

▲ Figure 2 Deriving the single slit equation.

- Figure 2a shows a single slit of width a .

- Each "a" will behave as a wave source.

- For the two waves coming from the edge of the slit they will have a path difference of $a \sin \theta$.

- Waves coming from halfway up the slit will have a path difference of $\frac{a}{2}$ with waves from each edge.

- When the waves will have a path difference of half a wavelength, these waves from halfway from the edge of a slit will undergo destructive interference with waves from the bottom.

- Therefore, whenever there is a path difference of $\frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda} = \frac{\pi}{2}$, there is destructive interference between a wave from the top of the slit and one from the bottom.

- Whenever overall angle θ and $\sin \theta$ can be approximated to 0, occurring at: $\frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda} = \frac{\pi}{2}$.

- The position of other maxima will be given by $\frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda} = n\pi$ (where $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$).

- Worked example

- At a single slit there won't be one light source, but instead there will be multiple smaller sources that will cancel one another out as light from the top of the slit will have a path difference with light from the bottom of the slit causing destructive interference.

$$a = 6.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m}$$

$$7.35 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

$$\frac{3}{2} \cdot 0 = 0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$d = \frac{3\lambda}{4}$$

$$d = \frac{3 \cdot 7.35 \cdot 10^{-9}}{4}$$

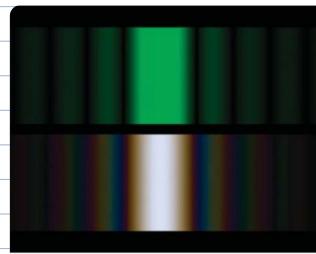
- Single slit with monochromatic and white light

- Monochromatic light means that it's a single color.

- There will be a difference between the central maximum and the angular separation of successive secondary maxima depend on the wavelength of the light.

- This is why there are colors in the fringes after the central one for white light.

- Blue is the last visible color as it has the shortest wavelength.

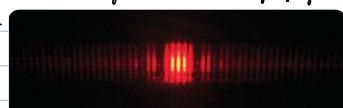


▲ Figure 3 Single slit with monochromatic and white light.

9.3 Interference

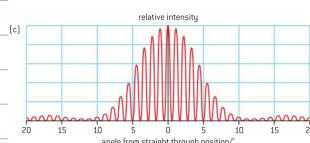
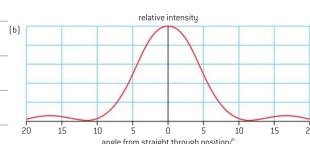
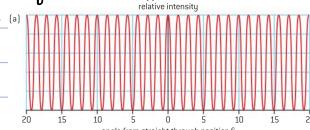
- Intensity variation with the double slit

- As we go in the image below the dark and bright fringes are equally spaced.



▲ Figure 1 Double-slit diffraction pattern for light from He-Ne laser.

- Having a double slit diffraction will mean that the intensity of the interference pattern is not constant, but is modified by the diffraction pattern to produce this intensity.



- Figure a shows what the relative intensity would vary for a double-slit interference pattern without diffraction.

- Figure b shows the relative intensity with angle for a single slit.

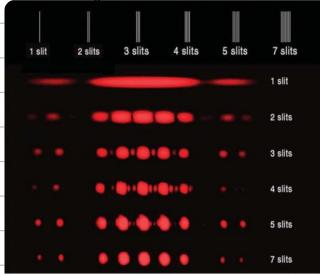
- Figure c shows the superposition of the two effects so that the single-slit diffraction pattern behaves as the envelope of its interference pattern.

- $\propto \frac{1}{d}$ where d is the distance from the double slit to the screen and a is the separation of the slits.
- The value of a is real with the diffraction graph.

multiple-slit interference

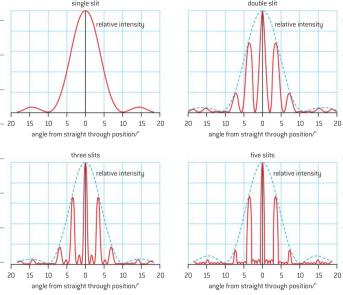
- Using more than two slit will mean that the bright fringes remain in their current position, but become slimmer.
- Meaning that they're narrower and their intensity is proportional to the square of the number of slits.
- The reason that the middle fringe is no bright is because of the fact that all the light from the slits will be in phase when they reach it.
- The further away you are from the central maximum the more likely the light is out of phase.
- Increasing the number of slits to 100 there will be a slit with a path difference of $\frac{\lambda}{2}$ from the first.
- When this light will interfere near the middle will result in destructive interference.
- This will cause the central maximum to become more and more narrower as more slits are added.
- It will also decrease the width of other maxima.

- Increasing the number of slits will also increase the intensity of all maxima as more light is incident at the maximum.



► Figure 3 The effect of increasing the number of slits on an interference pattern

- The single slit diffraction envelope all other diffraction patterns.
- Meaning that they will fit on the single slit pattern.



► Figure 4 The effect of increasing the number of slits on variation of intensity.

The diffraction grating

- A diffraction grating is an instrument which is used to produce slits to observe the interference pattern.
- They're used to produce optical spectra.
- A grating will contain a large amount of slits, usually 1000 per millimetre.
- When light is incident on a grating it produces interference maxima at angles θ , and is given by:
- $m\lambda = d \sin \theta$
- The slit spacing is small, which makes the angle θ large for a fixed wavelength of light and m .
- This means $\sin \theta$ has to be used since the angle will be too large to represent.
- The waves will have a maximum as the slits are so narrow and far apart from the screen that the angles are almost identical.
- Furthermore, the waves will be in phase and give a maximum.
- They're in phase because the path difference is negligible.
- For a diffraction grating the equation will be: $m\lambda = d \sin \theta$
- ' m ' is the order of the maximum, where the central one is zero, and 1 for the first maximum on each side of the centre.
- d is the grating spacing.
- The further you are away from the maximum the wider and less intense the maxima become.
- grating spacing and number of lines per mm
- $d = \frac{1}{N}$, where N is the number of lines per mm, and d is the spacing spacing.

- it must first be in nanometers by multiplying by 1000 before taking the reciprocal.

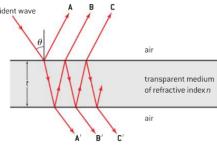
- Model example

$$\begin{aligned} - \lambda = 600 & \quad n\lambda = \text{nm} \cdot 10^3 \\ d = \frac{\lambda}{n} & \quad 2 = \frac{\text{nm} \cdot 10^3}{n} \\ \frac{1}{\text{nm}} & \quad \times (1.67 \cdot 10^3 \text{ nm})^{12.5^\circ} \\ d = 1.67 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m} & \quad 2 \\ & = 5.61 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

- Interference by division of amplitude

- Division of amplitude is a method of achieving interference using two waves that have come from the same point on a wavefront.
- Each wave will have a portion of the amplitude of the original wave.
- For division of amplitude to occur, the source of the waves must be much larger than the slit used for the division of wavefront interference.
- "the source will be 'coherent'".

- Thin film interference *



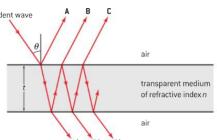
▲ Figure 9 Interference at parallel-sided thin film.

- The wave incident at an angle θ to the normal to the surface of a film of transparent material (of low density) having refractive index n .
- θ and t are very small.
- The incident wave partially reflects at the top of the surface, and partially refracts into the film.
- Once the refracted wave reaches the other end of the film, it will again partially reflect, and partially reflect into the air below the film.
- For the light reflected by the film when $2nt = m\lambda$ there is destructive interference, and $2nt = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda$ there constructive interference.

- Model example

- Thin film interference.
- $n_1 = 1.45$, $n_2 = 1.33$, $\lambda = 650 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m}$
- Since the oil will be denser than the water, as light moves from water into oil, it will further bend from the normal causing for the light to separate more into its individual colors.

- Thick film interference



▲ Figure 9 Interference at parallel-sided thin film.

- The light is incident on transparent material, with refractive index n_1 (e.g. low density oil or detergent) at an angle θ to the normal.
- θ and t (the size of the thin film) are both very small so that the incident wave is effectively normal to the surface.
- The incident wave is partially reflected and refracted.
- The refracted wave will then partially reflect when it reaches the other end of the film, it will also partially reflect into the air below the film.

- waves reflected by the film

- The sum of two is, it has been reflected.
- The reflection is from an optically denser medium and therefore will undergo a phase change of π radians ($\frac{\lambda}{2}$).

- The light wave B will travel an optical distance of $2nt$ (where n is the refractive index).

- Therefore the optical distance between A and B is $2nt$.

- If there is no phase change then the optical distance would equal $m\lambda$ for constructive interference.

- Since there is a phase change when it was reflected, there will be destructive interference between A and B.

- When light is reflected from the film when $2nt = m\lambda$ there will be destructive interference, and when $2nt = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda$ there will be constructive interference.

- Longitudinal thin film interference

- When light hits a boundary with a higher refractive index it will undergo a phase change of π radians on reflection off the boundary.

- The light that is reflected will have a path difference of $\frac{\lambda}{2}$ compared to the original wave.

- When light reflects from a surface there is a phase change of π radians, only if the surface causing the reflection is more optically dense.

- None of the light initially incident on the thin film will be reflected.

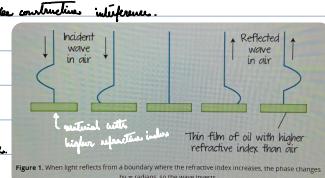
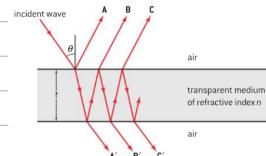


Figure 1. When light reflects from a boundary where the refractive index increases, the phase changes by π radians, so the wave inverts.

- when it hits the bottom of the film it will be partially reflected and refracted into air.
- since air will have a lower refractive index the light reflected back into the film won't undergo a phase change.



▲ Figure 9 Interference at parallel-sided thin film.

- the waves A and B will interfere destructively if they're out of phase.
- the waves in the film travel a distance of $2d$.
- light in the film will travel more slowly by the refractive index of the air.
- combining the speed and distance will result in the optical distance travelled by a wave in a thin film or $2dn$.
- but since waves A and B are $\frac{\lambda}{2}$ out of phase, the formula: $2dn = \lambda/2$ will give the destructive interference pattern.
- constructive interference will occur when $2dn = (\text{int} + \frac{1}{2})\lambda$.

- worked example

$$A = 600 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m} \quad d = 5 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}, \text{ air} = 1.0$$

$$2dn = \lambda/2$$

$$\lambda = 165 \cdot 10^{-9} / (1.0)$$

$$/ 600 \cdot 10^{-9}$$

$\approx 2.75 \cdot 10^{-7}$ - note whole number = constructive interference.

constructive interference.

9.4 Resolution

- **Resolution** is defined as **Resolution** is the ability of an imaging system to be able to produce two separate distinguishable images of two separate objects.
- **Diffraction and resolution**

- for an optical system, the aperture could be the observer's eye or the objective lens of a telescope.

- when there are two sources of light, then the diffraction pattern will occur.

- the **Rayleigh criterion** is used to determine the resolution of images.

- the criterion states that two sources are resolved if the principal maximum from one diffraction pattern is as close to the first minimum of the other pattern.

- the limit to resolution is when the principal maximum of the diffraction pattern from one source lies on the first minimum diffraction pattern from the second source.

- they closer and they would be unresolved.

- further away and they'll be resolved.

- Resolution equation

- For a circular aperture the equation for the minimum is given by: $\theta = 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{D}$.

- In this case D is the diameter of the circular aperture (or diameter of the lens).

- this example would be the eye which has a diameter of 3mm, with light of $6 \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ m}$.

$$\theta = 1.22 \cdot (6 \cdot 10^{-7}) / 3 \cdot 10^{-3} \approx 2 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ rad.}$$

- another example would be the Hubble space telescope with a diameter of 2.4m.

$$\theta = (1.22 \cdot 6 \cdot 10^{-7}) / 2.4 \approx 5 \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ rad.}$$

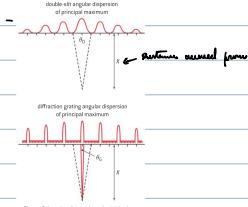
- Worked example

$$A = 550 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m}, D = 2.5 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ mrad}$$

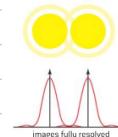
- the Rayleigh criterion states that an image can be resolved if the first maximum isn't any closer than the first minimum of the second source.

$$\theta = 1.22 \cdot (550 \cdot 10^{-9}) / (2.5 \cdot 10^{-2}) \approx 2.4 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ mrad}$$

- evidence of diffraction gratings



▲ Figure 3 Dispersion of principal maximum for diffraction grating compared with a single slit.



▲ Figure 1 Diffraction intensity patterns of two objects viewed through a circular aperture.

- In general, the angular dispersion of the double slit will be larger than the angular dispersion of the diffraction grating.
- The sharper principal maximum is one with less angular dispersion.
- With a wider maximum, there is more overlap of images from different sources and lower resolution.
- With a narrower maximum, there is more overlap of images from different sources and better resolution.
- This can be seen when a parallel beam of light is incident on a diffraction grating; it will produce a sharper image and better resolution.
- The resolution R for a diffraction grating is defined as: the ratio of the wavelength λ of the light to the smallest difference in wavelengths that can be resolved by the grating or
- The resolution is equal to N , where N is the total number of slits illuminated by the incident beam and m is the order of the diffraction.
- $R = \frac{\lambda}{\Delta\lambda} = Nm$

Worked example

- $\lambda = 589 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m}$, $\Delta\lambda = 589.6 \cdot 10^{-9}$, $m = 2$, $N = 10^3 \text{ nm}^{-2}$

$$R = \frac{589 \cdot 10^{-9}}{0.6 \cdot 10^{-9}} = 29$$

$\Delta\lambda = 611 \text{ nm}$ Beam of 0.1 nm^{-2}

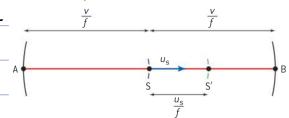
at 4470 nm per nm
 ≈ 2000

9.5 The Doppler Effect

The Doppler effect with sound waves

- "A" source the source of the waves, while "B" is the observer.
- f is the frequency of the source, and f' is the apparent frequency measured by the observer.

Moving source and stationary observer



▲ Figure 1 The Doppler effect for a moving source and stationary observer

- At the time $t=0$ the source is at position A and it emits a wave that travels outwards in all directions with a velocity v .
- After $t=t$ (i.e. one period later) the wave will have moved one wavelength or a distance equivalent to $\frac{v}{f}$ to go from A to B.
- The source is moving to the right with velocity u_A .

- In the time t the source will have travelled at point A' a distance of $u_A t$ or $\frac{u_A t}{f}$.

- For the observer at point B, the wavelength (λ') is the distance $AB - \frac{u_A t}{f}$.

- Which will equal: $\frac{\lambda' + v - u_A}{f}$

- Therefore the frequency will appear to be higher to the observer as the object moves towards them.

- The sound wave will travel at speed v so $f' = \frac{v}{\lambda'} = f \left(\frac{v}{v-u_A} \right)$.

- On the other hand, the frequency will seem to be lower to the observer at point B as the source moves away.

- $f' = v + u_A$, and $f' = \frac{v}{\lambda'} = f \left(\frac{v}{v+u_A} \right)$.

- Combining the two equations will result in: $f' = f \left(\frac{v}{v \pm u_A} \right)$.

- \Rightarrow for when the source is moving towards the observer, and \Rightarrow when it's moving away.

Moving observer and stationary source

- In this scenario the source is still while the observer moves towards it, with a velocity u_O .
- The source emits waves at a frequency f but the observer, moving towards the source, will experience a higher frequency.
- The observer will observe that the waves are travelling with velocity $v + u_O$ and frequency f' .
- The frequency measured by the observer is $f' = f \left(\frac{v+u_O}{v} \right)$, when the observer is moving towards the source.

- When the observer is moving away from the source the frequency equation will be

- $f' = f \left(\frac{v-u_O}{v} \right)$.

- Combining the equations will be $f' = f \left(\frac{v \mp u_O}{v} \right)$.

- REMEMBER!!!! v is the velocity of the observer, u is the speed of sound, f is the frequency of the sound, v is the velocity of the source

Worked example

- $f = 2000 \text{ Hz}$, $v = 340 \text{ m/s}$, $u(\text{sound}) = 340 \text{ m/s}$

- The ambulance is constantly applying the doppler effect as it moves closer and further away, resulting in the frequency appearing to increase and decrease.

$$\begin{aligned} - f' &= (2000) \left(\frac{340}{345} \right) \\ &= 1995 \text{ Hz} \\ &\approx 2000 \text{ Hz} \end{aligned}$$

The Doppler effect with light

$$\Delta f \approx \frac{f}{c}$$

- c = speed of light, f = frequency of light, v = velocity of object

- this equation is also equal to $\Delta\lambda \approx \frac{\lambda}{c}$.

Radar

- the $\Delta f = f \frac{v}{c}$ equation changes to $\Delta f = 2f \frac{v}{c}$.

Worked example

- $v = 1.4 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, $\lambda = 587.5110 \text{ nm}$

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta\lambda &\approx \frac{\Delta v}{c} \\ &= \frac{(587.5110 \cdot 10^{-9})(1.4 \cdot 10^3)}{3 \cdot 10^8} \\ &= 3.79 \cdot 10^{-12} \text{ m}\end{aligned}$$

- $\lambda = 580 \cdot 10^{-9}$, $\Delta f = ? \text{ Hz}$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{c - \lambda}{\lambda} &= \frac{\Delta f}{f} \\ &= \frac{3 \cdot 10^8}{(580 \cdot 10^{-9})} \\ &= 3 \cdot 10^{17} \text{ Hz}\end{aligned}$$