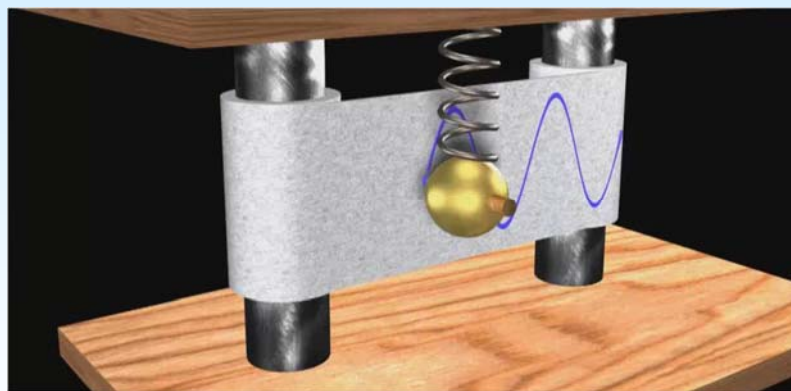
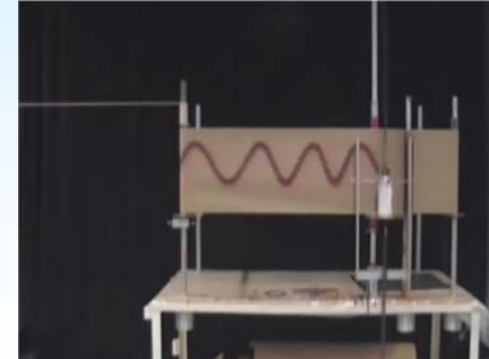


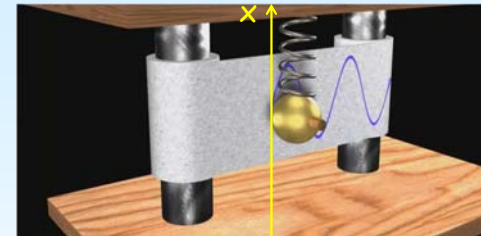
## Kapitel 14 - Harmonisk oscillator



Experiment to find a mathematical description of harmonic oscillation



Conclusion: Harmonic oscillation can be described by the function:  
 $x = A \sin(Bt + C)$   
where  $t$  is time and  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are constants describing the motion.



$$x = A \sin(Bt + C)$$

or

$$x = A \cos(Bt + C - \pi/2)$$

$x$  : Vertical displacement. Unit: meters

$t$  : Time. Unit: seconds

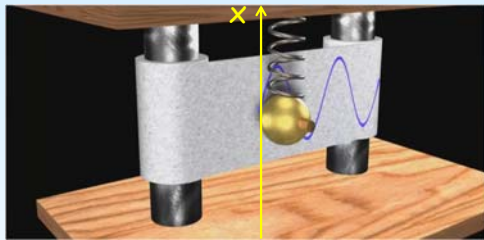
$A$  : Amplitude (maximum movement). Unit: meters

$B = \omega$  : Angular frequency (number of oscillations per second times  $2\pi$ ).  
Unit: Radians per second

$C = \phi$  : Phase angle that determines position at time = 0. Unit: radians



# Harmonic oscillation: f and T



$$X = A \sin(\omega t + \phi')$$

or

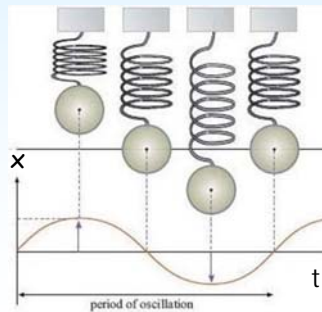
$$X = A \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

T: Period = The time it takes for the weight to go up and down. Unit: seconds

f: Frequency = The number of periods per second. Unit: 1/Seconds

$$f = 1 / T \quad \omega = 2\pi f$$

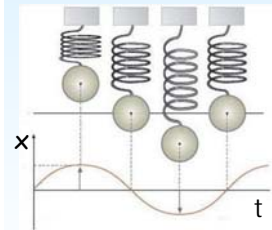
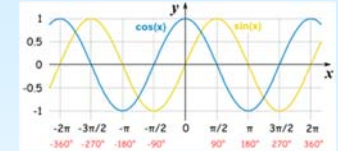
Formelsamling



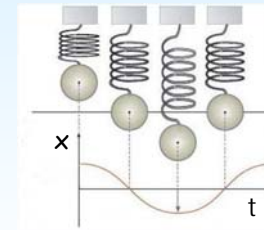
# Harmonic oscillation: Phase angle



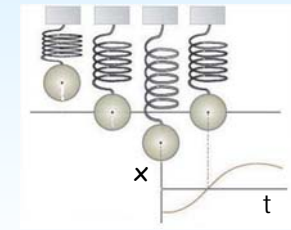
The phase angle ( $\phi$ ) determines the position at time = 0 since then  $x = A \sin(\phi)$  or  $x = A \cos(\phi)$



$$X = A \sin(\omega t)$$
$$X = A \cos(\omega t - \pi/2)$$



$$X = A \cos(\omega t)$$
$$X = A \sin(\omega t + \pi/2)$$



$$X = A \cos(\omega t + \pi)$$
$$X = A \sin(\omega t - \pi/2)$$



# Harmonic oscillation: velocity & acceleration



We now have a mathematical description of the displacement.

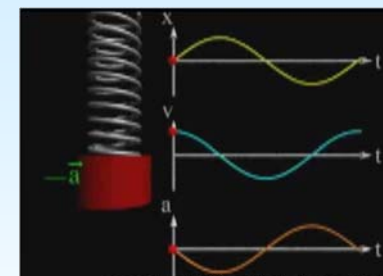
What is the velocity and acceleration ?

$$v(t) = \frac{dx}{dt}$$

$$a(t) = \frac{dv}{dt}$$



# Harmonic oscillation: velocity & acceleration



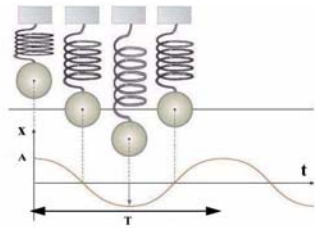
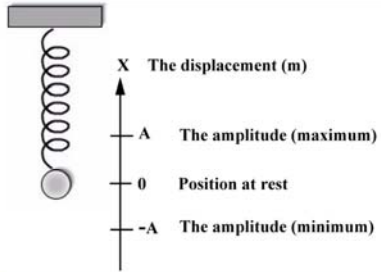
Displacement:  $x = A \sin(\omega t) \rightarrow x_{\max} = A$

Velocity:  $v = \frac{dx}{dt} \quad v = \omega A \cos(\omega t) \rightarrow v_{\max} = \omega A$

Acceleration:  $a = \frac{dv}{dt} \quad a = -\omega^2 A \sin(\omega t) \rightarrow a_{\max} = \omega^2 A$



# Harmonic oscillation: Summary



- x** The displacement (m)
- A** The amplitude (m)
- t** Time (s)
- T** Period (s)
- f** Frequency (Hz) =  $1 / T$
- $\omega$**  Angular Frequency (Hz) =  $2\pi / T = 2\pi f$

$$x = A \cos(\omega t + \phi) \rightarrow x_{\max} = A \quad x_{\min} = -A$$

$$v = -\omega A \sin(\omega t + \phi) \rightarrow v_{\max} = \omega A \quad v_{\min} = -\omega A$$

$$a = -\omega^2 A \cos(\omega t + \phi) \rightarrow a_{\max} = \omega^2 A \quad a_{\min} = -\omega^2 A$$



# Harmonic oscillation: The spring

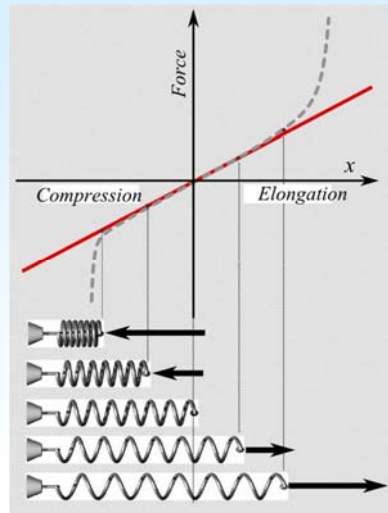
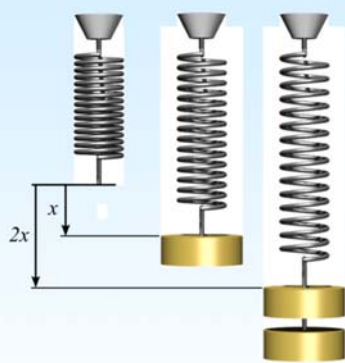


## Properties of a spring

## Hooke's law & Forces



# Harmonic oscillation: The spring



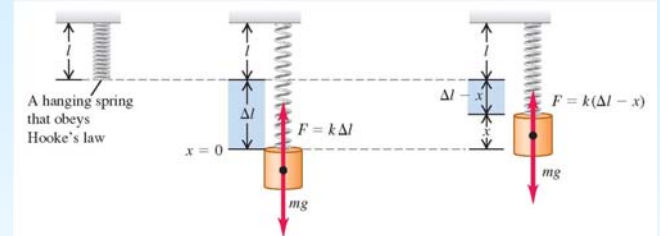
$$F = -kX \quad \text{Formelsamling}$$



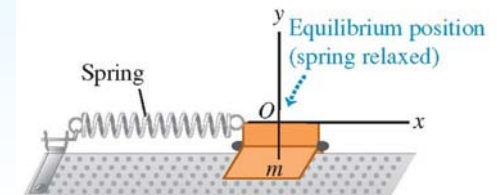
# Harmonic oscillation: The spring



Gravity will stretch the spring to a new equilibrium position.



This is not the case when the spring is horizontal.



However, the oscillations will be the same.



## Harmonic oscillation: Forces



**Newton's first law of motion:** A body acted on by no net force moves with constant velocity (which may be zero) and zero acceleration.

**Newton's second law of motion:** If a net external force acts on a body, the body accelerates. The direction of acceleration is the same as the direction of the net force. The mass of the body times the acceleration of the body equals the net force vector.

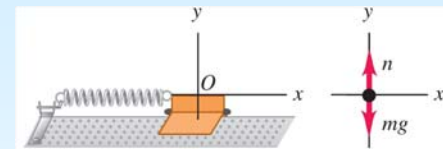
$$\sum \vec{F} = m\vec{a} \quad (\text{Newton's second law of motion})$$



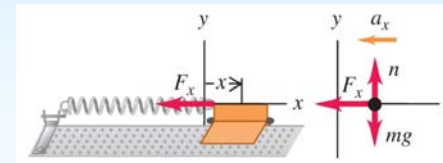
## Harmonic oscillation: Forces



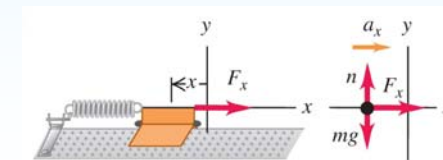
$$x = 0 \quad F_{\text{total}} = 0 \quad a_x = 0$$



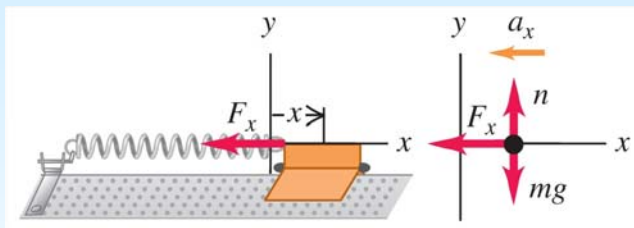
$$x > 0 \quad F_{\text{total}} < 0 \quad a_x < 0$$



$$x < 0 \quad F_{\text{total}} > 0 \quad a_x > 0$$



## Harmonic oscillation: Forces



$$F_x = -kx \quad (\text{restoring force exerted by an ideal spring})$$

$$\sum \vec{F} = m\vec{a} \quad (\text{Newton's second law of motion})$$

$$a_x = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -\frac{k}{m}x \quad (\text{simple harmonic motion})$$



## Harmonic oscillation: Forces



Old formulas:

$$x = A \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$v = -\omega A \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$a = -\omega^2 A \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$a_x = -\omega^2 x$$

New formula:

$$a_x = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -\frac{k}{m}x \quad (\text{simple harmonic motion})$$

Combine:

$$-\omega^2 x = -\frac{k}{m}x$$

Formelsamling

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

The frequency depends on the spring constant and the mass



# Harmonic oscillation: Forces



An alternative way to look at it:

$$a_x = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -\frac{k}{m}x \quad (\text{simple harmonic motion})$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial t^2} + \frac{k}{m}x = 0$$

This is a differential equation with the following solution:

$$x = A\cos(\omega t + \varphi)$$

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

$$-\omega^2 A\cos(\omega t + \varphi) + \frac{k}{m}A\cos(\omega t + \varphi) = 0$$

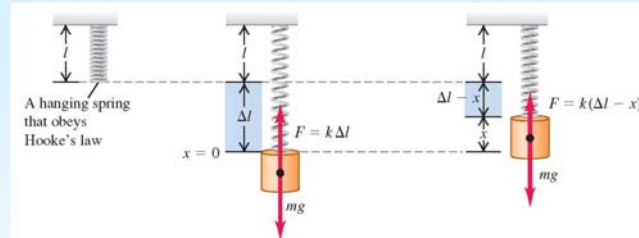
$$-\omega^2 A\cos(\omega t + \varphi) + \omega^2 A\cos(\omega t + \varphi) = 0$$



# Harmonic oscillation: Forces



Gravity will stretch the spring to a new equilibrium position.



# Harmonic oscillation: Forces

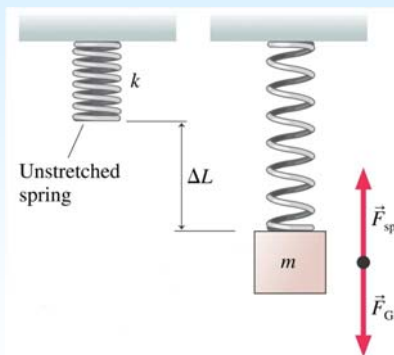


The mass hangs in the spring without oscillations:

$$\vec{F}_{total} = \vec{F}_{sp} - \vec{F}_G = k\Delta L - mg$$

$$\vec{F}_{total} = m\vec{a} = 0$$

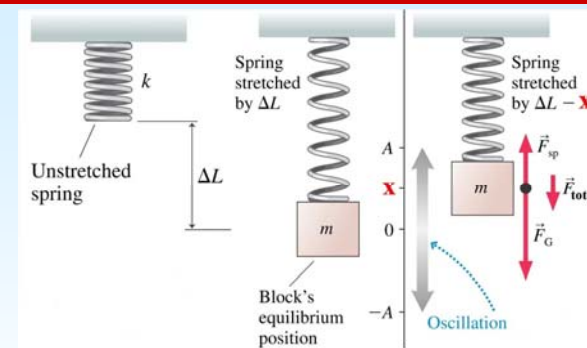
$$\Delta L = \frac{mg}{k}$$



# Harmonic oscillation: Forces



The mass hangs in the spring and oscillates:



$$\vec{F}_{total} = \vec{F}_{sp} - \vec{F}_G = k(\Delta L - x) - mg$$



## Harmonic oscillation: Forces



Spring at rest:  $\Delta L = \frac{mg}{k}$

$$\vec{F}_{total} = \vec{F}_{sp} - \vec{F}_G = k(\Delta L - x) - mg$$

$$\vec{F}_{total} = \vec{F}_{sp} - \vec{F}_G = -kx$$

Newton's second law:

$$\vec{F}_{total} = m\vec{a} \neq 0$$

$$-kx = m\vec{a} = m \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial t^2} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial t^2} + \frac{k}{m}x = 0$$

This is a differential equation with the following solution:

$$x = A \cos(\omega t + \varphi) \quad \omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$



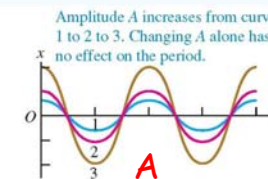
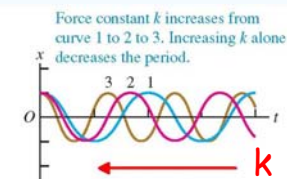
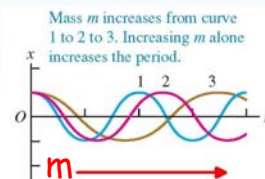
## Harmonic oscillation: Frequency



$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} \quad (\text{simple harmonic motion})$$

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{m}{k}} \quad (\text{simple harmonic motion})$$

Note:  $f$  and  $T$  depends only on  $k$  and  $m$  but not on the amplitude !



## Harmonic oscillation: Summary Forces



Hooke's law for a spring

$$F = -kX$$

$$\Delta L = \frac{mg}{k}$$

$$\vec{F}_{total} = \vec{F}_{sp} - \vec{F}_G = k(\Delta L - x) - mg$$

The differential equation describing the motion:

$$\frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial t^2} + \frac{k}{m}x = 0$$

$$x = A \cos(\omega t + \varphi) \\ \omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

Formelsamling

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} \quad (\text{simple harmonic motion})$$

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{m}{k}} \quad (\text{simple harmonic motion})$$



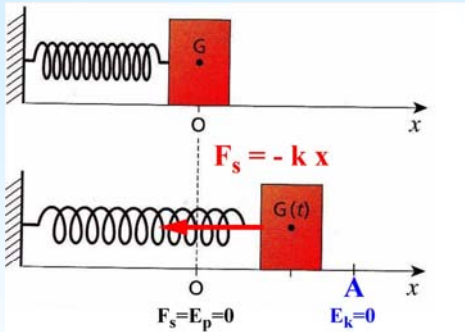
## Harmonic oscillation: Energy



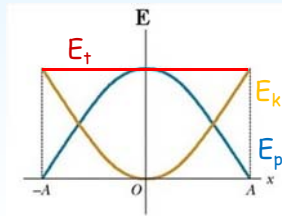
# Energy in harmonic oscillation



# Harmonic oscillation: Energy



The total mechanical energy is constant



Kinetic energy:  $E_k = \frac{mv^2}{2}$   
 Potential energy:  $E_p = \frac{kx^2}{2}$   
 Total energy:  $E_t = E_k + E_p = \frac{kA^2}{2}$  ( $E_k = 0$  for  $x = A$ )



# Harmonic oscillation: Energy



$$x = A \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$v = -\omega A \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

$$E_p = \frac{1}{2} kx^2 = \frac{1}{2} kA^2 \cos^2(\omega t + \phi)$$

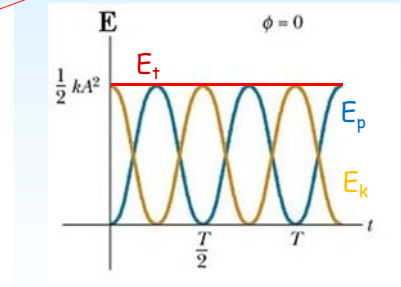
$$E_k = \frac{1}{2} mv^2 = \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 A^2 \sin^2(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$E_k = \frac{1}{2} kA^2 \sin^2(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$E_t = E_k + E_p$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} kA^2 (\cos^2(\omega t + \phi) + \sin^2(\omega t + \phi))$$

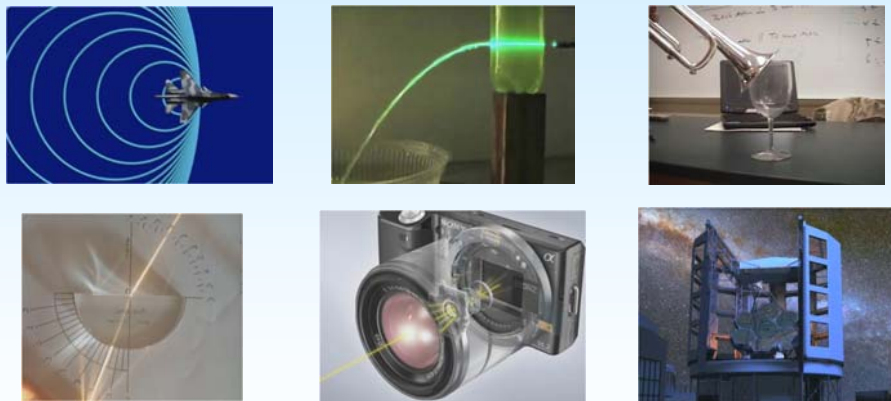
$$= \frac{1}{2} kA^2$$



$$E = \frac{1}{2} mv_x^2 + \frac{1}{2} kx^2 = \frac{1}{2} kA^2 = konst.$$



# Vågrörelselära och optik



## Kapitel 15 - Mekaniska vågor



# Mechanical waves: Transverse waves



## Transverse waves



## Mechanical waves: Transverse waves



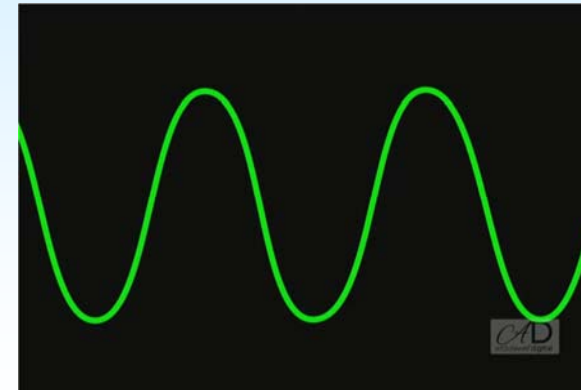
Transverse wave: The medium moves transverse to the wave direction.



## Mechanical waves: Transverse waves



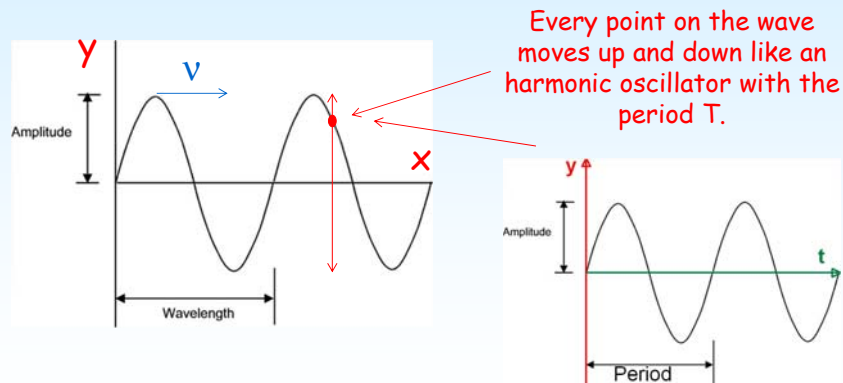
A sinusoidal transverse wave is when the waves have a periodic sinus shape.



## Mechanical waves: Transverse waves



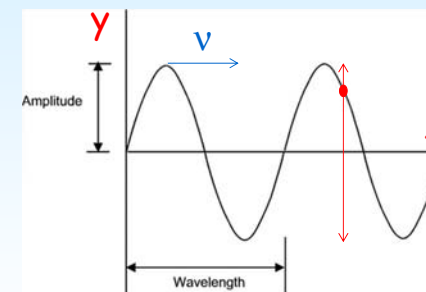
Transversal sinusoidal wave:



## Mechanical waves: Transverse waves



Definitions:



- A: Amplitude (m)
- T: Period (s)
- $\lambda$ : Wavelength (m)
- $v$ : Wave speed (m/s) =  $\lambda / T$
- $f$ : Frequency (Hz) =  $1 / T$
- $\omega$ : Angular frequency (radians/s) =  $2 \pi f$
- $k$ : Wave number (radians/m) =  $2 \pi / \lambda$





# Mechanical waves: Longitudinal waves



## Longitudinal waves



# Mechanical waves: Longitudinal waves



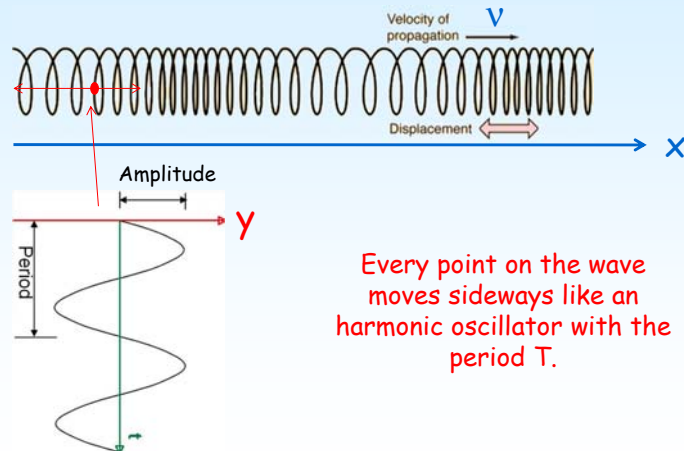
Longitudinal wave: The medium moves in the wave direction.



# Mechanical waves



## Longitudinal sinusoidal wave



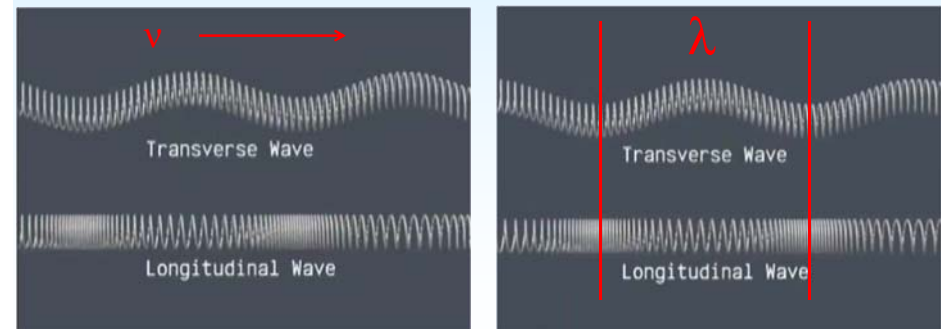
# Mechanical waves: Longitudinal waves



What is the wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) for a sinusoidal wave ?

What is the wave speed ( $v$ ) ?

$$v = \lambda / T$$





# Mechanical waves: The wavefunction



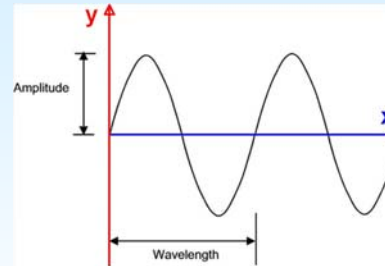
## The wavefunction



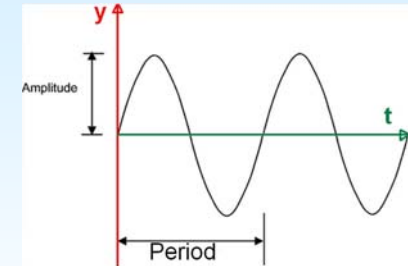
# Mechanical waves: The wavefunction



The height of the wave as a function of distance  $x$



The height of the wave as a function of time  $t$

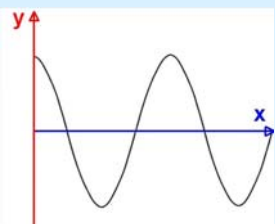


Wavefunction  $y(x,t)$ :

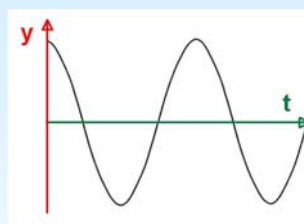
Function that describes the height of the wave as a function of time and distance



# Mechanical waves: The wavefunction



$$y(x, t = 0) = A \cos kx$$



$$y(x = 0, t) = A \cos \omega t$$

$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t) \quad (\text{sinusoidal wave moving in } +x\text{-direction})$$

+ if moving in the  $-x$  direction



# Mechanical waves: The wavefunction



$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t) \quad (\text{sinusoidal wave moving in } +x\text{-direction})$$

Amplitude:  $A$

Wavenumber:

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$v = \lambda / T$$

$$f = 1 / T$$

Angular frequency:

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

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$$v = \lambda / T = (2\pi/k) / (2\pi/\omega) = \omega / k$$



## Mechanical waves: Summary



The wavefunction:  $y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$

Velocity and acceleration up and down:

$$v_y(x, t) = \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t} = \omega A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$a_y(x, t) = \frac{\partial^2 y(x, t)}{\partial t^2} = -\omega^2 A \cos(kx - \omega t) = -\omega^2 y(x, t)$$

The wave equation:  $\frac{\partial^2 y(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 y(x, t)}{\partial t^2}$  Formelsamling

$$v = \lambda / T = (2\pi/k) / (2\pi/\omega) = \omega / k$$



## Mechanical waves: Wave speed



# Wave speed and the string characteristics



## Mechanical waves: Wave speed



The wave speed in a string depends on two things:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{F}{\mu}}$$

Formelsamling

Force (or string tension)

String mass per unit length



More generally:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Restoring force returning the system to equilibrium}}{\text{Inertia resisting the return to equilibrium}}}$$



## Mechanical waves: Reflections



# Reflections



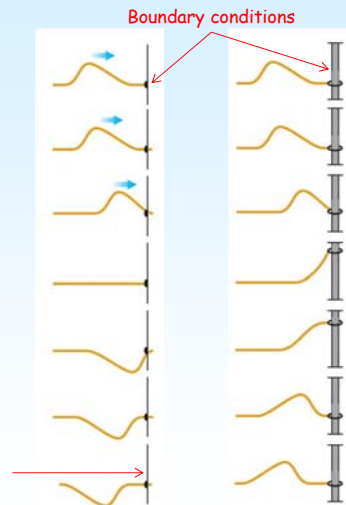
## Mechanical waves: Reflections



### Reflections of a wave



The support provides an opposite force which produces an inverted wave.



## Mechanical waves: Reflections



The wavefunction of two waves is typically the sum of the individual wavefunctions.

$$y(x, t) = y_1(x, t) + y_2(x, t)$$

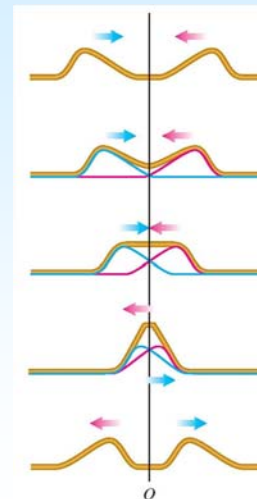
This is called the principle of superposition.

This is true if the wave equations for the waves are linear (they contain the function  $y(x,t)$  only to the first power).

For example can sinusoidal waves be superimposed like this because their wave equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 y(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 y(x, t)}{\partial t^2}$$

is linear.



## Mechanical waves: Standing waves



### Standing waves

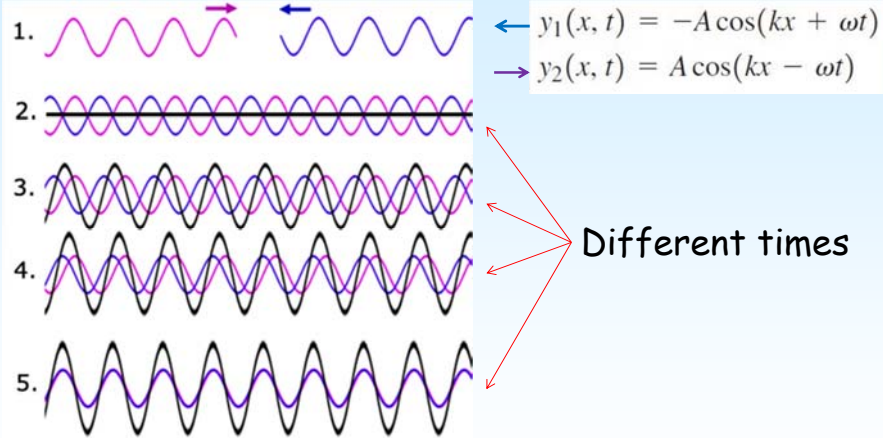


## Mechanical waves: Standing waves





## Mechanical waves: Standing waves



$$y(x, t) = y_1(x, t) + y_2(x, t) = A[-\cos(kx + \omega t) + \cos(kx - \omega t)]$$



## Mechanical waves: Standing waves



Wavefunction from superposition of two waves:

$$y(x, t) = y_1(x, t) + y_2(x, t) = A[-\cos(kx + \omega t) + \cos(kx - \omega t)]$$

Trigonometrical relationship:  $\cos(a \mp b) = \cos a \cos b \pm \sin a \sin b$



Wavefunction:  $y(x, t) = y_1(x, t) + y_2(x, t) = 2A \sin kx \sin \omega t$

Nodes are given by  $\sin(kx) = 0$   $kx = 0, \pi, 2\pi, 3\pi, \dots$   $k = 2\pi/\lambda$

$$x = 0, \frac{\pi}{k}, \frac{2\pi}{k}, \frac{3\pi}{k}, \dots$$

$$= 0, \frac{\lambda}{2}, \frac{2\lambda}{2}, \frac{3\lambda}{2}, \dots$$



## Mechanical waves: Standing waves



Wavefunction:

$$y(x, t) = 2A \sin(kx) \sin(\omega t)$$

Velocity:

$$v_y(x, t) = \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t} \Rightarrow v_y(x, t) = 2A\omega \sin(kx) \cos(\omega t)$$

Acceleration:

$$a_y(x, t) = \frac{\partial v_y(x, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 y(x, t)}{\partial t^2} \Rightarrow a_y(x, t) = -2A\omega^2 \sin(kx) \sin(\omega t)$$



## Mechanical waves: Stringed instrument



Stringed  
instrument





# Mechanical waves: Stringed instrument



Instrument with strings of length  $L$  has nodes at both ends.

Nodes when  $x = 0, \frac{\pi}{k}, \frac{2\pi}{k}, \frac{3\pi}{k}, \dots$   
 $\sin(kx) = 0$   
 $= 0, \frac{\lambda}{2}, \frac{2\lambda}{2}, \frac{3\lambda}{2}, \dots$

$$L = n \frac{\lambda}{2} \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

$$\lambda_n = \frac{2L}{n} \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

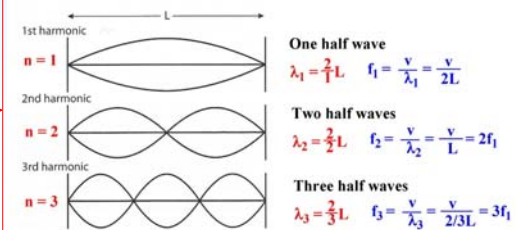
Formelsamling

$$\lambda = v / f$$

$$f_n = n \frac{v}{2L} = n f_1 \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

$f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots$  Harmonic frequencies  
 $f_1$ : Fundamental frequency  
 $f_2, f_3, f_4, \dots$  Overtones

$\lambda_n = \frac{2L}{n}$     $f_n = \frac{v}{\lambda_n}$    where the velocity ( $v$ ) is the same for all  $n$



# Mechanical waves: Stringed instrument



$$f_1 = v/2L$$

Formelsamling

$$v = \sqrt{F/\mu}$$

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2L} \sqrt{\frac{F}{\mu}}$$



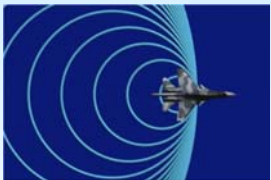
Long string: Low frequency  
Thick string: Low frequency  
Large tension: High frequency



A stringed instrument does not produce only harmonic frequencies but a superposition of many normal modes.



# Vågrörelselära och optik



## Kapitel 16 - Ljud



# Sound & Pressure



## Sound as pressure waves



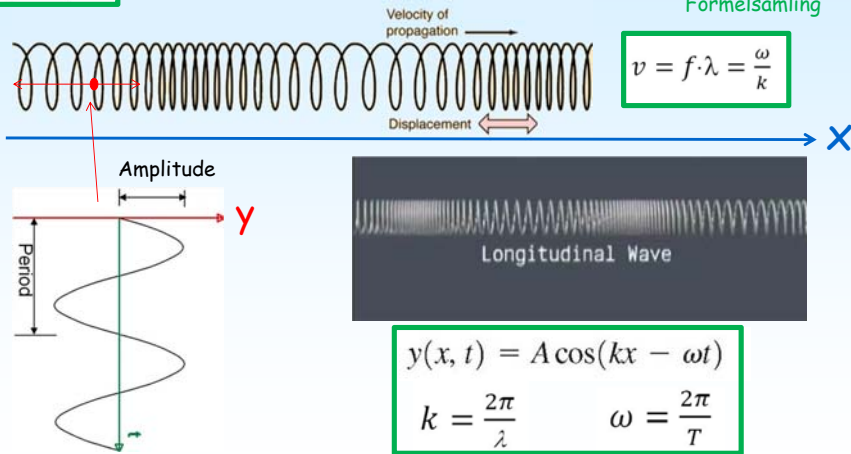
# Sound & Pressure



$$f_1 = v/2L$$

## Longitudinal sinusoidal wave

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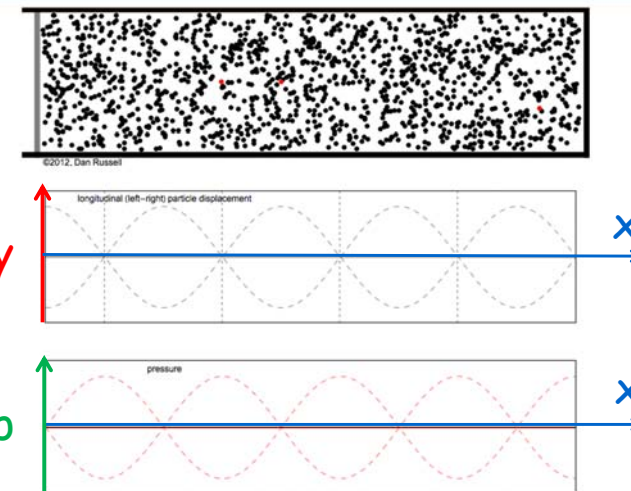
# Sound & Pressure



Piston moving in and out:

Air molecule movement:

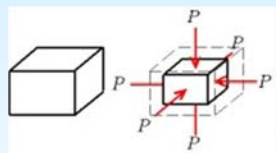
Pressure:



# Sound & Pressure



## Bulk modulus



The bulk modulus measures a medium's resistance to uniform compression:

$$B = -V \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta V}$$

→ Pressure change  
→ Volume change

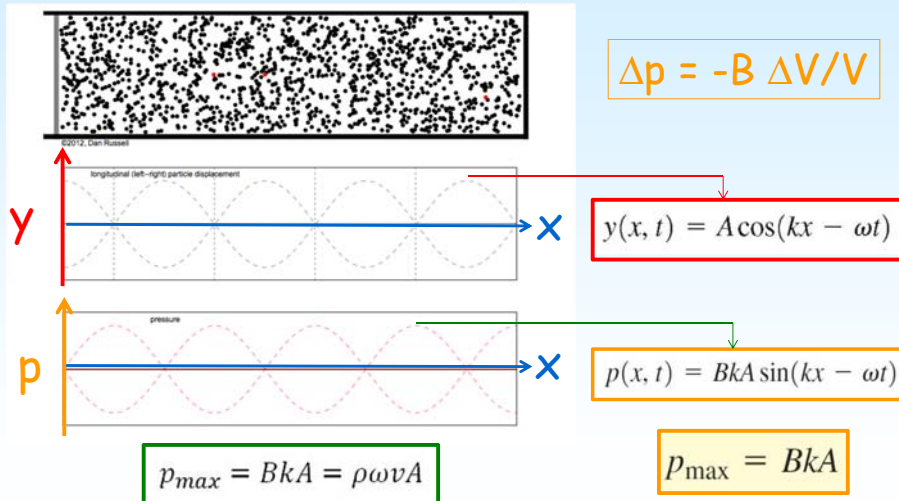
The change in pressure after a change of volume:

$$\Delta p = -B \Delta V/V$$

Pressure increase:  $\Delta p > 0$  and  $\Delta V < 0$



# Sound & Pressure





## The velocity of sound waves



General:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Restoring force returning the system to equilibrium}}{\text{Inertia resisting the return to equilibrium}}}$$

String:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{F}{\mu}}$$

F: String tension  
 $\mu$ : Mass per unit length

Liquid:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}}$$

B: Bulk modulus  
 $\rho$ : Density

Solid:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{Y}{\rho}}$$

Y: Young's module  
 $\rho$ : Density

Gas:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}}$$

B: Bulk modulus  
 $\rho$ : Density

Formelsamling



## Power of mechanical waves on strings



The power in general:

$$P = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v}$$
 (instantaneous rate at which force  $\vec{F}$  does work on a particle)

Wave power (P):

$$P(x, t) = F_y(x, t)v_y(x, t)$$

$y$  is the only direction where the velocity is not zero

The instantaneous rate at which energy is transferred along the wave.

Unit: W or J/s





# Mechanical waves: Power



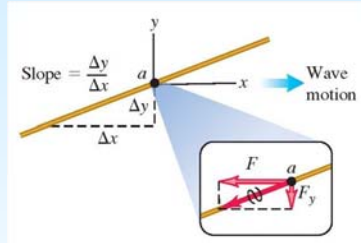
$$y = x^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 4 \text{ for } x = 2$$



The derivative gives the slope of the tangent.



The ratio of the force in the y-direction to the force in the x-direction is the slope of the string:

$$\text{Slope} = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{F_y}{F} = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$F_y(x, t) = -F \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x}$$



# Mechanical waves: Power



The power in general:  $P = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v}$  (instantaneous rate at which force  $\vec{F}$  does work on a particle)

Wave power (P):

$$P(x, t) = F_y(x, t)v_y(x, t) = -F \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t}$$

The instantaneous rate at which energy is transferred along the wave.

Unit: W or J/s



# Mechanical waves: Power



$$P(x, t) = F_y(x, t)v_y(x, t) = -F \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t}$$

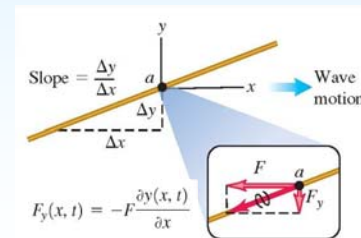
$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x} = -kA \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t} = \omega A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

The wave power:

$$P(x, t) = Fk\omega A^2 \sin^2(kx - \omega t)$$



# Mechanical waves: Power

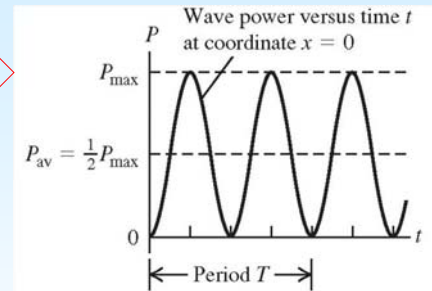


The wave power:

$$P(x, t) = Fk\omega A^2 \sin^2(kx - \omega t)$$

$$P_{max} = Fk\omega A^2 = \sqrt{\mu F} \omega^2 A^2$$

$$P_{av} = \frac{1}{2} Fk\omega A^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\mu F} \omega^2 A^2$$



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$$v = \sqrt{\frac{F}{\mu}} \quad \rightarrow \quad k = \frac{\omega}{\sqrt{F/\mu}}$$

$$v = \frac{\omega}{k}$$



## The power of sound



The wave power:  $P(x, t) = F_y(x, t)v_y(x, t)$

The pressure function:

$$p(x, t) = BkA \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

Pressure is equal to force per unit area

The wave function:

$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

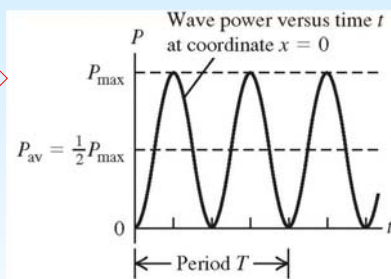
$$v_y(x, t) = \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t} = \omega A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\text{The wave power per unit area: } P(x, t)/\text{Area} = B\omega k A^2 \sin^2(kx - \omega t)$$



The wave power:

$$P(x, t)/\text{Area} = B\omega k A^2 \sin^2(kx - \omega t)$$



$$P_{\max}/\text{Area} = B\omega k A^2 = \sqrt{\rho B} \omega^2 A^2$$

$$P_{\text{av}}/\text{Area} = \frac{1}{2} B\omega k A^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\rho B} \omega^2 A^2$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \omega/\mathbf{k} \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{k} = \omega / \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}}$$



Power in general:

$$P = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v}$$

(instantaneous rate at which force  $\vec{F}$  does work on a particle)

Wave power - string:

$$P(x, t) = Fk\omega A^2 \sin^2(kx - \omega t)$$

$$P_{\max} = Fk\omega A^2 = \sqrt{\mu F} \omega^2 A^2$$

$$P_{\text{av}} = \frac{1}{2} Fk\omega A^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\mu F} \omega^2 A^2$$

Wave power - sound:

$$P(x, t)/\text{Area} = B\omega k A^2 \sin^2(kx - \omega t)$$

$$P_{\max}/\text{Area} = B\omega k A^2 = \sqrt{\rho B} \omega^2 A^2$$

$$P_{\text{av}}/\text{Area} = \frac{1}{2} B\omega k A^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\rho B} \omega^2 A^2$$



## Intensity of sound



The power in general:  $P = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v}$  (instantaneous rate at which force  $\vec{F}$  does work on a particle)

Wave power (P):  
The instantaneous rate at which energy is transferred along the wave.

Unit: W or J/s

$$P(x, t) = F_y(x, t)v_y(x, t) = -F \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t}$$

Wave intensity (I):  
Average power per unit area through a surface perpendicular to the wave direction.

Unit: W/m<sup>2</sup>

$$I = P_{av} / A_{area}$$

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$$I = \frac{\text{Effekt}}{\text{Area}}$$



$$I = P_{av}/Area = \frac{1}{2} B \omega k A^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\rho B} \omega^2 A^2$$

The pressure function:

$$p(x, t) = BkA \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

The pressure amplitude:

$$p_{max} = BkA$$

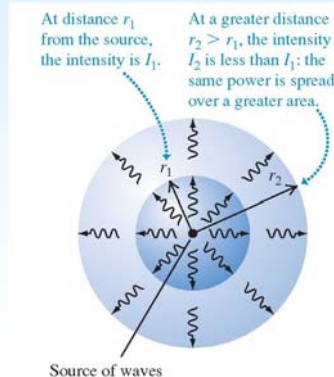
$$I = \frac{p_{max}^2}{2\sqrt{\rho B}}$$

The intensity is proportional to the square of the pressure amplitude

$$p_{max} = BkA = \rho \omega v A \quad I = \frac{1}{2} \rho (\omega A)^2 v = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\rho B} (\omega A)^2 = \frac{p_{max}^2}{2\rho v} = \frac{p_{max}^2}{2\sqrt{\rho B}}$$



Wave intensity (I): The rate at which energy is transported by a wave through a surface perpendicular to the wave direction per unit surface area (average power per unit area). Unit: W/m<sup>2</sup>



The intensity through a sphere with radius  $r_1$

$$I_1 = \frac{P}{4\pi r_1^2}$$

If there is no loss of power:

$$4\pi r_1^2 I_1 = 4\pi r_2^2 I_2$$

$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{r_2^2}{r_1^2} \quad (\text{inverse-square law for intensity})$$



## The decibel scale of the intensity



## Intensity in the unit of decibel (dB)

$$\beta = (10 \text{ dB}) \log \frac{I}{I_0} \quad (\text{definition of sound intensity level}) \quad \text{Formelsamling}$$

$I_0 = 10^{-12} \text{ W/m}^2$  is a reference intensity  
It is roughly the threshold of human hearing

$$\begin{aligned} \beta &= 0 \text{ dB} && \text{for } I = I_0 \\ \beta &= 120 \text{ dB} && \text{for } I = 1 \text{ W/m}^2 \end{aligned}$$

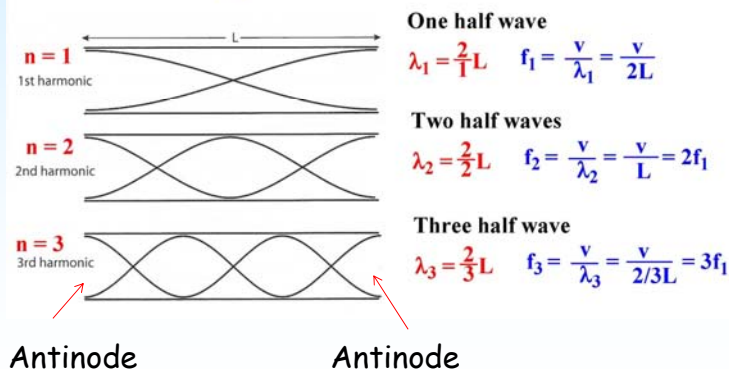


## Sound and standing waves



## Standing wave in an open pipe

$$\lambda_n = \frac{2}{n}L \quad f_n = \frac{v}{\lambda_n} \quad \text{where the velocity (v) is the same for all n}$$





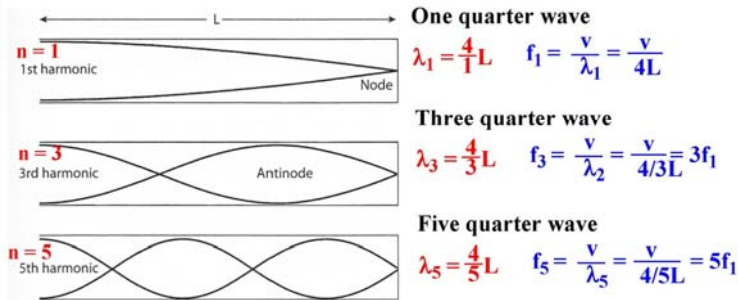
# Sound – Standing waves



## Standing wave in a closed pipe

$$\lambda_n = \frac{4}{n}L \quad f_n = \frac{v}{\lambda_n} \quad \text{where the velocity (v) is the same for all n}$$

Here the pressure is atmospheric giving displacement antinode (pressure node)



NOTE that n = 2, 4, 6 cannot happen in a closed pipe



# Sound – Standing waves

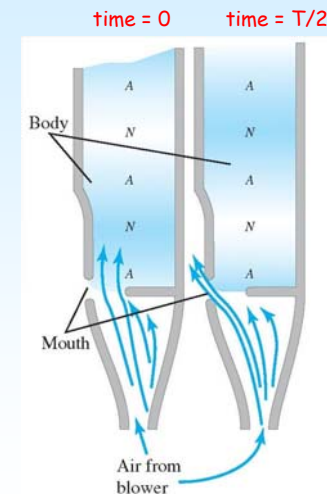


Organpipe: Airflow from below.

Standing wave: If the airspeed and pipelengths are chosen correctly.

Mouth: Pipe is open at the bottom and gives a pressure node (displacement antinode).

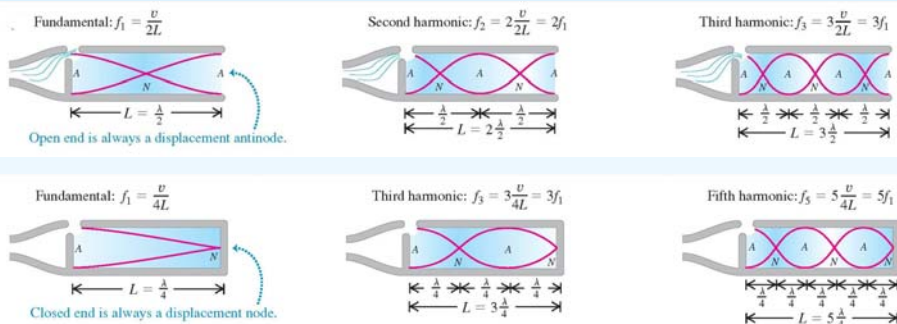
Airflow: Depending on time the air flow will either go into the pipe or out through the mouth.



# Sound – Standing waves



An organ pipe can be open-open or open-closed.  
Remember: The distance between two nodes is  $\lambda/2$



$f_n = \frac{nv}{2L} \quad f_n = \frac{nv}{4L} \quad (n \text{ udda})$

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# Sound – Doppler effect



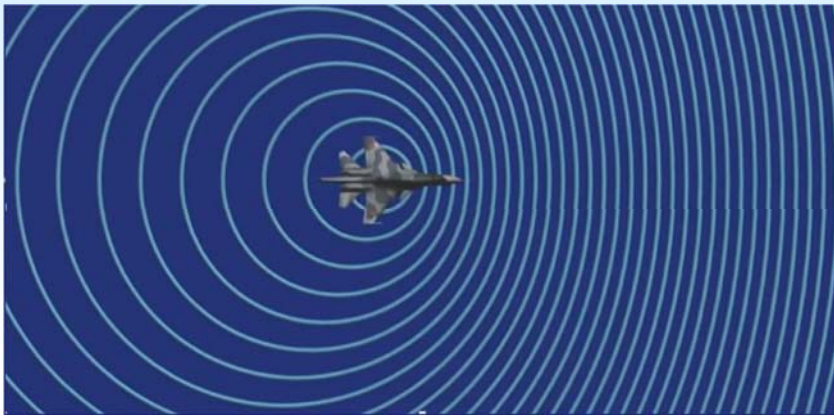
## The Doppler effect



# Sound – Doppler effect



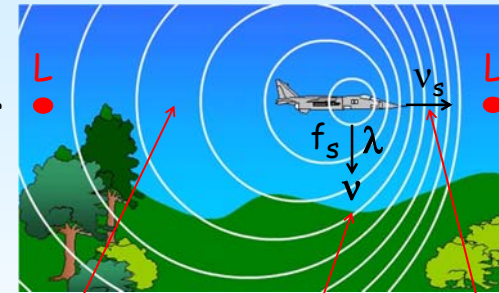
## Doppler effect



# Sound – Doppler effect



The time for a sound wave to reach a listener (L) gets longer if the source (S) is moving away.



The time for a sound wave to reach a listener (L) gets shorter if the source is moving closer.



$\lambda_{\text{behind}}$  longer

$$\lambda_{\text{behind}} = \frac{v + v_S}{f_S}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{v}{f_S}$$



$\lambda_{\text{in front}}$  shorter

$$\lambda_{\text{in front}} = \frac{v - v_S}{f_S}$$

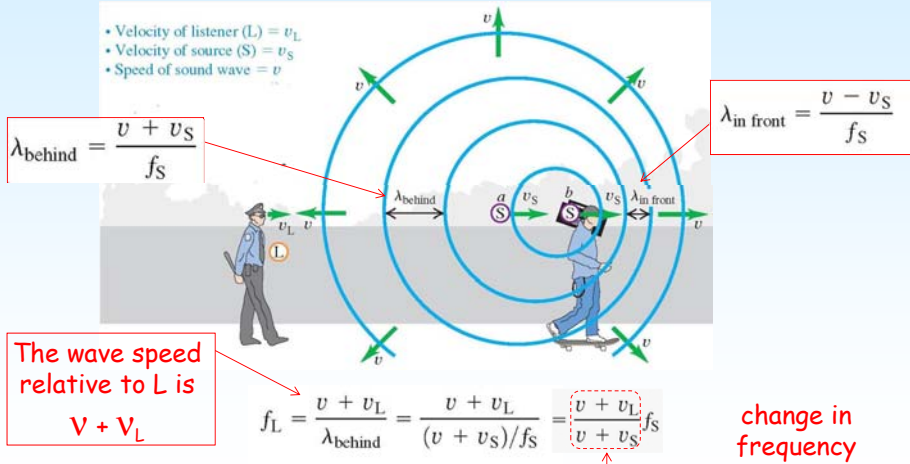


# Sound – Doppler effect



## What if the listener is also moving?

- Velocity of listener (L) =  $v_L$
- Velocity of source (S) =  $v_S$
- Speed of sound wave =  $v$



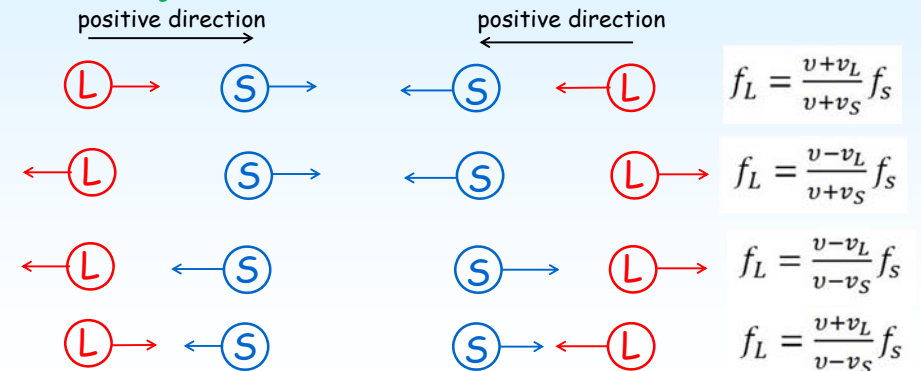
# Sound – Doppler effect



$$f_L = \frac{v + v_L}{v + v_S} f_S$$

always works if the positive direction is defined as going from the listener to the source.

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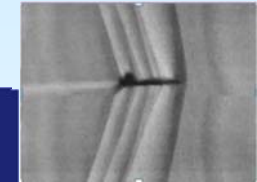
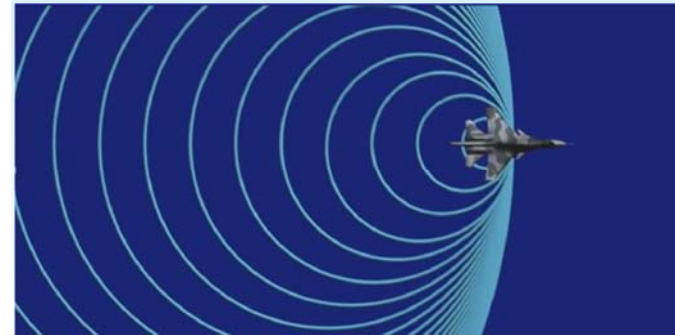




## Shockwave



## Shock waves



$$\lambda_{\text{in front}} = \frac{v - v_s}{f}$$

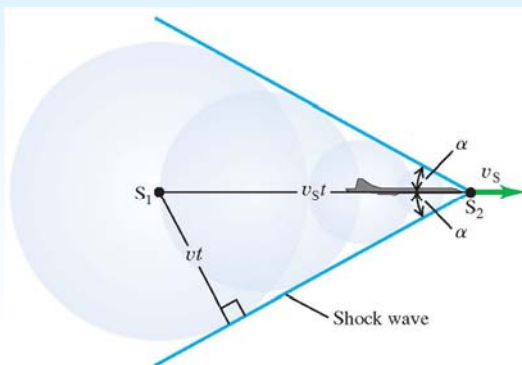
v: Speed of sound  
v<sub>s</sub>: Speed of the plane

v<sub>s</sub> > v Shockwave is created (not only when v<sub>s</sub> = v)  
v<sub>s</sub> > v No sound in front of the plane



A conical shock wave is produced if a plane flies faster than the speed of sound.

A series of circular wave crests from the plane interfere constructively along a line that is given by an angle  $\alpha$ .



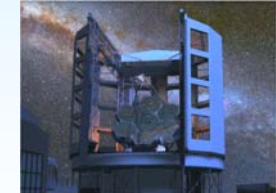
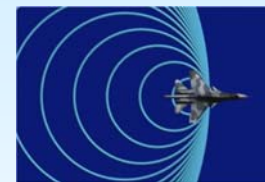
v: Speed of sound  
v<sub>s</sub>: Speed of the plane

Speed of the plane in Mach number:

$$N_M = v_s/v$$

$$\sin \alpha = \frac{vt}{vst} = \frac{v}{v_s}$$

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## Kapitel 32 - Elektromagnetiska vågor



## Electromagnetic waves Maxwell's equations



The implications of Maxwell's Equations for magnetic and electric fields:

1. A **static electric field** can exist in the **absence of a magnetic field** e.g. a capacitor with a static charge has an electric field without a magnetic field.
2. A **constant magnetic field** can exist **without an electric field** e.g. a conductor with constant current has a magnetic field without an electric field.
3. Where **electric fields are time-variable**, a **non-zero magnetic field** must exist.
4. Where **magnetic fields are time-variable**, a **non-zero electric field** must exist.
5. **Magnetic fields** can be generated by permanent **magnets**, by an **electric current** or by a **changing electric field**.
6. Magnetic monopoles cannot exist. All lines of **magnetic flux are closed loops**.



## Electromagnetic waves Maxwell's equations



### The speed of light from Maxwell's equations

$$E = c B \quad \text{from Faraday's law}$$

$$E = B / (\epsilon_0 \mu_0 c) \quad \text{from Ampere's law}$$

$$\epsilon_0 \text{ is the permittivity in vacuum} = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m}$$

$$\mu_0 \text{ is the permeability in vacuum} = 1.26 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N/A}^2$$

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$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}} = 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\vec{E} = c \vec{B} \quad c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

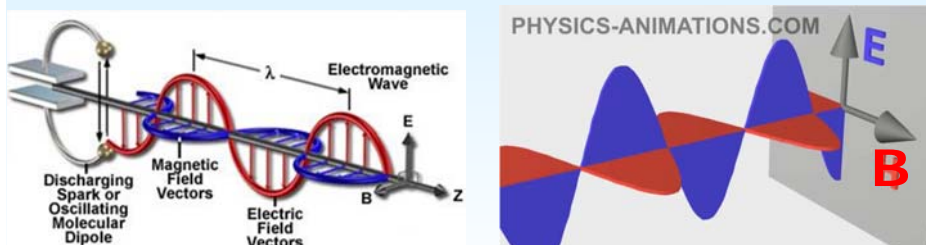
Permittivity: A medium's ability to form an electric field in itself.  
Permeability: A medium's ability to form a magnetic field in itself.



## Electromagnetic waves Maxwell's equations



### The electromagnetic wave



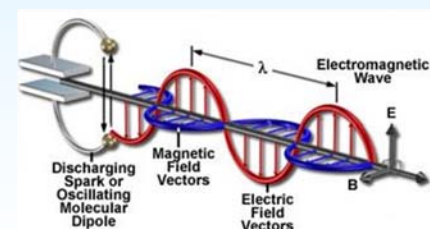
## Electromagnetic waves Maxwell's equations



Electromagnetic waves are produced by the vibration of charged particles.

An **electromagnetic wave** is a wave that is capable of transmitting its energy through a **vacuum**.

The propagation of an electromagnetic wave, which has been generated by a discharging capacitor or an oscillating molecular dipole.



As the **current** oscillates up and down in the spark gap a **magnetic field** is created that oscillates in a horizontal plane.

The changing **magnetic field**, in turn, **induces an electric field** so that a series of electrical and magnetic oscillations combine to produce a formation that propagates as an electromagnetic wave.

The field is strongest at 90 degrees to the moving charge and zero in the direction of the moving charge.



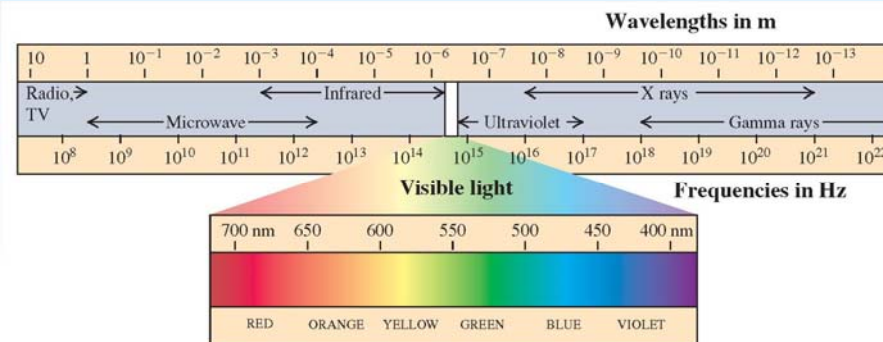


## Electromagnetic waves

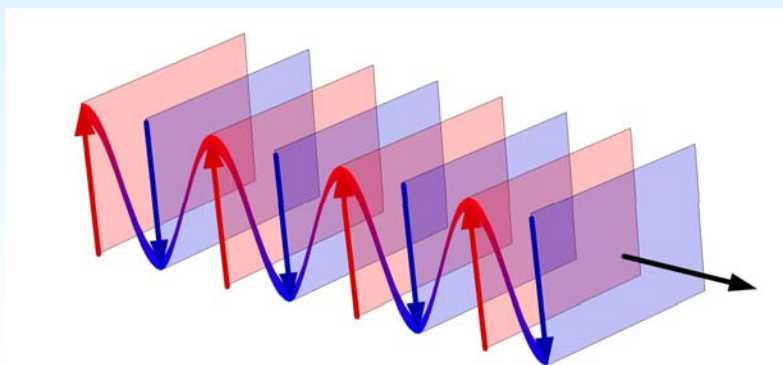


## The electromagnetic spectrum

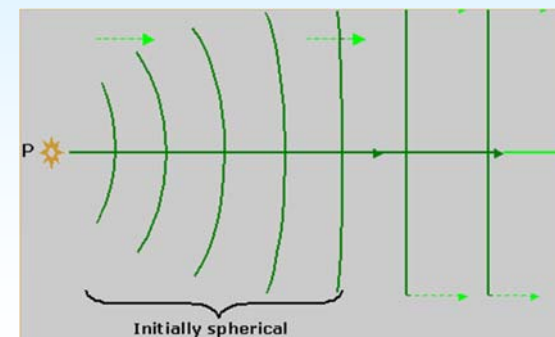
$$\lambda = c / f$$



Wavefronts: surfaces with constant phase



Wavefronts depends on the distance to the source





## Electromagnetic waves

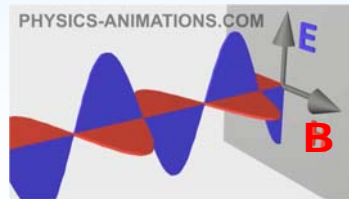
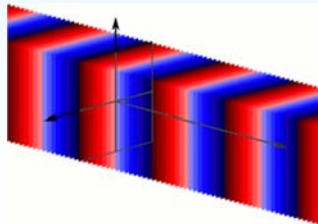


A **plane wave** is a constant-frequency wave whose wavefronts are **infinite parallel planes** of constant peak-to-peak amplitude normal to the phase velocity vector.

At a particular point and time all **E and B vectors** in the plane have the **same magnitude**.

**No true plane waves exist** since only a plane wave of infinite extent will propagate as a plane wave. However, many waves are approximately plane waves in a localized region of space.

In a plane electromagnetic wave the E and B fields are perpendicular to the direction of propagation so it is a transverse wave.



## Electromagnetic waves The wave function



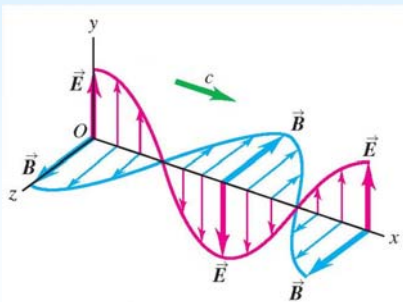
### The wavefunction



## Electromagnetic waves The wave function



### The electromagnetic wavefunction



$$\vec{E}(x, t) = \hat{j}E_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\vec{B}(x, t) = \hat{k}B_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

not the same k



## Electromagnetic waves The wave function



$$\vec{E}(x, t) = \hat{j}E_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\vec{B}(x, t) = \hat{k}B_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

Amplitude:  $E_{\max} = c B_{\max}$

Wavenumber:  $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$

$$c = \lambda / T$$
$$f = 1 / T$$

Angular frequency:  $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$

$$c = \lambda / T = (2\pi/k) / (2\pi/\omega) = \omega / k$$



## Compare wavefunctions



### Mechanical waves

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$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

Amplitude:  $A$

$$\text{Wavenumber: } k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$\text{Angular frequency: } \omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

$$v = \lambda / T = \omega / k$$

### Electromagnetic waves

$$\vec{E}(x, t) = \hat{j} E_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\vec{B}(x, t) = \hat{k} B_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

Amplitude:  $E_{\max} = c B_{\max}$

$$\text{Wavenumber: } k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$\text{Angular frequency: } \omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

$$c = \lambda / T = \omega / k$$



## Electromagnetic waves The wave function



In a dielectric medium the speed of light is smaller than  $c$ !

Electromagnetic waves in matter:

$$\begin{array}{l} c \rightarrow v \\ \mu_0 \rightarrow \mu \\ \epsilon_0 \rightarrow \epsilon \end{array}$$

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}} \rightarrow v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon \mu}}$$

$$\text{Dielectric constant} \\ K = \epsilon / \epsilon_0$$

$$\text{Relative permeability} \\ K_m = \mu / \mu_0$$



## Electromagnetic waves The wave function



### Electromagnetic wave in vacuum

$$E = c B \quad \text{from Faraday's law}$$

$$E = B / (\epsilon_0 \mu_0 c) \quad \text{from Ampere's law}$$

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}}$$

### Electromagnetic wave in matter

$$E = v B \quad \text{from Faraday's law}$$

$$E = B / (\epsilon \mu v) \quad \text{from Ampere's law}$$

$$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon \mu}}$$

Permittivity Permeability

$$\frac{c}{v} = n = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon \mu}}} = \sqrt{K K_m} \cong \sqrt{K}$$

Refractive index

Dielectric constant

Relative permeability

$$K = \epsilon / \epsilon_0$$

$$K_m = \mu / \mu_0$$



## Electromagnetic waves Power & Intensity



# Power & Intensity



## Mechanical waves: Power & Intensity



The power in general:  $P = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v}$  (instantaneous rate at which force  $\vec{F}$  does work on a particle)

Wave power (P):

The instantaneous rate at which energy is transferred along the wave.

Unit: W or J/s

Wave intensity (I):

Average power per unit area through a surface perpendicular to the wave direction.

Unit: W/m<sup>2</sup>



## Electromagnetic waves Power & Intensity



Total energy density (u):

Energy per unit volume due to an electric and magnetic field.

Unit: J/m<sup>3</sup>

Power (P):

The instantaneous rate at which energy is transferred along a wave.

Unit: W or J/s

The Poynting vector ( $\vec{S}$ ):

Energy transferred per unit time per unit area = Power per unit area.

Unit: W/m<sup>2</sup>

Intensity (I):

Average power per unit area through a surface perpendicular to the wave direction = the average value of  $S$ .

Unit: W/m<sup>2</sup>



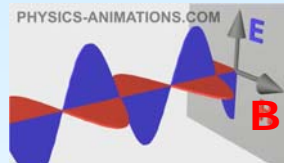
## Electromagnetic waves Power & Intensity



The total energy density (energy per unit volume) due to an electric and magnetic field is

$$u_E = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E^2 \quad u_B = \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0}$$

$$u = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{2\mu_0} B^2$$



$$E = cB \quad \text{from Faraday's law}$$
$$E = B / (\epsilon_0 \mu_0 c) \quad \text{from Ampere's law}$$

+

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}}$$

$$\Rightarrow B^2 = \epsilon_0 \mu_0 E^2$$

$$u = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{2\mu_0} (\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0} E)^2 = \epsilon_0 E^2$$

Energy E-field    Energy B-field

where  $E(x, t) = E_{\max} \cos(kx - \omega t)$

Conclusions: The electric and magnetic fields carry the same amount of energy.  
The energy density varies with position and time.

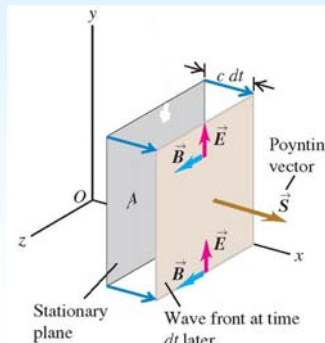


## Electromagnetic waves Power & Intensity



Energy transfer = energy transferred per unit time per unit area.

$S$  = Power per unit area = Energy transfer = Energy flow



$$\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{E} \times \vec{B} \quad \text{(Poynting vector in vacuum)}$$

Formelsamling

$$S_x(x, t) = \frac{E_{\max} B_{\max}}{\mu_0} \cos^2(kx - \omega t)$$

Amplitude = maximum energy transfer



# Electromagnetic waves Power & Intensity



Intensity = the average value of  $S$

$$S_x(x, t) = \frac{E_{\max} B_{\max}}{\mu_0} \cos^2(kx - \omega t)$$

The average of  $\cos^2(x) = 1/2$

$$I = S_{\text{av}} = \frac{E_{\max} B_{\max}}{2\mu_0} = \frac{E_{\max}^2}{2\mu_0 c}$$

$$E = c B$$

$$S_{\text{av}} = \frac{E_{\max} B_{\max}}{2\mu_0} = \frac{E_{\max}^2}{2\mu_0 c} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 c E_{\max}^2$$

Formelsamling

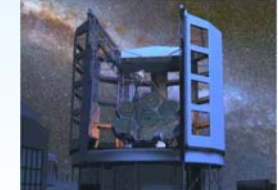
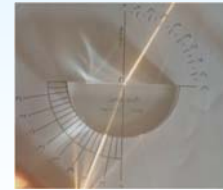
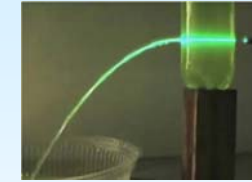
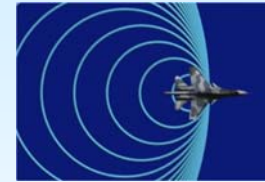
Electromagnetic waves in matter:

$$\mu_0 \rightarrow \mu$$

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}} \rightarrow v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon \mu}}$$



# Vågrörelselära och optik



## Kapitel 33 - Ljus



# The nature of light



Source of electromagnetic radiation  
is  
electric charges in accelerated motion

**Thermal radiation:**

Thermal motions of molecules create electromagnetic radiation.

**Lamp:**

A current heats the filament which then sends out thermal radiation with many wavelengths.

**Laser:**

Atoms emits light coherently giving (almost) monochromatic radiation.



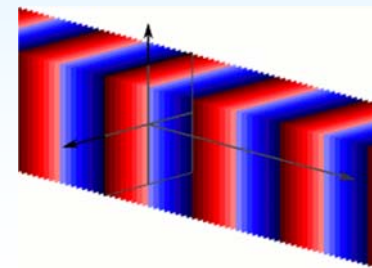
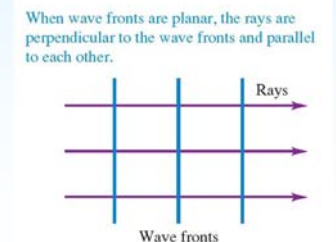
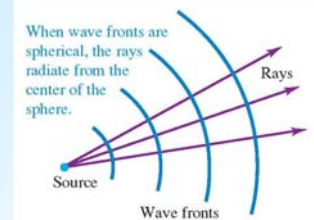
# The nature of light



**Wave front:** surface with constant phase.

**Plane wave:** is a wave whose wave fronts are infinite parallel planes.

**Ray:** an imaginary line along the direction of the wave's propagation.

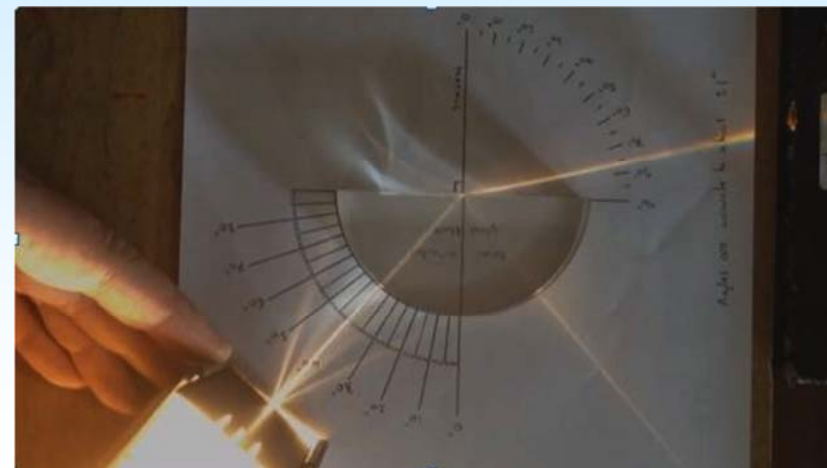




## Reflection and refraction



## Reflection & Refraction



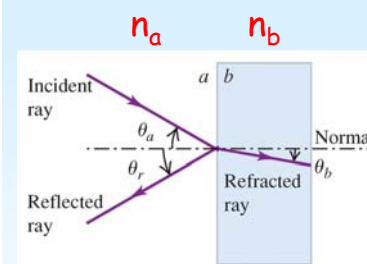
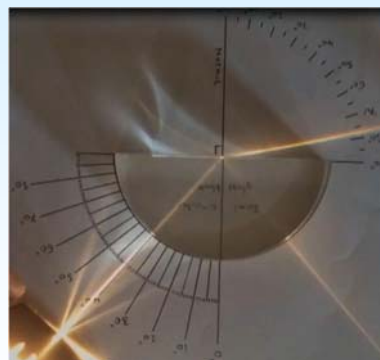
### Conclusions:

At the surface between air and glass the angle is always 90 degrees and then the reflected and refracted light is also at 90 degrees.

At the surface between glass and air some of the light is reflected and some is refracted.

The angle of reflection is the same as the incident angle.

The angle of refraction is larger than the incident angle.



$$n = \frac{c}{v} \quad (\text{index of refraction})$$

$n = 1$  in vacuum  
 $n > 1$  in a material

The plane of incident:  
 The plane of the incident ray and the normal to the surface.

The reflected and refracted rays are in the plane of incident.

$$\theta_r = \theta_a \quad (\text{law of reflection})$$

### Snell's law:

$$n_a \sin \theta_a = n_b \sin \theta_b \quad (\text{law of refraction})$$

Formelsamling

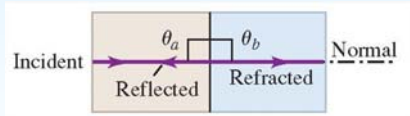
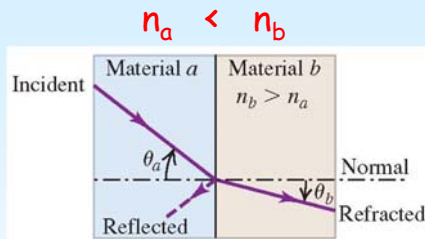


# The nature of light

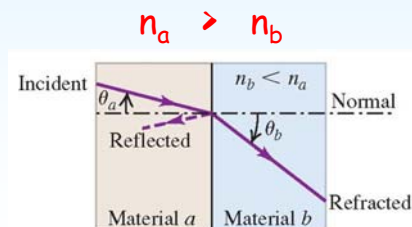


## Snell's law:

$$n_a \sin \theta_a = n_b \sin \theta_b \quad (\text{law of refraction})$$



Rule:  
Large  $n \rightarrow$  Small angle



# The nature of light



## Light intensity



# The nature of light

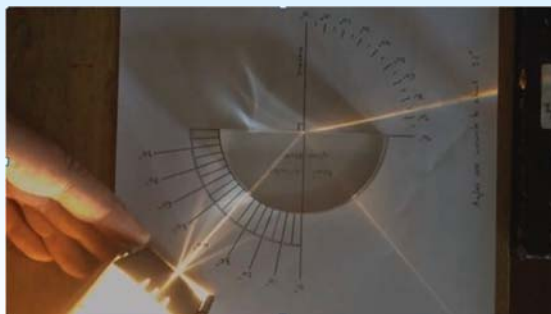


## Intensity

The intensity of the reflected light increases from almost 0% at  $\theta = 0^\circ$  to 100% at  $\theta = 90^\circ$ .

The intensity of the reflected light also depends on  $n$  and on polarization of the incoming light.

The sum of the intensity of the reflected and refracted light is equal to the intensity of the incoming light.



# The nature of light



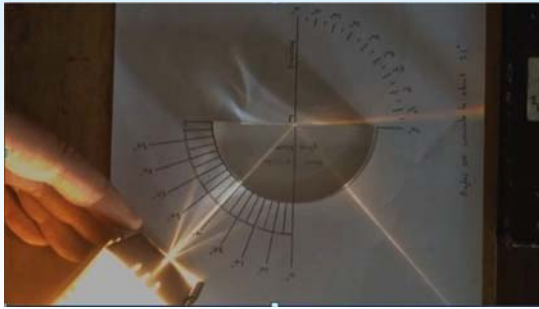
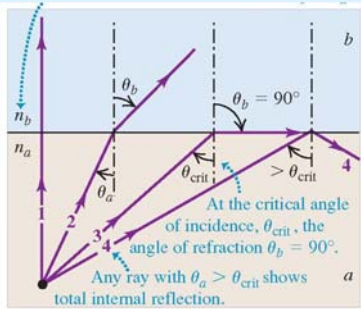
## Total internal reflection



# The nature of light



## Total Internal Reflection when light goes to a medium with smaller n



$$n_a \sin \theta_a = n_b \sin \theta_b$$

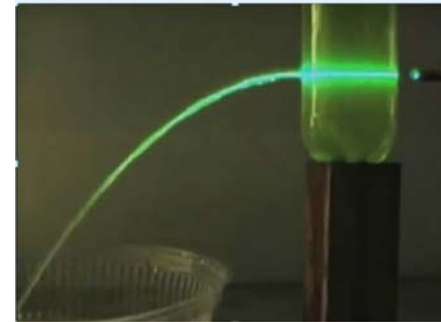
$$\sin \theta_{crit} = \frac{n_b}{n_a} \quad (\text{critical angle for total internal reflection})$$



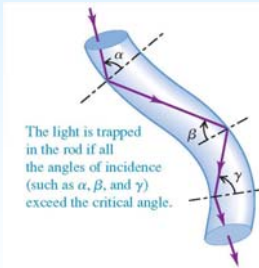
# The nature of light



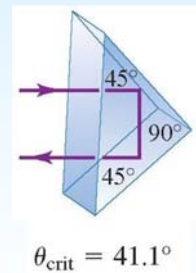
## Total Internal Reflection



optical fiber



Porro prism

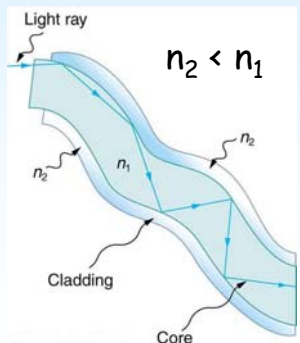


# The nature of light

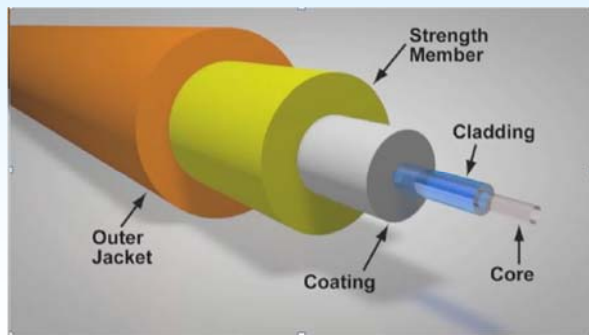


## Optical fibers

### Principle



### Structure



# The nature of light

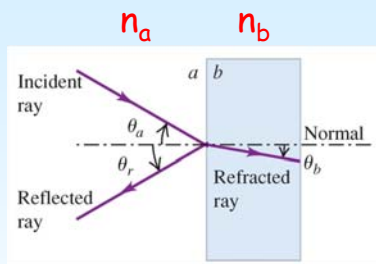


Dependency on  
frequency and  
wavelength





# The nature of light



## Frequency and wavelength

$v$ : The speed is larger in a material with a small  $n$ .

$f$ : The frequency does not depend on  $n$ .

$\lambda$ : The wavelength is longer in a material with a small  $n$ .

$$n = \frac{c}{v} \quad (\text{index of refraction})$$

$n = 1$  in vacuum  
 $n > 1$  in a material

$$\lambda = v / f \quad n > 1$$

$$\lambda_0 = c / f \quad n = 1$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 / n$$



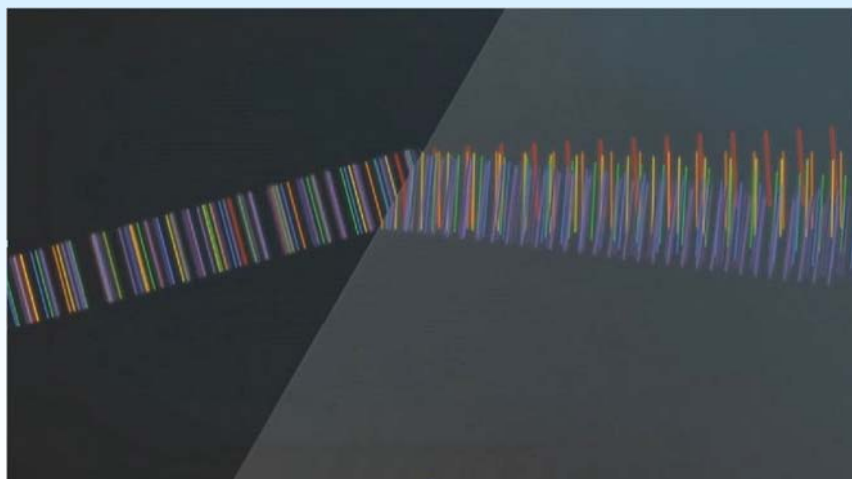
# The nature of light



## Dispersion



# The nature of light



# The nature of light



How is this possible ?

## Dispersion

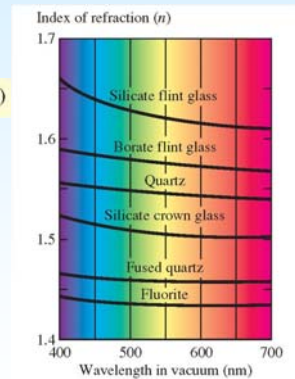


$$n_a \sin \theta_a = n_b \sin \theta_b \quad (\text{law of refraction})$$

Answer:  $n$  must depend on  $\lambda$  !

$$n = c / v$$

so the speed in a material must then depend on  $\lambda$

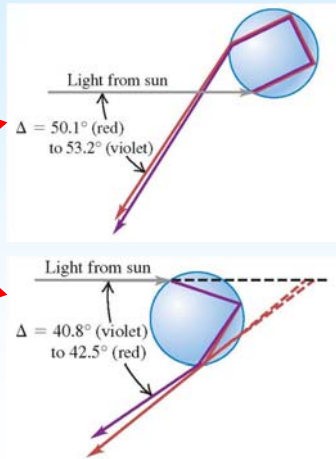




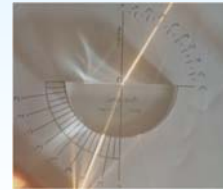
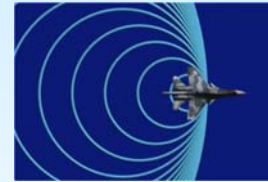
# The nature of light



## Rainbow



# Vågrörelselära och optik



## Kapitel 34 - Optik



# Geometrical optics



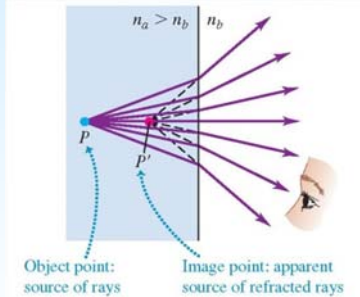
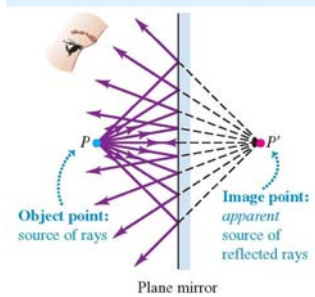
## Mirrors



# Geometrical optics



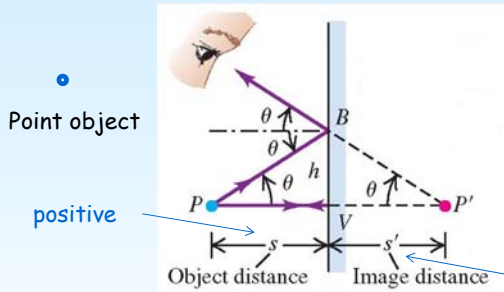
## Virtual Images: outgoing rays diverge



## Real Images: outgoing rays converge to an image that can be shown on a screen



# Geometrical optics



Point object

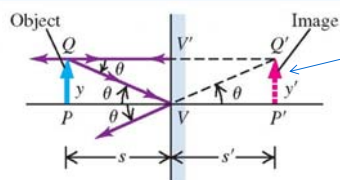
positive

Sign rules:  
Object distance (s) - positive if same side as incoming light.

Image distance (s') - positive if same side as outgoing light.

negative

Extended object



Virtual image

$$m = \frac{y'}{y} \quad (\text{lateral magnification})$$

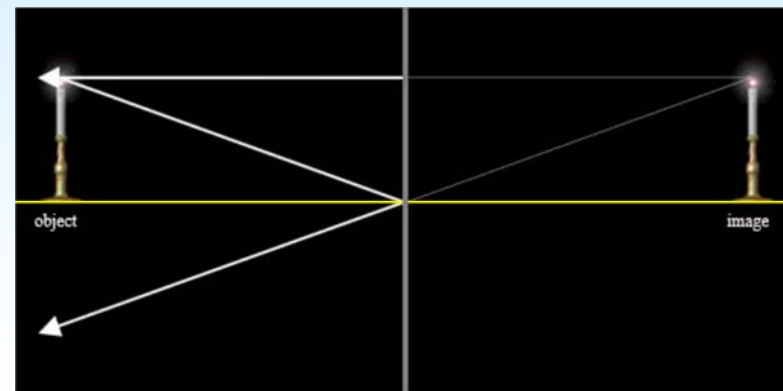
Formelsamling



# Geometrical optics



## Flat mirror



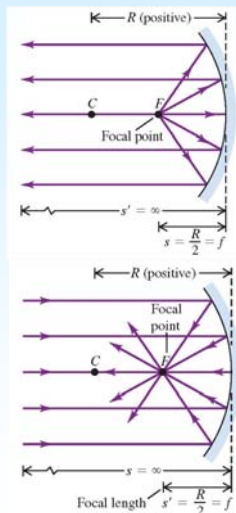
# Geometrical optics



## Spherical mirror



$$f = \frac{R}{2}$$

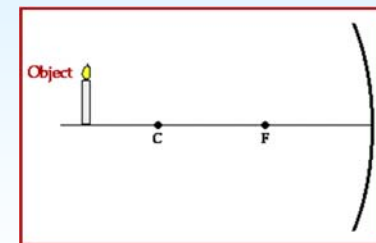
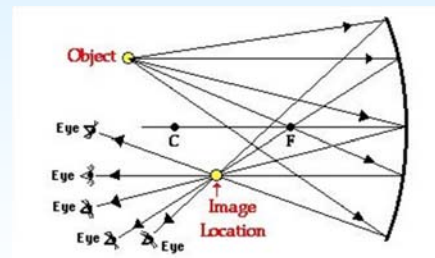


# Geometrical optics



An infinite number of rays can be drawn from an object to its image.

But only two rays are needed to determine the location of the image.





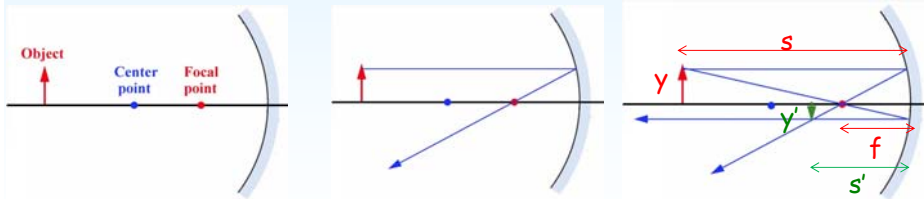
# Geometrical optics



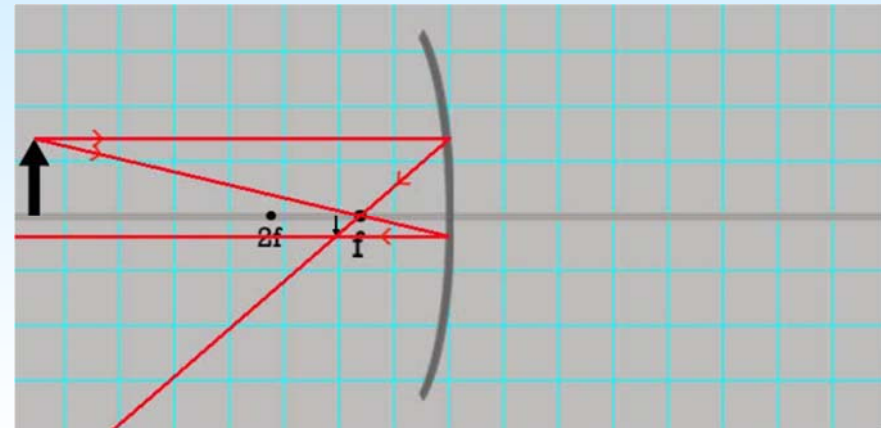
## How to find the image in a concave mirror

The bottom of the object is on the optical axis and so the bottom of the image will also be on the optical axis.

The top of the image can be found with any two rays. Use for example two rays that goes through the focal point.



# Geometrical optics



<http://simbucket.com/lensesandmirrors/>



# Geometrical optics



## Summary spherical mirrors

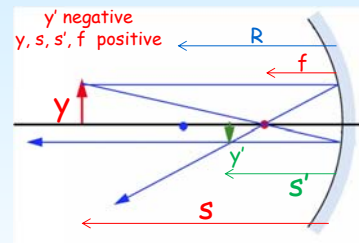
Sign rules:

Object distance (s) - positive if same side as incoming light.

Image distance (s') - positive if same side as outgoing light.

Radius of curvature (R) - positive if center is on same side as outgoing light.

Magnification (m) - positive if direction of object and image is the same.



$$\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = \frac{1}{f} \quad f = \frac{R}{2}$$

Formelsamling

$$m = \frac{y'}{y} = -\frac{s'}{s}$$



# Geometrical optics



*y' negative, y, s, s', f positive*


$$\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$m = \frac{y'}{y} = -\frac{s'}{s}$$

*y' negative, y, s, s', f positive*

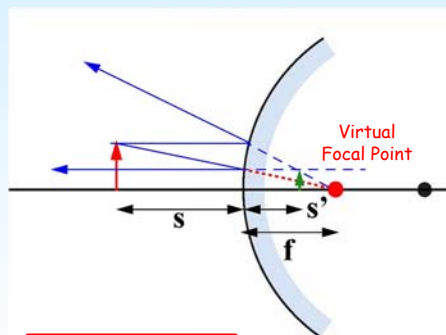
*y' negative, y, s, s', f positive*

*s' negative, y, y', s, f positive*





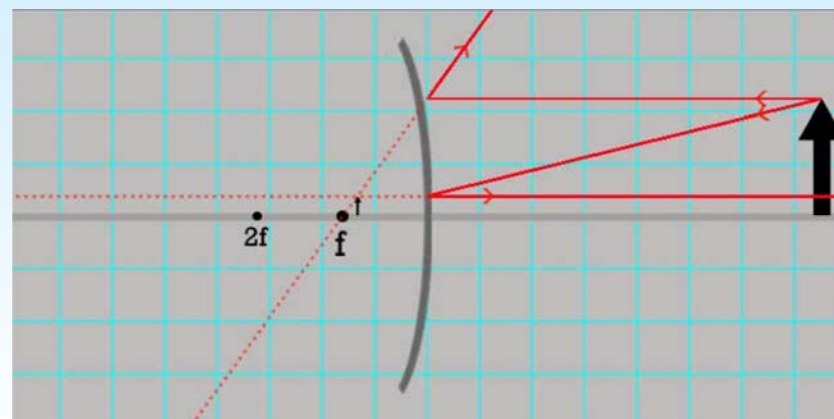
## Convex mirrors



$$\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$m = \frac{y'}{y} = -\frac{s'}{s}$$

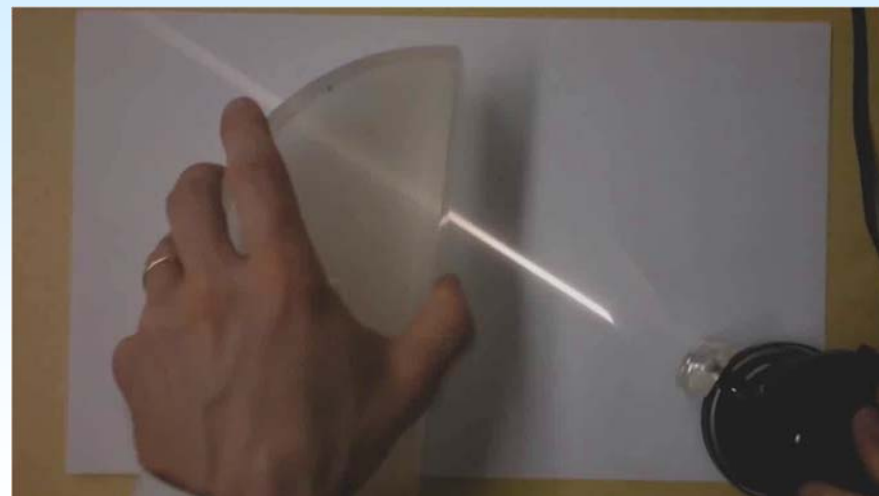
*s', f negative  
y, y', s positive*



<http://simbucket.com/lensesandmirrors/>



## Spherical surface





# Geometrical optics



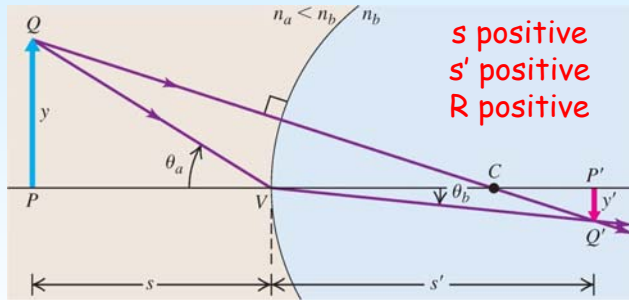
## Spherical surface - Summary

Sign rules:

Object distance ( $s$ ) - positive if same side as incoming light.

Image distance ( $s'$ ) - positive if same side as outgoing light.

Radius of curvature ( $R$ ) - positive if center is on same side as outgoing light.



$s$  positive  
 $s'$  positive  
 $R$  positive

Formelsamling

$$\frac{n_a}{s} + \frac{n_b}{s'} = \frac{n_b - n_a}{R}$$

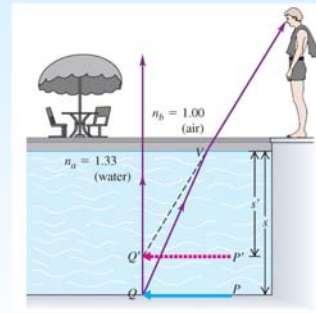
$$m = \frac{y'}{y} = -\frac{n_a s'}{n_b s}$$



# Geometrical optics



## Special case: flat surface



$$\frac{n_a}{s} + \frac{n_b}{s'} = \frac{n_b - n_a}{R} = 0$$



$$n_a/s = -n_b/s'$$

$$-s'/s = n_b/n_a$$



# Geometrical optics



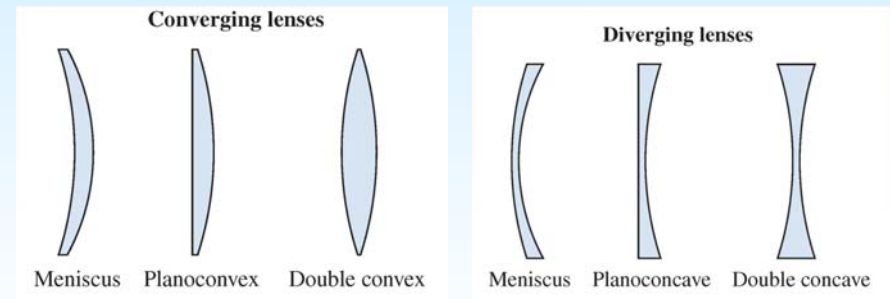
## Lenses



# Geometrical optics

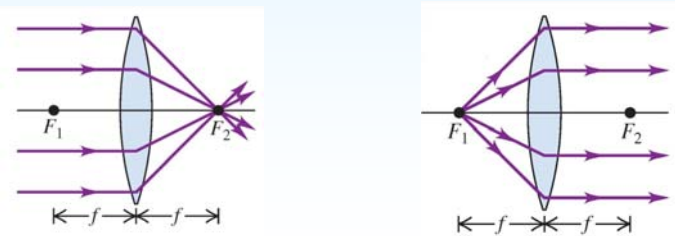
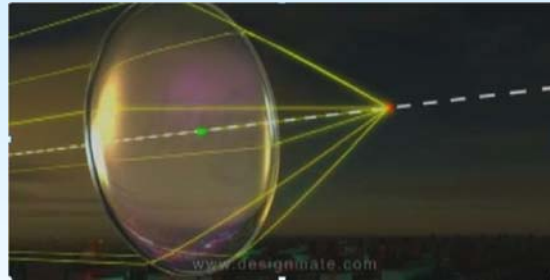


## Different type of lenses





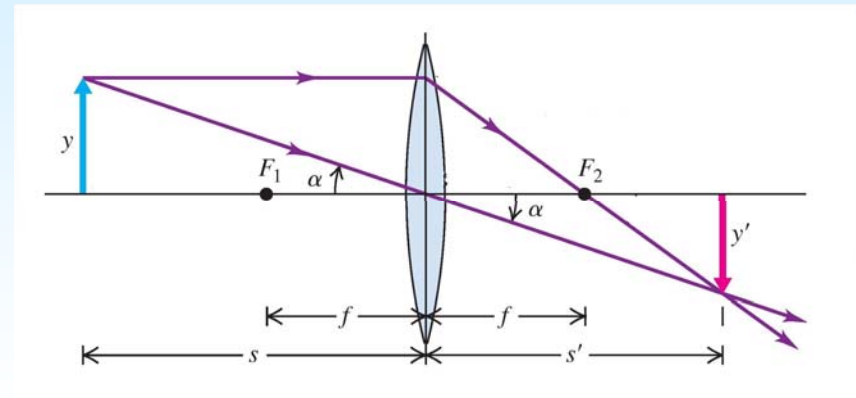
# Geometrical optics



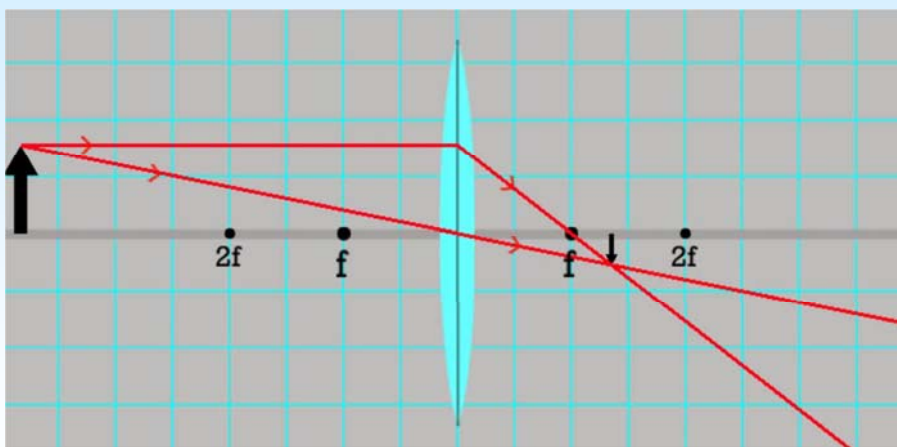
# Geometrical optics



## Useful rays



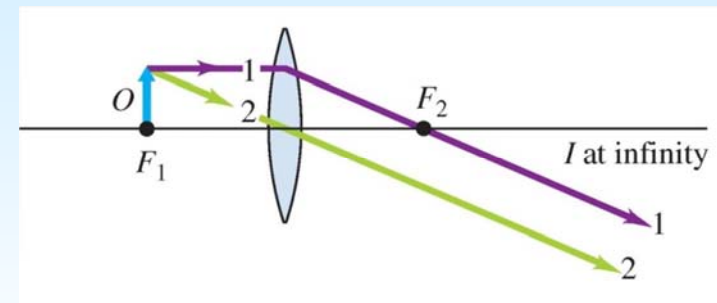
# Geometrical optics



<http://simbucket.com/lensesandmirrors/>



# Geometrical optics



An object placed at the focal point appear to be at infinity



# Geometrical optics



Sign rules:

Object distance ( $s$ ) - positive if same side as incoming light.

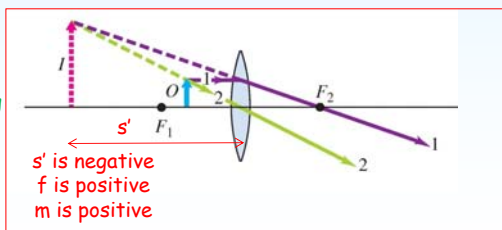
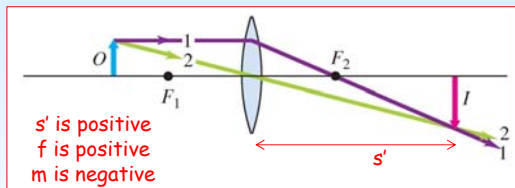
Image distance ( $s'$ ) - positive if same side as outgoing light.

Focal length ( $f$ ) - positive for converging lenses (convex lenses)

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'}$$

$$m = \frac{y'}{y} = -\frac{s'}{s}$$

## Convex lenses - Summary



# Geometrical optics



## Gauss' formula

Formelsamling

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'}$$

$$m = \frac{y'}{y} = -\frac{s'}{s}$$

## Newton's formula

$$f = \frac{s s'}{s + s'}$$

$$s = \frac{s' f}{s' - f}$$

$$s' = \frac{s f}{s - f}$$

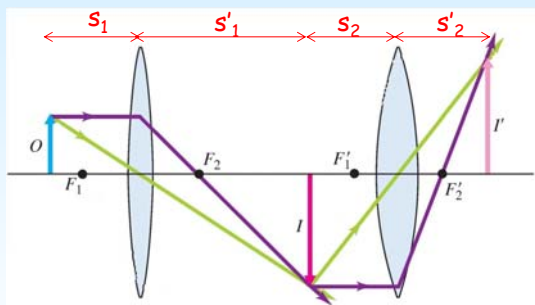
$$m = -\frac{f}{s - f}$$



# Geometrical optics



## Two lenses



$$\frac{1}{f_1} = \frac{1}{s_1} + \frac{1}{s'_1}$$

$$m_1 = -\frac{s'_1}{s_1}$$

$$\frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{1}{s_2} + \frac{1}{s'_2}$$

$$m_2 = -\frac{s'_2}{s_2}$$

$$m = \frac{l'}{O} = m_1 m_2 = \frac{s'_1 s'_2}{s_1 s_2}$$



# Geometrical optics



## EXAMPLE

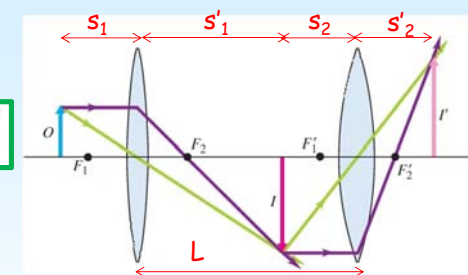
Known:  $s_1, f_1, f_2$  and  $L$   
Calculate  $s'_2$  and  $m$

$$s = \frac{s' f}{s' - f} \quad s' = \frac{s f}{s - f} \quad m = \frac{y'}{y} = -\frac{s'}{s}$$

$$L = s'_1 + s_2$$

$$s_2 = L - s'_1 = L - \frac{s_1 f_1}{s_1 - f_1}$$

$$s'_2 = \frac{s_2 f_2}{s_2 - f_2} = \frac{L f_2 - \frac{s_1 f_1 f_2}{s_1 - f_1}}{L - \frac{s_1 f_1}{s_1 - f_1} - f_2}$$



$$m = \frac{l'}{O} = m_1 m_2 = \frac{s'_1 s'_2}{s_1 s_2} = \frac{f_1}{s_1 - f_1} \frac{s'_2}{L - s'_1}$$

$$m = \frac{l'}{O} = \frac{f_1}{s_1 - f_1} \frac{s'_2}{L - \frac{s_1 f_1}{s_1 - f_1}} = \frac{f_1}{(s_1 - f_1)L - s_1 f_1} s'_2$$

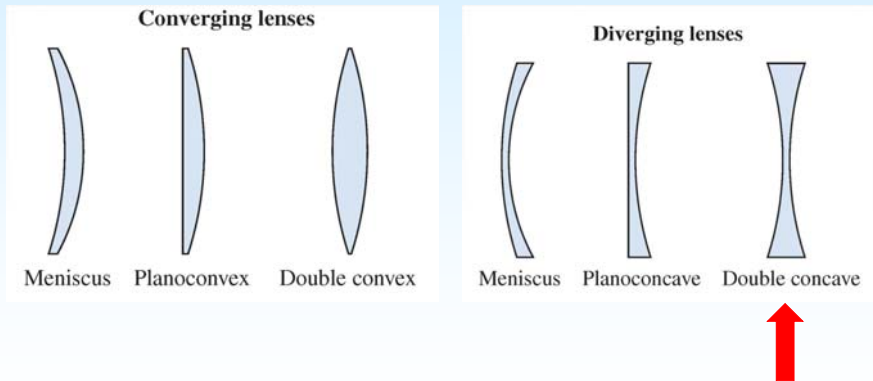




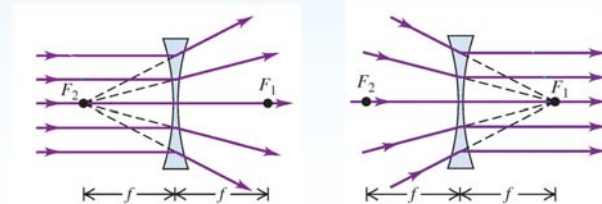
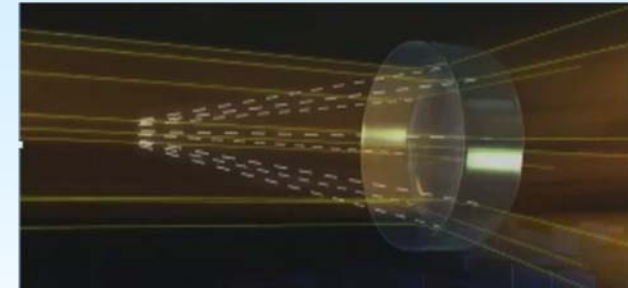
# Geometrical optics



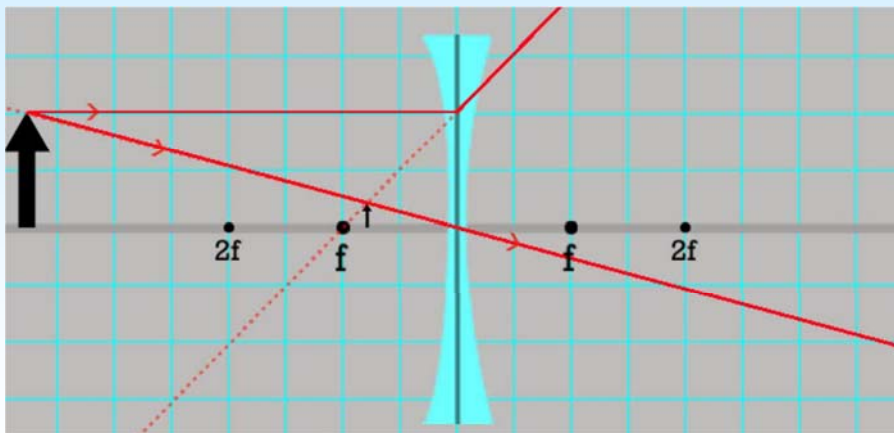
## Lenses



# Geometrical optics



# Geometrical optics



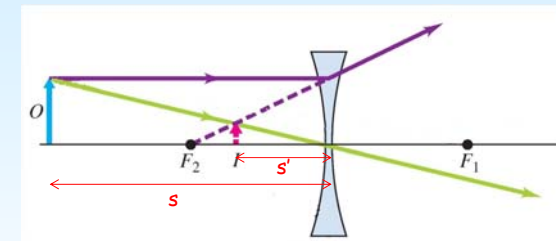
<http://simbucket.com/lensesandmirrors/>



# Geometrical optics



## Lens formula for concave lenses



$$\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = \frac{1}{f}$$

f is negative for diverging lenses

s' is negative for diverging lenses

$$m = -\frac{s'}{s}$$

m is positive

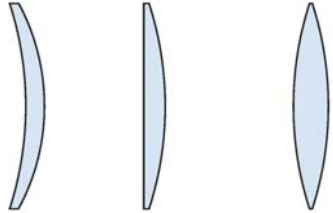


# Geometrical optics



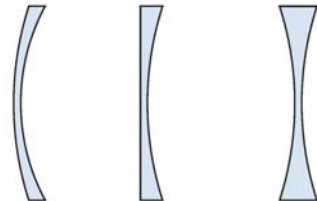
## Lenses

### Converging lenses



Meniscus Planoconvex Double convex

### Diverging lenses



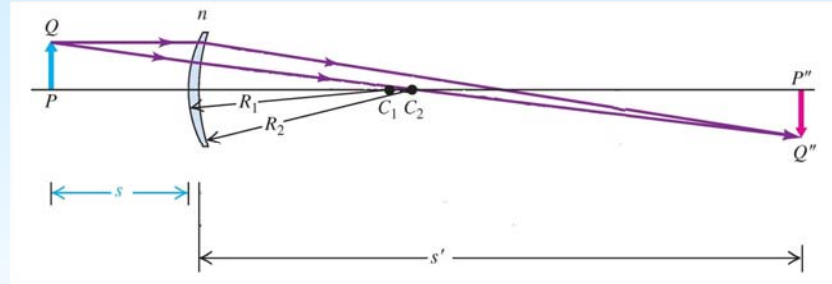
Meniscus Planoconcave Double concave

Rule:

A lens that is thicker at the center than the edges is converging (positive f)  
A lens that is thinner at the center than the edges is diverging (negative f)



# Geometrical optics



The lensmaker's equation

$$\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = (n - 1) \left( \frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right) = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = (n - 1) \left( \frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$$

Formelsamling



# Geometrical optics



$$\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = (n - 1) \left( \frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$$

$$m = -\frac{s'}{s}$$

$$m = \frac{y'}{y}$$

Sign rule: Radius of curvature - positive if center is on same side as outgoing light.



f = positive    R<sub>1</sub> = positive    R<sub>2</sub> = positive    s' = positive or negative



f = positive    R<sub>1</sub> = positive    R<sub>2</sub> = negative    s' = positive or negative



f = negative    R<sub>1</sub> = negative    R<sub>2</sub> = positive    s' = negative



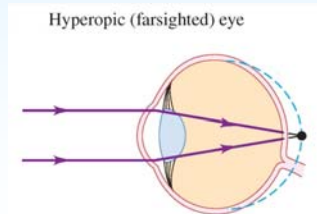
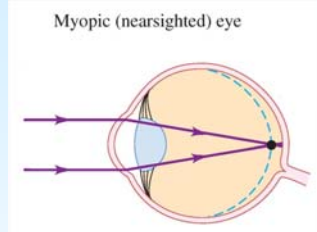
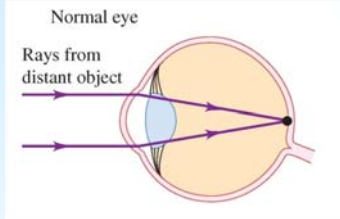
# Geometrical optics



## The eye



## Geometrical optics



**Near point:** Closest distance to the eye at which people can see clear (7cm at age 10 to 40cm at age 50 for normal eye).

**Normal reading distance:** Assumed to be 25 cm when designing correction lenses.

Lenses for corrections are given in diopter.

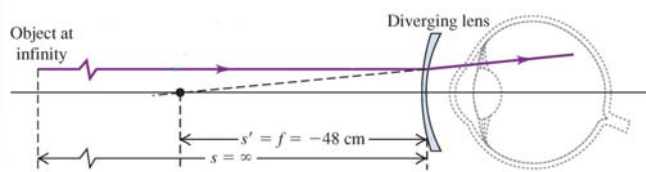
**Lens power =  $1/f$  (unit diopter =  $m^{-1}$ )**



## Geometrical optics



The far point of a certain myopic eye is 50 cm in front of the eye. Find the focal length and power of the eyeglass lens that will permit the wearer to see clearly an object at infinity. Assume that the lens is worn 2 cm in front of the eye.



The lens should move the actual far point from 50 cm to infinity. The correcting lens should therefore have  $s = \text{infinity}$  for  $s' = 50 - 2 = 48$  cm.

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = \frac{1}{\infty} + \frac{1}{-48 \text{ cm}}$$

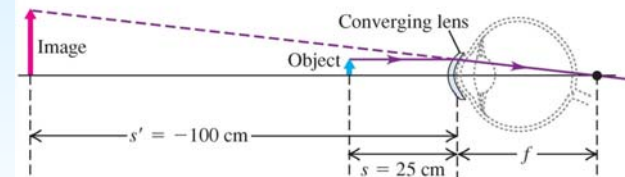
$$f = -48 \text{ cm}$$



## Geometrical optics



The near point of a certain hyperopic eye is 100 cm in front of the eye. Find the focal length and power of the contact lens that will permit the wearer to see clearly an object that is 25 cm in front of the eye.



When the person puts an object at  $s = 25$  cm from the correcting lens we want the image to end up at  $s' = 100$  cm because this is the nearest point the eye can see sharply.

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} = \frac{1}{+25 \text{ cm}} + \frac{1}{-100 \text{ cm}}$$

$$f = +33 \text{ cm}$$



## Geometrical optics



**The magnifying glass**

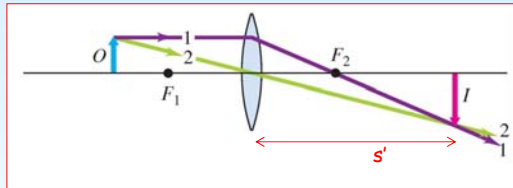


# Geometrical optics

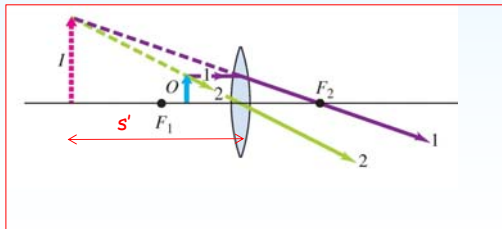


## A magnifying glass is a convex lens.

If you hold a magnifying glass far away from the eye (arms lengths distance) you can see a magnified and up-side down image.



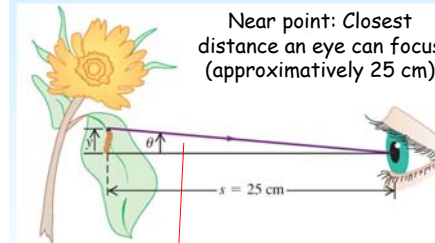
The normal use of a magnifying glass is to put the object between the focal point and the lens to get a magnified up-right image.



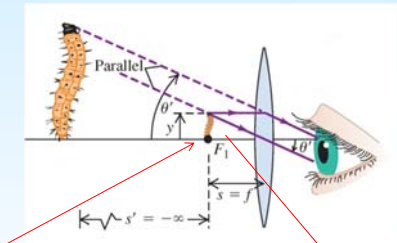
# Geometrical optics



## The magnifying glass



Near point: Closest distance an eye can focus (approximately 25 cm)



$$\theta = \frac{y}{25 \text{ cm}}$$

When the object is at the focal point one uses angular magnification (M) instead of lateral magification (m).

$$\theta' = \frac{y}{f}$$

$$M = \frac{\theta'}{\theta} = \frac{y/f}{y/25 \text{ cm}} = \frac{25 \text{ cm}}{f} \quad (\text{angular magnification for a simple magnifier})$$



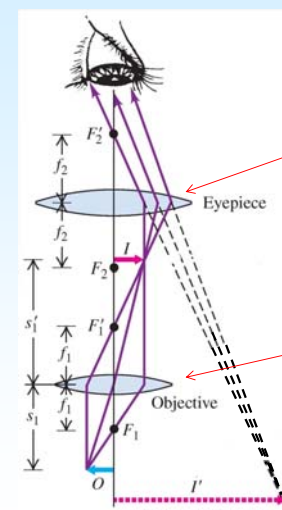
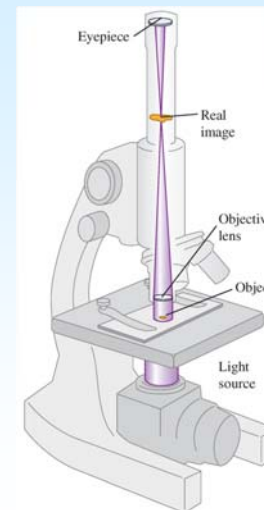
# Geometrical optics



## The microscope



# Geometrical optics

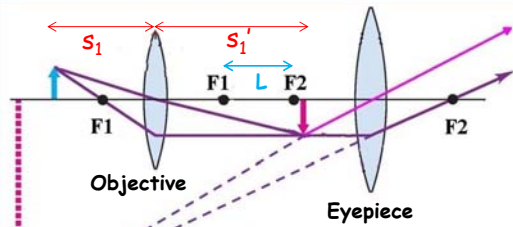


Magnifying glass (f is a couple of cm)

Creates magnified image close to the focal point of the eye piece (f < 1 cm)



# Geometrical optics



## Eyepiece

Angular magnification of magnifying glass

$$M = \frac{\sigma}{f} \quad \text{where } \sigma = 25 \text{ cm}$$

## Objective

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} \Rightarrow s = \frac{s'f}{s' - f} \quad s' \approx f + L$$

$$m = -\frac{s'}{s} = -\frac{s' - f}{f} \approx \frac{f + L - f}{f} = \frac{L}{f}$$

## Microscope

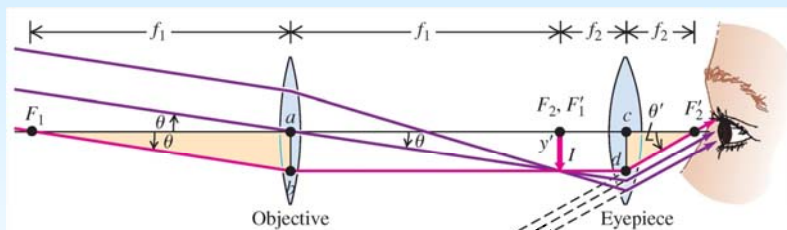
Magnification

$$M = m_1 M_2 = -\frac{s_1' \sigma}{s_1 f_2} = -\frac{L \sigma}{f_1 f_2}$$

$\sigma$  is the nearpoint which is typically 25 cm



# Geometrical optics



The first image will be in the focal point of the first lens.

$I'$  at infinity

The eye piece works as a magnifying glass with  $I$  in its focal point.

$$\tan(\theta) = \theta = \frac{-y'}{f_1}$$

$$\tan(\theta') = \theta' = \frac{y'}{f_2}$$

The angular magnification of a telescope is defined as the ratio of the angle of the image to that of the incoming light.

$$M = \frac{\theta'}{\theta} = -\frac{y'/f_2}{y'/f_1} = -\frac{f_1}{f_2}$$



# Geometrical optics



## The telescope

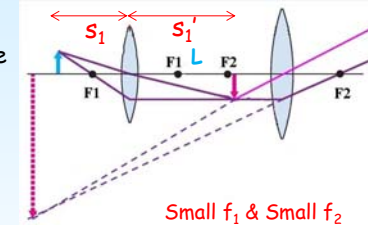


# Geometrical optics



## Comparing microscopes with telescopes

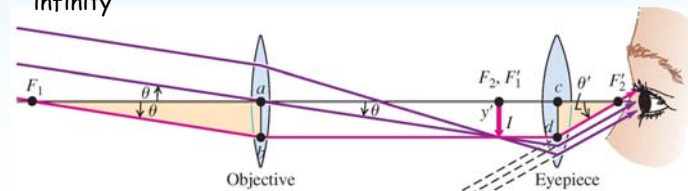
Object at a close distance



$$M = m_1 M_2 = -\frac{s_1' \sigma}{s_1 f_2} = -\frac{L \sigma}{f_1 f_2}$$

$\sigma$  is the nearpoint which is typically 25 cm

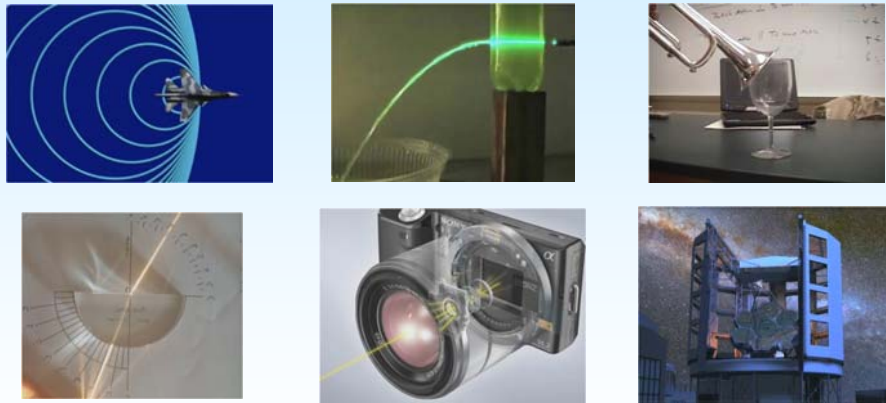
Object at infinity



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$$M = -\frac{f_1}{f_2}$$

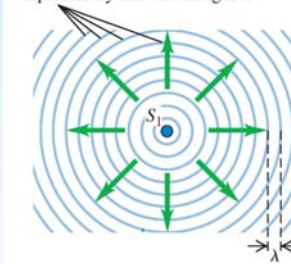
Large  $f_1$  & Small  $f_2$



## Kapitel 35 - Interferens



Wave fronts: crests of the wave (frequency  $f$ ) separated by one wavelength  $\lambda$



**Interference:** Wave overlap in space

**Coherent sources:** Same frequency (or wavelength) and constant phase relationship (not necessarily in phase).

The principle of superposition states:

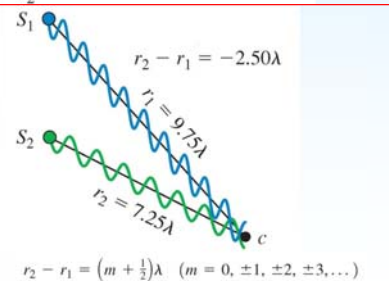
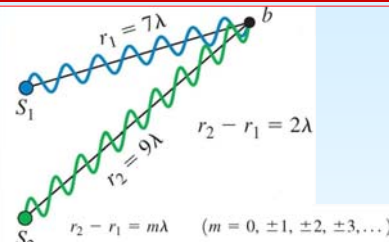
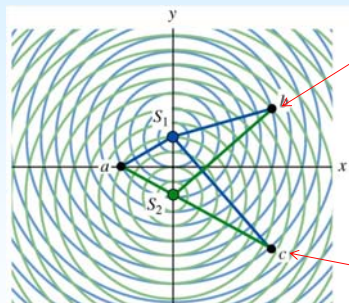
When two or more waves overlap, the resultant displacement at any point and at any instant is found by adding the instantaneous displacements that would be produced at the point by the individual waves if each were present alone.



**Constructive interference**

$$\delta = r_2 - r_1 = m\lambda$$

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**Destructive interference**

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



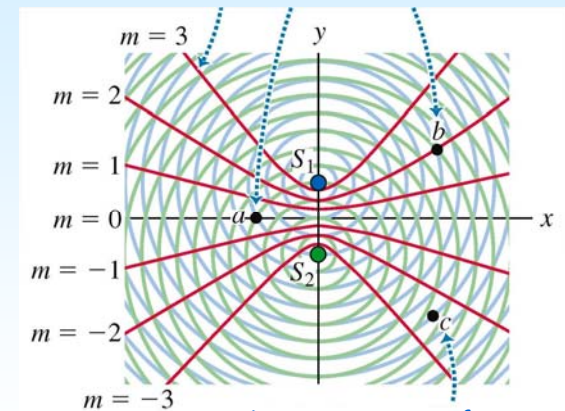
**Antinodal curves = Constructive interference**

A path difference of one wavelength corresponds to a phase difference of  $2\pi$

$$\frac{\phi}{2\pi} = \frac{r_2 - r_1}{\lambda}$$

Formelsamling

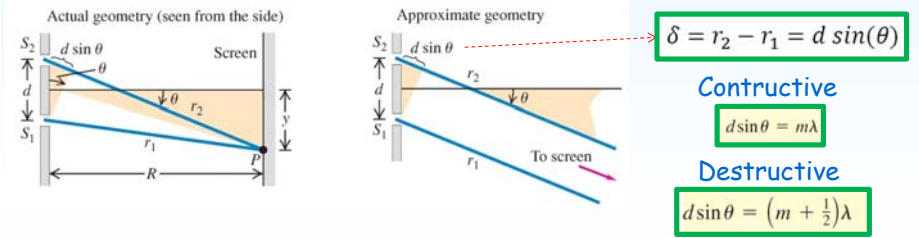
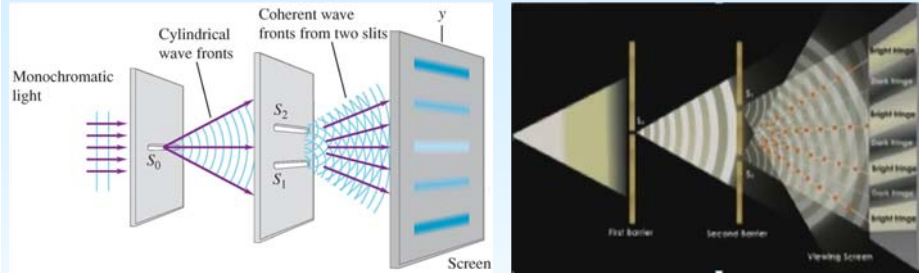
**Constructive interference**



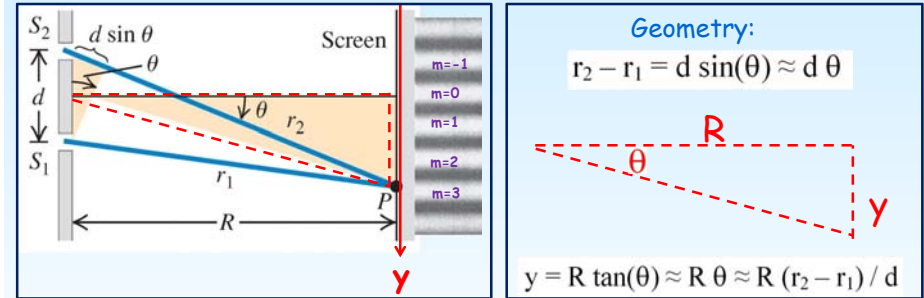
**Destructive interference**



# Interference



# Interference



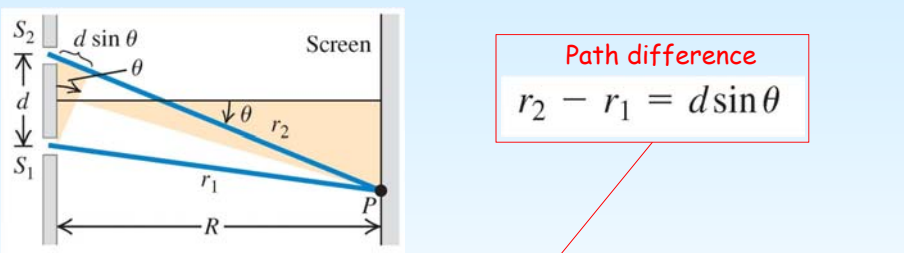
Constructive interference:

$$r_2 - r_1 = m \lambda$$

$$y_m = R \frac{m \lambda}{d}$$



# Interference



A path difference of one wavelength corresponds to a phase difference of  $2\pi$

$$\frac{\phi}{2\pi} = \frac{r_2 - r_1}{\lambda}$$

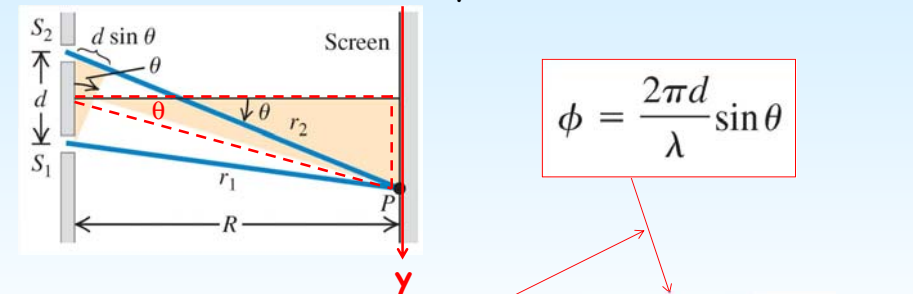
$$\phi = \frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta$$



# Interference



Introduce  $y$  in the formula



$$\tan(\theta) = y / R \approx \sin(\theta)$$

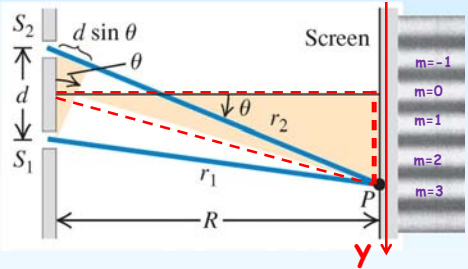
small  $\theta$

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$$\phi = \frac{2\pi \delta}{\lambda}$$



# Interference

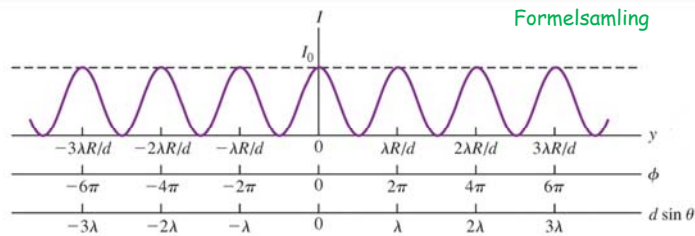


Intensity:

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

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2} \quad I_0 = \text{intensiteten rakt fram}$$

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# Interference



## Summary

Constructive interference:

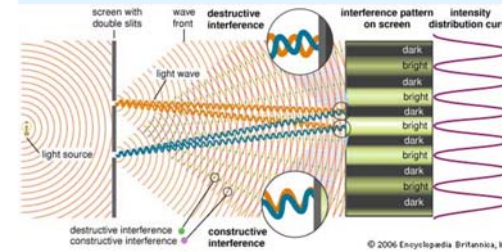
$$r_2 - r_1 = d \sin(\theta) = m \lambda$$

$$y_m \approx m \cdot (R \lambda / d)$$

Intensity:

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2}$$

$$\phi = \frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta \approx \frac{2\pi dy}{\lambda R}$$



# Interference



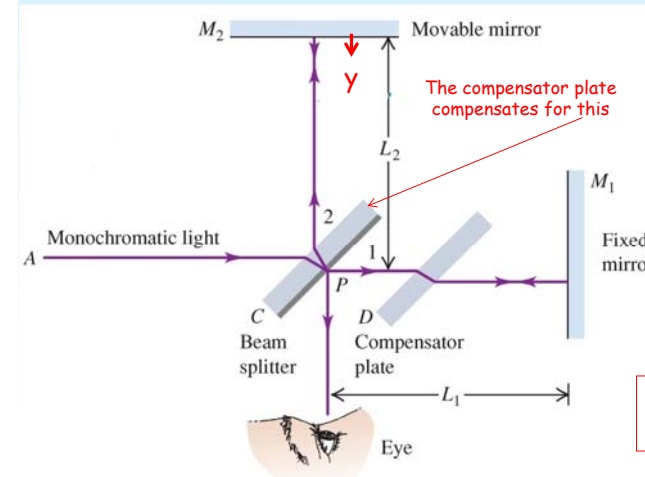
## The Michelson Interferometer



# Interference



## The Michelson Interferometer



The observer will see an **interference pattern** with rings.

The **fringes** in the pattern will **move** when the mirror is moved.

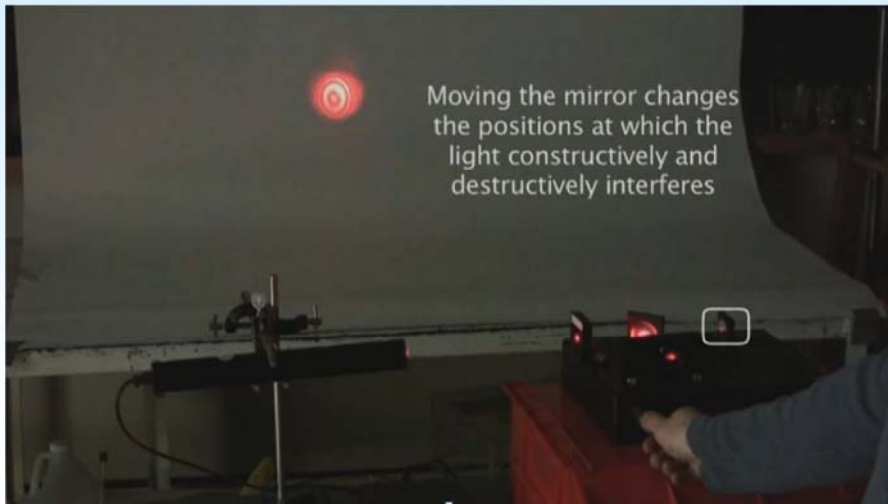
The number of fringes (**m**) can be used to **calculate y or lambda**.

$$y = m \frac{\lambda}{2} \quad \lambda = \frac{2y}{m}$$

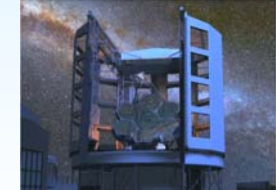
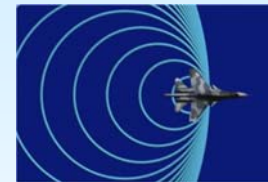




# Interference



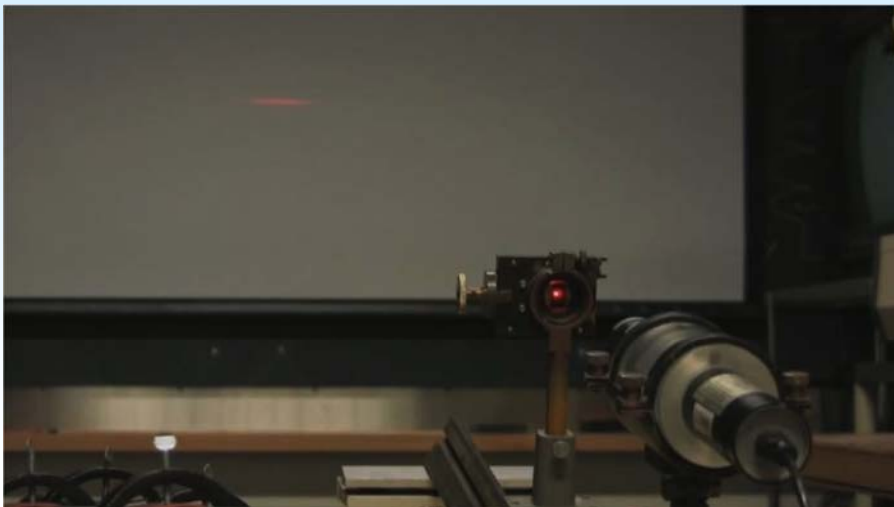
# Vågrörelselära och optik



## Kapitel 36 - Diffraction



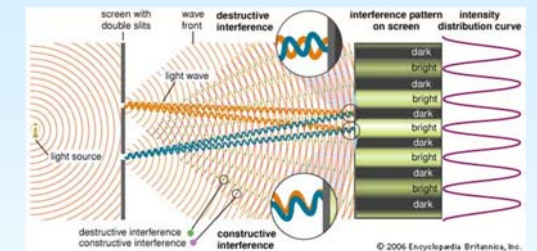
# Diffraction



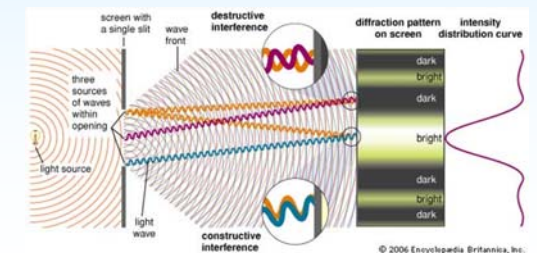
# Diffraction



Interference:  
Double slit  
experiment

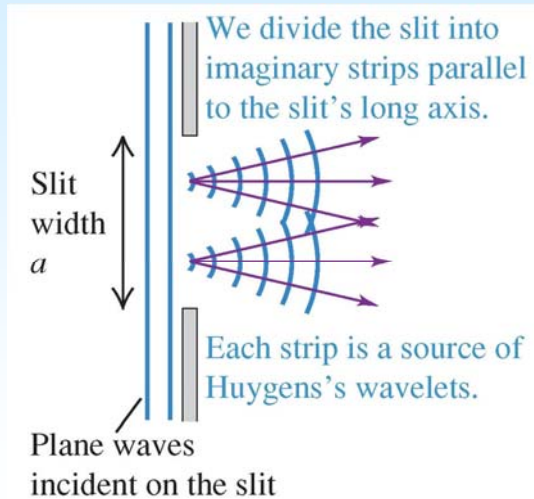


Diffraction:  
single slit  
experiment





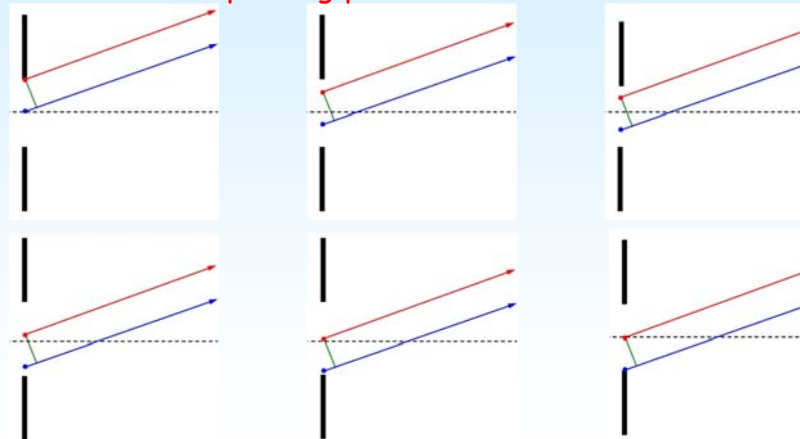
# Diffraction



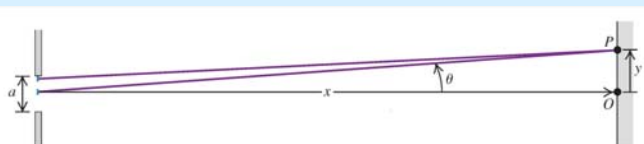
# Diffraction



For every point in the top half of the slit there is a corresponding point in the bottom half.



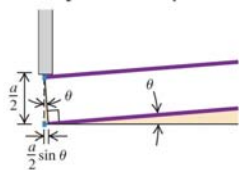
# Diffraction



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$$a \sin \theta = m \lambda \quad (m \neq 0)$$

Enlarged view of the top half of the slit



Destructive Interference:

$$\frac{a}{2} \sin \theta = \pm \frac{\lambda}{2} m$$

Geometry:

$$\tan(\theta) = y / x$$

Small angles:

$$\tan(\theta) \approx \theta$$

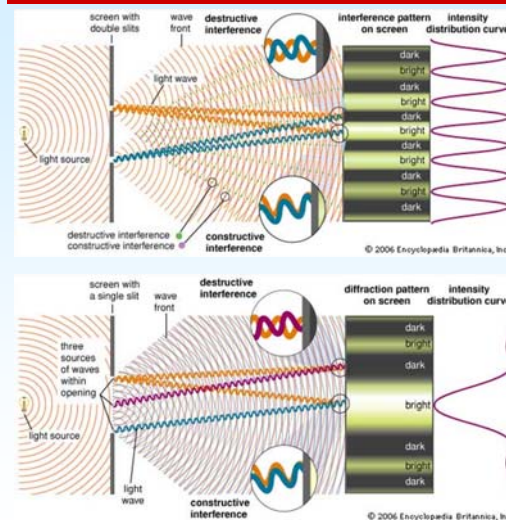
$$\sin(\theta) \approx \theta$$

$$y_m = x \frac{m \lambda}{a} \quad (\text{for } y_m \ll x)$$

$$m = \pm 1, \pm 2,$$



# Diffraction



Bright bands:

$$y_m = R \frac{m \lambda}{d}$$

$$m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2,$$

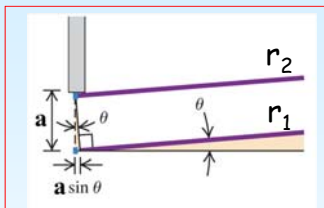
Dark bands:

$$y_m = x \frac{m \lambda}{a}$$

$$m = \pm 1, \pm 2,$$



# Diffraction



A path difference of one wavelength corresponds to a phase difference of  $2\pi$

$$\frac{\beta}{2\pi} = \frac{r_2 - r_1}{\lambda}$$

Path difference:  
 $r_2 - r_1 = a \sin(\theta)$

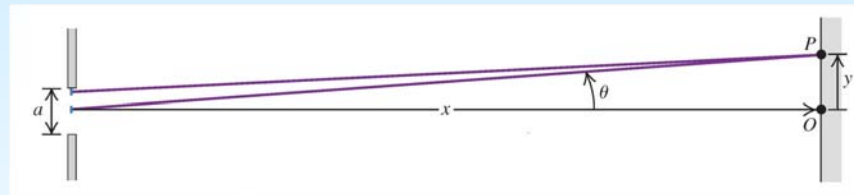
$r_2 - r_1$  is the path difference between a ray at the top and bottom of the slit.

$$\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} a \sin \theta$$

Formelsamling



# Diffraction



$$\tan(\theta) = y / x \approx \sin(\theta)$$

$$\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} a \sin \theta \approx \frac{2\pi a y}{\lambda x}$$

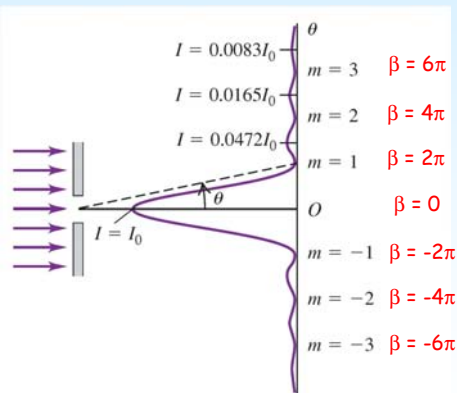
$$\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} a \sin \theta$$



# Diffraction



## Intensity



$$I = I_0 \left[ \frac{\sin(\beta/2)}{\beta/2} \right]^2$$

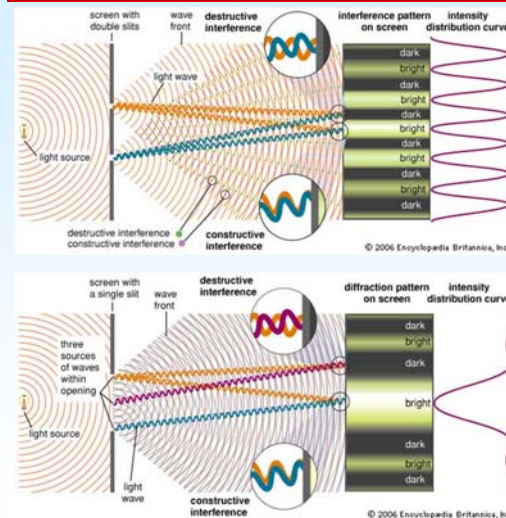
where

$$\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} a \sin \theta \approx \frac{2\pi a y}{\lambda x}$$

Formelsamling



# Summary



Intensity:

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2}$$

$$\phi = \frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta$$

$$\tan(\theta) = y / R \approx \sin(\theta)$$

$$I = I_0 \left[ \frac{\sin(\beta/2)}{\beta/2} \right]^2$$

$$\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} a \sin \theta$$

$$\tan(\theta) = y / x \approx \sin(\theta)$$



# Diffraction



## Two broad slits



# Diffraction



In the analysis of interference from two slits it was assumed that they were very narrow. What if they are broad ?

Two narrow slits:

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2}$$

One broad slit:

$$I = I_0 \left[ \frac{\sin(\beta/2)}{\beta/2} \right]^2$$

Two broad slits:

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2} \left[ \frac{\sin(\beta/2)}{\beta/2} \right]^2$$

where

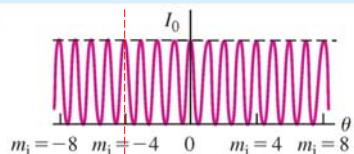
$$\phi = \frac{2\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \theta$$

$$\beta = \frac{2\pi a}{\lambda} \sin \theta$$

Formelsamling

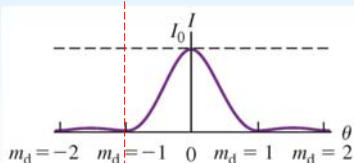


# Diffraction



Two narrow slits:

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2}$$

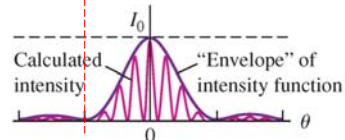


One broad slit:

$$I = I_0 \left[ \frac{\sin(\beta/2)}{\beta/2} \right]^2$$

Two broad slits:

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2} \left[ \frac{\sin(\beta/2)}{\beta/2} \right]^2$$



# Diffraction



## Multiple slits

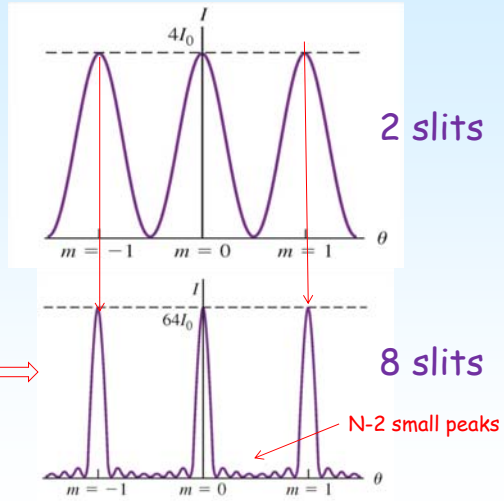
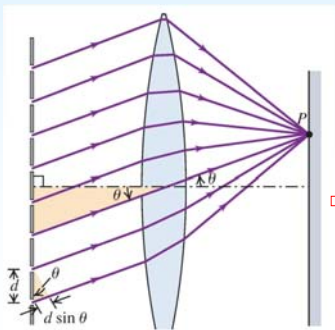


# Diffraction

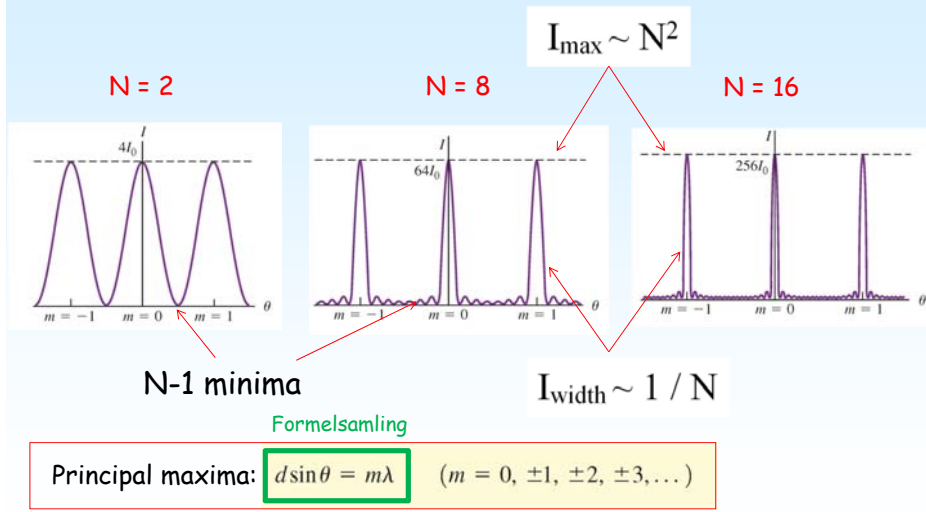


The path difference between adjacent slits that gives maximum intensity with many slits is always:

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



# Diffraction



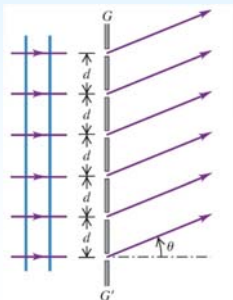
# Diffraction



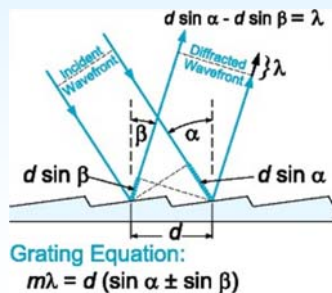
In diffraction grating one uses devices with thousands of slits or reflecting surfaces.

This gives very narrow principal maximum that can be used to determine the wavelength of light.

Transmission grating



Reflection grating



# Diffraction



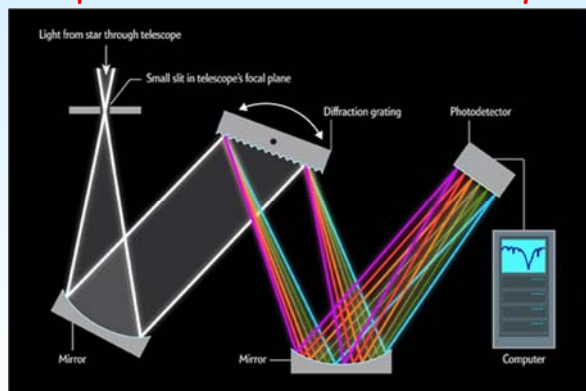
# Spectrometers



## Diffraction



### Spectrometer for astronomy



Light incident on a grating is dispersed into a spectrum. The angles of deviations of the maxima are measured to calculate the wave length.



## Diffraction



### Pinhole diffraction



## Diffraction



### Chromatic resolving power:

The minimum wavelength difference ( $\Delta\lambda$ ) that can be distinguished by a spectrograph.

$$R = \frac{\lambda}{\Delta\lambda} \quad (\text{chromatic resolving power})$$

$$R = \frac{\lambda}{\Delta\lambda} = Nm \quad \text{Formelsamling}$$

R is higher for many slits and higher orders !



## Diffraction

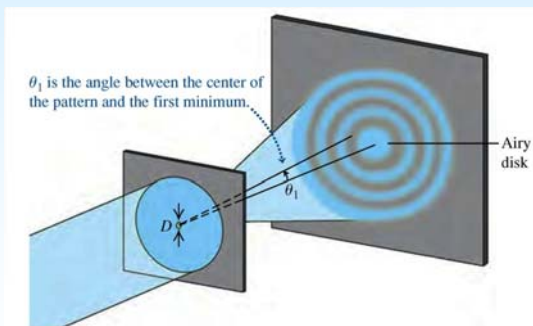
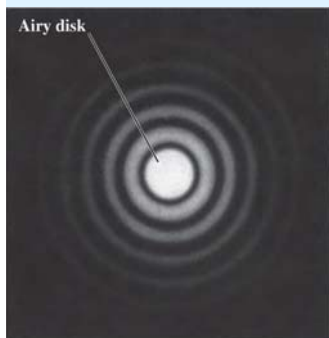




## Diffraction



Diffraction limits the angular resolution of optical instruments.



$$\sin \theta_1 = 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{D} \quad (\text{diffraction by a circular aperture})$$



## Diffraction

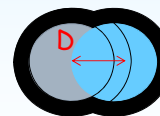


Rayleigh's criterion:

Two point objects can be resolved by an optical system if their angular separation is larger than  $\theta_1$  where

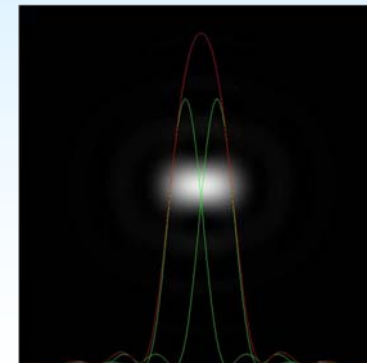
$$\sin \theta_1 = 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{D}$$

The limit for two objects to be resolved is when the center of one diffraction pattern is in the first minimum of the other.



Formelsamling

$$\theta_c = \frac{1.22 \cdot \lambda}{d} \quad (\text{runt h\aa}l)$$



# The End