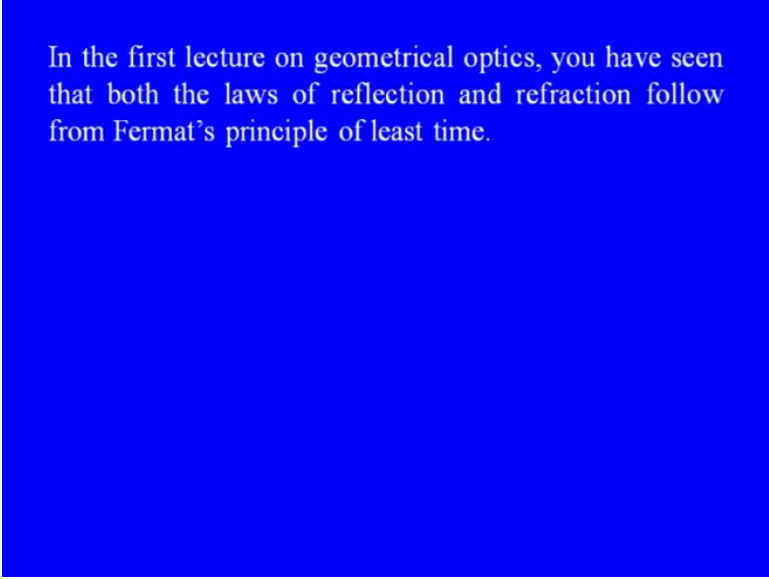


Engineering Physics 1
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Indian Institute of Technology-Roorkee

Module-08
Lecture-02
Image Formation by Lenses

I make formation by lenses by M. K. Srivastava, Department of Physics, Indian Institute of Technology, Roorkee, Uttarkhand.

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In the first lecture on geometrical optics, you have seen that both the laws of reflection and refraction follow from Fermat's principle of least time.

See in the first lecture geometrical optics you have seen that both the laws of reflection and diffraction follow from Fermat's principle of least time. Now in this lecture we shall review diffraction and image formation by thin lenses.

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In this lecture we shall review refraction and image formation by thin lenses. A lens is called *thin* if its thickness is small compared to, for example, radii of curvature of the two surfaces, focal lengths, and object and image distances. We shall also consider coaxial lens systems and so-called thick lenses

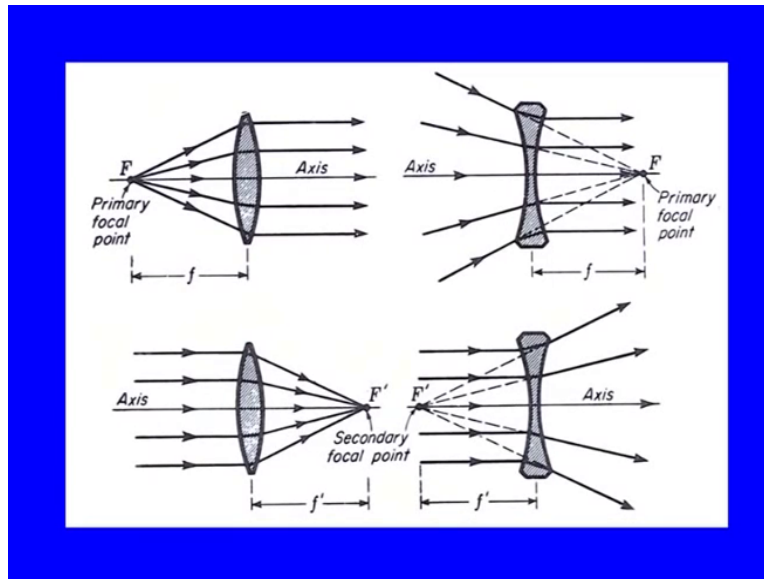
A lens is called thin if the thickness is small compared to for example radii of curvature of the two surfaces, focal lengths and image object distances, we shall also consider coaxial and systems and so called thick lenses.

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The line joining the two centers of curvature is known as the axis of the lens. It is perpendicular to the two faces at the points of intersection. The *first principal focus* is defined as the point (on the axis) such that any ray coming from it or proceeding toward it travels parallel to the axis after refraction. The *second principal focus* is an axial point such that any incident ray traveling parallel to the axis will, after refraction, proceed toward, or appear to come from it.

Now the line joining the two centers of curvature of the two surfaces of the lens is known as the axis of the lens which is perpendicular to the two faces at the points of intersection. The first principal focus is defined as the point on the axis such that any ray coming from it or proceeding towards it travels parallel to the axis after refraction. The second principal focus is an axial point such that any incident ray traveling parallel to the axis will after refraction proceed towards or appear to come from it.

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So, this picture shows these features primary may be called as first secondary may be called a second. In the primary from F the old diverging rays they become parallel after reflection or if the lens is a concave lens all these rays which was about to converge to F after refraction again become parallel to the axis. For the second focal point the rays which are parallel to begin with after reflection they converge to a point called us second difficult point or second focal point second focus. And similarly for the rays which after refraction appear to come from the focal point.

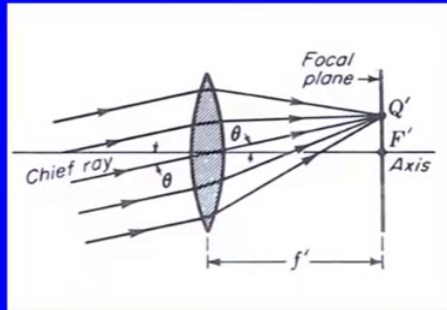
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The distance between the center of a lens and either of its focal points is its focal length. For a lens with the same medium on both sides, the two focal lengths are equal.

Now the distance between the center of a lens and either of its focal points is its focal length. For a lens with the same medium on both sides the two focal lengths are equal.

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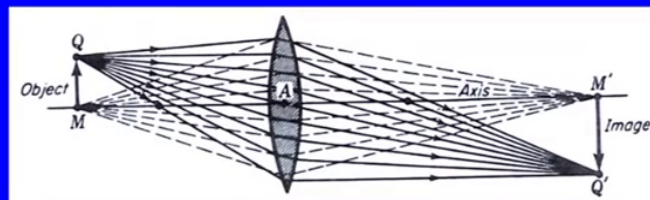
A plane perpendicular to the axis and passing through a focal point is called a focal plane. Parallel incident rays making an angle θ with the axis are brought to a focus at a point Q' in line with the chief ray which is defined as the ray which passes undeviated through the center of the lens.



Now a plane perpendicular to the axis and passing through a focal point is called a focal plane. Parallel incident ray's making an angle theta with the axis or brought to focus at a point Q Prime in line with the chief ray which is defined the chief ray is defined as the ray which passes undeviated to the center of the lens. The object and image are called conjugate points.

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The object and image are *conjugate points*, and planes through these points perpendicular to the axis are called *conjugate planes*.



And the planes through these perpendiculars to the axis are called conjugate planes. The plane MQ and the plane M prime Q prime are conjugate planes. M prime is the image corresponding

to the object point M, Q prime used image corresponding to the object point Q.

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Before we proceed further we should fix the sign convention which shall be used during these lectures. This is the usual coordinate geometry convention. It is as follows:

- The point of contact of the center of the lens with the axis is taken as the origin of the coordinate system.
- The rays are always incident from the left on the refracting surface.
- All distances to the right of the origin are positive and distances to the left of the origin are negative.

Now before we proceed further we should fix the sign convention which shall be used during these lectures for finding out where the image will be formed for a given position of the object. This is the usual coordinate geometric convention it is as follows; the point of contact of the center of the lens with the axis is taken as the origin of the coordinate system. Remember we are talking about thin lenses.

Now the rays are always incident from the left on the refracting surface the incident from the left going towards right. All distances to the right of the origin are positive and distances to the left of the origin are negative usual coordinate geometry arrangement.

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- The angle that the ray makes with the axis is positive if the axis has to be rotated in the anticlockwise direction to coincide with the ray.
- All distances measured upward from the axis are positive and all distance measured in the downward direction are negative.

With this convention the first focal length f_1 is negative for a converging lens and positive for a diverging lens. Opposite is the case for the second focal length f_2 .

The angle that the ray makes with the axis is positive if the axis has to be rotated in the anti-clockwise direction to coincide with the ray and all distances major upwards from the axis are positive and all distances measured downward direction or negative I mean the same convention should be pretty familiar. Now with this convention the first focal length F_1 is negative for a converging lens because this point comes from the left of the lens.

And positive for a diverging lens which is a double concave lens and a positive the case for the second focal length F_2 .

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Let us consider the paraxial image formation by a thin lens. The thin lens formula is

$$\frac{n_3}{v} - \frac{n_1}{u} = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{R_1} + \frac{n_3 - n_2}{R_2}$$

The first and second focal lengths, f_1 and f_2 , can be obtained by putting $v = \infty$, $u = f_1$ and $u = -\infty$, $v = f_2$ respectively.

$$\frac{1}{f_1} = -\frac{1}{n_1} \left[\frac{n_2 - n_1}{R_1} + \frac{n_3 - n_2}{R_2} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{1}{n_3} \left[\frac{n_2 - n_1}{R_1} + \frac{n_3 - n_2}{R_2} \right]$$

Let us consider this paraxial image formation by a thin lens but axial means they are very close to the axis they are not making a large angle with the axis. The thin lens formula is $\frac{n_3}{v} - \frac{n_1}{u} = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{R_1} + \frac{n_3 - n_2}{R_2}$. You see n_1 , n_2 , n_3 are the refractive indices n_1 is for the medium on the left of the lens and n_2 is for the material of the lens and n_3 is for the medium on the right of the lens.

Now the first in the second focal length f_1 and f_2 can be obtained from this expression by putting v equal to infinity and u becomes equal to f_1 or $u = -\infty$ and $v = f_2$ respectively. And this gives $\frac{1}{f_1} = -\frac{1}{u} = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{R_1} + \frac{n_3 - n_2}{R_2}$. And for the second one $\frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{n_3}{v} = \frac{n_3 - n_2}{R_2}$. You see this capital R_1 and R_2 they are the Ray of radii of curvature of the two curved surfaces of the lens.

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For a thin lens placed in a medium such that the refractive indices on both sides of the lens are the same ($n_3 = n_1$), the values of f_1 and f_2 can readily be obtained by

$$\frac{1}{f_2} = -\frac{1}{f_1} = (n - 1) \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right) = \frac{1}{f}, (n \equiv n_2/n_1)$$

If $[(1/R_1) - (1/R_2)]$ is a positive quantity, then the focal length f is a positive and the lens acts as a converging lens. Similarly, if that is a negative quantity, then the lens acts as a diverging lens.

For a thin lens placed in a medium such that the refractive indices on both sides of the lens are the same that is $n_3 = n_1$ the values of f_1 and f_2 can readily be obtained by this relation $\frac{1}{f_2} = -\frac{1}{f_1}$, naturally in this case it is $= -1$ upon f_1 , I mean they are equal in magnitude there is a sign difference because one focal point is on the left that is on the right. So, this is $= n - 1$, n is the refractive index of the material of the lens relative to the medium outside multiplied by the factor $\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2}$.

Now if this factor $1 \text{ upon } R_1 - 1 \text{ upon } R_2$ is a positive quantity then the focal length f which is $= f_2$ which is the second focal length is a positive quantity. And the lens acts as a converging lens this is a situation for a by convex lens, similarly if that is a negative quantity then the lengths acts the diverging lens.

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The relation between u , v and f is

$$\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{u} = \frac{1}{f}$$

Once we know f_1 and f_2 and therefore the positions of the first and second principal foci, the paraxial image can be graphically constructed from the following simple rules.

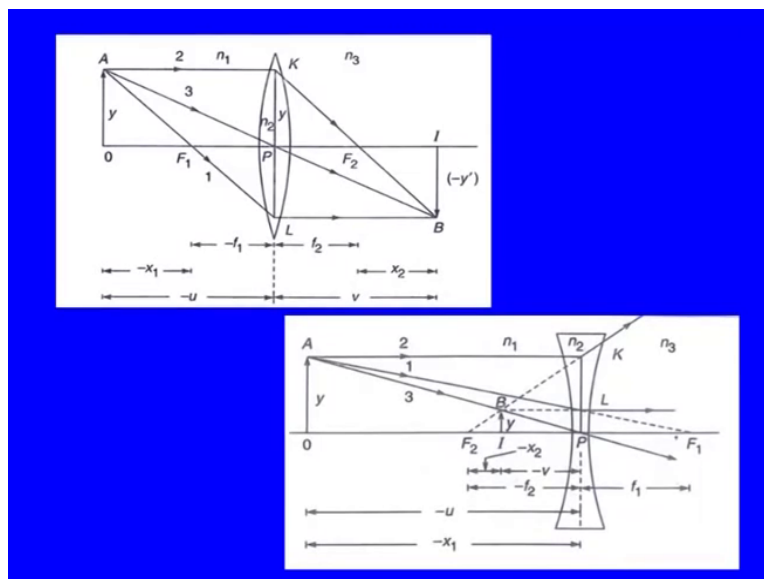
Now the relation between u , v and f is $1 \text{ upon } v - 1 \text{ upon } u = 1 \text{ upon } f$ the solution is very popular when most commonly used for finding out the distance of the image when the object is that distance u and f in the focal length of lens. Now once we know f_1 and f_2 and therefore the positions of the first and the second principle for side. The paraxial image can be graphically constructed from the following simple rules.

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- A ray passing through the first principal focus will, after refraction, emerge parallel to the axis.
- A ray parallel to the axis will, after refraction, either pass through or appear to come from (depending on the sign of f_2) the second principal focus.
- A ray passing through the center of the lens, called the chief ray, will pass through undeviated.

A ray passing through the first principal focus will up the refraction image parallel to the axis that is characteristic of the focal point, ray parallel to the axis will after refraction either pass through or happier to come from depending on the sign of f_2 depending on whether the lens is a converging lens or diverging lens coming from the second principal focus. A ray passing through the center of the lens called the chief ray will pass through undeviated.

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Consider these figures you see from the point A considered that the ray two which is parallel to the axis after refraction pass it through f_2 which is the focal point then a ray from A going through the focal point f_1 after refraction becomes parallel to the axis they meet at the point me

which is the image of the point A. If you consider the chief ray now this should also reach the point B, APB.

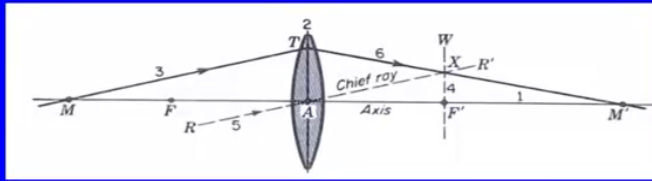
Similarly for the case of the concave lens parallel ray starting from A after refraction appears to come from f_2 . A ray because going towards f_1 after refraction becomes parallel at the point L becomes parallel to the axis and these two meet at the point B which is the image of the point A.

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The above graphical procedure is called *the parallel-ray method*. Some times another graphical method, called the *oblique-ray method*, is preferable. The basic principles are the same. Parallel rays incident on the lens are always brought to a focus at the focal plane., the ray through the center being the only one undeviated.

The above graphical procedure is called the parallel ray method. Sometimes another graphical method called the Oblique ray method. That is preferable the basic principles are the same parallel rays incident on the lens are always brought to a focus at the focal plane. And the rays of the center being the only one undeviated that is the chief ray.

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Therefore if we actually have rays diverging from M , we can find the direction of any one of them after it passes through the lens by making it intersect the parallel line RR' through A in the focal plane. This construction locates X and the position of the image M' . The line RR' is not an actual ray in this case and is treated as such only as a means of locating the point X .

Let us consider the picture here you consider the rays starting from the point M if we actually have real diverging from M we can find the direction of any one of them after it passes through the lens by making it intersect the parallel line RR' through A . Let us consider this ray MT this is ray. Now we wish to find out the reflected ray corresponding to this. So, consider a parallel chief ray and consider the focal plane through f prime.

Then one can construct the rate TX because the two parallel rays they must meet in the focal plane. The Ray RR' prime is not an actual ray in this case and stated as such only the means of locating the point X and once we have located the point X we extend this TX to M' prime and M' prime is the image of the object at the point M .

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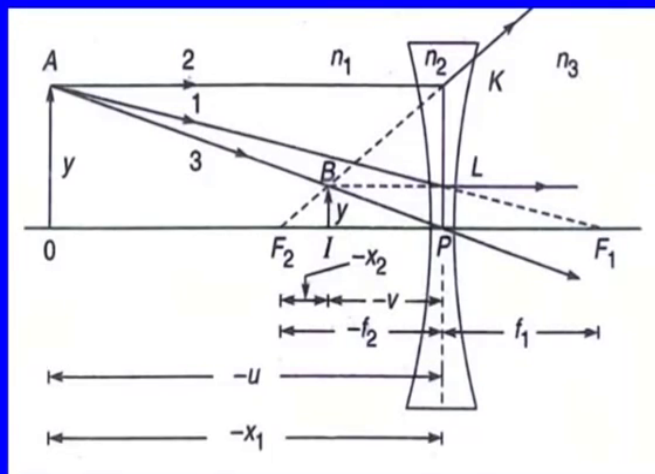
Newton's Formula

Let x_1 be the distance of the object from the first principal focus (x_1 will be positive if the object point is on the right of F_1 and conversely) and let x_2 be the distance of the image from the second principal focus F_2 .

Newton's formula you see this is another relation which is used to relate the object and image distances with the focal length of the lens. The difference here is the distances are not measured from the lens. You see let X_1 be the distance of the object. From the first principal focus not from the lens f_1 will be positive if the object point is on the right of f_1 that is as per sign convention. And let X_2 be the distance of the image from the second principal focus.

So, object distance to be measured from first principle focus image distance to be measured from the second principal focus.

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Considered this picture I mean to obtain a relationship in this case. Let us first fix up the distances you see they consider the distance for example x_2 which is the distance of image from the focal point f_2 . Usually your object distance U which is the distance of the object from the center of the lens. The distance of the image I from P is again from the center. To obtain a relationship in this case we shall make use of the similar triangles.

Consider the triangle for example $\triangle AOP$ and the triangle $\triangle BIP$ this they will give information some sort of a relationship between the various quantities involved here.

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Considering similar triangles

$$\triangle AOF_1 \text{ and } \triangle PLF_1 \Rightarrow \frac{-y'}{y} = \frac{-f_1}{-x_1}$$

$$\triangle KPF_2 \text{ and } \triangle IBF_2 \Rightarrow \frac{-y'}{y} = \frac{x_2}{f_2}$$

Vertical distances are positive if measured above the line and negative if measured below the line. The above equations give $f_1 f_2 = x_1 x_2$. This is known as the *Newton formula*.

If the medium is same on the two sides $x_1 x_2 = -f^2$

So, as I said considering the similar triangles $\triangle AOF_1$ and $\triangle PLF_1$ you have a relationship like this $-y'$ upon y these are the heights of the object points is $= -f_1$ upon $-x_1$. The minus and plus signs are S per sign convention. Similarly from another set of similar triangles the ratio $-y'$ prime to $y = x_2$ to f_2 the above equation gives the relationship $f_1 f_2 = x_1 x_2$, this is known as the Newton's formula.

The medium is same on the two sides has is the situation in most cases. The formula basically now is $x_1 x_2 = -f^2$.

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Virtual images

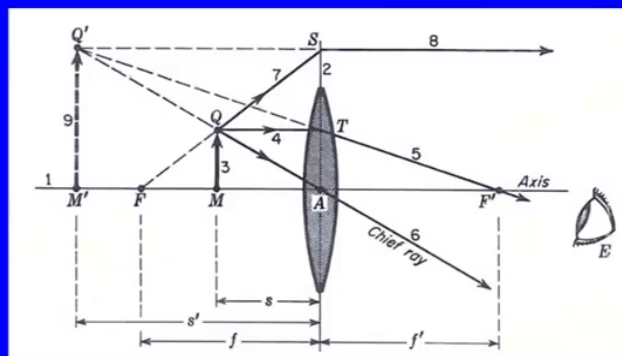
Real images are the ones which can be made visible on a screen. They are characterized by the fact that rays of light are actually brought to a focus in the plane of the image. A virtual image can not be formed on a screen. The rays from a given point on the object do not actually come together at the corresponding point on the image; instead they must be projected to find this point. Virtual images are produced with converging lenses when the object is placed between the focal point and the lens, and with diverging lenses when the object is in any position.

Let us consider virtual image real images are the ones which can be made visible on a screen. They are characterized by the fact the rays of light are actually brought to a focus in the plane of the image. A virtual image on the other hand cannot be formed on a screen. The rays from a given point on the object do not actually come together at the corresponding point on the image instead they must be projected to find this point.

These images cannot be taken on a screen virtual images are produced with converging lenses when the object is placed between the focal point and the lens. And with diverging lenses this is the situation and the object is in any position. Diverging lenses always lead to virtual images.

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The figure below shows a converging lens used as a magnifier.



Is this is a very typical example here the object is very close to the lens between the lens and the focal point if you consider a parallel ray starting from the point Q then naturally after reflection it passes through the F Prime and it should then you consider the chief ray from starting from Q goes through undeviated. And if we extend them backwards they meet at the point Q prime which is the image of the point Q.

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Rays emanating from the object point Q are refracted by the lens but are not sufficiently deviated to come to a real focus. To the observer's eye at E these rays appear to be coming from a point Q' on the far side of the lens. This point represents a virtual image, because the rays do not actually pass through Q' ; they only appear to come from there. The ray QT parallel to the axis is refracted through F' , while ray QA through the center of the lens is undeviated.

So, that what it says here rays emanating from the object point Q are reflected by the lens but are not sufficiently deviated. To come to a real focus to the observer's eye at these rays appear to be coming from a point Q prime on far side of the lens. The distance of Q prime from the lens is more than the distance of Q. This point represents a virtual image because the rays do not actually pass through Q prime, they only appear to come from there.

The ray QT parallel to the axis is reflected through F prime while there really QA to the center of the lens which is the chief ray is undeviated.

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These two rays when extended backward intersect at Q' . The third ray QS , traveling outward as though it came from F , actually misses the lens, but if the lens were larger, the ray would be refracted parallel to the axis. When projected backward, it also intersects the other projections at Q' .

Now these two rays when extended backwards as I said earlier we have seen in the figure. They intersect at Q' . The third ray picture QS traveling outward as though it came from F actually misses the lens in this case but it will end for larger. The ray would be refracted parallel to the axis as it should when projected backward it also intersects the other projections at Q' .

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Cardinal points of an optical system

In the case of a thick lens or in a combination of two or more lenses separated by a finite distance, it will be extremely tedious to consider refraction at each surface. To overcome this difficulty, a set of points, called *cardinal points*, have been suggested to deal with any number of co-axial refracting systems. The system is treated as one unit without bothering about its actual details. *The cardinal points are pairs of (1) Focal points, (2) Principal points and (3) Nodal points.*

Cardinal points of an optical system, in the case of a thick lens or in a combination of two or more lenses separated by a finite distance. It will be extremely tedious to consider refraction at each surface. To overcome this difficulty a set of points called cardinal points have been

suggested to deal with any number of coaxial refracting systems. The system is treated as one unit without bothering about its actual details.

The cardinal points are pairs of focal points, principal points and nodal points. We have already discussed focal points first principal focus and the second principal focus. The planes passing through the principal foci perpendicular to the axis are called focal planes. The main property of the focal planes is that the ray is starting from a point in the focal plane in object space they correspond to a set of conjugate parallel rays in the image space.

We have seen that similarly they set a parallel rays in the object space they correspond to a set of rays intersecting at a point the focal plane in the image space.

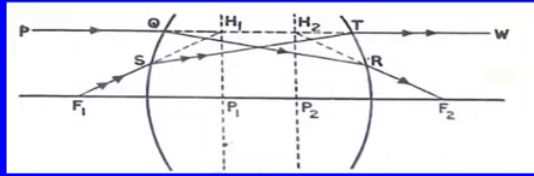
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Principal points and principal planes

There are two principal planes and two principal points. The first principal plane in the object-space is the locus of the points of intersection of the emergent rays in the image-space parallel to the axis and their conjugate incident rays in the object-space. The second principal plane in the image-space is the locus of the points of intersection of the incident rays in the object-space parallel to the axis and their conjugate emergent rays in the image space.

Now the principal points and the principal piece let us see what they signify. There are two principal planes and two principal points. The principal plane in the object space the locus of the points of intersection of the emergent trace in the major space parallel to the axis and their conjugate incident rays in the object space. The second principal plane in the image space is the locus of the points of intersection of the incident rays in the object space parallel to the axis and there conjugate emergent rays in the image space.

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It is clear from the figure that the two incident rays are directed towards H_1 and after refraction seem to come from H_2 . Therefore H_2 is the image of H_1 . Thus H_1 and H_2 are the conjugate points and the planes H_1P_1 and H_2P_2 are a pair of conjugate planes. Further $H_1P_1 = H_2P_2$. The lateral magnification of the planes is $+1$, i.e. unit positive lateral magnification.

We can see it from here it is clear from the figure then the two incident rays are directed towards H_1 and after refraction seem to come from H_2 . Therefore H_2 is the image of H_1 thus H_1 and H_2 are the conjugate points and the planes H_1P_1 and H_2P_2 are a pair of conjugate planes. Further $H_1P_1 = H_2P_2$. So, the lateral magnification of the plane says $+1$ unit positive lateral magnification and that characterizes the principal points and the principal planes.

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The rays starting from any point on the axis and cutting the first principal plane at given heights from the axis will have their conjugate emergent rays starting from the points in the second principal plane at the same respective heights from the axis. All these emergent rays converge to the image point on the axis.

The range is starting from any point on the axis and cutting the principal plane at given heights from the axis will have their conjugate emergent rays starting from the points in the second principal plane and the same respective height that is the main thing that the same respective heights from the axis. All these emergent rays converge to the image point on the axis.

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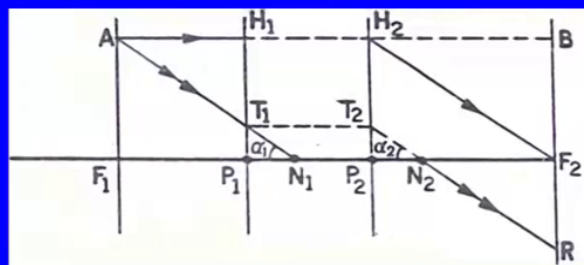
Nodal points

Nodal points are a pair of conjugate points on the axis having unit positive angular magnification. This simply means that a ray of light directed towards one of these points, after refraction through the optical system, appears to proceed from the second point in a parallel direction.

Let us consider the nodal points. These points are a pair of conjugate points on the axis having unit positive angular magnification. Principal points have unit positive lateral magnification. Nodal points have a unit positive angular magnification. This simply means that a ray of light directed towards one of these points after refraction through the optical system appears to proceed from the second point in a parallel direction.

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Let H_1P_1 and H_2P_2 be the first and the second principal planes of an optical system and let AF_1 and BF_2 be its first and second focal planes respectively. Consider a point A on the first focal plane. From A consider a ray AH_1 parallel to the axis. The conjugate ray will proceed from H_2 a point in the second principal plane such that $H_1P_1 = H_2P_2$ and will pass through the second focus F_2 .



Let's consider H_1P_1 and H_2P_2 the first and the second principal planes of an optical system. And let F_1 , AF_1 and BF_2 be the first and second focal planes respectively. Consider a point A on the first focal plane. From A , consider a ray AH_1 parallel to the axis. The conjugate ray will proceed from H_2 a point in the second principal plane such that $H_1P_1 = H_2P_2$ and will pass through the second focus F_2 .

will proceed from H_2 a point in the second principal plane such that $H_1 P_1 = H_2 P_2$ and will pass through the second focus F_2 .

Take another ray AT_1 parallel to the emergent ray $H_2 F_2$ and striking the first principal plane at T_1 it will emerge from T_2 point on the second principal plane such that $T_2 P_2 = T_1 P_1$ and we will proceed parallel to the ray $H_2 F_2$ as the two rays originate at A , a point on the first focal plane. Then the points of intersection of the incident ray AT_1 and conjugate emergent ray T_2 are with the axis give the position of the two nodal points N_1 and N_2 .

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It is clear that the two points N_1 and N_2 are a pair of conjugate points and the incident ray AN_1 is parallel to the conjugate emergent ray T_2R .

The planes passing through the nodal points and perpendicular to the axis are called nodal planes.

It is clear that the two points N_1 and N_2 are a pair of conjugate points an incident ray $A N_1$ is parallel to the conjugate emergent ray T_2R . The planes passing through the nodal points and perpendicular to the axis are called nodal planes.

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The distance between the nodal points N_1 and N_2 is equal to the distance between the principal points P_1 and P_2 .

Further $P_1N_1 = P_2N_2 = f_1 + f_2$.

If the medium on both sides of the system is optically similar, $f_1 = -f_2$ and $P_1N_1 = P_2N_2 = 0$. It means that the nodal points coincide with the principal points in this case.

Now the distance between the nodal points N_1 and N_2 is equal to the distance between the principal points P_1 and P_2 further $P_1N_1 = P_2N_2$ which is really equal to $f_1 + f_2$. Now if the medium on both sides of the system is optically similar f_1 will be equal to $-f_2$ and this means $P_1N_1 = P_2N_2 = 0$. It means that the nodal points coincide with the principal points, so, in this situation if you have the same medium on both sides. These pair of points have equal lateral magnification and wholesome equal angular magnification.

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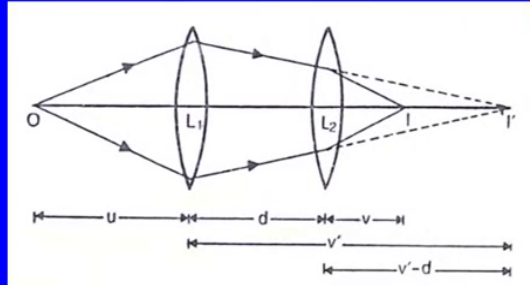
Co-axial lens system: Equivalent focal length and cardinal points

Consider two thin lenses L_1 and L_2 of focal lengths f_1 and f_2 respectively.

Let us consider the question and system its equivalent focal length and its cardinal points. We consider now here to thin lenses L_1 and L_2 of focal lengths f_1 and f_2 respectively.

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A point-object O is placed at a distance u from the first lens and the final image is formed at I at a distance of v from the second lens.



A point objects O is placed at a distance u from the first lens and if final image is formed at I a distance of v from the second lens. You see after the reflections of the first lens an intermediate image can be thought of at the point I prime which then serves as a virtual object for the second lens and the final image is formed at the point r . The d is the distance between the lenses use the object distance from the first lens v prime is the distance of that intermediate image which is formed.

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The first image due to the first lens is formed at I' at a distance of v' from it.

$$\frac{1}{v'} - \frac{1}{u} = \frac{1}{f_1}, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{v'} = \frac{u + f_1}{u f_1}$$

The image I' behaves as an object for the second lens. The object distance for the second lens is $v' - d$ and the final image is formed at I .

$$\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{v' - d} = \frac{1}{f_2}, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{v' - d} = \frac{f_2 - v}{f_2 v}$$

Eliminating v' from these, we get

$$uv(d - f_1 - f_2) + u(f_1 f_2 - d f_2) + v(d f_1 - f_1 f_2) - d f_1 f_2 = 0$$

So, all the distances are given here the first image due to the first lens is formed by primers I pointed out earlier at a distance of v prime from it. So, we have the standard relation $1 \text{ upon } v \text{ prime} - 1 \text{ upon } u = 1 \text{ upon } f_1$, so this can be written like this $1 \text{ upon } v \text{ prime} = u + f_1 \text{ divided by}$

Now, image i prime that an object for the second lens the object distance for the second lens is v prime - d and the final image is formed at I , so here we have the relation 1 upon v , v the major distance from the second lens.

We are writing this relation for the second lens, so 1 upon v - 1 upon v prime - $d = 1$ upon f_2 , f_2 is the focal length of the second lens or this can be written as 1 upon v prime - $d = f_2 - v$ divided by $f_2 v$. Now from these relations we eliminate v prime and we get a relationship like this uv multiplied by $d - f_1 - f_2 + u$ multiplied by $f_1 f_2 - d f_2 + v$ multiplied by $d f_1 - f_1 f_2 - d f_1 f_2 = 0$.

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If α represents the distance of the first lens from the first principal plane and β represents the distance of the second lens from the second principal plane, then the reduced object-distance and the reduced image-distance are given by $U = u - \alpha$ and $V = v - \beta$. If f is the focal length of the equivalent lens, then

$$\frac{1}{V} - \frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{f}, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{v - \beta} - \frac{1}{u - \alpha} = \frac{1}{f}$$

On rearranging, this leads to

$$uv + u(-\beta - f) + v(-\alpha + f) + (\alpha\beta - \beta f + \alpha f) = 0$$

Now we treat this problem in an alternative way. If α represents the distance of the first lens from the first principal plane and β represents the distance of the second lens from the second principal plane. Then the reduced object distances and the reduced image distances are u capital U is given by $u - \alpha$ remember you were the distance of the object from the first lens else y is the distance of the first principal point from the first lens.

So, capital u is the object distance from the first principal point. Similarly v capital V small $v - \beta$ is the distance of the image from the second principal point. If f is the focal length of this of the combination of the equivalent lens we have the standard relation like this 1 upon capital V minus 1 upon capital $U = 1$ upon f . We put the values of capital V and capital U , so write 1 upon $v - \beta - 1$ upon $u - \alpha = 1$ upon f .

On rearranging this again we have a equation having terms like uv , u multiplied by $-\beta - f$, v multiplied by $-\alpha + f$ and $\alpha\beta - \beta + \alpha = 0$. We can compare this equation with the only a similar equation.

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Comparing these two equations and solving for f , α and β gives

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} - \frac{d}{f_1 f_2}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{df}{f_2} = \frac{df_1}{f_1 + f_2 - d}$$

$$\beta = \frac{-df}{f_1} = \frac{-df_2}{f_1 + f_2 - d}$$

Thus, the first principal plane is to the right of the first lens, and the second principal plane is to the left of the second lens. For the power of the combination, we have

$$P = P_1 + P_2 - d P_1 P_2.$$

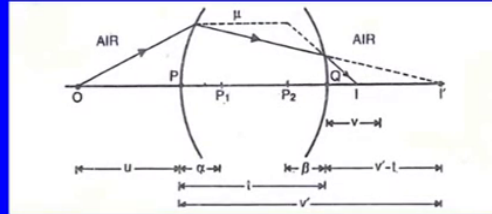
And that gives us these relationships 1 upon f comes out to be equal to 1 upon f_1 +s 1 upon f_2 - d upon $f_1 f_2$, so this is the focal length of the combination. And α , β , α is df upon f_2 1 upon $1 + f_2 - d$ and β is $-df$ upon f_1 , so $-df_2 -f_1 f_2 - d$. So, now the idea is the two lenses are not to be treated separately anymore. We have just one optical system, object image distances are to be measured from the principal points.

And we have the focal length equivalent focal length of the combination for the power of the combination naturally we have this relationship the total power is equal to $P_1 + P_2 - d$ times, d the distance between those two thin lenses, so d times $P_1 P_2$.

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Refraction through a Thick Lens

Consider a lens of thickness t and made from a material of refractive index μ and placed in air. The radii of curvature are R_1 and R_2 .



A luminous point object O is situated on the axis at a distance u from the first refracting surface and forms an image I' at a distance v' from P .

Now we are in a position to consider the thickness. Consider lens of thickness t and made from a material of refractive index μ and placed in air. Radii of curvature R_1 and R_2 , consider look at the thickness between the points P and PQ that is t a luminous point object O is situated on the axis at a distance u from the first reflecting surface and forms an image at I' at a distance v' from P . This image will serve as a virtual object the second surface.

So, for the reflection from the first surface one can write $\frac{\mu}{v'} - \frac{1}{u}$ which is equal to $\frac{\mu - 1}{R_1}$ that is tendered relation for reflection from a spherical surface. The image I' formed by the first surface acts as the object for the second surface and he finally made it formed a I , so here you have the relationship $\frac{1}{\mu v} - \frac{1}{v'}$ whose P is coming because it is a thick lens is equal to $\frac{1 - \mu}{R_2}$, R_2 the radius of curvature of the second surface.

Now v' is to be eliminated between these two equations to obtain an equation in u, v, R_1 and R_2 .

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If α is the distance of the first principal point from P and β is the distance of the second principal point from Q , then taking $V = v - \beta$ and $U = u - \alpha$, we have the lens equation

$$\frac{1}{v - \beta} - \frac{1}{u - \alpha} = \frac{1}{f}$$

where f is the focal length of the lens.

And you now if alpha is the distance of the first principal point from P and Beta in the distance of the second principal point from Q then taking the capital $V = v - \beta$ capital $U = u - \alpha$, we have the lens equation as before $1 \text{ upon } v - \beta - 1 \text{ upon } u - \alpha = 1 \text{ upon } f$ again substituting those relations as before.

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Comparing this equation in u, v and f, α, β with the earlier equation in u, v , we get

$$\frac{1}{f} = (\mu - 1) \left[\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{(\mu - 1)t}{\mu R_1 R_2} \right]$$

$$\alpha = \frac{t R_1}{\mu(R_1 - R_2) - t(\mu - 1)}$$

$$\beta = \frac{t R_2}{\mu(R_1 - R_2) - t(\mu - 1)}$$

These relation are similar to those for a thin lens, provided the object-distance is measured from the first principal point and the image distance from the second principal point.

And comparing this equation with the earlier equation in u, v, f have alpha beta simpler, as we did for the combination of two thin lenses, we get these results. So, $1 \text{ upon } f = \mu - 1 \left[\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{(\mu - 1)t}{\mu R_1 R_2} \right]$ that is the and defining the focal length. Remember if $t = 0$, if it is the thin lens then this term will not be there you will have a simple relationship $\mu - 1 \text{ into } 1 \text{ upon } R_1 - 1 \text{ upon } R_2$.

For the thick lens this is the additional term which is coming up. Similarly for the distances of the principal points alpha and beta if t is 0, you do not have to bother about them but the center of the lens is the only point but now for the thick lens alpha is given by this relationship theta is given by the next one similar to those for the thin lens.

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As t goes to zero, i.e., the lens is thin, the above reduce to the usual relation for the focal length of a thin lens and $\alpha = \beta = 0$.

With this we have come to the end of this lecture. In the next two lectures we shall take up the defects in the image formation, i.e., the lens aberrations.

Now as t goes to 0 as I pointed out the lens thin the above reduce to the usual relation for the focal length of a thin lens okay. With this we have come to the end of this lecture now in the next two lectures we shall take up the defects in the image formation that is the lens aberrations, thank you.