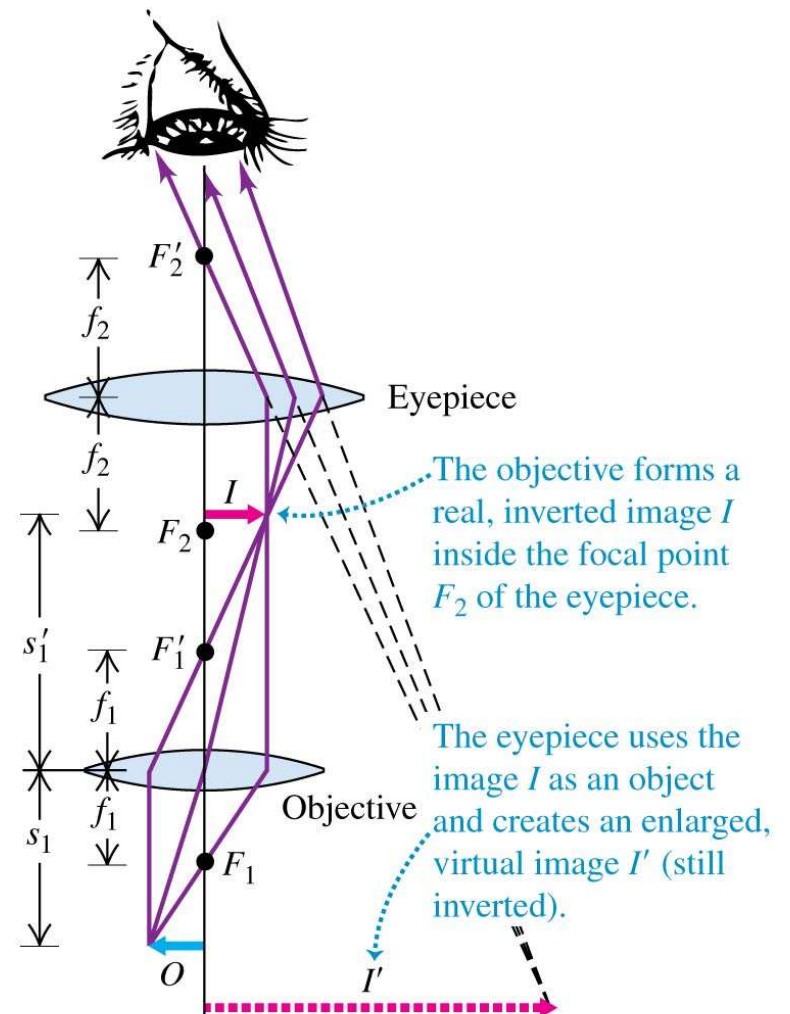


# Compound Microscope

(a) Elements of a microscope

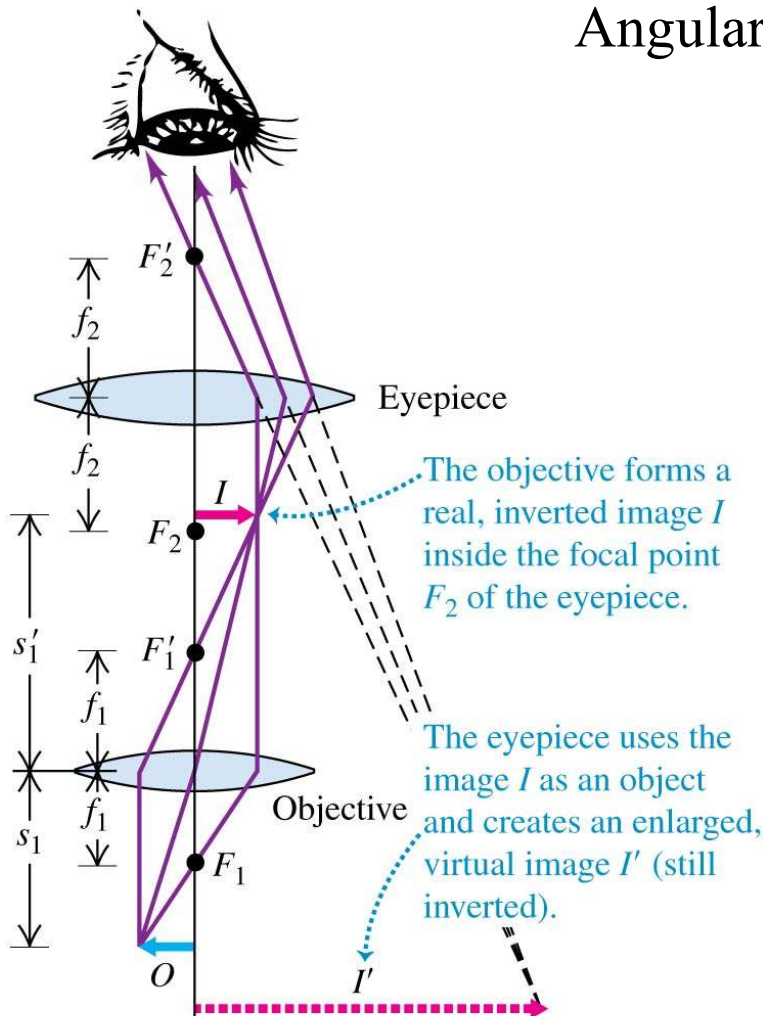


(b) Microscope optics



# Magnification of a Compound Microscope

(b) Microscope optics



Angular Magnification of a Compound Microscope:

Lateral Magnification  
from Objective

×

Angular Magnification  
from Eyepiece

$$M_{total} = m_{objective} M_{eyepiece}$$

$$m_{objective} = \frac{s_1'}{s_1} \xrightarrow{s_1 \approx f_1} = \frac{s_1'}{f_1}$$

$$M_{eyepiece} = \frac{25cm}{f_2}$$

→

$$M_{total} = \frac{(25cm) s_1'}{f_1 f_2}$$

# Fermat's Principle

## Pierre de Fermat (1601-1665)

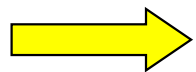
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A general mathematical principle that can be used to analyze light path:

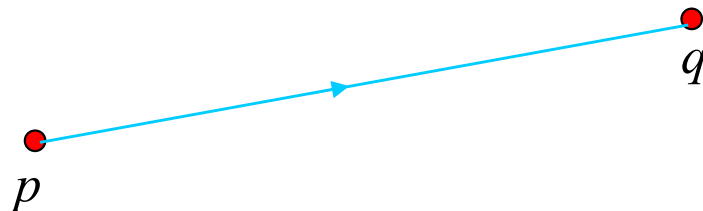
“When a light ray travels between two points, its path is the one that requires the *least* time.”

**Application #1:** uniform material [ $n$  (or  $v$ ) is the same everywhere!]

$t = \frac{d}{v} \rightarrow$  Between any two points, the least time requires the *shortest* distance in an uniform medium.



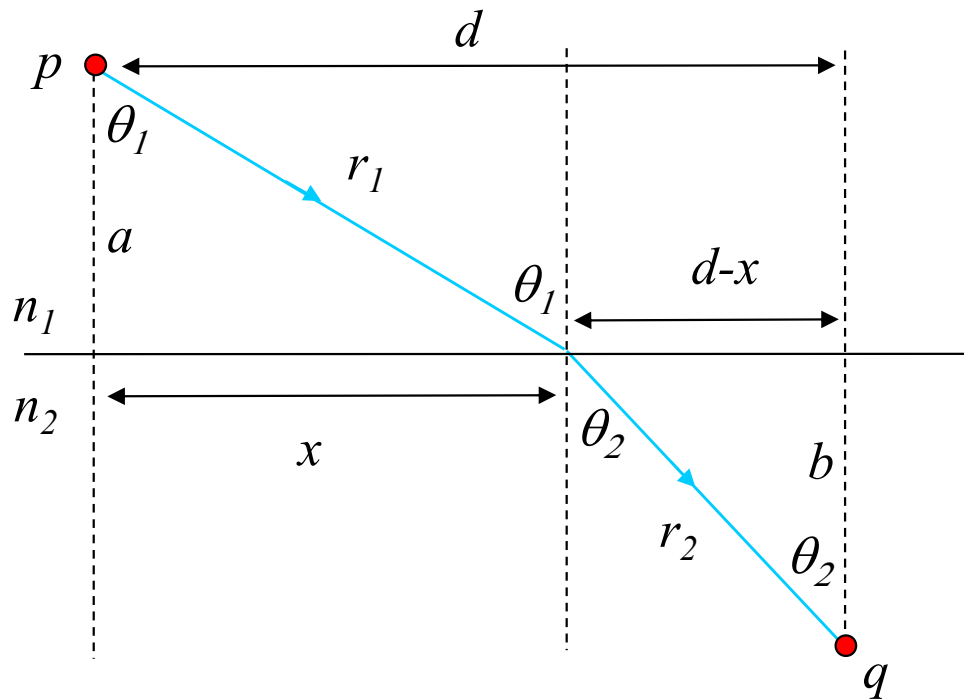
Light will travel in a straight line in an uniform medium.



# Fermat's Principle

Pierre de Fermat (1601-1665)

## Application #2: Snell's Law



Within  $n_1$  and  $n_2$ , light travels in straight lines and total time of travel from  $p$  to  $q$  is,

$$t = \frac{r_1}{v_1} + \frac{r_2}{v_2}$$
$$= \frac{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}{c/n_1} + \frac{\sqrt{b^2 + (d-x)^2}}{c/n_2}$$

Note: With two different speeds, the fastest way to get from  $p$  to  $q$  is *not* necessary a straight line !

# Fermat's Principle (Application to Snell's Law)

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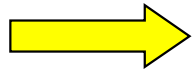
$$t(x) = \frac{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}{c/n_1} + \frac{\sqrt{b^2 + (d-x)^2}}{c/n_2}$$

Find the value of  $x$  (the crossing point) such that the total travel time is minimized.

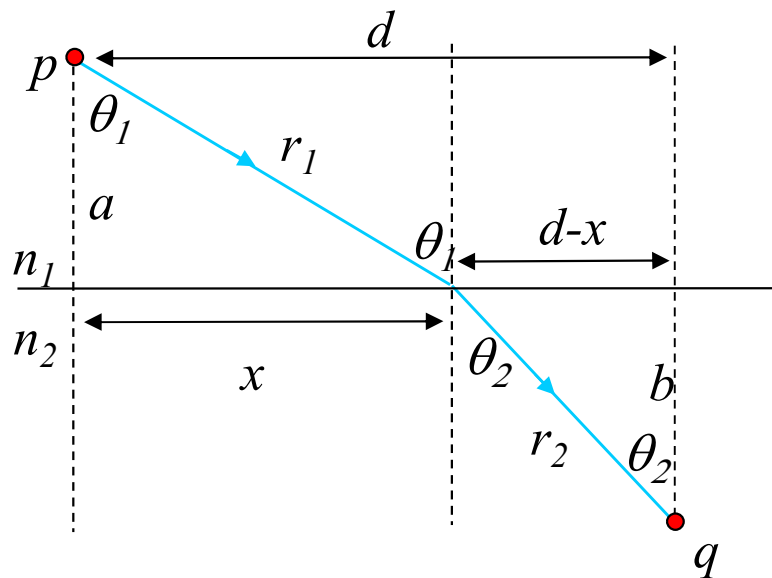
$$\frac{dt}{dx} = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{n_1}{c} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{2x}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} + \frac{n_2}{c} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{2(d-x)(-1)}{\sqrt{b^2 + (d-x)^2}} = 0$$



# Fermat's Principle (Application to Snell's Law)



$$\frac{n_1 x}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} - \frac{n_2 (d - x)}{\sqrt{b^2 + (d - x)^2}} = 0$$

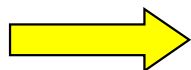


$$r_1^2 = a^2 + x^2$$

$$r_2^2 = b^2 + (d - x)^2$$

$$\sin \theta_1 = x/r_1$$

$$\sin \theta_2 = (d - x)/r_2$$



$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 - n_2 \sin \theta_2 = 0$$

$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2 \quad (\text{Snell's Law})$$

# Physics 262

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George Mason University

Prof. Paul So

# Chapter 35: Interference

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- ❑ Interference and Coherent Sources
- ❑ Two-Source Interference of Light
- ❑ Intensity of Interference Patterns
- ❑ Interference in Thin Films
- ❑ The Michelson Interferometer

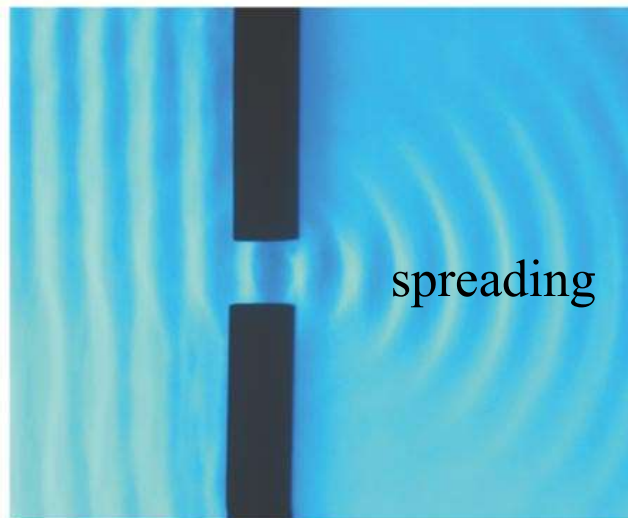


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# Wave Nature of Light

- Previous Chapters (Geometric Optics)  $\lambda \ll L$ 
  - Rays Model is an approximation of EM waves with rays pointing in the direction of propagation
- Next Couple of Chapters (Wave/Physical Optics)  $\lambda \sim L$ 
  - Like water waves, light *spreads* and *interferes* with each other.
  - Observed phenomena *cannot* be accounted for by rays:

## Diffraction



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## Interference

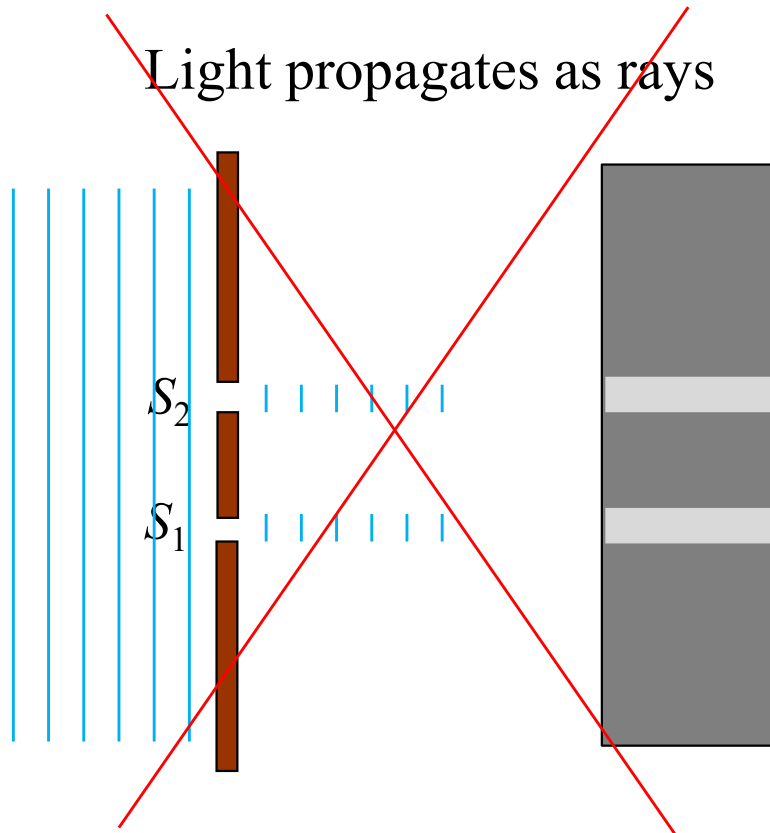


constructive/  
destructive  
interference  
patterns

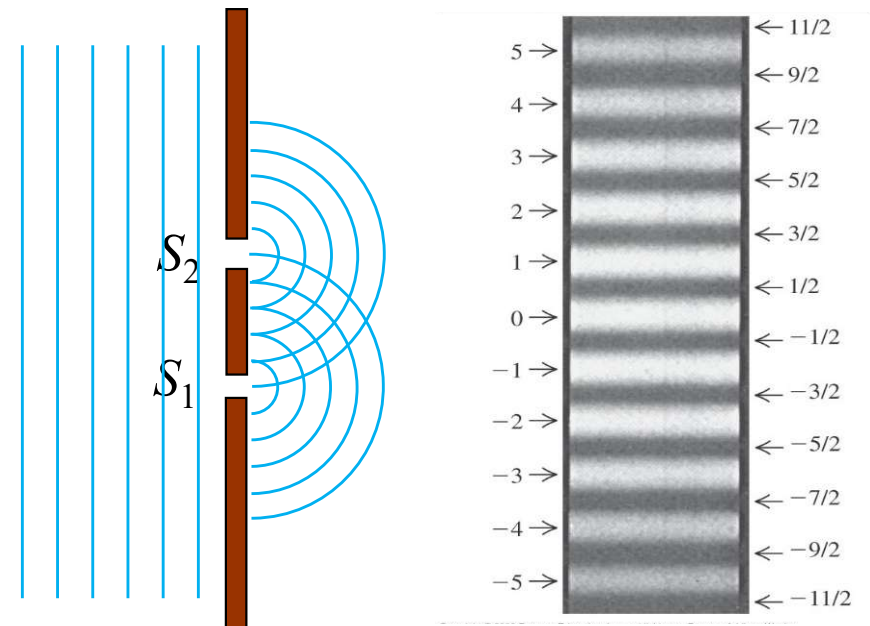
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# Wave Nature of Light: Diffraction & Interference

Light propagates as rays

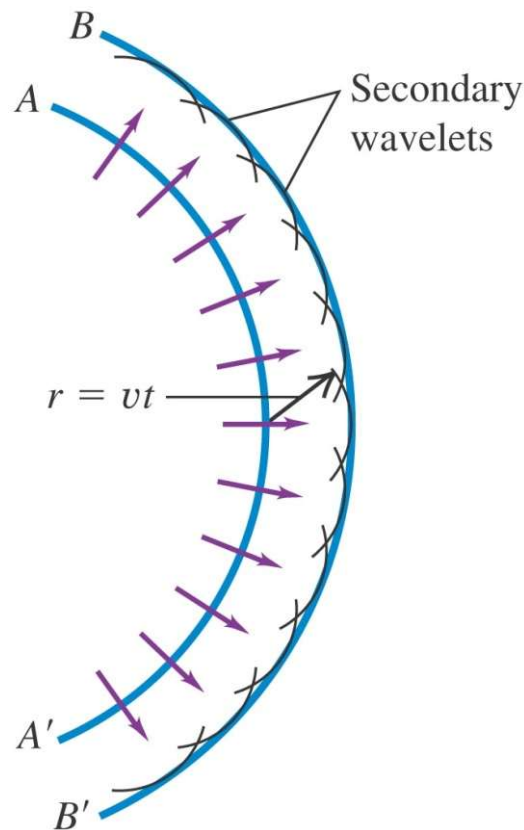


Light propagates as waves



# Huygens' Principle

Christiaan Huygens (1629-195): The Huygens' Principle can be used to predict the spreading of light wave. It is a geometrical construction using every point on a wave front as the source of secondary wavelets that spread out in all directions with a speed equal to the speed of propagation of the wave.





# Interference and Superposition

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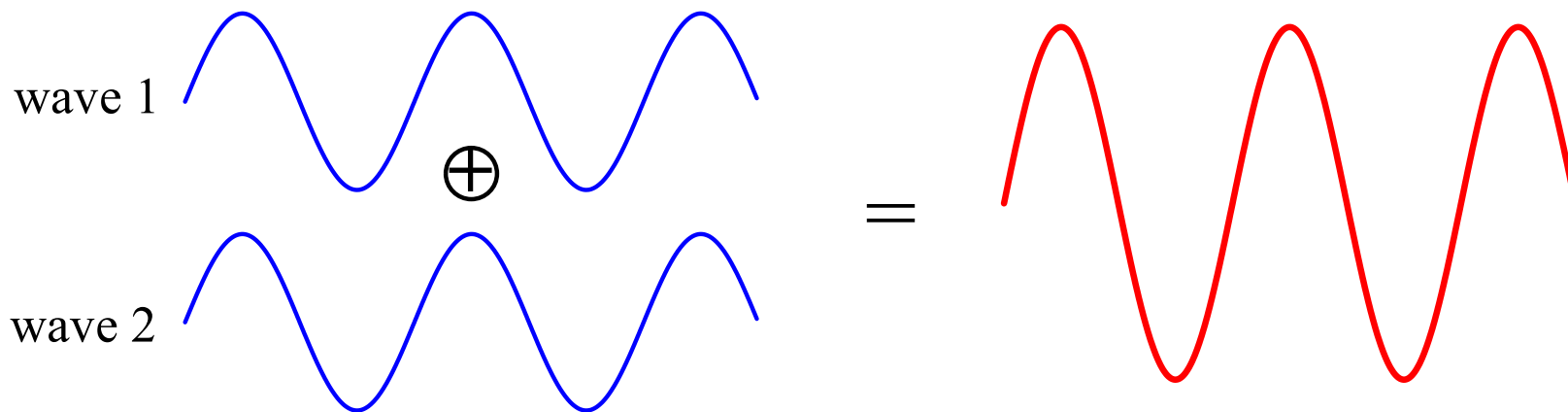
□ **Interference** refers to a situation in which two or more waves overlap in space.

→ The resultant displacement at any point is governed by the **principle of superposition**.

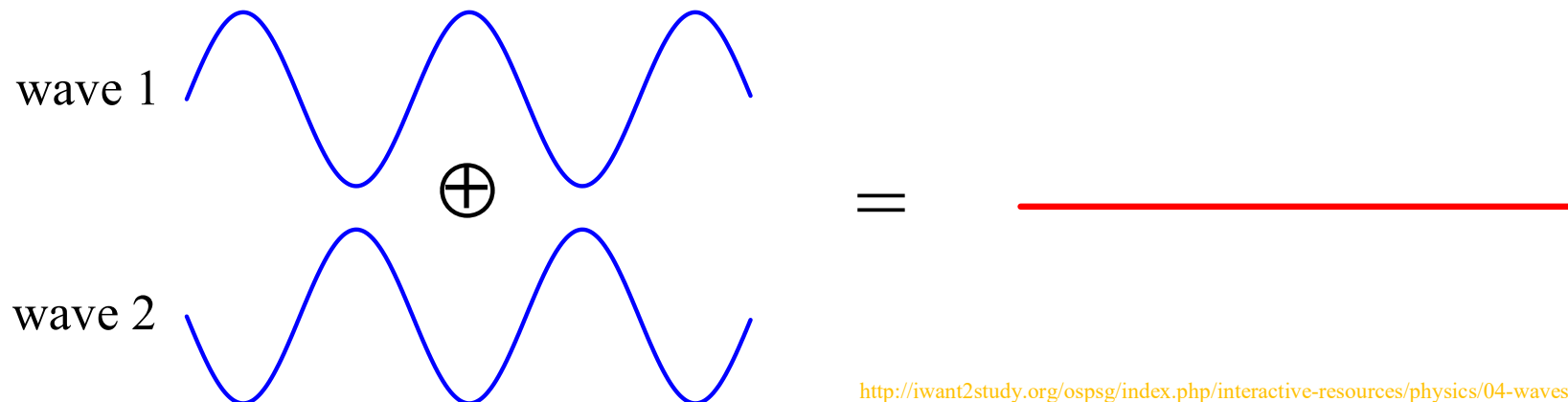
“the *resultant* disturbance at any point and at any instant is found by *adding* the instantaneous disturbance that would be produced at the point by the *individual* waves as if each waves was present *alone*.”

# Superposition and Interference

Constructive Interference (+ peaks aligns w/ + peaks)



Destructive Interference (+ peaks aligns w/ - peaks:  $\lambda/2$  apart)





# Conditions for Observable Sustained Interference

---

1. The sources have to be **coherent**

Coherent means that...

- The individual waves must maintain a *constant phase relationship* (oscillate in unison) with each other.
  - e.g. two speakers driven by the same amplifier
  - two regular light bulbs *don't* interfere since they are not coherent. (Emission from a light bulb is from a *thermal* process of *random* motions of charged particles in the filament.)

# Conditions for Observable Sustained Interference

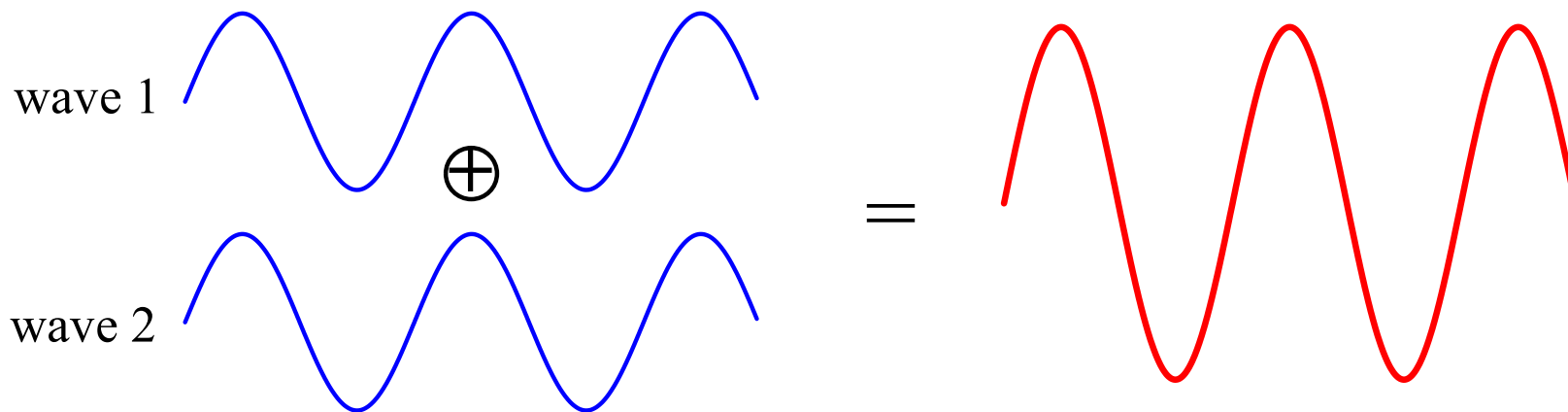
---

2. The waves need to have the same polarization.
  3. Two or more interfering waves must have the same wavelength (monochromatic)
- You can have white light interference pattern (if the source is coherent) but the effect will appear for different colors corresponding to the diff. interference patterns for diff.  $\lambda$  in the white light.

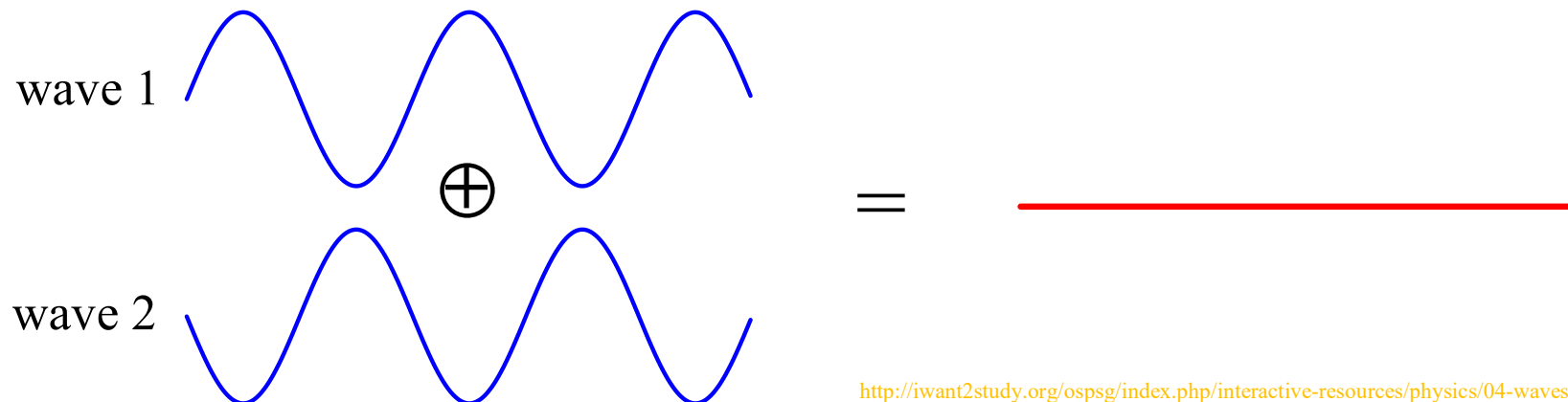


# Superposition and Interference

Constructive Interference (+ peaks aligns w/ + peaks)

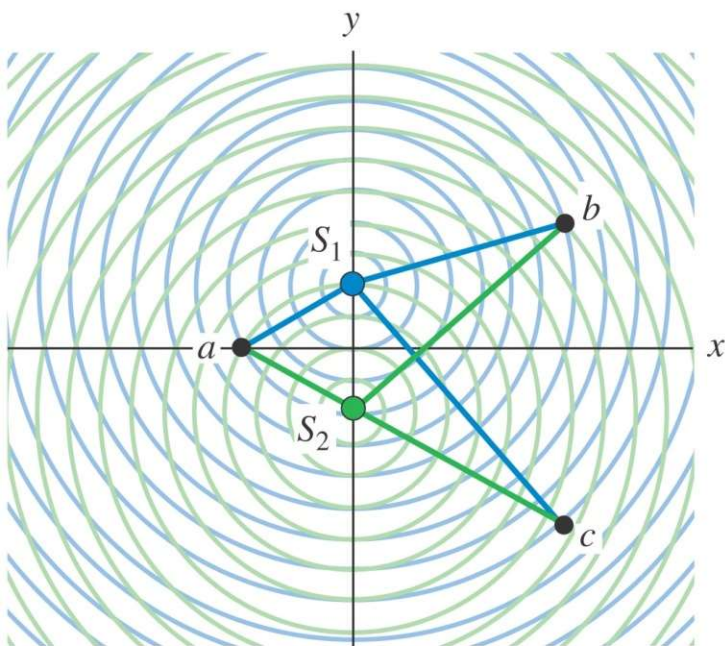


Destructive Interference (+ peaks aligns w/ - peaks:  $\lambda/2$  apart)



# Interference and Path Difference

D<sub>two sheets</sub>



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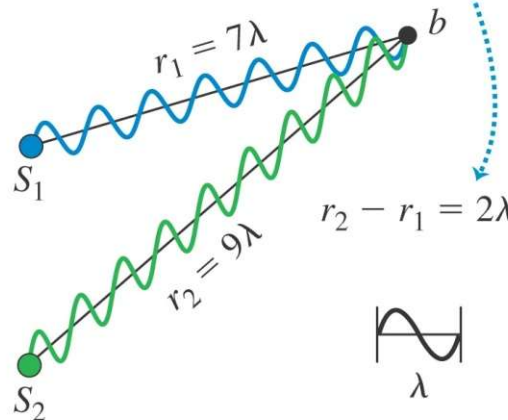
$r_1$  : distance to  $S_1$

$r_2$  : distance to  $S_2$

$r_2 - r_1 =$  **path difference**

(a) Point  $a$  is symmetric with respect to the two coherent sources. Waves will arrive in phase *constructively*:  $r_2 - r_1 = 0$ .

(b) Conditions for constructive interference: Waves interfere constructively if their path lengths differ by an integral number of wavelengths:  $r_2 - r_1 = m\lambda$ .



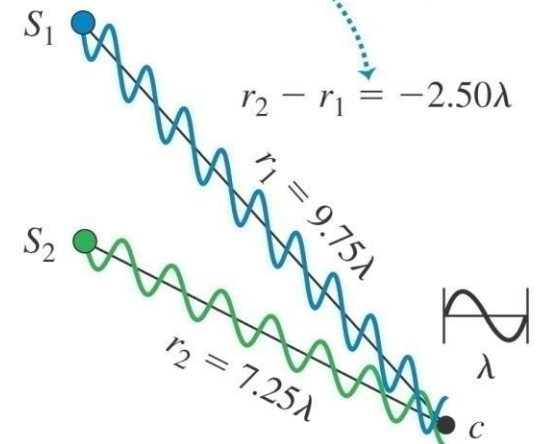
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**Constructive Inter.**

$$r_2 - r_1 = m\lambda$$

$$(m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots)$$

(c) Conditions for destructive interference: Waves interfere destructively if their path lengths differ by a half-integral number of wavelengths:  $r_2 - r_1 = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda$ .

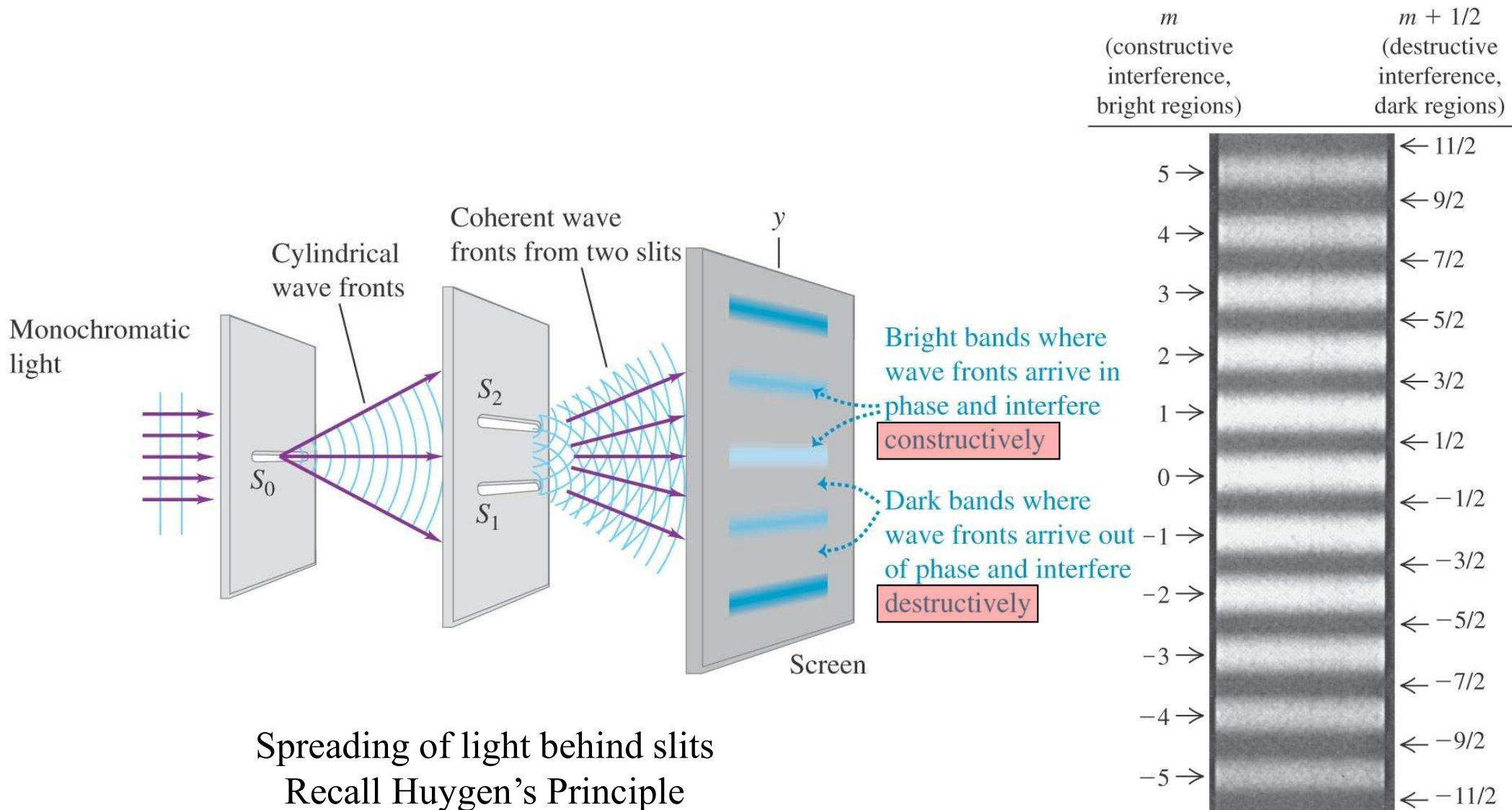


**Destructive Inter.**

$$r_2 - r_1 = \left(m + \frac{1}{2}\right)\lambda$$

$$(m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots)$$

# Young's Double Slit Experiment





# Double Slit Interference Demo

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<https://youtu.be/J-v7F4LWDvU>

# Young's Double Slit Experiment

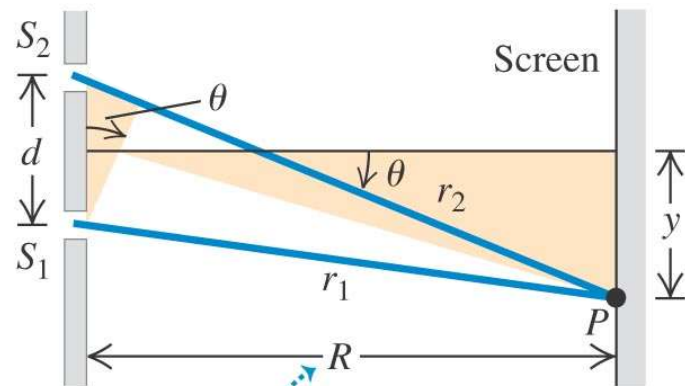
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# Young's Double Slit Experiment

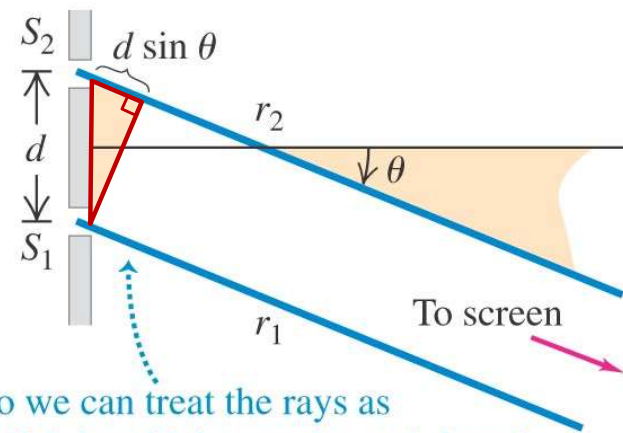
(b) Actual geometry (seen from the side)



In real situations, the distance  $R$  to the screen is usually very much greater than the distance  $d$  between the slits ...

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(c) Approximate geometry



... so we can treat the rays as parallel, in which case the path-length difference is simply  $r_2 - r_1 = d \sin \theta$ .

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If screen is far away so that  $R \gg d$ , we can assume rays from  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  to be approximately parallel and the red triangle becomes a right-triangle.

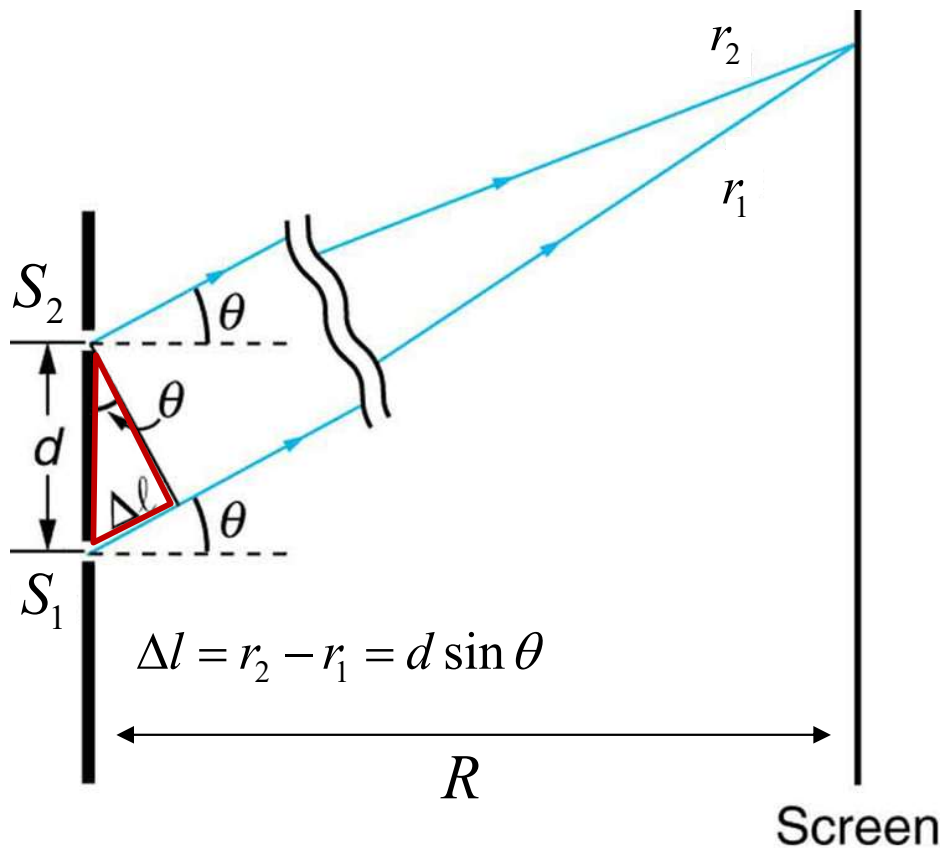
Then, from the simplified geometry (right panel), we have an explicit expression for the **path difference**:

$$r_2 - r_1 = d \sin \theta$$

( $\theta$  is the angular location of observation point  $P$  on the screen.)



# Young's Double Slit Experiment



If screen is far away so that  $R \gg d$ , we can assume rays from  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  to be approximately parallel and the small red triangle becomes a right-triangle.

Then, from the simplified geometry (right panel), we have an explicit expression for the **path difference**:

$$r_2 - r_1 = d \sin \theta$$

( $\theta$  is the angular location of observation point  $P$  on the screen.)

# Constructive/Destructive Two-Slit Interference

Applying the conditions for constructive/destructive interference, we have the following conditions:

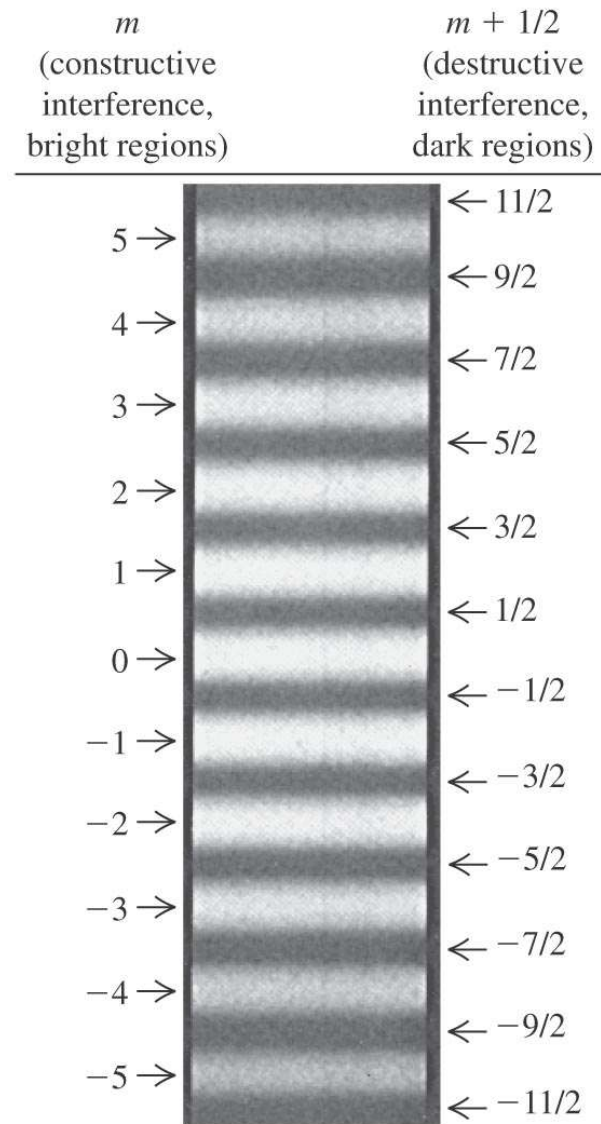
## Constructive Interference: Two Slit Interference

$$d \sin \theta = m\lambda \quad (m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots)$$

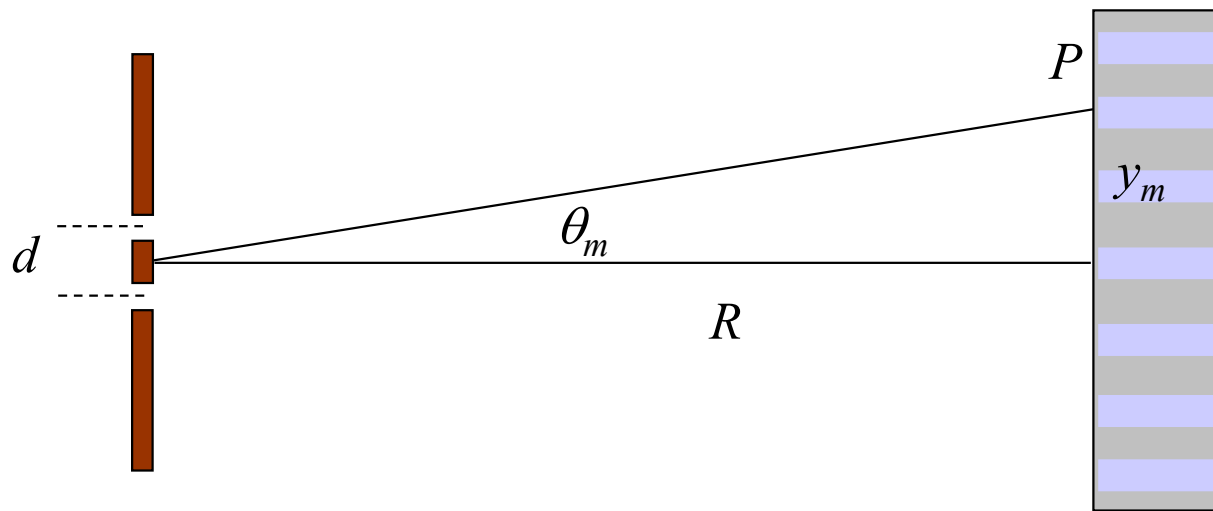
## Destructive Interference: Two Slit Interference

$$d \sin \theta = \left(m + \frac{1}{2}\right)\lambda \quad (m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots)$$

- The bright/dark bands in the pattern are called fringes
- $m$  is the *order* of the fringes



# Locating Fringes



In normal situations,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} R \sim 1m \\ d \leq \text{tenths of mm} \\ \lambda \leq \text{tenths of } \mu\text{m} \\ \quad (400\text{-}700 \text{ nm}) \end{array} \right.$$

So, typically, we have the condition that  $d \ll R$  so that  $\theta$  is *small*.

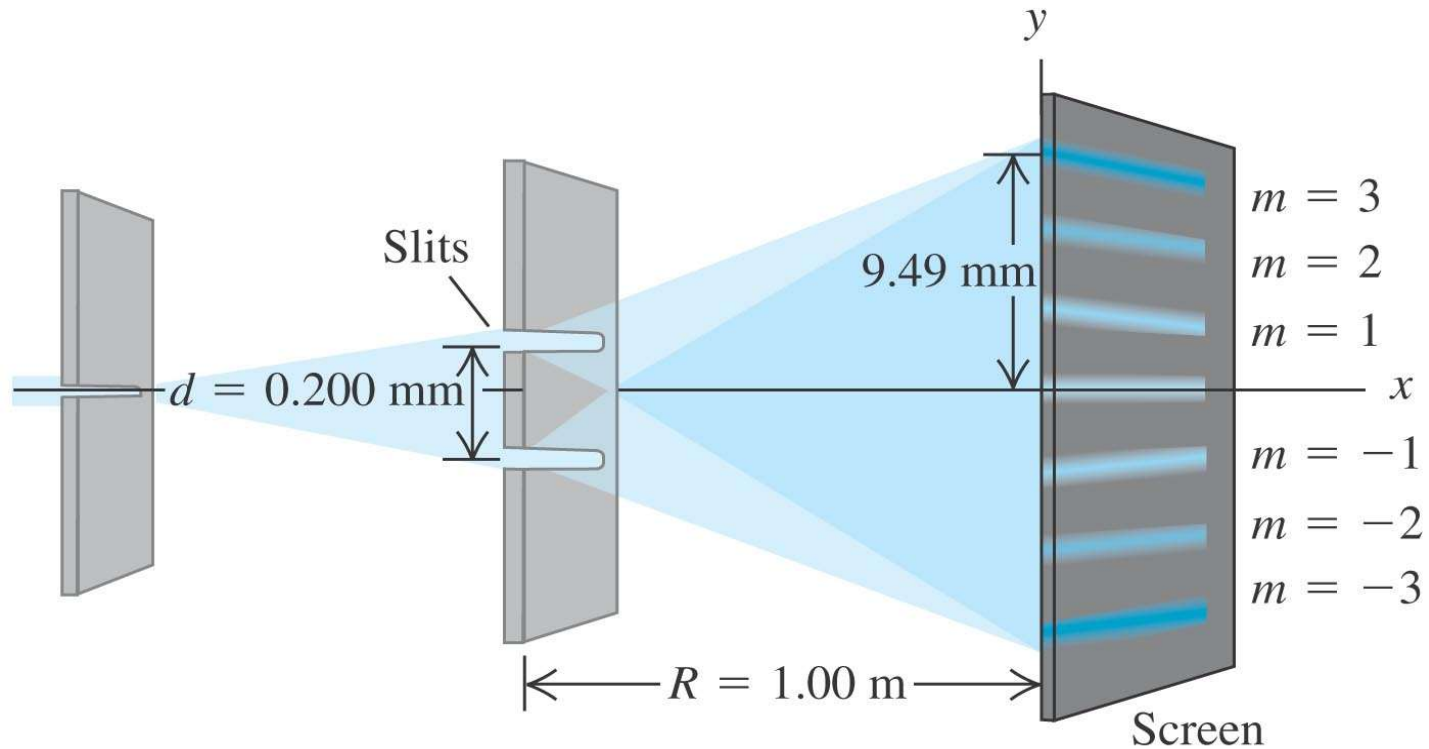
Thus, we can approximate  $\sin \theta \cong \tan \theta \cong \theta$  ( $\theta$  needs to be in radian !)

The linear distance to a particular ordered fringe ( $y_m$ ) is given by:  $y_m = R \tan \theta_m$

With the small angles approximation, we have:

$$y_m = R \tan \theta_m \cong R \sin \theta_m = R \frac{m\lambda}{d}$$

# Example 35.1



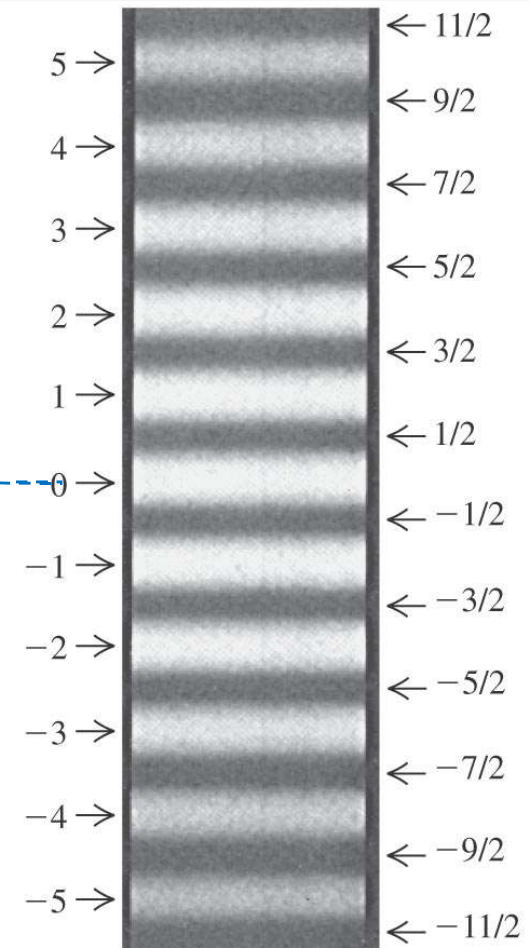
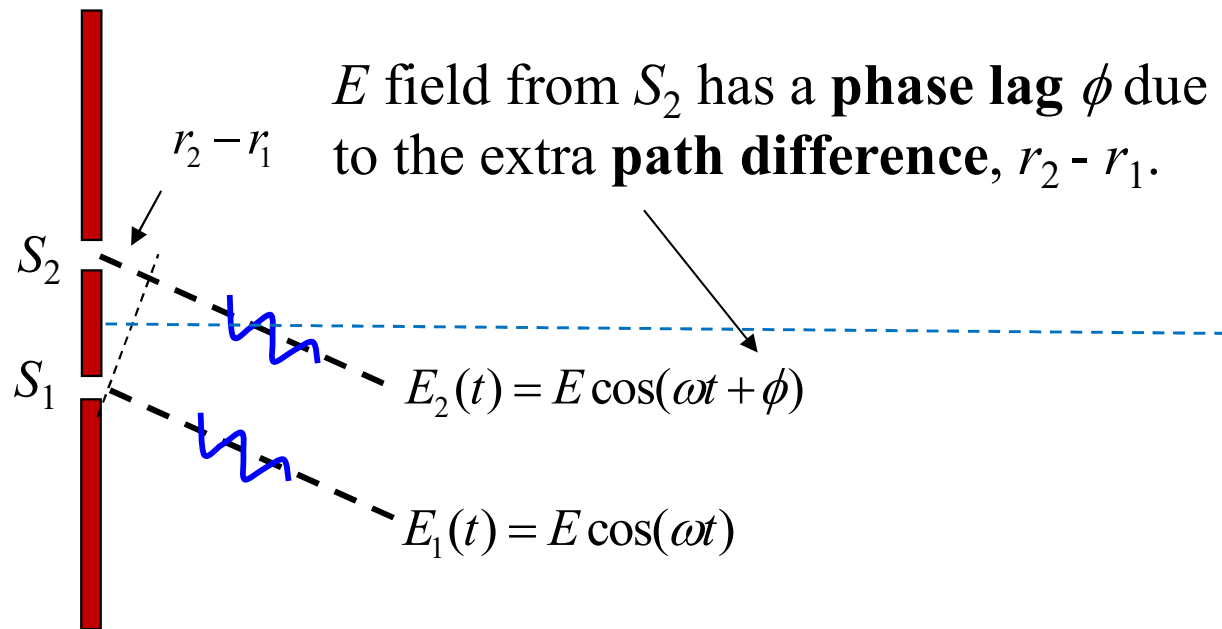
Determine the wavelength of the light from location of  $y_3$ .

$$y_3 = R \frac{3\lambda}{d} \rightarrow \lambda = d \frac{y_3}{3R} = (0.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}) \frac{9.49 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}}{3(1.00 \text{ m})} = 6.33 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} = 633 \text{ nm}$$

# Intensity of Interference Patterns

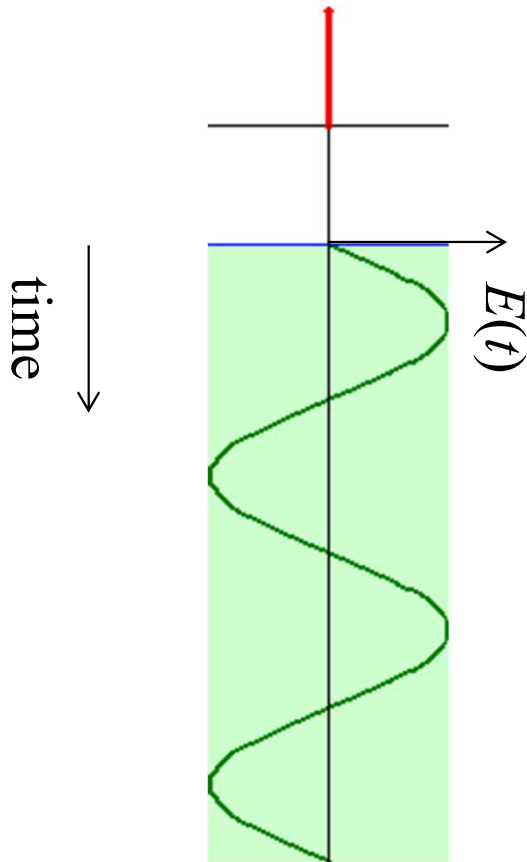
Wish to find  $I(\theta)$  on a screen far away ...

Let consider the  $E$  fields coming from the double slits:



# Phasor in Action

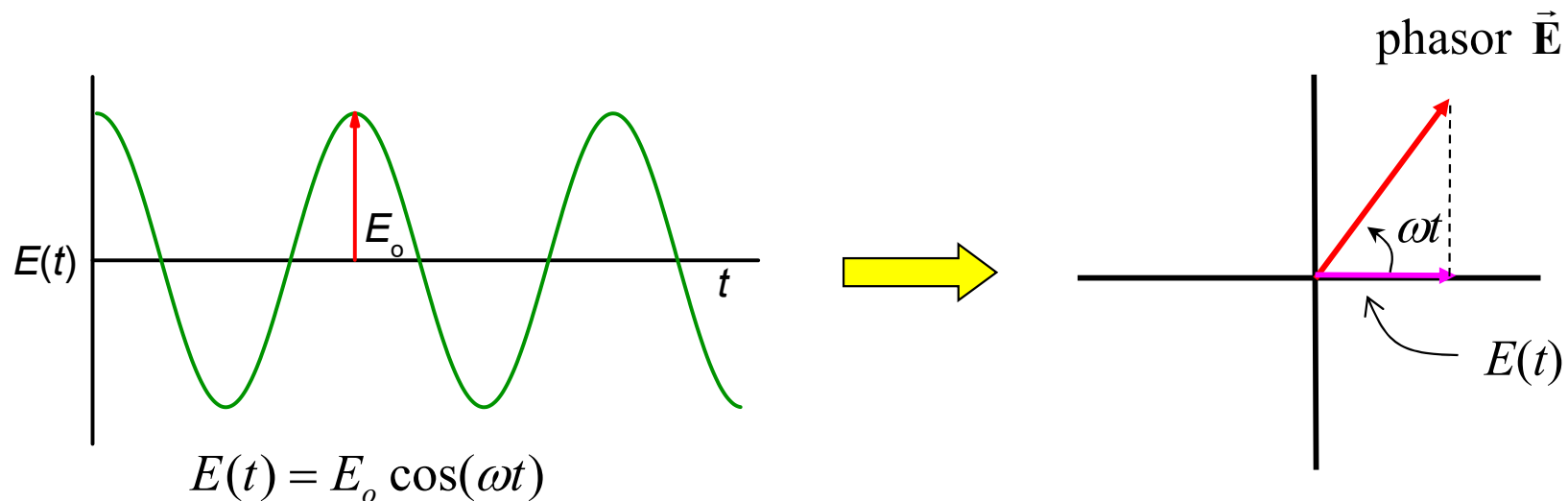
$$E(t) = E_o \cos(\omega t)$$



- $E$  field as a vector (**phasor**) rotating in the x-y plane with an angular frequency  $\omega$ .
- The time variation of this  $E$  field,  $E(t)$  is given as the horizontal projection (**light red**) of the phasor (**dark red**).

# Intensity of Interference Patterns

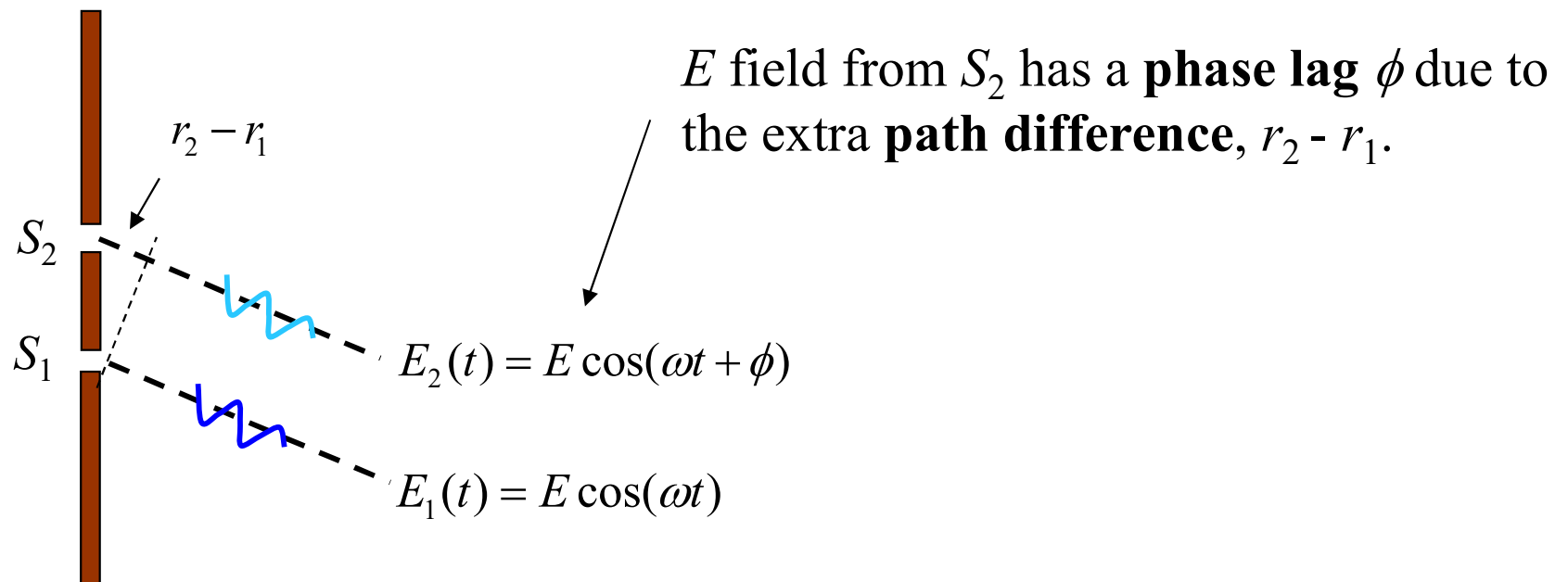
## Phasor Representation of an $E$ Field:



- $E$  field as a vector (**phasor**)  $\vec{E}$  rotating in the x-y plane with an angular frequency  $\omega$ .
- The time variation of this  $E$  field,  $E(t)$  is given as the horizontal projection (**light red**) of the phasor  $\vec{E}$  (**dark red**).

# Intensity of Interference Patterns

Recall that there are two coherent  $E$  fields with a slight *phase difference* coming from the double slits:



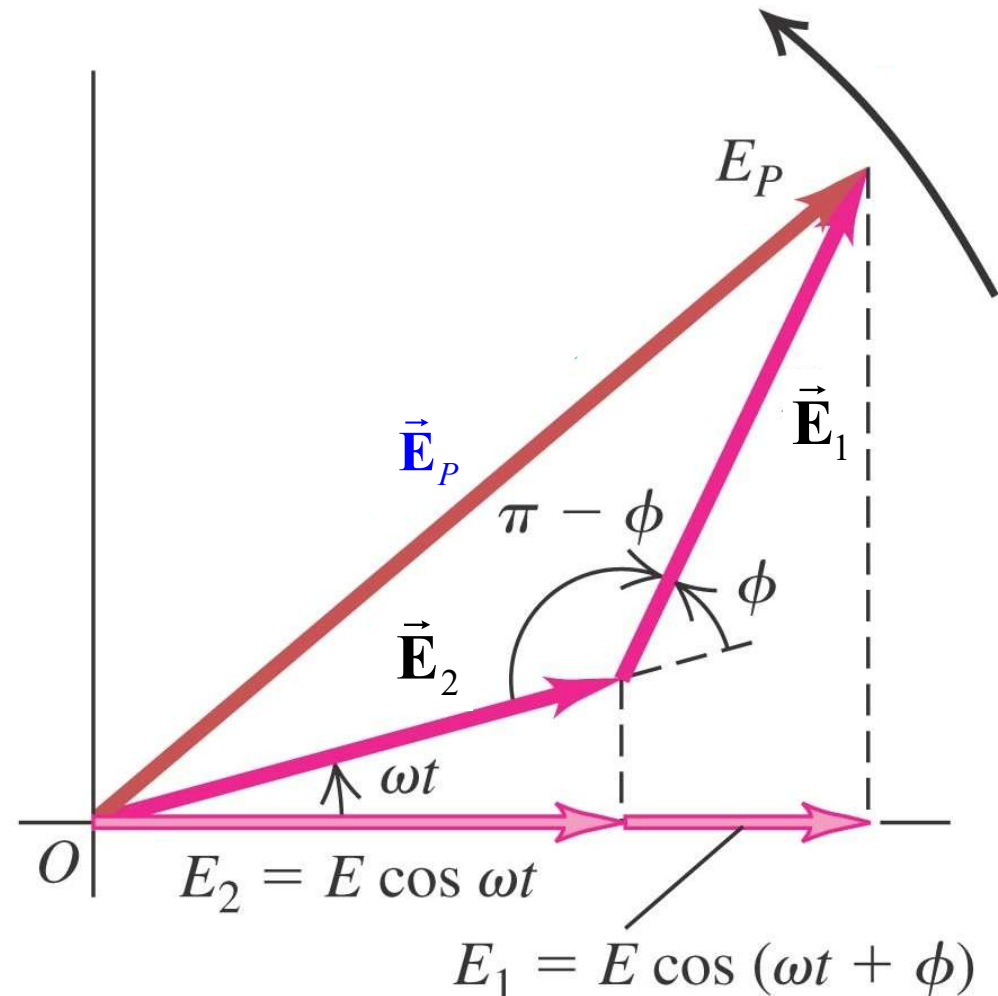


# Intensity of Interference Patterns

At a given point on the screen far away from the two slits, the total  $E$ -field at  $P$ ,  $E_P$ , is given by the vector-sum of the two phasors  $\vec{E}_1$  and  $\vec{E}_2$ .

To find the magnitude of the resultant phasor  $\vec{E}_P$ ,  $E_P$ , we use the law of cosines.

$$E_P^2 = E^2 + E^2 - 2E^2 \cos(\pi - \phi)$$



# Intensity of Interference Patterns

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Using the symmetry of the cosine function,  $\cos(\pi - \phi) = -\cos \phi$

we have,  $E_p^2 = E^2 + E^2 - 2E^2 \cos(\pi - \phi)$

$$E_p^2 = 2E^2 + 2E^2 \cos \phi$$

$$E_p^2 = 2E^2 (1 + \cos \phi)$$

Using another trig identity,  $1 + \cos \phi = 2 \cos^2 (\phi/2)$

we have,  $E_p^2 = 4E^2 \cos^2 \left( \frac{\phi}{2} \right)$ . This gives,  $E_p = 2E \left| \cos \left( \frac{\phi}{2} \right) \right|$ .

# Intensity of Interference Patterns

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The intensity of an electromagnetic wave is given by the time average magnitude of the Poynting vector,  $S_{av}$ .

In general, the Poynting vector is proportional to the *square* of the magnitude of the electric field so for the intensity at  $P$  (eq 32.29),

We can write the expression as,

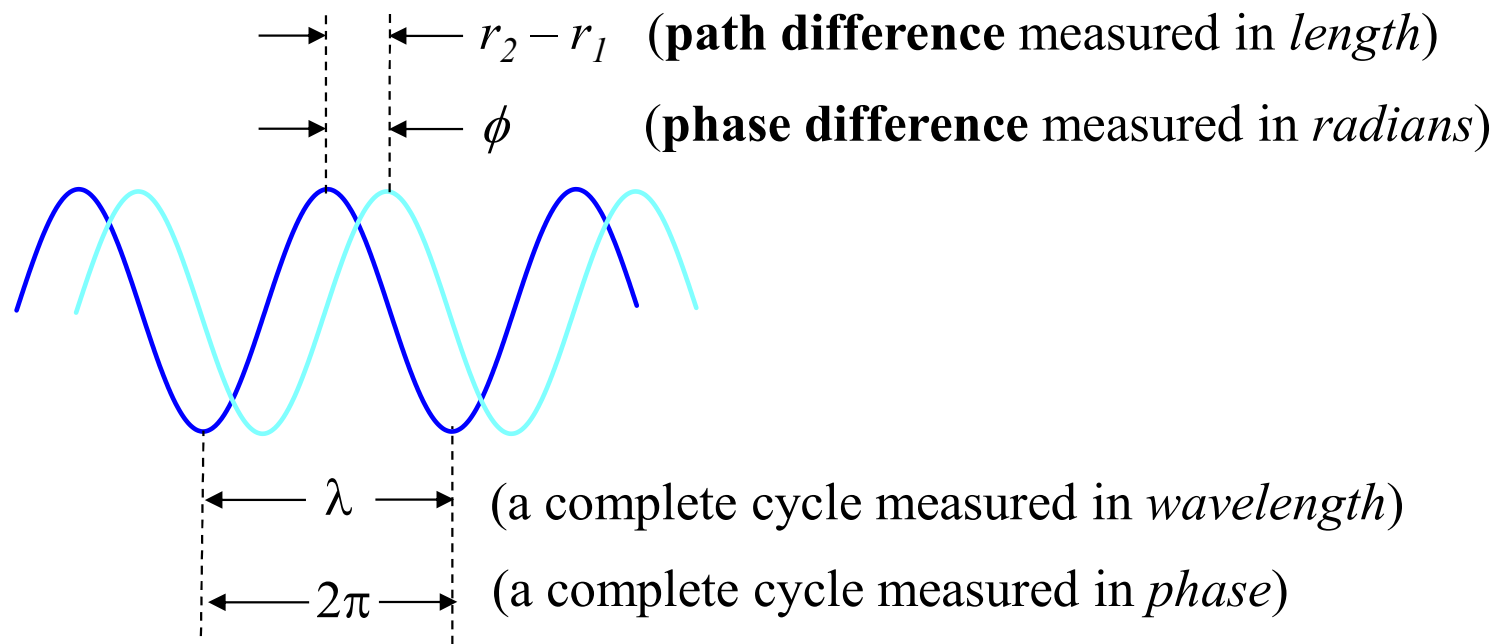
$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \left( \frac{\phi}{2} \right)$$

where  $I_0$  is the maximum intensity when  $\phi = 0$ .

Note: when the two waves are *in phase* ( $\phi = 0$ , straight ahead), the resultant intensity is at maximum ( $I=I_0$ ) and when the two waves are exactly half-cycle *out of phase* ( $\phi = \pi$ ), the resultant intensity is identically zero.

# Phase Difference relates to Path Difference

Here, we have the lighter cyan wave slightly ahead of the blue wave.



This gives the relation,  $\frac{\phi}{2\pi} = \frac{r_2 - r_1}{\lambda}$   $\implies \phi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (r_2 - r_1) = k (r_2 - r_1)$

where  $k = 2\pi/\lambda$  is called the *wave number*.

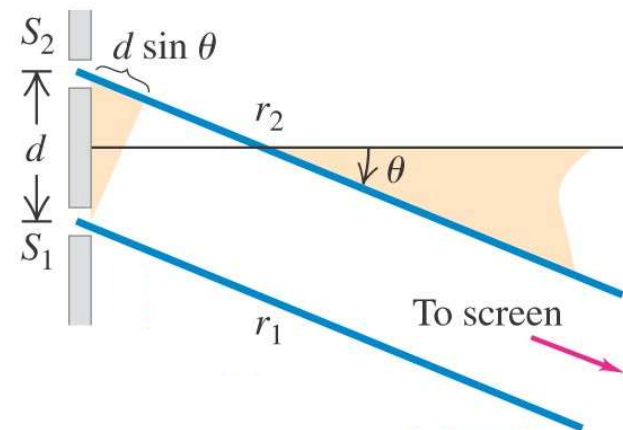
# Phase Difference depends on Path Difference

From our geometry, we have the following picture for the path difference:

$$r_2 - r_1 = d \sin \theta$$

Substituting this into to our previous equation, we have:

$$\phi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (r_2 - r_1) = \frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta$$



$\theta$  is the *angular* position of the observation point  $P$

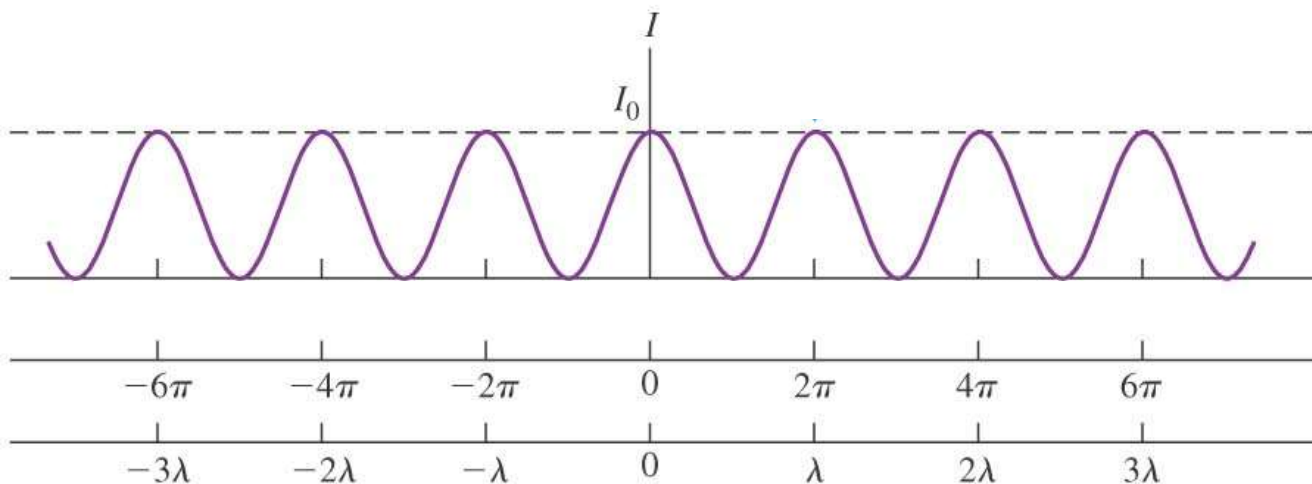
NOTE: We expressed one full cycle as  $2\pi$  so that  $\phi$  has to be in radian!

# Intensity in Two-Slit Interference

Putting the expression for the phase difference into our intensity equation for a two-slit interference pattern, we then have,

$$I = I_0 \cos^2\left(\frac{\phi}{2}\right) = I_0 \cos^2\left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta\right)$$

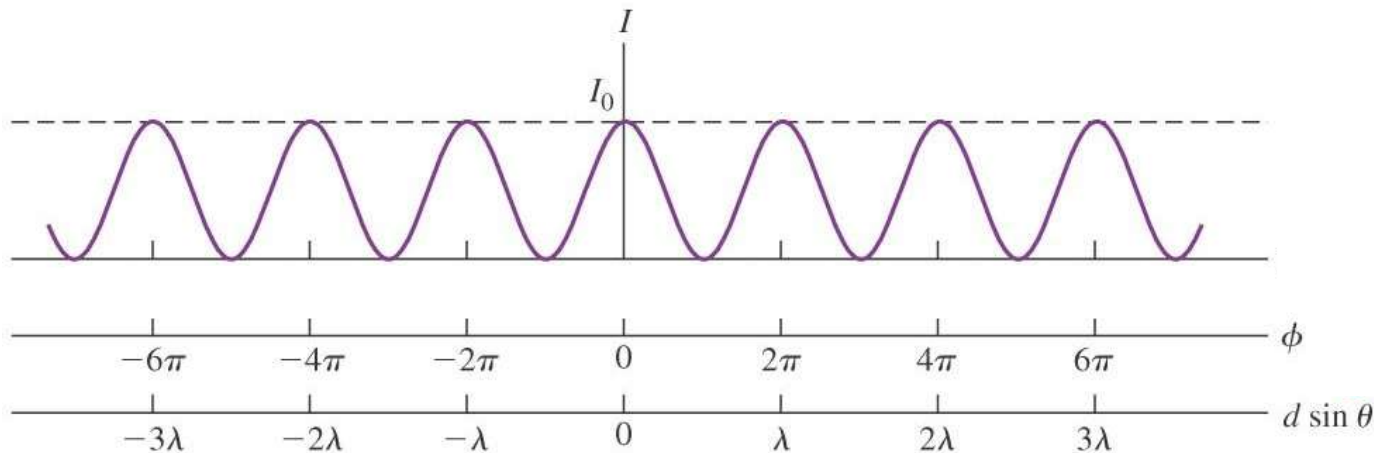
$$I = I_0 \cos^2\left(\frac{\pi d \sin \theta}{\lambda}\right)$$



$\phi$  = phase difference between the two waves at each point in the pattern

$d \sin \theta$  = path difference from the two slits at each point in the pattern

# Intensity in Two-Slit Interference



$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta \right)$$

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From the intensity equation, we can re-derive the conditions for the bright (*maximum*) and dark (*minimum*) fringes:

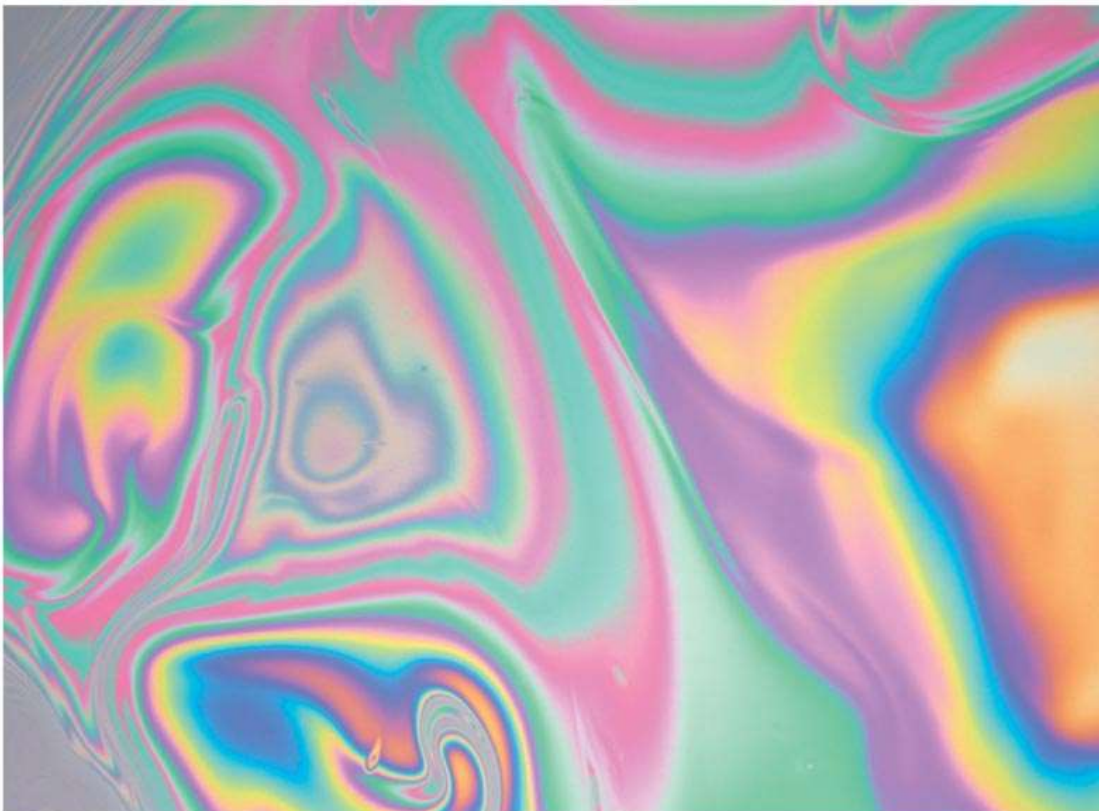
**Maximum** occurs when:  $\frac{\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta = m\pi \rightarrow d \sin \theta = m\lambda \quad (m = 0, \pm 1, \dots)$

**Minimum** occurs when:  $\frac{\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta = (m + \frac{1}{2})\pi \rightarrow d \sin \theta = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda \quad (m = 0, \pm 1, \dots)$



# Interference in Thin Films

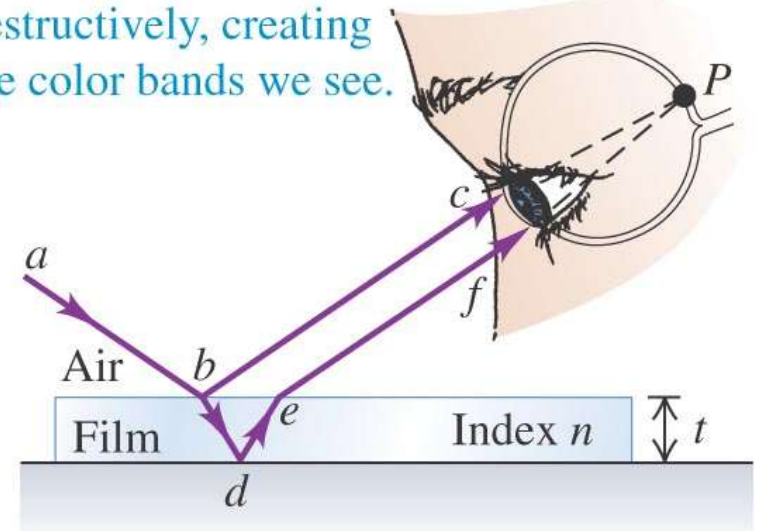
Color fringes observed from an oil slick on water or on a soap bubble are the white-light *interference* patterns produced by the *reflected* light off a *thin film* of oil or soap.



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Light reflected from the upper and lower surfaces of the film comes together in the eye at  $P$  and undergoes interference.

Some colors interfere constructively and others destructively, creating the color bands we see.



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