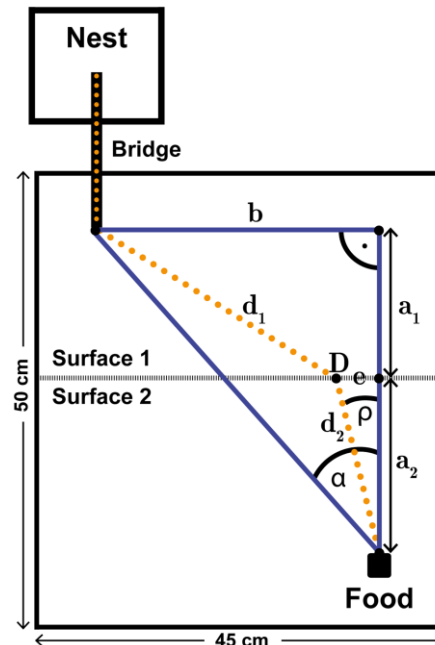
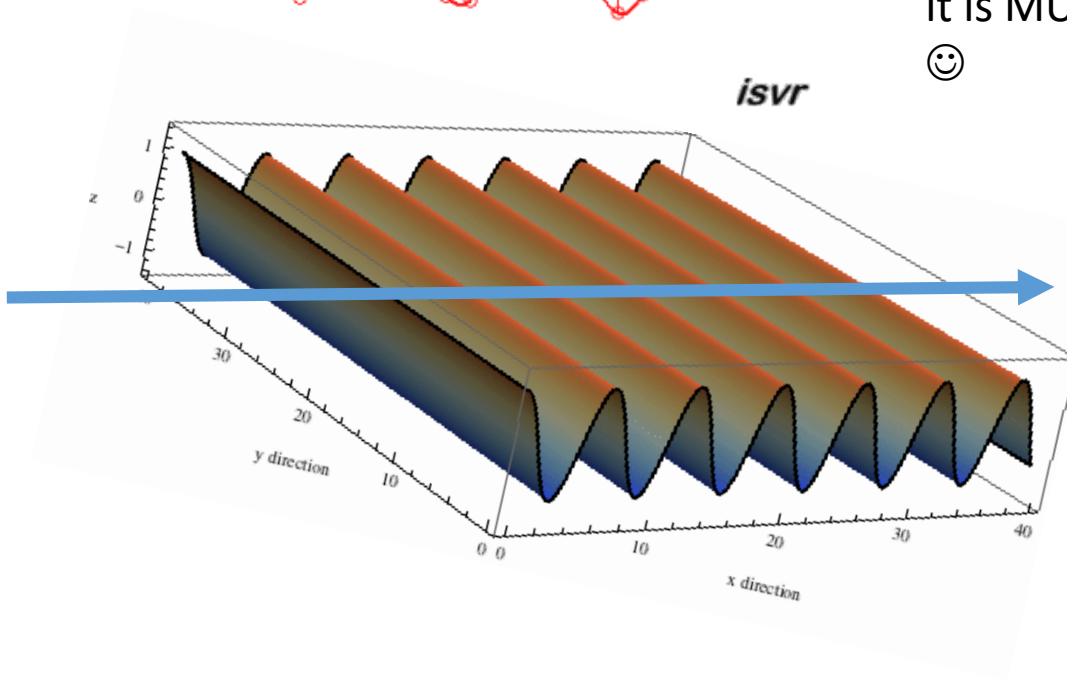
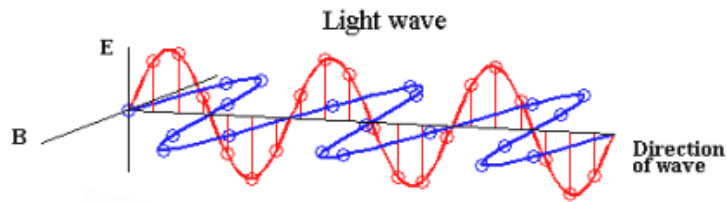
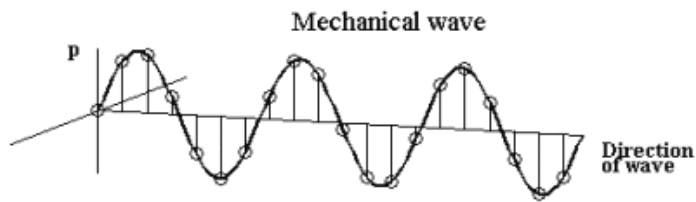


Basics of geometrical optics

Fermat-principle, refraction,
imaging by lenses,
microscope.

Schay G.



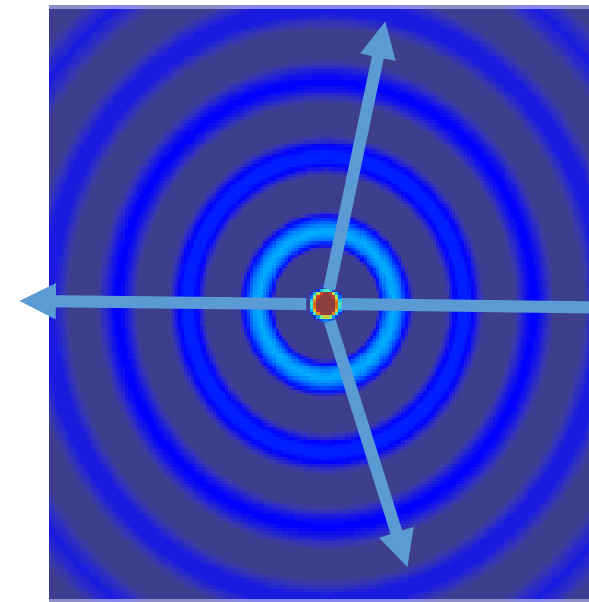


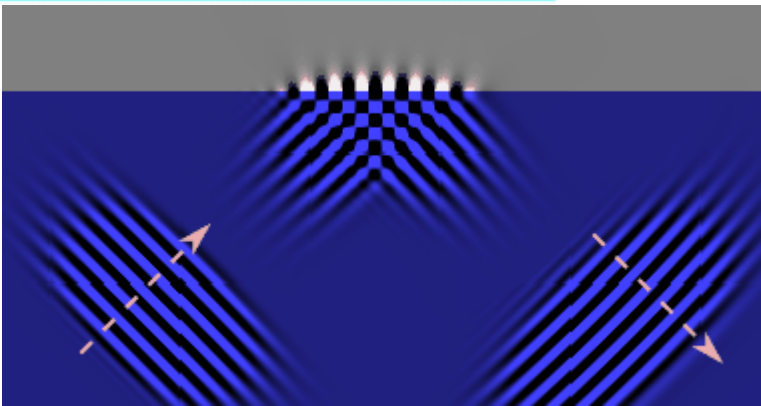
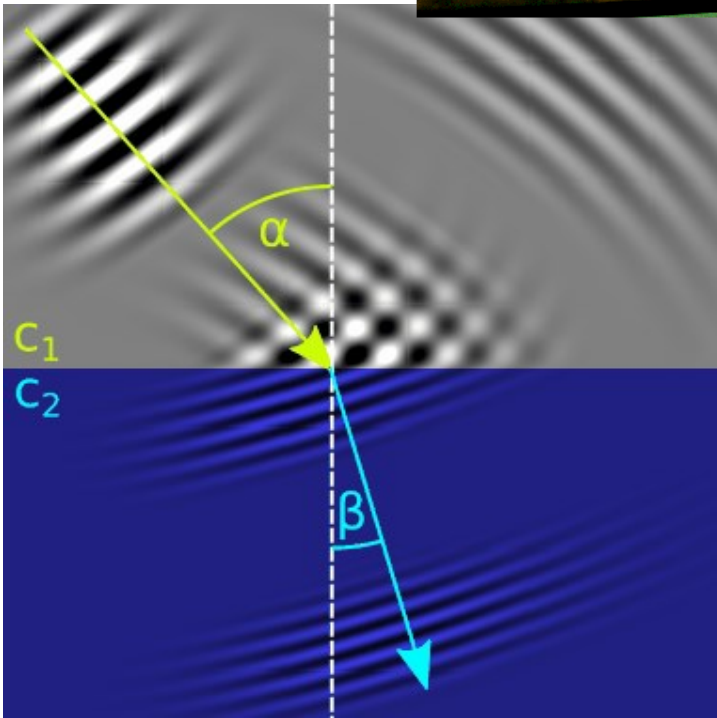
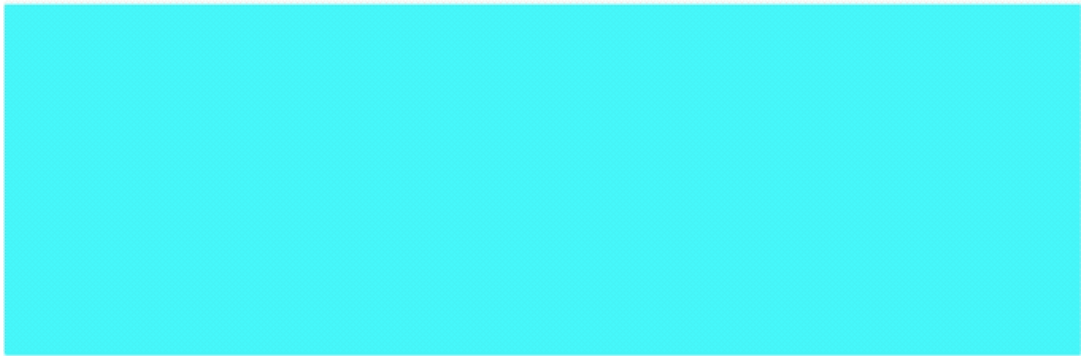
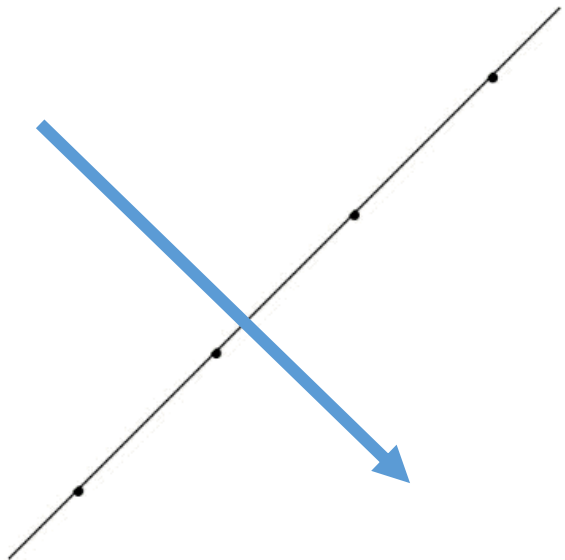
geometrical optics is a **simplification**

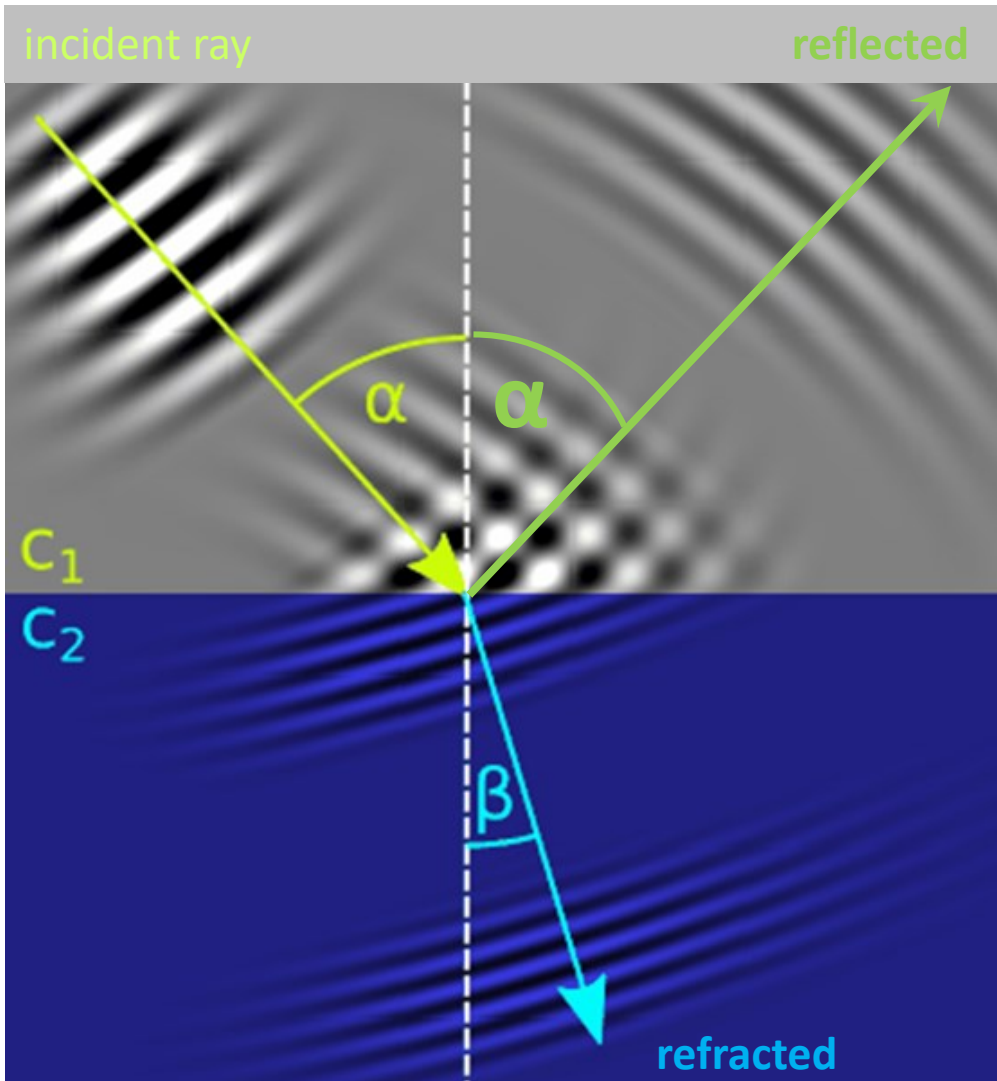
it can be used in some cases, but not all phenomena can be explained by this

BUT

it is MUCH simpler than wave theory

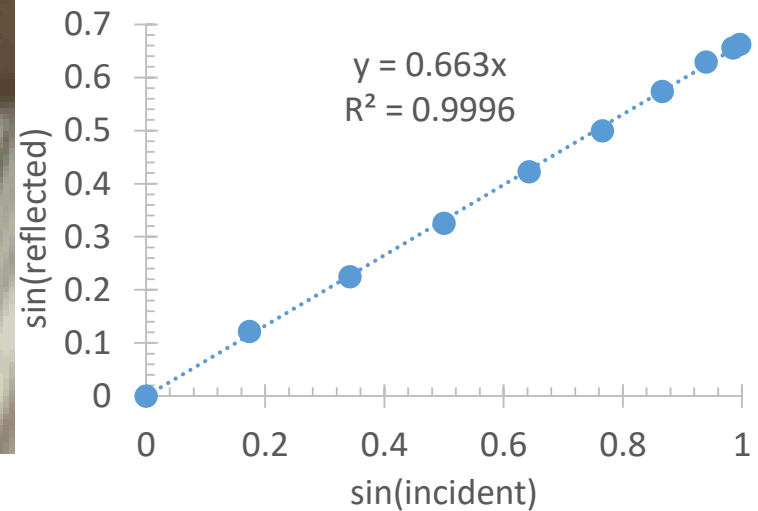
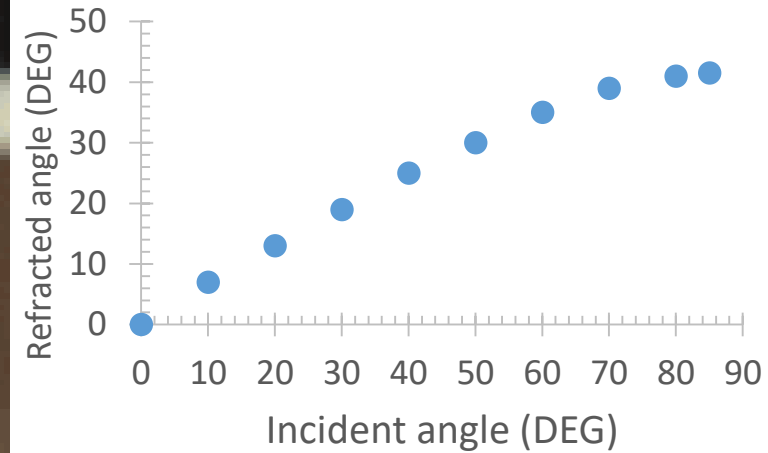
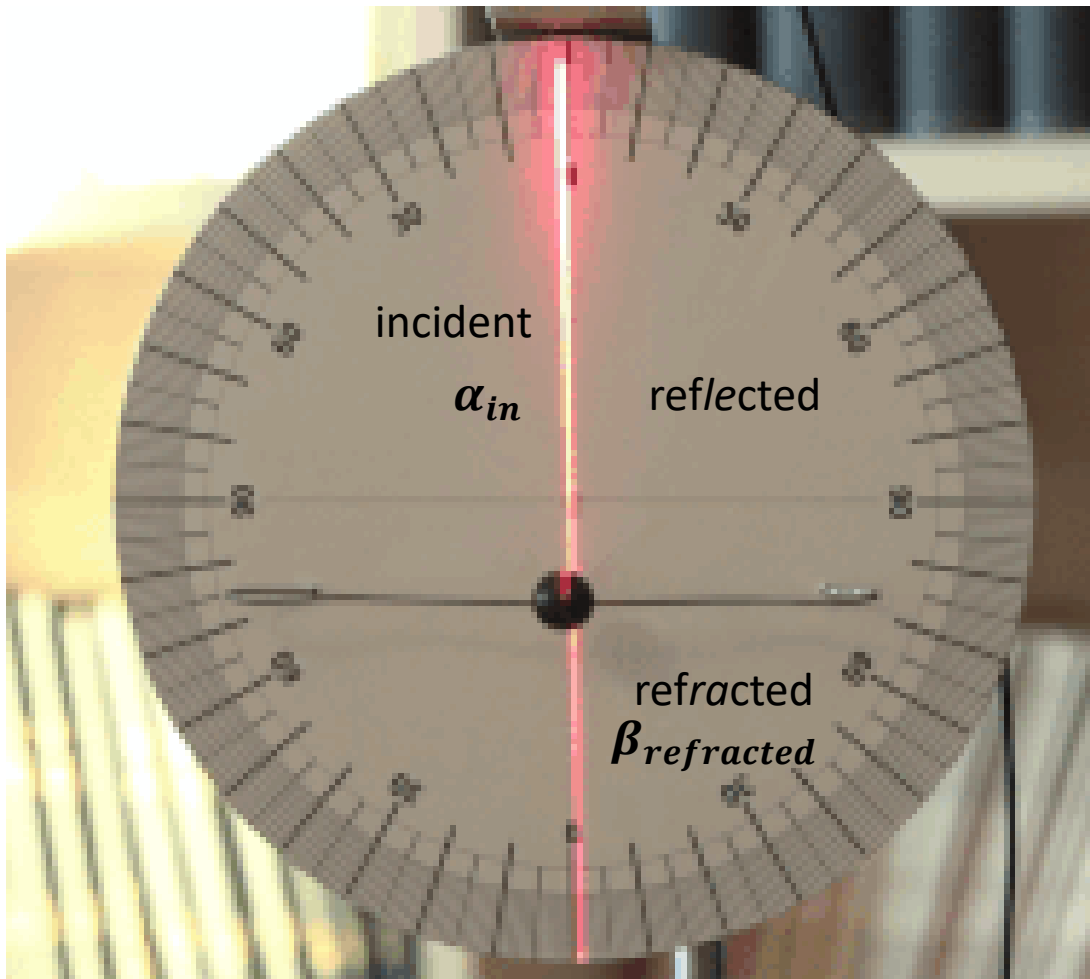






instead of the WAVE picture, we try to set up equations based on the angles and rays

We need to take some information from the wave (like color, speed).



Rules of refraction/
reflection

based on LOT of
measurements:

$$\alpha_{in} = \alpha_{reflected}$$

$$\sin(\alpha_{in}) \cdot n_1 = \sin(\beta_{refracted}) \cdot n_2$$

Snellius-Descartes

AND

all the rays are in one plane.

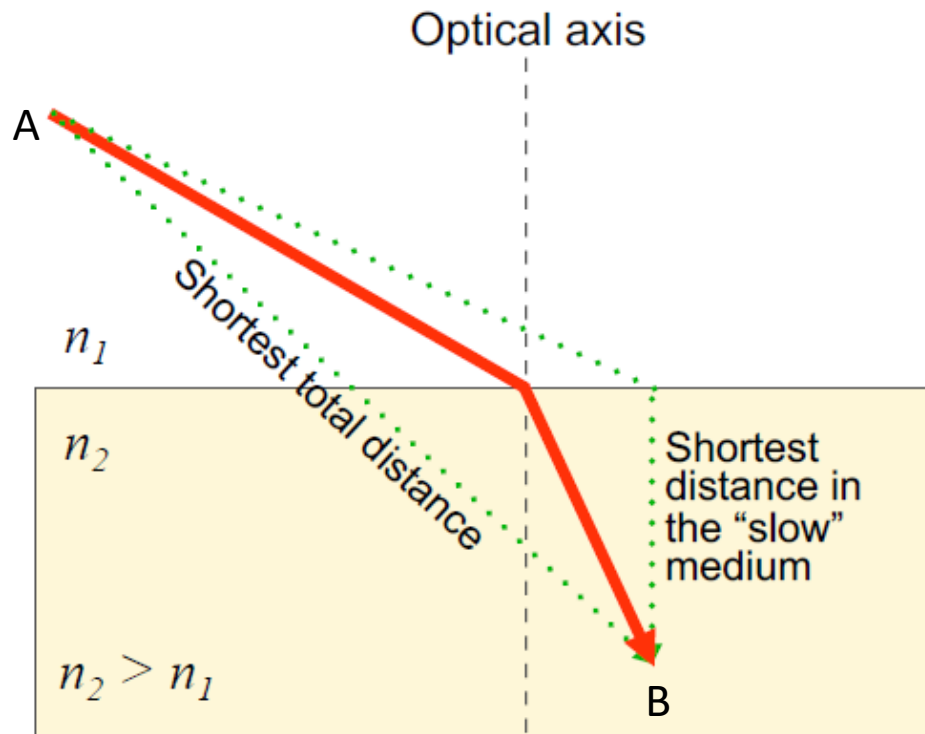
n is a material and light color dependent number, the **refractive index**. For vacuum it is 1.

the Fermat principle can explain this with one sentence.

a principle is a statement from which mathematical formulas can be derived.

The light ray takes that path between two (known) points, which requires the least time.

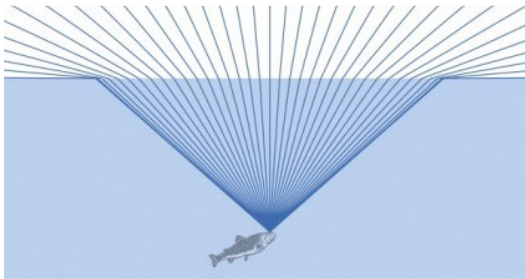
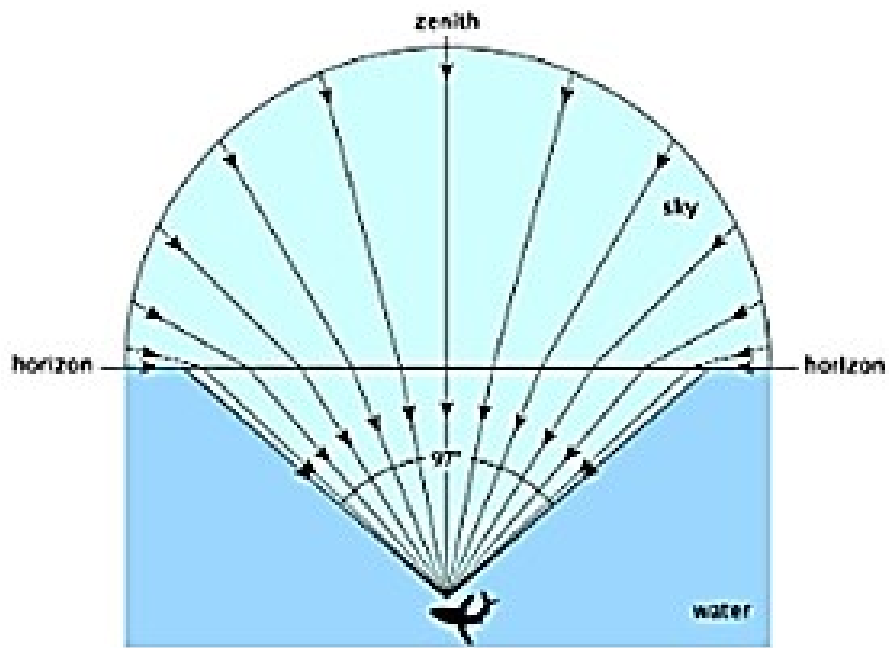
(principle of least time)

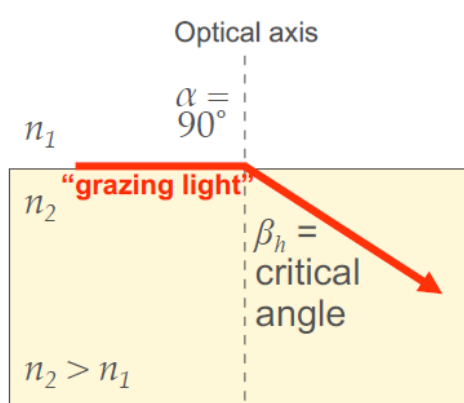


Smooth surface: fast propagation



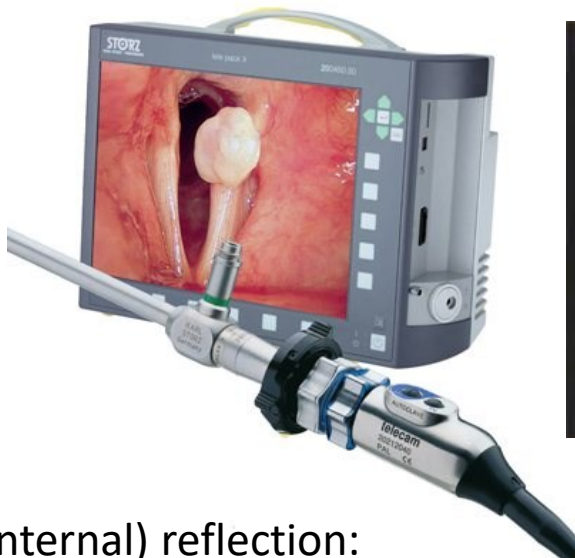
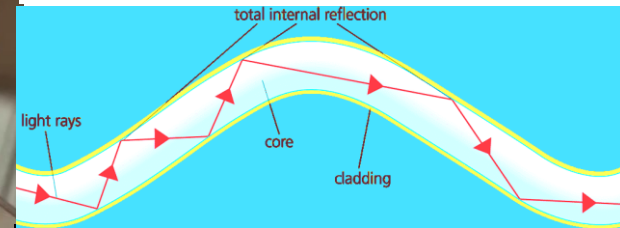
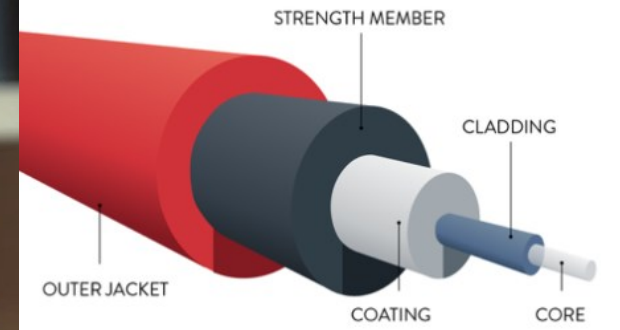
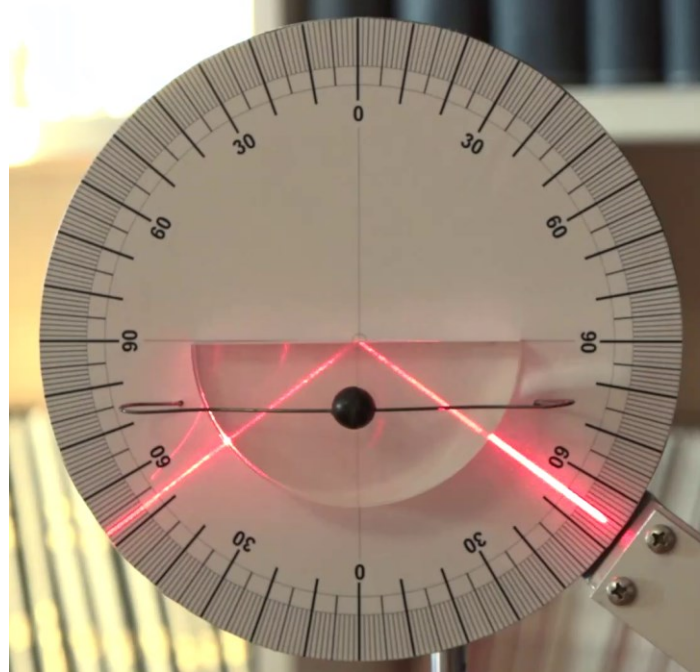
not too practical> we must know A,B in advance...





Since $\sin(90^\circ) = 1$, according to Snell's law:

$$n_1 = n_2 \sin \beta_h$$

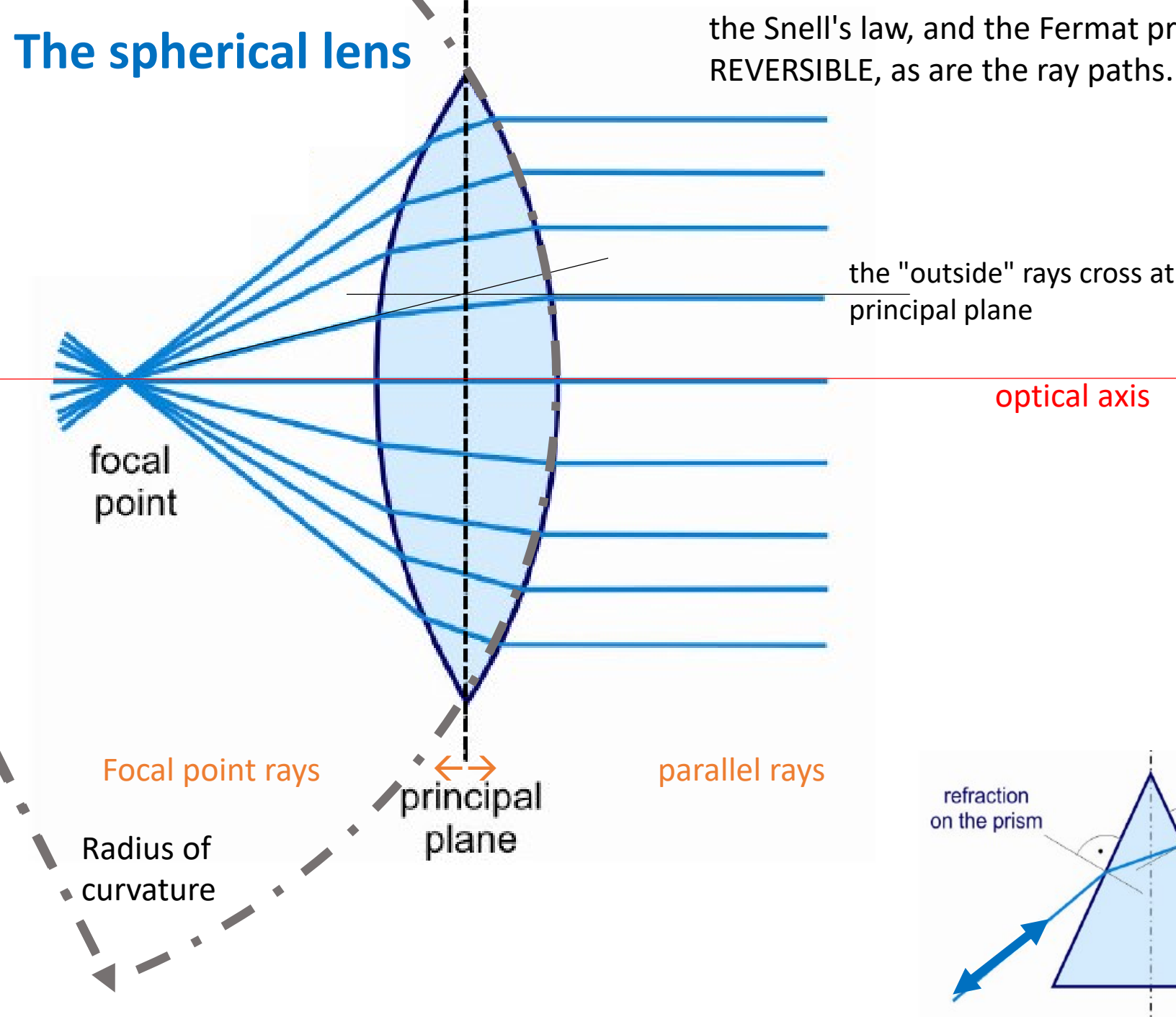


Total (internal) reflection:

since SD law is reversible, we can send light from the other side now controlling β , and can set it to greater value than the limiting angle. Then SD for refraction has no solution, so only REFLECTION is possible. Hence we get a perfect, 100% mirror in this incident angle range.

The spherical lens

the Snell's law, and the Fermat principle are REVERSIBLE, as are the ray paths.



the "outside" rays cross at the principal plane

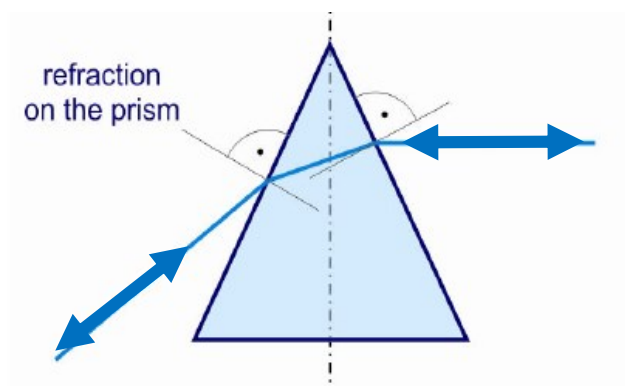
optical axis

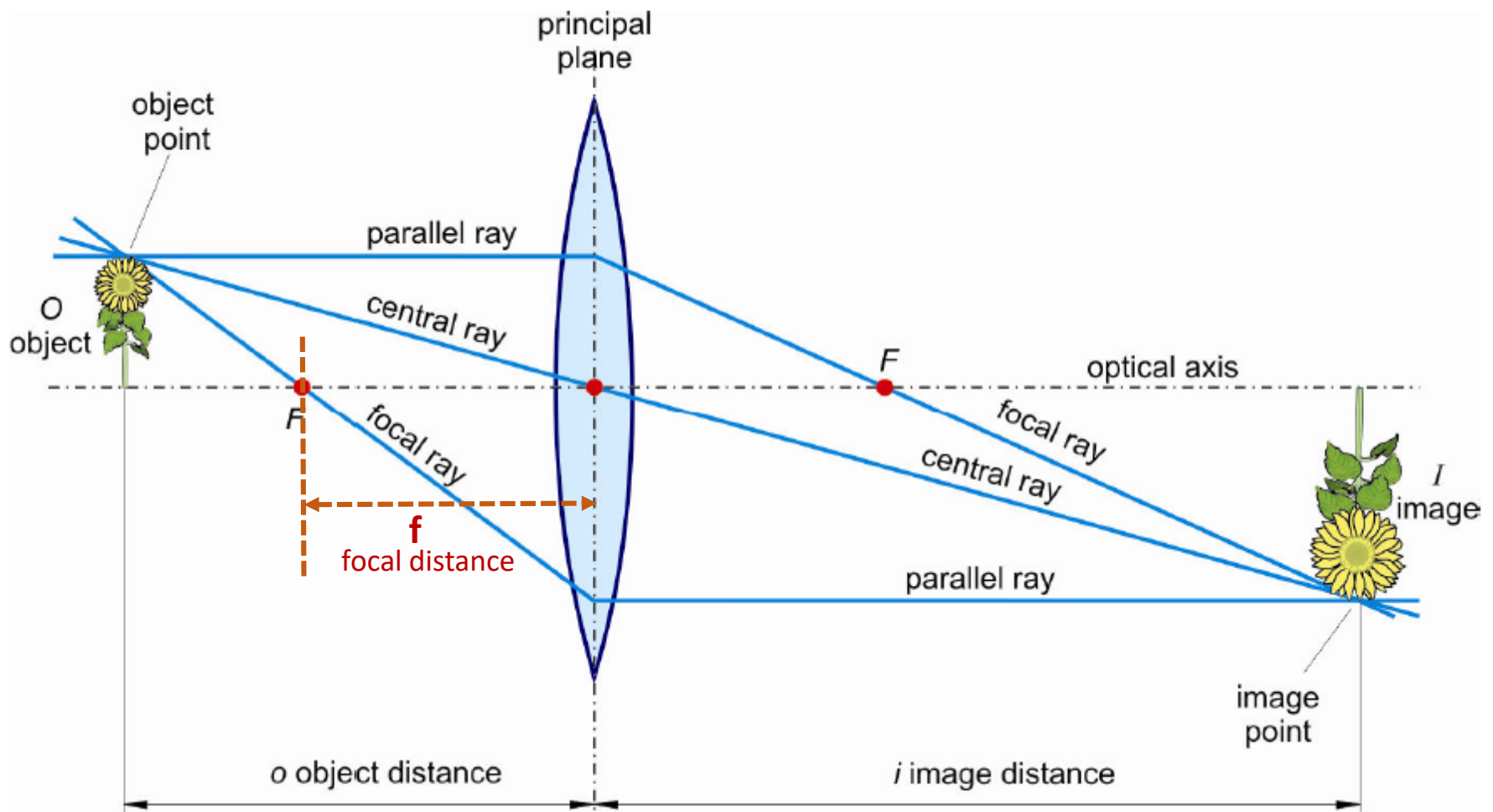
Focal point rays

Radius of curvature

principal plane

parallel rays





$$M = \frac{I}{O} = \frac{i}{o}$$

linear magnification

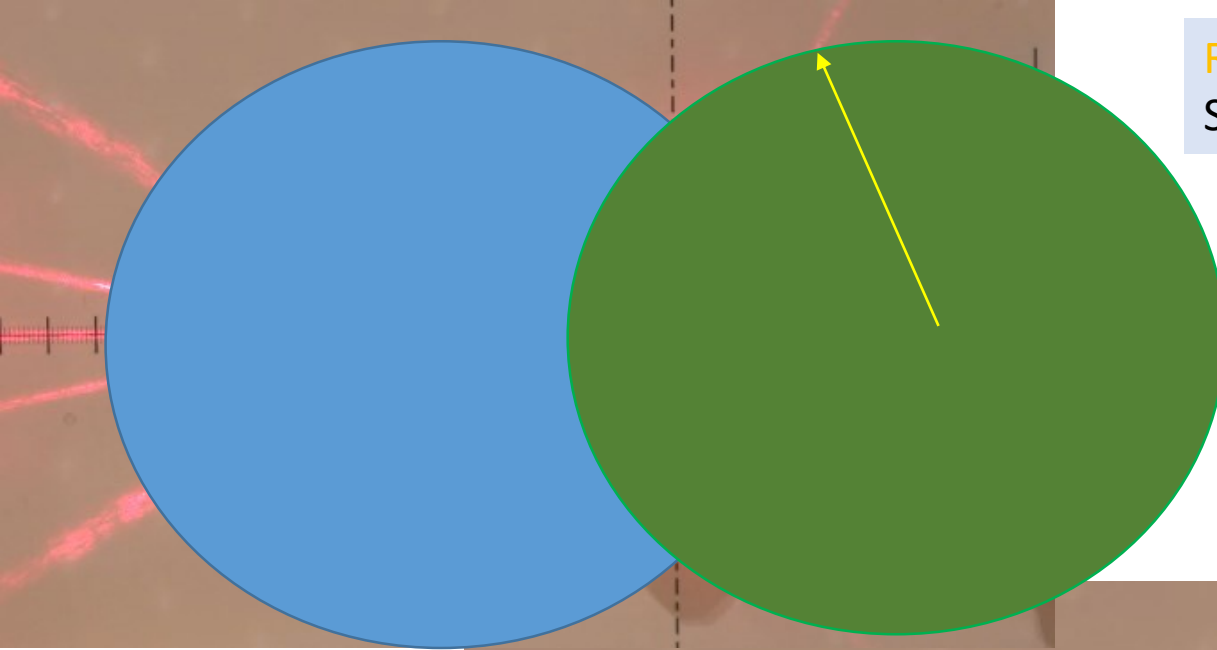
$$D = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{i} + \frac{1}{o}$$

power of the lens
diopters (dpt, 1/m)

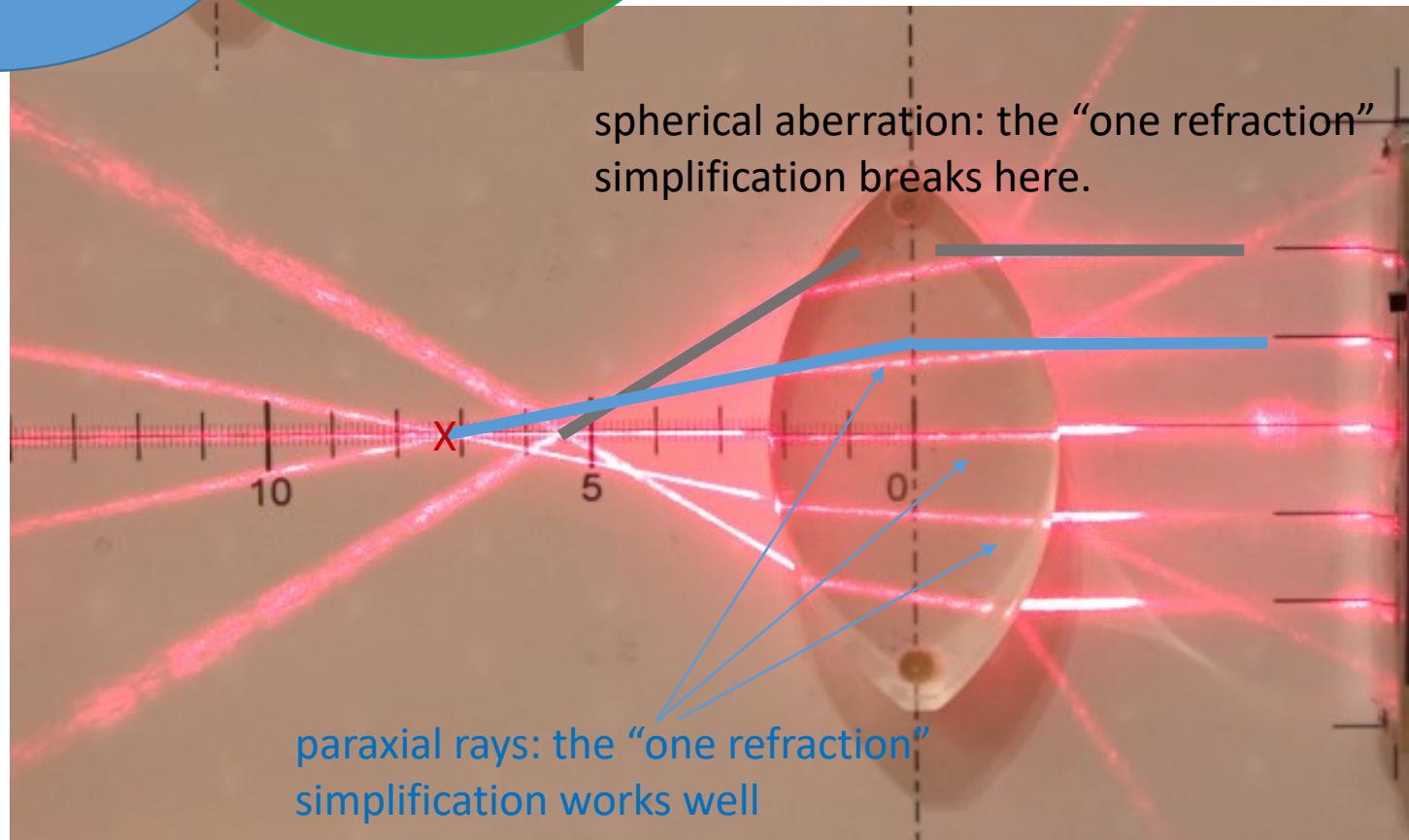
$$D = (n - 1) \cdot \frac{2}{R}$$

for symmetrical lens
R is the radius of curvature

Radius of curvature of the lens,
Spherical aberration

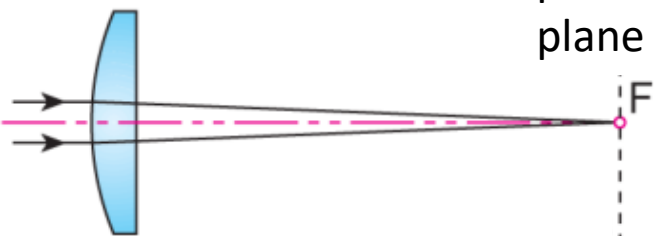


spherical aberration: the “one refraction”
simplification breaks here.



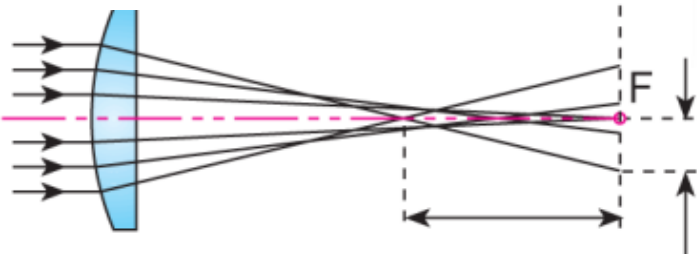
paraxial rays: the “one refraction”
simplification works well

paraxial rays



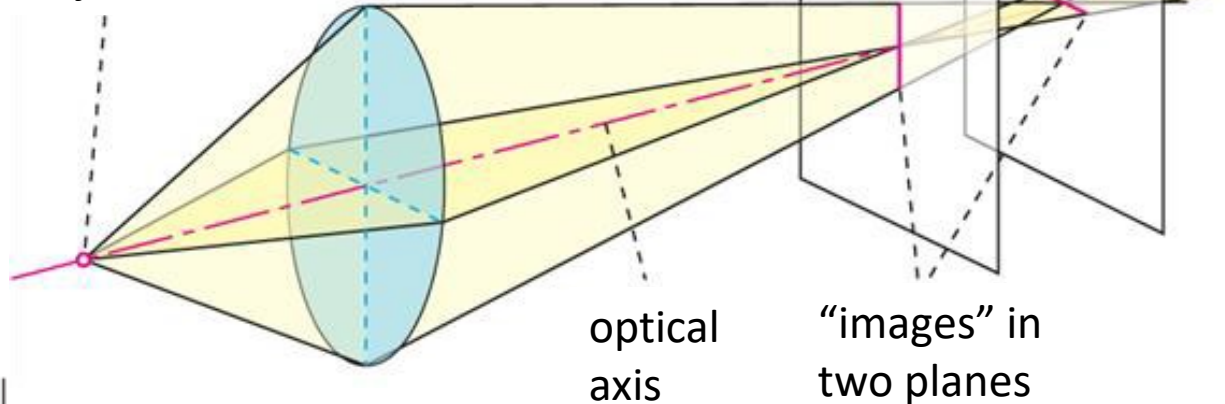
paraxial focal plane

spherical aberration:
non-paraxial rays



object

lens



optical axis

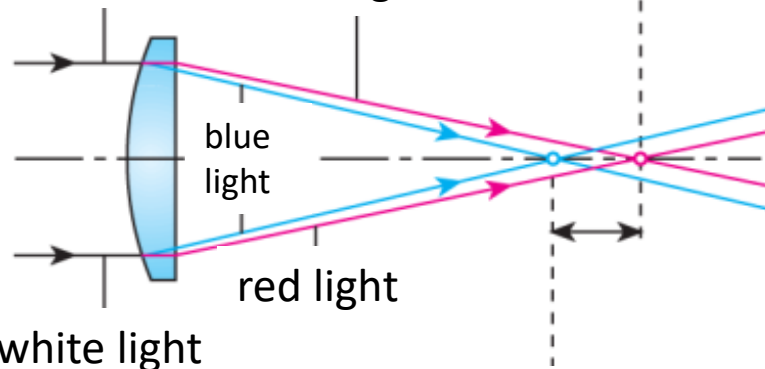
“images” in two planes

astigmatism

distorted images

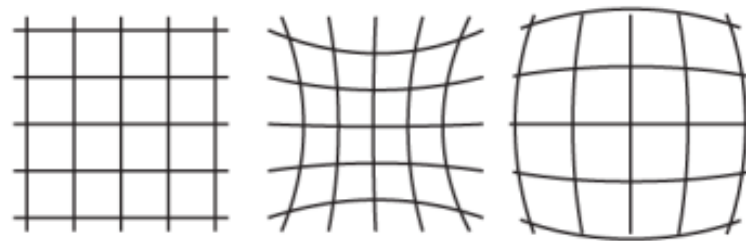
focal point of red light

white light

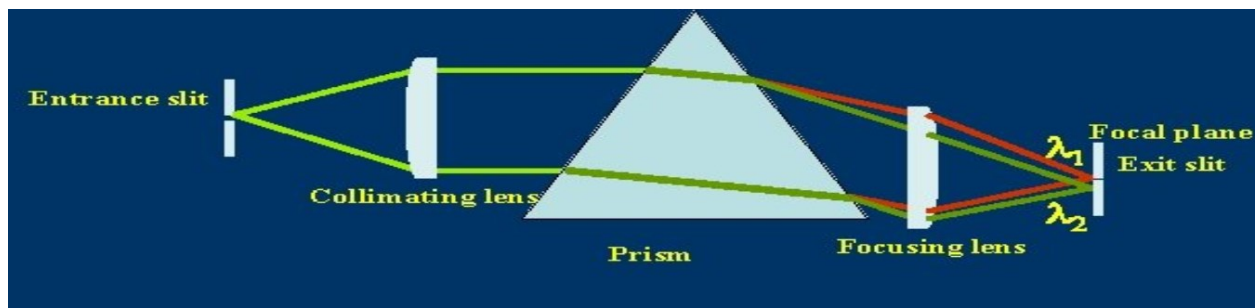
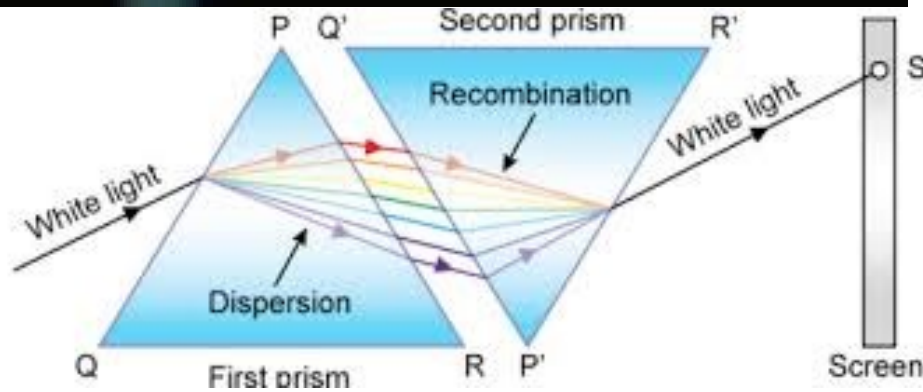
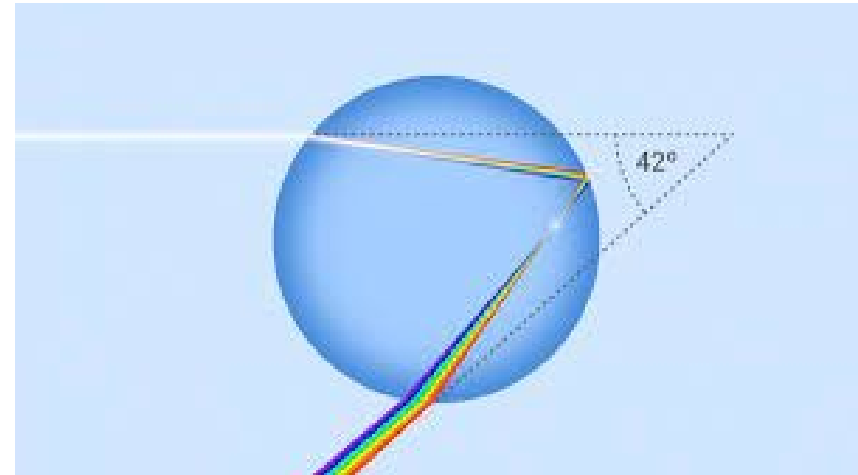


chromatic aberration

focal point of blue light



dispersion: the index of refraction depends on the color (frequency) of the light

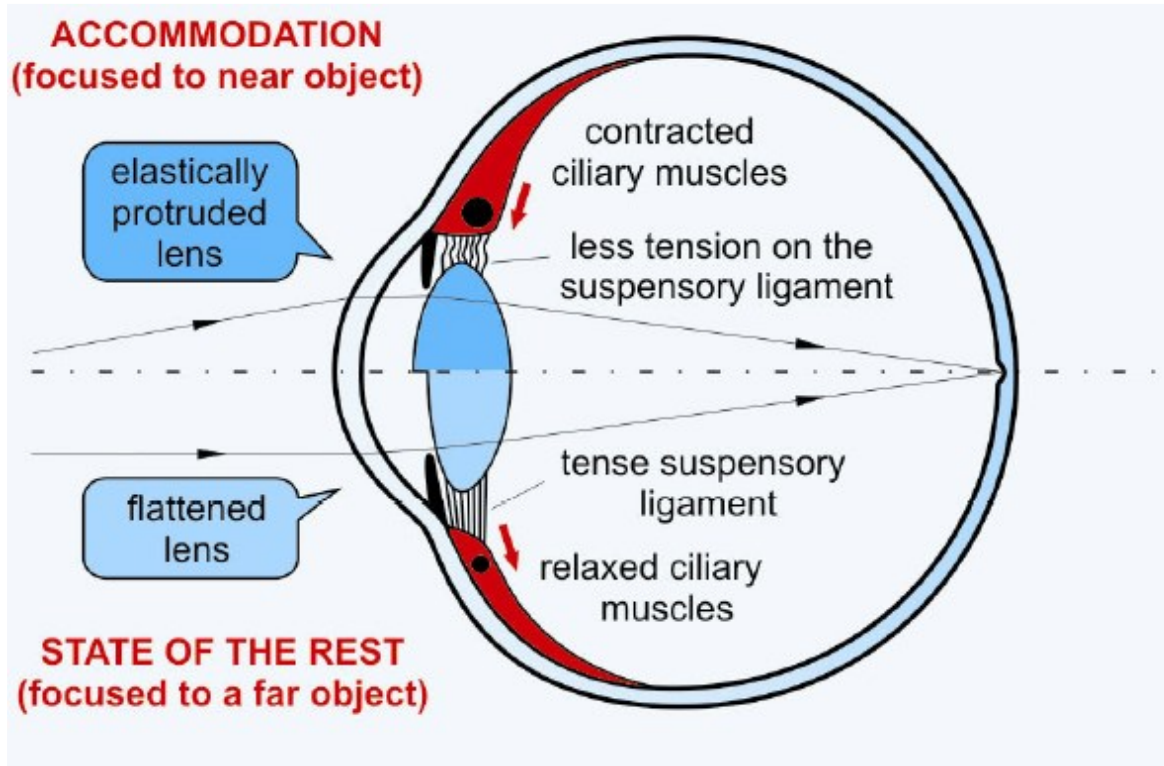


prism
monochromator

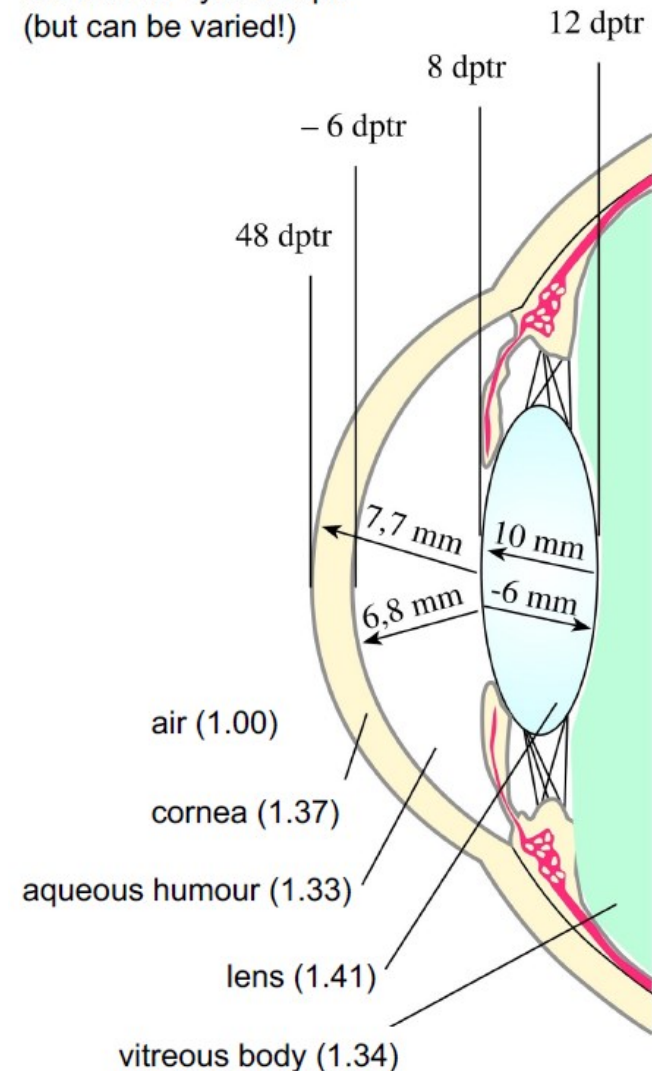
The eye is an adaptive optical system

$$\Delta D = D_p - D_r = \frac{1}{t_p} - \frac{1}{t_r}$$

near point far point

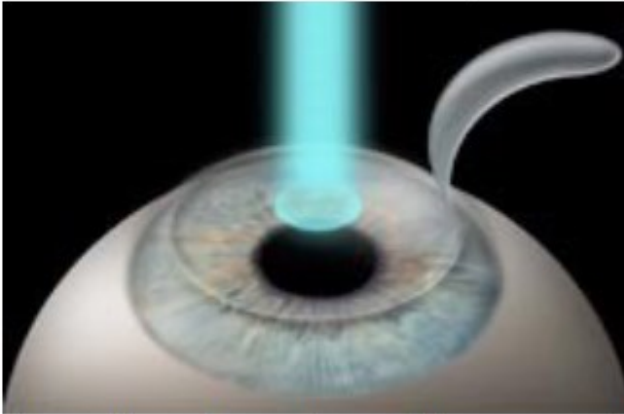


Total refractive power of the human eye: 62 dp_{tr}
(but can be varied!)



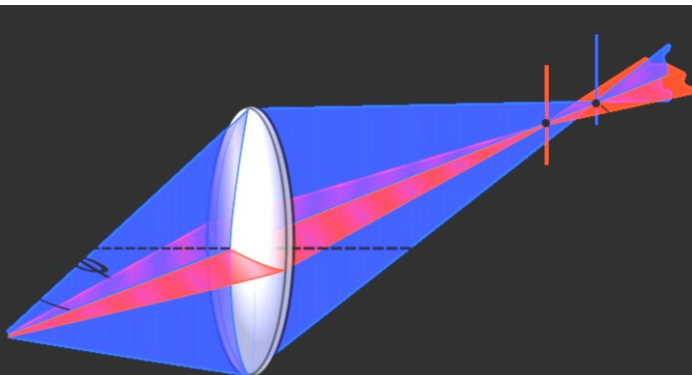
Optical problems can be solved by
altering the diopter ->
glasses and/or LASIK

Permanent correction of refractive
problem: LASIK (Laser Assisted In
Situ Keratomileusis)

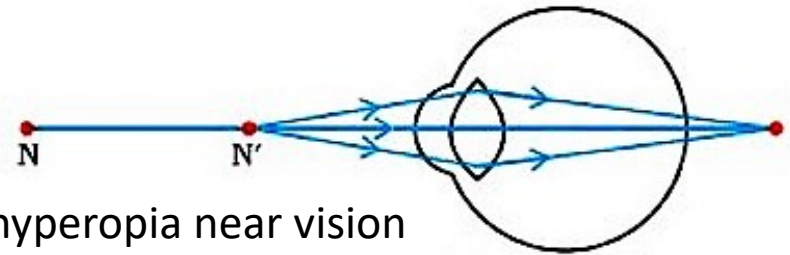


The radius of curvature of the cornea is
changed (with laser surgery)

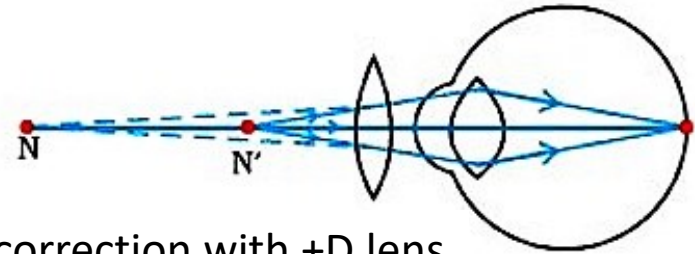
astigmatism -> „cylindrical eye”



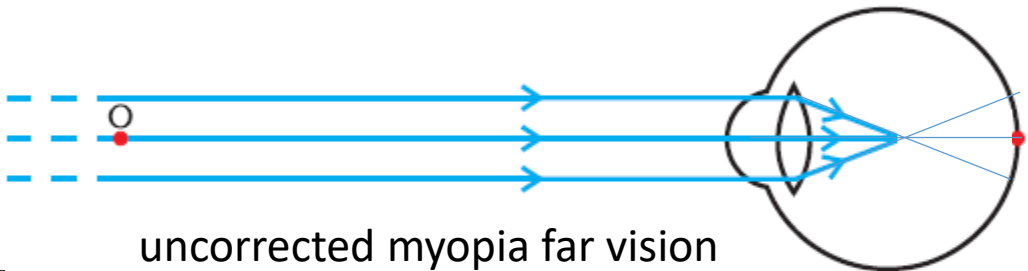
uncorrected hyperopia near vision



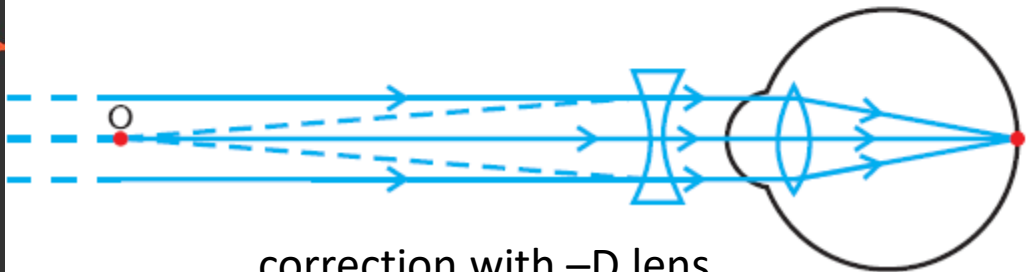
correction with +D lens

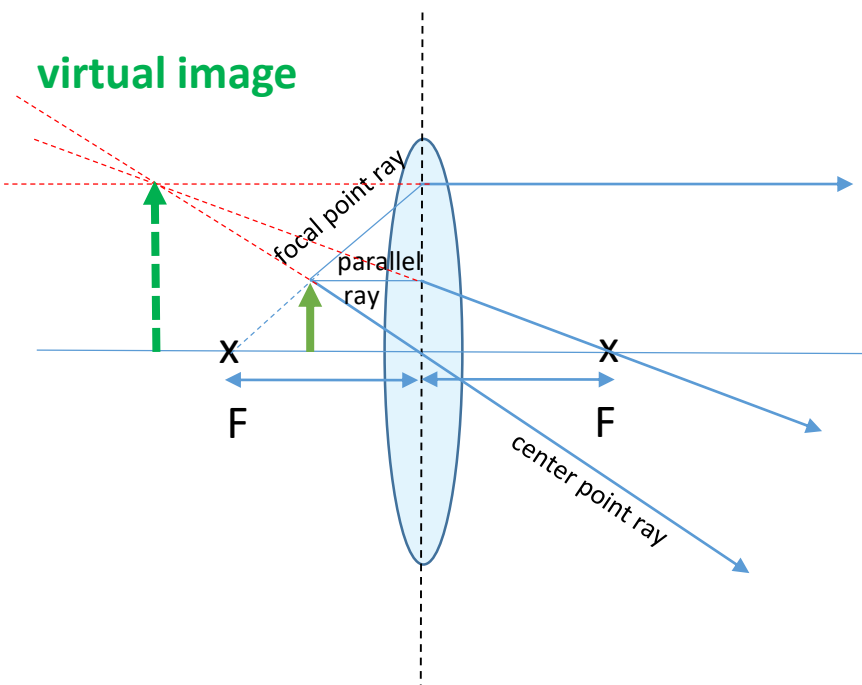


uncorrected myopia far vision



correction with -D lens





converging lens as a simple magnifier

The virtual image is viewed at a greater angle than the original object from the near point of the eye.

angular magnification

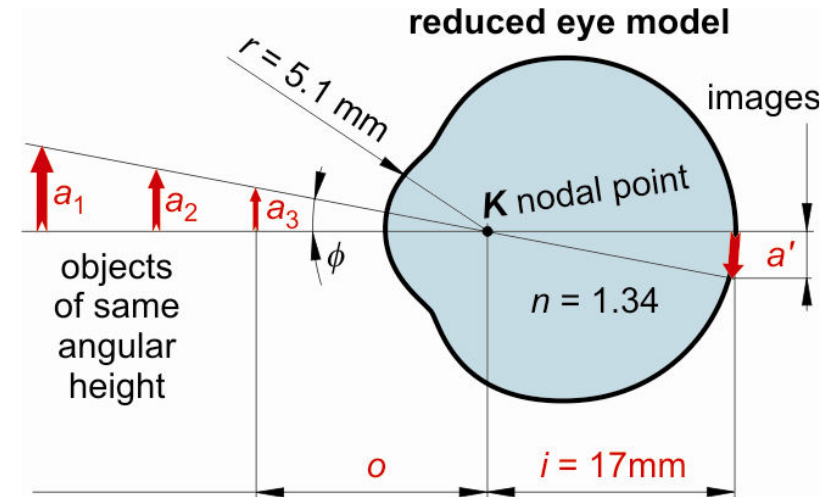
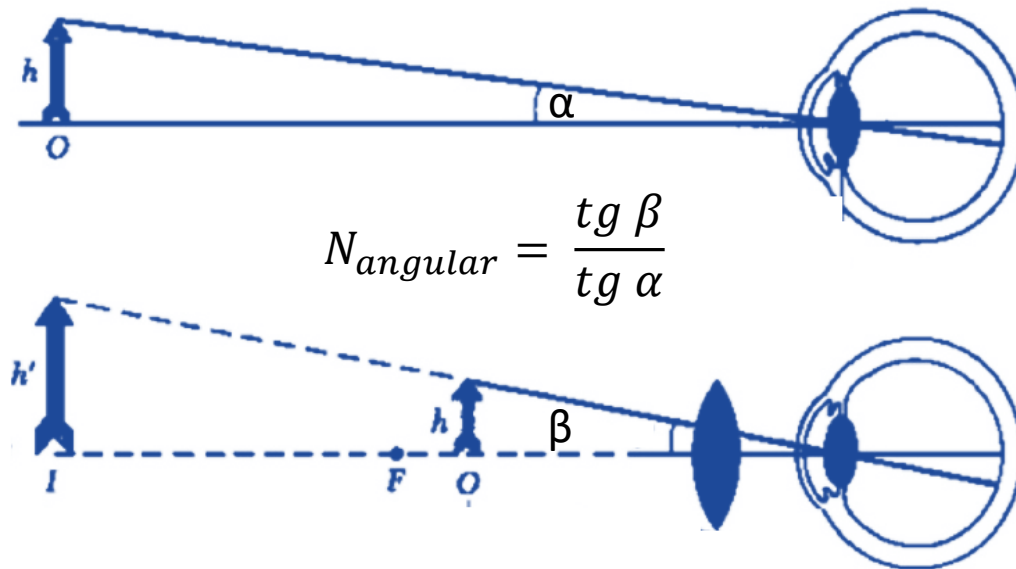
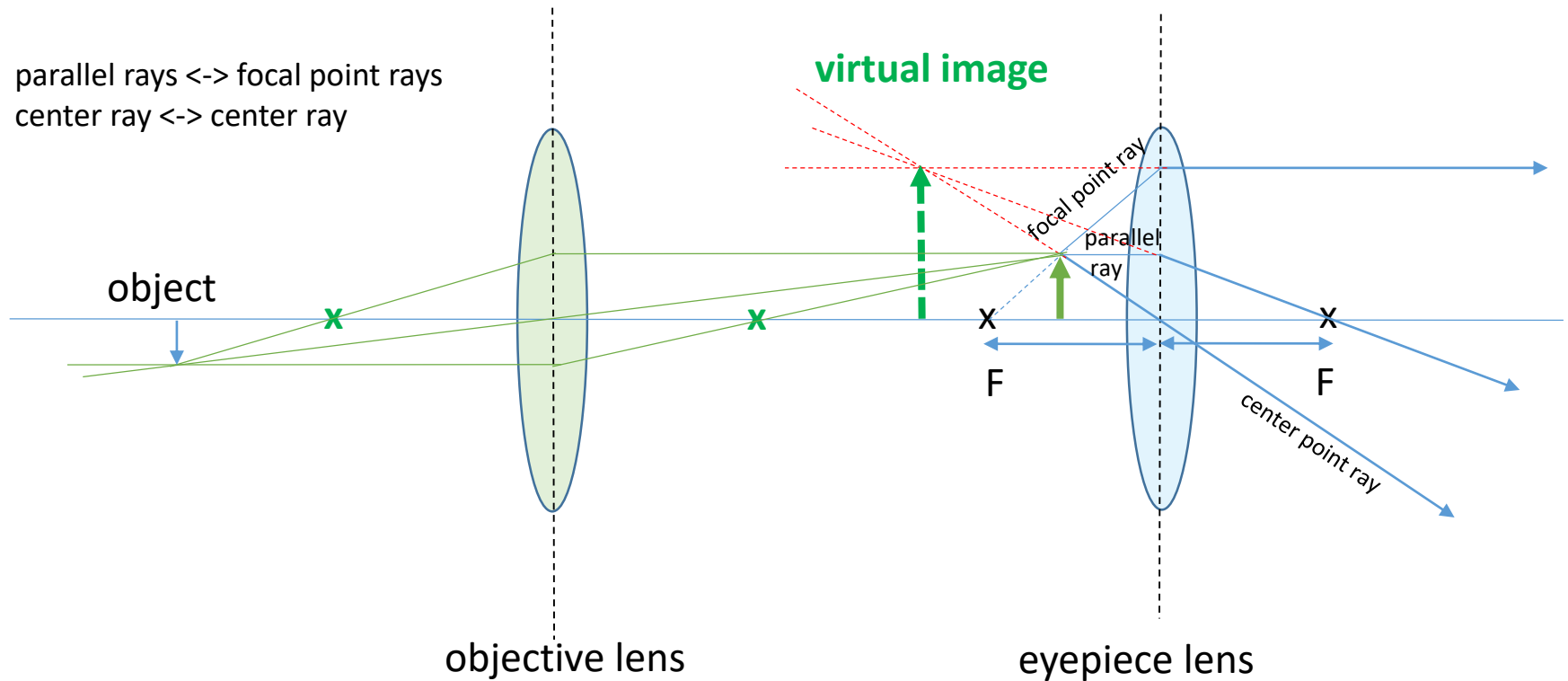


image formation in the microscope



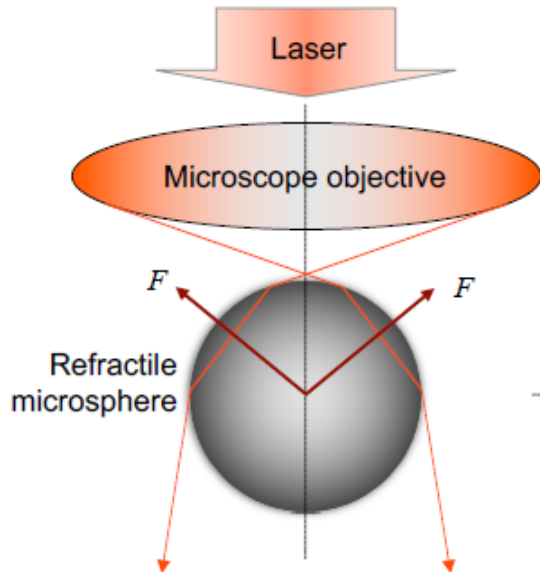
The microscope can be set to see the virtual image at the reading distance of 25 cm, but also to accommodate to infinity (like looking at the sky). The magnification will be different.

Either the linear magnification or the angular magnification can be calculated.

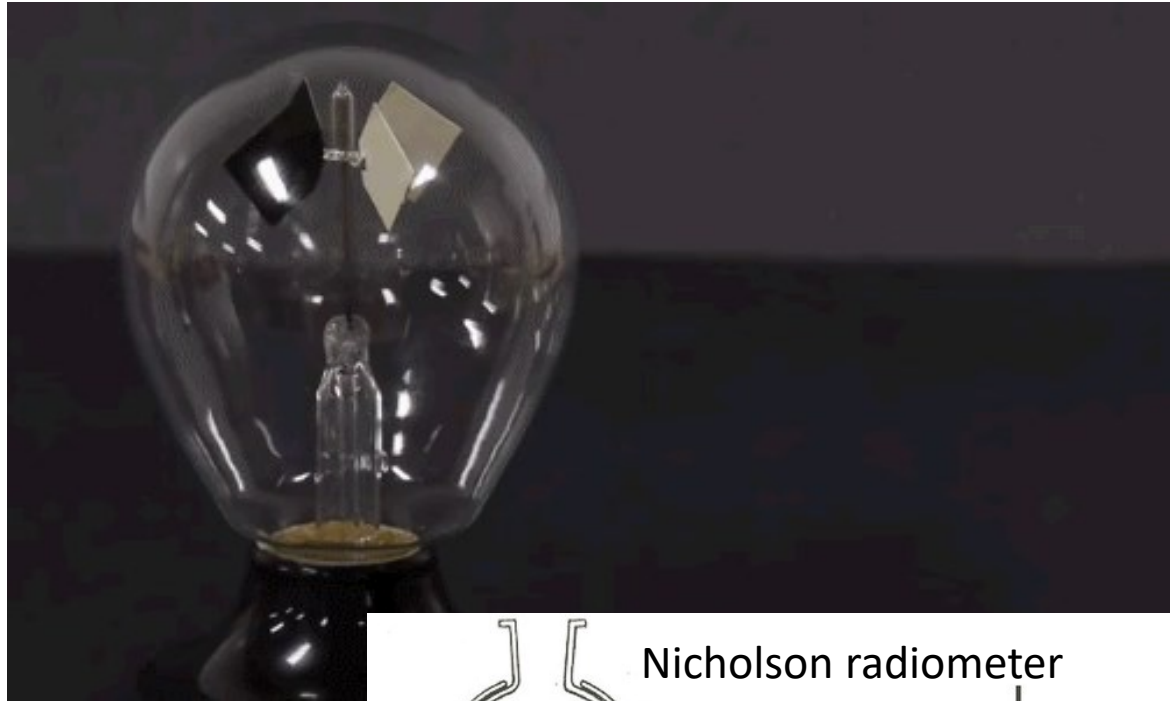
light can exert a force (photons have momentum)

optical „tweezer”

Refractile particles may be captured with photonic forces:

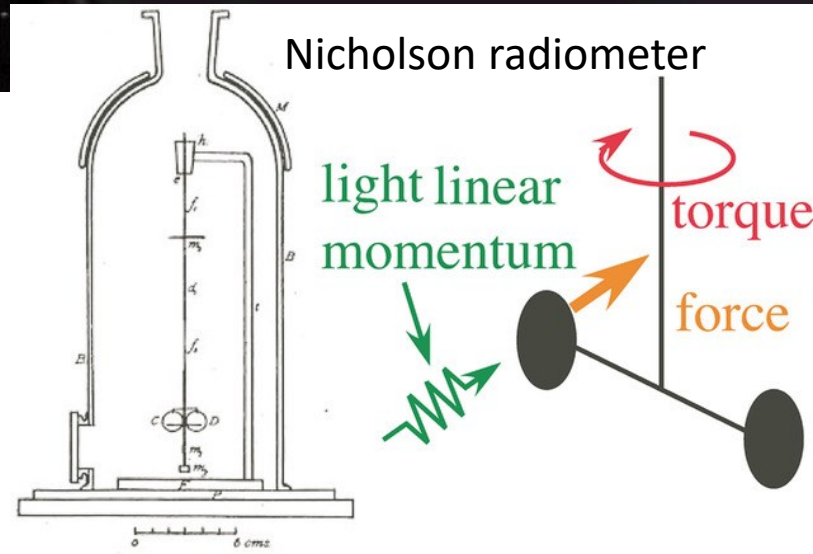


Crookes light mill



at refraction or reflection the wave exerts a very small force on the object. But if the object is very small (μm -sized bead under the microscope) or an easy to move almost frictionless object in vacuum then the force is enough to make them move (Nicholson radiometer)!

Nicholson radiometer



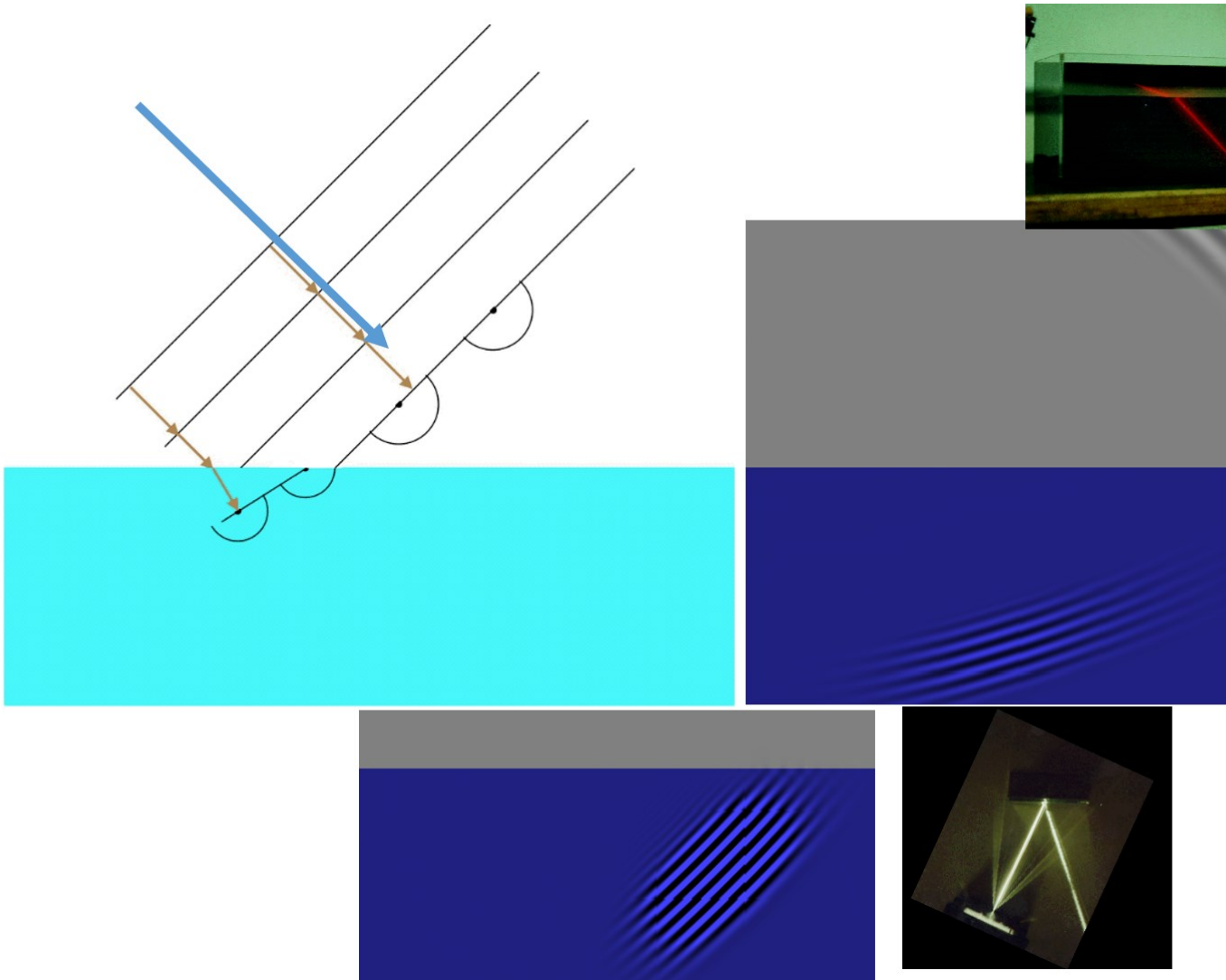
Crookes is a heat engine! light delivers energy

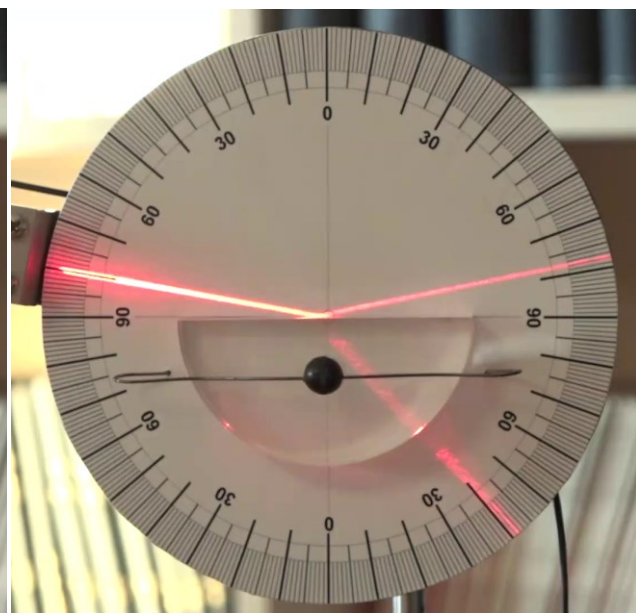
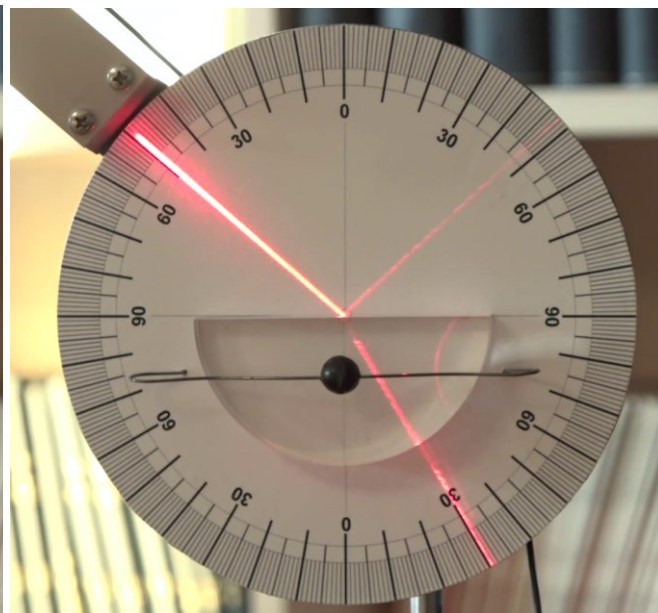
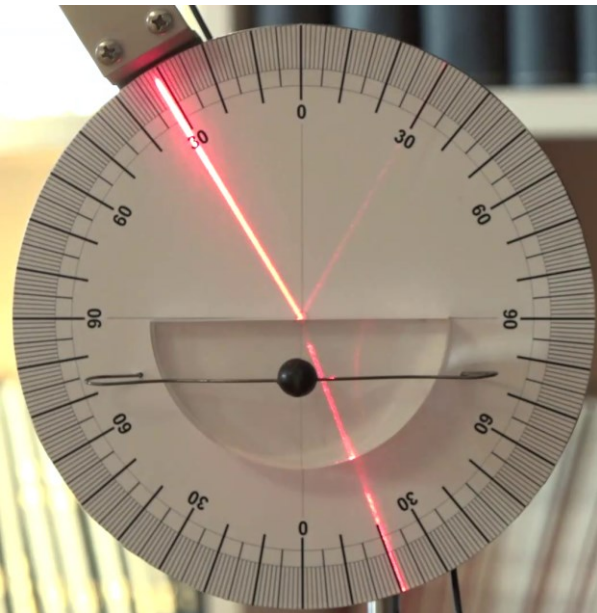
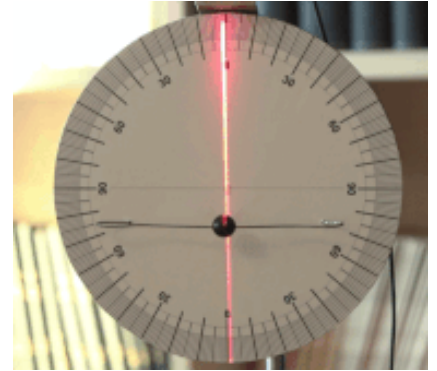
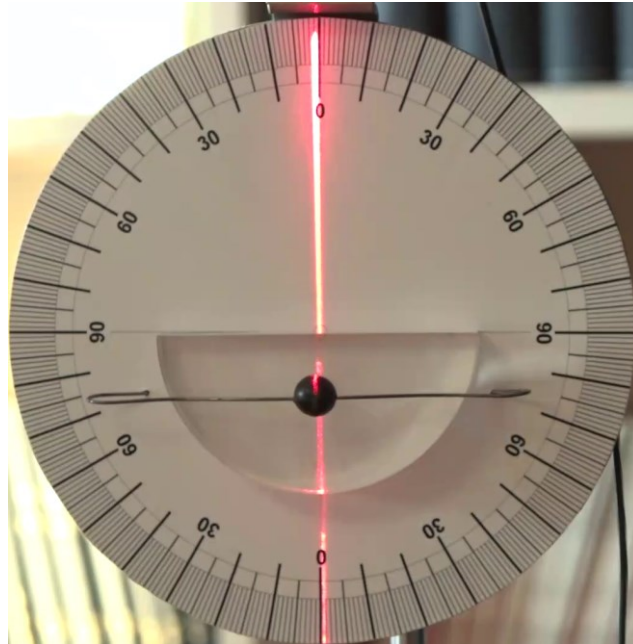
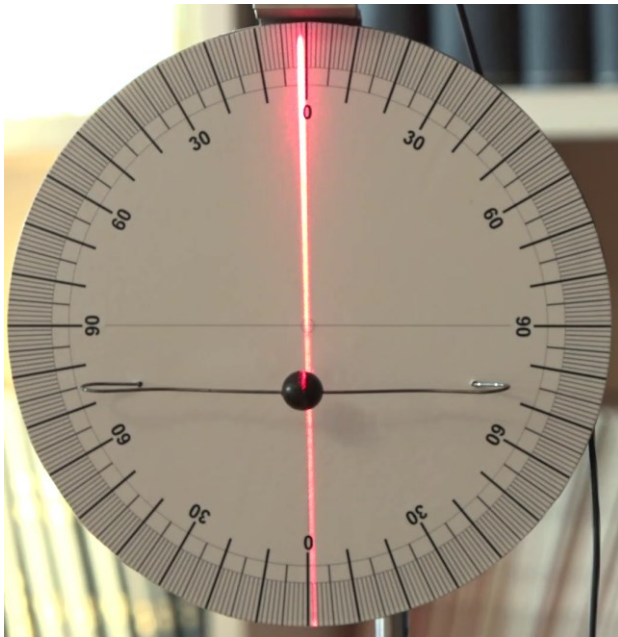
END of lecture slides

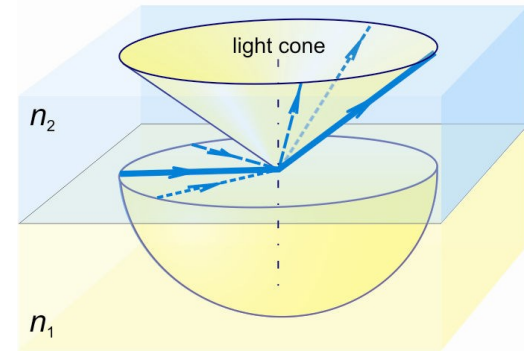
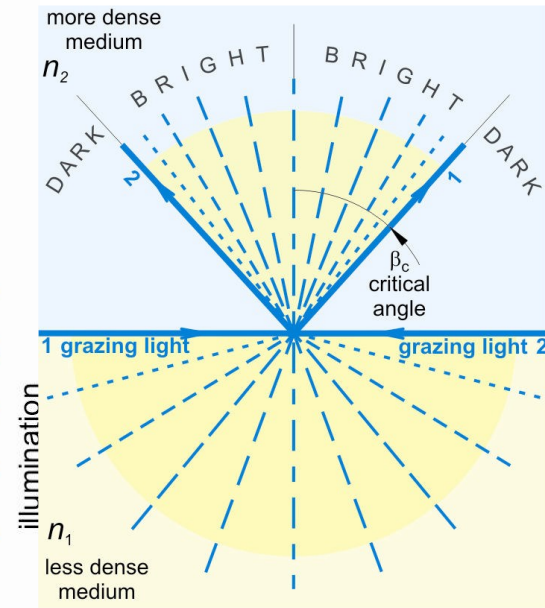
The next slides are EXTENSION material

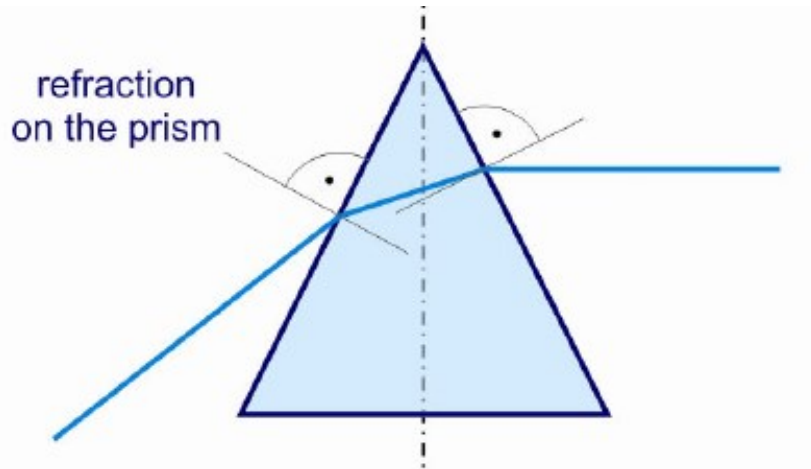
they can be used as learning aids, but are not part of the shortened 45 min lecture.

some screenshots of the animations are also included.



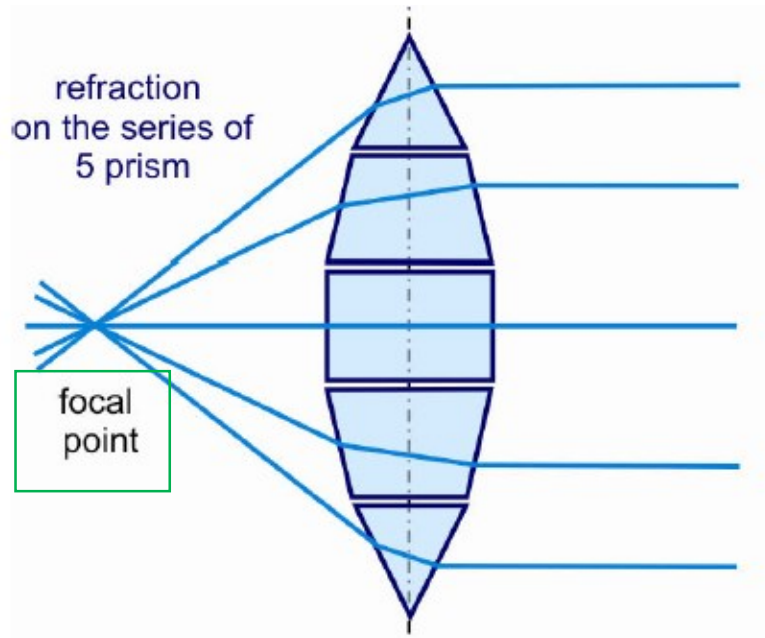






We have to apply SD twice
(and additionally *a LOT of geometrical calculations*, to get the angles and the normals)

-> **geometrical** optics



with a suitable arrangement rays originating (or coming) **out of one point** will become parallel, and vica versa.

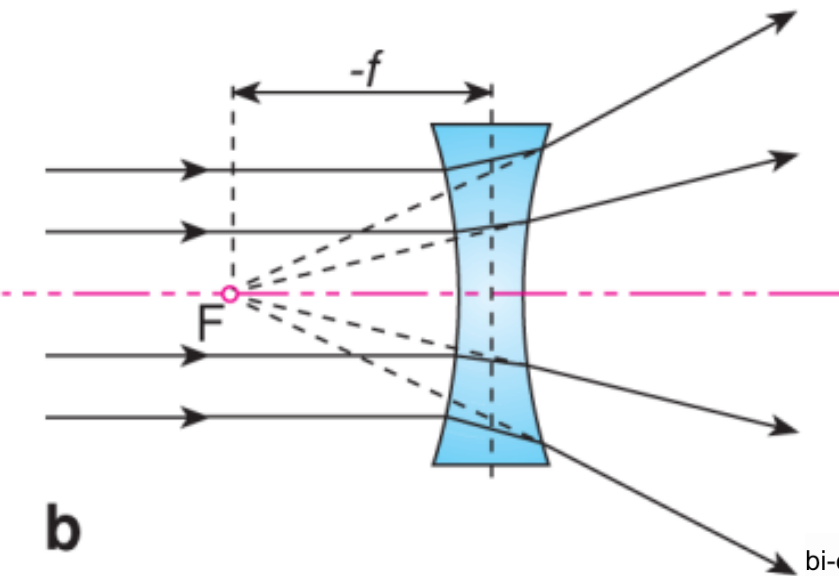
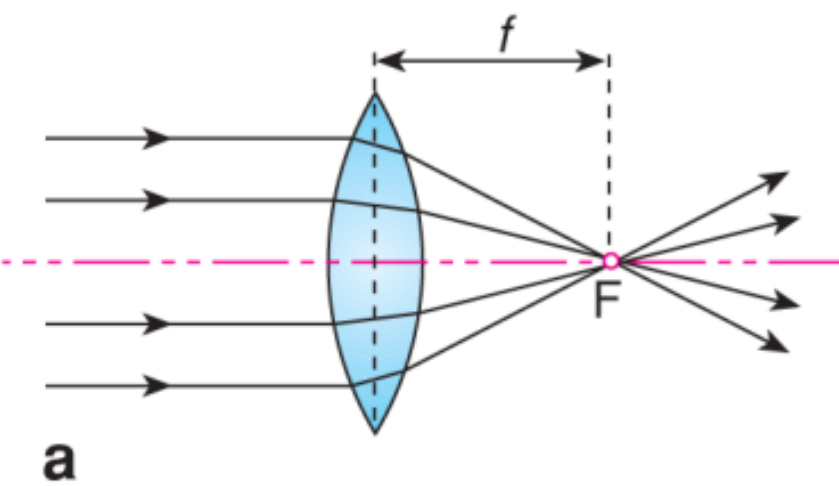


image formation of the diverging lens

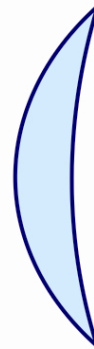
bi-convex



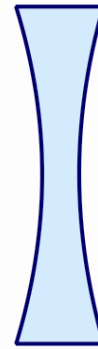
planar convex



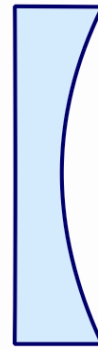
meniscus convex



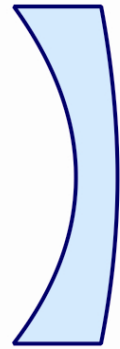
bi-concave

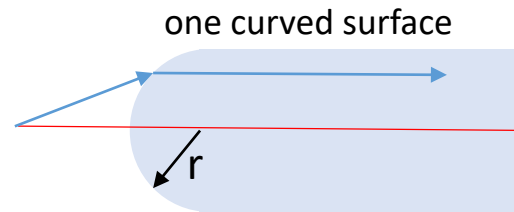


planar concave



meniscus concave





$$D = \frac{n - n'}{r}$$