

Solution to PS #2.

Q1: Hecht. P: 7.23.

$$\therefore v_g = \frac{dw}{dk} \quad \omega = \frac{c}{n} k = \nu k, \quad k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}.$$

$$\therefore v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk} = \frac{d(\nu k)}{dk} = \nu \frac{dk}{dk} + k \frac{d\nu}{dk} = \nu + \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{d\nu}{dk}.$$

$$= \nu + \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{d\nu}{d\lambda} \frac{d\lambda}{dk} = \nu + \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{d\nu}{d\lambda} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{dk}{d\lambda}} \right)$$

$$\because k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \quad \therefore dk = -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda^2} d\lambda \quad \Rightarrow \frac{dk}{d\lambda} = -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda^2}$$

$$\therefore v_g = \nu + \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{d\nu}{d\lambda} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{dk}{d\lambda}} \right) = \nu - \lambda \frac{d\nu}{d\lambda}. \quad (\nu = \omega \frac{c}{n})$$

P. 7.24.

$$\therefore \omega = \frac{c}{n} k \quad \therefore k = \frac{n\omega}{c}$$

$$\therefore dk = \frac{1}{c} dw + \frac{\omega}{c} dn.$$

$$\therefore v_g = \frac{dw}{dk} = \frac{1}{\frac{dk}{dw}} = \frac{1}{\frac{n}{c} + \frac{\omega}{c} \frac{dn}{dw}} = \frac{c}{n + \omega(dn/dw)}$$

P 7.25. the group index of refraction is

$$n_g = \cancel{v_g}$$

frequency

$$\therefore v_g = \frac{c}{n + \omega(dn/dw)} \quad (\text{P. 7.24}) \quad \omega = 2\pi\nu \quad dw = 2\pi d\nu.$$

$$\therefore n_g = n + \omega \frac{dn}{dw} = n(\nu) + 2\pi \nu \frac{dn}{d\nu} \frac{d\nu}{dw} = n(\nu) + \nu \frac{dn(\nu)}{d\nu}$$

Q2: a) Hecht P.7.29.

$$\therefore \omega^2 = \omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2 \quad \omega = \sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}$$

$$\therefore \text{phase velocity } v_\phi = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}}{k}$$

$$\text{group velocity } v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{c^2 \cdot 2k}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}} = \frac{c^2 k}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}}$$

$$\therefore v_\phi v_g = c^2.$$

to draw the dispersion graph, we need to know the curve is increase or decrease, curve upwards or downwards.

from $\omega = \sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}$, and $v_g = \frac{c^2 k}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}} = \frac{d\omega}{dk} > 0$. we know that ω is increased when k increase. There are two ways to know the curve is curved upwards or downwards, one is similar with shown on Hecht. Page 298, Figure 7.20, just here we compare $\omega - \omega_p/k$ with v_g . instead instead of $v_\phi = \frac{\omega}{k}$ with v_g . the other is to calculate comparing

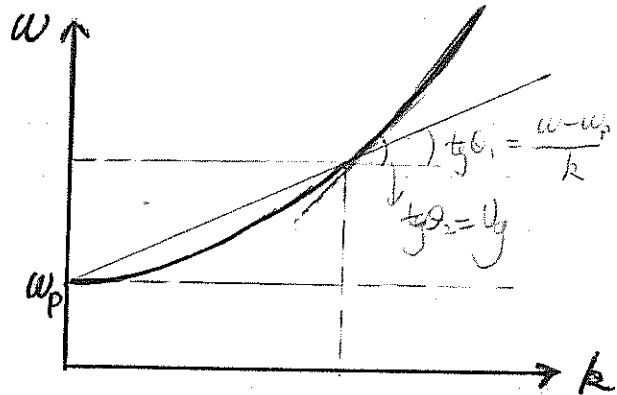
the second order derivative of $\omega(k)$, that is $\frac{d\omega''}{dk}$ or $\frac{dv_g}{dk}$. I'll show both approaches.

▷ compare $\frac{\omega - \omega_p}{k}$ with v_g

$$\frac{\omega - \omega_p}{k} - v_g = \frac{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2} - \omega_p}{k} - \frac{c^2 k}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}} = \frac{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2 - \omega_p \sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2} - c^2 k^2}{k \sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}}$$

$$= \frac{\omega_p (\omega_p - \sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2})}{k \sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}} = \frac{\omega_p \left(\frac{\omega_p}{k} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\omega_p}{k}\right)^2 + c^2} \right)}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}} < 0$$

$\therefore \gamma_g > \frac{\omega - \omega_p}{k}$



2) To calculate $\frac{d\omega}{dk}$ to determine its sign.

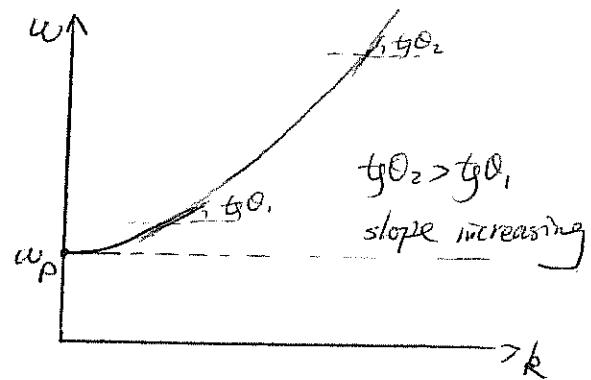
$$\gamma_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk} = \frac{c^2 k}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \frac{d\omega}{dk} &= \frac{d\gamma_g}{dk} = \frac{c^2}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}} + c^2 k \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{2c^2 k}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2} \cdot (\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2)} \\ &= \frac{c^4 k^2 + c^2 \omega_p^2 - c^4 k^2}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}} = \frac{c^2 \omega_p^2}{\sqrt{\omega_p^2 + c^2 k^2}} > 0 \end{aligned}$$

∴ the curve is curved upwards. (actually, this means the slope of the curve is increased with the increase of k)

- * There is a cut-off frequency because there is no real solution for the wave number k when $\omega < \omega_p$, here ω_p is the cut-off frequency. Remember what is discussed in PS #1 question 3 part b), when k is imaginary, this

means the light is reflected, the wave is evanescent. The Kramers-Kroning



relation connects the real and imaginary part of the index of refraction. It applies not only when the light is absorbed, but also when the light is evanescent. In Kramers-Kronig relationship,

shown in the right figure, the dispersion, that is

$\frac{dn(\nu)}{d\nu}$, or the slope of real part curve, becomes

maximum when the absorption is maximum. That is

when $\nu = \nu_0$. At $\nu = \nu_0$, $\frac{dk(\nu)}{d\nu} = 0$, the change in the imaginary part is

minimum when the change in the real part is maximum. As the

light "more evanescent", the light is more dispersion. Analogue to ~~the~~

the case in ~~the~~ this question, when the frequency gets more closer

to the cut-off frequency ω_p , the change in the refraction ~~index~~ index

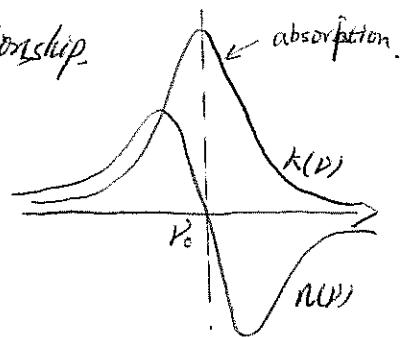
$\frac{dn}{d\omega}$ gets larger, means more dispersion. At $\omega = \omega_p$, $\frac{dn}{d\omega} \rightarrow \infty$, the largest dispersion.

b) the phase velocity is defined as $v_p = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{c}{n(\omega)}$ $\therefore \omega = \frac{ck}{n(\omega)}$

or $\frac{ck}{\omega} = n(\omega)$

the group velocity is defined as $v_g = \frac{dw}{dk} = \frac{d \frac{ck}{n(\omega)}}{dk} = \frac{c}{n + \omega \frac{dn}{d\omega}}$ (Q1)

for dispersion equation: $n^2(\omega) = 1 + \frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e} \gtrless \frac{f_i}{\omega_g^2 - \omega^2} = 1 + \frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2} \gtrless \frac{f_i}{\left(\frac{\omega_g^2}{\omega^2} - 1\right)}$



$$\tilde{n}(\nu) = n(\nu) + ik(\nu)$$

at very high frequency, $\omega \gg \omega_{\text{ej}} \Rightarrow \frac{\omega_{\text{ej}}}{\omega} \ll 1 \Rightarrow \frac{\omega_{\text{ej}}^2}{\omega^2} \ll 1$

$$\therefore n^2(\omega) \approx 1 - \frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2} \sum_j f_j = 1 - \frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2} \quad (\text{with } f_j \text{ weight factor}, \sum_j f_j = 1)$$

$$\therefore n(\omega) \approx \sqrt{1 - \frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\omega_p^2}{\omega^2}} \quad \text{with } \omega_p^2 = \frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e}$$

at very high frequency $\omega \gg \omega_p$. $\therefore \frac{\omega_p^2}{\omega^2} \ll 1 \Rightarrow \sqrt{1 - x^2} \approx 1 - \frac{x^2}{2}$
for $x \ll 1$

$$\therefore n(\omega) \approx 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(-\frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2} \right) = 1 - \frac{Nq_e^2}{2\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2} \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$\therefore \frac{dn(\omega)}{d\omega} = -\frac{Nq_e^2(-2)}{2\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^3} = \frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^3} \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

$$\therefore V_g = \frac{c}{n(\omega) \frac{dn(\omega)}{d\omega}} \stackrel{(1)(2)}{=} \frac{c}{1 - \frac{Nq_e^2}{2\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2} + \omega \frac{Nq_e^2}{\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^3}}$$

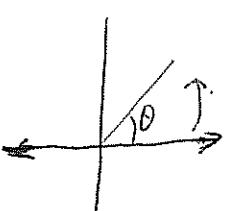
$$= \frac{c}{1 + \frac{Nq_e^2}{2\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2}} \quad \sim \quad \text{group velocity}$$

$$\text{the phase velocity } V_\phi = \frac{c}{n(\omega)} = \frac{c}{1 - \frac{Nq_e^2}{2\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2}}$$

$$\therefore V_g V_\phi = \frac{c^2}{1 - \left(\frac{Nq_e^2}{2\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2} \right)^2} \approx c^2 \quad \left(\frac{Nq_e^2}{2\epsilon_0 M_e \omega^2} \ll 1 \text{ for } \omega \text{ very high} \right)$$

Q3: a) To prove Malus's Law with Jones Matrix, we need first

to find out the Jones matrix for a linear polarizer at θ .

 this can be achieved by acting the rotation matrix on the one for horizontal linear polarizer. The rotation matrix is

$$R(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

thus the Jones matrix for a linear polarizer along θ is.

$$\begin{aligned} P(\theta) &= R(\theta)P(0)R(-\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 \\ \sin\theta & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2\theta & \cos\theta\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta\cos\theta & \sin^2\theta \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

For a horizontal polarized light, the light passing through such a polarizer,

Q: $\tilde{E}_t = \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2\theta & \cos\theta\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta\cos\theta & \sin^2\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2\theta \\ \cos\theta\sin\theta \end{bmatrix} = \cos\theta \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$ along θ direction

- The intensity $\propto |\tilde{E}_t|^2 = \cos^2\theta$, so there is a $\frac{1}{2}$ the intensity reduces as a factor of $\cos^2\theta$, where θ is the angle between the linearly polarized light and linear polarizer.

a) easier way: Instead of calculating $P(\theta)$, you can also assume the polarizer is horizontally polarized, while the incident light is polarized at angle θ . The Jones vector for such polarized light is

$$\hat{E}_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{passing through horizontal linear polarizer, the}$$

~~the~~ passed light is

$$\hat{E}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \cos\theta \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ polarized along horizontal.}$$

but the intensity is $\cos^2\theta \propto |\hat{E}_t|^2$, thus a $\cos^2\theta$ decrease.

b). Hecht P 8.17. The Jones vector for a linear polarized light at θ is $E_1 \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$. from Table 8.6 P_{318} , the this light passing

through horizontal linear polarizer and vertical linear polarizers the transmitted light is.

$$\hat{E}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} E_1 \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix} = E_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \therefore I_2 = 0$$

if insert a linear polarizer whose transmission direction is $+45^\circ$.

$$\text{thus: } \hat{E}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} E_1 \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{E_1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

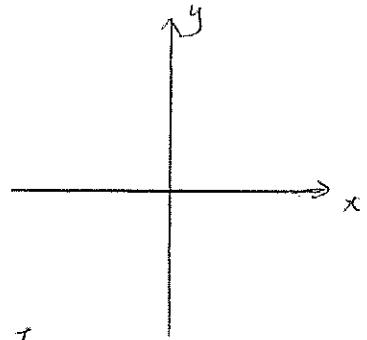
$$= \frac{E_1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} = \frac{E_1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} = \frac{E_1 \cos\theta}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore I_2 \propto \left| \frac{\cos\theta}{2} E_1 \right|^2 = \frac{\cos^2\theta}{4} I_1$$

c). Hecht P 8.18.

For natural light is unpolarized light, it's x component and y component of E -field has the same amplitude.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{but no phase relationship. Thus the intensity } I_{\text{natural}} &= I_x + I_y \\ &= 2I_x = 2I_y \end{aligned}$$



So the intensity transmitted from the first linear polarizer (at 0°) is $I_{0^\circ} = \frac{1}{2} I_{\text{natural}} = 500 \text{ W/cm}^2$, the Jones vector for this polarized light is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Then I_{50° passing through a polarizer aligned at 50° from the previous problem, we know that $\overset{(a)}{P(0)}$ the Jones matrix for such a polarizer is:

$$P(0) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2\theta & \sin\theta\cos\theta \\ \sin\theta\cos\theta & \sin^2\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

thus the light transmitted is:

$$\vec{E}_{50^\circ} = P(50^\circ) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2 50^\circ & \sin 50^\circ \cos 50^\circ \\ \sin 50^\circ \cos 50^\circ & \sin^2 50^\circ \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \cos 50^\circ \begin{bmatrix} \cos 50^\circ \\ \sin 50^\circ \end{bmatrix}$$

The transmitted intensity is:

$$I_{50^\circ} = \cos^2 50^\circ I_{0^\circ} \approx 0.41 I_0 \approx 206.6 \text{ W/cm}^2$$

If there is a third polarized placed between them, along 25° . Then the

transmitted field turns out to be.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{E}_t &= P(50^\circ) P(25^\circ) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2 50^\circ & \sin 50^\circ \cos 50^\circ \\ \sin 50^\circ \cos 50^\circ & \sin^2 50^\circ \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2 25^\circ & \sin 25^\circ \cos 25^\circ \\ \sin 25^\circ \cos 25^\circ & \sin^2 25^\circ \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \cos 25^\circ \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2 50^\circ & \sin 50^\circ \cos 50^\circ \\ \sin 50^\circ \cos 50^\circ & \sin^2 50^\circ \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos 25^\circ \\ \sin 25^\circ \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \cos 25^\circ \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2 50^\circ \cos 25^\circ + \sin 50^\circ \cos 50^\circ \sin 25^\circ \\ \sin 50^\circ \cos 50^\circ \cos 25^\circ + \sin^2 50^\circ \sin 25^\circ \end{bmatrix} = \cos^2 25^\circ \begin{bmatrix} \cos 50^\circ \\ \sin 50^\circ \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

∴ The transmitted field has an intensity

$$I_t = (\cos 25^\circ)^2 I_0 = 337.3 \text{ W/m}^2$$

Problem 3 (b) and (c) shows us, we can always increase the transmitted intensity by rotating the polarization step by step. Part d) will discuss how far this approach can go.

d) There are N polarizers placed in sequence, with the angle between the 1st and the N th polarizer is $\frac{\pi}{2}$, and the angle between the two neighbour polarizer is $\frac{\pi}{2(N-1)}$. According Malus's Law, the light passing through two linear polarizer with angle θ , the intensity will be reduced by a factor $\cos^2 \theta$. Thus, when light passing through N polarizer angled $\frac{\pi}{2(N-1)}$, the intensity will be $\left[\cos^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2(N-1)}\right)\right]^N$. If $N=2$, that is the case that the light passing through two perpendicular polarizer,

$$I_{\text{out}} = \left[\cos^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right]^2 I_{\text{in}} = 0.$$

$(N=2)$

when $N \rightarrow \infty$, $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} I_{\text{out}} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left[\cos^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2(N-1)}\right)\right]^N I_{\text{in}} = I_{\text{in}}$.

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi}{2(N-1)} \rightarrow 0 \quad \cos^2(0^\circ) \rightarrow 1 \quad (1)^N = 1$$

Q4: a) birefringent material, 2 polarizations have E fields in different directions; interaction of E fields with the different direction in the material \Rightarrow EM wave sees different indices of refraction, n_o and n_e (ordinary and extraordinary).
 say here that $n_e < n_o$ and n_e along \vec{x} , n_o along \vec{y} .
 light input with \vec{E} polarized at θ , so theres is a decomposition into $\vec{E} = E_x \vec{x} + E_y \vec{y} = E_{\text{cos}\theta} \vec{x} + E_{\text{sin}\theta} \vec{y}$.
 $v_p = \frac{c}{n}$, so v_p (ordinary) $< v_p$ (extraordinary)
 for length of material L, the optical path-length is nL .
 so for a fixed length, the ordinary component sees a greater optical path length than does the extraordinary component. ~~thus~~
 Thus the ordinary component emerges with a phase retardation

$$\phi = kz - \omega t = \phi(z, t) \quad k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \quad \lambda = \frac{\lambda_0}{n_o}$$

So phase difference is.

$$\Delta\phi = k_o L - k_e L = \frac{2\pi L}{\lambda_0} (n_o - n_e)$$

When this phase difference is π , we call it a half-wave plate. i.e. $\pi_L = \frac{2\pi L}{\lambda_0} (n_o - n_e)$

$$L = \frac{\lambda_0}{2} \frac{1}{n_o - n_e}$$

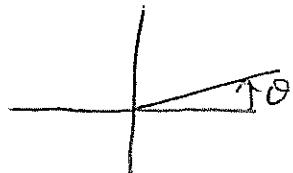
Here, after propagation. $\vec{E} = E \cos \theta \hat{x} + E \sin \theta \hat{y}$ becomes

$$\vec{E} = E \cos \theta \hat{x} - E \sin \theta \hat{y} = E \cos(-\theta) \hat{x} + E \sin(-\theta) \hat{y}.$$

comes from the π phase shift.

as if if the polarization along $-\theta$.

Thus a linear polarized light incident

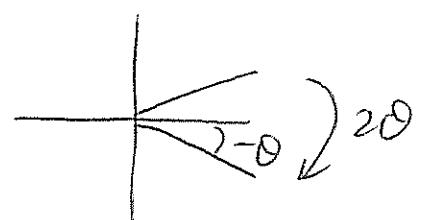


to a θ half wave plate with the angle

and the optical axes
between the polarization θ , it will

be rotated by 2θ after this half wave

plate. Thus, if one want to rotate the angle



α of a linear polarized light, the what to do is to put
~~the~~ a half wave plate in front of the light ~~or~~ with its optical
axes angled $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ to the polarization of the light.

Faraday Effect: In Faraday medium, the light can be regarded as
componeneted by right-handed circularly polarized light and left-handed
circularly polarized light. $\vec{E} = E_{RHC} \hat{e} + E_{LHC} e^{i\omega t} \hat{j}$

If the input light is RHC or LHC polarized, only one component exist, so
the polarization state is unchanged. This is similarly to ~~the~~ a linear
polarized light passing through a linear polarizer with its transmission directio
parallel to the polarization direction of incident light.

Thus, after propagation

$$\vec{E} = E \cos \theta \hat{x} + E \sin \theta \hat{y}$$

becomes, relatively

$$\vec{E} = E \cos \theta \hat{x} - E \sin \theta \hat{y}$$

$$= E \cos(-\theta) \hat{x} + E \sin(-\theta) \hat{y}$$

as if the polarization were at $-\theta$

Thus the polarization has rotated
through a total angle of $\underline{2\theta}$.

*
 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ fast axis is horizontal
or vertical

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ eigenvector with eigenvalue +1

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ eigenvector with eigenvalue -1

- 4(b) The light interacts with electrons which are affected by the magnetic field. RHC light and LHE light interact differently because RHC can resonantly drive electrons in cyclotron orbits while LHC cannot.

Thus there is different dispersion for the two ~~polarizations~~ polarizations, and so it is dispersion that leads to different indices of refraction, n_L and n_R . (It is basically the same for linear polarizations since the two directions in the crystal have different electron "spring constant".)

b) we have these eigenstates

$$\text{LHC: } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \quad \tau^-$$

BREAK SYMMETRY

$$\text{RHC: } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix} \quad \sigma^+$$

⇒ NO LONGER
TREAT THE SAME

want to find ABCD such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = e^{i\theta} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix} = e^{-i\theta} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix}$$

NB we could make
the constants 1
and $e^{-2i\theta}$ only
the difference matters
the sign

ADD the two equations

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta} \\ i(-e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) \end{bmatrix}$$

thus

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ -\sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \\ C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ -\sin\theta \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} A = \cos\theta \\ C = -\sin\theta \end{array}$$

SUBTRACT the two eqns

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta} \\ i(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2i \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 2i \begin{bmatrix} \sin\theta \\ \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

) cont'd

5

$$\begin{bmatrix} B \\ D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \sin \theta \quad D = \cos \theta$$

Thus our matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} = R(\theta)$$

But this is the rotation matrix! Does this make sense?

Sure, when two circular polarizations propagate in free space, they make linearly polarized light of a fixed orientation.

BUT if we rotate our axes this discriminates between the two chiralities (handedness) LEFT and RIGHT — the rotation advances the phase of one circular polⁱⁿ and retards the phase of the other.

So a rotation of θ adds phase θ to one, subtracts phase θ from the other; the relative phase difference is 2θ , and that's exactly what's needed to rotate the linear polarization by θ .

Our magnetic field does this in the ionosphere — the phase speeds are different for RHC and LHC, so the linearly polarized light stays linear but steadily rotates orientation

and their dispersion relations differ, to cause
ne and no!)

Then with any linearly polarized light
decomposed into RHC and LHC with some
phase difference:

$$\vec{E} = E(\sigma^+ e^{i\delta} + \sigma^-)$$

26

$$\begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \rightarrow = \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \text{circle} \\ \vdots \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \text{circle} \\ \vdots \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \rightarrow \\ \rightarrow = \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} -\sigma^+ \\ -\sigma^- \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} -\sigma^+ \\ -\sigma^- \end{array}$$

RHC LHC

generally

$$\begin{array}{c} \rightarrow \\ \rightarrow = \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \text{circle} \\ -\sigma^+ \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \text{circle} \\ -\sigma^- \end{array}$$

RHC LHC

$$= \sigma_+ e^{i\theta} + \sigma_- e^{-i\theta}$$

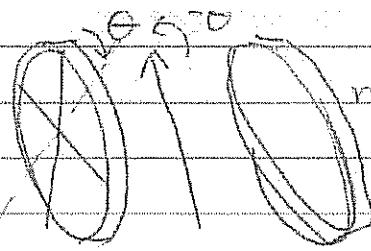
If we cause an additional phase delay of σ^+
relative to σ^-

$$\begin{aligned} & \sigma_+ e^{i\theta} + \sigma_- e^{-i\theta} e^{i\delta} \\ &= (\sigma_+ e^{i(\theta-\delta/2)} + \sigma_- e^{-i(\theta-\delta/2)}) e^{i\delta/2} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\theta \rightarrow \theta - \delta/2$: we cause a rotation
of $-\delta/2$ in the linear polarization state.

Thus to rotate by α , must delay by 2α
 σ_+ and σ_- are unchanged except for a phase $-$

$\text{c) } \underline{\text{HWP}}$



① Incoming polarized at angle θ
Leaves HWP at $-\theta$

Half waveplate

Input at angle θ

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ -\sin \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

② hits mirror, goes back to waveplate
again hits at angle $+\theta$ (turn around
directionally)

HWP

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & -\cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

③ exits at $+\theta$,
but this is same orientation
it went in at

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ -\sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \text{ z off reflector}$$

goes back

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ +\sin \theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ -\sin \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

same state but
with z reversed
(see comment at bottom)

So double-passing HWP leaves the polarization unchanged.

d) Faraday

Faraday

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ -\sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \cos \alpha + \sin \theta \sin \alpha \\ -\cos \theta \sin \alpha + \sin \theta \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

mirror reverses z, so y flips also

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \cos \alpha + \sin \theta \sin \alpha \\ \cos \theta \sin \alpha - \sin \theta \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

but now the angle α of the Faraday element is $-\alpha$,
when z changes direction (RHC \rightarrow LHC & LHC \rightarrow RHC)

d) (cont'd)

7

Thus, going backwards

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\alpha & -\sin\alpha \\ \sin\alpha & \cos\alpha \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \cos\alpha + \sin\theta \sin\alpha \\ \cos\theta \sin\alpha - \sin\theta \cos\alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos\alpha(\cos\theta \cos\alpha + \sin\theta \sin\alpha) - \sin\alpha(\cos\theta \sin\alpha - \sin\theta \cos\alpha) \\ \sin\alpha(\cos\theta \cos\alpha + \sin\theta \sin\alpha) + \cos\alpha(\cos\theta \sin\alpha - \sin\theta \cos\alpha) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (\cos^2\alpha - \sin^2\alpha) \cos\theta + 2\cos\alpha \sin\alpha \sin\theta \\ (\sin^2\alpha - \cos^2\alpha) \sin\theta + 2\sin\alpha \cos\alpha \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\alpha) \cos\theta + \sin(2\alpha) \sin\theta \\ \sin(2\alpha) \cos\theta - \cos(2\alpha) \sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

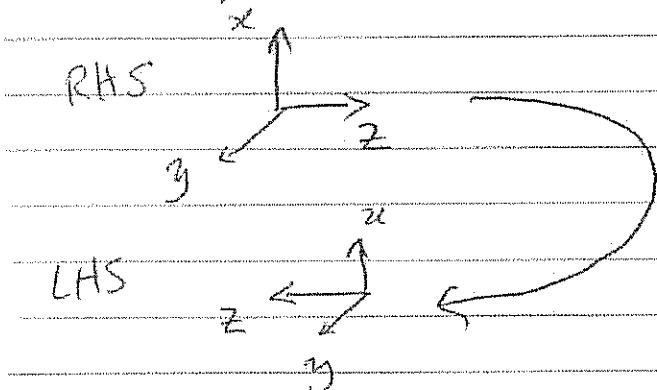
which we can recognize as the reflection ($z \rightarrow -z$)
of:

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos 2\alpha & \sin 2\alpha \\ -\sin 2\alpha & \cos 2\alpha \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

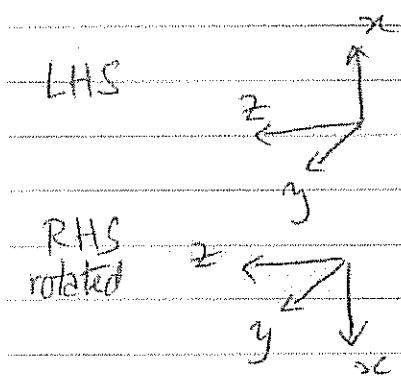
i.e. the original
polarization rotated
by 2α & then
reversed.

Comment on reversing on reflection

On reflection, a right-hand coordinate system becomes a mirror image — a left-hand coordinate system.



We can rotate our LH coordinate system, ^{around y} so that \hat{z} agrees, we see:



So a reflection this way means our x -component changes sign in the R.H coordinate system

(we could have changed y instead)

For this reason also, right-hand circular polarized light becomes left-hand circular polarized light.