

FIGURE 24-34 Example 24-9. The incident and reflected rays are assumed to be perpendicular to the bubble's surface. They are shown at a slight angle so we can distinguish them.



A formula is not enough: you must also check for phase changes at surfaces

A soap bubble is a thin spherical shell (or film) with air inside. The variations in thickness of a soap bubble film gives rise to bright colors reflected from the soap bubble. (There is air on both sides of the bubble film.) Similar variations in film thickness produce the bright colors seen reflecting from a thin layer of oil or gasoline on a puddle or lake (Fig. 24-29). Which wavelengths appear brightest also depends on the viewing angle.

EXAMPLE 24–9 Thickness of soap bubble skin. A soap bubble appears green ($\lambda = 540 \,\mathrm{nm}$) at the point on its front surface nearest the viewer. What is the smallest thickness the soap bubble film could have? Assume n = 1.35.

APPROACH Assume the light is reflected perpendicularly from the point on a spherical surface nearest the viewer, Fig. 24-34. The light rays also reflect from the inner surface of the soap bubble film as shown. The path difference of these two reflected rays is 2t, where t is the thickness of the soap film. Light reflected from the first (outer) surface undergoes a 180° phase change (index of refraction of soap is greater than that of air), whereas reflection at the second (inner) surface does not. To determine the thickness t for an interference maximum, we must use the wavelength of light in the soap (n = 1.35).

SOLUTION The 180° phase change at only one surface is equivalent to a $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$ path difference. Therefore, green light is bright when the minimum path difference equals $\frac{1}{2}\lambda_n$. Thus, $2t = \lambda/2n$, so

$$t = \frac{\lambda}{4n} = \frac{(540 \text{ nm})}{(4)(1.35)} = 100 \text{ nm}.$$

This is the smallest thickness.

NOTE The front surface would also appear green if $2t = 3\lambda/2n$, and, in general, if $2t = (2m + 1)\lambda/2n$, where m is an integer. Note that green is seen in air, so $\lambda = 540 \text{ nm} \pmod{\lambda/n}$.



FIGURE 24-35 A coated lens. Note color of light reflected from the front lens surface.



An important application of thin-film interference is in the coating of glass to make it "nonreflecting," particularly for lenses. A glass surface reflects about 4% of the light incident upon it. Good-quality cameras, microscopes, and other optical devices may contain six to ten thin lenses. Reflection from all these surfaces can reduce the light level considerably, and multiple reflections produce a background haze that reduces the quality of the image. By reducing reflection, transmission is increased. A very thin coating on the lens surfaces can reduce reflections considerably: the thickness of the film is chosen so that light (at least for one wavelength) reflecting from the front and rear surfaces of the film destructively interferes. The amount of reflection at a boundary depends on the difference in index of refraction between the two materials. Ideally, the coating material should have an index of refraction which is the geometric mean $(= \sqrt{n_1 n_2})$ of those for air and glass, so that the amount of reflection at each surface is about equal. Then destructive interference can occur nearly completely for one particular wavelength depending on the thickness of the coating. Nearby wavelengths will at least partially destructively interfere, but a single coating cannot eliminate reflections for all wavelengths. Nonetheless, a single coating can reduce total reflection from 4% to 1% of the incident light. Often the coating is designed to eliminate the center of the reflected spectrum (around 550 nm). The extremes of the spectrum-red and violetwill not be reduced as much. Since a mixture of red and violet produces purple, the light seen reflected from such coated lenses is purple (Fig. 24-35). Lenses containing two or three separate coatings can more effectively reduce a wider range of reflecting wavelengths.