

# WAVES

PY1T18

## SECTION 1 : MECHANICAL WAVES

Mechanical Wave = a disturbance

that travels / propagates through some material from one region to another

Wave PULSE = a disturbance that moves through a medium

Waves CAN HAVE 3 FORMS

- (a) TRANSVERSE (eg: on a string)
- (b) Longitudinal (eg: in a fluid)
- (c) ON THE SURFACE OF A FLUID (BOTH)

Main Observations on Waves

- Every element of the wave is oscillating
- Medium is not flowing in transverse direction
  - ONLY THE DISTURBANCE IS
- To describe a wave you must describe an oscillation

Describing OSCILLATIONS

- need a relationship between net force and displacement in the body
- The wave has a restoring force towards an equilibrium position.

The simplest kind of OSCILLATION OCCURS WHEN THE RESTORING FORCE IS PROPORTIONAL TO DISPLACEMENT FROM THE EQUILIBRIUM POSITION

- This kind of oscillation is CALLED Simple Harmonic Motion

TRANSVERSE



LONGITUDINAL



(c) BOTH (ON SURFACE OF FLUID)



# Describing Simple Harmonic Motion

Hooke's Law:  $F = -kx \Rightarrow a = -\frac{kx}{m}$

this is a differential equation:  $\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -\frac{k}{m}x$

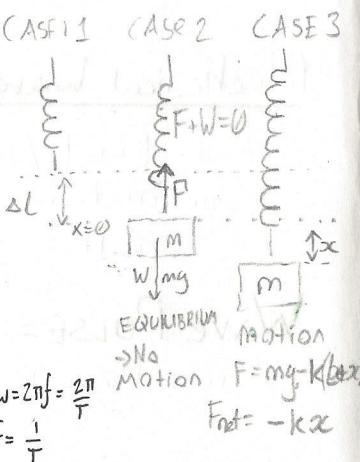
① Let us define some terms:

$A$  = Amplitude = maximum magnitude of displacement

$T$  = Period = time to complete 1 cycle

$\omega$  = Angular frequency =  $2\pi$  times the frequency

$f$  = Frequency = number of cycles in a unit of time



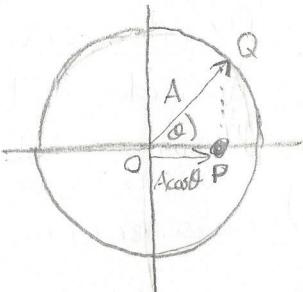
② To explain properties of S.H.M., we must express displacement  $x$  as a function of time  $t$

③ We can find this by noting that  $x(t)$  is related to uniform circular motion.

④ SHM is THE PROJECTION OF U.C.M. onto a diameter.

⑤ We call the rotating vector  $OQ$  a PHASOR

⑥ We note that it can also be described using the Euler Identity:  $Ae^{i\omega t} = A\cos\omega t + iA\sin\omega t$



⑦ The position  $P$  has  $x = A \cos \theta$

⑧ The body feels a centripetal force  $F = \frac{mv^2}{r}$

⑨  $-ax = -A \cos \theta$

$-ma_x = -mA \cos \theta$

$$F_x = -\frac{mv^2}{r} \cos \theta \quad \text{but } v = \frac{2\pi R}{T}$$

$$F_{xc} = -\frac{m}{r} \frac{4\pi r^2}{T^2} \cos \theta \quad \text{but } x = r \cos \theta$$

$$F_{xc} = -\frac{m}{T^2} 4\pi^2 x = -kx \quad \Rightarrow T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{m}{k}}$$

① One can also look at the differential equation:  $\ddot{x} = -\frac{k}{m}x$

If we choose/guess  $x = A \cos \omega t$

$$\dot{x} = -A\omega \sin \omega t$$

$$\ddot{x} = -A\omega^2 \cos \omega t$$

$$\text{THIS gives us that } \ddot{x} = -\omega^2 x$$

$$\text{And so, } \omega^2 = \frac{k}{m} \quad \omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

$$\text{But } \omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} \Rightarrow T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{m}{k}} \text{ as before}$$

② THIS SHOWS that period does not depend on  $A$

③ to account for when the body does not begin at its maximum, one can add in  $i\phi$ , the phase difference angle

④ WE CAN FIND  $\phi$  when  $t=0$  IF WE HAVE the INITIAL DISPLACEMENT & VELOCITY

$$x_0 = A \cos(\omega(0) + \phi) \quad \frac{x_0}{A} = \cos(\phi)$$

$$\dot{x}_0 = -A \sin(\omega(0) + \phi) \quad \frac{\dot{x}_0}{-A} = \sin(\phi) = \tan \phi$$

$$\text{so } \phi = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{\dot{x}_0}{x_0} \right)$$

## Energy in S.H.M.

① KINETIC ENERGY:  $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$

② POTENTIAL ENERGY:  $\int_0^x F dx = \int_0^x kx dx = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$

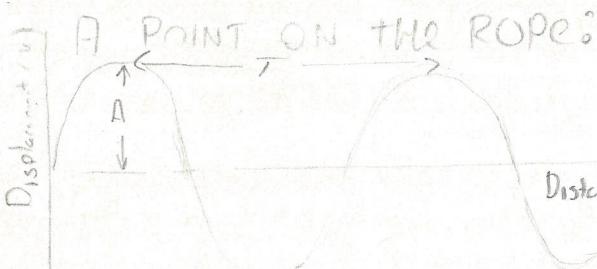
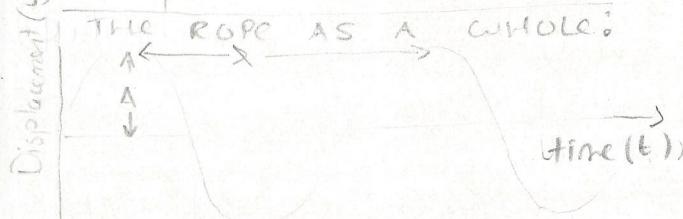
$$E = K.E. + P.E. = \text{constant}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{2} m \left[ -A \sin(\omega t + \phi) \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2} k \left[ A \cos(\omega t + \phi) \right]^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} m A^2 \left( \frac{k}{m} \sin^2(\omega t + \phi) + \frac{1}{2} k A^2 \cos^2(\omega t + \phi) \right) = \frac{1}{2} k A^2 \end{aligned}$$

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

# Describing Periodic Transverse Waves

Compare two GRAPHS:



$$1) y = A \cos \theta. \text{ but } \frac{\theta}{2\pi} = \frac{t}{T}$$

$$y(t) = A \cos \frac{2\pi t}{T} = A \cos \omega t$$

$$2) y = A \cos \theta \text{ but } \frac{\theta}{2\pi} = \frac{x}{\lambda} \text{ let } k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$y(x) = A \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} x \right) = A \cos(kx)$$

$$\text{VELOCITY} = \frac{\lambda}{T} = f\lambda$$

MATHEMATICALLY, we get

$$y(x, 0) = A \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} x \right)$$

$$\text{but } x(t) = vt$$

$$\text{so choosing any } x = x - vt$$

$$y(x, t) = A \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (x - vt) \right)$$

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

From this we get

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

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

What about Phase Velocity?

assume the phase is constant (track point of the wave)

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

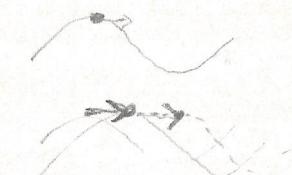
$$\text{Then } kx - \omega t = \text{constant}$$

$$x = \frac{\text{constant} + \omega t}{k}$$

$$i.e. \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\omega}{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}} = \frac{2\pi f \cdot \lambda}{2\pi} = f\lambda$$

④ In General:

$$V = \sqrt{\frac{\text{restoring force}}{\text{resisting inertia}}}$$



## Wave Speed in a String

Method A

$$I = F_y t = m v_y$$

Impulse

$$\frac{F_y t}{F t} = \frac{m v_y}{m v}$$

$$F_y t = F \frac{v_y t}{V} = m v_y$$

$$m = \mu l = \mu v t$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{F_y t}{V} = \mu v t$$

$$\frac{F_y}{V} = \mu$$

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

Method B

$$F_{y_1} = -\left(\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}\right)_x F$$

$$F_{y_2} = \left(\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}\right)_{x+\Delta x} F$$

$$F_{\text{net}_y} = F_{y_1} + F_{y_2}$$

$$F_y = F \left[ \left(\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}\right)_{x+\Delta x} - \left(\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}\right)_x \right]$$

$$\vec{F}_{y_2} = \vec{F}_y(x+\Delta x)$$

$$\vec{F} \leftarrow F \quad \vec{F}(x) \rightarrow \vec{F}_y(x) = \vec{F}_y$$

SEGMENT OF LENGTH  $\Delta x$

TAKING Lim  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$

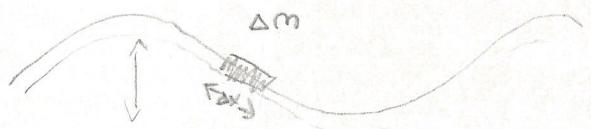
$$\text{But } F_y = m a_y = (\mu \Delta x) \frac{\delta^2 y}{\delta t^2} \quad \frac{m}{F} \frac{\delta^2 y}{\delta x^2} = \frac{\delta^2 y}{\delta t^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu \Delta x \left( \frac{\delta y}{\delta t^2} \right) = F \left[ \left(\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}\right)_{x+\Delta x} - \left(\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}\right)_x \right] \quad \Rightarrow \frac{\delta x^2}{\delta t^2} = \frac{m}{F} \frac{\delta^2 y}{\delta x^2}$$

$$\frac{m}{F} \left( \frac{\delta y}{\delta t^2} \right) = \frac{\left(\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}\right)_{x+\Delta x} - \left(\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}\right)_x}{\Delta x}$$

$$V^2 = \frac{m}{F} \Rightarrow V = \sqrt{\frac{m}{F}}$$

# ENERGY IN WAVE MOTION



② Consider a small "bit" of an oscillating string

$$\Delta E_k = \frac{1}{2}(\Delta m)(v_y)^2 \quad \text{but } \Delta m = \mu \Delta x$$

$$\Delta E_k = \frac{1}{2} \mu v_y^2 \Delta x$$

$$v_y = \frac{\delta y}{\delta t} = \omega A \sin[kx - \omega t]$$

so we get

$$\Delta E_k = \frac{\mu}{2} \omega^2 A^2 \sin^2[kx - \omega t] \Delta x \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{l} \text{W.L.O.G} \\ \text{let } t=0 \\ \text{As 1} \end{array}}$$

$$E_k = \int_0^L \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 A^2 \sin^2[kx] \quad \text{but } \sin^2 A = \frac{1}{2}[1 - \cos 2A]$$

$$E_k = \int_0^L \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 A^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\cos 2kx}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{4} \omega^2 A^2 [1 - \cos 2kx]$$

$$E_k = \frac{\omega^2 A^2 \mu \lambda}{4} \quad \text{KINETIC ENERGY}$$

$$\text{③ Similarly, } E_p = \frac{1}{2} k y^2 \quad \text{but } k = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{m}{\lambda}} \Rightarrow \frac{k}{m} = \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\right)^2 = \omega^2$$

$$\Delta E_p = \frac{1}{2} \Delta m \omega^2 y^2 \quad \text{but } \Delta m = \mu \Delta x \quad k = m\omega^2$$

$$\Delta E_p = \frac{1}{2} \mu \omega^2 A^2 \cos^2[kx - \omega t] \mu \Delta x$$

$$E_p = \int_0^L \frac{1}{2} \mu \omega^2 A^2 \cos^2[kx - \omega t] \cos^2[kx - \omega t]$$

$$E_p = \frac{\mu \omega^2 A^2 \lambda}{4} \quad \text{POTENTIAL ENERGY}$$

$$E_T = \frac{\mu \omega^2 A^2 \lambda}{2} \quad \text{TOTAL ENERGY } (E_p + E_k)$$

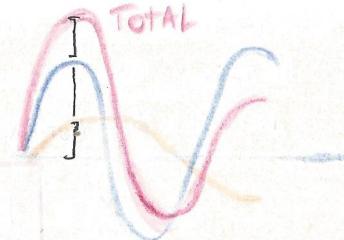
$$\text{POWER} = \frac{\text{ENERGY}}{\text{TIME}} = \frac{1}{2} \mu \omega^2 A^2 V \quad \text{as } \frac{\lambda}{T} = v$$

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

# PRINCIPLE OF SUPERPOSITION & STANDING WAVES

## PRINCIPLE OF SUPERPOSITION

- ④ The TOTAL DISPLACEMENT of a string at any point is the algebraic sum of the displacements due to the individual pulses at that point



## STANDING WAVE

- ⑤ FORMS when two waves of the same frequency & amplitude meet, going in opposite directions.

$$y_1 = A \cos[kx - \omega t]$$

$$y_2 = -A \cos[kx + \omega t]$$

negative because the wave is inverted at a hard boundary

$$y = 2A \sin kx \sin \omega t$$

MODE 1 mode 3



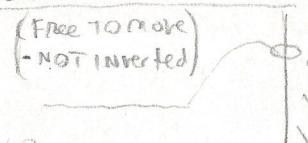
MODE 2 mode 4



HARD BOUNDARY



SOFT BOUNDARY



- ⑥ This gives us nodes when  $\sin kx = 0$  and antinodes when  $\sin kx = 1$

$$\text{ANTI NODES: } kx = \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \dots \quad \text{but } k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$x = \frac{\lambda}{4}, \frac{3\lambda}{4}, \frac{5\lambda}{4}, \dots \quad \frac{n\lambda}{2} + \frac{\lambda}{4}$$

$$\text{ANTINODES: } kx = 0, \pi, 2\pi, \dots$$

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

- ⑦ NOTE: THIS WAS FOR A HARD BOUNDARY,



(Derivation equivalent)

# Complex Standing Waves

- we know that the fundamental frequency is when the string vibrates on its 1<sup>st</sup> mode.

i.e.:  $L = \frac{\lambda}{2}$  BUT,  $v = f\lambda$  AND  $v = \sqrt{\frac{F}{M}}$

$$\text{so } L = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{v}{f} \right) \Rightarrow f_f = \frac{1}{2L} \sqrt{\frac{F}{M}}$$

- The other modes are an integer multiple of this frequency

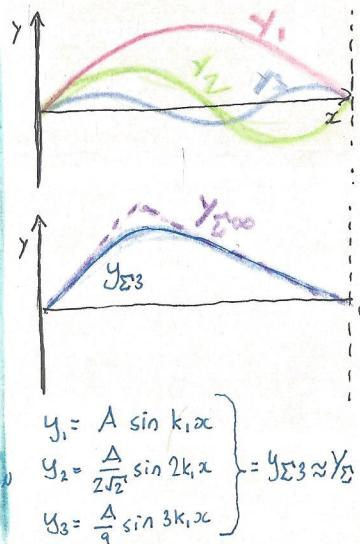
HOWEVER, IN REAL-LIFE SITUATIONS, it is rare to get exactly one mode at once only. OFTEN, the higher modes interfering with each other.

This gives us a complex wave, given by a Fourier series,

THE SUM OF MANY SINUSOIDAL FUNCTIONS

- AN EXAMPLE OF THIS IS SHOWN ON THE RIGHT.  
we get  $y(x, t) = y_1(x, t) + y_2(x, t) + y_3(x, t) + \dots$

- THE EXAMPLE SHOWS AN APPROXIMATION OF THE PLUCKING OF A GUITAR STRING



# SECTION 2: Sound Waves

- Sound is a longitudinal wave in a medium. Frequencies of sound within the range of 20Hz to 20000Hz are called in the "audible range", because the human ear is sensitive to them

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

CAN ALSO BE USED TO DESCRIBE SOUND WAVES

- Sound can also be described in terms of PRESSURE VARIATIONS.

Let  $p(x, t)$  be the instantaneous pressure variation (dp)  
i.e. TOTAL Pressure = NORMAL Pressure +  $p(x, t)$

CONSIDER A CYLINDER w/ length  $\Delta x$  and area  $S$  FILLED w/ A FLUID:

THEN:  $V_i = S \Delta x$  The initial volume/Avg Volume

THE SOUND molecules who average at  $x$  have a displacement  $y_1 = y(x, t)$

THE SOUND molecules who average at  $x + \Delta x$  have a displacement  $y_2 = y(x + \Delta x, t)$

Then  $V_f = S(y_2 - y_1)$

$$V_f = S(y_2 - y_1)$$

$$V_f = S(y_2 - y_1) + S \Delta x \quad \text{But } \Delta V = V_f - V_i$$

$$\Delta V = S(y_2 - y_1) \quad \text{Divide both sides by } V_i$$

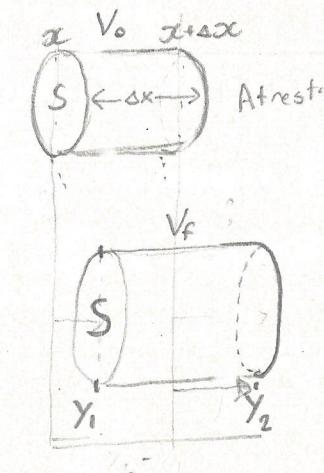
$$\frac{\Delta V}{V_i} = \frac{S(y_2 - y_1)}{S \Delta x} = \frac{(y(x, t) - y(x + \Delta x, t))}{\Delta x}$$

TAKE THE LIMIT  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$

$$\frac{dV}{V_i} = \frac{\delta(y(x, t))}{\delta x} \quad \text{BUT } \Delta P = -B \frac{\Delta V}{V}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta P = -B \frac{\delta y}{\delta x} = -B \frac{\delta(A \cos(kx - \omega t))}{\delta x}$$

$$\Rightarrow p(x, t) = B k A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$



$$P \cdot V = \text{constnt}$$

$$P(t) \cdot V(t) = P_0 V_0 \cdot \left( \frac{V}{V_0} \right)$$

$$\frac{\delta P}{\delta V} = P V \left( \frac{1}{V_0} \right)$$

$$\Delta P = -\frac{PV}{V_0} \Delta V$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta P = -\frac{PV}{V_0} \Delta V$$

where  $B = \text{Bulk Modulus}$   
- a constant

## Percpetuation of a sound wave

We shall define

$$\text{Intensity} = \frac{\text{Power}}{\text{Area}} = \frac{P}{4\pi r^2} \quad \text{FOR SPHERICAL SOURCES}$$

Then we perceive:

PITCH as the frequency of the wave

Loudness as the pressure amplitude increases

timbre/QUALITY - depends on harmonics

Another factor is how it begins (attack)  
and how it ends (decay)

Noise - combination of all frequencies  
- not just harmonics

## SPEED OF SOUND WAVES

$$V \text{ in general is} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RESTORING FORCE}}{\text{INERTIA RESISTING FORCE}}}$$

$$\text{So we get } V = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}} \quad \text{LOFT TO DERIVE}$$

## RATE OF ENERGY TRANSFER

$$\textcircled{1} \quad E_k = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \quad \text{so, } \Delta E_k = \frac{1}{2} \Delta m v^2$$

$$\text{BUT } v = \frac{A \cos(kx - \omega t)}{\delta t} = -A \omega \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$v^2 = (A \omega \sin(kx - \omega t))^2$$

$$\text{AND } P = \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta m}{\frac{\text{Area} \Delta x}{S}} \Rightarrow \Delta m = P S \Delta x$$

let Area = S

$$\Rightarrow \Delta E_k = \frac{1}{2} P S \Delta x (A \omega \sin(kx - \omega t))^2$$

$\Rightarrow$  Limit as  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$

$$\int dE_k = \int_0^x \frac{1}{2} P A^2 S \sin^2(kx - \omega t) dx \\ = \frac{1}{2} P A^2 S \int_0^x \sin^2(kx) dx$$

$$E_k = \frac{1}{4} P A^2 S \lambda \quad \boxed{\text{KINETIC ENERGY}}$$

SIMILARLY, we get

$$E_p = \frac{1}{2} P S (wA)^2 \lambda \quad \boxed{\text{POTENTIAL ENERGY}}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{2} P S (wA)^2 \lambda \quad \boxed{\text{TOTAL ENERGY}}$$

$$\Rightarrow P = \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t} = \frac{E_{\text{total}}}{T} = \frac{1}{2} P S (wA)^2 \lambda \frac{\lambda}{T}$$

$$P = \frac{1}{2} P S (wA)^2 V \quad \boxed{\text{POWER}}$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \frac{\text{Power}}{\text{Area}} = \frac{P}{S} = \frac{1}{2} P (wA)^2 V \quad \boxed{\text{INTENSITY}}$$

② ALTERNATIVELY, one could use that

$$I = \frac{\text{POWER}}{\text{AREA}} = \frac{\text{WORK}}{\text{AREA} \times \text{TIME}} = \frac{\text{Force} \times \text{Distance}}{\text{Area} \times \text{Time}} = \text{Pressure} \times \text{Velocity}$$

$$I = \frac{\Delta P}{\Delta S} = \frac{(BkA \sin(kx - \omega t))(wA) \Delta x}{\Delta S} \Delta \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$I(\Delta t) = w B k A^2 \sin^2(kx - \omega t) \rightarrow \text{integral gives same result}$$

Time-Averaged Sound Intensity gives similar result.

## Sound Intensity

## BEATS & INTERFERENCE

Like all waves, the principle of superposition applies, and we can hear them interfere.

When there are two waves of very close frequency, we can hear their interference as BEATS. Suppose we have 2 waves:

$$S_1 = A \cos \omega_1 t = A \cos(2\pi f_1 t)$$

$$S_2 = A \cos \omega_2 t = A \cos(2\pi f_2 t)$$

$$\text{then } S(t) = S_1 + S_2 = A [\cos(2\pi f_1 t) + \cos(2\pi f_2 t)]$$

$$\text{BUT } \cos A + \cos B = 2 \cos\left(\frac{A+B}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{A-B}{2}\right)$$

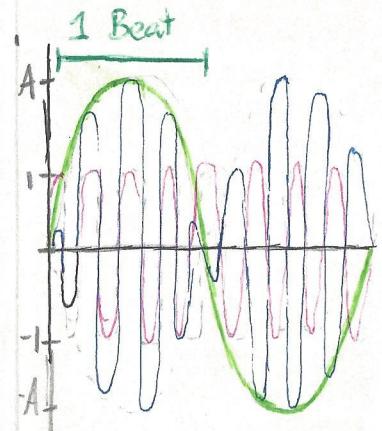
$$\text{THEN: } S(t) = 2A \cos\left(2\pi\left(\frac{f_1 + f_2}{2}\right)t\right) \cos\left(2\pi\left(\frac{f_1 - f_2}{2}\right)t\right)$$

$$S(t) = 2A \cos\left[2\pi\left(\frac{f_1 + f_2}{2}\right)t\right] \cos\left[2\pi\left(\frac{f_1 - f_2}{2}\right)t\right]$$

AVERAGE OF  $f_1$  and  $f_2$        $\frac{1}{2}$  the difference

But looking at the diagram, 2 beats occur every period

$$T_{\text{BEAT}} = 2\left(\frac{f_1 - f_2}{2}\right) = |f_1 - f_2|$$



# THE DOPPLER EFFECT

# SECTION 3: LIGHT

- From Maxwell's theory, we get the wave equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 E(x,t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{V^2} \frac{\partial^2 E(x,t)}{\partial t^2}$$

From the theory we get  $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}} = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$

This gives us that the equations:

$$E(x,t) = E_0 \cos(kx - \omega t) \quad \text{ELECTRIC PART}$$

$$B(x,t) = B_0 \cos(kx - \omega t) \quad \text{MAGNETIC PART}$$

ARE SOLUTIONS TO THE WAVE EQUATION

- The electromagnetic spectrum is very wide, and all the different wavelengths/frequencies can be used for different things:

- There are many models of light, with different levels of difficulty.

It is recommended to use the easiest one that can get the job done out of

- GEOMETRIC OPTICS FOR LARGE LENGTHS

- DESCRIBES A RAY (for reflection, refraction, lenses)

- PHYSICAL OPTICS

- DESCRIBES A WAVE

- PARTICLE APPROACH

- Light = Energy packaged in discrete bundles

- QUANTUM ELECTRODYNAMICS

- Comprehensive theory of both wave & particle

## History

1600s - Newton

- o PARTICLES (corpuscles)

1670 - Huygens

- o waves

1770 - Young

- o interference (2 slits)

1870 - Maxwell

- o Electromagnetism

1900s - Einstein

- o WAVE-PARTICLE DUALITY

## EM SPECTRUM

$10^{-12} \text{ m}$  GAMMA

$10^{-10} \text{ m}$  X RAY

$10^{-8} \text{ m}$  ULTRA VIOLET

$10^{-6} \text{ m}$  VISIBLE

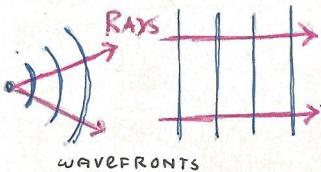
$10^{-5} \text{ m}$  INFRARED

$10^{-3} \text{ m}$  MICROWAVE

$10^3 \text{ m}$  RADIO

# RAY THEORY

**RAY** = Imaginary line along the direction of travel of the wave perpendicular to the wave front



- Using this theory, we can discover:

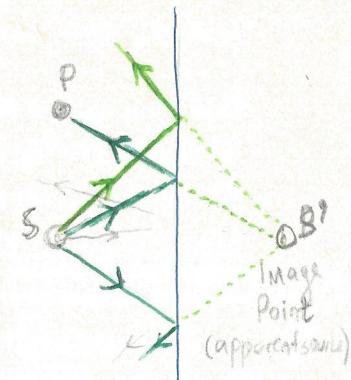
## The LAWS OF REFLECTION: $\theta_i = \theta_r$

- The incident ray, the reflected ray, and the normal are all in the same plane
- The angle of incidence = the angle of reflection

- Why does this rule work?

IN 150.B.C. HERON OF ALEXANDRA theorised:

- The path taken by the light going from the point S to P via the reflecting surface is the shortest one possible.
- WHILE this is true, it doesn't explain refraction.



- As light enters a new medium, the speed changes. It is always  $\leq$  to the speed in a pure vacuum, and  $\neq$

This ratio is a constant:  $n = \frac{c}{v}$  - speed in vacuum / speed in material

- From this we can observe an Empirical Law:

## SNELL-DECARTES LAW OF REFRACTION:

$$\frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{n_t}{n_i} \Leftrightarrow \sin \theta_i n_i = \sin \theta_r n_t$$

- This no longer is the shortest distance, but gives us that the light takes the path of LEAST TIME (THE FERMAT PRINCIPLE)

- This can be further generalised to be the PATH OF LEAST ENERGY

# TOTAL INTERNAL REFLECTION & FERMAT PRINCIPLE VERIFICATION

FERMAT PRINCIPLE: PATH TAKEN BY LIGHT IS OF LEAST TIME.

- Suppose we have a point S and point P as shown on the right separated by a "barrier" between two media of different densities + the path goes through the barrier at a point O

$$\text{time taken } t = \frac{|SO|}{V_g} + \frac{|OP|}{V_a}$$

$$\text{BUT } |SO| = \sqrt{x^2 + b^2} \quad \& \quad |OP| = \sqrt{(a-x)^2 + h^2}$$

$$\therefore t = \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + b^2}}{V_g} + \frac{\sqrt{(a-x)^2 + h^2}}{V_a}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x^2 + b^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (2x)}{V_g} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{((a-x)^2 + h^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (2(a-x))}{V_a}$$

$$\frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{xc}{V_g \sqrt{x^2 + b^2}} + \frac{x-a}{V_a \sqrt{(a-x)^2 + h^2}}$$

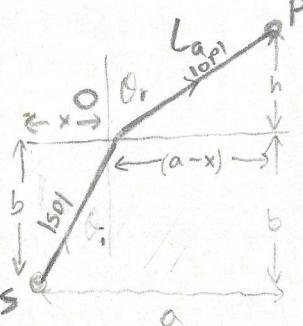
$$\text{But: } \sin \theta_i = \frac{ds}{dx} = \frac{xc}{\sqrt{x^2 + b^2}} \quad \& \quad \sin \theta_r = \frac{a-x}{\sqrt{(a-x)^2 + h^2}} = \frac{a-x}{|OP|}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{\sin \theta_i}{V_i} - \frac{\sin \theta_r}{V_r} = 0 \text{ when minimum}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left( \frac{\sin \theta_i}{V_i} \right) = \left( \frac{\sin \theta_r}{V_r} \right) \text{ times by } c$$

$$\Rightarrow n_i \sin \theta_i = n_r \sin \theta_r$$

- This shows us that the Fermat principle is a good hypothesis

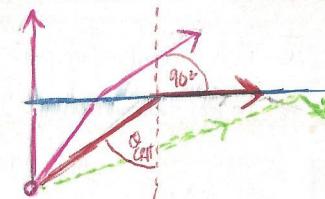


## TOTAL INTERNAL REFLECTION

- When light is travelling from a denser to rarer medium, there is a point at which it cannot be refracted out, and instead, it gets reflected back in: this occurs at the Critical Angle

$$n_i \sin 90^\circ = n_r \sin \theta_{crit}$$

- Uses in fibre-optic cables etc...



$$\sin^{-1} \left( \frac{n_i}{n_r} \right) = \theta_{crit}$$

## DISPERSION & POLARISATION

- WHITE LIGHT is a superposition of waves of all the different colours.

We know  $n = \frac{c}{v}$  and  $c = f\lambda$ .

As Frequency does not change when changing medium:

$$n = \frac{f\lambda_0}{f\lambda} \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\lambda_0}{n} \text{ or } n = \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda}$$

- The speed of light in a substance also depends on wave length. In general  $n$  decreases w/ increasing  $\lambda$ .

- DISPERSION depends on this difference, and causes WHITE LIGHT to SEPARATE INTO COLOURS OF LIGHT

**POLARISATION** = The restriction of movement of a transverse wave along a single PLANE

- When the electric field of a wave has only y-displacements, it is said to be y polarised

- UNPOLARISED "natural" light can be polarised using a polariser such as a POLAROID

**MALUS' LAW:**  $I = I_0 \cos^2 \phi$

- Shows that  $I \propto I_0$  and depends squarly on the cosine of the angle between the polarised wave and polariser

- This is because  $E_{\text{transverse}} = E_0 \cos \phi$

and  $I \propto E^2$  (from before, Power  $\propto$  Amplitude<sup>2</sup>)

$$\text{so } I = I_0 \cos^2 \phi$$

- FOR UNIFORM UNPOLARISED LIGHT: we have  $I_0$

To get the new intensity:  $I_{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{2} I_0 \cos^2 \phi = \frac{1}{2} I_0$

$$\text{so, } I = \frac{1}{2} I_0$$

## SCATTERING

$$I_{\text{SCATTERING}} \propto \frac{1}{\lambda^4}$$

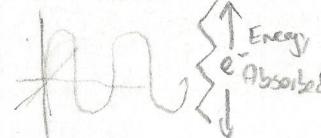
$\lambda_{\text{blue}} < \lambda_{\text{red}}$

## POLARIZATION Continued

How POLAROID WORKS: LONG POLYMERS IN STRANDS

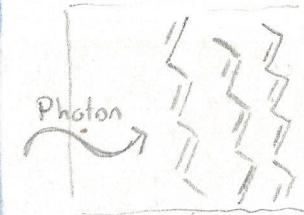
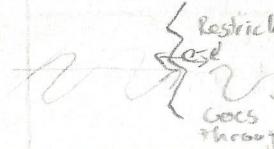
### (I) PARALLEL to strands

- electrons can oscillate along the chains & absorb energy



### (II) PERPENDICULAR

- ELECTRONS cannot move very much  
- RESTRICTED Energy Absorb



## PUTTING POLARIZERS Between



$$I = I_0 \cos^2(90^\circ) = 0$$

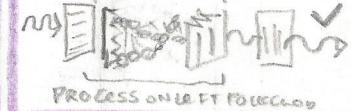
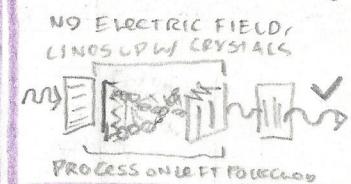
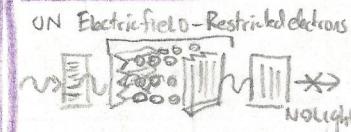


$$I = I_0 (\cos^2 45^\circ \cos^2 45^\circ) = 25\%$$



$$I = I_0 (\cos^2(i))^{90} = 97.3\%$$

## USED IN LCD'S



## POLARISATION By REFLECTION

**BREWSTER'S LAW:** there exists a certain angle at which only polarised light will reflect this happens  $\theta_{\text{reflected}} + \theta_{\text{refracted}} = 90^\circ$

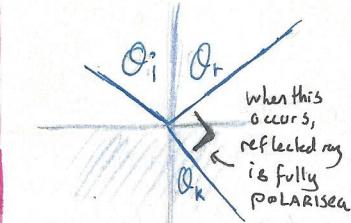
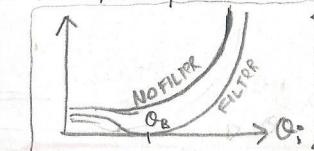
- This is because light becomes partially or linearly polarised when reflected/scattered/refracted etc.

- BREWSTER'S LAW CAN BE DERIVED w/ MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS.

- This means reflections off a reflective surface (For example, a lake) can be tamed by using a POLARIZER  $\perp$  to the reflection plane

- ONE CAN GRAPH

I<sub>reflected</sub> vs  $I_0$ :  
w/ FILTER



$$\theta_r + \theta_i = 90^\circ$$

WE CALL  $\theta_B = \theta_i = \theta_r$   
the angle at which this occurs

$$n_r \sin \theta_i = n_r \sin \theta_r$$

$$n_r \sin \theta_B = n_r \sin(90 - \theta_B) = n_r \cos \theta_B$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sin \theta_B}{\cos \theta_B} = \frac{n_r}{n_i} = \tan \theta_B$$

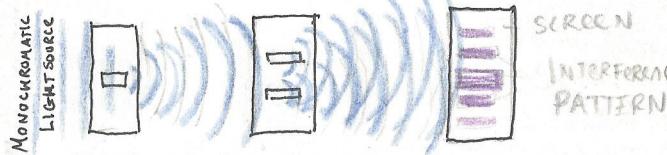
# SECTION 4: DIFFRACTION & INTERFERENCE

- IT IS easiest to describe interference WITH coherent sources of light.  
ie: Same Frequency & Same Phase

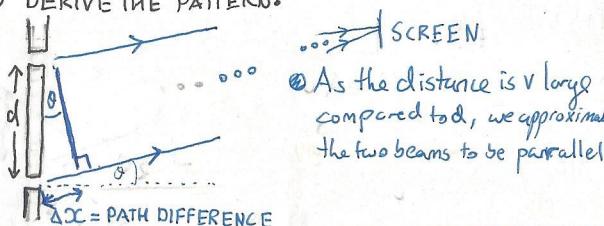
## PRINCIPLE OF SUPERPOSITION APPLIES TO LIGHT ALSO

- Suppose we have 2 sources of light. The distance to a point from  $S_1$  is  $r_1$  and from  $S_2$  is  $r_2$ . Then we get:
- CONSTRUCTIVE Interference  
when  $\Delta r = r_2 - r_1 = n\lambda$   
SO THEY ARE IN PHASE  
Then  $A = 2A_0$
- DESTRUCTIVE INTERFERENCE  
when  $\Delta r = r_2 - r_1 = (n+0.5)\lambda$   
SO THEY ARE OUT OF PHASE  
 $A = 0$

## 2 SOURCE INTERFERENCE (YOUNG'S SLITS)



TO DERIVE THE PATTERN:



$$\Delta x = d \sin \theta \quad \text{THIS GIVES US THE PHASE DIFFERENCE}$$

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

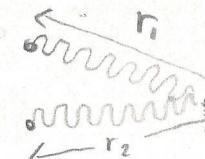
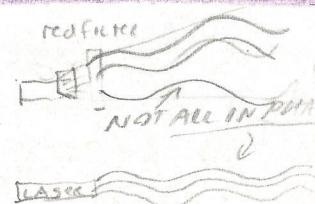
$$\text{Describing the two waves gives us: } E_1 = E_0 \cos(\omega t) \\ E_2 = E_0 \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$\Rightarrow E_p = E_1 + E_2 = E_0 \cos(\omega t) + E_0 \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$\Rightarrow E_p = 2E_0 \cos\left(\frac{\omega t + \phi}{2}\right) \cos\left(-\frac{\phi}{2}\right)$$

$$\frac{\phi}{2} = n\pi \Rightarrow \text{constructive} \Rightarrow \sin \theta = n\lambda \quad \text{DESTRUCTIVE} \Rightarrow \sin \theta = (n+0.5)\lambda$$

$$\Rightarrow 2\pi \sin \theta / \lambda = 2\pi n =$$



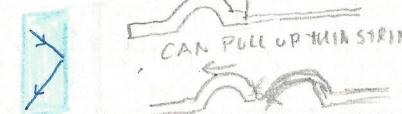
## THIN-FILM INTERFERENCE

- A way of producing colours w/ only reflection & different path lengths.

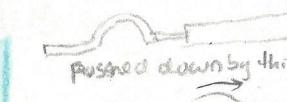
### WHAT WE SEE DEPENDS ON PHASE DIFFERENCE

- PHASE CHANGES ON REFLECTION
- PATH DIFFERENCE due to EXTRA THICKNESS

- (a) IF HIGH  $n$   
→ LOW  $n$   
• no phase change

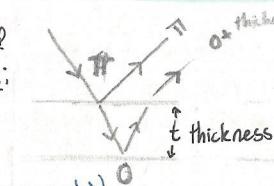


- (b) IF LOW  $n$   
→ HIGH  $n$   
•  $\pi$  phase change



- [2] Extra distance is covered by one of the photons:

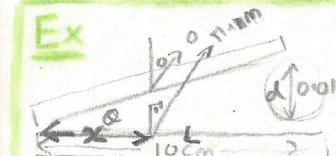
- we want this distance to be a multiple of the wavelength (in this case  $+ \frac{1}{2}\lambda$ )



$$\text{So: } 2t = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda \quad \text{but } \lambda_f = \frac{\lambda_0}{n_f}$$

• BUT we must take into account the change in  $\lambda$  in the other material

$$\rightarrow 2t = (m + \frac{1}{2}) \frac{\lambda_0}{n_f}$$



2 PLATES 10cm long  
TOUCH AT ONE END AND  
SEPARATED BY 0.01mm  
diameter wise on other  
Angle between 1st & 2nd reflections?

$$\approx \sin \theta \approx \tan \theta = \frac{d}{L} = 10^{-4} \quad \text{Light of } \lambda 420\text{nm is almost } \perp$$

$$2t = (m + 0.5)\lambda - t(x) = \tan \theta x \\ t = \frac{\lambda}{2} (m + \frac{1}{2}) \Rightarrow x = \frac{t}{\tan \theta} = \frac{(m + 0.5)\lambda}{2 \tan \theta}$$

$$\Delta x = \frac{t_a - t_b}{\tan \theta} = \frac{(m_a - m_b)\lambda}{2 \tan \theta} = \frac{\lambda}{2 \times 10^{-4}}$$

$$\Delta x = 5 \times 10^{-3}$$

WHAT IF FILLED w/water?  $\lambda = \frac{\lambda_0}{n}$   $n \uparrow \rightarrow \lambda \downarrow \rightarrow \Delta x \downarrow$  closer

# PHASOR NOTATION & Huygen's PRINCIPLE

## Huygen's Principle:

Every point of a wavefront may be considered the source of secondary "wavelets" that spread out in all directions w/ a speed equal to that of the propagation wave

- THIS is a geometrical method for finding the shape of the wavefront at a later time from the known shape of a wavefront at an instant → Found by constructing surface tangent to secondary wavelets
- EVERY POINT is considered a source of SECONDARY WAVELET

## PHASOR REPRESENTATION

- One can also represent waves as vectors that rotate anticlockwise (one can also use  $e^{i\theta}$ )

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow \text{ or can be } Ae^{i\theta} \\ A &\downarrow \text{ New amplitude } A \cos \omega t \\ A &\rightarrow \text{ or can be } Ae^{i\omega t} \end{aligned}$$

- Then it is the  $|x$  axis or the Real part that gives the amplitude at an instant

- Let's take for example 2 waves:

$$E_1 = E_0 \cos(\omega t) \quad \text{and} \quad E_2 = E_0 \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

THEN we can draw:

$$\begin{aligned} E_1 &\rightarrow \text{ and } E_2 \rightarrow \\ E_{\text{TOTAL}} &\rightarrow \text{ from cosine rule: } (let t=0) \\ E_T^2 &= E_1^2 + E_2^2 - 2E_1 E_2 \cos \phi \\ E_T^2 &= E_0^2 + E_0^2 - 2E_0^2 \cos \phi \\ E_T^2 &= 2E_0^2 (1 - \cos \phi) = 2E_0^2 (2 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2}) \\ E_T^2 &= 4E_0^2 \cos^2 \frac{\phi}{2} \quad \text{same as before} \end{aligned}$$

## DIFFRACTION - FRAUNHOFER DIFFRACTION ANALYSIS

- IN THE real world, slits cannot be "points", but light has to pass through a hole of finite size.
- AT some/all sizes the light interferes with itself as due to Huygen's Principle: the wavefront at the slit can be taken to be a number of point sources that interact.
- We can represent the wavelets from each of these point-sources with phasors

- Suppose we have a slit of width  $a$ . We split the wavefront into  $n$  sub-slits of  $E = \frac{E_0}{n}$  Amplitude.
- For simplicity, we look at the instant  $t=0$ .
- The phasors for each wavelet we get are: (counting  $E_1$  as the top one, and  $E_n$   $n$ -th from the top)

$$E_1 = E_0, E_2 = E_0 \cos \phi, E_3 = E_0 \cos 2\phi, E_4 = E_0 \cos 3\phi, \dots \text{etc.}$$

where  $\phi$  is the phase difference of each wavelet

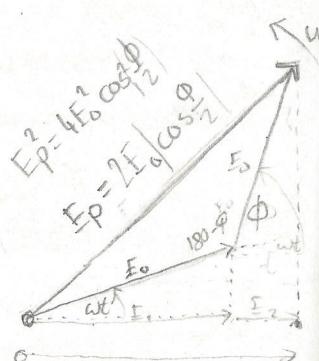
- we take  $\phi = k \Delta x$ , but  $\Delta x = \Delta y \sin \theta, \Delta y = \frac{a}{n}$

$$\text{so } \phi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot \Delta y \sin \theta$$

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

- IF we take  $\theta = 0$ , then adding up all the phasors gives us  $E + E + \dots + E = E_0$  as wanted

- IF we take  $\theta > 0$ , then we get a diagram as shown on the right for  $E_{\text{total}}$  for  $n=6$ .



- IF we take the LIMIT AS  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we get a curve. since all of the sub-pieces are of length  $E$ ,  $n \times E = n \times \frac{E_0}{n} = E_0 \Rightarrow$  the curve is of length  $E_0$

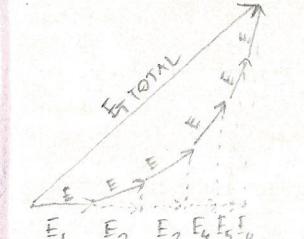
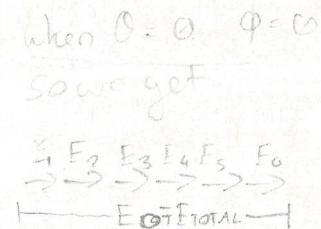
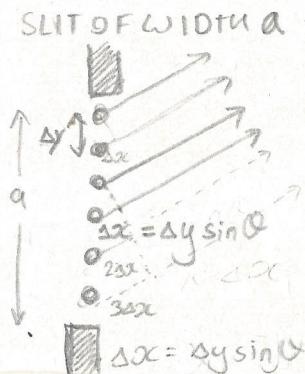
- we also get that the tangent angle to the final point is  $n\phi = n \cdot \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \sin \theta \cdot \Delta y$  but  $\Delta y = \frac{a}{n}$

$$\text{so } \beta = n\phi = \frac{2\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda}$$

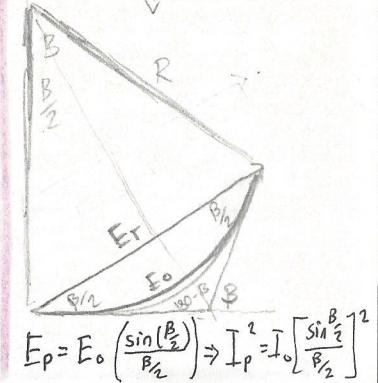
- Now, using geometry, we can find  $E_p$ .  $R = E_0$

$$\sin\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right) = \frac{E_T}{2}/R \Rightarrow E_T = \sin\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right) \cdot \frac{2R}{\lambda} = 2E_0 \cdot \frac{\pi}{\lambda} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)$$

$$\text{FINALLY } E_T = E_0 \sin\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right) / \left(\frac{a}{2}\right)$$



$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$$



## DIFFRACTION

- On the previous page, we got

$$E_p = E_0 \frac{\sin(\frac{\beta}{2})}{(\frac{\beta}{2})} \quad \text{w/ } \beta = \frac{2\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda}$$

- note we do not have to get the "real" part of this as it will rotate anyway.

- If we let  $\alpha = \frac{\beta}{2}$ , then we get →

- We know Intensity  $\propto E^2$ , so

$$I_p = I_0 \left[ \frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha} \right]^2$$

IF ALL OTHER  
Factors are the same

- We can now look at this on a screen

- To find the size of the central fringe we find the distance between the two first dark fringes

$$\Rightarrow E_p = 0 \Rightarrow \sin(\frac{\beta}{2}) = 0 \quad \text{BUT } \frac{\beta}{2} \neq 0$$

$$\alpha = m\pi = \frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \quad \& m=1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\lambda}{a} = \sin \theta$$

looking at the macroscopic scale, the fringe is  $h$  up from the zero point and  $R$  away

$$\Rightarrow \tan \theta = \frac{h}{R}$$

- when  $\theta$  is small,  $\tan \theta \approx \sin \theta$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\lambda}{a} = \frac{h}{R} \Rightarrow h = \frac{\lambda}{a} \cdot R$$

- Now let's find when the fringe is infinitely wide: ( $h = \infty$ )

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\infty}{R} \Rightarrow \theta = \tan^{-1}(\infty) = \frac{\pi}{2} (90^\circ)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\lambda}{a} = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 1 \Rightarrow \lambda = a$$

## DIFFRACTION & INTERFERENCE COMBINED

- For 2 slit interference, we have:

$$I_p = I_{\max} \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi d \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)$$

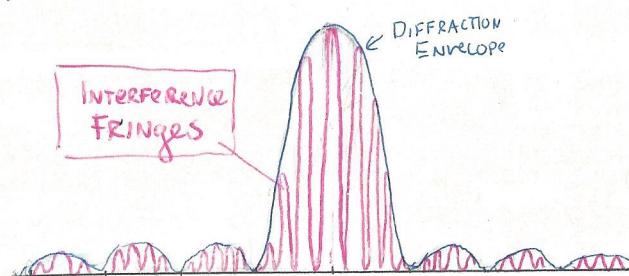
- For diffraction, we have:

$$I_p = I_0 \left[ \frac{\sin \left[ \frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right]}{\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda}} \right]^2$$

- Combining the two, we get that

$$I_p = I_0 \cos^2 \left( \frac{\pi d \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right) \cdot \left[ \frac{\sin \left[ \frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right]}{\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda}} \right]^2$$

- The pattern we get from this is:



WHEN  $a \leq \lambda$   
the fringe is  $180^\circ$  wide

## CIRCULAR APERTURE, LIMIT TO RESOLUTION

SIDE NOTE: up to this point, we have assumed that the PARALLEL Beams go to a POINT.

IN REALITY, they must have a Lens to focus those parallel beams onto a point

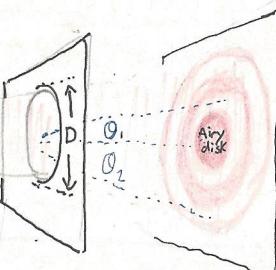
- IF you shine light through a small circular hole (APERTURE), you will see a Bright spot in the middle (AIRY DISK) and a series of dark & bright rings around it.

- One can derive an expression for the radii of the dark circles to be given by

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

$$\sin \theta_2 = 2.23 \frac{\lambda}{D}$$

$$\sin \theta_3 = 3.24 \frac{\lambda}{D}$$



- But of course, to get a POINT, one would have to use a Lens to focus the parallel beams of light

- However, diffraction occurs, so if one wants an image on a screen, they must account for this

- Let  $y$  = the distance of the dark ring from the centre point

$f$  = the focal length of a lens

$$\text{Then: } \sin \theta_1 = \frac{y}{f}, \text{ BUT we know } \sin \theta_1 = 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{D}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{D} = \frac{y}{f} \Rightarrow y = \frac{\lambda}{D} (1.22) \cdot f$$

→ THIS GIVES IS THE MINIMUM RADIUS THAT WE CAN MAKE A DOT/AIRY DISK → THE MINIMUM RESOLUTION

## LIMIT TO RESOLUTION, RAYLEIGH CRITERION

- The minimum radius =  $\frac{\lambda}{D} (1.22) f$

- BY the RAYLEIGH CRITERION, IF we have 2 POINT sources of light, separated by an angle  $\alpha$  between their centers,

- THE minimum angular displacement to be able to resolve the two sources is  $\alpha = \theta_1 (= 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{D})$

- FOR  $\alpha > \theta_1$ , IT is easy to see distinct points
- For  $\alpha < \theta_1$ , IT is impossible to tell whether there is 1 source or two as they overlap too much (or almost so)
- IT doesn't matter how much you zoom in/magnify, as you still CANNOT see

### NOTE:

