

	Syllab	ous	EPI -STEM	
LIGHT				
Content	Depth of Treatment	Activities	212	
REFLECTION				
I. Laws of reflection		Demonstration using ray box or laser or other suitable method.		
2. Mirrors	Images formed by plane and spherical mirrors. Knowledge that $\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{u} + \frac{1}{v} \text{ and}$ $m = \frac{v}{u}$	Real-is-positive sign convention. Simple exercises on mirrors by ray tracing <i>or</i> use of formula.	Practical uses of spherical mirrors: Concave Convex • dentists • supermarkets • floodlights • driving mirrors • projectors.	
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Just like a ball will bounce off a wall, light will reflect off of surfaces. The law of reflection states that the angle of incidence equals the angle of reflection, when the incident ray, the reflected ray, and the normal are all in the same plane. Regardless of whether light is reflected off a plane mirror, a curved mirror or a rough surface, the law of reflection will always apply.



There are two types of images that can be formed using mirrors: real and virtual. Our eyes are unable to distinguish between the two of them by just looking at them.

A real image is formed by the actual intersection of light rays. It can be formed on a screen.

A virtual image is formed by the apparent intersection of light rays, and it cannot be formed on a screen.

Image Fo	ormation EPI-STEM			
Real Image	Virtual Image			
Light rays actually meet.	Light rays only apparently meet.			
Image is generally inverted.	Image is generally erect.			
Image can be obtained on the screen.	Image cannot be obtained on the screen.			
Image is in front of mirror & behind lens.	Image is behind mirror & in front of lens.			
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Listed here, are some other key differences between real and virtual images.

In real images, the image is generally inverted, whereas in virtual ones, it tends to be erect.

In real images, the image in front of the mirror and behind the lens, but in virtual ones, it is behind the mirror and in front of the lens.



A plane mirror is a mirror with a flat reflective surface. Plane mirrors form virtual images. The light rays entering our eyes are spreading apart or diverging, but our brains interpret this as the image being formed behind the mirror.

The image is always the same size as the object and the same distance behind the mirror as the object is in front of it.



There are two types of curved mirrors: concave and convex.

A concave mirror has a reflective surface that is curved inward and away from the light source and has the same shape as a satellite dish.

A convex mirror is a mirror in which the reflective surface bulges toward the light source.



The centre of curvature (C) is the centre around which the mirror is formed.

The radius of curvature is the distance between the mirror and the centre of curvature.

The focal point (f) is the halfway point between the mirror and the centre of curvature.

The centre of curvature and the focal point lie on the principle axis.

The pole (p) is the point where the principle axis meets the mirror.



In order to determine where the image will form and what its dimensions will be, the following rules apply.

A light ray parallel to the principle axis reflects through the focal point.

A light ray through the focal point reflects parallel to the axis.

A light ray incident at the pole clearly reflects according to the laws of reflection.



In convex mirrors, the focal point is now behind the mirror. The image formed is always virtual, upright, and diminished.

Incident beams parallel to the axis are not reflected through it, but seem to originate from it.



Regardless of if a mirror is plane or curved, the following formulae always apply.

1 over the object distance plus 1 over the image distance is equal to 1 over the focal length.

The magnification is equal to the height of the image divided by the height of the object.



Some practical uses of concave mirrors are:

- Dentist mirrors
- Make up mirrors

Some practical examples of convex mirrors are:

- Security mirrors in shops
- Mirrors on narrow roads with sharp bends allow people to see a larger area
- External car mirrors also aid with increasing the field of vision, however the image is diminished and can lead the driver to thinking that the car behind them is further away than it actually is.

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		EPI·STEM		
REFR	ACTION			
I. La	ws of refraction	Refractive index.	Demonstration using ray box or laser or other suitable method. Appropriate calculations.	Practical examples, e.g. real and apparent depth of fish in water.
		Refractive index in terms of relative speeds.	Appropriate calculations.	
2. To r	otal internal eflection	Critical angle. Relationship between critical angle and refractive index. Transmission of light through optical fibres.	Demonstration. Appropriate calculations.	Reflective road signs. Mirages. Prism reflectors. Uses of optical fibres: • telecommunications • medicine (endoscopes).
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Imagine a car driving on the road, that turns down onto a beach. When the car is moving from the road to the sand, what happens? The car tends to change direction. This is because one wheel is in contact with the sand, whilst the others are still in contact with the road. The wheel on the sand slows down and the wheels on the road remain rotating at the same speed.

A similar effect happens to light when it travels from one medium to another with different densities. The light appears to bend.



The laws of refraction state:

- The incidence ray, the refracted ray, and the normal are all along the same plane.
- For any pair of media, the sin of the angle of incidence is proportional to the sin of the angle of refraction.

Snell's law states that:

- The refractive index (n) is equal to the sin of the incidence angle divided by the sin of the refracted angle.
- When light moves into a denser medium, it bends towards the normal.
- When light moves into a less dense medium, it bends away from the normal.



Shown here are some optical illusions caused by refraction.



Total internal reflection is the optical phenomenon in which waves arriving at the interface from one medium to another are not refracted into the second medium, but completely reflected back into the first medium.

The phenomenon of total internal reflection of light is used in many optical instruments like telescopes, microscopes, binoculars, spectroscopes, periscopes.

For total internal reflection to take place light must travel from a denser medium to a rarer medium and the angle of incidence inside the denser medium must be greater than the critical angle.

The critical angle is the angle of incidence where the angle of refraction is 90°.



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A lens is a transmissive optical device which focuses or disperses a light beam by means of refraction. A simple lens consists of a single piece of transparent material, while a compound lens consists of several simple lenses, usually arranged along a principle axis, shown here in green.

Lenses are typically used to focus light, as shown in the image on the right.

Most lenses are *spherical lenses*: their two surfaces are parts of the surfaces of spheres. Each surface can be *convex* (bulging outwards from the lens), *concave* (depressed into the lens), or *planar* (flat).

Lenses			EPI	STEM		
Object distance (<i>u</i>)	Ray diagram	Type of image	Image distance (v)	Uses		
<i>U</i> = ∞	Parallel res from a distant object	- inverted - real - diminished	v = f - opposite side of the lens	- object lens of a telescope		
u > 2f	object F 2F image	- inverted - real - diminished	f < v < 2f - opposite side of the lens	- camera - eye		
u = 2f	object F 2F 2F F u v	- inverted - real - same size	v = 2f - opposite side of the lens	- photocopier making same-sized copy		
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Shown here are some ray diagrams for spherical lenses.

A light ray which strikes the optic centre will pass straight through the lens.

A ray which strikes the lens travelling parallel to the axis passes through the focus at the other side of the lens.

A ray which passes through the focus and then strikes the lens emerges parallel to the principle axis.



Just like with mirrors, lenses can produce two different types of images.

A real image is produced by the actual intersection of rays and can be located on a screen.

A virtual image is formed by the apparent intersection of rays and cannot be located on a screen.



A convex or converging lens is a lens that converges rays of light that are traveling parallel to its principal axis. Converging lenses can be identified by their shape; they are relatively thick across their middle and thin at their upper and lower edges.

If the object is outside the focus, the image is real and located at the opposite side of the lens to the object. The image is inverted.

If the object is inside the focus, the image is virtual and located at the same side of the lens as the object. The image is upright.



A concave lens is a lens that possesses at least one surface that curves inwards. It is a diverging lens, meaning that it spreads out light rays that have been refracted through it. A concave lens is thinner at its centre than at its edges.

A diverging lens will always create an image that is virtual, upright, and diminished.



The formula for any lens magnification is shown here, where v is the image distance, u is the object distance, and m is the magnification, which is unitless.



The formula for a convex lens is shown here where f is the focal length of a lens.

For a convex lens, f is positive and for a concave lens, f is negative.

When the image is real, v will be positive, and when the image is virtual, v will be negative.



When light passes through the front of the eye an image is formed on the retina. Light energy is then converted into electrical energy to carry a message along the optic nerve to the brain.

Through the lens, light that enters the eye strikes the retina. A muscle controls how the lens is shaped and how long its focal length is. This enables us to concentrate on nearby or faraway items.

The iris regulates how much light is let past the pupil. The pupil enlarges to let in more light and contracts to let less through.

The image formed on the retina is inverted, but the brain corrects our interpretation of it.

Image retention is when an image formed on the retina persists for a short time after the object is removed. This is one of the principles behind films.

The blind spot is the area where the optic nerve leaves the eye and is not light sensitive.


A short sighted person can see nearby objects clearly, but cannot bring distant objects into focus.

Short sight can be corrected with a concave lens.

A long sighted person can see distant objects clearly, but cannot bring nearby objects into focus.

Long sight can be corrected with a convex lens.

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Light Part 4 Experiments

Suitable for Senior Cycle Physics

NARRATOR: Tara Ryan, EPI•STEM, University of Limerick THIS IS A HEA FUNDED CPD PROJECT WITH EPI•STEM:

Syllabus



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LIGHT: Experiments

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- I. Measurement of the focal length of a concave mirror.
- 2. Verification of Snell's law of refraction.
- 3. Measurement of the refractive index of a liquid or a solid.
- 4. Measurement of the focal length of a converging lens.
- 5. Measurement of the wavelength of monochromatic light.











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Overview of Topics



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Measurement of Wavelength of Monochromatic Light



Precautions

fringes.

Formula

nλ=dsinθ

the grating.

2. The distance between the lines on





Experiment **Notes**



Microsoft Edge **PDF** Document

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The Spectrometer Adjustments: Focus the telescope on a distant object. Focus the collimator until a sharp mage of the slit is seen. Level the table.

Angular position θ,







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Measurement of Focal Length of Concave Mirror



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Lamp-box

Crosswire

Screen

Concave

mirror

Find a rough value for f.

Measure object distance u and image distance v.

Experiment



Microsoft Edge

PDF Document

Plot 1/u against 1/v. Where the graph cuts the axes gives a value for 1/f.

Precautions

Find f from

Avoid parallax measuring distances

 Make u greater than the rough valve for f.

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Experiment Notes



Microsoft Edge PDF Document Lamp-box with crosswire Lens Screen ы v

Find a rough value for f. Measure object distance u and image distance v. Find f from

Plot 1/u against 1/v. Where the graph cuts the axes gives a value for 1/f.

Precautions Avoid parallax measuring distances Make u greater the than the rough valve for f.









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Verification of Snell's Law of Refraction





Measurement of Refractive Index of a Liquid

Experiment Notes



Microsoft Edge PDF Document Measure the real depth of the container and the distance from the back of the mirror to the pin in the cork.

n = real depth / apparent depth

Precautions

- •Repeat with various containers of differing heights and get an average.
- •Make sure the water goes to the back of the mirror.







Demo: To Show Light is a Wave: Young's Double Slit Experiment









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School of Education **Contact Details**



Register for on-line CPD resources: <u>https://epistem.ie</u> **EPI•STEM project: Resources Contact:** Helen Fitzgerald, Senior Executive Administrator Email: helen.fitzgerald@ul.ie

This on-line CPD project [HEA funded] is an initiative with EPI•STEM for science and mathematics secondary teachers in Ireland. The research-led development team include:

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PHYSICS EXPERIMENTS (LIGHT)

'In the matter of physics, the first lessons should contain nothing but what is experimental and interesting to see. A pretty experiment is in itself often more valuable than twenty formulae extracted from our minds.' - Albert Einstein

www.psi-net.org

LEAVING CERTIFICATE PHYSICS LISTED EXPERIMENTS

CONTENTS

LIGHT

Measurement of the focal length of a concave mirror	
Verification of Snell's law of refraction	
Measurement of the refractive index of a liquid	
Measurement of the focal length of a converging lens	
Measurement of the wavelength of monochromatic light	
(using the lase	r)14

Experiment at Higher Level only*

NOTE

For examination purposes any valid method will be acceptable for describing a particular experiment unless the syllabus specifies a particular method in a given case.

Students will be expected to give details of equipment used, assembly of equipment, data collection, data manipulation including graphs where relevant. Students will also be expected to know the conclusion or result of an experiment and appropriate precautions.

SAFETY

1. The Leaving Certificate Physics syllabus states on page three:

'Standard laboratory safety precautions must be observed, and due care must be taken when carrying out all experiments. The hazards associated with electricity, EHT, lasers etc. should be identified where possible, and appropriate precautions taken. The careful use of sources of ionising radiation is essential. It is important that teachers follow guidelines issued by the Department of Education and Science.'

2. The guidelines referred to here consist of two books, which were published by the Department of Education in 1997. The books are

'Safety in School Science'

and

'Safety in the School Laboratory (Disposal of chemicals)'

When these books were published they were distributed to all schools. They have been revised and are available on the 'physical sciences initiative' web site at <u>www.psi-net.org</u> in the 'safety docs' link of the physics section.

3. Teachers should note that the provisions of the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work Act, 1989 apply to schools. Inspectors appointed under that act may visit schools to investigate compliance.

MEASUREMENT OF THE FOCAL LENGTH OF A CONCAVE MIRROR

Apparatus

Concave mirror, screen, lamp-box with crosswire.



Procedure

- 1. Place the lamp-box well outside the approximate focal length see notes.
- 2. Move the screen until a clear inverted image of the crosswire is obtained.
- 3. Measure the distance u from the crosswire to the mirror, using the metre stick.
- 4. Measure the distance v from the screen to the mirror.
- 5. Calculate the focal length of the mirror using $\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{u} + \frac{1}{v}$.
- 6. Repeat this procedure for different values of *u*.
- 7. Calculate *f* each time and then find an average value.

Results

<i>u</i> /cm	$\frac{1}{u}$ /cm ⁻¹	v/cm	$\frac{1}{v}$ /cm ⁻¹	$\frac{1}{f}$ /cm ⁻¹	<i>f</i> /cm

Average f =

Notes

The approximate method for finding the focal length is recommended as a starting point for this experiment. The approximate method is described in the Appendix.

A microscope lamp makes a very suitable strong light source. Cover the glass of the lamp with a piece of tracing paper. Use 'peel-and-stick' letters to create an 'object' on the tracing paper.

VERIFICATION OF SNELL'S LAW OF REFRACTION

Apparatus

Glass block, lamp-box, 0-360⁰ protractor, (photocopied from page 56 of Physics A Teacher's Handbook)



Procedure

- 1. Place a glass block on the $0-360^{\circ}$ protractor in the position shown on the diagram and mark its outline.
- 2. Shine a ray of light from a lamp-box at a specified angle to the near side of the block and note the angle of incidence.
- 3. Observe the ray of light leaving the glass block and similarly mark the exact point B where it leaves the glass block.
- 4. Remove the glass block. Join BA and extend to C.
- 5. Note the angle of refraction *r*.
- 6. Repeat for different values of *i*.
- 7. Draw up a table as shown.
- 8. Plot a graph of sin *i* against sin *r*.

Results

i/°	r/°	sin i	sin r	$\frac{\sin i}{\sin r}$

Average value of $\frac{\sin i}{\sin r} =$

A straight line through the origin verifies Snell's law of refraction i.e. $\sin i \propto \sin r$.

The slope of the line gives a value for the refractive index of glass.

The refractive index of glass is equal to the average value of $\frac{\sin i}{\sin r}$.

Notes

Look directly down through the glass or plastic block to measure the angle of refraction.

Print the 360° protractor directly from page 56 of 'Physics A Teachers Handbook' to obtain the clearest delineation of the marked angles.

A semi-circular glass block can be used instead of the rectangular block.

A commercial model of the 360° protractor is also available. The model has a 'rotating' protractor housed in a horizontal rectangular base.

MEASUREMENT OF THE REFRACTIVE INDEX OF A LIQUID

Apparatus

Plane mirror, two pins, cork, retort stand, large containers.



Procedure

- 1. Fill a container to the top with water.
- 2. Place the plane mirror to one side on top of the container.
- 3. Put a pin on the bottom of the container.
- 4. Adjust the height of the pin in the cork above the mirror until there is no parallax between its image in the mirror and the image of the pin in the water.
- 5. Measure the distance from the pin in the cork to the back of the mirror this is the apparent depth.
- 6. Measure the depth of the container this is the real depth.

real depth

- 7. Calculate the refractive index, $n = \frac{1221}{\text{apparent depth}}$
- 8. Repeat using different size containers and get an average value for *n*.

Results

real depth/cm	apparent depth/cm	$n = \frac{\text{real depth}}{\text{apparent depth}}$

Average n =

MEASUREMENT OF THE FOCAL LENGTH OF A CONVERGING LENS

Apparatus

Converging lens, screen, lamp-box with crosswire, metre stick, retort stand.



Procedure

- 1. Place the lamp-box well outside the approximate focal length see notes.
- 2. Move the screen until a clear inverted image of the crosswire is obtained.
- 3. Measure the distance u from the crosswire to the lens, using the metre stick.
- 4. Measure the distance v from the screen to the lens.
- 5. Calculate the focal length of the lens using $\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{u} + \frac{1}{v}$.
- 6. Repeat this procedure for different values of *u*.
- 7. Calculate f each time and then find the average value.

Results

u/cm	$\frac{1}{u}$ /cm ⁻¹	v/cm	$\frac{1}{v}$ /cm ⁻¹	$\frac{1}{f}$ /cm ⁻¹	<i>f</i> /cm

Average f =

Notes

The approximate method for finding the focal length is recommended as a starting point for this experiment. The approximate method is described in the Appendix.

A microscope lamp makes a very suitable strong light source that can be used in daylight. Cover the glass of the lamp with a piece of tracing paper. The tracing paper can be attached with some bluetack. Use 'peel-and-stick' letters to create an 'object' on the tracing paper. If the 'object' is a simple three-letter word then the inversion of the image will be obvious.

MEASUREMENT OF THE WAVELENGTH OF MONOCHROMATIC LIGHT

Apparatus

Sodium lamp, spectrometer and diffraction grating (300 lines per mm).



Procedure

- 1. Adjust the eyepiece of the telescope so that the crosswires are sharply focused.
- 2. Focus the telescope for parallel light using a distant object. There should be no parallax between the image seen in the telescope and the crosswires seen through the eyepiece.
- 3. Place the sodium lamp in front of the collimator.
- 4. Level the turntable of the spectrometer if necessary.
- 5. Looking through the telescope, focus the collimator lens and adjust the width of the slit until a clear narrow image is seen.
- 6. Place the diffraction grating on the turntable at right angles to the beam.
- 7. Move the telescope to the right until the cross wires are centred on the first bright image. Take the reading θ_r from the scale on the turntable. (To see the scale more easily shine a lamp on it and use a magnifying lens).
- 8. Move the telescope back through the centre and then to the first bright image on the left.
- 9. Take the reading θ_1 from the scale.

10. Calculate
$$\theta$$
 using $\theta = \frac{\theta_r - \theta_l}{2}$.

11. Calculate the distance *d* between the slits using $d = \frac{1}{N}$ where *N* is the number of

lines per metre on the grating.

- 12. Calculate the wavelength λ using $n\lambda = d \sin \theta$.
- 13. Repeat this for different orders (n) and get an average value for the wavelength.

Results

п	$ heta_{ m r}$ / °	$ heta_{ m l}$ / °	$\theta = \frac{\theta_{\rm r} - \theta_{\rm l}}{2} / ^{\circ}$	λ/m

Average $\lambda =$

MEASUREMENT OF THE WAVELENGTH OF MONOCHROMATIC LIGHT (using the laser)

Apparatus

Laser, diffraction grating (600 lines per mm), 2 metre sticks.



Procedure

- 1. Clamp a metre stick horizontally in a stand.
- 2. Allow the laser beam to hit the metre stick normally (at 90 $^{\circ}$).
- 3. Move the metre stick sideways until the spot is on the 50 cm mark.
- 4. Place the grating between the laser and the metre stick, at right angles to the beam.
- 5. Observe the interference pattern on the metre stick a series of bright spots.
- 6. Calculate the mean distance x between the centre (n=1) bright spot and the first (n = 1) bright spot on both sides of centre.
- 7. Measure the distance D from the grating to the metre stick.
- 8. Calculate θ using $\tan \theta = \frac{x}{D}$.
- 9. Calculate the distance d between the slits, using $d = \frac{1}{N}$, where N is the number of lines per metre on the grating.
- 10. Calculate the wavelength λ using $n\lambda = d\sin\theta$.
- 11. Repeat this procedure for different values of *n* and get the average value for λ .

Results

n	<i>x</i> /m	<i>D</i> /m	θ∕°	λ/m

Average λ =





Provided here are lists of exam questions from 2012-2022 for both higher and ordinary levels.

Excluded from this list was:

- Q5s, as they were considered too short
- Qs focusing on waves and sound. This resource pack focuses solely on light.



			2	022	Q3	HL		E	<u>PI·STE</u> M	
l r c	n an exp efractic differen The follo	periment to verify on <i>r</i> for a ray of lig t values of <i>i</i> . owing data were re	Snell's law, ht as it passe ecorded.	a student es from air	measured into glass	the angle o . This proc	of incidenc ess was re	e <i>i</i> and the peated for	e angle of six	
		i (degrees)	30	40	50	60	70	80]	
		r (degrees)	19	27	32	36	40	44		
(i) Dr	aw a labelled diag	ram of how	the appara	tus was ar	ranged in t	his experin	nent.		
(ii) De	escribe how the stu	ident deterr	nined the a	angle of re	fraction.			(18)	
(<i>iii</i>) Dr	aw a suitable grap	h to verify S	inell's law.						
(<i>iv</i>) Us	e your graph to ca	lculate the	refractive	index of th	e glass.				
(v) W	hat would be obse	erved if the a	angle of in	cidence wa	as zero deg	rees?		(22)	
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For three marks each, students must include:

- A transparent block
- A ray box, lasers, or pins
- And a detail such as paper, a ruler, or protractor.

The diagram should show a ray of light from a source entering a transparent block and exiting it as if it appears to have been bent. A normal line and protractor can indicate the difference in angles of the incidence and refraction.

As always, each component in the diagram should be labelled clearly. If not, one mark will be taken away.



To determine the angle of refraction, a student would draw the incident beam projected on the sheet of paper, draw the refracted ray, and draw the normal line at the point of incidence.

The student would then measure the angle of refraction using a protractor.

(iii)	(iii) Graph to verify Snell's Law						
	Given Calcu			Given		ulate	
	i (°)	r (°)	Sin(i) (°)	Sin(r) (°)			
	30	19	0.5	0.33			
	40	27	0.64	0.45			
	50	32	0.77	0.53			
	60	36	0.87	0.59			
	70	40	0.94	0.64			
	80	44	0.98	0.69			
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In the exam question, the angles of incidence (i) and the angles of refraction (r) are given. However, in order to correctly plot a graph that verifies Snell's law, students must first calculate the values for Sin(i) and Sin(r), as shown here.

Additionally, when drawing tables of data, the units being used (which are degrees in this case), must be clearly displayed alongside the label of the data column, rather than being repeated after each individual piece of data



When plotting a graph, the independent variable will be placed on the x-axis. This is the set of parameters that the person carrying out the experiment sets. In this case, the independent variable is Sin(i).

Therefore, the dependent variable is Sin(r) and is placed on the y-axis. This set of data is entirely dependent on the outcome of the experiment.

As always, the chart title, and both axes must be labelled, including units. One mark will be lost for incorrect scales.

When plotting a graph, it is important to be precise and accurate when plotting the points.

These points are then connected by a 'line of best fit' as shown in light blue, spanning the entirety of the graph. A line of best fit, approximately has the same number of points both above and below it.



To determine the refractive index, the slope of the line of best fit must be calculated.

To do this, pick two points on the line of best fit. The further apart they are, the less error there will be.

Once these two points are determined, used the formula shown here to calculate the slope of the line.

When calculating the slope of the line, we used both the formula shown here, and an excel calculator. Comparing these values to the marking scheme, it is obvious that the values are not exactly the same. Due to hand drawn graphs not being as precise as digital ones, the examiner will allow slight variations in answers, provided that it is only a minor difference that can be approximated as being equal using rounding.



If the angle of incidence is zero degrees, then there would be no refraction, and the light beam would travel straight through the transparent block.





You'll notice that in earlier exam papers, the questions are either poorly labelled, or not labelled at all. To avoid confusion, we recommend that your students assign their own labels to each part of the question, as shown on the next slide.


This is an example of a labelling system that we would recommend.

A good guide for students to use is to look to the right of the question at the numbers in brackets. The numbers indicate the start of a new part of a question and they tell students the maximum number of marks awarded for it.

	(i) Definitions	EPI -STEM	
Term	Definition	Marks Awarded	
Critical Angle	The angle of incidence corresponds to the angle of refraction of 90°.	2x3	
Total Internal Reflection	The angle of incidence is less than the critical angle, resulting in all light being reflected.	3	
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These are the following steps to answer the question. Each completed step is worth 3 marks.

First the student must calculate the critical angle, then the disc radius, before finally determining the area of the disc. Omission of correct units, will result in the loss of 1 mark.



As shown in the diagram, the observer's eyes wrongly interprets the position of the diver to less deep than they actually are. This is because our brains do not account for refraction. The light ray bends because it is travelling through a second medium of different density.

This question is worth 7 marks. To get the first 4, the refracted ray needs to be drawn, and to get the remaining 3 marks, the apparent ray or position of image needs to be drawn.



	2021 Q3 OL	I·STE	M	
A stu	udent carried out an experiment to measure <i>f</i> , the focal length of a converging lens.			
(i)	Draw a labelled diagram of the apparatus used in this experiment.			
(<i>ii</i>)	On your diagram, indicate and label the object distance <i>u</i> and the image distance <i>v</i> .	(18)		
(<i>iii</i>)	Name the instrument used to measure the object distance and the image distance			
(iv)	How did the student know that the correct image distance had been found?			
(v)	State the formula used to calculate <i>f</i> .			
(vi)	The student placed an object 16 cm in front of the converging lens. It produced ar image at a distance of 48 cm from the lens. Calculate the focal length of this lens.	ı		
(vii)	Why will this experiment not work if the object is placed very close to the lens?	(22)		
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(i) & (ii) Labelled Diagram				
Lamp-box with crosswire Lens Screen	(i) 12 marks in total. Must include:			
	 Crosswire, ray box (3 marks). (Converging) lens (3 marks). Screen (3 marks). 			
Find a rough value for f. Measure object distance u and image distance v. Find f from	 Detail e.g., correct arrangement, optical bench, meter stick, etc. (3 marks). 			
Plot 1/u against 1/v. Where the graph cuts the axes gives a value for 1/f. Precautions	<u>(ii) 6 marks in total.</u> Must include:			
Avoid parallax measuring distances Make u greater the than the rough valve for f.	• Correct position of u and v (6 marks).			
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Part 1 and 2 of this question asks the student to draw a labelled diagram. For a total of 18 marks, students must include:

- A crosswire or ray box
- A lens
- A screen
- An additional detail, such as the correct arrangement, an optical bench, or meter stick
- And the correct positions of u and v distances.



The next part of the question asks students to name any suitable instrument that could be uses to measure the object and image distance in this experiment. For 3 marks, students could have said a meter stick, measuring tape, optical bench with scale, or ruler.



The question then asks the student how they would know when the correct image distance had been found.

For three marks, students had to state that the image formed was in sharp focus.



Part 5 of the question asks students to state the formula used to calculate the focal length. For 6 marks, they needed to answer 1/f = 1/u + 1/v



The student is then asked to use this formula to calculate the focal length, when the object and image distances are given. This calculation is worth 6 marks.



Finally, the student is asked to explain why the experiment won't work if the object is placed too close to the lens.

In order to get 4 marks, they need to explain that a virtual image is formed when u is less than f, and we cannot form this image on the screen.





The next ordinary level exam paper question is taken from the 2019 exam, Q11. Before the questions is a short passage. We recommend students take the time to read these during the exam, as in this case more than 60% of the answers could be found within this short paragraph.



Each part of this question is worth 7 marks.



Firstly, students are asked to name the part of the eye that the image is formed at. For 7 marks, students just had to name the retina, or if they just said the back of the eye, then they would have been awarded 4 marks,



Next students needed to answer that the function of the pupil was to allow light to enter the eye.



Students were told that the eye can focus light from both nearby and faraway objects and were asked to explain how it was able to do this.

Students needed to explain that the lens has different powers or it is able to change shape in order to be awarded 7 marks.

They would have achieved 4 marks if they said that the lens, the ciliary muscles and the cornea work together to focus the image onto the retina



The next part of the question asked for the name of 2 of the most common eye defects.

Myopia is short sightedness and

Hyperopia is long sightedness.



The student is then asked to name and draw a diverging or concave lens as the appropriate lens used to correct short sightedness.



Part f of the question asks students to copy the diagram and fill in the ray lines that form a real image. The dotted red lines are the light rays and the blue arrow shows the real image formed as a result.



Part g of the question asks the student to calculate the power of the lens needed to correct the defect of a person's eye to allow them to see a sharp image and to calculate the focal length of this lens.

This can be done by using these formulae.

	(h) Define Refraction	EPI-STEM	
Term	Definition	Marks Awarded	
Refraction	The bending of light when it travels from one medium to another.	7	
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Finally, the student is asked to define refraction as the bending of light when it travels from one medium to another.



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