

A. M. D. G.

ST. JOSEPH'S COLLEGE
TRICHINOPOLY

NOTE BOOK



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Form *B. Sc. (Hons)*

Subject *Logic*

Interference

1-2-38 Conditions of a perfect pattern - It's already seen (cf. B.A. Notes) a pattern is perfect if two sources of light continuously emitting light of the same intensity, frequency & phase are made to illuminate the same medium. The pattern is clear if the sources are near each other or if the screen which catches the images is at a great distance.

Bandwidth

Let A & B be the sources, PO the screen, P the position of the n^{th} bright band.



It can be proved analytically that PO should be $n\lambda$ where n is zero or an integer.

Let y_1, y_2 be displacements at P due to the two sources.

$$y_1 = a \sin \omega t = a \sin 2\pi \frac{v}{\lambda} t.$$

$$y_2 = a \sin(\omega t + \alpha) = a \sin 2\pi \frac{v}{\lambda} (t + \delta)$$

where α is a phase difference due to retardation.

The retardation $\delta = \rho \frac{y}{v}$. $\alpha = \frac{2\pi\delta}{\lambda}$

$y_1 + y_2$ is the resultant displacement

$$Y = y_1 + y_2 = a(\sin \omega t + \sin \omega t \cos \alpha + \cos \omega t \sin \alpha)$$
$$= a\left(1 + \cos \frac{2\pi\delta}{\lambda}\right) \sin \omega t + \sin \frac{2\pi\delta}{\lambda} \cos \omega t.$$

When $\delta = 0$ or $n\lambda$

$$Y = 2a \sin \omega t$$

i.e. when path diff. is zero the particle vibrates with an amplitude $2a$ & frequency the same as that of the two sources.

The brightness is 4 times that of each source taken separately.

) When $\delta = \frac{2n+1}{2} \lambda$

$$Y = 0$$

i.e. there is no vibration; destructive interference results in complete darkness.

Hence if P is the position of the n^{th} bright band, we have $\rho y = n\lambda$

n from $11r$ as $A B C$ & $O P C$, 300 ft
 $n \lambda = \frac{OP}{D}$ (taking $PC = PO = D$)
 $n \lambda = \frac{d}{D} OP$

n the bandwidth $\beta = \frac{D}{d} \lambda$.

It now becomes evident that perfect definition of bright bands is obtained only if the source is perfectly monochromatic. If not, the band extends over a certain breadth $n \lambda$. The total no. of bands observed will be small.

If white light is used the central band is seen white, & all the other bands are violet inside & red outside. After a small number of bands the light is confused.

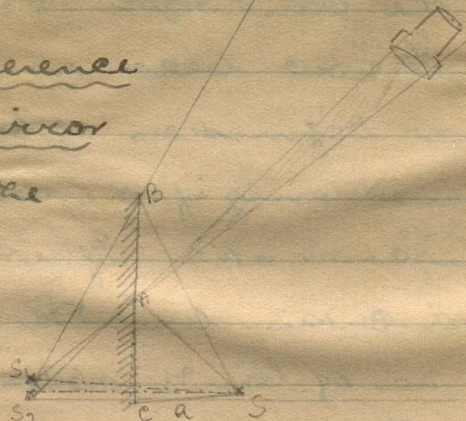
The locus of the point P is not exactly a st. line. It moves in such a way that the difference of its distance from two points is a constant $n \lambda$. \therefore the locus is a ^{hyper}parabola. If taken in space, the surface traced by P is a

A.

* Hyper
~~paraboloid~~. The foci of the hyper
~~parabola~~ are very near each other \therefore their ^{is} section
 in the focal plane of the eyepiece is almost
 a st. line.

Expts on interference
Fresnel's Bismirror

Let AB, AC be the
 two mirrors
 inclined at an \angle
 to each other.



It should be very
 small \therefore is measured by a micrometer.
 First the mirror AB is brought in the same
 plane as AC (as can be seen if the two
 images of a source coincide) \therefore then the
 screw head is made to touch AB. The
 screw head is advanced through a small
 distance \therefore thus the kept inclination θ produced.

Let S_1, S_2 be the two images of S , $\angle S_1 S S_2 = \theta$
 $\therefore S_1 S_2 = 2a \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$. If B be the distance of the
 eyepiece from the mirror $\rho = \frac{b+a}{2a} \lambda$.

The mirrors should both be metallic,
 not having only one surface of reflection.
 There is a practical inconvenience due
 to the hinge concealing a certain portion of
 the image light.

Biprism $\beta_2 - \beta_1 = \frac{D_2 - D_1}{\sqrt{d_1 d_2}} \lambda$ is the
 formula used as fully explained in
 the record book. If the \angle of the prism
 is α , the distance

between the sources S_1, S_2
 can be calculated as $S_1 S_2$ as
 follows. Since i & r are
 small, $\delta = (\mu - 1) \alpha$ & $S_1 S_2 = a(\mu - 1)$
 $\therefore d = 2a(\mu - 1) \alpha$



Biplate due to
 transmission

through the
 plate S_1 & S_2



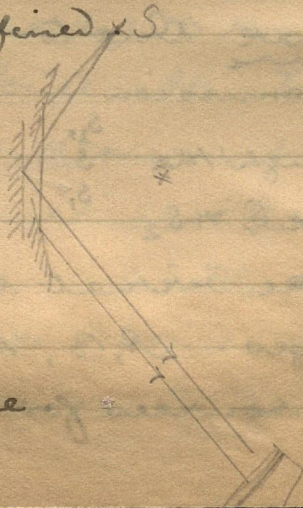
are the virtual sources & A, B their
 images. A, B, the real images form the
 two sources for interference. $\frac{AB}{S_1 S_2} = \frac{2a}{u}$

$S_1, S_2 = \frac{2e \sin(i-k)}{\cos k}$. Since i approaches
 90° $\rightarrow k$ to the critical L , the
 expression can be evaluated by the
 trigonometrical expansion.

Lloyd's Single Mirror The defects of the
 pattern are many. First ~~the~~ only one
 side of the pattern is formed. Secondly,
 since one is reflected to the other
 not, one of the sources suffers a
 several inversion. Hence $\frac{1}{2}$ parts of
 the two line images are at various
 distances, ~~and~~ for the lines must nec-
 essarily be of some thickness. The consequence
 is that β ~~to~~ attains various values;
 the bands are ill-defined.

Revels three mirrors

It has been devised
 to avoid the inconve-
 nience of the hinges,
 but the pattern is
 not well-defined since



one of the images is only once reflected whereas the other is twice reflected.

Thin film in the path of one of the interfering beams

∴ the path

difference

$$= BP - (AP - e + \mu e)$$

$$= BP - AP - (\mu - 1)e$$

$$= \frac{x}{D} d - (\mu - 1)e \quad \text{∵ since } \delta = n\lambda$$

$$x = \frac{D}{d} \{ n\lambda + (\mu - 1)e \}$$

This is the shift when monochromatic light is used.

10-2-'38 Shift under Composite light Stokes

worked out mathematically the shift when Composite light is used instead of a monochromatic light.

If the light be of one wavelength λ , the distance x from the central pt O of the n^{th} band bright band is

$$x = \frac{D}{d} \{ n\lambda + \mu - 1 e \}$$

The central pt is also shifted by $\frac{D}{d} (\mu - 1)$

Let $u = \frac{D}{d} (\mu - 1) e$.

Now when Composite light replaces is monochromatic source the central band at distance u is no more white as it would have been if there had been no film.

Depends on n : a coloured band is seen at distance u .

If the film is removed this coloured band will shift to 0, & become white.

Now it is possible to have a particular band on which all the colours overlap &

the colour of which is ^{white} bright. Let it be at distance x from 0.

$$x = \frac{D}{d} (n\lambda + \mu - 1) e$$

Since the rate of change of x with λ should be zero, i.e. $\frac{dx}{d\lambda} = 0$, $n + \frac{d}{d\lambda} \{ \mu - 1 \} e = 0$.

Now $(\mu - 1) e \times \frac{D}{d} = u$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{d\lambda} (\mu - 1) e = \frac{d}{D} \frac{du}{d\lambda}$$

$$x = \frac{D}{d} \left\{ - \frac{d}{D} \frac{du}{d\lambda} \cdot \lambda + \mu - 1 \right\} e$$

$$= \frac{D}{d} \left\{ -\frac{d}{D} \frac{du}{d\lambda} \cdot \lambda + \frac{d}{D} \cdot u \right\}$$

$$= u - \frac{du}{d\lambda} \cdot \lambda$$

∵ since $u = \frac{D}{d} (\mu - 1) e$ ∴ μ decreases as λ increases,

$\frac{du}{d\lambda}$ is -ive

∴ The "shift" of the white band, i.e. the distance of the position of the new white band from its original position when there has been no film is

$$u + \lambda \frac{du}{d\lambda}$$

The same exprⁿ can be expressed as $u + \beta \cdot \frac{du}{d\beta}$. For $\beta = \frac{D}{d} \cdot \lambda$; (1)

$$u = \frac{D}{d} \cdot (\mu - 1) e \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{du}{d\lambda} = \frac{du}{d\beta} \cdot \frac{d\beta}{d\lambda} = \frac{du}{d\beta} \cdot \frac{D}{d}$$

$$\therefore \lambda \cdot \frac{D}{d} = \beta$$

$$\therefore x = u + \lambda \cdot \frac{du}{d\lambda}$$

If monochromatic white light had been used the shift of the central band would have been u . Now when Composite light is

and the corresponding shift is

$$u + \lambda \frac{du}{d\lambda}$$

Hence the relative error due to composite light is

$$\frac{\lambda \frac{du}{d\lambda}}{u}$$

$$\text{Since } u = \frac{D}{d} (\mu - 1) e$$

$$\therefore \frac{\lambda}{u} \cdot \frac{du}{d\lambda} = \frac{\lambda}{\frac{D}{d} (\mu - 1) e} \times \frac{D}{d} \cdot e \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda} = \frac{\lambda}{\mu - 1} \cdot \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda}$$

$$\text{i.e. Relative error} = \frac{\lambda}{\mu - 1} \cdot \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda}$$

Now by Cauchy's formula $\mu = A + \frac{B}{\lambda^2}$

$$\therefore \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda} = -\frac{2B}{\lambda^3}$$

$$\therefore \text{Relative error} = \frac{\lambda}{\mu - 1} \cdot \frac{-2B}{\lambda^3} = \frac{-2}{\mu - 1} \cdot \frac{B}{\lambda^2}$$

$$= \frac{-2(\mu - A)}{\mu - 1}$$

If A is known, the relative error can be calculated. A is known by expt. by determining the μ for two

of the Fraunhofer lines of ~~the~~ of which
the wave lengths are known. When
substituted in the formula

$$\mu = A + \frac{B}{\lambda^2}$$

two simultaneous
eqns are obtained from which A
can be calculated.

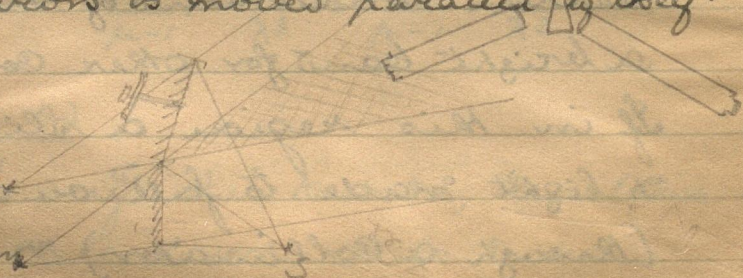
Interference under relatively high path
retardation - Spectroscopic analysis.

Theoretically, under monochromatic
light, the number of fringes visible
should be without limit. But in
practice no source is absolutely mo-
nochromatic \therefore after the few first
fringes have been passed there comes
a region where it is a dark band for
certain constituents of the source &
a bright band for other constituents.

If in this region a slit be opened,
& light made to fall on a prism
(through a collimator) & the spectrum
be examined a narrow strip of a con-

lete spectrum will be seen - the
strip say in the neighbourhood of the D_1, D_2
lines, if sodium source is observed.
In this strip will be seen a
dark bands showing that ^{Certain components of} the light
have been extinguished by interference.

Fizeau & Foucault made a study of this
phenomenon by Fresnel's mirrors. The
source used was of composite light. In-
stead of moving the collimator slit from
centre to side to side in order to give path
difference, they employed an easier device.
The collimator slit was directed towards
the centre of the interference pattern. The
spectrum shows all the colours. The one
of the two mirrors is moved parallel to itself.
The effect is to
shift the whole
pattern to one
side away from
the moving mirror.



Fizeau - Foucault's expt

When the collimator slit reached the position of the first dark violet, its retardation = $\frac{d}{2} \times \frac{4047}{2}$ A.U., a dark line is seen at the violet end. As the mirror is moved forward the line passes from the violet to the red end. When the line is in red δ (for the slit) is $\frac{d}{2} \cdot \frac{7660}{2}$. Another line follows, which reaching the red gives δ to be $\frac{d}{2} \cdot 3 \cdot \frac{7660}{2}$ which is equal to $\frac{d}{2} \times 5 \times \frac{4596}{2}$. Hence there is another line which has appeared & has by this time reached the green. When this ^{3rd} line is in the red a fourth will be seen in green (5471 A.U.) & a fifth in blue (4256 A.U.) Thus as the mirror is moved more and more the number of lines seen crowd together on the spectrum. In regions where the ordinary eyepiece shows uniform illumination, the spectroscope reveals a spectrum cross

by a series of dark bands at equal distances. Thus we have a spectroscopic evidence for interference in regions far away from the central band.

From the closeness of the lines we can calculate the relative path retardation as follows. Suppose the line in the red ($\lambda_1 = 6600$) is the 20th.
 $\delta = \frac{D}{d} \times \frac{39}{2} \times \lambda_1$. The 21st line is of $\lambda_2 6730$
i.e. in the red itself; the 22nd is also in the red of $\lambda_3 6940$.

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_2} - \frac{1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{1}{\delta} \cdot \frac{D}{d} \times 1$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_3} - \frac{1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{1}{\delta} \cdot \frac{D}{d} \times 2$$

If altogether $n+1$ lines are visible,

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{n+1}} - \frac{1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{1}{\delta} \cdot \frac{D}{d} \times n.$$

Now by directing a beam of sunlight through the collimator slit, Fraunhofer lines can be superposed on the interference

spectrum. Suppose if any two of the
of known λ coincide with two of the
interference lines, then,

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_2} - \frac{1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{1}{\delta} \cdot \frac{d}{n} \cdot n$$

where $(n-1)$ is the number of inter-
ference lines between the two ^{two lines} Fraunhofer lines $n\lambda_2, \lambda_1$, the wavelength of

$$\therefore \delta = \frac{n \cdot d}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1}$$

Or if N be the number of fringes
between the two lines we have

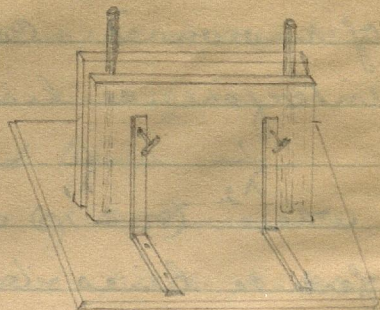
$$\delta = \frac{N+1}{\left\{ \frac{1}{\lambda_2} - \frac{1}{\lambda_1} \right\}}$$

Butler's figures — Arrangement of
thin films due to Cocher & Butler:

The above formula can be
utilized to determine the the small
thicknesses (say of wires) or to find the
wavelength of an unknown Fraunhofer
line.

Two glass plates having ^{plane} sides

semi-silvered on the
inner face are placed
2 to each other with
two bits of a thin wire
between them. When
white light falls upon



part is transmitted, Thin film - Edser & Butler.
part doubly reflected
then transmitted thus introducing a relative
path retardation $2d$ (incidence is normal)
the silvering should be such that the
direct & reflected beams are nearly of
the same intensity. Spectroscopic analysis
will show a pattern exactly as in the
Fizeau Foucault exp with Fresnel mirrors.

$$D = 2d = \frac{N+1}{\frac{1}{\lambda_2} - \frac{1}{\lambda_1}}$$

where λ_2 & λ_1 are the wave lengths of
two Fraunhofer lines which coincide
with two of the interference lines &
enclose N lines between them. The

two sets of lines can be easily distinguished as the former are very thin. If λ_1 & $n\lambda_2$ are known, e can be calculated. Also λ of any unknown line can be found out. Let there be n interference lines between λ & $n\lambda_2$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_2} - \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{n+1}{2e}; \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_2} - \frac{1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{n+1}{2e}; \quad (2)$$

Dividing (1) by (2) λ can be calculated
 e can be separately determined from (2)

Colours of thin films

It has been shown

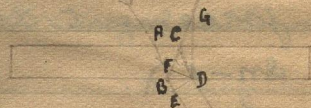
(P. A. Notes) that

path BF in air
 is equivalent to path

BF in the film n .

path difference is FG

$$= 2\mu e \cos r.$$



Haidinger's Fringes When a film of

12-2-'38

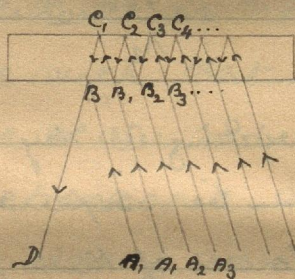
transparent medium of width $1/2$ sides is illuminated by an extended source of light, & the reflected or refracted light is viewed through a lens, a system of fringes is seen which is called Haidinger's fringes.

When investigating the colours of thin films we considered two $1/2$ incident beams rays

B & $A_1 B$, the first which emerging reflected at B & the other reflected at the other surface C_1 .

and that the two travel together along BD and cause interference reinforcement according as $2\mu t \cos r = \lambda$ or $\frac{2n-1}{2} \lambda$.

But in addition to the ray B, C, B , there are actually many others refracted & reflected number of times and emerging at BD , all

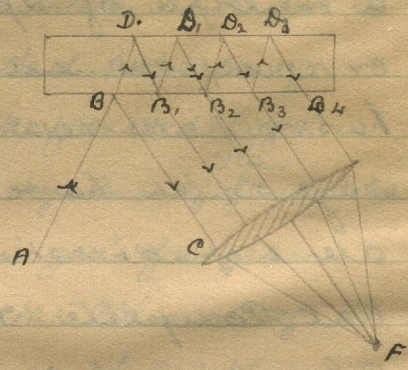


of which have a path retardation which is a multiple of $2\mu e \cos r$. Hence interference or reinforcement is between A, B, D & which has no path retardation & all the other rays which have $(n \times 2\mu e \cos r + \frac{\lambda}{2})$ equivalent path retardation. Hence it is that complete & not partial absence of colour is observed in the dark fringes.

The direction of the rays can be reversed. A single ray D, B incident on the film gives rise to one reflected beam B, A & a series of multiple reflected beams $B_1, A_1, B_2, A_2, \dots$. If $2\mu e \cos r = n\lambda$ the effect of bringing all these rays together to a common focus will be destructive interference. If a point source is used & the film be viewed through a lens, it will appear dark.

If an extended source is used light falls at different angles on the plate & hence there are many convergen

pencils of light issuing
 from the lens C to pts
 and near the focus.



All the rays which
 have the same value
 of $\mu r \cos \kappa$ (i.e.
 of κ since μr is

constant) will form one convergent pencil.
 Those for which $\mu r \cos \kappa$ ^{is greater by} $\frac{\lambda}{2}$ will form
 a series of foci $\&$ round the focus of the
 lens i.e. will form the first bright ring.
 round it is formed one dark ring & thus
 a system of rings is formed.

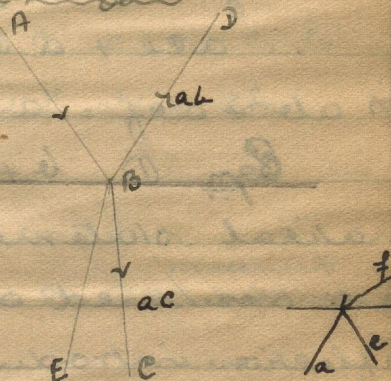
Newton's fringes in reflected light
 can be observed if a mica plate
 with a filter is made to illumine the
 source plate.

A similar effect is observed in
 transmitted light also, the one difference
 being that a ring is bright when $\mu r \cos \kappa = n\lambda$.

Directing a thin film towards a bright cloud the effect is seen distinctly. The lens of the eye forms the fringes upon the retina.

Reflection & Refraction Coefft.

Let a beam AB of amplitude a be partially reflected along BD & partially refracted along BC .



The ratio of the amplitude of BD to a is the Reflection Coefft. Let it be b . The ratio of the ampl. of BC to a is the Refraction Coefft. Let it be c . Amplitude of BD is ab & of BC is ac . Let refl. & refr. Coeffts from the lower to the upper medium be e & f resply.

Consider both the rays DB & CB travel back along their own paths. DB will split into one of amt amplitude ab along BA & another of amp. abc

long BE. C will split into one of
 amp. a along BE & another of
 amp. e along BA. The net result should
 be the original ray, i.e. ampl. a along
 BA & zero along BE.

$$\therefore ace + a be = 0 \text{ i.e. } b + e = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$ab^2 + aef = a \text{ i.e. } b^2 + ef = 0; \quad ef = 1 - b^2 \quad (2)$$

Eqn (1) $b + e = 0$ is the mathe-

matical statement of the fact we
 have assumed above that dissimilar
 reflection introduced a phase change of
 π . Since ef is +ive there is ^{under dissimilar reflⁿ} no phase change.

Calculation of intensity in Haidingers rings (I) Reflected Light

Let the displacement at B when AB is
 incident on it be $y = a \sin \varphi$.

The amplitude of B_1C_1 is ab , of B_2C_2
 $a \times e \times 2 \times f$, of B_3C_3 $a \times e \times e^2 \times f$, of B_4C_4
 $a \times e^3 \times f$ etc.

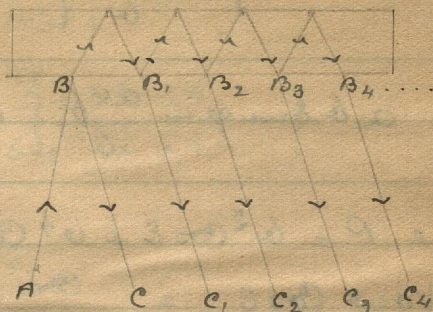
In B_1C_1 there is no phase change; in
 B_2C_2 , phase change is due partly to the path

retardation $2\mu e \cos r$

is partly due to
dissimilar refl.

That due to dissi-

imilar refl. is
expressed in the displacement
compensated by eqn



the sign of e . That due to $2\mu e \cos r$
is $E = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} 2\mu e \cos r$.

In B, C , phase change is $2E$

\therefore If y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots be ^{placements} disturbances
at B, B_1, B_2, B_3, \dots

$$y_1 = ab \sin \varphi$$

$$y_2 = acef \sin(\varphi + E)$$

$$y_3 = ace^3f \sin(\varphi + 2E)$$

$$y_4 = ace^5f \sin(\varphi + 3E) \dots \dots \dots$$

etc etc.

The sum total of the disturbances

is

$$Y = y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + \dots$$

$$= ab \sin \varphi - acef \sin(\varphi + E) - ace^3f \sin(\varphi + 2E) - \dots \dots \dots ad \sin \varphi.$$

Note The series may be summed up $\eta A^2 + B^2$
found out as on page 195 $A^2 + B^2 = (A + iB)(A - iB)$

$$= a b \sin \varphi - \frac{a e f}{b} \left\{ b^2 \sin(\varphi + \varepsilon) + b^4 \sin(\varphi + 2\varepsilon) \dots \right\}$$

$$= a b \sin \varphi - \frac{a e f}{b} \left\{ P \sin \varphi + Q \cos \varphi \right\}$$

where $P = b^2 \cos \varepsilon + b^4 \cos 2\varepsilon + \dots$

Now $\cos \varepsilon = \frac{\cos e^{i\varepsilon} + e^{-i\varepsilon}}{2}$

$$\therefore P = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \begin{aligned} & b^2 e^{i\varepsilon} + b^4 e^{2i\varepsilon} + b^6 e^{3i\varepsilon} + \dots \\ & + b^2 e^{-i\varepsilon} + b^4 e^{-2i\varepsilon} + b^6 e^{-3i\varepsilon} + \dots \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{b^2 e^{i\varepsilon}}{1 - b^2 e^{i\varepsilon}} + \frac{b^2 e^{-i\varepsilon}}{1 - b^2 e^{-i\varepsilon}} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{b^2 e^{i\varepsilon} - 2b^4 + b^2 e^{-i\varepsilon}}{1 - b^2 e^{i\varepsilon} - b^2 e^{-i\varepsilon} + b^4} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{b^2 \cos \varepsilon - b^4}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \varepsilon + b^4}$$

$$Q = b^2 \sin \varepsilon + b^4 \sin 2\varepsilon + \dots$$

At

Now $\sin \varepsilon = \frac{\sin e^{i\varepsilon} - e^{-i\varepsilon}}{2i}$

$$\therefore Q = \frac{1}{2i} \left\{ \begin{aligned} & b^2 e^{i\varepsilon} + b^4 e^{2i\varepsilon} + \dots \\ & - b^2 e^{-i\varepsilon} - b^4 e^{-2i\varepsilon} - \dots \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2i} \left\{ \frac{b^2 e^{i\epsilon}}{1 - b^2 e^{i\epsilon}} - \frac{b^2 e^{-i\epsilon}}{1 - b^2 e^{-i\epsilon}} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2i} \left\{ \frac{b^2 e^{i\epsilon} - b^2 e^{-i\epsilon} + b^4 - b^4}{1 - (b^2 e^{i\epsilon} + b^2 e^{-i\epsilon}) + b^4} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{b^2 \sin \epsilon}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4}$$

$$y = ab \sin \varphi - \frac{ae\beta}{b} \left\{ \rho \sin \varphi + q \cos \varphi \right\}$$

$$= A \sin \varphi + B \cos \varphi$$

$$\text{where } A = ab - \frac{ae\beta}{b} \rho \quad \text{or } B = -\frac{ae\beta}{b} q$$

$$A = ab \left\{ 1 - \text{cf. } \frac{1}{b^2} \left(\frac{b^2 \cos \epsilon - b^4}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right) \right\}$$

$$= ab \left\{ 1 - (1 - b^2) \frac{\cos \epsilon - b^2}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right\}$$

$$= ab \left\{ 1 - \frac{\cos \epsilon - b^2 + b^4 - b^2 \cos \epsilon}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right\}$$

$$= ab \left\{ \frac{1 - b^2 \cos \epsilon - \cos \epsilon + b^2}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right\}$$

$$= ab \left\{ \frac{(1 + b^2)(1 - \cos \epsilon)}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right\}$$

$$ie \quad A = \frac{2ab(1+b^2)\sin^2\frac{\epsilon}{2}}{1-2b^2\cos\epsilon+b^4} \quad (1) \quad 17-2-'38$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 B &= -\frac{ac\phi}{b} Q \\
 &= -\frac{a(1-b^2)}{b} \frac{b^2\sin\epsilon}{1-2b^2\cos\epsilon+b^4} \\
 &= -\frac{2ab(1-b^2)\sin\frac{\epsilon}{2}\cos\frac{\epsilon}{2}}{1-2b^2\cos\epsilon+b^4} \quad (2)
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have $Y = A\sin\phi + B\cos\phi$
 A & B being given by (1) & (2). Y is the
 resultant of two S.H.Ms in along directions
 or to each other &.; Reverse is of the
 form $C\sin(\phi + \epsilon)$

Equating coeffs of $\sin\phi$ & $\cos\phi$,
 $\sin\epsilon = B$ & $C\cos\epsilon = A$.

The \mathcal{I} intensity \mathcal{I}_R of the reflected
 beam is $C^2 = A^2 + B^2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore \mathcal{I}_R &= \left\{ \frac{2ab\sin\frac{\epsilon}{2}}{1-2b^2\cos\epsilon+b^4} \right\}^2 \left\{ \frac{(1+b^2)^2}{\sin^2\frac{\epsilon}{2}} + \frac{(1-b^2)^2}{\cos^2\frac{\epsilon}{2}} \right\} \\
 &= \left\{ \frac{2ab\sin\frac{\epsilon}{2}}{1-2b^2\cos\epsilon+b^4} \right\}^2 \left\{ 1+b^4-2b^2\left(\cos^2\frac{\epsilon}{2}-\sin^2\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{4a^2b^2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4}$$

To discuss the conditions for max. & min. brightness a slightly different form is more convenient.

$$I_R = \frac{4a^2b^2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}}{1 + b^4 - 2b^2(1 - 2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2})}$$

$$= \frac{4a^2b^2}{\frac{(1-b^2)^2}{\sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}} + 4b^2}$$

I_R is a max. when den. is a minimum i.e. when $\sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ is a max. viz. 1

\therefore when $\sin \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ is ± 1 i.e. $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ is $(2n+1) \frac{\pi}{2}$

But $\epsilon = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} 2\mu e \cos r$

$$\therefore 2\mu e \cos r = \frac{\epsilon}{2} \cdot \frac{\lambda}{\pi} = (2n+1) \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

The film appears bright by reflected light when $2\mu e \cos r = (2n+1) \frac{\lambda}{2}$.

I_R is a min. when denominator is a max. i.e. when $\sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ is zero, i.e. when

$$\frac{\epsilon}{2} = n\pi. \quad \text{Since } \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \frac{\pi}{\lambda} 2\mu e \cos r,$$

$$2\mu e \cos r = n\lambda.$$

The film appears dark (or min. bright)

then $2\mu e \cos k = n\lambda$.

$$I_R = \frac{4a^2b^2}{\left(\frac{1-b^2}{\sin \epsilon/2}\right)^2 + 4b^2}$$

The min. value is zero since in this case the denominator is infinite

The max. value is $\frac{4a^2b^2}{(1+b^2)^2}$

(1) Transmitted light.

Using the symbols of part I, if the disturbance of the emitted ray is given



$$\begin{aligned} y &= y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + \dots \\ &= acf \sin \varphi + ac e^2 f \sin(\varphi + \epsilon) \\ &\quad + ac e^4 f \sin(\varphi + 2\epsilon) + \dots \quad \text{ad inf.} \\ &= a(1-b^2) \sin \varphi + acf \{b^2 \sin(\varphi + \epsilon) + \dots\} \\ &= a(1-b^2) \sin \varphi + acf (P \sin \varphi + Q \cos \varphi) \\ &= D \sin \varphi + C \cos \varphi \end{aligned}$$

where $D = a(1-b^2) + acf P$

$C = acf Q$.

$$D = aef(1 + P)$$

$$= a(1 - b^2) \left\{ 1 + \frac{b^2 \cos \epsilon - b^4}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right\}$$

$$= a(1 - b^2) \left\{ \frac{1 - b^2 \cos \epsilon}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right\}$$

$$E = a(1 - b^2) \left\{ \frac{b^2 \sin \epsilon}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right\}$$

If I_t is the intensity of the transmitted beam, $I_t = D^2 + E^2$

$$\text{i.e. } I_t = \left\{ \frac{a(1 - b^2)}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4} \right\}^2 \left\{ (1 - b^2 \cos \epsilon)^2 + (b^2 \sin \epsilon)^2 \right\}$$

$$= \frac{a^2(1 - b^2)^2 \{ 1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4(\cos^2 \epsilon + \sin^2 \epsilon) \}}{(1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4)^2}$$

$$= \frac{a^2(1 - b^2)^2}{1 - 2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4}$$

I_t is max. when den. is min. i.e. when the -ive term $2b^2 \cos \epsilon$ is max.

The max. value of $\cos \epsilon$ is +1 $\therefore \epsilon = 2n\pi$

$$\epsilon = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} 2\mu e \cos r$$

$$\therefore 2\mu e \cos r = n\lambda$$

The film is seen brightest by transmitted light when $2\mu e \cos r = n\lambda$.

I_t is min. when $2b^2 \cos \epsilon$ is min. i.e. when $\epsilon = (2n+1)\pi$ thus making $\cos \epsilon = -1$

$$\therefore 2\mu e \cos r = (2n+1) \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

\therefore The film appears least bright when

$$\mu e \cos r = (2n+1) \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

$$\text{The max. value is } \frac{(1-b^2)^2 \cdot a^2}{1-2b^2+b^4} = a^2$$

$$\text{The min. value is } a^2 \left\{ \frac{1-b^2}{1+b^2} \right\}^2$$

Thus for reflected light the intensity varies between zero to $a^2 \cdot \frac{4b^2}{(1+b^2)^2}$.

For transmitted light the intensity varies between $a^2 \cdot \frac{(1-b^2)^2}{(1+b^2)^2}$ to a^2 .

The sum of the reflected & transmitted intensities at any instant

$$I = I_r + I_t = \frac{4a^2 b^2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2} + a^2 (1-b^2)^2}{1-2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4}$$

$$= a^2 \frac{1-2b^2+b^4 + 2(1-\cos \epsilon)b^2}{1-2b^2 \cos \epsilon + b^4}$$

$= a^2$

Sum of the refl. & ~~refl~~ transmitted intensities is equal to the total incident intensity.

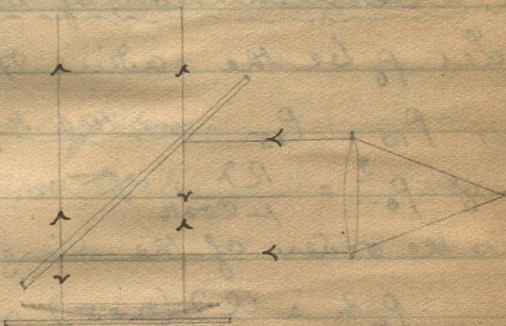
Since the reflected system varies between zero & a certain value, whereas in the transmitted system the variation is between maximum brightness & a less brightness, the reflected fringes appear clearer to perception than the ~~ref~~ transmitted.

Newton's Rings

1) Radius of a ring.

In the centre where radius is zero we have a

dark spot. For the first bright ring $2\mu e \cos r = \frac{\lambda}{2}$ & for the n^{th} bright ring, $2\mu e \cos r = (2n-1) \frac{\lambda}{2}$. If p_0 be the radius of the ring, R the radius of curvature of the lens $p_0^2 = 2Re \therefore 2e = \frac{p_0^2}{R}$



$$(2n-1) \frac{\lambda}{2} = \frac{p_0^2}{R} \times \mu \cos r$$

$$p_0 = \sqrt{\frac{R \times (2n-1) \frac{\lambda}{2}}{\mu \cos r}} = \sqrt{\frac{R\lambda}{2\mu \cos r}} \times \sqrt{2n-1}$$

For the n^{th} dark ring $2\mu e \cos r = n\lambda$

if p_d is the radius

$$p_d^2 = 2e \times R$$

$$= R \times n\lambda$$

$$p_d = \sqrt{\frac{R n \lambda}{\mu \cos r}} = \sqrt{\frac{R\lambda}{2\mu \cos r}} \times \sqrt{2n}$$

Thus the radii of the bright and dark rings are \propto to the sq. roots of the odd & even natural numbers resp. ly.

2) Determination of wave length.

Let p_0 be the radius of the first ^{dark} clear ring,
 $p_5, p_{10}, p_{15} \dots$ the radii of the 5th, 10th...
 rings $p_0^2 = \frac{R\lambda}{\mu \cos r}$ $\therefore n = R\lambda n$ where

is the order of the ring, not known.

$$p_5^2 = R\lambda(n+5) \dots p_{50}^2 = R\lambda(n+50)$$

$$50R\lambda = p_{50}^2 - p_0^2 = p_{55}^2 - p_5^2 = \dots$$

$p_9^2 - p_{45}^2$ The mean of the 9 values is
 found out. If it is D then $\lambda = \frac{D}{50R}$

3) Refractive index of a liquid.

When the liquid is introduced all the

kings shrink to a smaller radius. If

Δ' be the difference $\rho_0'^2 - \rho_0^2$, since
 $\rho_0 = \frac{R\lambda n}{\mu}$, we have $\Delta' = \frac{5.0 R \lambda}{\mu}$
 $\therefore \mu = \frac{\Delta'}{\Delta'}$, which is also the
 ratio of the sq. of any the radii of any
 particular ring before & after water has
 been introduced.

Since in this case part of the light is
 absorbed by the liquid, the rings are
 feebler & this defect is compensated
 for by semi-silvering the surface of
 the lens.

4) Differential lens system.

The ring is dark if $2\mu e \cos r$
 $= n\lambda$ where $e = BC$.

Let $AC = e_1$, & $AB = e_2$,

R_1, R_2 the radii of the
 two surfaces.



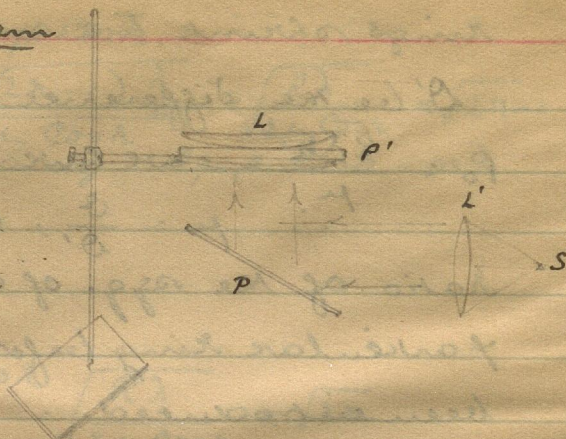
$$e = e_1 - e_2 = \frac{\rho^2}{2} \left(\frac{1}{R_2} - \frac{1}{R_1} \right)$$

$$\therefore \text{Radius for the } n\lambda \text{ dark ring} = \frac{\sqrt{2e}}{\frac{1}{R_2} - \frac{1}{R_1}}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{n\lambda}}{\mu \cos r \left\{ \frac{1}{R_2} - \frac{1}{R_1} \right\}}$$

5) Transmitted system

The arrangement is similar to that of the reflected system except regarding the inclination of the reflecting plate P or the comparatively



darkening of (there is no ring perfectly dark)

$$r_0^2 = \frac{(2n-1)R\lambda}{2\mu \cos \alpha}$$

ring.

Here again $r_{50}^2 - r_0^2 = 50R\lambda$

Bright, broad, achromatic bands.

With the lens & plate lower above the radius

$$r_{\text{the ring}} = \sqrt{Rn\lambda}$$

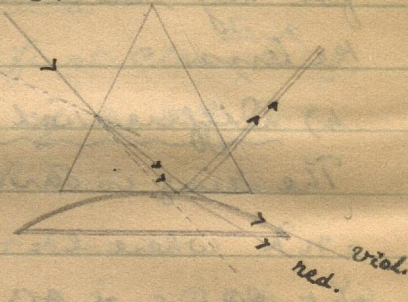
If the L of refr. is μ $r = \frac{\sqrt{Rn\lambda}}{\cos \alpha}$

as α increases from 0 to $\frac{\pi}{2}$, r increases,

bands become brighter broader. But α

must be increased without causing a

large amount of partial reflection at the



^{upper}
Convex side of the lens, & thus diminishing
the brightness.

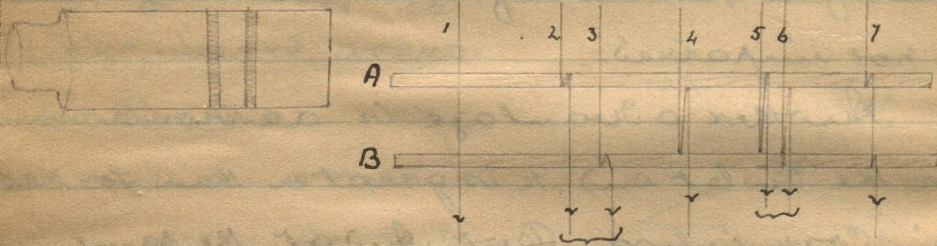
But with a prism this difficulty can
be avoided. The light that is incident
almost along the normal to the passes in
the prism & falls on the lower surface
at an i just below the critical i . Thus
 r is nearly 90° , $\cos r$ almost zero
& p is \therefore very great. The normal inci-
dence on the first surface ~~is~~ almost
nullifies partial reflection \therefore brightness
is not impaired.

Another advantage is achromatism
For the violet end r is greater than for red
 $\therefore \cos r$ is less. But And at the same
time λ too is less for violet than for red.
 \therefore Hence $p^2 = Rn \cdot \frac{\lambda}{\cos r}$ is very nearly the
same for violet as well as the red.
The rings instead of being highly colored
are all white. Achromatism is especia-
ly noticeable when r approaches 90° .

Brewster's bands or fringes

19-2-38

Brewster observed a system of fringes due to interference in thick films of air. Two glass plates are fixed vertically & very nearly parallel to each other, within a box which is illuminated through a small hole on one side & is provided with an eyepiece ^{on} the other. The inside of the box is blackened. The two plates should be truly plane and of the



same index thickness and refractive index.

Several images can be seen even with the naked eye, the first & the brightest being white, the next less bright crossed with interference bands, a third yet dimmer white, a fourth still more dim crossed with

interference bands and so on.

The first image is formed by rays like No 1 which pass straight through the two plates. The second is formed by two kinds of rays—those which suffer two partial reflections at the first plate & those which do the same at the second plate. If the two plates had been 111 , 2 & 3 would have the equal paths, but since the plates are inclined there is a path difference $2\mu e (\cos r \text{ or } r')$ which is of the order of λ & hence 2 & 3 interfere or reinforce according to various values of λ . Rays No 4 cause the third & pure image; while 5 & 6 can interfere & cause a fringed image.

The principle of interference has been utilized in a set of instruments known as interferometers or interference refractometers for measuring λ for μ of gases

Michelson's interferometer.

L. B. A. Notes

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The two paths

followed by

the rays are

$ABDE$ & $ACDE$

A B D F G H_2 G F D E .

H_1 & H_2 are silvered

on their front faces. The two plates are optically
plane & semisilvered so as to make the two
interfering ^{beams} bands of equal intensity. The micro-

meter is used to slide forward or backward

it is of such fine pitch that it can read

up to $100 \frac{\mu}{10^4}$ of the division on the microhead scale,

i.e. up to $\frac{1}{10^4}$ of a m.m. The tube containing

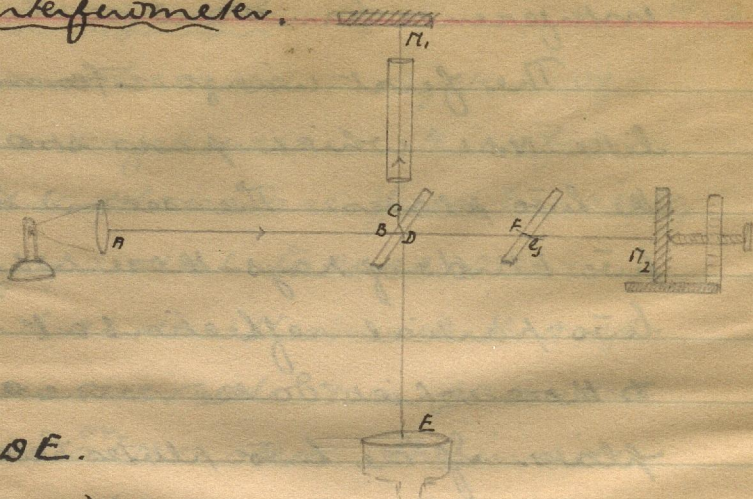
gas is to be introduced in front of H_1 . The

height of the interference bands is compensated

by moving H_2 back or forth. ~~It~~ It is moved

^{forward} if the gas be of lower μ than air. The

fringes seen are as in Haidinger's fringes



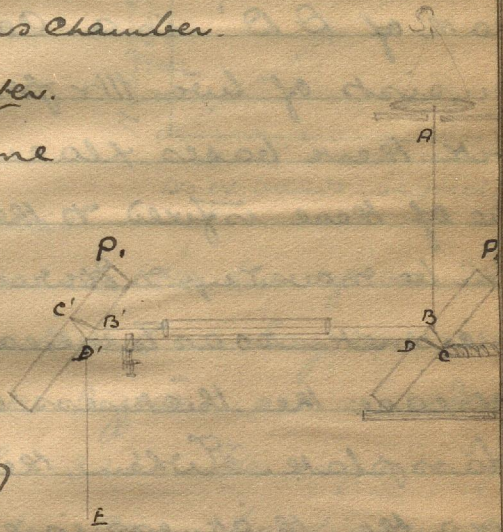
Circular, the source being an extended one. If d is the distance through which the mirror is moved backwards,

$$(\mu - 1)d = d \quad \therefore \mu = \frac{d}{l} + 1$$

Here the refr. index of air is taken to be unity & the zero position of n_2 is that when air is contained in the gas chamber.

Jamin's interferometer.

Two optically plane & exactly similar plates of glass are fixed in a vertical plane & inclined to each other at a very small angle. A ray of light incident on P from a narrow slit A takes two different paths, ABC & $A'B'C'$ & $A'B'C'$ & $A'B'C'$, which have a small path difference between them & \therefore interference fringes are seen in the eye piece at E . In the path $B'B'$ is introduced the gas

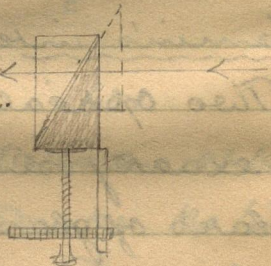


chamber. To make sure whether the one
the
trans passes through the chamber to the
other outside, first the chamber is closed
the interference bands must disappear.

Next the sides of the chamber are closed.

Again the bands must disappear. In the
path of $D D'$ is a compensator which
consists of two $11/2$ prisms
with their bases placed together.

One of these is fixed to the other
can be moved up & down by a
micrometer so as to increase or

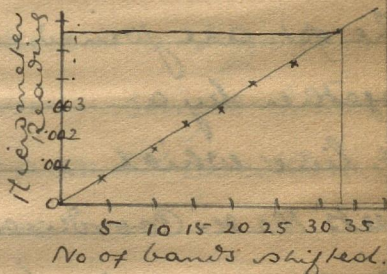


decrease the thickness of the equivalent
glass plate. When the micrometer reads
and the thickness is equal to that of the two
glass sides of the gas chamber.

If a is the increase in thickness necessary
to remove the shift due to the replacing of
air in the chamber by a gas, then

$(\mu_c - 1)a = (\mu - 1)l$ where μ_c is the
refractive index of the compensator.

Since λ is not easily determined, we may calibrate the compensator. The micrometer is turned till the shift of the interference is through 5, 10, ... band widths λ each time the micrometer read is taken. A graph is drawn. Now the gas is introduced & the necessary movement



of the micrometer is read out. On the graph we see the no. of bands that this equivalent to this — Say 33.

Then 33λ is the path difference introduced by the gas $(\mu - 1)l = 33\lambda$ Hence $\mu = 1 + \frac{33}{l}$

The Compensator can be dispensed with & the instrument can be used to find the variation of μ with pressure. Take the pressure as low as possible \approx (1 cm of mercury) & find adjust the pointer of the eyepiece to coincide with a fixed band. Note the pressure p .

Plot $(0, p)$ on a graph. Increase the pressure & count the bands as they pass.

When 10 bands have passed note the pressure

Plot $(10, p_2)$. Continue the process

until at the atm. press. is reached.

The pts. are joined

together by a

line which

sets the x-coordinate

at some pt. say $(-n)$

then $n\lambda$ is path difference due to gas at pressure

n if μ is the $\lambda(\mu - 1) = n\lambda \therefore \mu = 1 + \frac{n\lambda}{\lambda}$

At press. p_1 , $\mu = 1 + \frac{(n+10)\lambda}{\lambda}$ and so on.

Rayleigh's interferometer.

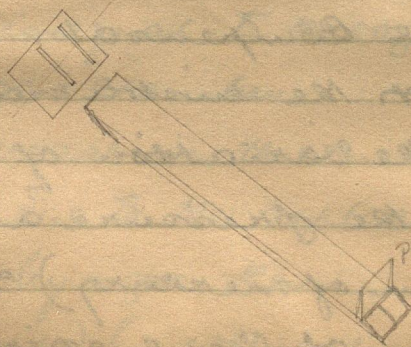
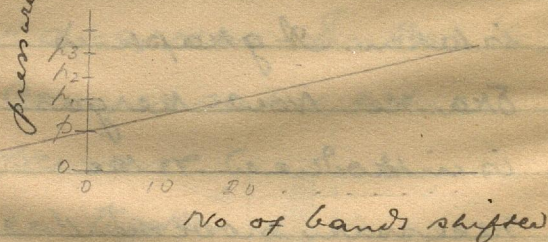
Two very fine
vertical
arrow slits

illuminated by the

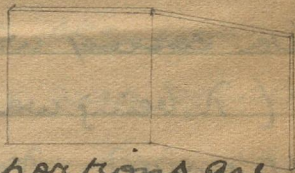
light are arranged

to cause interference.

The upper portion of
the light from these



pass through air, while the lower portion thro
 two air tight tubes into ^{Chambers} which a gas at any
 pressure can be introduced. The interference
 pattern is seen out in two parts, the lines being
 continuous if the gas in the two chambers
 are at the same press. If there is a difference
 in press, the lower pattern shifts to one
 side or other. By means of a calibrated Com-
 pensator the equivalent path
 difference $n\lambda$ can be found
 out. To note the ~~the~~ shift



whether the lines in the two portions are
 exactly continuous, the upper pattern has
 to be deflected slightly downwards which is
 done by a prism P placed above the cham
 Rayleigh's Compensator is shown in the diagram
 Two plates of glass hinged together at a slight
 inclination, will cause no relative path
 difference if the inclination of one plate to
 the chamber behind it is equal inclination
 of the other to its corresponding chamber.

By rotating the compensator about the hinge any 24-2-38

path difference can be introduced. The compensator is calibrated by using monochromatic light & keeping the same gas at the same pressure in the two chambers. The no. of lines that cross the eye-piece, & the rotation of the compensator are read. Since every band ^{shift} corresponds to a path difference we can calculate the rotation of the micrometer screw which causes the same path diff.

(λ being wave length of the monochromatic light used). Next white light is used & the chambers are filled with the gases to be compared. The rotation of micrometer which restores continuity to the central band is noted & corresponding retardation $n\lambda$ in the terms of the light used for calibration is computed.

$$n\lambda = (\mu_1 - \mu_2) d.$$

Gladstone and Dale's Law, Gladstone is an empirical one & states $\frac{\mu - 1}{\rho} = K$ where ρ is the density of a gas whose ref. ind. is μ .

8
k is a constant of for the gas.

The law can be proved from molecular theory. Suppose a medium of the gas l cm thick. The retardation it causes is μl .



Now, let all the molecules in it be brought together to a compact l' whole without interspace, & let it occupy a thickness l' , having the same area of section. The rest of the medium is empty space. Total path retardation is $l'\mu' + (l - l')\mu$, μ' being the ref. ind. of the gas in the compact form. The path μl in both cases is equal

$$\therefore \mu l = l'\mu' + l - l'$$

$$\therefore (\mu - 1)l = (\mu' - 1)l' \text{ i.e. } (\mu - 1) = \frac{l'}{l}(\mu' - 1)$$

Now μ' is a constant for the gas, $\frac{l'}{l}$

= Amount of matter = density

Space occupied.

$$\therefore \frac{\mu - 1}{\rho} = \text{Constant.}$$

From the above can be derived the
 ref. ind. at any given press. μ , τ keeps

if the refr. ind. at ρ_0, τ_0 is known

be μ_0 .
$$\frac{\mu_0}{\rho_0 \tau_0} = \frac{\mu}{\rho \tau} \therefore \mu = \rho_0 \cdot \frac{\tau_0}{\tau} \cdot \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}$$

$$\therefore \frac{\mu - 1}{\rho_0 \frac{\tau_0}{\tau} \cdot \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}} = \kappa = \frac{\mu_0 - 1}{\rho_0} \therefore \mu - 1 = (\mu_0 - 1) \frac{\tau_0}{\tau} \cdot \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}$$

Position and Shape of interference fringes.

Let BC, BC' be two
 mirrors (fig 2) & S

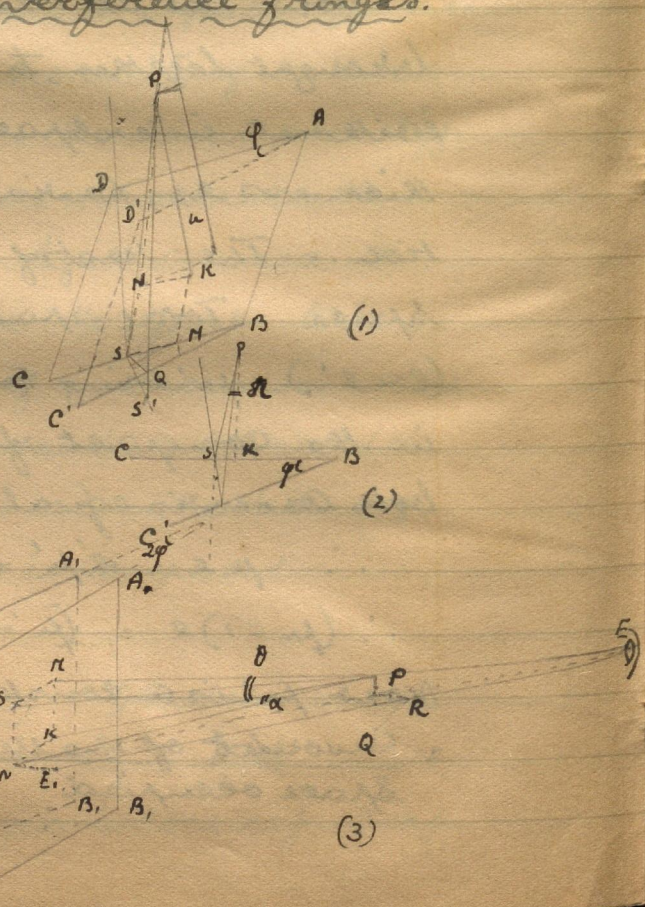
be a light point on the
 surface BC . Let S' be

the image of S & P the
 point of at which the
 interference

image is sought. P need
 not necessarily be in
 the plane of the paper.

through P draw PK
 normal to the first
 mirror

The path difference Δ



between the rays reflected at the two surfaces is $2l \cos \theta$ where l = thickness of the film at S & $K = L S S Q = L S P K$

Let $A, B, C, D, A', B', C', D'$ be two plane images inclined at an $L 2\phi$ (ϕ being inclination between the mirrors); and let their line of intersection be ll to A, B . Let P, K describe the rectangle (fig 3) $SPKN$, K, N being ll to A, B . Let l_0 be the thickness of the film at K . Thickness at S = that at N = $l \therefore l = l_0 + NK \tan \phi$.

Let $L N P K = \alpha$ & $L K P N = \theta$

$\therefore l = l_0 + u \tan \alpha \tan \phi$.

$$\cos \theta = \cos \widehat{SPK} = \frac{PK}{SP} = \frac{u}{(SK^2 + u^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$= \frac{u \theta}{(u^2 + NS^2 + NK^2)^{1/2}} = \frac{u}{(u^2 + u^2 \tan^2 \theta + u^2 \tan^2 \alpha)^{1/2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1 + \tan^2 \theta + \tan^2 \alpha)^{1/2}}$$

$$\therefore \Delta = 2 (l_0 + u \tan \alpha \tan \phi) \frac{1}{(1 + \tan^2 \theta + \tan^2 \alpha)^{1/2}}$$

Thus Δ may have all possible values for different values of α & θ . But if the beam is supposed to be limited, say by a pupil at the difference in Δ can be made small. The interference fringe is most definite when for given maximum values of α & θ , the variation of Δ is a minimum i.e. $\frac{d\Delta}{d\theta}$ & $\frac{d\Delta}{d\alpha}$ are both zero.

$$\Delta = \frac{2(e_0 + u \tan \alpha \tan \varphi)}{(1 + \tan^2 \alpha + \tan^2 \theta)^{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{d\Delta}{d\theta} = \frac{2(e_0 + u \tan \alpha \tan \varphi) \tan \theta \sec^2 \theta \times -\frac{1}{2}}{(1 + \tan^2 \alpha + \tan^2 \theta)^{3/2}}$$

which is zero if

$$e_0 = -u \tan \alpha \tan \varphi \quad \text{or if}$$

$$\theta = 0$$

In the former case Δ becomes zero,

\therefore the condition for $\frac{d\Delta}{d\theta}$ being zero is

$$\theta = 0.$$

$$\frac{d\Delta}{d\alpha} = \frac{2 \left[(1 + \tan^2 \alpha + \tan^2 \theta)^{1/2} (u \tan \varphi \sec^2 \theta) \right] - \left[(e_0 + u \tan \alpha \tan \varphi) \frac{1}{2} (1 + \tan^2 \alpha + \tan^2 \theta)^{-1/2} 2 \tan \alpha \sec^2 \alpha \right]}{(1 + \tan^2 \alpha + \tan^2 \theta)}$$

which is zero if

$$(1 + \tan^2 \alpha + \tan^2 \theta) u \tan \varphi = (l_0 + u \tan \alpha \tan \varphi) \tan \alpha$$

i.e. if $(1 + \tan^2 \theta) u \tan \varphi = l_0 \tan \alpha$

Since by the former condition $\theta = 0$

$$u \tan \varphi = l_0 \tan \alpha$$

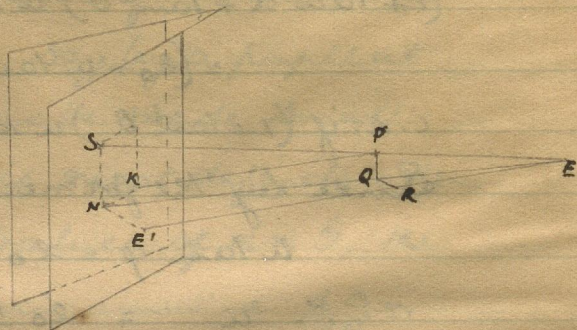
$$\therefore u = l_0 \frac{\tan \alpha}{\tan \varphi}$$

1) When l_0 is not small zero nor a small quantity which approaches zero, $\theta \neq 0$ also is not zero, i.e. if the film is wedge shaped and of large thickness, u can have any value. Hence, in fact the position of the image is indeterminate.

2) When $\varphi = 0$ but $l_0 \neq 0$, as in Michelson's, $u = \infty$, the fringes are formed at infinity.

3) When l approaches zero $\theta \neq 0$, as in Haidinger's fringes, $u = 0$, the fringes are formed on the surface of the mirror itself.

Let the fringe at P
 be viewed by an eye
 placed at Q. Draw
 PQ' normal to the
 surface. Let a plane
 through P // to SNK
 LNK & E'E at Q & R.



ferred to R let P be (x, y) , QR = x & PQ = y.
 In the former case Δ

$$= \frac{2(e_1 + u_1 \tan \varphi \tan \widehat{NEE'})}{(1 + \tan^2 \widehat{NEE'} + \tan^2 NES)^{1/2}}$$

where $e_1 = E'E$, $u_1 =$ thickness at E'.

Let PE = v

$$\Delta = \frac{2(e_1 + u_1 \tan \varphi \cdot \frac{x}{v})}{(1 + \frac{x^2}{v^2} + \frac{y^2}{v^2})^{1/2}}$$

$$= \frac{2(e_1 v + u_1 \tan \varphi x)}{(v^2 + x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$\therefore \Delta^2 (v^2 + x^2 + y^2) = 4(e_1 v + u_1 x \tan \varphi)^2$$

$$\Delta^2 y^2 = x^2 (4u_1^2 \tan^2 \varphi - \Delta^2) +$$

$$+ 8v e_1 u_1 \tan \varphi +$$

$$+ (4e_1 v^2 - \Delta^2 v^2)$$

The above eqn is a ~~parabola~~^{hyper}, ~~hyperbol~~^{para}

or ellipse according as

$4u^2 \tan^2 \phi - \Delta^2$ is +ve, zero or -ve.
ie $4u^2 \tan^2 \phi \gtrless \Delta^2$.

In Faimin's all three conditions are possible, & the fringes can have any of the above shapes.

In Nicolson's $\phi = 0 \therefore 4u^2 \tan^2 \phi < \Delta^2$ & further the term in x vanishes & the coeffs of $x^2 + y^2$ are equal. Hence the fringes are Ovals with the ϕ projection of C viz C' as Centre.

In the fringes of Fabry & Perot, Lummer & Gehrke, & Fraunhofer's the fringes are again Ovals since $\phi = 0$.

26-2-'38

Diffraction

The intensity of light at any pt is \propto the sq. of the amplitude, and when a pt. is illuminated by ll light, we may consider the amplitude or displacement

Let the pt O to be that due to wavelets starting from various points on a plane wavefront

B. For the easy calculation

the resultant displacement

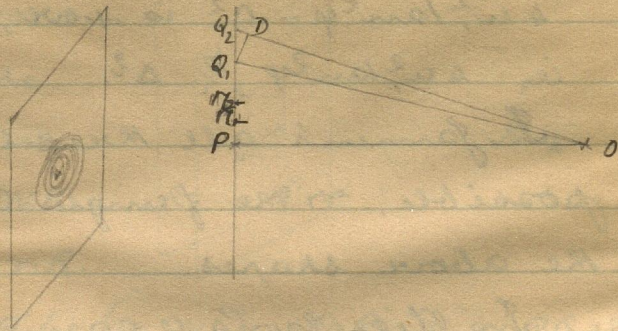
divide the wavefront into

that are called half period zones. Let OP be normal to AB $\perp = b$. Spheres with O as centre & radii $b + \frac{\lambda}{2}, b + 2\frac{\lambda}{2}, + \dots$ are described striking the AB in Ols which have P as centre. Areas enclosed between consecutive Ols are e.h. p. zones.

Resultant amplitude at O due to wavelets from a zone depend on

- 1) area of the zone
- 2) Distance of the zone from O
- 3) Phase of the wavelets
- 4) Obliquity of propagation.

1) Area: Let Q_1, Q_2 be the bounding surface



lines of the n^{th} zone.

$$\text{Area} = \pi OQ_2^2 - \pi OQ_1^2$$

$$= \pi (OQ_2^2 - OQ_1^2)$$

$$= \pi (OQ_1 + OQ_2) \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

$$= \pi \lambda r \text{ where } r = \text{mean distance}$$

of the zone from O

\therefore Area varies directly as the distance r .

Since displacement \propto area, other factors being constant, we have displacement $\propto r$

2) Intensity varies inversely as r^2 ,
i.e. displacement $\propto \frac{1}{r}$ other factors being equal.

Hence due to (1) & (2) together, the displacement is not affected, the effect due to one being cancelled by the other.

3) The average phase of wavelets from a zone is behind that of wavelets from first zone by $\frac{\lambda}{2}$ or π . Hence resultant amplitudes due to wavelets from alternate zones are of opposite sign.

4) The displacement must vary with

the obliquity of the wavelet, it must be a function of x . Hence if A = Displacement due any zone, & A' that due to the other zone

$$A = a f(x) \quad \text{where } a = \text{a const.}$$

$$A' = a f\left(x + \frac{\lambda}{2}\right) = a \left\{ f(x) + \frac{\lambda}{2} f'(x) \right\}$$

$$\therefore A - A' = ax - \frac{\lambda}{2} f'(x)$$

Stokes gives the effect of obliquity to vary as $\cos \theta$ where θ is the \angle made by

$$O \text{ to } PO \quad \therefore \cos \theta = \frac{b}{r}$$

$$\therefore f(x) = \frac{b}{r} ; \quad f'(x) = - \frac{b}{r^2}$$

$$\therefore A - A' = \frac{ab\lambda}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{r^2}$$

Hence the diminution is $\propto \frac{1}{r^2}$

If d_1, d_2, d_3, \dots be displacements due different zones, & d_1 is +ive, due to (1) & (2)

, $= d_2 = \dots$; due to (3) d_2 is -ive, d_3 is +ive

& due to (4) $d_1 > d_2 > d_3 > \dots$ though

differences $d_1 - d_2, d_2 - d_3, \dots$ are very small.

$$d_2 = \frac{d_1 + d_3}{2}, \dots$$

Resultant Displacement at O

$$= d_1 - d_2 + d_3 - \dots = d_1 - \frac{d_1 + d_3}{2} + d_3 - \dots$$

$$= \frac{d_1}{2}$$

The intensity is $\frac{1}{4}$ that due to the 1st zone alone.

If the first few zones are covered by an opaque body, the intensity is small, but not zero. If many zones are covered intensity is practically zero. Hence the truth of rectilinear propagation of light.

Graphical representation of diffraction

The ordinary polygon method for vibrations of the same period and along the same line but of different amplitudes and phases can be applied here.

The method for two vibrations

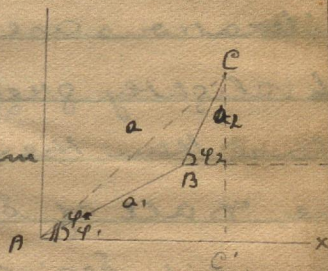
$$y_1 = a_1 \sin(\omega t + \phi_1)$$

$$\text{or } y_2 = a_2 \sin(\omega t + \phi_2)$$

is illustrated in the diagram

The resultant S. H. M.

$y = a \sin(\omega t + \phi)$ is the orthogonal projection of C, where ABC is a Δ , $AB = a_1$, $BC = a_2$, $\angle BAX = \phi_1$, $\angle BCX = \phi_2$, $AC = a$ & $\angle CAX = \phi$.



The result can be proved analytically

$$y = y_1 + y_2 = a_1 \sin(\omega t + \phi_1) + a_2 \sin(\omega t + \phi_2)$$

$$a \sin(\omega t + \phi) = a_1 \sin(\omega t + \phi_1) + a_2 \sin(\omega t + \phi_2)$$

$$a \cos \phi = a_1 \cos \phi_1 + a_2 \cos \phi_2 \quad (1)$$

$$a \sin \phi = a_1 \sin \phi_1 + a_2 \sin \phi_2 \quad (2)$$

$$a^2 = a_1^2 + a_2^2 + 2a_1 a_2 \cos(\phi_2 - \phi_1)$$

$$\text{But } a^2 = a_1^2 + a_2^2 + 2a_1 a_2 \cos(\phi_2 - \phi_1)$$

$$\therefore a = a$$

Besides eqns (1) & (2) are satisfied if $\phi = \angle CAX$.

What has been proved of 2 S.H.M., can be proved about any number of S.H.M.'s.

When the

successive component

vibrations are each

slightly greater

than the preceding

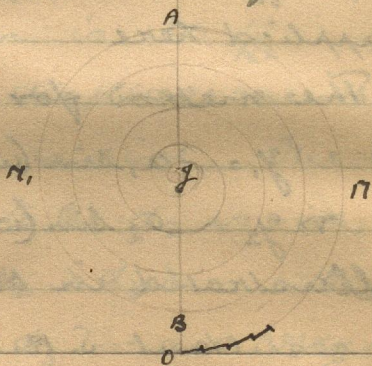
one, & all of small

amplitudes, as happens

in the plane wave front,

the polygon takes the form of a curve.

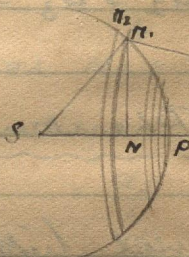
At the boundary of the 1st h.p. zone, the phase



is π \therefore so the line is \perp to the x -axis but in the -ve direction. \therefore The polygon for the 1st h. p. zone is a semi circle OA \therefore the resultant amplitude is OA \therefore has phase $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Due to sub h. p. zone the polygon is $A'A''B$, B being slightly higher than O . Taking all the h. p. zones together we shall have a spiral starting at O \therefore ending at G . OG is $\frac{a}{2}$ \therefore gives the resultant amplitude for all the h. p. zones together

3-3-'38 Spherical or cylindrical wave front.

H. p. zones are constructed as in the previous case.



Area of the n^{th}

h. p. zone, bounded by r_1, r_2 is

$$2\pi r_1 \times r_2 \sin \theta = 2\pi a \sin \theta \times a d\theta$$

where a = radius SP , $\theta = \angle r_1 SP$

$$A = 2\pi a^2 \sin \theta d\theta.$$

The distance OR , = r of the zone from O

is given by $r^2 = a^2 + (a+b)^2 - 2a(a+b) \cos \theta$.

$$2r dr = 2a(a+b) \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$\therefore \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{r dr}{a(a+b)} \quad \text{In this case}$$

$$dr = \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

$$\therefore \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{r \lambda}{2a(a+b)}$$

$$\therefore A = 2\pi a^2 \times \frac{r \lambda}{2a(a+b)}$$

$$= \frac{\pi a r \lambda}{(a+b)} \quad \text{area} \propto r$$

The other three factors on which displacement at O depends viz phase, distance obliquity are as in a plane wave front.

Total displacement at O

$$= a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - \dots$$

$$= \frac{a_1}{2}$$

Diffraction Phenomena

are classified into

a) Fresnel type

b) Fraunhofer type

In the Fresnel type, both source & pattern are at finite distance; whereas in Fraunhofer type they are at infinite distance i.e.

rays are collimated on to the object causing the pattern to then be viewed through a telescope adjusted for ill beams, as in a spectrometer.

a) Fresnel type

1) Diffraction at a straight edge.

cf B. A. Notes. Let

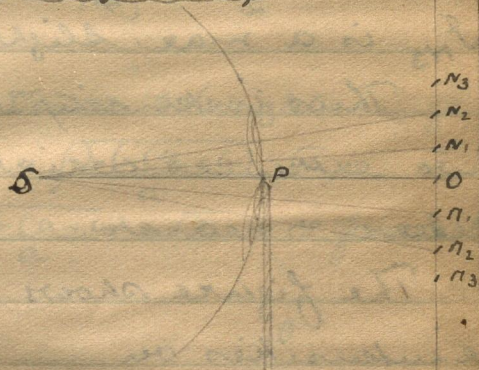
S being the source,

to P the st. edge,

at to O the pt

where SP meets

the screen.



$$\text{At } O, d = \frac{d_1}{2} - \frac{d_2}{2} + \dots = \frac{d_1}{4} \quad \mathcal{I}_O = \frac{d_1^2}{16}$$

At N_1 , which is such that P is just above

the 1st h. p. zone,

$$d = -\frac{d_2}{2} + \frac{d_3}{2} - \dots = -\frac{d_2}{4} \quad \mathcal{I}_{N_1} = \frac{d_2^2}{16} <$$

$$\text{At } N_2 \quad d = \frac{d_3}{2} - \frac{d_4}{2} + \dots = \frac{d_3}{4} \quad \mathcal{I}_{N_2} = \frac{d_3^2}{16} <$$

The intensity goes on diminishing.

$$\text{At } N_1, d = d_1 - \frac{d_2}{2} + \frac{d_3}{2} - \dots = \frac{d_1}{2} + \frac{d_1}{4} = \frac{3d_1}{4}$$

$$\mathcal{I}_{N_1} = \frac{9d_1^2}{16} \quad (\text{a max. value})$$

$$\text{At } N_2 \quad d = d_1 - d_2 + \frac{d_3}{2} - \dots = (d_1 - d_2) + \frac{d_3}{4}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{d_1}{4} + \frac{3d_1}{4} - \frac{d_1 + d_3}{2} + \frac{d_3}{4} \\
 &= \frac{d_1}{4} + \frac{d_1}{4} - \frac{d_3}{4} \\
 &= \frac{d_1}{4} + \text{a small quantity}
 \end{aligned}$$

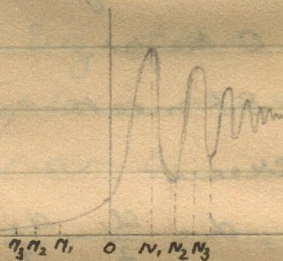
I_{N_2} is a min. slightly $>$ than I_0 .

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_{N_3} &= d_1 + d_2 + d_3 - \frac{d_4}{2} + \dots \\
 &= \frac{d_1}{2} + \frac{d_3}{4} = \frac{3d_1}{4} - \text{a small quantity}
 \end{aligned}$$

I_{N_3} is a max. slightly $<$ than I_{N_1} .

Thus intensity varies between two extremes which themselves come closer & nearer.

The figure shows intensities on both sides of



the max. & mini. at

n_1, n_2, \dots & the gradual fall to zero along ON_1, ON_2, \dots

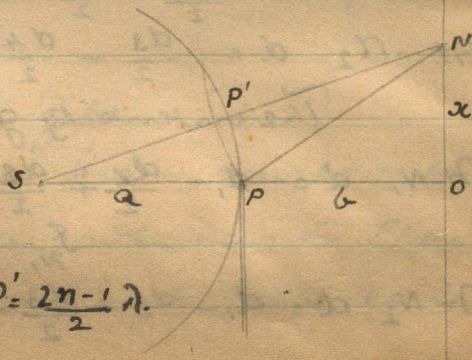
Bandwidth

N is the position of

a n^{th} dark band if

$$NP - NP' = n\lambda \quad \text{it is}$$

$$\text{a } n^{\text{th}} \text{ bright band if } NP - NP' = \frac{2n-1}{2}\lambda.$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore n\lambda \text{ or } \frac{2n-1}{2}\lambda &= (b^2+x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} - \left\{ (a+b^2+x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} - a \right\} \\
 &= b \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{2b^2} \right) - \left\{ (a+b) \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{2a+b^2} \right) - a \right\} \\
 &= \frac{x^2}{2b} - \frac{x^2}{2(a+b)} = \frac{x^2}{2} \cdot \frac{a}{b(a+b)} \\
 \therefore x &= \sqrt{\frac{2\lambda b(a+b)}{a}} \cdot \sqrt{n} \quad \text{for dark bands} \\
 &= \left\{ (2n-1) \lambda b(a+b) / a \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sqrt{\dots} \quad \text{bright}
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e. The alternate dark & bright rings are at distances zero, $\sqrt{\frac{\lambda b(a+b)}{a}} \sqrt{1}$, $\sqrt{\frac{\lambda b(a+b)}{a}} \times \sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{\frac{\lambda b(a+b)}{a}} \times \sqrt{3}$... from central dark fringe.

Amplitude spiral

Here we take the upper spiral to represent displacements due to wavelets from points above P & the lower spiral for the same from below P. $\therefore OA = \frac{d_1}{2} \text{ or } \frac{d_1}{4}$.



N_3
 N_2
 N_1
 O
 M_1
 M_2
 M_3

at O , displacements

are due to the upper

half only \therefore the

amplitude spiral

will have the form:



displacement is $d_0 = \frac{a_1}{4}$

Intensity $I_0 = \frac{I}{16}$ where $I = a_1^2$

At N_1 , the lower half of the 1st h.p. zone

also is effective.



Hence we have

amplitude $d_{N_1} = d_1 + \frac{a_1}{2} = \frac{3d_1}{4}$

$$I_{N_1} = \frac{9I}{16}$$

At N_2 the ~~two~~ spiral is (3)

amplitude is slightly $>$ d_0 , but

nearly equal $\therefore I_{N_2}$ is nearly



$\frac{I}{16}$

For M_2 the spiral is (4)

amplitude is only slightly

less than d_0 $\therefore I_{M_2}$ is very

nearly equal to I_0 , but yet smaller.

At a pt far below O , the ampl.

is very small; the pt is practically dark.

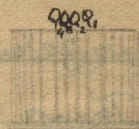


(4)

(5)

Narrow wire

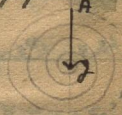
The pattern consists of interference bands in the centre and diffraction bands on the two sides.



Within the shadow:—



Take a pt Q, such that the wire hides 1st h.p. zone both in upper & of lower halves, & 2^{nd} h.p. zones of in their lower halves only.



The resultant is No (1) & the

$$\text{amp. is } Ag + A'g' = Ag - g'a'$$

which is very nearly zero. Hence we see a dark band.



Let Q₂ be another pt, lower, such that of the upper halves of the h.p. zones the 1st & half of the 2nd & of the lower halves 1st, & 2nd & half of the third are hidden. Resultant amp.



$$Ag + A'g' \text{ which is a max} = \frac{d}{2}$$

At Q₃ for which the first & 2nd in both

upper & lower halves are hidden

amp. is zero, hence a dark band. Thus we have dark &

light bands alternating at

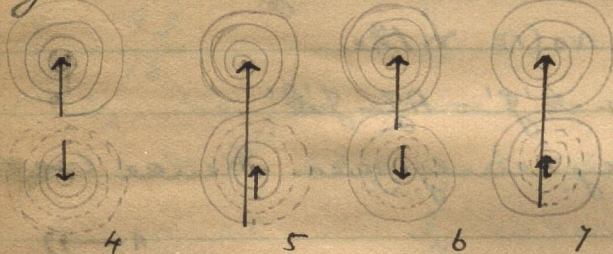
equal distances. But since $A'g - A'g'$ is not exactly zero, while in (3) it is

zero, we see that the dark bands on either side are not so perfectly defined as those at the centre.



(5)

Figures 4, 5, 6, 7, show the ampli-



the spirals at pts outside the geometrical shadow, O, N_1, N_2, N_3 respectively. The wire

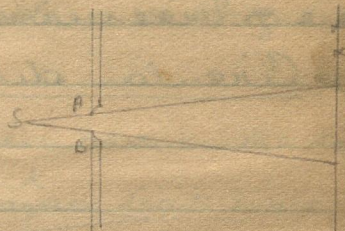
covers a certain fixed number ^(4 in the figure) of the lower halves of the h. p. zones. At O , the zones

hidden are 1-4, at N_1 , 2-5, at N_2 , 3-6 & on. Thus when the spirals are drawn we see that the pts of maximum & minimum

Brightness alternate with each other.

8-3-'38 3) Diffraction at a rectangular aperture.

As we proceed along
the screen outside the
geometrical shadow, pts
 π_1, π_2, \dots are reached



such that w. r. t. them AB comprises
the lower halves of 3, 4, ... etc h. p. zones

If it comprises 3 h. p. zones, say $3\frac{1}{2}\lambda$, $4\frac{1}{2}\lambda$
+ $5\frac{1}{2}\lambda$, illumination at π_1 is nearly

$$\left(\frac{d_3}{2} - \frac{d_4}{2} + \frac{d_5}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{d_3}{2}\right)^2 \text{ which is a max. If}$$

AB comprises 4 h. p. zones, say $4\frac{1}{2}\lambda$
at π_2 , illumination is practically zero.

$$B\pi_2 - A\pi_2 = 2\lambda \text{ while } B\pi_1 - A\pi_1 = 3\frac{\lambda}{2}$$

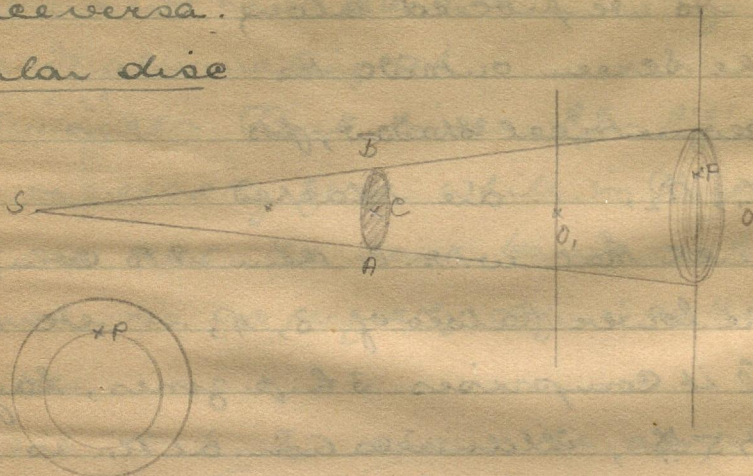
The bands are bright or dark according
as path difference $B\pi - A\pi$ is $(2n+1)\frac{\lambda}{2}$
or $2n\lambda$. The case is similar to sim

ple interference, the bands are equispaced
+ bandwidth = $\frac{b}{d}\lambda$.

The graphical method can be employed
here also as for the rectangular obsta

The difference being that while lines are
 dotted in the previous case are continuous
 here & vice versa.

Circular disc



Within the geometrical shadow and
 penumbra with it are seen a system of
 light and dark rings, caused by the
 interference of light bending round the
 edges of the disc. At O the centre, $PA - PB = 0$
 i.e. pt is bright. Let P be such that $PA - PB = \frac{\lambda}{2}$
 is the \therefore a dark point; All due to inter-
 ference of light from A & B, All pt's
 the ends of that diameter of the disc which
 till to OP. All pt's that distance OP are
 dark due to light bending round the ends of

their corresponding diameters. Beyond
 at P, where $AP_1 - AP_2 = \lambda$ there is a bright
 ring. Thus equispaced dark & bright
 fringes alternate.

By bringing the screen nearer the di
 the fringes gradually ^{shrink} ~~collapse~~ but none
 actually collapses. The centre always
 remains bright since it is always equi
 distant from A & B. The pt P comes
 nearer & nearer to O, thus reducing its
 brightness.

The brightness of O decreases beca
 the no. of h.p. zones covered by AB is
 gradually less & less. ^{more & more} At O brightness
 is say $(\frac{d_1}{5} + \frac{d_2}{5} - \dots)^2 = (d_4 + d_5 - \dots)$
 $= + \frac{d_4^2}{4}$ while at O, it will be
 $\frac{d_{10}^2}{4}$. Due to the δ & γ no. of h.p. zone
 covered.

Disc covers n h.p. zones if
 $SA + AD - SCO = n\lambda$
 i.e. $(a^2 + r^2)^{1/2} - (b^2 + r^2)^{1/2} - (a + b) = \frac{n\lambda}{2}$

$$a + \frac{r^2}{2a} + b + \frac{r^2}{2b} - a - b = \frac{n\lambda}{2}$$

$$\text{i.e. } r^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} \right) = n\lambda$$

$$\therefore b = \left(\frac{n\lambda}{\frac{r^2}{a}} - \frac{1}{a} \right) = \frac{r^2 a}{a n \lambda - r^2}$$

Thus as b decreases n increases,

causing less brightness at O .

Circular aperture

Outside the geometrical

image there are bright

and dark rings altern-

ating at equal distances. If e.g. is bright

$rB - rA = (2n+1) \frac{\lambda}{2}$ (as in the case of

a rectangular aperture) \therefore pts at distance

0 from O are all bright.

The illumination of at O depends upon

the no. of h. p. zones w. r. t. O comprised

by AB . If the no. of zones is odd the pt is

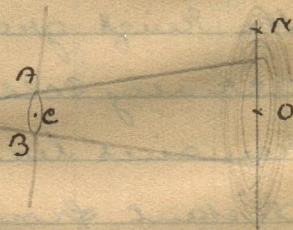
bright, if the no. is even the pt is dark.

Now the disc covers n h. p. zones if $SA + AO =$

$r + CO + n \frac{\lambda}{2} \therefore b = \frac{r^2 a}{a n \lambda - r^2}$. Thus as b

increases n increases from alternating

between odd & even numbers. \therefore The pt O



is successively dark and bright.

Love If white light is used instead of monochromatic, as the formula shows for the same value of n , as b will decrease λ increased. $\therefore O$ will pass through the spectrum colours from violet to red.

Familiar diffraction phenomena are the colours seen when looking through a fine silk kerchief, or when looking with a ^{partially open} squinted eye. In the latter case the eyelashes act as obstacles or apertures.

Love Plate of B.A. Notes Page 135

9-3-'31

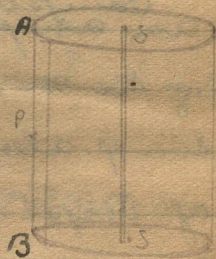
Fresnel's investigations on Diffraction
due to a cylindrical wave front.

Let SS be the slit, P the pole of the wave.

front w. r. t. O .

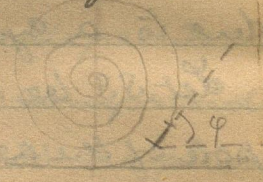
The wavefront can be divided into h.p.

zones, or into strips ll to AB . The displacement at O due to any strip can be supposed



be that due to a small effective portion
 at the middle. These portions of the different
 strips form an equilateral band. As we
 go along the band to from P to either
 side, distance from O increases. Fresnel
 assumed that at a short distance from
 O, the distance from O is so great that the
 consequent displacement at O can be neglected.
 He further neglected the effect of obliquity.

Let S be the distance of a pt P' on the
 band from P. The amplitude due to an
 element ds at P' can be assumed $\propto ds$
 the length of the element since obliquity is
 neglected. The displacement



as an ^{component} amplitude $ds \cos \varphi$
 along the x -axis & another
 $ds \sin \varphi$ along the y -axis (φ & being the phase
 at of displ. from P')

$\int \cos \varphi ds$ & $\int \sin \varphi ds$ give the sum of
 the components $\therefore I$ (intensity at O)

$$\left\{ \int \cos \varphi ds \right\}^2 + \left\{ \int \sin \varphi ds \right\}^2$$

$$\varphi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (r - b) \text{ where } r = OP' \text{ \& } b = OP$$

$$r^2 = (a+b)^2 + a^2 - 2a(a+b) \cos \frac{\delta}{a}$$

$$= b^2$$

$$= (a+b)^2 + a^2$$

$$- 2a(a+b) \left(1 - 2 \sin^2 \frac{\delta}{2a}\right) \quad \left[\frac{\delta}{a} \text{ being small}\right]$$

$$= (a+b)^2 + a^2 - 2a(a+b) \left(1 - \frac{\delta^2}{2a^2}\right)$$

$$= b^2 + \frac{a+b}{a} \delta^2$$

$$\therefore r^2 - b^2 = \frac{a+b}{a} \delta^2$$

$$r - b = \frac{a+b}{2ab} \delta^2 \text{ Since } 2b = r+b \text{ nearly}$$

$$\therefore \varphi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{a+b}{2ab} \delta^2$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \text{ where } \delta^2 = \frac{4(a+b)}{\lambda 2ab} v^2$$

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda ab}{2(a+b)}} v$$

$$\therefore \int \cos \varphi ds = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda ab}{2(a+b)}} \int \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 dv$$

$$\pi \int \sin \varphi ds = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda ab}{2(a+b)}} \int \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 dv$$

$$\int \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 dv = \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \times v + \int v \cdot \pi v dv \sin \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$= A + \pi \int \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 d \frac{v^3}{3}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= A + \frac{B}{2} v^2 - \frac{v^3 \pi}{3} - \int \frac{v^3 \pi}{3} \cdot \pi v dv \cdot \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \\
&= A + B - \int \frac{\pi^2}{3} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 d\left(\frac{v^5}{5}\right) \\
&= A + B - \frac{\cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \cdot v^5 \pi^2}{3 \cdot 5} - \int \frac{v^5 \pi^2}{3 \cdot 5} \cdot \pi v dv \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \\
&= A + B - C - \int \frac{v^2}{3 \cdot 5} \cdot \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 d\left(\frac{v^7}{7}\right) \\
&= A + B - C - \frac{\sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \cdot \pi^3 v^7}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7} + \dots \\
&= \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \left\{ v - \frac{\pi^2 v^5}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5} + \frac{\pi^4 v^9}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 9} - \dots \right\}^M \\
&+ \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \left\{ \frac{\pi v^3}{1 \cdot 3} - \frac{\pi^3 v^7}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7} + \frac{\pi^5 v^{11}}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 9 \cdot 11} - \dots \right\}^N \\
&= M \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 + N \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2.
\end{aligned}$$

By it can be shown that $\int \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 = M \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 - N \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2$.

$$\begin{aligned}
I &= \left(\int_a^b \cos \varphi ds \right)^2 + \left(\int_a^b \sin \varphi ds \right)^2 = \frac{\lambda ab}{2(a+b)} \left\{ \left(\int_0^v \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 dv \right)^2 + \left(\int_0^v \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 dv \right)^2 \right\} \\
&= \frac{\lambda ab}{2(a+b)} \left\{ \left(M \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 + N \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \right)^2 + \left(M \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 - N \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \right)^2 \right\}
\end{aligned}$$

$$= \lambda ab \cdot (\pi^2 + \nu^2)$$

On examining the

values for

$$\int_0^{\nu} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \nu^2 d\nu \quad \&$$

$$\int_0^{\nu} \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \nu^2 d\nu$$

for values of ν ranging

from zero to ∞ , it is seen that the former

has maxima & minima values alter-

nating when $\nu = \sqrt{1}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5} \dots$ the values gradually approaching $\frac{1}{2}$.

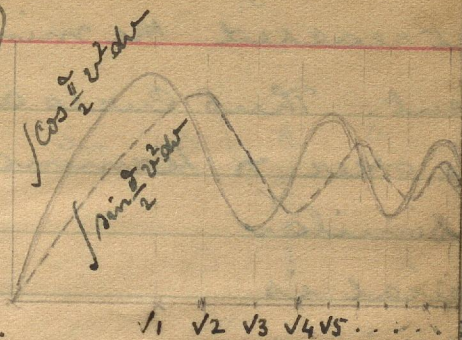
The latter too has maxima & minima values alternating when ν is $\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{4}, \sqrt{6}$.

The values here also gradually approach $\frac{1}{2}$.

(See page 296 of Preston)

Taking $\int_0^{\nu} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \nu^2 d\nu$ on the x-axis
& $\int_0^{\nu} \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \nu^2 d\nu$ on the y-axis. Connect
drew a spirals the shape of which
is shown below.

When x reaches its max. y is still
increasing. Hence the curve bends back
at π_1 . At π_2 y has its max, but x has



it reached the minimum, hence the 2nd
 out. Thus curls are formed one within
 another & terminate at the pt $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$.

Similar

spiral is

obtained

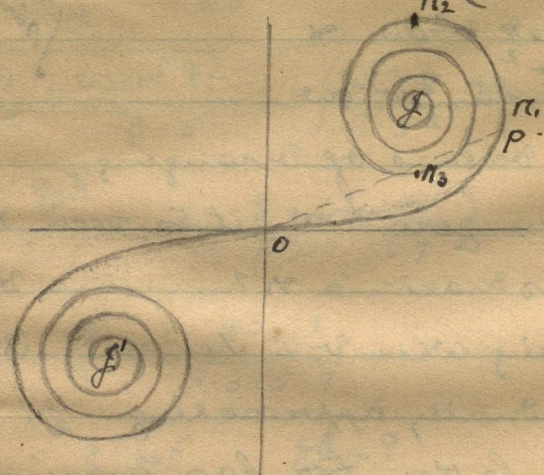
in the 4th

quadrant

giving

negative values

&c.



The radius vector $OP = r$ joining the origin
 any pt on the curve is $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

r^2 represent the intensity due to ele-
 ments comprised between O & P ; r is
 amplitude of vibration, $\angle POx$ is the
 phase.

The spiral is \therefore the amplitude spiral.

r_2 is the 1st h.p. zone, r_1, r_3 the 2nd & so on.

Diffraction pattern by a st. edge.

11-3-'38

Intensity at any pt is $(\int C dw)^2 + (\int S dw)^2$

$$\left[\text{where } C = \cos \frac{\pi}{2} v^2 \right]$$

$$S = \sin \frac{\pi}{2} v^2$$

with proper limits

for v .

Let x be at distance

$$x \text{ from } 0. \quad \frac{x}{a+b} = \frac{\delta}{a}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore x &= \delta \cdot \frac{a+b}{a} = \delta \cdot \frac{a+b}{a} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\lambda ab}{2(a+b)}} v \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\lambda ab (a+b)^2}{a^2 2(a+b)}} v \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\lambda b (a+b)}{2a}} v \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \theta = kx$ where

$$k = \sqrt{\frac{2a}{\lambda b (a+b)}}$$

Illumination at x

$$= \left(\int_0^\infty C dv \right)^2 + \left(\int_0^\infty S dv \right)^2$$

$$= \left(\int_0^\infty C dv - \int_0^v C dv \right)^2 + \left(\int_0^\infty S dv - \int_0^v S dv \right)^2$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2} - C_v \right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2} - S_v \right)^2$$

$$\text{where } C_v = \int_0^v C dv \quad \text{and } S_v = \int_0^v S dv$$

When x has diff. values, the corresponding

values of v can be calculated. π from
 Libert's table $\int_0^{\infty} C v dv$ & $\int_0^{\infty} S v dv$ can be
 read. Thus I_N can be calculated.

λ	v	Cv	Sv	$\frac{1}{2} Cv$	$\frac{1}{2} Sv$	I_N
0	0	0	0	.5	.5	.5
—	.5	.494	.065	.008	.435	.189
—	1.0	.780	.434	-.28	.066	.084
—	1.5	.444	.698	-.056	.198	.042
—	2.0	.488	.343	.012	.157	.026
—	2.5	.457	.619	.043	.119	.015

Thus we see that as λ recedes from
 0, I_N goes on diminishing at first
 rapidly & then slowly.

At a pt N above 0, the intensity

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_N & \text{ is } \left(\int_{-v}^{\infty} C v dv \right)^2 + \left(\int_{-v}^{\infty} S v dv \right)^2 \\
 & = \left(\int_0^{\infty} C v dv + \int_0^v C v dv \right)^2 + \left(\int_0^{\infty} S v dv + \int_0^v S v dv \right)^2 \\
 & = \left(\frac{1}{2} + C v \right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2} + S v \right)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

v	C	S	$\frac{1}{2} + C$	$\frac{1}{2} + S$	I_N	
0	0	0	.5	.5	.5	Min
1	.78	.44	1.28	.94	2.57	
1.2	.72	.62	1.22	1.12	2.65	Max.
1.5	.45	.70	.95	1.20	2.34	
1.9	.39	.37	.89	.87	1.54	Min.
2.2	.64	.46	1.14	.96	2.23	
2.4	.56	.62	1.06	1.12	2.31	Max.
2.8	.47	.39	.97	.89	1.73	Min.

The table shows how intensity varies between maxima & minima, giving a graph of the kind on page 62.

Merits and defects of Fresnel's theory.

The assumptions made about 3 of the four factors ^(Page 54) are untenable. Area of the zone is taken \propto to the amplitude. Distance of the zone is not considered different for different zones since the strip is narrow $\approx k + \frac{1}{2} \approx 2.6$ according to Fresnel. The factor of obli-

ity is not mentioned at all. Nor is it possible that ^{obliquity} phase \propto distance thus unaccounted can cancel each other. The amp. due to a farther zone is less both \propto to obliquity and due to distance.

Yet in spite of these ~~transparent~~ ^{outstanding} errors, the final result agrees closely at least qualitatively with the experimental observations. The reason is that inadvertently the function $\int e^{i\phi} r$ or $\int S dr$ included a ^{law} ~~function~~ of obliquity as can be seen in the following correct formula. This law is called the fortuitous law of obliquity. Amplitude varies as a function of obliquity, as the area dS of an element, \propto $\sin^2 \theta$ and inversely as the distance of the dS element.

Let f be the function of obliquity.

Area of a h.p. zone $\propto r \times \frac{\lambda}{2}$

Area of a small element $\propto r \times d\phi$

where $d\phi$ is the phase change between the

extremes of the element.

$$\therefore \text{amplitude} \propto \int \frac{ds}{r} \propto \int \frac{r d\varphi}{r} \propto \int d\varphi$$

This has a component of $d\varphi \cos \varphi$ along the x -axis \therefore the sum of the x components = $\int f \cos \varphi d\varphi$.

If Fresnel's result $\int f \cos \frac{\delta}{2} v^2 dv$ is to be correct, it should be identical with $\int f \cos \varphi d\varphi$.

$$\therefore \text{Let } f \propto \frac{a}{\sqrt{\varphi}} \propto \frac{a}{z} \text{ where } z = \sqrt{\varphi}$$
$$d\varphi = 2z dz$$

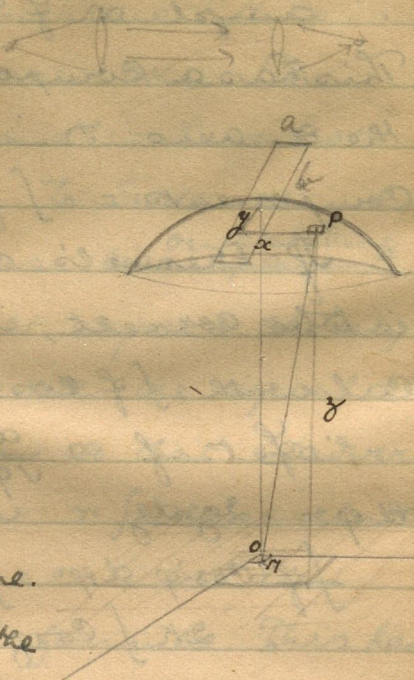
$$\int f \cos \varphi d\varphi = \int \pi \frac{a}{z} \cos z^2 \cdot 2z dz$$
$$= 2\pi \int \cos z^2 dz \text{ which is of the same form as } \int \cos \frac{\delta}{2} v^2 dv.$$

$$\therefore f = \frac{a}{\sqrt{\varphi}} \propto \frac{a}{\sqrt{\delta}} \propto \frac{a}{\sqrt{\kappa - b}}$$

Hence the fortuitous law of obliquity inadvertently introduced by Fresnel is that f varies inversely as the sq. root of the phase retardation, \therefore its decrease as we recede from the pole is very rapid. The assumption that only a narrow strip is effective becomes almost ^{correct}.

Fraunhofer Phenomena.

In Fraunhofer phenomena two lenses are used one collimate the rays to focus. The illumination at the pt O due to a concave wave surface. Let O be the origin, the screen || to the lens in the x, y plane.



Consider an element P on the wavefront (x, y, z) area dx dy. The vibration at P at time t is $a \sin \omega t = a \sin \frac{2\pi}{T} t$

Vibration at some pt R (η, ζ, 0) very near O, is $a \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{T} t + \frac{2\pi \rho}{\lambda} \right)$ [where ρ = PR]. Taking displacement x area

$$dx dy = a \sin 2\pi \left(\frac{t}{T} + \frac{\rho}{\lambda} \right) dx dy$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } \rho^2 &= (x - \eta)^2 + (y - \zeta)^2 + z^2 \\ &= x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + \eta^2 + \zeta^2 - 2x\eta - 2y\zeta \end{aligned}$$

$$\rho = \sqrt{R^2 + \xi^2 + \eta^2} \left(1 - \frac{x\eta + y\xi}{R^2 + \xi^2 + \eta^2} \right)$$

since ξ, η are small

$$= R \left(1 - \frac{x\eta + y\xi}{R^2} \right) = R - \frac{x\eta + y\xi}{R}$$

$$\therefore u_1 = \phi \sin 2\pi \left\{ \left(\frac{t}{T} + \frac{R}{\lambda} \right) - \frac{x\eta + y\xi}{R\lambda} \right\} dx dy$$

$$= \phi \sin 2\pi (A - B) \quad \text{where } A = \left(\frac{t}{T} + \frac{R}{\lambda} \right), B = \frac{x\eta + y\xi}{R\lambda}$$

$$\left\{ (\sin 2\pi A) \cos 2\pi B - (\cos 2\pi A) \sin 2\pi B \right\} dx dy$$

These are two S. H. M of period $\frac{1}{A}$ and frequency A , amplitudes $\cos 2\pi B dx dy$ & $\sin 2\pi B dx dy$ in directions at rt. ls to each other.

\therefore Resultant vibration at P due to the element has intensity

$$(\cos 2\pi B dx dy)^2 + (\sin 2\pi B dx dy)^2$$

\therefore Total intensity at P due to all the elements

$$= \left\{ \iint \cos 2\pi B dx dy \right\}^2 + \left\{ \iint \sin 2\pi B dx dy \right\}^2$$

15-3-'38

When a rectangular aperture is placed between the collimating lens & the objective of the telescope, the

intensity I can be found by giving the proper limits to the integral. Let a, b be the lengths of the aperture // to x, y

$$I = \left\{ \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} \int_{-b/2}^{b/2} \cos \frac{2\pi}{R\lambda} (x\eta + y\zeta) dx dy \right\}^2$$

$$+ \left\{ \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} \int_{-b/2}^{b/2} \sin \frac{2\pi}{R\lambda} (x\eta + y\zeta) dx dy \right\}^2$$

$$= \left\{ \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} \int_{-b/2}^{b/2} \cos (px + qy) dx dy \right\}^2$$

$$+ \left\{ \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} \int_{-b/2}^{b/2} \sin (px + qy) dx dy \right\}^2$$

where $p = \frac{2\pi\eta}{R\lambda}$ + $q = \frac{2\pi\zeta}{R\lambda}$

$$= \left\{ \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} \cos px dx \int_{-b/2}^{b/2} \cos qy dy \right\}^2$$

Since the four other terms which contain sine integrations reduce to

$$\int_{-a}^a \sin \theta d\theta = (-\cos \theta)_{-a}^a$$

$$= -\cos a + \cos a = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore I &= \left\{ \frac{1}{h} (\sin \pi a)^{+a/2}_{-a/2} \times \frac{1}{g} (\sin \pi y)^{+b/2}_{-b/2} \right\}^2 \\
 &= \left\{ \frac{2}{h} \sin \frac{\pi a}{2} \times \frac{2}{g} \sin \frac{\pi b}{2} \right\}^2 \\
 &= \left\{ \frac{\sin \frac{\pi a}{2}}{\frac{\pi a}{2}} \right\}^2 \times \left\{ \frac{\sin \frac{\pi b}{2}}{\frac{\pi b}{2}} \right\}^2 \times a^2 b^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Since h is a function of η & g of ξ , the intensity varies according as the coordinates of P vary.

Let $F = \left(\frac{\sin \varphi}{\varphi} \right)^2$. The variation of F will show how I varies.

F is max. or min when $F' = 0$

F is max when $F' = 0$ & F'' is $-ve$

F is min. when $F' = 0$ & F'' is $+ve$

$$F' = 2 \frac{\sin \varphi}{\varphi} \times \frac{\varphi \cos \varphi - \sin \varphi}{\varphi^2}$$

F' is zero if

$$-\frac{\sin \varphi}{\varphi} = 0 \quad (1)$$

or if $\varphi = \tan \varphi. \quad (2)$

$$F' = 2 \frac{\sin \varphi}{\varphi} \times \frac{\varphi \cos \varphi - \sin \varphi}{\varphi^2}$$

$$F'' = 2 \left[\frac{\sin \varphi \left\{ \varphi^2 (-\varphi \sin \varphi + \cos \varphi - \cos \varphi) \right\}}{\varphi^4} - \frac{(\varphi \cos \varphi - \sin \varphi) \cdot 2\varphi}{\varphi^4} + \left\{ \frac{\varphi \cos \varphi - \sin \varphi}{\varphi^2} \right\}^2 \right]$$

When F' is +ive $\varphi = \tan \varphi$,

$$F'' = 2 \times \frac{\sin \varphi}{\varphi} \times -\frac{\sin \varphi}{\varphi} \text{ is -ive}$$

When $\frac{\sin \varphi}{\varphi} = 0$ $F'' = 2 \left(\frac{\varphi \cos \varphi - \sin \varphi}{\varphi^2} \right)^2$
 is +ive

F is max. when $\varphi = \tan \varphi$

F is min. when $\frac{\sin \varphi}{\varphi} = 0$.

The max. roots are found by drawing the curves of $y = \varphi$

to $y = \tan \varphi$, φ being the abscissa. The values of φ for which

$\varphi = \tan \varphi$ is satisfied are first zero,

0, then values less than $\frac{\pi}{2}$, $\frac{5\pi}{2}$, $\frac{9\pi}{2}$... by very small amounts.

The values

of F when $\varphi = 0$,

$\frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{5\pi}{2}, \dots$ are

$1, \frac{1}{23}, \frac{1}{56},$

$\frac{1}{110}$ etc.

F is min.

When $\sin \varphi = 0$,

i.e. $\sin \varphi = 0$

i.e. the values

are $\pi, 2\pi,$

$3\pi, \dots$

The minimum values of F are all z

Now illumination at any pt

$$(y, z) \text{ is } a^2 b^2 \left\{ \frac{\sin \frac{\pi a}{R\lambda} \cdot y}{\frac{\pi a}{R\lambda} \cdot y} \right\}^2 \times \left\{ \frac{\sin \frac{\pi b}{R\lambda} \cdot z}{\frac{\pi b}{R\lambda} \cdot z} \right\}^2$$

For any given value of z

the illumination varies bet. max &

min. according as $\frac{\pi a}{R\lambda} y$ has values

$0, \pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}, 2\pi, \frac{5\pi}{2}, 3\pi$ etc.

Thus there are dark lines \parallel to
the y -axis at distances $y = \frac{R\lambda}{a}, \frac{2R\lambda}{a}, \dots$

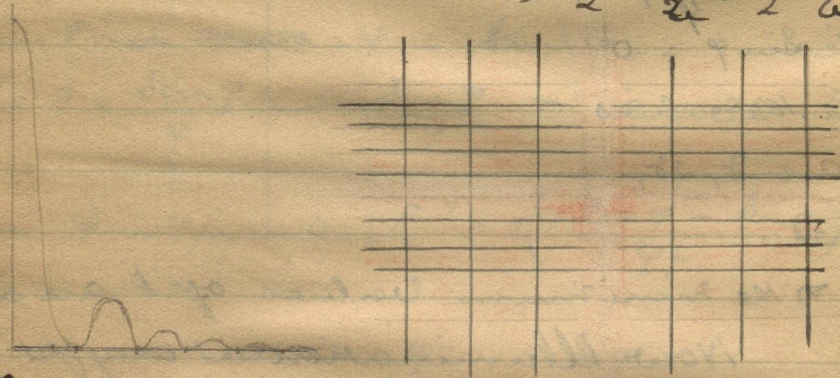
$y = \tan \varphi$

$z = \varphi$

$> 45^\circ$

At $\eta = 0$ there is a bright ^{band} patch of intensity
 ; at $\eta = \frac{3R\lambda}{2a}$ there is another bright patch
 of intensity $\frac{1}{2^2}$ etc.

Along the x -axis there are
 dark lines at distances $\frac{R\lambda}{a}, \frac{2R\lambda}{a}, \dots$
 bright lines of rapidly decreasing
 brightness at distances $0, \frac{3}{2} \frac{R\lambda}{a}, \frac{5}{2} \frac{R\lambda}{a}, \dots$



It is specially to be noticed that if
 the aperture is longer along the
 y -axis, the bright patch at the centre
 of the pattern is longer along the x -axis
 vice versa.

Diffraction pattern due to a slit.

It was shown above that when
 wavefront is restricted by a rectangular

aperture illumination at a pt (ξ, η)
 is given by

$$a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2 \frac{\gamma a \xi}{R \lambda}}{\left(\frac{\gamma a \xi}{R \lambda}\right)^2} \times \frac{\sin^2 \frac{\gamma b \eta}{R \lambda}}{\left(\frac{\gamma b \eta}{R \lambda}\right)^2}$$

Deviation of a ray starting from Z (the position of the slit) & coming to R from i.e. of the ray ZR from the ZY plane = θ

$$\angle NZR = \theta \text{ \& } \sin \theta = \frac{\xi}{ZR} \\ = \frac{\xi}{R} \text{ (R being ZO = ZR)}$$

to a first approximation)

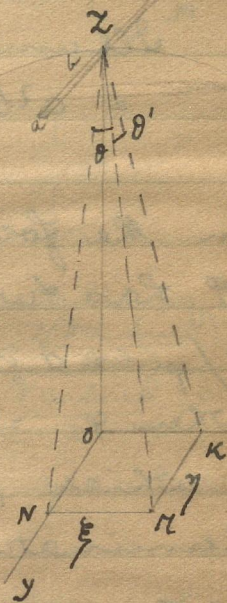
Only deviation θ' from the XZ plane is given by

$$\sin \theta' = \frac{\eta}{R}$$

\therefore Illumination at R (in polar coordinates)

$$= a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2 \frac{\gamma a \sin \theta}{\lambda}}{\left(\frac{\gamma a \sin \theta}{\lambda}\right)^2} \times \frac{\sin^2 \frac{\gamma b \sin \theta'}{\lambda}}{\left(\frac{\gamma b \sin \theta'}{\lambda}\right)^2}$$

If the ^{aperture} slit is replaced by an ^{slit} aperture
 b becomes very great



compared to α the deviation θ' becomes

zero $\therefore \sin \theta' = 0$. Hence the second
factor \approx unity for $\frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha}$ (let $\alpha \rightarrow 0$)
$$\alpha - \frac{\alpha^3}{6} + \dots = 1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{6} + \dots = 1$$

$$\therefore \text{Illumination at } \theta \\ = a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)}{\left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)^2}$$

As in the former case the function
 $\frac{\sin^2 \varphi}{\varphi^2}$ has turning values when φ

is $\varphi/\varphi = 0$ or when $\varphi = \tan \varphi$

when $\varphi = 0, = \frac{3\pi}{2}$ (nearly), $= \frac{5\pi}{2}$ (nearly)

etc which gives the maximum values
of illumination to $a^2 b^2, a^2 b^2 / \left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right)^2,$
... etc.

The min. values occur when $\varphi = \pi,$
 $2\pi, \dots$ etc & the min. values are zero.

Thus parallel to the slit a series of bands

are seen at distant points such that

$$\frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda} = \frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{5\pi}{2}, \dots$$

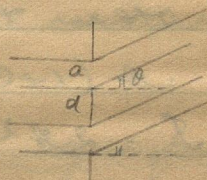
$$\text{i.e. } \sin \theta = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\lambda}{a}, \frac{5}{2} \frac{\lambda}{a}, \dots$$

Since θ is a function of λ , when the

Source is monochromatic, a series of spectra are seen. Fraunhofer named this series the spectra of the 1st Class.

Two equal & parallel slits.

Let a be the width of each slit & d the distance between them.



At inclination θ , illumination due to a single slit is

$$I = A^2 = a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)}{\left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)^2}$$

where A is the amplitude of vibration at the point in question.

The displacement at instant t is of the form $y_1 = A \sin \omega t$.

Due to the second slit there is a similar displacement, but with a phase lag $\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (a + \delta) \sin \theta = \epsilon$.

\therefore Displacement due to the second slit

$$\text{is } y_2 = A \sin(\omega t + \epsilon).$$

\therefore Resultant displacement

$$y = y_1 + y_2 = A \sin \omega t (1 + \cos \epsilon) + B \cos \omega t \sin \epsilon$$

∴ Illumination I at the ~~to~~ an angular ~~to~~ inclination θ is

$I = A^2 \{ (1 + \cos \epsilon)^2 + \sin^2 \epsilon \}$ since y is represented by 2 S. A. Ws at $t = t$ & each other ~~to~~ of amplitudes

$$A(1 + \cos \epsilon) \text{ \& } A \sin \epsilon$$

$$\text{i.e. } I = 2A^2 (1 + \cos \epsilon)$$

$$= 4A^2 \cos^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

$$= 4a^2b^2 \frac{\sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right) \cos^2 \left\{ \frac{\pi(a+d) \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right\}}{\left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)^2}$$

$\cos^2 \left\{ \frac{\pi(a+d) \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right\}$ has max. values

when $\frac{\pi(a+d) \sin \theta}{\lambda} = 0, \pi, 2\pi, \dots$

$$\text{i.e. } \sin \theta = 0, \frac{\lambda}{a+d}, \frac{2\lambda}{a+d}, \dots$$

The max. values of I at these inclinations are

$$4a^2b^2 \times \frac{\sin^2 0}{0} \times 1$$

$$= 4a^2b^2$$

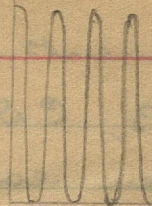
Thus a series of maxima each of intensity $4a^2b^2$ is seen at

values of θ given by $0, \frac{\lambda}{a+d}, \frac{2\lambda}{a+d}, \dots, \frac{n\lambda}{a+d}$ etc

Here again the inclination $\propto \lambda n$.

Coloured bands are

produced under monochromatic light. These Fraunhofer lines are the Spectra the 2nd class. These are evidently much more brilliant.

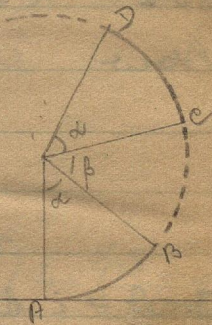


Any number of equal equispaced parallel slits or the Diffraction grating

The full theory of the diffraction grating is easily solved by reference to the amplitude spiral. The displacement curve due to the

first slit is the area AB of a \odot which subtends an L at the centre equal to $\alpha = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} a \sin \theta$.

Due to the opaque portion d the displacement from the 1st point in the 2nd slit is of phase not α but $\alpha + \beta$ where $\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} d \sin \theta$. The result



displacements are represented by
 rays AB, CD etc, & the phase
 lag between each is $\gamma = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (a \sin \theta)$

Let η be the phase of the displacement
 due to the first slit. The displacement

$$B = A^2 = \left\{ a^2 b^2 \sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right) / \left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right) \right\}^{1/2}$$

Sum of the x components of the
 n displacements is

$$X = A \{ \cos \eta + \cos(\eta + \gamma) + \dots + \cos(\eta + (n-1)\gamma) \}$$

Sum of the y components is

$$Y = A \{ \sin \eta + \sin(\eta + \gamma) + \dots + \sin(\eta + (n-1)\gamma) \}$$

The intensity at a given displacement
 is $I \propto X^2 + Y^2$

$$\text{Now } \cos \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{2i}$$

$$\cos \theta + i \sin \theta = e^{i\theta}$$

$$\cos \theta - i \sin \theta = e^{-i\theta}$$

Using these formula

$$X + iY = A \{ (\cos \eta + i \sin \eta) + \dots \}$$

$$= A \{ e^{i\gamma} + e^{i(\gamma+\gamma)} + \dots + e^{i(\gamma+n-1)\gamma} \}$$

$$= A e^{i\gamma} \left\{ \frac{e^{in\gamma} - 1}{e^{i\gamma} - 1} \right\}$$

$$\text{Similarly } x - iy = A \{ (\cos \gamma - i \sin \gamma) + \dots \}$$

$$= A \{ e^{-i\gamma} + e^{-i(\gamma+\gamma)} + \dots + e^{-i(\gamma+n-1)\gamma} \}$$

$$= A e^{-i\gamma} \left\{ \frac{e^{-in\gamma} - 1}{e^{-i\gamma} - 1} \right\}$$

$$f = x^2 + y^2 = (x + iy)(x - iy)$$

$$= A^2 \frac{(e^{in\gamma} - 1)(e^{-in\gamma} - 1)}{(e^{i\gamma} - 1)(e^{-i\gamma} - 1)}$$

$$= A^2 \left\{ \frac{2 - 2 \cos n\gamma}{2 - 2 \cos \gamma} \right\}$$

$$= A^2 \frac{\sin^2 \frac{n\gamma}{2}}{\sin^2 \frac{\gamma}{2}}$$

$$= A^2 a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2 \left(\frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right) \sin^2 \frac{n\pi}{\lambda} (a \sin \theta)}{\left(\frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)^2 \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{\lambda} (a \sin \theta)}$$

Now $\frac{\sin^2 n\alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha}$ is max. or min when $\frac{\sin n\alpha}{\sin \alpha} = 0$ or

$$\text{then } \sin \alpha \times n \cos n\alpha = \sin n\alpha \cos \alpha$$

when $\sin n\alpha = 0$ but $\sin \alpha$ is not zero

when $n \tan \alpha = \tan n\alpha$.

1) $\sin n\alpha = 0$ & $\sin \alpha \neq 0$ when

$\alpha = \pi, 2\pi, 3\pi$ etc. For these values

α , $I = A^2 \frac{\sin^2 n\alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha}$ becomes zero

hence these are minimum values.

$$= \frac{\pi}{\lambda} (\text{odd}) \sin d = \frac{\pi}{\lambda}; 2\frac{\pi}{\lambda}, 3\frac{\pi}{\lambda} \text{ etc.}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \sin d = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\lambda}{a+d}, \frac{2}{n} \frac{\lambda}{a+d}, \dots$$

Thus min-illum bands of zero illumination are seen at displacements

$$\text{given by } \sin d = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\lambda}{a+d}, \frac{2}{n} \frac{\lambda}{a+d} \dots \text{etc.}$$

2) $n \tan \alpha = \tan n\alpha$ when $\alpha = 0, \pi, 2\pi,$

\dots , etc. These will give the maximum

values of $\frac{\sin^2 n\alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha}$ to be n^2 .

$$\text{or } \frac{\sin^2 n\alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha} = \frac{\sin^2 n\alpha - \sin^2 m\pi}{\sin^2 \alpha - \sin^2 \pi}$$

high when $\alpha \rightarrow$

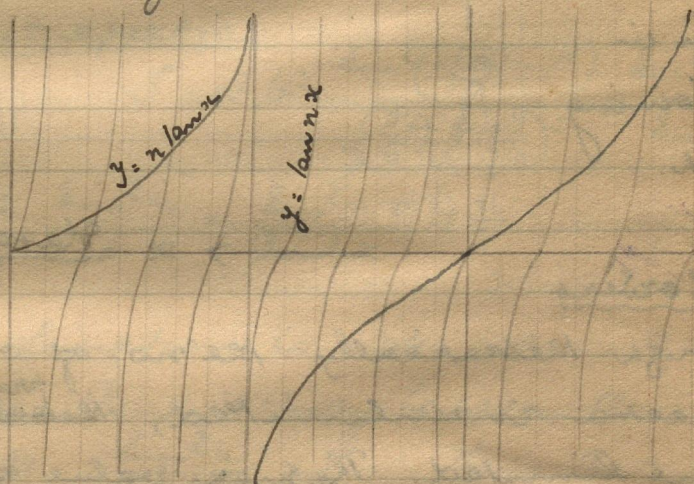
Hence the primary maxima values

occur when $\alpha = 0, \pi, 2\pi$ etc

$$\text{i.e. when } \sin d = \frac{\lambda}{a+d} \times 0, \frac{\lambda}{a+d}, \frac{\lambda}{a+d}, 2\lambda, \dots$$

The max. values are all $n^2 A^2$.

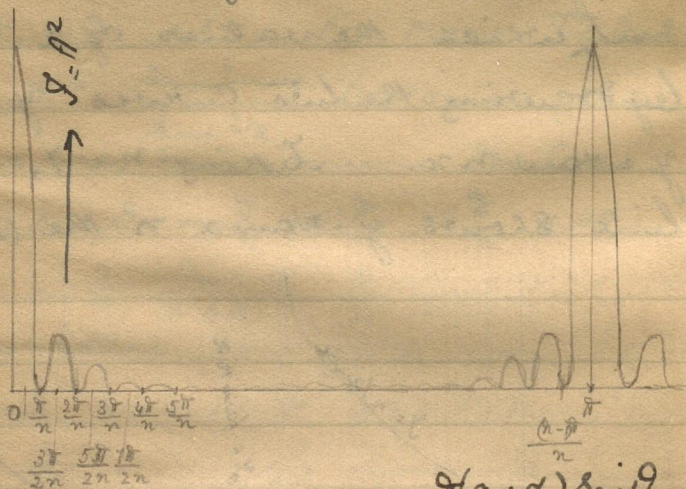
Now it is clear that between two adjacent primary maxima there are $(n-1)$ minima. There should be $(n-2)$ secondary maxima for which the values of x can be found by drawing the two curves $y = n \tan x$ & $y = \tan nx$. Taking $n = 7$, the inked line shows $y = 7 \tan x$ & the pencil line



show $y = \tan nx$. The graph shows that the roots of the eqn are nearly $\frac{3}{2} \frac{\pi}{n}, \frac{5}{2} \frac{\pi}{n}, \frac{7}{2} \frac{\pi}{n}$ etc & on calculation the secondary maxima will be seen to be much smaller than the primary maxi

a. The ~~1st~~ secondary nearest to the primary are about $\frac{1}{20} \frac{I_0}{I_1}$ the primary & hence almost dark compared to the primary. The result is that the images are seen very narrow.

The relative intensities & positions are shown in adjoining graph.



$$\rightarrow \alpha = \frac{D(a+d) \sin \theta}{\lambda}$$

No. of orders.

Though theoretically the no. of orders in spectra is unlimited, ~~theoretically~~ ^{practically} they are limited. The max. value of $\theta = 90^\circ$,

\therefore the max. value of $\alpha = \frac{D(a+d)}{\lambda}$. If the

n^{th} order is the greatest visible,

$$n = \frac{D(a+d)}{\lambda} \text{ i.e. } n = \frac{a+d}{\lambda \times \frac{1}{D}} = \frac{2.56}{5890 \times 10^8 \times 14000}$$

$$= 3.105$$

Thus only ^{up to} n the third order of sodium will

be visible on either side with a grating of 14,000 lines to the inch.

$\sin \theta = N n \lambda$ \therefore since $2 \lambda_{H\alpha} = 15300 \text{ \AA}$
 $\therefore 3 \lambda_{H\beta} = 12000 \text{ \AA}$, the 2nd order \therefore the 3rd order overlap. The violet of the 3rd order begins immediately after the sodium D_1, D_2 of the 2nd order. The overlapping is still greater in the higher orders.

Absent spectra

$$I = a^2 b^2 \cdot \frac{\sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)}{\left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)^2} \times \frac{\sin^2 n x}{\sin^2 x}$$

$$= a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} \times \frac{\sin^2 n x}{\sin^2 x}$$

The function is max. when $x = 0, \pi, 2\pi$ etc. But it may happen that when $x = n\pi$, $\frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} = 0$. Then that particular spectrum will be absent.

$\frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} = 0$ when $u = \pi, 2\pi, 3\pi$ etc.

$$\therefore \sin \theta = \frac{\lambda}{a}, \frac{2\lambda}{a}, \frac{3\lambda}{a}$$

$$\frac{\sin^2 n x}{\sin^2 x} = \text{max when } \sin \theta = \frac{\lambda}{a}, \frac{2\lambda}{a}, \frac{3\lambda}{a}$$

hence if $\frac{n\lambda}{a+d} = \frac{n\lambda}{a}$ m or n being integers

the n^{th} order spectrum will be completely

absent. For the same reason the $2n^{\text{th}}$,

^{etc}
 $3n^{\text{th}}$... also are absent. Thus if $\frac{a+d}{a} = 2$

the 2^{nd} , 4^{th} ... orders are absent. If $\frac{a+d}{a} = 3$,

the 3^{rd} , 6^{th} , ... orders are absent.

Width of the grating spectrum. If the

different lines are seen separate the spec-

trum is said to be pure. Hence the image of

any particular band should occupy a very

small portion of the spectrum. This condition

is satisfied in the grating spectrum. Between

two principal maxima there are $(n-1)$ dark

lines. Hence the adjacent dark line is very

close to the maximum. The width of a band

of wavelength λ is ~~only~~ $\frac{2\pi}{n}$ ^{given by} $\frac{2\pi}{n}$ or $\frac{\pi(a+d)\sin\theta}{\lambda}$

$\frac{2\pi}{n}$ is the width is \therefore very small. Thus

there is no overlapping

Prism vs Grating In a prism the disper-

sion depends on the kind of glass, & the

mean deviation of the rays & the relative

The spacings between different bands vary widely from prism to prism. This is called the irrationality of the prism spectrum. In a grating the deviation is connected to the wavelength by a constant law which is independent of the material on which the lines are drawn. Dispersion is constant for small values of the deviation. A grating spectra is \therefore said to be normal.

Dispersive power = $\frac{d\theta}{d\lambda}$ where
 $\cos\theta \, d\theta = n \, d\lambda \quad \therefore \frac{d\theta}{d\lambda} = \frac{n}{\cos\theta}$

Minimum Deviation

It can easily be shown (cf B.A. Notes) that when the \angle of incidence is not zero but i , the position of the n^{th} order spectrum is given by

$$\sin i + \sin \theta = n\lambda$$

The deviation $\delta = i + \theta$ is a minimum

when $\frac{d\delta}{di} = 0$

$$\sin i + \sin(\delta - i) = n\lambda$$

$$\sin i + \cos(\delta - i)(d\delta - di) = 0.$$

$$\frac{d\delta}{di} = -\frac{\cos i - \cos(\delta - i)}{\cos(\delta - i)} \quad \text{is equal to zero}$$

when $i = \delta - i$

$$i = \delta = \frac{\delta}{2}.$$

Hence if δ_m be the min. deviation,

$$\sin \delta_m/2 = n\lambda \quad \therefore \lambda = \frac{2 \sin \delta_m/2}{n}$$

At the position of min. deviation the

spectrum is clearest. Hence adjust the

telescope to view the 1st spectrum when

incidence is normal. Then gradually

move the telescope towards the direction

of the collimator, & correspondingly rotate

the grating & keep the spectrum in view.

When the spectrum begins to turn back

upon its position path, we have the

min. deviation position.

Resolving power. Two lines which are

very near each other wavelengths λ & $\lambda + \Delta\lambda$

are said to be just resolved if they are

just seen separate which will be the

case if the 1st minimum after the m^{th}

Principal maximum of λ coincides with the minimum immediately preceding the m^{th} principal maximum of λ' . For in this case the two images of λ & λ' are on the limit of overlapping.

It was seen that intensity is of the form $I = a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} \cdot \frac{\sin^2 nx}{\sin^2 x}$. From this we can derive an expression for the resolving power which is defined as the ratio of any particular wavelength to the difference between λ and another λ which can just be resolved from it.

$$\text{Resolving power} = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - \lambda'} = \frac{\lambda}{\Delta \lambda}$$

Now $\frac{\sin^2 nx}{\sin^2 x}$ is max. when $x = m\pi$.

$\frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2}$ is min. when $u = m'\pi$. Value of x for the first min. after the m^{th} max.

$$= m\pi + \frac{\pi}{n} \quad \text{Value of } x \text{ for the}$$

min just preceding the m^{th} max. $= m\pi - \frac{\pi}{n}$

$$\text{Now } x = \frac{\pi(a+d)\sin\theta}{\lambda} \therefore \sin\theta = \frac{\lambda N}{\pi} x$$

N being no. of lines per cm. Let θ be the Dirac of the 1st min. after m^{th} max. of λ & θ' the

variation of the min. just before the m^{th} max.

$$\lambda' \sin \theta = \frac{\lambda N}{n} \left(m + \frac{1}{n} \right) = \lambda N \left(m + \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

$$\sin \theta' = \lambda' N \left(m - \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

At the limit of resolvability $\theta = \theta'$

$$\therefore \lambda \left(m + \frac{1}{n} \right) = \lambda' \left(m - \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

$$\therefore \text{Resolving power} = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda' - \lambda}$$

$$= \frac{\lambda}{\lambda \left\{ \frac{m + \frac{1}{n}}{m - \frac{1}{n}} - 1 \right\}} = \frac{m - \frac{1}{n}}{\frac{2}{n}}$$

\approx

$$= \frac{mn - 1}{2} = \frac{mn}{2} \text{ since } 1 \text{ is very}$$

small compared to mn .

Thus for resolving the d_1, d_2 lines

$$P = \frac{mn}{2} = \frac{5893}{3} \quad \therefore \text{In the 1st}$$

order spectrum the lines are just resolved

$$n = \frac{2 \times 5893}{3}; \text{ if there are } 3928 \text{ lines on the}$$

grating. ³ Raleigh tried to verify the

result by placing a slit in front of

the grating and gradually narrowing the slit

so as to reduce the total number of lines.

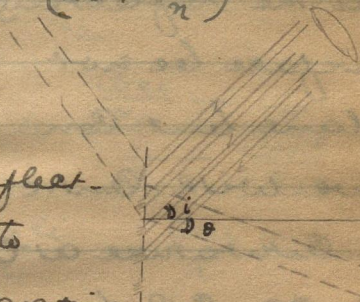
He found that d_1, d_2 lines were seen if the

slit was wider when n was less than 3900. The

limit was reached when n = nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ of 3928. \therefore He concluded that R.P. should be mn , not $\frac{mn}{2}$. To resolve it is not necessary to have a perfectly dark line between; it suffices if there is comparative darkness between the lines. This condition is satisfied if the m^{th} max. of λ lies on the min. immediately after the m^{th} max. of λ . i.e. $\sin \theta' = m\lambda \times 2 = \lambda' N m = \sin \theta = \lambda N (m + \frac{1}{2})$
 \therefore R.P. = ~~mn~~ mn

Reflection Grating.

The principle of the reflection grating is similar to that of the transmission grating for oblique incidence. When the image is on the same side of the grating normal (in transmission grating) the eqn for the n^{th} order spectrum is $(\sin i + \sin \theta) = Nn\lambda$. If the image is on the opposite side, $(\sin i - \sin \theta) = Nn\lambda$.



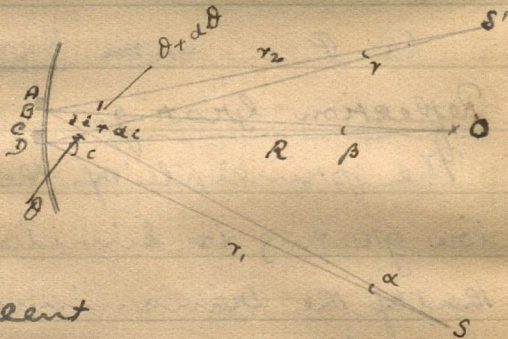
the same eyes hold good here. The streams of light regularly reflected from the surfaces between the rulings proceed from a virtual image of the source as if they came from behind the surface. \therefore

$n \sin i = n' \sin \theta$ The rulings are usually made on a polished metal surface (aluminized glass).

Convex or Rowland grating

13-7-'38

Let the reflecting surface be not plane but convex with centre of curvature at O



Let OB, CD be adjacent

reflecting strips $\therefore BC$ a ruling.

Let the rays SB, SD from a source S converge to a point S' . Let

We shall denote $\angle ODS = i, \angle ODS' = \theta, \angle OBS = \theta + di,$

$\angle BS' = \theta + d\theta, SD = r_1, OD = R, \theta, \theta = r_2,$

$\angle BSO = \alpha, \angle BOD = \beta, \angle BS'D = \gamma.$

S' is a bright point if $(a+d)(\sin i - \sin$

$$= n\lambda \quad \therefore \cos i \, di = \cos \theta \, d\theta$$

$$\frac{di}{d\theta} = \frac{\cos \theta}{\cos i}$$

$$i + \alpha = i + di + \beta$$

$$\therefore di = \alpha - \beta$$

$$\theta + d\theta + \gamma = \theta + \beta$$

$$\therefore d\theta = \beta - \gamma$$

$$\therefore \frac{di}{d\theta} = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{\beta - \gamma}$$

Now $\alpha = (a+d) \frac{\cos i}{r_1}$

$$\beta = \frac{a+d}{R}, \quad \gamma = (a+d) \frac{\cos \theta}{r_2}$$

$$\frac{\cos \theta}{\cos i} = \frac{di}{d\theta} = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{\beta - \gamma} = \frac{\frac{\cos i}{r_1} - \frac{1}{R}}{\frac{1}{R} - \frac{\cos \theta}{r_2}}$$

$$\cos \theta \frac{1}{R} - \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{r_2} = \frac{\cos i}{r_1} - \frac{\cos i}{R}$$

$$\therefore \frac{\cos \theta}{r_2} = \frac{\cos \theta + \cos i}{R} - \frac{\cos i}{r_1}$$

$$r_2 = \frac{R r_1 \cos \theta}{r_1 (\cos \theta + \cos i) - R \cos i}$$

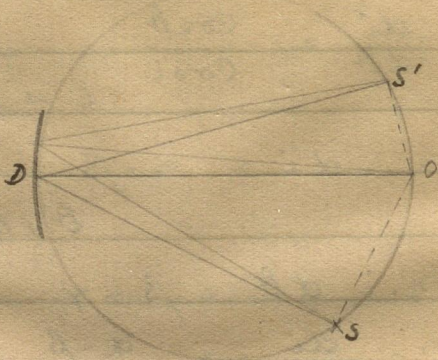
Suppose $r_1 = R \cos i$ which will be the case if S lies on a circle with OD as

radius. Then $R_2 = R \cos \theta$ i.e.

also will lie
in the \odot with
D as diameter.

This arrangement
as used by Row-
land for mounting
his grating. Hence

\odot is known as Rowland's circle.



Rowland's mounting.

Two beams PE & PE
are fixed rigidly at
right angles to each other,

as a third beam of
constant length

can move on

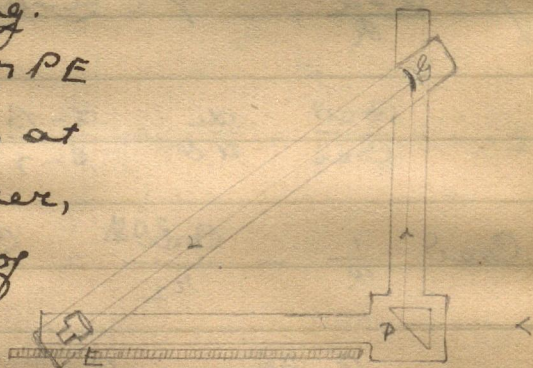
the other keeping its ends on the other two.

At E a grating of radius of curvature

E is mounted with the grating normal

along GE . At C an eyepiece is placed

directed towards G . A rt. \angle prism at P



reflects a beam of light to G & hence
acts as source. Thus it is seen that the
source is always on a semicircle having
 GE (the line joining the grating to its centre
of curvature) as diameter. Further the
arrangement is such that $D=0$

\therefore The eqn to the spectrum is $\sin i = Nn$
But $\sin i = \frac{x}{r}$ where x is distance EP
 $\therefore \lambda = \frac{x}{r N n}$ Hence with the Rowland
mounting the different orders are all
seen on the line EP at distances from
 P proportional to the wavelength. The
arrangement is especially suitable
for photographic purposes.

Advantages of the Concave grating

The advantages of the concave grating
are many. It combines the achromatic
dispersive power of the prism or plane
grating, and the focussing power of the
lens. The collimating lens and eyepiece
are unnecessary for the ~~to~~ incident an

reflected beams are pencils of rays, not parallel beams. This renders the instrument very fit for photography. The sharpness of the lines exceeds that of plane grating. Since a Collimator or telescope is used the ultra violet lines are not absorbed. Hence ^{lenses} no use of quartz needed for ultra violet photography in other instruments can here be dispensed with. The spectrum is truly normal, much more so than the plane grating spectrum for α is $\alpha \lambda$, ~~not~~ $\alpha \lambda$ whereas in plane grating $\sin \theta \propto \lambda$. All the orders of spectra "stay in focus". Thus a plate which prints the d_1, d_2 lines of the 1st order will also print the 2950 \AA of the ultraviolet of the 2nd order. No separate focussing is necessary.

But Concave gratings have one great defect of astigmatism. Point images sources are extended into line images, & thus the image suffers in

definiteness. Astigmatism is least when the slit is perfectly parallel to the grating rulings. This however is a condition which cannot be fulfilled easily. Hence what is generally done is to take several photographs with different positions of the slit all nearly \parallel to the rulings. That which shows best definiteness is chosen. Astigmatism can be minimized by shortening the rulings ~~to~~ taking a larger width of the grating.

Dispersive power $\frac{dx}{d\lambda} = p m A$ is i. is \propto to no. of rulings \times the order of the spectrum.

R. P. is \propto to the total no. of lines.

A great disadvantage is that the grating moves in ^a slot and necessarily shakes the camera.

Paschen mounting obviates this difficulty by placing the source at some point on

Rowlands Circle. The

slate is a long flexible

rod is placed along

the Circ of the Rowlands

Circle. Thus all the

lines of the spectrum

are simultaneously photographed. This

arrangement is found to give less astig-

matism. But yet the arrangement is

inconvenient.

Eagle Mounting is more compact, gives

spectra of increased brightness, has least

astigmatism, can reach higher orders,

can focus on either side of the central

white. The Grating is mounted

on a screw track within a

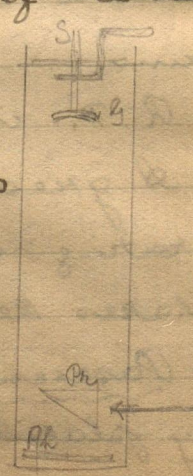
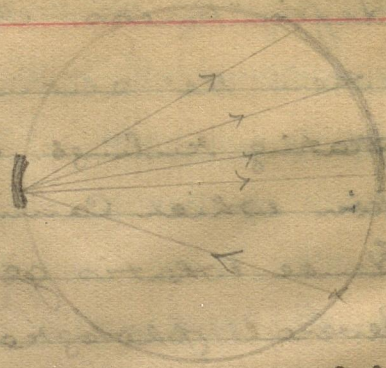
light tight box & by means

of an external handle it can

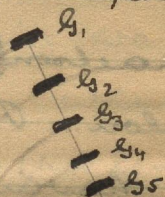
be moved ill to itself. The

source is an illuminated slit

reflected by a suitable prism.

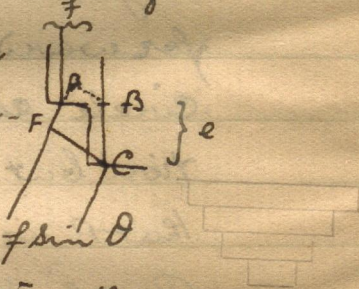


Thus, the virtual source is some pt S on
 along the normal to the grating. The plate
 placed at the bottom of the box & by suitable
 screws its inclination can be adjusted
 from outside. Let P be
 the position of the
 flat plate & the
 virtual source. As
 the grating is moved
 forward, the Rowland's
 circle changes its posi-
 tion but it is so adjusted
 that P is always on the
 Rowland's O . The ~~are~~ plates have to
 be inclined suitably to lie along the O .
 Thus the arrangement can be made
 to photograph any part of the spectrum.
Michaelson's Echelon Grating The resolving
 power of a ruled grating which is the
 product of the number of rulings and the
 order of the spectrum, cannot be increased



beyond a certain limit, for orders higher than the first are faint, & rulings cannot in practice be made more than 10000 to a inch.

Michelson solved the difficulty by his echelon. Plates of the same optical nature, having exactly the same thickness are placed one above the other forming a series of steps. Let e be the thickness of each plate & f the width of each step. Path retardation between corresponding rays of two adjacent steps is $\mu BC - AF = \mu e - e \cos \theta + f \sin \theta$
 $(\mu - 1)e + f \theta$ when θ is small. For the principal maximum of the m^{th} order $m\lambda = (\mu - 1)e + f \theta$.



In the grating where path diff. between corresponding rays is $(a + d) \sin \theta$ we saw intensity to be $a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2(\frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda})}{(\frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda})^2} \times \frac{\sin^2 \left\{ \frac{\pi (a + d) \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right\}}{\sin^2 \left\{ \frac{\pi (a + d) \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right\}}$
 Hence here where $a = (\mu - 1)e + f \theta$

stands in place of $(a+d) \sin \theta$, we have

Intensity given by

$$I = \frac{A_0 \sin^2 \frac{n\pi}{\lambda} \{(\mu-1)e + f\theta\}}{\sin^2 \frac{\pi}{\lambda} \{(\mu-1)e + f\theta\}}$$

As in the case of the grating we can see the expn a maximum when

$$\frac{f}{\lambda} \{(\mu-1)e + f\theta\} = m, \text{ i.e. } (\mu-1)e + f\theta = m\lambda$$

The intensity is n^2 times that due to a single opening of breadth f .

Dispersive power. Since $m\lambda = (\mu-1)e + f\theta$

the dispersive power $\frac{d\theta}{d\lambda}$ is given by

$$m = \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda} e + f \frac{d\theta}{d\lambda}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{d\theta}{d\lambda} = \frac{1}{f} \left(m - e \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda} \right)$$

Since m is approximately $\frac{(\mu-1)e}{\lambda}$ when θ is small,

$$\frac{d\theta}{d\lambda} = \frac{1}{f} \left\{ \frac{e}{\lambda} (\mu-1) - e \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{e}{f\lambda} \left\{ (\mu-1) - \lambda \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda} \right\}$$

$$= a \frac{e}{f\lambda} \text{ where } a \text{ is a constant depending on the nature of glass}$$

Resolving power. According to Rayleigh's

any two lines λ & $\lambda + d\lambda$ are just resolved

the m^{th} order max. of $\lambda + d\lambda$ coincides
with the 1st min. after the m^{th} max. of λ .

Let $\theta + d\theta$ be the position of this min.

$$(\mu - 1)e + f(\theta + d\theta) = m(\lambda + d\lambda) + (m+1)\lambda$$

$$\text{but } (\mu - 1)e + f\theta = m\lambda$$

$$\therefore f d\theta = m d\lambda + f \epsilon = m \lambda \lambda$$

being the \perp line separation of the m^{th}

$(m+1)^{\text{th}}$ orders of λ .

Since there are n minima within ϵ ,

$$d\theta = \frac{\epsilon}{n} = \frac{\lambda}{f n} \quad \text{ie } \lambda = f n d\theta$$

$$\text{But } \frac{d\theta}{d\lambda} = \frac{a e}{f \lambda}$$

$$\therefore d\lambda = \frac{f \lambda}{a e} d\theta \quad \therefore \frac{\lambda}{d\lambda} = \frac{a e n}{\lambda}$$

$$\text{R. P. } \frac{\lambda}{d\lambda} = \frac{e n}{\lambda} \left\{ (\mu - 1) - \lambda \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda} \right\}$$

If $\frac{d\mu}{d\lambda}$ is negligible, & $m \lambda = (\mu - 1)e$ for

a first approximation $\frac{e}{\lambda} (\mu - 1) = m$

$$\therefore \text{R. P. } \frac{\lambda}{d\lambda} = \underline{\underline{m n}}$$

The echelon grating like all other high resolving instruments cannot be used to form spectra. The order of the spectrum being high all the colours overlap if the source is ~~more~~ white. Hence the necessity of using strictly monochromatic source. A slit may be opened in the spectrum of an ordinary grating and this narrow band of wavelengths is made to fall on the echelon. A more usual procedure is to use a series of filters with a source like the copper arc or the mercury lamp.

Calculate the thickness of a flint glass echelon which will just avoid the overlapping of the resolved components of sodium light and confine them to a particular order. [Cauchy's Const. $A = 1.78$; $B = 1.50 \times 10^{-10}$]

Let λ & $\lambda + d\lambda$ be the components of sodium. ~~and~~ The condition for being just resolved is confined to a particular order.

that $(m+1)^{\text{th}}$ order of λ just coincides

with m^{th} order of $\lambda + d\lambda$.

$$m\lambda = (\mu - 1)e + f\theta$$

$$\lambda \times dm = (\mu - 1)e + f d\theta$$

$$\text{When } dm = h, \quad f d\theta = \lambda - (\mu - 1)e \quad (1)$$

$$m d\lambda = \mu e d\mu + f d\theta \quad (2)$$

For resolution $d\theta$ in both cases should

be equal $\therefore m d\lambda = e d\mu + \lambda - (\mu - 1)e \quad (3)$

$$A + \frac{B}{\lambda^2} d\mu = \lambda - \frac{2B}{\lambda^3} \times d\lambda$$

Taking θ to be zero,

$$m = \frac{(\mu - 1)e}{\lambda}$$

Substituting the above values

$$d\lambda \times \frac{(\mu - 1)e}{\lambda} = e d\mu + \lambda - (\mu - 1)e$$

$$(\mu - 1)e \left(\frac{d\lambda}{\lambda} \right) = e d\mu + \lambda$$

$$e = \frac{\lambda}{(\mu - 1) \left(\frac{d\lambda}{\lambda} \right) - d\mu} = \frac{\lambda / d\lambda}{\frac{\mu - 1}{\lambda} - \frac{d\mu}{d\lambda}}$$

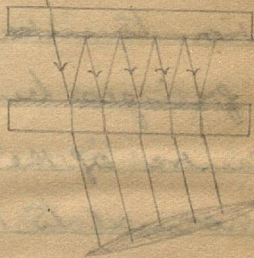
$$= \frac{\lambda^2}{(\mu - 1)(\lambda + d\lambda) - d\mu} = \frac{\lambda}{\frac{d\lambda}{\lambda^2} + \frac{3B}{\lambda^3} - 1/\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{5890^2}{A + \frac{B}{\lambda}} = \frac{(A + \frac{B}{\lambda^2})(\lambda + d\lambda) + \frac{2B}{\lambda^3}}$$

Substituting for A, B etc we shall have
 $e = 0.6 \text{ mm}$ nearly.

Fabry Perot Interferometer.

In Michelson's inter-
ferometer the two rings
seen under monochromic
sodium light were all
broad instead of being split
up into two narrow rings each. In other
words the resolving power was small.
This was due to the number of interfering
sources being only two $\therefore R.P. = n m.$



Fabry Perot devised a similar
apparatus with high resolving power.
Two nearly plane plates of glass are
semisilvered on one side each in the
same base and to the same extent. The
are mounted ^{silvered sides facing each other} parallel to each other and
one of them is provided with a screw
thread to move it perpendicular to its
plane. The rays after multiple reflections

between the semi-silvered faces are transmitted and focussed by a lens. Since the path difference of the various rays form an arithmetical progression they are in a position to interfere. The Rings like to Haidinger's fringes but with more contrast are seen, the centre of the rings corresponding to the ray normal to the plates. Since the relative retardation is great the order of the fringes spectrum is high. Further the number of virtual sources which cause interference is large. Hence the resolving power of the instrument is very high.

The influence of semi-silvering may be easily deduced from the as follows.

The intensity of the ray transmitted beam = $a^2 \frac{(1-b^2)^2}{(1-b^2)^2 + 4b^2 \sin^2 \frac{\phi}{2}}$ Since the fringes are exactly those of Haidinger's except for the fact that they are finer and thicker.

For normal incidence $b^2 = .04$ for un-silvered surfaces & .8 for semi-silvered.

$\therefore I_t$ for when surfaces are not silvered

$$= a^2 \frac{(1 - .04)^2}{(1 - .04)^2 + \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2} \times .16}$$

$$= a^2 \frac{1}{1 + .16 \times \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}} = a^2 (1 - .16 \times \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2})$$

When $\frac{\epsilon}{2} = 0, \pi, \dots$ $I_t = a^2$ nearly

When $\frac{\epsilon}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \dots$ $I_t = .84 a^2$ nearly.

Thus the intensity varies between $.84 a^2$ & a^2 . The dark & bright rings are hardly distinguishable.

When the surfaces are silvered

$$I_t = a^2 \frac{(1 - .8)^2}{(1 - .8)^2 + .64 \times \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}}$$

$$= a^2 \frac{.04}{.04 + 3.2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}} \text{ nearly}$$

which when $\frac{\epsilon}{2} = 0, \pi, 2\pi$ etc is a^2

& when $\frac{\epsilon}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}$ etc is $a^2 \frac{.04}{3.24} = .01 a^2$

The intensity of the trans. beam varies between 100% & 1%. The rings are very clear. Further since the sq. of $\sin \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ is involved in the function, the variation

with $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ is very rapid. The lines of
 max. brightness are ~~very narrow~~ sharply
 defined. \times

The above exprⁿ for I_t is only an
 approximate one since when deducing
 it, the assumption was made that the
 number of interfering beams is infinite.
 Actually it is not so since the film is
 thick. Let n be the no. of beams

$$I_t = a^2 \frac{(1-b^2)^2}{(1-b^2)^2 + 4b^2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}} \left\{ (1-b^{2n})^2 + 4b^{2n} \sin^2 \frac{n\epsilon}{2} \right\}$$

The above exprⁿ shows that for every one
 fluctuation of the denominator there are
 n fluctuations of the numerator. Since n is
 large the resolving power of the interfero-
 meter is also large.

Lummer Gehrcke Plak.

Although the Chromatic R. P. is high
 the images are sharp (due to ^{clear} semisil-
 vering), the Fabry Perot interferometer
 has one great disadvantage viz the silvering

absorbs a good portion of the light & hence only a fraction of the incident intensity is available in the pattern.

The Lummer
Gehrcke plate
aims at an
equally high
~~reflecting~~^{reflecting}
~~transmitting~~ power



without any absorption. It is a plane sheet of glass with exactly parallel sides, & a rt. ~~LED~~ prism at one end is shaped like a rt. 45° prism. The acute 45° of the prism are such that light incident normally on the hypotenuse surface & reaches the lower face of the plate at an incident angle slightly less than the critical angle. Hence a small part is transmitted while the rest is reflected towards the upper surface. Here it is again reflected after a small fraction has been transmitted. Thus several transmitted beams with

with retardations in a regular arithmetical
 progressions emerge from either face, all
 which can interfere or reinforce each other
 when focussed by a lens. Each beam
 can be supposed to be formed by a
 virtual source as in Fabry Perot or
 a plane transmission grating, and hence
 the chromatic R. P. = $n m$

$$m \lambda = 2 \mu e \cos r \quad \text{or} \quad n \times 2e \tan r = l$$

$$\therefore \text{R. P.} = \frac{2 \mu e \cos r}{\lambda} \times \frac{l}{2e \tan r}$$

$$= \frac{\mu l}{\lambda} \frac{\sin r \cos^2 r}{\sin r} = \frac{\mu l}{\lambda} \frac{1 - \sin^2 r}{\sin r}$$

Taking $\sin r$ as approximately $\frac{1}{\mu}$

$$\text{C. R. P.} = \frac{\mu l}{\lambda} \frac{1 - \frac{1}{\mu^2}}{\frac{1}{\mu}}$$

$$= \frac{l}{\lambda} (\mu^2 - 1)$$

Thus for a plate of length 10 cm,

$$1.5, \quad \frac{\lambda}{d\lambda} = \frac{10}{6000 \times 10^{-5}} (1.25)$$

$$= 2.1 \times 10^5 \quad \therefore d\lambda = \frac{6 \times 10^{-5}}{2.1 \times 10^5} = 3 \times 10^{-10}$$

Hence two lines of λ , 6000 and 6000.03
can be resolved by the disk.

Uses of High Resolving Power

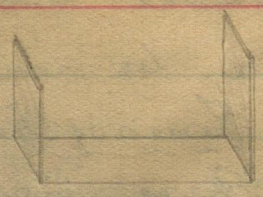
These instruments reveal that lines which appear single from other instruments are actually a group of fine lines. This fine structure of spectral lines has a ^{great importance in} ~~deep bearing on~~ modern physics.

- 2) The constituents of an apparently single star or of nebulae can be detected by high R. P.
- 3) The effects of subjecting a source to electric or magnetic field - Stark and Zeeman effects can be studied by these instruments.

Standardizing the metre. The experiment of standardizing the metre in terms of three standard lines of Cadmium was conducted by Michelson at the request of the Bureau International des Mesures.

oids. The apparatus

was a combination of
Michelson's interfero-



meter or Fabry Perot

plates. Two ^{vertical silvered} plates one shorter than the
other were mounted at parallel to each

other at distances 10 Cms $\frac{10}{2}$, $\frac{10}{4}$, $\frac{10}{8}$,
 $\frac{10}{16}$, $\frac{10}{32}$, $\frac{10}{64}$, $\frac{10}{128}$, $\frac{10}{256}$ Cms from each other there

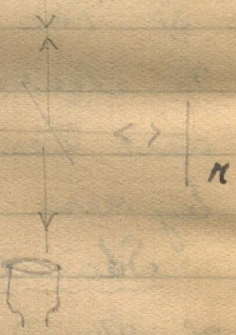
being on the whole 9 such or Fabry
Perot interf. or etalons as they are called.

The smallest etalon of length .039



is placed in the position
of one of Michelson's

mirrors, with the front
plate A, coinciding with



the being where the silvered
surface should have been.

Two ~~to~~ int rings are

produced between K & A. Adjust the position
of K till a cross wire touches the centre of

the system. Now lower the etalon. Interference

is between M & the upper portion of B_1 , &
 so things the system is displaced. Rings
 will still be seen if the source is strictly
 monochromatic. Move M back wards etc
 Counting the rings as they pass the cross
 till the centre of the system again comes
 the crosswire. The no. of rings was 780.
 \therefore The length of the etalon is 780 wavelengths
 of Cdred

Next place the 2nd etalon - B_2
 (length nearly twice that of the B_1 -
 first) near the first. See that A_1 - - P_2
 when interference is between M & A_1 , or
 bet. M & A_2 the system is not disturbed.
 Hence A_1 & A_2 are at the same distance
 from M . Then ~~move~~ ^{lower A_1, B_1} till int. is between B_1 & M , &
 move M to bring back the system to the
 crosswire. Next, ^{raise A_1, B_1} move A_1, B_1 backwards
 till the displaced system again comes back
 to centre. Thus A_1 is in the position
 originally occupied by B_1 .

B_1 - - B_2

A_1 -

then get the interference between B_1 & C
Shift the etalon stage to the left so
that int. may be between B_2 & C . See whether
system is displaced. If so B_2 is not
at the same distance as B_1 . Move C
back till system is replaced. If Note
lines that pass the cross wire which will
be only 30 or 40. Hence length $A_2 B_2 = 2 \times 780$
30. In this way $A_3 B_3$ can be compared
with $A_2 B_2$, $A_4 B_4$ with $A_3 B_3$ and so ^{on}. The
first etalon can be compared with the metre
by means of a microscope. Thus the
Lichelson computed the number of
wave lengths in one metre to be 1,555,163.5.
He calculated the wave lengths of the
three Cd lines in terms of the standard
metre & termed them the standard lines. They
are inalterable standards depending on
the very nature of light.

Resolving power of a telescope.

Consider a telescope objective with

a rectangular aperture ^{slit} in front of it the length b of the aperture being large compared to breadth a . The illumination at L at displacement θ \perp to the slit is I . $a^2 b^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda}\right) / \left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda}\right)^2$ which has its central max. when $\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} = 0$ i.e. $\theta = 0$ & its next min when $\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} = \pi$, i.e. $\sin \theta = \frac{\lambda}{a}$ & since θ is small $\theta = \frac{\lambda}{a}$.

Now if two sources at distances d from each other (d being measured \perp to the telescope axis) ~~are~~ are to be ~~set~~ resolved the image of one should be where the first minimum of the other lies i.e. L subtended by the images at the field lens should be $\frac{\lambda}{a}$. But the L subtended by the images = that subtended by the objects $\therefore \frac{\lambda}{a} = \frac{d}{u}$ u being distance of the objects. This gives the condition for the objects being just resolved. The larger the value of u , the larger should a be.

When the slit aperture is circular and

not rectangular a different procedure is necessary. Let R be the radius

of the aperture. Consider

two wavelets diffracted

rays inclined at $\angle \theta$ to

a aperture normal. AN

is inclined at θ to the plane

of the aperture is the diffracted wavefront.

The path difference of the between the

rays starting from A & from any other

point P = path difference between rays

from A & from N (N being the projection

of P on the diameter ACB) = $NN' = AN \sin \theta$

$(R - p \cos \theta) \sin \theta$ where $p = PC$ & $\theta = \angle PCN$.

Am Displacement due to a small

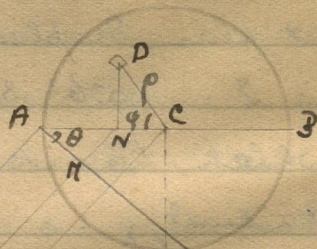
area $p d\theta \times d\rho$ about P

$$= p d\theta \times d\rho \times \left[\sin(\omega t + \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \sin \theta (R - p \cos \theta)) \right]$$

$$= p d\theta d\rho \times \sin(\omega t + kR - k p \cos \theta)$$

$$\geq \quad \text{where } k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \sin \theta$$

$$= p d\theta d\rho \sin \omega t \rightarrow (\alpha - k p \cos \theta)$$



$$= \sin \alpha \left\{ \rho d\varphi d\rho \cos(k\rho \cos\varphi) \right\}$$

$$- \cos \alpha \left\{ \rho d\varphi d\rho \sin(k\rho \cos\varphi) \right\}$$

α being a function of time, the exprⁿ denotes two simple harmonic motions at rt LS.

The intensity due to the small area

$$= \left\{ \cos(k\rho \cos\varphi) \rho d\varphi d\rho \right\}^2 + \left\{ \sin(k\rho \cos\varphi) \rho d\varphi d\rho \right\}^2$$

Intensity due to the whole area of the aperture

$$= \left\{ \int_0^R \int_0^{2\pi} \cos(k\rho \cos\varphi) \rho d\varphi d\rho \right\}^2 + \left\{ \int_0^R \int_0^{2\pi} \sin(k\rho \cos\varphi) \rho d\varphi d\rho \right\}^2$$

The sine integration reduces to zero

\therefore Intensity I at inclination θ

$$I = \left\{ \int_0^R \int_0^{2\pi} \cos(k\rho \cos\varphi) \rho d\varphi d\rho \right\}^2$$

Integrating we shall get

$$I = \pi R^2 \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{m}{L} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{m^2}{L^2} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{m^3}{L^3} \right)^2 \right\}$$

ad ying

$$= \pi R^2 S$$

m being $\frac{kR}{2}$ & since $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \sin \theta$

$$m = \frac{\pi R \sin \theta}{\lambda}$$

The tabulation below gives values of $\frac{m}{\pi}$ i.e. of $\frac{R \sin \theta}{\lambda}$ for which I has turning values, and the corresponding illumination

$\frac{m}{\pi} = \frac{R \sin \theta}{\lambda}$	$I = (\pi R^2 S)^2$	
0	1	1st maximum
0.61	0.0000	1st minimum
0.81	0.0175	2nd max.
1.16	0.0000	2nd min.
1.33	0.0041	3rd max.
1.62	0.0000	3rd min.

Thus dark & bright rings are seen the diameters ^{radii} of which subtend at the centre of the aperture \angle s given by the first column. In the centre is a bright patch of \angle less radius $\sin \theta = 0$ i.e. $0.61 \times \frac{\lambda}{R}$. The other rings are so feeble an illumination that their presence

is undetected except by ultra-photograph precautions. This is the wave theory explanation for the point image due to a parallel beam ^{rays} of light. Two images are resolved if the \angle subtended by their ~~cent~~ ^{cent} line joining their centres subtends an $\angle \cdot 61$ at the centre of the aperture. But the \angle is $\frac{d}{u}$ d being the distance between the objects & u their distance from the lens.

Thus at the limit of resolution

$$\frac{d}{u} = \cdot 61 \frac{\lambda}{R} = 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{a} \quad a \text{ being diameter}$$

ie $\frac{d}{u} = \frac{\lambda}{a}$ nearly which is the same as that of a rectangular aperture.

To find the relation between \angle of deviation in a prism

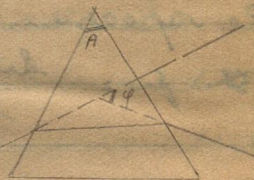
& μ

We have 4 eqns $r + r' = A$, (1)

$$\varphi = i + i' - A \quad (2) \quad \sin i = \mu \sin r \quad (3)$$

$$\therefore \sin i' = \mu \sin r' \quad (4)$$

Differentiating,



$$dr + dr' = 0 \quad (5)$$

$$d\varphi = di' \quad (6)$$

$$0 = \mu \cos r dr + \sin r d\mu \quad (7)$$

$$\cos i' di' = \mu \cos r' dr' + \sin r' d\mu \quad (8)$$

$$d\mu = -\mu \frac{\cos r}{\sin r} \times dr$$

$$dr = -\frac{\sin r}{\mu \cos r} \cdot d\mu = -dr'$$

$$\cos i' \frac{\sin r}{\cos r} d\mu + \sin r' d\mu = \cos i' di'$$

$$d\mu (\cos r' \sin r + \sin r' \cos r) = \cos i' \cos r di'$$

$$\text{i.e. } d\mu \sin(r+r') = \cos i' \cos r d\varphi$$

$$\text{i.e. } d\mu = \frac{\cos i' \cos r}{\sin(r+r')} d\varphi.$$

Resolving power of a prism spectroscope.

The prism is placed

for minimum deviation

where $\frac{\sin i}{\sin r}$

the spectrum is clearest.

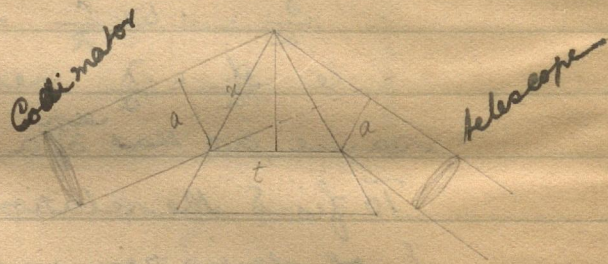
$$\mu = \frac{\sin A + \varphi/2}{\sin A/2}$$

$$\therefore d\mu = \frac{1}{\sin A/2} \cdot \frac{\cos A + \varphi}{2} \times \frac{d\varphi}{2}$$

$$\mu = \frac{\cos \frac{A+\varphi}{2}}{2 \sin \frac{A}{2}} d\varphi.$$

If t be the effective

base of the prism, a the aperture,



$$d\mu = \frac{a/x}{2 \frac{t}{2}/x} d\phi = \frac{a}{t} d\phi$$

ie $d\phi = \frac{t}{a} d\mu$

That the telescope may resolve the 2 lines separation $d\phi$, $d\phi$ should be $\frac{\lambda}{a}$

$\therefore \lambda = t d\mu$ for the limit of resolution

Resolving power $\lambda/d\lambda = \frac{t d\mu}{d\lambda}$

As by Cauchy's formula

$$\mu = A + B/\lambda^2$$

$$\frac{d\mu}{d\lambda} = -2B/\lambda^3$$

$$\therefore R.P. = -\frac{2Bt}{\lambda^3}$$

The above eqn can be used to find the difference of in wavelength ray of the two sodium lines

$$\frac{10^{-8} \times 5893}{d\lambda} = -\frac{2Bt}{\lambda^3} \quad B \text{ being known \&}$$

t easily determined by gradually lessen the effective base, $d\lambda$ can be calculated.

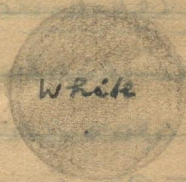
Rabine's Principle first enunciated in 1837 ~~at~~ holds good for points in a diffraction pattern where the intensity is zero. If the aperture be covered by a screen certain portions of which are

transparent and other portions opaque,
in the points of zero illumination will
have a certain displacement of intensity
given by $y_1 = a \sin \phi$; $I_1 = a^2$. Now
suppose the screen is replaced by another
exactly its complement i. e. one having
the opaque & transparent portions just
replacing one another reversed in shape
and contour. The displacement due to
the opaque transparent portions in this
screen should be $y_2 = -y_1$, since the
transparent portions of both the screens
together i. e. due to the whole aperture, the
displacement is zero.

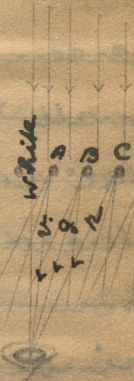
$\therefore y_2 = -a \sin \phi$. And \therefore illumina-
tion at the point $I_2 = (-a)^2 = a^2 = I_1$,
i. e. Illumination due to Complementary
diffraction patterns are equal.

Halo or Corona is the coloured ring
seen ~~at~~ round the sun's or moon's disc
when viewed through a light fleecy

cloud. The rings are violet inside and red outside. The water particles in the cloud are so many opaque obstacles each producing a diffraction ^{pattern}. Particles like A at small \angle deviate from the observers eye ^{send} the violet portion of their patterns into the eye. Particles like B at a greater angular deviation have their green portions incident on the eye; while particles like C still farther away have their red portions incident on the eye. Thus rings violet within to red without are seen surrounding the ~~so~~ disc.



v. g. n.

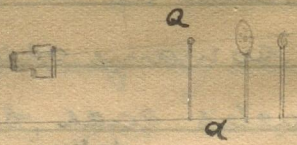
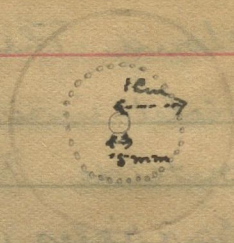


M. Verdet produced a similar pattern by placing ^{in front of the telescope} a copper disc pierced by a very large number of equal holes. The screen is complementary and the pattern

∴ similar

Young's Experiments.

The principle of the corona was utilized by Young to compare very small diameters. A



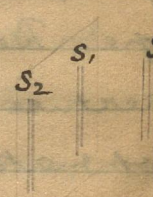
screen with a central hole and a ring of small holes around was mounted in front of a source of light & a small object was placed in front. The distance of the object from the screen adjusted till the corona coincided with the ring of the ~~holes~~ holes.

Theory shows that when distance d from the source is constant, the radius of the corona varies inversely as the diameter of the particle causing it. That when the diameter is constant, radius of the corona is $\propto \frac{1}{d}$. ∴ when two particles of diameters a_1, a_2 at distances d_1, d_2 from the screen give equal coronas

$$\frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{d_1}{d_2}$$

Michelson's measurement of the diameters

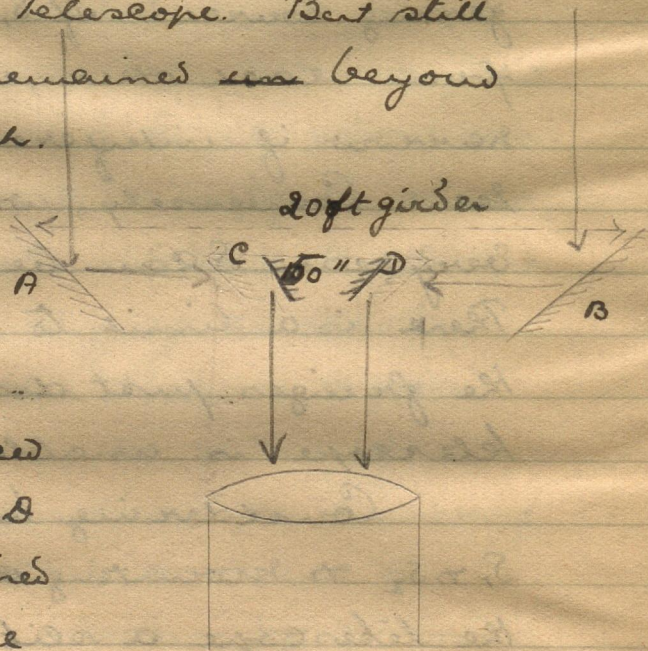
stars. The principle of the expt. is
 of well illustrated by Raleigh's
 interferometer. Two slits S_1 & S_2
 || to each other & illuminated by
 a third slit S are the inter-
 fering sources. If S_1 & S_2 are very far
 from each other, S has to be extremely
 narrow if interference fringes are to be
 seen. Conversely, when S_1 & S_2 are
 very near S can be broader; but there
 is a limit to the width of S when
 the fringes just disappear, i.e. the
 telescope is unable to resolve the fringes.



Considering two distant stars as
 S_1 & S_2 & mounting a slit in front of
 the telescope a slit just ^{narrow} wide enough
 to resolve the fringes, we have here a
 method of determining the distance between
 the any two ^{so close as to} stars or of measuring the
 diameter of a star. The method was first

proposed in 1864 by Fizeau. ^{It was} first tried
 by Stephen in 1874 with the Marseilles teles-
 cope. But he found that even with the widest
 aperture that telescope allowed he could
 not make the fringes disappear. In 1890
 measured the diameter of the moons of
 Jupiter with a 36" telescope. But still
 stellar diameters remained ~~was~~ beyond
 experimental reach.

The problem was
 solved by Michelson
 in 1920. In front
 of the 100" telescope
 of Mt. Wilson he placed
 two plane mirrors C, D
 at 100" apart, inclined
 at 45° to the telescope
 facing ^{the telescope} axis. In line with C, D at a distance of 20
 ft he placed two other mirrors A, B
 also inclined at 45° to the axis, \parallel to C, D
 but facing the stars. A + B could be moved



on a frame work near to C & D.

The arrangement was tilted towards α Orionis. When AB was 20 ft the fringe could not be seen. AB was made gradually smaller. The fringes just appeared when AB was 121". From this he calculated the \angle subtended at the lens telescope by the diameter of α Orionis.

At the limit of resolution $\frac{1.22\lambda}{a} = \frac{d}{u}$
a being the aperture which in this case is 121" = 121 x 2.56 cm.

$$\therefore \theta = \frac{1.22 \times 5890 \times 10^{-5} \text{ radians}}{121 \times 2.56} \\ = .0479 \text{ seconds of arc.}$$

The diameter of the star, ~~then~~ ~~as~~ from the above expt, was calculated to be 250×10^6 miles. Further the section of the star normal to the line of vision is elliptical & not \odot lar, as was shown by the variation in the distance between the periscope mirrors at different times the maximum and minimum being

21" to 148"

Components of a double Star

Two slits

A & B are

$S_2 \times$

mounted in

$S_1 \times$

front of the

objective, and

the distance between

them is adjusted till they are the two com-

ponents are just seen separate. fringes just disappear.

Let b be the distance AB, a the distance
width of a slit.

Illumination due to the two slits from

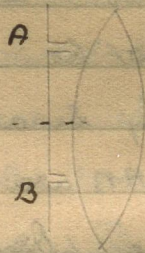
one of the stars S_1

$$I_1 = a^2 \frac{\sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)}{\frac{\pi a \sin \theta}{\lambda}} \times \frac{\sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi (a+b) \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)}{\sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi (a+b) \sin \theta}{\lambda} \right)}$$

$$= a^2 \frac{\sin^2 \frac{u}{2}}{u^2} \times \frac{\sin^2 2v}{\sin^2 v}$$

$$= a^2 \frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} \sin^2 4v \cos^2 v$$

$$= 4a^2 \frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} \cos^2 v.$$



Rays from the star S_2 do not fall normally, but at an inclination $i = \frac{d}{D}$ d being distance between the stars, D distance of the stars from the object

Thus for u we have u'

$$= \frac{7a(\sin \theta + \sin i)}{\lambda}$$

which is nearly equal to u since $a \sin i$ is a ^{very} small quantity.

For v we have v'

$$= \frac{7(a+b)(\sin \theta + \sin i)}{\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{7b(\sin \theta + \sin i)}{\lambda}$$

which $\neq v$ since $b \sin i$ is not negligible

\therefore Illumination due to star S_2

$$= I_2 = 4a^2 \frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} \times \cos^2 v'$$

The resultant illumination $= I_1 + I_2$

\therefore is $\propto \cos^2 v + \cos^2 v'$

$$\propto 2 + \cos 2v + \cos 2v'$$

The fringes just disappear when the values of v & v' are such that the expression has no maxima & minima

which is satisfied when $v' - v = (2m+1) \frac{\pi}{2}$

$$2v' - 2v = (2n+1)\pi$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 2v' &= \cos(2v + (2n+1)\pi) \\ &= -\cos 2v \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \cos 2v' + \cos 2v = 0$ i.e. The expression is a constant

For the first position when fringes disappear $n=0$, $v' - v = \frac{\pi}{2}$

$$v' = \pi b (\sin i + i) / \lambda$$

$$v = \pi b \sin i / \lambda \quad \therefore \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi b i}{\lambda}$$

$$\therefore i = \frac{\lambda}{2b}$$

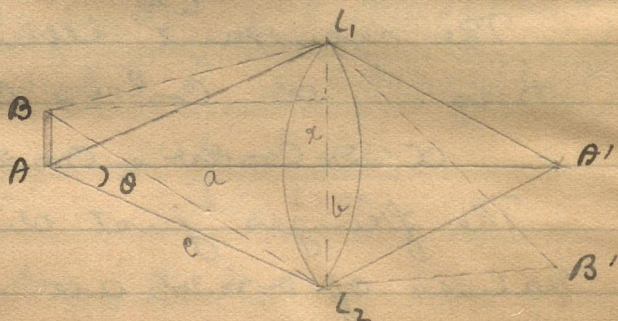
b being exactly determined the linear separation i can be readily calculated.

Resolving power of a microscope

Let AB be an object in front of the objective A being on the principal axis.

The image of A

is a patch of light with A' as centre, π of B is another patch with B' as centre. A & B



are just resolved if the first dark ring
 round the patch B' passes through A ,
 i.e. if the path difference of the extreme
 rays B_1L_1A' & B_2L_2A' is λ i.e. if $B_2L_2 - B_1L_1 =$

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= \sqrt{a^2 + (b+x)^2} - \sqrt{a^2 + (b-x)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + 2bx} - \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 - 2bx} \\ &= c \left\{ 1 + \frac{2bx}{c^2} \right\}^{1/2} - c \left\{ 1 - \frac{2bx}{c^2} \right\}^{1/2} \\ &= c \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{bx}{c^2} \right) - \left(1 - \frac{bx}{c^2} \right) \right\} \\ &= \frac{2bx}{c} = 2x \sin \theta. \end{aligned}$$

\therefore The smallest object that can be
 resolved has the dimensions $\frac{\lambda}{2 \sin \theta}$

If the object is immersed in
 oil of refr. index μ , then $\lambda = \mu \times 2x \sin \theta$

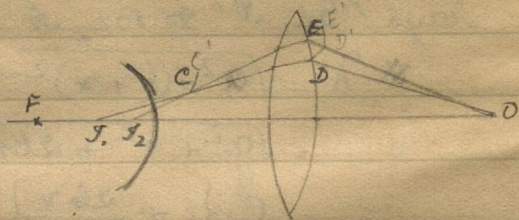
$$x = \frac{\lambda_0}{2\mu \sin \theta} \quad (\text{Num. ap. } = \mu \sin \theta)$$

Spherical aberration The lens &

$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{u}$ etc were derived on the
 supposition that the L subtended by
 the object at the lens is small; but
 when the aperture of the lens is large

is condition is not satisfied. Rays starting from a point object do not form a point image. Two rays OE, OD can near each other meet at C

after ~~an~~ refraction, and only after passing through C do they meet



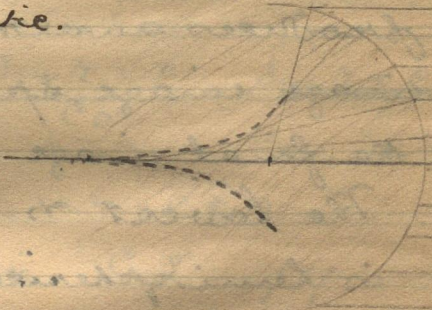
the axis of the lens. If the element CD be rotated about the axis OF_1 , OE, D forms a small oblique centric pencil (oblique since OD is oblique to OF_1 , the axis of the lens, & centric because all the rays of the pencil are not far from the centre of $(EDD'E')$)

The line pt C describes a line CC' \perp to the plane of the paper. Thus the pencil gives rise to two focal lines CC' \perp to the plane of the paper, & F_1, F_2 in the plane of the paper. As we pass from C to F_1 , the width ~~of~~ of the pencil decreases in the line \perp to the paper, & increases in the ^{between C and D} plane of the paper. At some point, both

widths are equal to the pencil is O_1 . It is called the circle of least confusion. If a sphere about the focus on the surface of which this O_1 lies will also have on its surface all the O_1 s of least confusion refracted from the various elements of the lens. This surface will give the ~~best~~ ^{best definition} ~~least distorted~~ image of an ~~extended~~ ^{point} source at O .

The envelope of all the refracted rays is called a caustic.

The figure shows the caustic for refraction of a parallel beam into a spherical surface.



It is impossible to design a lens such that rays from any point on its axis are brought to focus at any some other point. But a lens ~~be~~ may be constructed which can bring accurate to a point focus rays from some particular

point on its axis. Such a lens is called aplanatic & the particular positions of source & image are called aplanatic foci.

Abbe's oil immersion microscope objective (Case 98)

This high power objective consists of different combinations of divergent flint glass lenses & convergent crown glass lenses. Each combination produces an extra fold of the image image spectrum

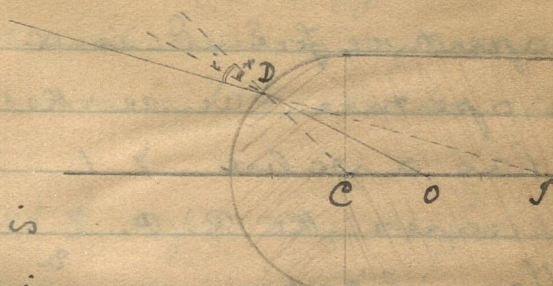


Crown
flint

so that the final image is perfectly aplanatic. The lowest & the nearest to the object is hemispherical & aplanatic as is shown below. The ^{eyepiece} image & the object to be examined are immersed in Cedar wood oil which has refr. index 1.5 nearly the same as that of crown glass.

Let the object be at a pt O on the axis & let C be the centre of curvature, $CO = \frac{R}{\mu}$

ρ being radius of
 curvature n μ
 refr. index of the
 lens to the oil.



The virtual image is
 at F. Let $\angle COF = i$,

$$\angle CDO = r \quad \frac{\sin i}{\sin r} = \mu \quad \text{But } \frac{\sin i}{\sin \angle CFO} = \frac{CF}{\rho}$$

$$\frac{\sin r}{\sin \angle CDO} = \frac{\rho}{CF} \quad \frac{CF}{\rho} = \frac{\sin i}{\sin r} \times \frac{\sin \angle CDO}{\sin \angle CFO}$$

$$\text{But } \angle CDO = \angle CFO + i - r$$

$$\text{Also } \sin \angle CDO = \frac{\sin r \times \rho}{CO} = \frac{\sin r \times \rho \times \mu}{\rho} = \mu \sin r = \sin i$$

$$\therefore \angle CFO = r \quad \text{or } \angle CDO = i$$

$$\frac{CF}{CO} = \mu^2 \quad \text{ie } CF = \mu^2 CO$$

Thus whatever be the LS of incidence
 the refracted rays when produced pass
 through a pt F at distance $\mu^2 \rho$ from the
 Centre of C.

Thus there is no spherical aberration
 however large be the aperture. Since
 resolving power is $\propto \frac{\rho \mu \sin \theta}{\lambda}$,

R. P. is largely increased by increasing
 aperture, foind is \propto increases with
 the aperture. Since the object is in oil
 has a value > 1 \therefore this factor also
 increases the R. P.

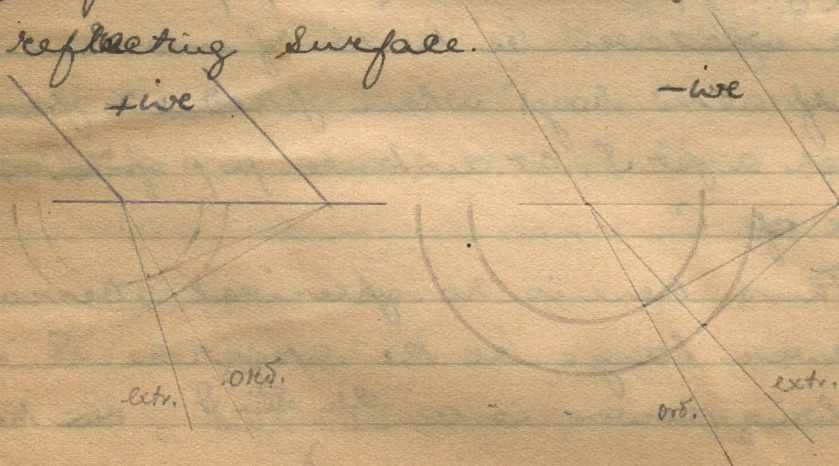
$$\text{Magnification} = \frac{v}{\mu \times u} = \frac{\mu P I}{P O} = \mu^2$$

Thus the intro presence of the hemispherical lens increases the magnification of the eyepiece μ^2 times.

Polarization

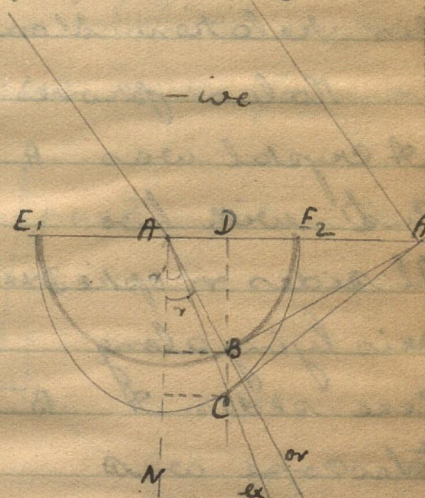
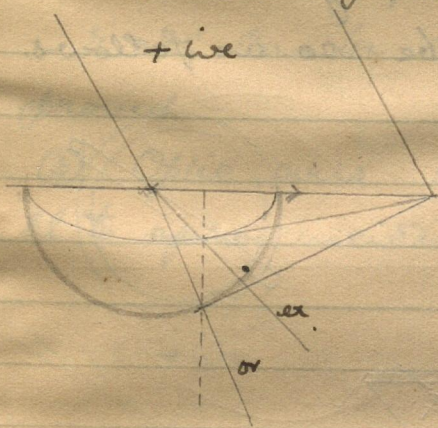
The three principal sections to verify Huyghen's theory of double wave surface in a uniaxial crystal.

1) Optic axis \perp to incident plane & \parallel to reflecting surface.



If the theory is correct, for a crystal cut in this Surtis way the extraordinary refractive index should be constant. This has been proved to be the case.

2) Optic axis \parallel to refracting surface, \parallel to incident plane.



Let LS NAC & NAB be r' & r

$\tan r' / \tan r = \frac{AD}{DC} \times \frac{DB}{AD} = \frac{DB}{DC}$ for BC is \perp to AA' since the O is within the ellipse & tangents are drawn from a pt on the common diameter. Let AD be y , & DC be x

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} = \frac{b^2 - y^2}{b^2} = \frac{(b+y)(b-y)}{b^2}$$

$$= \frac{E_1 D \times D E_2}{b^2} = \frac{DB^2}{b^2}$$

$$i.e. \frac{DB}{DC} = \frac{b}{a}$$

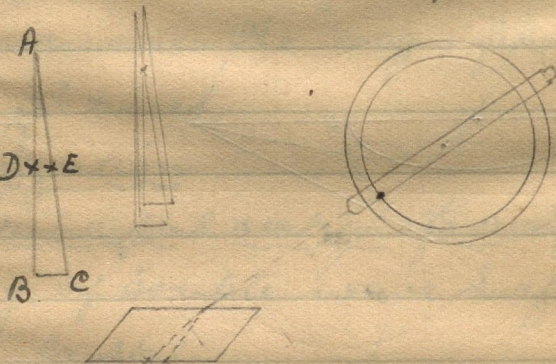
Now $\frac{b}{a}$ in a - ve crystal = $\frac{\mu_e}{\mu_o}$

$$\therefore \tan \kappa' / \tan \kappa = \mu_e / \mu_o$$

If the section of the wavesurface in the plane of the paper is an ellipse this relation should hold good.

Malus proved it to be so as follows.

A crystal was cut with two parallel sides & optic D & E axis lying along these sides. A



telescope was

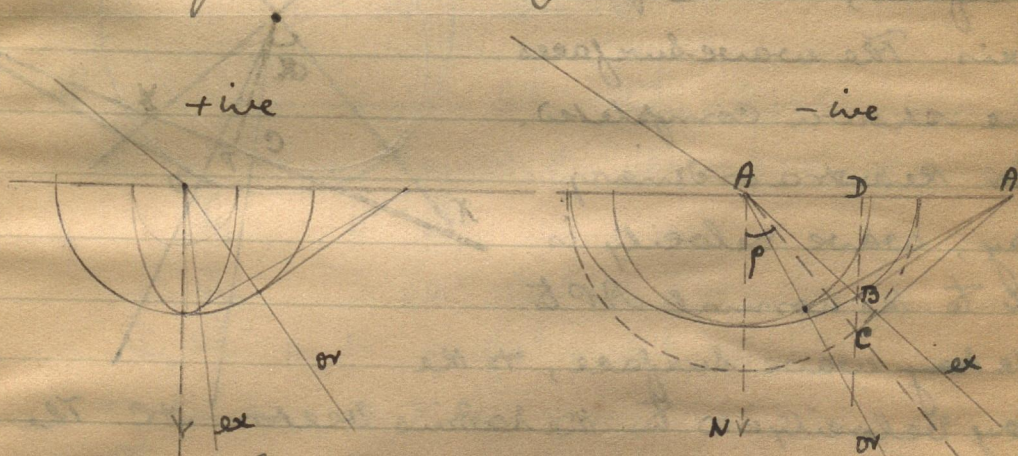
mounted on a gradu-

ated vertical circle & the optic axis adjusted to be in the same vertical plane as the C.

A steel strip shaped like a narrow set square having its long sides graduated & placed below the crystal. Two images of the set square are seen in the telescope & some point ^{of A B} D of one image coincides with

Some other point E on AC. DE can be calculated from the graduations on the set square. If e be the thickness of the plate $e (\tan r - \tan r') = DE$.
 But $\tan r = \frac{\sin r}{\cos r}$ $\sin r = \frac{\sin i}{\mu_0}$ $\cos r = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 i}{\mu_0^2}}$
 is the \angle the telescope makes with the vertical
 $\therefore r$ & r' can be calculated & the formula proved.

(3) Optic axis \perp to refracting plane & \parallel to optic incident plane.



Let $\odot O$ be drawn with A as centre & radius = a. Let $A'B'$ be tangent to the \odot . Let $\angle NAC$ be p , $\angle NAB$ be r'
 $\frac{\tan p}{\tan r'} = \frac{DB}{DC} = \frac{b}{a} = \frac{\mu_2}{\mu_0}$ But p is the \angle of

refraction in the first case, i.e.

$\mu_1 \sin i = \mu_2 \sin r$. This is by conducting an experiment like to the former but with a crystal having its optic axis \perp to the refracting surface, or n' can be found out & the relation

$$\frac{\sin r}{\sin i} = \frac{\mu_2}{\mu_1} \text{ can be verified.}$$

Wave Velocity & Ray Velocity

In the figure

AB is the refracting surface, Ax the optic axis. The wave surfaces are shown completed.

For the extraordinary ray, wave velocity is \propto to the normal AP to

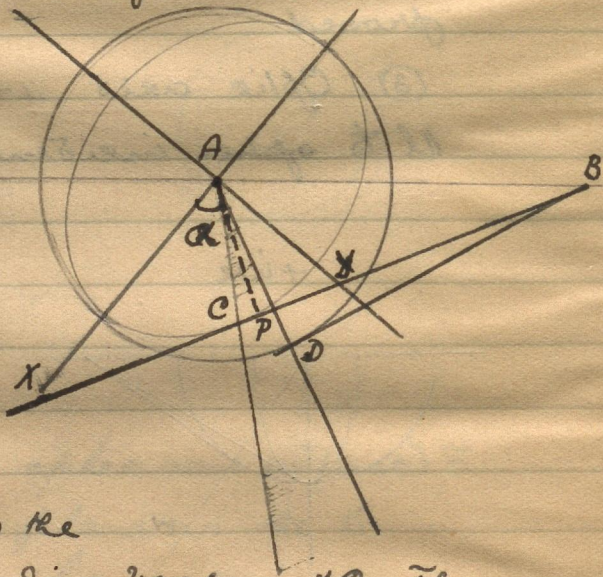
the ray wave surface, & the

ray velocity is \propto to the radius vector AC. The two are not equal.

Let $\angle APX$ be α & $AP = \rho$

Equation of the ellipse is $x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha = \rho$.

An eqn to the ellipse is $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$



Since the line is a tangent to the ellipse,
 there is only one point of intersection

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} = 1 - \frac{y^2}{b^2}$$

ie $x^2 b^2 = a^2 b^2 - a^2 y^2$

but $y = (p - a \cos \alpha) / \sin \alpha \times x$
 $\therefore x^2 b^2 = a^2 b^2 - a^2 \left\{ \frac{p - x \cos \alpha}{\sin \alpha} \right\}^2$

$$\text{ie } x^2 \left\{ b^2 + \frac{a^2 \cos^2 \alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha} \right\} - 2 \frac{a^2 p \cos \alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha} x + a^2 \frac{p^2 \cos^2 \alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha} - a^2 b^2 = 0$$

Since here $4ac = b^2$, $p^2 = a^2 \cos^2 \alpha + b^2 \sin^2 \alpha$

In a +ve crystal wave vel. of ordin

$$w_0 = a$$

$$w_2 = (a^2 \cos^2 \alpha + b^2 \sin^2 \alpha)^{1/2}$$

$$\therefore w_0^2 - w_2^2 = (a^2 - b^2) \sin^2 \alpha$$

∴ since $a > b$, $w_0 > w_2$.

In an * negative crystal, α is the inclination of the wave normal to the normal to the optic axis. If β is the inclination to the wave normal, then,

$$p^2 = a^2 \sin^2 \alpha + b^2 \cos^2 \alpha$$

$$\therefore w_0^2 - w_e^2 = (a^2 - b^2) \cos^2 \alpha.$$

Here $b > a \therefore w_e > w_0$.

The ray velocity is ∞ to AC .

Let $\angle xAC = \theta$

If $AP = r$, $\therefore \text{Cis}(\alpha y)$

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

\therefore Since $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$

$$\frac{\cos^2 \theta}{a^2} + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{b^2} = \frac{1}{r^2}$$

In a +ive crystal ~~the~~ ray velocity of

ordinary $R_o = a$ $\frac{1}{R_o^2} = \frac{1}{a^2}$

$$\frac{1}{R_e^2} = \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{a^2} + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{b^2}$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{R_o^2} - \frac{1}{R_e^2} = \left(\frac{1}{a^2} - \frac{1}{b^2} \right) \sin^2 \theta$$

\therefore Since $a > b$

$$R_o > R_e$$

In a -ive crystal

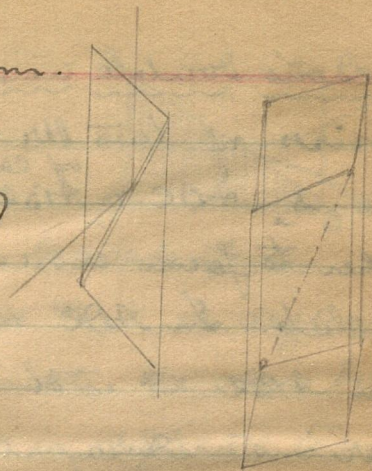
$$\frac{1}{R_o^2} - \frac{1}{R_e^2} = \left(\frac{1}{a^2} - \frac{1}{b^2} \right) \cos^2 \theta$$

\therefore Since $a < b$

$$\underline{\underline{R_o < R_e}}$$

Polarizers Nicol prism.

The top face is so inclined that the ordinary when incident upon the balsam is totally reflected internally & is absorbed by black



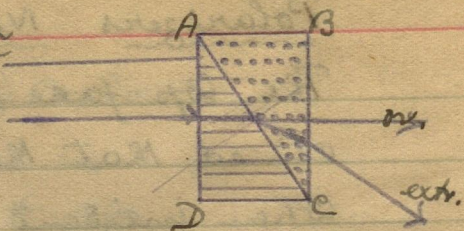
chasing on the sides. The \angle of incidence should be greater than i ($= \sin^{-1} \frac{1.53}{1.658} = 67^\circ - 19'$). The extraordinary is ~~not at all~~ reflected on very slightly.

Foucault prism has the advantage of being shorter since the film of separation is air. If the ordinary should be reflected, but not the extraordinary $i > \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{1.658}$ but $< \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{1.486}$ i.e. $i > 34^\circ < 42^\circ$. The disadvantage is that the extraordinary is also copiously reflected \therefore the image is faint.

Tourmaline is a uniaxial crystal with a high absorptive power for the ordinary ray.

Roche's Double Image Prism

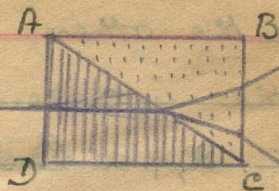
consists of two 45° rt. \angle prisms of calc. joined together to form a rectangular slab.



In ADC the optic axis is \parallel to DC , in ABC it is \parallel to the refracting edge of a prism. A ray incident on face AD normally splits up into o.r. & extraord., & since they travel along the optic axis, have the same speed of propagation until they reach AC . Beyond AC the ordinary travels along the same st. line, but the extraordinary emerging from a denser to a lighter medium is deflected away from the normal. On reaching BC a further deflection takes place. Thus o.r. & extraord. are seen quite separate.

Wollaston's prism is the same as Roche's. Incident light is incident on DC . In the first prism both ordinary & extraord. travel along the same paths, but with diff-

erent velocities. On reaching $A B C$ both ordinary of 1st becomes ext. & vice versa; one travels from denser to rarer medium \therefore is deflected away from the normal, the other travels from rarer to denser & is deflected toward the normal. On reaching $B C$ further deflections occur \therefore the two rays are seen more separate than in the former case.



Elliptic or Cr polarization - Theory, production & characteristic analysis
 of P. A. Notes Page 187-193.

Fresnel's Theory of rotatory polarization
 Fresnel assumed that when a plane polarized beam is incident on an optically active medium, it is split into two plane polarized beams revolving in opposite directions, one advancing with a velocity greater

than the other. Thus if $y = 2a \sin \omega t$
is the incident beam, it is split up

$$\text{into } x_1 = a \cos \omega t, \quad y_1 = +a \sin \omega t \quad (1)$$

$$x_2 = -a \cos \omega t, \quad y_2 = +a \sin \omega t \quad (2)$$

If μ_1, μ_2 be refractive indices,

v_1, v_2 for the two beams,

path retardation in traversing a distance

e in the medium = $(\mu_1 - \mu_2)e$ or phase

$$\text{retardation } \delta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)e.$$

\therefore On emergence the two Ols become

$$x_1 = a \cos \omega t, \quad y_1 = a \sin \omega t$$

$$x_2 = -a \cos(\omega t + \delta), \quad y_2 = a \sin(\omega t + \delta).$$

The resultant vibration is

$$x = (x_1 + x_2) = 2a \sin \frac{\delta}{2} \sin(\omega t + \frac{\delta}{2})$$

$$y = (y_1 + y_2) = 2a \cos \frac{\delta}{2} \sin(\omega t + \frac{\delta}{2})$$

to which is evidently a st. line

inclined at $\phi = \frac{\delta}{2}$ to the former direction.

Thus the rotation = $\frac{\delta}{2}$.

$\delta = n_1 \lambda_1 = n_2 \lambda_2$ where n_1, n_2

are no. of waves in distance e
are frequencies, λ_1, λ_2 wave lengths

of the two rays. The phase retardation

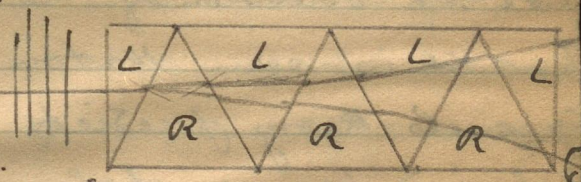
$$\delta = 2\pi (n_1 - n_2) = 2\pi e \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_1} - \frac{1}{\lambda_2} \right)$$

$$= (2\pi d\lambda) \frac{e}{\lambda^2}$$

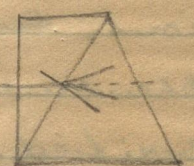
Thus Biot's law's $\varphi \propto e$ & $\varphi \propto \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$ get established.

Fresnel's pile of prisms

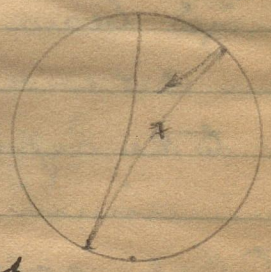
A direct proof of the above ^{theory} is afforded by a pile of quartz prisms arranged alternately with the base in opposite directions. They



are all cut with optic axis \parallel to the base & \parallel to the incident beam & alternately they are levogyrate & dextrogyrate.



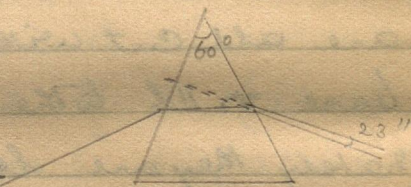
Thus unlike to the Olan motion which is faster in one prism is slower in the other. Hence when now passing from the first to the second prism, one of the Olanly



Polarized rays is deflected towards the normal i.e. downwards, & the other is deflected upwards. When passing the third prism, the first is deflected away from the normal, that is, downwards since the direction of the normal is different. Thus it is seen that on emergence, Fresnel's theory predicts two clearly polarized beams, polarized in opposite directions, emerging at different angles. This phenomenon has been experimentally verified.

Cornu's Prism

Cornu observed that a monochromatic plane polarized beam passed through a quartz 60° prism cut with optic axis \parallel to the base & \perp to the refracting edge, & adjusted for minimum deviation, gave rise to two clearly polarized beams with an angular separation of $23''$.



Consider a half prism

The phase retardation between the two O larly polarized

$$\text{beams} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (\mu_1 - \mu_2) e$$

where μ_1 or μ_2 are the corres-

ponding indices, e is the thickness of the medium traversed, \therefore this is $2 \times$ rotation twice the rotation of the plane of polarization

If $\theta =$ rotation per cm,

$$\theta e = \frac{\pi}{\lambda} (\mu_1 - \mu_2) e$$

$$\text{i.e. } d\mu = \frac{\theta \lambda}{\pi}$$

If ϕ be the \angle of emergence,

$$\mu = \frac{\sin \phi}{\sin \theta} = 2 \sin \phi$$

$$d\mu = 2 \cos \phi d\phi$$

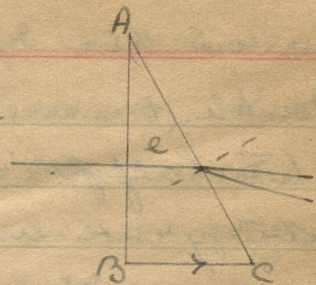
$$\therefore d\phi = \frac{\theta \lambda}{\pi \times 2 \cos \phi} = \frac{\theta \lambda}{\pi}$$

Since $\mu = 1.544$, θ per mm is $\frac{\sqrt{4 - \mu^2}}{2}$ is 21.4°

$$\text{i.e. } \theta = 21.4^\circ,$$

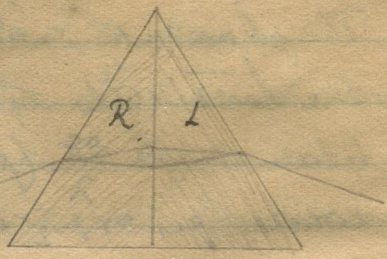
$$d\phi = \frac{21.4 \times 5.893 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi \times \sqrt{4 - 1.544^2}} = 11.5''$$

Hence for the full prism rotation \angle of deviation is $23''$



To avoid this difficulty, Cornu constructed

a double prism made of two half prisms one dextrogyrate and another levogyrate, the result



for both having ~~same~~ equal rotatory power, cut with optic axis III to the base. The resultant effect of the two is zero.

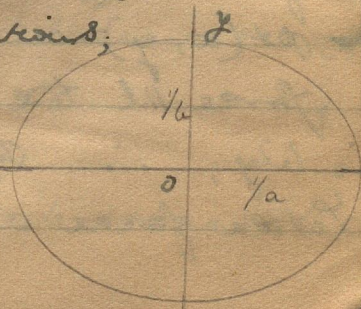
Fresnel's elastic solid theory

Fresnel assumed a hypothetical medium ether filling up the interspaces of matter, to having its elastic properties modified by the ~~the~~ properties of the matter with which it is entangled. Light waves are propagated by transverse vibrations in ether. In isotropic media the entangled ether has identical properties in all directions, but the properties of the entangled ether are different in different directions when the matter is

anisotropic - that is, one which has
 sp. conductivity for heat, electricity, elastic
 coefft. of expansion etc & other such
 physical properties different in different
 directions. Thus Fresnel assumes that
 the elasticity e_1, e_2, e_3 of the unstrained
 ether along the three principal axes
 x, y, z are different. Suppose a plane
 polarized wave is propagated along the
 z -axis, the plane of vibration being
 the $(x-z)$ plane. Its velocity is $\sqrt{\frac{e_1}{d}}$
 d being density of ether. If the plane
 of vibration is the $(y-z)$ plane, the
 velocity is $\sqrt{\frac{e_2}{d}}$. Let $a^2 \propto e_1, b^2 \propto e_2$

Then the ellipse $a^2x^2 + b^2y^2 = 1$ is
 called the ellipse of elasticity. Its
 property is that the axes are ^{inversely} \propto to the
 roots of elasticities in the $x-y$ directions;

& that the velocity of a
 wave propagated in δ
 the plane of the ellipse,



and having vibrations \parallel to the major (or minor) axis has a velocity \propto to the reciprocal of the semi-major (or-minor) axis

Similar ellipses can be drawn for all the infinite possible directions of propagation, the envelope of all of which will form an ellipsoid $a^2x^2 + b^2y^2 + c^2z^2 = 1$, called the ellipsoid of elasticity.

If a particle is displaced along the x -axis force of restitution is along xO , it is a^2 per unit displacement.

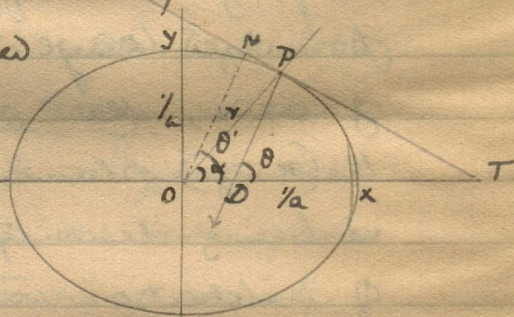
Similarly, since $a^2 \propto l$,

if the particle is displaced along Oy , the force of restitution is along yO , it is b^2 per unit displacement.

If the displacement is along OP , P being a pt (x, y) on the ellipse,

force \parallel to x -axis is a^2x , \parallel to y -axis is b^2y , \therefore Resultant force $R = \sqrt{a^4x^2 + b^4y^2}$

Let the force act along PD , $\therefore \angle PDx = \theta$



$\tan \theta = \frac{b^2 y}{a^2 x}$. But $\tan \alpha = \frac{y}{x}$
 α being $\rho \hat{O}x$. Thus the force of
 restitution is not necessarily along
 PO . ~~It~~

Now $\theta + \rho \hat{T}D = \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\therefore -\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{b^2 y}{a^2 x} = \tan \alpha$
 i.e. $\theta + \rho \hat{T}D = \frac{\pi}{2}$,

i.e. the force acts along the normal to
the tangent of the ellipse at P.

It can be shown that the velocity of
 propagation of a wave having vibration
 \parallel to a given radius vector (say PO) is
 inversely \propto to that radius vector.

Velocity \propto Elasticity ~~\propto~~

\propto elasticity \propto the force

Now force of restitution \propto to PO

$$= R \cos(\theta - \alpha) = R(\cos \theta \cos \alpha + \sin \theta \sin \alpha)$$

$$= R \left(\frac{a^2 x^2}{R^2} + \frac{b^2 y^2}{R^2} \right) = \frac{a^2 x^2 + b^2 y^2}{r} = \frac{r}{r^2}$$

\therefore force per unit displacement: $\frac{1}{r^2}$

i.e. Elasticity $\propto \frac{1}{r^2}$

\therefore hence velocity $\propto \frac{1}{r}$

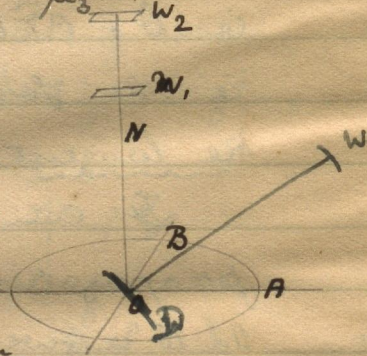
Since velocity v , of vibrations \parallel to

the axis $\propto \frac{1}{a}$ ~~is~~ & $\mu_1 = \frac{v_0}{v_1}$ μ_1 being
 the corresponding refr. index. $\therefore \mu_1 \propto \frac{1}{a}$
 $\mu_2 \propto \frac{1}{a}$, $\mu_3 \propto \frac{1}{c}$.

Hence eqn to the ellipsoid of elasticity
 can be written as $\frac{x^2}{\mu_1^2} + \frac{y^2}{\mu_2^2} + \frac{z^2}{\mu_3^2} = 1$

Eqn. to a wave surface

Suppose at any instant
 a large number of plane waves
 are passing in different directions
 through a pt O in a crystal.



Corresponding to each direction
 of transmission there will in general
 be two elements of plane wavefronts
 w_1 & w_2 travelling with different velocities.
 The envelope of all wavefronts corresponding
 to w_1 produces one wave surface & the
 envelope ^{of wavefronts} corresponding to w_2 produces another
 wave surface & they together form
 the wave surface in a crystal.

Consider an element W_0 of the wave
 surface. Let $W_0 = v_1$ & let l, m, n
^{the velocity}

be Direction Cosines of WO w.r.t. the x - y - z axes. Let w be the pt (x, y, z)

$$\therefore x = lx + my + nz \quad (1)$$

This equⁿ when ~~the variables are~~ eliminated ~~gives~~ the equⁿ to the wave surface.

Let displacement be r in direction OD i.e. whose direction cosines are ξ, η, ζ .

Components of r along the 3 axes are $r\xi, r\eta, r\zeta$.

Compounding these along OW

$$\text{Displacement along } OW = r\xi l + r\eta m + r\zeta n$$

which should be zero

$$\therefore l\xi + m\eta + n\zeta = 0 \quad (2)$$

Let R be the force of restitution & F & f its components along OD & OW .

Components of F along the 3 axes are

$$F\xi, F\eta, F\zeta$$

Components of f along the 3 axes are

$$fl, fm, fn.$$

$$\text{Now } F\xi + fl = a^2 x = a^2 r\xi.$$

$$\text{If } x=1, v^2 = F \therefore v^2 \xi + fl = a^2 \xi$$

$$\text{or } \xi = \frac{fl}{a^2 - v^2}$$

$$\text{Substituting in (2)} \quad \frac{l^2}{v^2 - a^2} + \frac{m^2}{v^2 - b^2} + \frac{n^2}{v^2 - c^2} = 0 \quad (3)$$

Again $l^2 + m^2 + n^2 = 1$ (4) being sum of the sqs. of direction cosines.

$$\text{Thus } lx + my + nz = v \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{l^2}{v^2 - a^2} + \frac{m^2}{v^2 - b^2} + \frac{n^2}{v^2 - c^2} = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$l^2 + m^2 + n^2 = 1 \quad (4)$$

Differentiating $lx + my + nz = v$ (5)

$$\frac{l dx}{v^2 - a^2} + \frac{m dm}{v^2 - b^2} + \frac{n dn}{v^2 - c^2} - v dv \left\{ \frac{l^2}{(v^2 - a^2)^2} + \frac{m^2}{(v^2 - b^2)^2} + \frac{n^2}{(v^2 - c^2)^2} \right\} = 0 \quad (6)$$

$$\therefore l dx + m dm + n dn = 0 \quad (7)$$

Equating like coeffs in (5) & (6) $\times B + (7) \times A$

$$x = \frac{Bl}{v^2 - a^2} + Al; \quad y = \frac{Bm}{v^2 - b^2} + Am; \quad z = \frac{Bn}{v^2 - c^2} + An \quad (8)$$

$$Bv \left\{ \frac{l^2}{(v^2 - a^2)^2} + \frac{m^2}{(v^2 - b^2)^2} + \frac{n^2}{(v^2 - c^2)^2} \right\} = 1 \quad (9)$$

Substituting (8) in (1)

$$l^2 \left\{ \frac{B}{v^2 - a^2} + A \right\} + m^2 \left\{ \frac{B}{v^2 - b^2} + A \right\} + n^2 \left\{ \frac{B}{v^2 - c^2} + A \right\} = 0$$

$$\text{ie } B \sum \frac{l^2}{v^2 - a^2} + A \sum l^2 = 0$$

$$\text{By (3)} \sum \frac{l^2}{v^2 - a^2} = 0; \quad \& \text{ by (4)} \sum l^2 = 1$$

$$\therefore A = 0. \quad (10')$$

$$\text{From (8)} (x - Al)^2 = \left\{ \frac{Bl}{v^2 - a^2} \right\}^2$$

$$\text{ie } \{x^2 - 2Alx + A^2l^2\} = B^2 \left\{ \frac{l^2}{(v^2 - a^2)^2} \right\}$$

$$\text{Now } \sum x^2 = r^2; \quad \sum lx = v \quad \text{by (1)}$$

$$\sum l^2 = 1 \quad \text{by (4)}$$

$$\& \sum \frac{l^2}{v^2 - a^2} = \frac{1}{Bv} \quad \text{by (10')}$$

$$\therefore r^2 - 2Av + A^2 = \frac{B^2}{Bv} \quad \& \text{ since } A = 0$$

$$\text{ie } r^2 - v^2 = \frac{B}{v} \quad \text{ie } B = v(r^2 - v^2) \quad (11)$$

$$\therefore x = lv + \frac{l}{v^2 - a^2} \cdot v(r^2 - v^2) \quad \text{from (8)}$$

$$\text{i.e. } x = lv \left\{ 1 + \frac{x^2 - v^2}{v^2 - a^2} \right\} = vl \frac{x^2 - a^2}{v^2 - a^2}$$

$$\text{i.e. } l = \frac{x(v^2 - a^2)}{v(x^2 - a^2)} \quad (12)$$

Substituting in (1) $\leq x^2 \cdot \frac{v^2 - a^2}{v(x^2 - a^2)} = v$

$$\text{i.e. } \leq x^2 \cdot \frac{v^2 - a^2}{x^2 - a^2} = v^2 = v^2 x \leq \frac{x^2}{x^2}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \leq x^2 \cdot \left\{ \frac{v^2 - a^2}{x^2 - a^2} - \frac{x^2}{x^2} \right\} = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } \leq x^2 \cdot \left\{ \frac{a^2 v^2 - a^2 x^2}{x^2 (x^2 - a^2)} \right\} = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } \leq x^2 \cdot \frac{a^2 (v^2 - x^2)}{x^2 (x^2 - a^2)} = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } \underline{\underline{\frac{x^2 a^2}{x^2 - a^2} + \frac{y^2 b^2}{x^2 - b^2} + \frac{z^2 c^2}{x^2 - c^2} = 0.}} \quad (13)$$

The above is the req^d eqⁿ to the wave surface

The eqⁿ to the normal velocity surface is obtained from this by putting $\frac{1}{a}$ for $\frac{1}{v}$, $\frac{1}{x}$ for v etc. Thus $\frac{a^2}{x^2 - a^2}$ becomes

$$\frac{(1/a)^2}{(1/\kappa)^2 - (1/a)^2} = \frac{\kappa^2}{a^2 - \kappa^2}$$

Hence eqn to the normal

velocity surface is

$$\sum \frac{a^2 \kappa^2}{a^2 - \kappa^2} = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\kappa^2 - a^2} + y^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\kappa^2 - b^2} + z^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\kappa^2 - c^2} = 0$$

To obtain the plane figures got by the intersection of any of the three planes xy , yz , or zx with the figures of eqn (13) the following transformation is necessary.

Multiplying through out by $(\kappa^2 - a^2)(\kappa^2 - b^2)(\kappa^2 - c^2)$

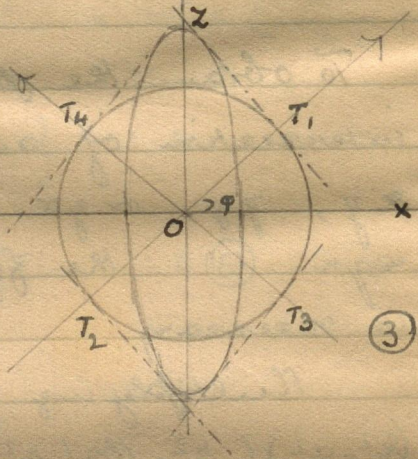
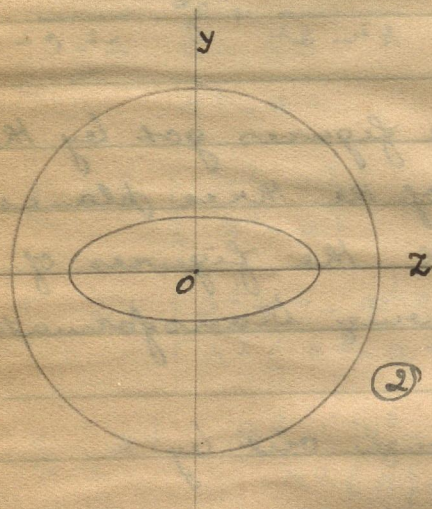
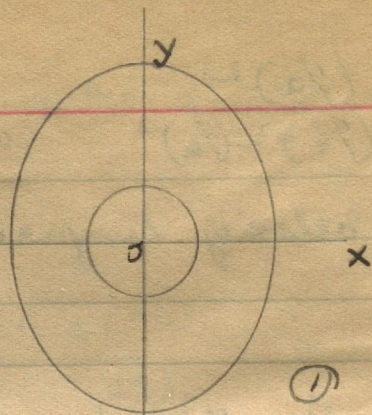
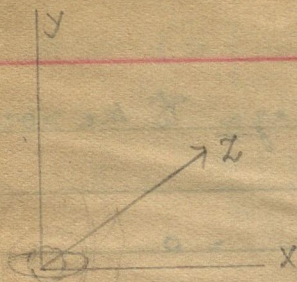
$$\sum x^2 a^2 (\kappa^2 - b^2)(\kappa^2 - c^2) = 0 \quad (15)$$

In this putting $z=0$

$$x^2 a^2 (\kappa^2 - b^2)(\kappa^2 - c^2) + y^2 b^2 (\kappa^2 - c^2)(\kappa^2 - a^2) - c^2 x^2 a^2 \{ \kappa^4 - \kappa^2 (b^2 + c^2) + b^2 c^2 \} = 0$$

$$+ y^2 b^2 \{ \kappa^4 - \kappa^2 a^2 \}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \kappa^4 \sum a^2 x^2 - \kappa^2 \sum x^2 a^2 (b^2 + c^2) + a^2 b^2 c^2 \sum x^2 = 0$$



Since $\sum x^2 = r^2$.

$$r^2 \sum a^2 x^2 + a^2 b^2 c^2 - \sum x^2 a^2 (b^2 + c^2) = 0.$$

In this putting $z = 0$

$$r^2 (a^2 x^2 + b^2 y^2) + a^2 b^2 c^2 - x^2 a^2 (b^2 + c^2) - y^2 b^2 (c^2 + a^2) = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } (x^2 + y^2) (a^2 x^2 + b^2 y^2) - c^2 (a^2 x^2 + b^2 y^2) \\ \div b^2 a^2 (x^2 + y^2) + c^2 a^2 b^2$$

$$i \left\{ (x^2 + y^2) - c^2 \right\} \left\{ \left(\frac{x^2}{b^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2} \right) - 1 \right\} = 0$$

This comprises a circle of radius c & an ellipse of ^{semi} axes b & a , thus giving the section in the (x, y) plane.

By symmetry, we have in the (y, z) plane a \odot of radius a , & an ellipse of ^{semi} axes c & b (axis \parallel to y axis is c)

In the (z, x) plane it is a \odot of radius b & an ellipse of ^{semi} axes a & c , (the axis \parallel to the z axis is a .)

The four planes represented by the tangents in fig (3) are common to both the wave surfaces. Hence along the normal to these tangents both the waves are propagated with equal velocity. The four planes form two pairs & each pair has a common normal. Thus there are two or and only two directions in a crystal along which the two waves are propagated with the same velocity.

Crystals are in general uniaxial.

Eqn to the optic axis (OY_1)

Eqn to a tangent normal to an ellipse
is $p^2 = a^2 \sin^2 \theta + c^2 \cos^2 \theta$

being $\angle Y_1 O X$

But $p = b$ i.e. $b^2 = a^2 \sin^2 \theta + c^2 \cos^2 \theta$

$$\therefore b^2 - c^2 = (a^2 - c^2) \sin^2 \theta.$$

$$\therefore \tan^2 \theta = \left\{ \frac{(b^2 - c^2)}{(a^2 - b^2)} \right\}^{1/2}.$$

Eqn to OY_1 or OY_2 is

$$y = 0 \quad ; \quad z = \pm x \sqrt{\frac{b^2 - c^2}{a^2 - b^2}}$$

Since $\mu_1 \propto \frac{1}{a}$, $\mu_2 \propto \frac{1}{b}$, $\mu_3 \propto \frac{1}{c}$,

The eqn for the optic axes in terms of the refr. indices is

$$y = 0 \quad ; \quad z = \pm x \left\{ \frac{(\mu_3^2 - \mu_2^2) \mu_1^2}{(\mu_2^2 - \mu_1^2)^2 \mu_3^2} \right\}^{1/2}$$

In a uniaxial - i.e. crystal, $b = c$

Subs. Putting b for c in eqn (13)

On simplifying,

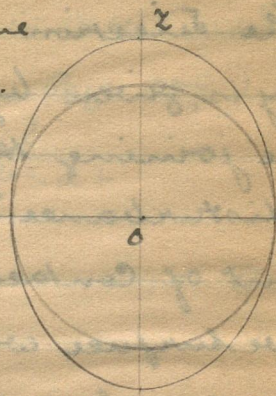
$$(x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - b^2) \left(\frac{x^2}{b^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2} + \frac{z^2}{a^2} - 1 \right) = 0$$

which is the eqn for a sphere of radius b or for a spheroid of generated by an a .

17
ellipse rotating about its major axis

The section in the $(x-z)$ plane gives a circle & an ellipse.

That the two axes optic axes coincide is shown by $\tan \varphi = \left(\frac{b^2 - c^2}{a^2 - b^2} \right)^2 = 0$ since $b = c$. Hence both the axes lie along ox



In a +ive uniaxial crystal, $a = b \neq c$ & the wave surface is

$$(x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - a^2) \left(\frac{x^2}{c^2} + \frac{y^2}{c^2} + \frac{z^2}{a^2} - 1 \right) = 0.$$

Here the spheroid is generated by the ellipse revolving about the major axis. Section in the $(x-z)$ plane gives the \odot outside the ellipse.

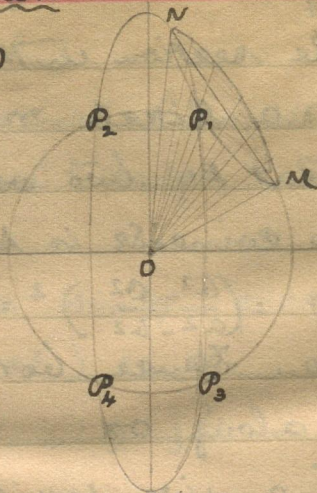
\therefore The optic axes coincide & lie along the z -axis.

In isotropic media, where $a = b = c$, the eqn becomes $(x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - a^2)^2 = 0$

The two wave surfaces are two coincident spheres.

Internal conical refraction

The direction of a refracted ray is given by the line joining the centre of disturbance to the point of contact of the wave surface with the wave envelope, as determined by Huyghens's construction.



Now if the wave envelope be normal to the optic axis, i. e. lies along ON , it can be shown to touch the wave surface not at two points but along a circle. Hence any line joining the point of disturbance (a pt on the face of the crystal on which a plane wave is incident) to any pt on this circle is a possible direction of the refracted ray. Thus we should expect that any wave incident in such a direction that the refracted wavefront travels along the optic axis will be divided not into two rays

but into a cone of rays. This phenomenon predicted by Sir W. Hamilton is called internal conical refraction. (Houston Page 209)

From eqn (1) $\frac{x}{x^2 - a^2} = \mu \frac{l}{b^2 - a^2}$

$\therefore \sum \frac{x l}{x^2 - a^2} = \mu \sum \frac{l^2}{b^2 - a^2} = 0$ by (3)

i.e. $\frac{x l}{x^2 - a^2} + \frac{n z}{x^2 - c^2} = 0$ since $y = 0$

i.e. $x l (x^2 - c^2) + n z (x^2 - a^2) = 0$

But $l x + n z = b$ (2)

i.e. $x l (x^2 - c^2) + (b - l x) (x^2 - a^2) = 0$

∴ Since $b = b$,

$x = \frac{b(x^2 - a^2)}{l(c^2 - a^2)}$

$n z = b - l x = b \left\{ 1 - \frac{x^2 - a^2}{c^2 - a^2} \right\} = \frac{b(c^2 - x^2)}{c^2 - a^2}$

i.e. $z = \frac{b(c^2 - x^2)}{n(c^2 - a^2)}$

∴ $c^2 l x + a^2 n z = \frac{b(a^2(c^2 - x^2) + c^2(x^2 - a^2))}{c^2 - a^2}$

$= b x^2 = b(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$

In Eqn (1) (x, y, z) determine the point of contact of the ray with the wave surface. The direction (l, m, n)

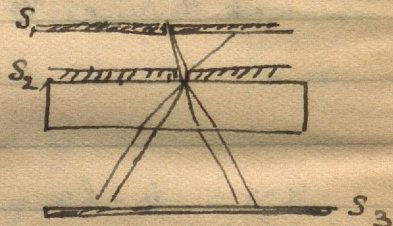
The above is a sphere passing through the origin & having its centre in the (x, z) plane.

The intersection of this sphere with the xy plane PN is the ^{line along which the wave surface is touched by} base of the cone of refraction, ^{the wave envelope} since any plane intersects a sphere in a circle, the ^{line} base of the cone of refraction is a \odot .

An experimental verification was carried out by Lloyd.

A plate of aragonite was cut with its surface \perp to the bisector of the ^{optic} axis.

A screen S_2 with a small hole is placed on it, & another screen S_1 , also with a hole, is supported



at some height. S_1 is illuminated

by an extended source. Two



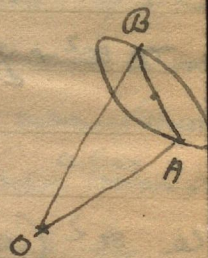
spots are seen on a screen S_3

placed below the plate. As S_1 is moved

keeping the line joining the two holes in the plane containing the optic axis) in one particular position the two spots

Disappear & in their place a circle appears. If S_3 is moved nearer to the plate the \odot remains of the same size, hereby showing that the cone is internal. The ^{L of the cone} radius of the circle as well as the L of incidence in this position show very good agreement with the calculated values. The L of the cone is $1^\circ 50'$

of the L of incidence $15^\circ 40'$ ($1^\circ 55'$ from Healy) \odot
 $15^\circ 18'$. When the ring is examined by an analyzing nicol, it is bright at one end of a diameter & dark at the opposite end, the brightness gradually fading away. This also has been explained by Healy, for it can be shown that two rays OA & OB which meet opposite ends of a diameter of the base of the cone, are polarized in planes perpendicular to each other.



External conical refraction As internal

Conical refraction is produced when a ray
 passes along the direction of single wave velocity,
 external conical refraction is produced when
 a ray passes along the direction of single
 wave ray velocity i.e. in the directions OP_1
 & OP_2 . In general, the ray has two ray
 velocities since the radius vector cuts the
 two sheets of the wave surface at different
 points, & velocity is \propto to the radius vector.
 But at pts P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 there is only one
 radius vector = b , & \therefore hence only
 one ray velocity.

The eqn to OP_1, OP_2 can be derived
 as follows.

P_1 is the intersection of $\frac{x^2}{c^2} + \frac{z^2}{a^2} = 1$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = b^2$$

$$\therefore \frac{x^2}{c^2} + \frac{b^2 - x^2}{a^2} = 1$$

$$\text{i.e. } x^2(a^2 - c^2) = a^2c^2 - c^2b^2 \text{ i.e. } x^2 = \frac{c^2(a^2 - b^2)}{a^2 - c^2}$$

$$\text{Hence } z^2 = \frac{b^2(c^2 - a^2)}{c^2 - b^2} \cdot \frac{b^2 - x^2}{a^2 - c^2} = \frac{a^2(b^2 - c^2)}{a^2 - c^2}$$

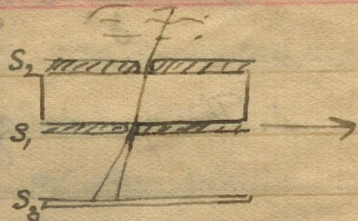
$$\frac{x^2}{z^2} = \frac{c^2(a^2 - b^2)}{a^2(b^2 - c^2)}$$

∴ The eqn is $z = \pm \frac{a}{c} \sqrt{\frac{b^2 - c^2}{a^2 - b^2}} x$, $y = 0$.

At these pts P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 which are the apex of conical pits, an infinite number of tangent planes can be drawn to the wave surface, & these tangent planes constitute a tangent cone. Now the direction of an emergent beam from a crystal is determined by the tangent drawn to the wave surface at the point where the beam meets the surface of the crystal. Hence if a ray travelling through the crystal along the direction of OP_1 or OP_2 should on emergence divide into a cone of rays. This phenomenon was known as external conical refraction was ^{also} verified predicted by Hamilton & verified by Lloyd.

The same plate of aragonite was used,

The movable screen S_1 ,
 being placed below the
 plate. S_2 is illuminated by
 an extended source, & as
 it is moved, in one parti-



cular position the two dots on S_2 become a
 circle. As the S_3 is moved towards the plate,
 the radius of the \odot becomes less & less. The
 angle of the cone was $3^\circ - 1'$ & \angle of incidence $15^\circ - 58'$.
 The values predicted from theory were
 $2^\circ - 59'$ & $15^\circ - 25'$.

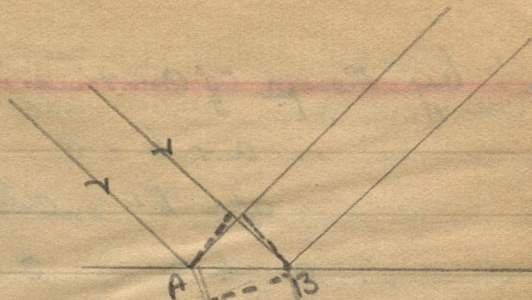
Fresnel's Theory of Reflection & Refraction

Fresnel assumed that no phase
 change is introduced by reflection or
 refraction. Thus if $y = a \sin \omega t$ is
 incident, the reflected & refracted rays
 are given by $y_1 = b \sin \omega t$ & $y_2 = c \sin \omega t$.

The principle of Conservation of
 Energy was supposed to hold true.

Energy incident on the surface $P.S.$
 $= \frac{1}{2} a^2 \rho \times AB \cos i \times v$

ρ being ether
 density above
 the surface, v vel.
 in that surface. If
 no energy is absorbed at the surface, nor is
 spent as longitudinal vibrations, the
 sum of the energies emitted p.s. in reflect
 & refracted beams is $b^2 \rho A B \cos i$ &
 $+ c \rho' A B \cos r$ & v' should be equal to
 incident energy (ρ' & v' refer to the medium
 below the surface



$$\text{is } a^2 - b^2 = c^2 \frac{\rho' v'}{\rho v} \frac{\cos r}{\cos i} = c^2 \frac{v}{v'} \frac{\cos r}{\cos i}$$

$$\text{Since } \rho \propto \frac{1}{v^2} \therefore a^2 - b^2 = c^2 \tan i \cot r.$$

Fresnel also assumed that the
 displacements \perp to the surface are the same
 both above & below the refracting surface;
 that there is no slipping of ether.

1) Light polarized in the incident plane.
 Displacement is \perp to incident plane,
 $\therefore \perp$ to the refracting surface

∴ by the prn of continuity

$$a + b = c$$

$$a^2 - b^2 = c^2 \tan i \cot r.$$

$$\therefore a - b = c \tan i \cot r.$$

$$\therefore 2a = c (\tan i \cot r + 1)$$

$$= c \frac{\sin i \cos r + \cos i \sin r}{\cos i \sin r}$$

$$= c \frac{\sin(i+r)}{\cos i \sin r}$$

$$\text{Wry } 2b = -c \frac{\sin(i-r)}{\cos i \sin r}$$

$$\therefore b = -a \frac{\sin(i-r)}{\sin(i+r)} \quad \text{or} \quad c = +a \frac{2 \cos i \sin r}{\sin(i+r)} \quad (1)$$

Alter in terms of μ ,

$$a + b = c; \quad a^2 - b^2 = c^2 \mu \frac{\cos r}{\cos i}$$

$$\therefore a - b = c \mu \frac{\cos r}{\cos i}$$

$$\therefore 2a = c \frac{\mu \cos r + \cos i}{\cos i}$$

$$2b = -c \frac{\mu \cos r - \cos i}{\cos i}$$

$$\therefore b = a \frac{\mu \cos r - \cos i}{\mu \cos r + \cos i} \quad \text{and} \quad c = a \frac{2 \cos i}{\mu \cos r + \cos i}$$

1) Sign of b is opposite to sign of a if $i - r$ is +ve i.e. if the ray passes from a rarer to a denser medium. (Case 1)

2) Value of b for $i = 0$ $b = -a \frac{\mu - 1}{\mu + 1}$
 for $i = 90^\circ$ $b = -a$

3) Value of c for $i = 0$ $c = \frac{2a}{\mu + 1}$
 for $i = 90^\circ$ $c = 0$

4) The intensities at any incidence are the incident, refl. & refracted rays are

$$\propto a^2, b^2, c^2 \tan^2 i \cot^2 r$$

$$\propto (\mu \cos r + \cos i)^2, (\mu \cos r - \cos i)^2, 4 \cos^2 i \tan^2 i \cot^2 r$$

At normal incidence, they are \propto

$$a^2, a^2 \left(\frac{\mu - 1}{\mu + 1} \right)^2, a^2 \frac{4\mu}{(\mu + 1)^2}$$

This latter result has been verified ^{for light} by Arago, while other experimenters using a thermopile have verified it for heat rays.

The reflected intensity increases with the value of i

2) Light polarized ⊥ to the plane of
incidence.

The Continuity eqn for components \perp to
refracting surface,

$$(a + b) = c \frac{\cos r}{\cos i}$$

$$a^2 - b^2 = c^2 \frac{\sin i}{\sin r} \frac{\cos r}{\cos i}$$

$$\therefore a + b = c \frac{\sin i}{\sin r}$$

$$\therefore 2a = c \left(\frac{\sin i}{\sin r} + \frac{\cos r}{\cos i} \right)$$

$$= c \frac{\sin i \cos i + \cos r \sin r}{\sin r \cos i}$$

$$= c \frac{(\sin i \cos r + \cos i \sin r) (\cos i \cos r + \sin i \sin r)}{\cos i \sin r}$$

$$= c \frac{\sin(i+r) \cos(i-r)}{\cos i \sin r}$$

$$\text{Why } 2b = -c \frac{\sin(i-r) \cos(i+r)}{\cos i \sin r}$$

$$\therefore b = -a \frac{\tan(i-r)}{\tan(i+r)} \quad \text{or } c = a \frac{2 \cos i \sin r}{\sin(i+r) \cos(i-r)}$$

Write in terms of μ $a + b = c \frac{\cos r}{\cos i}$

$$a - b = c\mu$$

$$\therefore 2a = c \frac{\mu \cos i + \cos r}{\cos i}$$

$$2b = c \frac{\mu \cos i - \cos r}{\cos i}$$

$$\therefore b = -a \frac{\mu \cos i - \cos r}{\mu \cos i + \cos r} \quad \text{or} \quad c = a \frac{2 \cos i}{\mu \cos i + \cos r}$$

1) Sign of b is opposite to sign of a if $\tan(i+r)$ is +ve i.e. $i+r < 90^\circ$

It is the same as that of a if $i+r > 90^\circ$.

2) Value of b for $i=0$, $b = -a \frac{\mu-1}{\mu+1}$
 $i+r=90^\circ$, $b=0$

$i=90^\circ$, $b=+a$

Thus as i increases, b changes from a -ve to a +ve value, passing through zero when $i+r=90^\circ$, which is the \angle of max. polarization for an ordinary ray.

3) Value of c for $i=0$, $c = \frac{2a}{\mu+1}$
 $i+r=90^\circ$, $c = a \cdot \frac{2 \cos i \sin r}{\cos(i-r)}$

For $i=90^\circ$, $c=0$.

C & b for $i=0$ are the same for polarization
 \perp to the incident plane as well as for polariza-
 tion \parallel to the incident plane, which is as it
 should be since in both cases light is
 vibrations are \parallel to the surface.

(4) The intensities of the rays are proportional to
 a^2 , b^2 , $c^2 \tan i \cot r$.

$$i \quad a^2, \quad a^2 \frac{\tan^2(\phi - r)}{\tan^2(\phi + r)}, \quad a^2 \frac{4 \cos i \sin r \sin i \cos r}{\sin 2(\phi + r) \cos 2(\phi - r)}$$

$$\text{At } i=0, \quad 1 : \frac{(\mu - 1)^2}{(\mu + 1)^2} : \frac{4\mu}{(\mu + 1)^2}$$

$$\text{At } i + r = 90^\circ \quad 1 : 0 : 1$$

$$\text{At } i = 90 \quad 1 : 1 : 0$$

Light polarized at any azimuth say
 α to the incident plane.

If a be the vibration,
 its component polarized \parallel to the plane
 of incidence is $a \cos \alpha$

its component polarized \perp to the plane
 of incidence is $a \sin \alpha$.

The reflected components due to the two are

Conditions of perpetuation	1 Gladstone & Dale's law	46	Cebalton	113
bandwidth	1 Position & shape of interfringes	48	Fedry Perot interferom.	
Fresnel's binoculars	6 Diffraction	53	Lummer Gehrcke Plate	
Biprism	7 Graphical representation	57	Lines of high resolving power	
Biplate	7 Diffraction Classified	60	Standardizing the metre	
Lloyd's single mirror	8 St. Edge	61	R. P. of a telescope	
Fresnel's 3 mirror	8 Narrow wire	65	R. P. of a prism spectrosc.	
Shift under Composite light	9 Rectangular aperture	67	Babinet's principle	
Int. under high retardation	13 Olav disc	68	Corona	136
Burke's fringes	17 Olav aperture	70	Young's criterion	13
Colours of thin films	19 Fresnel's investigation	71	Diameter of stars	12
Haidinger's fringes	20 Cornu's Spiral	75	Components of a double star	
Refl. & Refr. Coefft	23 Diffr. at St. edge	76	R. P. of a microscope	14
Intensity Haidinger Refl.	24 Nexits & Defects of Fr. Theory	79	Spherical aberration	14
Do Transmitted light	30 Fraunhofer phenomena	82	Huygens' wave surface	
Newton's Rings	33 Diffraction due to a slit	88	Wave vel. may vel.	15
Bright, broad, achromatic	36 " 2 slits	91	Polarizers	157
Brewster's bands	38 Plane Gratings	93	Fresnel's theory of rotatory pol.	15
Nicholson's interferometer	40 Resolving power	102	Elastic solid theory	16
Jamin's interferometer	41 Plane reflection gratings	105	Wave surface	168
Raleigh's interferometer	44 Concave grating	106	Int. & Ext. Conical refraction	11

Cauchy's theory of reflection & refr.	185
Total internal refl.	199
Theory of Neumann's th.	206
Colors of thin crystals	207
Color of iridescent surface	215
Ray effect	219
Wave effect	221
Expts for vel. of light	223
Group velocity	225
Abnormal dispersion	230
Hansen's formula	233
Helmholtz app ⁿ theory	238
Strahlen	240
Reflection & refr. on l.m. theory	243
Refraction	248
Doppler effect	249

$\mu = A + \frac{B}{\lambda^2} \dots$ (Lorenz)

$$J = \frac{4a^2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}}{1 - 2a^2 \cos \epsilon + a^4} \quad J_f = \frac{a^2 (1 - a^2)^2}{1 - 2a^2 \cos \epsilon + a^4}$$

$$K = a^2 \frac{4b^2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}}{(1 - b^2)^2 + 4b^2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}} \quad K_f = a^2 \frac{(1 - b^2)^2}{(1 - b^2)^2 + 4b^2 \sin^2 \frac{\epsilon}{2}}$$

Franhofer - $a^2 b^2 \frac{\sin^2 \frac{\pi a b}{R \lambda}}{\left(\frac{\pi a b}{R \lambda}\right)^2} \cdot \frac{\sin^2 \frac{\pi b^2}{R \lambda}}{\left(\frac{\pi b^2}{R \lambda}\right)^2}$

$$\frac{\left(\frac{\pi a b}{R \lambda}\right)^2}{\sin^2 \frac{\pi a b}{R \lambda}} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{\pi b^2}{R \lambda}\right)^2}{\sin^2 \frac{\pi b^2}{R \lambda}}$$

inc. plane $\phi = -a \frac{\sin(\delta - \epsilon)}{\sin(\epsilon + \delta)}$
 tr. to inc. plane $\phi = -a \frac{\sin(\delta - \epsilon)}{\sin(\epsilon + \delta)}$

