

Note that there are **two** definitions of the sinc function in common use:

$$\frac{\sin(\pi x)}{\pi x} \equiv \text{sinc}(x)$$

This definition is used in this course and has zeros at 0 and  $x=n$  where  $n$  is an integer.

It has the convenient normalization  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \text{sinc}(x) dx = 1$

The alternative definition, which has zeros at 0 and  $n\pi$  is:

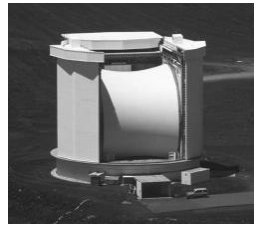
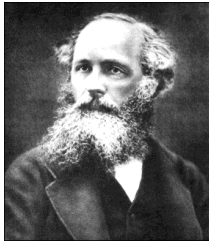
$$\frac{\sin(x)}{x} \equiv \text{sinc}(x)$$

so  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \text{sinc}(x) dx = \pi$

## PHY2208 Lecture 16

Introduce **polarization** phenomena  
Review basics of EM radiation  
Describe linear and circular polarization in terms of EM theory

Y&F section 34-6  
Pedrotti & Pedrotti 8-7, Ch.14 (intro & sec 1)



In the 19<sup>th</sup> century James Clerk Maxwell unified electricity and magnetism. His equations clearly predicted the existence of electromagnetic (EM) radiation comprising coupled time- and space-varying electric and magnetic fields. EM waves have the following properties:

EM waves are transverse i.e  $\mathbf{E}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are orthogonal to the wave propagation direction.

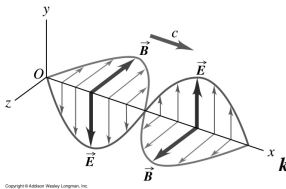
$\mathbf{E}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are mutually orthogonal i.e.  $\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$

Since  $\mathbf{E}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  each satisfy a wave equation we can find plane wave solutions of the form:

$$\mathbf{E} = E_0 \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \hat{\mathbf{e}} \quad (\text{ditto for } \mathbf{B})$$

$\mathbf{E}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are always in phase (in vacuo)

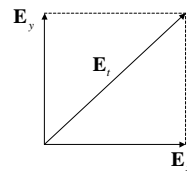
$$|\mathbf{E}| / |\mathbf{B}| = c \text{ so } |\mathbf{B}| \ll |\mathbf{E}|$$



$\mathbf{E}$  can clearly have any orientation within a plane perpendicular to  $\mathbf{k}$  (ditto for  $\mathbf{B}$ )

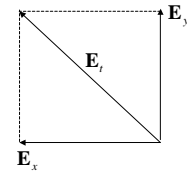
**Polarization** effects arise because  $\mathbf{E}$  can point in different directions (all perpendicular to  $\mathbf{k}$ ).

Consider the interference of two EM waves whose  $\mathbf{E}$ -vectors are in orthogonal polarization states. The magnitude of the  $\mathbf{E}$ -field must be calculated as the **vector sum** of the individual fields.



in-phase case

$$|\mathbf{E}_t| = \sqrt{E_x^2 + E_y^2}$$



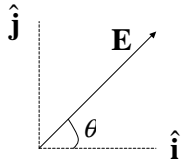
anti-phase case

$$|\mathbf{E}_t| = \sqrt{E_x^2 + E_y^2}$$

Magnitude of  $E_t$  is the same regardless of whether the two waves are in-phase or in antiphase: Orthogonally polarized light waves **cannot** produce destructive interference.

Since  $E$  is a vector, we can resolve it into two orthogonal components i.e.

$$\mathbf{E} = E_x \hat{\mathbf{i}} + E_y \hat{\mathbf{j}}$$



$$E_x = |\mathbf{E}| \cos \theta$$

$$E_y = |\mathbf{E}| \sin \theta$$

The  $E$  component of any general EM wave can be decomposed into two orthogonally polarized EM waves.

For a harmonic plane wave consider the phase relationship between  $E_x$  and  $E_y$ . Must they vary in phase? No!

But first let's consider the case where  $E_x$  does vary in phase with  $E_y$ .

When  $E_x$  and  $E_y$  vary in phase and so the direction of  $E$  at any point  $r$  remains constant the light is **linearly polarized**.

Now let's consider that (somehow) the phase of  $E_y$  is retarded by  $\pi$  with respect to  $E_x$

The effect of retarding one component of linearly polarized light by  $\pi$  is to flip the direction of polarization into its mirror image.

Finally let's consider retarding one component by a phase of  $\pi/2$

The direction of the  $E$ -vector rotates with angular frequency  $\omega$ . This is **circularly polarized** (or, more generally **elliptically polarized**).